Cellular Adaptations

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Cellular Adaptations

Hyperplasia

Hypertrophy

Atrophy

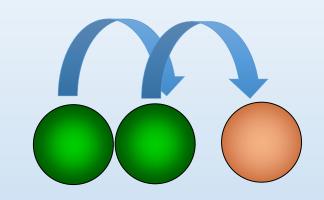
Metaplasia

How are these changes brought about?

Numerous molecular mechanisms

 Direct stimulation of cells by factors produced by responding cells or by other cells in the environment

 Activation of various cell surface receptors and downstream signaling pathways.





How are these changes brought about?

 Induction of new protein synthesis by target cells, in response of muscle cells to increased physical demand

Induction of cell proliferation

 Changing of type of proteins the cell produces as in chronic inflammation

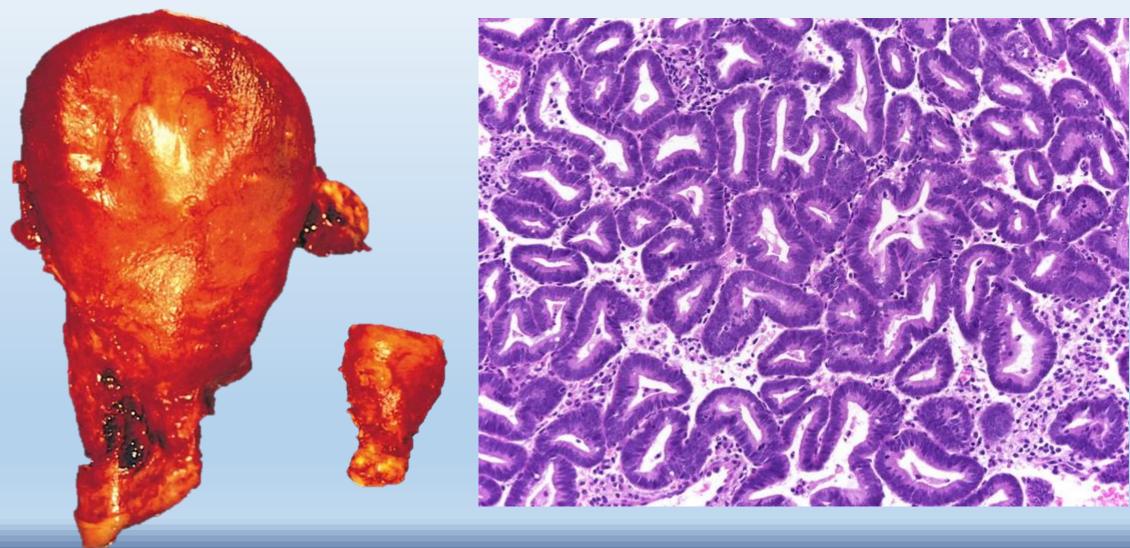
Hyperplasia

- Increase in the number of cells in an organ or tissue
- X → 4X
- Resulting in increased volume of the organ or tissue
- XL → 4XL
- Hyperplasia takes place if the cellular population is capable of synthesizing DNA
- Hyperplasia physiological
 pathological

Mechanisms of Hyperplasia.

- Caused by increased local production of growth factors
- Hormonal hyperplasia → hormones → growth factors
- increased levels of growth factor receptors on the responding cells,
- Increase in tissue mass by proliferation of remaining cells but also by the development of new cells from *stem cells*.

Hyperplasia of the uterus larger than normal due to increase number of cells



Hyperplasia

- Hyperplasia and hypertrophy are 2 distinct processes,
- Frequently occur together
- May be triggered by the same stimulus
- Eg. Hormone-induced growth in the uterus involves
- increased numbers of smooth muscle and epithelial cells and the enlargement of these cells.

Physiologic Hyperplasia

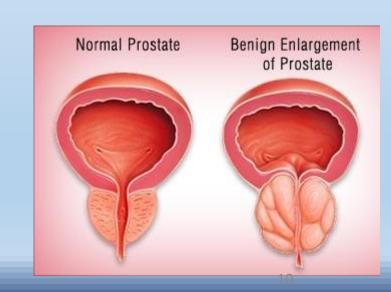
- Hormonal hyperplasia,
- Increases functional capacity of a tissue when needed
- E.g. proliferation of glandular epithelium of female breast at puberty and during pregnancy
- physiologic hyperplasia that occurs in the pregnant uterus.

- Compensatory hyperplasia
- Increases tissue mass after damage or partial resection



Pathologic Hyperplasia

- Caused by excessive hormonal stimulation or
- Growth factors acting on target cells.
- Eg. Benign prostatic hyperplasia with androgens.
- Endometrial hyperplasia with estrogens
- Though these forms of hyperplasia are abnormal, it regresses if the hormonal stimulation is eliminated.



Pathological Hyperplasia

 Response to normal regulatory control distinguishes benign pathologic hyperplasias from cancer.

 Pathologic hyperplasia, is a fertile soil in which a cancerous proliferation may eventually arise.

 Patients with hyperplasia of the endometrium are at higher risk for developing endometrial cancer

Pathologic Hyperplasia

• Hyperplasia is also important in connective tissue cells in wound

healing

Proliferating fibroblasts

Blood vessels aid in repair



- Hyperplasia associated with certain viral infections
- Papilloma viruses -



Hypertrophy

- Hypertrophy involves cell enlargement without cell division.
- Increase in the size of cells, resulting in an increase in the size of the organ.
- The hypertrophied organ has no new cells, just larger cells.

X cells → X cells

1 mg → X Kg





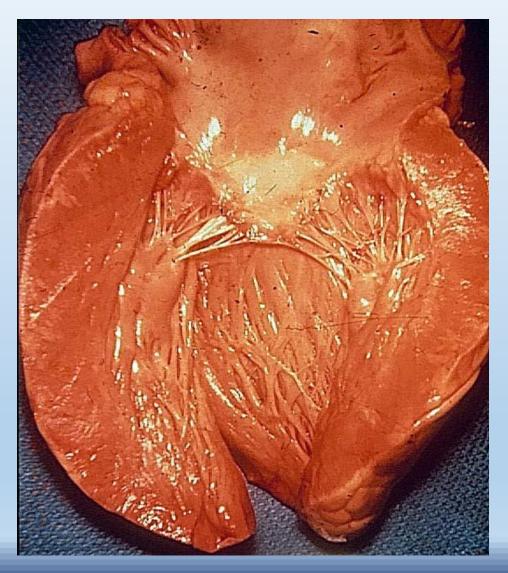
Hypertrophy

 The increased size of the cells is due not to cellular swelling but to the synthesis of more structural components.

 Cells able to divide respond to stress by undergoing both hyperplasia and hypertrophy

 Cells that cannot divide undergo hypertrophy (e.g., myocardial fibers)

Hypertrophic cardiac muscle



Hypertrophic skeletal muscle



Hypertrophy

Physiological

- Increased functional demand or hormonal stimulation.
- Striated muscle cells
- Heart
- skeletal muscles
- Commonest stimulus is increased workload.

Pathological

 Chronic hemodynamic overload

Systemic hypertension

Faulty heart valves

Mechanisms of Hypertrophy

- Cardiac muscle hypertrophy involves many signal transduction pathways
- Induction of a number of genes
- Induction of transcription factors
- growth factors (TGF-β, insulin-like growth factor-1 [IGF-1], fibroblast growth factor); and
- vasoactive agents (α -adrenergic agonists, endothelin-1, and angiotensin II).

Atrophy

An adaptive response
 culminate in cell death.

• When a sufficient number of cells are involved, the entire tissue or organ diminishes in size, or becomes atrophic.

Atrophy

- Atrophy physiologic pathologic
- Physiologic atrophy during early development.
- Embryonic structures, such as the notochord and thyroglossal duct, undergo atrophy during fetal development.
- Uterus shortly after parturition
 physiologic atrophy.

Common causes of atrophy - Pathological

- Inadequate nutrition
- Loss of endocrine stimulation
- Aging (senile atrophy)
- Pressure atrophy

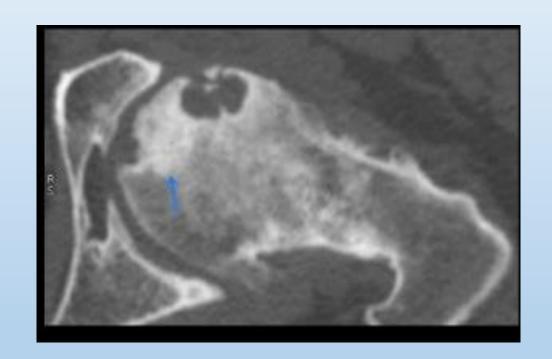
Disuse atrophy



Denervation atrophy



Loss of blood supply to femoral head



malnutrition_



Atrophy

- Although atrophic cells may have diminished function, they are <u>not</u> dead.
- However, atrophy may progress to the point at which cells are injured and die.
- In ischemic tissues, if blood supply is inadequate to maintain the life of shrunken cells, injury and cell death may occur.
- For eg. apoptosis contributes to the regression of endocrine organs after hormone withdrawal.

Mechanisms of Atrophy.

Increased protein degradation

Increases in the number of autophagic vacuoles.

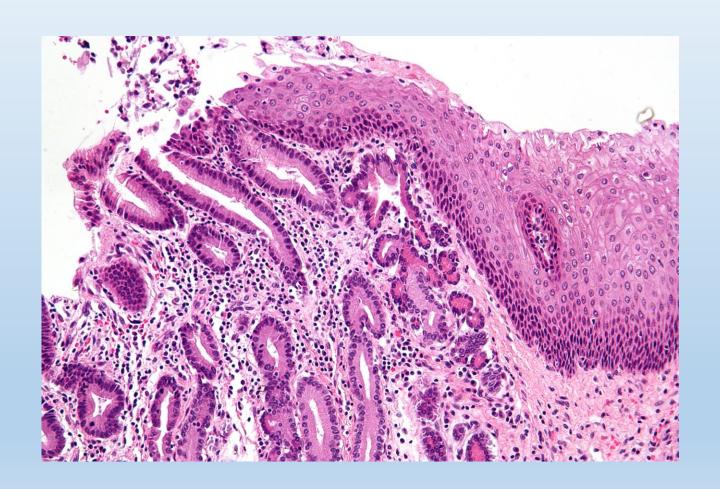
• *lipofuscin granules*, when present in sufficient amounts, they impart a brown discoloration to the tissue (brown atrophy).

METAPLASIA

 Reversible change in which one adult cell type (epithelial or mesenchymal) is replaced by another adult cell type.

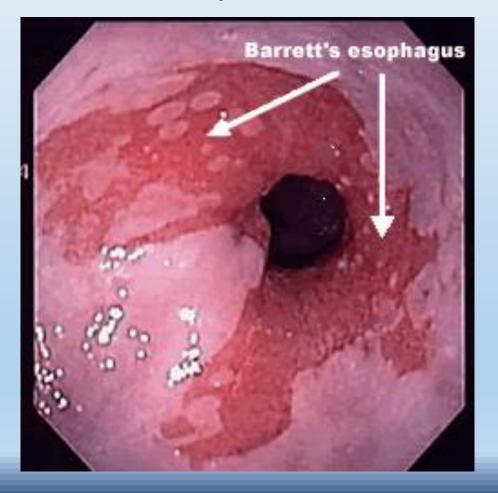
 An adaptive substitution of cells that are sensitive to stress by cell types better able to withstand the adverse environment.

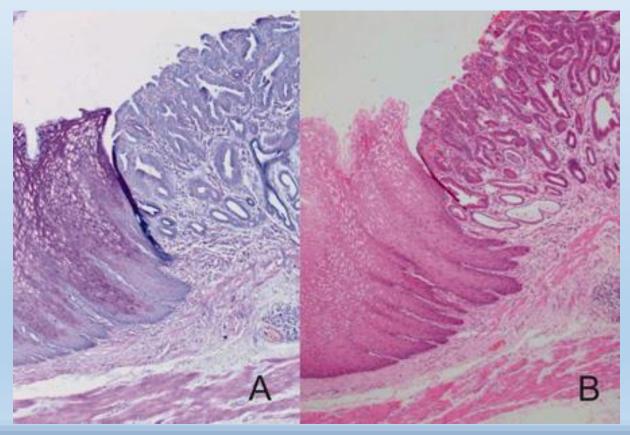
Eg. columnar \rightarrow squamous as occurs in the respiratory tract in chronic irritation in habitual cigarette smokers



Metaplasia

• From squamous to columnar type in Barrett esophagus

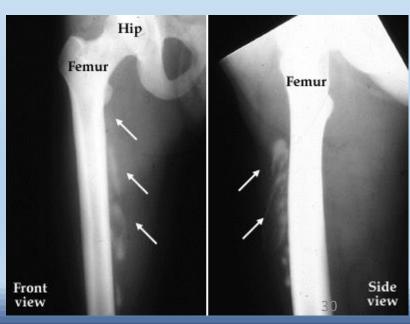




Connective tissue metaplasia

- Formation of cartilage, bone, or adipose tissue (mesenchymal tissues) in tissues that normally do not contain these elements.
- For example, bone formation in muscle, designated *myositis ossificans*, occasionally occurs after bone fracture.

This type of metaplasia is less clearly seen as an adaptive response.

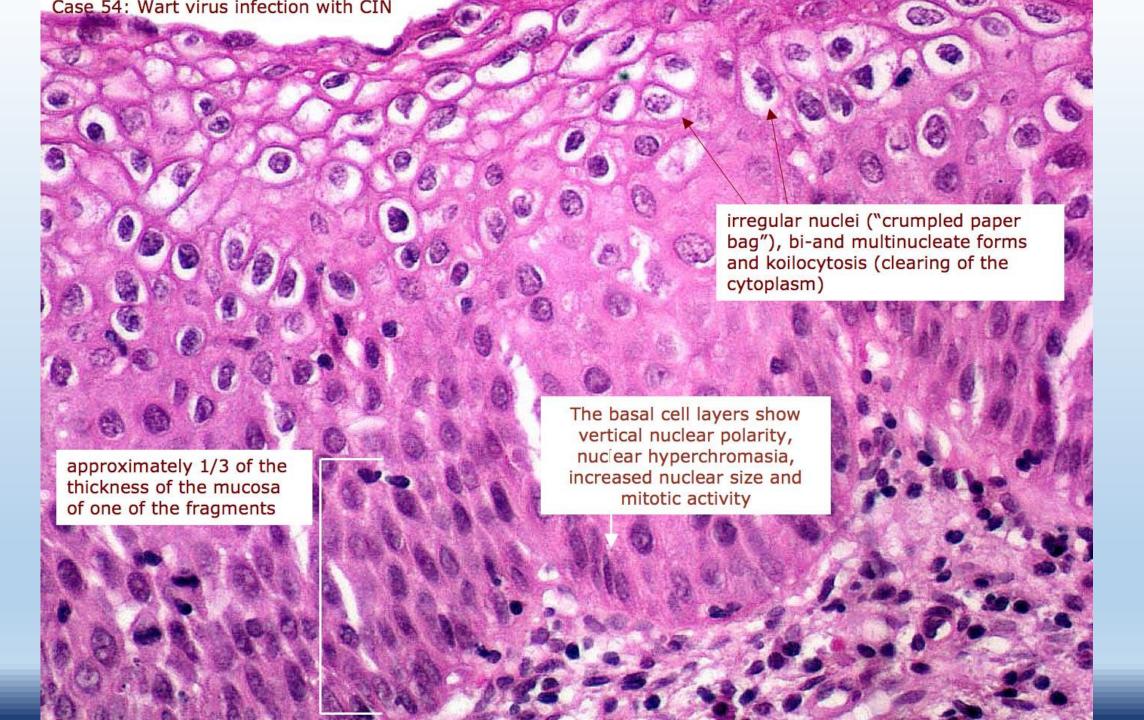


Mechanisms of Metaplasia.

- Result of a reprogramming of stem cells that known to exist in normal tissues
- Or of undifferentiated mesenchymal cells present in connective tissue.
- In metaplastic change, these precursor cells differentiate along a new pathway
- These changes are brought about by
- Cytokines
- Growth factors
- Extracellular matrix components in the cell's environment.

Dysplasia

- Disordered growth.
- Encountered principally in epithelia,
- Loss in the uniformity of the individual cells
- Loss in their architectural orientation.
- Dysplastic cells exhibit pleomorphism
- Contain hyperchromatic nuclei
- Nuclei are abnormally large for the size of the cell.
- Mitotic figures are more abundant than usual,



Dysplasia

Mitoses appear in abnormal locations within the epithelium.

The architecture of the tissue is disorderly.

 Progressive maturation of cells in the basal layer to flattened squames to the surface is lost

 When dysplastic changes involve the entire thickness of the epithelium, but the lesion remains confined to the normal tissue, it is considered a preinvasive neoplasm and is referred to as carcinoma in situ.

Dysplasia

- Often found adjacent to foci of invasive carcinoma,
- In long-term cigarette smokers and Barrett esophagus, severe epithelial dysplasia frequently antedates the appearance of cancer.
- However, dysplasia does not necessarily progress to cancer.
- Mild to moderate changes that do not involve the entire thickness of epithelium may be reversible, and with removal of the inciting causes, the epithelium may revert to normal.