SEVENTH EDITION PATHOLOGY

EDITED BY W.A.D. Anderson John M. Kissane

VOLUME TWO

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Edited by

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SEVENTH EDITION

with 1728 figures and 6 color plates



THE C. V. MOSBY COMPANY

Saint Louis 1977

SEVENTH EDITION (two volumes)

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Previous editions copyrighted 1948, 1953, 1957, 1961, 1966, 1971

Printed in the United States of America

The C. V. Mosby Company 11830 Westline Industrial Drive, St. Louis, Missouri 63141

Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data

Anderson, William Arnold Douglas, 1910- ed. Pathology.

Includes bibliographies and index.
1. Pathology. I. Kissane, John M. II. Title.
[DNLM: 1. Pathology. QZ4 P2985]
RB111.A49 1977 616.07 77-1052
ISBN 0-8016-0186-X

CB/CB/B 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2

VOLUME TWO

PATHOLOGY

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PREFACE to seventh edition

The preface to the sixth edition of Pathology mentioned a merging between pathology and other so-called basic sciences that compelled a certain arbitrariness relating to inclusion or exclusion of many subjects in which recent advances had been made. In the preparation of this seventh edition, we have taken cognizance of some of those points of merging to which highly specific, not merely arbitrary, consideration must be given, that is, consideration regarding inclusion in the undergraduate medical curriculum. In planning for and executing this seventh edition, we recognized the fact that many schools now introduce pathology in the first year of the undergraduate medical curriculum. This fact compels teachers of pathology to place their contributions even more specifically in contextual relationship with the so-called "basic sciences" while maintaining relevant contemporariness in their applications to clinical medicine.

To these ends, several chapters have been rewritten by new contributors. We welcome them to this, our joint effort, at the same time that we thank those colleagues whom they have succeeded.

We hope that this revision will continue to entitle this work to the acceptance that preceding editions have enjoyed as a source for consideration by students during their preclinical years, no less than during their clinical years. A conscious effort has been made to continue the emphasis upon clinicopathologic correlations to the end that the work would continue to merit the confidence enjoyed by previous editions as a reliable, up-to-date source of information related to pathologic anatomy, important in the practice of the many defined areas of clinical medicine, including that of pathology itself.

W. A. D. Anderson John M. Kissane

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. Although presented in an order and form to serve as a textbook, 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 Char-

lotte 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

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25/Testes, scrotum, and penis

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TESTES Anomalies

Excluding malposition of the testicle, other anomalies are very rare. Anorchidism (congenital absence) and monorchidism (one testicle) have been reported. Synorchidism (fusion of testicles) occurs intra-abdominally. Polyorchidism has been found at operation and necropsy.

Ectopic testis. Ectopic testis is a congenital malposition of the testicle outside of the normal channel of descent. This ectopia, according to its location, is classified as interstitial, pubopenile, femoral, crural, transverse,

and perineal.

Cryptorchidism. When the congenital malposition results in retention of the testicle anywhere along the route of descent, it is known as cryptorchidism. The cause of cryptorchidism is not always evident. The various apparent causes are short spermatic vessels or vas deferens, adhesions to the peritoneum, poorly developed inguinal canal or superficial abdominal ring, maldevelopment of scrotum or cremaster muscles, and hormonal influences. Incomplete descent is found quite frequently during the first few months of infancy. The incidence is about 4% in boys under 15 years of age and about 0.2% in adults. Histologically, the cryptorchid testis before puberty does not differ from the normally descended organ. After puberty, however, it is always smaller than normal. The capsule is somewhat thickened and wrinkled. The epididymis is separated from the mesorchium. There is progressive loss of germ cell elements. The tubules may be lined only with spermatogonia and spermatids, but occasionally there is spermatogenesis. In fact, foci of spermatogenesis are found in 10% of undescended testes. This condition has also been reported in abdominal testis. It is estimated that 10% of men with untreated cryptorchidism remain fertile. The basement membrane of the tubules thicken and hyalinize. In later stages spermatogenesis is rare or absent and the tubules are lined only with Sertoli cells. Tubules with completely occluded lumens are not uncommon. The collecting tubules and rete may be quite prominent, a condition that suggests hyperplasia and even adenoma. The intertubular tissue is sparsely cellular and becomes more dense with age. The interstitial cells of Leydig are conspicuous and vary in number. In some cases the Leydig cells are decreased in number, and in other cases they are increased both in size and in number. They are found singly, in small groups, and occasionally in large masses. In some cryptorchid testicles, most of the atrophied organ is composed of large groups of polyhedral Leydig cells between which may be found scanty fibrous tissue and a few fibrosed tubules. In rare instances, very few cellular elements are encountered and the entire testes become completely fibrosed.

The cause of atrophy of undescended and ectopic testes is not known. There is convincing evidence that an optimum temperature is necessary for spermatogenesis and that temperatures higher than that within the scrotum suppress spermatogenesis. When aspermia or hypospermia exists, the testicle atrophies. The chief function of the scrotum is to regulate the temperature for the testes. Ischemia caused by pressure, stressed by some authors, is definitely a minor factor in causing suppression of spermatogenesis in cryptorchidism. There is a high incidence of tumors of the testes in cryptorchidism.

Intersexuality. A true hermaphrodite or ambisexual is one who possesses an ovary and a testicle or two ovotestes with or without external genitalia of both sexes. A pseudohermaphrodite possesses gonads of one sex and genitalia of either both or opposite sexes. In the male pseudohermaphrodite, the testes are present, but the internal genitalia are of both

sexes, and the penis and scrotum are poorly developed. In the *female pseudohermaphrodite*, the ovaries are present, usually in their normal position, the vagina is rudimentary and opens into the urethra, and the clitoris is hypertrophied.

Status of the testis in male infertility

About 15 out of every 100 marriages in the United States are barren, and male infertility accounts for about half of the cases. In all such patients quantitative determination of urinary 17-ketosteroids, estrogens, and gonadotropins; karyotyping; and testicular biopsy are essential to determine the specific cause of the male infertility and whether it is curable. Wong and his co-workers have proposed a simple classification of male infertility: pretesticular, testicular, and posttesticular.

Pretesticular causes of infertility are mainly hypopituitarism, endogenous or exogenous estrogen or androgen excess, hypothyroidism, diabetes mellitus, and glucocorticoid excess.

Hypopituitarism may be prepubertal or postpubertal. Prepubertal causes include lesions in or adjacent to the pituitary (e.g., cranio-pharyngiomas, trauma, and cysts). Such patients eventually manifest sexual infantilism, failure of somatic growth, and varying degrees of adrenal and thyroid hypofunction. Testicular biopsy shows small immature seminiferous tubules and immature Leydig cells similar to prepubertal testis.

Postpubertal hypopituitarism results from tumors, trauma, or infarction. Testicular biopsy shows maturation arrest, loss of germ cells, reduced diameter of tubules, and progressive thickening and hyalinization of tunica propria. The Leydig cells are small and shriveled.

Hypopituitarism may be the result of genetic defects in gonadotropin secretion. There are no demonstrable lesions of the pituitary and deficiencies of adrenal and thyroid function or growth. The patients may show deficiency of both follicle stimulating (FSH) and luteinizing hormones (LH), or the FSH may be normal but LH deficient. The patients are generally tall and eunuchoid. Testicular biopsy in the former shows small and immature seminiferous tubules resembling prepubertal testis. In the latter the seminiferous tubules show a greater degree of development than do the Leydig cells.

Estrogen excess may be endogenous (hepatic cirrhosis, adrenal tumor, Sertoli or Leydig cell tumor) or exogenous (administered to

patients with cancer of prostate). Initially, the biopsy shows failure of maturation, progressive decrease of germinal elements, diminished diameter of seminiferous tubules, and thickening and hyalinization of tunica propria. Eventually there is complete sclerosis of tubules and atrophy of Leydig cells. The findings are identical to those of postpubertal hypopituitarism.

Androgen excess may be endogenous (adrenogenital syndrome, androgen-producing adrenal cortical or testicular tumors) or exogenous (oral administartion). Pathologic findings depend on whether the condition developed before or after puberty. If prepubertal, the result is virilism and failure of the testis to mature. If postpubertal, there is progressive loss of germ cells and, unless recognized and remedied, tubular sclerosis.

Glucocorticoid excess, whether endogenous (Cushing's syndrome) or exogenous (administered for treatment of ulcerative colitis, rheumatoid arthritis, or bronchial asthma) can result in oligospermia and maturation arrest or hypospermatogenesis.

Hypothyroidism and diabetes mellitus may result in decreased fertility. Hypospermatogenesis is followed by thickening of tunica propria. In uncontrolled diabetes autonomic neuropathy may result in impotence.

Testicular causes of infertility are agonadism, cryptorchidism, maturation arrest, hypospermatogenesis, absence of germ cells (Sertoli cell-only syndrome), Klinefelter's syndrome, mumps orchitis, and irradiation damage.

Agonadism

Congenital agonadism is extremely rare and consists of total absence of the testes. If this occurs in early embryonic life, the infant will be female. Occasionally in cryptorchid boys the epididymis ends blindly, but careful search fails to show any gonadal tissue (the "vanishing testis syndrome"). The chromosomal pattern is XY. Since testes must have been present in fetal life to initiate male development, they must have been resorbed after that period.

Bilateral anorchia may be associated with incomplete differentiation of male genitalia. The gonads and the internal genital structures may be absent or rudimentary. These findings suggest that the testes must have been present to initiate male sex development but vanished before maturity.

Jost showed that fetal testis played an important role in the early development of the wolffian structures and regression of müllerian

elements. The development of wolffian structures was related to the local androgen production, whereas regression of müllerian elements seemed to be influenced by additional nonandrogenic factors. Federman's excellent discussion of the situation may be summarized as follows: If the male fetus begins life with dysgenetic testis, varying degrees of pseudohermaphroditism may ensue; if gonadal failure occurs before organization of the genital tract, female external genitalia will result; if gonadal failure occurs during the period of male sexual differentiation, ambiguous genitalia may result; if, however, testicular failure occurs after the sixteenth week of gestation, the male structures are established and the patient would develop as a male but without testes.

Cryptorchidism

The histology of cryptorchidism is described on p. 1013.

Maturation arrest

Maturation arrest is manifested in a testicular biopsy by the failure of normal spermatogenesis at some stage. Most commonly this is at the stage of primary spermatocytes. No secondary spermatocytes, spermatids, or spermatozoa are present. It may also be at the spermatid stage with few or no spermatozoa.

The Sertoli cells, testicular tunica propria, and Leydig cells are normal as is the diameter of the seminiferous tubules. There is oligospermia, or azoospermia. The urinary FSH, LH, and 7-ketosteroids are normal.

Hypospermatogenesis

Hypospermatogenesis is more difficult to detect. All cells of spermatogenic series are present in the same proportions as normal, but the number of each variety is decreased. The seminiferous tubules are of normal size. Sertoli and Leydig cells and the tunica of the tubules are normal. Patients have oligospermia with normal urinary FSH, LH, and 17-ketosteroids.

Absence of germ cells (Sertoli cell-only syndrome)

The characteristic feature of this group is the absence of germ cells with the seminiferous tubules lined solely by exuberant Sertoli cells. In a few tubules germ cells may persist. The diameter of seminiferous tubules is decreased; the tunica propria of the tubules is not thickened and the Leydig cells are normal. The secondary sex characteristics are well developed; the patients are potent but infertile. The urinary 17-ketosteroids are normal, but urinary FSH and LH are invariably high.

Klinefelter's syndrome

About 3% of male sterility is attributable to primary hypogonadism. This syndrome is characterized by testicular hypoplasia, azoospermia, gynecomastia, eunuchoid build, increase of urinary gonadotropin, and, not infrequently, subnormal intelligence. The diagnosis is seldom made before puberty. Chromosome studies reveal an XXY intersexuality caused by fertilization of an ovum whose divided X chromosome failed to separate. Such individuals have a sex-chromatin pattern similar to genetic females. However, other individuals with a similar or nearly similar syndrome are genetically males.

There is increased urinary excretion of pituitary gonadotropic hormones, but the reason is not that there are any abnormalities of the pituitary gland but is attributed to the absence of the controlling influence of some testicular hormones.

The tests are usually small $(1.5 \times 0.5 \text{ cm})$. The histology of the biopsy varies widely. It has been reported that the tubules are sclerosed and hyalinized and there is an apparent increase in the number of interstitial cells. Tubular fibrosis is progressive and is associated with retardation of spermatogenesis. Spermatogenic activity varies greatly. Careful examination of a biopsy may fail to show any activity whatsoever, but it may be found only on examination of the entire testis. Maturation as far as primary spermatogenesis, even to the stage of secondary spermatocytes and spermatids and, in rare instances, spermatozoa, has been reported. The release of sperm from the testis to the ejaculate is uncommon, but a few have been observed.

Mumps orchitis

The histology of mumps orchitis is described on p. 1017. Ten to 20 years after the initial infection, depending on the extent of testicular involvement, there may be oligospermia or azoospermia. The 17-ketosteroids and LH are normal, and the level of FSH is elevated.

Irradiation damage

Permanent germ cell destruction results from exposure to radiation so that in time the tubules are lined by Sertoli cells only. The diameter of seminiferous tubules is progressively smaller and the tunica is thicker, terminating in sclerosis. Leydig cells are preserved. The patient is azoospermic or oligospermic. Urinary FSH is elevated, but the 17-ketosteroids and LH are normal.

Posttesticular causes of infertility consist mainly of block, which may be congenital (absence or atresia of vas deferens or epididymis) or acquired. Acquired is more frequent and may be either on the basis of infection (gonorrhea, etc.) or surgical intervention (voluntary or iatrogenic). The clinical manifestation is azoospermia. The testicular biopsy in such patients shows active spermatogenesis. The seminiferous tubules may be dilated, and there may be hypospermatogenesis or cellular sloughing, or both.

Another cause of posttesticular infertility is impaired sperm mobility. Wong and his coworkers reserve this term specifically to those cases in which the sperm counts are adequate and the testicular biopsy specimens are normal, yet the mobility of spermatozoa in the semen is either greatly impaired or absent.

In all men with infertility, testicular biopsy is necessary for proper categorization and for prognosis.

Acquired atrophy

Excluding undescended testicles, acquired atrophy occurs in senility, prolonged hyperpyrexia, debility, avitaminosis, cirrhosis of the liver, hypothyroidism, schizophrenia, estrogen medication for carcinoma of the prostate, and diseases of the pituitary gland and hypothalamus. Faulty or suppressed spermatogenesis without other changes may questionably be considered as mild atrophy. The early findings in atrophy are degenerative changes of the spermatogonia cells. As atrophy progresses, the germinal epithelial cells disappear, leaving only Sertoli cells resting on a thickened basement membrane. The seminiferous tubules become small and farther apart, and the interstitial cells of Leydig appear prominent (Fig. 25-1).

Thrombosis and infarction

Hemorrhage, thrombosis, and infarction of the testicle occur in trauma, torsion, leukemias, bacterial endocarditis, and periarteritis nodosa (Fig. 25-2). Birth trauma may cause hemorrhage of the testicle. Many such hemorrhages are small hematomas that rapidly resorb.

Torsion

A sudden twisting of the spermatic cord results in strangulation of the blood vessels



Fig. 25-1. Atrophy of testicle. Thickened tubular basement membranes lined with degenerated spermatogonia and Sertoli cells. Prominent Leydig cells in interstitial tissue.

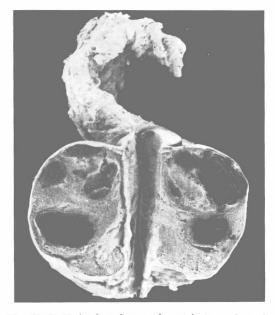


Fig. 25-2. Multiple infarcts of testicle in periarteritis nodosa.