UNIT – 1 **BASIC PRINCIPLE OF CELL** INJURY AND ADAPTATION

POINTS TO BE COVERED IN THIS TOPIC

- ➤ INTRODUCTION
- ➤ DEFINITIONS
- ➤ HOMFOSTASIS
- ➤ COMPONENTS AND TYPES OF FEEDBACK SYSTEMS
- ➤ CAUSES OF CELLULAR INJURY
- ➤ PATHOGENESIS
- ➤ MORPHOLOGY OF CELL INJURY
- ➤ ADAPTIVE CHANGES
- ➤ CELL DEATH
- ➤ ACIDOSIS & ALKALOSIS
- ➤ ELECTROLYTE IMBALANCE
- ➤ BASIC MECHANISM INVOLVED IN THE PROCESS OF INFLAMMATION AND REPAIR

INTRODUCTION 🔬



Pathophysiology is the study of functional changes in the body that occur as a result of disease or injury. It bridges the gap between normal physiology and clinical medicine by examining how disease processes alter normal cellular and organ function. The fundamental understanding of cell

injury and adaptation forms the cornerstone of pathophysiology, as all diseases ultimately result from cellular dysfunction.

Cells are the basic functional units of life, and their ability to maintain normal structure and function depends on their capacity to adapt to changing environmental conditions. When cells encounter stress or injury that exceeds their adaptive capacity, cellular dysfunction and ultimately disease occurs.

DEFINITIONS

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

The study of disordered physiological processes that cause, result from, or are otherwise associated with a disease or injury.

CELL INJURY

Any alteration in cellular structure or function that results from exposure to injurious stimuli that exceed the cell's adaptive capacity.

ADAPTATION

The cellular responses that allow cells to survive and continue functioning in the face of physiological stress or mild pathological stimuli.

HOMEOSTASIS

The maintenance of stable internal conditions in the body despite changes in the external environment.

HOMEOSTASIS

Homeostasis refers to the dynamic equilibrium maintained by living systems to keep conditions within the body stable and relatively constant. It involves the regulation of various physiological parameters including temperature, pH, blood glucose levels, blood pressure, and electrolyte concentrations

The concept of homeostasis is fundamental to understanding health and disease. When homeostatic mechanisms fail or become overwhelmed. disease processes begin. The body maintains homeostasis through complex regulatory mechanisms that detect deviations from normal and initiate corrective responses.

Characteristics of Homeostasis:

- **Dynamic Process:** Continuously adjusting to maintain stability
- **Self-Regulating**: Automatic responses without conscious control
- **Predictive**: Anticipates changes and prepares responses
- **Hierarchical**: Multiple levels of control from cellular to systemic

COMPONENTS AND TYPES OF FEEDBACK SYSTEMS 🗟



Feedback systems are the regulatory mechanisms that maintain homeostasis. These systems consist of three essential components that work together to detect changes and initiate appropriate responses.

Components of Feedback Systems:

1. SENSOR (RECEPTOR)

- Detects changes in the internal or external environment
- Monitors specific physiological parameters
- Converts stimuli into signals that can be processed

2. CONTROL CENTER (INTEGRATOR)

- CONTINUE CENTER (INTEGRATION)
- Receives and processes information from sensors
- Compares current conditions to set points
- Determines appropriate response needed
- Sends instructions to effectors

3. EFFECTOR 🦾

- Receives instructions from control center
- Carries out the response to counteract changes
- Produces effects that restore homeostasis

Types of Feedback Systems:

1. NEGATIVE FEEDBACK SYSTEM -

- Most common type of feedback in biological systems
- Response opposes or reverses the initial stimulus
- Maintains stability and prevents excessive changes
- Returns system to set point

Mechanism: When a parameter deviates from its set point, the feedback system initiates responses that bring the parameter back toward the normal range.

2. POSITIVE FEEDBACK SYSTEM +

- Less common in biological systems
- Response amplifies or reinforces the initial stimulus
- Leads to progressive change away from set point
- Usually terminated by external intervention

Mechanism: The response enhances the original stimulus, creating a selfreinforcing cycle that continues until interrupted.

Aspect	Negative Feedback	Positive Feedback	
Effect on Stimulus	Opposes/Reduces	Amplifies/Enhances	
Stability	Promotes stability	Promotes change	
Frequency	Very common	Less common	
Duration	Continuous regulation	Usually brief	
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CAUSES OF CELLULAR INJURY A

Cellular injury occurs when cells are exposed to stress or stimuli that exceed their adaptive capacity. Understanding the various causes of cellular injury is essential for comprehending disease processes.

1. HYPOXIA AND ISCHEMIA 🧥



- **Hypoxia**: Reduced oxygen availability to tissues
- **Ischemia**: Reduced blood flow leading to inadequate oxygen and nutrient supply
- Most common cause of cellular injury

• Results in impaired cellular respiration and ATP production

2. PHYSICAL AGENTS 🔪

- Temperature extremes: Heat and cold exposure
- Radiation: lonizing and non-ionizing radiation
- Mechanical trauma: Physical forces causing tissue damage
- Electrical injury: Direct electrical current effects

3. CHEMICAL AGENTS 🥕

- **Toxins**: Natural and synthetic poisons
- **Drugs**: Therapeutic agents at toxic levels
- Environmental pollutants: Industrial chemicals and pesticides
- Metabolic products: Accumulation of harmful metabolites

4. INFECTIOUS AGENTS 🌦

- Bacteria: Direct cellular damage and toxin production
- Viruses: Interference with cellular metabolism
- Fungi: Tissue invasion and inflammatory responses
- Parasites: Cellular destruction and nutrient depletion

5. IMMUNOLOGICAL REACTIONS

- Hypersensitivity reactions: Excessive immune responses
- Autoimmune disorders: Immune system attacking self-tissues
- Immune complex disease: Deposition of antigen-antibody complexes

6. GENETIC DEFECTS 🧈

- **Congenital abnormalities**: Inherited genetic mutations
- **Enzyme deficiencies**: Metabolic pathway disruptions
- **Chromosomal disorders**: Structural or numerical abnormalities

7. NUTRITIONAL IMBALANCES 🔷



- **Malnutrition**: Inadequate nutrient intake
- Vitamin deficiencies: Specific micronutrient lacks
- **Obesity**: Excessive caloric intake and metabolic stress

PATHOGENESIS

Pathogenesis refers to the sequence of cellular and molecular events that lead from the initial stimulus to the ultimate expression of disease. Understanding pathogenesis involves examining the specific mechanisms by which cellular injury occurs.

CELL MEMBRANE DAMAGE

The cell membrane is the primary barrier between the cell's internal environment and the external milieu. Damage to this structure has profound consequences for cellular function.

Mechanisms of Membrane Damage:

- **Lipid peroxidation**: Free radical attack on membrane phospholipids
- **Protein denaturation**: Structural changes in membrane proteins
- Osmotic swelling: Loss of selective permeability

• **Direct physical damage**: Mechanical or chemical disruption

Consequences:

- Loss of selective permeability
- Altered transport mechanisms
- Cellular swelling
- Loss of cellular contents
- Impaired cellular communication

MITOCHONDRIAL DAMAGE +

Mitochondria are the powerhouses of the cell, responsible for ATP production through oxidative phosphorylation. Damage to these organelles severely compromises cellular energy production.

Mechanisms of Mitochondrial Damage:

- Oxidative stress: Excessive reactive oxygen species production
- Calcium overload: Disruption of calcium homeostasis
- Membrane permeabilization: Loss of mitochondrial membrane integrity
- Respiratory chain dysfunction: Impaired electron transport

Consequences:

- Decreased ATP production
- Increased reactive oxygen species
- Altered cellular calcium homeostasis

- Activation of cell death pathways
- Metabolic dysfunction

RIBOSOME DAMAGE 🧩

Ribosomes are responsible for protein synthesis, a fundamental cellular process. Damage to ribosomes disrupts the cell's ability to produce essential proteins.

Mechanisms of Ribosome Damage:

- Direct chemical modification: Toxic agents affecting ribosomal structure
- RNA degradation: Breakdown of ribosomal RNA
- Protein synthesis inhibition: Interference with translation
- Endoplasmic reticulum stress: Disruption of protein folding

Consequences:

- Impaired protein synthesis
- Accumulation of misfolded proteins
- Cellular stress responses
- Altered cellular metabolism
- Potential cell death

NUCLEAR DAMAGE

The nucleus contains the cell's genetic material and controls cellular activities. Nuclear damage can have severe consequences for cellular function and survival.

Mechanisms of Nuclear Damage:

- **DNA damage**: Direct chemical modification or strand breaks
- **Chromatin alterations**: Changes in DNA packaging
- Nuclear membrane disruption: Loss of nuclear-cytoplasmic compartmentalization
- **Transcriptional dysfunction**: Impaired gene expression

Consequences:

- Altered gene expression
- Genomic instability
- Cell cycle arrest
- Activation of DNA repair mechanisms
- Potential malignant transformation

MORPHOLOGY OF CELL INJURY Q



The morphological changes associated with cellular injury can be observed at both the light microscopic and ultrastructural levels. These changes reflect the underlying biochemical and molecular alterations occurring within injured cells.

REVERSIBLE CELLULAR INJURY

CELL SWELLING (HYDROPIC DEGENERATION)

Cell swelling is one of the earliest manifestations of cellular injury and represents a reversible change if the injurious stimulus is removed.

Mechanism:

- Loss of cellular energy (ATP depletion)
- Failure of sodium-potassium pump
- Increased intracellular sodium and water
- Cellular and organellar swelling

Morphological Features:

- Increased cell size
- Pale, swollen cytoplasm
- Cellular membrane blebs
- Dilated endoplasmic reticulum
- Swollen mitochondria

INTRACELLULAR ACCUMULATION

Cells may accumulate various substances when normal metabolic processes are disrupted. These accumulations can be physiological or pathological.

Types of Accumulations:

1. LIPID ACCUMULATION

- Fatty change: Accumulation of triglycerides
- Common in liver, heart, and kidney
- Results from impaired lipid metabolism
- Reversible with correction of underlying cause

2. PROTEIN ACCUMULATION

- Hyaline droplets: Reabsorbed proteins in kidney
- Mallory bodies: Abnormal keratin filaments
- Inclusion bodies: Viral or cellular proteins

3. CARBOHYDRATE ACCUMULATION

- Glycogen: Excess glucose storage
- Common in diabetes mellitus
- · Liver and muscle primarily affected

4. PIGMENT ACCUMULATION

- Lipofuscin: "Wear and tear" pigment
- Hemosiderin: Iron-containing pigment
- Melanin: Natural protective pigment
- Exogenous pigments: Carbon, tattoo inks

CALCIFICATION

Calcification is the abnormal deposition of calcium salts in tissues. It can occur through different mechanisms and has significant pathological implications.

Types of Calcification:

1. DYSTROPHIC CALCIFICATION

- Occurs in damaged or necrotic tissues
- Normal serum calcium levels

- Local factors promote calcium deposition
- Commonly seen in atherosclerotic plaques

2. METASTATIC CALCIFICATION

- Occurs in normal tissues
- Elevated serum calcium or phosphate levels
- Systemic metabolic disorders
- Commonly affects kidneys, lungs, and gastric mucosa

Morphological Features:

- Basophilic deposits on routine staining
- Confirmed by special calcium stains
- May cause functional impairment
- Can serve as nuclei for stone formation

ENZYME LEAKAGE

Cellular injury often results in the release of intracellular enzymes into the extracellular space. This enzyme leakage serves as an important diagnostic marker for tissue damage.

Mechanisms:

- Increased membrane permeability
- Membrane rupture
- Altered membrane transport
- Cellular necrosis

Diagnostic Significance:

- Myocardial infarction: Elevated cardiac enzymes
- Liver injury: Increased transaminases
- Muscle damage: Elevated creatine kinase
- Pancreatic injury: Increased amylase and lipase

ADAPTIVE CHANGES 🗟



Cellular adaptation refers to the structural and functional changes that occur in cells in response to physiological or pathological stimuli. These changes allow cells to survive and maintain function under altered conditions.

Туре	Definition	Stimulus	Mechanism
Atrophy	Decrease in cell	Decreased	Protein
	size/number	workload	degradation
Hypertrophy	Increase in cell size	Increased workload	Protein synthesis
Hyperplasia	Increase in cell number	Growth factors	Cell division
Metaplasia	Cell type substitution	Chronic irritation	Reprogramming
Dysplasia	Abnormal development	Persistent irritation	Loss of uniformity
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ATROPHY 🦠

Atrophy is the reduction in size and metabolic activity of cells, leading to diminished tissue and organ size.

Types of Atrophy:

1. PHYSIOLOGICAL ATROPHY

- Normal developmental process
- Involution of thymus in adults
- Postmenopausal ovarian atrophy
- Age-related muscle atrophy

2. PATHOLOGICAL ATROPHY

- **Disuse atrophy**: Lack of physical activity
- **Denervation atrophy**: Loss of nerve supply
- **Ischemic atrophy**: Reduced blood supply
- Nutritional atrophy: Inadequate nutrition
- Hormonal atrophy: Hormone deficiency

Mechanisms:

- Decreased protein synthesis
- Increased protein degradation
- Reduced organelle number
- Autophagy activation
- Apoptosis of some cells

HYPERTROPHY 📈



Hypertrophy is the increase in cell size resulting from increased synthesis of cellular components, particularly proteins.

Characteristics:

- Increase in cell size without increase in number
- Enhanced metabolic activity
- Increased organelle number
- Improved functional capacity

Types:

1. PHYSIOLOGICAL HYPERTROPHY

- Muscle hypertrophy with exercise
- Cardiac hypertrophy during pregnancy
- Mammary gland hypertrophy during lactation

2. PATHOLOGICAL HYPERTROPHY

- Cardiac hypertrophy in hypertension
- Smooth muscle hypertrophy in asthma
- Prostate hypertrophy with aging

Mechanisms:

- Increased protein synthesis
- Growth factor stimulation
- Mechanical stress responses
- Enhanced gene expression
- Improved vascularization

HYPERPLASIA !

Hyperplasia is the increase in tissue or organ size due to an increase in the number of cells

Requirements:

- Cells must be capable of division
- Adequate growth factors present
- Appropriate stimulus for proliferation

Types:

1. PHYSIOLOGICAL HYPERPLASIA

- Hormonal hyperplasia: Breast development during puberty
- Compensatory hyperplasia: Liver regeneration after partial removal

2. PATHOLOGICAL HYPERPLASIA

- Endometrial hyperplasia: Excessive estrogen stimulation
- Prostatic hyperplasia: Benign enlargement with aging
- Skin hyperplasia: Chronic irritation or infection

Control Mechanisms:

- Growth factors and inhibitors
- Cell cycle checkpoints
- Contact inhibition
- Programmed cell death

METAPLASIA 🗟

Metaplasia is the replacement of one differentiated cell type with another differentiated cell type.

Characteristics:

- Adaptive response to chronic irritation
- Involves stem cell reprogramming
- Usually reversible if stimulus removed
- May predispose to malignancy

Types:

1. EPITHELIAL METAPLASIA

Squamous metaplasia: Respiratory epithelium in smokers

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- Intestinal metaplasia: Gastric epithelium in chronic gastritis
- Glandular metaplasia: Various epithelial transitions

2. MESENCHYMAL METAPLASIA

- Osseous metaplasia: Bone formation in soft tissues
- Cartilaginous metaplasia: Cartilage in abnormal locations

Mechanisms:

- Altered gene expression
- Transcription factor changes
- Epigenetic modifications

Stem cell differentiation changes

DYSPLASIA 👃



Dysplasia is the abnormal development characterized by loss of cellular uniformity and orientation.

Features:

- Increased cell proliferation
- Loss of uniformity in cell size and shape
- Hyperchromatic nuclei
- Increased mitotic activity
- Disorganized tissue architecture

Significance:

- Premalignant condition
- May progress to malignancy
- Often reversible if stimulus removed
- Requires careful monitoring

Grading:

- Mild dysplasia: Limited architectural changes
- **Moderate dysplasia**: More pronounced abnormalities
- Severe dysplasia: Marked changes approaching malignancy

CELL DEATH

Cell death is the ultimate consequence of severe cellular injury.

Understanding the mechanisms of cell death is crucial for comprehending disease processes and developing therapeutic interventions.

Types of Cell Death:

1. NECROSIS ••

Uncontrolled cell death resulting from severe injury or pathological conditions.

Characteristics:

- Loss of membrane integrity
- Cellular swelling
- Inflammatory response
- Random DNA degradation
- Release of cellular contents

Types of Necrosis:

- Coagulative necrosis: Protein denaturation predominates
- **Liquefactive necrosis**: Enzymatic digestion predominates
- Caseous necrosis: Cheese-like appearance
- Fat necrosis: Specific to adipose tissue
- Fibrinoid necrosis: Vessel wall necrosis

2. APOPTOSIS 🏩

Programmed cell death that occurs as a normal physiological process or in response to specific stimuli.

Characteristics:

- Controlled cellular dismantling
- Cell shrinkage
- Nuclear fragmentation
- Formation of apoptotic bodies
- Phagocytosis by neighboring cells
- No inflammatory response

Mechanisms:

- Intrinsic pathway: Mitochondrial-mediated
- Extrinsic pathway: Death receptor-mediated
- Caspase activation: Proteolytic enzyme cascade
- DNA fragmentation: Systematic nuclear breakdown

3. AUTOPHAGY 🔄

Cellular self-digestion process that can lead to cell death under certain conditions.

Functions:

- Removal of damaged organelles
- Protein quality control
- Nutrient recycling

Cellular remodeling

ACIDOSIS & ALKALOSIS

Acid-base balance is critical for normal cellular function. Disturbances in pH can have profound effects on cellular metabolism and protein function.

ACIDOSIS



Acidosis occurs when there is an excess of acid or a deficit of base in the body, resulting in decreased pH.

Types:

1. RESPIRATORY ACIDOSIS

- Caused by inadequate ventilation
- Retention of carbon dioxide
- Compensated by renal mechanisms

2. METABOLIC ACIDOSIS

- Caused by excess acid production or loss of base
- Decreased bicarbonate levels
- Compensated by respiratory mechanisms

Effects on Cellular Function:

- Altered enzyme activity
- Impaired membrane function
- Disrupted cellular metabolism

Potential cellular injury

ALKALOSIS



Alkalosis occurs when there is an excess of base or a deficit of acid in the body, resulting in increased pH.

Types:

1. RESPIRATORY ALKALOSIS

- Caused by hyperventilation
- Excessive carbon dioxide loss
- Compensated by renal mechanisms

2. METABOLIC ALKALOSIS

- Caused by excess base or loss of acid
- Increased bicarbonate levels
- Compensated by respiratory mechanisms

Effects on Cellular Function:

- Altered protein conformation
- Impaired oxygen delivery
- Disrupted cellular signaling
- Potential tetany and seizures

ELECTROLYTE IMBALANCE



Electrolytes are essential for normal cellular function, including membrane

potential, enzyme activity, and osmotic regulation. Imbalances can have severe consequences.

Electrolyte	Normal Range	Hypo- Effects	Hyper- Effects
Sodium	135-145 mEq/L	Confusion, seizures	Thirst, confusion
Potassium	3.5-5.0 mEq/L	Muscle weakness	Cardiac arrhythmias
Calcium	8.5-10.5 mg/dL	Tetany, seizures	Kidney stones, confusion
Magnesium	1.7-2.2 mg/dL	Muscle cramps	Respiratory depression
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COMMON ELECTROLYTE DISORDERS:

HYPONATREMIA

- Water retention or sodium loss
- Cellular swelling
- Neurological symptoms
- Potential cerebral edema

HYPERKALEMIA 🔸

- Impaired cardiac conduction
- Muscle weakness
- Potential cardiac arrest
- Requires immediate treatment

HYPOCALCEMIA

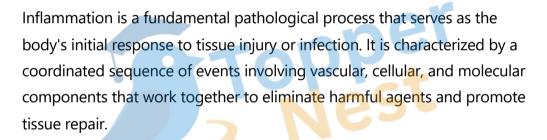
- Increased neuromuscular excitability
- Tetany and muscle spasms

- Potential respiratory failure
- Cardiac dysfunction

BASIC MECHANISM INVOLVED IN THE PROCESS OF INFLAMMATION AND REPAIR

Inflammation is a complex biological response to harmful stimuli, including pathogens, damaged cells, or irritants. It represents a protective attempt by the organism to remove injurious stimuli and initiate healing.

INTRODUCTION TO INFLAMMATION 🔪



The inflammatory response is generally beneficial, as it helps to contain and eliminate injurious agents while facilitating tissue repair. However, when inflammation becomes chronic or excessive, it can contribute to tissue damage and disease progression.

CLINICAL SIGNS OF INFLAMMATION ?

The classical signs of inflammation, first described by Celsus in the 1st century AD, remain the hallmarks of the inflammatory response:

THE FIVE CARDINAL SIGNS:

1. RUBOR (REDNESS)



- Results from vasodilation
- Increased blood flow to affected area
- Enhanced oxygen delivery
- Visible sign of acute inflammation

2. CALOR (HEAT)

- Consequence of increased blood flow
- Enhanced metabolic activity
- Local temperature elevation
- More pronounced in superficial tissues

3. DOLOR (PAIN)

- Results from multiple mechanisms
- Direct tissue damage
- Pressure from swelling
- Chemical mediator effects on nerve endings

4. TUMOR (SWELLING)

- Caused by increased vascular permeability
- Fluid accumulation in tissues
- Edema formation
- May impair function

5. FUNCTIO LAESA (LOSS OF FUNCTION) X

- Added by Virchow in the 19th century
- Results from combination of other signs
- Protective mechanism
- May prevent further injury

DIFFERENT TYPES OF INFLAMMATION



Inflammation can be classified based on various criteria including duration, intensity, and underlying pathological processes.

CLASSIFICATION BY DURATION:

1. ACUTE INFLAMMATION 4

Duration: Minutes to days **Characteristics**:

- Rapid onset
- **Short duration**
- Vascular changes predominate
- Neutrophil infiltration
- Usually resolves completely

Examples:

- **Bacterial infections**
- Physical injury
- Chemical burns
- Allergic reactions

2. CHRONIC INFLAMMATION

Duration: Weeks to years **Characteristics**:

- Prolonged duration
- Cellular changes predominate
- Macrophage and lymphocyte infiltration
- Tissue destruction and repair occur simultaneously
- May result in scarring

Examples:

- Tuberculosis
- Rheumatoid arthritis
- Chronic gastritis
- Atherosclerosis

CLASSIFICATION BY EXUDATE TYPE:

1. SEROUS INFLAMMATION

- Thin, watery fluid
- Low protein content
- Minimal cellular components
- Common in early stages

2. FIBRINOUS INFLAMMATION

High fibrin content

- Thick, sticky exudate
- May organize into adhesions
- Common in body cavities

3. PURULENT INFLAMMATION

- Contains neutrophils and bacteria
- Formation of pus
- Tissue destruction
- Abscess formation

4. HEMORRHAGIC INFLAMMATION

- Contains blood
- Severe vascular damage
- Often viral infections
- May be life-threatening

MECHANISM OF INFLAMMATION

The inflammatory response involves a complex series of events that can be divided into several key processes:

ALTERATION IN VASCULAR PERMEABILITY AND BLOOD FLOW

The vascular response is one of the earliest and most important components of inflammation.

VASCULAR CHANGES:

1. INITIAL VASOCONSTRICTION U

- Brief, lasting seconds to minutes
- Mediated by neurogenic mechanisms
- Followed by vasodilation
- May help limit initial injury

2. VASODILATION 1

- Arteriolar dilation
- Increased blood flow
- Enhanced oxygen and nutrient delivery
- · Contributes to redness and heat

Mediators:

- Histamine
- Nitric oxide
- Prostaglandins
- Complement components
- **3. INCREASED VASCULAR PERMEABILITY** •• The hallmark of inflammatory vascular response, allowing plasma proteins and cells to enter tissues.

Mechanisms:

- Immediate response: Histamine and other mediators
- **Delayed response**: Cytokines and other inflammatory mediators

Direct injury: Physical or chemical damage to vessels

Types of Permeability Changes:

Immediate transient: Histamine-mediated

Immediate sustained: Severe injury

Delayed prolonged: Cytokine-mediated

MIGRATION OF WHITE BLOOD CELLS 🏃

The cellular response involves the recruitment and activation of various inflammatory cells.

SEQUENCE OF CELLULAR EVENTS:

1. MARGINATION 6

- WBCs move toward vessel walls
- Result of decreased flow velocity
- Precedes adhesion to endothelium
- Facilitated by hemodynamic changes

2. ROLLING 🚜

- Loose adhesion to endothelium
- Mediated by selectins
- Allows sampling of endothelial surface
- Prepares for firm adhesion

3. ADHESION 🔒



- Firm binding to endothelium
- Mediated by integrins
- Activated by chemokines
- Necessary for transmigration

4. TRANSMIGRATION (DIAPEDESIS)

- Migration through vessel wall
- Between endothelial cells
- Through basement membrane
- Into tissue spaces

5. CHEMOTAXIS

- Directed movement toward injury site
- Following chemical gradients
- Mediated by various chemoattractants
- Results in accumulation at injury site

TYPES OF INFLAMMATORY CELLS:

1. NEUTROPHILS

- First responders
- Arrive within hours
- Phagocytose bacteria
- Release toxic substances
- Short-lived cells

2. MONOCYTES/MACROPHAGES

- Arrive later in inflammation
- Long-lived cells
- Phagocytose debris
- Present antigens
- Secrete mediators

3. EOSINOPHILS

- Important in allergic reactions
- Combat parasitic infections
- Contain cytotoxic granules
- Modulate inflammation

4. LYMPHOCYTES

- Adaptive immune responses
- T cells and B cells
- Memory formation
- Long-term immunity

MEDIATORS OF INFLAMMATION

Inflammatory mediators are substances that initiate, amplify, and regulate the inflammatory response. They can be derived from plasma or cells and act through various mechanisms.

PLASMA-DERIVED MEDIATORS:

1. COMPLEMENT SYSTEM

- Series of plasma proteins
- Activated in cascade fashion
- Multiple biological activities
- Key components: C3a, C5a, C5b-9

Functions:

- Opsonization
- Chemotaxis
- Vascular permeability
- Cell lysis

2. KININ SYSTEM

- Generates bradykinin
- Potent vasodilator
- Increases vascular permeability
- Causes pain

3. COAGULATION SYSTEM

- Fibrin formation
- Hemostasis
- Cross-talk with inflammation
- Factor XII activation

CELL-DERIVED MEDIATORS:

1. HISTAMINE 🥕

- Stored in mast cells and basophils
- Immediate release upon activation
- Causes vasodilation and increased permeability
- Short duration of action

2. PROSTAGLANDINS C



- Derived from arachidonic acid
- PGE2 and PGI2 important in inflammation
- Cause vasodilation and pain
- Target for anti-inflammatory drugs

3. LEUKOTRIENES 🐬

- Also derived from arachidonic acid
- LTB4 is potent chemotactic agent
- LTC4, LTD4, LTE4 cause smooth muscle contraction
- Important in asthma

4. CYTOKINES 🤌



- Protein mediators
- Produced by various cell types
- Multiple biological activities

• Key players: TNF-α, IL-1, IL-6

Functions:

- Cell activation
- Chemotaxis
- Fever induction
- Acute phase response

5. NITRIC OXIDE 4

- Gaseous mediator
- Potent vasodilator
- Antimicrobial activity
- Modulates inflammation

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF WOUND HEALING IN THE SKIN

Wound healing is a complex biological process that restores tissue integrity after injury. It involves multiple cell types, growth factors, and extracellular matrix components working in a coordinated manner.

PHASES OF WOUND HEALING:

1. HEMOSTASIS PHASE

Duration: Minutes to hours **Key Events**:

Immediate vasoconstriction

- Platelet adhesion and aggregation
- Coagulation cascade activation
- Fibrin clot formation

Purpose:

- Stop bleeding
- Provide initial barrier
- Create scaffold for cell migration
- Release growth factors

2. INFLAMMATORY PHASE



Duration: 2-5 days **Key Events**:

- Neutrophil infiltration
- Macrophage recruitment
- Debris removal
- Bacterial clearance

Purpose:

- Clean wound
- Prevent infection
- Initiate healing signals
- Prepare for repair

3. PROLIFERATIVE PHASE 🔭



Duration: Several days to weeks **Key Events**:

- Fibroblast proliferation
- Collagen synthesis
- Angiogenesis
- Epithelialization

Subphases:

- Granulation tissue formation
- Collagen deposition
- Wound contraction
- Epithelial migration

4. REMODELING PHASE

Duration: Weeks to years **Key Events**:

- Collagen reorganization
- Cross-linking formation
- Tissue strengthening
- Scar maturation

Purpose:

- Restore tissue strength
- Optimize structure
- Complete healing process
- Minimize scarring

FACTORS AFFECTING WOUND HEALING:

LOCAL FACTORS 6

• Infection: Delays healing

Foreign bodies: Impede repair

Ischemia: Reduces oxygen supply

• Movement: May disrupt healing

SYSTEMIC FACTORS

• Age: Slower healing in elderly

• Nutrition: Protein and vitamin deficiencies impair healing

• **Diabetes**: Impaired circulation and immune function

Medications: Steroids and immunosuppressants delay healing

Chronic diseases: Cardiovascular, renal, and liver diseases

TYPES OF WOUND HEALING:

1. PRIMARY INTENTION (FIRST INTENTION) 🧎

- Clean, well-approximated wound edges
- Minimal tissue loss
- Surgical incisions
- Rapid healing with minimal scarring

Characteristics:

Narrow incisional space

- Minimal inflammatory response
- Rapid epithelialization
- Strong final repair

2. SECONDARY INTENTION 🐇



- Large tissue defects
- Wound edges cannot be approximated
- Extensive tissue loss
- Healing by granulation tissue formation

Characteristics:

- Extensive inflammatory response
- Abundant granulation tissue
- Wound contraction
- Longer healing time
- More prominent scarring

3. TERTIARY INTENTION (DELAYED PRIMARY CLOSURE) 🗟



- Initially left open
- Later closed surgically
- Infected or contaminated wounds
- Combines features of primary and secondary healing

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF ATHEROSCLEROSIS



Atherosclerosis is a chronic inflammatory disease of medium and large arteries characterized by the formation of fibrofatty plagues in the arterial wall. It is the underlying cause of most cardiovascular diseases.

INTRODUCTION TO ATHEROSCLEROSIS



Atherosclerosis is a progressive disease that begins early in life and develops over decades. It involves the accumulation of lipids, inflammatory cells, and fibrous tissue in the arterial wall, leading to the formation of atherosclerotic plaques.

The disease process is complex and involves multiple risk factors, cellular interactions, and molecular mechanisms. Understanding atherosclerosis is crucial because it is the leading cause of death worldwide through its complications: myocardial infarction, stroke, and peripheral arterial disease.

RISK FACTORS FOR ATHEROSCLEROSIS A



Risk factors can be classified as modifiable and non-modifiable:

NON-MODIFIABLE RISK FACTORS:

- **Age**: Risk increases with advancing age
- **Gender**: Males at higher risk; postmenopausal women
- **Genetics**: Family history of cardiovascular disease
- **Race/Ethnicity**: Certain populations at higher risk

MODIFIABLE RISK FACTORS:

- Hyperlipidemia: Elevated LDL cholesterol
- **Hypertension**: Increased arterial pressure
- **Smoking**: Endothelial damage and inflammation
- **Diabetes mellitus**: Metabolic dysfunction
- **Obesity**: Associated metabolic disorders
- Physical inactivity: Reduced cardiovascular fitness
- Diet: High saturated fat and cholesterol intake

PATHOGENESIS OF ATHEROSCLEROSIS



The development of atherosclerosis involves several key processes that occur over many years:

1. ENDOTHELIAL DYSFUNCTION



- Initial event in atherosclerosis
- Loss of normal endothelial functions
- Increased permeability to lipoproteins
- Enhanced inflammatory cell adhesion

Causes:

- Mechanical stress (hypertension)
- Chemical injury (smoking, diabetes)
- Immunological factors
- Infectious agents

Consequences:

- Reduced nitric oxide production
- Increased adhesion molecule expression
- Enhanced thrombotic tendency
- Impaired vasodilation

2. LIPID ACCUMULATION



- Low-density lipoprotein (LDL) infiltration
- Oxidative modification of LDL
- Foam cell formation
- Fatty streak development

Process:

- LDL enters arterial wall
- Gets trapped in subendothelial space
- Undergoes oxidative modification
- Taken up by macrophages
- Forms foam cells

3. INFLAMMATORY RESPONSE

- Recruitment of inflammatory cells
- Macrophage activation
- Cytokine production
- Smooth muscle cell proliferation

Key Inflammatory Cells:

- Monocytes/Macrophages: Primary inflammatory cells
- **T-lymphocytes**: Adaptive immune response
- Mast cells: Release inflammatory mediators
- **Neutrophils**: In acute complications

4. SMOOTH MUSCLE CELL PROLIFERATION Z



- Migration from media to intima
- Proliferation and phenotypic changes
- Collagen and extracellular matrix production
- Fibrous cap formation

Stimuli:

- Growth factors (PDGF, FGF)
- Cytokines (IL-1, TNF- α)
- Mechanical stress
- Oxidized lipids

5. PLAQUE FORMATION AND EVOLUTION **E**

- Combination of all above processes
- Formation of complex lesions
- Fibrous cap development
- Potential for complications



STAGES OF ATHEROSCLEROTIC PLAQUE DEVELOPMENT:

STAGE 1: FATTY STREAK

- Earliest visible lesion
- Accumulation of foam cells
- No clinical symptoms
- Reversible at this stage

STAGE 2: INTERMEDIATE LESION

- Smooth muscle cell infiltration
- Extracellular lipid accumulation
- Small fibrous tissue formation
- Still clinically silent

STAGE 3: FIBROUS PLAQUE

- Well-formed fibrous cap
- Large lipid core
- May cause luminal narrowing
- Potential for clinical symptoms

STAGE 4: COMPLICATED LESION

- Plaque rupture or erosion
- Thrombosis formation
- Acute clinical events

May be fatal

PLAQUE COMPOSITION AND STABILITY 1



The composition of atherosclerotic plaques determines their stability and propensity for complications:

STABLE PLAQUES:

- Thick fibrous cap
- Small lipid core
- Low inflammatory activity
- Less likely to rupture

VULNERABLE (UNSTABLE) PLAQUES:

- Thin fibrous cap
- Large lipid core
- High inflammatory activity
- Prone to rupture

Component	Stable Plaque	Vulnerable Plaque
Fibrous Cap	Thick (>65 μm)	Thin (<65 μm)
Lipid Core	Small	Large
Inflammation	Low	High
Smooth Muscle Cells	Many	Few
Collagen Content	High	Low
4	•	•

COMPLICATIONS OF ATHEROSCLEROSIS *

1. PLAQUE RUPTURE 💔

- Most common complication
- Exposes thrombogenic material
- Triggers acute thrombosis
- Causes acute coronary syndromes

2. PLAQUE EROSION C



- Less common than rupture
- Endothelial loss without cap rupture
- More common in women and diabetics
- Also triggers thrombosis

3. LUMINAL NARROWING



- **Gradual process**
- Causes chronic ischemia
- Stable angina pectoris
- Intermittent claudication

4. EMBOLIZATION 6



- Plaque material breaks off
- Travels to distal vessels
- Causes sudden occlusion
- May cause stroke or limb ischemia

CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS ?

The clinical presentation depends on the location and severity of atherosclerotic lesions:

CORONARY ARTERIES

- Stable angina: Chest pain on exertion
- Unstable angina: Rest pain, increasing severity
- Myocardial infarction: Complete vessel occlusion
- Sudden cardiac death: Arrhythmias

CEREBRAL ARTERIES

- Transient ischemic attack: Temporary symptoms
- Stroke: Permanent neurological deficit
- Vascular dementia: Chronic cerebral ischemia

PERIPHERAL ARTERIES

- Intermittent claudication: Exercise-induced leg pain
- Critical limb ischemia: Rest pain, tissue loss
- Acute limb ischemia: Sudden onset symptoms

RENAL ARTERIES 🐕

- Renovascular hypertension: Secondary hypertension
- Renal insufficiency: Progressive kidney dysfunction

PREVENTION AND MANAGEMENT



PRIMARY PREVENTION:

- **Lifestyle modifications**: Diet, exercise, smoking cessation
- **Risk factor control**: Hypertension, diabetes management
- **Lipid-lowering therapy**: Statins, other agents
- **Antiplatelet therapy**: In high-risk patients

SECONDARY PREVENTION:

- **Aggressive risk factor modification**
- **Optimal medical therapy**
- Regular monitoring and follow-up
- Patient education and compliance

THERAPEUTIC INTERVENTIONS:

- Percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI): Angioplasty, stenting
- Coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG): Surgical revascularization
- **Carotid endarterectomy**: Stroke prevention
- **Peripheral artery interventions**: Limb salvage

EMERGING THERAPIES AND RESEARCH



NOVEL THERAPEUTIC TARGETS:

- **Anti-inflammatory agents**: Targeting inflammation
- **PCSK9 inhibitors**: Advanced lipid lowering

- HDL-raising therapies: Reverse cholesterol transport
- Antioxidants: Reducing oxidative stress

REGENERATIVE APPROACHES:

- Stem cell therapy: Vascular regeneration
- **Gene therapy**: Therapeutic angiogenesis
- Tissue engineering: Vascular grafts

DIAGNOSTIC ADVANCES:

- Molecular imaging: Plaque characterization
- Biomarkers: Risk stratification
- Artificial intelligence: Risk prediction models

CONCLUSION

The study of cell injury, adaptation, and inflammation forms the foundation of pathophysiology. Understanding these basic mechanisms is essential for comprehending disease processes and developing effective therapeutic interventions.

Cellular injury can result from various causes and manifest through different pathways, leading to either adaptation and recovery or progression to cell death. The inflammatory response, while protective in nature, can also contribute to tissue damage when dysregulated.

Atherosclerosis represents a prime example of how chronic inflammation and cellular dysfunction can lead to significant morbidity and mortality. The complex interplay between risk factors, cellular mechanisms, and inflammatory processes in atherosclerosis demonstrates the importance of understanding basic pathophysiological principles.

As medical science advances, our understanding of these fundamental processes continues to evolve, leading to improved diagnostic methods, therapeutic interventions, and preventive strategies. The integration of molecular biology, genetics, and systems biology approaches promises to further enhance our ability to understand and treat human diseases.

The knowledge gained from studying these basic principles of pathophysiology provides the foundation for clinical practice and serves as the basis for developing innovative approaches to prevent, diagnose, and treat diseases that affect human health and wellbeing.