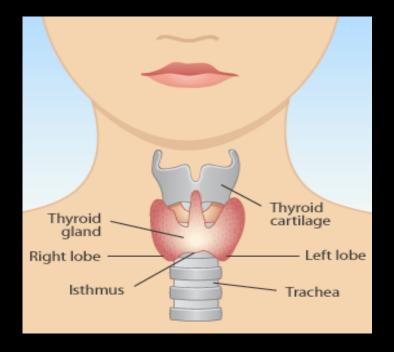
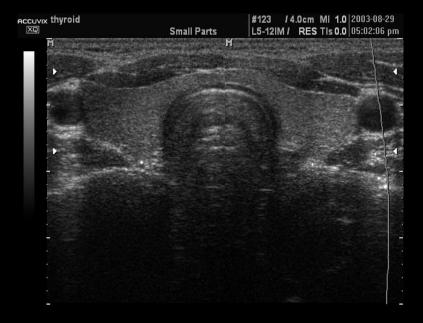
Pathology of the thyroid, and parathyroid gland(s)





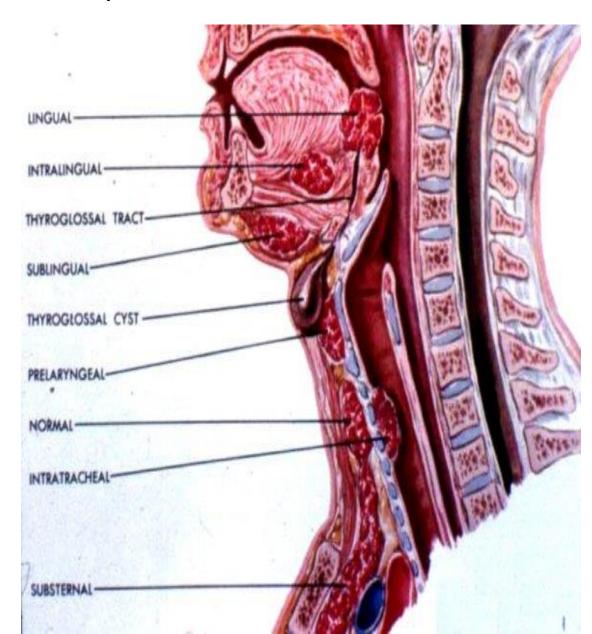


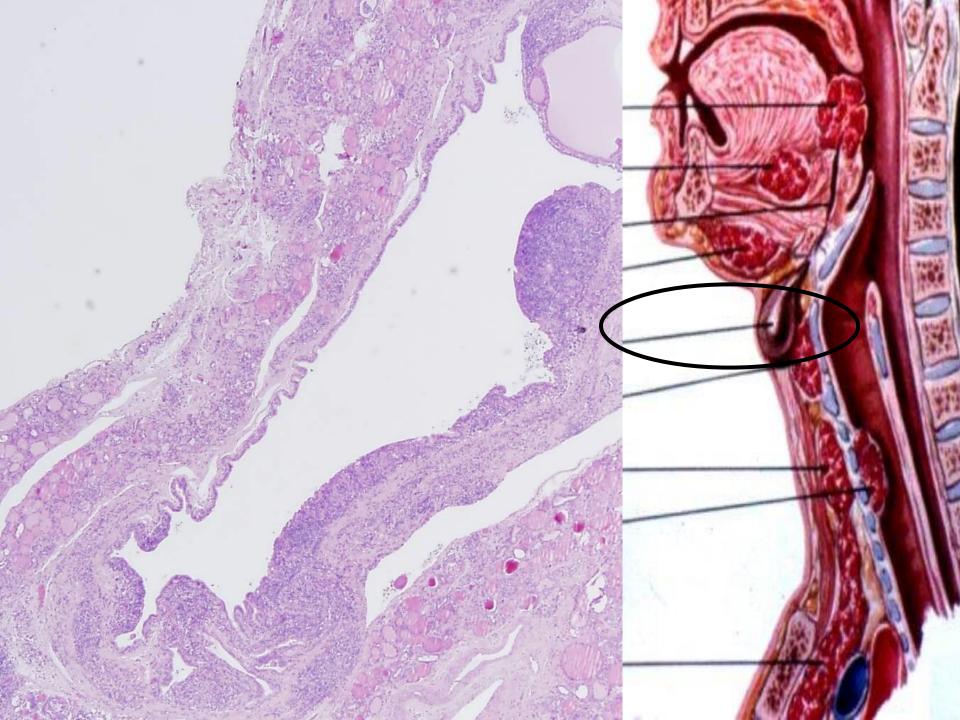
Development

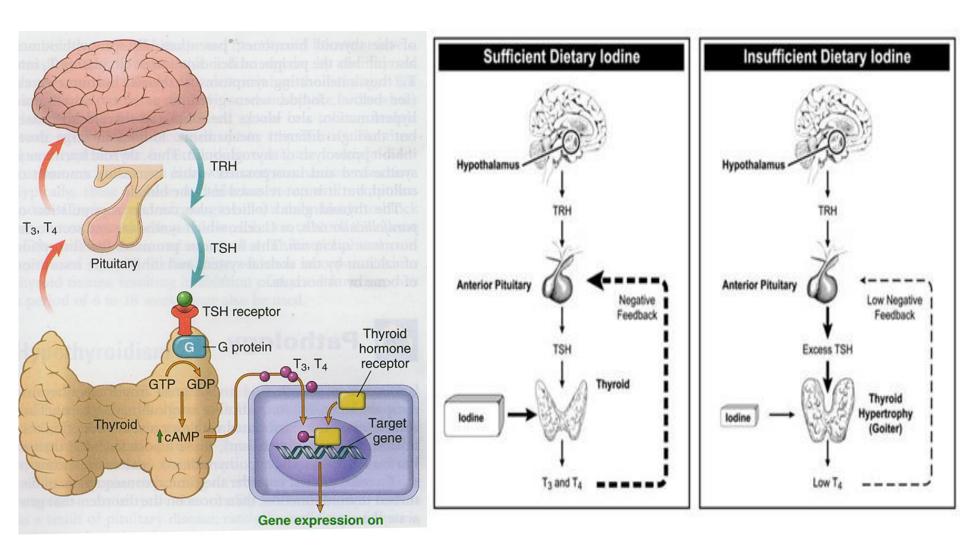
Pharyngeal epithelial pouch (basis of the tongue) (foramen cecum) (Struma lingualis)

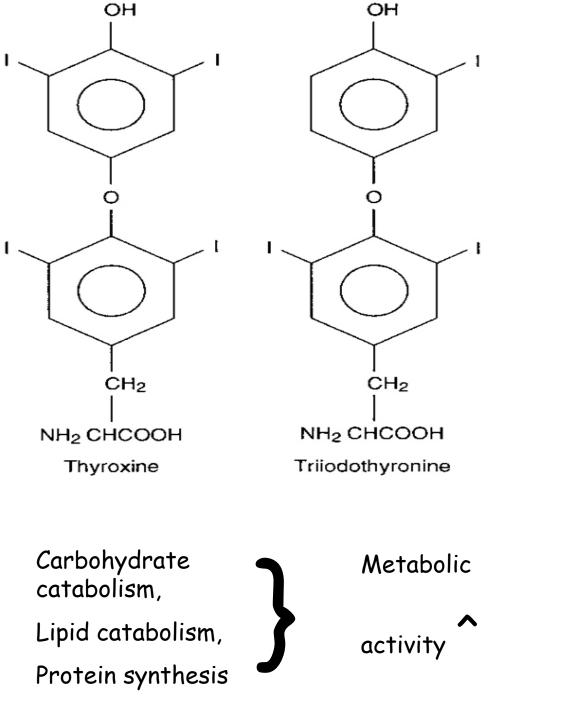
Ductus thyroglossus

Substernal Thyroid tissue

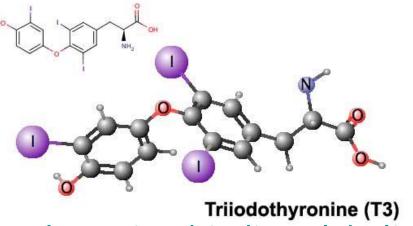








Brain development...



T3, T4 in the blood:

Triiodothyronine (T3) <u>thyroxine-binding globulin</u> (TBG),

70%

<u>transthyretin</u> or "thyroxine-binding prealbumin" (TTR or TBPA) <u>Albumin</u>



10-15% 15-20%

0.03% 0.3%

Nomenclature

Struma

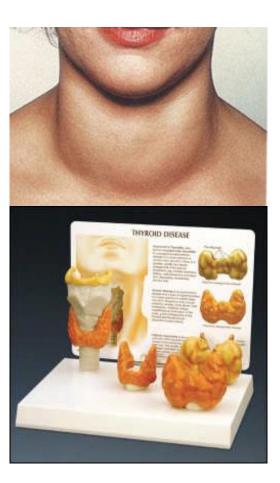
diffusa nodosa

Normofunction

Hyperfunction

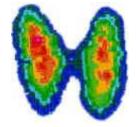
Hypofunction

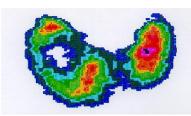
Function (?!)



Examination of the thyroid







Physical Laboratory TSH 0.3-3.6 mU /I T49-19 pmol/I

T3 2.6-5.7 pmol/l Scintigraphy US FNAB





Interpreta- tion	Ultrasonographicfindings		
Normal thyroid findings	Normal thyroid tissue without any nodular aspect		
Constantly benign aspect	 simple cyst, spongiform nodules "white knight" isolated macrocalficication, nodular hyperplasia 		
Very probably benign	Nosignsof high suspicion, isoechoic or hyperechoic, partial incapsulated		
Undetermi- ned	Nosignsof high suspicion, mildlyhypoechoic, encapsulatednodule		
Suspicious	 irregularshape tallerthanwide, irregularborders, microcalcifications, markedlyhypoechoic, high stiffnesswith elastography 1 or 2 signsandnolymphnodemetastasis 		
Highly suspicious	 irregularshape/tallerthanwide, irregularborders microcalcifications markedlyhypoechoic high stiffness with elastography: strain ratio > 4 		
	tionNormalthyroidfindingsConstantlybenignaspectVeryprobablybenignUndeterminedSuspiciousHighly		

2017 Bethesda System for Reporting Thyroid Cytopathology

Diagnostic Category	ROM if NIFTP not cancer	ROM if NIFTP is cancer	Management
Nondiagnostic/unsatisfactory Cyst fluid only Acellular specimen Other: Obscuring factors	5–10%	5–10%	Repeat fine needle aspiration under ultrasound guidance
Benign Benign follicular nodule Chronic lymphocytic (Hashimoto) thyroiditis, in proper clinical setting Granulomatous (subacute) thyroiditis	0–3%	0–3%	Clinical and US follow-up until two negative
Atypia of undetermined significance/ follicular lesion of undetermined significance	6–18%	10–30%	Repeat FNA, molecular testing, or lobectomy
Follicular neoplasm/ suspicious for a follicular neoplasm (Specify if Hürthle cell type)	10–40%	25–40%	Molecular testing, lobectomy
Suspicious for malignancy	45-60%	50–75%	Lobectomy or near-total thyroidectomy
Malignant Papillary thyroid carcinoma Medullary thyroid carcinoma Poorly differentiated carcinoma Undifferentiated (anaplastic) carcinoma Squamous cell carcinoma Carcinoma with mixed features Metastatic malignancy Non-Hodgkin lymphoma Other	94–96%	97–99%	Lobectomy or near-total thyroidectomy

Hyperthyreosis - effects

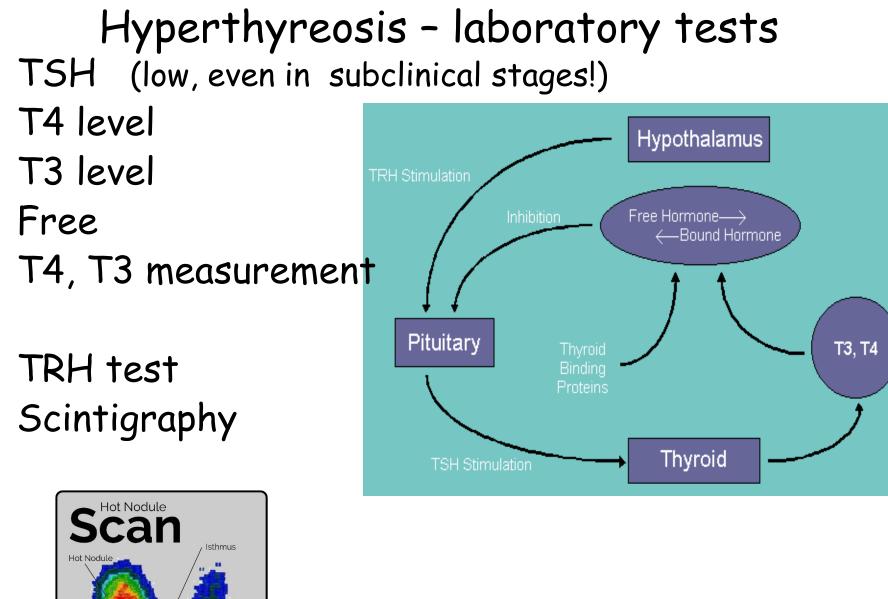
Sympathetic tone (B-adrenerg tone) - basal metabolic activity- ^^

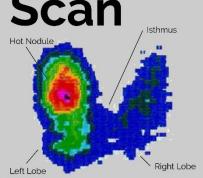
Skin: warm, wet, heat intolerance Loss of weight, diomyopatia

Heart: tachycardy, cardiomegaly, arrhytmia (atrial fibrillation), CHF- TDC (congestive heart failure, thyreotoxic dilatative cardiomyopaty) Neuromuscular system: tremor, hyperactivity, insomny, emotional lability, anxiety, proximal muscle weakness, loss of muscle Ocular changes: "eyes shut wide" - levator palpebrae sympathetic overdose real exophtalm only in Graves disease

GI: hypermotility, malbsorption, diarrhea

Bones: osteoporosis due to enhanced resorption, brittleness ^ ^





Thyreotoxicosis - causes

Hyperthyreosis



Primary

Diffuse toxic hyperplasia (Graves-Basedow) Toxic multinodular goiter Toxic adenoma Thyroid carcinoma Neonatal hyperfunction (maternal Graves) Secondary Hypophysis adenoma

Thyreotoxicosis - causes Non-Hyperthyreotic states

De Quervain thyreoiditis (Subacute granulomatous thyreoiditis)

Subacute lymphocytic thyreoiditis

Struma ovarii

Exogenous hormone overdose

Hyperthyreosis - Therapy

Lowering of B-adrenerg tone (B blockers)

Propylthiouracil (hampers I oxidation, T4 synthesis, and the T4-T3 conversion in tissues)

Thiamazole (inhibits the enzyme thyroperoxidase, which normally acts in thyroid hormone synthesis by oxidizing the anion iodide (I^-) to iodine (I_2))

Jodine

hampers release of stored hormone

Radiojodine therapy

destroys thyroid tissue

Hypothyreosis - Cretenism

- In case of maternal hypothyreosis in early pregnancy severe
- Later less severe
- Impaired development of the skeleton, CNS
- Short stature
- Coarse facial features
- Protruding tongue
- Umbilical hernia



Hypothyreosis - causes

Primary

- Developmental anomaly (thyroid dysgenesis: PAX-8, TTF2, TSH-R mut.)
- Thyroid hormon resistance (TRB mutation)
- Congenital biosynthetic defect (dyshormonogenetic goiter) Postablation
 - (operation, radiojodine th, irradiation)
- Autoimmune thyroiditis
- Iodine deficiency
- Drugs (lithium, PAS)

Secondary

- Pituitary failure
- Tertiary
 - Hypothalamic failure

Hypothyreosis - Myxoedema

Slowing of physical and mental activity -similar to depression

Cold intolerance

Gain of weight

Obstipation

Decreased sweating

Reduced cardiac output

(Low output failure)

GAG, HA accumulation, oedema Lab: TSH^{^^}, T3, T4^{***}, Except for hypophysis, hypothalamic origin



Thyreoiditis

Infectiosus

Hashimoto (chronic lymphocytic thyroiditis)

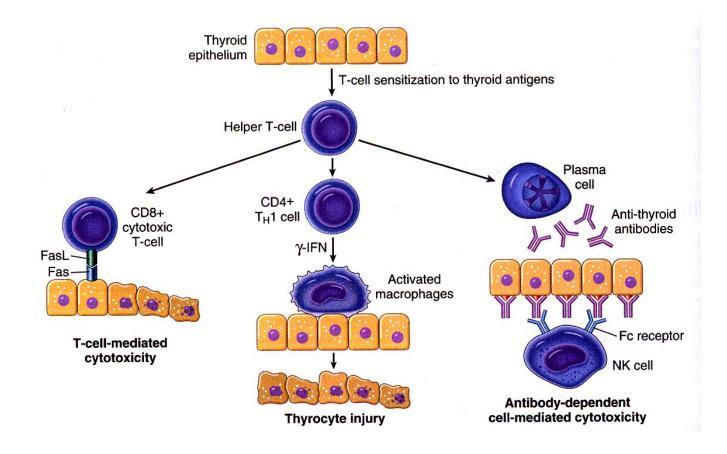
Subacute granulomatous thyroiditis – De Quervain

Subacute lymphocytic thyroiditis

Riedel goiter

Hashimoto

Inheritance? (Monozigotic twins 30-60 % concordance) HLA-Dr3, HLA-DR5, polymorphism, 6p, 12q – susceptibility locus

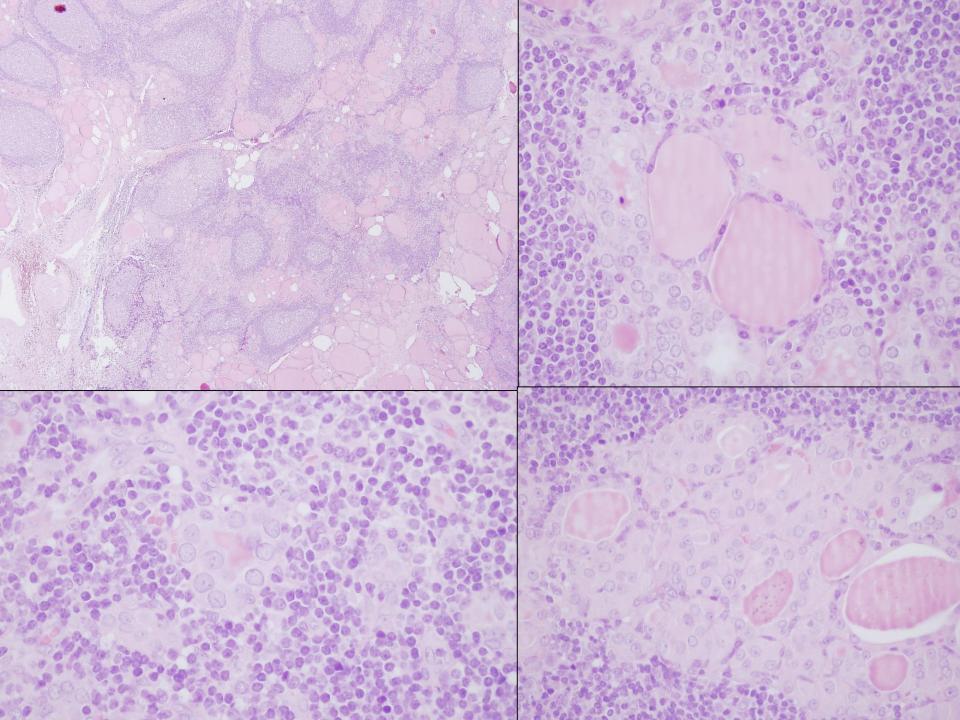




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16 fps

0



Clinical course Hyper (in early stage), more frequently Hypothyreosis

Painless diffuse thyroid enlargement (may be localised, or nodular) T3, T4 ~, TSH ^ ^ ^, anti TPO

May be associated with other autoimmune diseases: Diabetes I., Autoimmune adrenalitis, SLE, myastenia gravis, Sjögren,

Possible consequence: NHL! (not associated with epithelial tumors ...(?))

Subacute lymphocytic thyroiditis

Rare

Pathogenesis is not clear, but may have

autoimmune origin (autoantibodies might occur, but not always!) May be the precursor of Hashimoto (not obviously!) Frequently associated with pregnancy (postpartum thyreoiditis, may recur in repeated pregnancies)

Clin.: painless thyroid enlargement, thyreotoxicosis, T3, T4 ^, TSH ^{*}, diminishing in 2-6 weeks,

After appr. 8 weeks, normal thyroid function returns

Some cases may evolve to chronic hypothyreosis

Subacute granulomatous thyroiditis - De Quervain

Postviral inflammation, -upper airway inflammation Coxsackie, mumps, measles, adenovirus

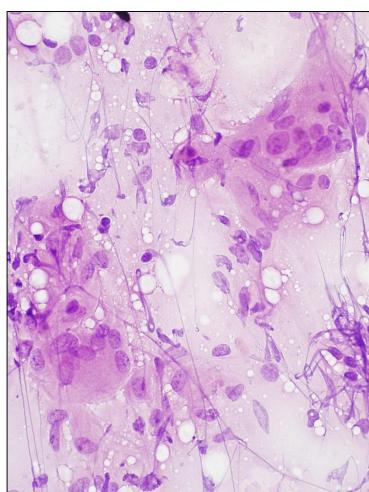
causes the release of

(viral, or thyroid originated) AB release

Cytotoxic T cells

After the cessation of the AB release, the process is ended

Clin.: severe cervical pain Hyper, - than hypothyreosis, TSH ^{*}, T3, T4 [^], scintig: low uptake Subsides in 6-8 weeks





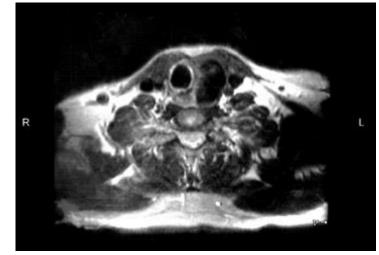
Riedel thyroiditis

Stony hard, fixed thyroid mass,

Clinically mimicking thyroid malignancy

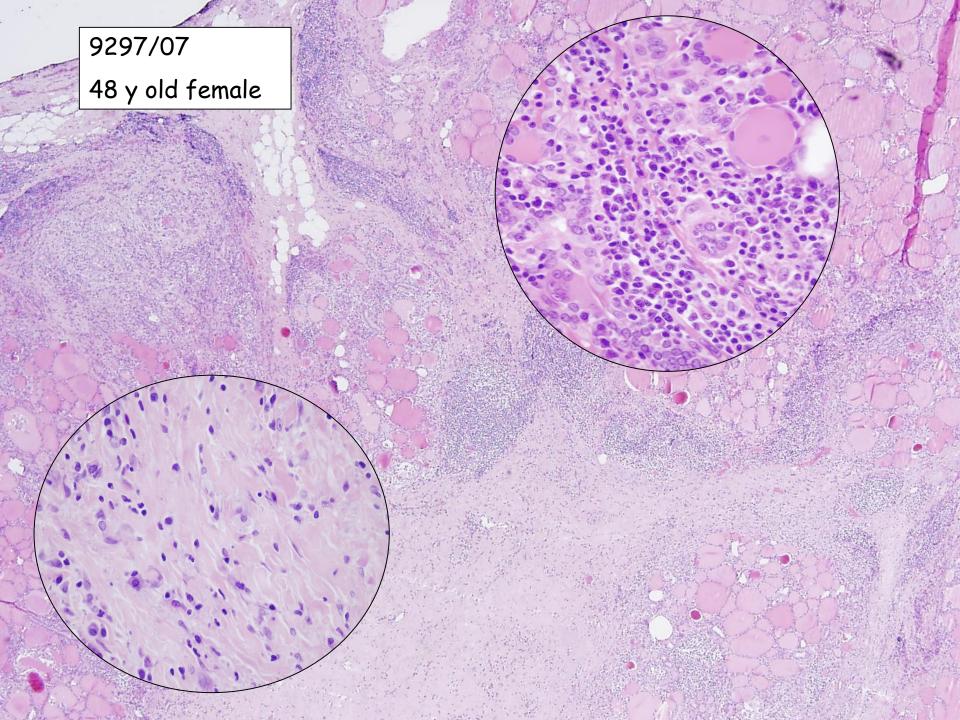
"Burnt out", fibrotic thyroid mass

Etiology: (???), vs autoimmune



Palpation thyreoiditis ??? Hashimoto????

Present concept: IgG4 disease



Graves - Basedow

Genetics concordance between monozygotic twins is: 60% more frequent in certain HLA-DR 3, HLA-B8 types CTLA-4 polymorphism (~ blocks the formation of autoantiboidies) Autoantibodies:

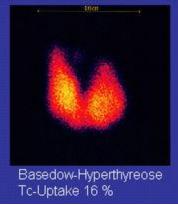
Anti-TG, anti-T peroxisome, anti - TSH receptor

TSI (LATS), (this is Graves-specific) TGI

TBII (TSH-binding inhibitory immunoglobine) - this is blocking, or stimulating)

TRIGGER ?? (loss of T cell tolerance)

Anti-TG, anti-T peroxisome



Graves - Basedow

Clinical course

Hyperthyreosis



Exophtalmos (retroorbital ly, oedema, GAG, HA accumulation,)

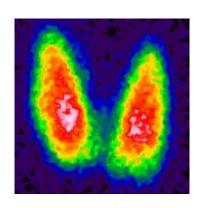
Pretibial myxoedema

Associated with other autoimmune diseases:

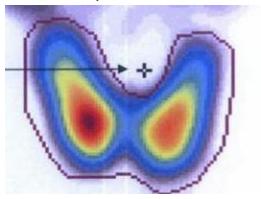
Diabetes I., Autoimmune adrenalitis, SLE, myastenia gravis, Sjögren, Anaemia perniciosa, + Hashimoto !!!!!

Lab:

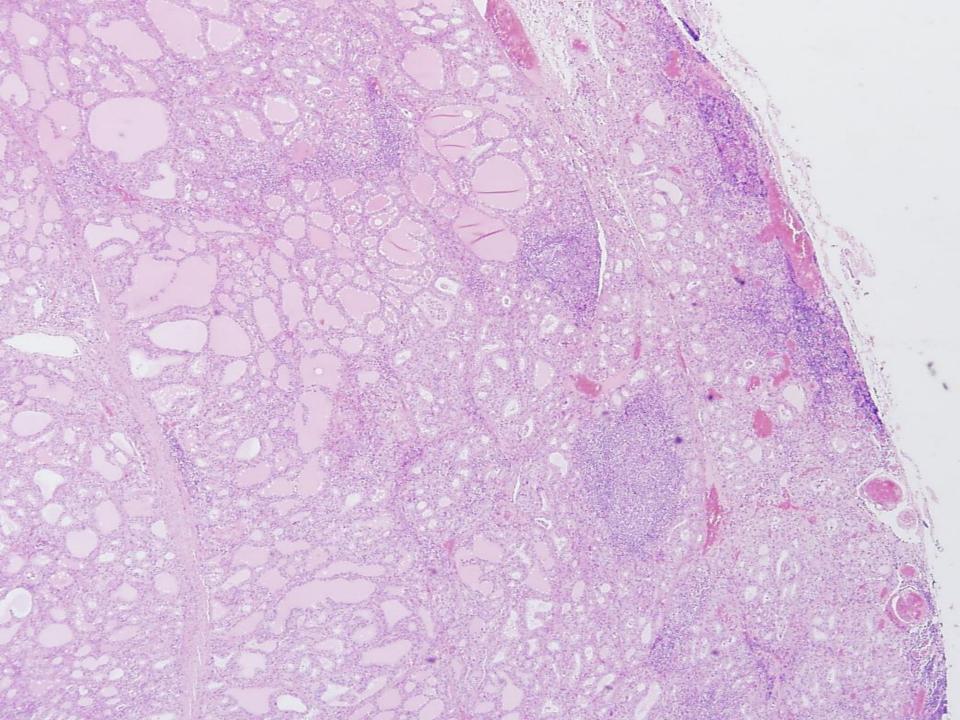
TSH^{*}*^{*} T3, T4 ^^^ Scinti: ^^^

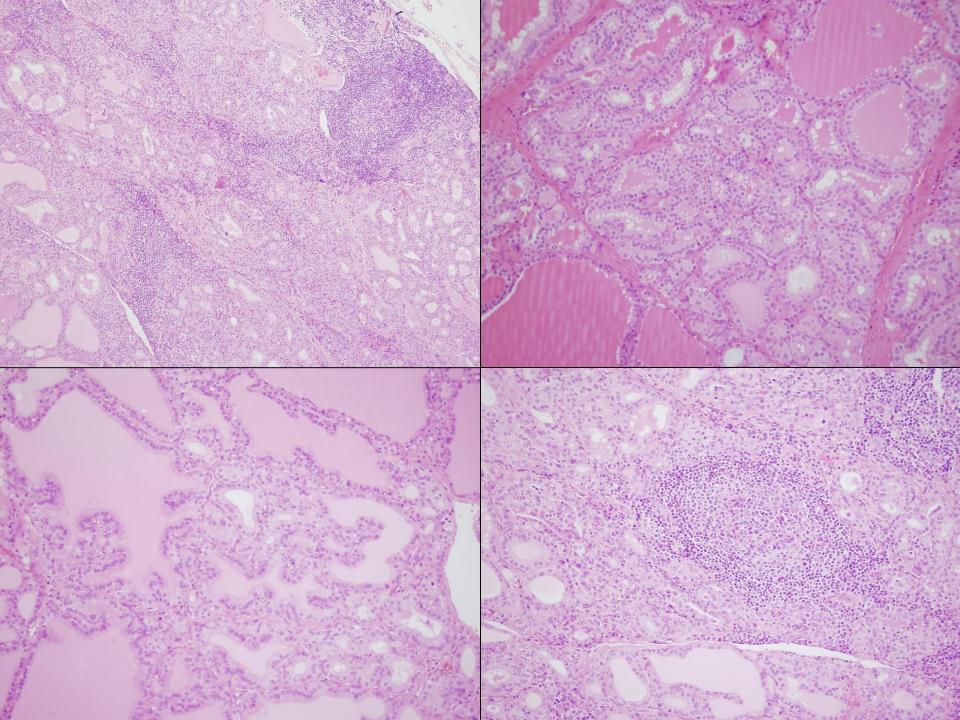


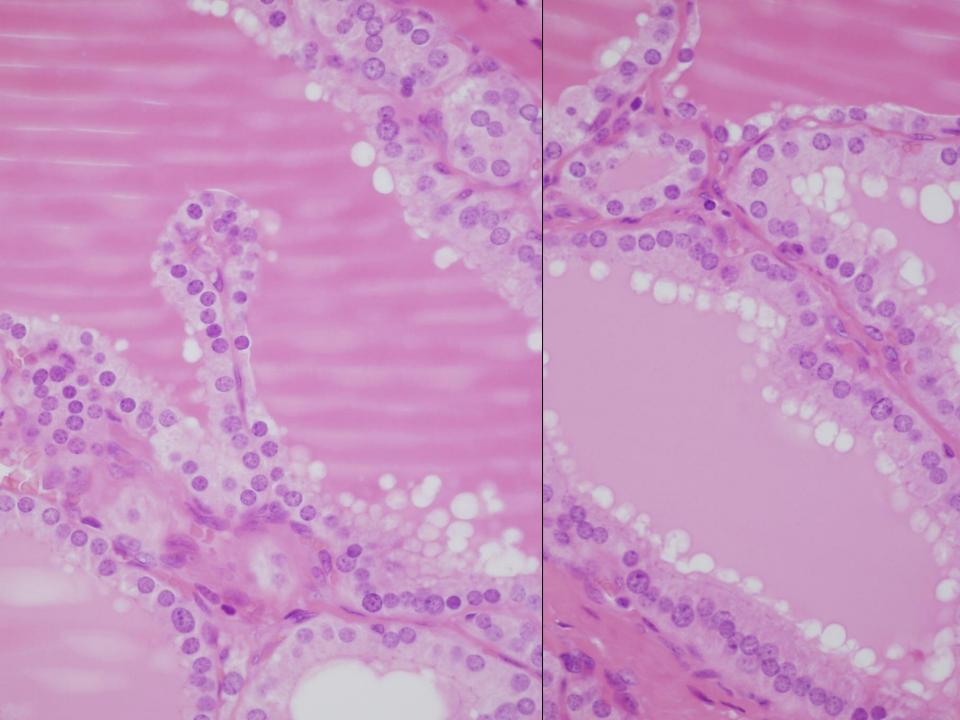
Compared to



Th.: propylthiouracyl, radioiodine ablation, surgical

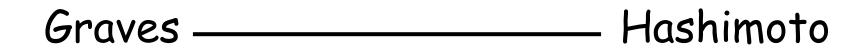












Diffuse/ nodular goiter



Diffuse goiter

Endemic (most frequent) (10 % of the population is involved) Alps, Andes, Himalaya

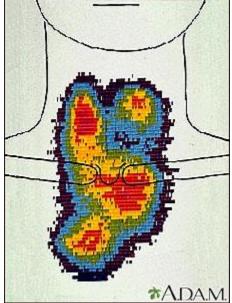
Goitrogens: cabbage, cauliflower, Brussels sprouts, turnips, cassava

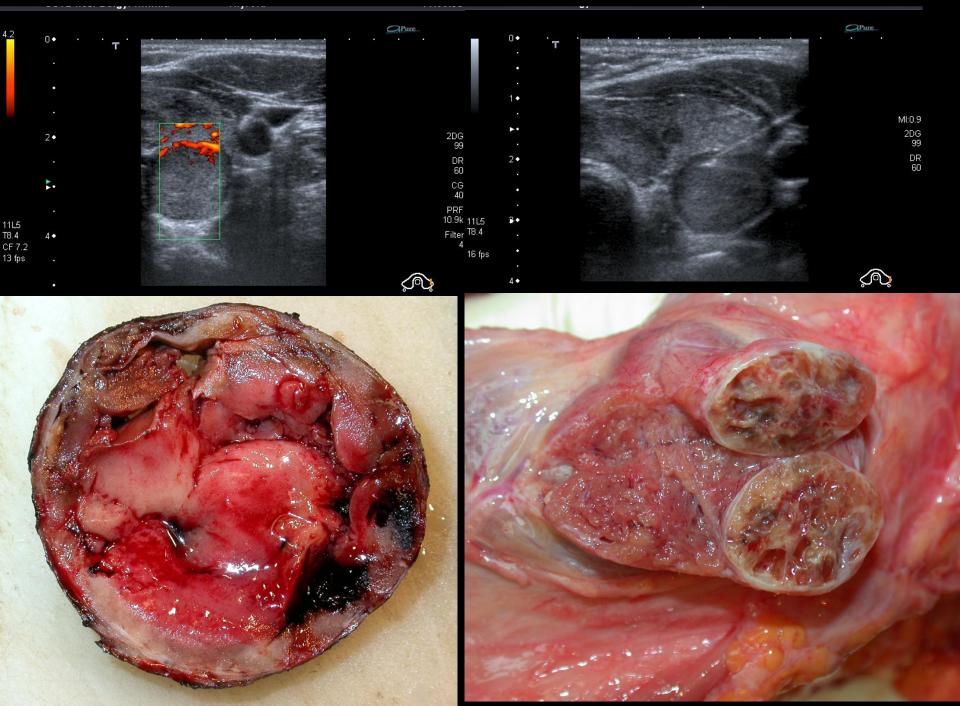
```
Iodine deficiency
Hpl, htr – euthyreoid
hypothyreoid
T3, T4 norm., TSH elevated, or upper range of normal
```

Sporadic hereditary enzimatic defects frequently unknown etiology

Nodular goiter

- All longstanding simple goiters convert into ~
- One nodule might become autonomous Hpl, atrophy, fibrosis, calcification, cyst formation
- Scintigr.: uneven uptake
- toxic nodular goiter when one nodule becomes autonomous





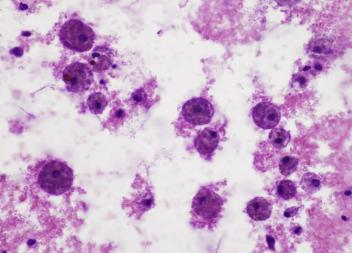
Thyroid cyst

Might be "cold"

or "warm" nodule

Scintigraphy frequently consideres it "autonomous adenoma"





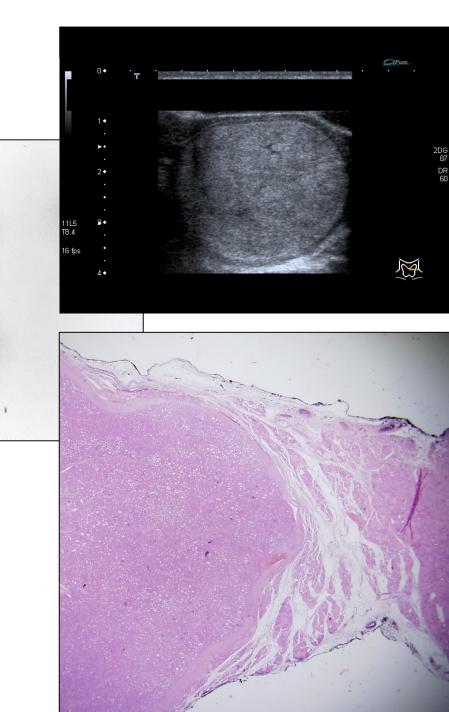


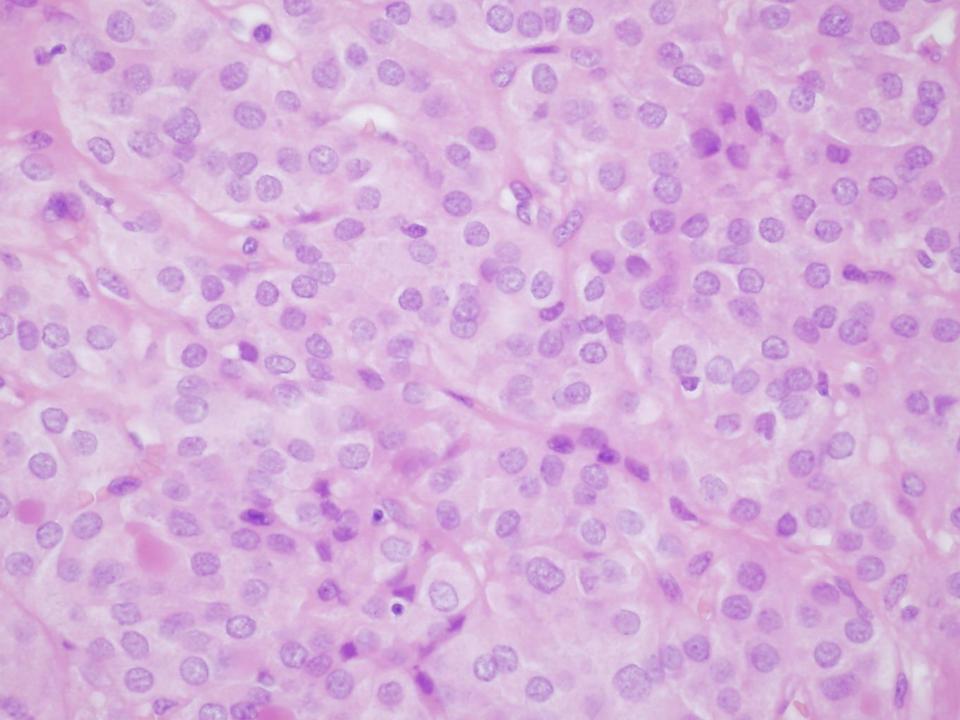
Tumors

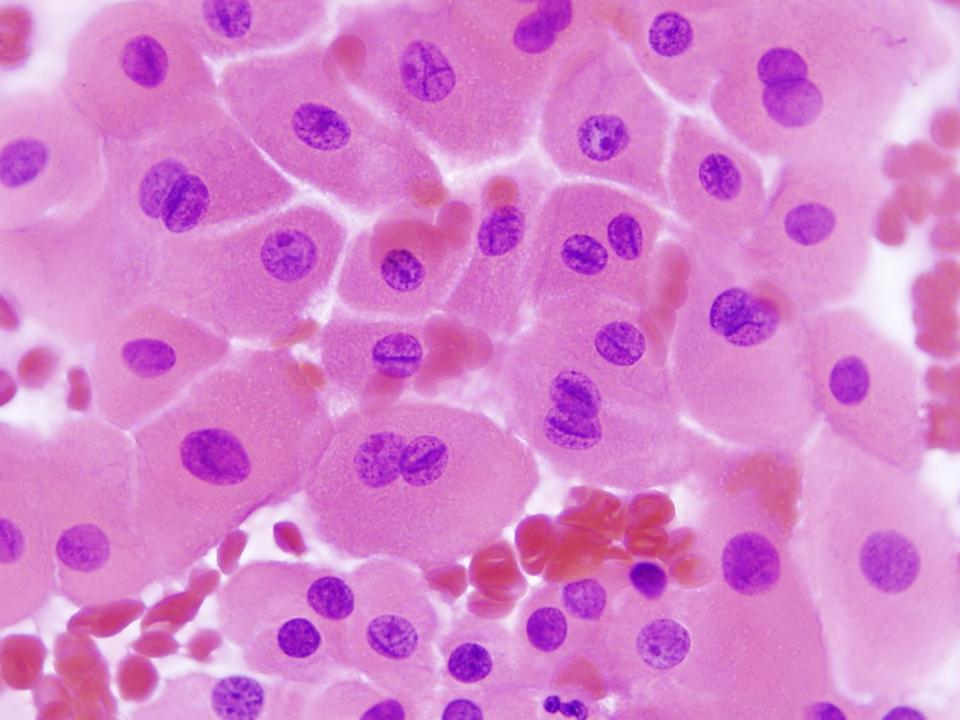
Suspicious, if:

Solitary nodule Young patient Male Cold (I,!, Tc might show it to be hot!)

Tumors Adenoma Non-functioning (frequently "cold") Hormon-producing 15 min p. ("warm", "hot nodule" toxic adenoma) min p.1 60







Relative frequency of malignant thyroid tumors

- 75% - Papillary carcinoma - Follicular carcinoma 5% - Medullarycarcinoma 2% - Anaplastic cc.
- Lymphoma
- Other, non-epithelial
- Metastatic

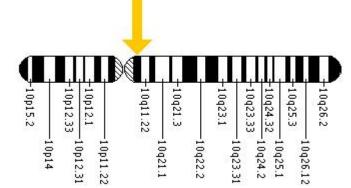
15% 2% 0.8%

0.2%

Malignant thyroid tumors

Genetic background - mutations ex.: ret/PTC

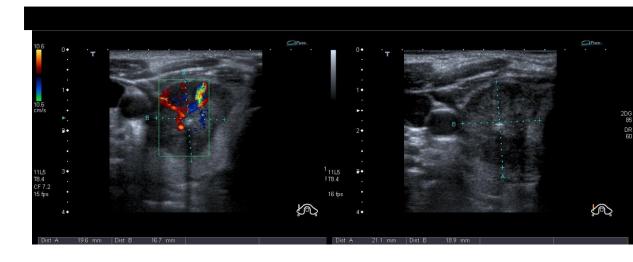
Ionizing irradiation (therapeutic, environmental)



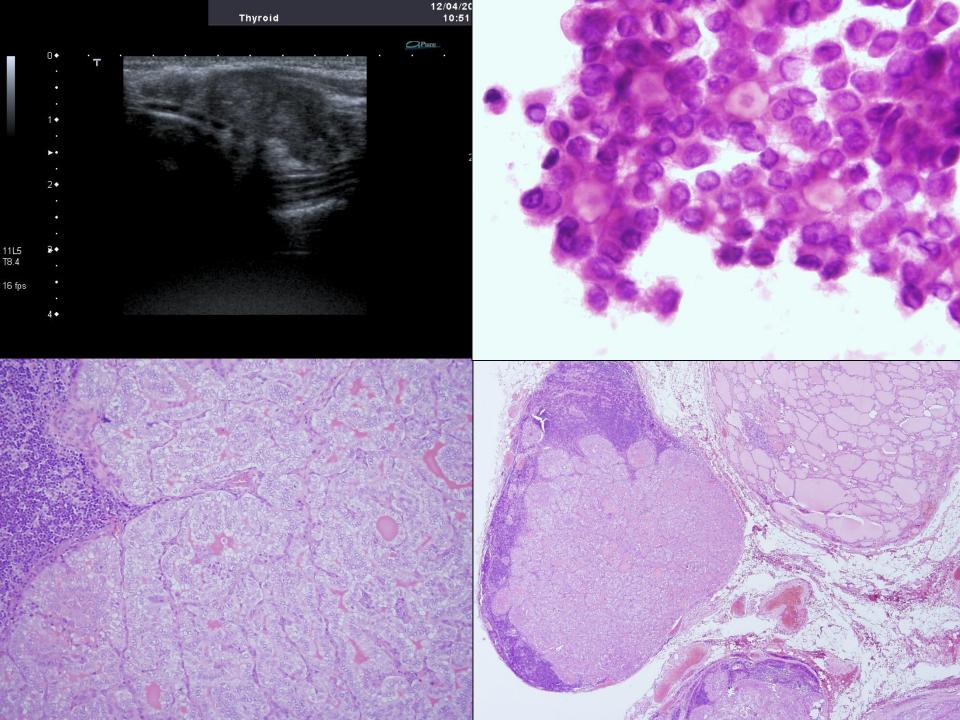
Papillary cc.

Occurrence: middle aged women, any age, males can be affected

Signs "Nodule" Hoarseness Cough Dyspnoe

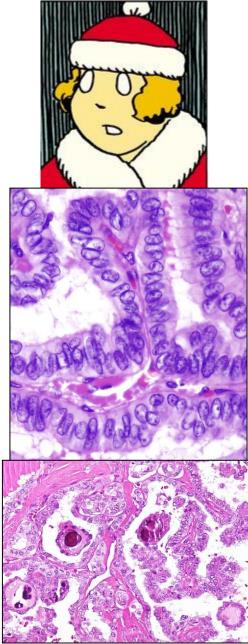


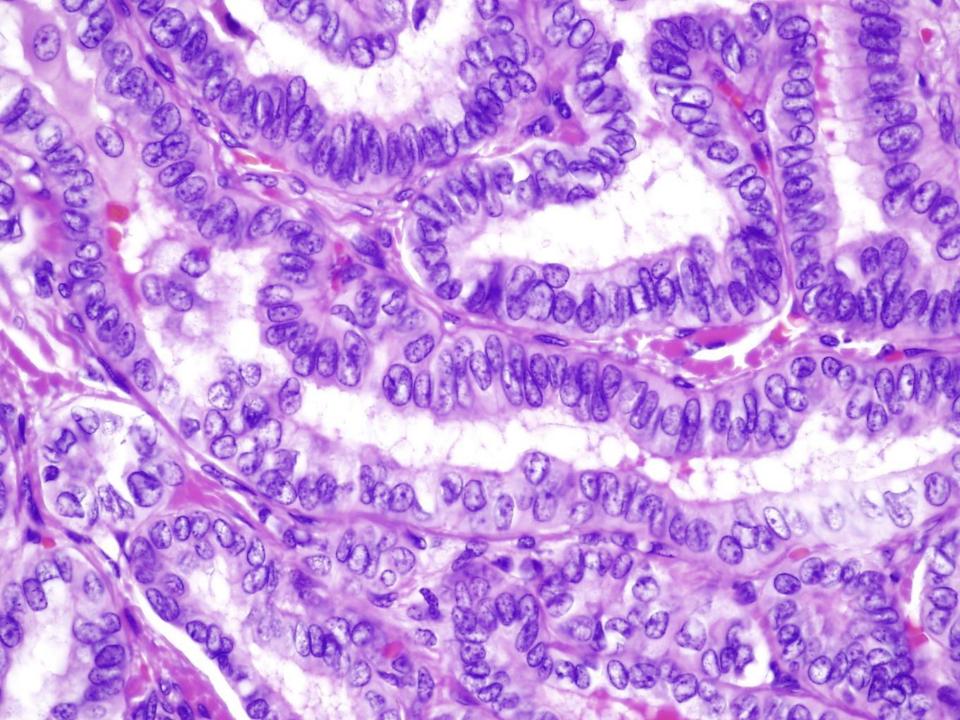
Metastasis: regional In-s, **rarely** distant Prognosis: relatively good Th.: surgical + radioiodine th.



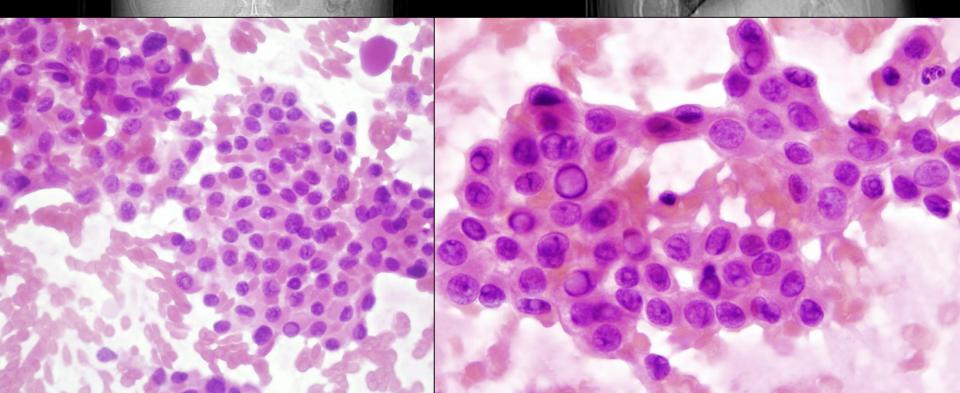
Papillary cc.

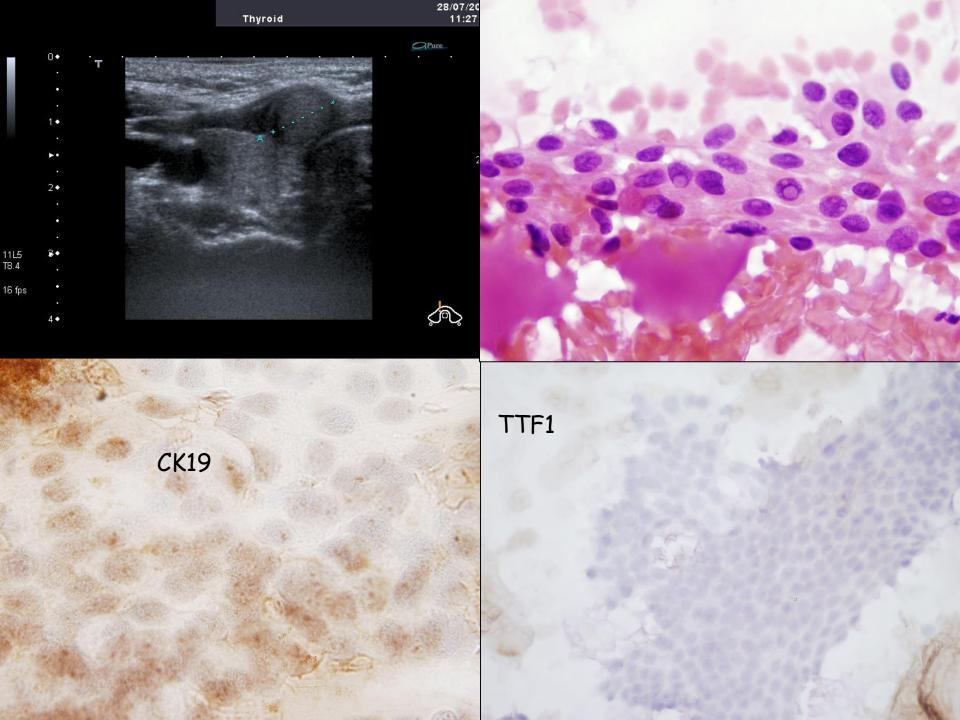
"Classic" (papillae, Orphan Annie, Psammoma) Specific types Encapsulted Follicular Tall cell Diffuse sclerotizing (children) Hyalinizing trabecular

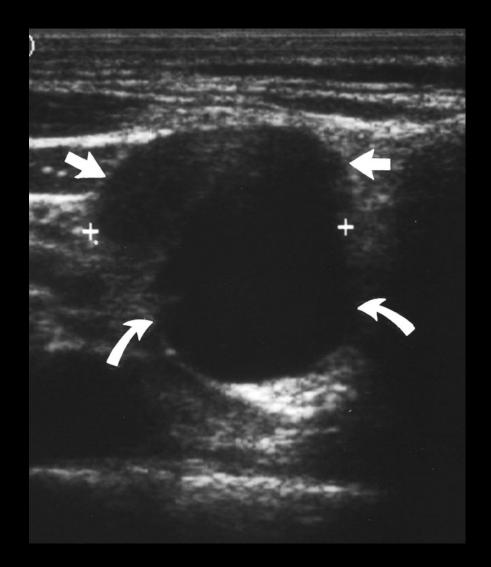


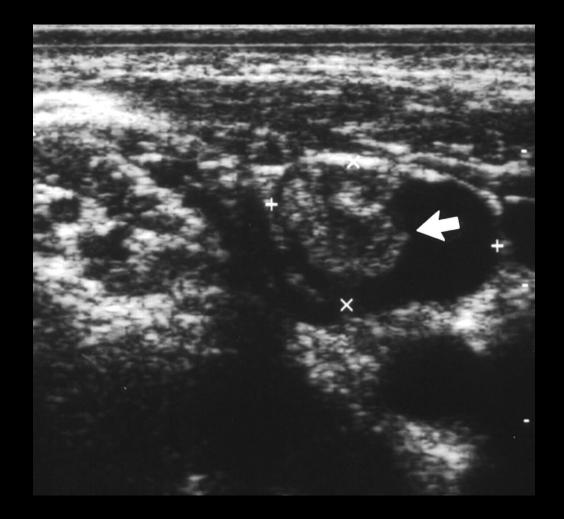


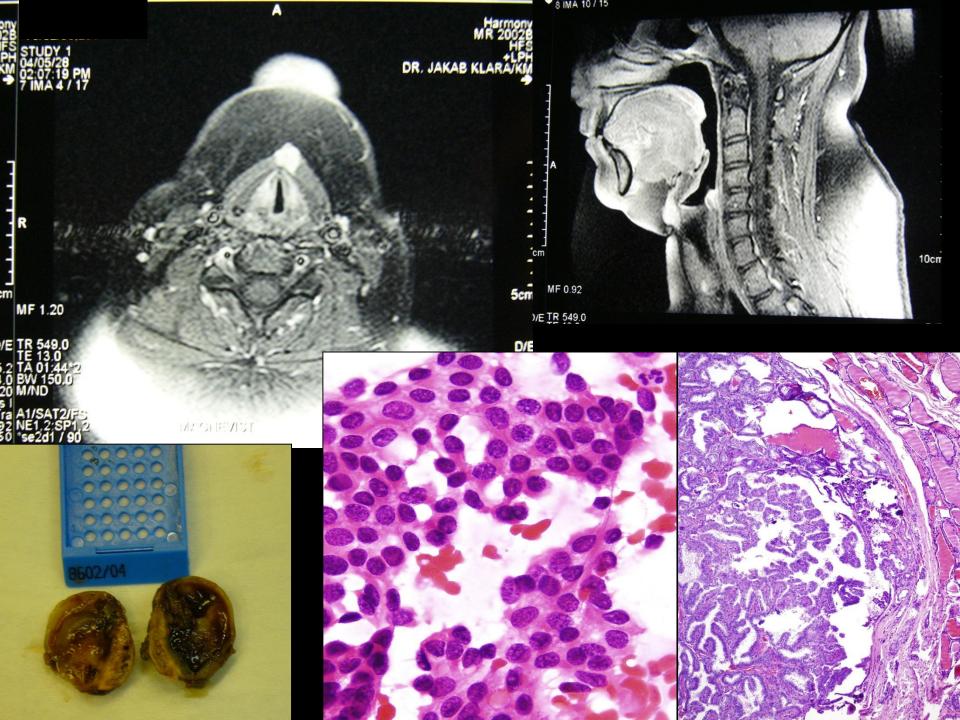
38 year old female. Round shadow. Npl? Met? TBC?











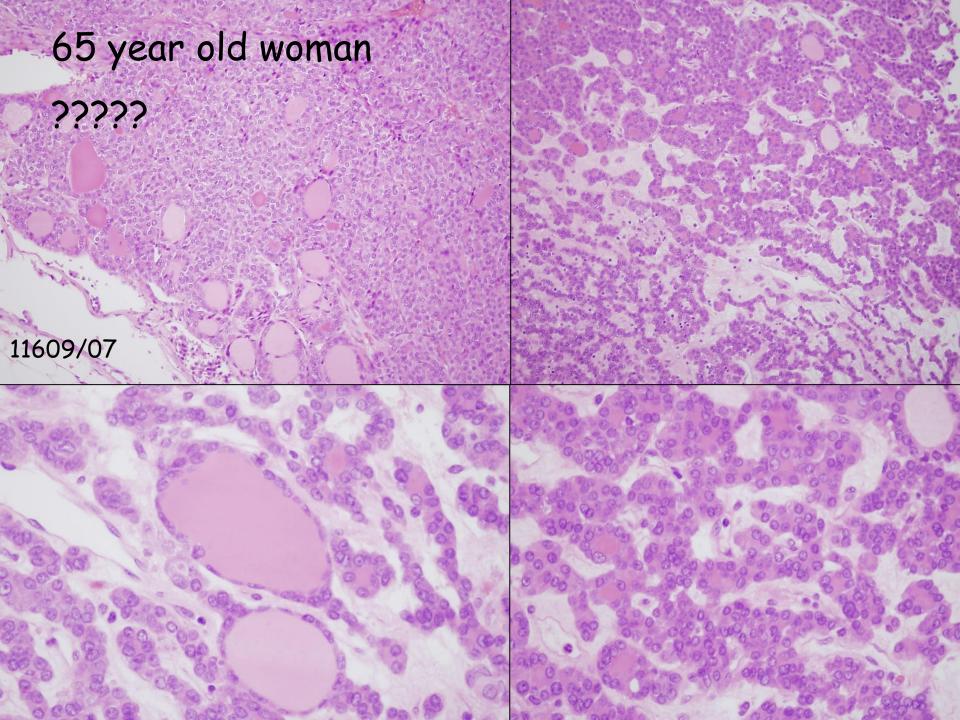
Follicular cc.

Occurrence Elder women

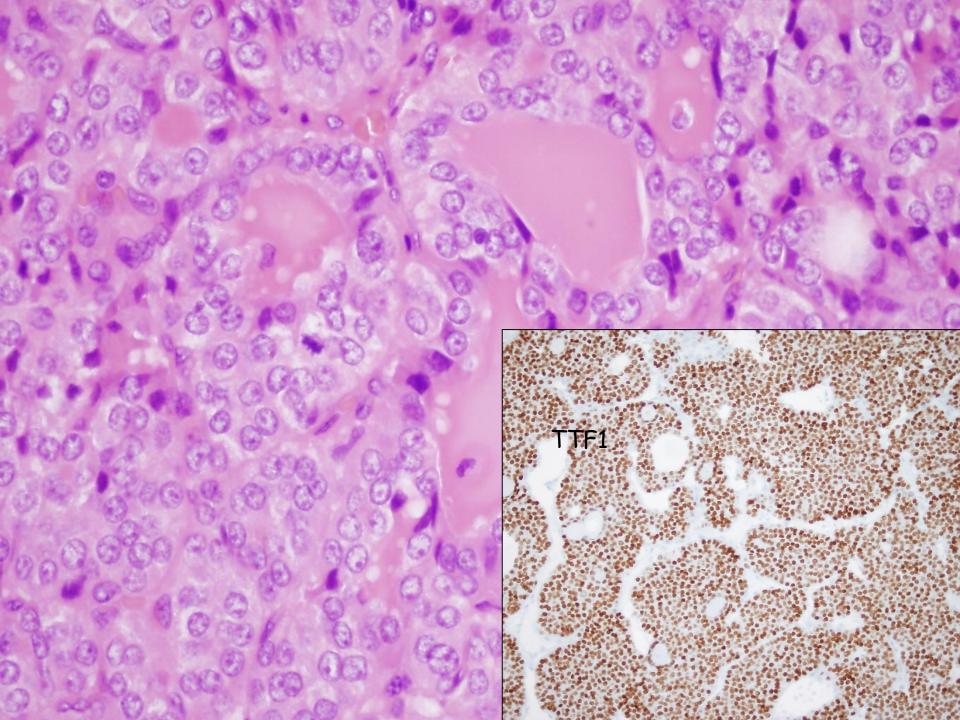
Cause: ras mutation (in foll. Adenomas also) Slowly growing nodule (usually cold, rarely warm)

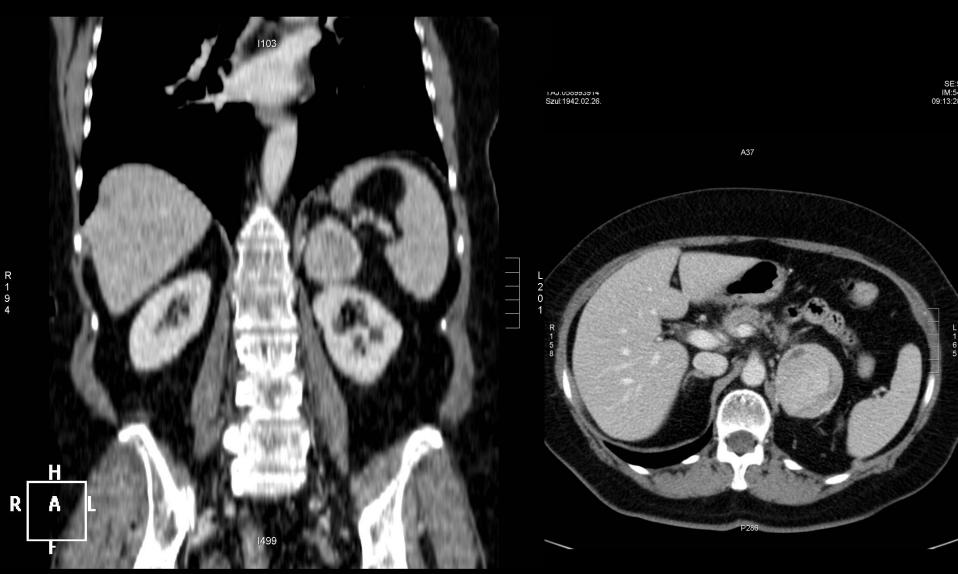
Monotonous cells Capsule / and/ or vascular invasion Reg. Lymph nodes are rarely metastatic, but liver, bones are frequently metastatic sites

Progn.: Depends on the metastatic capacity Th.: surgical + radioiodine th 12536/07 59 year old woman



1996. Operation for left sided breast cc.
2003. rec.,
2005. Right sided breast tu.





SE:502 IM:1 09:13:29

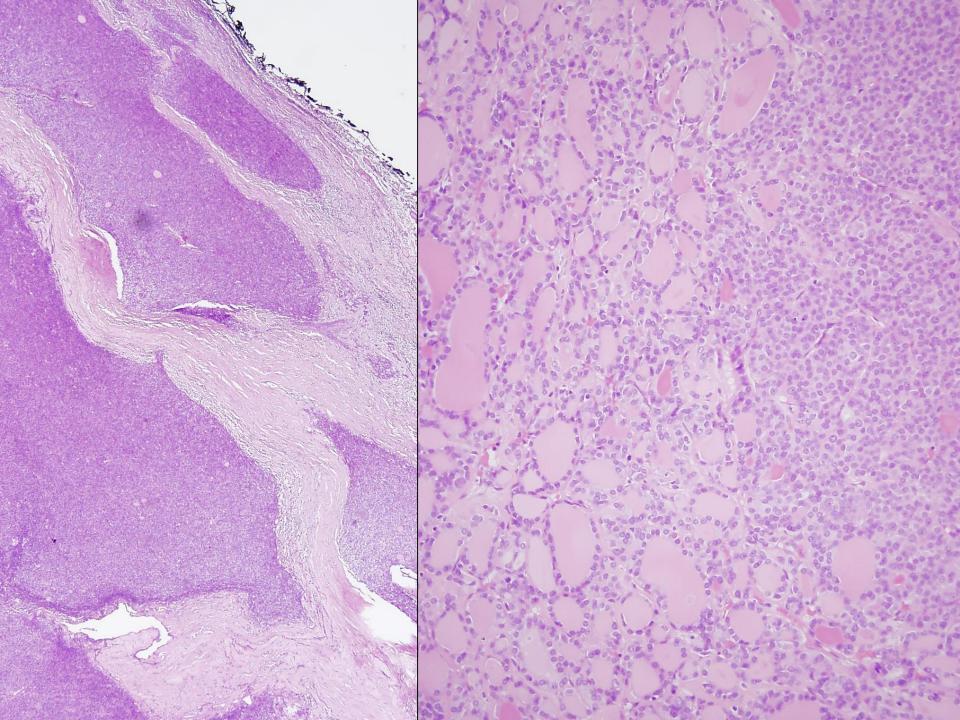
> SE TRANSZPLANT KL. W 350 : L 50

KONTRASZTOS KONTRASZTOS Melikas és has CT vizsgála

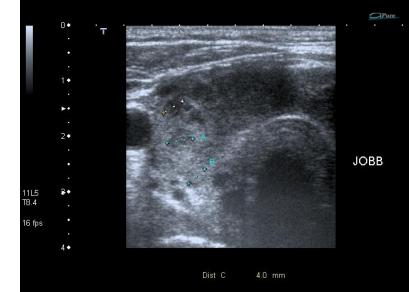
SE TRANSZPLANT KL. W 360 : L 60 KONTRASZTOS Mellkas és has CT vizsgálat 8042/07

65 year old woman

Cl.: Nod. goiter



Anaplastic cc.

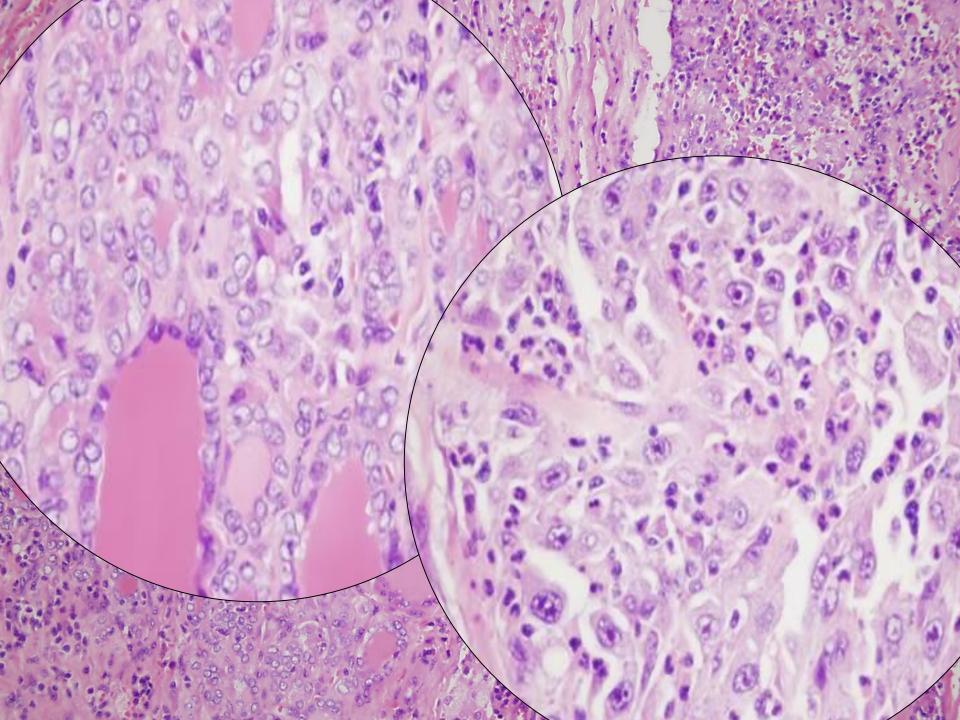


Based on some kind of thyroid disease (nodular goiter, or papillary thyroid cc.)

Rapidly growing, agressive tumor.

Hoarseness, suffocation, compression

```
Mortality: 100 %, in one year
```



Medullary cc.

C cells 80 % sporadic 20 % a MEN sy 2A, 2B. or FMTC

(Familiary medullary thyroid cc. FMTC,- spec. MEN2A)

Solitary nodule (sporadic), or multiple smaller familiary (on the basis of C cell hpl)

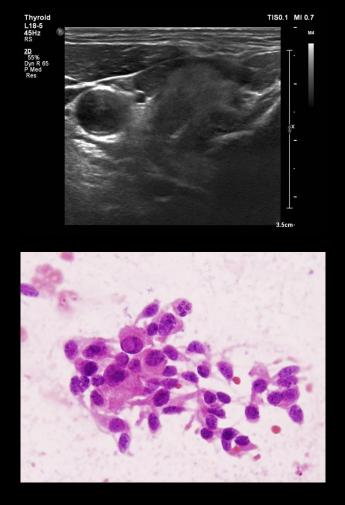
Medullary cc.

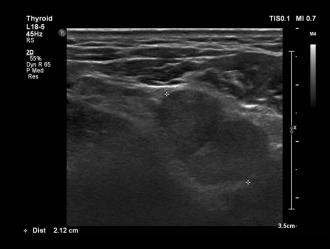
Symptoms: nodule, horseness, dysphagy paraneoplastic (?!) hormone production

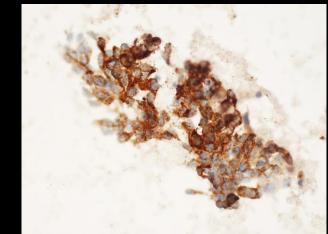
Calcitonin ^^, but hypocalcaemia cannot be always shown

Familiary cases: RET-mutation is found in case of family screening. (C cell hpl might be found in prophilactically resected thyroids)

Male, 53 Examination for swelling of the neck



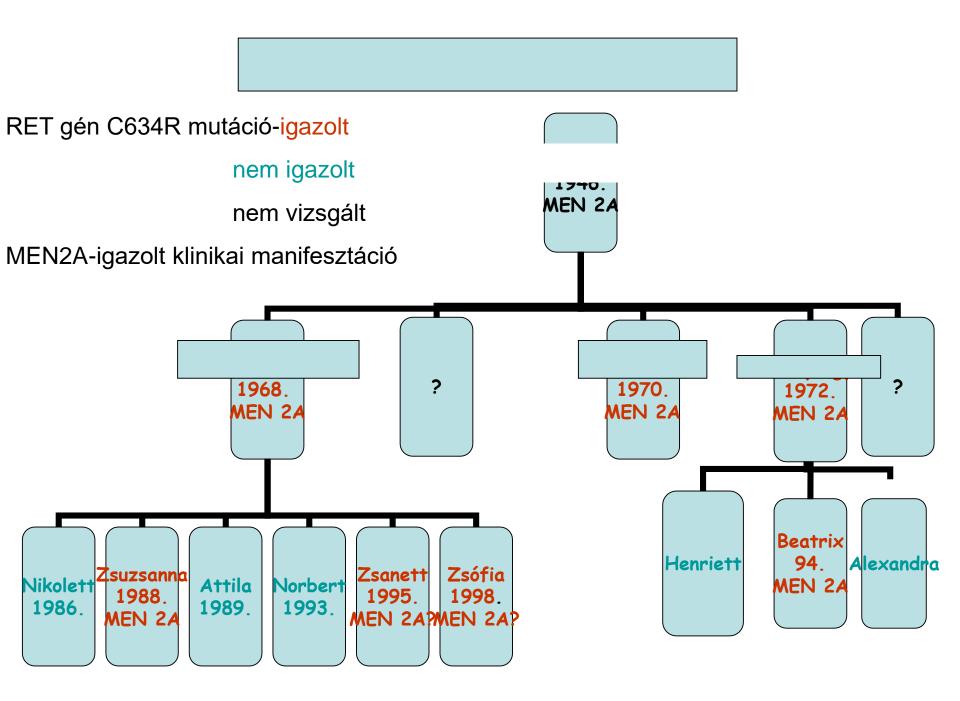


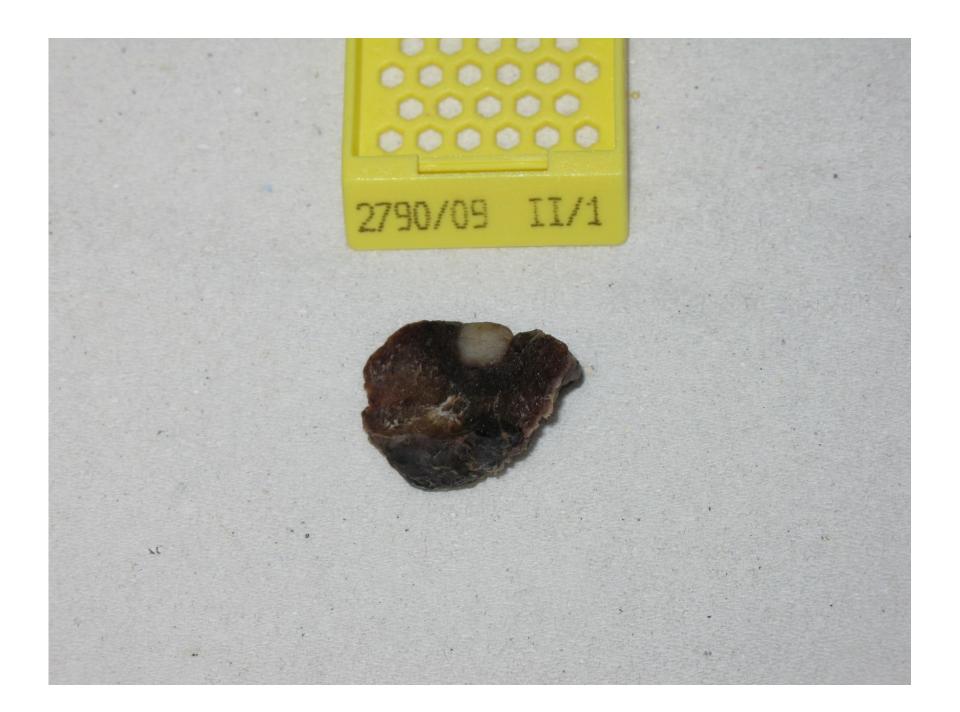




11109/07 55 y o female

	MEN1 Wermer sy	MEN 2A Sipple sy	MEN 2B
Hypophysis	Adenomas		
parathyroid	HPL +++	Hpl +	
	Adenoma +		
Langerhans islands	HPL ++		
	Adenoma ++		
	<i>CC</i> +++		
Adrenal gland	HPL	Pheochromo-	Pheochromo-
		cytoma ++	cytoma +++
Thyroid gland		C cell hpl +++	C cell hpl +++
		Medull. Cc +++	Medull. Cc +++
Extraendocrine organs			Mucocutan ganglioneuromas Marfanoid stature
Genetic alteration	MEN1 11q13	RET 10q11.1	RET?



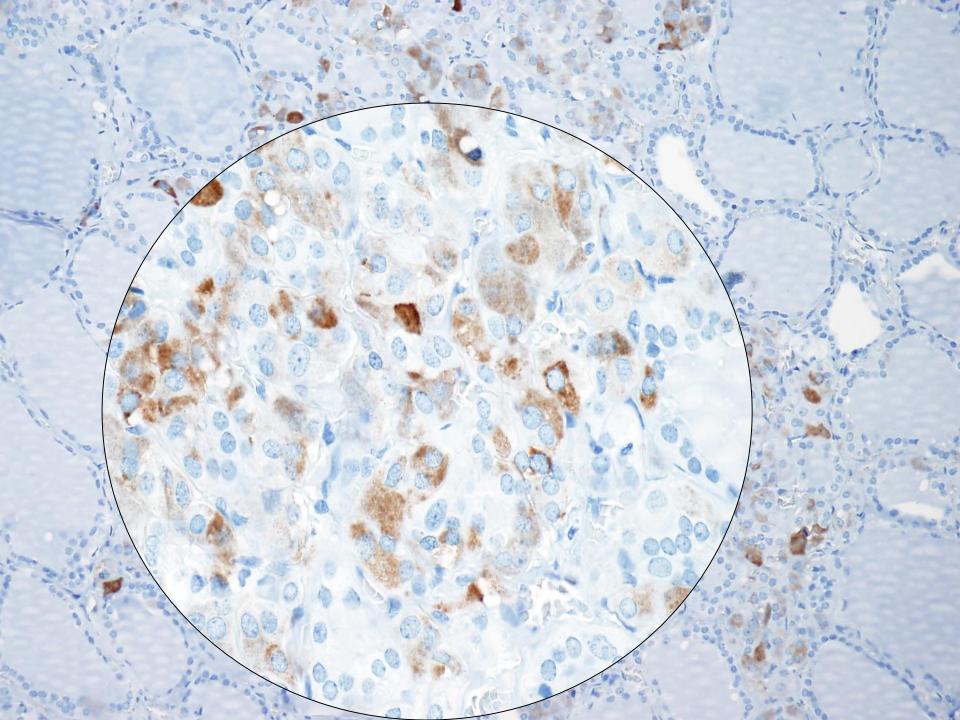


14 year old female

MEN2 sy in the family

RET mutation

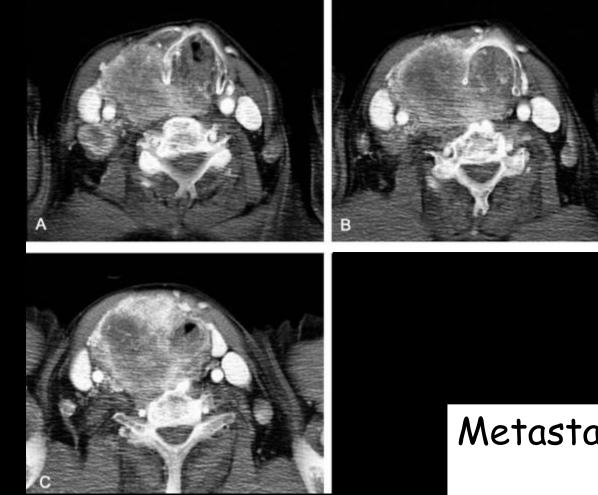
Prophylactic thyroidectomy



Other tumors

Mesenchymal tumors Lymphomas Metastatic (rare) 12685/07 70 year old male

Cl.: Nodular goiter



Metastatic

15448/07

77 year old male

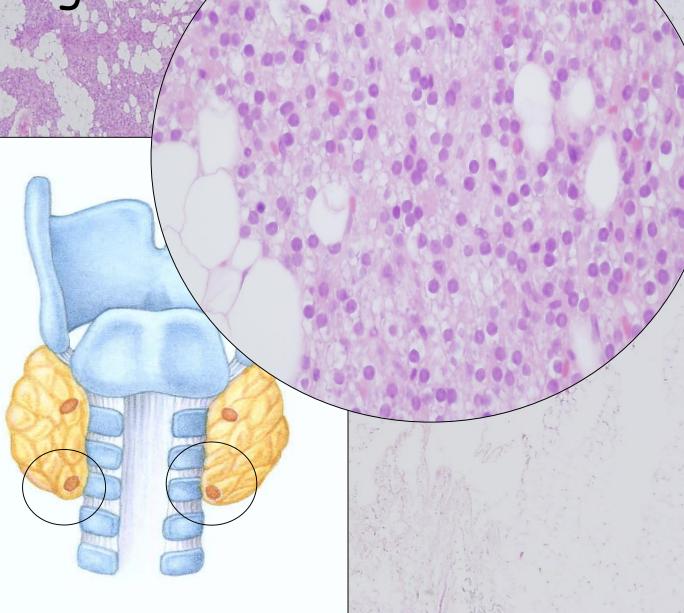
2

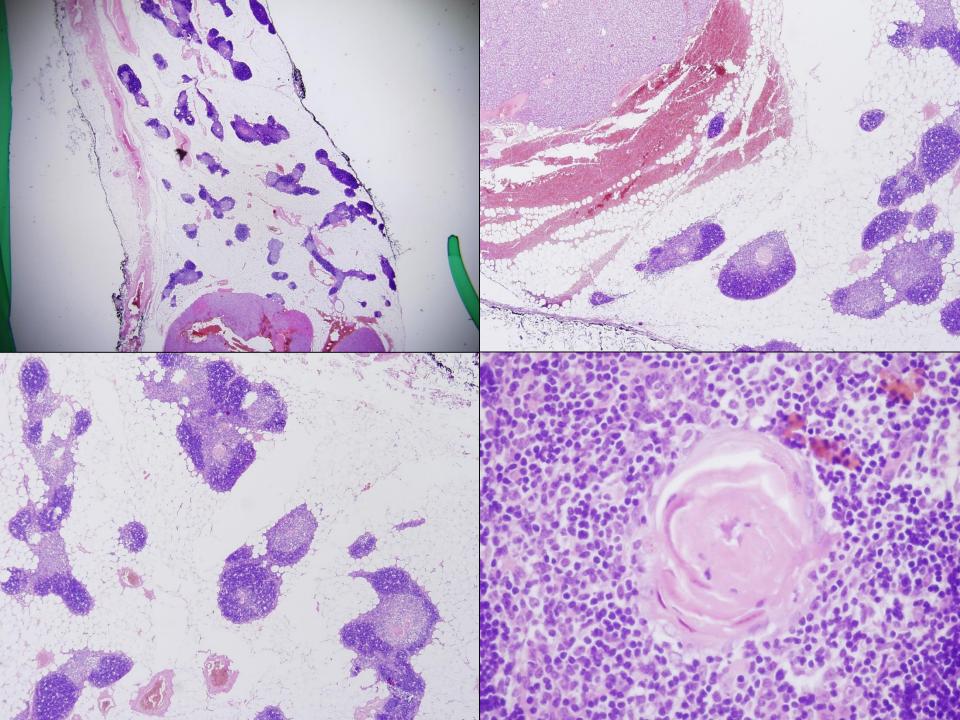
Parathyroid gland

IV. Pharyngeal pouch

In 10 % of the cases, only 3 glands

Any localisation along the developmental pathway:





Norm.: 10-60 pg/ml or 1-6 pmol/l

Effects of the Parathyroid hormone ...

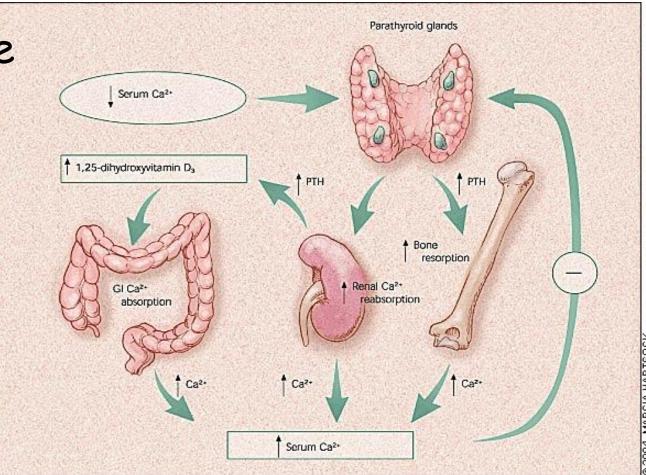
Osteoclast mobilization

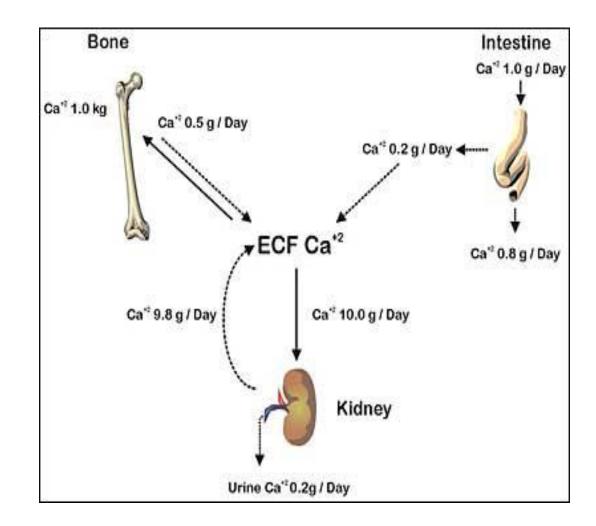
Renal tubular Ca reabsorbtion

Renal vitamine D conversion (dihydroxy) Renal phosphate

excretion ^

GI.: Ca absorption^

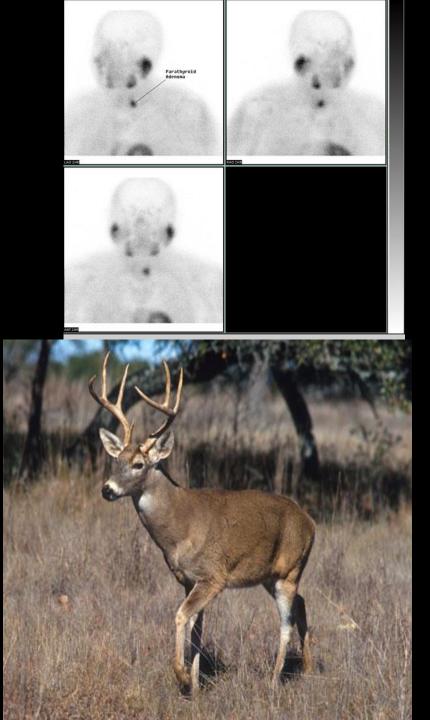


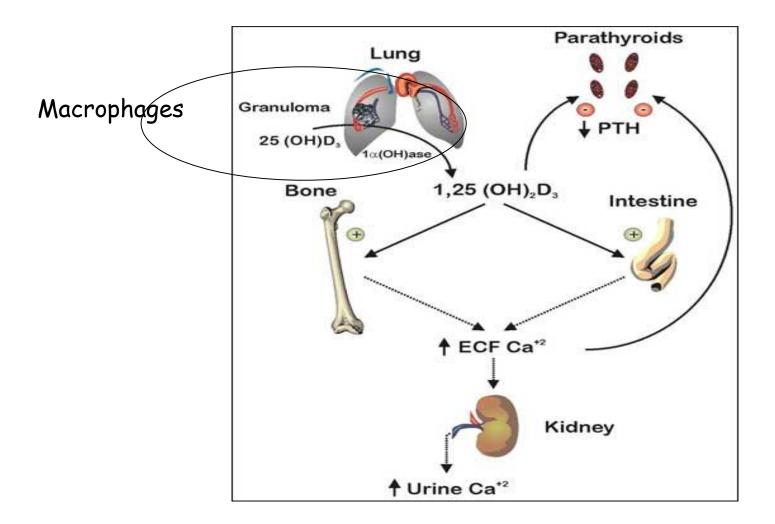












Primary hyperparathyreosis

parathyroid adenoma 75 % parathyroid hyperplasia 10-15% parathyroid cc. <5%

Female/Male 3/1 Middle aged or older Frequently sporadic, rarely part of MEN 1, or MEN2 MEN1: 11q13 (tumor supressor gene inactivation)

- $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{MEN2A: 10 } \textbf{Q} \text{RET mutation}(\texttt{tyrosine kinase} \\ \texttt{receptor}) \end{array}$
- Familiary hypocalciuric syndrome: 3q (CASR) AD lowered sensitivity of the parathyroid for Ca
- Sporadic- PRAD1:PRAD1 gene coding CyclinD1-(11q) overexpression due to inversion , > clonal proliferation

	MEN1 Wermer sy	MEN 2A Sipple sy	MEN 2B
Hypophysis	Adenomas		
parathyroid	HPL +++	Hpl +	
	Adenoma +		
Langerhans ilands	HPL ++		
	Adenoma ++		
	<i>CC</i> +++		
Adrenal gland	HPL	Pheochromo-	Pheochromo-
		cytoma ++	cytoma +++
Thyroid gland		C cell hpl +++	C cell hpl +++
		Medull. Cc +++	Medull. Cc +++
Extraendocrine organs			Mucocutan ganglioneuromas Marfanoid stature
Genetic alteration	MEN1 11q13	RET 10q11.1	RET?

Hyperparathyreosis

Asymptomatic

Blood test performed for unrelated conditions: Se Ca ^^^ associated with malignancy

Symptomatic,

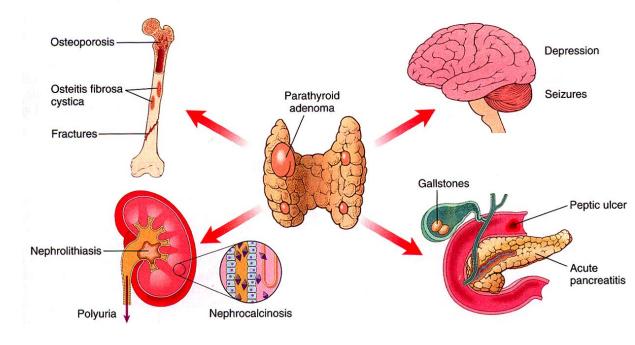
Neuromuscular changes - weekness, fatigue

Cardial: aorta, mitral calcification

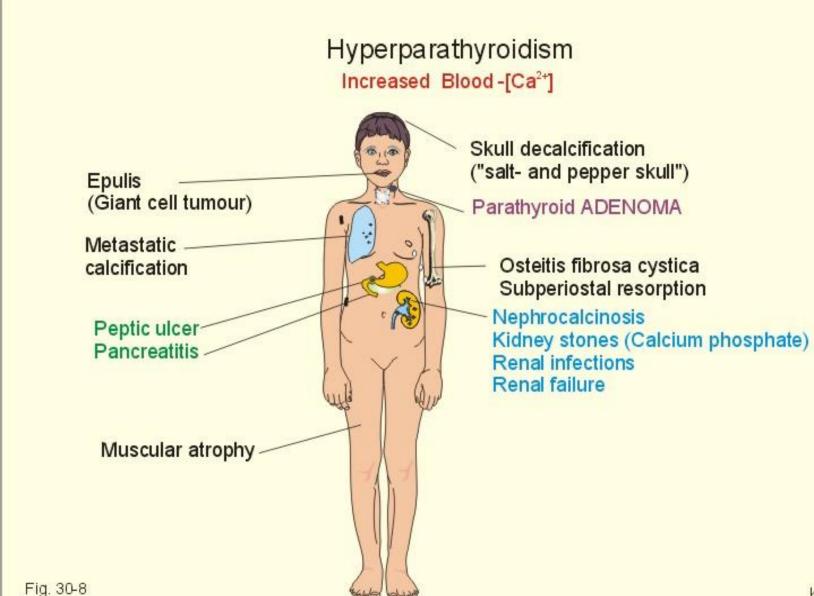
GI nausea, obstipation, ulcers, pancreatitis, gallstones

CNS depression, letargy, cramps

Bone diseases (osteitis fibrosa cystica generalista secundum Recklinghausen)



Sequales of Hyperparathyreosis

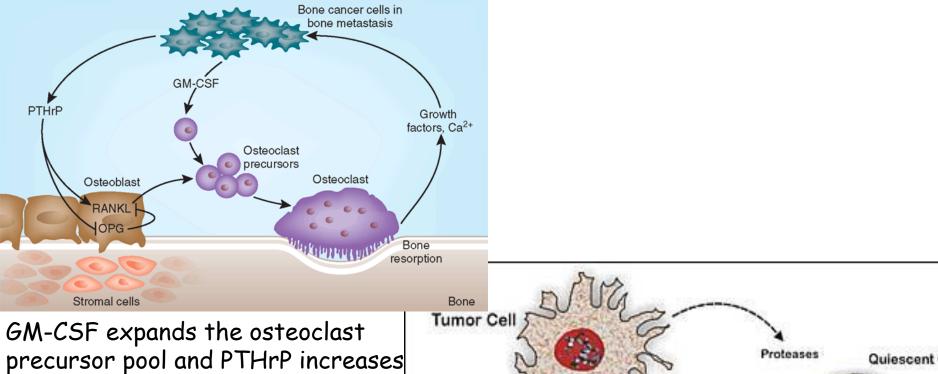


Osteitis fibrosa cystica generalisata secundum Recklinghausen

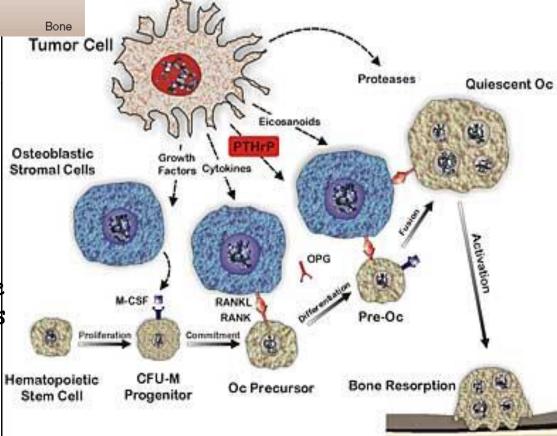


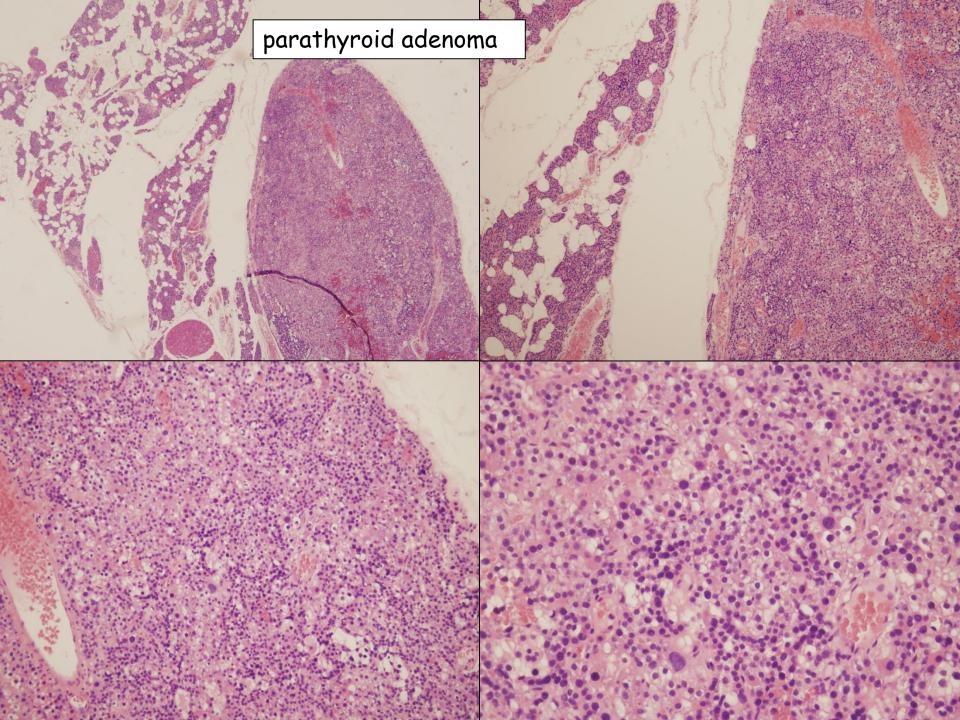
Causes of Hypercalcaemia

Elevated PTH Hyperparathyreosis primary secondary tertiary Lowered PTH Malignancy associated Osteolytic met. PTH-rP-mediated D vitamine toxicity Immobilization Thiazids Sarcoidosis (other granulomatous diseases)



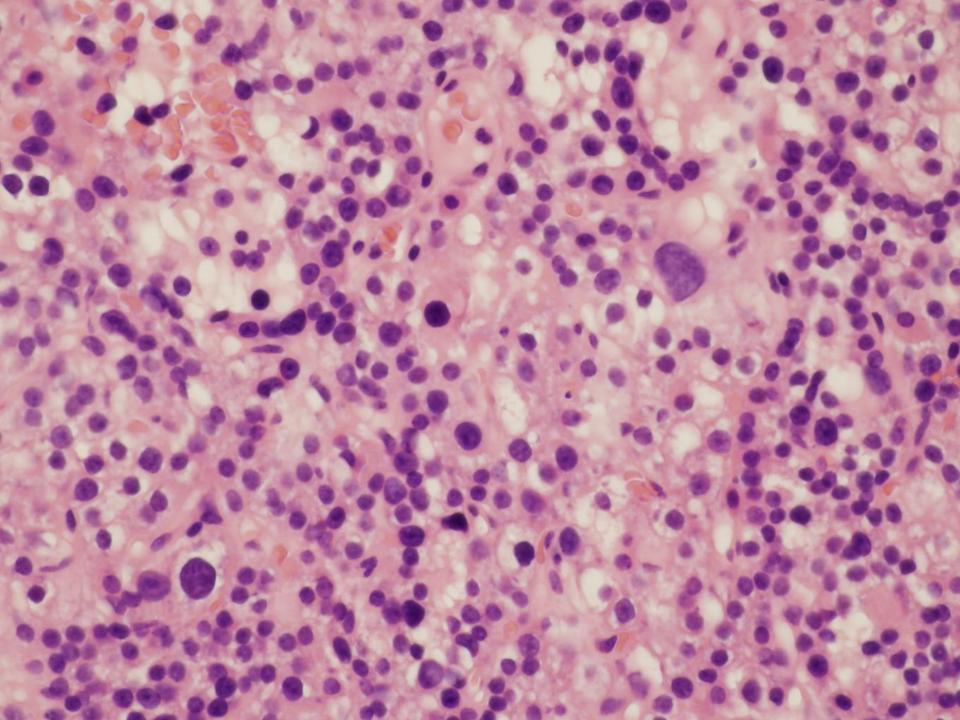
precursor pool and PIHrP increases RANK ligand and decreases osteoprotegerin (OPG) production by osteoblasts; OPG is a decoy receptor that blocks RANKL. RANKL then induces osteoclast precursor differentiation and increases osteoclast formation. The increase in bone resorption releases growth factors and calcium, which then enhances tumor growth.

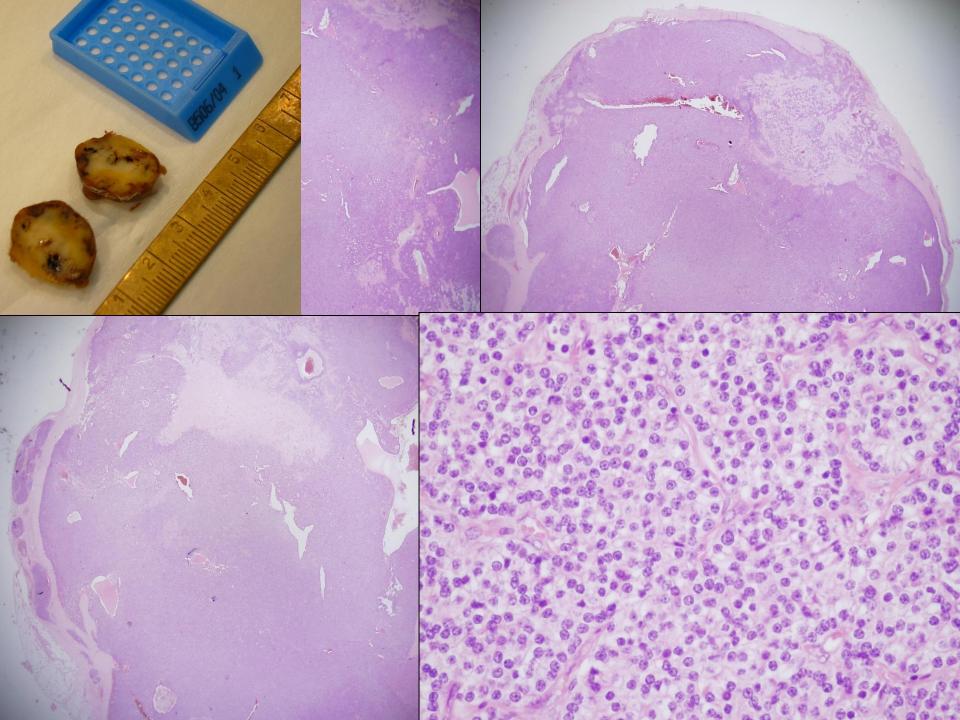


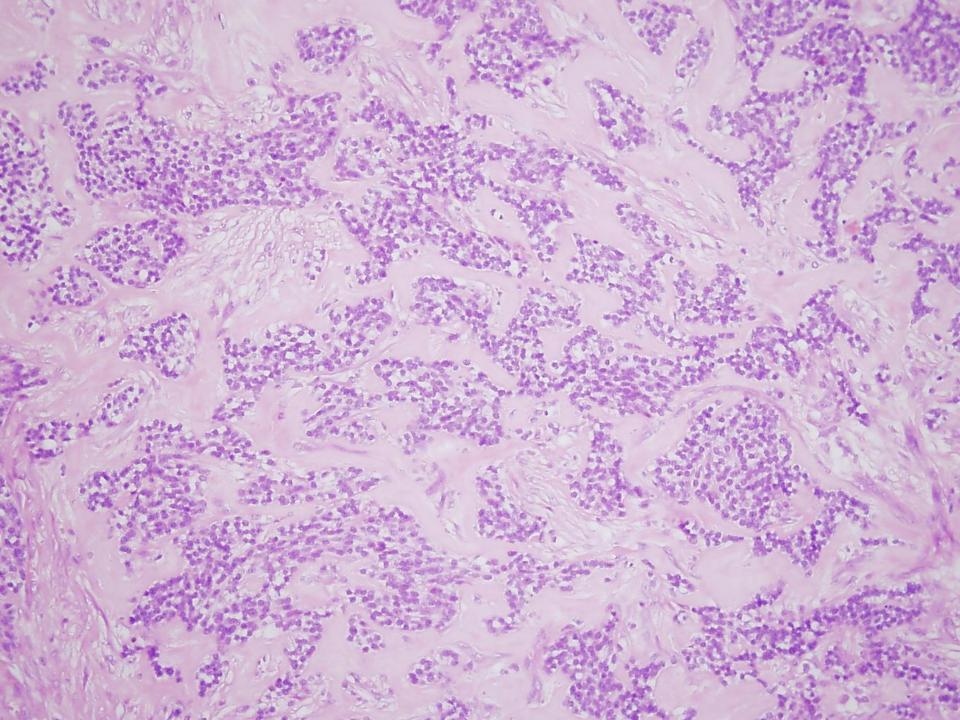


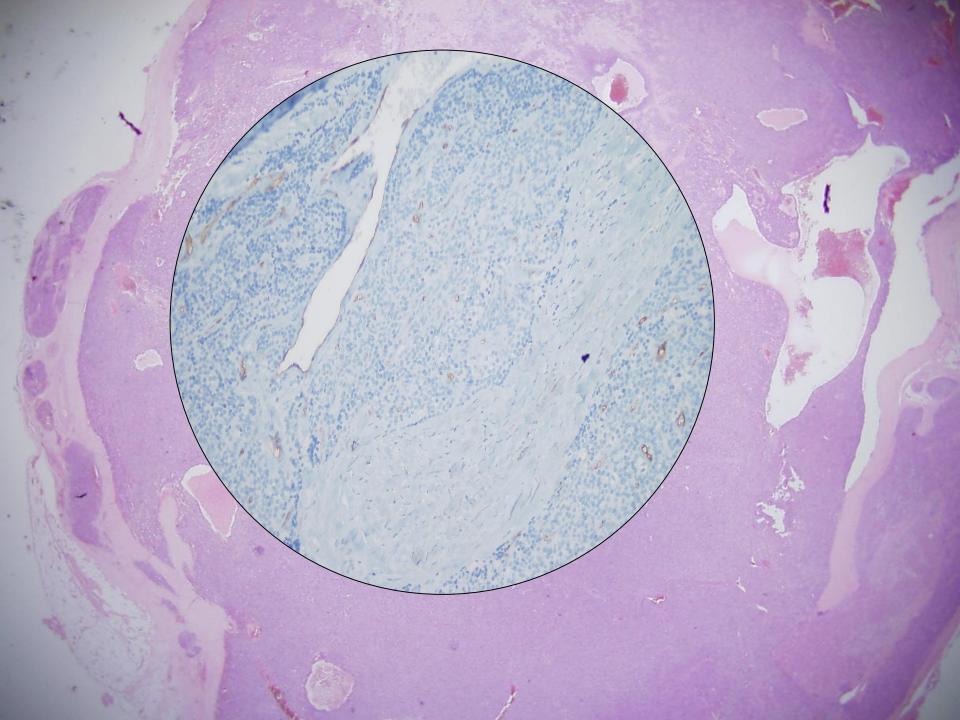
Microscopy

Normal looking parathyroid tissue surrounded by a capsule Endocrine atypia might occure Adenoma:- 1 gland gets enlarged Hyperplasia: - more glands get enlarged but not evidently all (??) Carcinoma: diagnosis is based on vascular / capsular invasion, metastasis









Secondary hyperparathyreosis

Associated by renal insufficiency Lowered Calcium intake Steatorrhea D vitamine deficiency

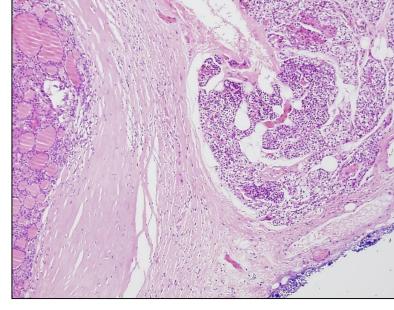
Low se Ca

Symptoms are similar to primary ~, but less severe

Tertiary hyperparathyreosis

Hypoparathyreosis

Surgical removal : (by accident)



Familiary ~: chr mucocutan candidiasis, with primary adrenal failure (autoimmun polyendocrin sy - APS1)

Congenital aplasia, with (thymic aplasia, cardiac abnormalities)

Idiopathic ~: caused by autoantibodies, that block the calcium sensing receptors(CASR) (no parat-hormone release)

Hypoparathyreosis

Tetania

- neuromuscular irritability

Chovstek

Trousseau's sign

Mental alterations

depression, irritability, hallucinations, psychosis CNS

basal ganglion calcification parkinson like signs papilla oedema Lense calcification – cataracta EKG – prolongation of QT

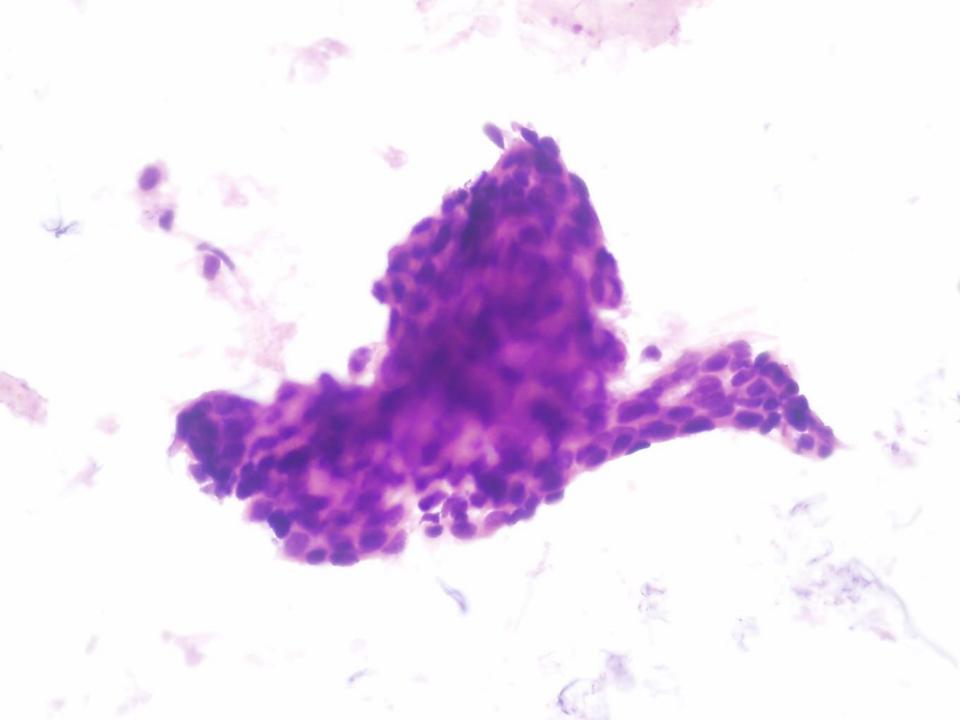
interval

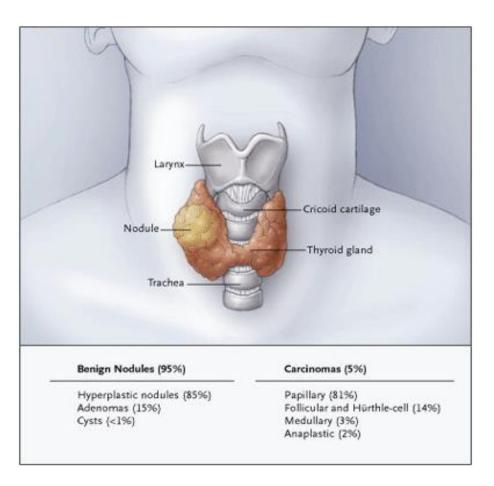
Dental abnormalities



Pseudohypoparathyreosis

End-organ resistance to PTH





Circulation

- Most of the thyroid hormone circulating in the <u>blood</u> is bound to transport <u>proteins</u>. Only a very small fraction of the circulating hormone is free (unbound) and biologically active, hence measuring concentrations of free thyroid hormones is of great diagnostic value.
- When thyroid hormone is bound, it is not active, so the amount of free T3/T4 is what is important. For this reason, measuring total thyroxine in the blood can be misleading.

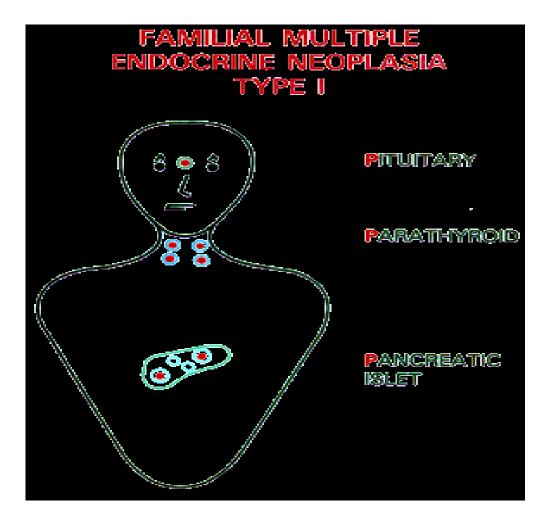
• The thyroid hormones, thyroxine (T4) and trijodothyronine (T3), are tyrosine-based hormones produced by the <u>thyroid gland</u>. An important component in the synthesis is iodine. The major form of thyroid hormone in the blood is thyroxine (T4). The ratio of T4 to T3 released in the blood is roughly 20 to 1. Thyroxine is converted to the active T3 (three to four times more potent than T4) within cells by deiodinases (5'-iodinase). These are further processed by <u>decarboxylation</u> and deiodination to produce iodothyronamine (T1a) and thyronamine (**TOa**).

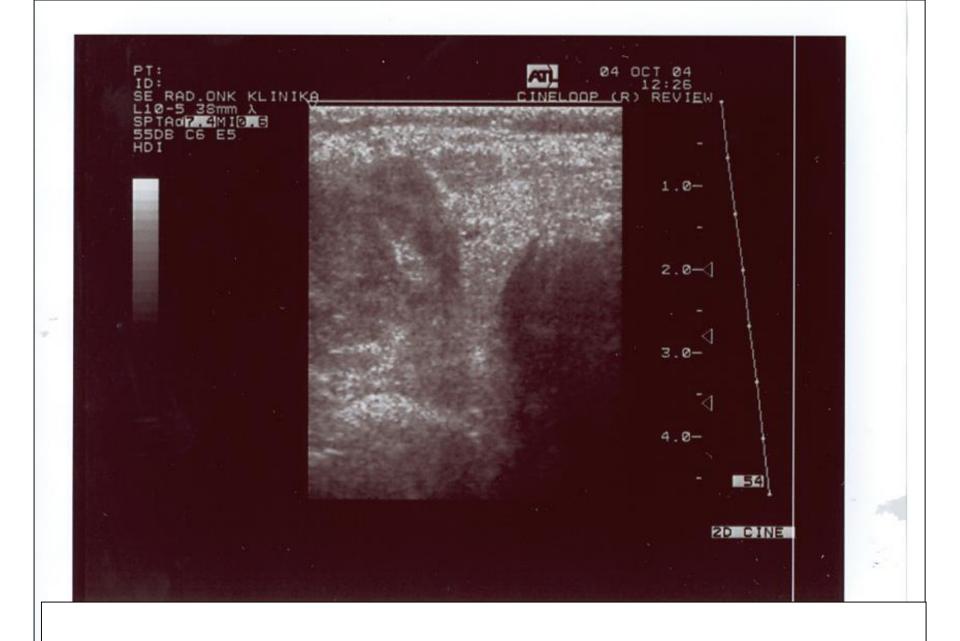
- T3 and T4 cross the <u>cell membrane</u>, probably via amino acid <u>importins</u>, and function via a well-studied set of <u>nuclear receptors</u> in the <u>nucleus</u> of the cell, the <u>thyroid hormone receptors</u>.
- T1a and T0a are positively charged and do not cross the membrane; they are believed to function via the <u>trace amine-associated receptor</u> <u>TAAR1</u> (TAR1, TA1), a <u>G-protein-coupled receptor</u> located in the <u>cell</u> <u>membrane</u>.
- Another critical diagnostic tool is the amount of <u>thyroid-stimulating hormone</u> (TSH) that is present.

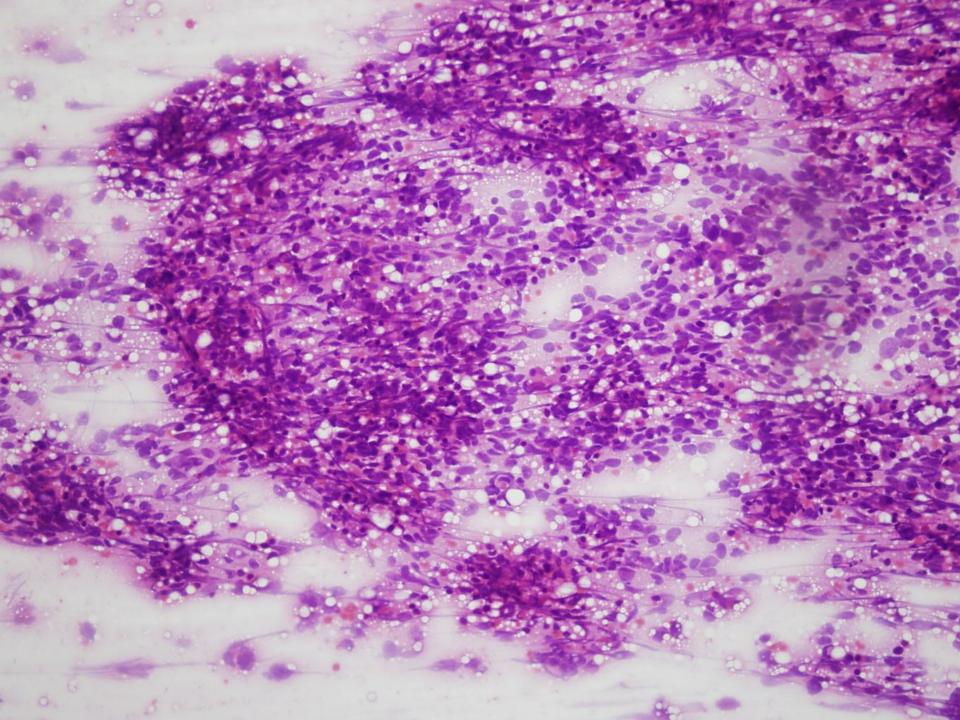
- Function
- The thyronines act on the body to increase the <u>basal metabolic</u> <u>rate</u>, affect <u>protein synthesis</u> and increase the body's sensitivity to <u>catecholamines</u> (such as <u>adrenaline</u>) by <u>permissiveness</u>. The thyroid hormones are essential to proper development and differentiation of all cells of the human body. These hormones also regulate <u>protein</u>, <u>fat</u>, and <u>carbohydrate</u> <u>metabolism</u>, affecting how human <u>cells</u> use energetic compounds. Numerous physiological and pathological stimuli influence thyroid hormone synthesis.
- The thyronamines function via some unknown mechanism to inhibit <u>neuronal</u> activity; this plays an important role in the <u>hibernation</u> cycles of <u>mammals</u> and the <u>moulting</u> behaviour of <u>birds</u>. One effect of administering the thyronamines is a severe drop in <u>body temperature</u>.

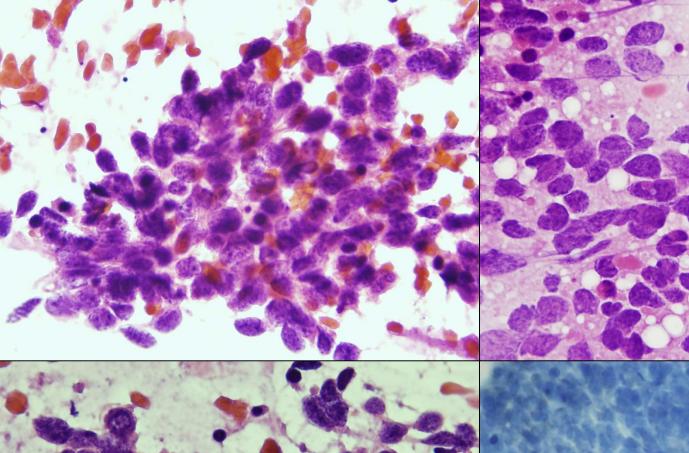
- Summary of the effects of hormones on skeletal metabolism
- Increase Bone resorption
- Parathyroid hormone
 Glucocorticoids
 Thyroid Hormone
 Vitamin D metabolites in high doses Decrease Bone Resorption
- Calcitonin Gonadal steroids Increase Bone Formation
- Growth hormone
 Vitamin D metabolites
 Gonadal steroids Decrease Bone Formation
- Glucocorticoids

R









NSE Chromogranin Synaptophysin

