

PATHOLOGY

Edited by

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PREFACE TO THIRD EDITION

The first undergraduate course in pathology should be but the beginning and not the end of the study of this subject. The use of a book of this size and scope by the undergraduate medical student appears to be justified where the teacher of pathology executes his true functions of guidance, interpretation, stimulation, and encouragement. We should all be students of pathology throughout our lives as physicians, differing from our undergraduate colleagues only in the stage of our learning and experience. Those of us who, by chance of time and by virtue of experience, have progressed further along the road of knowledge should not underestimate the intelligence, capabilities, and needs of our less-advanced fellow students, even though they may be but beginners in the subject. A factual and orderly presentation of pathology should be of use to a beginner under the proper guidance of a teacher, as well as to a more advanced student. An attempt to provide a guide for the beginning student to the subjects of primary and lesser importance is found in the use of larger and smaller sizes of type. Many of the subjects or conditions included, usually in smaller type, are designed to make the book useful as a reference tool for more advanced students, or for pathologists and other practicing physicians, although encyclopedic completeness is not implied.

The general plan of the book has been adhered to in revision. As in the past, a thorough coverage of the subject has been attempted within the limitations imposed by a single volume. Several parts have been completely rewritten, others have been rewritten in varying degree, and some have been revised either to change balance of presentation or to incorporate important advances of knowledge. Although some subjects have been significantly shortened, the number of illustrations has been increased. The extensive bibliographies have been brought up to date.

It is hoped that this book will continue to be a useful aid to the student of pathology, both during and after formal courses, and in correlation with other aspects or subjects of the clinical practice of medicine.

I am grateful for the continuing interest and cooperation of the contributors. The new contributors who have joined this venture merit particular thanks and appreciation.

With sorrow I record the deaths, since the last edition, of Dr. John E. Kraus, Dr. J. A. Saxton, Jr., and Dr. William H. Bauer—friends as well as co-workers, whose memory will linger as will their learned contributions to pathology.

Miss Charlotte Skacel, as my secretary and editorial assistant, willingly assumed a large burden of responsibility in this as in previous editions. Her stimulating interest, industry, and skillful assistance in large measure made it possible to carry out this revision contemporaneously with other time-consuming duties and responsibilities. As in the past, other friends and associates were helpful in various ways and continue to receive my gratitude.

Miami, Florida

W. A. D. ANDERSON

PREFACE TO FIRST EDITION

Pathology should form the basis of every physician's thinking about his patients. The study of the nature of disease, which constitutes pathology in the broad sense, has many facets. Any science or technique which contributes to our knowledge of the nature and constitution of disease belongs in the broad realm of pathology. Different aspects of a disease may be stressed by the geneticist, the cytologist, the biochemist, the clinical diagnostician, etc., and it is the difficult function of the pathologist to attempt to bring about a synthesis, and to present disease in as whole or as true an aspect as can be done with present knowledge. Pathologists often have been accused, and sometimes justly, of stressing the morphologic changes in disease to the neglect of functional effects. Nevertheless, pathologic anatomy and histology remain as an essential foundation of knowledge about disease, without which basis the concepts of many diseases are easily distorted.

In this volume is brought together the specialized knowledge of a number of pathologists in particular aspects or fields of pathology. A time-tested order of presentation is maintained, both because it has been found logical and effective in teaching medical students and because it facilitates study and reference by graduates. While presented in an order and form to serve as a textbook, yet it is intended also to have sufficient comprehensiveness and completeness to be useful to the practicing or graduate physician. It is hoped that this book will be both a foundation and a useful tool for those who deal with the problems of disease.

For obvious reasons, the nature and effects of radiation have been given unusual relative prominence. The changing order of things, with increase of rapid, world-wide travel and communication, necessitates increased attention to certain viral, protozoal, parasitic, and other conditions often dismissed as "tropical," to bring them nearer their true relative importance. Also given more than usual attention are diseases of the skin, of the organs of special senses, of the nervous system, and of the skeletal system. These are fields which often have not been given sufficient consideration in accordance with their true relative importance among diseases.

The Editor is highly appreciative of the spirit of the various contributors to this book. They are busy people, who, at the sacrifice of other duties and of leisure, freely cooperated in its production, uncomplainingly tolerated delays and difficulties, and were understanding in their willingness to work together for the good of the book as a whole. Particular thanks are due the directors of the Army Institute of Pathology and the American Registry of Pathology, for making available many illustrations. Dr. G. L. Duff, Strathcona Professor of Pathology, McGill University, Dr. H. A. Edmondson, Department of Pathology of the University of Southern California School of Medicine, Dr. J. S. Hirschboeck, Dean, and Dr. Harry Beckman, Professor of Pharmacology, Marquette University School of Medicine, all generously gave advice and assistance with certain parts.

To the members of the Department of Pathology and Bacteriology at Marquette University, the Editor wishes to express gratitude, both for tolerance and for assistance. Especially valuable has been the help of Dr. R. S. Haukohl, Dr. J. F. Kuzma, Dr. S. B. Pessin, and Dr. H. Everett. A large burden was assumed by the Editor's secretaries, Miss Charlotte Skacel and Miss Ann Cassady. Miss Patricia Blakeslee also assisted at various stages and with the index. To all of these the Editor's thanks, and also to the many others who at some time assisted by helpful and kindly acts, or by words of encouragement or interest.

W. A. D. ANDERSON

CONTENTS

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION (PAUL KLEMPERER) - - - - -	1
---	---

Chapter 2

CELLS AND THEIR BEHAVIOR (E. V. COWDRY) - - - - -	4
---	---

Chapter 3

INFLAMMATION (MORTON MCCUTCHEON) - - - - -	13
--	----

Chapter 4

DEGENERATIVE CHANGES AND DISTURBANCES OF METABOLISM (W. A. D. ANDERSON) - - - - -	62
---	----

Chapter 5

DISTURBANCES OF CIRCULATION (VIRGIL H. MOON) - - - - -	92
--	----

Chapter 6

PHYSICAL AGENTS IN THE CAUSATION OF INJURY AND DISEASE (ALAN R. MORITZ) - - - - -	117
---	-----

Chapter 7

CHEMICAL INJURY (WALTER W. JETTER) - - - - -	139
--	-----

Chapter 8

EFFECTS OF RADIATION (CHARLES E. DUNLAP) - - - - -	161
--	-----

Chapter 9

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF INFECTION AND RESISTANCE (PAUL R. CANNON) -	184
---	-----

Chapter 10

BACTERIAL DISEASES (HOWARD C. HOPPS) - - - - -	189
--	-----

Chapter 11

TUBERCULOSIS (FRANCIS D. GUNN) - - - - -	232
--	-----

Contents

Chapter 12

LEPROSY (ENRIQUE KOPPISCH) - - - - -	257
--------------------------------------	-----

Chapter 13

SPIROCHETAL AND VENEREAL DISEASES (EDGAR R. PUND AND EMMERICH VON HAAM) - - - - -	264
--	-----

Chapter 14

RICKETTSIAL AND VIRAL DISEASES (HENRY PINKERTON) - - - - -	292
--	-----

Chapter 15

FUNGUS INFECTIONS (ROGER DENIO BAKER) - - - - -	333
---	-----

Chapter 16

PROTOZOAL AND HELMINTHIC INFECTIONS (ENRIQUE KOPPISCH) - - - - -	351
--	-----

Chapter 17

VITAMINS AND DEFICIENCY DISEASES (HENRY PINKERTON) - - - - -	401
--	-----

Chapter 18

NEOPLASMS (SHIELDS WARREN) - - - - -	417
--------------------------------------	-----

Chapter 19

THE HEART (ERNEST M. HALL) - - - - -	443
--------------------------------------	-----

Chapter 20

THE BLOOD AND LYMPHATIC VESSELS (ERNEST M. HALL) - - - - -	504
--	-----

Chapter 21

THE KIDNEYS (W. A. D. ANDERSON) - - - - -	545
---	-----

Chapter 22

THE LOWER URINARY TRACT AND MALE GENITALIA (S. B. PESSIN) - - - - -	595
---	-----

Chapter 23

THE LUNG (FRANCIS D. GUNN) - - - - -	635
--------------------------------------	-----

Chapter 24

THE ORGANS OF SPECIAL SENSES (J. E. ASH) - - - - -	683
--	-----

Chapter 25

THE LIPS, MOUTH, TEETH, AND NECK (WILLIAM H. BAUER) - - - - -	719
---	-----

Chapter 26

THE GASTROINTESTINAL TRACT (JOHN R. SCHENKEN AND EDWARD L. BURNS) - - - - -	745
--	-----

Chapter 27

THE LIVER (W. A. D. ANDERSON) - - - - -	790
---	-----

Chapter 28

THE GALL BLADDER AND THE BILIARY DUCTS (BÉLA HALPERT) - - - -	822
---	-----

Chapter 29

THE PANCREAS (W. A. D. ANDERSON) - - - - -	838
--	-----

Chapter 30

DIABETES MELLITUS (SHIELDS WARREN) - - - - -	852
--	-----

Chapter 31

THE BLOOD AND BONE MARROW (MAURICE N. RICHTER) - - - - -	859
--	-----

Chapter 32

THE SPLEEN, LYMPH NODES, AND RETICULOENDOTHELIAL SYSTEM (MAURICE N. RICHTER) - - - - -	907
---	-----

Chapter 33

THE THYMUS (W. A. D. ANDERSON) - - - - -	948
--	-----

Chapter 34

THE PITUITARY GLAND (HYPOPHYSIS) (DOROTHY S. RUSSELL) - - - -	950
---	-----

Chapter 35

THE PINEAL (W. A. D. ANDERSON) - - - - -	975
--	-----

Chapter 36

THE THYROID (W. A. D. ANDERSON AND THEODORE WINSHIP) - - - -	979
--	-----

Chapter 37

THE PARATHYROIDS (W. A. D. ANDERSON) - - - - -	1005
--	------

Chapter 38

THE ADRENAL GLANDS (W. A. D. ANDERSON AND A. GORMAN HILLS) - -	1015
--	------

Chapter 39

THE FEMALE GENITALIA (ARTHUR T. HERTIG AND HAZEL MANSELL) - -	1032
---	------

Chapter 40

THE BREAST (JOSEPH F. KUZMA) - - - - -	1102
--	------

Chapter 41

THE SKIN (ARTHUR C. ALLEN) - - - - -	1130
--------------------------------------	------

Contents

Chapter 42

THE BONES (GRANVILLE A. BENNETT) - - - - - 1189

Chapter 43

THE JOINTS (GRANVILLE A. BENNETT) - - - - - 1251

Chapter 44

THE NERVOUS SYSTEM (JEFF MINCKLER) - - - - - 1273

Chapter 45

HEREDITY AND CONSTITUTION IN DISEASE (MADGE T. MACKLIN) - - - - 1351

COLOR PLATES

PLATE	PAGE
I. Spread of infection within the head along venous channels - - -	196
II. Syphilis - - - - -	266
III. Negri bodies of rabies - - - - -	308
IV. Molluscum contagiosum - - - - -	324
V. Figures showing the controlled formation of collagen and reticulum in blood clots - - - - -	410
VI. Esophageal varices in cirrhosis of the liver. Intestinal obstruction. Annular carcinoma of sigmoid colon. <i>Enterobius vermicularis</i> in the cecum. Carcinomatous ulcer of stomach. Polypoid adenocarcinoma of rectum - - - - -	746
VII. Chronic ulcer of stomach - - - - -	750
VIII. The liver in eclamptic toxemia of pregnancy - - - - -	798
IX. Hepatic cirrhosis. Jaundice and biliary cirrhosis - - - - -	804
X. Immature blood cells as seen in tissue sections and smears - - -	860
XI. Cells of the anterior pituitary gland - - - - -	952

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Paul Klemperer

Pathology is that branch of natural science which is concerned with the search for the cause and mechanism of disease. In this general sense the term applies to disease of all living organisms. Human pathology is primarily concerned with disease in man but does not exclude the insight which is gained from the study of disease in animals and plants. Fundamental facts of morbid life are revealed by exact observation and purposeful experiments on animals and plants.

The everyday word "disease" is an abstraction, and abstractions obviously cannot be the immediate object of natural science, which is necessarily founded upon observation of natural phenomena. The concept of disease has been established by extracting and totaling those characteristics of the sick which differ from the norm. In our observation of the sick and the healthy we study manifestations of life, and life presents itself to our senses as form and action. These manifestations are investigated with methods involving precise measurement. Anatomy—gross and microscopic—is concerned with normal form. Physiology inquires into normal function. Life, however, is also experienced subjectively by the mind, and investigations of mind belong to the realm of psychology.

Sickness in the individual is recognized by manifestations of life which are different from those of normal life and are designated as symptoms. These evidences of disease are both subjective and objective. Subjective symptoms, such as pain, itching, nausea, discomfort, and emotional or intellectual disturbances, are of great importance in the recognition of ill-health but have not yet been subjected to the same qualitative and quantitative analysis which has been applied to objective symptoms. It has long been recognized, however, that subjective symptoms can and should be correlated with the outward manifestations of illness. The application of biochemistry and biophysics to the investigation of psychopathic persons and the study of mental disturbances in persons afflicted with obvious physical ailments illustrate the

endeavor to align diseases of the mind with those of the body. The attempt to understand the mind at the level of somatic organization (or in terms of bodily function) must not be regarded as the only scientific approach to mental diseases. Man as a social animal cannot be completely understood apart from his social environment, and the impact of the forces of society upon his mind require to be considered no less attentively than the influences exerted by chemical or physical factors upon his body.

Manifestations of disordered life which can be perceived by the senses constitute the objective symptoms of disease. From the earliest days of civilization, disease has been an object of intense interest to mankind. The medical records of the ancient Greeks are still a source of inspiration for us; their golden merits continue to shine in the light of modern science and exemplify the eternal value of accurate observation. Yet upon a mere perplexing multitude of symptoms and signs no lasting edifice of medicine can be erected. While the intuitive Hellenic genius recognized connections which modern medicine is scarcely beginning to understand, the Hippocratic system of pathology was doomed because it lacked the firm foundation of anatomy and rational physiology. For more than a thousand years the progress of medicine was largely arrested. It began anew with the advancement of anatomy and physiology, but centuries had to pass until it was realized that the search for the intrinsic reason of disease must originate in observations of altered form and function of the living organism.

Having briefly outlined the purpose of pathology, we must now consider how investigations in pathology have proceeded and what they have accomplished. In pathology, as in all natural sciences, understanding must begin with observation and description. The earliest observations were concerned with obvious manifestations of abnormality of the patient during life—e.g., variations in the rate and quality of pulse or respiration, fever of varying type and intensity, abnormalities of excretion and secretion, and changes in bodily appearances and be-

havior. Empiricism, mingled with mysticism and vague philosophical theories of nature and man, led to the concept that disease was a living being which existed independently within the body of the patient. Numerous diagnostic terms, which are still in use today, such as cancer and lupus, are vestiges of this period. Other terms, such as typhus and rheumatism (flowing pain), are derived from conspicuous objective or subjective symptoms of disease.

The restrictions placed upon the cultural development of man during the centuries which followed the decline of the Roman Empire were finally lifted by the Renaissance. The revival of medicine was characterized by intense interest in the human body. Anatomic investigations were encouraged by enlightened rulers and the secrets of the fabric of the human body were rapidly revealed and divulged. These disclosures, coinciding with discoveries of universal laws of nature, stimulated inquiries into the mechanism of the human body. It was inevitable that medicine, challenged by the riddle of disease, should turn to anatomy for the answer. As structural alterations of organs were discovered, pathologic anatomy became established as a descriptive science and the symptoms of disease came to be correlated with the organic alterations revealed at autopsy. In 1761 the monumental work of Morgagni appeared; the anatomic conception entered the system of medicine and dominated it for nearly a century. It revolutionized medical diagnosis by providing a foundation to which the fluctuating symptoms of disease could be anchored. It now became the aim of scientific physicians to anticipate during the life of the patient the organic changes which would be disclosed at autopsy. Exact methods of physical examination, such as auscultation, percussion, and palpation, could be developed only after pathologic anatomy had disclosed the actual gross organic changes in disease. Not satisfied with these indirect methods of perception, ingenious investigators aimed at direct visualization of the organic alterations and invented instruments such as the laryngoscope and the cystoscope. X-ray diagnosis is likewise based largely upon the existence of physical changes in diseased organs. Thus the development of this important branch of medicine is founded upon the information supplied by pathologic anatomy.

For nearly a century Morgagni's idea of descriptive and correlative morbid anatomy held the lead in the progress of pathology. Yet, almost from the beginning of the era of pathologic anatomy, there were minds which challenged the primacy of a descriptive doctrine as the ultimate goal of pathology. They questioned the identification of disease with morbid alteration, and they ridiculed the overestimation of anatomic diagnosis as the final aim in the search for the nature of disease. It is the eternal contribution of Rudolf Virchow to have recognized the inevitable sterility of a merely static appraisal of the structural alteration associated with disease. In prophetic articles as well as by means of original investigations in pathologic anatomy and histology he stated precisely the leading idea of pathology and produced a "regulative principle" (Royce) for future re-

search. His dictum, "disease is life under altered conditions," is the master plan of a rational pathology. Life as form and function is the object of investigation—not form alone and not function alone. Altered life is under inquiry as it is seen at the sickbed, in the experimental animal, and in its final manifestation at the autopsy table. Each goal is approached by different methods; but the ultimate aim is integration into one science: pathologic physiology, the true science of medicine. This refers not to physiology in the narrow sense of the academic curriculum, but to physiology in its original sense, the proximate reason of the nature of man. Merely a century has passed since the first issue of his *Archiv*, in which Virchow originally announced his new doctrine. In the same year he formulated the principle which up to the present time has remained the axiom of research in pathology: to understand the inception and evolution of morbid states.

The pathologist concerned with the structural aspect of disease cannot confine himself to mere description. Pathologic anatomy originated as a branch of normal anatomy; it employed identical methods of gross and microscopic observation and description; but anatomic science advanced from mere description to an inquiry into the evolution of form. Morphology, concerned with the intrinsic reason of form, aims at an understanding of the formation and transformation of organic nature (Goethe: *Zur Botanik*, 1817). The concept of morphogenesis stimulated the development of embryology and comparative anatomy as components of normal anatomy. Pathologic anatomy utilizes the disclosures of these sciences in the interpretation of human monstrosities. Teratology and comparative pathologic anatomy have developed into an important field of biology; but beyond these special applications, the morphologic conception is a fundamental principle of pathologic investigation. Morphology rests upon the recognition that organic structure is constantly undergoing transformation. It is founded upon the comparison of different phases of organic life. Morphologic pathology compares normal with altered structure and correlates different states of pathologic lesions. It establishes relations between facts ascertained by observation, it correlates the morbid with the norm, and it teaches us that structural phenomena not only exist but that they pass through developmental stages. It introduces the dimension of time into the interpretation of static facts and it places them in the movement of life.

Life is manifested in structure and in function; the two cannot be dissociated. The maintenance of normal structure of living substance is guaranteed by the fundamental functions of assimilation and reproduction, and proper function is maintained by normal structure. This holds true for life in its most primitive as well as in its highest organization. A morphologic approach to structure implies a correlation between form and function. Thus, morphologic pathology guides us in visualizing aberration of function and makes structural change intelligible in terms of process. It leads us to the realization that pathology must strive for an understanding of the mechanisms of disease.

The complexity of the human body compels us to correlate structural and functional alterations at different levels of organization. Only on the plane of organs or complex tissues can changes of circulation and homeostasis become visually manifest, while alterations of metabolism and reproduction are revealed at the level of cells or intercellular substances.

While morphologic pathology is obviously dependent upon structural organization, it must always be remembered that living form is inseparably connected with matter (Needham). Biochemistry in its application to the analysis of organs and tissues is engaged in the search for the ultimate constitution of living matter without consideration of structure. Histochemistry, however, attempts to identify the chemical nature of morphologically separable units of cells and tissues. On the one hand, histochemistry employs the principle of anatomy—to separate separable things (Bensley). In addition to conventional histologic technique it utilizes the most refined methods of separation, such as microdissection, ultracentrifugation, and electronic microscopy. On the other hand, it adapts certain methods of analytic and enzyme chemistry and of physics, such as ultraspectroscopy and x-ray diffraction, to the investigation of cells and intracellular substances. A combination of such methods has already promoted research in histology, embryology, cytology, and genetics. The pathologist concerned with the structural aspect of disease must realize that a fuller understanding of life, normal and abnormal, will only be achieved by recognition of the chemical and physical constitution of the living substance and its regulation by the laws disclosed by natural science. Such recognition ties morphologic pathology to biochemistry, biophysics, and to biology in general. Thus the pathologist must keep abreast of every advance in these sciences.

Biology, as a science concerned with the manifestations of life, investigates also the conditions under which normal life is maintained in form and function. The living organism can scarcely be imagined outside of its natural environment but should be viewed as a part of the universe. Biologic sciences also must include in the scope of their inquiry the forces of the environment and mechanisms by which the living organism is adapted to their influence; they must attempt to interpret phenomena of life as a result of interaction between the forces of the organism and those of the external environment. Pathology, conceiving of disease as life under altered conditions, tries to understand life in terms of a change in this interaction. Complex external and internal factors determine disease. It is the final object of pathology to recognize all fundamental factors in their action and interaction, in order to investigate causality in disease. Exact observation and correct correlation lead to inferences of causality which must be tested by experiment. The recognition of external factors as causes of disease does not complete the search. Oertel clearly states: "Any perfect causal explanation must include the complete and con-

nected chain of all events which are responsible for phenomena, and these, moreover, must be in their proper position." In other words, etiology is not synonymous with pathogenesis. We must realize that the search for causality in disease must not stop with the recognition of external cause but must progress to demonstrate the mechanism by which the cause acts. Pathologists cannot rest merely with the reproduction of phenomena of disease by experiment; they must strive to "dissociate all the complex phenomena successively into more and more simple phenomena" (Claude Bernard). Only if we recognize the elementary principles of the causative factors and their action upon the animal and human body, will the ultimate aim of pathology be reached. Disease is the experiment of nature; we see only the results, while we are ignorant of the conditions under which the experiment has been performed. Step by step, pathology must unveil these conditions. It progresses from observation to correlation, from correlation to deduction, in order that rational experimentation may accomplish the final synthesis.

Disease manifests itself in alteration of form and function. Anatomic pathology deals with alteration of form, structural as well as material, while alteration of function is the domain of clinical investigation. An integrated knowledge of altered form and function is the ultimate aim of pathology and is the cornerstone of modern medicine. This integration requires not only a knowledge of facts but also a certain attitude of mind which must guide the future physician in the study of disease. This attitude of mind can be developed only if the student is trained to advance from exact observation to correlation of facts and from correlation to deduction. Alteration of structure, as disclosed by anatomic pathology, is easier to perceive than alteration of function; the analysis of changes in structure, as they occur in disease, is therefore a simpler preparation for the inquiry into the mechanism of disease. Moreover, as has been indicated previously, many methods used for the recognition of disease in the living are founded upon the knowledge of structural alterations in the dead. All this accounts for the position of anatomic pathology as a pre-clinical subject and for the requirement that a textbook of pathology shall be devoted primarily to exact description and interpretation of structural anomalies observed in disease. No textbook of pathology with its spatial limitations can fully achieve this object. It can attempt to present in concise form the results of investigation, it can never give a full account of the long road which has led from the original observation of lesions to the understanding of their causation; but by well-chosen references to literature, it can stimulate the student to a historical review of the problems of pathology. Thus the student can spiritually repeat the investigative efforts which have advanced our knowledge. In this way he will develop the attitude of mind which will later enable him to make his own contribution to the ultimate object of medicine: to recognize the intrinsic reason of disease.

Chapter 2

CELLS AND THEIR BEHAVIOR

E. V. Cowdry

FLUID ENVIRONMENT

The body is a complex system of regulated fluid streams in which cells live and function. As indicated in Fig. 1 the principal stream enters the alimentary tract and escapes mainly in the urine. The circulating blood plasma is about 5 per cent of the body weight, the more sluggish interstitial fluid (tissue fluid + lymph) 15 per cent, and the innumerable lakelets of intracellular fluid 50 per cent.

All living cells are aquatic but they are not all bathed in blood as protozoa attached to the rocks of the bed of a stream are bathed in water passing by—a much mistaken simile. Only the endothelial cells which limit the blood stream and the blood cells within it are directly in contact with blood. A fundamental feature in the architecture of the body is the protection of all other cells from direct contact with blood.

The vast majority of cells live in tissue fluids which are shielded from the blood stream by a layer of vascular endothelium through which transfer of material is limited. These tissue fluids are not seen to be of large extent on naked-eye examination, but in relation to the size of their cellular inhabitants they are of considerable volume. They are certainly larger pools of fluid *in vivo* than when viewed in microscopic preparations in which there has been a shrinkage of 10 to 20 per cent. The preparations are therefore deceptive.

Walter B. Cannon¹ has written eloquently about the factors which maintain like states (homeostasis) in the blood stream. In the tissue fluids, unlike states, or conditions, are established to provide the special fluid environments required by many kinds of cells; and these environments are regulated so that the cells are not subjected to injury by the imposition of too great changes in their manner of life. Thus, heterostasis in the tissue fluids is imposed upon the homeostasis in the blood—a concept which is gaining ground rapidly.

These different states in tissue fluids owe their origin and maintenance to local differences in:

1. **Permeability of Vascular Endothelium.**—Exchange between blood and tissue fluid depends on permeability. Where there is a high degree of vascular permeability (spleen and liver), exchange is greater than where it is lower (extremities).

2. **Blood Supply.**—Contribution from blood to tissue fluid and drainage from tissue fluid into the blood also depend on availability of the blood stream to the tissue. From avascular tissues, such as epidermis, cornea, and cartilage, blood is held at a distance so that their tissue fluids are less conditioned by it than are those of tissues having a rich blood supply.

3. **Lymphatics.**—Some components of tissue fluids unable to leave them through vascular endothelium can get out through lymphatic endothelium because it is more permeable. Tissue fluids of alymphatic tissues (brain, bone marrow, etc.) are consequently less effectively drained than are those provided with many lymphatics (intestinal mucous membrane, dermis, etc.).

4. **Cellular Inhabitants.**—Obviously, their influence on the tissue fluid depends on what they take from it, what they give to it, and whether they are surrounded by much or little of it.

5. **Fibrous Components.**—Where elastic and collagenic fibers exist in the tissue fluids, these may be expected to influence the composition of the fluids because they provide surfaces for adsorption (cf., iron and calcium encrustation in blood vessel walls). Alterations in arterial elastin with age cannot fail to influence the composition of the surrounding tissue fluid.

Many peculiarities of different tissue fluids have been reported and others are to be expected.² Only those most easily collected have thus far been analyzed. Cerebrospinal fluid differs very materially from joint fluid. The fluid in the anterior chamber of the eye appears to be unique in that species differences are lack-