

Cell Injury

Dr. Gary Mumaugh

Cellular Adaptation

- Altered cell biology can happen with injury, aging, neoplasia, adaptations, deficiencies, poisoning
- Adaptations can be physiologic or pathogenic
- •For example the normal change of the size of the uterus in pregnancy.
- Injuries can be reversible (sublethal) or irreversible (lethal)

- Cells adapt to the environment all the time, usually to protect themselves
- Cellular adaptations are a common part of most disease states
- Atrophy is decrease or shrinkage of cell size
 - Can affect any organ, but usually seen in skeletal muscle
 - Physiologic atrophy (Shrinking thymus in childhood)
 - Pathologic atrophy (decreased blood or nerve supply or nutrition, etc.)
 - Disuse atrophy (Immobilized muscles)

- Hypertrophy is increase in size of cells and ultimately the organ
 - Heart, liver, spleen, etc
 - The increased cell size is an accumulation of protein in the plasma membrane, myofilaments, endoplasmic reticulum and mitochondria and NOT with increased cell fluid.



Normal liver

Enlarged liver due to hepatomegaly





- Hyperplasia is an increase in the number of cells because of increased cell division
 - Compensatory hyperplasia is when organs regenerate (spleen and liver)
 - Hormonal hyperplasia occurs as a result of estrogen
 - Pathologic hyperplasia is usually caused by hormonal or growth factors

Compensatory Hyperplasia is common in the liver and spleen

- The liver, however, is able to replace damaged tissue with new cells.
- •The growth can be from increased cell size or cell division or both
- If up to 50 60 percent of the liver cells may be killed within 3 - 4 days in an extreme case like a Tylenol overdose, the liver will repair completely after 30 days if no complications arise.

- Complications of liver disease occur when regeneration is either incomplete or prevented by progressive development of scar tissue within the liver.
- This occurs when the damaging agent such as a virus, a drug, alcohol, etc., continues to attack the liver and prevents complete regeneration.

- The growth can be the result of increased cell size (compensatory hypertrophy) or an increase in cell division (compensatory hyperplasia) or both.
- Compensatory Hyperplasia also occurs when one kidney is removed, the other kidney grows to pick up the difference.
- Eventually, the remaining kidney can grow until it's mass is similar to the combined mass of two kidneys.
- Bone marrow hyperplasia occurs after massive hemorrhage



Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia

Normal prostate

Enlarged prostate

Metaplasia is a reversible of a mature cell to a less differentiated cell

- Smoking and Epithelial cells
 - Pseudostratified columnar epithelium before smoking and squamous epithelium after smoking





Dysplasia is abnormal changes in the size and shape of cells

- Dys = bad or difficult
- Plasia = formation
- Not a true adaptive process but is like hyperplasia and is often called atypical hyperplasia
 - Seen often in breast cancer development



Metaplasia Chronic injury or irritation Dysplasia Persistent severe injury or irritation

Normal Cells May Become Cancer Cells

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- Most diseases start with cell injury which messes with cell homeostasis
 - Reversible
 - Irreversible
- The extent of the injury depends on the type, and state of the cells, the adaptive process of the cells, the severity of the injury and duration of the injury

Causes of Cellular Injury Deficiency

- Deficiency- Lack of substance(s) necessary for cell's "health"
 - Primary Nutrient Deficiency- Cell doesn't get needed materials
 - Secondary Nutrient Deficiency- Nutrients are present in diet, but cannot be absorbed
 - May also be caused by...
 - Genetic Errors
 - Infections
 - Lack of adequate precursors of needed materials

Causes of Cellular Injury Intoxication

- Intoxication- Cell is exposed to a substance that interferes with normal function (a "toxin") a.k.a. "poisoning"
 - Exogenous Toxin- Comes from outside source
 - Pathogenic Microbes
 - Physical or Chemical Means (e.g. radiation, toxic chemicals, etc.)
 - Endogenous Toxin- Cell is producing something toxic to itself and/or other cells
 Defective Genes

Examples of defective genes:

- Huntington's- neurological dysfunction due to toxic substances
- PKU- phenylketones build up due to malfunctioning enzyme

Causes of Cellular Injury Trauma

- Trauma Physical damage to the cell's structural integrity
 - Trauma may also have many sources
 - Pathogenic Microbes
 - Defective Genes
 - Physical or Chemical Means
 - Mechanical Pressure
 - Oxygen Loss hypoxia and ischemia

Temperature changes can affect cells:
 Hypothermia- Cell gets too cold -- ice crystals forming in cytoplasm can physically damage cells
 Hyperthermia- Cell gets too hot -- many important molecules will denature

Unintentional and Intentional Injuries

- Blunt force injuries
 - Application of mechanical energy to the body resulting in the tearing, shearing, or crushing of tissues
 - Contusion (bruise) vs. hematoma (Blood in an enclosed space)
 - Abrasion
 - Laceration
 - Fractures

Unintentional and Intentional Injuries

Sharp injuries

- Incised wounds cut is longer than it is deep
- Stab wounds penetration is deeper than it is long
- Puncture wounds
- Chopping wounds

Gunshot Wounds

Unintentional and Intentional Injuries

Asphyxial injuries

- Caused by a failure of cells to receive or use oxygen
 - Suffocation
 - Choking asphyxiation
 - Strangulation
 - Hanging, ligature, and manual strangulation
 - Blocking of carotids 15 seconds= unconsciousness
 - Chemical asphyxiants
 - Cyanide and hydrogen sulfide
 - Drowning

Effects of Cellular Injury

- Effects may be **reversible** or **irreversible**
- •Usually affect cell's...
 - Function
 - Structure
- Effects of and response to injury determined by:
 - Nature of causing agent
 - Intensity of causing agent
 - Duration of causing agent
 - Number of exposures to causing agent

Reversible Changes: Functional

Adaptive Responses
Alternative Metabolism
Allow cell to adjust to conditions
i.e. aerobic → anaerobic cellular respiration

Reversible Changes: Functional • Adaptive Responses (cont.)

- Apoptosis- Programmed cell death
 - Programmed cellular death
 - Every day we can produce 10 billion new cells and kill off the same number
- Physiologic
 - Is important in body tissue development
- vs. Pathologic
 - The result of intracellular events or exogenous stimuli
- •Absence of apoptosis can cause pathologic change and gene mutation

Apoptosis vs. Necrosis

Redrawn from Damjanov I: Pathology for the health professions, ed 3, St Louis, 2006, Saunders.

Apoptosis: It's a Good Thing It Happens

Every day billions of cells commit suicide to make room for other new, healthy cells.

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APOPTOSIS

CRIME CELL: L

Cell Stress Proteins

- •Formed when cell exposed to adverse conditions
 - Trauma, temp/pH changes, toxins, nutrient depletion
- Prevent damaged proteins from clumping and forming insoluble tangles
- Cell stress proteins help in 3 ways:
 - 1.Bind to damaged proteins- easier to destroy
 - 2.Stabilize and enable to refold damaged proteins

3.Easier to pass through cell membrane and be expelled

Other Adaptive Changes Organelle Changes

 Make or destroy organelles depending on demand

Reversible Changes: Functional

- Cell and Tissue Accumulations
 - Hydropic Changes
 - Reduced ATP production decreases ion pump activity
 - Affect cell's ability to keep osmotic balance
 - •Water accumulation in vacuoles of cellsbecomes pale

Hydropic Change

 Hydropic change is one of the early signs of cellular degeneration in response to injury.
 refers to the accumulation of water in the cell. This is clearly seen in this slide.
 The accumulation of

The accumulation of water in the tubular cells is usually due to hypoxia of the tissue with a resultant decrease in aerobic respiration in the mitochondria and a decreased production ATP.

Fatty Changes

- Injury causes fats to accumulate in cells
 Most often in kidneys, heart, liver
- •FFAs (free fatty acids) accumulate in vacuoles of cells
- Can be caused by toxin damage or anoxia
- May cause cells to rupture
- Fatty changes occur in cells that metabolize a large amount of fat

Reversible Changes: Functional •Cell and Tissue Accumulations (cont.)

- Residual Body Accumulation
 - Happens when materials (bacteria, damaged organelles) are not properly digested by the cell
 - Lipofuscin Granules Residual bodies that contain undigested cell membrane lipids
 - Most often in neurons, liver, and myocardium
- Hyaline Changes
 - a.k.a. "hyalinization"
 - Deposition of hyaline around cells
 - Usually a good indication of cell damage elsewhere

Irreversible Changes: Structural

- More extreme structural changes
 - Plasma membrane distortion and increased permeability
 - Mitochondrial and ER breakdown
 - Fewer lysosome- released into cytoplasm
 - Altered nucleus most significant indicator of irreversible cell injury

Altered nucleus

- •Karyolysis- Nucleus fragments and disintegrates
- •**Pyknosis-** nucleus shrinks, condenses, or
- Karyorrhexis- Nucleus breaks up into densely staining fragments that disperse into cytoplasm

Irreversible Changes: Mechanism

- Organelle and plasma membrane damage leads to compromised permeability and cytoplasm- organizing functions
 - Sodium influx and cell swelling
 - Protein denaturation by high calcium concentrations
 - Activate damage causing enzymes
 - Decreased ATP production → anaerobic
 - Lower pH
 - Flawed protein synthesis
 - Disruption of cytoskeleton- form blebs

Permanent Effects of Cellular Injury

Necrosis - Cell death

- Lysosomal enzymes released after lethal injury
- Coagulative Necrosis
 - Kidneys, heart, and adrenal glands
 - Protein denaturation occurs causing albumin to change from a gel to a firm fibrotic substance

Coagulative Necrosis Ventriclar Wall - Note Infarctions

Necrosis

Liquefactive necrosis

- Neurons and glial cells of the brain
 usually from ischemia
- Hydrolytic enzymes
- Bacterial infection
 - Staphylococci, streptococci, and Escherichia coli

Liquefactive Necrosis

Necrosis

Caseous necrosis

- Tuberculous pulmonary infection
- •Combination of coagulative and liquefactive necrosis
- The dead cells disintegrate but the debris is not completely destroyed leaving granular cheesy clumps behind

Caseous Necrosis

Necrosis

Fat necrosis

- Breast, pancreas, and other abdominal organs
- Action of very powerful lipases which break down triglycerides and releases fatty acids which combine with calcium, magnesium and sodium and creates soaps (Saponification)

Fat Necrosis

From Damjanov I, Linder J, editors: Anderson's pathology, ed 10, St Louis, 1996, Mosby.

FAT NECROSIS

Fat necrosis in acute pancreatitis.

The areas of white chalky deposits represent foci of fat necrosis with calcium soap formation (saponification) at sites of lipid breakdown in the www.famesentery.esdental

Necrosis

Gangrenous necrosis

- Characterized by noxious products of anaerobic bacterial metabolism
- Death of tissue from severe hypoxic injury
 - Putrefaction- tissue damage due to reduced blood flow

Dry vs. wet gangrene

- Dry is a result of coagulative necrosis and skin is dry and wrinkled
- •Wet is when massive neutrophils invade the site causing liquefactive necrosis
- Gas gangrene
 - Clostridium

Gangrenous Necrosis

Thrombosis or embolism

Strangulated hernia

Volvulus

Intussusception

Gangrene

Review of Types of Necrosis

- Coagulative think "coagulate"
 - Albumin change causes coagulation
 - Kidneys, heart, adrenals
- Liquefactive think "liquid"
 - Usually in brain
- Caseous think "cheesy"
 - Usually in lungs as with TB
- Fat think "soapy" (saponification)
 - Usually in breast, pancreas and abdominal organs
- Gangrenous think "hypoxic" tissues

Types of Gangrene Dry vs. Wet

Dry Gangrene - the tissue is dying but there is no infection. **Commonly seen in** patients with vascular disease and in diabetics.

Wet Gangrene - the tissue is infected and wet and oozing pus and fluids

Diabetic Gangrene Mr. Deeds Foot

Permanent Effects of Cellular Injury

- Calcification- may occur in necrotic cells/tissues
 - Calcium deposits form in mitochondria → death
 - **Dystrophic Calcification** deposits start small and grow which lead to stiff, brittle cells/tissues
 - Metastatic Calcification
 - May occur in normal cells (not JUST necrotic cells)
 - Deposition happens because of hypercalcemia in the body

Vulnerability to Injury

- Tissues differ in vulnerability to injury depending on:
 - Ischemia- Loss of blood flow (oxygen) to a tissue/organ (e.g. stroke)
 - Some tissues/organs may tolerate ischemia for a period of time better than others
 - Intoxication- different toxins may affect and injure different tissue types
 - Ionizing Radiation DNA highly sensitive
 - Tissues with high mitotic rate affected more
 - Viral Infection- each virus has specific target cell
 - Disrupt cell from within

Testing for Cellular Injury in a Patient

Functional Loss

- Test for a physical and/or biochemical defect(s) in the patient
- Release of Cell Constituents
 - Certain cell constituents may be released into the bloodstream by damaged cells/tissues/organs (e.g. ions, enzymes, amino acids)

- Electrical activity
 - Any change from normal electrical pattern can be interpreted by tests
 - EEG: brain, ECG: heart, EMG: muscle
- Biopsy
 - Direct microscopic examination of a section of tissue believed to be diseased or damaged
 - Look for evidence of any type of injury or tumor

Somatic Death

- Death of an entire person is somatic death
- Postmortem changes
 - Algor mortis lowered temperature
 - Livor mortis gravity causes blood to pool in the lowest areas = purple
 - Rigor mortis muscle stiffening
 - Postmortem autolysis swelling and bloating of entire body with liquefactive changes

Livor Mortis – also Hypostasis Discoloration of the skin due to the pooling of blood in the dependent parts of the body following death. The blood pools because the heart can no longer circulate the blood. Gravity will make the blood settle and the areas where it settles turns to a dark blue or purple color, which is termed 'lividity'. Occurs within a few hours.

Rigor Mortis Can start within 10 minutes to a few hours

Rigor Mortis during Finals

