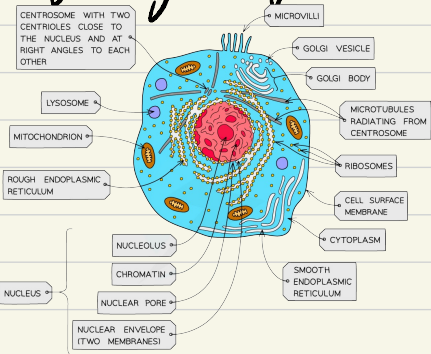




# cellular adaptation

**adaptive mechanisms** ~ adaption of cells to stress

- 1- hypertrophy
- 2- hyperplasia
- 3- Atrophy
- 4- Metaplasia

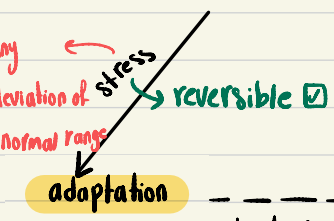


When changes occur they occur at the ultrastructural level of the cell → change in tissue → change in organs → change in human body

\* all normal cells lives in **homeostasis**

- Proteins
- PH
- Temp
- electrolytes

**Reversible injury**



injurious stimulus

inability to adapt  
 \* Prolonged \* severe  
 \* cell is diseased

**cell injury**

severe

**irreversible injury** → point of no return \* cell death

**Necrosis**

**apoptosis**

# Adaptations

## Physiological

normal, healthy adjustments that cells or tissues make in response to changes in their environment or increased demands

## Pathological

when cells or tissues adjust to abnormal or harmful conditions as a result of stress, injury or disease

## Forms of adaptation:

\* **hypertrophy** : increase in cell size

\* **atrophy** : decrease in cell size

\* **Hyperplasia** : increase in number of cells

\* **Metaplasia** : change into another type of cell

Reversible when stressful event is removed, cell will go back to normal

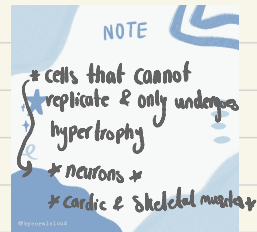
if stress is continued & cell is unable to adapt → cell injury

1 **hypertrophy** → increased size & functional capacity

↓  
↑ structural proteins    ↑ organelles    ↑ function



\* pure or mixed with hyperplasia → when they can replicate!!



## cardiac hypertrophy

\* in patients with hypertension & aortic valve stenosis heart has to pump blood against resistance

↑ workload → ↑ hypertrophy

\* can be pathological or physiological

\* Due to →  
① hormonal stimulation  
② Growth Factor stimulation  
③ increased functional demand

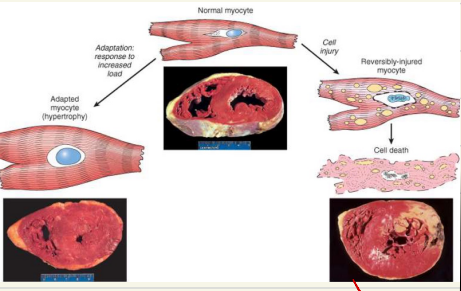
## Pathological hypertrophy

## Physiological hypertrophy

\* Cardiac muscles in hypertension & aortic stenosis

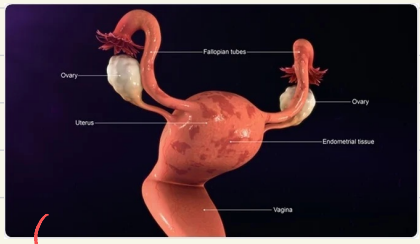
in hypertension heart has to pump blood against increased resistance in arteries; The left ventricle "the chamber of blood responsible for pumping oxygenated to body" thickens in response to increased workload in aortic stenosis.

aortic valve that allow blood to exit left ventricle becomes narrowed → forces heart to work much harder → left ventricle hypertrophy



in case of severe injury such as myocardial infarction "heart attack" → cell injury

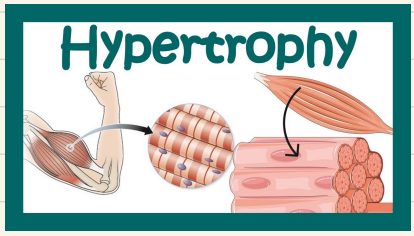
\* uterine smooth muscle in pregnancy can undergo both hypertrophy & hyperplasia



myometrial

reversible

\* skeletal muscle hypertrophy in athletes



★ Pure hypertrophy

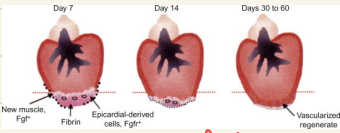
2. **hyperplasia** → increase in the number of cells

\* Tissues that have ability to proliferate \* pure or mixed

Physiological → reversible

\* Hormonal stimulation → Breast in Puberty & Pregnancy

\* Compensatory → liver after partial resection



↳ remaining hepatocyte proliferate

Pathologic → Sometimes increase risk of cancer

\* Excessive hormonal stimulation

↳ Endometrial hyperplasia, estrogen induced

lining of uterus → risk of cancer !!

\* Benign Prostatic hyperplasia, androgen induced → does not increase risk of virus

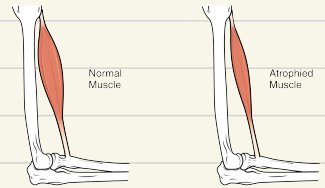
\* Viral infections → warts (HPV) → human papillomavirus

3. **Atrophy** → Decrease in cell size & function → ↓ protein synthesis

↑ degradation

↑ Autophagy

Note: Atrophic cells can still function



Causes: ① decrease workload: immobilization of a limb after fracture

neuropathy ② loss of innervations → Ex: diabetes, nerve injury → fracture, stab wounds

③ diminished blood supply

④ inadequate nutrition

⑤ loss of Endocrine stimulation → after menopause

⑥ Aging (senile atrophy)

## Physiological atrophy

\* loss of hormonal stimulation in menopause  
↳ endometrial atrophy

## Pathological atrophy

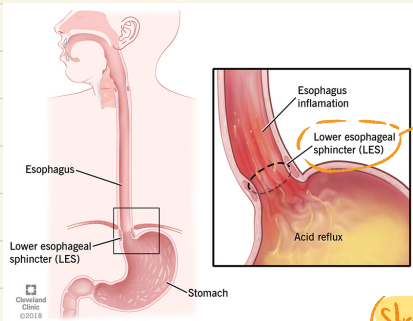
\* Denervation injury  
\* chronic ischemia  
\* chronic malnutrition

4 Metaplasia → change from one cell type to another → stem cells → reversible  
↳ functional cost  
↳ persistent change → cancer!!

Causes: ① Smoking → affects bronchial lining (ciliated pseudostratified columnar epithelium) → cilia & mucus is lost  
we lose protection of airways → stratified  
↑↑ risk of lung cancer

② Vitamin A deficiency → which is needed to differentiate epithelium → leads to squamous metaplasia of bronchi

③ GERD : Gastroesophageal reflux disease



this sphincter prevents reflux of acid which is harsh on the esophagus

loose sphincter → continuous exposure → lining of esophagus

(stratified squamous) changes into (glandular) with goblet cells

↑ risk of cancer

## Causes of cell injury

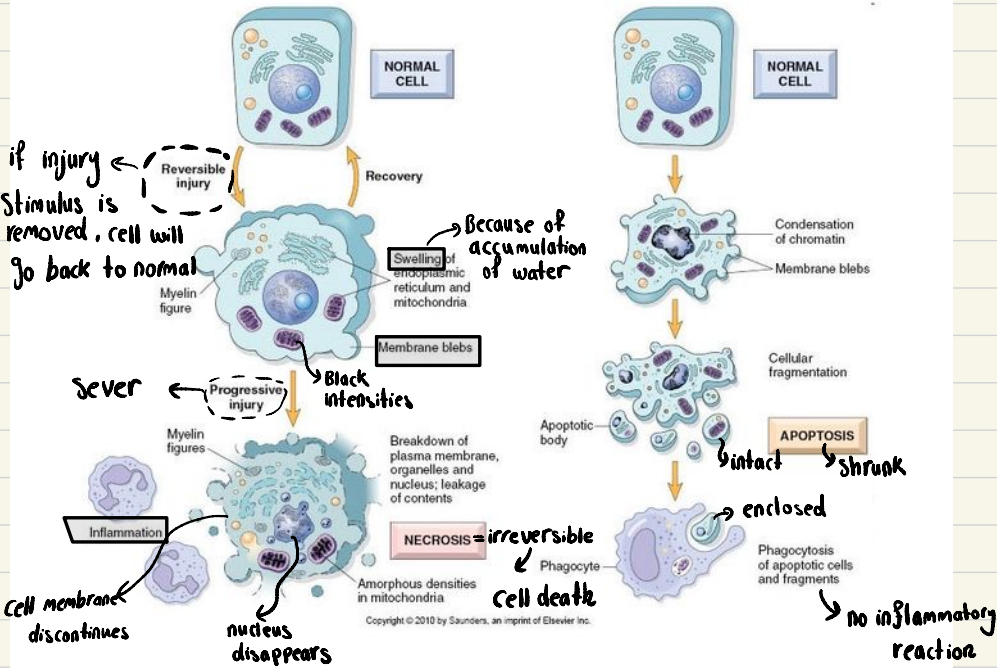
- ① Oxygen deprivation - hypoxia → ischemia, anemia, respiratory diseases
- ② Chemical agents → salt, sugar, pesticides, formaline
- ③ Infectious agents → viruses & bacteria
- ④ Immunologic reactions → allergy, autoimmune disease, microbes
- ⑤ Genetic factors → chromosomal abnormalities → down syndrome
- ⑥ Nutritional imbalances → malnutrition / excessive nutrition
- ⑦ Physical agents → trauma / electrical injury / thermal injury





# Reversible & irreversible cell injury

Recorded lec

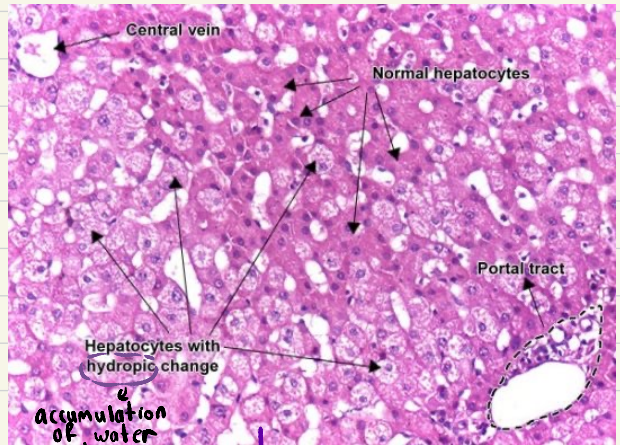


if damaging stimulus is removed in reversible injury → injured cells can return to normal

Morphology

cellular swelling → organ swelling

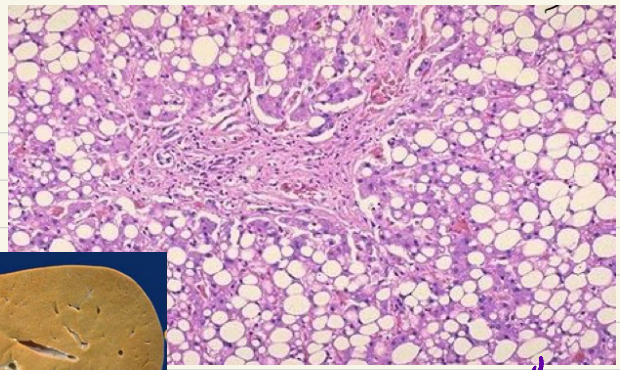
Slaty change



Swollen cell ← accumulation of  $\text{Na}^+$  ← failure of  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$  pump

accumulation of water ↓ whitish cytoplasm

Reversible damage - fatty change  
in organs involved in fat metabolism



reflected in  
macroscopic  
appearance

rich lipid  
droplets

**Other changes**; note: these changes can be seen in irreversible injury but much more severe

- 1- plasma membrane alterations (blebbing, blunting) - remember it remains intact
- 2- mitochondrial change (swelling & densities)
- 3- dialation of ER - deattachment of ribosomes
- 4- nuclear clumping of chromatin - nucleus still intact
- 5- cytoplasmic myelin figures - derived from phospholipid of altered plasma membrane & organelle membranes

### irreversible injury (necrosis)

- 1- irreversible Mitochondrial dysfunction → no ATP production - Mitochondria won't go back to normal
- 2- loss of plasma membrane and intracellular membrane → cellular enzyme leak out → they can gain access to blood stream
- 3- loss of DNA & chromatin structural integrity
- 4- local inflammation ★

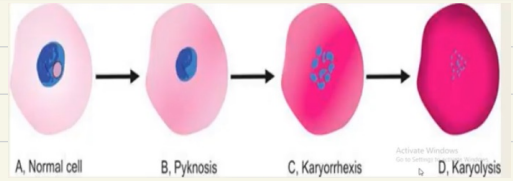


# irreversible injury Morphology

1. Increased cytoplasmic eosinophilia - more pink color - Eosin stain
  - ↳ lot of denatured proteins
  - ↳ decreased transcription ↓ RNA
  - ↳ Blue color
2. Marked dilation of ER, mitochondria
3. Mitochondrial densities
4. More myelin figures

## \* Nuclear changes \*

**Pyknosis:** shrinkage and increased basophilia



**Karyorrhexis:** fragmentation

**Karyolysis:** basophilia fades & degeneration of nuclear material

## Normal, reversible, irreversible cell injury

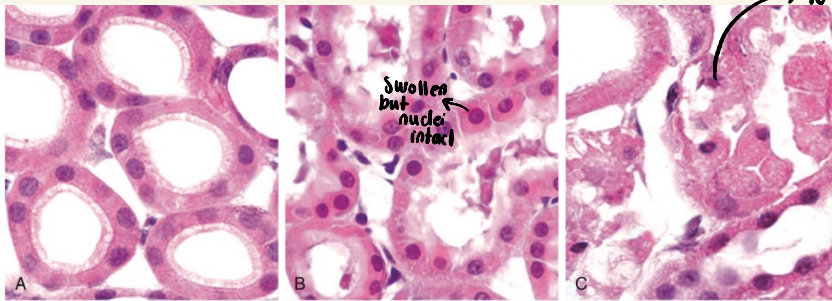


Fig. 2.4 Morphologic changes in reversible and irreversible cell injury (necrosis). (A) Normal kidney tubules with viable epithelial cells. (B) Early (reversible) ischemic injury showing surface blebs, increased eosinophilia of cytoplasm, and swelling of occasional cells. (C) Necrotic (irreversible) injury of epithelial cells, with loss of nuclei and fragmentation of cells and leakage of contents. (Courtesy of Drs. Neal Pinckard and M.A. Venkatachalam, University of Texas Health Sciences Center, San Antonio, Texas.)

# Cell death - different mechanisms depending on nature and severity of injury

## ① Necrosis

\* Rapid & uncontrollable

\* Severe disturbances: ischemia, toxins, infections & trauma

## ③ Necroptosis → mixture

## ② Apoptosis

\* less severe injury → weight, aging, loss of growth factors

\* regulated by genes & signaling pathways

\* precisely controlled

\* can be manipulated → chemotherapy

\* in healthy tissues → aged cells of skin

\* clean cell suicide → no inflammation

Table 2.1 Features of Necrosis and Apoptosis

Feature	Necrosis	Apoptosis
Cell size	Enlarged (swelling)	Reduced (shrinkage)
Nucleus	Pyknosis → karyorrhexis → karyolysis	Fragmentation into nucleosome-sized fragments
Plasma membrane	Disrupted	Intact; altered structure, especially orientation of lipids
Cellular contents	Enzymatic digestion; may leak out of cell	Intact; may be released in apoptotic bodies
Adjacent inflammation	Frequent	No
Physiologic or pathologic role	Invariably pathologic (culmination of irreversible cell injury)	Often physiologic means of eliminating unwanted cells; may be pathologic after some forms of cell injury, especially DNA and protein damage



loss of function ←  
is a feature of both  
reversible & irreversible  
injury

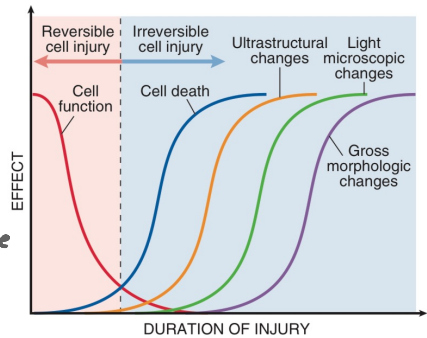


Fig. 2.5 The relationship among cellular function, cell death, and the morphologic changes of cell injury. Note that cells may rapidly become nonfunctional after the onset of injury, although they are still viable, with potentially reversible damage; with a longer duration of injury, irreversible injury and cell death may result. Note also that cell death typically precedes ultrastructural, light microscopic, and grossly visible morphologic changes.

## Clinical implications

leakage of intracellular proteins through damaged cell membrane & ultimately into circulation

Provides a means of detecting specific tissues necrosis using blood serum or samples

Cardiac enzymes

after myocardial ischemia  
we can detect cardiac enzymes

liver enzymes → hepatic toxicity, viral infections, hepatitis

## Morphologic patterns of tissue necrosis (Etiologic clues)

the way tissues look when they are necrotic can provide insights into what caused the tissue damage or death.

### I Coagulative necrosis

Conserved tissue architecture initially - damages proteins & enzymes → Block autolytic processes  
↳ Just for a few days

Enzyme dysfunction

\* leukocyte lysosomal enzymes & phagocytosis required for clearance

\* Anuclear eosinophilic on LM

\* wedge shaped

\* ischemia to all solid organ (infarction)  
(cause)  
except the brain

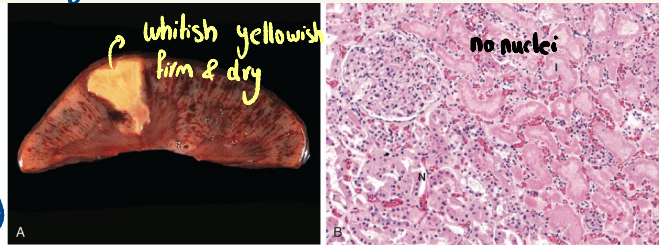


Fig. 2.6 Coagulative necrosis. (A) A wedge-shaped kidney infarct (yellow) with preservation of the outlines. (B) Microscopic view of the edge of the infarct, with normal kidney (N) and necrotic cells in the infarct (I). The necrotic cells show preserved outlines with loss of nuclei, and an inflammatory infiltrate is present (difficult to discern at this magnification).

## 2. liquefactive Necrosis

\* Focal infections by bacterial & fungal organisms

\* Pus

\* CNS infarct - Ischemia of brain

\* center liquefies and digested tissue is removed by phagocytosis

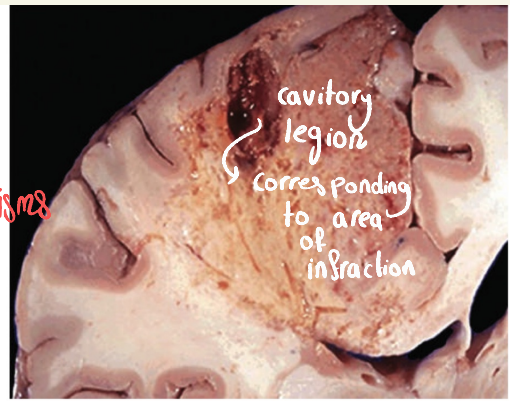
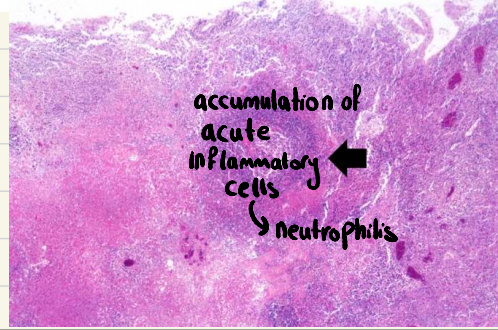


Fig. 2.7 Liquefactive necrosis. An infarct in the brain shows dissolution of the tissue.



## 3. Gangrenous necrosis

\* clinical term

\* coagulative necrosis to multiple tissues

\* Dry / wet  
without infection / with infection



Although **gangrenous necrosis** is not a distinctive pattern of cell death, the term is still commonly used in clinical practice. It usually refers to the condition of a limb (generally the lower leg) that has lost its blood supply and has undergone coagulative necrosis involving multiple tissue layers. When bacterial infection is superimposed, the morphologic appearance changes to liquefactive necrosis because of the destructive contents of the bacteria and the attracted leukocytes (resulting in so-called "wet gangrene").

## 4 Caseous necrosis → cheese like

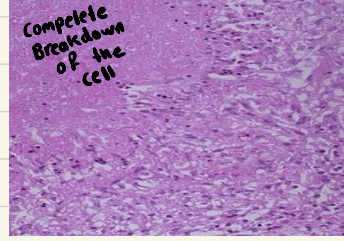
pic of unbreakable aka tough

↳ Tissue architecture is not preserved

Acellular center

Usually enclosed by collection of macrophages (granuloma)

\* TB \*



## 5 Fat necrosis

Occurs in acute pancreatitis

↳ Pancreatic lipases

↳ Local fat destruction

↳ released fatty acids combine with  $Ca^{2+}$  → saponification to produce whitish chalky appearance

\* shadows of necrotic fat cells

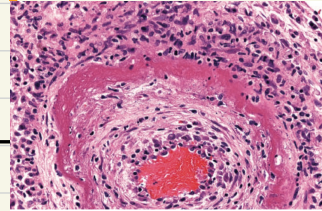
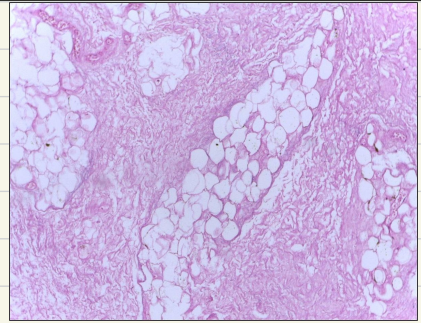


Fig. 2.10 Fibrinoid necrosis in an artery in a patient with polyarteritis nodosa. The wall of the artery shows a circumferential bright pink area of necrosis with protein deposition and inflammation.

## 6 Fibrinoid necrosis

\* Visible only microscopically

\* Deposit of antigen-antibodies and fibrin complexes in arterial walls

\* Seen in vasculitis (PAN) - autoimmune disease

\* Severe hypertension