COURSE CODE:  VPT 401
COURSE TITLE:  Digestive, respiratory, cardiovascular and haematopoietic Pathology
NUMBER OF UNITS:  3 Units
COURSE DURATION:  Three hours per week

COURSE DETAILS:
Course Coordinator:  Dr. Olaniyi, M. O.  *DVM, MVSc*
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Other Lecturers:  Prof. O.B. Kasali, , Mr./Mrs.;  DVM, PhD, FCVSN  
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Dr., Ajayi, Olusola Lawrence,  DVM, MVSc

COURSE CONTENT:
Gross and microscopic structure of the digestive, respiratory, cardiovascular and haematopoietic systems in the disease state. Pathology of associated important disease conditions- choke, tympanites, intestinal obstruction, ascites, hydroperitoneum; infectious atrophic rhinitis, jaagsiekte, Maedi-visna. Post mortem diagnostic procedures.

COURSE REQUIREMENTS:
This is a compulsory course for all DVM students and attendance of at least 75% is required to write the examination.

READING LIST:

**LECTURE NOTES**

1. Anatomic Review of Haemopoietic organs: Structure and functions of
   - Bone Marrow
   - Blood Cells
   - Thymus
   - Lymph Nodes
   - Spleen
2. Responses of the haemopoietic organs to injury and causes:
   - General and Specific.
3. Portal of entry of infections agents into the system.
4. Pathology of the organs of the haemopoietic system
5. Specific diseases and tumors of the haemopoietic system

**REVIEW OF ANATOMY OF HAEMOPOIETIC ORGANS**

**INTRODUCTION**

The haemopoietic system includes all cells that arise from stem cells in the bone marrow and organs such as peyer’s patches, thymus, tonsils, lymph(nodes, spleen, bursa of fabricsious and blood cells.

The system consists of 2 major tissues:

I. Lympho- reticular (Mucosa associated lymphoid tissue (MALT) – spleen and lymph nodes.

II. Lympho-epithelial tissues – peyer's patches, thymus, tonsils etc.

The cellular component of these organs provide oxygen transport (Erythrocytes) and protective responses to infectious and noninfectious agents (lymphoid cells mononuclear phagocytic cells, granulocytes and supportive tissues).

Organs such as the thymus, lymph nodes and spleen are the places where cells of the system (cellular component) are sequestered for conditioning, proliferation and function.

The bone marrow, spleen and lymph nodes share certain basic anatomic feature e.g. specialized fibroblast-like reticular cells extend long filamentous processes and provide a scaffolding arrangement to support population of
cells. In addition to physical support, these cells also provided microenvironment that attracts the appropriate circulating cells and enables them to multiply or differentiate into cell of a particular lineage. Within the reticular network of these organs are thin-walled sinuses that control movement of cells and large molecular. These sinuses are located between arterioles and venules in the bone marrow and spleen, but contain lymph within lymph nodes.

Significant insight into diseases of the haemopoietic system may be gained by simply submitting blood for hematology. A complete haemogram is frequently of greater value than the necropsy in understanding disease mechanisms of the haemopoietic system.

Learning to evaluate blood smears is invaluable addition to the information gained from the physical examination of an animal. Lymph nodes and bone marrow aspirates are also frequently indicated when studying disorders of the haemopoietic system.

**Organs of the haemopoietic system.**

**A) Bone Marrow and Blood Cells**

Haemopoiesis takes place in the bone marrow and remains active throughout life and constantly produces new cells into the circulation. Haemopoiesis is defined as process through which blood cells are produced. Specific processes include:
- Erythropoiesis
- Myelopoiesis/ granulopoiesis
- Monocytopoiesis
- Thrombopoiesis
- Lymphopoiesis

(b) Thymus

Classified as a component of the lymphatic system, but also been called a lympho-epithelial organ because of the epithelial component. Thymus is essential for the development and function of the immune system especially for the development T-Lymphocytes.

Histologically, two portions are recognized i.e. stromal portion and thymocytes (lymphocyte at different stages of maturation).

Unlike spleen and Lymph node the stroma of thymus consist of epithelial cells as well as macrophages and dendritic cells. The shape and location of the thymus vary among young domestic animals. In ruminants, the thymus has 2 lobes i.e. cervical and thoracic. While dogs do not have the cervical, the thoracic portion is present in all the domestic animals and lies in the cranial mediastinum, ventrally in the horse, pig and dog and dorsally in ruminants. The cervical lobe is large and extends to along the sides of the cervical trachea. However the size varies in cats and horses.

This organ is of greatest importance in the young animals. It begins to regress about the time of puberty and may eventually almost disappear; even when a more sizeable vestige persists, this will be found to consist largely of fat and fibrous elements, with suppression of the thymus tissue.
(c) **Spleen**

The functions of the spleen are analogous to those of the lymph nodes. It is the largest lymphoid organ and also acts as reservoir for blood (reserve pool), it is also an organ of extra-medullary haemopoiesis (EMH). Spleen filters blood of foreign materials and microorganisms and removes senescent and altered erythrocytes. Summarily, the spleen has components of three anatomic systems

1. The monocyte – macrophage system.
2. The lymphopoietic system and
3. The vasculature.

Histology: the spleen is divided into Red pulp and White pulp.

The functions include:
- Removal of foreign materials, particularly micro-organism and also senescent and altered erythrocytes.
- Storage of mature erythrocytes in the vascular spaces of the red pulp.
- Haemopoiesis under certain circumstances.
- Immunologic response with production of B-lymphocytes and plasma cells to produce antibody and memory lymphocytes.

(d) **Lymph node**

Classified as secondary lymphoid organ – defined as the site of production of antibody and cells for cell mediated immunity.

A lymph node includes components of 2 different anatomic systems – monocytes – MQ system and the haematopoietic (lymphopoietic) system.

Its most important functions are filtration of lymph and immune responses. The lymph node is enclosed almost completely by a fibrous capsule and in a cross section of lymph nodes there are 2 main areas viz: cortex (outer) and medullar (inner).

**Lymphoid Nodules**

This includes the so-called solitary and aggregated lymphoid nodules. Lymphoid are present and in the mucosal – Associated lymphoid tissue (MALT) which include BALT. Bronchus – Associated Lymphoid tissue, GALT (Gut Associated lymph tissue) and lymphoid nodules at other sites. Such as tonsils, mucosa of the nasal cavity, conjuction and urinary bladder. These lymphoid nodules consist of lymph follicles, and some loose lymphoid tissue. The follicles, if antigenically stimulated can have active germical centers.
Haemal Nodes

Although these are often considered to be unique to ruminants, they have also been found in horses and primates. Their architecture resembles that of a lymph node with lymph follicles and sinuses, except that they are filled with blood. Some authors regard them as “Miniature spleen”. It is presumed that haemal nodes can filter blood and remove senescent erythrocytes.

Responses of the haemopoietic organs to injury

Generally the main pattern of responses of these organs includes.

1. Atrophy
2. Hypertrophy
3. Hyperplasia
4. Neoplasia
5. Inflammation
6. Degenerative changes

Atrophy

Atrophy of the bone marrow and haemopoietic cell population follows certain types of injury and result in failure of erythropoiesis granulopoiesis, thrombopoiesis etc. Occasionally injury to stem cells results in complete failure of haemopoiesis with resultant pancytopenia. Spleen atrophy is uncommon, but does occur in older animals, and is usually of little pathological consequence. Certain viruses and toxins as well as malnutrition can cause thymus and lymph node atrophy, which impairs immune functions. In cachexia, the haemopoietic tissue in the bone marrow can be displaced by gelatinous, almost translucent materials; non-infections agents can induce atrophic changes, either by “exhaustion” of the response capacity of the tissue. High levels of glucocorticoids may cause lymphoid depletion in lymphoid tissues.

Hypertrophy

In animals this is most unlikely in the bone marrow because the tissue is enclosed by bone. In children with congenital haemolytic anaemia, some flat bone may become enlarged as a result of prolonged hyperplasisa. Hypertrophy of the superficial lymph nodes is usually confined to the lymph node receiving lymph from that area if injury or stimulation. Generally lymph node hyperplasia and hypertrophy is uncommon and occurs with systemic infection of some duration.
Hyperplasia

Hyperplasia of the splenic lymphocytes or macrophages population can result from splenic hypertrophy; when this occurs, the spleen is firm and fleshy when incised. Lymph node enlargement secondary to cellular proliferation or hyperplasia occurs in response to stimulation and antigenic stimulation. Hyperplasia of bone marrow haemopoietic tissue occurs following prolonged hemorrhage, haemolysis; and bacterial infections. The haemopoietic tissue expands and replaces adipocytes; yellow marrow becomes red extending from the ends of the long bones along the endosteum.

Neoplasia

Neoplasia of the haemopoietic system are relatively common in both companion and production animals and are classified according to their histogenic lineage. The different types of malignant lymphoma and leukemia are the most frequent haemopoietic tumors in domestic animals. Neoplasm of the haemopoietic system in some species, such as the cat has a significant incidence. The most common neoplasm of the marrow is sarcoma. Sarcomas of the bone marrow can be derived from erythrocytic, granulocytic, megakaryocytic, lymphocytic and plasma cells. Lymphosarcomas may arise in and organ and frequently cause lymph node enlargement. Superficial lymph node aspirates for cytology, and biopsies for histology, usually allow differentiation of lymphosarcoma from lymphadenitis or hyperplasia.

Inflammation

When characteristic inflammatory changes like suppuration or caseation are visible in lymph nodes or spleen, lymphadenitis and splenitis are respectively used.

Degenerative Changes

Degenerative Changes of erythrocytes, neutrophils and organs of this system may occur.

SPECIFIC RESPONSES OF HAEMOPOIETIC ORGANS TO INJURY

(1) Bone marrow and blood cells

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bone Marrow</th>
<th>Causes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hypoplasia</td>
<td>Increased destruction</td>
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<td>Hyperplasia</td>
<td>Haemophthihsis</td>
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<td>Aplasia</td>
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<td>Neoplasia</td>
<td>Decreased production</td>
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<td>Myelophthihsis</td>
<td>Abnormal function</td>
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<th>Thymus</th>
<th>Causes</th>
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<tr>
<td>Atrophy</td>
<td>Infectious agents – viruses</td>
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Neoplasia
- Bacteria
Chemotherapeutic agents
Haemorrhage and haematomata
Chemical agents and toxins
Inflammation – very rare
Ionizing radiation
Lymphoid hyperplasia – very rare
Malnutrition, cachexia, Aging

**Spleen**
- Acute inflammation
- Hyperplasia of monocyte-mQ system
- Lymphoid atrophy/hyperplasia
- Splenomegaly
- Spleen contraction/torsion
- Neoplasia

**Lymph Node**
- Hyperplastic change involving cells of monocyte-macrophage system as seen in swine histocytosis.
- Lymphoid tissue – Hyperplasia with production of antibody,
- Atrophic changes – Lymphoid atrophy
- Inflammation: Acute – micro abscesses and abscess formation.
  Chronic – abscesses and granulomas

**PORTAL OF ENTRY OF INFECTIOUS ORGANISMS INTO HEAMOPOIETIC SYSTEM**

* Bone Marrow
  Haematogenously
  Direct penetration (trauma)

* Thymus
  Haematogenously

* Spleen
  Haematogenously
  Direct penetration (rare)

* Lymphoid Nodules
  Via Afferent Lymphatics
  Haematogenously

* Lymphoid Nodules
Haematogenously

**Bone Marrow**
- Haematogenous
- Direct penetration (trauma)

Invading cells or microorganisms gain access to bone marrow haematogenously or by trauma. Trauma may be as obvious as a gaping wound or a subtle as the bite of an insect.

**Thymus**

Haematogenous route is the most significant. Toxic agents, such as aflatoxins as well as viruses, enter the thymus through the blood.

**Spleen**

1. Haematogenously
2. Direct Penetration (rare)

Noxious agents such as bacterial enter the spleen by 2 routes, haematogenously or by direct penetration. The spleen has no afferent lymphatics, so this is not a possible route of entry of infection. Direct penetration is extremely rare. The capsule is thick, and thus inflammation from an adjacent peritonitis is extremely rare. However, foreign bodies occasionally do. This is seen sequel to traumatic reticulitis in cattle, where foreign bodies such a nail or wire is extruded through the left caudal reticulum wall by its contraction and enters the visceral surface of ventral extremity of the spleen which often cause splenic abscess. Most of the extruded foreign bodies usually travel cranially to penetrate the diaphragm and pericardium causing traumatic reticulo-pericarditis. In horses, on rare occasion, splenic abscess can develop secondary to perforation of the gastric wall caused by *Gastrophilus intestinalis* or extension of granulomatous inflammation around *Habronema spp* in wall of the stomach.

**Lymph Node**

1. Via Afferent lymphatic
2. Haematogenously

Agents such as bacteria and viruses are that not removed by any of the lymph node in the process of transportation of lymph to regional lymph nodes may be eventually transported via lymphatic to the circulation blood. In most cases, pathogens arrive at lymph node via afferent lymphatic. However, agents may enter haematogenously in septicaemia and bacteraemia.
**Lymphoid nodules**

Haematogenously: In the intestine, via M cells and dendritic cells to Payer’s patches. Lymphoid nodules respond to antigens arriving haematogenously, but in many cases the agents or antigens will cross the M/membrane e.g. in chronic inflammations of nasal, oral, bronchial, gastrointestinal and conjunctival mucous membranes.

**SPECIFIC PATHOLOGY OF HAEMOPOIETIC ORGANS**

**THYMUS**

**Congenital anomaly:** The most important disorder is equine combine immunodeficiency. This will be discussed under specific diseases.

1. **Atrophy**

   Because thymus involutes after sexual maturity, evaluating whether it is smaller than normal is difficult unless the change extreme or age – matched and control animals are available. The thymus is easily identified as a lobular organ white – gray with a thin capsule. An extremely small thymus in a neonatal animal should be considered abnormal and an indicator of a possible underlying primary or acquired immunodeficiency. Enlargement of the thymus is almost always due to tumour. The cut surface should therefore be examined for tumours and hematomas.

2. **Thymic cysts** can be found within the developing and mature thymus and thymic remnants in the anterior mediastium. These cysts represent developmental remnants of branchial arch epithelium and are usually of no significance.

3. **Neoplastic Disorders of the thymus**

   Since the thymus has both lymphoid and epithelial components. It is possible for either or both to be neoplastically transformed. Thymic lymphosarcoma is a T- lymphocyte neoplasm of young animals, particularly cats, with a much lower incidence in dogs.

3a. Bovine thymic lymphosarcoma most often occurs in beef cattle 6 to 24 months of age and is characterized by massive thymic enlargement. The etiology is unknown.
3b. **Thymomas** are primary neoplasms of thymic epithelial cells and are accompanied by varying proportions of neoplastic lymphocytes (thymocytes). They grow slowly and are uncommon but occur in dogs, cats, cattle and sheep.

**BONE MARROW**

**HYPERPLASIA OF BONE MARROW**

This is an increase in the amount of the red marrow with a decrease in the yellow marrow for a given age of an individual. This usually takes place in the long bones and other bones of the adult where the red marrow is not normally found in large amounts. In the femur and humerus, it may extend from the proximal to the distal ends. There are two types of myeloid hyperplasia.

**Erythroblastic hyperplasia:** Characterized microscopically by red erythrocytes like pronormoblast, normoblast and reticulocytes. This is a reaction to most anaemias except tonic a plastic anaemia which is due in ability of the marrow to function.

**Leukoblastic hyperplasia:** Characterized microscopically by a predominance of the precursors of leukocytes, for example, the myeloblasts, progranulocytes and others. This occurs in the infections accompanied by leucocytosis and a pus forming reaction.

**Hypoplasia of bone marrow:** A decrease in the red marrow, even in the areas where it should normally be found in large amounts. It occurs in connection with toxic aplastic anaemia.

**Agranulocytosis:** Refers to a more or less complete absence of granulocytes from circulating blood due to complete aplasia of the leukoblastic cells of the bone marrow. It is related to aplastic anaemia.

**Osteomyelitis:** Is the inflammation of the bone marrow due to an infection that gains access to the marrow through a local wound or by way of the blood.

**SPLEEN PATHOLOGY**

**Splenomegaly**

Spleen can be enlarged, normal or small. 2 types of splenomegaly are described.

(a) Congestive and non-congestive.
(a) **Congestive:** - The cut surface of severely congested spleen may be red to bluish-black and exudates blow (bloody spleen).

(b) **Non-Congestive:** - Firm and often called meaty because of the firmness and texture. Little blood oozes out from the cut surface and colour of the surface depends on how much of the normal red pulp has been replaced by stored materials, neoplastic cells and inflammation.

Splenomegaly can result from  
1. Circulatory disturbances
2. Inflammatory diseases
3. Metabolic diseases
4. Neoplastic diseases

(A) Acute splenic congestion are caused by

- Acute myocardial failure.
- Euthanasia with Newbutal & barbiturates
- Torsion of the spleen which also leads to infarction.

(b) Chronic passive splenic congestion: Enlarged spleen is filled with blood, but is firm because of an increase in fibrous tissue.

**Microscopically:**

Distention of sinusoids and cords with blood

- Appreciable hyperplasia of the endothelium of the sinusoids so that lining cells resembles cuboidal epithelium.
- Marked diffuse fibrosis throughout the pulp.
- Thickening of trebeculae
- Accumulation of phagocytized haemosiderin from erythrocytes which have been entrapped in the nearly static blood and haemolyzed in excessive numbers

**Splenic Atrophy**
Causes include:
Developmental Disorders
Aging
Wasting/Cachectic Disease
Starvation, malabsorption syndrome
Systemic neoplasms

Splenic Contraction – controlled by autonomic nervous system and catecholamine release which can occur in fight or flight situation and in heart failure and cardiogenic hypovolaemic and septic shock. It is also present in acute splenic rupture that results in haemorrhage.

**Nodular Hyperplasia**- Nodular hyperplasia of the spleen occurs with or without enlargement. Nodular disorders are characterized by nodules that are randomly distributed, may be discrete or and are raised above the spleen surface, budge from the cut surface, and have a variety appearance and colours based on the cause of the lesion. Many of the disease processes causing a nodular splenomegalgy are similar to those causing a uniform splenomegally. Nodules can be abscesses granulomas, haematomas, foci of lymphocytes, haemopoietic cells are primary or metastatic neoplasms. Nodular hyperplasia is most commonly seen in as the spleen of older dogs and is often as accidental finding. This lesion has been called canine nodular hyperplasia and splenoma. Nodules are formed by lymphoid cells or mixed accumulation of hyperplastic erythroid myeloid and megakaryocytic cell with lymphoid cells. Lesion may appear single discrete or multiple coalescing firm nodules protruding from the surface cut covered by the capsule.

**Torsion of the spleen**
Usually occurs mainly in pigs and dogs. Torsion of the spleen and stomach together occurs in dogs, usually deep-chested ones. In contrast to ruminants, in which the spleen is firmly attached to the rumen, the spleen of dogs and pigs is attached loosely to the stomach by gastroplenic ligament. It is the twisting of the spleen on the ligament that result initially in occlusion of the veins, causing splenic congestion, and later occlusion of the artery results in splenic infarction and later necrosis sets in. Torsion of the spleen occurs commonly in dogs in association with torsion of the stomach; however it can occur alone especially in pigs. One usually finds severe congestion and haemorrhagic infarction due to occlusion of the vein. If the artery is also occluded, necrosis sets in.

**Gross:** Spleen is uniformly and markedly enlarged and blue black from cyanosis. It is often folded back on itself – RX – Splenectomy. Removal will make the individual to be susceptible to certain microorganism such as haemotropic microorganisms e.g. Haemobartonella and Eperythrozoon in dogs and Babesiosis and Theileriosis in cattle in endemic areas.

**Congenital anomalies**
These are rare in our domestic animals. There may be an accessory spleen in the omentum or a duplication of the spleen may occur in swine.
Atrophy: This is often seen in old dogs and horses in cases of chronic inanition and wasting diseases.

Amyloidosis: occurs usually as part of a generalized syndrome. It is usually detectable only by means of special stains in histopathology. Amyloid gives an increased size and grayish translucence to the corpuscles so that they protrude on out surface.

Pigmentation: Haemosiderosis which is a storage form of iron is the only important pigment. It is usually present in reticular macrophages but in long standing hemosiderosis may be encrusted in the fibres of connective tissue. It is important in haemolytic anaemias.

Rupture of the spleen: This is common in dogs and cats. It is usually as a result of trauma, for example, car accidents or it can be spontaneous if the spleen becomes much enlarged (splenomegaly). A spleen can either be fully divided into two or merely ruptured at the edges and healing may then occur. Rupture of an enlarged spleen leads to internal haemorrhage.

Circulatory Disturbances: These include acute hyperaemia seen in acute bacterial infection as a result of systemic and portal disturbances and also in barbiturate anaesthesia. Thrombi and emboli of splenic vessels are common too. Multiple thrombi along spleen margins are seen in hog cholera/ASF. Cysts are uncommon in the spleen but hydratid cysts may be found from time to time.

Splenitis: Inflammation of the spleen. Specific diseases like anthrax, swine erysipelas, anaplasmosis of cattle and acute infectious anaemia and salmonellosis cause acute splenitis. The spleen is enlarged and soft. Microscopically there is marked hyperaemia with collections of neutrophils, lymphocytes and plasma cells. Chronic splenitis and suppurative splenitis occur in association with specific pyogenic organism. Abscesses are not usually common but could result from traumatic reticulopertonitis in cattle.

Tumors of the spleen: Fibrosarcomas and leiomyosarcoma are rare. More commonly, we find hemangiosarcomas which metastasize mostly to muscles. Secondary tumors are very common e.g. lymphosarcomas can metastasize to the spleen.

Lymph Node
Causes of atrophy include:-
- Developmental disorders resulting into hypoplasia and immunodeficiency syndrome.
- Lack of antigenic stimulation.
- Cachexia and malnutrition.
- Aging
- Viral infection.
**Enlargement of Lymph Node**
- Follicular and diffuse hyperplasia.
- Lymphadenitis – acute and chronic.
- Primary Neoplasms and metastatic
- Hyperplasia of monocyte – macrophage system

**Hypoplasia** of Lymph Nodes is caused (together with degenerative changes) by infection and toxic agents or hormonal mechanisms in “Alarm reaction” of stress. Diffuse dissolution of lymphocytes is seen.

Necrosis: Necrosis of the whole or a part of a lymph node may occur when infections agents grow locally, in anthrax and erysipelas, necrosis of the lymph node draining the affected area occurs.

Macroscopically, the necrotic areas are dry, and circumscribed. In some infections, gas bubbles may be present.

Amyloid degeneration: In general amyloidosis, amyloid may be found in the lymph nodes. Deposition of amyloid starts in the germinal centre and spreads outwards.

**Hyperplasia** of the lymph nodes is an usual reaction to sub acute or chronic type of irritants and is met with either as a general or a local phenomenon in such diseases like canine distemper, chronic enteritis or chronic pneumonia.

**Macroscopically**, the affected nodes are enlarged, whitish-gray and firm but not fibrosed or calcified. Follicles are prominent.

**Macroscopically** there is great enlargement of the germinal centres with a zone of mature lymphocytes surrounding them. If the underlying disease is removed, hyperplasia subsides.

**Lymph Node Pigmentation**

**Exogenous**

Exogenous pigmentation of the lymph nodes is most common in the pulmonary and mesenteric lymph nodes. Examples include:

**Anthracosis:** Coal dust in the bronchial nodes is common in animals especially dogs that live in indendial area. The coal particles are found in the macrophage of the medullary cords. In ruminants mesantanic and other lymph nodes develop a grey exogenous pigmentation of the medulla probably due to some pigments ingested with feed. In tattooed anomalies, the granules of the pigment used for tattooing are found in the regional. Lymph nodes:

These exogenous pigments are not of clinical importance.

**Endogenous Pigmentation:** Examples include:

(i) Haemosiderosis. This is the most common, found in the lymph nodes training area where haemorrhage has occurred. Grossly, such nodes are brownish in colour. Microscopically, brown amorphous crystals of haemosiderin are found in the reticular and sinusoid macrophages.

(ii) **Bile Pigment**
This occurs in the portal/hepatic L/nodes nodes as a result of obstructive jaundice.

(iii) Melanin – This is particularly conspicuous in the superficial lymph nodes of old grey horses

(vi) Helminth Pigment
A melanin – like blank pigment usually present in the hepatic nodes of sheep and cattle which have or have had hepatic distomiasis. The same pigment occurs in the bile ducts infection by Fasciola hepatica, and in the case of F. magna, whenever, the fluke has wondered.

**Emphysema**
In emphysema of lymph nodes, the gas is confined in the sinuses; it affects the mesenteric nodes of swine in association with intestinal emphysema. In cattle emphysema of the bronchial nodes is common with interstitial pulmonary emphysema.

Grossly: The Lymph nodes are enlarged, puffy, light and soft with surface appeared like sponge

Histology: Sinuses are the distended with vesicles, endothelial cell become large, mobilized into large MQs and even giant cells. These cells occur in small clusters of spotty distribution on the wall of the sinusoids

**Circulatory disturbances:** Hemorrhages are seen in lymph nodes in severe infections disease, hemorrhagic diathesis, local trauma and passive venous congestion.

**Macroscopically,** reddened areas are noticed, which may be diffuse, local or even petechial.

Haema lymph nodes must not be confused with hemorrhagic lesions.

**Lymphadenopathy**
This is defined as a regional or generalized lymph node enlargement of unknown or unspecific cause. Local enlargement of L/nodes usually reflects a pathologic process limited to the drainage area.

**Lymphadenitis**
Lymphadenitis is inflammation of the lymph nodes. This may be non-specific, local or general. Functioning as a filter, the lymph node affected by any irritant that may be present in the area it drains. The following are the irritants that may cause non-specific lymphadenitis:

(a) Irritant chemicals, (b) Soluble toxins from trauma and burns, and
(c) Bacteria, Depending on the nature of the exudates, lymphadenitis may be acute, serous, hemorrhagic, supportive or chronic.
Acute Serous Lymphadenitis: This condition is common in the nodes draining lymph from acutely infected or inflamed areas. In some septicemia all the nodes in the body may be affected e.g. Anthrax, Pastenurellosis, swine Erysipelas, dog cholera, salmon disease. Mesenteric nodes may be affected by the absorption of irritants from the gastro intestinal tract. Microscopically, the affected node is enlarged, moist and reddened. Microscopically, hyperemia and edema are noticed. Due to proliferation of the lymphatic parenchyma and reticulo endothelial tissue, the lymph sinuses are filled with lymphocytes, mononuclear (derived from the RE, system) plasma cells and a few neutrophils.

Hemorrhagic lymphadenitis. Occurs when the irritant is stronger than in the serous variety. The best example is Anthrax. The exudates in the gland are mixed with blood. Microscopically lymph sinuses contain large number of erythrocytes.

Suppurative lymphadenitis: Pyogenic bacteria cause suppurative lymphadenitis. The common organisms producing this are: *Streptococcus equi* in horses (strangles) *Corynebacterium ovis* (caseous lymphadenitis in sheep). Macroscopically pus may be found in the nodes. Microscopically, the predominant cell of the greatly infiltrating leucocytes is the neutrophils. There is necrosis and liquefaction of the parenchyma and several small purulent foci may be present which may coalesce to form a big abscess.

Chronic lymphadenitis: Grossly the affected nodes are large, hard and dry. This is seen in Johne’s disease in which mesenteric lymph nodes are involved. Microscopically, there is hyperplasia of the R. E. system with numerous endothelial cells becoming rounded, swollen and cast off into the lymph sinuses that are much distended. To this picture is given the name of “sinus catarrh” Macrophages predominate, Reactive hyperplasia of the lymph nodules is also present. Fibrosis that occurs is the cause of hardness.

Specific lymphadenitis:
Lymphadenitis is a characteristic lesion of the following diseases.
(a) Tuberculosis
(b) Glanders
(c) Actinobacillosis
(d) Johne’s diseases
(e) Salmon poisoning in dogs
(f) Strangles in horses
(g) Caseous lymphadenitis in sheep
(h) Bovine lymphangitis and lymphadenitis caused by *Pasturella pseu dotuberculosis* rodentium.
(i) Brucellosis in guinea pigs
(ii) Tularemia in rodents
(iii) Epizootic lymphadenitis.
(iv) Helminthic larvae – Pentastoma and other helminthic larvae in mesenteric lymph nodes of cattle; lungworm larvae in the bronchial nodes.
Note that a-d result into granulomatous lymphadenitis with caseation and calcification

Neoplasms – Primary benign tumors of lymph nodes are not common. But primary malignant neoplasms such as lymphosarcoma – are common.
Secondary tumors that are common in the lymph nodes are: carcinoma, malignant melanoma and occasionally sarcoma, which invade the lymph vessels.

Lymphoid Nodules
Lymphoid atrophy – Causes include:
Viral infections.
Malnutrition
Cachexia
Aging
Anti-neoplastic chemotherapeutic drugs.
Toxins
Irradiation and Lymphoid hyperplasia caused by antigenic stimulation

SPECIFIC DISEASES OF THE HAEMOPOIETIC SYSTEM
Specific Diseases of this system include
1. Equine combined immunodeficiency.
2. Caseous lymphadenitis
3. Histoplasmosis
4. Anthrax
5. Streptococcal Adenitis in swine (in Dogs)
6. Tularaemia
7. Leishmaniasis
8. Theileriosis
9. Tick – Borne fever
10. Bovine Petechial fever
11. Myeloproliferative disease.
1. Equine combined immunodeficiency. (Equine CID)
This is a genetic disorder occurring in Arabian foals. It is inherited as an autosomal or recessive trait, meaning that both the sire and dam are carriers of the defective gene in this disorder, there is failure of functional B and T-lymphocytes production, so foals are remarkably susceptible to a variety of microbial agents and usually die before 5 months of age. Adenoviruses that are typically resisted by a normal foal are major causes of death in foals with CID. The viral infection is frequently complicated by various bacteria and protozoan infections that typically result in pneumonia. Affect foals frequently have profuse nasal discharge, unthrifty hair coat, loss of condition, pneumonia and occasionally diarrhea. Confirmatory diagnosis of CID include persistent lymphopaenia, absence of serum 1gM and maternally derived 1gG declines to very low concentration by approx 3 months of age. Hypoplastic lymphoid tissue, varying degree of neutrophilia with left shift and mild anaemia occur and probably result from chronic inflammation.

**Gross:** Severe bronchopneumonia in combination with small thymus, spleen, and lymph nodes. The thymus may be difficult to identify or may consist of a few isolated lobules within the mediastinal fat. Microscopically, the thymus usually consists of a few island of lymphocyte – like cells and thymus corpuscles. The spleen is smaller than normal because of a marked reduction in the white pulp owing to absence germinal centers and peri-arteriolar lymphoid sheaths. Peripheral Lymph nodes and internal Lymph nodes may be small and difficult to identify because of the absence of lymphocytes.

X – Linked severe combined immuno deficiency (XSCIA) has been reported in Basset hounds. It has also been observed in Russell terrier and Welsh Corgi breeds of dogs.

**2. Caseous Lymphadenitis**

- Caseous Lymphadenitis: is a specific lymphadenitis of sheep and goats caused by *Corynbacterium Pseudotuberculosis*(ovis). This organism also causes ulcerative lymphagitis and pectoral abscesses in horses. It is suspected that the organism lives within the intestine and enters the skin through wounds contaminated with soil containing feacal material or purulent discharges. In sheep abscesses occur in superficial lymph nodes and these may rupture and discharge thick, green pus.

  The pathogenicity of *C. pseudotuberculosis* is related to the production of heat-labile toxin, which causes increased vascular permeability and which may be identical to the haemolytic phospholipase which the organism produces and a surface lipid which is leukotoxin. The leukotoxin surface lipid allows persistence within inactivated macrophages in which the organism is effectively a facultative intracellular parasite.

**Pathogenesis and Pathology**

The disease in goat can be more severe than that in sheep, with the most frequent lesion being in the lymph nodes of the head and neck. The disease is widespread in goat and differs from that in sheep in the distribution of the abscesses. In goats the mandibular lymph nodes followed by the parotid L/nodes are most often involved suggesting that the organism is acquired through the bucal mucosa as well as through the skin wound. Lymphadenitis in sheep is almost always follows a wound infection usually a shear wound. The organic can penetrate the intact shin of freshly dehorned sheep and may be transmitted by dipping fluids. Docking and
castration wound and the umbilicus are of minor importance. Occasionally, the infection may be acquired by ingestion, as indicated by confinement of the lesions to the lymph nodes draining the bucal cavity and less commonly the organism is inhaled producing lung abscesses.

Summarily, the sequence of events in progressive caseous lymphadenitis is infection of a superficial wound, spread of infection to the local lymph nodes which suppurate and them lymphogenous and haematogeneous extension to produce abscesses in internal organs.

The initial lesion in lymphoid tissues is a diffusce lymphadenitis which is probably the result of the soluble exotoxin. When the organism reaches the nodes, the multiple microscopic abscesses are formed in the cortex. Eosinophils are prominent part of the reaction and give a green colour to the pus. These foci rapidly coalesce and the central mass caseates to form a structure less mass which contains fragments of nuclear material and discrete clumps of bacteria.

The abscesses are rapidly encapsulated, and when this occurs the acute reaction in the surrounding tissues subsides but the abscesses continues to enlarge. With enlargement, there is progressive necrosis and reformation of the capsule which gives the lesion a very characteristic structure of concentric lamellations. Spread form lymph nodes produces lesion in the lungs and these may consist of extensive bronchopneumonia and overlaying pleuritis.

The pulmonary lesions consist of extensive bronchopneumonia. When abscesses rupture into bronchi in which there are soft caseopurulent foci, or there may be discrete nodules of varying size and number. In cases of bronchopneumonia, there is a pleuritis, often adhesion. When the adhesions are few and localized adjacent to the nodules, the remaining pleural cavity may be normal. When the adhesions are more diffuse, there is a large amount of serous fluid in the cavities and a thin layer of fibrin on the pleura. The nodular lesions in the lung are similar to those in lymph nodes and have a narrow zone of bronchopneumonia outside the capsule. With time, the pulmonary nodules become sharply circumscribed, encapsulated sub pleural abscesses. The pulmonary lesions are associated with characteristic lesions in bronchial lymph nodes which may be much enlarged. Dissemination of the infection from the lungs to other viscera is uncommon.

Other viscera chiefly the liver and spleen, may contain solitary abscess of the typical form.

Sequalae
Caseous lymphadenitis is rarely fatal, and in deed it seldom cause debilitation. It economic important is due to regulation concerning the sale of carcass that show evidence of the disease. When fatalities occur, they are cause primarily by large pleuropneumonia and abscesses resulting in pleuritis, often adhesions are found and localized adjacent to the nodules, the remaining pleural cavity may be normal. Dissemination of the infection from the lungs to other viscera is uncommon.

ANTHRAX
Aetiology: *Bacillus anthracis*, a large gram +ve, spore-forming organism which is highly pathogenic for most herbivorous animals and human, whereas carnivorous animals, bird and reptiles are resistant. In
ruminants the disease is usually brief and septicaemic; however, in dogs and pigs, localization in the throat the intestine occurs.

**Pathogenesis:**
There is an initial lymphangitis and lymphadenitis, which develops into septicaemia, spread to the blood is via the lymphatics as well as lymphovenous connections within the lymph nodes, and numerous bacilli spread in the lymph from node to node during the filtering mechanism. The bacilli which enter the blood are taken up in other part of the lymphoreticular system, especially the spleen to establish secondary centers of infection and proliferation.

**Note:** There is notably little response on the part of the susceptible animal to the local establishment of anthrax infection

**Pathology of Bovine anthrax**
The infection is usually septicaemic and sudden death is the first indication of its presence is a herd. The carcass of cattle that died of this disease putrefies quickly and becomes very rapidly distended with putrefactive gases, and blood exudates from natural orifices. These changes are not diagnostic.
The anatomic pathology in cattle is characterized by severe splenomegaly, multiple haemorrhage and oedematous effusion is connective tissue. A very large and soft spleen is the most significant lesion and very rarely it is absent. In anthrax, sometimes the enlarged spleen ruptures spontaneously, and when it is incised, the pulp exudes very thick black-red blood which brightens in colour on exposure to air. Smear and histological sections of the effect spleen will reveal large numbers of bacilli if carcass is fresh.
In some cases in which the organism gain entry through the oesophagus there is haemorrhagic lymphagitis of the glands of the throat and oedema of the connective tissue of these regions.

**Pathology of ovine Anthrax**
Sheep are more susceptible than cattle. Local lesion do not occur except in the unusual instances of percutaneous infection in which the lesion may take the form of a spreading oedema from the outset or initially appear as hard circumscribed nodes. The disease takes the same course as in cattle except that it is more rapid. Splenomegaly is not so prominent in sheep because of the greater level of collagen in the splenic capsule of sheep. The parenchyma is however dark soft and oedematous. Effusion does not occur in sheep.

**Horse** – Anthrax last for several days and characterized by large swelling which occur in the ventral part put of the abdomen, thorax, and peri-anal region and about the external genital. Septicaemia rarely occurs in Horse. The lesion is localized to the throat and intestine. When septicaemia occurs anatomic pathological changes are the same as that of the cattle.

**Streptococcal Adenitis in swine (Jowl abscess)**
This is a cervical adenitis caused by *Streptococcus porcinus*. Like in strangle in horse, the deep infection follow colonization of the oral cavity likely the tonsils. The disease has because less common with introduction of better hygiene.

**Pathogenesis and Pathology**
Transmission occurs through direct contact with infected animals, which can shes organisms for months. Invasion of the nasopharynx is following by fever and leukocytosis which resolve by lymph node enlargement in 2 weeks. The mandibular lymph nodes are most often involved followed by retropharyngeal and parotial nodes. It is rarely a fatal disease. Abscesses are usually multiple and measures 1 – 10m indiameter. The pus typically greenish in colour and creamy in consistency and without odour.

In the dog, the disease is similar to what is seen in pigs.

3 **Histoplasmosis**

The disease is a diffuse disease of the monocyte-macrophage system caused by *Histoplasma capsulatum*. *H. capsulatum* fungus and the parasit phase is yeastlike. It is largely noncontagious disease of humans, dogs, cats, swine, cattle, horses and wild animals.

**Pathogenesis:** The organism is inhaled and results in a mild-self-limiting infection with hypertrophy of tracheobronchial lymph nodes in asymptomatic dog and cats. Disseminated histoplasmosis in dogs and cats results in gastrointestinal or liver disease of long duration. Disseminated histoplasmosis is characterized by neutrophilia and monocytosis in some animals. Nonregeneretive anaemia is common because of chronic inflammation.

Dogs drying of this disease are emaciated. The large bowel is thickened with macosal corrugations caused by infiltration of the submucosa and lamina proria with macrophages, lymphocytes and plasma cells.

Pathology: The pulmonary lesions of histoplasmosis may be in form of grayish, rounded nodules of 1-2am in diameter and with a distinct tendency to become confluent, or there may be a diffuse increase in the consistency of the lungs.

The lymph nodes are markedly enlarged but are discrete and without adhesions. There may be no indication of normal architecture on the cut surface, with the uniformity resembling lymphoma. The spleen is enlarged, sometimes to several times its normal size, gray and firm. The liver is uniformly enlarged.

Histologically: There are coalescing granulomas with histocytosis, and cortical replacement by the reaction. In the spleen there is marked sinus expansion and filling by fixed cells of stromal origin and by colonization with macrophages, many of which contain the invested organisms. In the liver, the infiltrating cells collect in miliary foci in the portal trials and sinusoids, causing extensive displacement and atrophy of the liver parenchyma.

4 **Lymphosarcoma**
Lymphosarcoma is a significant disease in domestic animals with species variations in aetiology, tumour distribution, clinical and necropsy findings. Animals with lymphosarcoma may or may not be leukaemic i.e have neoplastic cells in bone marrow and blood. In dogs, lymphosarcoma, occurs predominantly in middle-aged animals. It occurs as alimentary, cutaneous, and mediastinal forms, with the multicentric form most common. In all forms of the disease, dogs are anorexic and lethargic, eventually becoming cachetic. The multicentric form leads to generalized enlargement of lymph nodes, with or without hepatic and splenic enlargement and infiltration of bone marrow. Dogs with the mediastinal form are dyspnoic and have reduced exercise tolerance. In the alimentary form, vomiting, diarrhea and blood in the stool are observed. Nodules, plaques and ulcers are present in the skin if dogs with the cutaneous form of lymphosarcoma. Occasionally, dogs are presented because of polyuria & polydypsia. These dogs have hypercalceamia, and frequently azotaemia as a result of hypercalceamic nephropathy. Mild to moderate non-regenerative anaemia is observed and the anaemia may be microcytic and hypochromic because bleeding tumours of the intestines have depleted the iron stores.

**Cytology**

Aspirates of enlarged lymph nodes show a preponderance of large lymphocytes of uniform morphology. These cells are usually fragile, and as a result the aspirate may contain numerous naked nuclei and free cytoplasmic fragments. The nuclei in intact cells are large with a mantle of scant coarse cytoplasm. Nuclear chromatin is finely stippled and rectangular and triangular nucleoli are common.

Necropsy finding in canine lymphosarcoma varies with the form of the disease. When lymph nodes are enlarged, they are white-gray and bulge when incised. Similar lesion is frequently present in the spleen and liver.

5. **MYELOPROLIFERATIVE DISORDERS**

The myeloproliferative disorders refer to neoplastic transformation of one or more of the descendants of the myeloid stem cell. These disorders may result in release of abnormal cells into peripheral circulation or may pancytopenia because of the interference with haemopoiesis. Frequently there is combination of abnormal haemopoiesis and leukaemia. Neoplasm of one myeloid cell line cause impaired differentiation within that population and may interfere with differentiation and maturation of other cell lines.

**LEUKAEMIAS**

Leukaemias arise when normal bone marrow cells acquire somatic mutations that confer a selective growth advantage on the mutated cells. Leukaemic cell proliferation may be driven by cytokines such as IL-1 and tumor necrosis factor. The tumor cells may produce their own growth factors or induce production of growth factors by neighboring cells. The leukaemias have been classified as acute or chronic based on clinical course and degree of differentiation of the neoplastic cells. The acute myeloid leukaemias, because of poor differentiated cells in the blood and bone marrow, are difficult to classify and to differentiate from lymphocytic leukaemias.
Acute Leukaeias

. **Acute Myelogenous Leukaemias** (M1 and M2). They are sub classified into acute myeloblastic leukaemias without maturation (M1) and with maturation (M2). The latter have a greater number of cells with a few cytoplasmic granules typical of immature promyelocytes. Affected dogs and cats are usually in good condition. Affected dogs and cats are usually in good condition. Some may show evidence of bleeding such as epistaxis.

  b. Promyelocytic Leukaemias (M3) is a rare neoplasm of dogs and cats.

c. Myelomonocytic leukaemias (M4) is a concurrent leukaemia of neutrophil and monocyte precursors.

d. **Monocytic Leukaemia** (M5) occurs infrequently in dogs, cats, horses and cattle. Affected animals have recent weight loss, anorexia, and depression.

2. Malignant Histiocytosis

Malignant histiocytosis is a disease of dogs and cats characterized by neoplastic proliferation of macrophages in many organs including the skin (see Chapter 11). Dogs with malignant histiocytosis may have anorexia, weight loss, lethargy, and anaemia.

  Generalized lymph node enlargement is common.

3. Erythrocytic Sarcoma

Erythrocytic sarcoma (M6) (erythremic myelosis) in cats is characterized by lethargy, pallor, and a variety of hematologic abnormalities including a severe, nonregenerative anemia with hematocrits as low as 0.06 L/L (6%).

4. Megakaryoblastic Leukemia

Megakaryoblastic leukemia (M7) is a rare disease of dogs and cats. There is usually a rapid clinical course with variable degree of pancytopenia.

5. Plasma Cell Sarcoma

**Plasma Cell Sarcoma** (Plasma cell myeloma)
Plasma cell sarcoma is not common but does occur in dogs and cats. There are two basic disease mechanisms in animals with plasma cell sarcoma; one is caused by neoplastic cell proliferation the others is the result of protein released from the neoplastic plasma cells. Although plasma cell neoplasm has been disordered in other tissues, most reside in the bone marrow where they interfere with haemopoiesis and erode endosteum of the bone by focal osteolysis. Although the lymph nodes and the lamina propria of the gut are the richest sources of normal plasma cells, they are not the sets where plasma cell sarcomas occur. The bone marrow microenvironement possesses distinct mechanism for capturing genetically abnormal pre-B-lymphocytes via stromal adhesive proteins and nurturing their differentiation into a population of plasma cells no longer capable of division or travel.

Cytokines produced by the neoplastic plasma cells and others by bone marrow stromal cells favour preferential proferation of the neoplastic cells. IL-6 produced by bone stromal cells, is particularly important in the recruitment of abnormal pre-B-lymphocytes and co-ordination of the cytokines which is responsible for their maturation. It is also promotes longevity of the tumour cells by delaying apoptosis. It abnormally plays a central role in co-coordinating the cytokines responsible for osteoblastic activity and in this promotes localized bone resorption and to accommodate the expanding tumour.

Laboratory Features of plasma cell sarcoma includes

(a) Hyperglobulinemia: This is a consistent finding; only small number myelomas are nonsecretory. A monoclonal, marrow based globulin spike is found in the β or δ regions of the electrophoretic-gram.

(b) Anaemia due to myelophthisis, dilution of erythrocyte mass by increased plasma volume resulting from increased plasma osmotic pressure, and shortened erythrocytes life span caused by coating of erythrocytes with protein and subsequent phagocytosis.

(c) Thromboaytopenia and leucopenia as a sequel of myelophthisis.

(d) Platelet dysfunction caused by bending with abnormal immunoglobulin.

(e) Hypercalcaemia resulting from tumour releases of osteoclast activating factor (tumour necrosis factor) and bone resorption, and paraprotein (Abnormal Ig)-Binding of imized caleinou, causing PTH secretion to reptenish the ionized calcium.

(f) Azotaemia: - due to increased BUN.

(g) Hyperviscosity of plasma due to polymerization of some IgA and rare IgG forms to form high molecular weight complexes.
At necropsy, plasma cell sarcomas appear as soft gelatinous pink to red masses in bone marrow spaces including those of the vertebrae. Neoplasms may erode bone and extend into the surrounding soft tissue.

Microscopically, the tumours are composed of sheets of atypical to well differential plasma cells.

RESPIRATORY SYSTEM PATHOLOGY
BY DR. S. O. OMOTAINSE

INTRODUCTION
The system is made up of the following: nasal cavity, sinuses, pharynx, larynx, bronchi and bronchioles, guttural pouch, alveoli, nervous and blood supplies.

Often the respiratory system is prone to disease because it is open to infection at two ends:
(a) Directly to external during inspiration;
(b) Filters blood thereby trapping infection and other emboli from the pulmonary artery from the right ventricle;
(c) Direct extension like gun shots and wounds, bites, ruptured esophagus or diaphragm.

The mucosal lining is pseudo-stratified columnar with Goblet cells; laminar propria with serous and mucous glands. Bronchioles contain non-ciliated epithelium with Clara cells. Alveolar walls have 2 types of epithelial cells: (i) Type – I Pneumocyte (more numerous) and (ii) Type-II Pneumocyte as well as alveolar macrophages.

Functions of the respiratory system:
Gaseous exchange – most important
Smelling organs
Phonation-important in dogs: hunting and watching
Heat dissipation-panting

UPPER RESPIRATORY SYSTEM
Nasal cavity and sinuses: pathology of the upper respiratory system includes:
   i. Congenital anomalies
   ii. Circulatory disturbances
Specific diseases of the upper respiratory system:

1. **Inclusion Body Rhinitis of swine**
   - Caused by cytomegalovirus
   - Characterized by the presence of basophilic intranuclear inclusion bodies (INIB) in the epithelial cells.

2. **Atrophic Rhinitis of swine**
   - Infection caused by combination of viral, bacterial agents and nutritional imbalances

3. **Strangles (in Horse)**
   - Caused by bacterium *Streptococcus equi*
   - Characterized by bilateral purulent rhinitis, conjunctivitis, and purulent lymphadenitis

4. **Glanders (in Horse and Man)**
   - Chronic supurative disease of horse and man (Zoonotic), occurs in Africa.
   - Caused by oral infection of Gram negative organism: *Burkholderia mallei* formally called *Malleomycte mallei* or *Loefflerella mallei*
   - Oropharynx to lymph vessels to regional lymph nodes to blood vls.
   - Characterized by small pyogranulomatous nodules in the sub mucosa of the respiratory tract and the lungs as well as skin; ulceration of the nodules leading to ‘stellate’ scars in the nasal mucosa.

5. **Stomatitis pneumoenteritis complex SPC (Kata)**
   - Disease of upper respiratory tract: acute rhnoracheitis
   - Proliferation of the nasal epithelium
   - Presence of intracytoplasmic and intranuclear inclusion bodies

6. **Canine distemper (Carre’s disease)**
   - Caused by paramyxovirus (morbillivirus) same group with KATA virus, measles, rinderpests, assisted by $2^0$ infections (specific and non-specific) e.g. *Brucella bronchosepticus, staphylococcus spp, salmonella spp* and *toxoplasma gondii*
   - It is a pantropic disease affecting all the organs of the body and eliminated from all the body secretions. It has affinity for epithelial cells (respiratory, alimentary, biliary, urinary), the skin, nervous and glia cells.
7. **Infectious Bovine Rhinotracheitis (IBR)**  
   **Caused:** Herpes virus. It is **pantropic** in nature; **Bacteria complication:** common- *Mannheimia haemolytica*  
   - Occurs in various **forms:**  
     - (i) Respiratory form  
     - (ii) Nervous form  
     - (iii) Genital and  
     - (iv) General form.

   **Gross Lesions:** ulcers or erosion and pseudomembraneous exudates in the affected mucous membranes.  
   Necrotic foci on the viscera and lymph nodes. **Histology:** cellular necrosis with intense leucocytic infiltration of the mucous surfaces and in foci of the parenchymatous organs. INIB

8. **Equine Viral Rhinopneumonitis (EVR)**  
   - EVR is a herpes virus infection causing:  
   - Inflammation of the respiratory tract

   **Lesions:**  
   - In aborted foetus:  
   - There are focal necrosis in the liver, kidney and heart  
   - Pulmonary oedema  
   - Or interstitial pneumonia  
   - Intranuclear inclusion bodies  
   - Similar signs in foals

9. **Feline Viral Rhinotracheitis**  
   - Herpes viral disease with lesions as in IBR  
   - Usually complicated by common bacteria responsible for the fatality

**PARASITIC INFECTIONS OF THE UPPER RESPIRATORY SYSTEM**  
1. *Oestrous ovis* in sheep & goats called **nasal bot** common in Nigeria and cause chronic mucopurulent rhinitis  
2. *Linguatula serrata* is a tongue shaped arthropod of dogs causing low grade catarrhal lesion.  
3. *Pneumonyssoides caninum* is a mite found in dog’s sinuses with little or no clinical signs.

**TUMOURS OF THE UPPER RESPIRATORY SYSTEM**  
1. Polyp-benign tumour of the mucosa of the tracts
2. Squamous cell carcinoma-malignant tumour
3. Sarcomas—from the connective tissues under the mucosae affecting the bones & cartilages in the nasal cavities.

**PHARYNX AND GUTTURAL POUCHES**
Usually the pharynx and the Guttural pouch are affected along with the upper respiratory system by the same agents. Pharyngitis—inflammation of the pharynx
Tympanitis—inflammation of the guttural pouches usually gaseous distension.
Mycosis is a frequent infection of the guttural pouch accompanied by profuse nasal haemorrhage.

**LARYNX AND TRACHEA**
(i) Congenital anomalies
   (a) Hypoplasia of the epiglottis
   (b) Mal-formation of the trachea
(ii) Physical influences
    Injuries from tracheal tubes will cause trauma leading to haemorrhage, fracture and secondary bacterial infection.
(iii) Circulatory disturbances
     (a) Hyperaemia
     (b) Haemorrhage in acute septicaemia and bleeding diseases or at slaughter
     (c) Oedema as part of inflammation or allergy
     (d) Thrombosis in the laryngeal vessels following trauma or inflammation
(iv) Disturbances of growth
    (a) Unilateral or bilateral atrophy of laryngeal muscles in horses leading to a disease called ROARING. It results from recurrent laryngeal nerve paralysis affecting mostly the left side cricoarylenoideus dorsalis muscles.
    (b) Hyperplasia of the lymphoid organs of the larynx as in Strangles in horses.
    (c) Metaplasia of the cartilage to bone occurring in old age.
(v) Disturbance of cell metabolism
    (a) Amyloid in the larynx of horses
(b) Melanosis in the laryngeal mucosa
(c) Calcification seen in Uraemia

(vi) Inflammation
Laryngotracheitis may be catarrhal, suppurative, fibrinous or granumatous.
Usually associated with the infection of the upper and/or lower respiratory tracts: IBR
*Sphaerophorus necrophorus* frequently invade already injured mucosa as an anaerobic organism.
*Corbacterum pyogenes* is often causing laryngeal abscesses.
Other infections involved in laryngotracheitis are:
(i) herpesvirus in chicken e.g. ILT
(ii) infectious feline enteritis
(iii) chronic lesion seen in T.B.
(iv) kennel cough: *Bordetella brochiseptica*, canine parainfluenza virus and canine adenoviruses (CAV-1 & CAV-2)

(vii) PARASITIC INFECTIONS:
1. *Capillaria aerophilidia* affects the trachea and bronchi (chronic cough) of dog, horse and cats. The eggs resemble those of trichuris (whip worm) with double operculates.

2. *Crenosoma vulpis* as in capillaria
3. *Filaroides* (Oslerus) in dogs found in the submucosa nodules about the bifocation of the trachea. Only the dead ones provoke granulomatous reaction.

PATHOLOGY OF THE BRONCHUS
1. Bronchostenosis: abnormal narrowing of the bronchus which may be caused by parasites, inflammatory exudates or due to muscle spasm as in asthma of man and horses or due to peribronchial stenosis as in the presence of a large mass.

2. Bronchiectaaisi: dilatation of the bronchus caused primarily by
(a) Chronic bronchitis
(b) Chronic pneumonia  
(c) Stenosis of the bronchus (area below the stenosis)  
(d) Congential causes  
   The affected area is either cylindrical or circular filled with viscid exudates containing lots of macrophages  
3. Bronchitis – usually an extension of the upper or lower respiratory disease. Here the exudates may cause obstruction of the tract.  
4. Bronchiolitis – usually result in broncho-pneumonia generally caused by bacteria. There is usually atelectasis (collapse of the alvoli) or emphysema (gaseous distesion of the lung).

Infection of the bronchus is usually by inhalation or aspiration or spread from the lungs. Bronchitis could be purulent or necrotic.

In *Bronchiolitis obliterans* the bronchioles have their epithelium damaged and lumen blocked by exudates due to fibrous tissue growth.

A. **PATHOLOGY OF THE PLEURA**  
By S. O. Omotainse  
1. Abnormal viscera as in diaphragmatic hernia (acquired or congenital) – intestine, liver in thorax.  
2. Foreign bodies e.g. bullets, from Ruptured resophegum.  
3. Air in thorax – pneumothorax.  
4. Fluid in thorax – hydrothorax e.g. from heart failure.  
6. Pm in thorax – Pyothorax in inflammation.

B. **CIRCULATORY DISTURBANCES OF THE PLEURA**  
- Hyperaemia  
- Haemorrhages

C. **INFLAMMATION OF THE PLEURA PLEURITIS**  
- Often part of pneumonia  
- Occationally – without pneumonia
- Commonly seen in dogs, cat, e.g. in Norcadosis where the pleure is often more involved than the lungs.

**Lesion:**
- Sero-samquious or
- Purulent and haemorrhagic inflammation. The pleura is thickened and rough (velvety) as against smooth and shining pleura.
- Necrotic pleuritis - with calcification as seen in dogs with Uraemia calcifies plagues.
- Pleuritis is also seen in T. B.

**D. NEOPLASIA OF THE PLEURA**
- The common plaia of pleura is mesothelonia which is difficult to differentiate from Chronic inflammation.
  However, in mesothelonia there is the absence of inflammatory cells.
  Other features present are:
  - Mitotic figures
  - Invasion of blood vessels and lymphatic.
  - Metastasis to other organs.

The primary tumours of the pleura are usually with no tumour in other parts of the body.

**TUBERCULOSIS (T. B.)**

This is a chronic infections disease caused by
- Mycobacterium tuberculosis in man
- M. bovis in cattle
- M. avium in avians
- M. microti in rodents

**Transmission:**
1. Alimentary
2. Respiratory
3. Genital during corpulation
4. Cutaneous (skin) e.g. by castration wounds, dehorning
5. congenital of the foetus while in utero

Some members of the family mycobacterin are sapnophytes some of which are occasional Pathogens while other are strict pathogen )grow slowly in ulturs e. g. 6 – 8 weks before good growth).

They are all acid-fast (Z-N stain). They are intracellular (microbes) that do not readily kill.

They usually get involved in chronic granulomatous type reaction characterized by the
Presence of epithelioid cells, lymphocytes, fibroblasts and caseous necrosis.

**Pathogenicity**

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The bacterium contain many including the Mycolic acid responsible for the Z-N (fastness) staining: like wise the lipid content affects the virulence, and its resistance to the digestive action of the neutrophils. The tuberculoprotein content of the bacteria provokes the hypersensitivity reaction.

**Pathogenesis**

- The bacterial are initially phagocyted by MQ and nowaytes where they slowly divide.
- Hypersensitivity reaction in about 1 – 2 week leaving to death of some bacteria and necrosis. Also there is infiltration by blood monocyte, histocyte.
- The mononuclear cells get transformed to giant cells by fusion or amitotic division Langahan type giant cells.
- Zone of lymphocytes around the giant cells.
- Proliferation of fibroblast at the periphery later with caseous necrotic centre in some spps.
- The necrotic center gets yeolw change mass or liquefied or calafied.
- The spread of bacilli (freely or in monocytes) in and unsensitized animals, along the regional lymph nodes form tubercles (primary complex of Ranke)
- Node to node spread and to the blood though necrotized vessels or erosions on vessel walls or thro cavities e. g. Respiratory, Renal system and pleura.
- Spread to various organ – tubercles – millitary TB
- Fewer bacteria in circulation – large tubercles and chronic course

**Lesion: Microscopically:**

- Production or proferative granulomatus types of inflammation
Each unit of reaction is called or referred to as Tubercle (which initially starts as a cluster of neutrophils surrounding the invading bacilli, soon this is replaced by whorl of epithelioid cells (endothelioid, reticuloendothelial cells) at the early stage of the encounter. The epithelioid cells engulf the bacilli, however this does not kill the bacteria but they grow to produce toxins that cause caseous necrosis of adjacent tissues.

The necrotic caseous are sounded by epithelioid granulation tissues made up of cells with foamy, pale and acidophilic cytoplasm. These cells may coalesce to form giant cells (Langhan’s) with nuclei arranged as wreath or crescent. The giant cells may contain the bacilli, belonged the granulation tissue are lymphocytes. The whole area may be encapsulated with chronicity by fibroblasts.

The necrotic materials can become dry (forming grayish or yellowish or whiteish chesy mass, or get liquefied. Calcification could occur at the necrotic centre of the lesion except in avian tuberculosis.

**Gross Lesion**

a) The tubercle  
1.) At first barely visible gray, translucent nodule  
2.) When visible.  
   a) Yellow in cattle, sheep, goats, swine  
   b) White in horse and carmours  
3.) Tubercles fuse to form tuberculous masses  
   a) Dry and cheesy – caseous lesion.  
   b) Gritty if calcification is present – (caseocalcaceous lesion)  
C) Pearly disease  
   1. On serous surface  
   2. Character of tubercles  
      a) Firm nodules  
      b) Dense nodules  
      c) Peal-like nodules  
4. Granulomations neoplasm grossly.

**Common Lation of TB lesions:**

1. Cattle:  
   a) Lungs and pleura  
   b) Liver, spleen and peritoneum  
   c) Regional lymph nodes
d) Skin and bones occasionally.

2. **Swine:**
   a) Cervical lymph nodes
   b) Bronchial lymph nodes
   c) Portal and mesenteric lymph nodes
   d) Liver, lungs and spleen

3. **Fowls:**
   a) Liver, spleen, intestines, lungs, bones, joints, peritoneum, kidneys and Ovaries.

**Differential Diagosis:** Parasitic nodules, neoplastic masses, fat necrosis, coccidioidomycosis, Histoplasmosis, actinobacillosis. Cryptococcosis etc.

**PATHOLOGY OF THE LUNGS**
The lungs are infected through 3 routes.

a. **air-borne route** - this is the most important and common. Infection of the lungs depends on the size of the particle inhaled (>10m trapped in the nasal cavities; 3-10m trapped in lower down the trachea; 1-2m trapped in alveoli; 0.5 – 1m exhaled; <0.5m may remain in the alveoli suspended). Coughing, sneezing and vocalization are means of spreading infection which are enhanced by overcrowdiness, poor ventilation and high concentration of droplet nuclei.

Lesions arising from air-borne infections are seen in the antero-ventral portion of the lung since the materials get first into the front part of the organ.

b. **haematogenous route** - From the pulmonary circulation. Lesion seen mainly in the diaphragmatic lobe. When found anywhere in the diaphragmatic lobe the emboli are large; when small they are in the periphery especially of the posterior part of the lobe. e.g. Lung worm (Metastrongyulus apri and M. salmi) of pigs come from the right heart.

c. **Direct invasion** - Least common but from penetrating foreign bodies from reticulum in ruminants or oesophagus in dogs; bullet wounds through ribs; bone from oesophagus of the dogs; extension from mediastanum or chest.

**Pulmonary Defence mechanisms:**
Non-specific:
- Mucociliary action (blanket)
- alveolar macrophages (dust cells)
- cough or sneeze reflexes
Specific:

a. Immunoglobin- mainly IgA on mucous which is very effective against viral infections
b. Cell- mediated Immunity: Specific to attack pathogen

LUNG PATHOLOGY:
1. Abnormalities
   - Congenital abnormalities: rare: abnormal lobation; accessory and ectopic lungs; Pulmonary agenesis;
2. Atelectasis- Incomplete distension of the lungs which could be congenital or Acquired. Atelectic lung will sink in water & can be confused with pneumonia; tumour fluid or any space occupying lesion can compress the lung in acquired atelectasis occurs where there is obstruction of the bronchial system in the absence of adequate collateral ventilation. Atelectic lungs are pale, airless; histologically, the tissue is dense but no exudates in the alveoli.
3. -foeing bodies (medication, bullets. wire);
4. -EMPHYSEMA (opposite of atelectasis) --over inflation of the lung with gas. Bulla is emphysemal area above 1 cm -- Bullus emphysema.
   Vesicular emphysema involves the alveolar ducts/alveoli
   Interstitial emphysema involves the connectives tissues of the lung and usually leads to bullus.

Acute alveolar Emphysema is seen in animals struggling before death resulting from mechanical asphyxiation.
Chronic diffuse emphysema called Heaves in horses (is similar to asthma in man) caused by:
   i. Chronic bronchitis
   ii. Pneumonia
   iii. Pulmonary sensitization to allerges such as pollen or dust.
5. Disturbances of cell metabolism and cell degeneration.
   a. Mellanosi- Mellanin in lung/interstitial spaces- focal grey or black areas in pigs, cattle and horses. No clinical effect.
b. Pneumoconiosis: Metallic particles in the lung. Leads to chronic fibrous reaction in the lungs. Of little importance in animals. Anthracosis, chalicosis (lime), silicosis, asbestosis, Beryllium granuloma. They can lead to tumour in man.

6. **Circulatory disturbances**
   a. Hypostatic congestion - moribund animals due to heart weakness.
   b. Haemorrhage – Haemorrhagic diathesis as seen in slaughter animals.
   c. Lung abscess or gangrene with erosion of the blood vessels. This lead to haemoptysis (c. f. Epistaxis). This is what usually lead to death in TB.
   d. Congestion and Oedema.

*Pulmonary congestion and Oedema*
- Frequently occurring together in the animals.
  a. **Acute type** – Seen terminally in many diseases and in shock.
  b. **Chronic type** – Seen in heart disease, especially in functional defect of the left side.
    - Seen also in hypoproteinaemia (parasitisation and starvation)

**In heart disease**
- Grossly – Large lung: heavy, darkened and wet.
  - White or blow foam (froth) on the cut surface of the lung, bronchi and trachea.
- Histologically - distended capillaries with blood,
  - Alveoli contain pink homogenous materials (albumin + plasma protein)

In chronic cases, macrophages containing haemosiderin. These macrophages are called Heart Failure Cells.

Sequellae of Pulmonary congestion/oedema.
1. Death in severe condition* e. g *Severe congestion occurs in dogs in a condition caused by poisoning by alpha-naphthyl Thiourea (ANTU)
   ANTU is a rat poison. When dogs eat rats killer by ANTU, the result is that of severe pulmonary congestion and oedema. This is accompanied by marked hydrothorax and clinically there is vomiting (frothing and +/- bloody) and diarrhea.
2. Pneumonia if there is secondary bacterial infection.
3. Resolution (healing) with the assistance of bronchial, tracheal and cough reflex. Also some of the exudates are drained by the lymphatic while small amount get absorbed into the circulatory system.
Emboli, thrombosis and Infarction
- Thrombosis is common in septicaemic conditions.
- Embolism is often formed in the lungs because of its large capillary beds. Embolic include: tumours, fat and megakaryocytes.
- Infarction occurs when both pulmonary and bronchial circulations are damaged or when there is thrombosis. Infarcted areas are red, cone-shaped, bulging and curved surface.

PNEUMONIA
Defined: Inflammation of the lung is referred to as pneumonia.
In pneumonia there are:-
(a) Vascular responses which include: Oedema, hyperaemia, haemorrhage and fibrin deposition.
(b) Cellular response – Neutrophils, lymphocytes, macrophages, eosinophils, giant cells, Plasma cells and fibroblasts.

The abundance of a particular type of cells will determine the type and cause of pneumonia e.g in T.B – giant cells, macrophages.

Description of lesion of the lungs:-
Grossly-
(1) Location
(a) Anteroventral e.g in bacterial infection with fibrinous and purulent pneumonia.
(b) Entire lung as in interstitial pneumonia e.g in viral infection.
(c) Postero-dorsal as in lungworm (parasitic infection)
(d) Random and multifocal – as in embolic pneumonia.

(2) Colour
(i) Dark-red to black – as in congestion, hyperaemia or haemorrhage. Usually in acute condition.
(ii) Pale or grey – due to fluid, fibrin or accumulation. This is seen in subacute to chronic conditions.

(3) Size
(i) Swollen – when there are lots of exudates, including both fluid and cells.
(ii) Depressed – collapse or atelectasis.

(4) Consistency
This is proportional to the nature and amount of the exudates.
(i) Firm in a lot of exudates (fibrin and cells). It looks like liver → hepatization (firm and
Red in colour).
(a) Red-hepatization in a very acute type of pneumonia.
(b) Grey hepatization in chronic pneumonia.
(iii) Rubbery – fluid and cells. The cells are not too dense.
(iii) Rubbery and Dry – in interstitial pneumonia as in viral infections.

**Cause of Pneumonia**
1. Irritant: gases or aerosols.
2. Aspirated foreign matter.
3. Various micro-organisms in single or in combinations.

**Predisposing Factors**
- Exposure to sudden change in weather.
- Confinement to damp environment as in raining season.

**Stages of Pneumonia**
Pneumonia is considered to be in four successive stages viz:-
- Congestion
- Red hepatization
- Gray hepatization
- Resolution/consolidation.

Although there are no clear demarcations between any of these stages.
The classic stage of congestion involves active hyperaemia plus Inflammatory oedema.
In the stage of red hepatization, the affected area of the lung is hepatized so that it has the
Same degree of firmness as liver tissue. Completely hepatized lung tissue sinks in water.
The stage of gray hepatization the lung tissue is still hepatization gray in the sense that the tissue is merely less red than it was earlier.
In favourable cases, the next stage is resolution which supervenes in about a week after the onset of pneumonia. If the
condition is not favourable gray hepalization proceeds to consolidation stage.

- Fatigue from transportation (stress)
- Other factors-nutritional or parasitic diseases

**Clinical signs**
- fever
- dyspnoea – respiratory distress
- Coughing
- Death if up to ½ of the lung area is affected.

Types of pneumonia (Classification)
Pneumonia is classified according to the nature of the exudates or according to the causative agent or site affected or the pathogenesis.
Pneumonia can be – acute
- Sub acute
- chronic
- chronic granulomatous

When pneumonia extends to pleura, it leads to pleuropneumonia – (Pneumonia and pleuritis).
When the bronchial and mediasternal lymph nodes are affected, they could be the best sites to locate the causative agents.

1. Bronchopneumonia - This is the most common type of pneumonia. It is common in young animals-calves, piglets, sheep/goats.
   
   Haemophilus suis, Salmonella cholera suis
   Equine – Streptococcus equi
   Dog – Br. bronchiseptices; Klebsiella, Streptococci and Staphylococci
   Cat – Pasteurella multocida

   These organism become pathogenic under altered condition e.g in P. oedema, cold, viral infection the organism are usually aerogenous.

   Pathogenesis – 1st – bronchitis or bronchiolitis which spreads to the alveoli in 3 ways:-
   (a) Across the necrotized wall of the bronchioles to the parenchyma.
   (b) Through the inflammed lamina propria of the bronchus to the surrounding connective tissue.

   Cartilage
   Lumen
   Inflammatory cells
   CTP
   (c) Direct through respiratory bronchiole to the alveolar duct → alveolar.
This is called Endobronchiolar. Can spread still from alveoli to alveoli
Through “Pores of Kohn”
Grossly in bronchopneumonia the lesion is in cranial part of the lung

Trachea
Cranial (apical) lobe.

± antero-ventral lobe appearance – Uniform consolidation of the anteroventral portion.
- Presence of nodules
- Hepatization
- Mosaic if there is different involvement of various agents.
- Swollen or turged, red (acute) or gray (chronic)
Pus is expressed on cut surfaces from bronchioles and bronchi.

Histology:
Bronchiolitis is characterized by
- Accumulation of neutrophils, macrophages, mucous and desquamated cells in the lumen.
- Swollen alveoli
- Inflammatory oedema (fluid and fibrin)
- Peribronchial lymphangitis especially in horses (Streptococcal infection).

Consequent – Horses – Death from toxemina from the organisms
1. Death from hypoxia or cardiac failure
2. Atelectasis – collapsed area
3. Obstructive bronchiolitis – Lots of exudates which get dried, get organized by connective
   Tissue that are growing into the area → obstruction.
4. Bronchiectasis – dilated wall of the bronchi
5. Lung abscesses
6. Pleural adhesion to the lung.

2. **Fibrinous Pneumonia**
The term fibrinous pneumonia is often used synonymously with lobar pneumonia, but fibrinous describes the character of the exudates rather than the anatomical distribution and should not be considered as a substitute for the term lobar. Fibrinous inflammation occurs mainly on mucous and serous membranes including alveolar surfaces of the lungs. An example of a fibrinous pneumonia which is seen in human is caused by Diplococcus Pneumoniae.

**Aetiology bacterial e.g**
By the genus – Mycoplasma e.g Mycoplasma mycoides ssp mycoides contagious Bovine Pleuropneumonia (CBPP) on cattle, while M mycoides sp caprae caused contagious caprine pleuropneumonia in goats – F – 38 strain isolated in Kenya in (1976) has been shown to cause most African outbreak of the highly contagious CCPP in African, Other bacteria like Pasteurella sps; and salmonella sps. Are involved. Other causative agents include viruses (PPR, Canine distemper).

**Pathogenesis** – It is assumed that a diffusible toxin produced by M. m. mycoides stimulates fibrinous granulation tissue and proliferation resulting in membrane formation around infected necrotic tissue.

**Pathology**
These is severe fibrinous pleuropneumia localized in portions of the affected lobes of the lung and showing marbling which is the consequence of varying stages of gray and red hepatization. The marbling is accentuated by the destention of interlobular septa and interstitium by sero-fibrinous exudates. A clear, yellowish fluid exudates from the cut surface of the lung. There is also interstitial oedema. In the chronic stage, a thick layer of proliferative tissue (diptheritic pseudo-membrane) appears on the pleura which can be pulled off. The thoracic cavity is filled with a yellowish-grey, clear or turbid liquid which contains pieces of fibrin.

**Histopath**
- Hyperaemia of the alveoli capillaries.
- Interalobular septa are widened by sero-fibrinous exudates and later found around bronchi and bronchioles. Vasculitis and thrombosis of intralobular and interlobular arteries and the lymphatics are frequently present in pneumatic parts, culminating in necrosis of a lobule or part of a lobule or in infarction of multiple lobules and intervening septa.

**Complication**
- High mortality
- Organization by granulation tissue.
- Abscission and Empyemia (pus in pleura)
- Adhesive pleuritis and pericarditis.
- Fibrinous bronchopneumonia (-bronchopneumonia + fibrinous Pneumonia).
- Common in sheep and goats.
3. **Interstitial Pneumonia**
   - **Pneumonitis:**
     - Inflammation of the alveolar septa
       a) Thickened alveolar spaces due to serous or fibrious exudates, inflammatory cells or
       b) Formation of hyaline membra in alveolar duct.
       c) Proliferation of alveolar epithelial cell-cuboidal epith.
       The epith proliferation interferes with gas diffusion.
       This epith proliferation is called Epithelialization or Foetalization of the alveolar wall.

1. **Occurrence:**
   - a). Septicaemia  - Colibacillosis
     - Salmonellosis
     - Erysipella infection
     - Endocarditis
   
   - b). Viral Pneumonia
     - Feline Pneumonia
     - Canine distemper
     - Equine viral rhinopneumonitis.
     - Kata
   
   - c). Parasitic infection: ascaris suum migration
   
   - d). Generalized infection like Histoplasmosis and Toxoplasmosis

**Route:** Generally haematogenous.

**Lesions:** Diffuse generally, but can be localized anywhere.

**Grossly:**
- Lungs do not collapse, with imprints of the ribs.
- Pale, red or normal in colour
- May be oedematous which later turns fibrotic.
- $2^0$ bronchopneumonia could be present

**Histology:**
- Thickening of alveolar wall by exudates or fibrotic tissues.
- Desquamation of epithelium.
- Metaplasia of alveolar epithelium forming macrophages, giant cells or a continuous cuboidal
  Epith (foetalization)
- Sometimes there could be severe hyaline e.g in membrane a typical interstitial pneumonia
- Seen often in (kata).

**Complication**
- Secondary bacterial infection
- Fibrosis of interstitial
- Death

4). **Embolic Pneumonia** –
5). **Gangrenous Pneumonia**
   Usually a complication of other pneumonia. It results from aspiration of foreign materials e.g milk, water, drugs. The presence of saprophyte will lead to gangrene.

6). **Aspiration or Inhalation Pneumonia**
   Aetiology: Aspiration of vomitus during anaesthesia due to Dysfunction of the glottis or medicament intended for esophagus e.g liquid paraffin or oil-base medicine leading to liquid pneumonia e.g in cat after treatment for constipation: In vit E and selenium defined leading to nutritional myopathy in lambs affecting muscles of deglutition. Similarly in rabies where muscles are paralysed.

**Grossly:** Presence of foreign materials in respiratory tract or seen microscopically in alveoli/bronchioles. **Assignment**

7. Verminous Pneumonia
8. Hypostatic Pneumonia

**SPECIFIED PNEUMONIA**


   **Act:** 1). Morbilhviras of the paramyxovirus group, (in the same group as Rinderpest, canine distemper, New castle disease, (human and measles).

   2.) Often complicated by 2 bacterial inflammation e.g. *Pasteuralla (Mannhemia) haemolytica*, coccidiosis, helminthiasis.

   3.) Predisponing factors include stress, parasition, altred procedures.

   **Tx:** Inhelation of droplets
   - Exptally by injection s/c.

   **Cl:** Incubation within 5 days
   - Fever, discharges from nose and eyes.
- Necrosis of the lips, tongues and buccal mucosa.
- Amorcxine, dehydration.
- Horse cough, crepitant rales.
- Marked abdominal breathing with bacterial complication.
- Death after little or no response to P₄.
- Death 3 – 10 days after outset of clinical signs.
- Survivors may develop proliferative labial lesion as in orf (contagious ectheme).

PM a) GIT: Necrosis and ulceration of epithelium of oral mucose, pharyx, upper oesophages. The fore stomach and usually spared. Sever haemorrhagic inflammation of the colon, ileo-caecal folds and caecal tonsils. In chronic stages. Scabs on the lips.

**Histologically:**
- Epithelial necrosis and vacuolar degeneration with in trauncleolar and nitracytoplasnic inclusion bodies.
- Occasionally, syncitial cells in the oral mucosa (large collection of nuclei with only one cytoplasmic unremembered around) giant cell with intranuclear inclusion bodies.

4. **Respiratory**
   i. The first sign is that of catarrhal rhinitis and necrotic tracheitis with severe hyperaemic (Diffuse or patching) of the lungs. Affected areas are voluminous, meaty and rubbary, Not usually firm.
   ii. Later:- Consolidation and fibrinous pleuritis due to 20 bacterial inflammations (P. *haemolytica*)

**Histology:-**
- Marked proliferation and degeneration of the epith living the air ways.
- Acute stage – presence of INIC & ICIC bodies.
- Thickening of the aloveolar well due to proliferation of the mqs, mononuclear cells and hyperplasia of the epith of the alveoli.

  d. Syncytial giant cells + MQs. In the lumen with inclusion bodies. The presence of 2° bacteria inflammation will lead to sever infiltration by giant cells, MQs and fibro-purulent exudation in the lumen.

Pasteurellosis = (Mannhemiosis)

**Aet:** *P. multocida*

*P. mannhaemia haemolytica*
Type 1  **H. Septicaemia**
Aetiology. *P. multocida* characterized by haemorrhagic septicaemia in cattle, deer, buffalo and sheep. It is a virulent disease, though does not occur often.

**Type 11 P. m. haemolytica** is responsible for pneumonic pasteurellosis or between shipping fever in N-America. Other agents involved in s. fever include viruses. Usually leads to fibrinous pneumonia with large colonies of bacteria.

**Contagious Bovine Pleuro-Pneumonia (CATTLE)**
Aet: Mycoplasma mycoides rare mycoids.
Tx:  a) By inhalation from:- of direct contact between acute cases and susceptible.
    b). Inhalation of dust terminated with exudates.
    c) Carried by people, dogs, cats in wild and excrections.

Xterized by: Fibrinous Pneumonia and fibrinous pleuritis with marked involvement of the Interlobular septa and requesstration in late stages.

**Lesion:** Usually confirmed to are lung, or more serious on me than the other; with mosaic appearance (various stages of inflammation: red and gray hepatization) and thickening Of the interlobular septa.

**In acute stage:** Turbid thoracic cavity fluid (Hydrothorax)
- Fibrinous exudates on pleura
- Marbled appearance on cut surface
Necrotic areas will be yellowish with proliferation of fibrinous tissue around the necrotic area. →Variegated mosaic marble.

**Pleura:-** Spongy yellowish materials (tissue) adhering to the panetal and visceral lagers.
Dull or roughened or contain fluid.
Later → fibrous adhesion.
Oedema of the mediastimian.

**Histology:-** Acute severe fibrinous pneumonic fibrinous pleurisy; thrombosis of b/d v/s and necrosis of lung tissues; thickened interstitial tissues will oedema and fibrinous.
With chromicity → necrotic centers sequestrated b y fibrous capsules.

**Diagnosis:-**
1. Typical gross and microscopic lesions, which may not be differentiated from pastemrellosis.
2. Isolation of mycoplasma from lung and plaura exudates. Best preserved in 50% glycerine - or frozen.
3. Serology
   a. Complement fixation test in most reliable.
   b. Agglunation test.
   c. Indirect haemagglutination test.
   d. Skin Test as in Tuberculom
   e. Agar – get diffusion Test or pptn works on formalinized tissue or rotten specimen.

Diff diag: FmD. Vesicular stomatitis, malignant catarrhal fever, pasturellosis, tuberculosis, lung worm infection and airesnic poisoning.

Porcine enzootic Pneumonia or Viral Pig Pneumonia.

Act:-
   a.) Mycoplasma suipneumoniae
       M. hyopneumoniae
       M. hyorhinis
   b). Other agents Viruses and bacterial would be implicated eg. pasteurella.

Tx: by inhalation
   Highly contagious.

Grossly: Grayish consolidation of the antero-ventral portion of the lungs associated with sorefibrinous pleuritis. Peritonitis and pericarditis, enlarged regional in.

Microscopically: Slight to marked peri-bronchial, peri-vascular and alveolar septal infiltration of Lymphocytes and macrophages (mononuclear cells)

   - Fluids and MQs in the alveoli
   - Rxns around the bronchioles may become marked referred to e.g. “Peribronchial lymphocytic Cuffin”. This is a chronic, delayed type of reaction with secondary bacterial infection, typical of broncho pneumonia.

SWINE INFLUENZA: An infection respiratory disease of swine.

Aet: Influenza virus + Haemopilus influenza suis in (a gram negative bacterium).
The is introduced into susceptible host by lungworm larvae (Ascaris suum, and the infection is provoked by H. influenza suis.
Lesion: Characterized by tracheobronchitis, bronchiolitis.
   Animals can recover from acute infection.
   *Seen mainly in cold weather country.

Enzootic Pneumonia of Calves
Calves usually less than 6 months of age; infection respiratory disease in calves.

Act: Mixture – P. Multiocida
   - P. Pyogena and other,
   - Viruses – parainfluenza virus (Pl3)
   - Adenovirus

***PSITTACOSIS LYMPHOGRANULOMA-TRACHOMA***

Act: Chlamydie sp. - Pneumonia in cattle, sheep and goats reffered to e.g Enzootic pneumonia in young ones mainly, - fever, nasal discharge, cough, dyspnoea and depression.

Lesions in anterior lobes of the lungs.
   - Extensive infiltration of lymphocytes, MQs and plasma cells (mononuclear cells) in the Bronchioles and alveoli.
   - Marked purulent exudates is lacking unless in presence of 2° bacterial infection.
   There is proliferation and epithelialization of alveolar living cells helping in consideration of the lungs.

***PNEUMONOMYCOSIS***
- Pneumonia caused by fungi (mycosis)
  e.g i). *Aspergillus fumigatus* in most common in all sps of animal, but major problem of chicken as in Brooder pneumonia.
    A flavus
    A. niger not as common as *A fumigatus*
    Aspergillosis also occurs as complications resulting from prolong use of contibiotics.
  ii) Blastomycosis – in Dog and man mainly.
    Blastomyces dermatitides – North America
    B. braziliensis – South America
  iii) Crytococcosis – Cattle, swine, horse, cats, dogs, monkey and man.
**Aet:** Cryptococcus, neoformans – sometime called European Blastomycosis.
Organisms have affected for cerebrospinal meanings and the respiratory system in some cases.

**Lesion** – not diagnostic. Granulomatous nodules in the lungs, peritonium and nasal mucosal.
Enlarged affected lymph nodes.

iv). Coccidiodomycosis – Coccidioides imautis
- Causing fungal infection (e.g. Ringworm)

**Lesion Generally**, pneumomycosis lesion can spread to other parts of the body – brain, eyes and Placenta - apart from the respiratory tissues.

**Xtic** chronic granuloma formation, usually with giant cell formation – (similar to T. B). Causative agents are in a form of mycelia or spores in the tissues in large numbers.
Special stains may be required to demonstrate their presence:
- PAS – Periodic acid-schiff
- Gomoris’ Methylamine silver – GMS.
- H and E – not special
- ZN stains to differentiate from TB

**VERMINOUS PNEUMONIA**
-Pneumonia caused by parasites

a). Ascaris suum → acute interstitial pneumonia in pigs and cattle following the migration of the larvae through the lungs no their normal developmental cycle no pigs.

b). Strongyles → chronic bronchopneumonia as (lungworms) in cattle, sheep, goat, horses and pigs.

In pigs – The only common lungworm is called *Metastrongylus apris* and *M. Salmi*.

**Lesions:**- are seen on the dorsal portion of the lungs. These are mixed with froath in the bronchi:

i). Increase secretion on the bronchus.
ii). Eosinophilic infiltration.
iii). Peribronchial lymphoid hyperplasia with chronic metastrongylus infection.
iv) Chronic granulomatous reaction around dead parasites in tissues.
In heavy infestation there is coughing and pneumonia.
In low infestation there may be no clinical signs.
The disease is common in animals on the soil because of the involvement of earthworm no the
life-cycle of the parentes.

Other lunguorus:
c). *Dictyocaulus filaria* – sheep/goats
   - *D. viviparous* - bovine
   - *D. arnfieldi* - equine
   - Form cysts in organs
   - a zoonotic disease.

**Other parasites not common are**
f). *Aelurostrongylus abstrusus*
   - In bronchi and other smaller pulmonary arteries in cat.
   - One of the causes of muscular hypertrophy of pulmonary artery.
g). *Paragonimus spp* – Fluke in man, carnivores, ruminants and swine.
   - produces typical chronic granulomatous reaction with lots of fibrosis.
h). *Fasciola gigantica* can also invade the lungs.

**PULMONARY ADENOMATOSIS**
In mainly in cold countries characterized by proliferation of the alveolar and type II cells for a long Time, resulting into tumor formation.

Features: Hyperplasia/Hypertrophy of the septa cells of the alveoli and the mucose of the smaller Bronchioles. The lesion may be as discrete nodules.

**Histology:** Resembles epithelial tumours.

**Occurrence in animals:**
- In cattle – atypical interstitial pneumonia.
- In sheep – ovine progressive pneumonia
  - Maedi (Europe)
  - Jaagbie kte (South Africa)
Act:
- Could be related to hypersensitivity reaction to – parasites.
  - Mould
  - Gases from pasture

Tumours of the Lung
1st tumour – not common.
  - From bronchiolar epithelium
  - From alveolar epithelium
  - From blood vls of the lungs
  - Connective tissues (fibroblast or cartilage)

Metastatic tumours – from other parts of body e.g. Testis or mammary glands.

A). PATHOLOGY OF THE PLEURA
1. Abnormal viscera as in diaphragmatic hernia (acquired or congenital) – intestine, liver in thorax.
2. Foreign bodies e.g bullets from Ruptured oesophagus.
3. Air in thorax – pneumothorax.
4. Fluid in thorax – hydrothorax e.g. from heart failure.

B). CIRCULATORY DISTURBANCES OF THE PLEURA

C) PLEURITIS – INFLAMMATION OF THE PLEURA

Lesion:
- Sero-sanguinous or
- Purulent and haemorrhagic inflammation.

The pleura is thickened and rough (velvety) as against smooth and shining pleura.
- Necrotic pleuritis – with calcification as seen in dogs with uraemia. Calcified Plaques.
- Pleuritis is also seen in T. B
D). NEOPLARIA OF PLEURA
- The common neoplaria of pleura is mesothelioma which is difficult to differentiate from chronic inflammation.

However, in mesothelioma there is the absence inflammatory cells.
Other features present are:
- Mitotic figures
- Invasion of blood vessels and lymphatics.
- Metastasis to other organs.
The primary tumours of the pleura are usually with in tumour in other parts of the body.

TUBERCULOSIS (T. B)
This is a chronic infection disease caused by
- *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* in man
- *M. bovis* in cattle
- *M. avium* in avians
- *M. microtic* in rodents

Tx: 1. Alimentary  2. Respiratory commonest  3. Genital during corpulation  4. Cutaneous (s/cin) – e.g by castration wound, dehorning affecting the ins.  5. Congenital of the foetus while in utero.

Some members of the fairly mycobacterium are saprophytes some of which are occasional pathogens while others are strict pathogens (grow slowly in cultures e.g 6 – 8 wks before getting good growth).
They are all acid-fast (Z –N stain). They are intracellular (microbes) that do not readily kill.
They usually get involved chronic granulomatous type reaction characterized by the presence of epithiloidid cells, giant cells, lymphocytes, fibroblasts and caseous necrosis.

Pathogenicity:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Human</th>
<th>Bovine</th>
<th>Avian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Man</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>+</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bovine</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chicken</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Pig | ± | + + | + +
Rabbit | T | + + | + + +
Guinea Pig | + + | + | T
Sheep | T | + | +
Goat | T | + | ±
Horse | ± | + | ±
Dog | + | - | ±
Cat | ± | + | -
Parrot | + | + | +

The bacterium contains many lipids including the mycolic acid responsible for the Z – N (fastness) staining. Likewise, the lipid content affects the virulence and its resistance to the digestive action of the neutrophils. The tuberculin content of the bacteria provokes the hypersensitivity reaction.

PATHOGENESIS
The bacterial are initially phagocytized by MQ and monocytes where they slowly divide.
- Hypersensitivity reaction in about 1 – 2 weeks leading to death of some bacteria and necrosis. Also there is infiltration by monocytes.
- The mononuclear cells form giant cells by fusion or amitotic division → Langhan’s type giant cells.
- Zone of lymphocytes and histocytes surround the giant cells.
- Proliferation of fibroblasts at the periphery later with caseous necrotic centre in some spps.
- The necrotic centre get → yellow cheesy mass or liquified or calcified.
- The spaced of bacilli (freely or in monocytes) in unsensitized animals, along the regional in to form tubercles (Primary complex of Ranke)
- Node to node spread and to the blow through necrotized vessels or erosions on vessel walls, Or thro, cavities e.g Respiration system renal plaura.
- Spread to various organs → tubercles → military TB.
- Fever bacteria in circulation → large tubercles and chrome cause.

Lesion: Microscopically:
- Productive or proliferative granulomatous type of inflammation.
- Each unit of reaction is called or referred to as Tubercle (which initially starts as a Cluster of neutrophils surrounding the invading bacilli; soon this is replaced by whorl of Epithelioid cells (endothelioid, reticuloendothelial cells) at the early stage of the encounter.
  The epithelioid cells engulf the bacilli, however this does not kill the bacteria but they grow to produce toxins that cause caseous necrosis of adjacent tissues. The necrotic areas) are rounded by epithelioid granulation tissues made up of cells
with foamy, pale and acidophilic cytoplasm. These cells may coalesce or undergo amitotic division to form giant cells. (Langhan’s) with nuclei arranged as wreath or crescent: the giant cells may contain the bacilli.

Behind the granulation tissues are lymphocytes. The whole area may be encapsulated with chronicity by fibroblasts. The necrotic materials can become dry (forming grayish or yellowish or whitish cheesy mass, or get liquefied. Calcification could occur at the necrotic and centre of the lesion except in avian tuberculosis's

Gross Lesions
a) The tubercle
1) At first barely visible gray, traum, lucent nodule.
2). When visible:
   a) Yellow in cattle, sheep, goats, swine.
   b) White in horse and carnivors.
3). Tubercles fuse to form tuberculous masses.
   a) Dry and cheesy – caseous lesion.
   b) Gritty if calcification is present – (caseocal careous lesions)
   c) Pearly disease
   I. On serous surfaces
   II. Character of tubercles
      a). Firm nodules
      b). Dense nodules
      c) Pearl-like nodules
4). Granulomatous neoplasm grossly.

Location of lesions
1. **Cattle**
   a. Lungs and pleura
   b. Liver, spleen and peritoneum.
   c. Regional lymph nodes
   d. Skin and bones occasionally

2. **Swine**
   a. Cervical lymph nodes
   b. Bronchial mesenteric lymph nodes
   c. Portal and mesenteric lymph nodes
   d. Liver, lungs and spleen.

3. **Fowls**
   a. Liver, spleen, intestines, lungs, bones, joints, peritoneum, kidneys, and ovaries.
DDX:- Parasitic nodules, neoplastic masses, fat necrosis, coccidioimycosis, histoplasmosis, Actinobacillosis, cryptococcosis etc.

- Digestive System
- By Prof O. B. Kasali
Bovine: Palatoschisis
Bovine: Actinomycosis (Lumpy jaw)
Bovine: Lumpy jaw (Typical pyogranuloma)
Bovine: Erosive Stomatitis (FMD)
Bovine: Ulcerative stomatitis
(Rinderpest)
Bovine: Ulcerative stomatitis (Rinderpest)
Bovine: Necrosis of Peyer’s Patch (Rinderpest)
Bovine: Ulcerative glossitis (Rinderpest)
Caprine: Erosive stomatitis and mucopurulent rhinitis and ophthalmitis (PPR)
Caprine: Oral and pharyngeal lesions (PPR)
Ovine: Erosive stomatitis and glossitis (Orf)
Bovine: Malignant Catarrhal Fever (MCF)
Bovine: Vasculitis in kidney (MCF)
Bovine Brain: Arteritis (MCF)
Canine: Haemorrhagic enteritis
Avian: Coccidiosis
Canine: Infectious  canine hepatitis
Skeletal Muscle
- diameter: 10-100 µm
- length: 1-40 mm

Cardiac Muscle
- diameter: 14-20 µm
- length: 75-80 µm

Smooth Muscle
- diameter: 3-8 µm
- length: 15-200 µm

Myoepithelial Cell
- embraces acinus within basal lamina
Anatomical compartments of the heart
Differences btw cardiac muscles and other types

- **Skeletal Muscle**
  - diameter: 10 - 100 µm
  - length: 1 - 40 mm

- **Cardiac Muscle**
  - diameter: 14 - 20 µm
  - length: 75 - 80 µm

- **Smooth Muscle**
  - diameter: 3 - 8 µm
  - length: 15 - 200 µm

- **Myoepithelial Cell**
  - embraces acinus within basal lamina
Normal Histology of the cardiac musculature
CONGENITAL ANOMALIES OF CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM

Congenital anomalies of the heart and great vessels even though is of more importance to man, are more the most frequently encounter in animal and man. The most serious anomalies may not be compatible with life especially at fetal life and some may not impinge on the functional capacity of the organ involve and be compatible with life. Some may not be apparent at the fetal life but become apparent during post-natal life where they may not be compatible with life or if they are minimal the animal may live and such anomalies is obscure at P.M. In between these 2 extreme are those that would allow continuation of life but with episode of sickness due to anoxia, retarded growth e.t.c. They could also lead to death if not treated promptly.
Examples of congenital anomalies
Congenital anomalies contd.

- **Simplistically cardiac anomalies can be divided into:**

  1. Defects that allows shunting of blood from the right heart to the left and verse versa.
  2. Defects that will lead to obstruction of blood flows.
  3. Valvular defects that may lead to obstruction of flow or regurgitation.
  4. Abnormal arterial and venous connection or positioning.
  5. Malpositioning of the heart.
Congenital anomalies contd.

- These defects can arise from (causes)
  a. Infection during pregnancy: - the heart is fully formed during the 1st trimester of pregnancy hence infection especially of viral origin and those that affect mitosis in the dam can have disastrous effect on the way the heart develop. e.g. paroviral infection in cats and dogs, Blue tongue virus in sheep, and BVD in cattle.

b. Chromosomal abnormalities congenital or heritable defects.

c. Things that can cause developmental arrest or teratogens e.g.
  i) Deficiencies of Vitamin A, Zinc, Riboflavin and pantothenic acid.
  ii) Excesses of vitamin A, retinoic acid and copper.
  iii) In utero exposure to x-irradiation or fetal hypoxia.
  iv) Teratogenic compounds such as thalidomide, ethanol, salicylates, griseofulvin and cortisol.
Congenital anomalies contd.

Some of the common congenital abnormalities are

**In dog**
- Persistent ductus arteriosus. (PDA)
- Pulmonic stenosis
- Subaortic Stenosis
- Persistent right aortic arch
- Interventricular septa defect.
- Atrial septal defect
- Tetralogy of fallot

**In Cat**
- Malformed valves (mitral & tricuspid valve dysplasia)
- Ventricular septal defect
- Aortic stenosis
- Persistent common anterio-ventricular canal (persistent foramen ovale)
- Persistent right aortic arch
- Tetralogy of fallot.
Congenital anomalies contd.

In Swine
- The most common and heritable defect is
  Subvalvular aortic stenosis

In Cattle and Horse
- Atrial and ventricular valvular defect.
- Tetralogy of fallot
- Patent ducts arteriosus
- Transposition of major blood vessels

Other conditions are
1. Acardiosis or lack of heart.
2. Hemi-acardiosis or presence of rudimentary heart; and both can be seen in uniovular twins in horse.
3. Multiple hearts like diplocardia, tetracardia, heptocardia in avian spp.
4. Dextrocardia: Heart is on the right side rather than the left.
Congenital anomalies contd.

There are 4 features of Tetralogy of Fallot.
1. Interventricular septa defect.
2. Aorta that overrides the ventricular septa defects i.e. biventricular origin of the aorta or a dextro position of the aortic valve. (Transposition of the aorta).
3. Pulmonary or pulmonic stenosis causing obstruction of the right ventricular outflow.
4. Compensatory hypertrophy of the right ventricular wall.

Consequences of tetralogy of Fallot.
The consequence of tetralogy of Fallot is mixture of venous and arterial blood resulting in cyanosis, polychytemia chronic hypoxigemia and ultimately congestive heart failure.
Affected animal fatigue easily and the growth rate is usually retarded.
The flow of blood from the right ventricle into the dextroposed aorta does not depend on the degree of overriding but on the severity of the pulmonic stenosis. The complex is better thought of as a ventricular septal defect accompanied by right ventricular outflow tract obstruction.
Congenital anomalies contd.

- **ECTOPIC CORDIS**: This is the presence of heart in abnormal position especially in cattle where it is found in thoracic region lying under the subcutis.
- It is also associated with lack of sternum in the animal.
- Some of the affected animals may survive for some times but would eventually die because the heart is prone to injury.
Congenital anomalies contd.

- **Congenital/Embryonic cardiovascular problems:**
  - Immediately after birth, some embryonic structures do persist.
  - These include:
  - **ATRIAL SEPTAL DEFECTS:**
    - The embryonic communication between the two atria, normally at birth is forced to close by a force arising from sudden closed in pressure at the left atrium at the onset of respiration.
    - In about a week in the dog and about a month in cattle and horse, there is a **fibrous** closure of this foramen.
If because of any problem the foramen persists, there is a left to right shunt leading to mixture of deoxygenated and oxygenated blood and result is increase intrapulmonary pressure leading to pulmonary oedema and damping of blood due to impairment of venous drainage of the liver, spleen and kidney.

The result is right sided congestive heart failure.
Congenital anomalies contd.

- **INTERVENTRICULAR SEPTA DEFECTS (IVSD):** During embryonic development there is communication between the two ventricles and this is made up of two parts.
  a. The membranous parts which grow downward.
  b. The muscular part grows upward.

The incomplete fusion of these two parts or even a defect in the development would lead to IVSD. When the defect is small there is a **left-right shunt** because of the higher systolic pressure on the left side. In this situation, the blood is oxygenated and the effect on the general body circulation is minimal.
However a situation may arise where there is stenosis of the pulmonary artery and the pressure built up within the right ventricle is greater than that in the left, this would lead to right-left shunt, which is venous blood getting into general circulation leading to cyanosis.

In the former position (left-right shunt) there is a reaction by the right ventricle and since blood is usually from it to the lung with a pressure lower than the systemic pressure, a time will come when intrapulmonary pressure become equal or higher than the systemic pressure, now forcing the blood to come from right to the left with resultant cyanosis.
Congenital anomalies contd.

- **THE AORTIC ARCHES**
- There are 6 aortic arches in the embryo that are involved in the development of cardiovascular system. Some of these atrophied while some go on to form part of the system e.g. left aortic arch.
- The right and left 3rd arches gives rise to **carotid arteries**.
- The left (4th) aortic arch give rise **aortic arch**
- Portion of the right and left 6th aortic arches give rise to **pulmonary artery and its branches as well as ductus arteriosus**. However anomalies of these can occur such that either those that should atrophy persist or there are anomalies in those that do develop.
A. **PERSISTENT DUCTUS ARTERIOSUS:**

- This condition is seen in all species. In the dog it has a polygenic inheritance pattern. The ductus develops from the 6th left branchial arch and functions in the fetus to divert a major portion of blood from the pulmonary artery to the aorta.
- The flow from venous to arterial side is a consequence of the presence of high vascular resistance of the fetal pulmonary bed. The ductus is usually patent in neonatal life but suppose to be close at birth at the first respiratory effort. This is due to the fact that the structure of the normal ductus differs from that of the adjacent pulmonary artery and aorta.
- In contrast to the large elastic arteries, the media of the ductus has a dense layer of smooth muscle which is responsive to epinephrine, norepinephrine, oxygen, acetylcholine e.t.c.
- At birth or few hours after birth the ductus becomes functionally closed due to these compound especially oxygen. When blood flowing via the pulmonary artery is increase the lumen of fibrotic leading to ligamentum arteriosus.
When there is defective sealing of this vessel. The fibrous tissue become patent and since there is a greater pressure in the aorta more than that of pulmonary arterial pressure, there is loading of blood in the lung leading to (left-right shunt) increase intrapulmonary pressure treaded to pull edema. This can also lead to back flow of blood into the right ventricle or both ventricles causing compensatory hypertrophy of both. There is also left atrial dilation resulting from increased pulmonary blood flow. The ascending aorta and pulmonary artery are dilated resulting probably from a combination of turbulent flow and altered pressure relationships.
B. PERSISTENT RIGHT AORTIC AROH: This is common in dog and has been observed in cattle. It is due to persistent of the right fourth aortic arch instead of normal left fourth aortic arch. A right aorta descends to the right of the midline arches over the origin of the right bronchus. With aorta in this position and become persistent it displaces the Oesophagus and trachea to the left thereby causing a vascular ring that imprisons the oesophagus and trachea by encloses the Oesophagus and compresses it against the trachea. As a result of the ring there are dysphagia, cranial megaoesophagus, regurgitation, respiratory distress due to dyspnoea and asphyxiation. This condition is heritable in German Shepherd dog and some breeds of cattle.
Congenital anomalies contd.

- **PULMONIC STENOSIS:** This is a relatively common congenital anomaly in dogs, but an unusual finding in other animals. Pulmonary stenosis encompasses three anatomic variations:
  1. Valvular stenosis
  2. Supravalvular stenosis
  3. Subvalvular or infundibular stenosis

  Valvular stenosis is probably due to the disordered fusion of the valve cushions and their failure to hallow out properly. Right Ventricular Hypertrophy (RVH) occurs to increase resistance.

- **Supravalvular pulmonic stenosis** is produced by a connective tissue encircling the upper portion of the outflow tract of the right ventricle i.e. fibrous narrowing above valve also causes RVH.

- **The third variant (subvalvular low pulmonic stenosis)** is hypertrophy of the Crista supraventricularis muscle ridge i.e fibrous connective tissue below valve.

With each form, the pulmonary trunk is dilated and thin walled. This is probably due to a combination of turbulent flow and a drop in pressure, creating a **Venturi effect** in the pulmonary artery.
Other congenital anomalies include.

A  EISEMENGER COMPLEX:
   This is also called Trilogy of Fallot. It is made up of the following:
   i) Interventricular septal defect ii) Aortic transposition.
   iii) Right ventricular hypertrophy.

   This condition has been reported in man and animals.
   This complex differs from the tetrad of Fallot in that pulmonic stenosis is not present.
   Some cyanosis usually results from this set of anomalies.

B  TRANSPOSITION OF THE GREAT VESSELS:- Some of the severe cardiac anomalies are combination of defects of the aorta and pulmonary artery. Malposition or transposition of arterial trunks is a condition in which the aorta lies in relation to the pulmonary artery such that it (aorta) receives blood from the right ventricle, the basic defect being a dextropositioning of the aorta.
Congenital anomalies contd.

There are 4 degrees, or types of this anomaly: **in riding or overriding aorta**; the aorta straddles the septum which is defective and receives blood from both ventricles, and the pulmonary artery leaves the right ventricles. **In partial transposition**, both vessels leave the right ventricles.

**In overriding pulmonary artery**, the pulmonary artery straddles a defective ventricular septum, and the aorta emerges from the right ventricle.

**In complete transposition**, the aorta emerges from the right ventricle, and pulmonary artery emerges from the left. It is usual in these transposition complexes for there to be hypoplasia of either the pulmonary or aorta tracts.
C. CONGENITAL ANEURYSM OF THE AORTA or of the pulmonary artery involves either vessels the trunk and arch but may not extend beyond the insertion of the ligamentum arteriosus. Aortic aneurysm may be associated with aneurysm of one or more of the aorta sinuses of valsalva.

D. HYPOPLASIA OF THE AORTA

E. EBSTEIN’S ANOMALIES of the tricuspid valve in which there is deformity and downward displacement of the basal portions of the tricuspid valve into the right ventricle leading to double outlet from the right ventricle
The muscular nature or pliability of the heart which include size, texture and structure of the heart especially at its apex.

It is preferable to commence by examining the heart and blood vessels in situ for abnormalities of size and position.

The pericardial sac should also be incised and its content examined before the thoracic contents are removed.

The musculature especially of the right ventricle compare to that of the left ventricle.

Naturally the right ventricle is about \( \frac{1}{3} \)rd of the left ventricle in animal species.
The accurate assessment of changes in ventricular size and weight is difficult, especially in cases of dilation and eccentric hypertrophy. In such case, the heart and ventricle should be weighed and the weight compared to body weight. Normal heart weight is between 0.5 and 1.0% of body weight depending on the species.
Examination of the heart contd.

Criteria for cardiac Hypertrophy in dogs

- LV Hypertrophy
  \[ \frac{LV}{BW} + 5 \geq 0.57\% \]
  LV = left ventricle

- RV Hypertrophy
  \[ RV \geq 0.18\% \]
  RV = Right ventricle

- Biventricular hypertrophy
  \[ \frac{HW}{BW} \geq 0.94\% \]
  LV + S = LV plus septum
  BW = Body weight

(By palmer and Kennedy 1997)

The right ventricle bears responsibility for systemic circulation in the fetus and in neonatal hearts, the wall thickness of left and right chambers is about equal. It is not until several months after birth that the mature proportions are attained.
Types Of Blood Clot And Where They Are Present In The Heart Chambers.

- Sudden death usually leaves no clotted blood in the ventricles whereas under normal circumstance there should be clotted did presence of clotted side in the RV is normal.

- **1. Currant jelly clot:** This is the clot that is very dark and arises from quick sedimentation and coagulation of blood after death especially in auricle.

- **2. Chicken fat clot:** This is a clot that is pale and result from cases of prolong anemia or because of low number of RBC and from slow insidious hypofunctioning heart where blood has sediment because of slow movement of blood in the heart chamber resulting from separation of RBC from plasma with a yellow top consisting of red bottom made up of RBC. The presence of blood clot in the ventricle also signifies a slow death resulting from ventricular heart failure. Common in horse because of Rouleaux formation.
**RIGOR MORTIS (RM) OF THE HEART.**

This is the stiffening of the muscle especially within the 1st 4hrs of death. RM begins rather earlier in myocardium than in skeletal musculature.

If the heart is normal when RM occurs, there suppose to be emptiness of blood from the entire 4 chambers. However some little amount of blood could still be found in the heart especially in the auricles.

Diseases that cause slow and short duration rigor or complete absence of rigor will allow clot to be found in the heart e.g. Diseases that cause cachexia and hypoglycemia.
DISEASES OF THE PERICARDIUM

- Primary pericardial disease is rare. However, the pericardium is frequently involved secondarily by direct extension from diseases of the myocardium, pleura, lungs, or systemic disease processes.

- The good news is that you have heard of many of the disease processes in general pathology.

- The pericardial sac is basically a fibrous sac surrounding the heart, and therefore reacts to injury in a limited manner.

- The contents within the pericardium may provide clues relating to the pathogenesis of the disease process. The entire surface of the pericardial cavity is covered by mesothelium.

- Visceral pericardium is another name for the pericardium. The pericardial sac can be expanded over time.
Non-inflammatory Disease processes

A. **Hydropericardium:** This is the accumulation of clear to light yellow, watery, serous fluid in the pericardial sac or space which becomes distended. In cases associated with vascular injury, fibrin strands are present and the fluid could clot following exposure to air. e.g. mulberry heart disease.

When hydropericardium occur with sudden onset the exposed surface remain smooth and glistening.

- In chronic cases, the epicardium becomes opaque because of mild fibrous thickening and can appear roughened and granular when there is villous proliferation of fibrous tissue, especially over the atria.
Causes of hydropericardium are;

- Hypoproteinemia (generalized edema) from chronic debilitating diseases such as TB.
- Congestive heart failure (usually right heart failure). This is usually due to primary myocardial, valvular, congenital or neoplastic diseases.
- Common specific diseases include.
  - Dilated cardiomyopathy of dogs and cats.
  - Pulmonary hypertension – Brisket disease” or high altitude disease”.
- Ascites syndrome – of poultry.
- Hydrothorax often occurs concurrently with hydropericardium.
- Hydropericardium can also occur in various systemic diseases such as Mulberry heart disease (swine).
- Bacterial septicemias (swine).
- Heart water (rickettsial disease in small ruminants).
- African horse sickness.
- Bovine ephemeral fever.
- African swine fever.
Sequellae of hydropericardium

- The outcome of hydropericardium is related more to the rate of accumulation of the fluid than the quantity of fluid.
- Hydropericardium of rapid onset and of sufficient volume leads to development of cardiac tamponade or compression which interfere with cardiac filling (especially of the atrial) and venous return to the heart.
- In cases with slow development, stretching of the pericardium allows accumulation of a large volume of fluid without tamponade.
- Hydropericardium is reversible if the primary cause is removed.
Non-inflammatory Disease processes contd.

B. Hemopericardium: This is the accumulation of whole blood in the pericardial sac. Death often occurs suddenly from cardiac tamponade. **Causes** includes
- Aortic rupture within pericardial sac (horse, turkey).
- Atrial rupture (dog)
- Rupture of the pulmonary artery.
- Iatrogenic – intracardiac injections.
- Bleeding from a tumor within pericardial sac.
- **Sequallae**

- Acute: It produces decrease cardiac filling and decrease cardiac output. (Cardiac shock).
- Cardiac tamponade $\rightarrow$ cardiac shock.
- Atrial collapse and are able to fill with blood.
- Chronic – pericardial sac can expend and accommodate blood
Non-inflammatory Disease processes contd.

c. Haemorrhagic pericardial effusion.

This is of unknown aetiology seen in dogs. It can occur with bleeding tumor within heart or epicardium. Such as cardiac hemangiosarcomas and heart base tumors like rhabdomyosarcoma.
Metabolic alterations, Congenital and miscellaneous disorders

1. **Serous atrophy of fat**

   This is the degeneration of adipose tissue with replacement by loose connective tissue and appeared as gray gelatinous appearance on the epicardium. It is usually observed along the coronary groove and atrioventricular junction.

   **Microscopically**, lipocytes are atrophic and edema fluid is present in interstitial tissues.

   **Causes** include condition which leads to rapid mobilization of fat such as anorexia, starvation and cachexia.
2. Epicardial Mineralization (cardiac calcinosis)

This is a stroking lesion of certain inbred strain of nice. In this inherited disorder, white, form, mineralized plaques are present, especially over the right ventricular epicardium. This lesion arising is by dystrophic calcification.
3. **Urate deposits;**

   on the pericardium occur in birds and snakes with visceral government. The affected serosal surface appears thickened and white. 4.
4. **Peritoneopericardial diaphragmatic hernias**: this occur in dogs and cats with incomplete development of the diaphragm. Abdominal viscera can be located in the pericardial sac.
5. **Pericardial aplasia (Absence)**

In rate conditions, the pericardium may be or totally or partially absent.

6. **Pneumopericardium:**

This can occur where there is accumulation of air or gas in pericardial cavity. It is not common but it has been observed in Hard wire disease, where ruminant gas tend to accumulate in pericardial cavity. Gases can also be produce by microorganism that invades the pericardium.
Inflammatory Diseases of the Pericardium

The pathogenesis of pericardial diseases is similar to those of other serous cavities such as pleura and peritoneum.

The route of infection may be due to

1. Haematogenous (septicemias – most common).
2. Extension from myocardium or surrounding tissue such as mediastinal lymph node, lung e.t.c. either by spread or by lymphatic.
3. By traumatic penetration of the pericardium as in traumatic bovine reticulopericarditis and when foreign bodies penetrate the oesophagus and broken ribs.
1. **Fibrinous Pericarditis**

This is the most common type of pericardial inflammation in animal. It is an acute process characterized by large deposition of fibrin in visceral and parietal pericardium so that the two surfaces become attached.

**AetioLogies**

**In cattle**

- Contagious bovine pleuropneumonia
- Pasteurellosis
- Black leg
- Clostridium haemolytical
- Neonatal coliform septicemia
- Sporadic bovine encephalomyelitis
Fibrinous pericarditis contd.

Swine
- Glaser's disease caused by hemophilia parasuis
- Pasteurellosis
- Salmonellosis
- Streptococcal infections
- Enzootic mycoplasma pneumonia.

Horse
- Streptococcal infection

Birds
- Psittacosis

Cats
- Feline infection peritonitis (FIP)

Sheep
- Pasteurellosis
- Streptococcal infections.
Fibrinous pericarditis contd.

- **Grossly,**
  - There is loss of smooth glistening appearance of pericardium small quantity of serous fluid mixed with fibrin may be seen. When the two layers are pull apart the layers of the pericardium shows villus like projection on the attach surface and this is called shaggy heart or bread and butter pericarditis.
  - **Microscopically** an oesinophilic layers of fibrin with admixed cellular exudates like neutrophils lymphocytes and sometimes plasma cells over a congested pericardium.

- **Sequellae**
  - Death in early infection by highly virulent bacteria and concurrent septicemia.
  - When survival is prolonged, fibrous adhesions formed between pericardial surfaces after fibrous organization of the exudates.
2. **Purulent/suppurative pericarditis**

This is seen mainly in cattle as a complication of traumatic reticuloperitonitis (Hardwire Disease). Foreign bodies such as nails or pieces of wire that accumulate in the reticulum, occasionally penetrate the reticular sac and introduce infection.

- **Grossly**, the pericardial surfaces are markedly thickened by white often rough, shaggy-appearing masses of fibrous connective tissue that enclose an accumulation of white or gray thick, foul smelling purulent exudate.

- **Microscopically**, moderate accumulation of neutrophils and other inflammatory cells on the surface of the pericardial sac and epicardium. Fibrous connective tissue present beneath the layer of inflammatory cells.
**Sequellae**

- The fibrous exudates may be completely digested leading to the complete resolution of the lesion. However, the exudates may sometimes organize and cicatrized if the lesion is prolonged. This leads to diffuse or focal adhesion of the two layer of pericardium.
- When diffuse, there is marked reduction in the volume of the cavity.
- The animal usually die of congestive heart failure due to the prevention of cardiac filling. This is caused by the pressure of the exudate on the thin wall in great vein and atria or due to the constrictive nature of the pericarditis which prevent expansion of the myocardial muscles.
Bovine traumatic reticulopericarditis. (Hardwire Disease).

- Observe in cattle or cows kept in close proximity to stable or graze around construction sites. In these areas, sharp object such as old nail and bits of wire are picked up and swallow during grazing by the animal due to their indiscriminate feeding habit. This sharp object penetrate the wall of the reticulum and slowly moved and passed in reacting granulation tissue into the diaphragm and into the pericardial sac.
- Because these object are not sterile, they carried along with them bacterial which initiate acute infectious pericarditis.
The exudates is most often fibrinous or fibrinopurulent in nature. The affected cattle usually live for a number of days or weeks so that the exudates become extensive and organized.

A common picture at the time of death is the shaggy heart appearance. Sometimes is seropurulent fluid may distend the pericardial sac or the cavity may be empty and collapse. In the later case, the organizing fibrin reaches from the epicardial surface to the outer pericardial surface thus joining the two surfaces together over large area. This condition is called Adhesive pericarditis. This leads to immobilization of the heart and the result is death.

Lesions accompany this condition are those of chronic venous congestion or toxemia, depending on the rapidity or slowness of the process. The wire or nail may reach as far as myocardium.
Constrictive Pericarditis

This is a chronic inflammatory lesion of the pericardium accompanied by extensive fibrous proliferation and eventual formation of fibrous adhesions between the surfaces of the visceral and parietal pericardium. Severe lesions obliterate the pericardial sac and constrict the heart by fibrous tissue and can interfere with cardiac filling. Compensatory myocardial hypertrophy can result in diminished ventricular chamber volumes and contribute to the eventual development of congestive cardiac failure.
Diseases Of The Endocardium

- The endocardium is the innermost layer of the heart. It lines the chambers and extends over projecting structures such as the valves, chordae tendineae, and papillary muscles. The atrial endocardium is thicker than the ventricular endocardium. Primary endocardial disease is not common and is defined as a non-inflammatory disease in which the exact cause is not known e.g. Endocardial fibroelastosis and endocardiosis.
Non-inflammatory conditions of the endocardium

- **Endocardial fibroelastosis**
  
  This is a form of restrictive cardiomyopathy in which there is proliferation of fibrous connective tissue beneath the endocardium. This usually restricts myocardial motion and eventually produces a decrease in cardiac output and may lead to congestive heart failure and/or incarcerate subendocardial Purkinje fibers which could result in a left bundle branch block.
Endocardial fibroelastosis contd.

- Causes
  - Familial disease in the Burmese cat.
  - Viral infections such as parvovirus (dog), encephalomyocarditis virus (man mouse pig)
  - Hypoxemia
  - Trauma
  - Extreme dilatation of ventricular chamber.

- Pathogenesis
  - Progressive edema of endocardium results in fibroblast proliferation and increase the amount of collagen and elastic fibers within and/or immediately beneath endocardium.
  - **NOTE:** Focal subendocardial fibrosis is occasionally seen in the atria and intima of large vessels. These changes are a reaction of the endocardium endothelium to abnormal jets of blood or to turbulence following congenital or acquired valvular disorders. These structures are frequently termed **JET lesions**.
Valvular Endocardiosis/chronic Valvular fibrosis/Valvular mucoid degeneration

- This is an important age related cardiac disease of old dog. It is the most common cause of congestive heart failure. The lesion is most commonly observed in the mitral valve of the heart and less commonly on the bicuspid valves and in frequent on the aortic and pulmonary semilunar valves.
- **Aetiology** is unknown but a genetic predisposition is recognized.
Valvular Endocardiosis contd.

- **Pathogenesis**
  - There is proliferation of loose, fibroblastic tissue in the spongiosa with deposition of acid mucopolysaccaride. The collagen in the fibrosa region of the valve becomes degenerated.

- **Grossly**
  - The affected valves are shorten and thick, either diffusely thickened or nodular. The surfaces appear glistening smooth rather than rough as it is observed in valvular endocarditis. Valvular insufficiency and atrial dilatation are normally observed.

- **Microscopically**
  - The thicken valve have loose fibroblastic proliferation and deposition of poorly stained acid mucopolysaccaride.
Sequellae

- Valvular insufficiency: due to contracture of choradae tendineae resulting in volume overload → left ventricular hypertension → left ventricular failure → congestive heart failure.

- Rupture of chordae tendineae

- Acute left heart failure → pulmonary edema → death.

- Chronic left heart failure → pulmonary fibrosis.

- Rupture of the left atrium → cardiac tamponade.
Blood cyst (hematocyst, valvular hematoma)

This occurs most commonly in ruminants. It is commonly found on the atrioventricular valves but disappear as the animals grow old. It is an incidental finding.

May also be observed in foals, puppies and dogs.
Inflammatory condition of the Endocardium

- **Endocarditis** is the most significant of the endocardial alteration as a result of bacterial infection. An exception is the endocarditis produce by migrating larvae of *strongylus vulgaris* in horse or rare cases of mycotic endocarditis.
- The lesions are generally very large and are present on the valvules in which case they are called **valvular endocarditis**. However when lesion extends to the adjacent wall it is called **mural endocarditis**
Valvular endocarditis contd.

**Aetiology**
- Pig – *Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae*
  - *Streptococcus suis*
  - *Staphylococcus aureus*
- **Cow and sheep** – *Arcanobacterium pyogenes* (can originate from mastitis metritis or hepatic abscesses).
  - *Streptococcus spp.* – in lambs with polyarthritis
- **Horse** – *Streptococcus equi*
  - *Actinobacillus equuli*
  - *E. coli*
  - *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*
- **Cat and Dog**
- beta hemolytic *streptococcus spp.*
  - *Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae*
  - *Bartonella spp.* in dog.
Valvular endocarditis

contd.

Pathogenesis
The pathogenesis is usually sequel to a pre-existing extracardial infection with bacteremia. Local endothelia destruction on the surface of the normal avascular valve allowed bacteria adherence and proliferation resulting in inflammation and deposition of fibrin.

Pathology

Grossly
Affected valve has large adhering friable yellow to grey masses called vegetation. Vegetation may occlude orifice of the valve. In chronic lesion fibrin deposit become organized by fibrous connective tissue to produce irregular nodular watt-like masses called verrucae.
Microscopically

- the lesion consist of
- Layers of fibrin
- Numerous embedded bacteria colonies as well as infiltration of leukocytes and granulation tissue.
Valvular endocarditis  contd.

- Sequellae
- Left heart
  - Valvular endocarditis may become detached and carried to other organ as emboli where they cause infarct (Thromboemboli). If the emboli are septic, they become established in organ and involve inflammatory reactions. (Inflammatory)
  - Valvular distortion/dysfunction.
- Right heart
  - Valvular distortion
  - Pulmonary embolism and abscessation (embolic pneumonia)
- Chronic lesions may organize by granulation from the base of the valve may undergo mineralization.
Miscellaneous Endocardial/Valvular diseases

1. **Uremic endocarditis**: this is infam of ulcerative endocarditis of the left atrium which results to endocardial mineralization, inflammation and thrombosis.

- Subendocardial hemorrhage
- Bacterial septicemia
- Bluetongue (sheep) – haemorrhages at the base of the pulmonary artery.
- Infectious canine hepatitis
- Toxemias – ruminants
- Agonal finding – adult bovines
- *Strongylus vulgaris* larvae occasionally migrate aberrantly through the endocardial, eliciting an inflammatory response.
Secondary Endocardial Disease

- These are diseases of endocardium resulting from metabolic, toxic, infections or neoplastic disease.

A. Mineralization

Causes

- Any disease which will lead to an imbalance of Ca: P ratio.
- Endocrine /metabolic disease e.g.
  - Pseudo hyperparathyroidism
  - Hyperphosphophatemia
  - Nutritional (excess phosphate diet)
  - Renal failure
- Toxic substances e.g.
  - Vitamin D poisoning and plants contain vitamin D analogs e.g. *solanum malacoxylon* and *cestrum diurnum*.
- Miscellaneous causes are:
  - May accompany endocardial fibrosis when chamber are acutely dilated.
  - Chronic debilitating disease.
  - Jet lesions may become mineralized.
MYOCARDIUM

Skeletal Muscle
- diameter: 10 - 100 μm
- length: 1 - 40 mm

Cardiac Muscle
- diameter: 14 - 20 μm
- length: 75 - 80 μm

Smooth Muscle
- diameter: 3 - 8 μm
- length: 15 - 200 μm

Myoepithelial Cell
- embraces acinus within basal lamina
Growth disturbances of the myocardium

- Hypertrophy

Myocardial hypertrophy represents an increase in muscle mass associated with increase in size of cardiac muscle cell (myocytes). It is generally secondary and the results of the compensatory respond to increase work load. It is reversible when the initiating cause is removed. Primary hypertrophy also occurs, as in cats and dogs, with idiopathic hypertrophic cardiomyopathy and this is not reversible.

- There are 2 anatomical forms of myocardial hypertrophy these are

  (a) Eccentric hypertrophy
  (b) Concentric hypertrophy
Fatty infiltration

This is the presence of increased numbers of lipocytes interposed between myocardial fibers. The lesion is associated with obesity and appears as abundant epicardial and myocardial deposit of adipose tissue.
Degenerative changes in myocardium

1. Congestive (dilated) cardiomyopathy
   This is a progressive cardiac dilation associated with contractile dysfunction i.e. decrease contractile force. It may be because by taurine deficiency in cats. The condition is also observed in dog, pig, cow and turkey. Microscopically myocardial fibres are thin and wavy. Variable amount of fibrosis may be present.

2. Restrictive cardiomyopathy
   This is due to restriction of ventricular filling. It is usually due endocardial fibroelastosis, excessive moderator bands and endocardial fibrosis.

3. Arrhythmogenic Right Ventricular Fibroadipose Dysplasia
   This is a condition in which adipose tissue and fibroblasts infiltrate and replace normal right ventricular myocardial tissue. This is common in boxer dogs.
4. **Fatty Degeneration**

This is the accumulation of abundant lipid droplets in the sarcoplasm of myocytes.

**Grossly,** the myocardium is pale and flabby.

**Microscopically** affected myocytes have numerous variably sized spherical droplets that appear as empty vacuoles.

It usually occurs with systemic disorder such as severe anemia, toxemia and copper deficiency.
Myocardial degenerative changes contd.

Hydropic degeneration

This is distinctive microscopic alteration in cardiac muscle cells. Affected fibres have extensive vacuolation of sarcoplasm that is initiated by distension of elements of sarcoplasmic reticulum and eventually ends in lysis of contractile material.

It is associated with prolonged administration of certain antineoplastic drug which belong to the group called anthracycline.
6. **Lipofuscinosis**  
(Brown atrophy)

This occurs in aged animals and in animals with severe cachexia.

Grossly it is characterized by brownish colouration of the affected areas.

Microscopically, there are clusters of yellow-brown granules at the nuclear pole of myocytes. These granules represent intralysosomal accumulation of membranous and amorphous debris (residual bodies).
Inflammation of Myocardium (MYOCARDITIS)

Myocarditis is the result of infections spread hematogenously to the myocardium and occurs in various systemic diseases. Depending on the causative agent, the type of inflammation produce may be one of the following:

- Suppurative
- Necrotizing
- Haemorrhagic
- Lymphocytic
- Oesinophilic
Inflammation of Myocardium contd.

- **Necrotizing myocarditis:** This is an important feature of Toxoplasmosis especially in cats and dogs. It is characterized by diffuse myocardial necrosis.
Inflammation of Myocardium contd.

- **Haemorrhagic myocarditis:** This occur together with the haemorrhagic inflammation typically found in skeletal muscle of cattle with blackleg (*clostridium chauvoei*).
Inflammation of Myocardium contd.

- Lymphocytic myocarditis is usually a lesion of viral infection. This is well observed in parvoviral myocarditis of puppies.
- Grossly the heart is pale and flabby.
- Microscopically, there is disseminated interstitial lymphocytic infiltrations, scattered myocytes with large basophilic, intranuclear viral inclusion bodies and in dogs that survive fibrosis.
Inflammation of Myocardium contd.

- **Eosinophilic myocarditis**: This is associated with parasitic infection such as sarcosporidiosis and trichinosis
SECONDARY MYOCARDIAL DISEASES (2 cardiomyopathies)

- These consist of endocrine, metabolic, nutritional and neoplastic disease.
  
  Endocrine/Metabolic diseases

- (a) Catecholamine toxicity

  Aetiologies:
  Trauma to the Brain-release of endogenous catecholamine dump from trauma to the headed brainstem nuclei.
  Lesions: Multifocal myocardial necrosis with concentration of damage on the left ventricular subendocardium and papillary muscles.
  Microscopically there is necrosis with contraction bands with subsequent macrophage invasion.
  Pathogenesis: - Excess intracellular calcium, vasoconstriction and increase heart rate all occurring together may be responsible for these lesions.
2 cardiomyopathy contd.

(b) Hyperthyroidism

- Mostly occurred in feline
- This result into cardiac hypertrophy due to increased production of myocardial contractile proteins under the influence of excessive concentration of circulating thyroid hormones.
- Heart rate and cardiac output are also increased. (c) Hypoalemia

**Causes** – potassium deficient diets.
- hemodialysis

Lesions are usually observed in rat, pig and dog. Grossly, necrosis of left ventricular free wall and septum. **Microscopically** multifocal myocytolysis, myodegeneration and necrosis are observed.
**cardiomyopathy contd.**

- **D. Nutritional Deficiencies**
  - Vitamin E/Selenium deficiency (White muscle Disease – lambs and calves) (Mulberry Heart disease in pig)
  - **Incidence:** Occurs in areas with soil deficient in vitamin E/selenium deficiency. In domestic animals, calves lambs pigs turkey poults and duckling are susceptible.

  **Aetiology** – low dietary level of selenium, vitamin E and sulphur containing amino acids.
  - High dietary concentrations of polyunsaturated fats.
  - Exposure to pro-oxidant compounds like ozone oxygen, iron radiation injury doxorubicin.
  - Intake of selenium antagonist such as silver salts and various other metals like Hg, Cu, Cobalt, and Cadmium.

  **Pathogenesis** vitamin E is an antioxidant that works synergistically with glutathione peroxidase to catalyze the conversion of H2O2 to H2O.
  - Selenium is an integrals structure of glutathione paroxidase (metalloenzyme).
Histopathology

Calves and lambs: Areas of myocardial damage have hyaline necrosis with or without accompanying mineralization, macrophage invasion, with eventual stroma collapse and fibrosis.

Pigs: Vascular lesions consist of fibrinoid necrosis in intramyocardial arteries and arterioles. Numerous fibrin microthrombi in myocardial capillaries. Myocardial hemorrhage and edema. Muscular lesions include hyaline necrosis and mineralization with macrophage invasion and later fibrosis.

Sequellae
Fibrosis or death in very severe acute cases
Neoplastic diseases of the Heart

- Primary neoplastic diseases of the heart are rare while $2^0$ growths are due to metastases from the other organs.

Primary neoplasms include rhabdomyoma; rhabdomyosarcoma, swhwannoma, and hemangiosarcomas.

Rhabdomyomas and rhabdomyosarcoma are rare in animals and form gray nodules in the myocardium that often project into the cardiac chambers.
A. Swhwannoma involves cardiac nerves in cattle and appear as single or multiple white nodules detected as incidental findings at slaughter.
Cardiac hemangiosarcoma

Cardiac hemangiosarcoma is an important neoplasm of dog and can arise either in the heart (primary) or by metastasis (secondary) from sites such as the spleen. This neoplasm is usually seen in the right atrium and only occasionally involves the right ventricle.

Grossly, protruding red to red-black blood-containing masses are located on the epicardial surface. It may rupture to produce hemopericardium.
Malignant lymphoma/lymphosarcoma

- **Malignant lymphoma/lymphosarcoma**

  - This is usually observed in the hearts of cattle, dogs, and cats. The neoplastic cell infiltration can be diffuse or nodular and involve myocardium and pericardium.

  - **Grossly** lymphomatous tissue appears as white masses that resemble deposit of fat.
Malignant lymphoma/lymphosarcoma contd.

- **Microscopically**, extensive infiltrations of neoplastic lymphocytes are present between myocytes.
Heart base tumors

Chemodectoma (aortic body tumor/paraganglioma)

The aortic body tumor is a chemoreceptor organ.

Grossly in some cases aortic body tumors become large white firm masses that surround and compress the great vessels and atria.

Microscopically, the neoplastic cells are polyhedral with vacuolated cytoplasm and are supported by an abundant fine connective tissue stroma.
**Congestive Heart Failure (CHF)**

- **Congestive Heart Failure (CHF)**
  - The ability of the heart to respond to circulatory demand over and above those of the animal at rest is called the cardiac reserve. Any cardiac lesion which impairs the efficiency of the heart reduces the cardiac reserve. When the cardiac reserve is exhausted without meeting the demand of the animal, congestive heart failure (CHF) occurs.

- CHF may be divided into
  - Left sided Heart failure (LSHF)
  - Right sided heart failure (RSHF)
CHF contd

- **LSHF**
  - The major causes of LSHF includes
  - Myocardial degeneration
  - Stenosis and incompetence of the mitral and semilunar valves
  - Myocarditis
  - Congenital heart diseases.
  - Sustained aortic hypertension seen only in dog with chronic nephritis.
  - In all these condition heart failure is brought about by progressive dilatation of ventricle and atrium.
  - The major manifestation of the LSHF arises from the damning back of blood in the lung and the reduction in the cardiac output. Pulmonary venous congestion is accompanied by severe oedema of lung resulting in impaired gaseous exchange and dyspnea.
  - Decrease cardiac output result in impaired renal circulation and consequently lead to salt and H2O retention and in turn lead to increase in blood volume and further aggravation of oedema.
RSHF

The causes of RSHF includes

- LSHF
- Myocardial degeneration
- Cause of increase pulmonary resistance such as emphysema and interstitial pneumonia.
- Myocarditis
- Hydropericardium
- Exudative or constrictive pericarditis
- Endocarditis and valvular defects
- The major manifestation of RSHF depends on the damming back of blood in the systemic and portal venous system and the decrease in flow of blood from the lung to the left heart.
- More renal complications are present in RSHF with increase Na & H2O retention and tissue oedema.
- In bovine and equine the oedema is subcutaneous especially in the dependant part of the body while subcutaneous oedema may or may not present in other spp.
- In dog, predominantly accumulation of fluid is observed in the peritoneal cavity.
- In cat it is seen in the thorax.
The spleen of the affected animal is enlarged and congested and shows siderotic nodules of calcium and iron in focal hemmorhages.

The stomach and intestine would be congested and this leads to impaired absorption which manifest as diarrhoea.

The liver is severely congested and enlarged with dilation of the sinusoid as well as the atrophy of the parenchyma avoids the central vein. In some severe and acute cases there is necrosis of parenchyma around the central vein.
Valvular lesions of the Heart

These are usually observed with degenerative changes. The orifice of the valves become too narrow otherwise called stenosis or the alter valve are render incapable of closing the orifice adequately during systole which is called valvular insufficiency or incompetent. These two conditions may combine. In stenosis the heart chamber behind the lesion has to performed increase work resulting in hypertrophy.

In valvular insufficiency the orifice are imperfectly closed and there is a built up of back pressure which lead to dilation of the heart lesion behind the valve and this can lead to hypertrophy.
Valvular lesions of the Heart contd.

- **Mitral valve stenosis**
  - In MVS, there is damming of blood in the left atrium with dilation and hypertrophy of the atrium.
  - It also results in pulmonary congestion and hypertrophy of the right ventricle and finally heart failure.

- **Mitral insufficiency or incompetence (MI)**
  - In MI there is back pressure of blood in the atrium during systole. There is dilation and hypertrophy of the left atria. Congestion of the pulmonary circulation and consequent dilation and hypertrophy of the right ventricle and possibly the atrium.

- **Tricuspid valvular stenosis**
  - The effects are hypertrophy of Rt. Atrium and stasis of general circulation.
  - **Note:** The effects of tricuspid insufficiency are similar to those of stenosis.
- **Aortic stenosis**
  - There is damming back of blood by the small orifice with consequent hypertrophy of the aorta. There is also pulmonary congestion and left atria hypertrophy.

- **Aortic Incompetence**
  - There is backflow of blood into the left ventricle during diastole the left ventricle thus become dilated and undergoes compensatory hypertrophy.

- **Pulmonary Stenosis/Pulmonic stenosis**
  - This result in hypertrophy of the right ventricle and back flow of blood into the right atrium and generalized congestion.

- **Pulmonary Incompetent**
  - Result in the dilation and compensatory hypertrophy of the right ventricle with stasis in the right atrium and general circulation.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diseases of Blood Vessels</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>□ <strong>Degenerative changes</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Degenerative changes are relatively uncommon in animals compared to human beings. However these changes are less important in veterinary and very rarely attained clinical significant syndrome.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The term Arteriosclerosis and Atherosclerosis are often used interchangeably but as apply in veterinary medicine they are distinct degenerative changes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1) **Atherosclerosis**

This is the hardening of the arteries and it includes all chronic arterial metamorphoses which consist of induration, loss of elasticity and narrowing which are the result of proliferative and degenerative not (inflammatory) charges of the media and intima.
Atherosclerosis contd.

Refers to degeneration in the wall of an artery in which lipids (cholesterol triglycerides e.t.c) are the primary components of the degenerative response. In arteriosclerosis, there is no usually accompany significant disturbance in blood in the sclerotic vessel, however, there may be ischemic changes in brain and heart when blood vessels of these organs are involve. Atherosclerosis also affects abdominal aorta and its arterial branches it may also be seen in pulmonary and peripheral arteries.

The initial change in affected vessel wall may be an oedematous accumulation in the intima and media.
Atherosclerosis contd.

- The internal elastic connective tissue become irregular in outline and may also become discontinuous or fragmented. Smooth muscle cells from the medial penetrate the defect and proliferate below the endothelium, however the endothelium remain intact.
- Atherosclerosis can develop from arteriosclerosis.
- The initial deposit of lipid occurs in the proliferated smooth muscles cells. Macrophages infiltrate the area, degrade fats and lipids.
- Deposition of small amount of calcium and cholesterol in association with softening of large arteromatous plaques.
- In dogs deposition of large amount of lipids including cholesterol in arteries occur in hypercholesterolemia or as a result of hypothyroidism.
- In atherosclerosis deposition of lipid begin in the middle and outer layer of the medial and it is more extensive in small arterioles.
Atherosclerosis contd.

- **Grossly**
  - The vessels is enlarged less pliable than normal and has thickened ill-defined wall with yellowish brown nodules protruding from the lumen.

- **Microscopically**
  - In association with the lipid deposition there is also progression fibrous tissue proliferation. The connective tissues become hyaline and acellular.

- **Sequellae:** Rupture of the antheroma may occur leading to thrombosis or wide spread lipid embolism.
b) Calcification

- This is commonly seen in arteries in animal and it is either dystrophic or metastatic.
- Dystrophic calcification: Occur in area of inflammation and thrombosis. In the horse the calcified modules sometimes found in the intima of the ascending aorta and probably the lesion of verminous arthritis. The process of calcification result
- From gradual deposition of calcium in the elastic fibre of the vessels.
Rupture of Arteries

It is either spontaneous or traumatic.

Causes of traumatic rupture are:
- Foreign bodies
- Gun shots
- Stab wound

Spontaneous ruptures occur in the horse but are not common. The intraperitoneal portion of the aorta is involved and death occurs suddenly. Aortic rupture is seen in dog with spirocerciasis. Rupture of the heart pulmonary artery, aorta and coronary arteries has also been observed in piglet maintained on copper deficient diet. In male turkey aortic rupture is seen in a condition called dissection aneurysm.
Aneurysms

- This is the dilatation of arteries. It is classified as either true or false aneurysm.
- **True aneurysms** are circumscribed dilatation of arteries in which the wall is composed of stretched intima and adventitia. This result in weakening of the arterial wall. True aneurysm has the tendency to enlarged and rupture.
- **False aneurysm** is a cavity contained blood and in communication with arterial lumen. The wall of the cavity is usually formed from the surrounding connective tissue.
- If the communication occurs between the artery and adjacent vein the condition is called Aneurysmal varix.
In contrast to man thrombosis occur more in artery than in vein in animal. In horse because the processes of the thrombosis is cause by strongylus infection, there is endothelitis. The thrombi are found in the anterior mesenteric artery, aorta, and the common iliac artery. The femoral artery as well as bronchiocephalic trunk. The consequences of thrombosis are vascular obstruction and embolism.
Inflammatory diseases of the vasculature

Definition: arteritis - inflammation of artery
- Periarteritis – Inflammation of the adventitia
- Polyarteritis – inflammation of many arteries
- Phlebitis – inflammation
- Vasculitis – inflammation of vessels
- Arteritis is a common condition caused by bacteria, viral, fungi, chemical, mechanical and thermal agent. Extension of inflammation from other adjacent tissue is very common especially in necrotizing and suppurative processes.
- Local lesions of aspergillosis, metritis, purulent meningitis and bacteria pneumonia. The condition may be of hematogenous in origin as is seen in sepsis and bacterial endocarditis. The primary lesion may be in the endothelium and intima or in the adventitia when the causative agent is localized in the vasa vasorum.
In pig, arteritis is seen in association with erysipelas, hog cholera and salmonellosis.

Viral disease in which arteritis is observed includes: Malignant catarrhal fever (Polyarteritis and periarteritis) Equine infectious anemia, (polyarteritis and periarteritis) Equine viral arteritis (polyarteritis affecting media and adventitial) feline infectious peritonitis (pyogranulomatous vasculitis) Hog cholera in pig, bluetongue in sheep.

Parasitic diseases that resulted into vasculitis are strongylosis caused by *strongylus vulgaris* in horse *spirocerca lupi* in the oesophagus of dog onchocerciasis in cattle.

*Dirofilaria immitis* in dog
Strongylosis in Horse

Aetiology

*strongylus vulgaris* (larvae)

This is usually found attached to the mucosa of the ceaca artery.

Arteries in any part of the body can be infected but the mesenteric arteries are commonly involved.

Pathogenesis: - The larva migrates from ceaca arteries and attached to the mesenteric artery. This result in the damage and inflammation of the endothelium and serous exudation.
Pathology

Grossly, there is inflammation of the artery, fibrin deposition with formation of thrombus, occlusion of the arterial lumen by the thrombus. Formation of aneurysms may occur and eventual rupture of the blood vessels.

Microscopically, there is oedema. Leukocytic infiltration, necrosis of the muscle fibres in the vessel wall.
Sequellae
Rupture which can lead to haemorrhages and death. Aneurismal dilatation.
Pyaemia - as a result of infected thrombi from basis and infarction distal to the involved site (thromboembolism of horses).
In coronary artery occlusion leads to myocardial infarction while in femoral arteries leads to lameness.
Autonomic paralysis: If the autonomic ganglion is affected by pressure from adjacent nodule of parasite in the arteries the normal intestinal movement is impair which can lead to colic.
Neoplastic disease of the arteries

Neoplasm that arise from vascular endothelia cells may develop in many different organs. They include haemagioma, haemagiosarcoma and haemagiopericytomas.

* **Haemagioma** - This is a benign tumor which often affects the skin of Dog.
  - They consist of blood filled red masses which are circumscribed.

* **Haemagiosarcoma** - These are red masses which show pleomorphic vascular spaces and they do not form distinct vascular spaces.

* **Haemagiosarcoma** is commonly seen in the spleen and the right side of the heart.

**Haemagiopericytoma** - Occur in the skin of canine spp.

Microscopically, it consists of distinct laminated arrangement of elongated plump neoplastic pericytes around small blood vessels.
DISEASES OF THE VEINS

- **Rupture:** Rupture of vein are usually caused by trauma. However in horse spontaneous rupture of the portal vein or vena cava may be seen, the cause of this condition is unknown.

- **Dilation** – localized venous dilation due to weaken vascular cell wall is called *varicosity*. The saccular dilation is called *virix* while generalize venous dilation is called *phlebectasia*.

- Venous dilation is commonly seen as *varicocele* of the pampone-forms plexus in the testis of and the spermatic cord of the aged vain and bull. The causes are stagnation of blood, or acquired or congenital defect in the wall of the vein.

- The initial dilation causes insufficiency of the venous values resulting in elongated dilated and tortuous veins. The sequelling may be thrombosis or sclerosis.
Venous thrombosis

- **Venous thrombosis**: Spontaneous venous thrombosis is rare in animals. The common causes include:
  - Extension of necrotic or purulent inflammation of the liver to the walls of the vein.
  - Inflammation of the liver to the walls of the vein.
  - The affected vessels include the superior vena cava and the portal vein.
  - Jugular vein thrombosis is due to repeated vein puncture or the injection of irritant solution.
PHLEBITIS

- It is a common vascular lesion and often complicated by thrombosis.
- **Causes include:-**
  - Systemic infection – Local extension or infection – faulty injection procedure.
  - Cases of phlebitis complicated by thrombosis are prone to the development of septic embolism which may lead to endocarditis and pulmonary abscess.
  - **Omphalophlebitis:** this is also called Navel ill. This is the inflammation of the umbilical vein. It occurs in farm animal due to bacteria contamination immediately after parturition.
  - **Grossly** the vein is fibrose, thicken and the wall is harden. The dilated lumen is filled with insipissated purulent necrotic materials.
  - **Microscopically,** the inner layer of the wall is markedly infiltrated by leucocytes. In advance cases the inner wall become necrotic and contain bacteria colony while the outer layer and adventitia become fibrose.
PARASITIC DISEASES OF THE VEIN

- Most of the parasites of the wall of veins are helminthes. They include:
- *Schistosoma bovis* which inhabit the portal vein and the large mesenteric veins in cattle.
- *Schistosoma japonicum* is found in the portal vein in dog, cattle and man. The lesions produces are nodular formation due to reaction to the egg of the parasites
- *Dirofilaria immitis* seen in the heart of dog may occasionally be found in the posterior vena cava.
- *Stephanurus dentatus*: is parasite of kidney of pig. The adult lives in the renal pelvis while the larvae lives in the portal vein and it branches where they cause thrombophlebitis.
DISEASES OF LYMPHATICS

- **Dilation and Rupture**
- Lymphangiectasia is the dilation of the lymph vessels and may result from obstruction by invading masses of malignant neoplasm.
- **Grossly**, the lymphatics are irregularly dilated and tortuous.
- Rupture of the thoracic duct either as a result of trauma or from spontaneous disruption is seen in dogs and cats and leads to chylothorax.
INFLAMMATION OF LYMPHATIC (LYMPHAGITIS)

- Causes of lymphagitis includes:-
- Extension from adjacent tissue and by attack on the wall by agent present in the lumen.
- Lymphagitis is a picture of many diseases. These include Bacteria diseases.
  - Porcine anthrax – cutaneous streptotricosis
  - Ulcerative lymphagitis in horse – TB.
  - Actinobacillosis – galanders.
- Myotic disease.
- Epizootic lymphagitis of horses
- Sporotrichosis
- Parasitic diseases
- Brugia spp infection in eat.
ULCERATIVE LYMPHAGITIS

This is a chronic progressive inflammation of subcutaneous lymph vessels in horse.

**Aetiology:**

- *Corynebacterium ovis.*
- The infection is initiated in the cutaneous wound and it begin around the fetlock joint of the handlings.
- **Grossly,** there is swelling of the legs followed by nodular formation along the lymphatics. These nodules are abscess which ulcerate and discharge thick creamy pus which may be blood stained. The ulcer heels to leave area of depigmented skin.
- As the primary ulcer heels new ones are formed which also suppurate ulcerate and cicatrice. The lymphatic become corded and the regional lymph node may be enlarged but not suppurate and ulcerated.
EPIZOOTIC LYMPHAGITIS

- This is also a disease of horse and is cause by *Histoplasma Farciminosus*. The organism cause a wide range of lesion but the cutaneous form of the disease is more common. Infection is by wound contamination and the spread is by the fly of *Musca spp* and *Stomoxys spp*. The overcrowding is a predisposing factor.

- **Grossly**: The lesion starts as raised painless nodules with oedema of the surrounding tissue. The nodules gradually enlarge and become soften and they eventually rupture and discharge thick oily yellow pus.

- The lymphatics are enlarged and prominent due to inflammation and thickening of their walls.

- Occasionally, infection may spread to deeper tissue to cause suppurative arthritis, polyarthritis and periostitis.
The conjunctiva and nictating membranes of the eyes may be involved resulting in formation of papules and serous conjunctivitis.

In respiratory tract, lesions observed includes: yellowish papules or nodules in the nares, muzzles and pharynx.

**Diagnosis:** This is based on observation of the yeast-wes organism either in macrophage or free in smear made from ulcer and stained with Giemsa.