

Restrictive:

Restrictive Overview

Physiology

Can't get air in, but can exhale normally
normal FEV1/FVC

↓ TLC: hallmark is TLC < 80% of predicted

diffusing capacity often reduced
w/parenchymal disease

Acute (ARDS) vs. Chronic presentations

Alveolar macrophage plays central role in
chronic restrictive diseases: controls
deposition of collagen/fibrosis

not all chronic restrictive diseases are due to
fibrosis (amyloid/malignancy)

Extra-Parenchymal (outside of lung) Restrictive diseases

Etiology:

Impaired muscle function

ALS, MG, guillain-Barre, polio, etc....

Chest wall disease

obesity, kyphoscoliosis, severe burns, etc....

"Other" etiology

pneumothorax, pleural effusions, complete
obstruction to major bronchus

Physiology

Whatever the etiology, lung parenchyma is normal

The A-a gradient will be normal

ARDS = DAD

Pathogenesis

An acute problem!

systemic insult: sepsis, trauma, shock, DIC, etc

injury (immune/cytokine) to alveolar capillaries: ↑
permeability

eosinophilic edema fluid in alveoli

hyaline membrane forms around alveoli

gas exchange impaired

Pathologic changes: 3 phases

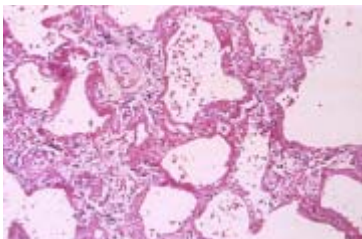
Exudative: edema & hemorrhage

4-7 days after onset of respiratory failure

gross: focally hemorrhagic, airless, heavy
lungs, solid

histologically: **Eosinophilic hyaline
membranes**, capillary congestion

Hyaline membranes are da bomb
made of fibrin, cellular debris, and leaked serum
proteins



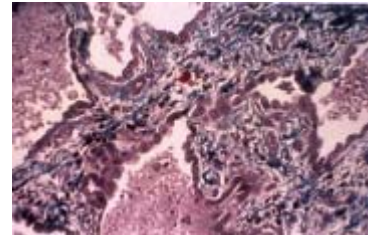
Proliferative: organization & repair

1-3 weeks

gross: lungs are rigid, red, heavy

histologically: **hyperplastic type 2 cells**

cuboidal type II pneumocytes widen alveolar wall



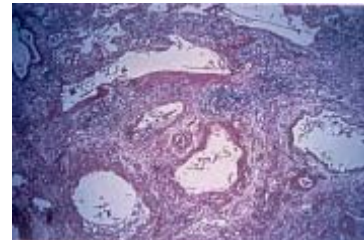
Fibrotic: end stage fibrosis

3-4 weeks +

lung now remodelled

gross: fibrosis/cysts

histology: **fibrotic microcysts** represent
progression of ring shaped alveolar duct
fibrosis, alveolar walls widened by
collagen/scarring



Prognosis

correlates with duration of injury, not nature of
injury

2/3 of survivors have abnormal pulmonary
function afterwards

Restrictive:

ARDS & Pulmonary Edema Syndromes

How does fluid get into the lungs?

Summary

any abnormal Starling forces (except no known instance of primary increases in $\pi(\text{pmv}) = \text{colloid perimicrovascular}$)

MOST clinical cases of pulmonary edema are due to \uparrow permeability or \uparrow capillary pressure
cardiogenic: fluid in the lungs because of poor heart function

non-cardiogenic: fluid in the lungs (usually) due to lung vascular endothelium injury

Specific:

$$\text{EVLW} = K[(P_{\text{mv}} - P_{\text{pmv}}) - \sigma(\pi_{\text{mv}} - \pi_{\text{pmv}})] - \text{LYMPH FLOW}$$

Variables

EVLW = extravascular lung water content

K = measure of membrane leakiness to water

P_{mv} = capillary hydrostatic pressure

P_{pmv} = interstitial hydrostatic pressure

pmv = perimicrovascular

σ = measures vascular permeability to proteins compared to water

π_{mv} = osmotic pressure of capillary

π_{pmv} = osmotic pressure of interstitium

$\uparrow K \rightarrow \text{ARDS}$

$\downarrow \sigma \rightarrow \text{ARDS}$

$\uparrow P_{\text{mv}} \rightarrow \text{CHF, volume overload, HTN, etc}$

$\downarrow P_{\text{pmv}} \rightarrow$ (rare) upper airway obstruction, reexpansion pulmonary edema

$\downarrow \pi_{\text{mv}} \rightarrow$ hypoalbuminemia, nephrotic syndrome

\downarrow lymph flow \rightarrow malignancy, trauma to thoracic duct

Pathophysiology of ARDS

permeability pulmonary edema = ARDS

extends beyond Edema

inflammation \rightarrow cellular proliferation \rightarrow fibrosis (pathologically called DAD)

Hypoxemia

blood perfuses liquid-filled alveoli, cannot equilibrate with air

R \rightarrow L shunt

vessels lost ability to vasoconstrict, so shunting can't be minimized: we don't really know why

Compliance

Lungs become less compliant: restrictive defect

Note: this "restriction" is theoretical because you don't go around giving people with ARDS PFT's

Stiff lungs necessitate use of \uparrow airway pressures on the vent

this can cause barotrauma

Clinical

ARDS characterized by dyspnea, progressive hypoxemia, bilateral radiographic lung infiltrates, and \downarrow pulmonary compliance
mortality rate approaches 50%

ARDS is not a disease, but it is a response to injury

Infections

sepsis

pneumonia

Drugs

heroin

cocaine

Hemodynamic

shock

Trauma

fat emboli

lung contusion

massive blood transfusion

Inhaled toxins

oxygen!! free radical damage, can turn into DAD

smoke inhalation

Misc

aspiration

pancreatitis

ABG's:

ARDS is said to exist when there is acute hypoxemic respiratory failure with large R \rightarrow L shunt

R \rightarrow L shunt defined as $\text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2$ ratio of ≤ 200

$\text{PaO}_2/\text{FiO}_2$ ratio: multiply % FiO_2 by 7 \rightarrow this is what PaO_2 should be

Between 200 and 300: any lung injury

Below 200: R \rightarrow L Shunt

See problem set for examples (i.e. Problem set #3, case 1, problem 3)

CXR: diffuse patchy infiltrates

Cardiac Cath: \downarrow or normal pulmonary capillary wedge pressure

this just proves that the L heart is normal

Treatment

no role for systemic corticosteroids in early ARDS

vent: PEEP (positive end-expiratory pressure)

but this can cause barotrauma: you can't win

Restrictive:

BOOP = BO = COP = UCP

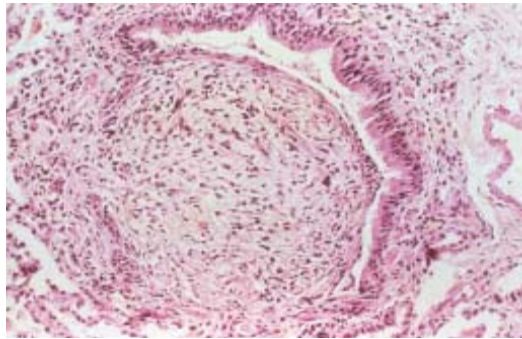
Pathogenesis

failed restoration after pneumonia

Pathology

patchy intraluminal polyps (= bronchiolitis obliterans) with central collection of macrophages, lymphocytes, and plasma cells.

polyps can block airway, causing an element of obstruction



absence of honeycombing: unlike DAD, has no microcystic change

Clinical

X-Ray: multiple nodular opacities

Steroid responsive

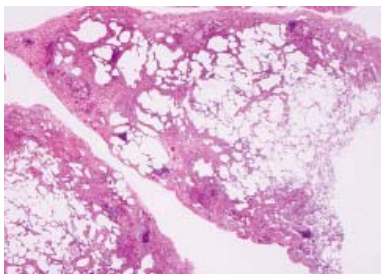
UIP = IPF = Kiss of Death

Pathogenesis

idiopathic, possibly immune

Pathology

Gross: analogous to end-stage kidney
small lungs, cirrhotic, hobnailed surfaces
diffuse fibrosis with microcysts (looks just like DAD)
microcysts peripherally distributed
honeycombing (due to microcysts)/emphysema may be present



Histopathology: 3 stages, but hard to define because stages are so slow

Acute: seldom seen, indistinguishable from early DAD (edema, hyaline membranes), don't worry about it

Proliferative: interstitial/intraalveolar fibrosis

Fibrotic: can no longer recognize alveoli, architectural disorganization, collagen, microcysts.

Pathognomonic: focus of fibroblastic proliferation: manufactures collagen

Clinical

presentation

50-60 yo, M > F

insidious onset: dry cough, gradual increase in dyspnea

hypoxemia, ↓ PCO₂ due to hyperventilation

note: due to insidious course, patient may not seek medical attention until they have end-stage fibrosis

PE: rapid shallow respirations, fine end-inspiratory crackles (rales) over lower lobes, digital clubbing

X-Ray: increased interstitial markings = "reticulonodular markings"

Not steroid responsive, transplant needed

PFTs: ↓ TLC, VC, RV; normal or ↑ FEV₁/FVC. ↓ corected DLCO

ABGs: hypoxemia, low PaCO₂ due to hyperventilation

median survival: 5 years, W > M

rate of cancer is increased, as it is in other fibrotic lung dz

Restrictive:

HSP

Pathogenesis

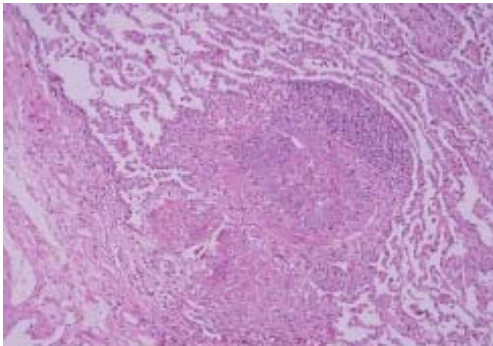
extrinsic allergic alveolitis due to inhalation of organic dusts
inflammation can result in parenchymal fibrosis

Pathology

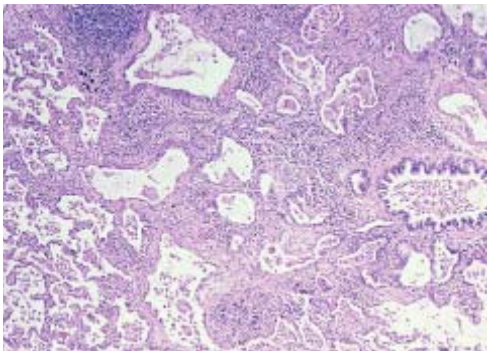
key feature: **incomplete non-caseating granulomas** and inflammation

diagnostic triad:

- 1) inflammation of bronchiole or around bronchiole (= bronchiolitis/peribronchiolitis)

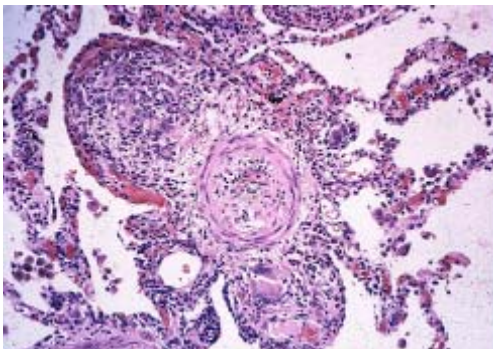


- 2) chronic interstitial pneumonitis



- 3) baby ("incomplete") granulomas = single multinucleated giant cell (at 5 o'clock in picture) seen in 70% of biopsies

NOTE that sarcoid has complete granulomas



Clinical:

Responds to steroids
presents with cough, fevers, dyspnea (especially after Ag exposure)

Sarcoid

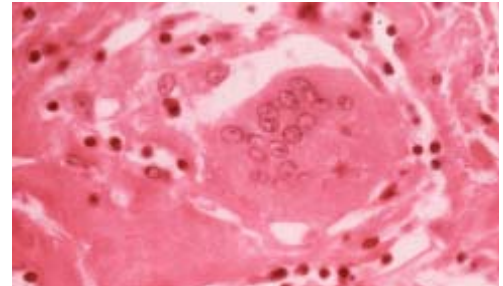
Pathogenesis

multisystem granulomatous disease
cause is a mystery

Pathology

initial lesion in lung is **lymphocytic alveolitis**
classic granuloma is non-caseating

involves wall of bronchioles
can follow path of lymphatics



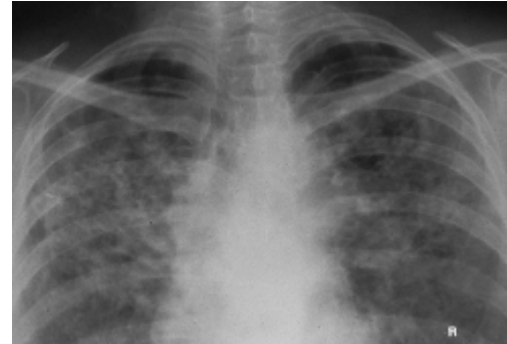
very little fibrinoid necrosis

Clinical

young adults: 20-40, hilar enlargement, expanded mediastinum

biopsy to dx sarcoid vs. lymphoma
but if skin lesions present, it's sarcoid

X-Ray: bilateral enlarged hilar lymph nodes, ↑ interstitial markings



PFT: ↓ of lung volumes, ↓ diffusing capacity, hypoxemia, ↓ corrected DLCO

can also be element of obstruction if granulomatous inflammation involves airways

ABGs: hypoxemia, especially during exercise.
Hypercapnia in advanced cases

Active dz: treated w/ steroids

inactive disease: will regress or is already fibrotic

Prognosis

favorable: remove offending antigen

resolves on its own: 70%

responds to steroids: 25%

gets worse, like IPF: 5%

Obstructive:

Overview of Obstruction/COPD

Important determinants of airway caliber:

- 1) material in lumen (BOOP)
- 2) abnormally thick mucosa (chronic bronchitis)
- 3) abnormal tethering of airways by parenchyma
- 4) smooth muscle contracted (asthma)
- 5) ↑ pleural pressure (theoretical only)

Pathophysiology: diffuse airway obstruction

↓ FEV1/FVC ratio

V/Q mismatch

in general, patients w/airway obstruction DO RESPOND to supplemental O₂

↑↑ work of breathing due to hypoxemia/dyspnea/work exceeding muscle capacity

COPD: A group of diseases with diffuse obstruction to airflow in smaller airways especially during expiration.

Most commonly, implies: Chronic bronchitis & Pulmonary Emphysema

Bronchial asthma also included

may progress to COPD, bronchiectasis, and atelectasis

patients often have combination of these 3 diseases

CHRONIC BRONCHITIS VERSUS EMPHYSEMA

CLINICAL FEATURE	EMPHYSEMA (PINK PUFFER, TYPE A)	CHRONIC BRONCHITIS (BLUE BLOATER, TYPE B)
Age	Older	Younger
Stature	Tall, thin	Stocky, obese
Cor pulmonale	Late in course	Early in course
Hypoxemia	Mild	Prominent
Hypercapnia	Late in course	Early in course
Lung compliance	Increased	Normal
DLCO	Reduced	Normal
Airway obstruction	Severe	Moderate
Hematocrit	Normal	Increased

note that these pink/blue nicknames have fallen out of favor because most people have both even if they look blue or pink.

risk factor: smoking, but less than 15% of smokers get COPD, but cigs account for 90% of risk

Physical Exam

- wheezing
- prolonged expiratory phase
- may see clubbing
- accessory muscles of respiration w/ severe dz

CXR: ↓ lung markings, hyperinflation of lung
emphysema destroys lung tissue

ABG:

- mild to moderate hypoxemia w/o hypercapnea (early dz)
- w/ FEV1 < 1 L, hypercapnia becomes common
- Bronchitis: preserved DLCO
- Emphysema: low DLCO

Prognosis/complications

if a smoker quits smoking, rate of decline in lung function returns to normal rate

hypoxemia: pulmonary arterial vasoconstriction
→ rising pulmonary artery pressure

RV can fail → cor pulmonale

heart trouble due to the lung

bullous lesions can rupture → pneumothorax

Treatment

bronchodilators: β₂ agonists

corticosteroids

antibiotics

Important: Home oxygen to prevent pulmonary hypertention

NO Sedation (Atavan)

Less common diseases still called "COPD"

bronchiectasis

cystic fibrosis

α-1-antitrypsin deficiency

Bronchial Asthma

Pathogenesis

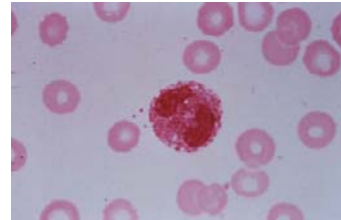
paroxysmal widespread narrowing of small conducting airways due to hypersensitivity of bronchial tree

stimulus: could be allergic

reversible, intermittent

chronic inflammatory disease: cannot be cured, but can be controlled in most patients

chiefly eosinophilic response



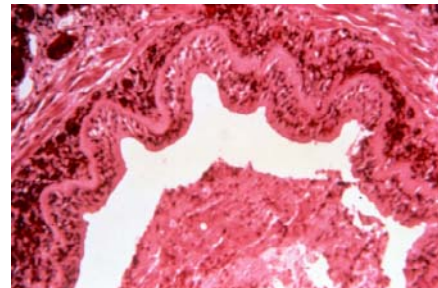
mast cells also play important role

Pathology

Gross: distended lungs, may have atelectatic foci

small bronchi may be dilated and filled w/mucous plugs

Microscopic:



- 1) thickened BM
- 2) inflammation in wall
- 3) inflammatory exudate in lumen

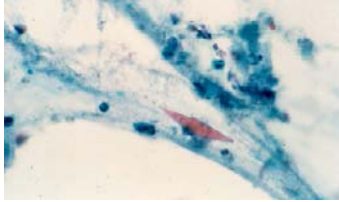
Obstructive:

Sputum:

Curschmann's spirals: curled up globs of mucus



Charcot-Leyden crystals (eosinophilic)



eosinophils & mast cells

Pathophysiology

bronchial hyperresponsiveness is hallmark

methacholine challenge

anything that triggers mast cells can trigger an acute asthma attack

Clinical

Acute airway attack (exposed to environmental agent)

this usually responds to smooth muscle relaxants

More complex problem: obstruction due to inflammation that is not fully relieved by smooth muscle relaxants

Exam:

tachypneic and distressed, wheezing, prolonged expiratory phase

ABG:

↑ A-a gradient

hypoxemia corrects w/O₂ → V/Q mismatch
can also be component of shunt involved due to atelectasis

At first, PaCO₂ usually ↓ because central stimuli to ↑ breathing

But then, as breathing becomes more work, PaCO₂ rises

A normal PaCO₂ w/severe asthma = impending disaster

CXR: hyperinflation

used more to rule out PTX, pneumonia, etc

Treatment

systemic corticosteroids

bronchodilators

ventilation w/SEVERE obstruction

May be asymptomatic between attacks, but methacholine challenge will always be positive

Chronic Bronchitis

Definition

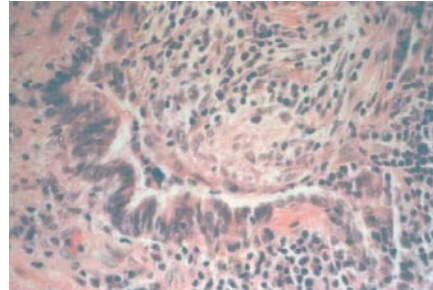
chronic productive cough of 3+ months, for not less than 2 successive years

Pathogenesis

Smoking, environmental

Pathology

can look like BOOP



REID Index: 50% or more = chronic bronchitis

normal is 33%

defined as ratio of mucosa to entire bronchial wall

non-functional cilia

goblet cell metaplasia, lots of secretions

Pathophysiology

obstruction of small airways (bronchioles mostly)

Clinical

Signs & Symptoms

chronic cough with expectoration (thick yellow sputum)

recurrent respiratory infections

hypoxia (cyanosis)

polycythemia

Obstructive:

Emphysema

Definition

enlargement of respiratory airways with associated destruction and loss of tissue

Pathogenesis

imbalance between elastases (alveolar macrophages and PMNs) and inhibition (α -1-antitrypsin) leads to lung digestion

cigarette smoking $\uparrow\uparrow$ macrophages & polys \rightarrow \uparrow digestion

note that chronic bronchitis frequently coexists w/emphysema

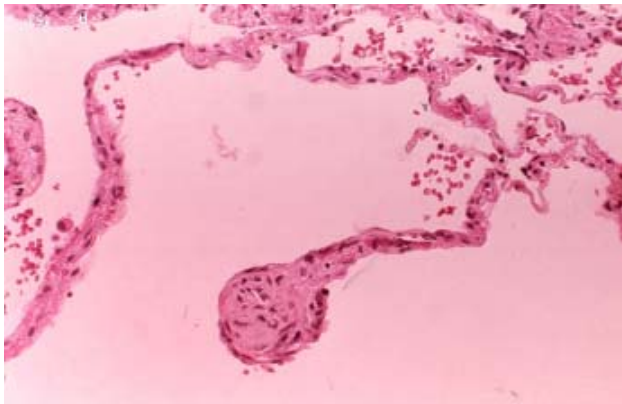
Pathology

gross: hyperinflated



(ignore the squamous cancer in this picture)

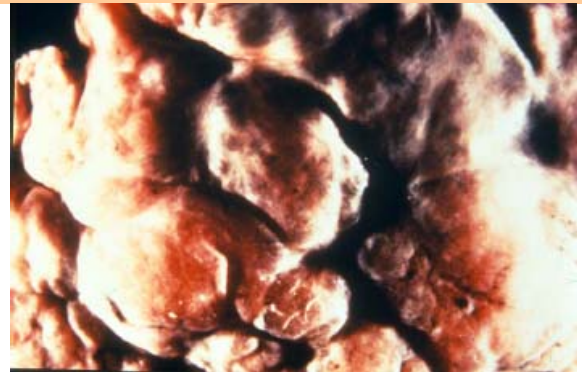
microscopically: enlargement of airspaces & loss of alveolar walls



Different types (defined by position in secondary lobule):

Centrilobular

- dilated airspaces in **center of secondary lobule**
- most common type of emphysema
- usually worse in upper lung
- looks like bunch of grapes from outside lung



Panlobular = Panacinar

usually related to α -1-antitrypsin defect
dilation and destruction **involves entire secondary lobule**

much less common

Bullous

not a true category, can occur w/ any type of emphysema

a bulla is just a big cyst, nothing to get too excited about

common, idiopathic

Clinical

CXR: bigger lung volume, low diaphragms. barrel-shaped thorax

Pleural Diseases:

Overview of Pleural Dz

What is the pleura?

visceral: covers lung parenchyma

parietal: covers endothoracic fascia

blood supply: both systemic & from bronchial arteries

lymphatics in parietal pleura: communicate w/pleural space through stomas

these stomas are the only exit for cells & liquid in pleural space

mesothelium: flat squamous epithelium that makes up both pleural membranes

Pleural Effusion

Pathogenesis

Normally (in health), you have a balance of starling forces that promote filtration of fluid INTO pleural space, but lymphatics drain this

Considerable (20x) ability of lymphatics to ↑ drainage

But, there are several ways you can get too much fluid in the pleural space

↑ P(capillary)

CHF

↓ π(capillary)

nephrotic syndrome

↑ permeability

leaky vessels, can be caused by pneumonia

↓ lymphatic drainage of pleural space

tumor

fibrosis of lymphatic channels

movement of fluid from peritoneum

ascitis fluid through holes in diaphragm

Physiologic effects

Restrictive ventilatory dysfunction

↓ TLC

diaphragm may be affected (disadvantageous part of length-tension curve)

ABG: Δ's usually due to underlying lung dz, NOT pleural effusion

PaO₂ usually ↓

↑ A-a (V/Q mismatch)

Differential diagnosis

Transudates

Criteria must include **ALL** the following, otherwise it's exudative

1) pleural fluid to serum protein ration < 0.5

2) pleural fluid to serum LDH ration < 0.6

3) pleural fluid LDH that is < 2/3 upper limits of normal for serum LDH

Can be caused by relatively few things

CHF (most common)

Cirrhosis

nephrotic syndrome, etc

treatment is straightforward: treat underlying problem, diuresis

Exudates: if exudate, "jump on it and get more tests": **MANY** diverse things can cause exudate.

MUST figure out what!

infections

pneumonia most common

malignancy

Clinical

Physical Exam

pleuritic chest pain

pleural friction rub w/inflammation

↓ breath sounds

↑ whispered pectoriloquy & egophony

Pleural Diseases:

Pneumothorax

Pathogenesis

- abnormal air in pleural space
- can have many causes, but regardless of cause, similar histology
 - spontaneous
 - rupture of subpleural bleb
 - underlying illness
 - bleb rupture, especially in CF
 - many infections
 - COPD
 - trauma
 - tension PTX: one way valve, ↑↑ pressure, trachia/mediastinum shift to OTHER side

Physiology

- decrease in vital capacity
- V/Q mismatch, ↓ PaO₂, ↑ A-a

Pathology

- mesothelial proliferation in pleura = **mesothelial hyperplasia**
 - cells become cuboidal
 - may form little "polyps", clump up

- fibrin deposition → fibrosis
- multinucleated giant cells

Clinical

- Physical exam
 - moderate tachycardia
 - ↓ breath sounds
 - hyperresonant percussion note
 - tactile fremitus should be absent
 - w/tension PTX, trachea shifted towards other side

Pleural Plaques

Pathogenesis

associated with asbestos

- plaques are generally an indicator of asbestos exposure, but they do NOT signify asbestosis
- takes about 20 years to get a plaque after asbestos exposure
- pathogenesis poorly understood
- ↑ risk for mesothelioma

Pathology

Gross

- more on parietal and diaphragmatic plura than visceral
- parallel to ribs



may fuse and mimic mesothelioma



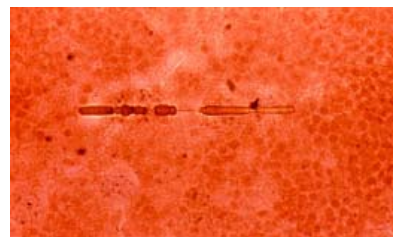
Histology

basketweave collagen



very few cells, acellular

NO asbestos bodies (extremely rare to find one in a plaque)



may calcify

Pleural Diseases:

Mesothelioma

Pathogenesis

etiology unknown

strong association with asbestos

but we don't know for sure

takes 25+ years after exposure

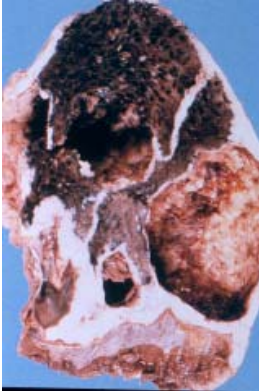
< 1% of all cancer deaths

Pathology

gross

more common on parietal pleura

White thick tumor that encases the lungs



NOTE: benign mesothelioma doesn't encase the lung

three types

1) Epithelial (50%): all have poor prognosis

solid

tubular

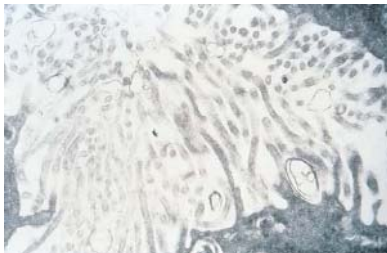
tubulo-papillary

2) Fibrous (25%)

3) Mixed (25%)

Can be vacuolated

have long and slender villi visible by EM



Pathophysiology

restricts lung from the outside

can also restrict pericardium

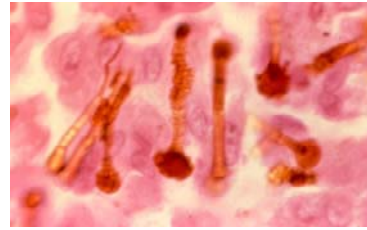
can spread to peritoneal cavity

Associated with asbestos

amphibole (crocidolite)

rod-like

when coated with glycoproteins & hemosiderin, called ferruginous body

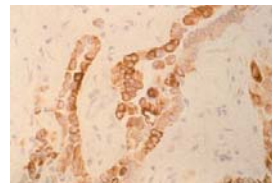


serpentine (chrysotile)

wavy

Diagnosis: special stain

+ cytokeratin & others



- CEA

Prognosis: poor

Pulmonary Thromboembolism & Pulmonary Infarcts:

Pulmonary Thromboembolism

Pathogenesis

may develop anywhere in venous system, especially pelvis & lower extremities

risk factors

immobilization, CHF, fractures, estrogen, pregnancy, long rides

four things can happen to a thrombus forming in the lower extremities:

- 1) resorbed by fibrinolytic system
- 2) incorporated into wall of vein
- 3) break loose
 - if it forms in the calf it's probably too small to do any noticeable damage
- 4) grow larger and travel to deep venous system of thigh
 - this is where things can get dangerously big

Pathology

premortem vs. postmortem clots

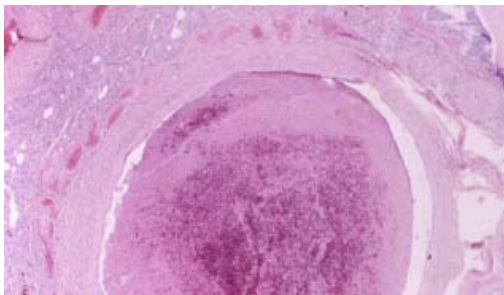
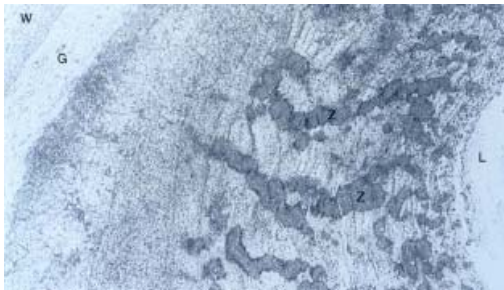
postmortem:

smooth tapering into adjacent branches
softer

premortem:



lines of Zahn: platelets, fibrin, platelets, fibrin, etc



blunt-ended
firmer

Pathological sequence

thromboembolus may become incorporated into vascular wall

later: intimal bands, web

occasionally hypertensive vascular changes

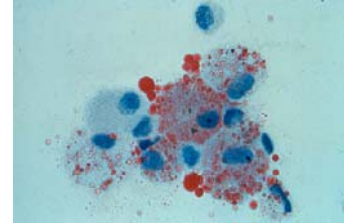
Other types of emboli

Air emboli

frothy blood is main finding

differential dx: sepsis

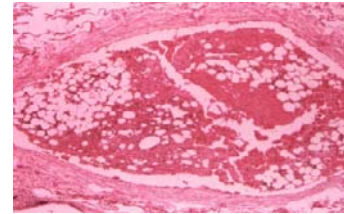
Fat emboli



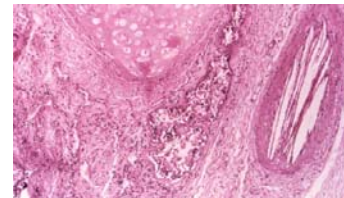
diagnosis: oil red "O" stain

Amniotic fluid emboli

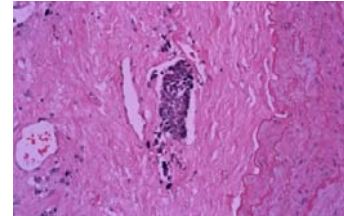
Marrow emboli



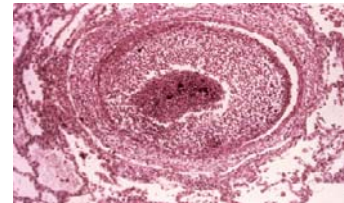
Cholesterol emboli



malignant emboli (small cell carcinoma)



septic emboli: clot is acutely inflamed



Pulmonary Thromboembolism & Pulmonary Infarcts:

Pulmonary Thromboembolism (continued)

Clinical

Detection

scintillation scan: look for lack of perfusion

Acute presentations: cause of sudden death

+/- ↑ PA pressures

but does not always occur

+/- rapidly failing R heart

ABG's

↑ alveolar dead space: high V/Q ratio mismatch

↓ PaCO₂ because minute ventilation ↑↑ out of proportion to ↑ in dead space

HYPERVENTILATION

anxiety, central drive to ↑ minute ventilation due to mediators

this can lead to alkalosis with an A-a gradient

hypoxemia may occur

↑ A-a gradient due to 3 factors

1) lower O₂ content in venous blood due to acute R heart failure and low CO

tissues suck more O₂ out of blood

2) V/Q mismatch major cause of hypoxemia

↑ deadspace

3) there is an element of R → L shunt due to perfusion of unventilated areas

atelectasis can form due to loss of surfactant in involved lung region

Can also present chronically: normal lung volumes, but ↓ DLCO

Differential Dx/Patient presentation:

symptoms are NON-SPECIFIC to PE

dyspnea, fever, pleuritic chest pain, cough, hemoptysis, syncope, increased S₂

Differential:

MI, COPD, pneumonia,

CXR: not very helpful, can look normal or show many things

It's important to figure out if it's really a PE because anticoagulation therapy is dangerous

impedence plethysmography

ultrasound

venous contrast

ventilation-perfusion lung scan (V/Q) scan

if normal, rules out PE

"high probably scan" + clinical suspicion = PE

"normal/low probability scan" + clinical suspicion = 50% PE

pulmonary angiogram: invasive but gold standard

invasive, has risks

performed when someone could be at risk for anticoagulation (GI bleeds, etc)

D-Dimer test

only useful when negative

Treatment

anticoagulation

course of treatment

heparin 7-10 days

coumadin 3-6 months

has risks

don't give heparin to someone with recent neurosurgery, for instance!

venous filters

fibrinolytic agents: these don't really work

thrombectomy: last resort surgical option

Pulmonary Thromboembolism & Pulmonary Infarcts:

Pulmonary Infarcts

Pathogenesis

PE normally doesn't lead to infarct: lung has dual circulation

Risk factors:

low-flow states

↑ Age

Pathology

Gross



75% of infarcts in lower lobes (this is where most of the blood flows)

costophrenic angles: closest to ribs

pyramidal/wedge shaped

Pathological sequence

initially: Red infarct due to edema & hemorrhage

later: Pale infarct due to WBC's and macrophages

complete necrosis may occur

organization → scar



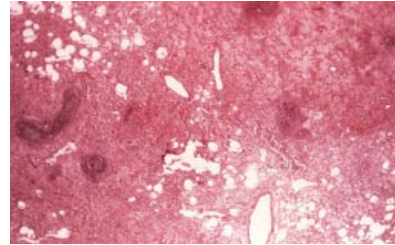
months to one year

or, can get infected → abscess (2-3%)

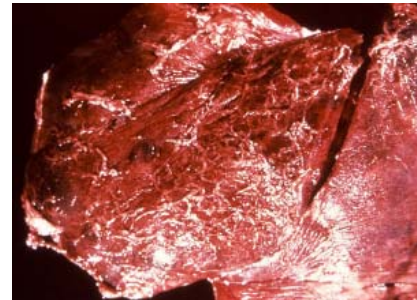
this shows a fresh infarct @ 6 o'clock and an infected one @ 3 o'clock



Infected infarct



Can lead to breaks in pleural membrane → blood enters pleural space → fibrinous pleuritis



Clinical

Diagnosis:

CXR may be normal or show blurred shadow

Pulmonary Hypertension:

Pulmonary Hypertension

Pathogenesis/Pathophysiology

Normal physiology

Normal lung pulmonary artery pressure is about 25 mm Hg

Can ↑ to 30 mm Hg during exercise

↑ blood flow through lung

in any case, it's around 1/5 to 1/6 of systolic pressure

Etiologies: pulmonary HTN can develop from 4 mechanisms

1) ↓ blood return to L ventricle

2) ↑↑ Cardiac output

vascular bed unable to accommodate ↑↑ flow rates

3) ↓ radius of pulmonary artery: Resistance related to radius to 4th power

vasoconstriction

occluded lumen

blood vessels squeezed from outside

4) Idiopathic = essential = primary

Another way to think about etiologies:

Hyperkinetic

intracardiac shunt: ASD, VSD

Passive

LV failure

mitral stenosis/obstruction

Left atrial obstruction: myxoma, thrombus

pulmonary venous obstruction

neoplasm

Obliterative

parenchymal dz

COPD (Obstructive dz)

bronchitis

emphysema: destruction of alveolar walls

destroys vasculature → ↓ cross sectional area → ↑ resistance

bronchiectasis

Restrictive dz

parenchymal fibrosis

collagen vascular disease, vasculitis

Obstructive: obstruct pulmonary arteries

PE

other emboli

pulmonary schistosomiasis

Vasoconstrictive

hypoxemia & acidemia stimulates vasoconstriction

this is why home O₂ supplementation is so important for COPDers

sleep apnea

Idiopathic

PPH: obliterative process of small vessels of unknown cause

poor prognosis

some respond to prostacyclin or Ca⁺⁺ channel blockers

O₂ can relieve vasoconstriction

NO good treatment short of heart-lung transplant

Whatever the cause, once pulmonary HTN is sustained for some weeks, the changes are irreversible

smooth muscle hypertrophy

deposition of elastin

intimal proliferation

Tends to get worse over time

Note: pulmonary HTN not due to primary lung dz is called cor pulmonale

Pathology

TYPE	SETTING	MH	IP	PPA
Obstructive	PTE	20%	Eccentric	No
Obliterative	ILD	Severe, near 100%	Concentric	No
Primary	? Drugs	No	No	Yes

MH = Medial Hypertrophy
IP = Intimal Fibrosis
PPA = Proliferative Pulmonary Arteriosclerosis

Obstructive = Occlusive HTN

usually thrombotic in nature, even if thrombi are not recognizable

PTE (pulmonary thromboembolism) usually does NOT give rise to sustained pulmonary HTN

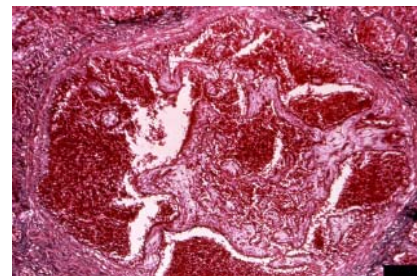
It is only when a large proportion of arterial bed is occluded that pulmonary HTN develops

→ probably a mechanical, NOT so much a vasoconstrictive effect

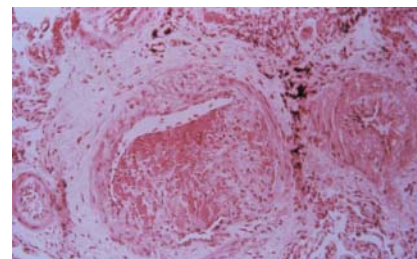
only 20% show medial hypertrophy

Clinically indistinguishable from PPA of primary HTN

Begins w/ thrombus: recanalization results in formation of intraarterial fibrous septa



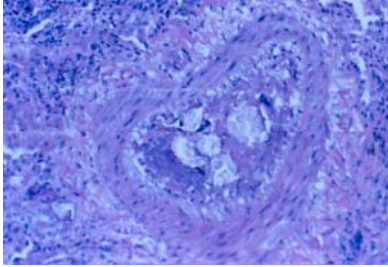
ends in eccentric intimal fibrosis or patches of cellular intimal proliferation



Pulmonary Hypertension:

Can also be caused by other types of thrombus:

Talc thrombus (highly birefringent under polarized light) due to IV drugs



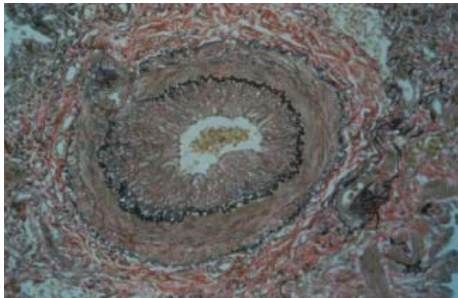
Obliterative = Fibrotic HTN

Usually due to **interstitial lung fibrosis**

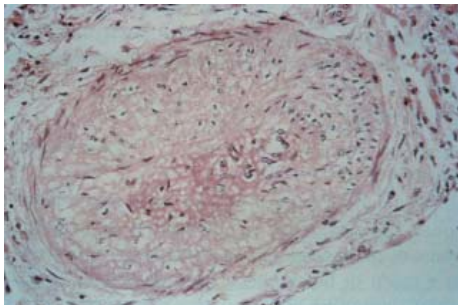
Clinically, pulmonary arterial pressure can actually be normal

severe pulmonary HTN is uncommon w/ fibrotic disorders

Pulmonary arteries show **severe medial hypertrophy** and **concentric intimal fibrosis**



both media & intima involved: here there is so much intimal proliferation there no lumen is left

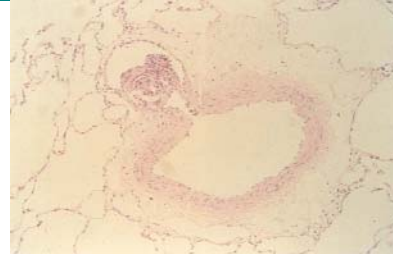
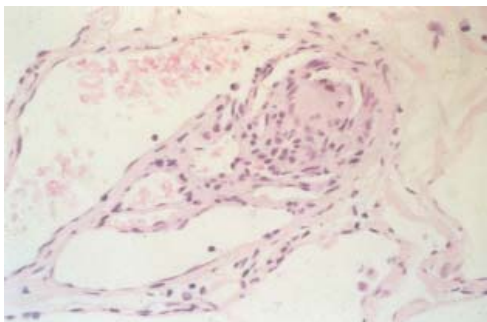


both arteries & veins can be affected

Idiopathic = PPH (primary pulmonary HTN)

Not associated with PTE or ILD

Plexogenic Pulmonary Arteriopathy (PPA) is hallmark, but not pathognomonic: capillary tufts



PPA classified by Heath-Edwards Classification

A bunch of disclaimers about PPH

Pathogenesis is a big stinking question mark

No treatment

Histopathology is not specific

May overlap with other disorders

Clinical

ABG's

hypoxemia due to altered V/Q relationships & shunts through regions not normally perfused

Symptoms

poor exercise tolerance and severe dyspnea on exertion

some patients: dull substernal chest pain

Physical Exam

loud P2

narrowly split S2

signs of RV heart failure

CXR: enlarged hilar shadows

could show RA or RV enlargement

Tests

pulmonary HTN detected w/ doppler

echocardiographic studies

confirmed w/ right heart cath

Respiratory Control/Respiratory Failure:

Respiratory Control

Chemoreceptors

medullary:

detect \uparrow PaCO₂ and/or acidosis to increase breathing rate

detect \downarrow PaCO₂ to decrease breathing rate

decreased breathing rate may also result from \downarrow sensitivity

athletic training

aging

carotid body: detect \downarrow PaO₂

normally, hypoxia above 70 mm Hg does not stimulate breathing

but once hypoxia gets below 70, ventilation will $\uparrow\uparrow$

Resting minute ventilation determined primarily by PaCO₂

But, combine hypercapnia (principle trigger) with hypoxia (secondary trigger) to produce an even greater response in minute ventilation than either response alone

Mechanoreceptors: 3 types

- 1) stretch receptors in smooth muscle of airways
inhibit inspiration as lung is inflated
- 2) irritant-receptors in airway epithelium
cough in response to noxious agents
- 3) juxtacapillary receptors in lung interstitium
the only unmyelinated fibers
stimulated by interstitial edema & chemical agents
stimulation causes laryngeal closure & rapid shallow breathing

Rhythmogenesis & Sleep

Physiologic Δ 's

hypoventilation is normal (\uparrow PaCO₂, \downarrow PaO₂)

ventilatory set point altered

respirations can become irregular

chemoreceptor response blunted

floppy airway

\rightarrow these Δ 's are not a big deal in healthy people. But w/ underlying lung dz they can be huge problem.

It is not unusual for COPDer to have \downarrow 35% decline in PaO₂ during sleep

obstructive sleep apnea (OSA)

Apnea: absence of airflow and tidal volume for \geq 10 secs

Hypopnea: \downarrow in tidal volume by $>$ 25% for \geq 10 secs

OSA: upper airway obstruction in pharynx (can be reversed with tracheostomy)

near closure of airway \rightarrow snoring

complete closure of airway \rightarrow OSA

Systolic BP $\uparrow\uparrow$ due to inspiratory efforts against closed airway

these cyclic alterations in pulmonary arterial pressures may lead to daytime pulmonary HTN (seen in 20-60% of OSA patients)

Respiratory Control/Respiratory Failure:

Respiratory Failure

Definition arbitrary: any disorder that results in "abnormally" ↓ PaO₂ (< 60 mm Hg) with/without "abnormally" ↑ PaCO₂ (> 50 mm Hg)

Hypoxemic vs. Hypercapnic failure

"Lung Failure"

first hypoxemia then hypercapnea

@ first hypoxemia, then if you get bad enough → hypercapnea

"Pump Failure" = outside lung dz

ALWAYS hypercapnea due to ↓ minute ventilation

↓ PaO₂

↑ PCO₂

NORMAL A-a gradient

Or, you could have BOTH

Healthy people have a considerable reserve to ↑ minute ventilation, but people with underlying lung dz are extremely sensitive to extra insults

Pathophysiology

Volume of CO₂ eliminated related to:

1) concentration of CO₂ in alveolar gas: can be ↑ in many ways

- a) hyperthermia, shivering
- b) ↑ work of breathing increases CO₂ metabolism in respiratory muscles
- c) not enough ventilation

2) alveolar ventilation: in "pump" failure, tidal volume is reduced → ↑ dead-space

- a) CNS depression (drugs)
 - b) mechanical defects (flail chest, extreme hyperinflation)
 - c) fatigue of respiratory muscles
- only CNS depression doesn't ↑ work of breathing

Clinical Correlations: How different diseases can cause respiratory failure

Pump failure

CNS depression

PNS diseases

Chest wall diseases

Upper airway obstructions

Lung diseases: asthma, COPD, CF, pneumonia, ARDS

combined mechanisms of severely limited ventilatory supply & ↑↑ ventilatory demand

profound hypoxemia can result due to significant V/Q mismatch +/- R → L shunts

Early: respiratory alkalosis as long as ventilatory supply > demand

Late: respiratory acidosis as patient gets too tired to breath or cannot breath enough: ventilatory supply < demand

Treatment

too many nuances for now

In general, treat primary problem regardless of respiratory failure

Correct hypoxemia/hypercapnia without causing additional complications such as O₂ toxicity or barotrauma

don't worry about it (yet)

Pulmonary Infections

Pulmonary Infections

Pathogenesis

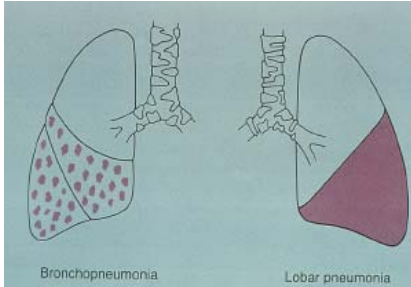
URT infections: most often viruses

true pulmonary infections: viruses, mycoplasma, bacterial, mycobacterial, fungal

Bacterial Pneumonia

General

Two types: **Lobar** vs **Lobular**
(Bronchopneumonia)



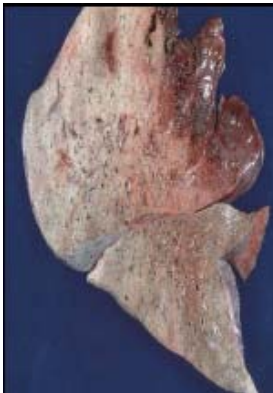
lobar starts in alveoli and spreads through pores of Kohn

lobular (bronchopneumonia) starts in terminal and respiratory bronchioles and spreads through bronchial walls into alveoli

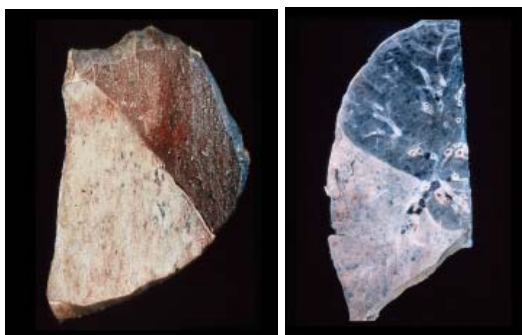
Definition: lower respiratory tract infection by bacteria

Most common cause: Streptococcus pneumoniae (pneumococcus)

can be very aggressive and result in tissue necrosis
(note necrosis & hemorrhage @ 12 o'clock)



Lobar pneumonia: starts in **alveoli**, spreads through pores of Kohn

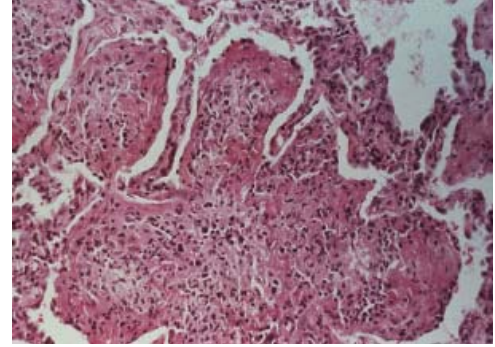


95% caused by pneumococcus

also klebsiella, pseudomonas, etc

Widespread fibrinosuppurative consolidation of large areas (and even whole lobes) of lung

Extensive exudation through pores of Kohn
(little openings between alveoli)



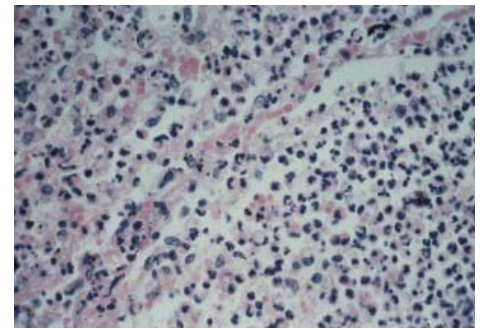
Four stages (mostly historical) of Lobar Pneumonia:

1) Congestion

heavy and red lungs
vascular engorgement
few polys, many bacteria

2) Red Hepatization

red, firm, airless
MANY polys, fibrin, RBCs



3) Gray Hepatization

gray brown dry surface
disintegrated RBCs, fibrino-purulent exudate
gray (left) and red (right)



4) Resolution

enzymatic digestion
granular debris
pleural fibrin exudates

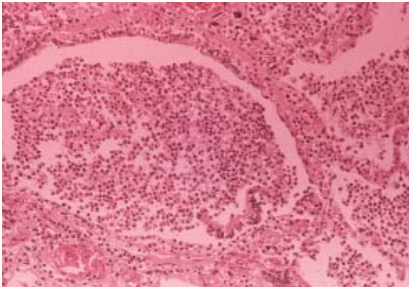
Pulmonary Infections

Lobular = Bronchopneumonia: starts in **airways**

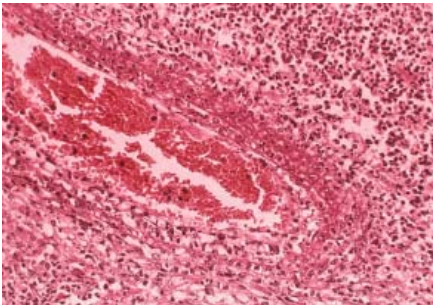
starts in terminal and respiratory bronchioles and spreads through bronchial walls into alveoli



airway filled with PMNs: acute inflammation of airways



blood vessels can get inflamed

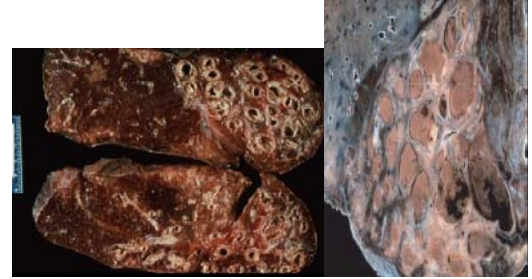


caused by many pathogens:

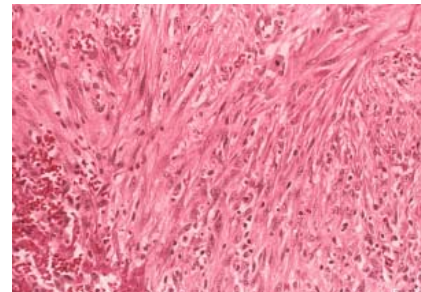
streptococci, pneumococci, staphylococci, H. flu, P. aeruginosa

Complications of Bacterial Pneumonia

1) Bronchiectasis: abnormal dilation of airways, can only be cured w/surgery



2) Spread to pleura → empyema: fibroblasts, RBCs, neutrophils affect pleura (needs surgical management)



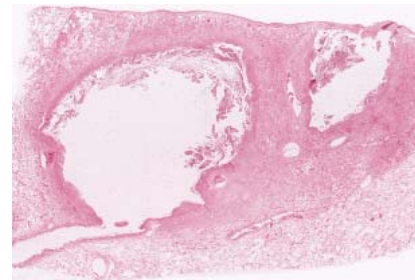
3) Necrosis → abscess: see below

4) organization → solidification

5) bacteremia → seeding

Bacterial Lung Abscess

Definition: local suppurative process characterized by necrosis



Pathogenesis

- 1) **aspiration** (most common)
- 2) antecedent bacterial infection/pneumonia
- 3) septic emboli
- 4) neoplasia: becomes necrotic & infected w/ bacteria

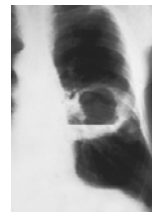
Types of bacteria

bacteroides, fusobacterium, peptococcus
VERY foul breath

Pathology

cardinal sign: necrosis

more common on R side
fibrosis w/chronic cases
fluid line on x-ray



Pulmonary Infections

Atypical Pneumonia: confined to **interstitium**

Lack of alveolar exudates

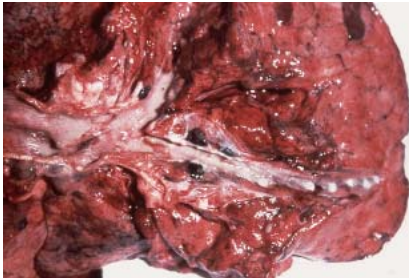
the world would be a better place if it was called
"interstitial pneumonia"

primarily caused by **Mycoplasma** or viruses

Pathology of atypical pneumonia

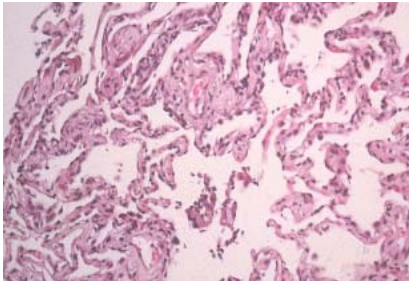
Gross:

not too much to see except congestion

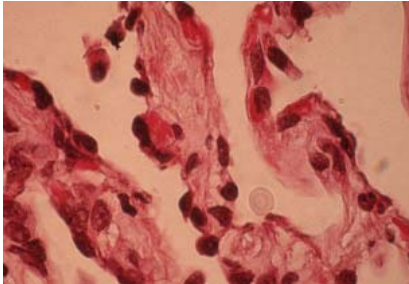


Histologically:

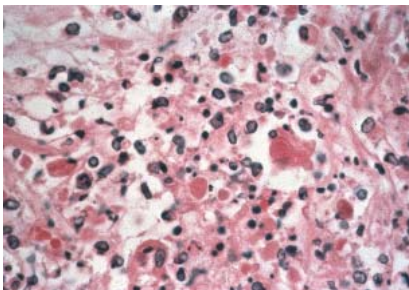
expansion of interstitium, NO exudate



Cells lining alveoli are hyperchromatic. No PMN's



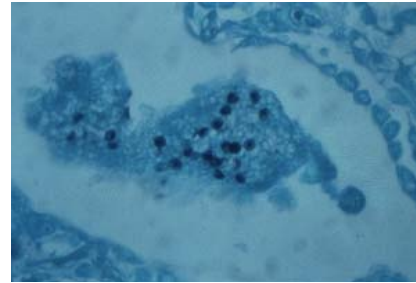
Viral atypical pneumonias are similar to mycoplasma pneumoniae but tends to be necrotic, and you can see viral inclusions



PCP pneumonia

AIDS, AIDS, AIDS

causes frothy exudate



Lung Cancer:

Lung Cancer

Pathogenesis

Early changes: these changes are probably reversible

squamous metaplasia

respiratory epithelium responds to chronic damage by changing from pseudostratified ciliated columnar epithelium to stratified squamous

dysplasia

considered pre-malignant

Carcinoma in situ

becomes carcinoma once cells cross basement membrane

Carcinoma

progression from mild dysplasia to carcinoma takes about 15-20 years

add another 10 years for cancer to be detectable by CXR

now it's too late to be cured by surgery alone

Paraneoplastic syndromes: findings in cancer patients which cannot be explained on the basis of spread of tumor: often ectopic hormone production

ectopic hormone production

↑ ACTH: cushings

↑ 5HT: carcinoid syndrome

↑ ADH: SIADH

↑ PTH: Hypercalcemia

↑ Gonadotropin: gynecomastia

↑ TSH: hyperthyroidism

Neuromuscular syndromes

dermatomyositis-polymyositis

MG

Unknown cause

hypertrophic pulmonary osteoarthropathy

Etiology

85% due to cigarette smoking

asbestos, radon, radiation, chemicals also play a role

Classification schemes

WHO

1) Squamous cell carcinoma

2) Adenocarcinoma

3) Large cell carcinoma

4) Small cell carcinoma

Working classification

Non Small Cell

squamous cell

adenocarcinoma

large cell

Small cell

classic

mixed (small and large cell)

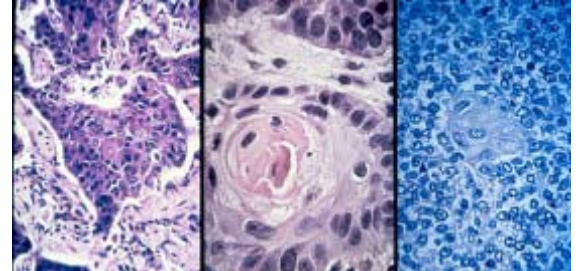
Combined

Pathology

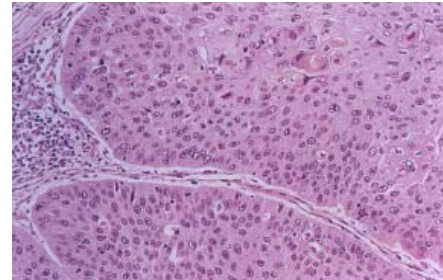
Squamous Cell Carcinoma

80% male

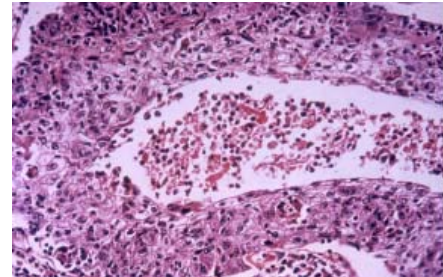
most closely associated with cigarette smoking
may present w/obstructive pneumonitis
characterized by presence of keratin to form pearls (keratin can be intracellular or extracellular)



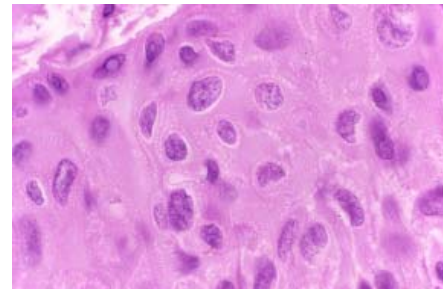
squamous cell carcinoma



Has a tendency to undergo necrosis & cavitate



can have intracellular bridges: spines which connect one cell to the next, looks like railroad tracks



gross: central tumors which cavitate

Lung Cancer:

Pancoast tumor

a tumor that grows in the **superior sulcus** of lung

most often (95%) NSCC, but can be squamous or adenocarcinoma

often screws w/ brachial plexus or sympathetics
→ **horner's**



Adenocarcinoma

50% of lung cancer in women

M = F, ↑ prevalence in women

Cavitation is unusual (in contrast to Squamous)

forms tubules and glands. Can form papillary structure

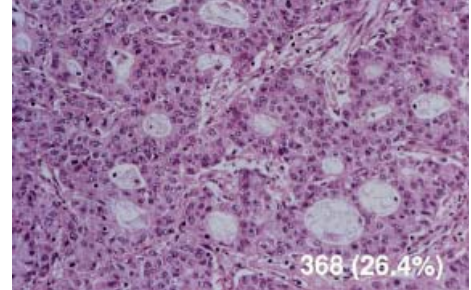
77% involve pleura, often comes very close to pleura



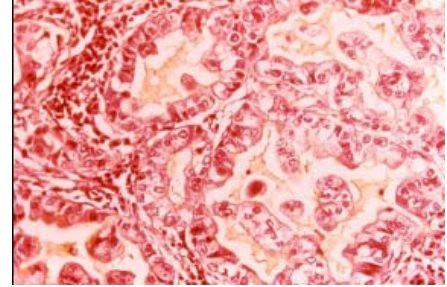
may simulate mesothelioma

Four Types of Adenocarcinoma

1) Acinar: forms glands



2) Papillary



3) Solid

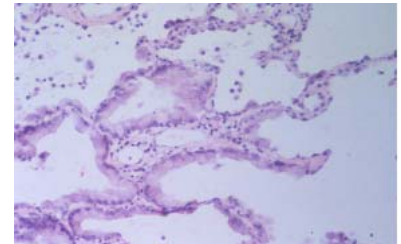
4) Bronchoalveolar

NOT associated with smoking

can look like metastatic cancer to lung (ovary, pancreas, breast, stomach)

mucin producing cells

follows preexisting alveolar framework



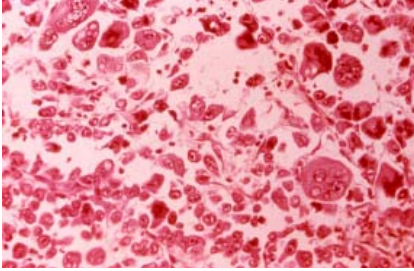
Lung Cancer:

Large Cell Carcinoma

too poorly differentiated to have squamous or glandular (adeno) features, so it's just called "Large Cell"

In the real world, they are simply called "Non Small Cell Carcinomas"

very aggressive, poor prognosis

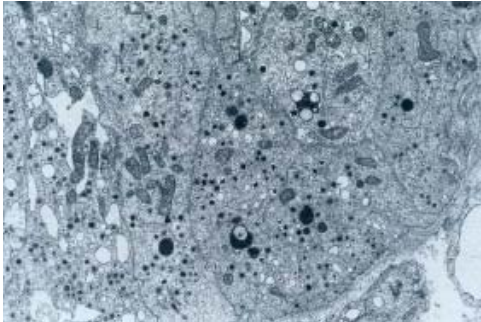


Small Cell Carcinoma

derived from neuroendocrine cells

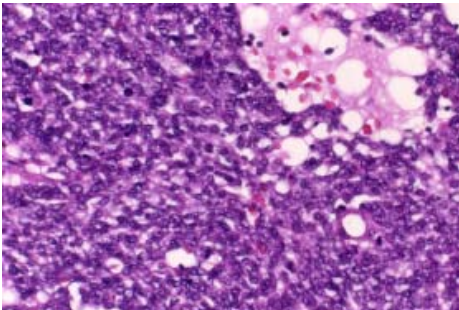
commonly can have ectopic hormone production: paraneoplastic syndromes

neurosecretory granules visible by EM

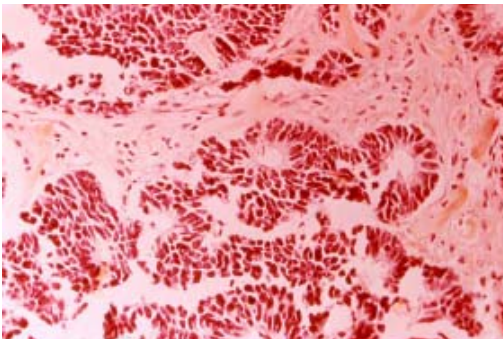


Responsive to chemotherapy/Radiation

Small cells w/ little cytoplasm



Can form Rosettes: evidence of neuroendocrine differentiation



Occupational Disease:

Occupational Lung Diseases

Pneumoconiosis: "dusty lungs": fibrotic rxn of lung that results from inhalation of inorganic dusts

Asbestosis

General Description

slowly progressive diffuse pulmonary fibrotic dz caused by inhalation of asbestos fibers

Pleural involvement is hallmark (unique to asbestosis)

Asbestos can also cause:

- focal/diffuse pleural plaques
- malignancies (bronchogenic and malignant mesothelioma)
- pleural effusions

Asbestos comes in two shapes:

- long curly strands (serpentine)
- long straight rods (amphibole)

Disease course

20-30 year lag time after exposure (larger exposure → shorter lag)

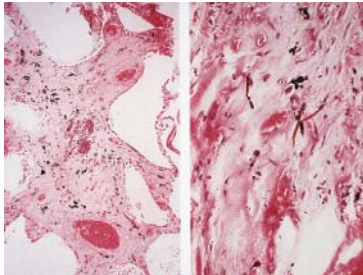
PFTs: restriction w/ ↓ DLCO and ↓ exercise tolerance (oximetry)

CXR: bilateral interstitial reticular (fine lacey) or multinodular abnormalities

- especially in lower lung
- often with associate pleural abnormalities
- Hilar mediastinal adenopathy usually NOT seen

Diagnosis:

presence of asbestos bodies in lung tissue associated with IPF (= UIP)



Therapy:

no specific therapy.

Complications:

- respiratory failure & malignancy
- asbestos is the only known risk factor for malignant mesothelioma

Silicosis

General Description

chronic dz caused by inhalation of dusts containing free crystalline silicon dioxide

results in multiple nodular parenchymal and lymphoid lesions

fibrotic lesions of pleura

↑ risk of lung cancer

↑ risk of TB

chronic and accelerated/acute forms

chronic: requires long exposure

acute & accelerated: high concentration quartz exposures as short as a few weeks (acute) to 5 years (accelerated)

pathogenesis:

silica is fibrogenic substance

→ macrophages eat it and then they die

→ lysis of macrophages release fibrogenic cytokines

IL-1

TNF

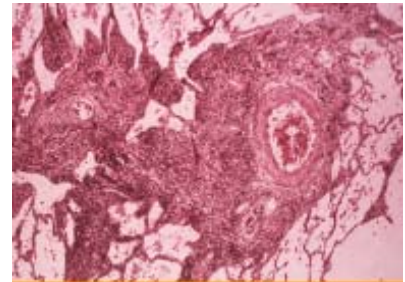
Fibronectin

Pathology

Gross: scarring has contracted the upper lobe into small dark mass



Microscopically: perivascular nodules



Pathophysiology: Silicosis causes two things

- 1) narrowing/distortion of bronchial lumen by nodules → obstruction
- 2) hypertrophy/scarring of lymphoid tissues causes airway compression → mix of obstructive & restrictive

Treatment: primary prevention

Coal Worker's Pneumoconiosis

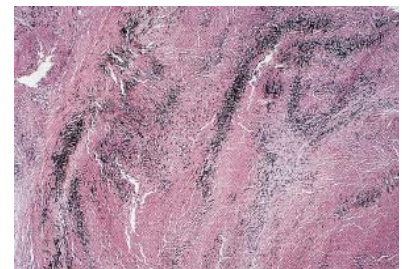
General

What the hell? Do people even use coal for anything? Why don't we learn about papyrus lickers disease or lamb sacrifice lung or bronzesmithing bronchitis?

primary lesion: coal macule

Caplan's syndrome:

association between CWP and rheumatoid arthritis

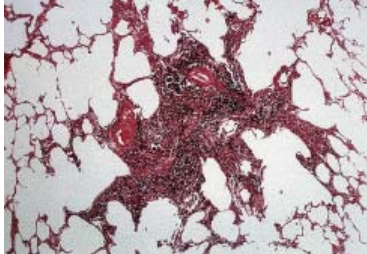


↑ risk of TB, not not as high an increase as w/silicosis

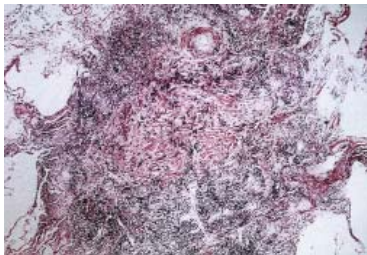
Occupational Disease:

Coal can cause 3 diseases:

- 1) anthracosis
virtually asymptomatic, no tissue response
- 2) Simple CWP
coal dust accumulates in lung with no dysfunction
Coal Macule: centrilobular coal deposit made of macrophages and coal dust. No collagen



Coal Nodule: centrilobular dust nodule w/ macrophages & collagenization



- 3) Progressive massive fibrosis (PMF) with extensive fibrosis

Clinical Course

usually benign
can cause pulmonary HTN, cor pulmonale
no known ↑ in risk for cancer

Occupational Asthma/RADS

Occupational Asthma

General

variable airflow limitation and airway hyperresponsiveness caused by a particular occupational environment
NOT due to stimuli encountered outside of workplace
occurs in 5% of subjects exposed to proteinaceous high molecular weight agents and in 5-10% exposed to low molecular weight chemical agents
Most common cause: isocyanates (used for production of plastics and rubber)
Risk of developing OA is a function of intensity of exposure
After individual is sensitized, ANY FUTURE EXPOSURE CAN KILL THEM (bronchospasm)

Clinical

similar to nonoccupational asthma
Patient has symptoms at work or within several of finishing work, but decline of symptoms when not at work
Positive methacholine challenge

Treatment

Must remove patient from further exposures
drug therapy is same as for normal asthma, but CANNOT serve as substitute for changing jobs

RADS

General

persistent (> 3 months) asthma-like illness after a SINGLE exposure to an irritant
an OBVIOUS bad thing happened to them
i.e. a tanker poured gas all over them

Clinical

Negative methacholine test: symptoms NOT reproducible
most people will have complete resolution, but some will end up with persistent asthma-like symptoms
RADS airway obstruction LESS responsive to bronchodilators than asthma obstruction is

Hard Metal Diseases

Rare disease related to rare compounds (involving military or aerospace)

cobalt is the toxin

Disease

can resemble interstitial lung disease
giant cell interstitial pneumonitis-like histopathology
can also look like HSP or occupational asthma

Occupational: General Clinical Notes

Presentation

No specific clinical features, but certain diagnostic features help
Clubbing: Asbestosis only
End-inspiratory crackles: Asbestosis (pulmonary fibrosis) or HSP

CXR:

↑ interstitial markings
asbestosis
HSP
nodular densities
silicosis
coal worker's pneumoconiosis
"eggshell" calcifications of hilar lymph nodes
silicosis
pleural plaques/effusions
asbestosis

PFTs

can be obstructive, restrictive, or mixed
Biopsy not required clinically (but it may be legally)