

TOPIC	QUESTION	ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE	NOTES
Question 1: Reperfusion Injury	(a) What is reperfusion injury?	Further cell death in ischaemic tissues following restoration of blood flow	(a) Highlighted
	(b) What are the proposed mechanisms of reperfusion injury?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Generation of oxygen free radicals – formed from incomplete reduction of in-coming O₂ by damaged mitochondria in affected tissue and action of oxidases (generated from ischaemic cells and leucocytes) 2. Associated inflammation - cytokines, adhesion molecules generated by hypoxic cells, they recruit neutrophils etc in re-perfused tissue; ensuing inflammation causes additional injury 3. Activation of complement system – IgM Ab deposit in ischaemic tissue; restored blood flow brings complement proteins that bind to Ab and are activated; causing further cell injury and inflammation 4. Mitochondrial permeability transition – via reactive O₂ species – effects mitochondrial function - precludes recovery of ATP / energy supplies for the cell <p>Programmed cell death / "suicide programme"</p>	(b) 2 for pass
Question 2: Apoptosis	a) What is apoptosis?	Remove degraded- un needed cells, Stop excess growth, Tightly controlled Activates degradation enzymes, Intact membrane packaging(es), Phagocytosis encouraged = end point Non inflammatory.	Physiological or pathological initiators/ Caspases/ Intrinsic/ extrinsic paths Mitochondrial v death receptor
	Prompt <i>Describe features and purpose of apoptosis</i>		
Question 3: Emphysema	b) List some important stimuli for apoptosis?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) loss of growth stimulating hormones (e.g. GH, nerve growth, loss of sex hormones) b) excessive DNA damage (via p53 build up) c) unfolded protein build up d) developmental atrophy, (embryogenesis) e) proliferative tissues- homeostasis – non useful cells/ excess to function- loss of contact inhibition f) loss of useful cells after finished purpose (e.g. neutrophils/ lymph post infl) g) cells with harmful characteristics (e.g. autoimmune antigens /AS mutations) h) infections (viral leading to cell death) i) parenchymal damage after duct obstruction 	3 concepts
	1. What is the pathological definition of emphysema?	"Emphysema is a condition of the lung characterised by abnormal permanent enlargement of the airspaces distal to the terminal bronchiole, accompanied by destruction of their walls, & without obvious fibrosis"	Bold to pass Permanent Enlargement + destruction
	2. Describe the pathogenesis of emphysema	<p>Protease – anti-protease theory <i>Alveolar wall destruction results from an imbalance between proteases (mainly elastase) and anti-proteases</i></p> <p>Elastases from Neutrophils, also Macrophages, Mast cells, panethes, bacteria</p> <p>Anti-elastases: α_1AT, secretory leukoprotease inhibitor, serum α_1 macroglobulin</p> <p>α_1AT inhibits neutrophil proteases.</p> <p>PiZZ variant predisposes to emphysema</p> <p>Neutrophils normally sequestered in lung (L > U) and a few gain access to the alveolar space.</p> <p>- Any stimulus that \uparrow number of leukocytes (neutrophils / macrophages) in lung or release of their elastase containing granules \uparrow elastolytic activity. - Stimulated neutrophils also release oxygen free radicals which inhibit α_1-AT activity meaning process of elastic tissue destruction is unchecked</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Smokers have \uparrow neutrophils & macrophages in alveoli, - smoking stimulates neutrophil chemotactic factor (e.g. IL-8), nicotine chemotactic, smoke activates alternative complement pathway • Smoking stimulates release of neutrophil elastase, proteinase 3, Catepsin G • Smoking \uparrow elastase activity in macrophages (not inhibited by α_1-AT) • Reactive oxygen species in cigarette smoke deplete glutathione and superoxide dismutase <p>Note centri-acinar distribution due to impaction of smoke particles in small bronchi / bronchioles with neutrophil influx. Differs to pan-acinar emphysema associated with α_1-AT deficiency and chronic low level proteolysis from neutrophils in transit through the lung circulation.</p>	Know that key is imbalance between proteases (mainly elastase) and anti-proteases
3. What is the role of cigarette smoke?			2 effects

<p>Question 4: Aortic dissection</p>	<p>a) Describe the pathogenesis of an aortic dissection.</p> <p>b) How are aortic dissections classified?</p> <p>c) What are the potential consequences of the disease?</p>	<p>a) Medial weakness (commonly from hypertension), medial hypertrophy vasa vasorum, intimal tear, blood flow dissects the media -> medial haematoma. Cystic medial degeneration Risk factors - HT, CT disease eg Marfan's, Ehlers-Danlos, iatrogenic, pregnancy, By site of involvement, proximal (A) and distal (B), DeBakey I, II, III I - ascending and descending II - ascending only III - descending only (better prognosis)</p> <p>Rupture back into intima or out through adventitia Most common cause of death is rupture into pericardial, pleural or peritoneal cavities Other outcomes include cardiac tamponade, aortic insufficiency, MI, extension into any of the branches of the aorta causing obstruction +/- ischaemia, transverse myelitis</p>	<p>Bold to pass</p> <p>bold</p> <p>At least 3</p>
<p>Question 5: Meningitis</p>	<p>a) Classify meningitis with examples of important causes.</p> <p>b) What are the likely organisms causing acute bacterial meningitis in different age groups?</p> <p>c) What are the typical CSF findings in acute bacterial meningitis?</p>	<p>- Acute pyogenic: bacterial - Aseptic: viral, chemical - Chronic: infection: TB, infiltration: carcinomatous</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • E coli/Group B strep: neonates • Pneumococci: infants/older (all ages beyond neonates really) • Meningococci: All ages beyond neonates esp. young adults • Haemophilus: Children but decreased incidence with immunisation • Listeria, extremes of age • Unusual orgs e.g staph aureus post N/surg. Immuno compromised eg gram negatives. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Raised pressure • Turbid • Raised protein • Lower glucose • *Raised neutrophils • *+ve bacteria on gram stain or culture 	<p>Must have bacterial and viral and at least one other</p> <p>3 of 6</p> <p>* and one other</p>

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Question 1 Metaplasia	<p>a) What is metaplasia and give some examples?</p> <p>(b) How may metaplasia progress? (Prompt: What is the potential undesirable outcome of metaplasia?)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reversible change (Among differentiated cells such as epithelial or mesenchymal) • Where one cell type is replaced by another by reprogramming of precursor stem cells or undifferentiated mesenchymal cells <p>Examples:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respiratory tract: trachea and bronchi in respiratory tract – due to chronic irritation such as smoking; ciliated columnar to stratified squamous • GIT: oesophagus – due to chronic gastric acid reflux; squamous to intestinal-like columnar "Barrett's oesophagus" <p>Cells lose normal protective function</p> <p>Persistence of influence that initiated the metaplasia initiates malignant transformation (e.g. squamous cell lung ca, adenocarcinoma oesophagus)</p> <p>Reverses</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Nutrition- (protein/ Vit C/ zinc/dehydration) 2) Metabolic- partic diabetes/ hypermetabolic/ unwell/ sepsis 3) Hormonal (steroids? effect of other hormone deficiencies/ XS catechols) 4) Circulatory status (e.g shocked/ hypotensive PVD/ venous ob, lymphatic obstruction) 5) age 6) drugs 	<p>a) Highlighted and 1/2 examples</p> <p>(b) Highlighted</p>
Question 2 Wound Healing	<p>a) What systemic factors affect wound healing? (50%)</p> <p>b) What local factors impede wound healing (50%)</p>	<p>Infection</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) Type/ size of wound/not opposed b) Position- eg vasc/mvt/ pressure c) foreign bodies d) Wound vascularity/ local pressure excess e) Movement- excess f) Genetic features g) Excessive granulation "proud wounds" h) Neuropathic wounds i) 	<p>Bold plus At least 3 local factors- some</p>
Question 3: Coagulation Cascade	<p>1. What is the coagulation cascade?</p> <p>2. What mechanisms restrict the activity of the coagulation cascade.</p> <p><i>Prompts: How is fibrin broken down?</i></p>	<p>"The coagulation cascade is essentially a series of conversions of inactive pro-enzymes to activated enzymes, culminating in the formation of thrombin which then converts the soluble plasma protein fibrinogen into the insoluble fibrillar protein fibrin"</p> <p>A. Restriction of factor activation to sites of exposed phospholipids</p> <p>B. Three types of natural anticoagulants</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Antithrombins (e.g. AT3) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Inhibit the activity of thrombin & other serine proteases (IXa, Xa, XIa, XIIa) - AT3 activated by binding to heparin like molecules on endothelium → utility heparin in thrombosis 2. Proteins C & S <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Vit K dependant proteins characterised by ability to inactivate factors Va and VIIIa. 3. Plasmin (fibrinolytic system) Plasminogen to plasmin by factor XII dependant pathway or 2 groups of plasminogen activators (PA) u-PA or t-PA <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Breaks down fibrin & interferes with polymerisation - Resulting fibrin split products (fibrin degradation products) also act as weak anticoagulants <p>Endothelial cells modulate the coagulation / anticoagulation cascade balance by releasing PAI</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - block fibrinolysis by inhibiting t-PA binding to fibrin <p>4. Tissue factor Pathway Inhibitor (TFPI)</p>	<p>Series of reactions Fibrin formed</p> <p>Plasmin + 1 other</p> <p>Description of plasmin action</p>

<p>Question 4: Portal Hypertension</p>	<p>1. Classify portal hypertension giving examples for each. Prompt for most important hepatic cause.</p> <p>2. What are the major clinical consequences of portal hypertension due to cirrhosis?</p> <p>3. What mechanism are involved in the formation of ascites?</p>	<p>Increased resistance to portal blood flow classified as: - Pre hepatic: portal vein thrombosis or narrowing - *Hepatic: cirrhosis, granulomatous disease, massive fatty change, schisto, nodular regenerative hyperplasia - Post hepatic, R heart failure, constrictive pericarditis, hepatic vein occlusion</p> <p>- Ascites: with potential for infection - Porto systemic venous shunts: varices > upper GI bleed. Other sites e.g caput, h'roids, retroperit. - Splenomegaly: thrombocytopenia - Hepatic encephalopathy > coma</p> <p>- Starlings forces: increased pressure, decreased albumin - Increased formation of hepatic lymph overwhelms thoracic duct drainage > percolation into peritoneum - Intestinal fluid leak: ^pressure in intestinal capillaries and osmotic effect of protein rich ascitic fluid - Renal retention of Na and H2O due to 2ndary ^aldosterone.</p>	<p>3 groups including hepatic. Cirrhosis and one other cause</p> <p>At least 3 consequences</p> <p>Starlings forces and one other</p>
<p>Question 5: Influenza</p>	<p>i) Describe the structure and classification of influenza viruses</p> <p>ii) What is the difference between antigenic drift and shift?</p> <p>iii) How does the human body clear a primary influenza virus infection?</p>	<p>ssRNA, bound by nucleoprotein that determines type (A, B or C) and a lipid bilayer that contains both haemagglutinin and neuraminidase (determining subtype eg H1N1)</p> <p>Only in influenza type A Drift – mutation of the haemagglutinin and neuraminidase antigens allowing escape from most host antibodies (epidemic) Shift – antigens replaced via recombination of RNA segments with those of animal viruses (pandemic) Types B and C do not show drift or shift, mostly infect children, who develop antibodies preventing re-infection</p> <p>2 mechanisms – cytotoxic T cells and macrophages cytotoxic T cells kill virus infected cells, an intracellular antiinfluenza protein (Mx1) is induced in macrophages by cytokines IFN-a and IFN-b. Future infection is prevented (haemagglutinin, Ab) and ameliorated (neuraminidase Ab)</p>	<p>Need RNA and major types</p> <p>Bold</p> <p>Bold to pass</p>

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Question 1: Hypertrophy	(a) What is hypertrophy? (b) Give examples of physiological and pathological hypertrophy	<p>Increase in the size of cells – due to the synthesis of more structural components – resulting in an increase in the size of the organ; caused by increased functional demand or by hormonal stimulation. – pathological or physiological.</p> <p>Physiological – Skeletal muscle (gym etc – workload); Uterus in pregnancy (hormonal) Pathological – Myocardium (due to hypertension, aortic stenosis – workload), BPH</p>	<p>a) Highlighted</p> <p>b) One example of each</p>
Question 2: Oedema	<p>a) What factors govern the movement of fluid between the vascular and interstitial spaces? (30%)</p> <p>b) What are the major mechanisms of oedema formation (with examples)? 70%</p>	<p>Hydrostatic Pressure – Osmotic Pressure- protein/ Na Normal capillary walls- most protein retained Small fluid out art end Most back venous end Small amount back via lymphatics</p> <p>> Increased Hydrostatic Pressure (local- DVT/ systemic- CCF)/venous obstruction < Oncotic P (mainly prot loss e.g. Nephrotic syndrome or poor production eg cirrhosis/ malnutrition or loss via gut) Capillary leak- (inflammatory injury/ systemic / infection) Obstructive lymphatics- e.g. lymphodema/ tumour/ op etc Na retention with H₂O (renal insuff/ renin angio)- mainly dilutional</p>	<p>3 concepts mentioned A > c > V May know some Pressures, may mention gravity/ leg v head. Capillaries are fluid leak vessels. Normal tissue flow important. Thoracic duct return of lymphatics</p> <p>3 key features + a couple of examples</p>
Question 3: Type 2 Hypersensitivity – Antibody mediated	<p>1. What is type 2 hypersensitivity?</p> <p>2. Describe the different types of type 2 hypersensitivity reactions and give examples of each.</p>	<p>“Type 2 hypersensitivity is mediated by antibodies directed toward antigens present on the surface of cells or other tissue components”</p> <p>Three types (A) Opsonisation, Complement & Fc Receptor Mediated Phagocytosis • Ig G, M activate complement, C3b & C4b recognised by phagocytes • activates complement system & membrane attack complex causing lysis of cells • Ig G recognised by phagocytes • Ab dependent cellular cytotoxicity (ADCC) Mono, Macro, Neut, Eosin, NK - transfusion reactions - erythroblastosis foetalis - auto immune haemolytic anaemia; agranulocytosis; thrombocytopenia - certain drug reactions (B) Complement and Fc receptor Mediated Inflammation C5A (-C4A & C3A) stimulate Neutrophil and Monocyte attack via Fc receptors releasing enzymes and Oxygen free radicals e.g. glomerulonephritis Vascular Organ graft rejection Goodpastures (C) Antibody Mediated Cellular Dysfunction Antireceptor antibodies disturb the normal function of receptors without causing cell injury. e.g. myasthenia gravis (ACh receptor antibodies) Graves Disease - pemphigus vulgaris</p>	<p>Antibody mediated One of cell surface & extracellular matrix</p> <p>2 of 3 types with one example Able to describe complement dependant reaction plus one other with examples</p>

<p>Question 4: Hepatitis D</p>	<p>i) Describe how the Hepatitis D virus infects the human body</p>	<p>RNA virus Must always be in conjunction with Hep B 1) acute infection – indistinguishable from classical acute Hep B.) Exposure to serum containing both Hep B and D. HBV must establish first to provide HBsAg necessary for development of complete HDV viridions 2) superinfection, -chronic HBV carrier exposed to new inoculum of HDV. Disease develops 30-40 days later 3) helper-independent latent infection- in liver transplantation patients</p>	<p>Bold to pass</p>	
<p>ii) Prompt: Superinfection is one of the ways that Hepatitis D can infect the human host. How does superinfection with HDV manifest?</p>	<p>1) severe acute hepatitis in previously unrecognised HBV carrier 2) exacerbation of preexisting mild chronic hepatitis B 3) 80-90% chronic progressive disease and cirrhosis</p>	<p>Need one</p>	<p>At least one</p>	
<p>iii) How is Hepatitis D infection diagnosed?</p>	<p>IgM anti-HDV – most reliable marker of recent HDV exposure but late and short lived HBV an HDV coinfection – best with IgM against both HDAg and HBcAg 2 phases – acute phase – active HDV replication, suppression of HBV, high ALT levels chronic phase – HDV replication decreases, HBV replication increases, ALT levels fluctuate, progression to cirrhosis and hepatocellular cancer HDV RNA detectable in blood and liver just prior and in early days of acute symptomatic disease In chronic delta hepatitis, HBsAg is present and IgM and IgG anti-HDV antibodies persist for months - Intravascular/extravascular Or - extrinsic/intrinsic to the RBC. Or - hereditary/acquired</p>	<p>One classification,</p>	<p>premature RBC destruction and one other feature</p>	
<p>Question 5: Haemolytic anaemia</p>	<p>1. Classify haemolytic anaemias</p> <p>2. Describe the common features of haemolytic anaemias.</p> <p>3. Give some important causes of intravascular haemolysis. Prompt for examples</p> <p>If required</p> <p>4. Apart from anaemia what are the results/manifestations of intravascular haemolysis?</p>	<p>Features: - *Decreased RBC life span(< 120/7) due to premature destruction - ^ erythropoietin and erythropoiesis - Accumulation of products of Hb catabolism - reticulocytosis Intravascular - Mechanical injury: cardiac valves, microangiopathic, repetitive physical trauma - Complement fixation: ABO incompatible blood transfusion - Intracellular parasites: malaria - Exogenous toxins: clostridia - *Haemoglobinuria - Haemoglobinuria - *Unconjugated hyperbilirubinaemia(jaundice) from catabolism of haem groups in mononuclear phagocyte system - Haemosiderinuria and renal haemosiderosis - Decreased serum haptoglobin due binding with free Hb and then cleared by monophag system. - Free Hb oxidized to metHb - Reticulocytosis</p>	<p>2 of 4</p>	<p>* Hbaemia and hyperbilirubinaemia to pass and one other OR 3 of 7</p>