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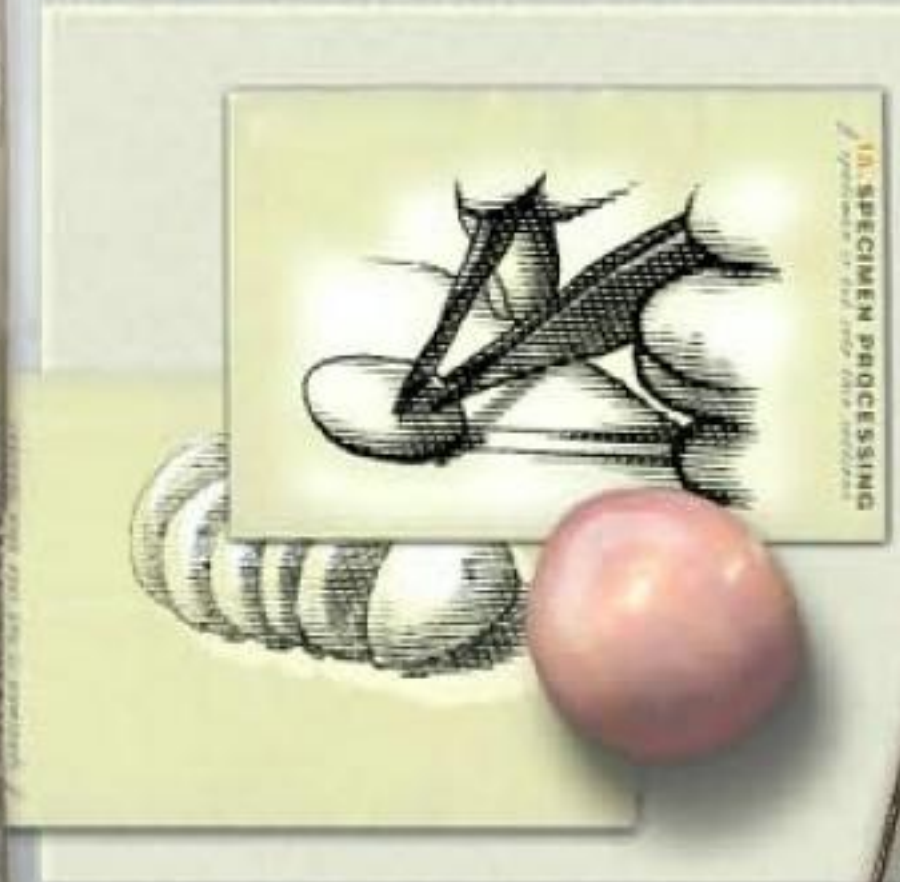
Susan C. Lester

Manual of SURGICAL PATHOLOGY



THIRD EDITION

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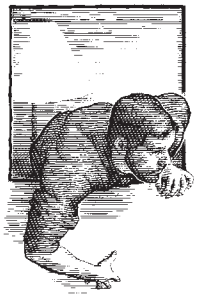

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Manual of Surgical Pathology

Third Edition

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Foreword

When I was a pathology resident at Brigham and Women's Hospital in Boston in the late 1980s, instruction in the handling and processing of surgical pathology specimens was passed on largely by oral tradition. Our surgical pathology manual contained few diagrams, and its written dissection instructions were often terse and cryptic. When faced with new or unusual surgical specimens, I and other residents would search various pathology and anatomy texts for pictures or diagrams that would enable us to locate critical anatomic landmarks needed for basic orientation (photocopies of the best of these earned positions of honor, taped to the cabinets above the dissection bench). Actual instruction in how to dissect and sample new specimens, however, almost invariably came verbally from more senior residents, fellows, or attending pathologists. As might have been expected, these instructions varied widely in overall approach and meticulousness, and years of "fine tuning" were required before I (and, I suspect, many pathologists) developed an effective and systematic approach to many gross specimen types.

Each year, the incoming surgical pathology fellows at the Brigham were asked to review the surgical pathology manual and offer suggestions for improvement. When my turn came, a quick read-through made clear to me the immense magnitude of the effort that would be required to fix our manual's many problems. I therefore chose to follow the longstanding tradition established by generations of fellows before me: I suggested a few cosmetic changes to a few sections before dumping the problem of our inadequate manual onto the next year's fellows.

The following year, one of the new surgical pathology fellows, Dr. Susan Lester, apparently motivated by the selfless desire to finally bring order to the chaos that was our surgical pathology manual (possibly co-mingled with the naïve belief that process might not be that difficult), began the Herculean task of completely revising the entire volume. She succeeded in gathering perfect diagrams and pictures for each specimen type from various sources, and wrote explicit instructions for handling and dissecting each organ, with explanatory notes that made clear the reason for each step in the process. While she no doubt spent more time on this revision alone than we other fellows spent on all our fellowship duties combined, in the end she produced a spectacularly beautiful, surprisingly elegant, and eminently practical surgical pathology manual that served as the basis for first edition of this book.

Even in its first edition, however, this Manual was much more than a simple dissection guide, including as it did detailed instructions for handling intraoperative consultations, helpful insights into composing surgical pathology reports, and comprehensive analyses of the utility of immunophenotyping and other ancillary studies that provide increasingly important contributions to pathologic diagnosis, which are further expanded in this new edition. Dr. Lester's thorough compilation of common immunohistochemical markers, to cite just one example, with detailed notes on their diagnostic utility, sensitivity, and specificity, perfectly demonstrates her ability to provide an elegant distillation and compilation of large amounts of extremely practical information – critically important to the practice of surgical pathology – that was previously impossible to find gathered in one place for quick reference.

Learning diagnostic pathology is a long-term endeavor, which takes years to master. But with publication of the first edition of *Manual of Surgical Pathology*, Dr. Lester proved that learning how to handle gross pathology specimens and write surgical pathology reports need not be. Provided with such clear and explicit descriptions of the goals of pathology specimen processing and step-by-step instructions on how to reach them, even beginning residents could now quickly master the process of identifying the pertinent gross lesions in surgical specimens, and insuring they are accurately represented in tissue sections submitted for microscopic examination, thereby freeing pathologists-in-training to focus on learning the many subtleties and nuances of histopathologic interpretation. For many years at UCSF, we have provided a copy of Dr. Lester's *Manual* to each new resident, who have found it an extremely valuable resource and introduction to the field. I like to tell our residents that it was clearly my influence on Dr. Lester as a more senior resident and fellow during her surgical pathology rotations that made her so good at gross pathology (figuring she is too far away for them to attempt to verify that independently).

In the years since its first publication, Dr. Lester's *Manual of Surgical Pathology* has been imitated but never equaled. It provides an invaluable resource to both beginning residents and practicing pathologists alike, and deserves its own position of honor on the bookshelf and in the dissection room of everyone involved in the practice of surgical pathology.

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Preface to the First Edition

I was first asked to edit the procedure manual for the Brigham and Women's Hospital Pathology Department in 1991. Over the years, the manual has been a collaborative effort, involving staff pathologists, residents, clinicians, pathology assistants, secretaries, and histotechnologists. This is the manual's greatest strength. It reflects the combined knowledge, experience, and opinions of a multitude of people who produce and use pathologic information. It has been refined by almost a decade of use by staff, residents, and pathology assistants on the front lines of pathology.

This manual has grown over the years from instructors for the gross examination of specimens to a comprehensive guide for the making of a pathologic diagnosis – from the submission of pathology specimens to the preparation of the final surgical pathology report. Tables describing histochemical stains, immunoperoxidase studies, and electron microscopy findings can facilitate the interpretation of special studies. Checklists for diagnostic and prognostic information to be included for major tumor resections are provided, as well as information for standard tumor classification and staging. It is hoped that simplifying the access to this information, currently only available from numerous diverse sources, will enhance the provision of important pathologic information in pathology reports. Complementary recommendations have been published by the Association of Directors of Anatomic and Surgical Pathology, the College of American Pathologists, and individual institutions, and information from theses sources has been incorporated when appropriate.

The Manual of Surgical Pathology is not intended to be, and should not be misconstrued to be, a "standard of care." The "correct" method to process or report a specimen can vary, depending on the specifics of a case, institutional policies, and the personal preferences of clinicians and pathologists, and will change over time. In addition, since unlimited budgets for specimen processing is an unobtainable goal, the cost of examining a specimen must be balanced against the clinical significance of the information obtained.

From the surgical cutting room to the senior sign-out area, we keep this manual close at hand as a helpful reference. It is our sincere hope that others will find it equally as useful in their practice.

Susan C. Lester

Preface to the Second Edition

A major advantage of pathology as a medical specialty is that the *biology* of disease remains constant for the most part, resulting in a large body of knowledge that will never change. On the other hand, our *understanding* of disease is expanding rapidly. Pathologists are being asked to use new information to re-classify disease, provide better prognostic information, and to predict response to therapy. The growing amount of relevant data and the expanding role of pathologists has created the need for an updated version of this manual. In particular, every table in the manual has been revised and updated and many new tables added.

New antibodies with value for clinical diagnosis are introduced almost monthly. Since the last edition, the number of antibodies used for diagnostic purposes has almost doubled and is now approaching 200. To facilitate the use of these markers, all of the immunohistochemistry tables have been updated, with many new tables for differential diagnosis added.

Pathologists are also playing a larger role in determining tumor response to therapy. HER2/neu and breast cancer, CD117 (c-kit) and GIST, along with EGFR and colon carcinoma, herald a new era of targeted therapy. Information is provided about when these tests are appropriate, and the reporting of results.

Cytogenetic studies are increasingly important in tumor classification and prognosis. The recent discovery of a group of lung adenocarcinomas that are particularly susceptible to treatment due to specific mutations in EFGR is only one example. Expanded tables that list cytogenetic changes in solid tumors and hematological malignancies provide many more examples of how this information is being used for diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment. Pathologists can also play an important role in suggesting which patients may carry germline mutations that cause susceptibility to cancer. New tables provide the tumors and clinical settings in which a germline mutation is highly probable, and syndromes associated with pathologic findings.

The gross examination of specimens and histologic features of carcinomas continue to be the most important factors for predicting a patient's course. This information has been critically evaluated and the College of American Pathologists has issued new guidelines for the reporting of tumors. Information now considered to be required has been highlighted in the "Pathologic Prognostic and Diagnostic Features Sign-out Checklists." In addition, specific criteria have been provided for the grading or assessment of other relevant pathologic features.

Concern about disease as a weapon of mass destruction is, unfortunately, also a new development since publication of the first edition. Pathologists may have the opportunity to be the first to recognize an agent of bioterrorism, but these are not typically encountered in ordinary practice and may present a diagnostic challenge. A new table gives information on the most likely agents, their pathologic features, and contact information for the CDC if such an agent is suspected.

The illustrations by Dr. Christopher French and Mr. Glenn Curtis are another very important addition to the second edition. Although some of the figures from the first edition have been maintained, all new illustrations are theirs. As an experienced pathologist and an accomplished artist, Dr. French has been able to capture the essential morphological differences among tumors that allow for gross diagnosis. Excellent examples include his illustrations of adrenal, kidney, liver, and pancreatic tumors.

Finally, the manual has been refined through another four years of exacting criticism by the residents of BWH. Their constant vigilance keeps me on my toes and the manual on the path to perfection.

Susan C. Lester

Preface to the Third Edition

Every month there are new advances in our knowledge of pathologic processes and the ability to use this information for patient care. This edition of the Manual of Surgical Pathology has been updated to include changes relevant for surgical pathology.

The revisions for the 7th edition of the American Joint Commission on Cancer staging manual will take effect in 2010. The pathologic features of carcinomas and their regional lymph node involvement continue to be strong indicators of prognosis and the means by which patients can be consistently divided into selected groups for comparison in treatment trials. New types of tests, such as gene expression profiling, use methodologies that analyze the biologic make-up of cancer cells. The results of these studies reveal the potential ability of a cancer to metastasize, whereas anatomic features establish the extent to which the cancer has actually spread. The capacity to metastasize, combined with the time and opportunity to do so, determine the ultimate outcome. Both types of information will be important for patient care and for the understanding of disease. This third edition updates the recommendations for AJCC classification and includes additional guidelines for the assessment of critical pathologic features.

The number of antibodies commonly used in surgical pathology continues to increase. The lengthy table of antibodies is now even lengthier. To assist in their use, new tables for central nervous system tumors, lung carcinomas, fibroblastic/myofibroblastic lesions of the breast, signet ring cell carcinomas, metastatic carcinomas to the abdomen, as well as others, have been added. Additional information is also included for the evaluation of microsatellite instability in colon carcinomas using immunohistochemistry and other types of tests.

The role of viruses in certain types of tumors is becoming more important for tumor classification as well as for targeted treatment or prevention with vaccines. A new table of virus types, associated neoplasms, and histologic features has been created.

For aficionados of medical terminology, there is a new brief guide to the plural forms of Latin and Greek words. The bottom line – Greek and Latin grammer is not for neophytes (and that is neophytes – not neophytae or neophytodes!).

The illustrations of Dr. Christopher French and Mr. Shogun G. Curtis convey what words cannot. Added in this edition are illustrations of viral inclusions, common fungi, and non-cellular material to aid in their recognition.

The manual has undergone yet another three years of evaluation, review, and criticism by the residents, fellows, and staff of our department. The users of the manual have always been the key element in making this a working text of value to the person at the bench or at the microscope and I am, as always, grateful to all who have contributed to it.

Acknowledgments

The requirement for a comprehensive detailed procedure manual grew out of the needs of a large pathology department handling numerous specimens using state-of-the-art techniques. The Brigham and Women's Hospital Pathology Department will always be indebted to Dr. Ramzi Cotran as the department flourished under his outstanding leadership and I am truly fortunate to have been both his trainee and, later, a member of his staff. Our current chairman, Dr. Michael Gimbrone, has continued his legacy of excellence in pathology service, teaching, and research.

I also must thank Dr. Stan Robbins whose glimpses of gentle humor in *The Pathologic Basis of Disease* were treasures for a medical student to find while studying late at night. He proved that a serious textbook need not be devoid of humanity.

The original Brigham and Women's departmental manual was edited by Dr. Joseph Corson and Dr. Geraldine Pinkus for many years. Dr. Corson continued to co-edit the current manual during his tenure as the Director of Surgical Pathology. His meticulous attention to detail, as well as his enthusiastic love for pathology, are just two of the many important things he taught me. As Dr. Corson's successor, Dr. Christopher Fletcher has continued to set the highest standards for the department.

The consulting authors have provided their expertise in all facets of pathology and I am grateful for their willingness to lend their names and talents to the preparation of the published manual. All credit should be given to them. Any deficiencies or errors are mine alone.

Many other individuals have contributed over the years and their help is also gratefully acknowledged: Dr. Douglas Anthony, Dr. Kamran Badizadegan, Ms. Lynn Baldassano, Dr. Raymond Barnhill, Dr. Michael Bennett, Dr. Frederick Bieber, Dr. Ramon Blanco, Ms. Holly Bodman, Dr. Marcus Bosenberg, Mr. David Bowman, Mr. Lynroy Brade, Dr. Thomas Brenn, Dr. Felix Brown, Dr. Patty Brunker, Dr. Elizabeth Bundock, Dr. Joseph Carlson, Dr. Diego Castrillon, Dr. Young Chang, Dr. Priscilla Chang, Ms. Ghizlane Charki, Dr. Eleanor Chen, Dr. Gerald Chu, Ms. Margaret Cialdea, Dr. James Connolly, Dr. Christopher Corless, Dr. Milton Data, Dr. Johanna Gibson, Dr. Umberto De Girolami, Dr. Briana Gleason, Ms. Marilyn Donovan, Mr. Thomas Dunphy, Mr. Dan Faasse, Mr. John Fahey, Dr. Carol Farver, Ms. Delia Finne, Dr. Mark Fleming, Dr. Ann Folkins, Dr. Tim Foo, Dr. Matthew Frosch, Dr. Eleanora Galvanek, Dr. David Genest, Ms. Kristi Gill, Dr. Jonathon Glickman, Dr. Meryl Goldstein, Dr. James Gulizia, Dr. Julie Gulizia, Dr. Susan Hasegawa, Dr. Robert Hasserjian, Dr. Jonathan Hecht, Dr. Jay Hess, Dr. Travis Hollman, Dr. David Kindelberger, Mr. Mark Knowlton, Dr. Madeleine Kraus, Dr. Todd Kroll, Dr. Frank Lee, Dr. Kenneth Lee, Dr. Kevin Long, Ms. Danielle Long, Dr. Michelle Mantel, Dr. James McGuire, Dr. Phillip McKee, Dr. Mairin McMenamin, Ms. Lori Marini, Mr. Steve Mello, Ms. Kathleen Mitchell, Dr. George Mutter, Dr. Alessandra Nascimento, Dr. Kirstine Oh, Dr. Mana Parast, Ms. Lori Patruno, Mr. James Pepoon, Dr. German Pihan, Mrs. Cathleen Quade, Ms. Catherine Quigley, Dr. Andrew Rosenberg, Dr. Mark S. Redston, Dr. Andrew Renshaw, Ms. Chris Ridolphi, Dr. Brian Rubin, Dr. Mark A. Rubin, Dr. Rachel Rucker-Schmidt, Dr. Peter Sadow, Mr. Richard Sartorelli, Dr. Birgitta Schmidt, Dr. Jason Schmidt, Dr. Stuart Schnitt, Dr. Joseph Semple, Mr. Aliakbar Shahsafaer, Ms. Kathleen Sirois, Dr. Jeffrey Sklar, Ms. Alyson Smeedy, Dr. Lincoln Stein, Dr. Howard Stern, Dr. James Stone, Dr. Jerrold Turner, Dr. Vijay Vanguri, Dr. Franz von Lichtenberg, Dr. Peter Wang, Dr. David Weinberg, Dr. Michael Weinstein, Dr. William Welch, Dr. Frances White, Dr. Greg Wolgamot, and Mr. Keith Yarid.

This list would not be complete without including Dr. Patrick Treseler. As a fellow trainee he was a role model and a mentor. Pat is an excellent teacher and he proved during his residency and fellowship that pathology lectures can be both enlightening and entertaining. If the manual is entertaining at all, it is due to his influence. It is a true pleasure to have Pat as a friend and a colleague.

Our publisher, Elsevier (under the imprint of Saunders) must be acknowledged, especially William Schmidt and Andrea Vosburgh (for this edition) and William Schmidt, Ruth Swan, and Nora Naughton (for the previous editions) whose immense patience and support made this project possible.

My parents, Dr. Richard Lester and Mrs. Mary Lester, introduced me to laboratories, microscopes, and the treat of drinking soda out of lab beakers - which is now, unfortunately, in violation of current regulations – however, I survived along with an appreciation for science and writing, for which I will always be grateful to them.

Finally, without support at home such a project would never be possible. Tanya Badder, Heather McCartney, Fritzi Rother, Sarah Schneemann, or Steffi Bauer were always there when I couldn't be home. My husband, Dr. Lloyd Klickstein, has been a steadfast supporter, helpmate, computer crisis consultant, and best friend. My three children, Isaac, Jacob, and Naomi have, hopefully, enjoyed their trips to the pathology department, peering down microscopes, and drinking sodas (but not out of beakers) as much as I have enjoyed showing them what I do. The last person in my family to write a book was their great great great grandfather John Regan, who traveled to America from Scotland and published "Backwoods and Prairies" in 1850 to encourage other people to emigrate to the United States. I hope my children have inherited his spirit of adventure and love of writing, and that it won't take our family another 151 years to produce another book.

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1 Requests for Pathologic Evaluation

The pathologist has an essential role in patient care as diagnostician, patient advocate, and clinical teacher. The surgical pathologist examines tissues and foreign objects removed from patients to identify disease processes, document surgical procedures, and release tissue for research. Specimens submitted for examination include:

- Fluids, cells, and tissues. Hair, fingernails, and toenails removed for cosmetic reasons are not included, unless there are specific indications for examination.
- Products of conception.
- Medical devices that have been implanted in the body. Temporary devices (such as IV catheters, endotracheal tubes, etc.) usually are not examined.
- Foreign objects removed from the body, including objects introduced by trauma, such as bullets.

A decision not to submit specific types of specimens for pathologic examination should be made jointly by the department of pathology, other involved departments, and the institution's legal department to ensure that the best interests of the patient, physicians, and hospital are being served. Such decisions need to be documented as written hospital policy according to The Joint Commission (TJC) guidelines. Guidelines for determining the types of specimens that must be submitted for pathologic examination are discussed in Chapter 21.

SUBMITTING PATHOLOGY SPECIMENS

It is the responsibility of all hospital personnel involved to ensure that each patient's specimen is appropriately and safely handled and processed for the maximum benefit to the patient and the physicians caring for him or her.[1] TJC standards require that a request for pathologic examination be made in writing or electronically and that the request be kept on file for two years. When a pathologic examination is requested, the following information must be provided:

- Patient identification
- Identification of the individual(s) requesting the examination
- Procedure date. The time tissue specimens are removed from the patient is helpful to determine the length of time prior to fixation and/or the time in fixation, when relevant.
- Adequate clinical history
- Specimen identification, including tests requested and any special handling required
- Instructions for the disposition of gross specimens, if not routine disposal (e.g., specimens to be returned to the patient, products of conception requested for burial, medical devices to be returned to the manufacturer).

Patient Identification

Misidentification of specimens can lead to serious errors in diagnosis or a failure to diagnose.[2] The identification of specimens must include, as a minimum, the patient's full name and date of birth. Preferably, a hospital or clinic identification number is also provided. This information must be attached firmly to the specimen container. Unattached paperwork is easily displaced from an unlabeled container and is not acceptable for definitive identification.

Inappropriately identified specimens must be brought to the attention of the submitting clinician immediately. If there is any uncertainty in determining the correct patient, the clinician should come to the pathology department to identify the specimen. If the nature of the specimen is such that gross identification is not possible (e.g., a small biopsy), and identification is uncertain, a repeat specimen should be obtained if possible. There are tissue typing methods that can match tissues from patients and specimens, but such techniques are time-consuming and costly and are best avoided by ensuring appropriate identification at the time of performing the biopsy (see in Chapter 3, "Identification of Tissue").

Identification of the Individual(s) Requesting the Examination

The names of all clinicians caring for the patient should be provided in order for them to receive a copy of the final report. This includes not only the physician sending the specimen (e.g., a surgeon or gastroenterologist) but also

the primary care physician and other involved specialists (e.g., an oncologist caring for a cancer patient). If a rush reading is requested, the name or names of physicians to be contacted as well as a means to reach them (e.g., a beeper number or telephone number) must be provided.

Procedure Date

The date of the procedure (day, month, and year) must be documented in order to:

- Correlate the biopsy findings with other clinical tests (e.g., radiologic examinations or serum chemistries).
- Determine whether there is a delay during transport to the pathology department.
- Monitor turnaround time for pathology specimens.
- Fulfill requirements of Medicare/Medicaid and other third party payers for billing purposes.

The time the specimen was removed from the patient can be helpful to determine the length of time prior to fixation (which, if prolonged, can affect the results of some special studies). If the specimen is placed in a fixative for which the time of fixation is important (e.g., bone marrow biopsies in Zenker's fixative, formalin fixation for breast carcinoma specimens) the time of placing the specimen into fixative should also be recorded.

Adequate Clinical History

As for any medical consultation, the consultant can provide the most helpful additional information when an adequate history is provided. Clinical history helps define the need for, and the nature of, special studies that can be performed. It has been shown that pathologists cannot accurately predict clinical information from the glass slides alone.[3] Important elements of clinical history are listed at the beginning of each chapter for each type of specimen.

The Joint Commission requires that "surgical specimens are accompanied by pertinent clinical information and preoperative and postoperative diagnoses to the degree known" (Standard QC.2.30) and that "additional information required to select appropriate tests and to ensure accurate test interpretation and reporting of results (for example, race/ethnicity, family history, pedigree)" be provided (Standard IM.6.190) (Comprehensive Accreditation Manual for Laboratory and Point-of-Care Testing, 2009). Pertinent clinical history includes:

Purpose of removal of the specimen and the type of specimen

- Diagnostic biopsy
- Resection of tumor or re-excision of tumor site
- Surgery for therapeutic purposes (e.g., a colostomy takedown or joint replacement)

Note: The purpose of the surgery often determines the type of pathologic examination required (e.g., inking of margins or tissue allocation for special studies). Inaccurate or insufficient labeling may lead to a suboptimal pathologic examination. The type of specimen is also important for accurate billing.

Location and types of any lesions present

- Description by anatomic site (e.g., head of pancreas) or region (e.g., upper outer quadrant)
- Identification by placement of a suture or staple
- Identification by radiologic imaging (e.g., radiography for breast calcifications or clips; nuclear imaging for octreotide uptake)
- Number of lesions and distance between lesions

Some lesions that are grossly evident in vivo may become less evident after excision and cessation of blood flow (e.g., vascular lesions, cystic lesions if incised). It may be necessary to mark some cancers with clips prior to neoadjuvant treatment as after treatment some cancers are no longer grossly identifiable.

Prior diagnoses

- History of prior known tumors (including type/site/date of removal/ stage of disease)
- Current or recent pregnancy. Pregnancy-related changes can mimic malignancies.
- Immune system status. It is important to know whether the patient may be immunocompromised:

HIV positive	Assisted ventilation
Organ transplants	Extensive burns
Chronic ambulatory-peritoneal dialysis	Chronic sinusitis
Indwelling catheters or monitoring devices	Diabetes

This information is important to help guide special studies (i.e., characteristic histologic responses to infectious disease organisms may be absent), to interpret histologic findings, and to aid in ensuring the safety of pathology personnel handling specimens with infectious organisms.

Prior or current treatment

- Radiation or chemotherapy. Treatment-related changes can be mistaken for malignancy if this history is not provided. Carcinomas can be difficult to find grossly after treatment, although extensive disease may be present microscopically. Identification of the tumor bed is important in order to assess response to treatment.
- Drug use that can alter the histologic appearance of tissues (especially important for the evaluation of liver and endometrial biopsies)
- Drug use that could make the patient susceptible to unusual infections (corticosteroid therapy, chemotherapy, prophylactic antibacterial or antifungal therapy)

TABLE 1–1. SPECIMENS REQUIRING SPECIAL PROCESSING

TYPE OF SPECIMEN OR REQUESTED STUDY	CONDITION OF SPECIMEN	COMMENTS
Bone marrow biopsy	Zenker's fixative	Provides optimal cytologic detail and decalcifies the bone. If metastatic carcinoma is suspected, soft tissue should be separated and, if possible, fixed in formalin to optimize possible immunoperoxidase studies.
Bullets or other potential medicolegal cases	Direct transfer	A direct chain of custody must be maintained.
Cytogenetics (e.g., some POCs, unusual tumors)	Unfixed, viable	Cytogenetic studies require viable cells. Some genetic studies can be performed on fixed tissue (e.g., FISH).
Flow cytometric analysis	Unfixed	Flow cytometry is optimally performed on fresh tissue either for marker analysis (e.g., lymphomas) or for ploidy and S-phase fraction (e.g., carcinomas). Although flow can be performed on fixed tissue, S-phase determination is less accurate due to fragmentation of nuclei.
Frozen section for rapid diagnosis	Unfixed	Fixed tissues do not adhere well to slides.
Gout	Unfixed	Uric acid crystals dissolve in formalin. Tissue should be fixed in 100% ethanol for anaqueous processing.
Infections	Unfixed	Tissue should be taken for culture. In some cases, special procedures may be required to protect pathology personnel (e.g., TB and Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease) and to decontaminate equipment.
Kidney biopsy	Unfixed	Tissue also should be fixed for immunofluorescence and EM.
Liver: acute fatty liver	Unfixed	Lipids are dissolved during routine processing. Demonstration of microvesicular fat requires frozen section and special stains.
Liver: copper	Special	The specimen must not be touched with metal tools to avoid trace contamination (see under "Liver biopsies").
Lymphomas	Unfixed	Special studies including flow cytometry, DNA analysis, and some marker studies are optimally performed on fresh or frozen tissue.
Muscle biopsy	Unfixed	The specimen should be well oriented and frozen for enzyme studies and fixed for EM.
Skin biopsies for bullous disease or systemic lupus erythematosus	Unfixed or in IF transport media	Tissue should be fixed for immunofluorescence.
Unusual tumors: sarcomas, small round blue cell tumors, mesotheliomas, metastatic tumor of unknown primary	Unfixed	Special studies may be helpful for classification and may require fresh tissue (cytogenetics) or special fixatives (EM).

Specific purpose of consultation

The requisition should state whether special studies are needed clinically, especially those studies requiring special handling of the tissue (e.g., suspected lymphoma possibly requiring marker studies, microbiologic culture of suspected infection, crystal examination in joint tissues).

Rush diagnoses

Specimens from critically ill patients can be given priority over other specimens if this would lead to better clinical management. If a specimen requires a rapid diagnosis, a means to reach the appropriate clinician (e.g., a beeper number) must be included. A rush diagnosis for one case

results in a delay for non-rush cases. Therefore, requests for rush readings should only be made when required for patient care.

Rush cases must be seen by a staff pathologist the same day the slides are available. The requesting clinician must be called and a diagnosis or informative hold note provided.

Critical values

Some diagnoses require immediate notification of the submitting physician (see in Chapter 4, "Guidelines for Communication of Urgent Results"). In some cases, clinical history is necessary to determine whether or not a result would be a "critical value."

For the majority of specimens, an adequate history prior to pathologic examination can be given in one or two sentences. For example:

History of diverticulitis. Colostomy takedown.

History of colon carcinoma with multiple positive nodes one year ago. Now with ulcerated mass at colostomy site, biopsy shown to be carcinoma.

Woman s/p invasive breast cancer (ER and PR positive) resected here in 1989 with 3 lymph nodes positive, s/p radiation and chemotherapy, now with subcutaneous nodule in mastectomy scar. Please do ER, PR, and HER2 if tumor.

52-year-old male s/p bone marrow transplant for large cell lymphoma, now with bilateral pulmonary infiltrates, suspect opportunistic infection. Open lung biopsy for culture and histologic examination. R/o recurrent lymphoma.

Specimens Requiring Special Processing

Specimens requiring special studies or processing must be clearly identified. Most such specimens can be sent moist on saline (Table 1-1).

Timely and Appropriate Transport to the Laboratory

Autolysis immediately begins after the surgical removal of tissues. Although it can be reduced by refrigeration, extended delays before fixation will adversely affect the diagnostic quality of tissues. Immunoreactivity is diminished for some markers (e.g., for receptors in breast cancers).

In some cases, it is appropriate for clinicians to directly place specimens into fixatives at 15 to 20 times the volume of the tissue. The type of fixative must be identified on the container with a warning label identifying the fixative. The time of placing the specimen in the fixative should be included when appropriate (e.g., for fixatives containing mercury such as Zenker's, if rush processing is requested, or if time in fixation affects the results of requested immunohistochemical studies).

All tissues and objects removed from patients may be hazardous and must be transported in a safe fashion. The container must be leakproof. Either plastic rigid containers (preferably with a screw cap lid) or bags (but not if there is liquid with the specimen) may be used. A leak-proof secondary container (usually a zip-lock plastic specimen bag) with a clean outer surface is required.

Clinicians submitting specimens in inappropriate containers, unlabeled containers, or containers with the outside surface grossly contaminated must be contacted and advised of the hazards this poses to patients and hospital personnel.

Instructions for the Disposition of Gross Specimens

If a patient wants to keep a specimen (e.g., a limb or products of conception for burial, a breast implant for legal purposes, or hardware from a joint prosthesis) this request must be stated on the requisition form to avoid routine disposal of specimens after the final report is issued. Patients should be informed that their specimens will be discarded to avoid later misunderstandings. Recommendations for retention times are presented in Table 1-2.

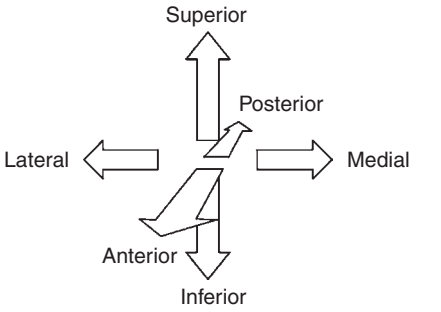
State laws may also regulate retention times. Institutional practices vary and in some cases materials may be kept for longer periods of time. Ideally, paraffin blocks on patients with cancers would be kept for longer periods of time as these blocks may be of value if the cancer recurs or the patient is entered into an experimental protocol.

The disposal of human tissues may be governed by state law (usually requiring incineration and/or interment). However, the wishes of patients should always be respected. A legal opinion may be required if a patient request would interfere with optimal patient care or could endanger him or her. There may be specific legal requirements for informing parents of their rights and for appropriate disposition of products of conception (including stillborn fetuses and fetal deaths).

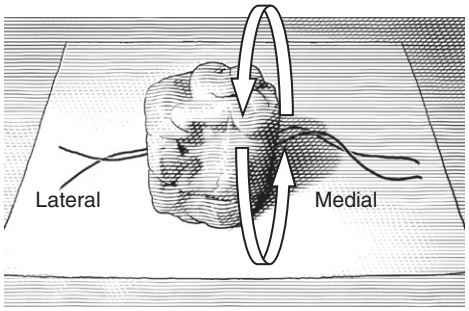
TABLE 1–2. RECOMMENDED RETENTION TIMES FOR PATHOLOGY RECORDS AND MATERIALS

	TJC*	CAP**
Gross specimens	7 days after final report	14 days after final report
Paraffin blocks	At least 2 years	10 years
Slides	10 years	10 years
Cytology slides	5 years	5 years
FNA slides	10 years	10 years
Pathology report	10 years	10 years

*The Joint Commission (TJC) Manual, Appendix E (www.jointcommission.org).
**College of American Pathologists Laboratory Accreditation Program Inspection Checklists (www.cap.org).

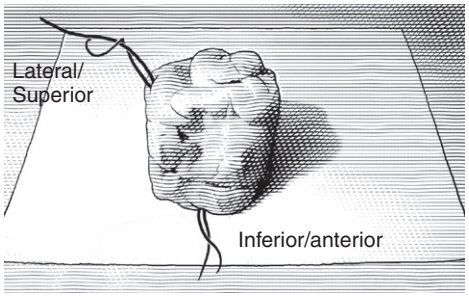


Most specimens can be visualized as a box with six sides



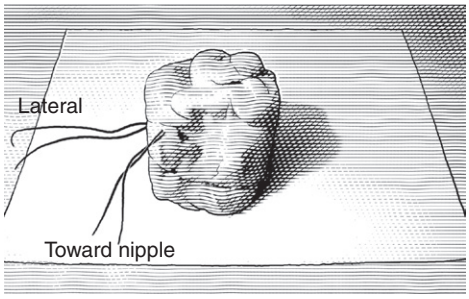
Cannot determine superior/inferior

Two orienting sutures must be at right angles, in the center of the "side" of the box, in order to identify the remaining four margins



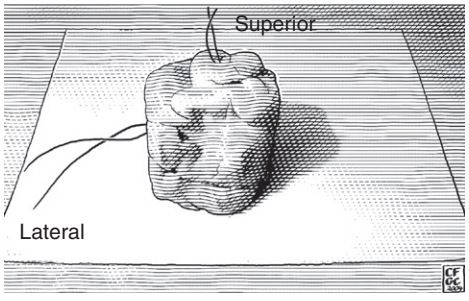
Too complex

If the sutures are at the junction of two margins, it is difficult to identify the boundaries of the other margins



Cannot determine superior/inferior (e.g., is nipple inferior or superior?)

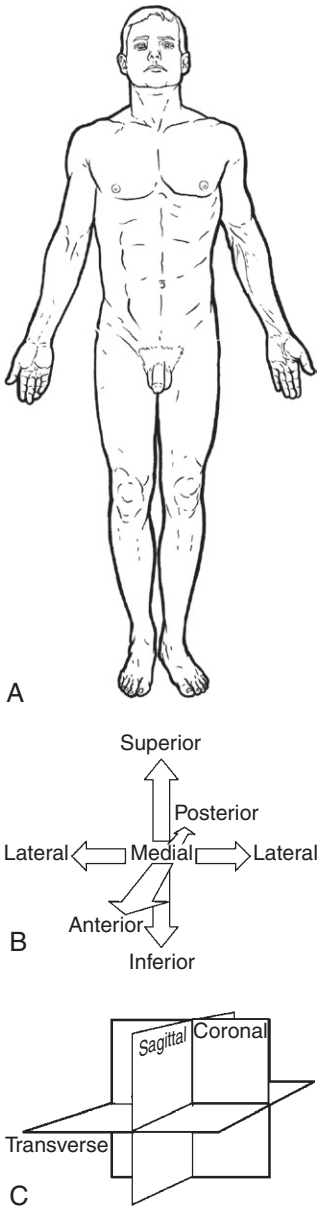
If the sutures are not given standard designations, the other margins cannot be identified with respect to the patient



Preferred
(Short = Superior; Long = Lateral)

A simple method uses two sutures: Short suture = Superior margin; Long suture = Lateral margin.

Figure 1–1. Orientation of specimens.



The (almost) anatomic position

Person erect with head, eyes, and toes directed forward

Arms to the side with palms forward

Legs straight and feet together

Penis erect

All designations refer to the patient in the **anatomic position**. The actual position of the patient at the time of removing the specimen is irrelevant (e.g., supine, prone, sitting). Thus, superior is always cephalad, inferior caudad, etc.

Terms for orientation

Anterior (ventral): towards the front of the body. The volar surface refers to the palm of the hand (also "palmar") or the sole of the foot.

Posterior (dorsal): towards the back of the body. The upper surface of the foot is termed the dorsal surface because this is the position of the foot during embryonic development. The penis is in an erect position (the upper surface of the penis is the dorsal surface) for unknown reasons.

Superior (cephalic, cephalad): towards the head

Inferior (caudal, caudad): towards the feet. The inferior surface of the foot is termed the plantar surface.

Medial: median (midline) plane of the body

Lateral: away from the median plane of the body

Proximal: nearest the trunk or point of origin

Distal: farthest from the trunk or point of origin

Superficial: nearest to the skin surface

Deep: farthest from the skin surface

Transverse section: a horizontal plane at right angles to the longitudinal axis of the body or a body part with division into superior and inferior parts

Coronal section: a vertical plane that divides the body or body structure into anterior and posterior parts

Sagittal section: a vertical plane parallel to the median plane that divides the body or body structure into medial and lateral parts (= parasagittal)

Figure 1–2. The (almost) anatomic position.

ORIENTING PATHOLOGY SPECIMENS

The orientation of some specimens is evident from anatomical landmarks (e.g., a right colectomy). However, many specimens are either difficult or impossible to orient once the specimen has been removed from the patient (Figs. 1-1 and 1-2).

If orientation is important for the evaluation of a specimen (e.g., excisions of malignant tumors), and orientation has not been provided or is unclear, the pathologist should contact the surgeon before processing the specimen. It is always preferable for the surgeon to personally discuss complicated specimens with the pathologist.

For most specimens, external markers must be used to provide information about orientation for the pathologist. The pathologist can then identify the site of the sections taken and relate them to the anatomic location in the patient. Possible techniques include:

- Sutures of variable composition, length, or number to mark anatomical sites (e.g., "deep margin") or areas of greatest concern (e.g., "closest margin"): Two sutures

at right angles are necessary to identify the remaining four margins. Whip stitches can also be used to mark a region of a specimen. Sutures of different colors may be problematic, as the color may be obscured after inking margins. A common, and easily remembered, system is to use a Long suture for the Lateral margin and a Short suture for the Superior margin.

- Subdividing a specimen: Different areas may be submitted as separate specimens (e.g., separating the levels of an axillary dissection for breast carcinoma or compartments of a radical neck dissection).
- Suturing a specimen to a surgical drape: The surrounding cloth can be used to label areas or to draw the anatomic location.
- Drawing a diagram: Anatomic landmarks from the specimen or markers attached to the specimen (e.g., sutures) can be used to correlate the diagram to the specimen.
- Small specimens: Orientation can be provided by placing the base of the biopsy on a plastic mesh (e.g., small bowel biopsies).
- Colored inks: Specific areas of the specimen can be identified by using colored inks (e.g., margin locations).

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2

Specimen Processing: From Gross Specimens to Tissue Cassettes

Surgical pathologists should deal with each specimen as if they were the clinician – or, better yet, the patient – awaiting the surgical pathology report. Questions such as whether to photograph a gross specimen, how many sections to submit of a particular lesion, how carefully to search for lymph nodes in a radical procedure, whether to order recuts or special stains, whether to write or dictate a microscopic description, and so forth all become answerable in terms of the single basic question, "Were I either the clinician or the patient in this case, what information would I need about this specimen, and how can that information best be supplied?"

Steven Silverberg
Principles and Practice of Surgical Pathology and Cytopathology, 1997

The gross evaluation and processing of specimens is the cornerstone upon which all other pathologic diagnoses rest.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF PROCESSING SPECIMENS

Each type of specimen will be described in detail in the specific sections, along with any special procedures that apply. The following discussion highlights principles common to all specimens.

Specimen Identification

Most pathology departments assign each case a unique identification number that includes the year (e.g., S-10-M4382). This number is used to identify all specimen containers, additional materials (e.g., specimen radiographs), and paperwork. Each "case" is usually defined as all specimens derived from the same surgical procedure. For example, five skin biopsies from the same patient, performed on the same day, would be given the same pathology number.

The first step in specimen processing is identification of all components of a specimen. The specimen container label must include the patient's name and date of birth or the patient's assigned hospital or clinic number. The name or number is matched with any accompanying paperwork. The number and types of specimens received are checked against the list given on a requisition form. Additional parts of the specimen generated by the pathology department (e.g., frozen section remnants or tissue taken for special studies) are identified.

Any inconsistencies in labeling or missing specimens must be resolved the same day when memories are fresh and when it may be possible to recover a misplaced specimen or acquire a new specimen. The clinician submitting the specimen is called as soon as a problem is found. If the clinician cannot be reached, the call and the time it was made should be documented. The specimen should be kept intact (but fixed if possible) until any issues are resolved.

Gross Examination and Dissection

Each specimen is approached with clear goals in mind based on the type of specimen and the reason for the surgical procedure. If it is unclear why a procedure was performed, it is always preferable to contact the clinician before proceeding. If it is a photogenic specimen or photography is recommended (e.g., medicolegal cases), consider the best method to illustrate the pathology before inking or dissecting (see Chapter 9).

Identify All Anatomic Structures Present. This might include determining the parts of the bowel present, the lobe of lung, or muscle, bone, and nerve present in an amputation for tumor. Diagrams in the sections on specific specimens illustrate the anatomic components of large resections.

Orientation Markers. Anatomic (e.g., an axillary tail on a mastectomy) or surgically designated (e.g., a suture) orientation marks must be identified. These landmarks should not be obscured or removed during dissection if they are necessary for orientation. If a landmark must be removed, the site can be identified by colored inks, sutures, or nicks in the attached skin.

At times, radiologic studies, operative notes, or additional information from the surgeon can aid in understanding the orientation. If orientation is unclear (e.g., an unoriented simple mastectomy) from gross examination and the information available, the surgeon should be called to request additional information.

Measurements. Dimensions (in metric units) and, for some specimens, weights, should be taken on intact specimens prior to dissection and fixation.

Inking Margins. Small biopsies for non-neoplastic disease (e.g., colon biopsies), incisional biopsies of tumors, or large specimens for non-neoplastic disease (e.g., diverticulitis) are not usually inked. Some departments find that inking small specimens (such as skin or core needle biopsies) is helpful for embedding or sectioning such specimens.

Small simple specimens with known or potential neoplasias are often best inked in their entirety before proceeding (e.g., primary breast biopsies or the margins of skin excisions for pigmented lesions). All margins with areas of gross tumor involvement in large resections are inked. However, for large complicated resections with grossly negative margins, it may be better to delay inking until the closest area of the tumor to margin is identified after sectioning. Globally inking large, complicated specimens may obscure anatomic landmarks and can increase the likelihood of artifactually introducing ink into tissue that is not present at the margin.

Care must be taken to avoid smearing of ink by either blotting specimens dry or allowing the specimen to air dry before sectioning. Tissue blocks must be described adequately to avoid misinterpreting smeared ink as margin involvement.

Dissection. No specimen is adequately examined until it has been completely dissected and serially sectioned. Although there are advantages to keeping specimens relatively intact, this is not an excuse for a limited and inadequate examination. With experience, specimens can be thoroughly sectioned without rendering them unrecognizable.

The initial examination is simplified by opening all hollow structures (e.g., bowel sections for neoplasia; uteri) except in cases in which inflation provides better preservation (e.g., bladders; colon resections for diverticular disease). For cases with tumors, the examination is directed towards determining the site and size of the tumor, location and identity of structures invaded by tumor, vascular invasion, distance from resection margins, and the presence of lymph nodes in the specimen. For other specimens, identification of the suspected disease process (e.g., chronic cholecystitis and cholelithiasis), any incidental findings (e.g., serosal tumor implants on a cholecystectomy specimen), and the identification of abnormal lymph nodes are important.

Identification of Pathologic Processes. All pathologic lesions have characteristic gross appearances. Section Two gives gross differential diagnoses of common lesions. If a lesion reported to be present, or previously diagnosed by biopsy, cannot be found (e.g., a fistula tract or avascular necrosis of the femoral head) or if the lesion is unusual in appearance, it is advisable to consult with the surgeon and/or the attending pathologist before further processing of the specimen. It is important to document the absence of a lesion if the surgical intent was to remove the lesion (e.g., the absence of a biopsy cavity in a breast re-excision specimen or the absence of a large polyp in a bowel resection).

Histologic Sections. Sections are taken that **best** demonstrate the features seen on gross examination, not simply random sections. For example, the best section demonstrating penetration of the bowel wall by a colon carcinoma is the one showing the deepest extent of tumor. To find this area, the entire carcinoma must be carefully sectioned. Similarly, margins must be taken at the sites most likely to show tumor at the margin.

SPECIAL ISSUES IN SPECIMEN PROCESSING

Lymph Nodes

Lymph Nodes Are the Most Important Component of All Tumor Resections! Gross primary tumors tend to distract the prosector, as the tumor is more interesting than lymph nodes (which may be small and difficult to find). However, for a patient's prognosis, and thus for planning therapeutic options, the status of the lymph nodes is almost always more important than documenting a known primary tumor. Lymph nodes free of tumor may indicate a surgical cure, whereas tumor metastatic to lymph nodes signifies a worse prognosis and is often an indication for systemic chemotherapy or hormonal therapy. Fixing fatty tissue in Bouin's fixative or clearing agents facilitates finding small nodes (see Chapter 27) but small nodes can also be found with careful sectioning and palpation.

Enlarged Lymph Nodes Must Be Searched for Diligently in All Resections. Occasionally an occult primary carcinoma or an unsuspected lymphoma is discovered by finding an involved lymph node in a resection for benign disease.

If fewer than expected lymph nodes are found, the possible explanations include the following:

- Pathology factors: The prosector may not have found or sampled all of the lymph nodes in the specimen.
- Patient factors: Elderly patients tend to have fewer lymph nodes. Patients who have had prior surgery that transects lymphatics may have fewer lymph nodes.
- Treatment factors: Radiation and/or chemotherapy can reduce the number of lymph nodes.
- Surgical factors: The specimen may be small in size and/or may not include the appropriate tissue containing lymph nodes.

The pathologist should eliminate the first possibility in such cases. If only a few lymph nodes are found initially, it is usually of value to re-examine the specimen and to submit any additional tissue that may contain nodes for microscopic examination. A careful search should be documented in the report (e.g., "The axillary tail is thinly sectioned and palpated and all firm tissue is submitted for histologic examination."). See in Chapter 27, "Lymph Nodes for Tumor Staging" for additional information on processing and reporting lymph nodes.

Margins

Margins are taken on all resections to document the presence or absence of tumor and/or the viability of the resection margin. Margin sections are taken in the area most likely to show involvement by tumor (i.e., at the closest approach of the tumor).

Orientation of margins for final diagnosis can be achieved by the following methods:

- Documentation of the site in the cassette key (e.g., "Cass 3: Proximal ureteral margin, perpendicular").
- Colored inks used to mark specific designated margins. The orientation should also be given in the cassette key to avoid mistaking artifactual ink for a true margin.

There are two types of margins: en face and perpendicular to the plane of resection. The type of margin must be specified in the dictation, as this will determine whether or not a margin should be considered positive. For some specimens (e.g., skin excisions) a combination of en face and perpendicular margins may be useful.

En face margins (shave, parallel, orange peel)

The margin is taken parallel to the plane of resection. This has been likened to taking off an orange peel (Fig. 2-1, top).

Advantages

- 10 to 100 times more surface area can be examined than when sections are taken in a perpendicular plane.
- An entire anatomic structure can be evaluated (e.g., a bronchus or ureter).

Disadvantages

- The exact distance of the tumor from the margin cannot be measured. Tumor can be reported to be within the width of the section to the margin (usually within 0.2 to 0.3 cm).
- This type of margin must be specified in the dictation as, unlike perpendicular margins, any tumor in the section is considered to be "at the margin" and ink will not be present.

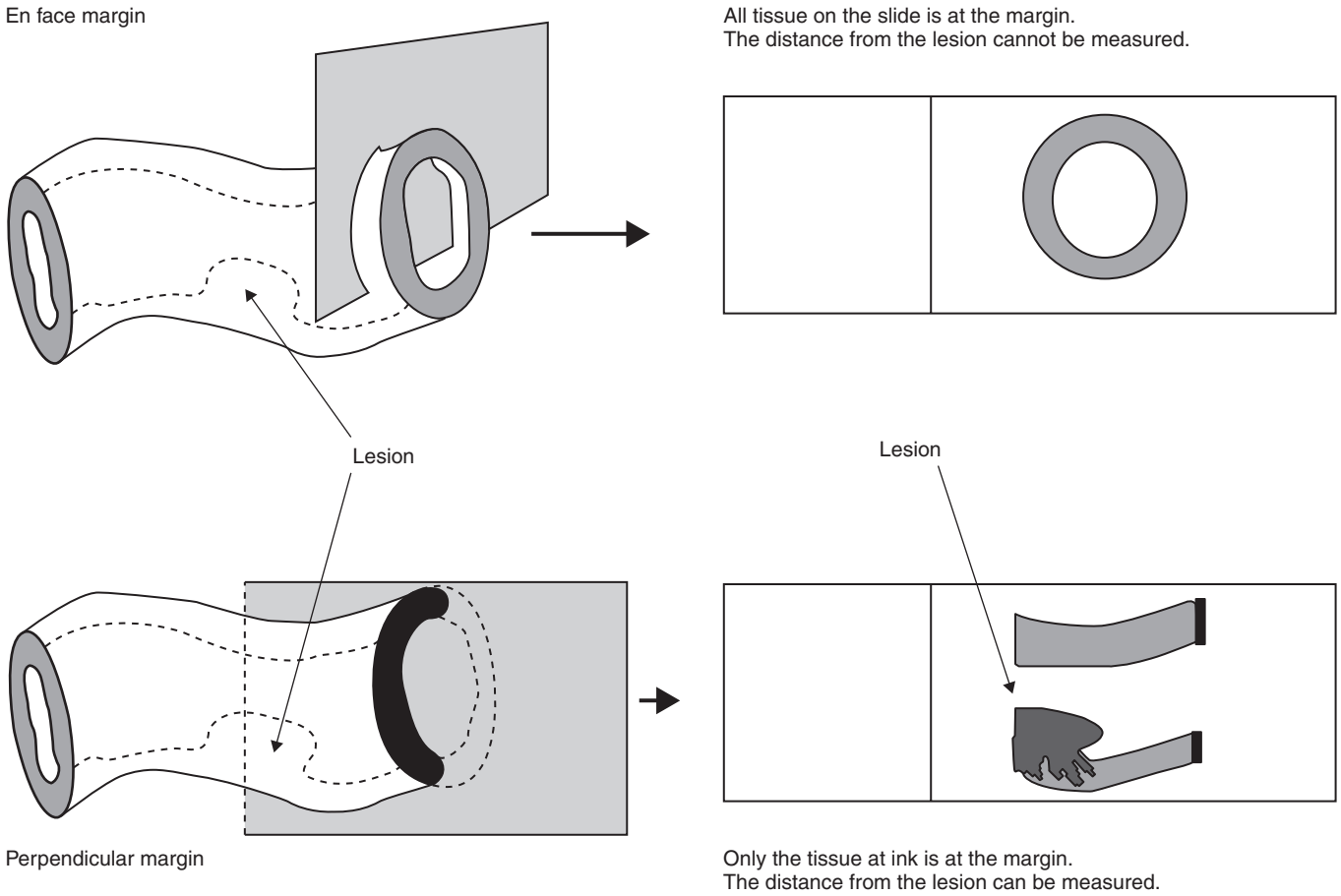

Figure 2–1. En face margin (*above*) and perpendicular margin (*below*).

- Most pathologists are accustomed to evaluating perpendicular margins.
- Cautery artifact is often present and can make interpretation difficult.

The orientation of an en face margin as it is embedded for histologic sections either for frozen sections or in a paraffin block for permanent sections is important for tumors for which a narrow rim of normal tissue would be considered to be a negative margin. The tissue may be embedded so that the first cut section is the true margin. If the opposite face is cut first, and tumor is present, then deeper sections may be obtained, or the tissue re-embedded in the opposite orientation, to evaluate the "true" margin. If specific orientation is important, one side of the tissue should be inked and a detailed note written on the log-in sheet (e.g., "embed with inked side down"). It is also advisable to speak to someone in the histology laboratory about the case. It cannot be assumed that the orientation of the tissue in the cassette will be the same as the orientation of the embedded tissue.

Perpendicular margins

The margin is taken perpendicular to the plane of resection (Fig. 2-1, bottom).

Advantages

- The exact distance of the tumor from the margin can be determined. Perpendicular margins are recommended when a small rim (e.g., less than 0.2 cm) of uninvolved tissue would be considered a negative margin.
- Most pathologists are familiar with interpreting this type of margin.

Disadvantages

- Very little tissue at the margin is actually sampled in large resections.

Method of inking margins

The outer surface of the specimen should be relatively clean and dry. Ink may be applied with a gauze pad, a cotton swab, or by immersing the entire specimen into a container of ink. After applying the ink, Bouin's solution, dilute acetic acid, or methanol is applied. These act as mordants and help both to fix the ink to the tissue and to prevent it from dissolving in formalin. Bouin's should not be used prior to frozen section because it may prevent good adherence of tissue to the slide. The inked surfaces are blotted dry before cutting the specimen to prevent artifactual ink on interior surfaces. Multicolored inks are available for orientation of complicated specimens.

Margins are sometimes stapled. The staples cannot be removed without shredding the tissue. The staple line can be carefully cut away as close as possible to the staples and the next closest tissue taken as the margin. Sections that contain staples should never be submitted for histologic processing as the staples will damage or destroy microtome blades and the tissue adjacent to the staple cannot be cut for examination.

Multiple Lesions

Occasionally multiple gross neoplastic lesions will be found in a specimen. It is important for both diagnosis and prognosis to determine whether these lesions represent (1) the same lesion with a microscopic interconnection between the two gross lesions; (2) a primary tumor and a metastasis; or (3) two independent neoplasms. Each lesion is sampled separately and special studies taken as indicated. ***Always*** submit a section of tissue between two (or more) lesions to evaluate whether they are truly separate or interconnected.

Missing Specimens

On rare occasions, clinicians believe that a specimen should have been received by the pathology department, but there is no record of the specimen. The most likely possibilities are the following:

- The specimen never arrived in pathology. The specimen may have been left in a clinic or be in transit.
- The specimen is mislabeled. The patient name may be incorrect or may have been accessioned incorrectly (e.g., the first name is used as the last name).
- The specimen may be included with another specimen from the same patient, possibly from a different day or different procedure.

Rarely, a specimen container is received but appears to be empty. The container must be carefully examined, including the lid, as small specimens may stick to the sides or top of the container. If there are multiple parts to the specimen, the missing specimen may have been included in one of the other parts. If the specimen cannot be found, the clinician submitting the specimen **must** be contacted the same day. Document this contact in the report. The container should be saved until the issue is resolved with the clinician. It may be possible to recover specimens mislaid in the clinician's office or the clinician may decide to rebiopsy and submit additional tissue.

Specimens are rarely lost after they have been accessioned in a pathology department. Potential reasons for a specimen not being in the usual location are the following:

- The case was set aside because of infectious precautions.
- The specimen was inadvertently discarded. It may be useful to save the waste containers from the gross processing room for an extra day to allow for recovery of lost specimens (or cassettes) if necessary.

Cassettes are also rarely lost before being received by the histology laboratory. Usually the cassette failed to go into the container for processing and was placed somewhere else. The container for sharps, the original container

(if not all the tissue was submitted), sinks, and waste containers are the most likely locations.

Occasionally the cassette will be present but without tissue. Either the cassette was not properly closed and opened during processing or the fragment was small enough to slip through the holes. The latter can be avoided by always wrapping small specimens in lens paper.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF GROSS DESCRIPTIONS

The ability to accurately examine, describe, and process gross specimens is one of the most important skills of the pathologist. Based on keen observation and detailed dissection, the precise microscopic sections are taken that yield important diagnostic and prognostic information for patients. Without these skills, many diagnoses will be left in the formalin jar. The most skilled microscopic examination cannot overcome an inept gross one.

One study revealed that gross reexamination of mastectomies and sampling of additional tissue resulted in 18% of the specimens having diagnostic discrepancies, as compared to the original diagnosis.[1] Almost half of the discrepancies were considered major (new diagnosis of cancer, different TNM stage, or new information leading to additional diagnostic or therapeutic procedures). In contrast, a slide review only revealed major diagnostic discrepancies in 1% of cases. Many of the errors in grossing occurred in the first few months of residency training. In this study, careful gross examination was more important than the review of glass slides for the prevention of errors.

The gross description provides a permanent record of all pertinent information regarding a specimen, including the information provided by the submitting clinician, procedures taking place during operating room consultations, the description of the specimen as it was received and observations after dissection, disposition of all tissues submitted for special studies or for research, and a description of the microscopic sections taken.

In some cases, for routine specimens, standard descriptive text can be used and specific descriptors added as appropriate. Standardization can reduce the number of errors. However, the use of such forms should never substitute for a careful gross examination or a specific description of unusual specimens or unusual findings.

Accurate and complete descriptions are very important for the following reasons:

- **Diagnosis:** Gross descriptions provide important diagnostic information that is used for staging and prognosis. Examination of glass slides alone cannot always provide information about the size of tumors, multiple tumors, distance from margins, or number of lymph nodes examined.
- **Correlation:** Good gross descriptions allow the pathologist to correlate microscopic findings with the gross findings. Artifacts (e.g., ink present on tissue not at a margin) or errors (e.g., cassettes labeled with the wrong number) can be detected if there are discrepancies between the gross description and what is present on the glass slide.
- **Documentation:** Each specimen and the condition in which it arrived must be carefully documented for medical and legal purposes. The gross description is the only record of what was received in the department.
- **Training:** Accurate gross descriptions reveal the strengths and limitations of the gross examination as compared to microscopic examination. For some specimens (e.g., colon carcinoma) almost the entire diagnosis can be made grossly. This skill is especially important for operating room consultations in which the pathologist must be able to rapidly select the tissue most likely to reveal important diagnostic information. In some cases a good gross examination can yield more information than a frozen section diagnosis.

Gross Descriptions

A good gross description has the following qualities:

- **Succinct and to the point.** The important information can usually be captured in a few sentences. Long, rambling descriptions are often poor, because important information is buried in, or replaced by, irrelevant details.
- **Good organization.** Information is easily overlooked if it is not readily accessible and in the right anticipated location.
- **Adequate dissection.** A specimen cannot be described accurately until after it has been completely dissected and examined. Initial impressions often change after a thorough examination. Important findings and measurements can be recorded in a notebook to aid in dictation after the specimen has been dissected. This practice also provides a backup gross description if a transcription is lost.
- **Standardization.** Standardization minimizes the risk of omission of important information. Creative dictations should be reserved for the very unusual or complicated specimen. Sample dictations for all large specimens are included in Section Two.
- **Diagrams.** Diagrams of complicated specimens are helpful to show the site of tissue blocks. Some departments make use of photocopies of gross specimens for this purpose.[2] Photographs can also be used.[3]

Formatting the Gross Description

Even the most complex resections (e.g., extrapleural pneumonectomies, complex hemipelvectomies with multiple organs, Whipple pancreaticoduodenectomies, "living autopsies") can be clearly described and sampled, if the specimen is approached systematically.

There are six components to a gross description:

1. The first part documents the patient's name, the specimen label, whether it was received fresh or in a type of fixative, and anatomic structures present in the specimen (with dimensions and weight as appropriate).
2. The second part begins the description of the main pathologic findings that caused the specimen to be resected (type of lesion, size, relationship to normal structures and margins, etc.).
3. The third part describes any secondary pathology not described in the second part (e.g., incidental polyps, a second smaller lesion, diverticula, etc.).
4. The fourth part describes any other normal structures not conveniently fit into the first sentence (e.g., length and diameter of ureters from a bladder resection).
5. The fifth part lists frozen sections, photographs, radiographs, and any other special studies that were done. Note whether the margins were inked and if they are en face or perpendicular.
6. The sixth part is a list of all the cassettes and the types of tissue sampled.

The first part: label, fixative, structures present

The gross description starts by documenting how the specimen was labeled and whether it was fresh or in fixative. Specimens first seen as an operating room consultation are dictated as they were received there. For example:

> *"Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and 'Ascending colon' is…"*

Or

> *"Received in formalin labeled with the patient's name and 'PNBX' is.. ."*

Special note should be taken of specimens that are identified in unusual ways:

> *"Received fresh in an unlabeled container hand-carried by Dr. G. Smith and identified as belonging to the patient, is . . ."*

The remainder of the first sentence documents all of the components of the specimen. In order to keep the dictation clear, measurements can be placed in parentheses. For example:

> *"Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and 'MRM' is a 563 gram left modified radical mastectomy specimen (15 × 12 × 4.5 cm) with a white/tan skin ellipse (14 × 12 cm) and with attached axillary tail (6 × 5 × 4 cm)."*

Or

> *"Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and 'Colon' is a right colectomy specimen consisting of terminal ileum (5 cm in length × 3 cm in circumference), cecum and ascending colon (30 cm in length × 6 cm in circumference), and appendix (7 cm in length × 0.8 cm in diameter)."*

The second part: principal pathologic finding

The second sentence starts the description of the main pathological findings. For example:

> *"There is an ulcerated tan/pink lesion (5 × 4 × 3 cm in depth) with raised serpiginous borders 7 cm from the proximal margin and 22 cm from the distal margin. The lesion grossly extends through the muscularis propria and into pericolonic soft tissue and is present at the serosal surface."*

Or

> *"There is a 4 cm well healed surgical scar in the outer upper quadrant, 5 cm from the unremarkable nipple (1.0 × 0.9 cm). 2 cm deep to the scar there is a biopsy cavity (4 × 3 × 2 cm) filled with red/brown organizing thrombus. The cavity is surrounded by firm white tissue, 0.2 to 1.0 cm in thickness, but no residual tumor is identified grossly. The cavity is 1 cm from the deep margin which is a smooth fascial plane."*

Dictate gross observations, not what was done with the specimen.

Verbose:

> *"Upon opening the colon longitudinally with a pair of scissors, it can be seen there is a 4 cm polypoid firm mass. On careful serial sectioning it can be seen to extend through the muscularis propria into pericolonic fat . . ."*

Better:

> *"There is a 4 cm polypoid firm mass that extends through the muscularis propria into pericolonic fat . . ."*

A pathology report should not read like an operative note. In the words of Jack Webb, "the facts, ma'am, just the facts." It can be assumed that the colon was opened, a lesion was observed, and it was carefully sectioned.

However, there are specimens for which it will be necessary to stress an important negative finding in spite of meticulous dissection:

> *"No lymph nodes are found in the area designated by the surgeon as the axillary tail after careful palpation, overnight Bouin's fixation, and 0.1 cm sectioning."*

The third part: secondary pathologic findings

After the main lesion has been dictated, all secondary lesions are dictated. This description always includes the relationship of multiple lesions to each other.

"*3 cm proximal to the ulcerated lesion is a tan/pink, soft, villous polyp (3.0 × 2.0 × 2.0 cm) with a stalk (1.0 cm in length × 0.4 cm in diameter).*"

The fourth part: lymph nodes, incidental findings, normal structures

Normal structures need not be dictated in detail. A pathologist or pathology assistant must be able to recognize what is normal and need not elaborate on these findings in the gross description. Summary statements are made such as "*the remainder of the colonic mucosa is unremarkable*" or "*no other lesions are present.*" On the other hand, when there is an abnormality, this finding is described: "*the colonic mucosa is dusky red*" or "*the remainder of the breast parenchyma consists of firm white fibrous tissue with numerous blue dome cysts.*" This section may also include additional measurements or documentary facts not comfortably fit into the first sentence:

"*Also received is a separate fragment of yellow/white adipose tissue (4.0 × 3.5 × 2.0 cm) without gross lesions.*"

The fifth part: special methods

Routine procedures (fixing the specimen overnight in formalin or serially sectioning the breast) do not need to be specified. However, all procedures that are included in billing, in particular decalcification, must be specified. All nonroutine procedures and special fixatives must also be stated. This will be the only record of what was done with the tissue and what is available for special studies. For example:

"*A frozen section was performed on the tumor and the bronchial resection margin.*"
"*The bone is fixed in formalin and then decalcified.*"
"*Photographs and radiographs are taken. Portions of the tumor are fixed in Zenker's, B Plus, and Bouin's solutions and are snap-frozen. Samples are taken for cytogenetics, and electron microscopy. Tumor (1 × 1 × 1 cm) and normal fat (1 × 1 × 1 cm) are given to Dr. Strangelove for special studies.*"

It is also helpful to state for some specimens (especially diagnostic breast biopsies) whether or not all of the tissue has been submitted. For example:

"*All of the tissue is submitted for histologic examination.*"
"*Seventy percent of the tissue is submitted for histologic examination including all fibrous tissue.*"
"*The entire lesion and representative normal tissue are submitted for histologic examination.*"

The sixth part: microscopic sections

The final section of the gross description is a list of each cassette and the tissue in the cassette, if cassettes contain different types of tissue.

No new information should be included in the list that is not in the gross description (e.g., cassette number A23 should not be "*nodule found upon further sectioning*" unless it has been described previously). Also included is the number of fragments in the cassette (helpful for the person embedding the tissue and sometimes in identifying possibly misidentified cassettes), the type of fixative (if not formalin), and whether all or only a portion of the tissue has been submitted. This can be denoted by:

RSS: representative sections submitted. Additional tissue of this type could be submitted.
ESS: entire specimen (or designated portion of specimen) submitted. This indicates that no more tissue of this type can be submitted.

Groups of cassettes can be dictated together if they all contain the same category of tissue. For example:

Cassettes #A21-23, one lymph node per cassette, 6 frags, ESS.

The following are examples of how cassettes from different cases might be dictated:

Punch biopsy of skin:

Cassette A1: 1 fragment, ESS.

Basal cell carcinoma, small skin ellipse:

Cassette A1: cross sections of lesion, 2 fragments, ESS.
Cassette A2: ellipse tips, 2 fragments, ESS.

Prostate, TURP:

Cassettes A1 - 6: multiple fragments, ESS.

Esophageal carcinoma resection:

Cassettes A1-3: Tumor including deepest extension and deep margin, 3 fragments, RSS.
Cassette A4: Proximal margin, perpendicular, 1 fragment, RSS.
Cassette A5: Distal margin, perpendicular, 2 fragments, RSS.
Cassette A6: Proximal granular pink mucosa, 2 fragments, RSS.
Cassettes A7-11: Ten lymph nodes, two per cassette, 10 frags, ESS.

If focal lesions are present, the cassettes containing the lesion must be specified, as the gross lesion may not be apparent on microscopic examination or may not be present on the initial slides prepared.

Thyroid resection:

Cassettes A1-4: well circumscribed nodule, 8 frags, ESS.
Cassettes A5-6: representative sections of normal-appearing thyroid, 2 frags, RSS.

An Example of a Gross Description

The first part

Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "Colon" is a segment of colon (30 cm in length × 8 cm proximal circumference and 5 cm distal circumference) with attached mesentery (30 cm × 5 cm) with a suture indicating the proximal margin.

The second part

A centrally ulcerated, firm, tan/pink tumor (4.0 × 3.5 × 2.0 cm) with raised serpentine borders occupies approximately 90% of the colon circumference. The residual lumen is approximately 0.5 cm in diameter and the proximal bowel is markedly dilated. The tumor grossly extends through the muscularis propria into pericolonic fat and is 0.5 cm from the serosal surface, which is inked. The tumor is 5 cm from the distal margin and 19 cm from the proximal margin.

The third part

A sessile, firm, tan/pink smoothly lobulated polyp (1 × 1 × 0.8 cm), is located 2 cm distal to the tumor and 1 cm from the distal margin. The intervening mucosa is normal in appearance.

The fourth part

Approximately 30 diverticula are noted in the remainder of the colon, which is otherwise unremarkable. There are fourteen fleshy, tan lymph nodes in the pericolonic fat, the largest measuring 0.6 cm in greatest dimension.

The fifth part

The specimen is photographed. Tumor (1× 1× 1) is given to Dr. Brown for special studies.

The sixth part

Cassettes A1 and 2: Tumor and serosal surface, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassettes A3 and 4: Tumor and normal colon, 3 frags, RSS.
Cassette A5: Polyp, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassette A6: Distal margin, perpendicular, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette A7: Diverticula, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette A8-14: Lymph nodes, 2 per cassette, 14 frags, ESS.

Components of the Gross Description

Specimens have dimensions of size and weight and features such as color, shape, smell, texture, and consistency. All of these are used to paint a picture for readers of the pathology report and to capture important gross features of pathologic processes.

Measurements

Measurements are in centimeters and fractions of centimeters and expressed as numbers (e.g., 3.5 cm, not "three and a half cm"). They should be as accurate as they need to be. Tumor sizes are measured to the nearest millimeter (not rounded off) as these sizes will be used for staging and prognosis. On the other hand, the dimensions of tissues that contract (e.g., colon segments) or that are highly compressible (e.g., lung) cannot be measured as precisely. Include the dimension being measured when appropriate:

Imprecise: *"the colon measures 5 cm × 2 cm."*
Accurate: *"the colon measures 5 cm in circumference × 2 cm in length."*

Or

Imprecise: *"received is a skin ellipse measuring 2.5 × 3.0 × 1.0 cm."*
Accurate: *"received is a skin ellipse measuring 2.5 × 3.0 × 1.0 cm (depth)."*

Fragmented specimens can be measured in aggregate. In selected cases it is appropriate to indicate the size of the largest fragment (e.g., fragmented tumors) or a range of sizes.

Do not over-measure normal structures (e.g., give seven dimensions of a normal cervix) or under-measure important ones (e.g., describe multiple tumors as "several" or "large").

Do not use analogies for size (e.g., grapefruit size, the size of a child's fist, the size of a baseball). While picturesque, they are imprecise and cannot be used for tumor staging.

Measurements can also change over time. Colon segments contract and need to be measured as soon as possible after surgical removal.[4] Lungs deflate. Tissues also shrink after fixation and should be measured when unfixed.

It is preferable to always report sizes in centimeters in the final report. It is easy for millimeters ("mm") to mistaken for centimeters ("cm") in typing and proofreading. If centimeters are always used, one can immediately recognize any size in millimeters as an error.

Numbers

Be specific about numbers by giving an accurate count or at least an estimate.

Imprecise: *"There are several gallstones."*
Accurate: *"There are three gallstones"* or *"There are approximately 30 gallstones."*

Weight

Weight is expressed in grams. All solid organs (lungs, spleens, hearts, kidneys, adrenals, thyroids, prostates, transurethral resections of the prostate), mastectomies,

and reduction mammoplasties are weighed before fixation. Parathyroid adenomas, adrenal tumors, and some sarcomas are weighed, as this information may be useful for either diagnosis or prognosis.

Colors

Color can be helpful in describing a specimen, especially if the normal color of the tissue or organ has been altered.[5] Few specimens have pure colors. However, instead of using "ish" words (e.g., reddish, brownish), combinations of colors can be used to express the fact that the specimen varies slightly in color (e.g., red/brown, white/tan). Don't get carried away. Almost all specimens are *"gray/white to pink/tan to yellow/orange to red/brown with focal lighter and darker areas."*

Colors are very important when describing small biopsies. Blood is usually red/brown and tissues are usually white/tan. If one of three fragments grossly looks like blood clot this will correlate with only two tissue fragments along with disaggregated blood cells on the slide. Colors due to increased blood flow or congestion (e.g., in vascular lesions or inflammatory carcinoma of the breast) are often lost once the blood supply is terminated during excision.

Some tumors, tissues, or pathologic processes have very characteristic colors (Table 2-1).

TABLE 2–1. CHARACTERISTIC COLORS OF PATHOLOGIC PROCESSES

PATHOLOGIC PROCESS	COLOR
Renal cell carcinoma (clear cell type)	Golden yellow and hemorrhagic
Normal adrenal or adrenal cortical lesions	Orange-yellow
Xanthogranulomatous inflammation (xanthos = yellow in Greek)	Yellow
Cirrhosis (kirrhos = orange-yellow in Greek)	Yellow
Steroid-producing tumors	Often pale or bright yellow
Chloroma or any purulent exudate (chloros = green in Greek)	Green
Prior hemorrhage with oxidation of blood	Green (e.g., in synovial tissue in hemochromatosis or PVNS)
Ochronosis (ochros = pale yellow in Greek)	Black or brown
Endometriotic (chocolate) cyst	Brown
Melanoma (if pigmented) (melas = black in Greek)	Black
Melanosis coli	Black mucosa
Anthracotic pigment (anthrax = coal in Greek)	Black
Blue dome cysts of the breast	Dark blue or black
Gout or chondrocalcinosis	Chalky white
Pheochromocytoma (phaios = dusky + chromo = color in Greek)	White to tan – chromaffin reaction changes color to mahogany brown to black or purple

Consistency

This can be a helpful descriptor in communicating whether or not there is a malignant lesion present. Fortunately for pathologists, most tumors incite a desmoplastic response and are harder than the surrounding tissue. In contrast, tissues that are soft or rubbery are less likely to contain malignant tumors. However, tumors that occur in tissue that is normally firm, such as prostate, can be very difficult to detect grossly. Other tumors, such as some lobular carcinomas of the breast, can be associated with a minimal desmoplastic response and may not form a palpable mass.

Tumors after treatment often become softer and more difficult to define grossly. It is often necessary to determine the site of the tumor prior to treatment to guide tissue sampling.

Necrotic areas are usually soft and friable. Papillary tumors are also often soft and can be mistaken for necrosis.

Shape and texture

Malignant processes (but also many inflammatory processes) usually have infiltrative borders and irregular or difficult to define shapes whereas lesions with well defined shapes and borders are less likely to be malignant. Tumors usually efface the underlying tissue planes and textures. Useful terms are listed in Table 2-2.

Pathologists have traditionally used food analogies to describe specimens.[6] Gross descriptions can be embellished with the terms presented in Table 2-3. However, "serially sectioned" is preferred to "bread-loafed."

Fluids can be described with the terms presented in Table 2-4.

Smell

Fortunately, few surgical specimens have prominent odors. However, this is an important aspect to report because it usually indicates decomposition of the tissue. Sending tissue for cultures should be considered unless infection has already been documented. A foul smell may indicate

TABLE 2–2. USEFUL TERMS FOR DESCRIBING SHAPE AND TEXTURE

SHAPE OR TEXTURE	EXAMPLE(S)
Well-circumscribed or pushing borders	Fibroadenoma, mixed tumor, hamartoma
Irregular or spiculated borders	Invasive carcinomas, surgical scars
Jagged or notched borders	Cutaneous melanoma
Serpiginous borders (winding, snake-like)	Mucosal shape of colon carcinoma
Smoothly lobulated	Lipoma
Bosselated (rounded protuberances)	Bone in degenerative joint disease
Verrucous (wart-like)	Cutaneous condyloma
Papillary	Bladder tumors, papillary renal cell carcinoma
Villous (slender projections)	Villous adenoma of the colon
Eburnated (like ivory)	Exposed polished bone surface after loss of cartilage in degenerative joint disease
Velvety	Normal gallbladder mucosa
Pedunculated (with a stalk)	Some colon polyps, achrocordon
Sessile (broad-based)	Some colon polyps
Macule (flat lesion)	Lentigo, café-au-lait spot
Papule (raised lesion)	Mole
Friable (soft and falling apart or crumbly)	Papillary renal cell carcinoma, necrotic tumors
Excrescence (an irregular outgrowth)	Carcinoma invading through skin
Fimbriated (fringe-like)	The normal end of the fallopian tube
Exophytic (projecting out from a surface)	A papilloma in a duct
Endophytic (projecting within a space)	Inverted papilloma
Scabrous (covered with small projections and rough to the touch)	Pleural plaque
Papyraceous (like parchment or paper)	Fetus papyraceous – a fetus found within the placental membranes of a twin

TABLE 2–3. FOOD-RELATED TERMS

FOOD-RELATED TERM	PATHOLOGIC PROCESS
Currant jelly	Postmortem blood clot
Chicken fat	Postmortem blood clot
Sugar-coated spleen	Perisplenitis
Chocolate cyst	Endometriotic cyst
Unripe pear or waterchestnut	Gritty consistency of breast cancer
Grape vesicle	The villi of a hydatidiform mole
Sago spleen (sago is a pearly starch [e.g., tapioca] made from the sago palm)	Miliary nodules of amyloidosis
Strawberry gallbladder	Cholesterolosis
Nutmeg liver	Chronic congestion
Apple-core lesion	An obstructing colonic adenocarcinoma (as seen on x-ray)
Rice bodies	Loose bodies in a joint
Lardaceous spleen	Amyloidosis
Fish-mouth stenosis	Rheumatic heart valve
Vegetation	Thrombus on a heart valve
Caseous necrosis	Cheese-like material (especially in tuberculous granulomas)

TABLE 2–4. DESCRIPTIVE TERMS FOR FLUIDS

DESCRIPTIVE TERMS FOR FLUIDS	QUALITY OF FLUID
Viscous	Thick
Serosanguinous	Serum tinged with blood (also spelled serosanguineous)
Serous	Like serum – watery
Mucinous	Thick and sticky or gelatinous
Tacky	Sticky (e.g., silicone gel)
Suppurative	Green thick exudate

decomposition within the patient (e.g., a necrotic bowel) or inappropriate delayed handling of a specimen (e.g., a fresh specimen left overnight without refrigeration).

Be Brief, But Be Precise!

Descriptions should be simple and direct and use the minimum amount of words necessary to convey a clear idea of the specimen.

Grossly Recognizable. If a structure can be identified (e.g., an appendix, gallbladder, lung), dictate it as such.

Verbose: *"Received is a grossly recognizable gallbladder . . ."*
Precise: *"Received is a gallbladder . . ."*

On the other hand, if the specimen is a portion of a structure that cannot be unequivocally identified, use *"grossly consistent with."* For example:

"Received labeled 'gallbladder' is a 3 × 1 × 0.2 cm (wall thickness) portion of velvety pink mucosa grossly consistent with the wall of a gallbladder. . ."

Seen, Felt, Palpated, Found. Just state the facts, not how they were observed.

Verbose: *"After sectioning the axillary fat, five lymph nodes are found which are firm upon palpation . . ."*
Precise: *"There are five firm lymph nodes in the axillary fat . . ."*

Avoid Chains of Single Fact Sentences When They Can Be Condensed into a Single Sentence.

Verbose: *"The specimen is received labeled with the patient's name. It is also labeled with the unit number. It is received fresh. It is a right modified radical mastectomy. It measures 15 × 14 × 6 cm. There is an attached axillary tail. The axillary tail measures 6 × 4 × 2 cm. The entire specimen weighs 182 gm. The white/tan skin ellipse is 13 × 11 cm. The nipple is located in the center of the ellipse. There is a 3 cm well-healed surgical scar. It is in the upper outer quadrant. It is 3 cm from the nipple. There is a fibrotic biopsy cavity measuring 3 × 3 × 2.5 cm. It is filled with red/brown friable material. The biopsy cavity is 1 cm from the skin. The biopsy cavity is 2 cm from the deep margin. The deep margin is a smooth fascial plane."*
Precise: *"Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number is a 182 gm right modified radical mastectomy specimen (15 × 14 × 6 cm) with a white/tan skin ellipse (13 × 11 cm) and attached axillary tail (6 × 4 × 2 cm). There is a 3 cm well-healed surgical scar in the upper outer quadrant, 3 cm from the unremarkable nipple (0.7 × 0.6 cm). One cm deep to the scar is a fibrotic biopsy cavity filled with red/brown friable material. The cavity is 2 cm from the deep margin, which is a smooth fascial plane . . ."*

TABLE 2–5. DIAGNOSTIC VERSUS DESCRIPTIVE TERMS

DIAGNOSTIC/ INTERPRETIVE TERMS	DESCRIPTIVE TERMS
Carcinoma	Mass
Hemorrhagic	Red, brown
Necrotic	Soft, friable (papillary tumors are often mistakenly thought to be necrotic due to their soft consistency)
Purulent	Green, foul-smelling
Malignant	Irregular border, hard
Mucinous	Sticky, viscous
Invasive	Irregular
Fat necrosis	Yellow, chalky

Avoid Making Uncertain Diagnoses. Describe what is seen and do not make uncertain assumptions based on possible diagnoses. Some gross diagnoses will later prove to be incorrect – although with experience this does not happen very often. For example, it may turn out that the enlarged firm lymph node was not "grossly involved by tumor" but actually was fibrotic or fatty. Recognize the difference between terms that are diagnostic and terms that are descriptive (Table 2-5).

In the completed pathology report, the gross description and the microscopic diagnosis should be in agreement. Non-pathologists often do not realize that the gross description is not based on microscopic findings. If clinicians read that there is an involved lymph node in the gross description, but there is no mention of it in the final diagnosis, it will raise doubts about whether or not that node was forgotten in the final report. These inconsistencies should be corrected in the gross description or avoided initially. For example, it is just as accurate to describe a "2 cm firm white lymph node" and leave the diagnosis of tumor to the microscopic slides. Similarly, the final number of lymph nodes reported should ultimately correspond to the number of lymph nodes described grossly.

A CLASSICAL INTERLUDE

Many medical terms are derived from Latin or Greek and may be used in their singular and plural forms. The following are facts about forming plurals from Latin words:

- It is very complicated and requires detailed knowledge of the root word and its origin.

TABLE 2–6. LATIN SINGULAR AND PLURAL ENDINGS

SINGULAR ENDING	PLURAL ENDING	EXAMPLES	
		SINGULAR	PLURAL
a	ae	Trabecula Amoeba Fimbria	Trabeculae Amoebae Fimbriae
ius	ii	Radius	Radii
on	a	Ganglion	Ganglia
um	a	Bacterium Diverticulum Adnexum Labium Addendum Curriculum vitae	Bacteria Diverticula Adnexa Labia Addenda Curricula vitae
is	es	Penis Testis Pelvis	Penes Testes Pelves (or pelvises)
x	ces or ges	Phalanx Cervix Fex Appendix	Phalanges Cervices (or cervixes) Feces Appendices
2nd declension us	i	Fungus Nucleus Focus	Fungi Nuclei Foci
4th declension masculine us	English "s" preferred	Fetus	Fetuses

- It is better to look up a word than to guess the form of the plural as you will probably be wrong and may be scorned by those who study ancient languages. For example, Latin scholars cringe at "octopi" as the correct plural form is "octopodes." Octopus is not a Latin word of the second declension, but a Latinized form of the Greek word oktopous (see how complicated it can get?). Since platypus is from the Greek word platypous (i.e., *platys* broad or flat + *pous* foot), one could reason that the correct plural is platypodes and not platypi. Just to be safe, if you should be so lucky as to have more than one, platypuses is acceptable.
- In some cases, more than one answer can be correct. For many words, the English "s" ending is acceptable or preferred. For example, the correct plural form of specimen is specimina – but "specimens" is the common usage.

Table 2-6 presents the most common types of Latin plural endings and typical examples used in pathology.

Virus has no plural form in Latin. Its original meaning was a toxic agent that was an uncountable entity and, therefore, did not require a plural form. The correct word for more than one virus in its modern sense is viruses.

Carcinoma, sarcoma, lymphoma, and stoma are Greek words and the appropriate ending would be "ata." However, the English "s" ending is commonly used.

The word epithelium is derived from the Greek *epi* (upon) and *thele* (nipple). It originally referred to the skin covering the nipple. Therefore, related terms such as mesothelium and urothelium are technically misnomers. However, since only Greek scholars would likely find this confusing, the terms will probably not be changed.

SELECTION OF TISSUE FOR MICROSCOPIC EXAMINATION

Tissue is selected for microscopic examination to document:

- All lesions. If multiple similar lesions are present, tissue between the lesions is submitted to determine whether the lesions are separate or interconnected. The best section to demonstrate pathologic features should be taken, after complete dissection and examination of the specimen.
- Lesional tissue placed in special fixatives for histologic examination (e.g., B-plus).
- Representative sections of all normal structures not included in other sections. Random sections (equivalent to selecting tissue blindly) should not be taken. If a section is to document a normal structure, the best representative tissue should be taken.
- Lymph nodes.
- All margins when appropriate.
- Frozen section remnants.

Most specimens (including large complicated ones) can be adequately sampled in no more than 20 cassettes.

The ideal number of tissue sections avoids both over- and undersampling:

Oversampling: Wasteful of resources and unnecessarily increases costs.

Undersampling: Important diagnostic or prognostic information may be lost, leading to suboptimal pathologic evaluation.

For some specimens (e.g., TURPs) studies have attempted to define the appropriate amount of sampling (see Chapter 20). Decisions to limit or eliminate tissue sections should be made in the context of such studies. The cost of examining a few more slides may be significant for a pathology department, but trivial in the overall cost of caring for a patient (with surgical costs running into the thousands of dollars) as well as personal costs in morbidity and mortality for individual patients with suboptimal diagnoses.

FIXATION

After the dissection and description of the gross specimen, tissues must be placed in a fixative. Ideally fixation serves to:

- **Preserve tissue** by preventing autolysis by cellular enzymes and prevent decomposition by the actions of bacteria and molds.
- **Harden tissue** to allow thin sectioning.
- **Devitalize or inactivate infectious agents.** However, Creutzfeldt-Jakob cases will remain infectious even in tissue on glass slides unless previously treated with formic acid.
- **Stabilize tissue components.**
- **Enhance avidity for dyes.**

However, fixation also has undesirable effects on tissues:

- **Alteration of protein structure:** Proteins may be cross-linked, charges changed, and/or changes in tertiary structure may occur. This may result in loss of antigenicity that, to some extent, can be reversed by antigen retrieval methods. However, results of special studies based on tissue fixed by one method cannot be extrapolated to tissue fixed by another method (e.g., most immunohistochemical studies are performed on formalin-fixed tissue).
- **Solubility of tissue components:** Lipids and carbohydrates (e.g., glycogen) are often lost during processing unless special techniques are used.
- **Shrinkage of tissue:** Most fixatives cause shrinkage of the tissue. If exact measurements are important (e.g., tumor size in breast carcinomas and sarcomas, distance to the distal margin in rectal resections), they should be taken prior to fixation.
- **DNA and RNA degradation:** Some fixatives (especially those containing picric acid) degrade nucleic acids and must be avoided if studies of nucleic acids are anticipated.

Most fixatives in use are combinations designed to maximize the desirable properties of the fixatives and to minimize the undesirable properties.

Adequate fixation depends upon:

Sufficient Volume. An adequate amount of fixative is usually considered to be 15 to 20 times the volume of the tissue. If a specimen is received in saline, this should be discarded prior to adding fixative. Fixative contaminated with blood or other fluids will be diluted and will not fix tissues well.

Access of Fixative to Tissue. Fixatives penetrate slowly (approximately 0.1 cm per hour). Anatomic barriers (e.g., fascia, capsules) are barriers to fixative penetration and must be incised to allow optimal fixation. Large specimens must be thinly sectioned. Gauze pads can be used to wick fixative around each portion of the specimen and between the specimen and the container. Large flat specimens (e.g., colon segments, stomachs, large skin excisions) can be pinned out on a paraffin block and floated upside down in a container containing fixative. A piece of gauze may be placed between the specimen and the paraffin to wick fixative around the tissue.

If adequate fixation of an entire specimen is difficult or may be delayed, small thin sections of tumor should be taken and fixed separately ("quick fix formalin"). These sections should be cut small enough to fit easily into a cassette to optimize fixation.

Time. Usually 6 to 8 hours is required for adequate fixation in formalin. Other fixatives may penetrate more rapidly or more slowly. Overfixation may result in hard brittle tissue in some fixatives or in loss of antigenicity.

Temperature. Increasing the temperature increases the rate of fixation but also increases the rate of autolysis and must be carefully monitored. Most laboratories fix specimens at room temperature.

Preservation of Biomolecules for "Cellular Chemistry"

Pathology specimens contain DNA, mRNA, proteins, as well as a multitude of other biomolecules that may be useful for assays leading to disease classification, prognosis, and/or prediction of the response to treatments. The preservation of a biomolecule is dependent upon many factors:

- **Patient factors:** Disease state, drugs or other treatments (e.g., radiation therapy), etc.
- **Surgical factors:** Time at which tissue is removed from blood flow (e.g., time of vascular ligation, time of needle biopsy), time the specimen is removed from the patient, exposure to surgical instruments (e.g., cutting, cauterizing), length of time of surgery and time under anesthesia.
- **Transport factors:** Length of time of transport to the pathology department, condition during transport (e.g., in fresh state, in fixative).
- **Pathology factors:** Length of time to fixation, thickness of sections and adequacy of fixation, type of fixative, length of time in fixation prior to processing of paraffin blocks, processing protocols (dehydration, clearing, impregnation), type of paraffin, length of time in paraffin, conditions of block storage.

It is likely that different biomolecules will have different requirements for optimal preservation. As assays are developed for patient care, it will be important to determine the important parameters for tissue handling for each specific assay. For example, recommendations have been made for tissues used for HER2/neu tests for breast carcinoma.[7] It has been recommended the following times be recorded:

- **Ischemic time:** The time from removal of the tissue from the body (recorded by the surgeon) to the time the specimen (if large, the specimen must be sliced) is placed in fixative.

- **Fixation time:** The time the specimen is in fixative. Both overfixation and underfixation can alter biomolecules.

When these times are out of the range used for specimens to develop the assay in question, then the reliability of the assay results will be in doubt.

Unfortunately, there are few studies that clearly measure changes in specific analytes related to the numerous variables in tissue handling. Such studies are necessary before instituting costly changes to the routine practice of pathology (especially in light of the fact that fewer than 0.1% of all pathology specimens will likely undergo molecular testing). Although standardization of all specimen processing is a laudable goal, it is unlikely to be achievable. For assays critical for patient care, it would be more practical to devise ways to identify, remove, and process tissue specifically for the assay in designated patients. Finally, there is always a need to demonstrate that costly and difficult-to-perform assays are superior to standard methods of pathologic analysis (sadly, something that is infrequently done).[8-11]

Types of Fixatives

Choice of fixative may limit the opportunities for other special studies. Before fixing tissue, consideration should be given to cytogenetic (cell culture) studies and frozen tissue (RNA and DNA analysis), which require, or are best performed on, unfixed tissue. Flow cytometry is optimally performed using fresh tissue but can be performed on fixed tissue.

Special gloves (e.g., nitrile gloves) should be worn when handling fixatives or fixed tissues. Latex gloves offer protection from biohazards when handling fresh tissues but do not protect against absorption of chemicals.

Formalin (Clear)

Composition: 10% phosphate-buffered formalin (formalin is 40% formaldehyde in water, therefore 10% formalin is 4% formaldehyde). Formalin that is unbuffered degrades rapidly and does not preserve nucleic acids well.

Indications: Formalin can be used for the routine fixation of all specimens.

Advantages: Formalin is the standard fixative of most pathology departments and has been used in many studies of special stains and immunohistochemistry. It fixes most tissues well and is compatible with most histologic stains. Tissue can be preserved in formalin for many months. Formalin is necessary to see the lacunar cells of the nodular sclerosing variant of Hodgkin's disease and may be used for a portion of the tissue if this diagnosis is suspected.

Disadvantages: Fixation occurs due to cross-linking of proteins. Cross-linking occurs over time; therefore even small specimens (e.g., core needle biopsies) need to fix for a minimum of 6 to 8 hours. Overfixation (over many days to weeks) can diminish immunoreactivity. To some extent this is reversed by antigen retrieval methods. Modifications adding zinc may also preserve antigenicity. Because of the slower fixation time in comparison to other fixatives, fine bubbling of nuclei may occur due to chromatin coalescence. Formalin penetrates tissue at about 0.4 cm each 24 hours. Formalin will dissolve uric acid crystals. Such specimens should be fixed in absolute alcohol. Calcifications in the breast can also dissolve if fixed over 24 hours.

The major toxic effects of acute exposure are eye, upper respiratory tract, or dermal irritation. Very high levels can cause pulmonary edema, hemorrhage, and death in laboratory animals. Formaldehyde has been classified as a human carcinogen by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC). Epidemiologic studies have shown increased rates of certain cancers in pathology workers, embalmers, and industrial workers exposed to formaldehyde. However, it remains unclear whether formaldehyde is the causative agent in these cases.

Most people can smell formaldehyde at levels of 0.1 to 1.0 ppm. These are levels at which irritant effects occur and indicate that exposure should be reduced.[12] However, smell adapts quickly and is not a reliable method to determine whether formaldehyde vapors are present.

Exposure to formaldehyde must be kept within federal and state limits (see www.osha.gov/ for federal regulations). Exposure to formaldehyde can be monitored using individual badges and may be appropriate for individuals with possible exposure to high formaldehyde levels.

Although legal regulations only apply to workplaces, it is not advisable to release specimens to patients in formalin (see "Returning Specimens to Patients").[13-15]

Non-Formalin Fixatives

Composition: Variable – many are alcohol based. The ingredients of proprietary solutions may not be available.

Indications: May be used to avoid formaldehyde or to fix tissues for molecular protocols (see cgap-mf.nih.gov/ for the use of 70% ethanol fixation for molecular studies).

Advantages: Most are not hazardous, do not require monitoring, and can be disposed into the general sewer system. Although the purchase cost may be higher than formalin, this expense may be offset by cheaper disposal. Some types may be superior for immunoperoxidase studies because proteins are not cross-linked.

Disadvantages: Time of fixation may be critical with under- and overfixation leading to suboptimal results. Penetration into larger or fatty specimens may be slow. Nuclear and cytologic detail may not be as good as with formalin and other traditional fixatives. Some of these fixatives may not be optimal for estrogen and progesterone immunoperoxidase studies.

Bouin's solution (Yellow)

Composition: Picric acid, formaldehyde, and acetic acid.
Indications: Any tissue (but especially small biopsies).
Advantages: Fixation in Bouin's will result in sharp H&E staining and is preferred by some pathologists. Bouin's fixation can facilitate finding small lymph nodes. The nodes will remain white and the fat is stained yellow. Prolonged fixation can be used to decalcify tissue.
Disadvantages: Tissues will become quite brittle and should not be fixed for over 18 hours. Tissues can be transferred to ethanol to avoid this. Large specimens should not be fixed in Bouin's as it will color the entire specimen yellow and it will be difficult to see details grossly. Red cells will be lysed and iron and small calcium deposits dissolved. Immunoperoxidase studies performed on tissues fixed in Bouin's may be less sensitive. Picric acid can cause degradation of DNA and RNA and may interfere with the use of tissues for special studies requiring intact DNA, such as PCR (polymerase chain reaction).
Picric acid is an explosive if dry and must be kept moist!

B-Plus (Clear)

Composition: Buffered formalin with 0.5% zinc chloride.
Indications: Used for the routine fixation of lymph nodes, spleens, and other tissues if a lymphoproliferative disorder is suspected.
Advantages: B-Plus gives rapid fixation with excellent cytologic detail similar to that achieved with the mercury containing fixative, B-5. Antigen preservation for lymphoid markers is excellent. No special fixation times, washing, or disposal procedures are required, other than those used for formalin.
Disadvantages: This fixative has the same disadvantages as other formalin-based fixatives.

Zenker's acetic fixative (Orange)

Composition: Potassium dichromate, mercuric chloride, and acetic acid.
Indications: May be used for bone marrow biopsies. Requires between 8 and 12 hours for decalcification and optimal cytologic preservation. Soft tissue tumors suspected of having muscle differentiation (cross-striations are especially well preserved) may be fixed for four hours.
Advantages: Rapidly fixes tissues with excellent histologic detail. Zenker's will slowly decalcify tissues. Can be used to demonstrate a chromaffin reaction in pheochromocytomas because of the potassium dichromate but may be less sensitive than solutions not containing acetic acid (see Chapter 11). Sometimes preferred for bloody specimens, as red blood cells will be lysed.
Disadvantages: Penetrates poorly. Fixation for longer than 24 hours may cause the tissue to become brittle. The tissue can be transferred to formalin to avoid this. Erythrocytes are lysed and iron may be dissolved. Tissues are rinsed in a water bath and then washed for several hours in tap water (bone marrows ≥1 hour; soft tissue tumors ≥4 hours) after fixation to remove mercury precipitates before processing. Tissues cannot be overwashed. There is poor antigen preservation for immunohistochemistry and Zenker's interferes with chloroacetate esterase activity. Special procedures for disposal are required due to the presence of mercury. Mercury containing fixative will corrode metal.
Caution: Do not allow contact with skin – contains mercury!

Glutaraldehyde (Clear)

Composition: Glutaraldehyde, cacodylate buffer
Indications: Tissues to be preserved for electron microscopy
Advantages: Excellent preservation of ultrastructural cellular detail
Disadvantages: Penetrates slowly and poorly. Tissues must be minced into small cubes and fixed rapidly. Refrigeration is required for storage. Can result in false positive PAS stains.

Alcohol (Clear)

Composition: Ethanol and methanol rapidly displace water and denature protein.
Indications: Synovial specimens if gout is suspected. Urate crystals will be dissolved by water-containing fixatives (e.g., formalin). The tissue is fixed in 100% alcohol for non-aqueous processing and H&E and Wright stains. Smears, touch preps, and frozen sections are fixed in methanol before staining.
Advantages: Many antigens are preserved well. Most do not require special disposal methods.
Disadvantages: Alcohol dissolves lipids and penetrates poorly. Fixation times must be carefully monitored (for both under- and overfixation). Ethanol and methanol will shrink and harden tissue left in these fixatives over time. This is not a problem with alcohol-based fixatives such as methacarn.

Decalcification

Bone and other calcified tissues (blood vessels with calcified plaques, some teratomas, intervertebral discs, some meningiomas, some ovarian tumors, calcified infarcted epiploic appendages, etc.) must have the calcium removed in order to allow the specimen to be sectioned. Some fixatives (e.g., Bouin's and Zenker's) will both fix and decalcify tissues. Other decalcifying agents are not fixatives and tissues must be fixed first before using such agents. Small specimens only require 1 to 2 hours whereas femoral heads

may require 1 to 2 days. Large calcified structures should be sectioned with a bone saw prior to fixation and decalcification.

Prolonged decalcification will adversely affect histologic detail and preservation of some nuclear antigens, especially ER, PR, p53, and Ki-67.[16] Blood group H is also affected (see section under immunohistochemistry). Some antigens are relatively unaffected, but many have not been tested. It may not be possible to perform FISH or other assays requiring intact DNA on decalcified tissue. Specimens of diagnostic importance (e.g., tumors) should be decalcified for the least amount of time necessary by checking the tissue every few hours.

Undecalcified sections are sometimes examined in the study for metabolic bone disease (see in Chapter 14, "Biopsy, Metabolic Bone Disease"). Special processing is required and sections must be embedded in plastic. Such studies are usually only performed by specialized laboratories.

DISPOSAL OF FIXATIVES AND TISSUES

Tissue not submitted for histologic sections is generally held for a period of time (CAP guidelines are 14 days; TJC guidelines are 7 days) after the final sign-out of the case. This allows enough time for the clinician to receive the report and ensures that additional tissue can be submitted if any issues arise. Most departments do not have facilities for long term storage of gross specimens. Clinicians should inform their patients that specimens are discarded (especially in cases of possible medicolegal importance), to avoid later misunderstanding should a patient want a specimen (see "Returning Specimens to Patients").

Chemicals used in pathology can pose toxic, fire, explosive, and corrosive hazards. Tissues are potentially infectious. Care must be taken in how these materials are handled and disposed for the safety of human beings (both inside and outside the hospital) and to meet current hospital and state standards for waste disposal. Laboratories must conform to federal standards regulated by OSHA (see www.osha.gov/).

Fixatives and chemicals cannot be disposed into the general waste water system (i.e., down sink drains). All fixatives must be placed into special designated containers for disposal. Although adequate amounts of fixative should always be used, unnecessary amounts of fixative must be avoided. For example, the same fixative can be reused when transferring a specimen into a new container. To remove excess formalin from fixed specimens before handling, tissues may be rinsed in a water bath and the water disposed with the formalin waste.

Mercury-containing fixatives (e.g., B-5 and Zenker's) must be disposed according to institutional and legal standards. B-Plus does not contain mercury.

Xylene and methanol must be disposed into special waste containers. Xylene is a neurotoxin and short-term exposure can cause headaches, dizziness, lack of coordination, confusion, and fatigue.

Clean ethanol can be disposed into sink drains. However, ethanol that has been contaminated with any other substance (e.g., xylene during staining) must be placed in special waste containers.

If specimen containers are discarded that contain fixative, the cap should be tightly screwed on. Otherwise the liquid fixative mixed with other garbage constitutes a hazard and increases the amount of formalin in the air. Formalin containers for holding cassettes should have a lid.

Tissues and explanted synthetic materials are discarded into biohazard bags in specifically marked boxes that are incinerated.

DISPOSAL OF SHARPS

All tools used to process specimens (forceps, scissors, scalpel handles, probes) must be rinsed and carefully examined between cases to prevent carrying tissue over to another case. A small piece of malignant tissue transferred to the wrong cassette, barely visible to the eye, could potentially result in a diagnostic error or could require expensive tests (typically costing thousands of dollars) for tissue typing.

Scalpel blades, glass slides, and needles must be discarded into specific sharps containers. The person using the sharp is responsible for its proper disposal. It is preferable to discard a sharp immediately after use, rather than to set it down on the working area. Before leaving a work area, always check for scalpels, blades, or syringe needles. Severe injuries have resulted from sharp blades and needles concealed in surgical drapes or paper towels.

RETURNING SPECIMENS TO PATIENTS

Pathology departments should have a formal policy for returning specimens to patients.

Issues to be addressed are:

The Rights of the Patient. The legal ownership of tissues and materials removed from patients is not clear. In part, "ownership" of a specimen may be affected by the exact wording in a consent form for surgery or admission to a hospital. Some specimens may be classified legally as "medical waste" and may fall under state regulations for disposal of hazardous waste. In general, when release of a specimen does not involve the issues discussed below, the patient's wishes should be accommodated. However, in some cases a legal opinion may be necessary.

Diagnostic Issues. It is rare for a patient to ask for possession of a specimen prior to diagnostic procedures being performed. However, should this happen, the rights of the patient would need to be balanced against the duty of the hospital and physicians to do what is in the best interest of the patient and to make sure that the patient is well informed of the possible consequences of this action.

Safety of the Patient and Public. Specimens that are clearly a hazard, in particular any tissue from a patient with Creutzfeldt-Jacob disease, should definitely not be released. In general, foreign objects (e.g., hardware, prostheses, teeth) that are clean pose minimal if any hazard. Actual tissue specimens may carry a risk of infection if not fixed, and fixatives are potentially hazardous. Such risk can be minimized, but the patient should be informed of potential risks.

In general, fixatives should be removed and specimens washed clean. It is preferable to place specimens in a heat-sealed plastic bag that can allow viewing of the specimen without opening the container. An informational release form may also be included (see below).

Medicolegal Issues. Some specimens may become evidence in lawsuits. In such cases it is useful to photograph a specimen to retain a permanent visual record. For non-tissue specimens (e.g., breast implants or bullets), it is preferable to not alter the specimen (e.g., by sterilization or cleaning) and to release it in the same condition as it was received.

Recipient of Specimen. In all cases (except bullets) it is preferable to release the specimen directly to the patient. The patient may request that the specimen be released to a legal representative or other party. In such cases, a signed release form from the patient must be obtained and medical confidentiality must be maintained. Bullets, or other specimens serving as evidence of a crime, should only be released to a police officer and the appropriate chain of custody documentation maintained (see in Chapter 28, "Bullets").

Specimens requested for burial (usually limbs or products of conception) are generally released directly to a funeral home.

Common specimens requested for return:

- Orthopedic hardware
- Foreign bodies
- Gallstones
- Teeth

As these specimens pose little threat to health if clean and placed in a clean container, return of such specimens is unlikely to cause harm. It has been questioned as to whether gallstones placed in formalin are hazardous, as formalin is still detectable even after rinsing in water for 30 minutes. Although patients and their families are not included under government regulations concerning formalin exposure, it would be inappropriate for physicians to give a patient something that constitutes a health hazard as specimens can fall into the wrong hands. There is a report of two children ingesting gallstones fixed in formalin.[17] Although the children did not develop symptoms, the episode did prompt a visit to an emergency room, x-rays, and treatment with activated charcoal.

Given that the possibility of harm is low but possible, the following procedures are suggested:

- If it is known that the patient wants the gallstones returned, the stones can be washed clean, dried, and placed in a sealed container.
- If the gallstones have been placed in formalin, they may be rinsed in water and then dried. The stones can be placed in a sealed container with a label indicating that the stones had been fixed in formalin.

In either case, the patient should be informed that the gallstones are best left within the sealed container.

In June 2006, a placenta was found floating in a pond near Wellesley College in Massachusetts. Concern for the mother and infant led to the draining of the pond, a search of the campus, and intense media coverage. The placenta had been saved frozen by a couple after a normal delivery several months previously. For unknown reasons, they decided to discard it in the pond. Although ultimately no one was harmed, the waste of police and community resources was considerable and could have been avoided if the parents had been educated about the appropriate disposal of human tissues.

Sample Specimen Release Form

Figure 2-2 is an example of a form that could be used to both inform patients of potential risks, appropriate procedures for handling a specimen, and appropriate disposal, as well as to document the release of a specimen. If the specimen is released to a person other than the patient, the patient must sign a separate form authorizing release of the specimen and the associated medical information.

DEPARTMENT OF PATHOLOGY
REQUEST FOR RELEASE OF PATHOLOGY SPECIMENS

Patient name: _____ Date: _____

Surgical Pathology Number: _____

Name of person requesting specimen: _____

Name of person authorizing the release of the specimen: _____

Type of specimen: _____

Specimens received by the pathology department are examined and sampled for diagnostic purposes. Specimens are normally held for two weeks and then disposed of by incineration. Requests for return of specimens must be made at the time of surgery or within two weeks.

Risks involved in handling pathology specimens

Pathology specimens consist of human tissues and/or prosthetic materials that have been in contact with human tissues. Although the specimen has been placed in an impermeable container, these tissues and materials may constitute a health hazard and must be handled and disposed of properly as described below. If you wish to discard a specimen, you may return it to the department for disposal.

Unfixed tissue (e.g., amputations, placentas): Unfixed human tissue potentially harbors infectious agents such as hepatitis B virus and the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV). Tissue must always be handled with protective gloves and must not be allowed to contaminate surfaces. It is strongly recommended that such specimens be handled directly and exclusively by a designated funeral home. Appropriate disposal is by burial or incineration only.

Fixed tissues (e.g., appendix, gallstones): Formalin is a fixative that will inactivate most infectious agents but will not destroy the agent responsible for Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease. Tissue must always be handled using protective gloves and must not be allowed to contaminate other surfaces. Tissues must be disposed of by incineration.

Formalin is a toxic respiratory irritant and potential carcinogen. It should never be inhaled, ingested, or allowed to come into contact with skin or mucosal surfaces. The container must be kept away from children and pets. Containers must only be opened in well-ventilated sites. The fixed specimen may have been washed, but small amounts of formalin may remain in or on the specimen.

Synthetic materials (e.g., orthopedic hardware, breast implants): This material may have been cleaned of all gross blood and tissue fragments but must be handled with caution. It is recommended that these materials be kept in a protective container and only handled using gloves. These materials should be disposed of by incineration.

I have read and understand the information provided above and accept responsibility for handling and disposing of the requested specimen appropriately.

Signature _____ **Date** _____

Relationship to patient: _____

Figure 2–2. Informational request form for release of specimens.

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3 The Histology Laboratory: What the Pathologist Needs to Know, from Tissue Cassettes to Glass Slides

The histotechnologist and the histology laboratory are essential for the accurate diagnosis of pathologic specimens. However, the process by which tissue in cassettes is converted into glass slides remains an enigma for many pathologists. A basic knowledge about histologic laboratory technique is necessary to facilitate communication between pathologists and histotechnologists. Poor communication can lead to suboptimal evaluation and possibly errors in diagnosis.

HISTOLOGIC PROCESSING

Standard tissue cassettes measure 3 × 2.5 × 0.4 cm. Tissue must be cut to fit easily into the cassette and must be 0.3 cm or less in thickness (no more than the width of two nickels). Thin sections taken from such tissue will fit onto standard microscope slides measuring 7.5 × 2.5 cm (Fig. 3-1). Larger tissue sections can be produced using larger cassettes and glass slides, but require special equipment and training.

Tissue Processing

The tissue undergoes an automated processing step (usually requiring several hours) in which the tissue goes through three steps:

1. **Dehydration:** The water in the tissue is replaced by alcohol. Nonaqueous embedding media (such as paraffin) cannot penetrate tissues containing water.
2. **Clearing:** The alcohol is replaced by a clearing agent that makes the tissue receptive to infiltration by the embedding medium. The clearing agent must be miscible with both alcohol and the embedding medium. Because xylene (a common clearing agent) has a high refractive index, the tissue will also become transparent ("cleared").
3. **Infiltration:** The xylene is replaced by paraffin or another embedding medium. The paraffin stiffens the tissue, and this allows very thin sections (only a few microns in thickness) to be cut with a microtome.

Problems with Submitted Tissue

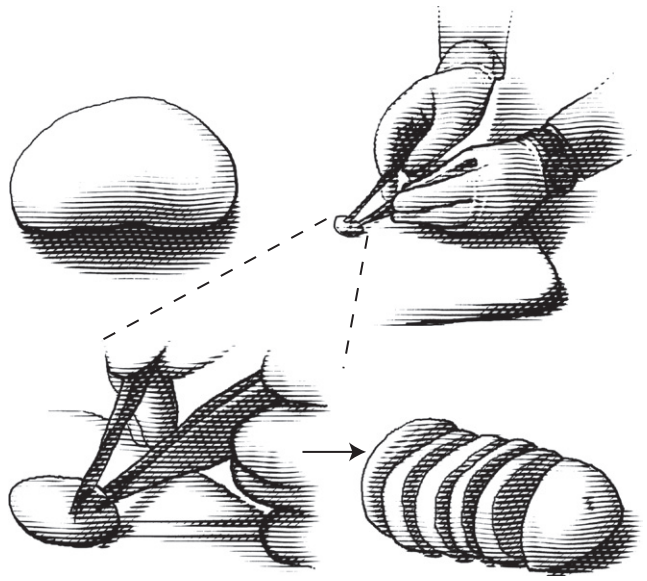
Fatty Tissue. Fixatives, and especially dehydrants, penetrate fatty tissues slowly. This type of tissue must be cut very thin to fix and dehydrate well.

Tissue Too Thick or Large for the Cassette. It is often tempting for pathologists to stuff cassettes with tissue either because it is easier than cutting thin sections or in a (futile) attempt to have a larger area of tissue present on the slide. Fixatives and processing solutions cannot gain access to the tissue. The tissue will not process well and may remain soft and it is often impossible to section such tissue. This outcome can have a significant adverse affect on patient care if the tissue can never be examined (e.g., lymph nodes on a tumor resection). Tissue sections should be no thicker than 0.2 to 0.3 cm.

Calcified Substances. As a general rule of thumb, any tissue submitted for processing should be easily sectioned with a scalpel blade. Thick bone or calcified tissues cannot be cut by a microtome and must be decalcified prior to processing.

Hair. Hair can dull microtome blades and should be carefully shaved off if abundant on a skin specimen or dermoid cyst.

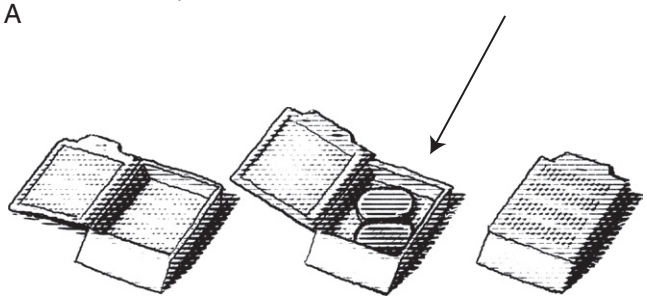
Hard Foreign Material. Staples and clips must be removed from tissue. Metallic objects can be located by radiographing tissue, if necessary.



A specimen is cut into thin sections

A

A. Tissue is grossly serially sectioned (2 to several mm) to look for small lesions.

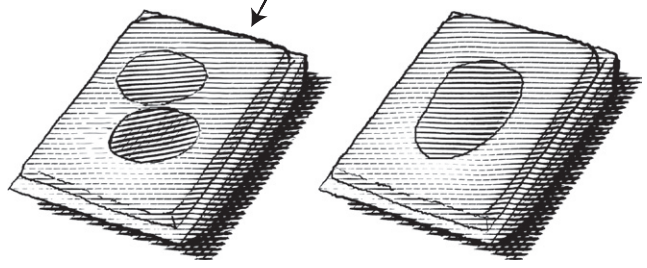


Sections are placed into cassettes, fixed, and submitted for paraffin embedding

B

B. **Cassette:** The tissue is placed in a plastic cassette for processing. The tissue slices should be no thicker than 0.3 cm and should fit loosely in the cassette to allow access to all of the reagents.

In general, tissue processing (dehydration, clearing, and infiltration by paraffin) requires several hours and is usually performed overnight.

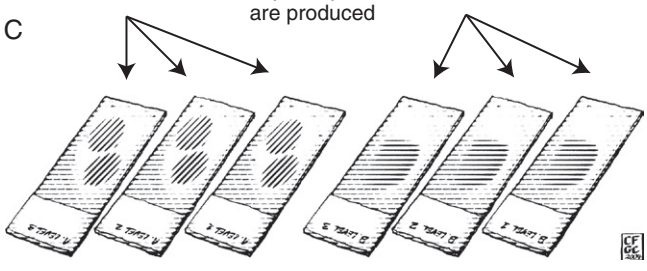


In this example, 2 paraffin blocks are produced

C

C. **Block:** Each block consists of the tissue in the cassette embedded in paraffin and attached to the bottom of the same cassette for identification.

D. **Slide:** A microtome is used to generate a thin slice (less than the thickness of a cell — typically 4 microns) from each block for mounting on a glass slide for microscopic examination.



Glass slides (three levels in this example) are produced for each block

D

Levels: If 4-micron slices are cut, a 0.3-cm thick tissue section can yield up to 750 glass slides (levels). For special stains, "no waste" slices (i.e., consecutive slices) can be used. To evaluate more of the tissue in the block, sections from deeper levels within the tissue are prepared—typically 20 microns apart. In order to evaluate all the tissue in a block (e.g., sentinel lymph nodes for breast cancer) levels may need to be prepared from sections several hundred microns apart.

Figure 3–1. From specimen to slide: tissue processing.

Multiple Small Tissue Fragments. Fragments of tissue small enough to be lost through the holes in the cassette (0.1 to 0.2 cm) must be placed in a specimen bag or wrapped in lens paper. This also aids in identifying all tissue fragments for embedding.

Tissue Embedding

At the end of the processing step, the cassettes containing tissue are immersed in paraffin. The tissue is removed from the cassette and placed in a metallic mold. The tissue is oriented in an optimal fashion for sectioning in liquid paraffin. The paraffin is then solidified by cooling. The block of paraffin with the tissue within is attached to the bottom of the corresponding cassette for identification.

Special instructions for embedding may be required for the following:

Cross Sections of Tissues (e.g., Colon, Skin). It is optimal to have sections oriented to show the complete cross section perpendicular to the surface of the tissue. This orientation may be obvious in large flat sections. Sponges placed in a cassette are sometimes helpful in holding tissue flat.

Skin Shave Biopsies. These biopsies often curl and are hard to orient. These specimens may be submitted intact and sectioned and oriented perpendicularly at the time of embedding.

Small (<0.4 cm) Punch Biopsies. Small punch biopsies, especially those with vesicular lesions, may be submitted intact and bisected and oriented at the time of embedding.

Small Lesions in Large Fragments of Tissue (e.g., a Hyperplastic Polyp in the Colon). Very small lesions may be seen only on one face of a tissue section. In such cases, one side of the tissue can be inked and specific instructions provided (e.g., "embed with inked tissue surface up"). Avoid red ink, as it may be difficult to see. Black ink is preferred.

Tubular Structures (e.g., Temporal Arteries, Vas Deferens, Fallopian Tubes). It is preferable to submit the entire tubular structure in the cassette with instructions to cut into cross sections before embedding. It may be difficult, or impossible, to orient multiple small fragments after processing.

Multiple Fragments. The fragments should be embedded at the same level in the block in order to obtain a representative section of each piece on the glass slide. It is preferable to limit the number of fragments per cassette if it is expected that only some of the fragments may be diagnostic. In some cases, it may be helpful to separate fragments more likely to be diagnostic and to submit these in a separate cassette (e.g., breast cancer cores with radiologic calcifications may be separated from those that do not have calcifications).

Small Intestine Biopsies. These biopsies may be placed on mesh by the endoscopist to aid in orientation. The entire mesh and tissue can be wrapped in paper and submitted. Each specimen should be placed in a separate cassette. The specimen can then be oriented for embedding.

Making Glass Slides

The "block" (the tissue embedded in paraffin attached to the bottom of the cassette) is mounted on a microtome and a four micron section is cut from the surface of the block. The cut tissue is floated in a water bath. In some cases thinner or thicker sections are appropriate. The tissue section is then placed on a glass slide. Plain glass slides are appropriate for most types of stains. Slides to be used for immunohistochemistry require a special adhesive surface on the glass to keep the tissue attached during the procedure. Commercial "Plus" (charged) slides are often used. "Double plus" gold slides are more adhesive, but also more expensive. They should be reserved for cases in which "Plus" slides have proved inadequate. This type of slide must be specifically requested on the requisition form.

The slides are dried in an oven for variable periods of time to remove any water present. The tissue can then be stained and a cover slip added. When properly prepared, such slides will be of good quality for many decades.

Problems with tissue sections on glass slides (e.g., holes, microscopic chatter, scratches) are often due to problems with tissue selection and fixation prior to arrival in the histology laboratory and can be minimized by careful gross processing by the pathologist.

INFORMATION FOR THE HISTOLOGY LABORATORY

The histotechnologist often requires information about a specimen to optimize the embedding and staining procedures. This is most easily accomplished by keeping a list of cassettes submitted on each case with room for notation of the information listed below. This list can also be used to ensure that all cassettes are received by the histology laboratory.

Type of Tissue

The type of tissue can be important in deciding how a specimen should be embedded. For example, needle biopsies are ideally arranged in parallel rows perpendicular to the long axis of the slide. It is also helpful to indicate specimens in which problems may be encountered (e.g., if it is possible that small bone chips or metallic fragments may be present).

Type of Fixative

The type of fixative should be specified if not the usual fixative used by the laboratory. Some fixatives (e.g., those containing mercury) require special techniques for processing to remove precipitates and pigments. Anaqueous processing (e.g., to demonstrate uric acid crystals) is often accomplished by hand and not in tissue processors.

Number of Fragments

The number of tissue fragments present is important to ensure that all the tissue in the cassette is processed. This information can also sometimes be helpful in detecting mislabeled cassettes.

Orientation

After processing, the tissue is removed from the cassette and re-embedded in a paraffin block. For most specimens, the orientation within the block is not important. However, special instructions for the orientation of certain specimens for embedding should be provided when necessary. For example, some small specimens are better processed intact and sectioned by the histotechnologist immediately before embedding:

- Temporal arteries
- Vas deferens
- Small skin punch biopsies (< 0.4 cm)
- Skin punch biopsies with vesicular lesions
- Skin shave biopsies

Some tissue slices should be embedded in a way such that one side is face up and is sectioned first when preparing slides:

- Small lesions within a larger piece of tissue.
- En face margins for which specific orientation is important.

The tissue may be inked on one side and instructions provided. For example, "Please embed with the inked side face up."

Small intestine biopsies submitted on mesh can be processed attached to the mesh. The histotechnologist can use the mesh as a guide to orientation.

Number of Levels per Paraffin Block

The tissue in a paraffin block is 0.1 to 0.3 cm in thickness, if it has been appropriately sliced thinly. Tens to hundreds of glass slides can potentially be prepared from this tissue. The first slide made is a representative section of this tissue. A "ribbon" of tissue may be made from small specimens and placed on the slide. This ribbon includes consecutive tissue sections and rarely reveals new information unless the pathologic finding is very small (e.g., viral inclusions). For large lesions, one slide representative of the tissue present is usually adequate.

Levels refer to sections taken at different depths through the block (typically 0.02 [20 microns] to 0.2 mm apart). Multiple levels can be helpful in the following circumstances:

Small lesions (less than the thickness of the block, typically 1 to 2 mm) may be present on some levels but not on others or better seen on some levels. Examples include small foci of prostatic carcinoma or breast ductal proliferations associated with calcifications.

Demonstrating the relationship of a lesion to a margin over a small area (e.g., a close margin on a prostectomy).

Additional histochemical or immunoperoxidase studies: If it is anticipated that lesions may be small (e.g., prostate needle biopsies or sentinel lymph nodes for melanoma), intervening unstained levels may be prepared when the intial H&E slides are made. In the majority of cases, however, enough lesional tissue is present such that additional slides can be prepared later, if necessary.

Evaluation of multiple fragments of tissue: Levels can ensure that all fragments are well represented. Many pathologists have experienced the "Atlantis phenomenon" – when an entirely unexpected fragment of tissue appears on a deeper level because the fragment was located deeper in the block than the other fragments. Although it is optimal to have all fragments embedded in the same plane, in practice this is difficult to achieve.

The number of routinely examined levels varies for different organ sites and pathology departments. A reasonable approach is to obtain two to three levels (the first superficial and the last approximately halfway through the tissue) as standard processing for small biopsies. Good communication between the clinician taking the biopsy and the pathologist is very helpful to guide the need for additional levels if the initial slides do not correlate with the lesion biopsied.

Special Stains

For some types of small biopsies, special stains are almost always helpful and may be ordered on every case (liver, transbronchial, kidney, transplant kidney, bone marrow, testicular, and temporal artery biopsies; Table 3-1). The types of stains ordered will vary among institutions. For large specimens it is preferable to view the H&E sections first to decide whether special stains are needed and, if so, to choose the optimal blocks for the performance of the studies.

IDENTIFICATION OF TISSUE

All efforts must be made to ensure that tissues always correspond to the correct patient:

- Always match the number on the cassette with the number on the specimen container and the specimen requisition form before placing tissue in a cassette.
- Provide an accurate gross description of the tissue in each cassette (i.e., number of fragments, color if relevant).
- Avoid consecutive numbers for similar small specimens, if possible.

TABLE 3–1. ROUTINE STAINS AND LEVELS AND INSTRUCTIONS FOR BIOPSIES

TYPE OF BIOPSY	ROUTINE STAINS AND LEVELS	COMMENTS
Bladder	2 H&E	
Bone marrow	2 Giemsa (1L, 3L), H&E (2L)	
Breast, needle	3 H&E	Indicate cassette with calcifications.
Cell block	2 H&E	Special stains, if needed
Colon	2 H&E	
Polyp	2 H&E	See Part 2 for instructions
Heart	3 H&E	If a specific diagnosis is suspected (e.g., amyloid) additional studies may be required.
Kidney	2 H&E (1L, 5L), 1 Jones Silver (3L) 2 PAS (2L, 6L), 1 AFOG (4L)	If tumor is suspected, different studies may be required.
Larynx/oropharynx	3 H&E	
Liver, needle for liver diseases	2 H&E (1L, 5L), 1 TRI (2L), 1 IRON (3L), 1 RETIC (4L)	If tumor is known or suspected, see below.
Liver, needle for masses	3 H&E, unstained levels	Histology stains are usually not helpful for tumor cases. Often helpful to order unstained slides up front.
Lung		
Endobronchial	3 H&E	Special stains, if needed
Transbronchial	3 H&E (1L, 3L, 5L), 1 MSS (6L), Gram (2L), AFB (4L)	Diffuse disease or transplant cases. If granulomatous disease is probable, also order AFB and Gram.
	3 H&E	Tumor cases
Prostate, needle	3 H&E (1L, 3L, 5L), 2 unstained (2L, 4L)	Unstained slides used for IHC, if necessary
Prostate, TURP	1 H&E	Submit 12 cassettes. If 1 or 2, order 2L.
Sentinel lymph nodes		
Breast	3 H&E	Equally spaced levels (i.e., hundreds of microns apart)
Melanoma	3 H&E, intervening 5 unstained levels	Unstained slides used for S100 and MART-1, if necessary
Skin*		
Punch >0.3 cm	3 H&E	Bisect or trisect
Punch ≤0.3 cm	3 H&E	Submit entire. Lab will bisect.
Punch with vesicle	3 H&E	Submit entire. Lab will bisect.
Shave	2 H&E	Submit entire. Lab will section.
Ellipse	3 H&E	
Small bowel	2 H&E	
Stomach	2 H&E, alcian yellow (3L)	

continued

TABLE 3–1. ROUTINE STAINS AND LEVELS AND INSTRUCTIONS FOR BIOPSIES—cont'd

TYPE OF BIOPSY	ROUTINE STAINS AND LEVELS	COMMENTS
Temporal artery	3 H&E (1L, 3L, 5L), 2 ET (2L, 4L)	Submit entire. Lab will cross section.
Testicular	2 H&E (1L, 5L), 1 PAS (2L), 1 ET (3L), 1 TRI (4L)	
Vas deferens	1 H&E	Submit entire. Lab will cross section.

*Skin punches and shaves: If the clinical diagnosis is epidermal inclusion cyst, debridement, or necrotizing fasciitis, only one level is needed.
1L, first level; 2L, second level, etc.
NOTE: Small specimens not included in the table are not routine specimens and often do require additional levels and/or stains (e.g., needle biopsies of masses of unknown origin).

If specimens are placed into the incorrect cassette, it may be impossible to correctly identify the case histologically if the types of tissue confused are similar (e.g., two skin punch biopsies). The gross description of the number and size of fragments may sometimes help in identifying the correct case number.

In some cases it may be necessary to use special techniques to correctly match a specimen with a patient. However, these methods are costly and time-consuming and should be avoided if possible. In some cases, genetic instability of a carcinoma may make matching a tumor with a patient difficult.

Methods used to identify specimens have included the following:

- **Immunoperoxidase studies for ABH blood group antigens** can be performed but they require a relatively large piece of tissue in order to have enough blood vessels (endothelial cells and red blood cells) to evaluate. This method is most useful to identify a possible mix-up between two specific specimens (e.g., two bone marrow biopsies) if the two patients are known to be of different blood types. Common fixatives do not change antigenicity, but decalcification can diminish immunoreactivity for H antigen.
- **HLA typing using PCR** can be used to identify very small tissue fragments microdissected from glass slides.
- **Polymorphic microsatellite markers** can be analyzed using PCR and can be used to provide a definite match (or mismatch) between a patient and a specimen.

The Armed Forces DNA Identification Laboratory (AFDIL) can identify fixed specimens using a variety of techniques (see www.afip.org for details). The following list of laboratories are all ASCLD-LAB (American Society of Crime Laboratory Directors-Laboratory Accreditation Board) accredited and should be able to provide assistance for DNA testing. The American Academy of Forensic Sciences can provide additional sources (719-636-1100 <http://www.aafs.org>).[1-5]

1. ReliaGene Technologies, Inc.
   New Orleans, LA – nucDNA/mtDNA/Ys
   Sudhir K. Sinha – 1-800-256-4106, <http://www.reliagene.com>
2. Orchid Cellmark
   Germantown, MD – nucDNA/Ys Germantown, MD: 1-800-USA-LABS
   Nashville, TN – nucDNA only Nashville, TN 1-888-256-6383
   Dallas, TX – nucDNA/mtDNA Dallas, TX: 1-800-USA-LABS
   <http://www.cellmark-labs.com>
3. Mitotyping Technologies, LLC
   State College, PA – mtDNA typing only
   Dr. Terry Melton – 814-861-0676, <http://www.mitotyping.com>
4. The Bode Technology Group, Inc.
   Springfield, VA – nucDNA/mtDNA
   RandyNagy–703-644-1200,<http://www.bodetech.com>
5. Serological Research Institute
   Richmond, CA – nucDNA/mtDNA/Ys
   510-223-SERI, <http://www.serological.com/>
6. National Medical Services
   Willow Grove, PA – nucDNA/Ys
   (800) 522-6671, <http://www.nmslab.com/2004/>
7. Identigene
   Houston, TX – nucDNA/mtDNA/Ys
   Victor Alpizar – 1-800-DNA-TYPE, http://www.identigene.com.
8. Laboratory Corporation of American (Labcorp)
   Research Triangle Park, NC – nucDNA/mtDNA/Ys
   1-800-533-0567 Department 6, <http://www.labcorp.com>

EXTRANEOUS TISSUE ("FLOATERS")

Extraneous tissue consists of fragments of tissue that are present on a slide but are derived from a different specimen. This becomes a significant problem if the extraneous tissue contains malignant cells, because it may be impossible to determine definitively that the tissue was not derived from the patient. Extraneous tissue may contaminate other tissue prior to the arrival in the pathology department, as it is being processed in the cutting room, from small pieces of

loose tissue in a tissue processor (typically placental villi), or during slide preparation. Plasma may be added during the preparation of cell blocks and may contain small fragments of DNA.

In a large study, extraneous tissue was found on 0.6% of slides in a prospective study and 2.9% of slides in a retrospective study.[6] Most of the extraneous tissue was introduced during preparation of the slide. In less than a third of the cases, the tissue was in the paraffin block. In 0.3% to 3.1% of cases with extraneous tissue, the extraneous tissue caused moderate to severe diagnostic difficulty.

Extraneous tissue can also cause problems when microdissection and sensitive molecular techniques are used. Special microtomes, waterbaths, and cleaning procedures may be required.

Extraneous tissue should be diligently avoided by paying attention to the following:

- All dissecting tools (forceps, scissors, scalpel) should be kept in a jar of water between uses. This will wash off small tissue fragments and avoid larger fragments adhering to dirty tools. Do not reuse scalpel blades between cases. Tissue often sticks to one side of a blade (inevitably the side one cannot see).
- The dissection area must be kept clean. After cutting in any case with known malignancy, one must be especially fastidious in removing any soiled material on the cutting surface, gloves, or other surfaces.
- Small fragments and friable specimens should be wrapped in paper or placed in a bag to prevent tissue fragments escaping from a cassette.
- Solutions in tissue processors should be changed routinely.
- During embedding, tools and equipment must be cleaned between cases.
- Water baths (used when making glass slides) should be kept free of extraneous tissue between specimens.

The significance of extraneous tissue may range from the trivial to the diagnostically dangerous. Strategies for identifying tissue as extraneous include:

- Checking the block to see if the extra fragment is present. If it is not, or additional recuts do not reveal the fragment, this is evidence that the fragment may have been introduced during slide preparation.
- Checking other cases processed the same day to determine whether the tissue in the fragment resembles another case.
- Checking for ink on the suspected extraneous tissue and comparing the results to the tissue from the correct case. For example, if ink is present but the correct specimen was not inked, this is evidence that the tissue is from a different case.
- Submitting additional tissue from the specimen to determine whether additional tissue fragments similar to the possible extraneous tissue are present.

There is no standard procedure for documenting extraneous tissue on a slide. Various methods used by pathologists include:

- Circling the extraneous tissue and writing "floater" or its equivalent on the glass slide.
- Making deeper levels that do not include the extraneous tissue. The deeper levels become the permanent slides and the initial slide(s) are discarded.
- If the extraneous tissue is in the paraffin block, the tissue may be removed from the block and new slides prepared. The initial slide(s) are discarded.
- Noting the presence of extraneous tissue in the pathology report.
- Keeping a separate log book or computerized record of slides with extraneous tissue.
- Very obvious cases of no diagnostic importance may not require documentation.

In exceptional cases in which it cannot be determined whether important diagnostic tissue is intrinsic or extrinsic to a specimen, it may be necessary to type the tissue (see "Identification of Tissue" earlier). If such methods fail to provide a definitive answer, the case must be signed out with extraneous tissue in the differential diagnosis. The clinician should be called and informed of the situation so that he or she can decide whether additional biopsies are warranted.

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4

The Surgical Pathology Report: From the Glass Slide to the Final Diagnosis

After the specimen has been processed and the glass slides made, the pathologist must render a diagnosis. Numerous large, multi-volume, multi-authored pathology texts are available to aid in diagnosis. Once the interpretation has been made, a surgical pathology report is issued and becomes part of the patient's medical record. Pathology reports serve five main purposes:

1. **Diagnostic and prognostic information** for individual patients.
2. **Information to guide treatment** of individual patients.
3. **Criteria for eligibility for clinical trials.** Since the results of these trials are used to determine the efficacy of treatments, the accuracy of information in the report will affect not only the individual patient enrolled in a trial, but many other patients as well.
4. **Information for clinical databases** to be used in both clinical and basic research. The content of pathology reports is important for the understanding of disease processes as well as new investigations into the treatment and pathogenesis of disease.
5. **Quality assurance.** The contents of pathology reports may be reviewed to evaluate various indicators of quality care for pathology departments and for the overall care of patients.

ELEMENTS OF A SURGICAL PATHOLOGY REPORT

- Institution identifiers: Name, address, telephone number, fax number
- Patient identifiers: Name, date of birth, hospital identification number, gender
- Name of the pathologist(s) responsible for signing the report and/or responsible for other elements of the report (e.g., OR consultation, gross examination)
- Name of the clinician(s) submitting the specimen as well as other clinicians caring for the patient
- Specimen number: A unique specimen identification number assigned by the pathology department. This number should be located prominently at the top portion of each page of the report for easy identification.
- Date of procedure and date specimen was received
- Date the report was issued
- Clinical history
- Type of specimen submitted, including a list of all specimens submitted
- OR consultation reports: The specimen examined, type of examination (gross examination, frozen section, cytologic preparations), and intraoperative diagnosis are included. The pathologist responsible for rendering the diagnosis is identified.
- Gross description: Include the disposition of all tissue (e.g., saved for electron microscopy [EM], frozen, research, etc.) and any special techniques used (e.g., decalcification, inking of margins). Specify whether all or only a part of the specimen has been submitted.
- Other materials received such as specimen radiographs (describe what they show) or peripheral blood smears
- Description of tissue submitted for microscopic sections: Type of tissue, number of cassettes. It is preferable that each block of tissue has a unique identifier.
- Microscopic description: Provided when appropriate (e.g., unusual tumors or diseases). A microscopic description is not necessary for every specimen if important information is provided in the diagnosis.
- Specimen heading: The organ, site, and type of procedure are specified. In some cases, specific labeling provided by the surgeon may be required to identify the specimen (e.g., a specimen labeled "closest margin").
- Diagnosis: The type or types of pathologic processes present. Important information from the gross examination (e.g., tumor size) is included. The results of special studies are discussed. Discrepancies between intraoperative diagnosis and the final diagnosis are discussed.
- A statement that the pathologist has examined gross and/or microscopic tissues before rendering the diagnosis may be required for billing purposes.
- Consultations: Intradepartmental consultations can be documented by including the names of the consulting pathologists. External consultations initiated by

the pathologist can be documented by incorporating the consultant's report. The incorporation of external consultations not initiated by the pathologist may be included at his or her discretion.

- Checklists for malignant tumors: Includes all relevant information for prognosis and staging. Used in addition to, or sometimes in lieu of, a diagnosis in some institutions. The CAP (see www.cap.org) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org) have published suggested synoptic reporting forms (see Part 2).
- AJCC classification: For tumor resections, the pathologist should provide sufficient information for T and N classifications to be made. The actual T and N categories should be provided, when possible. Staging is not required, as this often requires additional information (e.g., the results of the metastatic work-up) not available to the pathologist.
- Recommendations for further follow-up or treatment: These are usually best discussed directly with the clinician. When incorporated into the report, they should, in general, be phrased as suggestions.
- Clinically significant unsuspected findings: It is preferable that such findings be conveyed immediately to the clinician(s) with a phone call. The time and date of the call should be documented in the report. (see "Guidelines for Communication of Urgent Results").
- Amended reports: An amended report should be clearly indicated, preferably on the first page of the report, and the date of the amendment given. It should be stated whether the new information is different from the original information. The information provided in previous reports should be included with an explanation for the change in the report.
- A list of prior surgical and cytologic specimens from the same institution is helpful to include. It is useful to have available a list of all prior diagnoses pertaining on a patient at the time of final sign-out to aid in the interpretation of the current specimen and to avoid possible errors.

This list incorporates the recommendations of the ADASP.[1]

DIAGNOSTIC HEADINGS

Headings need to be as accurate and as informative as possible and should include:

- Organ or tissue
- Site
- Surgical procedure
- Relevant gross descriptors (e.g., length of colon, weight of the spleen)
- Specific designations given by the clinician (e.g., "tissue closest to the margin")

Usually the headings are based on the label used for the specimen or the gross recognition of the type of specimen. If the type of specimen or type of surgery cannot be recognized, it is generally preferable to discuss the case with the surgeon, as the type of specimen can affect the method of processing it as well as how the specimen should be billed.

Specimen headings using "Specimen labeled" often do not provide useful information on the type of specimen examined. For example, [Specimen labeled "Right Lung"] could be anything from a transbronchial biopsy to an extrapleural pneumonectomy. This type of heading forces the reader to search for this important information in the gross description.

Examples of appropriate headings are given in Table 4-1.

Never use a label that may be misleading (e.g., one which may imply an incorrect diagnosis) because someone reading the report may easily mistake a heading for a diagnosis.

Weights should be included when relevant for evaluation or for billing purposes (e.g., spleen, breast reduction mammoplasty, myomectomy).

All separately submitted specimens are given separate diagnoses with separate headings. If multiple specimens have the same name and it is appropriate to combine two or more separately submitted specimens (i.e., they all clearly represent the same type of tissue from the same site and separating the specimens does not provide additional information), this may be indicated in the heading: "Mesenteric mass (two specimens)."

TABLE 4–1. EXAMPLES OF APPROPRIATE DIAGNOSTIC HEADINGS

Colon resections	Right colectomy (ascending colon and cecum [44 cm], terminal ileum [4 cm], and appendix): Sigmoid colon (30 cm), resection: Abdominoperineal resection (rectum [35 cm] and anus [15 cm]):
Breast resections	Left breast, modified radical mastectomy and axillary dissection: Right breast, simple mastectomy: Left breast, re-excision: Right breast excisional biopsy, wire localization for calcifications: Left breast, stereotactic 14 gauge core needle biopsies for an irregular mass:
Lung resections	Left lung, pneumonectomy: Right lower lobe of lung, lobectomy: Right upper lobe of lung, wedge resection:
Prostate	Prostate, radical prostatectomy (42 gms): Prostate, suprapubic prostatectomy (150 gms): Prostate, transurethral resection (33 gms):
Skin	Skin of chest, excision: Skin of right leg, 3 mm punch biopsy: Skin of face, shave biopsy:

If frozen sections were performed, they must be incorporated into the heading for billing purposes: "Inguinal lymph node (including frozen section A and touch preparation A)."

STANDARDIZED DIAGNOSIS FORMS

CAP (www.cap.org) and ADASP (www.adasp.org) have developed standardized reporting forms for most common tumors.

Advantages of a standardized synoptic (synoptic is Greek for an overall view of things, a summary or synopsis) report include:

- Uniform diagnostic terms, criteria, and style are established for a department or group of pathologists. Additional standard criteria can be included in each report (e.g., the basis of grading systems, definitions, etc.).
- Checklists ensure that important diagnostic/prognostic features are always included. Some data elements are now required for accreditation as a cancer center. Additional information for AJCC classification and/or grading can be incorporated into a standard form for easy access by the pathologist.
- Facilitates preparing the report by staff and residents.
- Facilitates typing of reports by secretaries as mnemonics can be used for many sentences or phrases. This can shorten turnaround time by providing finished reports earlier.
- Important information is easily accessible for clinicians.
- Information is readily incorporated into computerized databases.
- Teaching tool – provides important diagnostic features of most common diagnoses for each organ system.

However, unusual or complicated specimens should not be squeezed into a standard format but must be given an appropriate individualized pathology report. Any type of standardized report needs to be flexible enough to allow additional comments for unusual findings.

Disadvantages of synoptic reporting include -

- May adversely affect resident training by stifling independent thinking. Residents may become dependent on checklists and templates. Not all pathology findings can be included in multiple-choice formats.
- Pathologists may not be able to reach a consensus on the types of information to be provided or on specific diagnostic criteria.
- Errors may be more difficult to detect with templates as complete sentences or parameters may be changed by typographical errors.

However, in most cases it should be possible to develop a system with sufficient standardization to provide important information for clinical management but with enough flexibility to provide additional information for unusual cases. The use of checklists has been shown to significantly improve the incorporation of important information into pathology reports.[2]

Part Two includes sign-out checklists for all major tumor types and resections that can be the basis for synoptic reporting. The lists are based on published recommendations, departmental recommendations by subspecialists, and the local needs of surgeons and oncologists. The lists will need to be modified for the specific requirements of each institution and will require modification over time.

TURNAROUND TIME

For optimal patient care, surgical cases need to be signed out in a timely fashion and clinicians need to be kept informed of the status of cases. Standards have been developed for different types of specimens.[3]

- Routine cases: two working days
- Complex cases: additional time allowed if special procedures are required

Time is measured from the time of specimen accession (day 0) to the day the report is signed by the pathologist. In the report cited above, 95% of routine biopsy cases and 91% of complex cases were signed out within two working days.

MODIFICATION OF AN EXISTING REPORT

Addendums

Occasionally nondiagnostic errors or omissions are present in reports due to typographical mistakes, specimen misidentification, the absence of important clinical information, or additional studies that are to be performed. In the majority of cases, changes and additional information can be reported in an addendum. If the changes are significant, the clinician must be notified. Pathologists must be aware that because clinicians do not know that an addendum has been issued, many addenda are never seen or may be overlooked by clinicians. If important information is pending, it is preferable in most instances to wait for the information to incorporate it into the main report (see below). If that would create a substantial delay, it is helpful to indicate in the initial report that an addendum will be added in the future to alert clinicians to its existence. When an addendum is added, the original report is not unsigned and remains unchanged.

Amended Reports – Revised Diagnosis

If there is a major error in a pathology report, it should be unsigned, corrected, and resigned. This is an "amended" report. The most common reasons for amending a report are the following:

1. Additional special stains or other studies are performed
2. An intradepartmental consultation occurs

3. An extradepartmental review is requested by the pathologist
4. Additional clinical information is provided
5. A review is requested by a clinician, often in the context of a tumor board

Amending a report should be avoided due to the potential harm an erroneous diagnosis can cause. The first three reasons for amended reports can be avoided by delaying sign-out until all intra- and extradepartmental consultations as well as special studies are completed.

Clinicians play an important role in detecting errors due to misidentification of patients or due to the failure to provide sufficient clinical information for optimal interpretation. Reviews at conferences are helpful in detecting errors in misinterpretation.

UNSIGNING AND CHANGING A REPORT SHOULD ONLY BE USED IN VERY RARE CASES IN WHICH FAILURE TO CHANGE THE ORIGINAL REPORT COULD RESULT IN SIGNIFICANT HARM TO THE PATIENT. In general, fewer than 1% of reports should require amending. The number of amended/revised reports is used as a quality assurance (QA) measure and information on these reports is collected and reported by pathology departments. Therefore, this option should only be used when absolutely necessary.[4,5] The vast majority of corrections and additions are best performed using an addendum.

If an original report is unsigned and resigned, the following must happen because the original report is part of the patient's medical record:

- The original report must be retained and/or all changes must be carefully documented along with the date the changes were made within the report. If the revised diagnosis replaces the original diagnosis in the main body of the report, the original report should be retained below with a heading to the effect "The following original diagnosis is retained for documentation purposes only."
- The clinicians caring for the patient must be contacted directly by telephone and informed of the changes. Any information important enough to warrant unsigning a report would be considered a "critical value."

Change in Patient Identification

In the survey sited above, in 0.39 per 1000 reports there was a change in patient identification.[4] Unfortunately, if the specimen has been mislabeled, most such errors are undetectable by the pathology laboratory. Original reports should be maintained for documentation purposes but corrections must be made. In rare cases, it may be necessary to use tissue identification techniques to determine the source of the specimen (see in Chapter 3, "Identification of Tissue").

GUIDELINES FOR COMMUNICATION OF URGENT RESULTS ("CRITICAL VALUES")

All pathology reports contain important information and it is expected that all routinely issued reports will be read in a timely fashion by physicians caring for a patient. In certain urgent cases, it is necessary to communicate a result directly to a licensed caregiver (MD, nurse practitioner, licensed nurse, or PA) as supported by guidelines from TJC and CAP. This should be by a telephone call from a staff pathologist or resident, or their designee, to the treating clinician (or other licensed designee who can take action on the result). If the clinician cannot be reached by telephone or page, their office should be called with a request that he or she contact the pathologist. If this is not possible, then an email may be sent with a request for verification of receipt. If there is a covering physician for the patient, this person should be contacted in the same manner.

The communication must occur within six hours of the discovery of the result. All such communication is documented in the pathology report.[6]

Examples of critical values include:

- Unexpected or discrepant findings:
  - Significant disagreement between frozen section and final diagnosis.
  - Significant disagreement between immediate interpretation and final fine needle aspiration (FNA) diagnosis.
  - Unexpected malignancy (as determined by the clinical information provided).
  - Any other clinically significant and time-sensitive finding that was unsuspected (as determined by the clinical information provided). This would include unsuspected infectious processes.
  - Significant disagreement and/or change between primary pathologist and outside pathologist consultation (at either the original or consulting institution).
  - Significant information reported in an addendum not expected by the clinician. Clinicians do not know when an addendum is issued so it is not uncommon for this information to be overlooked unless it is specifically brought to his or her attention.
- Cases that have immediate clinical consequences:
  - Crescents in >50% of glomeruli in a kidney biopsy.
  - Leukocytoclastic vasculitis.
  - Uterine contents without villi or trophoblast in the setting of suspected pregnancy.
  - Fat in an endometrial curettage.
  - Mesothelial cells in a heart biopsy.
  - Fat in colonic endoscopic polypectomies.
  - Transplant rejection.
  - Malignancy in superior vena cava syndrome.
  - Neoplasms causing paralysis.

- Infections:
  - Bacteria or fungi in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) cytology in all patients.
  - Pneumocystis, fungi, or viral cytopathic changes in bronchoalveolar lavage, bronchial washings, or brushing cytology specimens in all patients.
  - Acid-fast bacilli in all patients.
  - Fungi in FNA from immunocompromised patients.
  - Bacteria in a heart valve or bone marrow.
  - Herpes in PAP smears of near-term pregnant patients.
  - Candida in placental membranes.
  - Any invasive organism in any specimen from immunocompromised patients.

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5 Consultation Reports

TYPES OF CONSULTATIONS

Pathology consultations occur when slides are shown to a second pathologist and a second interpretation of the slides is documented. There are many types of consultations and each has different features. Types of consultations include:

- Intra-institutional consultations
- Specialist consultations
- Consultations for special studies
- Institutional consultations
- Medicolegal consultations
- Review of pathology slides or blocks for treatment protocols or research

The Association of Directors of Anatomic and Surgical Pathology has issued guidelines for consultations.[1]

INTRA-INSTITUTIONAL (IN-HOUSE) CONSULTATIONS

Pathologists within an institution or group often show slides to each other if the case is difficult or unusual. Some pathology groups have mandated review of certain types of cases, and such review can reduce errors.[2] Daily or weekly "difficult case" conferences are used for this purpose.

The typical legal standard of care for pathologists is that the pathologist acted as another pathologist would in a similar situation. Thus, it is important to document that the case was shown to another pathologist should a legal issue arise. This can be accomplished by having two pathologists sign the report, by a note in the report (e.g., "This case was shown to Dr. Smith who concurs with the above diagnosis.") or as a record of departmental conferences. If the second pathologist only reviewed selected slides, this should be noted.

SPECIALIST CONSULTATIONS

For difficult and unusual cases, the opinion of a specialist may be requested. A survey showed that 0.5% of cases, on average, are sent for extradepartmental review.[3] Usually, this type of consultation is initiated by the original pathologist. The referring pathologist should provide:

- **Selected representative slides.** Recuts that the specialist can keep for her or his files are often preferable. Special stains or immunoperoxidase studies should be included if they are important for diagnosis. Blocks or unstained (coated) slides should be included if it is anticipated that additional studies will be needed.
- **A letter explaining the reason for the consultation** and the difficulty as perceived by the referring pathologist. This letter should also contain any specific issues that need to be addressed. In turn, the consultant should directly address these issues by direct communication with the referring pathologist, in a letter, or in the consultation report.
- **Clinical and demographic information on the patient.** This may include other reports as appropriate (e.g., radiologic reports of bone lesions) or operative notes.
- **The pathology report including the gross description and a description of the site of origin of each of the slides**. The report need not be signed out if it is being held for the opinion of the consultant. Pathology reports on other specimens should be included if relevant to the consultation.
- **The fax number, telephone number, and address** of the requesting pathologist in order for the consultant to communicate the results in a timely fashion.
- **Reports of prior consultations on the same case**. If simultaneous consultations with other specialists have been requested it is helpful to include this information.
- **Billing information**. The cost of the consultation is generally borne by the referring pathologist or his or her pathology group.

The specialist will generate a report and communicate the findings to the referring pathologist. Any irreplaceable materials (blocks, cytology slides, slides of lesions that are not seen on other levels) are returned to the original pathologist.

The results of the consultation should be incorporated into the original pathology report and communicated to the patient's physicians, if the referring pathologist agrees with the diagnosis. In unusual cases, if the referring pathologist does not agree with the diagnosis, it may be appropriate to seek consultation with other specialists. The referring pathologist may be held legally liable for errors made by the specialist and is responsible for the final diagnosis.

It is generally acknowledged that a specialist may use consultation cases as part of a larger series of cases for publication with acknowledgement of referring pathologists if possible. Specific case reports should be negotiated between the original pathologist and the specialist.

Information should not be withheld from the specialist. Cases involved in legal actions should be treated as legal consultations.

In some cases, a clinician or patient may initiate a second review by a specialist. In such cases the results are, in general, conveyed by the specialist to the patient's physician. In unusual cases, the patient may be contacted directly with the results. The results of the consultation should always be sent to the original pathologist as well. The cost is usually borne by the patient.

CONSULTATIONS FOR SPECIAL STUDIES

Special studies (most commonly immunoperoxidase studies but also electron microscopy or DNA analysis) are sometimes required for the evaluation of certain cases. Appropriate materials may be sent either to other pathology departments or to commercial laboratories that offer these services. In order to obtain the maximum benefit from such consultations the following should be sent:

- Appropriate materials for the study requested (e.g., paraffin block[s] containing the lesion, fresh tissue, tissue fixed for EM).
- The diagnosis or differential diagnosis.
- The specific studies requested.
- Demographic information on the patient for identification.
- Billing information.

A report giving the results of the special studies is generated. The results should be incorporated into the original pathology report with an interpretation.

If an opinion on the diagnosis is also requested, the consultation is processed as for a specialist consultation.

INSTITUTIONAL CONSULTATIONS

Institutions often require pathology review for all patients seeking a second opinion or treatment and this practice is recommended by the ADASP. These consultations provide the following:

- Confirmation of diagnoses prior to definitive treatment (e.g., chemotherapy or surgery).
- Provision of additional information that may be used at the second institution, but not routinely provided in all pathology reports (e.g., lymphovascular invasion associated with breast cancer).
- Correlation with subsequent pathologic lesions if the patient undergoes surgery at the second institution (e.g., evaluation of a re-excision for residual carcinoma after treatment).

Many studies have analyzed the results of institutional consultations with the following general conclusions:

- Pathology diagnosis is very accurate and in greater than 90% of cases the original diagnosis is confirmed. These reports may be used as part of the Joint Commission-required quality assurance program.
- In approximately 5% of cases, a significant change in diagnosis results in a change in patient treatment. The ADASP has suggested that an acceptable threshold for significant disagreement is 2%.[3]
- In a greater number of cases, additional information is provided by the second review and this information is useful to help guide treatment at the second institution.
- When there is a disagreement, in most studies, the consultant's diagnosis is correct more often than the original diagnosis. In many cases, the discrepancy is due to differences in criteria or interpretive opinions for lesions with known high degrees of interobserver disagreement. In some cases, the original diagnosis will prove to be correct and the pathologist may choose to seek an opinion from another consultant.
- The cost of reviewing pathology slides is minimal compared to the cost of treatment or the potential morbidity of inappropriate treatment. Therefore, a second review is generally recommended to improve patient care and reduce medical costs.

If a consultation results in a significant change in interpretation, it is recommended that the reviewing pathologist do the following:

- Contact the original pathologist to inform him or her in the change in diagnosis. Both pathologists should try to resolve any differences that might be due to the review of different slides or levels, the performance of additional special studies, or knowledge of additional clinical information. The second pathologist may choose to seek additional opinions.
- Contact the treating physicians to ensure the patient receives appropriate treatment.
- Provide a rationale for the change in diagnosis in the report, when possible. For example, rather than reporting on lymph nodes previously diagnosed as free of metastases as "Metastatic carcinoma present in a lymph node" it is more helpful and informative to report the findings as "Metastatic carcinoma present in a lymph node. The metastasis measures much less than 0.1 cm in size and is seen only in the deeper level prepared for the consultation; it is not seen in the original slide." If the discrepancy is in the interpretation of a difficult lesion, this can also be explained (e.g., "The differential diagnosis includes carcinoma in situ and high grade dysplasia, however the former diagnosis is favored due to the following…").

The following material should be sent for an interinstitutional consultation:

- Slides relevant to the consultation (see below). It is preferable that these slides be reviewed before being sent, particularly if recuts are performed, to ensure that the original findings are present and that there are no new additional findings.
- The original pathology report.

- The reports of other consultations.
- A letter stating what materials are being sent and requesting return of the materials after consultation. This letter includes the address and phone number of the institution to facilitate the return of materials.
- Other reports, if relevant (e.g., hormone receptor studies for breast carcinomas if not included in the original pathology report).

Blocks need not be sent unless specifically requested. In general, blocks and slides should not be sent together to avoid the possibility of loss of all of a patient's materials. If the second institution requests block(s) to perform special studies, only selected blocks should be sent or additional glass slides can be prepared and sent. If the lesion is small (i.e., seen in only one block) it may be preferable to have the original slides returned before the block is sent or to send unstained slides. In general, recuts and/or special studies performed by the consulting institution are not returned to the original institution.

It is preferable that only slides relevant to the consultation be sent. Due to the fact that second review is known to reveal errors in a small number of cases, it is important to focus such reviews on current medical treatment and not on potential medicolegal issues (see "Legal Consultations"). For example, review of prior prostate core needle biopsies after a diagnosis of prostatic carcinoma has been rendered may reveal a small focus of atypical ducts or carcinoma that had been missed. However, this is a legal and not a medical issue and would be better addressed as a legal consultation. Slides that need not be sent would include:

- Prior benign biopsies (unless specifically requested).
- Prior FNAs or core needle biopsies if there has been a subsequent excision with a concordant diagnosis. For example, it would be appropriate to send an FNA with a suspicious or malignant diagnosis if the subsequent excision was diagnosed as benign, but not if it was diagnosed as malignant.
- Irrelevant specimens (e.g., a prior cholecystectomy in a patient with lung cancer).
- Irrelevant slides (e.g., slides that would not have findings that would change current evaluation or treatment).

The choice to review or not review slides once they have been received by a second institution or pathologist is a controversial one and clear guidelines have not been developed. If the pathology is unrelated to the current disease or currently affected organ system, it is generally agreed that these slides need not be reviewed at the discretion of the pathologist, due to lack of medical necessity. Prior cytologic diagnoses need not be reviewed if the diagnosis was subsequently confirmed by a biopsy.

Slides on specimens related to the patient's current disease should be reviewed. If certain types of specimens are not reviewed, there should be a general policy that would apply to all such cases (e.g., all prostate core needle biopsies prior to a diagnosis of carcinoma or all lymph nodes from breast cancer patients excised more than one year prior to consultation).

A report is generated by the second hospital. The cost of the consultation is usually borne by the patient or the patient's insurance company.

All original slides, blocks, and the consultation report are returned to the original institution. If the reviewing pathologist wishes to keep original slides, the request must be approved by the referring institution.

LEGAL CONSULTATIONS

Requests from lawyers for materials related to a legal action may be in the form of a subpoena and often include a blanket request for all slides, reports, blocks, and wet tissue pertaining to the patient. The original slides are considered legal evidence. Provision of this material may be difficult for pathologists, is often irrelevant to the case, and may also be requested by the opposing lawyers. Since these materials constitute the patient's medical record, it is not in the patient's best interest that this entire record becomes sequestered as legal evidence. Such materials may not be returned after the legal action is finished. In addition, pathologists can be held liable for loss of such materials unless specifically ordered by a court to release them.

It is preferable for the pathologist to discuss the case with the lawyer to determine the actual material necessary for the legal evaluation of the case. In some cases, it may be arranged for the materials to be reviewed at the original institution. This is recommended in cases in which the material is irreplaceable (e.g., cytology slides).

Reimbursement can be requested for the cost of reviewing and retrieving slides and for making new slides if necessary. These requests may or may not be honored by the requesting law firm.

It may be preferable to contact the insurer of the pathologist or institution before sending out materials. This is particularly true if the institution or physicians associated with the institution are named in the lawsuit.

Pathologists may be asked to be expert consultants for legal cases. In general, a pathologist makes an agreement with a law firm to review slides and possibly offer testimony in court or as a deposition. The pathologist may be asked to offer an expert opinion on issues not generally addressed medically. For example, a typical issue in failure to diagnose breast cancer is "retrognosis" (trying to determine the probable size of the cancer in the past) as opposed to the typical medical issues of prognosis.

It is inappropriate for a patient, clinician, or pathologist to request review of a case for legal reasons as an institutional consultation. Such consultations are intended for review to guide patient care. Legal consultations are typically handled as personal consultations to a specific pathologist and billed to the legal firm.

REVIEW FOR RESEARCH OR TREATMENT PROTOCOLS

Pathology materials are sometimes requested as part of a research project or a treatment protocol onto which the patient has been enrolled. It is the pathologist's role to balance the best interests of the patient with the need for medical research.

Blanket requests for all slides and blocks to be stored permanently as part of a research protocol are generally not in the best interest of the patient and may also interfere with other equally valid research projects. It is usually unknown how quickly such materials could be made available for patient care. In addition, if the project is terminated there may not be funds to ensure the return of all the materials collected just as research projects rarely provide funds for the collection and sending of such materials.

The following guidelines are suggested:

- Recut selected glass slides are preferable to releasing original material. Slides appropriate for the proposed study can be sent (e.g., unstained tissue on coated slides for immunoperoxidase studies). The researchers will need to address the appropriateness of such materials for their studies (e.g., possible loss of antigenicity in cut slides over time).
- If blocks are released, a time limit should be imposed for return of the block. The researchers may make recuts but should not exhaust the tissue in the block.
- Release of paraffin blocks for "permanent" storage for possible future studies is, in general, discouraged, unless multiple blocks demonstrating the pathologic lesion are available. For example, new markers relevant to current treatment of the patient (e.g., HER-2/neu immunohistochemistry for eligibility for Herceptin treatment) may require the ready accessibility of paraffin blocks.
- It may be possible to take cores of tissue from a block for the preparation of tissue arrays, but to leave sufficient tumor tissue in the block should additional studies be required. The original pathology department should be contacted before using blocks for such a purpose.

There are also evolving issues of patient confidentiality with regard to their material being used in research protocols. It is necessary for materials to be coded to prevent identification of the patient unless the patient has given their informed consent. It is possible to remove patient identifiers from pathology reports.[4] In some cases, there may be ethical issues as to revealing or not revealing new information discovered during examination of cases as part of a research protocol (e.g., gene carrier status, previously undetected lymph node metastases). These issues should be addressed in conjunction with Human Studies Committees prior to the start of a research project.

RECEIVING CONSULTATION MATERIALS

All materials received for consultation must be documented. This is important both for evaluating possible discrepancies in diagnosis due to review of different materials and for appropriate return of the materials.

The materials received are checked against the letter stating the materials sent by the other institution. Any discrepancies should be resolved by calling the original pathology department.

All slides and blocks must be accompanied by the corresponding pathology report to ensure that the slides correspond to the correct patient. In unusual circumstances, if the original pathology report is unavailable (e.g., slides received from another country) the circumstances in how the slides were received and the name of the person confirming the identification of the slides should be documented.

The name and birthdate (or age) of the patient is checked for each set of slides. Sometimes hospitals send all specimens from patients with the same name. Failure to detect such errors can result in significant errors in diagnosis and treatment.

SENDING OUT SLIDES FOR CONSULTATION

Pathology departments frequently receive requests to send slides to other locations. The reason for the request must be clearly stated, as this will determine the types of materials sent (see specific recommendations above).

When slides are sent, they should always be accompanied by the original pathology reports and other outside consultation reports on the same material. This should include information as to how the consultation should be billed. In some cases it may be appropriate to send additional information such as operative notes, radiologic reports, electron micrographs, etc. If the patient is seeking a second opinion, it is often preferable to have the clinician request the slides so that the slides can be forwarded to the consulting pathologist with the appropriate clinical history and the reason for consultation.

Slides must be sent in appropriate packaging, preferentially in a plastic slide holder (packed so that the slides do not rattle) placed within a cardboard box or tube with supporting packing to ensure their safe transfer to another institution. Dr. P. P. Rosen has published useful suggestions.[5]

SIGN-OUT OF CONSULT CASES

The headings give the name of the original hospital, the city, and the state. The specimen headings, in general, should be whatever the original hospital used. Include the surgical number and the date. Specify that slides were received and paraffin blocks if they were recut. For example:

Consult slides and paraffin blocks from Central Hospital, Someplace, NJ:
Bezoarectomy and pyloroplasty (S04-1261; dated 3/10/04):

In addition to the diagnosis of the tissue on the slides, the final report should also include the types of information

listed below. Although the original surgical pathology reports should be kept on file they are often more difficult to access than the consultation pathology report. In addition, the original report may not be readily available to clinicians or other pathologists later reviewing the case. Therefore, all information of pathologic importance should be abstracted from the original report and included in the consultation report (either in the gross description or final diagnosis).

- Prognostic information from the gross description should be included (e.g., size of tumor, number of lymph nodes examined, etc.).
- If the slides are from a large resection, a brief description of the specimen (derived from the original gross description) is helpful. For example:

  "According to the original surgical pathology report, the specimen consisted of an 'ovoid tumor mass' (7 cm in greatest dimension) with focal areas of necrosis and hemorrhage which was covered by 'a few strands of connective tissue and muscle.'"

- Information included in the original report, but not documented by the slides received, should be mentioned but with a disclaimer. For example:

  "According to the original surgical pathology report, four of five axillary lymph nodes were involved by metastatic carcinoma (slides not received for review)."

- Any additional information of pathologic importance provided in the consultation material (e.g., results of electron microscopy, immunoperoxidase studies, etc.) are included with a statement as to whether or not they were reviewed here. For example:

  "According to the original surgical pathology report the tumor cells were immunoreactive for S100 protein and melanoma specific antigen (HMB-45) and negative for keratin (CAM 5.2) (slides not received for review)."

  "According to the original surgical pathology report the tumor was sent for estrogen receptor analysis (positive at 100 fm/mg) and flow cytometric analysis (DNA index 1.9, S-phase fraction 22%)."

- Review of special studies (e.g., histochemical stains and immunoperoxidase studies) that are interpreted as part of the consultation must be documented. For example:

  "Immunoperoxidase studies performed at the original institution on formalin-fixed tissue and reviewed here reveal that the malignant cells are immunoreactive for cytokeratin (AE1/AE3) and not immunoreactive for S100 and leukocyte common antigen, supporting the diagnosis of metastatic carcinoma."

- If there is a discrepancy with the original diagnosis, it is helpful to provide information as to why this occurred (e.g., due to additional levels, special studies, or different diagnostic criteria – see "Institutional Consults").
- If unstained slides and/or paraffin blocks are received and additional studies are performed, this is specifically documented:

  "Immunoperoxidase studies on formalin-fixed tissue performed on recut sections reveal that the malignant cells are immunoreactive for S100 and HMB-45 and are not immunoreactive for cytokeratin (AE1/AE3) or leukocyte common antigen, supporting the diagnosis of metastatic melanoma."

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Operating Room Consultations

6

PURPOSE OF OPERATING ROOM CONSULTATIONS

I wish you pathologists would find a way to tell us surgeons whether a growth is cancer or not while the patient is still on the table.

William Mayo, 1905

When cancer becomes a microscopic disease, there must be tissue diagnosis in the operating room.

Joseph Colt Bloodgood, 1927

There are three principal reasons for operating room consultations:

1. To provide rapid gross or microscopic diagnoses to guide intra- or peri-operative patient management. The most common diagnoses requested include:
   - Identification of an unknown pathologic process
   - Evaluation of margins
   - Identification of lymph node metastases
   - Identification of tissues
2. To optimally process tissue for special studies to be used for diagnosis, treatment, or research.
3. To confirm lesional tissue is present for diagnosis on permanent sections and/or after special studies.

FROZEN SECTIONS ARE NOT PERMANENT SECTIONS

The diagnostic information provided by frozen section analysis is limited compared to the information that can be provided in the final sign-out of a case based on permanent sections:

- **Sampling.** Only minute portions of tissue can be frozen well. Thus, the amount of tissue that can be evaluated microscopically is only a small proportion of the tissue that is typically sampled for permanent sections.
- **Ice crystal artifact.** Freezing tissues can create artifacts that make diagnosis difficult or sometimes impossible. These tissues changes are permanent and small lesions of primary diagnostic importance should not be frozen in entirety. Other technical problems can also hinder intraoperative diagnoses.
- **Lack of special studies.** It is generally not possible to perform special histochemical or immunohistochemical studies in the timeframe of a surgical operation. Final diagnoses may require or be altered after information gleaned from such studies.
- **Lack of consultation.** For some difficult or unusual lesions, the opinions of additional pathologists may be required for a final diagnosis.

For these reasons, the goals of intraoperative consultations must be limited to what is feasible and reliable under these conditions. In most cases the pathologist is able to provide the information needed by the surgeon to complete the operation.[1]

INAPPROPRIATE FROZEN SECTIONS

The education of surgeons is the career-long task of the surgical pathologist. It must be a collegial process, never confrontational and never attempted when a patient is under anesthesia.

Virginia Li Volsi[2]

Potentially inappropriate frozen sections include the following:

1. **Unnecessary but not harmful to the patient.** This would include freezing a section of a large tumor for which further surgery or treatment is not anticipated prior to a permanent section diagnosis. Such cases may be avoided by discussion with the surgeon either during or after the procedure. Such practices will result in increased charges without benefit to the patient.
2. **Unnecessary and potentially harmful to the patient.** These cases are usually small primary lesions that would be frozen in entirety. Artifactual distortion or loss of tissue could prevent diagnosis. Although true for any site, frozen sections should especially be avoided for pigmented skin lesions and small breast lesions. In such cases the pathologist must be an advocate for the patient and clearly

explain that the patient's best interests (and ultimately the surgeon's) would be served by not performing a frozen section.

3. **Situations in which a frozen section has low sensitivity or specificity but in which a frozen section could rarely be useful.** Examples of this type of case include frozen sections on a well-circumscribed follicular lesion of the thyroid to look for capsular invasion or examining breast re-excisions for ductal carcinoma in situ (DCIS) at the margin. Pathologists, surgeons, and institutions usually have policies for examining such specimens. If a frozen section is performed, the surgeon must be aware of the possibility that there could be a change in diagnosis on permanent sections.

The actual frequency of inappropriate frozen sections is reported to be less than 5% of all frozen sections.[3] However, frozen sections performed for apparently unnecessary reasons did result in a change in patient outcome in 9% of cases in another study.[4] Thus, when confronted with what appears to be an inappropriate frozen section request, it would be advisable to enter into a discussion with the surgeon to determine what information is required by the surgeon and how he or she intends to use this information. Such a dialogue can be an ideal forum for optimizing the use of intraoperative consultations.

PERFORMING OPERATING ROOM CONSULTATIONS

- The specimen is transported to the OR consultation room and must be accompanied by appropriate clinical information:
  - Patient identifiers (preferably a hospital or clinic number)
  - Relevant clinical history (e.g., results of a fine needle aspiration of a thyroid nodule prior to resection or prior history of malignancy).
  - The presence of infections posing risk to personnel performing frozen sections (e.g., human immunodeficiency virus [HIV], hepatitis B, hepatitis C, and tuberculosis [TB]). In such cases, special protective equipment may be used and the cryostats will be decontaminated if a frozen section (FS) is performed.
  - Type of tissue or location of biopsy
  - Purpose of the consultation

If the reason for examining the specimen is unclear, the surgeon must be contacted to avoid inappropriate specimen processing.

- Examine the specimen and record a gross description (e.g., size and number of fragments, previously incised tumors, presence of localization wire). Information on what was done to the specimen (e.g., location of frozen sections, tissue removed for research, tissue taken for special studies) is recorded. A diagram can be invaluable to indicate the location of anatomic landmarks, lesions, margins, sites sampled, etc. If the orientation is unclear, call the surgeon to clarify.
- Prepare cytologic preparations and/or frozen section(s) as appropriate.
- An OR consultation diagnosis is rendered based on the gross and microscopic findings.
- The results are communicated to the surgeon. The OR should be called first. If the surgeon is not present, page him or her, call the surgeon's office, or leave an email message as necessary. If the surgeon cannot be contacted, this is documented in the report. If the pathologist is not speaking directly to the surgeon, the person receiving the information should repeat it back to the pathologist to ensure that it has been understood correctly. The optimal turnaround time for frozen sections is 15 minutes or less. The time the specimen arrives in the OR consultation room and the time the diagnosis is rendered are documented on the OR consultation form.
- Record any relevant clinical information received from the surgeon or from the patient's chart, if it is provided. This information is often critical for the evaluation of the specimen and should be communicated to the pathologist responsible for the final diagnosis on permanent sections. This information can be recorded on the back of the OR consultation form.
- All frozen section remnants should be processed for permanent sections or saved frozen for special studies. The comparison of frozen sections to the permanent sections is an important quality control measure. Tissue for special studies is allocated and taken to the appropriate laboratories.

PREPARING FROZEN SECTIONS

Freezing is an imperfect but rapid method for solidifying small pieces of tissue in order to make thin sections for histologic examination. Ice crystals form within the tissue during freezing and can cause significant permanent artifacts. The secret to good frozen sections is in the preparation of the block.

There are many commercial types of cryostats and embedding techniques. However, the following general principles will apply to most.

Tips for Better Frozen Sections

Selecting the Tissue.

- Small thin portions of tissue will freeze best (generally not more than 0.5 × 0.5 × 0.3 cm). Never try to freeze fragments larger than the diameter of the chuck.
- Tissues with little water (e.g., fat) do not freeze well and are extremely difficult to section. Avoid including fat in the specimen (e.g., around lymph nodes or breast lesions).

- Blot the outer surface of the specimen dry using a paper towel or gauze pad.
- If orientation is important (e.g., with en face sections), record how the specimen is oriented in the block (i.e., if the true margin is face up or face down).

Preparing the Block (Embedding Medium Frozen on a Metal Chuck).

- Embedding medium is placed on a metal chuck that has been pre-cooled in a cryostat. When partially frozen, the block can be inverted on the shelf to create a flat surface.
- Blocks with frozen embedding medium should be prepared prior to receipt of specimens to avoid wasting time waiting for the medium to freeze.
- If multiple small fragments must be sectioned, a special block may be prepared. After the embedding medium is frozen, pre-cut the block on the cryostat to create a flat surface in the plane of the blade. Tissue placed on this block will all be in the same plane for cutting, which will maximize the amount of tissue on each glass slide.
- Do not use old blocks (e.g., left overnight in a cryostat that goes through a freeze-thaw cycle), as they will be soft and crumbly.
- Embedding medium must be completely cleaned from the chuck (a toothbrush works well) before reuse. Crystals can be removed by dipping the chuck in methanol.

Freezing the Tissue.

- Place the tissue on the block making sure the tissue is not folded. Cover the tissue rapidly with embedding medium and activate a "Quick Freeze" option if available, which cools the metal shelf holding the chucks.
- If positioning of a small fragment of tissue is important, add a drop of embedding medium to the top of the frozen block and place the tissue into this drop. The tissue can then be oriented before the embedding medium freezes.
- Different tissues require different temperatures of freezing to cut well. For example, breast, skin, and fatty tissues must be kept very cold (i.e., –20°C) or they will be too soft to cut. Lymph nodes, spleen, brain, and liver cut better if the temperature is higher (i.e., –10°C) and may shatter during sectioning if too cold.
- When the embedding medium is partially frozen (i.e., begins to look opaque) the block may be rapidly cooled by turning the block upside down on the metal shelf. Alternatively, a "heat extractor" (a plunger-shaped metal bar) can be placed on top of the tissue. However, this maneuver sometimes results in distortion of the tissue if it is performed before the embedding medium is sufficiently frozen. Wait until the center, as well as the outer rim, has had time to cool.

Commercially available aerosol sprays were used in the past to rapidly cool the block or parts of the cryostat. However, they are not necessary for the preparation of good quality frozen sections and their use is not recommended because of the danger of aerosolizing infectious agents. Three cases of conversions to positive tuberculin skin tests have been linked to aerosols produced by spraying a tissue block with a compressed gas coolant.[5,6]

The aerosol sprays also should not be inhaled! Symptoms of overexposure include lightheadedness and shortness of breath. It is a possible cause of cardiac arrhythmias. Direct exposure of skin may cause frostbite. And if that isn't enough, the release of Freon contributes to the destruction of the ozone layer!

Cutting Sections.

- After the block is well frozen, the chuck is positioned in the cryostat for cutting. The block is manually moved forward until close to the blade.
- The blade and plate must be kept free of fragments of the embedding medium that can distort or wrinkle the frozen sections. Gauze firmly wrapped around a long swab can be kept cooled in the cryostat to be used for cleaning unused sections from the blade or chuck and avoids changing the temperature. This is also a much safer method of cleaning the blade. Avoid rubbing the gauze against the edge of the blade as this may dull the edge.
- As the blade cuts the tissue, the tissue must be gently anchored to prevent folding or curling. This can be accomplished with the anti-roll bar (a plastic plate attached to the cryostat) or by using a small pre-cooled paintbrush. After the section is cut, a glass slide is gently laid on top of the section. The tissue section will melt onto the slide. **The slide must be immediately placed in methanol.** Any delay in this step will introduce significant drying artifacts.
- If the specimen is too cold and is shattering, the block can be warmed slightly with a thumb.
- If true levels are desired (i.e., slides revealing deeper areas of the tissue), the block is moved forward manually, and another section taken at a deeper level. It would take over 100 passes of the knife to cut through a 0.1 cm thick specimen if the block was not advanced manually. Additional levels prepared without manual advancement rarely reveal additional histologic information.
- In general, two slides are sufficient for diagnosis and documentation. Additional slides may be made if the tissue is difficult to cut, true levels are made, or there are multiple pieces of tissue on the block at different levels that need to be evaluated.

Removing the Block from the Chuck.

- **Never** cut blocks off chucks with a razor blade. The hardness of the embedding medium is highly variable and it is very easy to lose control of the blade and accidently cut the fingers holding the chuck. Warm the chuck slightly by holding the stem for about 30 seconds and the block can be removed with a finger. Alternatively the chuck can be dipped briefly in formalin or left on the counter for a minute or two.

- Excess embedding medium can be trimmed away from the tissue. The remaining tissue is placed in formalin to be submitted for permanent sections. Very small fragments should be wrapped in paper or placed in a small specimen bag.
- If tissue is to be saved frozen it should be transferred to another freezer. Most cryostats undergo freeze-thaw cycles, which will damage tissue.
- The most representative frozen section slide should be saved for filing with the permanent sections.

Staining Slides

Fixed sections are stained with hematoxylin and eosin. The following procedure gives good results:

1. Stain in hematoxylin for a minimum of 90 seconds or 90 dips – agitation speeds staining process. Cytology specimens can be stained for a shorter period of time (e.g., 30 seconds). Remove and blot excess dye on absorbant material.

Stains nuclei blue.

2. Rinse slides in water with about 10 dips until gross stain is removed. Blot remaining water on a gauze pad. Change water frequently between cases.

Removes excess dye.

3. Dip three times or about 2 seconds in acid alcohol (1% HCl in distilled water). If nuclei are stained poorly it could be due to too little hematoxylin staining or too long in HCl.

Preferentially removes hematoxylin from non-nuclear components - "differentiation."

4. Dip three times or about 2 seconds in ammonia water (2% sodium borate).

This restores the basic pH to the dye and enhances the staining - "blueing."

The color of the nuclei is changed from purple to blue. The time spent in the ammonia water does not alter staining.

5. Stain in eosin for 20 to 30 seconds or dips. Blot excess eosin on a gauze pad.

Stains cytoplasm and other constituents pink to red.

6. Dehydrate slide in successive increasing concentrations of alcohol dipping approximately ten times in each beaker. Let all the fluid drain off the slide.

Removes excess eosin as well as water from the tissue.

Poor staining can be due to prolonged time in alcohol.

7. Dip slides in xylene until the fluid runs clear on the slide (if there are streaks it means that there is water in the tissue). Slides are left in xylene until coverslipped to avoid drying artifact that can make interpretation difficult or impossible. Any water present in the xylene will result in cloudy sections.

Xylene has a high index of refraction and renders tissues transparent.

8. Remove excess xylene from the slide by blotting on paper towels. Add one to two drops of mounting medium to the coverslip and gently place the slide on the coverslip. Avoid introducing bubbles. If bubbles are present, more xylene can be introduced under the edge of the coverslip to allow the slide to be read.

Slide holders should be rinsed in a waste methanol container before replacing them in the methanol in the staining rack, to avoid carrying over xylene. Xylene in methanol will produce almost unreadable cloudy slides with poor staining and bubble artifacts.

The staining racks should be kept covered to avoid evaporation and changes in pH.

Slides can be destained by going backwards through the solutions but skipping the eosin.

If slides need to be left in a solution for a period of time, the best choices are the ammonia water or the xylene. Prolonged time in HCl or alcohol will result in poor staining.

Performing Frozen Sections on Fixed Tissue

Formalin fixation denatures proteins, which adversely affects the adherence of tissues to glass slides. Such tissues can be extremely difficult to examine by frozen section, as the tissue tends to slide off the slide. If it is absolutely imperative to evaluate fixed tissue, the following modifications may be helpful:

- If the tissue is relatively large, and has not been fixed for a long time, tissue from the central portion of the specimen may have fewer changes due to fixation.
- Rinse the tissue in saline and blot dry prior to freezing. Formalin freezes at a lower temperature than water and can produce large ice crystals.
- Use coated slides (e.g., the type of slides used for immunohistochemistry).
- Allow the tissue to dry on the slide prior to staining.
- The HCl and ammonia water steps may be omitted.
- Perform all staining steps very gently and keep the slide at an angle to prevent the tissue from sliding off.

Intraoperative Cytology

Cytologic examination can be as accurate as frozen sections for many specimens[7] and has the following advantages:

- Rapid.
- No ice crystal artifact.

- Easy to perform.
- All tissue is preserved for permanent sections or special studies.
- Can sample large areas of tissue.
- Cytologic information is provided:
  - Cell-cell cohesiveness (e.g., carcinoma vs. lymphoma).
  - Nuclear morphology (e.g., papillary thyroid carcinomas).
- Provides excellent teaching material with cytologic/histologic correlation.

Cytologic preparations are especially useful in the following situations:

- All suspected lymphoproliferative disorders.
- Most CNS lesions.
- Documentation of previously diagnosed malignancies before taking tissue for special studies or research.
- Thyroid nodules.
- Infectious cases (AIDS or hepatitis B) to avoid contaminating the cryostats or aerosolizing infectious agents (see Chapter 8).
- Lung nodules with gross findings strongly suggesting infectious granulomas.
- Minute specimens if additional material will not be available.
- To sample tissue that would be difficult to cut in the cryostat (e.g., fatty tissue, necrotic tissue, bone specimens).

Preparation of cytology slides

1. Make a fresh cut through the tissue. The tissue should be free of gross blood. Lungs and other bloody tissues may require blotting of the surface with a paper towel.
2. **Touch preparations** are made by touching a glass slide to the tissue several times.

   Smears are made by scraping the tissue with the edge of a glass slide. The material removed is evenly smeared onto a second glass slide.

   Fine needle aspirations may be performed using a 23 or 25 gauge needle attached to a 10 cc syringe and making several passes through the lesion while pulling back on the plunger to create a vacuum. A small drop (about 0.2 to 0.3 cm in diameter) is expelled onto a glass slide and smeared with another glass slide.
3. **Hematoxylin and eosin staining:** The slides must be fixed IMMEDIATELY in methanol (without hesitation) to avoid drying artifacts. The slides are stained using the same protocol as for frozen sections. The appearance of the cells is similar to that seen on tissue sections and nuclear detail is well preserved.

   Diff-Quik or Giemsa staining: The slides are air-dried and then stained. The appearance of the cells is different from that seen in non-air-dried slides. Cytoplasmic features are well seen but nuclear detail is less distinct. Non-cellular material is well seen (e.g., colloid, matrix in salivary gland lesions). This type of staining may be preferred for some specimens such as bone marrow aspirates, parathyroid glands, and salivary glands.

REPORTING THE RESULTS OF OPERATING ROOM CONSULTATIONS

A verbal report directly to the surgeon and a corresponding written report are generated.

Written Reports

The OR consultation report should include the following:

- **Specimen heading** (type and number of specimen).
- **Type of examination** (gross examination, frozen section[s], cytologic examination).
- **Diagnosis.** The diagnosis should not include abbreviations that may not be well understood by other healthcare workers reading the report in the patient's chart.
- **Disposition of the tissue for special studies** (e.g., "Tissue saved for EM and sent for flow cytometry.").
- The time the specimen was received and the time the diagnosis was rendered.

An appropriate diagnosis can almost always be rendered by gross or microscopic examination. The annotation "diagnosis deferred" is used only when a decision is made not to provide a diagnosis (e.g., the tissue could not be cut or the block was lost inside the cryostat). It is not used to indicate that the final diagnosis will be based on permanent sections as this should be understood to be true for all cases examined by frozen section. In general, deferred diagnoses constitute less than 5% of all OR consultations.

Sample Operating Room Consultation Reports

SUPRACLAVICULAR LYMPH NODE (FROZEN SECTION A1 AND TOUCH PREPARATION A2):
Lymph node with no tumor seen.

LEFT BREAST BIOPSY, WIRE LOCALIZATION FOR A MASS (FROZEN SECTION A1):
Invasive carcinoma (1.4 cm), present at the superior surgical resection margin.

LEVEL 4 LYMPH NODES (FROZEN SECTIONS A1 AND A2):
Two lymph nodes with noncaseating granulomas.
Differential diagnosis includes sarcoidosis and infection.
Tissue is sent to microbiology for mycobacterial and fungal culture.

LEFT EXTRAPLEURAL PNEUMONECTOMY (FROZEN SECTION B1):
Tumor present as multiple foci involving both parietal and visceral pleura, grossly consistent with the

patient's prior diagnosis of MALIGNANT MESOTHELIOMA.
The bronchial resection margin is free of tumor (frozen section B1).
Tumor is fixed in formalin and taken for cytogenetics, electron microscopy, and snap freezing.
Tumor (2 × 2 × 1 cm) and normal tissue (3 × 3 × 2 cm) taken for the tissue bank.

Verbal Reports

The results of all OR consultations are communicated to the surgeon as soon as possible. Failure to reach the surgeon directly should be documented in the report and should include what was done to try to contact him or her.

When calling back the results to the operating room, the pathologist should identify him or herself (e.g., "Dr. Smith from Pathology"), identify the patient, and identify the specimen. The diagnosis should be clear and concise. In general, surgeons are willing to speak directly to the pathologist if requested. Physician-to-physician communication is the most professional and enables him or her to ask supplemental questions. It also minimizes the risk of miscommunication through a third party.

If the surgeon cannot come to the phone, the diagnosis must be relayed via a nurse in the OR. The nurse should write down the diagnosis and read the diagnosis back (this is a Joint Commission requirement). The pathologist must listen to what the nurse tells the surgeon in order to make corrections, if necessary. Avoid using the phrase "no tumor present," as this can be easily misinterpreted as "tumor present" if not heard clearly. Alternative messages such as "the specimen is negative for tumor" are less likely to cause confusion.

ACCURACY OF OPERATING ROOM CONSULTATIONS

The accuracy of frozen section evaluation is reported to be 94% to 97% when compared to permanent section evaluation. CAP has suggested that an acceptable rate of major discrepancies is 3%.[8] Discrepancies can be categorized for quality assurance analysis:

- **Category A:** Minor disagreement with no effect on patient care
- **Category B:** Disagreement with some, but not significant, consequence for patient care
- **Category C:** Major disagreement with serious impact on patient care

Accuracy will vary depending on the goal of the frozen section. For example, when performed for the evaluation of margins, lymph node metastases, or for tissue identification, accuracy can approach 100%. However, when performed to evaluate an unknown pathologic process, accuracy is usually lower (e.g., 83.47%[9]).

Errors can be classified into the following:

- Sampling error (about 40%)
- Interpretative error (about 40%)
- Technical problems (about 10%)
- Incorrect/incomplete clinical history (about 10%)

Many of these errors can be avoided by using the procedures described below.

Sampling Error (Block or Specimen)

Sampling errors can include either errors in selecting the appropriate tissue after gross examination or failure to completely sample tissue in the frozen section block.

Sampling errors can be avoided or minimized:

1. **Thoroughly dissect large specimens.** Gross sampling errors can be minimized by processing specimens in the OR consultation room as one would during final processing. This includes inking and serially sectioning/dissecting large specimens. Although more time-consuming, this allows for complete examination of all tissue and the ability to select the best tissue for frozen section.
2. **Freeze small specimens in entirety, when appropriate.** For example, if lymph nodes are being evaluated by frozen section to determine whether a definitive resection or complete lymph node dissection should be performed subsequently, it is preferable to freeze the entire node when possible. Failure to find a metastasis in the nonfrozen tissue may lead to unecessary resections of stage IV tumors (e.g., for lung carcinoma) or subsequent additional surgery (e.g., a later axillary dissection for a missed positive sentinel node).
3. **Make sure all tissue frozen is represented on the slide.** Sampling error due to failure to examine all tissue frozen in the block can be minimized by careful block preparation. If multiple fragments are present, try to have all fragments at the same level in the block. Sections of all the fragments should be represented on the slides prepared. This may require preparing multiple slides and/or making true deeper levels through the frozen tissue.

Interpretive Error

Interpretive errors can be avoided or minimized:

1. **Limit interpretations to what is necessary for the surgeon to know at the time of surgery.** In some cases "lesional tissue" is adequate. In others, benign versus malignant will suffice. Rarely is a specific histologic subtype or grade required at the time of frozen section and such information is likely to change at final diagnosis.

2. **Review prior pathology slides, when relevant.** If the patient has had a prior diagnostic procedure, it is often helpful to review slides of prior resections, especially in cases of unusual malignancies or tumors difficult to diagnose by frozen section (e.g., signet ring cell carcinomas, angiosarcomas, tumors after treatment).
3. **Examine the tumor as well as margins by frozen section, when appropriate.** In some cases it is extremely difficult to evaluate margins by frozen section if the type of tumor is unknown or has been previously treated. It is often very helpful to compare changes at the margin with the tumor itself.
4. **Insist on well frozen and stained material.** If the technical quality is poor (see below) and cannot be improved, it may be preferable to defer a diagnosis.
5. **Insist on adequate relevant clinical history**. An accurate evaluation of the findings often cannot be made without knowledge of the clinical setting (e.g., prior diagnoses of malignancy, prior treatment, unusual gross appearance).

In some cases a definitive diagnosis cannot be made. In these cases it is appropriate to defer the diagnosis until permanent sections can be examined. In most institutions, fewer than 5% of intraoperative diagnoses need to be deferred.

There are well-known types of lesions that lend themselves to interpretive error; these should be either completely avoided or only attempted when the surgeon is aware of the likelihood of a change in diagnosis. The most common of these are the evaluation of malignancy in chronic pancreatitis, borderline lesions of the ovary, breast lesions identified by mammography, and well-circumscribed follicular lesions of the thyroid.

Technical Problems

The interpretation of frozen sections can be made more difficult due to poor technique in freezing tissue or preparing slides. Ice crystal artifact, thick sections, folded tissue, and xylene artifact can render the most obvious lesions uninterpretable. Careful attention to technique can minimize these problems.

Some tissues are difficult to section and are best avoided. Adipose tissue freezes poorly due to the lower water content and may not be evaluable. Large fragments of bone cannot be sectioned although cytologic preparations may be attempted of marrow or intermingled soft tissue.

Incorrect/Incomplete Clinical History

The reason for performing a frozen section should be clear to the pathologist before performing the frozen section. If not, it is better to delay processing the tissue and obtain the history rather than risk inappropriate tissue processing.

The pathologist must always have a high index of suspicion for prior procedures. If a prior biopsy site or atypical cells are present, then a history of possible radiation therapy or chemotherapy should be queried.

It may be helpful to have the patient's chart brought to the OR consultation room along with the tissue for examination. The pathologist can then abstract the information required for pathologic evaluation and include this as clinical information on the pathology report.

QUALITY CONTROL OF OPERATING ROOM CONSULTATIONS

Each pathology department usually reviews the accuracy of operating room consultations. Tissue used for the frozen section is fixed and a permanent section prepared. The final diagnosis based on all tissue submitted is compared to the intraoperative diagnosis. The original frozen section must be reviewed if there is a discrepancy. In such cases the reason for the discordance may be categorized as one of the following[10]:

1. Interpretation
2. Block sampling
3. Specimen sampling
4. Technical inadequacy
5. Lack of essential clinical or pathologic data
6. Other (indicate)

When significant discrepancies occur between a frozen section diagnosis and a final diagnosis, the reason for the discrepancy should be documented in the final report and the surgeon notified of the change.

COMMON OPERATING ROOM CONSULTATIONS

Most operating consultations fall into a few general categories and the objectives of the consultation are well known to the pathologist and surgeon. If the reason for the consultation is unclear, it is advisable to contact the surgeon before processing the tissue.

Bone Biopsies

Before a bone lesion is approached surgically there will be a presumptive diagnosis based on the radiographic appearance, the location, and the patient's age. Because the approach to evaluation varies depending on the most likely diagnosis and planned intraoperative treatment, the clinical/radiologic differential diagnosis must be provided before processing the specimen. Cancellous bone can be cut on a cryostat. Portions of cortical bone are thicker and should not be cut.

Presumptively Benign Lesions

Reason for Consultation. To confirm a benign lesion before continuing with a procedure that could preclude limb preservation if malignancy is present (e.g., curettage and packing).

Change in Surgery. A definitive procedure will be completed if a malignancy is not present. If a benign diagnosis is confirmed on the small initial biopsy, the surgeon will often perform a curettage of the lesion which will provide abundant material for later permanent sections. If a malignancy is found, the surgeon will stop after the biopsy. If a malignant tumor is missed on frozen section, the curettage will contaminate the entire bone and may result in the need for an amputation.

Evaluation. In general, all the tissue initially provided should be used for frozen section.

Presumptively Malignant Lesions

Reason for Consultation. To confirm that sufficient tissue is present for diagnosis.

Change in Surgery. Additional tissue may be taken if necessary for diagnosis. Most patients will then undergo radiation and chemotherapy before a definitive resection.

Evaluation. A frozen section or cytologic preparation is performed on only a small portion of the tissue to confirm that diagnostic tissue is present and to guide apportionment of tissue (e.g., consider cytogenetics if Ewing's/PNET is a possibility).

Margins on Large Resections

Reason for Consultation. To determine whether the margins are free of a known malignant tumor.

Change in Surgery. Additional tissue may be resected to obtain clean margins.

Evaluation. In general, the resected bone must be bisected in order to identify the distance of the tumor grossly from the margin. A frozen section can be taken of the cancellous bone at the margin or a cytologic preparation may be prepared from the marrow space.

Frozen section of cancellous bone removed with a curette from a mandibular margin has been reported to be an accurate determination of final margin status.[11]

Revision Total Joint Arthroplasty

Reason for Consultation. To determine whether infection is present.

Change in Surgery. It may be difficult to distinguish mechanical from septic loosening of a prosthetic joint. If infection is present, drainage or removal of the prosthesis may be indicated and replacement of a prosthesis may be delayed until after treatment.

Evaluation. At least two representative sections of a biopsy of periprosthetic tissue (considered to be the most grossly suspicious area by the surgeon) are examined and the number of polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) per HPF (×400) is assessed. At least 5 HPFs should be counted in the most cellular areas of the section (Table 6-1).

Pitfalls. False positives (3% of cases) and false negatives (6% of cases) can occur. Surgical management should be based on the preoperative and intraoperative clinical assessment as well as on frozen section results.[12-15]

- **False positives:** PMNs only seen in surface fibrin should not be included. Patients with rheumatoid arthritis may have acute inflammation not related to sepsis. Perivascular PMNs are usually due to prolonged surgery.
- **False negatives:** Usually due to sampling error. At least two blocks of tissue should be frozen. Additional blocks should be frozen if tissue from different sites is provided by the surgeon. Tan/pink tissue should be chosen for examination. White fibrous tissue or fibrin is unlikely to yield useful material for diagnosis. Some patients with documented infections will have few or absent PMNs.

Dermatopathology

CARCINOMA

Reason for Consultation. Margin evaluation of basal cell carcinomas or squamous cell carcinomas from the face. The surgeon may desire to take the minimal amount of skin necessary to achieve satisfactory cosmetic results.

The use of frozen sections for the diagnosis or margin evaluation of melanocytic lesions is strongly discouraged. If a clinician requests such an evaluation, the pathologist should inform him or her that frozen section often compromises definitive diagnosis and that the evaluation should be made on well fixed and oriented permanent sections.

Change in Surgery. Additional tissue may be taken to ensure clean margins.

TABLE 6–1. EVALUATION OF REVISION TOTAL JOINT ARTHROPLASTY

CRITERIA	FEATURE ON FROZEN SECTION	SENSITIVITY	SPECIFICITY	PPV	NPV
Feldman	≥5 PMN per HPF (count 5 fields)	28.5%	100%	100%	73.6%
Athanasou	≥1 PMN per HPF (count 10 fields)	71.4%	64.2%	50%	81.8%

HPF = ×400.
Feldman, DS, Lonner, JH, Desai, P, Zuckerman, JD, The role of interoperative frozen sections in revision total joint arthoplasty, J Bone Joint Surg Am 77(12):1807-1813, 1995.
Athanasou, NA, Pandey, R, de Steiger, R, McLardy Smith, P, The role of intraoperative frozen sections in revision total joint arthroplasty, J Bone Joint Surg Am 79(9):1433-1434, 1997.

Evaluation. The specimen is usually an oriented ellipse. Because the main lesion has almost always been biopsied, it is often difficult to determine the location of the closest margin. If the paperwork does not indicate which margin(s) are to be frozen, contact the surgeon before proceeding.

Draw a diagram showing the orienting suture, ink colors, and site of frozen sections. For small ellipses, it is useful to ink the two margins to be evaluated by frozen section in two different colors. Both margins can be evaluated in a single section. Take perpendicular sections at the margins indicated as "close" by the surgeon. Make sure the sections are thin but are full thickness and include the deep margin.

Skin Exfoliation

Reason for Consultation. It is sometimes necessary to distinguish between staphylococcal scalded skin syndrome (SSSS) and toxic epidermal necrolysis (TEN) in order to guide treatment. Both can present with areas of exfoliated skin and can be difficult to differentiate on clinical grounds. This is one of the true dermatopathologic emergencies.

Change in Treatment. SSSS is treated with antibiotics. TEN may require steroids or withdrawal of possible sensitizing medications.

Evaluation. The specimen will be a fragment of the exfoliated skin. The skin is rolled as tightly as possible using a forceps. Cross section(s) are taken for frozen section in order to evaluate a perpendicular section.

- **TEN:** The cleavage plane occurs at the dermal-epidermal junction. The presence of full-thickness epidermal cell necrosis is supportive of TEN.
- **SSSS:** The cleavage plane occurs near the granular cell layer. Therefore, only the most superficial aspect of the epidermis and keratin-layer are seen.

Necrotizing Fasciitis

Reason for Consultation. To establish the diagnosis of necrotizing fasciitis. This is a rapidly progressive infection that causes death in 25% to 33% of patients. The causative bacteria are streptococci in about one-third, but polymicrobial infections are common including staphylococci, enterococci, enterobacteriaceae (*E. coli*, *Acinetobacter*, *Pseudomonas*, *Klebsiella*), *Bacteroides*, and *Clostridium*. The initial symptoms (the triad of exquisite pain out of proportion to physical findings, swelling, and fever) are difficult to distinguish from cellulitis or an abscess. The initial spread is horizontal and small bullae frequently form on the skin. In later stages, large hemorrhagic bullae and necrosis of skin and deep tissues ensue.

Change in Treatment. A definitive diagnosis can aid to guide rapid wide surgical debridement and/or amputation resulting in a much better prognosis. Useful biopsies must be obtained within 4 days of the onset of symptoms. The advantage of early diagnosis is lost once skin and muscle become necrotic and the need for debridement is obvious.

Evaluation. An excisional biopsy including skin, subcutaneous tissue, and muscle is optimal.

The following pathologic features favor necrotizing fasciitis:

- Liquefactive necrosis of superficial fascia.
- Polymorphonuclear leukocyte infiltration of the deep dermis and fascia.
- Fibrinous thrombi of arteries and veins passing through the fascia.
- Angiitis with fibrinoid necrosis of arterial and venous walls.
- Microorganisms within the destroyed fascia and dermis (Gram stain).
- Absence of muscle involvement.

The usual differential diagnosis is with cellulitis or erysipelas. In these conditions, inflammation will be present but will be in superficial tissue without significant involvement of deep soft tissue and fascia.[16,17]

Breast Biopsies

Carcinoma

Reason for Consultation. Diagnosis of invasive carcinoma.

Change in Surgery or Processing. Additional tissue may be taken for clear margins and/or an axillary dissection may be performed. If there will be no change in procedure, intraoperative consultation is unnecessary.

Evaluation. The most important objective in examining breast biopsies is to make a definitive diagnosis. Therefore, tissue must not be used for frozen sections if the diagnosis could be compromised. Only grossly evident masses of sufficient size should be examined by frozen section (the recommendation is over 1 cm).[18] Smaller masses, grossly benign tissue, or tissue removed for the evaluation of calcifications should **never** be frozen, as freezing can introduce artifacts in small lesions, precluding a diagnosis on permanent sections.

If the specimen has been oriented, care must be taken in inking the margins and processing the tissue in order to be able to submit tissue according to this orientation (see Chapter 15).

Note the location of any palpable masses. If the mass is larger than 1 cm and suspicious for invasive carcinoma, a frozen section may be performed. Make a careful measurement of the maximal tumor size to the nearest 0.1 cm. The important sizes for staging are 0.5 cm, 1 cm, 2 cm, and 5 cm. Do not round to the nearest 1 cm. A gross evaluation of margins for the proximity of invasive carcinoma may also be provided (see later).

If a definitive diagnosis cannot be made (e.g., the differential diagnosis includes a complex sclerosing lesion or tubular carcinoma) all lesional tissue must be submitted for histologic evaluation.

Pitfalls. False positive rates are low (<1%) but can occur.[19] Thus, definitive surgery may best be deferred for small or questionable lesions.

False negative rates are higher, but reported to be less than 10%. The rate will be lower if restricted to lesions grossly suspicious for invasive carcinoma.

In general, frozen section evaluation is not useful to either diagnosis DCIS or exclude its presence.

Tissue from primary breast biopsies without a documented lesion must never be given away for research.

Margins

Reason for Consultation. To grossly evaluate the adequacy of margins for invasive carcinoma.

Change in Surgery. Additional tissue may be taken at a margin deemed to be close.

Evaluation. Most invasive carcinomas can be detected as grossly palpable masses. Very few cases of DCIS can be detected grossly, and they are difficult to diagnose by frozen section.

If there is no prior diagnosis, process the specimen as described above.

If a diagnosis of invasive carcinoma has been made previously, it is generally unnecessary to perform a frozen section and the margins are evaluated grossly for involvement. If the carcinoma is present (e.g., after a core biopsy), the distance to each margin is determined and reported to the surgeon. If the carcinoma has been excised (e.g., after excisional biopsy) the rim of the biopsy cavity is examined for areas suspicious for residual invasive carcinoma at the margin. Selected frozen sections of grossly suspicious areas may be helpful.

Margin involvement by DCIS is difficult to assess by frozen section:

- The marginal tissue usually consists of grossly benign adipose tissue, which is difficult to freeze and section adequately.
- It may be difficult to distinguish hyperplastic lesions from DCIS on frozen sections.
- Not all marginal tissue can be evaluated by frozen section. Additional tissue examined by permanent sections may later be shown to be involved.

However, some institutions do evaluate margins by either cytologic means[20,21] or frozen section.[22] The majority of the cases evaluated have been invasive carcinomas and not DCIS alone. The value of such margin evaluation will depend on the definition of a "positive" margin and institutional criteria for the necessity of further surgical procedures based on margin evaluation.

Sentinel Lymph Nodes

Reason for Consultation. To determine whether a metastasis is present in the node.

Change in Surgery. If a metastasis is found in the sentinel lymph node, a completion axillary dissection will be performed.

Evaluation. On average, there will be two sentinel lymph nodes. The nodes should be grossly dissected from the tissue received. Separate the fat and ink each node a different color. It is very important to be able to keep track of the number of involved nodes as this is an important prognostic factor and is used to classify women for clinical trials.

Slice each node into 0.2 to 0.3 cm slices.

If there is a grossly evident metastasis, only one representative section need be frozen.

If the nodes are grossly normal, freeze **all** of the slices. All macrometastases (>0.2 cm) should be identified using this method. If there are multiple nodes, it may be prudent to discuss with the surgeon before proceeding.

Touch preparations can also be used to evaluate the nodes. Each node should be scraped and evaluated separately. Make sure the work area is clean and far away from any other specimens with malignancies to avoid contamination.

Pitfalls. False negatives for macrometastases can occur if the entire node is not frozen. Micrometastases (<0.2 cm) will often be missed due to sampling, but there is no practical method to find all such small metastatic deposits. Metastases from lobular carcinomas can be very subtle on frozen section and it is helpful to know whether the patient has this type of cancer. If a definite diagnosis cannot be made, it is better to defer the diagnosis. A completion dissection can be performed at a later time.

Gastrointestinal Specimens

Esophagectomies and Gastrectomies

Reason for Consultation. To determine whether the resection margins are free of malignancy or dysplasia and to ensure that the lesion has been resected.

Change in Surgery. Additional esophagus or stomach may be resected to achieve clean margins.

Evaluation. Gross inspection of the opened specimen is often sufficient to establish clear margins. However, tumors (particularly diffuse-type gastric carcinomas or esophageal adenocarcinomas) located close to the resection margins may infiltrate beneath grossly normal mucosa. Therefore, complete inspection of the margins and selection of appropriate frozen sections is essential.

Ink the serosa and adventitia along the area to be opened.

Open the proximal and distal margins by cutting as close as possible to the staple line.

Open the specimen longitudinally, but avoid cutting through the lesion. Esophagectomy and gastrectomy

specimens are best opened by following the greater curvature of the stomach, unless a lesion is present there.

Record the size and location of any lesions and the distance from the proximal and distal margins. Patients have often had prior radiation and/or chemotherapy and the residual tumor may not be grossly evident or quite subtle (e.g., a shallow mucosal ulceration). Avoid touching the mucosa, which is fragile and easily abraded. If necessary, the mucosa can be gently rinsed with saline.

Esophagectomies are often involved by Barrett's esophagus, which is recognizable as granular pink mucosa. Record the length of this segment and its closest approach to the proximal margin. If Barrett's mucosa is present at the proximal margin, a frozen section is essential as dysplasia may be present and additional resection may be necessary.

Take the margins en face, unless a gross lesion is very close to the margin and a perpendicular section can include both the lesion and margin. The margin section should be taken from the area closest to the site of the tumor. It is important that the en face section is full thickness including mucosa, submucosa, and muscularis, as carcinoma may involve any of these layers. Because the overlying mucosa may curl over the edge of the cut margin, it may be necessary to gently pull back this mucosa to line it up over the muscularis before taking the section.

Colonic Malignancy or Polyps

Reason for Consultation. To determine whether the margins are free of malignancy or polyps, to accurately measure the length of the margin, and to ensure that the lesion has been resected.

Change in Surgery. Additional colon may be resected.

Evaluation. In the majority of cases, gross evaluation of the margins is sufficient to ensure clear margins. However, since these patients are at risk for multiple lesions, the margins must be completely opened and inspected to establish clear margins.

Examine the segment of bowel externally to determine whether there is evidence of invasive tumor at the serosal surface or puckering of the serosa (indicative of invasion into the muscularis). If the segment is from the rectosigmoid, examine the mesentery to determine the location of the rectosigmoid junction.

Completely open any stapled ends by cutting as close as possible to the staple line. Cut along the antimesenteric surface with blunt scissors to open the bowel. However, adjust the line of opening to avoid transecting any lesions. The bowel lumen may be rinsed clean with a small amount of saline, if necessary. Tap water is hypotonic and will damage tissue.

The lesion(s) present are described and the distance from the proximal and distal margins is measured and recorded on the OR consultation report. The bowel is often returned to the OR for the surgeon's viewing.

Bowel segments can contract up to 40% within 10 to 20 minutes after excision.[23] Because close margins may be an indication for postoperative radiation therapy for rectal carcinomas, margin lengths are best measured as soon as possible after excision.

Frozen sections are rarely necessary for margin evaluation if the uninvolved mucosa is grossly normal. In cases of malignancy arising in inflammatory bowel disease (see below), frozen section evaluation may be indicated in selected cases. Evaluation of margins after treatment (typically radiation) or for certain histologic types (i.e., signet ring cell carcinomas) can also be difficult and may require frozen section.

If it is unclear why a segment of bowel was removed (e.g., no lesion is apparent), contact the surgeon. For example, if the surgery was performed for a previously biopsied polyp with invasive carcinoma, the "lesion" may be a subtle prior biopsy site consisting of mucosal ulceration that must be found and sampled for permanent sections to ensure that a complete resection has been performed. Alternatively, it is possible that a lesion has been missed and additional surgery must be performed.

Sample Operating Room Consultation Reports

SPECIMEN NO. 2, RECTOSIGMOID RESECTION (33 CM) (GROSS EXAMINATION):
Ulcerated lesion (4.4 cm) grossly consistent with adenocarcinoma, located 3 cm proximal to the rectosigmoid junction. The tumor is 5 cm from the distal margin and 24 cm from the proximal margin.
The specimen is returned to the operating room per the surgeon's request.

Inflammatory Bowel Disease (IBD)

Reason for Consultation. In cases of Crohn's disease the bowel may be inspected for gross ulceration at the margin.

Change in Surgery. The intent is to resect grossly involved bowel. Additional bowel may be resected if gross changes are present at the margin. The evaluation of margins in Crohn's disease is very controversial and some studies have found that neither the length of uninvolved mucosa nor the presence of microscopic findings at the margin affect recurrence rates.[24,25]

Evaluation. The outer surface of the bowel is inspected for creeping fat or fistulas indicative of IBD.

Open the bowel as described above. Inspect the mucosa for changes of IBD. Look carefully for any areas suspicious for malignancy. In cases of Crohn's disease, margins should be inspected for gross ulceration. The typical operation for ulcerative colitis is a total colectomy with removal of all colonic mucosa, and margins are not important.

Frozen sections are not needed for the evaluation of inflammatory changes. In cases of suspected malignancy arising in IBD frozen sections may be helpful.

Sample Operating Room Consultation Reports

SIGMOID COLON (28 CM) (GROSS EXAMINATION):
Thickened bowel wall with linear mucosal ulcerations and fistula tract, consistent with prior diagnosis of CROHN'S DISEASE.

Gross ulceration present at the proximal resection margin. The distal resection margin is free of ulceration. Surgeon informed.

The specimen is returned to the operating room per the surgeon's request.

Liver Biopsy

Reason for Consultation. A liver lesion is discovered during abdominal surgery.

Change in Surgery. If the liver lesion is a metastasis, the extent of surgery may be altered (e.g., palliative as opposed to curative surgery may be performed).

Evaluation. The typical specimen is a small biopsy that can be frozen in its entirety. The most common metastatic carcinoma encountered is colon carcinoma.

Pitfalls. Small white lesions are often present on the liver capsule due to bile duct hamartomas (single lesions) or bile duct adenomas (von Meyenberg complexes, often multiple). These lesions consist of relatively orderly proliferations of small bile ducts. Care must be taken not to mistake them for metastatic adenocarcinoma.

Pancreas

Reason for Consultation. To determine whether malignancy is present.

Change in Surgery. If malignancy is present, a major resection may be carried out (e.g., a Whipple resection) and/or staging biopsies may be performed.

Evaluation. Pancreatic carcinomas can be very difficult to detect grossly and microscopically in a background of chronic pancreatitis that results in a densely firm nodular gland. Biopsies are usually small wedge or needle biopsies but are associated with a significant risk of complications. Useful diagnostic criteria for pancreatic carcinoma on frozen section have been published.[26]

Major criteria (present in all cases of carcinoma):

1. Nuclear size variation equal to, or greater than 4:1
2. Incomplete glandular lumens
3. Disorganized duct distribution

Minor criteria (present in 28% to 70% of cases of carcinoma):

1. Huge irregular epithelial nucleoli
2. Necrotic glandular debris
3. Glandular mitoses
4. Glands unaccompanied by stroma in smooth muscle fascicles
5. Perineural invasion

Pitfalls. False positive diagnoses are rare but false negatives have been reported in greater than 30% of cases. These latter cases are due equally to sampling error (i.e., the area of carcinoma was not biopsied for frozen section) and to interpretation error.[27] Sampling error can be reduced by examining multiple biopsies. Interpretation error can be minimized by using the criteria described above and attention to the following histologic findings:

- Accessory pancreatic ducts can be found in smooth muscle of the duodenum, but will consist of groups of glands surrounded by loose connective tissue. Malignant glands invading muscle are present singly and will be in contact with muscle cells.
- The distribution of ducts can become irregular in cases of severe pancreatitis. Other criteria of malignancy should be searched for as well.
- Islets become prominent in chronic pancreatitis and may mimic clusters of epithelial cells with marked nuclear variation in size.
- Atrophic acini and ductules can appear to have incomplete lumens.
- Normal ducts can occasionally be seen adjacent to nerves and simulate perineural invasion.

Genitourinary Specimens

Sperm Identification

Reason for Consultation. To determine whether sperm are being produced by the testis.

Change in Surgery. Men with azoospermia may have primary failure of spermatogenesis or an obstructed vas deferens. Urologists may send fluid milked from the proximal vas deferens for identification of sperm before performing anastomotic surgery to correct an obstruction.

Evaluation. The fluid is placed on a slide and coverslipped. Without staining the slide, the preparation is examined for the presence of spermatozoa. The OR consultation report notes whether sperm are present or absent.

Motility depends on temperature and time since preparation of the slide and thus is not a very accurate predictor of true motility if absent.

After the diagnosis is rendered, the coverslip is removed and the slide placed in 95% ethanol. The slide can be stained with H&E and permanently coverslipped.

Nephrectomy, Cystectomy, or Ureterectomy for Transitional Cell Carcinoma

Reason for Consultation. To evaluate the ureteral margins for the presence of transitional cell carcinoma.

Change in Surgery. The surgeon may take an additional portion of the ureter to achieve margins free of carcinoma.

Evaluation. A length of ureter is usually provided separate from the main excision. A suture may mark the true margin. A complete cross section of the ureter is taken for frozen section. The true margin may be embedded so that the first frozen section is the true margin.

Partial Nephrectomies

Reason for Consultation. To evaluate the margin of a partial nephrectomy. Usually the function of the contralateral kidney is compromised.

Change in Surgery. Additional kidney tissue may be taken or a complete nephrectomy may be performed.

Evaluation. Ink the kidney over the open area of transection. Serially section the kidney perpendicular to the margin and evaluate grossly for any lesions present. The margin closest to the tumor is frozen. About 17% of cases will have positive margins. Frozen section is generally reliable for diagnosis of carcinomas, but can be difficult for unusual tumors.

Gynecologic Pathology

Ovary

Reason for Consultation. Evaluation of malignancy of an ovarian tumor.

Change in Surgery. If a malignancy is identified, appropriate staging biopsies and/or TAH/BSO will be performed (e.g., omental biopsies, biopsies of other suspicious areas, peritoneal washings, lymph node biopsies). If extensive disease is present, and a metastatic carcinoma is identified, only the surgery deemed clinically appropriate will be performed. Fertility may be preserved if a benign diagnosis is rendered.

Evaluation. All cysts and solid tumors are opened and, if necessary, serially sectioned (see the section on processing ovarian specimens for appropriate procedures for opening cysts). In general, ovarian tumors in women over the age of 40 are more commonly borderline or malignant, whereas those in women under the age of 40 are more commonly benign.

- **Unilocular cysts with a smooth inner lining:** Almost always benign. Gross examination is sufficient. "Endometriomas" are unusual in postmenopausal women and should be examined by frozen section to exclude carcinoma in this age group.
- **Mature teratomas (dermoid cysts):** These cysts are filled with sebaceous material and hair and are almost always benign. Gross examination is sufficient unless substantial solid areas are present or the tumor has spontaneously ruptured.
- **Unilocular or multilocular cysts with irregular linings:** Visually inspect the lining for any areas of irregularity (e.g., minute papillary excrescences) or solid areas. Do not touch the inner surface, as this may remove diagnostic lining cells. Multilocular cysts or cysts with solid areas are more suspicious for malignancy. Frozen section(s) should be performed on the most suspicious areas.
- **Solid masses:** Examine the surface for involvement, as this could affect stage. Multiple nodules may signify metastatic disease. Frozen sections are routinely performed.

Pitfalls. If tumors are divided into benign, malignant, and borderline categories, frozen section and permanent sections are concordant in greater than 90% of cases.[28]

The following types of tumors are the most difficult to evaluate by frozen section:

- **Large tumors** (> 10 cm). Additional sections may be helpful to look for focal invasive carcinoma.
- **Mucinous carcinomas**. These carcinomas are often heterogeneous and can require extensive sampling, and often immunohistochemistry, for correct classification.
- **Borderline tumors.** Approximately 20% of tumors classified as borderline on frozen section will be reclassified as malignant after more extensive sampling for permanent sections.

Uterus

ENDOMETRIAL CARCINOMA

Reason for Consultation. Evaluation for presence or absence of endometrial carcinoma. If present, the grade, depth of invasion and involvement of the cervix (Stage II) is determined.

Change in Surgery. If carcinoma invades deeply into the myometrium (beyond 50% of the myometrial thickness), and/or the carcinoma is grade II or III, and/or the cervix is involved, the surgeon will likely perform pelvic and/or paraaortic lymphadenectomy.

Evaluation. The serosa is carefully inspected for areas suspicious for direct tumor invasion or serosal implants. Suspicious areas on the serosal and the surgically incised parametrial margins are inked. Open the uterus along the lateral edges using a scissors (see Chapter 22 for additional details). Carefully inspect (but do not touch!) the endometrial lining for gross evidence of tumor (usually pale yellow/tan heaped up/firm areas). Make serial transverse incisions from the mucosal surface to, but not through, the serosa (leaving the specimen intact) at 0.5 cm intervals. Myometrial invasion by tumor grossly appears as effacement of the normal myometrial texture. Depth of invasion can be

determined grossly in some, but not all, cases. A frozen section should be performed in the area most suspicious for the deepest extent of myometrial invasion. The surface of the fallopian tubes and ovaries is also carefully inspected, and the ovaries are cross-sectioned and examined for areas suspicious for malignancy.

Pitfalls. False positive and false negative frozen section diagnoses are reported for all three prognostic factors. Overall, grade is accurately determined in 67% to 96% of cases, depth of invasion in 85% to 95%, and cervical involvement in 65% to 96%.[29]

- **False positive:** Greater than 50% myometrial invasion is reported in about 9% of cases but is not present on permanent sections; carcinomatous involvement of adenomyosis or deep lymphovascular invasion is mistaken for invasion.
- **False negative:** Myometrial invasion is not reported in about 10% of cases but is present on the permanent sections; diffusely invasive carcinomas with widely spaced glands and a minimal desmoplastic response may not be seen grossly or on frozen section.

LEIOMYOMA

Reason for Consultation. Evaluation of presumed leiomyomata for possible malignancy. Clinical features suspicious for malignancy include ultrasound findings (e.g., an irregular border or cystic areas), large size, soft consistency, or difficulty in removing the lesion from the uterine wall. However, this finding is more commonly associated with adenomyosis than with malignant invasion.

Change in Surgery. If the initial procedure is a myomectomy, a total hysterectomy may be performed if a malignancy is present. Additional biopsies may be taken of any suspicious peritoneal lesions.

Evaluation. All masses are sectioned at ~1 cm intervals. Typical leiomyomas are white, whorled, firm, and without necrosis or hemorrhage. Degenerative changes are common and include a carneous (fleshy) appearance or cystic mucoid areas. Features suggestive of malignancy include a soft consistency, necrosis, hemorrhage, infiltrative borders, and vascular invasion. Frozen sections may be performed on grossly suspicious lesions.

Pitfalls. Infertile premenopausal women undergoing myomectomy to improve uterine function may be receiving hormonal treatments resulting in an increased mitotic rate in benign leiomyomas. A definitive diagnosis of malignancy should not be made on frozen section unless obvious features of malignancy are present.

If there has been a prior recent previous surgical procedure (e.g., a partial myomectomy or endometrial curettings), increased mitoses and necrosis may be seen in benign leiomyomas.

Vulvectomy

Reason for Consultation. To evaluate the resection margins for carcinoma or dysplasia.

Change in Management. Additional vulvar skin may be resected.

Evaluation. If a gross lesion or biopsy site is present, the closest margin may be frozen as a perpendicular section. If no gross lesions are evident, it is useful to determine the location of the clinical lesion (often previously excised) and to sample the margin at this site. Frozen sections are discouraged for vulvar specimens containing pigmented lesions.

Products of Conception

Reason for Consultation. Women who are pregnant (positive HCG) who present with vaginal bleeding or pelvic pain, but without an obvious intrauterine pregnancy by ultrasound, are at risk for an ectopic pregnancy and its associated complications (e.g., fatal hemorrhage). Endometrial curettings or tissue from the vaginal vault is submitted to determine whether placental villi and/or a recent implantation site are present, which would confirm that the pregnancy was intrauterine. Rarely, a gestational sac may be present. The frozen section results should be clearly conveyed to the clinician as a PRELIMINARY result.

Change in Management. If an intrauterine pregnancy cannot be documented, the patient may require pelviscopy and methotrexate treatment.

Evaluation. The best method to examine such specimens is with a dissecting microscope. Float the specimen in saline in a Petri dish. It may be necessary to rinse the specimen free of blood. Frozen section should be performed on the tissue most likely to be villi (Table 6-2).

Pitfalls. In a study in which all tissue was frozen, the correct diagnosis was made in 93% of the cases.[30] There was a 5.7% false negative rate due to villi present in deeper sections of the tissue that were not seen on frozen section. There was one false positive case (1.1% of total) due to misinterpretation of edematous endocervix as villi. Frozen sections of an avillous intrauterine pregnancy are difficult and the diagnosis requires verification of trophoblast (placental site or isolated). The diagnosis is often missed.

Head and Neck Resections

Reason for Consultation. To determine the adequacy of margins.

Change in Surgery. Additional tissue may be taken to achieve clean margins. Often a reconstructive procedure is performed immediately, so the opportunity to resect more tissue in the future may not be an option. Postoperative

TABLE 6–2. DIFFERENTIATION OF PLACENTAL VILLI FROM DECIDUALIZED ENDOMETRIUM

	COLOR	STRUCTURE	BRANCHING	CONSISTENCY
Villi	White (or pink)	Complex 3-dimensional architecture (like a shrub or sea anemone).	Acute angle branching	Springy (rapidly re-expand after being gently squeezed)
Decidualized endometrium	Pink (but may be white). More opaque than villi.	Glandular and vascular structures may mimic villi.	Structures run in parallel and are not branched.	Not springy

radiation therapy may compromise the reconstruction and is avoided if possible.

Evaluation. It is preferable to review any complicated specimens with the surgeon prior to inking to identify anatomic structures, the location of probable tumor, and surgical margins. Perpendicular sections are taken at the closest margins. A very narrow (e.g., less than 0.1 cm) margin may be considered to be an adequate margin.

En face margins are sometimes used to sample a larger area if the mucosa appears grossly normal. The en face margin is embedded so that the first full thickness frozen section will represent the "true" mucosal margin. Multiple sections may be made, but must be numbered to identify the first section. If tumor is found only on deeper sections (e.g., in deeper levels of the frozen section or in the permanent sections) the tumor is not present at the true margin.

Pitfalls. Radiation changes, particularly in minor salivary glands, may be difficult to distinguish from invasive carcinoma. First establish whether or not the patient has received radiation therapy. Look for squamous metaplasia and a lobular arrangement which favor benign changes.

Perineural invasion is common in these tumors and can be responsible for local recurrences if present. The juxtaoral organ of Chievitz is found at the angle of the mandible and consists of epithelial nests in close proximity to nerves. This normal structure can be mistaken for perineural invasion on frozen section.[31]

Lung and Pleura

Mediastinal Staging of Lung Carcinomas

Reason for Consultation. To determine whether a lung carcinoma is resectable (stage I, stage II, or stage IIIA lung carcinomas with involvement of ipsilateral but not contralateral mediastinal lymph nodes) or to terminate lymph node sampling once a positive lymph node is found.

Change in Surgery. Patients without lymph node metastases may proceed to definitive resection in the same procedure. Patients with metastatic disease may have a curtailed procedure as additional nodes are not necessary for staging and resection may not be indicated.

If positive nodes are found at frozen section, the patient may be kept in the hospital longer for oncologic planning and consultation and possibly other radiologic examinations. If the nodes are negative, the patient is usually discharged the same day.

Evaluation. The purpose of the node biopsy must be known, as this will alter the processing of the specimen:

- **Staging of lung carcinoma:** The entire node or nodes are frozen. Patients are generally older and have a lung mass.
- **Evaluation of lymphadenopathy:** The differential diagnosis includes lymphoma, infection, and sarcoidosis. Only a portion of the specimen should be frozen or touch preparations used. Tissue should be preserved for possible special studies including microbiological culture, frozen tissue, and/or flow cytometry. Patients are usually younger and generally do not have lung involvement.

Pitfalls. In one study, 30% of patients undergoing mediastinal staging had metastatic disease.[32]

- **False positive results (very rare):** Pleural adhesions can be mistaken for carcinoma involving the mediastinum. Benign mesothelial cells may be present in mediastinal lymph nodes.
- **False negative** (1.6% of patients): Macrometastases (>0.2 cm) can be missed if the entire node is not frozen. Small metastatic deposits may be missed due to sampling, but there is no practical method to find all micrometastases.

Pulmonary Resections for Lung Masses

Reason for Consultation. To identify malignancy in lung masses.

Change in Surgery. If malignancy is present additional surgery may be indicated to ensure clean margins and/or for complete staging.

Evaluation. Lung masses may be resected by wedge resection, lobectomy, or pneumonectomy.

Wedge resections. This is often the initial procedure for the evaluation of small masses.

1. Palpate the specimen to determine the location of the mass or masses.
2. Inspect the pleura for involvement by tumor (and/or adhesions) or adherence to the underlying mass. Pleural involvement is a prognostic factor and is used for AJCC T classification. Document whether or not the pleura is involved by the mass.
3. If solitary and well defined, the mass is bisected, avoiding any area of possible pleural involvement (which should be preserved for evaluation by permanent sections).
4. A representative section of the mass is frozen for diagnosis.
5. In cases of malignancy, the margins of a wedge resection are taken by cutting away the staple line as close to the staples as possible. The exposed lung parenchyma is blotted dry and then inked. A perpendicular or en face section of lung tissue in the area closest to the tumor can be used as the margin. However, check with the surgeon first to determine whether a more extensive resection is going to be performed (e.g., lobectomy), in which case margins on the wedge resection are irrelevant. Only parenchymal involvement by tumor should be reported as a positive margin. Loose tumor cells in air spaces are most likely artifacts and are usually not considered a true positive margin.

Pitfalls.

- **Bronchioloalveolar carcinoma:** The gross appearance is of a focal, firmer, ill-defined area of lung parenchyma. Lymphomas and focal pneumonia can have the same gross findings. Microscopically, these carcinomas may be difficult to distinguish from reactive atypia.[33]
- **Carcinoid tumors:** These tumors are important to identify, as the indicated surgery may be less extensive. On frozen section, they can be mistaken for lymphoma, squamous cell carcinoma, or metastatic carcinoma.[34]
- **Metastastic tumors:** These lesions are critical to identify for accurate patient staging and to determine the extent of surgery.[35] The surgeon should inform the pathologist of any prior diagnoses of malignancy. In some cases (particularly for unusual tumors) it may be helpful for the pathologist to review the slides on the previous tumor.

Lobectomies. The mass is evaluated as described above. The distance to the bronchial margin is determined. Carcinomas can extend into the bronchus for varying distances beyond the gross tumor (adenocarcinomas ~ 2 cm, squamous cell carcinomas ~ 1.5 cm). In one study, no carcinoma >3 cm from the bronchial margin had a positive margin.[36] Margins can also appear falsely positive grossly due to fibrous or lymphoid tissue.

The margin is taken as an en face section of the bronchus.

- **Grossly normal and >3 cm from the tumor:** Embed the bronchial ring with the proximal (i.e., "true") margin down. This cut surface is usually flatter and will yield a complete section of the margin. Positive margins are rare. In the rare case of an initial section positive for tumor, deeper levels into the block can be made to determine if the carcinoma is present at the true margin.
- **Grossly suspicious margin or tumor < 3 cm from the margin:** Embed the true margin up. The first frozen section will be the "true" margin.

Care should be taken not to include pulmonary parenchyma away from the bronchial ring in the frozen section, as tumor in this area will not be present at the bronchial stump in the patient.

If tumor is present in the frozen section, the location and nature of the tumor must be specified:

- In situ carcinoma in the bronchial mucosa.
- Submucosal invasive carcinoma.
- Peribronchial invasive carcinoma.
- Carcinoma in lymphatics or peribronchial lymph nodes.

Carcinomas with a salivary gland morphology are rare, but have a high incidence of positive margins. Carcinoid tumors may undermine the bronchial mucosa and be difficult to see grossly.

Pitfalls. Overall, > 95% of margins can be accurately diagnosed. True positive margins are rare (approximately 6% of cases).

False positive (~ 2%):

- Squamous metaplasia mistaken for carcinoma in situ
- Radiation changes mistaken for carcinoma
- Peribronchial lymphocytes mistaken for small cell carcinoma (in such cases it is helpful to know the histologic type of the primary)

False negative (~ 2%):

- Sampling errors
- Carcinoma in situ mistaken for squamous metaplasia
- Carcinoma mistaken for submucosal glands

Lung Biopsies

Reason for Consultation. Open lung biopsies are usually performed on critically ill patients with a wide differential diagnosis. Frozen sections are performed to provide a preliminary diagnosis (e.g., tumor versus infection) and to guide apportionment of tissue. Culture and special stains on histologic sections are complementary studies for the identification of infectious disease.[37]

Change in Management. A preliminary diagnosis may aid in selection of treatment for critically ill patients before permanent sections are available.

Evaluation. Apportioning tissue is done with the clinical differential in mind and the histologic appearance.

The specimen is kept sterile until a block of tissue can be removed for cultures. Evaluation and processing includes:

1. Determine whether the specimen is adequate for the studies required. 1 cm^3 is marginal, 2 cm^3 is optimal. If the specimen is too small for all studies required, call back the surgeon and request more tissue.
2. Using sterile technique, serially section through the specimen looking for focal lesions. Transfer a block of tissue to a sterile container for microbiology. Each requisition form must be labeled with the date and the collection time to conform to Joint Commission guidelines. The type of specimen should also be provided. Each microbiology laboratory will have individualized guidelines for the submission of specimens.
3. The two major indications for frozen section evaluation are:
   - To determine whether a malignancy is present in order to do a more definitive procedure or to initiate treatment.
   - In lung transplant patients, to guide therapy for possible rejection or infection (e.g., viral).

   In other cases, valuable diagnostic material is better examined by permanent sections. Smears should be used for OR consultation evaluation, if possible, because of the high rate of infection in these patients.
4. The remaining tissue is apportioned for:
   - B Plus fixation and snap freezing if lymphoma or leukemia is suspected
   - Remainder in formalin
5. Special stains on smears for infectious organisms may be helpful if they would be available prior to special stains on permanent sections. Smears should be fixed in methanol. Air dried slides are potentially infectious and should not be submitted to the laboratory.

Lymph Nodes for Suspected Lymphoproliferative Disorders

Reason for Consultation. To determine whether sufficient tissue is present for eventual diagnosis and special studies.

Change in Surgery. Additional tissue may be provided if the initial specimen is nonlesional or inadequate.

Evaluation. **Never freeze** an entire specimen. Cytologic preparations are often very helpful for evaluating small specimens and are usually superior to frozen sections for the diagnosis of lymphoproliferative diseases. Frozen sections may be performed on larger specimens if cytologic preparations are not adequate.

If a lymphoproliferative disorder is suspected, tissue should be saved for:

1. **B Plus fixation** (best for morphology and immunoperoxidase markers for hematopathology).
2. **Snap freezing** (some markers are only available for frozen tissue). This tissue can also be used for DNA or RNA analysis.
3. **Formalin fixation** if the differential diagnosis includes carcinoma (keratins not preserved well in B5), infectious disease (staining better in formalin), or if Hodgkin's disease is suspected (lacunar cells in NS HD seen only in formalin-fixed tissue).
4. **Flow cytometry** can be helpful in selected cases.
5. **Microbiologic culture** - Tissue may be sent for culture if an infectious process is in the differential diagnosis.

The intention of the frozen section is not to provide a definitive diagnosis. Usually "lesional tissue present" or "suspicious for a lymphoproliferative disorder" are sufficient intraoperative diagnoses.

Neuropathology – Stereotactic Brain Biopsies

Reason for Consultation. Stereotactic biopsies are performed for deep-seated (i.e., thalamic) brain lesions not amenable to open surgical biopsy of resection, or in patients with AIDS who have not responded to empiric treatment for presumed toxoplasmosis or primary CNS lymphoma. OR consultation is requested to determine whether the specimen is adequate for eventual diagnosis, including apportioning tissue for special studies (e.g., EM, cytogenetics, microbiologic culture).

Change in Surgery. If the specimen is nondiagnostic, additional passes with the stereotactic needle should be done (if considered safe by the surgeon), and repeat frozen sections and/or smear preparations should be examined, until diagnostic material is obtained.

Treatment will vary with the diagnosis. Primary neoplasms may be treated with immediate resection, by various forms of intraoperative radiotherapy, or by interstitial catheter implantation for brachytherapy. CNS lymphomas may be treated by nonsurgical modalities such as corticosteroids, chemotherapy, or radiation.

Evaluation. The pathologist should be aware of the clinical setting and neuroimaging characteristics of the lesion, as these factors can aid in the differential diagnosis under consideration. Both smears and frozen sections should be performed for maximum accuracy.[38] Smears should be made from 0.5 mm samples from each end of the core biopsy specimen (or from one end of each core biopsy if more than one core is provided). If possible, some of the core (or cores) should be preserved unfrozen (i.e., free of frozen artifact) for permanent sections or ancillary studies.

Pitfalls. The major pitfall is inadequate sampling. Since gliomas can be heterogeneous in cellularity, with the edges

of high-grade tumors often mimicking diffuse, low-grade tumors, multiple biopsies are required for accurate diagnosis. Correlation with the neuroimaging is therefore crucial to be sure that the intraoperative diagnosis is consistent with the radiologic findings. Intraoperative bleeding is a grave danger, so that the surgeon may be reluctant to provide additional material in the event of an initial nondiagnostic pass. Nevertheless, the pathologist must not be tempted to "overcall" minimal abnormalities on minute specimens, lest the surgeon believe there is adequate diagnostic material when there is not.

Probable Sarcomas or Unusual Tumors

Biopsy

Reason for Consultation. To determine whether sufficient lesional tissue is present in a diagnostic biopsy for eventual diagnosis on permanent sections and for special studies.

Change in Surgery. The surgeon may remove additional tissue if the tissue is nonlesional or insufficient for needed studies.

Evaluation. A frozen section or touch preparation may be performed to determine whether lesional tissue is present, to give a preliminary diagnosis, and to guide apportionment of tissue for special studies. A definitive diagnosis is not necessary, as final classification of such lesions often requires examining multiple sections of the lesion and special studies. Often a diagnosis of "lesional tissue present" is sufficient. In rare cases (e.g., a lesion is an intraoperative incidental finding), a designation of benign vs. malignant may be requested (but this distinction may not always be possible).

The entire specimen should **not** be frozen. If only a small amount of tissue is available (i.e., the surgeon cannot provide more tissue), then the entire specimen should be saved for permanent sections. If the tissue does not appear lesional or is necrotic, additional tissue may be requested from the surgeon.

These tumors often require special studies to be classified correctly. For mesotheliomas, see also Chapter 26. Tumors are serially sectioned and representative sections taken for special studies:

1. **Quick fix formalin.** Thin sections of the tumor are placed in a sufficient volume of formalin for rapid fixation. The fixation of the main tumor mass may be delayed while tissue is taken for other studies, photography, dissection, etc. These sections must be thin enough to not require recutting before submission.
2. **Electron microscopy.** A small portion of tumor is cut into small cubes (< 0.1 cm per side) using a sharp blade and fixed for possible EM examination.
3. **Cytogenetics.** Cytogenetic studies can be helpful for classification or diagnosis in some cases. The tumor submitted must be viable and sterile. Tissue submitted for cytogenetics should be labeled according to the area of the tumor sampled, and this information should be documented in the gross description. If the tumor is heterogeneous in appearance, and multiple areas are to be karyotyped, submit each specimen in a separate container with labels linked to histologic sections (e.g., "Area A," "Area B," "Area C").

   All large or deep-seated fatty tumors, mesotheliomas, and suspected sarcomas are appropriate for cytogenetic analysis.

   In some cases, it may be appropriate to submit lesions because of research interest. This should be indicated on the requisition sheet.

   Approximately 1 cm^3 (if possible) should be placed in transport medium. If the tumor is heterogeneous in appearance, submit matched specimens for cytogenetics and fixation
4. **Snap freezing.** Small sections of tumor (similar to the size used for a frozen section) can be saved frozen. Such tissue may be useful for molecular diagnostic studies (DNA and RNA analysis) as indicated.
5. **B Plus.** If lymphoma is in the differential diagnosis, tissue should also be fixed in B Plus and possibly sent for flow cytometry (see "Hematopathology").

The remainder of the specimen is saved for possible photography and routine fixation in formalin.

Margins

Reason for Consultation. To evaluate the adequacy of margins.

Change in Surgery. Additional tissue may be taken at close or positive margins.

Evaluation. Resections of sarcomas and mesotheliomas are often large and complicated. If orientation is unclear, seek clarification from the surgeon. The specimen is inked and serially sectioned. With occasional exceptions, it is generally inappropriate to freeze margins for sarcomas, since any margin less than 2 cm from the tumor is usually an indication for radiotherapy or further surgery, if feasible. If margins are frozen, they are taken as perpendicular margins and not en face margins.

In extrapleural pneumonectomies, usually all possible tissue has been removed from the thoracic cavity and these margins are not evaluated except by specific request by the surgeon. The bronchial resection margin is usually evaluated by frozen section.

Thyroid Nodules

Thyroidectomy

Reason for Consultation. To determine whether a carcinoma is present.

Change in Surgery. Additional surgery may be performed if a carcinoma is present:

- **Papillary carcinoma:** Complete thyroidectomy and possible lymph node dissection.
- **Follicular carcinoma:** Complete thyroidectomy. In general, follicular carcinomas are not diagnosed on frozen section as the entire capsule must be examined. The diagnosis will be deferred to permanent sections for most follicular neoplasms.
- **Medullary carcinoma:** Complete thyroidectomy, possible lymph node dissection, evaluation of parathyroids. If previously unsuspected, the operative team should be aware that there is a 10% to 15% chance the patient has a pheochromocytoma.

Evaluation. The use of intraoperative frozen section varies among institutions. FNA and frozen sections both can be used effectively to guide management if the local accuracy rates for both techniques are known.

- **FNA positive for papillary carcinoma:** FNA can have a greater than 95% accuracy rate for this diagnosis. There is only a small probability that frozen section will yield a definitive benign diagnosis. The diagnosis of papillary carcinoma usually can be easily corroborated by either frozen section or touch preparations, if requested.
- **FNA suspicious for papillary carcinoma:** 30% to 50% of these lesions will prove to be malignant. Frozen section or touch preparations can be helpful in establishing a definite diagnosis at surgery.
- **FNA suggestive of a follicular neoplasm:** About 20% to 30% of these lesions will prove malignant. The determination of malignancy of follicular lesions is difficult and the probability of detecting capsular or vascular invasion on a frozen section is low. In one study, FS correctly modified the surgical procedure in 3.3% of such cases but led to an incorrect procedure in 5% of cases.[39] If frozen section evaluation is undertaken, the surgeon must be aware that few cancers are detected by this technique and that false positives can occur.
- **FNA interpreted as benign:** The risk of carcinoma in this group is less than 10%. In one study, FS identified only a third of the carcinomas missed by FNA in this group and produced an equal number of false positive cases.[40]
- **FNA inadequate or not performed:** In these cases, FS can be helpful. If follicular lesions are excluded, the sensitivity is over 95% and the specificity approaches 100%.

Before examining the specimen, any previous FNA reports and thyroid ultrasound examinations should be reviewed to determine the likely type and site of lesions present.

The thyroid is weighed, inked, serially sectioned, and grossly evaluated for the presence of a single nodule or multiple nodules. Whenever possible, the location of nodules previously sampled by FNA should be identified to facilitate the correlation between histologic and cytologic findings.

A multinodular gland is more likely to be benign whereas a solitary lesion may be an adenoma or carcinoma.

Cytologic preparations (e.g., touch preparations) are preferred, as they preserve the nuclear features of papillary carcinoma (intranuclear inclusions, grooves, large hypochromatic nuclei, and small nucleoli). These features are more difficult to evaluate on frozen sections with freezing artifacts. If tissue is frozen, the section(s) should be taken from the edge of the lesion, including capsule if present.

Pitfalls. The likelihood of not detecting capsular or vascular invasion in follicular carcinomas due to sampling error is high. In addition, distortion introduced by freezing artifact may make the evaluation of capsular and vascular invasion difficult. The follicular variant of papillary carcinoma may be mistaken for a follicular lesion. Cytologic preparations are very helpful for evaluating the nuclear features in such lesions.

Lymph Node Biopsy

Reason for Consultation. Evaluation of a cervical lymph node in a patient with known or suspected thyroid carcinoma.

Change in Surgery. If metastatic thyroid carcinoma is diagnosed, a total thyroidectomy may be performed or additional lymph nodes taken.

Evaluation. The lymph node is serially sectioned and the most abnormal area frozen.

Pitfalls. Multinodular thyroid glands may have parasitic nodules that appear to be lymph nodes to the surgeon. If the gland is involved by thyroiditis and germinal centers are present, it is possible to mistake such a nodule for metastatic thyroid carcinoma. However, the nuclear features of papillary carcinoma will not be present.

The presence of normal thyroid inclusions in cervical nodes is controversial and some pathologists interpret these cases as metastatic thyroid carcinoma. Cases interpreted as benign inclusions should be limited to a few follicles found beneath the capsule in a single lymph node. Cytologic features of papillary carcinoma must be absent.

Parathyroid Surgery

Reason for Consultation. Parathyroid surgery is undertaken for either primary hyperparathyroidism (usually due to a solitary adenoma) or for secondary hyperparathyroidism (almost always due to chronic renal failure). The distinction between primary and secondary hyperparathyroidism is best made on clinical grounds (i.e., elevated serum calcium vs. low serum calcium) and the distinction

TABLE 6–3. PRIMARY VERSUS SECONDARY HYPERPARATHYROIDISM

TYPE	USUAL CAUSE	NUMBER OF INVOLVED GLANDS	SERUM CALCIUM
Primary	Solitary adenoma	Usually one, rarely more than one	Elevated
	Primary hyperplasia (rare)	Two or more	Elevated
Secondary	Renal failure	Four	Decreased

between an adenoma (a single enlarged gland) vs. primary hyperplasia (two or more enlarged glands) is best made by surgical evaluation of all glands (four or more) (Table 6-3).

Some institutions use rapid serum parathyroid hormone assays to guide surgery for adenomas. If the serum level drops after removal of an adenoma, further surgical exploration and frozen section evaluation may not be necessary. Serum calcium also drops rapidly after the removal of a hyperfunctioning adenoma.

Change in Surgery. If parathyroid tissue is not demonstrated, the surgeon may continue to search for additional parathyroid glands.

Evaluation. The role of the pathologist is to determine the size and weight of each gland and whether parathyroid tissue is present in each specimen submitted. Each specimen should be identified as a complete gland (glands are ovoid, smooth-surfaced structures) or a biopsy (usually a minute irregular fragment of tissue). Although normal glands usually have >25% adipose tissue and adenomas usually have <5% adipose tissue, this is not an absolutely reliable diagnostic feature. Parathyroid glands tend to contain more adipose tissue with age (e.g., a 50-year-old person generally would have glands with 50% fat).

- **Adenomas:** The adenoma will be removed in entirety and will have a smooth ovoid appearance. Both the size and weight are important diagnostic features. Document parathyroid parenchyma by frozen section. The three remaining normal glands will be visually inspected and one to three of them may be biopsied. These biopsies will be small and are frozen in entirety to document the presence of parathyroid parenchyma.
- **Secondary hyperplasia:** Three glands will be removed and the fourth gland partially resected. All glands will be markedly enlarged and should have size and weights documented. Freeze a representative section of each to confirm the presence of parathyroid parenchyma.

Pitfalls. The identification of parathyroid tissue can be made with 99% accuracy.[41] The most frequent problem in this study was distinguishing thyroid tissue and parathyroid tissue.

- **Parathyroid tissue mistaken for thyroid:** Pseudofollicular and trabecular structures may be present containing material that looks like colloid and resembles normal thyroid. Parathyroid tissue can also resemble a follicular thyroid (Hurthle cell) nodule if composed of oxyphilic cells. Thyroid follicles frequently contain calcium oxalate crystals, which are easily seen with polarization. These crystals are not seen in parathyroid tissue.
- **Thyroid tissue mistaken for normal parathyroid tissue:** Stromal edema or frozen section artifact can mimic adipose tissue. Rarely, adipose metaplasia may be present. In some cases, immunohistochemistry will be necessary to discriminate between the two tissues. This problem most frequently arises when there is a multinodular thyroid gland with small parasitic nodules or an intrathyroidal parathyroid gland.
- **Lymph node mistaken for parathyroid tissue:** Frozen section artifact can mimic adipose tissue within a lymph node and can be mistaken for parathyroid tissue.
- **Sampling error:** Small diagnostic areas of parathyroid tissue may be missed.

It is more difficult to distinguish adenomas from normal parathyroid glands on frozen section. In general, this distinction need not be made by frozen section and is better made based on the size of the gland and intraoperative parathyroid hormone (PTH) measurements.

INFECTION PRECAUTIONS IN THE OR CONSULTATION ROOM

Pathology personnel handle potentially infectious material every day. It is estimated that 50% of the patients who are HIV positive are undiagnosed at the time of admission to the hospital and this is undoubtedly also true of other patients with infectious diseases. Therefore pathologists must do their best to limit the risk of infection to themselves and to the people they work with by handling **all** specimens with universal precautions.

OR consultations on tissues from patients with known infectious diseases may be performed **if** this information is important for immediate patient management. If the purpose of the examination is unclear, the surgeon should be contacted to clarify what information would be useful to the clinicians. Frozen sections are avoided if possible.

Three cases of conversions to positive tuberculin skin tests have been linked to aerosol produced by spraying a tissue block with a compressed gas coolant.[5,6] Thus, although rare, exposure can occur. These sprays are no longer recommended for use. Cytologic preparations are not as hazardous for infectious specimens and often are as good or better than frozen sections for diagnosis. If a frozen section is performed on tissue from a patient known or suspected to be HIV positive, hepatitis B or C positive, or to have mycobacterial infection, the cryostat must be clearly marked as contaminated and should be decontaminated before further use.

Guidelines:

- Always wear gloves when handling specimens. Double-gloving (as well as aprons, face masks, and eye protection) is recommended for known infectious cases or for bloody specimens. An OSHA approved TB respirator must be worn for known or suspected cases of TB.
- After working a specimen with known or potential pathogens, **immediately remove your gloves**. Do not touch anything else in the room (e.g., the cryostats, staining rack, microscopes, telephones, etc.) with contaminated gloves. If you want to protect your hands from these surfaces, use a pair of clean gloves.
- Clean the workstation by removing all blood, tissue, and sharps (razor blades, scalpels, syringe needles). Tissue is placed in appropriately labeled containers in formalin or stored in the refrigerator in sealed bags or specimen containers. Make sure the containers are tightly sealed and leakproof. Sharps and glass slides must be discarded in the appropriate designated containers. Used tools (forceps, rulers, scalpel handles, etc.) should be rinsed free of gross blood and disinfected.
- Before removing the scalpel blade from the handle, all gross tissue and blood should be cleaned in a disinfectant solution. A forceps is used for this procedure.
- Always leave the workstation ready for the next frozen section examination.
- Always wash your hands before leaving the OR consultation room.
- Disposable gowns, aprons, face masks, and eye protection are recommended whenever exposure to blood or tissue is expected.
- Do not eat or drink in the OR consultation room, bring food into the room, or dispose of empty food containers in the room. The presence of food or former food containers is against OSHA rules and may result in penalties or closure.

See Chapter 8 for more information or if a significant exposure should occur.

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Special Studies

7

The pathologist's H&E is like the clinician's H&P (history and physical) - basic exams to be performed on every patient or specimen forming the cornerstone of diagnosis. However, the pathologist is no longer limited to the H&E; there are a wide variety of special studies available to evaluate pathologic processes, from simple histochemical stains to global gene expression patterns. Pathologists are now clinical cell biologists. Familiarity with the types of special studies available is important as the initial processing of the gross specimen may limit the types of studies that can be performed.

HISTOCHEMISTRY

Almost all histochemical stains are suitable for formalin-fixed tissues. Common stains and their uses are listed in Table 7-1. However, numerous other types of stains and modifications are used and pathologists must be aware of individual laboratory practices.

The WebPath section of the University of Utah site (http://library.med.utah.edu/webpath) has useful descriptions of special stains and illustrative photographs.

TABLE 7–1. HISTOCHEMICAL STAINS

STAIN	COMPONENTS STAINED	POSSIBLE USES AND COMMENTS
AFOG (acid fuschin orange G; modified Masson's trichrome)	Nuclei – brown Connective tissue – blue Basement membrane – blue Proteins, fibrin, readsorption droplets in cells, immune complexes – red/orange/yellow RBCs – yellow	Evaluation of renal biopsies
Alcian blue	Acid mucins – blue (e.g., normal intestinal glands) Nuclei – red Cytoplasm – pink	Sometimes used to identify mucosubstances in mesotheliomas or intestinal metaplasia. Affected by pH. Hyaluronidase digestion can be used to identify hyaluronic acid.
Alcian blue/PAS	Intestinal metaplasia – dark purple Normal stomach – pink	Demonstrates both acid and neutral mucins
Alcian yellow	Free mucus – yellow Bacteria – dark blue	Identification of *H. pylori* in gastric biopsies
Acid-fast bacilli stains (Fite-Faraco, Ziehl-Neelson, Kinyoun)	TB – red and beaded MAI – red *Nocardia* – pink Tissue – blue	Identification of mycobacteria. Modifications are used to demonstrate *M. leprae* or *Nocardia*. Carnoy's fixed tissues cannot be used and B-5 is suboptimal. Slides must be examined under oil.
Alizarin red S	Calcium – orange red, polarizes	Identifies calcium in tissues
Bile	Bile – dark green on a yellow background	Identification of bile
Bodian's	Nerve fibers and neurofibrils – black Nuclei – black Tissue – blue	Neural tumors, identification of axons

Continued

TABLE 7–1. HISTOCHEMICAL STAINS—cont'd

STAIN	COMPONENTS STAINED	POSSIBLE USES AND COMMENTS
Chloroacetate esterase (Leder; CAE)	Mature myeloid cells, mast cells – red granules Nuclei – blue	Evaluation of leukemias Identification of mast cells Cannot be used for tissue fixed in Zenker's or B-5.
Congo red	Amyloid – orange red with apple green birefringence after polarization Nuclei – blue	Detection of amyloid. Immunoperoxidase studies can be used to identify specific types. Overstaining can result in false positives.
Dieterle	Spirochetes, *Legionella*, other bacteria – brown to black Tissue – pale yellow or tan	Infectious lesions Melanin, chromatin, formalin pigment, and foreign material may also stain
Diff Quik (a modified Giemsa stain)	*H. pylori* – dark blue Other bacteria – blue Nuclei – dark blue Cytoplasm – pink	Evaluation of chronic gastritis
Elastic stains (Verhoeff–van Gieson)	Elastic fibers – blue black to black Nuclei – blue to black Collagen – red Other tissue – yellow	Identification of arteries and veins, vasculitis, invasion of lung tumors into visceral pleura, abnormal elastic fibers in elastofibromas
Fibrin (see Phosphotungstic acid hematoxylin or Mallory PTAH)		To demonstrate fibrin in renal biopsies
Fontana-Masson	Melanin, argentaffin granules, chromaffin granules, some lipofuschin – black Nuclei – red	Identification of melanin in melanomas and secretory granules in neuroendocrine tumors This stain has largely been replaced by IHC
Giemsa (May-Grunwald)	Bacteria (e.g., *H. pylori*) – blue Parasites (*Leishmania*, *Plasmodium*) – blue Mast cells – red to purple granules Nuclei – blue Cytoplasm of leukocytes – pink to blue depending on cell type and differentiation	Lymphoproliferative disorders (good nuclear and cytoplasmic detail) Identification of bacteria, rickettsias, and *Toxoplasma gondii*
Gram (Brown-Hopps, Brown-Brenn)	Gram-positive bacteria – blue Gram-negative bacteria – red Nuclei – red Tissue – variable	Identification of bacteria, some cases of actinomycetes, *Nocardia*, coccidioidomycosis, blastomycosis, cryptococcosis, aspergillosis, rhinosporidiosis, and amebiasis
Grimelius	Argentaffin and argyrophil granules – dark brown to black Nuclei – red Background – pale yellow-brown	Evaluation of neuroendocrine tumors (largely replaced by the use of immunohistochemistry for chromogranin)
Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E)	Nuclei – dark blue or purple Cytoplasm – pink to red	Standard stain for the routine evaluation of tissues
Iron (colloidal iron)	Ferric iron (e.g., hemosiderin) – blue Nuclei – red Background – pink	Bone marrow (iron stores, myelodysplasias), liver (hemochromatosis) Chromophobe renal cell carcinomas are positive
Jone's silver methenamine	Basement membrane – dark maroon to black	Evaluation of renal biopsies
Melanin bleach		Removes melanin from tissue, usually for IHC Melanin can be difficult to distinguish from IHC positivity

TABLE 7–1. HISTOCHEMICAL STAINS—cont'd

STAIN	COMPONENTS STAINED	POSSIBLE USES AND COMMENTS
Methyl green-pyronin Y	DNA (nuclei) – green to blue-green RNA - red Goblet cells - mint green Plasma cell and immunoblast cytoplasm - pink to red Mast cells - orange Background - pale pink to colorless	Plasma cell lesions (largely replaced by IHC) Does not work well on tissues decalcified with formic acid.
Mucicarmine (Mayer)	Mucin - deep rose to red Capsule of *Cryptococcus* - deep rose to red Nuclei - black Tissue - blue or yellow	Identification of adenocarcinomas, identification of *Cryptococcus*
Oil red O	Fat - red Nuclei - blue	Requires frozen sections (lipids are dissolved by most fixatives or during processing). Tissue fixed in formalin can be used if tissue is frozen.
Periodic acid – Schiff (PAS)	Glycogen - red Basement membranes (BM) - red Mucins - red Colloid - red Fungi - red	Classification of tumors with glycogen (e.g., Ewing's/PNET, rhabdomyosarcoma, renal cell carcinoma), glomerular diseases (BM), identification of adenocarcinomas (mucin), fungal diseases (especially in argentophic areas – neutrophils and debris), spironolactone bodies in adrenal adenomas treated with this drug
Periodic acid – Schiff with diastase digestion (PAS-D)	As above except glycogen that has been digested will not be stained	Identification of glycogen in tumors Identification of fungus in glycogen-rich tissue (e.g., skin) PAS-D resistant deposits in liver are present in alpha-1-antitrypsin deficiency
Phosphotungstic acid hematoxylin (Mallory PTAH)	Glial fibers - blue Nuclei - blue Neurons - salmon Myelin - blue Skeletal muscle cross striations - blue Fibrin - blue Collagen - red brown	Identification of neural lesions Skeletal muscle differentiation (Zenker's fixative is preferred). This stain has been replaced by IHC for muscle markers.
Reticular fibers (Gomor's reticulin, Gordon and Sweets, Snook)	Reticulin - black Mature collagen, type 1 – brown Immature collagen, types 3 and 4 - black	Bone marrow (myelophthisis), liver (fibrosis, veno-occlusive disease), carcinoma vs. sarcoma (reticular network) (but largely replaced by IHC)
Silver stain (Grocott methenamine–silver nitrate – GMS)	Fungi - black *Pneumocystis* - black Mucin - taupe to gray Tissue - green	Evaluation of infectious diseases Bacteria will also stain black.
Steiner	Spirochetes, *H. pylori*, *Legionella*, other bacteria - dark brown to black Tissue - light yellow	Evaluation of infectious diseases
Sulfated Alcian blue	Myocytes – yellow Connective tissue – red-purple Amyloid – sea-foam green	Identification of amyloid in cardiac biopsies
Toluidine blue	Mast cells - deep violet Background - blue	Mast cell diseases, chronic cystitis

Continued

TABLE 7–1. HISTOCHEMICAL STAINS—cont'd

STAIN	COMPONENTS STAINED	POSSIBLE USES AND COMMENTS
Trichrome (Gomori, Masson)	Mature collagen, type 1 – dark blue Immature collagen, types 3 and 4 - light blue Mucin - green or blue Nuclei - black Cytoplasm, keratin, muscle fibers - red	Liver (fibrosis)
Trichrome - modified	Viable myocardium - magenta to brick red Nonviable myocardium -dusky gray to mauve	Evaluation of myocardial biopsies
Von Kossa calcium	Calcium - black Tissue - red	Demonstration of phosphate and carbonate radicals with calcium in tissues, identification of malakoplakia (Michaelis-Gutmann bodies)
Warthin Starry	Spirochetes - black Other bacteria - black (including *Bartonella* sp.) Tissue - pale yellow to light brown	Infectious lesions (including syphilis, cat scratch fever, and bacillary angiomatosis)
Wright's	Eosinophilic granules - pink Neutrophilic granules - purple Lymphocytic cytoplasm - blue Nuclei -blue to purple	Blood smears

IMMUNOPEROXIDASE STUDIES

The development of methods to detect antigens on tissue sections with antibodies was a major advance in surgical pathology. Immunohistochemical (IHC) studies are most frequently used for the following purposes:

- Classification of tumors (e.g., carcinoma vs. lymphoma, B cell vs. T cell lymphoma).
- Identification of in situ lesions vs. invasive carcinomas (e.g., myoepithelial markers in breast cancers, basal cell markers in prostate).
- Prognostic factors (e.g., Ki-67 in glioblastomas).
- Predictive factors to guide specific therapy (e.g., c-KIT, estrogen and progesterone receptors, HER2/neu).
- Identification of extracellular material (e.g., β-2 microglobulin amyloid).
- Identification of infectious agents (e.g., CMV or HSV).

Use of Immunohistochemistry. A differential diagnosis is generated after examination of the H&E-stained slides. IHC is then used to gain evidence for or against diagnostic possibilities. "Trolling" cases through an immunohistochemistry laboratory by ordering numerous antibody studies without a clear reason in mind is more likely to lead to misguided diagnosis due to aberrant immunoreactivity than to provide an unexpected correct diagnosis.

Panels. There are no absolute rules for immunoreactivity in cells and tissues. Aberrant immunoreactivity or loss of immunoreactivity is occasionally observed for all antibodies, either due to biologic variability (e.g., occasional keratin-positive melanomas) or technical factors (e.g., impure antibodies, cross-reaction with other antigens, failure to preserve antigenicity). Thus, immunohistochemical markers are used most effectively as panels of markers with interpretation based on an immunohistochemical profile.

Slides for Immunohistochemistry. Tissue is often dislodged from normal glass slides during the treatments required for IHC. Thus, slides must be coated (e.g., with glue, poly-L-lysine, gelatin, albumin) or special commercial slides must be used. If slides are being prepared by another laboratory, the type of glass slide to be used must be specified.

Factors Affecting Immunogenicity. There are numerous variables that can affect antigenicity. The most common are listed below. Each laboratory must optimize its procedures for each antibody used. Studies on tissues or slides not prepared in the routine fashion for a laboratory must be interpreted with caution.

- **Type of fixative.** Some fixatives destroy some antigens (e.g., Bouin's diminishes ER immunoreactivity, keratins are not well preserved in B5).[1] Most studies are based on formalin-fixed tissue. Results cannot be assumed to be equivalent for other fixatives.
- **Length of time of fixation** in formalin causes protein cross-linking, and antigenicity generally decreases with fixation times over 24 hours. To some extent, this effect can be reversed using antigen retrieval methods. Antigenicity can also be reduced if the tissue is fixed for too short a period (e.g., less than 6 hours).
- **Prior decalcification in hydrochloric acid.** Decreases antigenicity of some epitopes (predominantly nuclear)

but not others (predominantly cytoplasmic).[2] Decalcifying agents using EDTA did not alter immunogenicity.
  - Decreased: estrogen receptor (ER), progesterone receptor (PR), Ki-67, p53, BerEp4 (tumor cells), H blood group.
  - Not affected: calcitonin, chromogranin, GCDFP-15, HMB 45, thyroglobulin, S100, prostate-specific antigen (PSA), keratins (CK 20, CAM5.2, AE1/AE3), A and B blood groups, others.
- **Temperature** of baking the slide.
- **Length of time since the glass slide was cut.** The immunoreactivity of the majority of antigens declines over days to weeks with potential complete loss at one month.[3,4] The loss may be due to exposure of tissue to air with oxidation of amino acids, as the immunogenicity of tissue deeper in the block can be preserved for many years. Antigen retrieval methods do not completely restore the antigenicity of old slides. Coating slides with paraffin, storing the slides in a nitrogen desiccator, and/or storing at lower temperatures can partially preserve antigenicity. However, studies should be performed on newly cut slides, if possible.
- **Antigen retrieval procedures** (e.g., proteolysis, heating [microwave, steam], special incubation fluids). To some extent these methods reverse the effects of formalin fixation. Variable effects are observed for different antibodies.
- **Type of antibody** (polyclonal vs. monoclonal vs. mixture of different monoclonals, epitope detected, mouse vs. rabbit). Very different results can be obtained with different antibodies to the same protein or different commercial sources of the same antibody.
- **Incubation time, incubation temperature, dilution of antibody.**
- **Methods of signal amplification.**

Controls. Controls are essential for the appropriate interpretation of immunohistochemical studies and ensure that all steps of this complicated procedure have been performed adequately.

Positive controls consisting of tissues known to be immunoreactive should be included each time an antibody is used for a test case. Internal positive controls should always be evaluated when present, as they control not only for the technique used but also for the antigenicity of the tissue under investigation. The immunoperoxidase table lists normal cells that are generally immunoreactive for each antibody. Some laboratories have used vimentin as a control for immunogenicity as almost all tissue should demonstrate positivity.[5] Given the wide and non-specific distribution of vimentin, smooth muscle alpha actin may be more useful in this context as pericytes, vascular smooth muscle, and myoepithelial cells present in most tissues are immunoreactive.

Examples of internal controls:

- S100: Normal nerves, melanocytes, and Langerhans cells in epidermis, cartilage, some myoepithelial cells, skin adnexa
- Estrogen and progesterone receptors: Normal luminal cells in ducts and lobules of the breast
- CD31, FVIII: Vascular endothelium
- c-KIT (CD117): Mast cells
- Smooth muscle alpha actin: Blood vessel walls, myoepithelial cells in the breast
- Vimentin: Blood vessels, stromal cells
- High molecular weight (MW) keratin: Squamous epithelium
- Low MW keratin: Glandular epithelium
- CD15: Polymorphonuclear leukocytes

Negative controls usually consist of replacing the primary antibody with non-immune animal serum diluted to the same concentration as the primary antibody. No positive reaction should be present. If multiple primary antibodies are used reactive with different target antigens, then they may serve as negative controls for each other. Although the best negative control would be to use antibody preabsorbed against the target antigen, this is rarely practical in a diagnostic laboratory. Diagnostic slides should also be evaluated for internal negative controls. Aberrant immunoreactivity of tissues that should not be positive is indicative that the immunoreactivity is nonspecific and the study should not be used for interpretation.

Evaluation of Studies

The following features must be taken into consideration when evaluating studies:

Location of Immunoreactivity. Antigens are present in specific sites. Some antigens may be present in more than one location or be extracellular.

Nonspecific positivity should be suspected when immunoreactivity is present in atypical locations:

- **Background:** Suspect nonspecific positivity if normal cells or noncellular components are positive. This can occur with suboptimal performance of the assay or suboptimal antibodies.
- **Edge artifact:** Antibodies can pool at edges or holes in tissue. True positivity should also be present in the center of the tissue.
- **Necrosis or crushing of cells:** Nonspecific positivity can be seen in disrupted cells. Although keratin is generally reliable in necrotic tumors, other markers generally should not be interpreted.
- **Inappropriate location** (e.g., cytoplasm instead of nucleus): Occasionally ER or PR are present in the cytoplasm instead of the nucleus. This is not interpreted as a positive result. Plasma cells have large amounts of cytoplasmic immunoglobulins that can crossreact with many antibodies.
- In rare cases, immunoreactivity in an unusual location is of diagnostic importance:
  - **TTF-1:** Cytoplasmic (instead of nuclear) positivity in hepatocellular carcinomas.
  - **Ki-67 (MIB1):** Cytoplasmic and membrane (instead of nuclear) positivity in trabecular hyalinizing adenomas of the thyroid and sclerosing hemangiomas of the lung.

- **Beta-catenin:** Nuclear (instead of cytoplasmic) positivity in solid pseudopapillary tumors of the pancreas and pancreatoblastomas. Both nuclear and cytoplasmic positivity is seen in the majority of colon carcinomas. Nuclear positivity is present in about 20% of endometrioid endometrial carcinomas and 70% of cases of desmoid-type fibromatosis.
- **ALK:** The pattern of immunoreactivity correlates with the different types of chromosomal translocations in anaplastic large cell lymphomas.
- **NPM** (nucleophosmin) shuttles between the cytoplasm and nucleus. NPM1 mutations occur in about 30% of adult AML and cause aberrant cytoplasmic expression of NPM ("NPMc+ AML"). These cases have a specific gene expression profile and distinctive clinical and prognostic features.

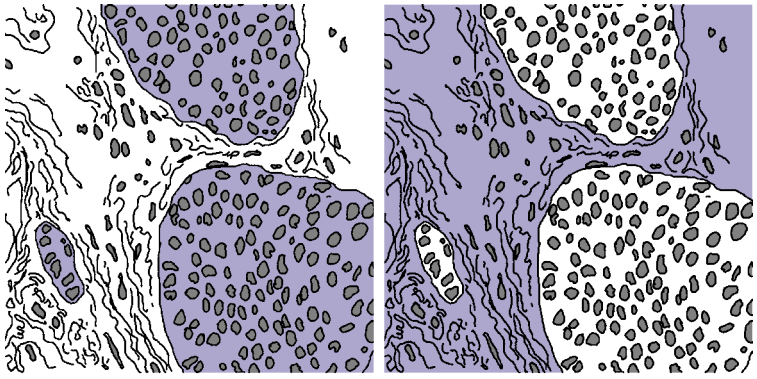
Examples of the normal location of antigens are shown in Figure 7-1.

Identification of Immunoreactive Cells. Immunoreactivity of tumor cells must be distinguished from immunoreactivity of normal entrapped cells (e.g., desmin [+] skeletal muscle cells infiltrated by tumor, S100 [+] Langerhans cells in tumors, smooth muscle alpha actin [+] blood vessels, etc.). Plasma cells have large amounts of cytoplasmic immunoglobulin and can react nonspecifically with many antibodies.

Intensity of Immunoreactivity. Some weak immunoreactivity may be present as a nonspecific finding. It is important to compare positive cells with control slides and with normally nonimmunoreactive cells to determine whether the immunoreactivity is significant.

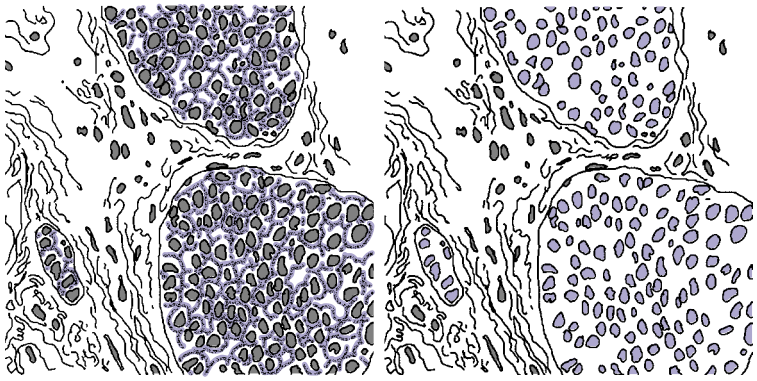
Number of Immunoreactive Cells. In some cases, the number of positive cells may be important as a criterion for positivity or as a prognostic marker (e.g., markers of proliferation such as Ki-67, HER2/neu). In other cases, rare weakly positive cells must be distinguished from intermingled normal cells or just nonspecific immunoreactivity.

Criteria for a "Positive" Result. Specific criteria for evaluating IHC have been developed for a few antibodies (see Tables 7-12 to 7-16). However, criteria do not exist for most antibodies or are not universally used by all



Nuclear: ER, TTF-1, P63, Myf4 (myogenin), Ki-67 (MIB1)

Membrane: EMA, HER2/neu, e-cadherin, EGFR



Cytoplasm:
Granular: organelles, secretory vesicles (chromogranin, HMB-45)

Fibrillary: intermediate filaments (actin, keratin)

Diffuse, patchy: cytosol, large vesicles (myoglobin, thyroglobulin)

Extracellular: Amyloid (β2-microglobulin, lambda chain, calcitonin)

Figure 7–1. Location of immunoreactivity (indicated in blue).

pathologists. The significance of immunoreactivity varies with the type of lesion, the antibody, and the specific assay. Strong positivity in the majority of cells is easily interpreted as positive. As the number of positive cells decreases, and the intensity of immunoreactivity weakens, the lower threshold of a "positive" result becomes more difficult to determine.

Time. Alkaline phosphatase chromogens (red color) fade over time. DAB (a brown color) is more permanent. This is not a problem in evaluating current pathology specimens. However, if slides are reviewed after a period of time, some chromogens may fade and once positive results may appear to be negative.

Common Panels for Immunohistochemical Studies

The following tables include information from the literature as well as the personal experiences of the staff at Brigham and Women's Hospital. Because of the many differences in specific antibodies, laboratory assays, and criteria for considering a result "positive," results may vary for different institutions. The results have been divided into five categories for general markers and four categories for hematopathology markers. Note that "%" refers to the number of tumors reported to be positive, not the number of cells positive within a tumor (Table 7-2).

The actual markers used to evaluate a case will depend upon the differential diagnosis based on the H&E appearance. In some cases, an initial panel, which is often used for typical cases, has been suggested. Not all markers listed would be used for all cases and some markers are included to indicate when they would not be useful for distinguishing the tumors listed in the table.

POSITIVE is defined as the presence of immunoreactive cells and NEGATIVE as the absence of immunoreactive cells. Unfortunately, "positive" has also been used in some studies to mean "absence of immunoreactivity" when this finding supports a diagnosis. For example, the absence of SMAD4 (DPC4) has been reported as a "positive" result for pancreatic carcinoma, as this marker is absent in the majority of these tumors. This method of reporting results becomes confusing as "positive" and "negative" are dependent on the expected diagnosis. It is preferable to report the findings (positive = immunoreactivity present; negative = immunoreactivity absent) and then interpret them as supporting, or not supporting, the diagnoses in the differential diagnosis.

Cytokeratin 7 and cytokeratin 20 tables

The combination of these two cytokeratins have been found to be useful to divide carcinomas into four main groups (Ck7+/Ck20+, Ck7+/Ck20-, Ck7-/Ck20+, Ck7-/Ck20-).

In Tables 7-3 to 7-7, other commonly used antibodies have been included to show differences within each group. The most useful additional antibodies will depend on the specific differential diagnosis.[6-8]

Small blue cell tumors

See Table 7-8.

Spindle cell lesions, soft tissue lesions, and sarcomas

See Table 7-9.

TABLE 7–2. EVALUATION OF POSITIVITY OF IMMUNOHISTOCHEMICAL STUDIES

GENERAL MARKERS			HEMATOPATHOLOGY MARKERS		
Category	**% of Tumors**	**Interpretation**	**Category**	**% of Tumors**	**Interpretation**
Positive (POS)	>90%	Almost always positive; a negative result would be unusual	+	>90%	Almost always positive
High	60-90%	Most tumors are positive	+/–	>50%	Majority positive
Moderate (Mod)	40-60%	May or may not be positive – usually the least useful type of marker	–/+	<50%	Minority positive
Low	10-40%	Most tumors are negative	–	<10%	Rarely positive
Negative (neg)	<10%	Almost all tumors are negative; a positive result would be unusual	Blank		Results unknown or too few cases to quantify
Blank		Results unknown or too few cases to quantify ?=Results based on very few cases (e.g., <10)			

TABLE 7–3. PREDOMINANTLY CK7+/CK20+

TUMOR	CK7+/ CK20+	CK7+/ CK20 –	CK7–/ CK20+	CK7–/ CK20–	34B E12	CAM-5.2	CK5/6	EMA	BER-EP4	CEA m	CEA p	TTF 1	p63	WT1	S100	CHRO	HEP	OTHER
Cholangio-carcinoma	High	Low	Low	neg	High	POS	Low	POS	POS	High	POS	neg	Low				rare	
Transitional cell carcinoma	POS	Low	neg	neg	Mod	POS	High	POS		Mod	Mod	neg	High	neg	neg	neg	neg	
Pancreas	High	Low	Low	neg		POS	Low	POS	POS	High	POS	neg	Mod	neg	neg	neg	Low	DPC4 lost in 55%
Ovarian mucinous	POS	Low	neg	neg		POS	neg	POS		Mod	Low		neg?	neg	High		Low	
Esophageal adenocar-cinoma	POS	neg	neg	neg								neg	Low		neg		Mod	

TABLE 7–4. NO DOMINANT CK7/CK20 PATTERN OR PATTERN UNKNOWN

	CK7+/ CK20+	CK7+/ CK20–	CK7–/ CK20+	CK7–/ CK20–	34b E12	CAM-5.2	CK 5/6	EMA	BER-EP4	CEA m	CEA p	TTF-1	p63	WT1	S100	CHRO	HEP	OTHER
Gastric adeno-carci-noma	Low	Low	Low	Low	neg	POS	neg	High	POS	High	High	neg	Low	neg?	Low	neg	Low	
Amelo-blas-toma/ ada-manti-noma[a]					POS	neg		neg							neg?	neg?		
Lymphoepi-thelialcar-cinoma[b]					POS			High		Mod?	Mod?				neg[c]			p63 POS

[a]About 15% of ameloblastomas are positive for Ck7.
[b]About 50% of nasopharyngeal carcinomas are positive for Ck7. Many cases in Asian and North African patients (less commonly in US patients) are associated with EBV. EBV can be demonstrated by in situ hybridization, PCR, or occasionally by immunohistochemistry. These carcinomas are also positive for broad-spectrum keratins (AE1/AE3 and PANK).
[c]S100-positive dendritic cells are present.

TABLE 7–5. PREDOMINANTLY CK7+/CK20–

TUMOR	CK7+/ CK20+	CK7+/ CK20–	CK7–/ CK20+	CK7–/ CK20–	34b E12	CAM 5.2	CK 5/6	EMA	BER-EP4	CEA m	CEA p	TTF-1	p63	WT1	S100	CHRO	HEP	OTHER
Acinic cell carcinoma	neg	POS	neg	neg	POS	POS		Mod			Low				POS	Low		
Adenoid cystic carcinoma	neg	POS	neg	neg	POS	High	POS	Mod		POS	Low		POS		Mod	neg		GFAP Low
Breast ductal carcinoma	Low	High	neg	neg	neg[a]	POS	Low	POS	High	High	Mod	neg	Low[a]	Low	Mod	Low	neg	ER/PR[b] GCDFP Mod
Breast lobular carcinoma	Low	POS	neg	neg		POS	neg	POS	Mod	Mod	Mod	neg	Low			Low	neg	ER/PR[c] GCDFP Mod E-cad neg
Brenner tumor	neg	POS	neg	neg				POS			High			Low	neg?	POS		Calret low NSE POS
Cervical squamous cell carcinoma	neg	High	neg	Low	POS	neg	POS	POS		POS	Low	neg	POS			neg	neg	HPV POS p16 High
Choroid plexus	neg	High	neg	Low		POS		Low	neg						Mod			GFAP High
Chordoma	neg	POS	neg	neg	Mod	POS		POS	neg	neg	neg				POS	neg		GFAP neg
Craniopharyngioma	neg	POS	neg	neg	POS		POS											
Embryonal carcinoma	neg	POS	neg	neg	neg	POS		Low		Low	Low	neg?	neg		neg	neg	neg	PLAP High CD30 High
Endometrial carcinoma	Low	High	neg	neg		POS	Low	POS	POS	Low	Low	neg		neg?	High	neg	neg	Vim POS ER High
Lung – adenocarcinoma	Low	High	neg	Low	Mod	POS	neg	POS	POS	High	High	High	Mod	Low	Low	neg	Low	
Lung – BAL[c] non-mucinous	neg	POS	neg	neg	POS	POS				High	High	High	Mod	neg	Mod	neg		

Continued

TABLE 7–5. PREDOMINANTLY CK7+/CK20–—cont'd

TUMOR	CK7+/ CK20+	CK7+/ CK20–	CK7–/ CK20+	CK7–/ CK20–	34b E12	CAM 5.2	CK 5/6	EMA	BER-EP4	CEA m	CEA p	TTF-1	p63	WT1	S100	CHRO	HEP	OTHER
Meningioma – secretory type[d]	neg	POS	neg	neg		neg	High	POS		POS	POS				Low	neg		PR Mod ER neg
Mesothelioma	neg	High	neg	Low	High	POS	High	High	neg	neg	neg	neg	neg	High	neg	Low	neg	Calret High
Mixed tumor[e]	neg	POS	neg	neg		POS	POS	Low		Low	neg?		POS		POS		neg	GFAP High SMA POS Calp POS
Ovarian - endometrioid	neg	POS	neg	neg		POS	Low	POS	POS	Low	Low	neg?	Low	High	Low		neg	ER Mod
Ovarian – serous carcinoma	neg	POS	neg	neg		POS	Low	POS	POS	neg	neg	neg?	Low	POS	High		neg	ER High Calret Low
Renal cell – papillary & chromophobe	neg	POS	neg	neg	POS			POS						Mod[f]				
Thyroid - papillary	neg	POS	neg	neg	POS	POS	Mod	High		neg	Mod	POS	High		High	neg	neg	Thy POS Calci neg
Thyroid - follicular	neg	POS	neg	neg	neg		neg	Mod		neg	Low	POS			Mod	neg	neg	Thy POS Calci neg
Thyroid - medullary	neg	POS	neg	neg	neg		neg	neg		POS	Mod	POS				POS		Thy rare Calci POS

[a]P63 may be positive in breast "basal-like" carcinomas, some spindle cell metaplastic carcinomas, squamous cell carcinomas, and some papillary carcinomas. These subtypes may also have less typical keratin subsets such as Ck14 (detected by 34bE12), Ck17 (detected by MNF116), or Ck5/6.
[b]Most well- and moderately differentiated ductal carcinomas, and carcinomas of special type (except for medullary) will be positive for hormone receptors. Poorly differentiated carcinomas, metaplastic carcinomas, and medullary carcinomas are usually negative. Well- and moderately differentiated lobular carcinomas are almost always positive for ER, and usually positive for PR. Poorly differentiated lobular carcinomas may be negative for these markers.
[c]Non-mucinous bronchioloalveolar carcinomas have an immunophenotype similar to lung adenocarcinomas. Mucinous BALs are more likely to be CK20 positive (about 70% positive), CDX2 positive, MUC2 positive, and less likely to be TTF-1 positive (about 30% positive).
[d]Secretory meningiomas are frequently positive for CK7 and CEA, whereas other subtypes are usually negative for Ck7 and CEA. The majority of all types of meningiomas are positive for PR (incuding meningiomas in males).
[e]Mixed tumors (pleomorphic adenomas) occur most frequently in the salivary glands, but can also arise in soft tissues (myoepithelial tumors of soft tissue). These tumors have a similar immunophenotype with keratin (AE1/AE3 77%) or PANK (68%) or EMA (63%) present in the majority of tumors and frequent expression of markers associated with myoepithelial cells (e.g., calponin, GFAP, SMA, S100, p63). However, p63 is seen less frequently (23%) as compared to salivary tumors (100%).
[f]Chromophobe renal cell carcinomas may be positive for WT-1. Other types are negative.

TABLE 7–6. CK7–/CK20+

TUMOR	CK7+/ CK20+	CK7+/ CK20–	CK7–/ CK20+	CK7–/ CK20–	34b E12	CAM 5.2	CK 5/6	EMA	BER-EP4	CEA M	CEA p	TTF-1	p63	WT1	S100	CHRO	HEP	OTHER
Merkel cell carcinoma	rare	neg	High	Low		High	neg	High	POS		POS	neg			Low	High	neg?	NSE High
Colon adenocarcinoma	Low	neg	High	Low	neg	POS	neg	High	POS	POS	POS	neg	Low	neg	Low	neg	neg	CDX2 POS

Rare colon carcinomas are either CK7 positive or CK20 negative, but they are rarely CK7+ CK20-. Although the majority of colon carcinomas are positive for CK20, almost one third of colon carcinomas with microsatellite instability (MSI-H positive) are CK20 negative. (see Table 19-24).

TABLE 7–7. PREDOMINANTLY CK7–/CK20–

TUMOR	CK7+/ CK20+	CK7+/ CK20–	CK7–/ CK20+	CK7–/ CK20-	34b E12	CAM 5.2	CK 5/6	EMA	BER-EP4	CEA m	CEA p	TTF-1	p63	WT1	S100	CHRO	HEP	OTHER
Adrenal cortical adenoma	neg	neg	neg	POS		neg	neg	neg		neg	Low	neg			neg	neg	Low	MelanA103 POS Inhibin POS
Carcinoid	neg	Low	Low	High	neg	POS	Low	Low		Mod	Mod	**VAR**[a]	neg		**VAR**[b]	POS	Low	
Epithelioid sarcoma	neg	Low	neg	POS	Mod	High	Low (foc)	POS (foc)					Low (foc)		neg		neg	
Esophageal squamous cell carcinoma	neg	Low	neg	High	POS	High?	POS	POS	High?	Low?	Low	neg	POS		neg	neg	neg?	
Seminoma	neg	Low	neg	High	neg	Low	Low	neg		neg	neg				neg	neg	neg	PLAP POS CD117 POS
Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma	neg	Low	Low	High	POS	neg	POS	POS			neg	neg	POS			neg	neg	
Hepatocellular carcinoma	Low	Low	neg	High	Low	POS	neg	Low	Low	neg	High[c]	High[d] (cyt)	Low		neg	neg	High	AFP Mod

Continued

TABLE 7–7. PREDOMINANTLY CK7–/CK20–—cont'd

TUMOR	CK7+/ CK20+	CK7+/ CK20–	CK7–/ CK20+	CK7–/ CK20-	34b E12	CAM 5.2	CK 5/6	EMA	BER-EP4	CEA m	CEA p	TTF-1	p63	WT1	S100	CHRO	HEP	OTHER
Lung – squamous cell carcinoma	neg	Low	Low	High	POS	High	POS			Mod	Low	neg	POS			neg	Low	
Lung – small cell carcinoma	neg	Low	neg	High	neg	High	neg	POS	POS	Mod	High	POS	rare		neg?	Mod	neg	
Pheo/paraganglioma	rare	rare	rare	POS	neg	neg	neg	neg				neg			High	POS		Inhibin neg MelanA103 rare
Prostatic carcinoma	neg	neg	Low	High	neg	POS	neg	Low	POS	neg	Mod	neg	neg	neg	neg	Low	neg	PSA POS
Renal cell carcinoma –clear cell	neg	Low	neg	High	neg	High	neg	POS	Low	Low	neg	neg	Low	neg?	Low	neg	neg	Vim POS
Squamous cell carcinoma[e]	neg	Low		High	POS	Low	POS	POS	neg	Mod	Low	Low	POS		neg	neg	neg	
Thymic carcinoma					POS	POS	POS	Mod	High	Low	neg?	neg	POS	neg	neg	Low		CD5 Mod
Thymoma	neg	Low	neg	High		High	High	Mod		Low	neg?	neg	POS	neg	neg	neg?	neg?	CD5 neg

[a]Non-pulmonary carcinoid tumors are negative for TTF-1. Some pulmonary carcinoids may be positive.
[b]Sustentactular cells may be positive for S100 and positivity can vary with site.
[c]CEA has a canalicular pattern in hepatocellular carcinoma, a diffuse cytoplasmic pattern in other carcinomas.
[d]TTF-1 immunoreactivity in HCC is cytoplasmic (not nuclear as in lung and thyroid carcinomas). Positivity can vary with the antibody used to detect TTF-1.
[e]Cervical carcinomas and basaloid squamous cell carcinomas of the tonsil are usually HPV positive. Nasopharyngeal carcinomas are usually EBV positive. Thymic squamous cell carcinomas are often CD5 positive.

TABLE 7–8. SMALL BLUE CELL TUMORS

TUMOR	PANK	CAM 5.2	CK20	EMA	S100	HMB 45	NSE	SYN	CHRO	CD99	SMA	HHF 35	DES MIN	MYF-4	LCA	NFP	WT1[a]	PAS[b]
Melanoma	rare	rare	neg	neg	POS	High[c]	High	Low	neg	Low	Low	neg	neg		neg	neg		
Esthesioneuroblastoma	Low	Mod		Low	POS		POS	High	Mod	Low			neg	neg?	neg	Mod		
Neuroblastoma	neg	neg	neg	Low	Mod	neg	POS	High	High	neg	neg	neg	neg		neg	High	Low	neg
Small cell carcinoma[d]	POS	Mod	neg	POS	neg	neg	High	Mod	Mod	Low		neg			neg	neg		neg
Merkel cell carcinoma[e]	POS	POS	POS	POS	neg	neg	High	Mod	High	Low			neg?		neg	Mod		neg
Desmoplastic small round cell tumor	POS	POS	neg	POS	Low	neg	High	Low	Low	Mod	Low	Low	POS	neg		neg	POS	POS
Ewing's (PNET)	Low	Low		Low	Low	neg	Mod	Low	neg	POS[f]	neg	Low	neg		neg	Low	neg	POS
Medulloblastoma	neg			neg?	Low		POS	POS		Low			Low			neg		
Rhabdomyosarcoma	neg	Mod		neg	Low	neg	Mod	neg	neg	Low	Low	POS	POS	POS	neg	Low	Mod	POS
AML	neg	neg	neg	neg	Low	neg	POS?			Mod					High			
Lymphoma	neg	neg	neg	neg	neg	neg	neg	neg	neg	Var	neg	neg	neg	neg	POS			neg[g]

[a]Polyclonal WT1 – nuclear immunoreactivity.
[b]PAS is a histochemical stain for glycogen. A PAS-D stain confirms the presence of glycogen by treatment of the tissue with diastase, which digests the glycogen and eliminates the positivity. Although used for these tumors in the past, these studies are currently not usually performed.
[c]MART-1 is also frequently positive in melanomas.
[d]Small cell carcinomas of the lung are positive for TTF-1.
[e]Merkel cell carcinomas demonstrate a dot like perinuclear pattern for most markers.
[f]Significant immunoreactivity is a membrane pattern in the majority of the cells.
[g]Some plasma cell lymphomas may be positive.
Ewing's (PNET), desmoplastic small round cell tumor, rhabdomyosarcoma, neuroblastoma, and medulloblastoma have characteristic cytogenetic changes (see Table 7-47).
EM has some advantages over immunohistochemistry in the evaluation of childhood small round blue cell tumors.[9]
Initial panel: Keratin, S100, LCA. Additional studies may be helpful depending on the histologic appearance and the results of the initial studies.

TABLE 7–9. SPINDLE CELL/SOFT TISSUE LESIONS/SARCOMAS

TUMOR	AE1/ AE3	CAM 5.2	EMA	S100	HMB 45	HHF-35	SMA	DES-min	H-CALDESMON	CD34	CD31	FVIII	C-kit CD117	CD99	OTHER
NEURAL															
Perineurioma	neg	neg	POS	Low	neg	Mod	Low	neg		Mod	neg	neg	neg	Mod	CLAUD-1 Low[a]
Neurofibroma	neg	neg	POS[b]	POS	neg	neg	neg	neg		High	neg			neg	
MPNST	Low	Low	Low	Mod	neg	Low	Low	neg	neg	Low			neg		GFAP Mod
Schwannoma	Low	neg	neg[c]	POS	neg	neg	neg	neg		Mod	neg	neg	neg		CD68 POS
Granular cell tumor[n]	neg	neg	neg	POS	neg	neg	neg	neg		neg					CD68 POS Calret POS Inhibin POS
MELANOMA	rare	rare	neg	POS	High[e]		neg	neg	neg	neg	neg	neg	Mod	Low	MelanA[a] High FLI-1 neg
CLEAR CELL SARCOMA	neg	neg	neg	High	POS	Low	neg	neg		neg	neg	neg	Low	Low	MelanA Mod
PECOMA[F]	neg	neg	neg	Low	POS	POS	POS	High	Mod	Low	neg	neg	VAR[h]		MelanA POS
GIST	neg	neg	neg	Low		Mod	Low	neg	High	High	neg		POS	POS	DOG1 POS
MUSCLE															
Rhabdomyosar-coma	Low	Low	Low	neg	neg	High	Mod	High	neg	Low	neg	neg	neg	Low	Myf4 POS WT1 Mod FLI-1 neg
Glomus tumor	neg	neg	neg	neg	neg	POS	POS	Low	High	Low	neg	neg	neg		
Leiomyoma or leiomyosar-coma	Low	Low	Mod	neg	neg	POS	POS	High	POS	Low	neg	neg	neg	Low	ER/PR High CD10 Low
ENDOMETRIAL STROMAL SARCOMA	Mod (foc)	Low (foc)			neg		High	Mod	neg	neg				neg	ER/PR High CD10 High

VASCULAR															
Angiosarcoma	Low[h]	Low[h]	rare	neg	neg	Low	Low	neg		High	High	High	Low		FLI-1 POS
Kaposi's sarcoma	neg	neg	neg	neg		neg	POS	neg		POS	High	Mod	neg		FLI-1 POS HHV 8 POS
Epithelioid hemangioendothelioma	High	neg	neg	neg	neg	neg	Low	neg		High	High	POS	neg		FLI-1 POS
"FIBROUS"															
Fibrosarcoma	neg	Low	neg	neg		neg	neg	neg		neg				Low	
Solitary fibrous tumor	neg	neg	Low	neg		neg	Low	neg	neg	POS	neg	neg	neg	High	
DFSP	neg	neg	neg	neg	neg	High	Low	neg	neg	POS	neg	neg	neg		
Dermatofibroma	neg	neg		neg	neg	High	High	neg[i]		Low[q]	neg			neg	
Fibromatosis	neg	neg	neg	Mod		High	High	Mod	neg	neg	neg		neg		ER rare
Post-op spindle cell nodule	Mod	Mod	Low	neg		High	High	Mod	neg	neg			neg		
Myofibroblastic tumors		neg	neg	neg		POS	High	Mod	neg	Mod		neg			ER High PR POS
Atypical fibroxanthoma	neg	neg	neg	neg	neg		Low	neg		Low					CD68 Mod
LIPOMATOUS[r]															
Well- or dedifferentiated liposarcoma															MDM2 POS CDK4 POS
Benign lipomatous tumors															MDM2 rare CDK2 rare

Continued

TABLE 7–9. SPINDLE CELL/SOFT TISSUE LESIONS/SARCOMAS—cont'd

	AE1/ AE3	CAM 5.2	EMA	S100	HMB45	HHF-35	SMA	DES-min	H-CALDESMON	CD34	CD31	FVIII	C-kit CD117	CD99	OTHER
OTHER															
Osteosarcoma	neg	neg	Low	Low		Mod	High	neg	neg					Low	
Chondrosarcoma	neg	neg	Low	POS	neg	neg	neg	neg		neg				Low	
Chrondroblastoma	neg	neg	neg	POS		Mod	Low	neg	neg?					POS	
Mesenchymal chondrosarcoma	neg	neg	neg	POS	neg		rare	Low						POS	My4 neg
Extraskeletal myxoid chondrosarcoma	neg	neg	Low	Low		neg	neg	neg		Low			Low	neg	
Alveolar soft part sarcoma	neg	neg		Low	neg	Low	Low	Low		Low	neg		neg	Low	MyoD1 neg Myogenin neg TFE3 POS[j]
Epithelioid sarcoma	POS	POS	POS	neg	neg	Low	Low	neg		Mod	neg	neg	neg	Low	FLI-1 neg
Synovial sarcoma[k]	High	High	High	Mod	neg	neg	Low	neg	neg	neg	neg	neg	neg	High	WT1 neg Claudin-1 POS[l] Calret Mod bcl[2] High
ADENOMATOID TUMOR	POS	POS	POS							neg	neg			neg	Ber-EP4 High Calret POS WT1 POS

MESOTHELIOMA – SARCOMATOID TYPE[m]	High	POS	Low			POS	High	Low		neg				Low	WT1[n] D2-40 High Calret Low
MENINGIOMA	neg[o]	neg[o]	High	Low	neg	Low	Low	neg		Low	neg	neg		POS	ER neg PR POS PANK Low
CARCINOMA – SPINDLE CELL[p]	VAR	VAR	VAR	VAR	neg	rare	rare	neg		neg	neg	neg			

[a]Some claudin-1 positive perineurial cells can be present in neurofibromas and schwannomas. About 30% of perineuriomas are positive.
[b]Perineural cells are positive for EMA in neurofibromas.
[c]EMA may be positive in capsule and perineural cells of schwannomas.
[d]Congenital granular cell tumors are positive for CD68 but negative for S100 and NSE.
[e]HMB-45 is less frequently present in spindle cell melanomas and usually negative in classic desmoplastic melanomas. Other markers for melanoma are also less frequently positive in these subsets.
[f]PEComa (perivascular epithelioid cell tumors) includes angiomyolipoma, lymphangioleiomyomatosis, clear cell sugar tumor of the lung, clear cell myomelanocytic tumor of ligamentum teres/falciform ligament, and abdominopelvic sarcoma of perivascular epithelioid cells.
[g]Results in the literature are conflicting. Angiomyolipomas are likely not positive for CD117.
[h]Keratin positivity may be present in ~25% of epithelioid angiosarcomas.
[i]Cellular dermatofbroma may show focal desmin immunoreactivity and a few will be CD34 positive.
[j]Alveolar soft part sarcomas are characterized by a translocation that fuses the TFE3 transcription factor gene at Xp11 to a novel gene at 17q25 called ASPL. These sarcomas demonstrate nuclear immunoreactivity for TFE3 (as do rare pediatric renal tumors with the same translocation) and this immunoreactivity is not present in other tumors or normal tissues. The characteristic cytoplasmic crystals are composed of monocarboxylate transporter 1 (MCT1) and its chaperone CD147. However, these proteins are found in many other cell types and are not specific for this tumor.
[k]Keratin and EMA positivity are usually only focal in monophasic synovial sarcomas.
[l]Claudin-1 is positive in glandular areas of synovial sarcoma but less so in spindle cell areas.
[m]The immunohistochemical pattern for epithelioid mesotheliomas is given in a separate table.
[n]WT-1 may be positive in a minor epithelioid component of sarcomatoid mesotheliomas, but is generally negative in the spindle cells.
[o]Secretory meningiomas are typically cytokeratin 7 positive (Ck20 negative) and also positive for CEA. Other subtypes are generally negative for keratin. However, malignant meningiomas may be positive for keratin.
[p]Squamous cell carcinomas with a spindle cell morphology are generally strongly positive for AE1/AE3 (less commonly for CAM5.2), EMA, and p63. Spindle cell carcinomas of the breast often express markers expressed by myoepithelial cells such as "basal keratins" (including cytokeratin 14, which is included in the group detected by PANK or MNF-116), smooth muscle alpha actin, and p63. Poorly differentiated carcinomas with a spindle cell morphology may only show focal positivity for keratins and EMA.
[q]Dermatofibromas may have weak peripheral positivity for CD34 which is distinguished from strong diffuse positivity in DFSP.
[r]Other sarcomas (e.g., ~60% of MPNST) can be positive for MDM2 or CDK4. These markers are helpful to distinguish between benign and malignant lipomatous tumors.

Metastatic tumors of unknown origin

Pathologists frequently receive specimens with metastatic tumors. Often, the site of origin is known to the clinician, but this information is not provided to the pathologist. A good clinical history is frequently more successful for correct classification than a battery of studies.

The Ck7/Ck20 pattern is generally helpful to narrow down the potential site of origin of carcinomas (see Tables 7-3 to 7-7). Additional studies can then be used to identify specific types of carcinoma.

The most important tumors to identify are those with specific therapeutic treatments for cure or palliation (Table 7-10).[10]

TABLE 7–10. METASTATIC TUMORS OF UNKNOWN ORIGIN

TYPE OF TUMOR	IHC	COMMENTS	POTENTIAL TREATMENT
Breast	ER/PR HER2/neu GCDFP-15	Gyn carcinomas can also be positive. Other carcinomas are rarely positive. It is unusual for other carcinomas to be strongly positive for HER2/neu. GCDFP-15 is not very sensitive, as many breast carcinomas are negative. The most common type of breast carcinoma to present as an occult primary is invasive lobular carcinoma. Rare women present with positive axillary nodes and no known primary. Most of these women will have breast cancer. The prognosis is the same, whether or not the primary is detected.	Palliated with hormonal treatment. HER2/neu-positive carcinomas can be treated with Herceptin.[a]
Carcinoid tumor	Chromogranin	Chromogranin positivity should be strong and diffuse. Focal and/or weak positivity can be seen in many carcinomas. Metastatic breast cancer and prostate cancer can closely resemble carcinoid tumor and both can be positive for chromogranin.	Palliation with tumor-directed pharmaceuticals.
Germ cell tumors	PLAP OCT-4	PLAP is not specific, but a germ cell tumor is unlikely if it is negative. Inhibin is more likely to be positive in choriocarcinomas. OCT-4 is highly specific for undifferentiated germ cell tumors (embryonal carcinoma and seminoma) among epithelioid and round cell malignant neoplasms. Other types of germ cell tumors (i.e., yolk sac tumor, teratoma, and choriocarcinoma) are negative. FISH can confirm an isochromosome 12p, even if the metastasis has the appearance of adenocarcinoma, sarcoma, or neuroendocrine carcinoma	Chemotherapy for possible cure.
GIST	c-kit (CD117)	Specific mutations are correlated with treatment response.	Treatment with Gleevec.[b]
Lung adenocarcinoma	TTF-1	Thyroid carcinoma should be excluded if TTF-1 is positive.	Up to 20% of patients will have specific activating mutations in EGFR (detected by PCR) and these patients may respond well to treatment with gefitinib.[c]
Lymphoma	LCA, B and T cell markers		Treatment for cure or long-term palliation.
Prostate	PSA or PrAP		Hormonal therapy effective for palliation.

TABLE 7–10. METASTATIC TUMORS OF UNKNOWN ORIGIN—cont'd

TYPE OF TUMOR	IHC	COMMENTS	POTENTIAL TREATMENT
Small cell carcinoma	TTF-1 (if of lung origin) Neuroendocrine markers	Diagnosis made by H&E appearance. P63 is usually negative and can be useful to exclude squamous cell carcinoma. Not necessary for diagnosis, but can exclude other diagnoses.	Chemotherapy for palliation.
Squamous cell carcinomas	Ck5/6, p63 p16 or HPV CD5	Not specific, but characteristic. H&E appearance usually sufficient to reveal keratin production or intercellular bridges. HPV or p16 are most commonly present in carcinoma of the cervix, but may be seen in carcinomas at other sites. About 26-38% of patients with a cervical LN metastasis of unknown primary will have an occult tonsillar carcinoma (usually basaloid type and p16 or HPV positive). Complete sampling of the tonsil may be necessary to identify these small carcinomas. May be positive in thymic carcinomas.	Radiation therapy often effective. Vaccine trials are being conducted.
Thyroid – papillary or follicular carcinoma	Thyroglobulin and TTF-1	Lung carcinomas are also TTF-1 positive, but will be thyroglobulin negative.	Highly effective treatment for cure with radioactive iodine.
Thyroid – medullary carcinoma	Calcitonin	If familial, important for counseling other family members.	Palliative treatment with tumor-directed radionucleotides.
Trophoblastic tumors	Inhibin	Inhibin is not specific, but a trophoblastic tumor is unlikely if it is negative.	Chemotherapy for possible cure.

[a]Trastuzumab (Herceptin) = a monoclonal antibody directed against the HER2/neu receptor.
[b]Imatinib mesylate (STI571, Gleevec™, Glivec™) is a small molecule tyrosine kinase inhibitor used for CML, ALL (Ph+), and GIST.
The KIT protein is encoded by the c-kit proto-oncogene and is a transmembrane receptor protein with tyrosine kinase activity. Mutated proteins may or may not respond to therapy with Imatinib. Mutations that render KIT independent of its ligand, SCF (stem cell factor), have been found in GIST, AML, germ cell tumors and systemic mastocytosis. Wild-type KIT and KIT with mutations in the juxtamembrane domain (the intracellular segment between the transmembrane and tyrosine kinase domains) are found in GISTs and are sensitive to imatinib. Other tumor types are associated with mutations in the enzymatic domain and the altered protein is generally not sensitive to imatinib.
[c]Gefitinib (Iressa) = a tyrosine kinase inhibitor effective against a small subset of lung adenocarcinomas with specific activating mutations.

Poorly differentiated tumors

See Table 7-11.

TABLE 7–11. POORLY DIFFERENTIATED TUMORS

TYPE OF TUMOR	IMMUNOHISTOCHEMICAL MARKER	COMMENTS
Carcinoma	Broad spectrum keratins AE1/AE3 or PANK (MNF-116)	Some carcinomas may express unusual keratin sub-types. If negative, try other keratin types (e.g., CAM5.2). The Ck7/Ck20 pattern may be helpful in determining the likely site of origin. Some non-carcinomas can have an epithelioid appearance and strongly express keratins (e.g., epithelioid angiosarcoma, epithelioid sarcoma, mesothelioma).
Melanoma	S100 protein	S100 is strongly positive in the vast majority of melanomas. Some carcinomas (especially breast) and sarcomas are also positive for S100 and additional markers may be required. HMB-45 and MART-1 are expressed by most epithelioid melanomas but may be focal or absent in non-epithelioid melanomas (e.g., spindle cell or desmoplastic melanomas).
Lymphoma	Leukocyte common antigen (LCA)	Present in almost all non-Hodgkin's lymphomas. May be absent in 30% of anaplastic (Ki-1) large cell lymphomas. These lymphomas are keratin negative but may express EMA. These tumors will be positive for CD30 (Ki-1) and ALK.

Estrogen and progesterone receptor evaluation

Hormone receptors are routinely determined on all invasive breast carcinomas and DCIS. ER and PR are weak prognostic markers and are more useful to predict the likelihood of response to hormonal therapies.

Many different methods are currently used to report the results of IHC studies for ER and PR. One method that has been used in multiple studies is the Allred score method (Table 7-12).

Patients with carcinomas that scored 3 (<1% of cells with intermediate intensity or 1% to 10% of cells with weak intensity) or above had improved disease-free survival when treated with endocrine therapy.[11] Patients with carcinomas with a total score of 2 (<1% weakly positive cells) had a survival rate similar to ER-negative carcinomas (total score of 0).

About 80% of DCIS cases are positive for ER using the same method of scoring. Women with ER-positive DCIS were shown to experience fewer local recurrences, contralateral recurrences, and distant recurrences when treated with tamoxifen (NSABP B24 study).

With optimization of IHC using newer antigen retrieval methods, 99.2% of carcinomas will have scores of 0, 7, or 8.[12] Therefore, many laboratories report results as positive or negative. The value of further subdividing cases by percent positive cells, H-score, or image analysis for either prognosis or to predict response to tamoxifen has not been demonstrated. Intensity of immunoreactivity is difficult to evaluate as most cases show strong reactivity with optimal assay methods and most carcinomas show considerable variability in intensity.

A possible method for reporting results is shown in Table 7-13. The same system can be used for reporting progesterone receptor results. The use of both ER and PR may be helpful for determining the likelihood of response to tamoxifen, as has been shown with data using the biochemical assay (Table 7-14). Presumably, the presence of the ER-regulated gene product PR is more predictive of an intact ER regulatory pathway.

Recent national guidelines for reporting ER and PR have been released and should be consulted for additional information about performing and interpreting these studies (Hammond ME, et al, American Society of Clinical Oncology/College of American Pathologists Guideline Recommendations for Immunohistochemical Testing of Estrogen and Progesterone Receptors in Breast Cancer, J Clin Oncol 2010 Apr 19).

TABLE 7–12. ER AND PR—ALLRED SCORE

PROPORTION SCORE (PS)	% POSITIVE CELLS	INTENSITY SCORE (IS)	INTENSITY OF POSITIVITY
0	0	0	None
1	<1%	1	Weak
2	1% to 10%	2	Intermediate
3	10% to 33%	3	Strong
4	33% to 66%		
5	>66%		

The PS and IS Are Added Together for a Total Score:

Total Score (TS) = PS + IS	Interpretation
0, 2	Negative
3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	Positive

TABLE 7–13. REPORTING RESULTS OF ER AND PR EVALUATION

RESULT	CRITERIA	% OF CASES	COMMENTS
Positive	>10% of cells	70% to 80%	This group corresponds to PS scores of 3 and above. The majority of these carcinomas will have scores of 7 or 8.
Borderline or low positive	>0% to 10%	<5% to 10%	The clinical significance of this group is unclear. This group may be interpreted as "negative" or "positive" by some laboratories depending on the cut-off point chosen. This group could include cases with Allred scores of 2, 3, 4, or 5.
Negative	0	20% to 30%	This group corresponds to a TS score of 0.

TABLE 7–14. RESPONSE TO TAMOXIFEN

STATUS OF CARCINOMA	% OF CARCINOMAS	% OF PATIENTS RESPONDING TO TAMOXIFEN
ER+ PR+	63%	75% to 80%
ER+ PR–	15%	25% to 30%
ER– PR+	5%	40% to 45%
ER– PR–	17%	<10%

False negative results, and to a lesser extent, false positive results, can also be problems. **False negative results** may be due to a large number of causes including:

- Low sensitivity of the assay
- Errors in performing the assay
- Delayed fixation of tissue
- Over- or underfixation of tissue
- Overheating of tissue (e.g., with cautery during surgery)
- Decalcification of tissue

Most cases of false negativity can be suspected, as the normal breast tissue will also be negative. In such cases, the assay should be repeated on the same block, a different block from the same case, or blocks from another case, if available. If the normal tissue remains negative, the possibility of loss of antigenicity in the tissue can be mentioned in the report.

False positive results are quite unusual, as the antibody should not crossreact with other antigens.

- Entrapped normal ducts or lobules misinterpreted as carcinoma — this can be a difficult issue for DCIS as some ducts or lobules may be only partially involved by DCIS.
- Control placed on same slide misinterpreted as the carcinoma
- Sclerosing adenosis or myofibroblastoma (or other benign lesions) misinterpreted as invasive carcinoma

TABLE 7–15. HER2-IHC SCORING

SCORE	CRITERIA	% OF CASES	% OF CASES THAT SHOW AMPLIFICATION BY FISH
0 (Negative)	No immunoreactivity or immunoreactivity in <10% of tumor cells.	~ 60%	0% to 3%
1+ (Negative)	Faint weak immunoreactivity in >10% of tumor cells but only a portion of the membrane is positive.	~ 10%	0% to 7%
2+ (Equivocal)	Weak to moderate complete membrane immunoreactivity in >10% of tumor cells.	~ 5% to 10%	25% to 35%
3+ (Positive)	More than 30% of the tumor cells must show circumferential intense and uniform membrane staining. A homogeneous (chicken wire) pattern should be present.	~15% to 20%	75% to 90%

HER2/neu score

The HER2/neu immunoreactivity scoring system in Table 7-15 was recommended by an expert panel.[13] Other panel suggestions:

- If cytoplasmic positivity obscures the membrane pattern, repeat the assay or perform FISH.
- If normal ducts and lobules show definitive positivity, repeat the assay.
- In cases of invasive carcinoma, only the areas of invasion should be scored. In some cases the associated DCIS can show stronger immunoreactivity.
- Fixation must be in neutral buffered formalin and should, ideally, be between 6 and 48 hours for excisions, and at least 1 hour for needle biopsies. However, any effect from longer fixation has not been shown.
- Unstained slides should not be used if prepared >6 weeks earlier. Loss of antigenicity has been shown for other antigens, but not specifically for HER2.

Only membrane immunoreactivity is scored. Marked cytoplasmic immunoreactivity may make interpretation difficult. FISH studies may be preferred for such cases (Table 7-16).

TABLE 7–16. FISH RESULTS

RESULT	CRITERIA	COMMENT
Positive for amplification	>6.0 gene copies or >2.2 ratio	
Equivocal for amplification	4.0 to 6.0 genes or 1.8 to 2.2 ratio	Guidelines suggest counting additional cells for FISH, retesting, or performing IHC
Negative for amplification	<4.0 genes or <1.8 ratio	

Patients with a ratio of 2.0 or greater have been eligible for Herceptin trials.

In >90% of carcinomas with protein overexpression, the HER2/neu gene has been amplified. In 3% to 5% of cases, protein overexpression can occur due to other mechanisms. In <5% of cases, there may be gene amplification without protein overexpression. In general, there is a 20% to 40% response to Herceptin alone in patients with cancers showing gene amplification by FISH, and <5% of patients respond if the gene is not amplified. Therefore, FISH studies may be helpful for cases with 2+ positivity or difficult to interpret cases (e.g., with variable positivity or cytoplasmic positivity).

Well- and moderately differentiated lobular carcinomas are rarely positive (<5%). However, in some cases there may be edge enhancement of individual tumor cells that may be difficult to interpret. FISH studies may be helpful.

In rare cases, DCIS overexpresses HER2/neu but the accompanying invasive carcinoma does not. This is a source of potential false positive results for IHC or FISH.

Myoepithelial markers in breast carcinoma

Myoepithelial markers can be useful for the evaluation of breast lesions (Table 7-17):

- Invasive carcinoma vs. sclerosing adenosis (frequently involved by DCIS, LCIS, or apocrine metaplasia).
- DCIS vs. DCIS with microinvasion – Double immunolabeling with p63 (brown nuclear) and cytokeratin (AE1/AE3 – red cytoplasm) can be useful to highlight small nests of tumor cells lacking myoepithelial cells. A double stain with SMMHC and cytokeratin AE1/AE3 can also be helpful.
- DCIS vs. carcinoma invading as circumscribed tumor nests vs. lymphovascular invasion.
- Microglandular adenosis is the only "benign" breast lesion that lacks myoepithelial cells. However, this lesion may be a form of well-differentiated non-metastasizing invasive carcinoma. The cells are negative for ER and PR and strongly positive for S100.

Epidermal lesions of the nipple

See Table 7-18.

Breast carcinoma in males versus metastatic prostate carcinoma

See Table 7-19.

TABLE 7–17. MYOEPITHELIAL MARKERS IN BREAST CARCINOMA

MARKER	LOCATION	NORMAL LUMINAL CELLS	MYOEPITHELIAL CELLS	BLOOD VESSELS	MYOFIBROBLASTS	CARCINOMAS[a]	COMMENT
p63	Nucleus	neg	POS	neg	neg	rare	Only nuclear marker Clean background
SMA	Cytoplasm	neg	POS	POS	POS	rare	Most sensitive-marker
CD10	Membrane	neg	POS	neg	POS	rare	
SMM-HC	Cytoplasm	neg	POS	POS	High	rare	
Calponin	Cytoplasm	neg	POS	POS	Mod	rare	

[a]Rare carcinomas with myoepithelial features (adenoid cystic carcinomas, some spindle cell carcinomas, some basal-like carcinomas, some carcinomas associated with BRCA1 mutations) can show focal to diffuse positivity for myoepithelial markers.
S100 protein and cytokeratins (e.g., 34βE12) are not recommended for identifying myoepithelial cells, as fewer myoepithelial cells are positive and luminal cells can also be positive.
p63 is a good general marker for myoepithelial cells and is particularly helpful in cases with prominent myofibroblasts (e.g., sclerosing lesions) or with blood vessels closely apposed to tumor cells (e.g., papillary fronds in papillary DCIS). In some cases, SMA may be positive in more myoepithelial cells than p63.

TABLE 7–18. EPIDERMAL LESIONS OF THE NIPPLE AND PAGET DISEASE AT OTHER SITES

TUMOR	AE1/AE3	CAM 5.2 OR CK7	CK20	EMA	S100	HMB45	GCDFP-15	CEA-P	CEA-M	HER2	ER OR PR	MUC1	MUC2
Paget disease of the nipple	POS	POS	neg	POS	Mod	neg	Mod	Mod	Low	POS	Low	POS	neg
Toker cells	POS	POS	neg	Mod	neg	neg				neg	High	POS	neg
Squamous cell carcinoma	POS	Low	Low	POS	Low	neg	neg	Low	Mod	Low	neg	neg	
Melanoma	Low	Low	neg	Low	POS	POS	neg	Mod	neg	neg	neg	neg	
Vulvar Paget disease	POS	POS	High				POS			? Low		POS	neg
Perianal Paget disease	POS	Mod	POS									Low	POS

Most cases of Paget disease of the nipple are associated with DCIS deeper in the breast that involves the lactiferous sinuses, and about half will also have areas of invasion. Rare cases may be difficult to interpret due to the absence of associated disease in the breast or if the initial biopsy is shallow. In some cases, Paget cells may take up melanin and may be difficult to distinguish from melanoma. Toker cells are present in nipple epidermis in 40% to 80% of nipples and are Cam5.2 and Ck 7 positive but are negative for HER2/neu.
Paget disease of the vulva and perianal region has a similar distribution (i.e., tumor cells are present between an intact basement membrane and an overlying normal epidermal layer) but the tumor cells have different origins.
Initial panel: Cam5.2 (or Ck7), HER2, and S100 with additional antibody studies based on these findings, if necessary.

TABLE 7–19. BREAST CARCINOMA IN MALES VERSUS METASTATIC PROSTATE CARCINOMA

	CK7	ER	PSA	PAP
Breast carcinoma	**POS**	**High**	Mod	
Prostate carcinoma	neg		**POS**	**POS**

Carcinomas in the breast of males with prostate carcinoma can be difficult to classify, as these males are at increased risk for breast cancer, prostate carcinomas can mimic a well- or moderately differentiated breast cancer, and DCIS is often scant or absent. In addition, some breast carcinomas can express prostate markers. A panel of markers should distinguish these two types of carcinoma in most cases.

Signet ring cell carcinomas of the stomach and breast (lobular carcinoma)

See Table 7-20 and Fig. 7-2.

TABLE 7–20. SIGNET RING CELL CARCINOMAS OF THE STOMACH AND BREAST (LOBULAR CARCINOMA)

CARCINOMA	ER	PR	GDCFP	MUC1	MUC2	FCK7	CK20	E-CAD	CDX2	HEP PAR
Stomach	neg	neg	neg	Low	Mod	Mod	Mod	Mod	High	High
Breast	High	Low	High	POS	Low	POS	rare	Low	neg	neg

See Figure 7-2

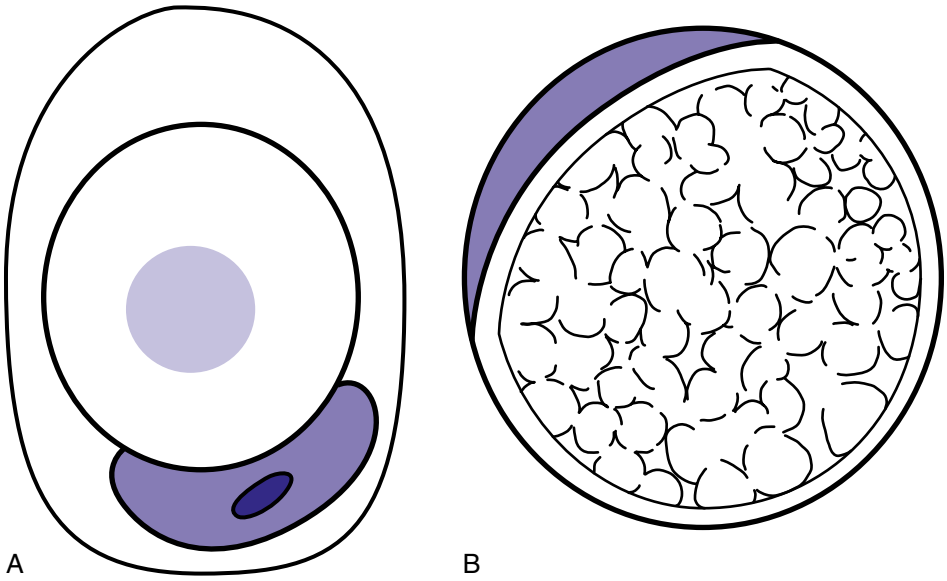


Figure 7–2. Metastatic lobular carcinoma of the breast can morphologically resemble primary signet ring cell gastric carcinomas. Both typically lack e-cadherin expression. In addition, lobular breast carcinomas can be clinically occult or can present as distant metastases many years after the initial presentation. Signet ring cells associated with breast carcinoma more commonly have a central mucin vacuole with a targetoid appearance (cell **A**). Gastric signet ring cells usually have many small vacuoles giving the cytoplasm a foamy appearance (cell **B**). These criteria are not reliable in distinguishing these two carcinomas. However, the presence of the first type of signet ring cell in a biopsy from the gastrointestinal tract should raise the possibility of metastatic breast carcinoma.[14] The majority of lobular breast carcinomas will be ER positive, and this is a reliable marker to exclude gastric carcinoma. In the minority of ER-negative cases, PR, GCDFP, MUC1, CDX2, and Hep Par may be helpful markers.[15]

Fibroblastic/myofibroblastic lesions of the breast

See Table 7-21.

TABLE 7–21. FIBROBLASTIC/MYOFIBROBLASTIC LESIONS OF THE BREAST

NAME	CD34	SMA	HHF-35	DES	KER*	p63	S100	ER	PR	COMMENTS
Normal stroma	100	–/+	–/+	rare	0	0	0	0	rare	
FA/phyllodes	100	66		12	0	0	12	0	–/+	
PASH/fibrous	100	+/–		+/–	0			0	+/–	
Myofibroblastoma	90	74	100	90	0	0	2	59	100	
Spindle cell lipoma	100	0	0	0			0			13q 16q rearrangements
Solitary fibrous tumor	95	13	7	7	0		9	0	17	
Fibromatosis	0	79	78	43	0		0	rare	rare	Some associated with FAP Nuclear beta-catenin
Nodular fasciitis	0	97	91	4			0			
To Be Distinguished From:										
Leiomyoma	18	90	90	70	0		6	90	90	Usually near nipple, long fascicles, more cytoplasm
Spindle cell carcinoma	0	55	30		55	40	30	rare	rare	May have epithelial areas, DCIS

*Spindle cell carcinomas may express keratins more typical of myoepithelial cells (e.g., CK 14 and CK 17). These keratins may be detected best with MNF-116 (= PANK; includes CK 17) or 34betaE12 (includes CK 14) or antibodies specific for these keratins.
Some epithelioid myofibroblastomas can closely resemble invasive lobular carcinoma. In these cases, the carcinoma will be strongly positive for typical keratins and also positive for ER and PR.

Ovarian carcinoma versus mesothelioma

See Table 7-22.

TABLE 7–22. OVARIAN CARCINOMA VERSUS MESOTHELIOMA

	CK7	CK20	CK5/6	CEA m	CEA p	CD15 (LEUM1)	ER	WT1	CALRET	BER-EP4
Peritoneal mesothelioma	High	neg	POS	neg	neg	rare	rare	High	High	neg
Ovarian serous carcinoma	POS	Low	neg	neg	neg	Mod	POS	POS	Low	POS
Ovarian endometrioid carcinoma	POS	neg	Low	Mod	Low		High	High	Low	POS
Ovarian mucinous carcinoma	POS	High	neg	Mod	Low		Low	neg	Low	

Primary ovarian carcinoma versus metastatic carcinomas

See Table 7-23.

TABLE 7–23. PRIMARY OVARIAN CARCINOMA VERSUS METASTATIC CARCINOMAS

	CK7	CK20	DPC4 (SMAD4)	CDX2	ER	CEA m	CEA p
Endometrioid ovarian carcinoma	POS	neg		Low	Mod	Mod	Low
Clear cell ovarian carcinoma	POS	neg		Mod ?	Mod		neg
Mucinous ovarian carcinoma	POS (diffuse)	High (patchy)	POS	Mod	Low	Mod	Low
Mucinous breast carcinoma	POS	Low	POS	neg[a]	POS	Mod	Low
Pancreatic carcinoma	POS	High	Mod	Mod	neg	High	POS
Appendiceal carcinoma	Low (patchy)	POS	POS			High	Low
Mucinous colon carcinoma	Low (patchy)	POS (diffuse)	High	POS	neg	POS	POS

[a]Breast cancers, in general, are negative for CDX2 and MUC2. The results for mucinous breast carcinomas have not been reported. 18% of mucinous ovarian carcinomas are positive for MUC2.

Endocervical carcinoma versus endometrial carcinoma

See Table 7-24.

TABLE 7–24. ENDOCERVICAL CARCINOMA VERSUS ENDOMETRIAL CARCINOMA

	CK7	CK20	VIM	CEA m	CEA p	p16	HPV(IN SITU)	ER	PR
Endocervical carcinoma	POS	rare	rare	POS	High	POS (diffuse, strong)	High	Low (focal)	Low
Endometrial carcinoma	POS	rare	POS	Low[a]	Mod	Low (patchy, weak)	neg	High (diffuse)	High

[a]27% of cases have some positivity but primarily in squamous areas and only focal in glandular areas.

Endometrial stromal sarcoma versus leiomyosarcoma

See Table 7-25.

TABLE 7–25. ENDOMETRIAL STROMAL SARCOMA VERSUS LEIOMYOSARCOMA

	CD10	DESMIN	H-CALDESMON	ER/PR
Endometrial stromal sarcoma	High	Mod	neg	High
Leiomyosarcoma	Low	High	POS	High

Trophoblastic lesions

See Table 7-26.

TABLE 7–26. TROPHOBLASTIC LESIONS

	KERATIN	ALPHA-INHIBIN	HPL[a]	HCG[a]	CD146[b] (MELCAM)	P63	KI67[c]	P57[d]	DNA PLOIDY[e]
Choriocarcinoma	POS	POS	weak (focal)	strong (diffuse)	POS	Mod (few cells +)	69%		
Placental site trophoblastic tumor	POS	POS	Mod (greater than hCG)	focal (less than HhPL)	POS	neg	>14%		
Epithelioid trophoblastic tumor	POS	POS	focal	focal	focal	POS	>14%		
Placental site nodule	POS	POS	weak (focal)	focal	focal	POS	<1%		
Exaggerated placental site			POS (diffuse)	focal	POS	neg	0%		
Partial mole	POS	POS	weak[b] (diffuse)	weak (diffuse)				POS	Triploid
Complete mole	POS	POS	weak[b] (focal)	strong (diffuse)				rare[f]	Diploid (paternal)
Hydropic fetus	POS	POS						POS	Diploid (60%) Triploid (40%)

[a]Evaluated in syncytiotrophoblast.
[b]Increases with advancing pregnancy.
[c]Implantation-site intermediate trophoblastic cells are evaluated for the number of Ki67 positive cells. CD146 can be used to help identify these cells using a double label technique. Lymphocytes can also be positive for Ki67 and should not be counted.
[d]p57 is a paternally imprinted gene, expressed from the maternal gene, which shows decreased expression in complete moles, whose DNA is completely derived from paternal DNA.
[e]Ploidy is usually determined by flow cytometry.
[f]In complete moles, p57 positivity is present in villous stromal cells and extravillous trophoblast but absent in intermediate trophoblast lining the villi.
Cytokeratin and alpha-inhibin (syncytiotrophoblastic cells and some intermediate trophoblastic cells) are not useful for the differential diagnosis of these lesions, but may be helpful if other types of tumors are in the differential diagnosis.

Metastatic adenocarcinomas in the abdomen

See Table 7-27.

TABLE 7–27. METASTATIC ADENOCARCINOMAS IN THE ABDOMEN

SITE OF ORIGIN	CK7	CK20	MUC2	MUC5AC	SMAD4*	CDX2	B-CAT	WT-1
Stomach	High (75)	Mod (45)	Mod (50)	Mod (55)	POS (100)	Mod (12-50)	High (63)	Mod (47)
Colon	neg (10)	POS (95)	High (60-100)	Low (25-40)	POS (95)	POS (90-100)	High (60-100)	High (63)
Appendix	Low (30)	POS (96)	POS (96)	High (85-100)	High (80-90)	POS (100)	Very low (9)	
Pancreas	POS (95)	High (75)	POS (100)	High (73-92)	Mod (45)	Mod (15-60)		Mod (54)
Uterus	POS (100)	Low (15)	neg (0)	Low (31)	POS (100)	Very low (7)	Mod (48)	Mod (50)
Ovary, serous	POS (100)	Low (15)	Low (12-38)	High	POS (95)	Mod (29-50)	Very low (0-10)	High
Ovary, mucinous	POS	High	Low (18)	POS	POS	Mod (34)		Low (12)
Breast, NST	POS (95)	neg (4)	Very low (9)	Low (37)	POS	neg (0)		Low
Breast, mucinous	POS	Low	POS (100)	Low (23)	POS			High (64)

*The lack of SMAD4 is found in about half of pancreatic carcinomas and is highly suggestive of this primary site.
In some published tables a "positive" result is the absence of positivity. In this table, "positive" signifies that the carcinoma shows immunoreactivity for SMAD4.

CNS neoplasms

See Table 7-28.

TABLE 7–28. CNS NEOPLASMS

	OLIG2[a]	GFAP	SYN[b]	NEUN	EMA	OTHER MARKERS
Astrocytoma	POS	POS	neg	neg	neg	
Oligodendroglioma	POS	Low (focal)	neg	neg	neg	
Ependymoma	Low	Low (focal)	neg	Low	Low	
Pilocytic astrocytoma	POS	POS	neg	neg	neg	
Ganglioglioma	POS	POS	POS	POS		
Central neurocytoma	Low	neg	POS	POS		
Medulloblastoma	Low	Low	POS	POS	neg	
Choroid plexus tumors		neg/rare	neg	neg	Low	CK POS
Meningioma	neg	neg	neg	neg	POS	HMB-45 POS in melanocytic variant CD34 neg
Hemangiopericytoma/ solitary fibrous tumor		neg			Low	CD34 POS
Atypical teratoid/rhabdoid tumor	Low	Low	Low		Low	INI1 neg[c] VIM POS
Schwannoma	neg				neg	
Lymphoma	neg	neg	neg		neg[d]	LCA POS
Melanoma	neg	neg	Low		neg	HMB-45 POS
Metastatic carcinoma	neg	neg	Low		POS	CK POS

[a]OLIG2: The majority of cells will be positive in diffuse gliomas. Other tumors can show smaller numbers of positive cells (typically much less than 50%).
[b]SYN: Any neural tumor can show focal positivity for synaptophysin.
[c]INI1/SMARCB1 protein: The absence of this protein is highly specific for atypical teratoid/rhabdoid tumor.
[d]EMA can be positive in myelomas

Hemangioblastoma versus metastatic renal cell carcinoma

See Table 7-29.

TABLE 7–29. HEMANGIOBLASTOMA VERSUS METASTATIC RENAL CELL CARCINOMA

	INHIBIN	RCC	CD10
Hemangioblastoma	POS	neg	neg
Metastatic renal cell carcinoma	neg	POS	POS

Tumors of germ cells and sex-cord stromal tumors

See Table 7-30.

TABLE 7–30. TUMORS OF GERM CELLS AND SEX-CORD STROMAL TUMORS

	AE1/AE3	CAM5.2	NSE	EMA	PLAP[a] (MEM)	OCT4	NANOG	AFP	CD30(Ki-1, BER-H2)	CD117 (CKIT)	SOX2[e]	VIM	HCG	HPL	INHIBIN	MELAN A103	OTHER
Seminoma	Mod	Low[b]	High	neg	POS	POS	POS	neg	Low	POS	neg	Mod	Low[c]	neg	neg	neg	
Intratubular germ cell neoplasia		neg			POS	POS	POS			POS		neg					
Embryonal carcinoma	POS	POS	High	Low	High	POS	POS	Low	High[d]	neg	POS	Low	Low	neg	neg	neg	
Yolk sac tumor	POS	POS	High	neg	Mod	neg	neg	High	Low	neg	neg	Low	neg	neg	neg	neg	
Choriocarcinoma	POS	POS	Mod	Mod	Mod	neg	neg	neg	neg		neg	neg	POS	POS	POS	neg	
Spermatocytic seminoma		Mod (focal)			neg	neg		neg	Mod?	Variable							
Leydig cell tumor	Mod	Mod		Low	Low	neg		neg				POS			POS	High	
Granulosa cell tumor	Low	Mod	Low	neg	neg	neg		neg		neg		POS			POS	High	WT1 High HHF35 High S100 Mod
Sertoli cell tumor	Mod	Mod		POS	neg	neg				neg		High			POS		

[a]PLAP is expressed in embryonic germ cells, but not in normal spermatogonia, spermatocytes, and spermatids.
[b]CAM5.2 is present as a strong dot-like paranuclear positivity. 80% of mediastinal seminomas are positive for CAM5.2 compared to 20% to 30% of testicular seminomas.
[c]HCG may be positive in trophoblasts in seminomas.
[d]Only 35% of metastatic embryonal carcinomas to lymph nodes after chemotherapy are positive for CD30.
[e]SOX2 is not specific for embryonal carcinoma, as many carcinomas can be positive for this marker.
FISH for 12p can be used to identify germ cell tumors and their metastases.
D2-40 (podoplanin) is strongly expressed in seminomas and ITGCN. It is also expressed in lymphatic endothelium, epithelioid mesotheliomas, and hemangioblastomas.

Adrenal and kidney tumors

See Table 7-31.

TABLE 7–31. ADRENAL AND KIDNEY TUMORS

	AE1/ AE3	CK7	CK20	PANK	CAM5.2	MUC-1 (EMA)	S100	CHROM	SYN	MART1 A103[c]	INHIBIN	NSE	NFP	AMACR	VIM	OTHER	IRON STAIN
Adrenal Tumors[d]																	
Cortical adenoma	neg	neg	neg	Low	Low	neg	neg	neg	POS	POS	High	High	neg	neg	High	TTF1 neg CD10 neg	
Cortical carcinoma					neg		neg	neg	High	POS	POS		neg				
Pheo/ paraganglioma		neg	neg	neg	neg	neg	High[a]	POS	POS	neg	neg	POS	POS		Mod	GFAP mod	
Kidney Tumors																	
RCC – clear cell	High	Low	neg	High	High	High (diff)	Low	neg	neg	neg	neg	Mod	neg		High	p63 neg TTF1 neg GFAP low RCC POS CD10 POS	Focal, coarse
RCC - papillary	POS	High	Low	POS		Mod (mem)								POS		RCC POS CD10 POS	Focal, coarse
RCC - chromo-phobe	High	High	neg	POS		POS (mem)								neg	neg	RCC Mod CD10 neg	Diff, strong
Oncocytoma[b]	Mod	High	neg	POS												RCC neg CD10 low	Focal, weak
Transitional cell carcinoma	Mod	POS	High	POS	POS	POS	neg	neg	neg	neg		Low		Low	Low	p63 POS CD10 mod	

[a]Positivity is present in sustentacular cells. These cells may be absent in malignant tumors.
[b]50% of oncocytomas have a punctate/dot-like pattern for CK 8 or 18 which is not seen in RCC. EM may be helpful to distinguish oncocytoma from chromophobe RCC (see Table 7-46).
[c]Antibody A103 is positive in adrenal cortical carcinomas. Another antibody to the same antigen, M2-7C10 is not positive in adrenal cortical carcinomas.
[d]Clear cell renal cell carcinoma metastatic to the adrenal can sometimes be confused with an adrenal cortical tumor (thus, the older term for clear cell carcinoma of "hypernephroma"). RCC has clear cytoplasm (compared to the bubbly cytoplasm of the adrenal cortex) and blood lakes are typically present. Glycogen is present in RCC and absent in adrenal lesions (demonstrated by PAS with and without diastase). Cytokeratin and EMA are useful IHC markers.
Diff = diffuse positivity; mem = positivity located on membrane.
Renal cell carcinoma subtypes have typical cytogenetic abnormalities (see Table 7-47).
CD117 (c-kit) has been reported to be positive in almost all papillary renal cell carcinomas (cytoplasmic) and chromophobe carcinomas (membrane) but is not present in clear cell carcinomas. Mutations in c-kit were only found in papillary carcinomas.

Tumors of bladder, prostatic, and renal origin

See Table 7-32.

TABLE 7–32. TUMORS OF BLADDER, PROSTATIC, AND RENAL ORIGIN

	CK7	CK20	KERATIN HMW	PSA	PAP	AMACR	CEA m	CEA p	P63	CA125	MUCI
Prostatic carcinoma	Low	Low	neg	High	POS	POS	neg	Mod	neg	neg	neg
Transitional cell carcinoma	POS	High	Mod	neg	neg	Low	Mod	Mod	High	neg	neg
Bladder adenocarcinoma	High	High	neg	neg	neg		Mod	High		Low	POS
Renal cell carcinoma – clear cell	Low	neg	neg	neg			Low	neg	Low	neg	neg
Rectal adenocarcinoma	Low	POS	neg	neg	neg		POS	POS		neg	POS
Seminal vesicle carcinoma	High	neg		neg	neg		VAR	POS		High	

Prostate carcinoma versus other lesions

See Table 7-33.

TABLE 7–33. PROSTATE CARCINOMA VERSUS OTHER LESIONS

	34βE12 (BASAL CELLS)	P63 (BASAL CELLS)	AMACR (504S) (GLANDULAR CELLS)	PSA
Benign glands	POS	POS	neg	POS
PIN	POS	POS	High	POS
Invasive carcinoma	neg	neg	POS	POS
Nephrogenic adenoma	Mod	neg	High	neg

Antibody cocktails: These antibodies can be combined to facilitate the evaluation of small lesions:
34βE12 + p63 = labels a greater number of basal cells than either marker alone.
AMACR + p63 and/or 34β12 = facilitates the identification of small foci of invasive carcinoma.

Hepatic tumors

See Table 7-34.

TABLE 7–34. HEPATIC TUMORS

	CK7	CK20	AE1/AE3	CAM5.2	KERATIN HMW	CEA m	CEA p	TTF-1	HEP	AFP	CD10	CHROM	MUC1D	BILE	CIRRHOSIS	HBV
Hepatocellular carcinoma	Low	neg	Low	POS	neg	neg	High[a]	High[b] (cyt)	High	Mod	High[a]	neg	neg	may be present	65-90%	50%
Hepatoblastoma			Low	POS		Low	High[a]		POS	High		Low			absent	rare
HCC – fibrolamellar	Mod?	neg					POS[a]		POS	neg?				may be present	absent	rare
Cholangiocarcinoma	POS	Mod	POS	POS	High	High	POS	neg	neg	neg	neg		High	negative	rare	rare
Metastatic carcinoid tumor	Low	Low	High	POS		Mod	Mod	Low[c] (nuc)	neg		Low	POS		negative	absent	absent

[a]Bile canalicular pattern. Other carcinomas have a membrane or cytoplasmic pattern.
[b]TTF-1 is seen in the cytoplasm (unlike the nuclear pattern seen in lung and thyroid carcinomas)
[c]Carcinoids arising at sites other than lung are very unlikely to be positive for TTF-1. Lung carcinoids may be positive and are more likely to express Ck7.
[d]Mucin histochemical stains can also be used. HCCs will be negative and 75% to 100% of cholangiocarcinomas will be positive.
Cyt = cytoplasmic immunoreactivity; nuc = nuclear immunoreactivity.
Sinusoids of HCC show diffuse CD34 positivity in 80% to 90% of cases, but this is not seen in normal liver. CD34 positivity can also be seen in focal nodular hyperplasia. Metastatic carcinomas can show diffuse positivity in 20% of cases, but the positive endothelial cells are present throughout the tumor and the cells do not surround nests of tumor cells, as is seen in HCC.
Reticulin stains can be helpful in the evaluation of fine needle aspirates or core needle biopsies of liver lesions. HCC has an abnormal pattern of absent, decreased, or expanded trabecula, whereas benign lesions will show a normal trabecular pattern.
Metastatic carcinomas can usually be distinguished from HCC by frequent expression of Ck7, only rare expression of HepPar1, the absence of a bile canicular pattern for CEAp and CD10, and the absence of cytoplasmic positivity for TTF-1.
Metastatic carcinomas to the liver often cannot be reliably distinguished from cholangiocarcinomas by histologic appearance or immunohistochemical pattern, with the exception of colorectal carcinomas. If the patient has a known primary carcinoma, it is most helpful to compare the two tumors.

See Table 7-35.

TABLE 7–35. THYROID AND PARATHYROID LESIONS

	KER-HMW	CK19	HBME[a]	GALECTIN-3	CALCI-TONIN	SYN	CHRO	RET	P27	PPAR GAMMA	THY	TTF-1	S100[b]	CEA m	CEA p	CD57	RBPRO-TEIN	VIM	OTHER
Thyroid Lesions:																			
Hyperplastic nodule		Low	Low	Low	neg				POS	neg	POS	POS				Low	POS		
Follicular adenoma	neg	Low	Low	Low	neg	Mod	neg	neg	POS	Low 10%	POS	POS	Low			Low	POS	POS	
Follicular carcinoma	neg	Low	Mod	Low	neg	High	neg	neg	POS	Low 30%	POS	POS	Mod	neg	Low	Mod	neg?	POS	
Papillary carcinoma — follicular variant		POS	POS	Mod	neg			Low	Mod	Low 10%	POS	POS				High	neg		
Papillary carcinoma	POS	POS	High	High	neg	High	neg	Low	POS	Low 10%	POS	POS	High	neg	Mod	POS	neg	POS	p63 POS
Medullary carcinoma	neg			Mod	POS	POS	POS			neg	Low	POS		POS	Mod	Mod	Mod	High[c]	Ck7 POS PANK POS
Anaplastic carcinoma[d]		Mod									rare	rare							P53, Cyclin D1, High MIB1 index, BCL2 neg
Parathyroid adenomas and carcinomas		**POS**			Low	Low	POS		High[e]	neg	neg	neg	Low				POS	neg/ weak	PTh POS RCC POS Cyclin D1 POS

[a]Tumors with Hurthle cell changes may be negative for HBME. [b]Hurthle cells (both benign and neoplastic) are positive for S100 (nuclear and cytoplasmic). [c]Spindle cells may be positive for vimentin.
[d]Anaplastic thyroid carcinomas are frequently negative for TTF-1, thyroglobulin, and Ck20 but positive for p53 and Cyclin D1. [e]p27 is low in parathyroid carcinomas.
Thyroid adenomas, follicular carcinomas, papillary carcinomas, and medullary carcinomas are Ck7+ and Ck20-. Variable immunoreactivity has been reported for Ck7 in anaplastic carcinomas.
Metastatic carcinomas to the thyroid will be negative for thyroglobulin, TTF-1 (except for lung carcinomas), and calcitonin.
DDIT3 and ARG2 are new markers that may prove helpful for distinguishing follicular carcinoma (~ 70-80% positive) from adenoma (90% negative)

Differential diagnosis of epithelial mesothelioma and lung adenocarcinoma

See Table 7-36.

Initial panel: AE1/AE3, calretinin, WT-1 (clone 6F-H2), CEA, Leu-M1, and TTF-1 with additional studies ordered in difficult cases.

Other antibodies generally reported as negative in epithelial mesotheliomas and positive in lung adenocarcinomas include the following: MOC-1, B72.3, Ber-EP4, and BG-8. Cytokeratins 5/6 are reported to be positive in mesotheliomas and negative in lung carcinomas. However, in our experience, these markers have proven less useful than the ones listed earlier. The use of EMA is controversial. Strong membrane positivity is characteristic of epithelial mesothelioma, whereas cytoplasmic positivity is characteristic of adenocarcinomas.

Less is known about the immunophenotype of pure sarcomatoid mesotheliomas. The spindle cells are positive for cytokeratin, but are less frequently positive for the other markers as compared to the epithelioid cells. Tumors that can, on occasion, resemble mesotheliomas are generally negative for cytokeratins, with the notable exceptions of some cases of angiosarcoma, epithelioid hemangioendothelioma, synovial sarcoma, epithelioid sarcoma, and leiomyosarcoma (see Table 7-9).[16]

TABLE 7–36. DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF EPITHELIAL MESOTHELIOMA AND LUNG ADENOCARCINOMA

	EPITHELIAL MESOTHELIOMA	LUNG ADENOCARCINOMA
Immunohistochemistry		
AE1/AE3 keratin	POS (perinuclear)[a]	POS (membrane)[b]
Calretinin	POS	NEG
WT-1 (clone 6F-H2)	POS (nuclear)[c]	NEG[d]
CEA (polyclonal)	NEG	HIGH[e]
Leu-M1 (CD15)	NEG	HIGH
TTF-1	NEG	HIGH
Mucins		
Mucicarmine	3-4%	60%
PAS-D	<3%	65%
Alcian blue	30%	Pos ?%
Alcian blue + hyaluronidase	Staining lost	Staining preserved
Ultrastructure (EM)		
Microvilli	Elongated, serpiginous, and branched	Short, blunt, rigid appearing
Length to diameter ratio	10 to 16:1	4 to 7:1
Cytogenetics	Deletions of 1p, 3p, 17p, loss of 9 and 22	Deletions of 3p, highly variable changes

[a]Keratin immunoreactivity is accentuated around the nucleus and is present in the cytoplasm, without a prominant membrane accentuation.
[b]Keratin immunoreactivity is diffusely present in the cytoplasm with membrane accentuation in some cells.
[c]WT-1 immunoreactivity is nuclear.
[d]Metastatic adenocarcinomas are generally negative for WT-1 except for ovarian serous carcinomas and some renal carcinomas (see Table 7-5).
[e]Most metastastic adenocarcinomas will be positive for CEA, but there are some exceptions (see Table 7-5).
Tissue should be obtained for EM and cytogenetics, if possible.

Lung carcinoma

See Tables 7-37 and 7-38.

TABLE 7–37. LUNG CARCINOMAS

	KERATIN 7	KERATIN 20	TTF-1	P63	CHROMO-GRANIN	SYNAPTO-PHYSIN	CDX2	ER/PR
Adenocarcinoma	POS	Low	HIGH	Low	neg	Low	neg	Low/mod
Bronchioloalveolar carcinoma — nonmucinous	POS	Low	HIGH	HIGH	neg	neg	neg	
Bronchioloalveolar carcinoma — mucinous	HIGH	HIGH	Low				neg[c]	
Squamous cell carcinoma	Low	neg	neg	POS	neg	neg	neg	
Large cell carcinoma ("non small cell")	High	Low	Mod	Mod	neg	Low	neg	
Small cell carcinoma[a]	Low	neg	POS	neg	Mod	Mod	neg	neg
Carcinoid tumor	Mod	neg	Low/ neg	neg	POS	POS	neg	
Metastatic colon carcinoma	POS	Low	neg	neg	neg	neg	POS	
Metastatic breast carcinoma[b]	POS	neg	neg	neg[b]	neg[b]	Low	neg	Variable

[a]Small cell carcinomas arising at other sites can also be TTF-1 positive.
[b]If metastatic breast cancer is suspected, the lung lesion should be compared with the breast primary. Most metastatic breast cancers will have the same pattern of ER, PR, and HER2/neu expression. Some breast carcinomas can be strongly chromogranin positive. Rare breast cancers can be p63 positive (squamous cell carcinomas, metaplastic carcinomas [including spindle cell carcinomas] or triple negative carcinomas).
[c]The mucinous type of bronchioloalveolar carcinoma (BAC) may be difficult to distinguish from metastatic colon carcinoma as some cases are CK7 negative, CK20 positive, TTF-1 negative, and can be focally positive for CDX2. However, colon carcinomas are usually diffusely positive for CDX2.

TABLE 7–38. DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF LUNG CARCINOMAS

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS	MOST USEFUL MARKERS
Adenocarcinoma vs. squamous cell carcinoma	Keratin 7, keratin 20, TTF-1, p63
Small cell carcinoma vs. basaloid squamous cell carcinoma	P63, TTF-1
Small cell carcinoma vs. carcinoid tumor	Mitoses, necrosis, amount of cytoplasm
Large cell neuroendocrine carcinoma vs. carcinoid tumor	Mitoses, necrosis
Mucinous lung carcinoma vs. metastatic colon cancer	TTF-1, CDX2 (mucinous BAC can be focally positive for CDX2)
Lung carcinoma vs. metastatic breast carcinoma	TTF-1, compare ER/PR/HER2 pattern in primary breast carcinoma and lung tumor

B-cell neoplasms

See Table 7-39.

TABLE 7–39. B-CELL NEOPLASMS

	B-CELL MARKERS																
	CD45 LCA	CD19 B4	CD20 L26	CD22	CD79a	SIG	CIG	CD5 LEU1	CD10 CALLA	CD23	CD43 LEU22	CD34	BCL-2	BCL-6	CD138 SYNDECAN	CYCLIN D1	OTHER
Precursor lymphoblastic lymphoma/ leukemia	+/–	+	+/–	+/–	+ cyt	–	+M	–	+[a]	–	+/–	+/–	–	–	–	–	TdT + CD99 +
Small lymphocytic lymphoma/CLL	+	+	+ wk	+ wk	+	+ M/D wk	–/+	+	–	+	+/–	–	+	–	–	–	CD11c+ wk CD79b – FMC7 –
Mantle cell lymphoma	+	+	+	+	+	+M/D	–	+	–	–	+	–	+	–	–	+	CyclinD + FMC +
Marginal zone lymphoma (MALT)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+/–	–	–	–	+/–	–	+	–	–/+[b]	–	CD11c +/– CD21+ CD35+
Follicular lymphoma	+	+	+	+	+	+M	–	–	+	–/+	–/+	–	+/–	+	–	–	CDw75 +
Burkitt lymphoma and Burkitt-like lymphoma	+	+	+	+	+	+M	+/–	–	+	–	+/–	–	–	+		–	TdT- MIB-1 100% EBER in situ in 52% MYC[c]
Mediastinal large B-cell lymphoma	+	+	+	+	+/–	–	–	–	–			–		+	–	–	CD30+/– wk traf1 60%

Continued

TABLE 7–39. B-CELL NEOPLASMS—cont'd

	B-CELL MARKERS																
	CD45 LCA	CD19 B4	CD20 L26	CD22	CD79a	SIG	CIG	CD5 LEU1	CD10 CALLA	CD23	CD43 LEU22	CD34	BCL-2	BCL-6	CD138 SYNDECAN	CYCLIN D1	OTHER
Large B-cell lymphoma	+/–	+	+	+	+	+/–	+/–	–/+	–/+		–/+	–	–/+	+/–		–	CD30 +/– MIB-1 >40% traf1 <5%
Lymphoplasmacytic lymphoma	+/–	+	+	+	+	+M/D	+M/G st	–	–	–	+/–				–/+[b]	–	
Hairy cell leukemia	+	+	+	+	+	+		–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–/+	DBA.44+ CD79b – CD11c + CD103+ CD25+ st FMC7 +
Primary effusion lymphoma	+	–	–		–	–	–					–		–	+	–	CD30 (Ki-1)+ HHV8+ EBER +/–
Plasmacytoma/ myeloma	–/+	–	–/+	–	+	–	+G/A st	–	–/+	–	+/–		–		+	–/+	CD56+ CD38 + EMA +

[a]Lymphoblasts in t(4;11)(q21;q23) ALL are CD10 negative and frequently CD24 negative.
[b]Positive in plasma cell component.
[c]The myc gene (8q24) is translocated to Ig genes:
t(8;14) (heavy chains) 85% of cases.
t(2;8) (kappa light chain)
t(8;22) (lambda light chain)
Cyt = cytoplasmic immunoreactivity; st = strong immunoreactivity; M, D, G, A = type of heavy Ig chain present; wk = weak immunoreactivity.

T-cell neoplasms

See Table 7-40.

TABLE 7–40. T-CELL NEOPLASMS

	CD45 LCA	TCR	CD2 TE/ T11	CD3 T3	CD43 LEU22	CD5 LEU1	CD7 LEU9	CD4 T4	CD8 T8	CD25 IL2R	TIA-1	GRAN-ZYME b	CD56 NCA m	CD30 KI-1	TDT	ALK	OTHER
Precursor lymphoblastic lymphoma/ leukemia	+	–	+/–	+	+/–	+/–	+	+/–	+/–	+/–	–	–	–	–	+	–	CD34+ CD99+ CD1a +/–
T-cell prolympho-cytic leukemia	+	+	+	+wk	+	+	+	+/–	–/+	+/–	–	–	–		–	–	CD1a-
Adult T-cell lymphoma/ leukemia	+	+	+	+	+	+	–/+	+	–	+	–	–	–	+/–		–	
Mycosis fungoi-des and Sezary syndrome		TCRβ+	+	+	+	+	–	+	–/+	–/+	–/+	+/–	–	–	–	–	HECA+
Peripheral T-cell lymphoma, NOS	+	+	+/–	+/–	+	+/–	–/+	+/–	–/+		+	+/–	–/+	+(large cells)	–	–	
Hepatosplenic T-cell lymphoma		TCRδ1+ TCRαβ–	+	+	+	–	+/–	–	–	–	+	–	+/–	–	–	–	CD57- CD16–/+ LMP-1- Perforin –
Panniculitis-like T-cell lymphoma																	
CD56+		–	+	+	+			–	–	–	+	+	+	–	–	–	CD95+
CD56–		+	–	–	+			–	+	–	–/+	+	–	–	–	–	CD95–
Angioimmuno-blastic lymphoma	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	–/+	–	+	+	–	–	–	–	CD10+/– CD57+ bcl–6+/–
Enteropathy-type T-cell lymphoma	+			+	+	–	+	–	–/+	–	+/–	+/–	+(small cells)	+ (large cells)	–	–	CD103+

Continued

TABLE 7–40. T-CELL NEOPLASMS—cont'd

	CD45 LCA	TCR	CD2 TE/ T11	CD3 T3	CD43 LEU22	CD5 LEU1	CD7 LEU9	CD4 T4	CD8 T8	CD25 IL2R	TIA-1	GRAN-ZYME b	CD56 NCA m	CD30 KI-1	TDT	ALK	OTHER
Anaplastic large cell lymphoma (Ki-1 lymphoma)	+/–	+/–	+/–	–/+	+/–	–/+	–/+	+/–	–/+	+/–	+/–	+/–	–/+	+(mem, golgi)	–	+/–[b] (cyt, nuc)	Clusterin+[a] EMA+/– Perforin +/– EBER- BSAP–
Extranodal NK/T-cell lymphoma, nasal type	+	–	+	– CD3ε+ (cyt)	+	–	–/+	–	–	–	+	+	+	–/+	–	–	EBER+ CD16+ CD57–
Blastic NK-cell lymphoma		–	–/+	–	+/–		–/+	+/–		–			+	–	+/–	–	CD33- Myelo-

[a]Expressed in all cases of systemic ALCL but less commonly in primary cutaneous ALCL and very rarely in diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, peripheral T-cell lymphoma, and NS HD.
[b]Only positive in systemic ALCL (subset); negative in primary cutaneous ALCL.
Cyt = cytoplasmic; nuc = nuclear; wk = weak immunoreactivity.

Hodgkin lymphoma

See Table 7-41.

TABLE 7–41. HODGKIN LYMPHOMA

	CD45 LCA	CD20 L26	CD3 T3	CD15 LEUM1	CD30 Ki-1	EMA	SIG	CD79A	CDW75	OCT2	BOB.1	BSAP	LMP1	OTHER
Classical Hodgkin lymphoma (HL)	–	–/+	–	+/–	+	– rare	–	–/+	–	–	–/+	+	+/–	traf-1 + bcl2 +
Nodular sclerosis HL	–	–/+	–	+/–	+	– rare	–	–/+	–	–	–/+	+	–/+	
Lymphocyte-rich HL	–	–/+	–	+/–	+	– rare	–	–/+	–	–	+/–	+	+/–	
Mixed cellularity HL	–	–/+	–	+/–	+	– rare	–	–/+	–	–	–/+	+	++/–	
Lymphocyte-depleted HL	–	–/+	–	+/–	+	– rare	–	–/+	–	–	–/+	+	+ (if HIV +)	
Nodular lymphocyte-predominant HL	+	+	–	–	–/+	+/–	+	+ wk	+/–	+	+	+	–	bcl-6 + bcl 2 –

Wk = weak.

Amyloid

Amyloidosis (Greek for *amylon* = starch plus *eidos* = resemblance) is seen in many different clinical settings and is associated with many diseases. Pathologists can narrow down the differential diagnosis considerably to help guide clinical decision making. Finding an amyloid deposit in any tissue is similar to finding metastatic carcinoma in a lymph node – in both settings clinical information (e.g., history, physical examination, radiology studies, results of laboratory tests) is essential in arriving at the correct interpretation. A little immunohistochemistry and a lot of clinical judgment by the pathologist can help establish the cause with a greater degree of certainty.[17]

Finding and characterizing amyloid deposits:

1. Examine the H&E slide for noncellular material in the correct location for the suspected disease (Table 7-42).

TABLE 7–42. AMYLOID

TYPE OF AMYLOID-RELATED DISEASE	TYPE OF PROTEIN (AVAILABLE TESTS)	UNDERLYING DISEASE	ORGAN INVOLVEMENT	OTHER FEATURES
Primary AL	Kappa and lambda light chains (IF and IHC)	Multiple myeloma (15% have amyloid) Benign monoclonal gammopathy	Heart, bone marrow (only amyloid at this site), kidney, neuromuscular, joints, liver, spleen, tongue, larynx	May have Factor X deficiency (binds to light chains) Localized forms of amyloid are not associated with systemic disease
Secondary AA	Serum amyloid protein A (IF[b])	Chronic inflammation: infection, RA, Crohn's disease, sarcoid, familial Mediterranean fever, malignancy (RCC, HD)	Spleen (100% – sago [tapioca] or lardaceous), kidneys (75%), adrenals (40%), heart (symptoms rare), joints (rare)	
Dialysis-associated	Beta-2-microglobulin (IHC)	Long-term hemodialysis, rarely seen in peritoneal dialysis or with chronic renal failure	Joints (periarticular tissue), carpal tunnel, rarely systemic (GI, vessels), rarely involves fat, does not involve spleen	
Medullary carcinoma-associated	Calcitonin (IHC)	Medullary carcinoma of the thyroid	Associated with the tumor	Calcitonin can also be used to detect C cell hyperplasia
Other tumor-associated amyloid	Peptide hormones	Endocrine tumors	Associated with the tumor	
Alzheimer's	Beta amyloid (IHC)	Alzheimer's disease	Brain – senile plaque cores, neuritic plaques, neurofibrillary tangles	Also seen in Lewy body dementia, Down's syndrome, hereditary cerebral amyloidosis (Dutch type)
Other hereditary dieases	Transthyretin (IHC)	Familial amyloid polyneuropathy, senile/cardiac amyloidosis	Heart (usually without symptoms), joints, prostate	
Amyloid P component AP				Associated with all forms of amyloid. May be used to detect amyloid radiologically.

[a]Light chains are detected best by immunofluorescence (IF) on unfixed frozen tissue. IF and IHC can be performed on paraffin sections, but with less specificity. Only 50% of cases of light chain disease amyloid will be positive because the amyloid protein is often derived from the variable domain whereas antibodies detect the common domain.
[b]Serum amyloid protein A can only be detected by IF on unfixed frozen tissue.

2. Amyloid deposits will be orange-pink on Congo Red stains or sea-foam green on Sulfated Alcian blue stains. Amyloid may be more apparent on these stains. HOWEVER, beware of overcalling cases in which there is not a histologic correlate for amyloid in the stained tissue. If there is background positivity in normal tissue due to overstaining, the slide cannot be interpreted. Positive controls must show appropriate specific positivity.
3. Congo red-positive amyloid should become an apple green color when viewed under polarized light. This may require the high-quality polarizers that are built in to the microscope. Lower quality polarizers (i.e., the cut squares of polarizing material) may not be adequate. Collagen (silver when H&E is polarized) and fibrin (does not polarize) may mimic amyloid.
4. The amyloid deposits can be further characterized using immunohistochemistry or immunofluorescence (see Table 7-42) based on the clinical information, the organ or structures involved, and the distribution of amyloid deposits in the tissue. Amyloid can also be identified using EM (non-branching fibrils, 7.5 to 10 nm width and up to 1 micron in length).
5. A firm diagnosis is not always possible. The final diagnosis should be based on a combination of histologic, immunohistochemical, and clinical data.

Antibodies for immunohistochemistry

See Tables 7-43 and 7-44.

Results

The results of studies are incorporated into the surgical pathology report. The following information is included:

1. The type of tissue studied: formalin-fixed (or other fixatives) tissue, cryostat sections, cytology preparations, etc.
2. The type of immunoagents used, being as specific as possible. For example, do not just list keratin but specify the type of keratin (e.g., AE1/AE3).
3. The results of the studies in great enough detail to allow interpretation. For example the type of cell that is immunoreactive (e.g., tumor vs. nontumor), intensity of immunoreactivity (e.g., weak, strong) and/or the number of cells immunoreactive (e.g., focal vs. diffuse).
4. Integration of the results into the final diagnosis specifying whether they confirm or support a diagnosis, make one diagnosis more likely than others, or exclude one or more diagnoses.

Text continues on page 157.

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
General Markers					
Actin (alpha smooth muscle actin) *(SMA, SM-ACT)*	Smooth muscle isoform of actin *(Cytoplasm or membrane)*	Smooth muscle, myoepithelial cells, blood vessel walls, pericytes, some stromal cells of intestine, testis, and ovary, myofibroblasts in desmoplastic stroma. Not in striated muscle or myocardium.	Smooth muscle tumors, myofibroblastic tumors, PEComas, glomus tumors, KS, some spindle cell carcinomas (e.g., with features of myoepithelial cells)	ID of smooth muscle differentiation (muscle or myofibroblasts) in tumors. Noninvasive lesions of breast (myoepithelial cells present if benign or DCIS) vs. invasive carcinoma. Microglandular adenosis also lacks myoepithelial cells.	Good marker for myoepithelial cells of the breast but also positive in myofibroblasts in stroma. P63 is more specific, but less sensitive for myoepithelial cells.
Actin (muscle-specific actin) (HHF35, MSA, muscle common actin, EM ACT)	Alpha and gamma smooth muscle actins, recognizes a common epitope of alpha skeletal, cardiac, and smooth muscle *(Cytoplasm)*	Smooth, striated, and cardiac muscle, smooth muscle of blood vessels, pericytes, myoepithelial cells, myofibroblasts	Numerous tumors including tumors of muscle, glomus tumor, PEComa, GIST, DFSP, dermatofibroma, myofibroblastic tumors, spindle cell carcinomas, salivary gland tumors, mesothelioma, others	ID of muscle differentiation in tumors.	Sensitive but not specific. Present in tumors not of muscle origin.
Alpha fetoprotein (AFP, alpha 1-fetoprotein)	Glycoprotein present in fetal liver *(Cytoplasm, granular)*	Fetal liver, regenerating liver cells	HCC (but not the fibrolamellar variant), hepatoblastomas, yolk sac tumors, embryonal carcinoma (but less commonly)	HCC (+/–) vs. other cell types (however, AFP is rarely present in other carcinomas such as breast and ovary). Yolk sac tumors (+) vs. other germ cell tumors (–/+).	Correlates with extracellular hyaline eosinophilic globules in yolk sac tumors
Alpha 1-antitrypsin *(AAT, alpha-1-AT)*	Glycoprotein that inhibits proteolytic enzymes produced in the liver *(Cytoplasm)*	Histiocytes, reticulum cells, mast cells, Paneth cells, salivary gland	HCC, germ cell tumors, true histiocytic neoplasms, colon and lung carcinoma, others	Accumulates in liver cells in AAT deficiency	Not specific for tumor type. CD68 is somewhat more specific for macrophages.
AMACR *(P504S, alpha-methylacyl-CoA racemase)*	Mitochondrial and peroxisomal enzyme involved in the metabolism of branched-chain fatty acid and bile acid intermediates *(Cytoplasm)*	Not present in normal tissues	Colorectal carcinoma (92%), colonic adenomas (75%), prostate carcinoma (83%), PIN (64%), nephrogenic adenoma (58%), breast cancer (44%), ovarian carcinoma, TCC, lung carcinoma, RCC, lymphoma, melanoma	Can be combined with p63 to distinguish prostate carcinoma (AMACR +, p63 absent in basal cells) from benign mimics (AMACR -, p63 present in basal cells). However, ~20% of small cancers on core may be negative for AMACR.	

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
General Markers					
Androgen receptor *(AR)*	Mediates the function of androgens *(Nucleus)*	Prostate, skin, oral mucosa	Osteosarcoma, prostatic carcinoma, breast carcinoma, ovarian carcinoma, others		
B72.3 *(Tumor-associated glycoprotein 72, TAG-72, CA 72-4)*	Oncofetal glycoprotein, may be a precursor of the MN blood group system, sialosyl-Tn antigen *(Cytoplasm, membrane)*	Not present in most benign adult epithelial cells (may be present in secretory endometrium), apocrine metaplasia, and fetal GI tract	Adenocarcinomas (especially ovary, colon, breast)	Adenocarcinoma (+ >90%) vs. mesothelioma (5%) or mesothelial cells (-)	Other markers are more useful for mesothelioma vs. adenocarcinoma.
bcl-2 *(B-cell lymphoma 2)*	Protein involved in inhibition of apoptosis *(Membrane, cytoplasm)*	Medullary lymphocytes and epithelial cells of the normal thymus, mantle and T zone small lymphocytes	Synovial sarcoma, solitary fibrous tumor, myofibroblastic tumors, schwannoma, neurofibroma, granular cell tumor, GIST, KS, melanoma Small lymphocytic lymphoma/CLL, mantle cell lymphoma, follicular lymphoma, marginal zone lymphoma (MALT), some large B-cell lymphoma	Synovial sarcoma (+/-) vs. mesothelioma (-) Thymic carcinomas strongly express bcl-2 compared to thymomas. Small lymphocytic lymphoma, mantle cell lymphoma, and marginal zone lymphoma (MALT) (+) vs. reactive follicles (-).	The bcl-2 gene is involved in the t(14;18) found in follicular lymphomas.
Ber-EP4 *(Epithelial-specific antigen [ESA], Ep-CAM)*	Glycoprotein *(Membrane)*	All epithelial cells except superficial layers of epidermis	Most carcinomas	Adenocarcinoma (+; strong and diffuse in 60 to 100%) versus mesothelioma (- or focal in 26%)	Other markers are better for distinguishing adenocarcinoma vs. mesothelioma
Beta-amyloid *(6F/3D)*	Amyloid present in Alzheimer's disease (AD) and in cerebral amyloid angiopathy *(Extracellular)*	None	Senile plaque core in AD, amyloid cores, neuritic plaques, neurofibrillary tangles	Diagnosis of AD, other diseases	Found in AD, Lewy body dementia, Down's syndrome, hereditary cerebral amyloidosis (Dutch type)

Beta-catenin	Component of the adherens junction that binds to e-cadherin and functions in cell adhesion and anchoring the cytoskeleton; signaling molecule of the Wnt/wingless pathway *(Membrane, cytoplasm)*	Urothelium, breast epithelium, colon, esophagus, stomach, thyroid	TCC, colonic adenocarcinomas and adenomas, breast carcinoma, esophageal squamous cell carcinoma, head and neck squamous cell carcinomas, gastric carcinoma, ovarian carcinoma, thyroid carcinoma, prostate carcinoma, HCC, brain neoplasms Nuclear positivity in solitary fibrous tumor (40%), endometrial stromal sarcoma (40%), synovial sarcoma (28%)	Aberrant nuclear expression in solid-pseudopapillary tumors of the pancreas (95%) and pancreatoblastomas (78%) Aberrant nuclear expression in desmoid fibromatosis (80% deep, 56% superficial) vs. low grade myofibroblastic sarcoma (30%), solitary fibrous tumor (22%), infantile fibrosarcoma (20%), desmoplastic fibroblastomas (6%)	
Beta-2 microglobulin	Immunoglobulin-associated protein *(Extracellular deposits of amyloid)*	Plasma cells		Identification of amyloid in patients on dialysis	Amyloid tends to accumulate around joints and in the GI tract
BG8	Lewis blood group y antigen *(Cytoplasm)*	Red blood cells, endothelial cells	Adenocarcinomas (95%), rare mesotheliomas (about 5%)		Other markers are better for distinguishing adenocarcinoma vs. mesothelioma
Blood group antigens	A, B, and H antigens *(Membrane)*	Epithelial cells and red blood cells, endothelial cells	Lost or abnormally expressed in many carcinomas	Can be helpful to identify potentially misidentified specimens if patients' blood types are known.	H is diminished by decalcification but not A and B antigens.
CA 125 *(OC125)*	Mucin-like glycoprotein, antibody to ovarian carcinoma antigen *(Luminal surface)*	Epithelial cells, mesothelial cells	Adenocarcinomas of ovary, breast, lung (bronchioloalveolar), and others (rarely colon), TCC, adenomatoid tumor of the uterus, squamous cell carcinoma, seminal vesicle carcinoma, anaplastic lymphoma	Seminal vesicle carcinoma (+) vs. prostate carcinoma (-)	Used as a serum marker for monitoring ovarian cancer

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
General Markers					
CA19-9 *(Carbohydrate antigen 19-9)*	Antigen of sialyl Lewis[a]-containing glycoprotein; antibody to colon carcinoma *(Cytoplasm)*	Epithelial cells of breast, colon, kidney, liver, lung, pancreas, salivary gland, others	Adenocarcinomas of GI tract, pancreas, ovary, lung, and bladder, rare in mesotheliomas Chronic pancreatitis		Used as a serum marker for monitoring gastrointestinal and pancreatic carcinomas
Calcitonin	Peptide hormone produced by C cells *(Cytoplasm and extracellular amyloid)*	C cells of the thyroid	Medullary carcinoma of the thyroid (within tumor cells and in amyloid)	ID of C-cell hyperplasia ID of medullary thyroid carcinoma	Used as a serum marker for medullary carcinoma.
Caldesmon *(h-caldesmon)*	Actin and calmodulin binding protein in smooth muscle *(Cytoplasm)*	Vascular and visceral smooth muscle cells, some myoepithelial cells of the breast	Smooth muscle tumors, PEComa, GIST	Smooth muscle tumors (+) vs. myofibroblastic lesions (-) or endometrial stromal tumors (-)	
Calponin *(CALP)*	Protein that binds to calmodulin, F-actin, and tropomyosin to regulate smooth muscle contraction *(Cytoplasm)*	Vascular and visceral smooth muscle cells, myoepithelial cells of the breast, periacinar and periductal myoepithelial cells of the salivary gland	Myoepithelioma, some smooth muscle tumors, myofibroblastic lesions	Can be helpful to identify myoepithelial cells in breast lesions	
Calretinin	Intracellular calcium-binding protein of the troponin C superfamily with an EF-hand domain *(Cytoplasm, nucleus)*	Subsets of neurons, pineal cells, germinal epithelium of ovary, mesothelial cells, keratinocytes, breast, sweat glands, neuroendocrine cells, thymus	Epithelial mesotheliomas (less + in sarcomatoid type), adenomatoid tumor, some lung squamous cell carcinomas, rare adenocarcinomas, mesenchymal tumors (e.g., synovial sarcoma), granular cell tumor, Leydig cell tumor, granulosa cell tumor	Epithelial mesotheliomas (>90%) versus adenocarcinoma (<10%)	Useful positive marker for mesotheliomas.
Carcinoembryonic antigen *(CEA. CD66e)*	Glycoproteins with immunoglobulin-like regions found in fetal tissues *(Cytoplasm)*	Fetal tissues	Adenocarcinomas (liver, colon, pancreas, bile duct, and lung more than breast, ovary), TCC, medullary carcinoma of the thyroid Usually absent in RCC, prostate carcinoma, and papillary or follicular thyroid carcinomas	Adenocarcinoma (+) versus mesothelioma (–) HCC: polyclonal CEA has a canalicular pattern	Different reactivity patterns occur with different antibodies and with polyclonal versus monoclonal antibodies

CD5 *(Leu 1)*	Transmembrane glycoprotein *(Membrane)*	T cells and B cell subsets (mantle zone)	Thymic carcinoma, adenocarcinomas, mesothelioma (cytoplasmic) T-cell leukemias and lymphomas, aberrantly expressed in low-grade B-cell lymphomas (CLL or mantle cell lymphoma).	Thymic carcinoma (+/-) vs. thymoma (-). Thymic carcinoma (+/-) vs. metastatic squamous carcinoma (-) Classification of low grade B-cell lymphomas. Evaluation of T-cell lymphomas (this marker is frequently lost).	
CD10 *(CALLA [common acute leukemia antigen], J5)*	Cell surface metalloendopeptidase that inactivates peptides *(Membrane)*	Precursor B cells, granulocytes, rare cells in reactive follicles, myoepithelial cells of breast, bile canaliculi, fibroblasts, brush border of kidney and gut	Endometrial stromal sarcoma, RCC (clear cell and papillary types), HCC, TCC, rhabdomyosarcoma, pancreatic carcinoma, schwannoma, melanoma Precursor lymphoblastic lymphoma/leukemia, follicular lymphoma, Burkitt lymphoma, CML, angioimmunoblastic lymphoma	Myoepithelial cell marker in breast Endometrial stromal sarcoma (+) vs. leiomyosarcoma (-/+) (but caldesmon is preferred for this purpose) Evaluation of low-grade lymphomas. Evaluation of leukemias	Not specific for nonlymphoid neoplasms.
CD15 *(LeuM1)*	3-fucosyl-N-acetyl-lactos-amine, X-hapten - CHO moiety linked to cell membrane protein *(Membrane and cytoplasm)*	Granulocytes, monocytes	Adenocarcinomas CMV-infected cells RS cells (not LP HD) in a membranous and golgi pattern, some large T-cell lymphomas, MF, some leukemias	Adenocarcinomas (+) versus mesotheliomas (-) Evaluation of HD	
CD30 *(Ki-1)*	Single-chain transmembrane glycoprotein homologous to the nerve growth factor superfamily *(Cytoplasm, membrane, and golgi)*	Activated B and T cells, some plasma cells, immunoblasts, interdigitating cells, histiocytes, follicular center cells, decidualized endometrium, reactive mesothelial cells, most other tissues negative	Embryonal carcinoma, some vascular tumors (not KS), some mesotheliomas Anaplastic large cell (CD30+) lymphomas, mediastinal large B-cell lymphoma, primary effusion lymphoma, HD (but not LP HD), some other B- and T-cell lymphomas, EBV transformed B cells	ID of anaplastic large cell (CD30+) lymphomas. Evaluation of HD (RS cells are positive except in LP HD). ID of peripheral T-cell lymphoma (large cells may be positive).	

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
General Markers					
CD31 *(PECAM-1, platelet-endothelial cell adhesion molecule)*	Transmembrane glycoprotein functioning in cell adhesion *(Cytoplasm, membrane)*	Endothelial cells, platelets, megakaryocytes, plasma cells, histiocytes, other hematopoietic cells	Vascular tumors (> 80% of angiosarcomas), KS, histiocytic neoplasms, PEComa, very rarely other tumors	ID of endothelial differentiation in tumors Evaluation of angiogenesis	Most sensitive and specific marker for endothelial cells
CD34 *(HPCA-1, hematopoietic progenitor cell, class 1, QBEnd10)*	Single-chain transmembrane glycoprotein, leukocyte differentiation antigen *(Cytoplasm, membrane)*	Hematopoietic progenitor cells (decreases with maturation), endothelial cells, fixed connective tissue cells (e.g., in skin), fibroblasts	Acute leukemia, sarcomas of vascular origin, KS, epithelioid sarcoma, GIST, DFSP, solitary fibrous tumor, neurofibroma, schwannoma, spindle cell lipoma, phyllodes tumor, fibroadenoma	ID of endothelial or fibroblastic differentiation in tumors. Evaluation of angiogenesis. Evaluation of the number of blasts in bone marrow in acute leukemia. Solitary fibrous tumor (+) vs. sarcomatoid mesothelioma (-) DFSP (+) vs. dermatofibroma (-)	Not specific but can be useful in context with other features
CD44v3 *(CD44 variant 3, H-CAM)*	Transmembrane glycoprotein that mediates cell adhesion *(Membrane)*	Many, including myometrium	Many, including endometrial carcinomas	Possibly helpful to distinguish cellular leiomyoma (+) from endometrial stromal sarcoma (-)	Many splice variants of CD44 are present in normal and malignant cells.
CD57 *(Leu 7, HNK-1)*	Lymphocyte antigen that cross reacts with a myelin-associated glycoprotein *(Membrane)*	T-cell subsets, NK cells, myelinized nerves, neuroendocrine cells, prostate, pancreatic islets, adrenal medulla	Nerve sheath tumors (occasional), leiomyosarcoma, synovial sarcoma, rhabdomyosarcoma, neuroblastoma, gliomas, neuroendocrine carcinomas, neurofibromas, some prostate carcinomas Angioimmunoblastic lymphoma, T gamma lymphoproliferative disorder (large granular cell lymphocytic leukemia)	ID of neuroendocrine differentiation in tumors ID of angioimmunoblastic T-cell lymphoma Evaluation of NK neoplasms.	Not very specific for solid tumors
CD63 *(NKI/C3, melanoma-associated antigen, ME491)*	Member of the tetraspanin or transmembrane 4 superfamily (TM4SF) found on lysosomes *(Cytoplasm or membrane)*	Melanocytes, mast cells, histiocytes, salivary gland cells, sweat gland cells, pancreatic cells, islets of Langerhans, prostatic cells, Paneth cells, peribronchial glands, pituitary	Nevi, melanomas, carcinoids, medullary carcinomas of the thyroid, some adenocarcinomas	Cellular neurothekoma (NKI/C3 + and S100 -) versus melanocytic lesions (NKI/C3 and S100 +) ID of melanocytic lesions	May be negative in desmoplastic melanomas

CD68 *(KP1, CD68-PG-M1, Mac-M)*	Intracellular glycoprotein associated with lysosomes *(Cytoplasm, membrane)*	Macrophages, monocytes, neutrophils, basophils, large lymphocytes, Kupffer cells, mast cells, osteoclasts	Neurofibroma, schwannoma, MPNST, granular cell tumors, PEComa, melanomas, atypical fibroxanthoma, RCC Some lymphomas, histiocytic sarcomas, APML, Langerhans proliferative disorders	Best general marker for macrophages, although not specific to this cell type.	The antibody PG-M1 does not react with granulocytes. Not very specific for solid tumors.
CD99 *(MIC-2, 12E7, Ewing's sarcoma marker, E2 antigen, HuLy-m6, FMC 29, O13 [different epitope])*	MIC2 gene product – glycoproteins (p30 and p32) involved in rosette formation with erythrocytes *(Membrane)* (*Membrane* [immunoreactivity is more specific than cytoplasmic])	Cortical thymocytes, T lymphocytes, granulosa cells of ovary, pancreatic islet cells, Sertoli cells, some endothelial cells, urothelium, ependymal cells, squamous cells	PNET/Ewing's sarcoma, chondroblastoma, mesenchymal chondrosarcoma, synovial sarcoma, solitary fibrous tumors, GIST, some alveolar rhabdomyocarcomas, desmoplastic small cell tumors, small cell carcinomas, granulosa cell tumors, yolk sac components of germ cell tumors, Sertoli-Leydig cell tumors, atypical fibroxanthoma, meningioma B- and T-cell precursor lymphoblastic lymphoma/leukemia	Thymic carcinomas (lymphocytes +) versus other carcinomas. ID of PNET/Ewing's sarcoma (immunoreactivity should be clearly membranous in the majority of the cells) Evaluation of lymphoblastic lymphoma/leukemia	O13 is the most commonly used antibody. Immunoreactivity is highly dependent upon the antigen retrieval system used
CD117 *(c-kit, stem cell factor receptor)*	Transmembrane tyrosine kinase receptor (ligand is stem cell factor) - apoptosis is inhibited when the ligand is bound *(Cytoplasm, membrane)*	Mast cells, interstitial cells of Cajal (ICC - pacemaker cells of the GI tract found through-out the muscle layers and in the myenteric plexus), epidermal melanocytes, mononuclear bone marrow cells (4%), Leydig cells, early spermatogenic cells, trophoblast, breast epithelium	GIST (>95%), seminomas (>70%), intratubular germ cell neoplasia, mature teratomas (>70%), papillary renal cell (cytoplasmic – associated with mutations), chromophobe renal cell (membrane - not associated with mutations), some melanomas (focal), mast cell tumors, some carcinomas (including adenoid cystic carcinoma), some brain tumors, some PNET/Ewing's sarcoma, some angiosarcomas AML (>50%), CML in myeloid blast crisis	ID of GIST (+) vs. leiomyomas (-) and schwannomas (-). ID of seminomas ID of mast cells (mastocytosis) – abnormal mast cells commonly have the imatinib resistant mutation D816V.	Mast cells are an excellent internal control. CD117 (+) does not correlate with mutations and/or oncoprotein activity in tumors not known to have activating mutations and is, in general, not of clinical or therapeutic significance in this setting (e.g., to detect tumors likely to respond to therapy directed against the protein, such as Gleevec.

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
General Markers					
CD123 *(interleukin-3 receptor alpha chain)*	Alpha chain of the IL-3 receptor *(Membrane)*	Myeloid precursors, macrophages, dendritic cells, mast cells, basophils, megakaryocytes	Plasmacytoid dendritic cell tumors		
CD141 *(thrombomodulin, TM)*	Transmembrane glycoprotein, receptor for thrombin *(Cytoplasm [epithelial cells], membrane [mesothelial cells])*	Endothelium, platelets, monocytes, synovial cells, syncytiotrophoblast, mesothelial cells, dermal keratinocytes, islet cells, peripheral nerves	Mesotheliomas, TCC, KS, squamous cell carcinomas, choriocarcinomas, rarely adenocarcinomas, benign and malignant vascular tumors	Mesothelioma (+ 80%) vs. adenocarcinoma (+ 10%) (but variable results have been reported in other studies)	Other markers are better for distinguishing adenocarcinoma vs. mesothelioma.
CD146 *(melanoma cell adherin molecule, MELCAM, MCAM, MN-4, MUC18, A32 antigen, S-Endo-1)*	Membrane cell adhesion glycoprotein of the Ig gene superfamily *(Membrane)*	Implantation site intermediate trophoblast, myofibroblasts, endothelium, pericytes, Schwann cells, ganglion cells, smooth muscle, cerebellar cortex, breast luminal and myoepithelial cells, external root sheath of hair follicle, subcapsular epithelium of thymus, follicular dendritic cells, basal cells of bronchus and parathyroid, subpopulations of activated T cells	Melanoma, angiosarcoma, KS, leiomyosarcoma, placental site trophoblastic tumor, choriocarcinoma May be focally positive in squamous cell carcinoma and small cell carcinoma of the lung, mucoepidermoid carcinoma, breast carcinoma, some leukemias, neuroblastoma	ID of placental site trophoblastic tumors	
CD163 *(M130)*	Endocytic receptor to scavenge haptoglobin and hemoglobin complexes *(Membrane, cytoplasm)*	Tissue macrophages (high expression), monocytes (low expression) including Kupffer cells, Hofbauer cells but not follicular dendritic cells or plasmacytoid monocytes	Neoplasms of histiocytic differentiation Leukemias of monocytic differentiation Synovial type giant cell tumors of the vertebral column Langerhans cell histiocytosis (~60%), benign fibrous histiocytoma (~67%) Littoral cell angioma of the spleen	ID of true histiocytic derivation of tumors	More specific for monocyte/histiocyte derivation than CD68

CDK4 *(cylin-dependent kinase 4)*	A kinase involved in cell cycle regulation *(Nuclear)*	None	Liposarcoma, glioblastoma, anaplastic astrocytoma, large B-cell lymphoma, osteosarcoma, breast carcinoma	Atypical lipomatous tumor/well-differentiated liposarcoma and dedifferentiated liposarcoma (>90% +) vs. benign adipose tumors (<5% +)	MDM2 can also be used for this differential diagnosis
CDX2 *(caudal-related homeobox transcription factor, CDX-88)*	Homeobox nuclear transcription factor specific for the intestinal tract that regulates MUC2 expression *(Nucleus)*	Small intestine, colon, and endocrine pancreas	Colon carcinomas (usually strong and diffuse), small intestine carcinomas, mucinous ovarian carcinomas, bladder adenocarcinomas, some gastric, esophageal, pancreatic, and bile duct carcinomas HCC, breast, lung, and head and neck carcinomas are usually negative	ID of colon carcinomas and other carcinomas of the gastrointestinal tract. However, other carcinomas (e.g., mucinous ovarian carcinoma or mucinous lung bronchioloalveolar carcinoma) can also be positive	
Chromogranin A	Acidic glycoprotein in neurosecretory granules *(Cytoplasm, granular)*	Islet cells of pancreas, bronchial Kulchitsky cells, parathyroid, adrenal medulla, anterior pituitary, C-cells of thyroid	Pheochromocytoma, carcinoids (not rectal), small cell carcinoma, neuroblastoma, some breast and prostatic carcinomas, Merkel cell tumors, islet cell tumors, medullary carcinoma of the thyroid, parathyroid lesions, Brenner tumor	ID of neuroendocrine differentiation in tumors. Not present in pituitary prolactinomas. Pheochromocytoma (+) versus adrenal cortical carcinoma (–). Parathyroid (+) vs. thyroid (–)	Most specific marker of neuroendocrine differentiation Also can be detected in serum Bouin's solution or B5 fixation may increase immunogenicity
Claudin-1 *(CLDN1)*	Protein component of the tight junction complex *(Membrane – not cytoplasmic)*	Epithelial cells, perineurial cells, some endothelial cells (venules)	Perineurioma (30%), synovial sarcoma (epithelioid areas, lower in spindle cell areas), carcinomas Some perineurial cells may be present in neurofibromas and schwannomas	Perineurioma (+ 30%) vs. DFSP (-), fibromatosis (-), low grade fibromyxoid sarcoma (–) Meningiomas – 50% +	
Collagen IV	Major constituent of basement membranes *(Basement membrane)*	Mesangial cells within glomeruli, basement membranes, basal lamina of capillaries	Tumors with external lamina (schwannomas, smooth muscle tumors)	Absence or loss may be associated with stromal invasion by carcinomas	

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
General Markers					
D2-40 *(podoplanin, M2A)*	Oncofetal Membrane O-linked sialoglycoprotein *(Membrane)*	Lymphatic endothelium, germ cells of testis, interstitial cells of Cajal, follicular dendritic cells, myoepithelial cells of the breast	Lymphatic tumors, some angiosarcomas, some epithelioid hemangioendotheliomas, epithelioid mesotheliomas, seminomas, ITGCN, KS, GIST, ovarian serous carcinomas	Identification of LVI ID of seminoma (+, diffuse) vs. embryonal carcinoma (- or focal) Epithelioid meso (+) vs. adenocarcinoma (–) ID of follicular dendritic cell sarcoma	Myoepithelial cells of the breast can show cytoplasmic positivity — limiting usefulness in the breast for LVI
Desmin	Intermediate filament in muscle *(Cytoplasm)*	All striated muscle (Z bands) and many smooth muscle cells, myofibroblasts, smooth muscle of some BVs	Rhabdomyosarcoma (80% +), leiomyosarcoma (50-70% +), PEComa, desmoplastic small round cell tumors (usually dot-like), some myofibroblastic tumors, endometrial stromal sarcoma	ID of muscle differentiation in tumors	
DOG1 *(discovered On GIST-1)*	Protein of unknown function expressed in GIST *(Cytoplasm or membrane)*	Interstitial cells of Cajal	GIST (positivity in other tumor types is <10%)	ID of GIST (may be + in some CD117 neg GIST) Positive in 79% of GIST with PDGFRA mutations, whereas CD117 is positive in 9% of this group	
DPC4 *(homozygously deleted in pancreatic carcinoma, locus 4, Smad4)*	Transcriptional regulator interacting with the TGFbeta signaling pathway *(Nucleus)*	Normal tissues	Expressed in most carcinomas Lost in 31% of Pan IN-3, 55% of pancreatic carcinomas, and 22% of stage IV colon carcinomas	Mucinous ovarian carcinoma (+) vs. metastatic pancreatic carcinoma (negative in 55%)	Mutated in familial juvenile polyposis in 25% to 60% of cases
E-cadherin	Transmembrane cell adhesion molecule that binds to catenins for cell polarization, glandular differentiation, and stratification *(Membrane)*	Epithelial cells	Most carcinomas – may be lost in poorly differentiated carcinomas Not present in LCIS and invasive lobular carcinoma of breast or gastric signet ring cell carcinomas	Ductal (+) vs. lobular (–) lesions of the breast	Can be helpful to distinguish DCIS from LCIS.

EGFR *(epidermal growth factor receptor, HER1)*	Transmembrane protein receptor of the type 1 growth factor family with tyrosine kinase activity *(Membrane positivity scored, cytoplasmic positivity is not scored)*	Many types of epithelium, skin eccrine and sebaceous glands, mesenchymal cells, perineurium The strongest membrane positivity is present in hepatocytes, bile ducts, basilar squamous cells, pancreatic ducts, breast epithelium, lung alveolar lining cells, mesothelial cells, prostate epithelium, endometrial glands and stroma	Adenocarcinomas (esp. colon), squamous cell carcinomas, TCC, neural tumors, sarcomas	Expression is increased in tumors of higher grade and poorer prognosis Colon carcinomas (80-90% positive) – response to cetuximab is not related to IHC score Lung adenocarcinoma – specific mutations (but not IHC) predict response to TK inhibitors GBM – 40% show gene amplification and overexpression by IHC. TK domain mutations are rare	
Epithelial membrane antigen *(EMA, MUC1, HMFG, DF3, CA 15-3, CA 27.29, PEM, many others)*	Episialin, glycoprotein found in human milk fat globule membranes *(Cytoplasm [more common in malignant cells], membrane [more common in benign cells])*	Epithelial cells, perineurial cells, meningeal cells, plasma cells, usually negative in non-neoplastic mesothelial cells	Carcinomas, mesotheliomas (thick membrane pattern), some sarcomas (synovial sarcoma, epithelioid sarcoma, leiomyosarcoma, some osteosarcomas), adenomatoid tumor, chordoma, perineurioma, neurofibroma, meningioma, desmoplastic small round cell tumor, Sertoli cell tumor Some anaplastic large cell lymphomas (CD30 +), plasma cell neoplasms	ID of epithelial differentiation in tumors – however, keratin is more specific for this purpose Synovial sarcoma (typically focal positivity) vs. other sarcomas Demonstrates the "inside out" glands of invasive micropapillary breast carcinoma	There are over 50 monoclonal antibodies recognizing different glycosylation patterns in normal tissues and tumors[18]
Epstein-Barr virus					
EBV-encoded nonpolyadenylated early RNAs *(EBERS)*	RNA produced by EBV *(Nucleus)*	EBV-infected B cells	All EBV-related tumors	Most sensitive marker for EBV	Detected by in situ hybridization for RNA on paraffin sections
LMP-1	Latent membrane protein *(Membrane)*	EBV-infected B cells	Nasopharyngeal carcinomas, RS cells (not LP HD), transplant lymphomas, AIDS-related lymphomas, endemic Burkitt lymphoma (rare in sporadic cases)	Evaluation of EBV-related neoplasms	
EBNA 2 *(nuclear antigen 2)*	Nuclear protein *(Nucleus)*	EBV-infected B cells	Transplant-related lymphomas, AIDS-related lymphomas Not present in Burkitt lymphoma, nasopharyngeal carcinomas, or HD	Evaluation of transplant- and AIDS-related lymphomas	

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
General Markers					
Estrogen receptor *(ER, 1D5, SP1, 6F11, H222, others)*	Steroid-binding protein *(Nucleus)*	Breast epithelial cells (not myoepithelial cells), epithelial and myometrial cells of the uterus	Breast carcinomas (>70%), myofibroblastoma of breast, gynecologic carcinomas, some skin appendage tumors, rare in other carcinomas, present in some meningiomas, smooth muscle tumors, some melanomas, some thyroid tumors, desmoid tumors, vulvovaginal stromal tumor	Prognosis and prediction of response to hormonal therapy of breast cancer. Only nuclear positivity is scored ID of metastatic breast cancer	ABs recognize different epitopes and have varying sensitivities in formalin fixed tissue. Antigenicity may be diminished after decalcification or exposure to heat during surgery.
Factor VIII-related antigen *(VWF, FVIII:RAg, von Willebrand factor)*	Glycoprotein involved in coagulation, part of FVIII complex *(Cytoplasm)*	Endothelial cells, megakaryocytes, platelets, and mast cells, endocardium	Vascular tumors (often absent in angiosarcomas) Not present in KS, PEComa Megakaryocytic AML (M7)	ID of endothelial differentiation in tumors (specific but not very sensitive) Evaluation of angiogenesis Evaluation of M7 (megakaryocytic) leukemias	May not detect smaller blood vessels (see CD 31 and 34). Present in Weibel-Palade bodies. Not a sensitive marker for vascular neoplasms.
Factor XIIIa *(Factor XIII subunit A)*	Transglutaminase involved in the coagulation pathway *(Cytoplasm)*	Fibroblasts, dendritic reticulum cells in reactive follicles, dermal dendrocytes, liver, placenta, platelets, megakaryocytes, monocytes, macrophages	Fibroblastic neoplasms, dermatofibroma		Not very specific
Fascin *(p55)*	Actin binding protein thought to be involved in the formation of microfilament bundles and cell motility *(Cytoplasm)*	Interdigitating reticulum cells in lymph nodes, dendritic cells of lymph node, thymus, spleen and peripheral blood, histiocytes, smooth muscle, endothelial cells, squamous mucosal cells, lining cells of splenic sinuses, neurons	RS cells and their variants (but not LP HD), rare non HD lymphomas Reticulum cell tumors Some sarcomas Many carcinomas, especially those of advanced stage Glial tumors (more common in high-grade tumors)		Not very specific
Fibronectin	Glycoproteins found in BMs and extracellular matrix, bind to integrins *(Extracellular)*		Stroma of many tumors		

FLI-1 *(Friend leukemia integrin-site 1)*	Transcription factor (ETS family) – translocation in Ewing's can result in an EWS-FLI-1 fusion protein *(Nucleus)*	Endothelial cells (hemangioblasts, angioblasts), small lymphocytes	Ewing's sarcoma/PNET, vascular tumors (including KS), Merkel cell carcinoma, melanoma Can also be weakly present in lymphomas, synovial sarcoma, some carcinomas	ID of vascular tumors (unlike other vascular markers, FLI-1 is nuclear). ID of Ewings/PNET – not specific but very sensitive (70%)	Reactivity can be variable with high background and may be difficult to interpret
Galectin-3 *(Gal-3)*	Lectin with anti-apoptosis function (galactoside-binding protein) *(Nucleus, cytoplasm, membrane, extracellular matrix)*	Many epithelial cells, lymphocytes, mesenchymal cells, macrophages, activated endothelial cells	Many carcinomas, adenomas, lymphomas, soft tissue tumors	Thyroid carcinomas (papillary and to a lesser extent follicular) show higher expression than benign lesions In some carcinomas, expression is diminished in higher grade lesions	
Glial fibrillary acidic protein *(GFAP)*	Intermediate filament *(Cytoplasm)*	Normal and reactive astrocytes, developing and reactive ependymal cells, developing oligodendrocytes, choroid plexus, Schwann cells, enteric glial cells, pituitary cells, chondrocytes	Tumors of astrocytes, ependymal cells, and oligodendrocytes, MPNST, myoepitheliomas (salivary glands and soft tissue), sweat gland tumors, Merkel cell carcinomas, chordomas	ID of neural differentiation in tumors (30% of MPNSTs are +). Neuroblastomas are negative, schwannomas may be focally +. Merkel cell carcinoma (+) versus small cell carcinoma (–) (but Ck20 is a better marker for this purpose). ID of myoepithelial neoplasms.	
GLUT-1 *(glucose transporter 1)*	Component of transmembrane glucose transport *(Membrane)*	Erythrocytes, perineurium, blood vessels, trophoblasts, renal tubules, germinal center cells	TCC, lung carcinoma, squamous cell carcinoma, adenocarcinomas of colon, lung, bile ducts, kidney, ovary, pancreas, stomach, and endometrium, germ cell tumors		Not very specific
Gross cystic disease fluid protein-15 *(GCDFP, CDP, BR-2, BRST-2)*	Protein found in breast fluid *(Cytoplasm)*	Apocrine sweat glands, apocrine metaplasia of the breast	Breast carcinomas (60%), sweat gland carcinomas, some salivary gland tumors, some prostate carcinomas	ID of apocrine differentiation in tumors ID of breast metastases (however, only positive in about 60%)	
HepPar-1 *(hepatocyte paraffin-1, HP1)*	Mitochondrial protein *(Cytoplasm, coarsely granular)*	Liver	HCC, some cases of gastric adenocarcinoma, esophageal adenocarcinoma, others negative or only rarely positive	HCC (80–95%) vs. metastatic carcinomas to the liver	

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
General Markers					
HBME-1	Antigen to microvilli on mesothelioma cells *(Membrane and cytoplasm)*	Mesothelial cells, epithelial cells	Mesotheliomas (epithelial type - thick, membrane staining), adenocarcinomas, chordomas, chondrosarcomas	Positivity higher in thyroid carcinomas than in adenomas May be absent in thyroid carcinomas with Hurthle cell features	Not a specific marker for mesotheliomas
HER-2/neu *(c-erbB2, A0485, Sp3)*	Growth factor receptor (tyrosine kinase) homologous to epidermal growth factor receptor *(Membrane, some cytoplasm)*	Absent or rare in normal cells	Breast carcinomas (20 to 30%), Paget disease of nipple (>90%), less frequently in other carcinomas (ovary, uterus, GI, pancreas), some synovial sarcomas	Poor prognostic factor in breast cancer Membrane positivity used to select patients for treatment with Herceptin (scored from 0 to 3+) (see separate table)	Only membrane positivity is scored. Gene amplification (detected by FISH) correlates with strong complete membrane immunoreactivity in >90% of cases
HHV8	Latent nuclear antigen of human herpes virus type 8 *(Nucleus)*	Absent in normal tissue	KS (endothelial cells and some perivascular cells) Primary effusion lymphoma (PEL), AIDS-associated multicentric Castleman's disease	Evaluation of KS and PEL	
HMB-45 *(E-MEL, melanoma specific antigen)*	Oligosaccharide side-chain of a melanosomal antigen, gp100/pmel17 *(Cytoplasm)*	Fetal melanocytes and some normal adult superficial melanocytes, retinal pigment epithelium	Melanoma (epithelioid but not spindle cell or desmoplastic type), clear cell sarcoma, PEComa, tumors associated with tuberous sclerosis, melanotic schwannoma, others	ID of metastatic melanoma. Melanophages can also be positive. Melan-A may be more specific. ID of PEComa.	NKI-betab detects the same protein. Tissues fixed in B5 may have high background staining

hMLH1 *(human mutS homologue 2),* **hMSH2** *(human mutL homologue 1),* **MSH6, PMS2**	Proteins involved in mismatch repair of DNA (the first two genes account for 95% of HNPCC) *(Nucleus)*	Most normal tissues May be lost in areas of chronic inflammation	Expression (or non-expression) is not specific for tumor type	Absence is associated with germline mutations in HNPCC patients and with gene silencing by methylation in 15% of sporadic colon carcinomas – correlated with characteristic clinical, pathologic, and treatment response features IHC will not detect the 5% of patients with mutations in other genes or rare patients with mutated gene products that are immunoreactive	Other assays for microsatellite instability utilize PCR (90% sensitive for MSI)
Hormones (ER and PR are listed separately)	Insulin, gastrin, glucagon, somatostatin, calcitonin, ACTH, FSH, LH, PRL, TSH, others *(Cytoplasm)*	Hormone-producing cells	Hormone-producing tumors	ID of hormone products in tumors.	May not correlate well with serum levels of the same markers.
Human chorionic gonado tropin *(hCG, B-HCG)*	Beta chain of the hormone *(Cytoplasm)*	Syncytiotrophoblasts	Choriocarcinoma, giant cells in seminomas, placental site tumors (weak)	ID of trophoblastic differentiation in tumors	
Human placental lactogen *(HPL, hPL)*	Hormone *(Cytoplasm)*	Trophoblast	Choriocarcinoma (may be weak), complete moles (strong), partial moles (weak), some lung and stomach carcinomas	ID of trophoblastic differentiation in tumors.	
Inhibin— alpha subunit	Hormone produced by ovarian granulosa cells and prostate, inhibits FSH production *(Cytoplasm)*	Ovarian granulosa cells, Sertoli cells, pregnancy luteomas, ovarian follicles, syncytiotrophoblast, adrenal cortex, hepatocytes	Granulosa cell tumors, juvenile granulosa cell tumors, Sertoli and Leydig cell tumors, ovarian stromal cells around other tumors, hydatidiform moles, choriocarcinoma, thecofibroma, adrenal cortical tumor, granular cell tumor	ID of sex cord stromal differentiation in ovarian tumors. Distinguishes adrenal cortical tumors (>70% +) vs. HCC (<5% +) and RCC (<5% +)	
INI-1 *(BAF47/Snf5)*	Chromatin remodeling complex *(Nucleus)*	All normal cells	Deleted or mutated in pediatric rhabdoid tumors (tumors are negative) and CNS atypical teratoid/rhabdoid tumors	Lost in 90% of epithelioid sarcomas (conventional and proximal) and lost in 50% of epithelioid MPNST ID of rhabdoid tumors and atypical teratoid/rhabdoid tumors	

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
General Markers					
Keratins	Intermediate filaments *(Cytoplasm)*	Epithelial cells	Carcinomas, mesotheliomas, desmoplastic small round cell tumors (dot-like pattern), thymomas, chordomas, synovial sarcomas, epithelioid sarcoma, leiomyosarcoma, trophoblastic tumors, some other sarcomas, rarely melanomas	ID of poorly differentiated carcinomas Cytokeratins 7 and 20 can be used to help identify the site of origin of carcinomas	
AE1/AE3	Two monoclonal antibodies. AE1 detects 10, 15, 16, and 19. AE3 detects 1 to 8. *(Cytoplasm)*	Epithelial cells, mesothelial cells	Most carcinomas. The only common carcinomas that are frequently negative are HCC (70% negative) and RCC, clear cell type (20% negative) Epithelioid hemangioendothelioma, epithelioid sarcoma, synovial sarcoma, mesothelioma, adenomatoid tumor, germ cell tumors	ID of epithelial differentiation in tumors HCC (–/+) versus cholangiocarcinoma and metastatic carcinomas (+)	Good broad spectrum keratin
CAM 5.2	8, 18 *(Cytoplasm)*	Simple and glandular epithelium	Most carcinomas including those usually negative for Ck7 and 20: HCC, prostatic carcinoma, thymic carcinoma, gastric carcinoma, renal cell carcinoma, small cell carcinoma Carcinoid tumor, thymoma, germ cell tumors, mesothelioma, dendritic cells Synovial sarcoma, epithelioid sarcoma Many squamous cell carcinomas are negative	ID of carcinomas that may be negative for Ck7 and Ck20 Paget disease (+) versus squamous cell carcinoma (-) Positivity for dendritic cells in lymph nodes and elsewhere may be confused for micrometastases	May be positive when other keratins are negative

Keratin 5/6	5/6 *(Cytoplasm)*	Basal cells, stratum spinosum of epidermis, mesothelial cells	Squamous cell carcinomas, TCC, epithelioid mesotheliomas, squamous metaplasia in adenocarcinomas, thymic carcinoma	Less frequently present in non-squamous cell carcinomas Epithelioid mesothelioma (+) vs. pulmonary adeno (–) Present in some "triple negative" breast cancers — may identify a poor prognostic group	Has limited use in routine practice
Keratin 7	7 *(Cytoplasm)*	Simple epithelia, respiratory epithelium, transitional epithelium, endothelial cells of small veins and lymphatics Not present in squamous epithelium	Most adenocarcinomas of glandular epithelial origin, TCC, mesothelioma, neuroendocrine neoplasms Not Merkel cell carcinoma or colon carcinoma Rare in clear cell RCC (but present in other variants), prostate carcinoma, HCC, lung small cell carcinoma, thymoma, carcinoid Not present in squamous cell carcinomas of the skin, but may be present in squamous cell carcinomas arising from non-keratinizing epithelium (e.g., cervical carcinoma)	The combination of Ck7 and Ck20 is used to distinguish carcinomas arising at different sites (see Tables 7-3 to 7-7)	
Keratin 14	14 *(Cytoplasm)*	Squamous cells, myoepithelial cells	Squamous cell carcinomas, thymoma, myoepithelial neoplasms, oncocytic neoplasms (Hurthle cell adenoma of the thyroid), some triple negative ("basaloid") breast cancers	ID of keratin in spindle cell breast carcinomas and other triple negative breast cancers	
Keratin 20	20 *(Cytoplasm)*	Gastric foveolar epithelium, intestinal villi and crypt epithelium, Merkel cells, taste buds, umbrella cells of urothelium, subsets of epithelial cells Not present in nonepithelial cells	Colon carcinoma, Merkel cell carcinoma, TCC, adenocarcinoma of the bladder, pancreatic carcinoma, cholangiocarcinoma, mucinous ovarian carcinoma, esophageal adenocarcinoma	Merkel cell carcinomas Ck20 positive, whereas most similar tumors are negative ID of metastatic colon carcinomas (the pattern of Ck7 negative, Ck20 positive, is most frequently seen in this carcinoma, but can rarely be seen in other types)	

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
General Markers					
PAN-K *(MNF-116)*	Broad-spectrum detection of keratins including 5, 6, 8, 17, and 18 *(Cytoplasm)*	Epithelial cells including simple epithelium and squamous cells		Detection of keratin in all carcinomas, including poorly differentiated carcinomas (especially spindle cell squamous cell carcinomas) May be more sensitive than AE1/AE3 for carcinomas with myoepithelial ("basal") features due to inclusion of the "basal" keratin Ck17	
34βE12 *(903)*	HMW keratins including 1, 5, 10, 14 *(Cytoplasm)*	Complex epithelia, basal cells, myoepithelial cells	TCC, cholangiocarcinoma, squamous cell carcinoma, non-mucinous bronchioloalveolar lung carcinoma, RCC (papillary and chromophobe types), mesothelioma, papillary thyroid carcinoma, thymic carcinoma, lymphoepithelial carcinoma	TCC (+) versus prostate carcinoma (-) or RCC (-). Prostate carcinoma (no basal cells) versus benign lesions (with some + basal cells present). Can be combined with p63 for this use. ID of keratin 14 in triple negative ("basaloid") breast cancers (Ck14 is also available separately).	
Ki-67 (MIB-1)	Protein found during the entire cell cycle but not in G0 *(Nucleus)*	Any cycling cell	Any cycling tumor	Used as a prognostic marker for some tumors Detects number of cycling cells in Burkitt lymphoma and large B-cell lymphoma Aberrant membrane and cytoplasmic immunoreactivity is present in trabecular hyalinizing adenoma of the thyroid and sclerosing hemangioma of the lung	MIB-1 recognizes an epitope preserved in formalin-fixed tissue
Laminin	Component of basement membranes *(Basement membrane)*	Basement membranes	Nerve sheath tumors, smooth muscle tumors	Loss associated with stromal invasion by carcinomas Present in microglandular adenosis of the breast.	

Lysozyme *(Ly)*	Muramidase (mucolytic enzyme) *(Cytoplasm)*	Circulating monocytes, some tissue macrophages, granulocytes, salivary gland, lacrimal gland, stomach and colon epithelial cells (inflamed or regenerative), apocrine glands, Paneth cells, some other epithelial cells	Salivary gland tumors, stomach and colon carcinomas AML with monocytic differentiation	Marker for histiocytes but not specific. May mark activated phagocytic macrophages. Evaluation of myeloid leukemias.	Not specific for identification of solid tumors
MAC 387 *(L1 antigen, calprotectin, calgranulin, cystic fibrosis antigen)*	Three polypeptide chains released with activation or death of neutrophils *(Cytoplasm)*	Neutrophils, monocytes, some tissue macrophages, eosinophils, squamous mucosa, reactive skin, synovial lining cells	Lung carcinomas (not small cell or carcinoid), squamous cell carcinomas Histiocytic neoplasms (but not Langerhans cells)	Marker for macrophages (but not as specific as CD68)	Belongs to the S100 protein family Cells can passively take up antigen resulting in false positive results
Mammaglobin *(MGB1)*	Secretory glycoprotein *(Cytoplasm)*	Breast epithelium, sweat glands, endocervix, endometrium	Breast cancer (50%), endometrioid adenocarcinoma (~40%), salivary gland carcinoma (~20%), melanoma (~6%)	ID of metastatic breast cancer (+ in about 50%)	
MDM2 *(mouse double minute 2 homolog)*	A ubiquitin protein ligase that regulates p53 stability *(Nucleus)*	Not seen in normal cells	Liposarcomas (>90%) and MPNST (60%)	Atypical lipomatous tumor/well-differentiated liposarcoma and dedifferentiated liposarcoma (>90% +) vs. benign adipose tumors (<5% +)	CDK4 has a similar pattern
MELAN-A or MART-1 *(melanoma antigen recognized by T cells, A103, M2-7C10)*	Melanocyte differentiation antigen *(Cytoplasm)*	Antibody MC-7C10 is positive in melanocytes of skin, uvea, and retina Antibody A103 is also positive in adrenal cortex, granulosa and theca cells of the ovary, Leydig cells	Melanomas (but < 50% of spindle cell or desmoplastic melanomas), PEComas Antibody A103 is also positive in adrenocortical tumors, Leydig cell tumor, granulosa cell tumor	ID of melanomas. The antibodies are not positive in melanophages and may be more specific for the detection of micrometastases in lymph nodes. Antibody A103 distinguishes adrenocortical tumors (≥50% +) vs. HCC (-) and RCC (-).	More sensitive than HMB45 Peptides are used for melanoma immunotherapy A103 has a broader spectrum of immunoreactivity than MC-7C10

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
General Markers					
MITF *(microphthalmia transcription factor, Mit-f, D5, MiTF)*	Basic-helix-loop-helix-leucine zipper transcription factor that regulates tyrosinase and other melanogenic proteins *(Nucleus)*	Melanocytes, pigmented cells of the retina, mast cells, osteoclasts	Melanoma, PEComa, angiomyolipoma, clear cell sarcoma	Melanoma vs. other tumors – not as specific as other melanoma markers (also present in other tumors)	Mutations result in autosomal dominant Waardenburg syndrome type 2a (hereditary deafness and skin hypopigmentation)
MUC2 and **MUC1**	Mucins *(Cytoplasm)*	MUC1 is typical of pancreaticobiliary-type differentiation and MUC2 of intestinal differentiation	Many adenocarcinomas	Identification of colonic metastases (expression more conmmon than in lung or ovary) For pancreatic/ampullary tumors, MUC2 positive tumors may have better prognosis than MUC1 tumors Cholangiocarcinoma (MUC1 80%) vs. HCC (negative) IPMN is usually MUC2+/MUC1–, most PanIN are MUC2-/MUC1+, ductal adenoca is MUC1+ except colloid type which is MUC2+	MUC2 is a marker of intestinal cells – similar pattern as CDX2
Myf-4 *(MRF4, myogenin)*	Human homologue of myogenin - muscle regulatory protein *(Nucleus)*	Striated muscle	Rhabdomyosarcoma	ID of skeletal muscle differentiation in tumors	Better than MyoD1
MyoD1	Nuclear phosphoprotein, role in myogenic regulation *(Nucleus)*	Developing muscle tissues (myoblasts), adult muscle is negative	Rhabdomyosarcoma (especially poorly differentiated tumors), mixed Mullerian tumors	ID of skeletal muscle differentiation in tumors	Background positivity is often high, making interpretation difficult

Myoglobin	Oxygen-binding protein *(Cytoplasm)*	Striated muscle (including cardiac muscle), not smooth muscle	Tumors of striated muscle (rhabdomyosarcoma + 50%), but often negative in poorly differentiated tumors	ID of skeletal muscle differentiation in tumors	More specific but less sensitive than actin and desmin
Myosin – smooth muscle myosin heavy chain *(SM-MHC; SMMS-1, M3558)*	Contractile protein in smooth muscle that interacts with actin *(Cytoplasm)*	Visceral and vascular smooth muscle, myoepithelial cells of the breast	Tumors with myoepithelial cells	Marker for myoepithelial cells in the breast – may have less positivity in vascular smooth muscle cells and myofibroblasts	Antibodies to different isoforms will detect different types of muscle fibers
Myosin – fast myosin *(MY-32, M4276)*	Contractile protein in skeletal muscle that interacts with actin *(Cytoplasm)*	Striated muscle - Type 2 fibers (not present in cardiac or smooth muscle)	Rhabdomyosarcoma (some; especially pleomorphic variant)	ID of skeletal muscle differentiation in tumors	
NANOG	Embryonic stem cell transcription factor *(Nucleus)*	Embryonic cells	Embryonal carcinoma, seminoma, CNS germinoma	Seminoma and embryonal carcinoma vs. other germ cell tumors May detect "stem cells" in tumors	Stronger and more diffusely positive compared to OCT3/4. Named after Tir Na Nog, the mythologic Celtic land of eternal youth
Nestin	Intermediate filament *(Cytoplasm)*	Neural stem/progenitor cells, embryonic neural cells, neuronal and glial cells Retina, striated muscle, cardiac muscle, skin, liver, pancreas, kidneys, testes, adrenals	Neurocytomas, neuroblastomas, gliomas, glioblastomas, astrocytomas, ependymomas, medulloblastomas, Schwannomas Carcinomas, GIST, others		
NeuN *(NEUronal Nuclei, A60)*	DNA binding neuron-specific protein expressed at terminal differentiation *(Nucleus)*	Neuronal cells including cerebellum, cerebral cortex, peripheral ganglion cells Not glia, pineocytes, Schwann cells	Central neurocytomas May be focally positive in other CNS neoplasms	ID of neuronal differentiation	
Neurofilaments *(70 + 200kD, NFP)*	Intermediate filaments with three subunits *(Cytoplasm)*	Neuronal cells, adrenal medulla	Tumors of neuronal origin or with neuronal differentiation, neuroblastoma, medulloblastoma, retinoblastoma, Ewing's/PNET, esthesioneuroblastoma, Merkel cell carcinoma, some endocrine tumors (carcinoids, pheochromocytomas)	ID of neuronal differentiation in tumors ID of Merkel cell carcinomas	

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
General Markers					
Neuron- specific enolase *(NSE – do not confuse with the enzyme non-specific esterase)*	Gamma-gamma enolase isoenzyme *(Cytoplasm)*	Neuroectodermal and neuroendocrine cells, more weakly striated and smooth muscle, megakaryocytes, T cells, some platelets, neurons, pituitary cells, hepatocytes	Neuroectodermal and neuroendocrine tumors, melanomas (including desmoplastic melanomas), many breast carcinomas, germ cell tumors, alveolar soft part sarcoma	ID of neuronal or neuroendocrine differentiation in tumors	Lacks specificity
OCT4 *(OCT3, OCT3/4, POU5F1)*	POU-domain transcription factor (POU5F1 gene) *(Nucleus)*	Embryonic stem cells and pluripotent germ cells	Seminoma, intratubular germ cell neoplasia, embryonal carcinoma	Identification of seminoma and embryonal carcinoma. Other epithelioid and round cell neoplasms are negative	More specific than PLAP for this purpose
OLIG2	Member of the basic helix-loop-helix transcription factor family *(Nucleus)*	Oligodendrocytes	Diffuse glioma (100%), may be positive in other CNS tumors. Sparse positivity in ependymomas T-ALL with OLIG2 translocation	Primary CNS tumor (+) vs. metastasis (-)	
p16 *(MTS1, CDKN2)*	Binds to and inhibits the cyclin-dependent kinases cdk4 and cdk6 *(Cytoplasm and nucleus)*	Absent	Cervical squamous cell carcinomas and adenocarcinomas (both in situ and invasive), endocervical carcinoma, endometrial carcinoma Some basaloid squamous cell carcinomas of the tonsil in young patients that are associated with HPV16.	Evaluation of cervical lesions Possible use predicting tonsillar site for metastatic squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck	Overexpression is due to HPV-induced cell cycle dysregulation
p53 *(multiple antibodies to wild type and mutant forms)*	Tumor suppressor gene product – probably most frequently mutated gene in malignancy *(Nucleus)*	Overexpression uncommon or absent in normal cells or benign tumors	Many malignant tumors – but not specific for malignancy	Overexpression may be used as a prognostic factor	Different antibodies recognize different wild type and mutant forms of the protein and will give different results

p57 *(kip2, p57^{KIP2})*	Cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor (CDKI) acting to inhibit cell proliferation, paternally imprinted *(Nucleus)*	Cytotrophoblast, intermediate trophoblast, villous stromal cells, decidual stromal cells, absent in syncytiotrophoblast		Diploid complete moles show absent or low expression in cytotrophoblast and villous stromal cells (may be present in villous intermediate trophoblast and decidual stromal cells), partial moles and hydropic abortions have normal expression	
p63	Protein with at least six major isotypes, including deltaNp63, member of the p53 family *(Nucleus)*	Proliferating basal cells of cervix, urothelium, prostate, and myoepithelial cells of breast, basal squamous cells, squamous metaplasia	Squamous cell carcinomas, TCC, adenomyoepithelioma, adenoid cystic carcinoma, nasopharyngeal carcinoma, "basal type" breast carcinomas, papillary carcinoma of the thyroid, others	ID of myoepithelial cells in breast lesions Diagnosis of prostatic carcinoma by showing absence of basal cells (more sensitive when combined with 34BE12) Basaloid squamous lung cancer (+) vs. small cell (-) ID of metastatic poorly differentiated squamous cell carcinomas	Easier to interpret than SMA in breast lesions as myofibroblasts are negative
Placental alkaline phosphatase *(PLAP)*	Alkaline phosphatase secreted by trophoblast *(Cytoplasm)*	Placenta (trophoblast)	Germ cell tumors (but not spermatocytic seminoma), intratubular germ cell neoplasia, partial moles, some carcinomas of breast, ovary, lung, stomach, and pancreas, some rhabdomyosarcomas (esp. alveolar type)	Absence of immunoreactivity makes a germ cell tumor unlikely. However, spermatocytic seminomas and immature teratomas are negative. ID of intratubular germ cell neoplasia.	
Progesterone receptor *(PR, PgR, PgR636)*	Steroid binding protein *(Nucleus)*	Normal breast epithelial cells, endometrial cells, many smooth muscle cells, breast lobular stroma	Breast carcinomas, gynecologic carcinomas, some skin adnexal tumors, secretory meningiomas, endometrial stromal sarcomas, some leiomyomas, myofibroblastic tumors, rarely other tumors	Prognosis and treatment of breast cancer ID of metastatic breast cancer	
Prealbumin *(Transthyretin, TTR)*	Plasma transport protein for retinol and thyroxine *(Cytoplasm)*	Pancreatic islet cells, choroid plexus, retinal pigment epithelium, liver	Pancreatic islet cell tumors, carcinoid tumors, choroid plexus papillomas, choroid plexus carcinomas (may be focal or absent)	ID of choroid plexus neoplasms Evaluation of some forms of amyloidosis	Major subunit protein in some forms of inherited systemic amyloidosis

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
General Markers					
Prostate specific antigen *(PSA)*	Member of kallikrein family of serine protease isolated from human seminal plasma *(Cytoplasm)*	Normal prostatic epithelium, urachal remnants, endometrium, transitional cells of bladder	Prostatic carcinomas, some breast carcinomas	ID of prostatic carcinomas (may be lost in some poorly differentiated carcinomas). Seminal vesicle carcinomas are negative	More specific than PAP Used as a serum screening test for prostate cancer
Prostate acid phosphatase *(PrAP, PAP)*	Isoenzyme of acid phosphatase *(Cytoplasm)*	Normal prostatic epithelium, periurethral glands, anal glands, macrophages	Prostatic carcinomas, TCC, rectal carcinoids	ID of prostatic carcinomas (may be lost in some poorly differentiated carcinomas)	
RCC *(Renal cell carcinoma marker, gp200)*	Glycoprotein on surface of renal tubules, breast epitethelial cells, epididymis *(Cytoplasm, membrane)*	Renal tubules, breast, epididymis	Clear cell and papillary RCC, breast carcinoma, embryonal carcinoma	Clear cell and papillary RCC (+) vs. chromophobe carcinoma (–/+) and oncocytoma (-)	
RET *(Rearranged during transfection)*	RET-proto-oncogene – surface glycoprotein of the receptor tyrosine kinase family *(Cytoplasm)*	Neurons, embyronic kidney	Papillary thyroid carcinomas (78%), follicular variant of papillary carcinoma (63%), Hurthle cell carcinoma (57%), insular carcinoma (50%), medullary carcinoma, not present in follicular carcinomas or benign lesions Neuroblastoma, pheochromocytoma	Evaluation of thyroid tumors	Germline mutations occur in MEN2A and 2B (10q11.2), familial medullary thyroid carcinoma, and some cases of Hirschsprung's disease

S-100 protein	Calcium-binding protein isolated from the CNS (member of the EF hand family) *(Nucleus and cytoplasm)*	Glial and Schwann cells, melanocytes, chondrocytes, adipocytes, myoepithelial cells, Langerhans cells, macrophages, reticulum cells of lymph nodes, eccrine glands, others	Melanoma (including spindle cell and desmoplastic types), clear cell sarcoma, schwannoma, chordoma, ependymoma, astroglioma, Langerhans proliferative disorders, some carcinomas (e.g., breast, ovary endometrial, thyroid), granular cell tumor, histiocytic sarcoma, myoepithelioma	ID of melanoma (if negative, melanoma is highly unlikely) ID of Langerhans proliferative disorders Sustentacular cells in pheochromocytomas (loss may be poor prognostic factor) ID of neural tumors ID of cellular schwannomas (more strongly and diffusely positive than in MPNST)	Langerhans cells and macrophages in tumors may be misinterpreted as positivity in the tumor itself S100 is very soluble and may be eluted from frozen tissues
Smoothelin	Smooth muscle specific cytoskeletal protein *(Cytoplasm)*	Fully differentiated smooth muscle cells (not present in noncontractile smooth muscle cells or myofibroblasts), weak in perivascular smooth muscle		May distinguish muscularis propria (+, strong, diffuse) vs. muscularis mucosaae (– or weak and focal) in urinary bladder biopsies	
SOX2	Embryonic stem cell transcription factor *(Nucleus)*		Embryonal carcinoma	Embryonal carcinoma (+) vs. seminoma (–)	
Synaptophysin	Transmembrane glycoprotein found in presynaptic vesicles *(Cytoplasm)*	Neuroectodermal and neuroendocrine cells, neurons	Medulloblastoma, neuroblastoma, pheochromocytoma, paragangliomas, carcinoids, small cell carcinoma, medullary carcinoma of the thyroid, neural neoplasms, pancreatic islet cell tumors	ID of neuroendocrine differentiation in tumors ID of neuronal differentiation in CNS tumors	
Synuclein-1	Neuron-specific protein associated with synaptosomes *(Lewy bodies)*	Brain	Present in Lewy bodies (Lewy body dementia and Parkinson's disease)		
Tau	Microtubule-associated protein *(Cytoplasm, extracellular)*	Normal neuronal cell bodies and dendrites, neuropil, glial cells	Abnormal amounts in Alzheimer's disease in neurofibrillary tangles and senile plaques	Evaluation of Alzheimer's disease, Pick's disease, supranuclear palsy corticobasal degeneration, others	
TFE3	Transcription factor *(Nucleus)*	Not reported	Alveolar soft part sarcoma, Xp11.2 or TFE3 translocation renal carcinomas in children and young adults	Other tumors and normal adult tissues are negative	These carcinomas have translocations involving the TFE3 gene resulting in its overexpression

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
General Markers					
Thyroglobulin	Glycoprotein produced by thyroid follicular cells *(Cytoplasm)*	Thyroid follicles	Thyroid carcinomas (papillary, follicular, and Hurthle cell types, rarely present in medullary carcinomas)	ID of metastatic thyroid carcinoma Loss may be a poor prognostic factor	Thyroglobulin can diffuse into metastatic tumors to the thyroid.
TTF-1 *(thyroid transcription factor 1)*	Transcription factor for thyroglobulin, thyroid peroxidase, Clara cell secretory protein, and surfactant proteins *(Nucleus; aberrant cytoplasm positivity in HCC)*	Thyroid, lung, and some brain tissues	Thyroid carcinomas (including medullary carcinoma; may be negative in anaplastic carcinoma), lung adenocarcinomas (75% – but lower in mucinous bronchioloalveolar carcinomas), small cell carcinoma of lung (>90%), HCC (cytoplasmic), absent or focal in most other adenocarcinomas	Mesothelioma (–) vs. adenocarcinoma (+/–) Lung adenocarcinoma (+/–) vs. metastatic breast carcinoma (–) Small cell carcinoma of lung (+) vs. metastasis from other sites (–), but some extrapulmonary small cell carcinomas can also be (+) HCC (cytoplasmic 71%), rare in other tumor types	The detection of cytoplasmic TTF-1 may depend on the specific antibody used and the antigen-retrieval method
Tyrosinase	Melanogenic protein *(Cytoplasm)*	Melanocytes		Melanoma vs. other tumors (sensitivity similar to MART-1 and HMB-45)	
Ulex *(Ulex Europaeus I lectin, UEA 1)*	Lectin, fucose residues on blood group H *(Cytoplasm)*	Endothelial cells	Vascular tumors, some carcinomas	Evaluation of angiogenesis	Not very specific
Vimentin	Intermediate filament *(Cytoplasm)*	Mesenchymal cells, fibroblasts, endothelial cells, chondrocytes, histiocytes, lymphocytes, many glial cells, myoepithelial cells, smooth muscle	All mesenchymal tumors, neural tumors, melanomas, meningiomas, chordoma, Leydig cell tumor, granulosa cell tumor, Sertoli cell tumor, adrenal cortical adenoma May be co-expressed with keratin in carcinomas of endometrium, thyroid, kidney (clear cell), adrenal cortex, lung, salivary gland, ovary, and liver	May be poor prognostic factor if co-expressed with keratin or GFAP	Can be used as an internal control for immunogenicity Not a specific marker for tumor type or line of differentation

WT1 *(Wilms tumor 1 protein)*	Zinc finger transcription factor *(Cytoplasm, nucleus)*	Sertoli cells, decidual cells of uterus, granulosa cells of ovary, blood vessels, myelocytic cells	Wilms tumors (epithelial and blastemal components), epithelial mesotheliomas (nuclei – 80% to 90%), acute leukemia (nuclei), adenocarcinomas (cytoplasmic; especially breast (mucinous breast cancers can have nuclear positivity (64%), ovary), desmoplastic small cell tumors (nuclear and cytoplasmic), rhabdomyosarcoma	Mesothelioma (+, nuclear) vs. adenocarcinoma (adenocarcinoma usually negative for nuclear positivity except for ovarian) – use mouse monoclonal antibody Desmoplastic small cell tumors	Gene located on 11p13 and is inactivated in 5 to 10% of sporadic Wilms tumors and nearly 100% of Denys-Drash syndrome patients ABs detect epitopes at different ends of the protein and may give different results. Not very specific.
Hematopathology Markers					
ALK protein *(Anaplastic lymphoma kinase, ALK-1, p80, CD246)*	The ALK gene (2p23) (a tyrosine kinase receptor) is translocated to part of the nucleophosmin (NPM) gene (5q35) to form the fusion protein p80 and is overexpressed *(Cytoplasm, nucleus)*	Nervous system, T cells	Anaplastic (CD30+) large cell lymphomas (about one third have t[2;5][p23; q35]). ALK negative anaplastic lymphomas may have trisomy 2. Some inflammatory myofibroblastic tumors	ID of anaplastic large cell lymphomas	The pattern of immunoreactivity varies with the translocation present
Alpha-1-antichymotrypsin *(ACH)*	Serine protease inhibitor *(Cytoplasm)*	Histiocytes, granulocytes, others	Histiocytic tumors, many adenocarcinomas, melanomas, many sarcomas	Marker for histiocytes but CD68 is more specific	Not specific for tumor type
Alpha-1-antitrypsin *(AAT, alpha-1-AT)*	Glycoprotein synthesized in the liver that inhibits proteolytic enzymes (especially elastase) *(Cytoplasm)*	Histiocytes, reticulum cells, mast cells, Paneth cells, salivary gland	HCC, germ cell tumors, histiocytic neoplasms, colon and lung carcinomas, others	Accumulates in liver cells in AAT deficiency	Not specific for tumor type CD68 is a more specific marker for macrophages

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
Hematopathology Markers					
Bcl-2	Protein involved in inhibition of apoptosis *(Membrane, cytoplasm)*	Medullary lymphocytes and epithelial cells of the normal thymus, mantle and T zone small lymphocytes	CLL, mantle cell lymphoma, follicular center cell (FCC) lymphoma, marginal zone lymphoma Synovial sarcoma, other soft tissue tumors	FCC lymphomas (+) vs. reactive follicles (–). Hyperplastic marginal zones of the spleen, abdominal LNs, and ilial lymphoid tissue are (+) Malignant thymomas may have greater reactivity than other thymomas Synovial sarcoma is more frequently positive compared to mesothelioma	Involved in the t(14;18) found in 90% of FCC lymphomas Not specific for ID of solid tumors
Bcl-6	Proto-oncogene – Kruppel-type zinc finger protein with homology to transcription factors *(Nucleus)*	Normal germinal center B cells	Follicular lymphomas, diffuse large B-cell lymphomas, Burkitt lymphoma, mediastinal large B-cell lymphoma, LP HD Not present in B-CLL, hairy cell leukemia, mantle cell lymphoma, and marginal zone lymphomas	Evaluation of B-cell lymphomas	Involved in gene rearrangements at 3q27 in lymphomas
Blood group antigens	A, B, and H antigens *(Membrane)*	Epithelial cells, endothelial cells, erythrocytes	Abnormally expressed or lost in many carcinomas	Sometimes helpful in identifying specimens	H is diminished by decalcification but not A and B antigens
BOB.1 *(B-cell Oct-binding protein 1)*	Coactivator that interacts with Oct transcription factors in B cells *(Cytoplasm)*	B cells (including plasma cells)	B-cell lymphomas and leukemias Reed-Sternberg cells in LP HD, usually absent in other HD types	Evaluation of HD	BOB.1 and Oct2 are necessary (but not sufficient) for Ig expression
BSAP *(B-cell specific activator protein, Pax-5)*	Transcription factor encoded by the Pax-5 gene that regulates B-lineage specific genes *(? Nuclear)*	B cells	All B-cell neoplasms and HD	Merkel cell tumors and pulmonary small cell carcinomas have been reported to be positive	Not reliable in Zenker's fixed tissue

CD1a *(T6)*	Membrane glycoprotein *(Membrane)*	Cortical thymocytes (immature T cells), Langerhans cells, dendritic cells	Langerhans proliferative disorders, lymphoblastic lymphoma	Evaluation of Langerhans proliferative disorders Evaluation of lymphoblastic lymphoma	
CD2 *(TE, T11, rT3, Leu 5a + b, LFA-2)*	Glycoprotein mediating adhesion of activated T cells and thymocytes with antigen presenting cells and target cells, functions in E rosette formation *(Membrane)*	T cells, NK cells, cortical thymocytes	T-cell neoplasms, may be aberrantly lost in peripheral T-cell neoplasms	Pan T-cell marker	
CD3 *(T3)*	C3 antigen (five polypeptide chains) *(Membrane, cytoplasm)*	T cells, cortical thymocytes	T-cell neoplasms, may be aberrantly lost in peripheral T-cell neoplasms Anaplastic large cell lymphoma is often negative	Best pan T-cell marker	In paraffin sections, NK cells may also be positive
CD4 *(TH, T4, Leu 3)*	Transmembrane glycoprotein, HIV receptor *(Membrane)*	T helper/inducer cells, macrophages, Langerhans cells	MF, other T-cell neoplasms	Evaluation of MF Evaluation of T-cell neoplasms	
CD5 *(Leu 1)*	Transmembrane glycoprotein *(Membrane)*	T cells and B cell subsets (mantle zone)	T-cell leukemias and lymphomas, aberrantly expressed in low-grade B-cell lymphomas (CLL or mantle cell lymphoma) Thymic carcinoma, adenocarcinomas, mesothelioma (cytoplasmic)	Classification of low-grade B-cell lymphomas Evaluation of T-cell lymphomas (this marker is frequently lost) Thymic carcinoma (~40%) vs. thymoma (<10%) vs. pulmonary squamous cell carcinoma (<5%)	
CD7 *(Leu 9)*	Membrane-bound glycoprotein *(Membrane)*	Precursor T cells, T cell subsets, NK cells, thymocytes	T-cell lymphomas and leukemias	Frequently (50%) lost in T-cell lymphomas versus reactive T cells (+) Evaluation of T-cell leukemias	

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
Hematopathology Markers					
CD8 *(T8, Leu 2)*	Two glycoprotein chains *(Membrane)*	T cell subsets, NK cells, T cytotoxic/suppressor cells	T-cell lymphomas and leukemias	Evaluation of MF and T-cell lymphomas (this marker is frequently lost)	
CD10 *(CALLA [common acute leukemia antigen], J5, neprilysin)*	Cell surface metalloendopeptidase that inactivates peptides *(Membrane)*	Precursor B cells, granulocytes, rare cells in reactive follicles, myoepithelial cells of breast, bile canaliculi, fibroblasts, brush border of kidney and gut	Follicular lymphomas, pre-B-ALL, Burkitt lymphoma, CML, angioimmunoblastic lymphoma RCC (clear cell and papillary), HCC, rhabdomyosarcoma, endometrial stromal sarcoma	Evaluation of follicular center cell lymphomas Evaluation of leukemias Myoepithelial cell marker in breast Endometrial stromal sarcoma (+) vs. leiomyosarcoma (–) (but caldesmon is preferred for this purpose)	
CD11b *(Mac-1)*	Cell surface receptor for the C3bi complement fragment *(Membrane)*	Granulocytes, monocytes, macrophages	Myelomonocytic leukemias		
CD11c	Member of the beta(2) integrin family that mediates adhesion to vascular endothelium, transendothelial migration, chemotaxis, and phagocytosis *(Membrane)*	Myeloid cells, NK cells, dendritic cells, activated lymphoid cells	Hairy cell leukemia, B-cell prolymphocytic leukemia, some B-CLL, marginal zone lymphoma (MALT)		
CD13 *(My 7)*	Aminopeptidase-N, a type II integral membrane metalloprotease functioning in cell surface antigen presentation, receptor for coronaviruses *(Membrane, cytoplasm)*	Granulocytes, macrophages, bone marrow stromal cells, osteoclasts, renal tubules, intestinal brush border, cells lining bile duct canaliculi, endothelial cells, fibroblasts, brain cells	AML, CML with blast crisis, some ALL	Classification of leukemias	Requires frozen tissue

CD15 *(Leu-M1)*	3-fucosyl-N-acetyllactosamine, X-hapten - CHO moiety linked to cell membrane protein *(Membrane and granular perinuclear)*	Granulocytes, monocytes	Reed-Sternberg cells (not LP HD), some large T-cell lymphomas, MF, some leukemias, some epithelial cells (adenocarcinomas), CMV-infected cells	Adenocarcinomas (+) versus mesotheliomas (–) Evaluation of HD	
CD16	Low affinity transmembrane Fc receptor for IgG *(Membrane)*	NK cells, granulocytes, activated macrophages, subsets of T cells	Extranodal NK/T-cell lymphoma, some hepatosplenic T-cell lymphomas		
CD19 *(B4)*	B cell type I integral membrane glycoprotein *(Membrane)*	B cells, follicular dendritic cells, early myelomonocytic cells	pre-B-ALL and B-cell neoplasms (but not plasma cell lesions)	Good pan B-cell marker	Fresh or frozen tissue required
CD20 *(L26, B1, Leu16)*	B cell non-glycosylated phosphoprotein functioning as a receptor during B cell activation and differentiation *(Membrane, cytoplasm)*	B cells, monocytes, not plasma cells	B-cell lymphomas, Reed-Sternberg cells in LP HD, not plasmacytomas	Best pan B-cell marker Evaluation of B-cell lymphomas Evaluation of HD	Under investigation as a target for clinical treatment of B-cell lymphomas L26 is best for formalin-fixed tissue May be preserved in necrotic tissue
CD21 *(B2)*	Type I integral membrane glycoprotein functioning as the receptor for the C3d fragment of complement C3, CR2, receptor for EBV *(Membrane)*	Follicular dendritic cells, mature B cells	Marginal zone (MALT) lymphomas, CLL (B cell), some T-cell ALL, follicular dendritic cell tumors	ID of residual follicular structure in LP HD and other diseases Evaluation of low-grade B-cell lymphomas ID of follicular dendritic cell sarcoma	

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
Hematopathology Markers					
CD22 *(BL-CAM)*	Type I integral membrane glycoprotein *(Membrane. cytoplasm)*	B cells, precursor B cells	B-cell neoplasms (but not plasma cell lesions)	Pan B-cell marker	
CD23	Membrane glycoprotein, low affinity IgE receptor *(Membrane)*	Subpopulation of peripheral B cells, follicular dendritic cells	CLL, but usually not mantle zone lymphoma, Maltomas, or follicular lymphomas	Evaluation of low-grade B-cell lymphomas	
CD25 *(IL-2 receptor)*	Interleukin-2 receptor *(Membrane, cytoplasm)*	Subpopulation of T cells, myeloid precursors, oligodendrocytes HTLV-1 transformed T and B cells	Hairy cell leukemia, adult T-cell lymphoma/leukemia, some T-cell prolymphocytic leukemia, precursor lymphoblastic lymphoma, and anaplastic large cell lymphoma	Evaluation of cutaneous T-cell lymphomas for potential anti-CD25 therapy Aberrant expression by a subset of neoplastic mast cells	
CD30 *(Ki-1, BERH2)*	Single chain transmembrane glycoprotein, homologous to the nerve growth factor superfamily *(Cytoplasm, membrane and golgi)*	Activated B and T cells, some plasma cells, immunoblasts, interdigitating cells, histiocytes, follicular center cells, decidualized endometrium, reactive mesothelial cells, most other tissues negative	Anaplastic (CD30+) large cell lymphomas, large B-cell lymphoma, primary effusion lymphoma, mediastinal large B-cell lymphoma, Reed-Sternberg cells (not LP HD), enteropathy T-cell lymphoma, peripheral T-cell lymphoma, EBV transformed B cells Embryonal carcinoma, vascular tumors (not KS), some mesotheliomas, rarely carcinomas are positive	Evaluation of anaplastic (CD30+) lymphomas Evaluation of HD (Reed-Sternberg cells are positive except in LP HD) Evaluation of peripheral T-cell lymphoma (large cells may be positive)	
CD33 *(My 9)*	Myeloid specific receptor (sialic acid–binding immunoglobulin-like lectin or Siglec-3) *(Membrane)*	Granulocytes, monocytes	AML	Evaluation of leukemias	Gemtuzumab ozogamicin is a humanized CD33 antibody linked to an antitumor antibiotic calicheaminin for the treatment of AML

CD34 *(HPCA-1, QBEnd10)*	Single chain transmembrane glycoprotein *(Cytoplasm, membrane)*	Lymphoid and myeloid hematopoietic progenitor cells, endothelial cells, some skin cells, myofibroblasts	Acute leukemia Neurofibroma, angiosarcoma,KS, epithelioid hemangioendothelioma, solitary fibrous tumor, DFSP, epithelioid sarcoma, GIST, myofibroblastic tumors	ID of endothelial or myofibroblastic differentiation in tumors Evaluation of angiogenesis Evaluation of the number of blasts in bone marrow in acute leukemia	Not specific for endothelial cells
CD35 *(CR1, C3b/C4b R)*	Transmembrane protein that binds complement components C3b and C4b and mediates phagocytosis *(Membrane)*	Erythrocytes, B cells, a subset of T cells, monocytes, neutrophils, eosinophils, glomerular podocytes, follicular dendritic cells	Marginal zone (MALT) lymphoma, follicular dendritic cell tumors	Detects follicular dendritic cells ID of follicular dendritic cell sarcomas	
CD38	Type II transmembrane glycoprotein with enzymatic action for the formation and hydrolysis of cADPR *(Membrane)*	Immature B and T lymphocytes, thymocytes, mitogen-activated T cells, Ig-secreting plasma cells,monocytes, NK cells, erythroid and myeloid progenitors, brain cells	Acute leukemias, plasma cell lesions Neurofibrillary tangles in Alzheimer's disease	ID of plasma cell lesions	Immunoreactivity may be a poor prognostic marker for patients with CLL
CD43 *(Leu 22, L60)*	Cell surface glycoprotein *(Membrane)*	T cells, macrophages, granulocytes	AML (chloromas), T cell neoplasms, aberrant expression in some low-grade B-cell neoplasms (e.g., mantle cell lymphoma, SLL/CLL, marginal zone lymphoma), some MALT lymphomas	Evaluation of T-cell lymphomas and leukemias Evaluation of low-grade B-cell lymphomas	Less specific than UCHL-1 for T cells
CD45, Leukocyte common antigen *(LCA, CLA)* Note: CLA also refers to a different antigen, HECA-452	Five or more membrane glycoproteins *(Membrane, cytoplasm)*	Lymphocytes, leukocytes, histiocytes, not plasma cells, erythrocytes, platelets	Non-Hodgkin's lymphomas, some anaplastic (CD30+) large cell lymphomas, Reed-Sternberg cells in LP HD (but not other types)	ID of poorly differentiated neoplasms as lymphomas. However, some anaplastic lymphomas and plasmacytomas may be negative	Preserved in necrotic tissue Best general marker for hematologic neoplasms

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
Hematopathology Markers					
CD45RA *(DPB)*	Restricted form of leukocyte common antigen *(Membrane, cytoplasm)*	B cells, monocytes, some T cells	B-cell neoplasms, Hairy cells (not specific)	Pan B-cell marker that can be used in Zenker's fixed tissue	Not completely specific - other B-cell markers are preferred
CD45RO *(UCHL-1)*	Isoform of CD45 (leukocyte common antigen) *(Membrane, cytoplasm)*	T cells (memory), granulocytes, monocytes	T-cell neoplasms, histiocytic sarcoma, some B-cell lymphomas (plasmacytic, HIV-associated)	Good pan T-cell marker (CD3 is more specific)	
CD56 (*NCAM*)	Neural cell adhesion molecule – cell surface glycoprotein *(Membrane)*	Neurons, astrocytes, Schwann cells, NK cells, subset of activated T cells	Some T/NK-cell lymphomas, plasmacytomas Neuroblastoma	Evaluation of panniculitis-like T-cell lymphoma (both CD56+ and CD56-) and T/NK lymphomas	
CD57 *(Leu 7, HNK-1)*	Lymphocyte antigen that cross reacts with a myelin-associated glycoprotein *(Membrane)*	T cell subsets, NK cells, myelinized nerves, neuroendocrine cells, prostate, pancreatic islets, adrenal medulla	Angioimmunoblastic T-cell lymphoma Nerve sheath tumors (occasional), leiomyosarcoma, synovial sarcoma, rhabdomyosarcoma, neuroblastoma, gliomas, neuroendocrine carcinomas, neurofibromas, some prostate carcinomas	ID of T gamma lymphoproliferative disorder (large granular cell lymphocytic leukemia) ID of neuroendocrine differentiation in tumors Evaluation of NK neoplasms	Not very specific for solid tumors
CD61 *(GPIIIa, platelet glycoprotein IIIa)*	Glycoprotein, receptor for fibrinogen, fibronectin, von Willebrand factor, and vitronectin *(Cytoplasm)*	Megakaryocytes, platelets	Megakaryocytic leukemias	ID of megakaryocytic differentiation	

CD68 *(KP1, CD68-PGM1, Mac-M)*	Intracellular glycoprotein associated with lysosomes *(Cytoplasm, membrane)*	Macrophages, monocytes, neutrophils, basophils, large lymphocytes, Kupffer cells, mast cells, osteoclasts	Some lymphomas, histiocytic sarcomas, APML, Langerhans proliferative disorders Neurofibroma, schwannoma, MPNST, granular cell tumors, PEComa, melanomas, atypical fibroxanthoma, RCC	Best general marker for macrophages, although not specific to this cell type	The antibody PG-M1 does not react with granulocytes
CD74 *(LN2)*	Subunit of MHC II–associated invariant chain *(Membrane)*	B cells, monocytes, histiocytes	B-cell neoplasms, hairy cell leukemia, plasma cell lesions	Pan B-cell marker	
CDw75 *(LN1)*	Sialylated glycoconjugate present in surface Ig-positive B cells *(Membrane, cytoplasm)*	Mature B cells, T-cell subsets, fetal colon, epithelial cells	Reed-Sternberg cells of LP HD (not other types), follicular lymphomas Colon carcinomas (50%), gastric carcinomas	Evaluation of HD	
CD77 *(BLA.36, PK antigen)*	Globotriaosylceramide, glycolipic membrane from Burkitt lymphoma cell line *(Cytoplasm, membrane)*	Tonsillar B cells, dendritic reticulum cells, sinus-lining cells, macrophages, endothelial cell, epithelial cells	HD, Burkitt lymphoma, rarely other B- and T-cell lymphomas	Evaluation of RS cells	
CD79a *(mb-1 protein)*	Heterodimer of mb-1 (CD79a) and B29 (CD79b) polypeptides, B cell antigen receptor *(Membrane)*	B cells, plasma cells	Precursor B-cell ALL, B-cell lymphomas, plasma cell lesions, but not primary effusion lymphoma	Evaluation of B-cell neoplasms (may be the only B-cell marker present)	
CD79b	See above *(Membrane)*			Absent from CLL, hairy cell leukemia	
CD95	Transmembrane glycoprotein member of the nerve growth factor receptor/tumor necrosis factor superfamily – mediates apoptosis *(Membrane)*	Activated T and B cells, epithelial cells	Panniculitis-like T-cell lymphoma (if CD56+)		

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—*cont'd*

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
Hematopathology Markers					
CD99 *(MIC-2, 12E7, Ewing's sarcoma marker, E2 antigen, HuLy-m6, FMC 29, O13 [different epitope])*	MIC2 gene product – glycoproteins (p30 and p32) involved in rosette formation with erythrocytes (*Membrane* [*immunoreactivity is more specific than cytoplasmic*])	Cortical thymocytes, T lymphocytes, granulosa cells of ovary, pancreatic islet cells, Sertoli cells, some endothelial cells, urothelium, ependymal cells, squamous cells	B and T cell precursor lymphoblastic lymphoma/leukemia PNET/Ewing's sarcoma, chondroblastoma, synovial sarcoma, solitary fibrous tumors, GIST, some alveolar rhabdomyocarcomas, desmoplastic small cell tumors, small cell carcinomas, granulosa cell tumors, yolk sac components of germ cell tumors, Sertoli-Leydig cell tumors, atypical fibroxanthoma, meningioma	Evaluation of lymphoblastic lymphoma/leukemia Thymic carcinomas (lymphocytes +) versus other carcinomas ID of PNET/Ewing's sarcoma (immunoreactivity should be clearly membranous in the majority of the cells)	O13 is the most commonly used antibody Immunoreactivity is highly dependent upon the antigen retrieval system used
CD103	Mucosal integrin alphaEbeta7 with specificity for e-cadherin *(Cytoplasm)*	T cells	Enteropathy type T-cell lymphoma, hairy cell leukemia		Requires frozen tissue or cell suspension
CD117 *(c-kit, stem cell factor receptor)*	Transmembrane tyrosine kinase receptor (ligand is stem cell factor) – apoptosis is inhibited when the ligand is bound *(Cytoplasm, membrane)*	Mast cells, interstitial cells of Cajal (ICC – pacemaker cells of the GI tract found throughout the muscle layers and in the myenteric plexus), epidermal melanocytes, mononuclear bone marrow cells (4%), Leydig cells, early spermatogenic cells, trophoblast, breast epithelium	GIST (>95%), seminomas (>70%), intratubular germ cell neoplasia, mature teratomas (>70%), some melanomas (focal), mast cell tumors, some carcinomas, some brain tumors, some PNET/Ewing's sarcoma, some angiosarcomas AML (>50%), CML in myeloid blast crisis	ID of GIST (+) vs. leiomyomas (–) and schwannomas (–) ID of seminomas ID of mast cells (mastocytosis)	Mast cells are an excellent internal control CD117 positivity does not correlate with mutations and/or oncoprotein activity in tumors not known to have activating mutations and is, in general, not of clinical or therapeutic significance in this setting (e.g., to detect tumors likely to respond to therapy directed against the protein (e.g., Gleevec)

CD123	Alpha chain of the IL-3 receptor *(Membrane)*	Myeloid precursors, macrophages, dendritic cells, mast cells, basophils, megakaryocytes	Plasmacytoid dendritic cell tumors		
CD138 *(Syndecan-1)*	Transmembrane heparin sulphate glycoprotein that interacts with extracellular matrix and growth factors *(Membrane)*	Pre-B cells, immature B cells, Ig-producing plasma cells, basolateral surface of epithelial cells, vascular smooth muscle, endothelium, neural cells	Plasma cell lesions, primary effusion lymphoma, plasma cell component of other B-cell lymphomas Squamous cell carcinomas, other carcinomas	ID of plasma cells and their neoplasms Expression may be diminished or lost in poorly differentiated carcinomas	
CD163 *(M130)*	Endocytic receptor to scavenge haptoglobin and hemoglobin complexes *(Membrane, cytoplasm)*	Tissue macrophages (high expression), monocytes (low expression) including Kupffer cells, Hofbauer cells but not follicular dendritic cells or plasmacytoid monocytes	Neoplasms of histiocytic differentiation Leukemias of monocytic differentiation Synovial type giant cell tumors of the vertebral column Langerhans cell histiocytosis (~60%), benign fibrous histiocytoma (~67%) Littoral cell angioma of the spleen	ID of true histiocytic derivation of tumors	More specific for monocyte/histiocyte derivation than CD68
CD207 *(langerin)*	Langerhans cell specific C-type lectin *(Cytoplasm)*	Langerhans cells of epidermis and epithelia	Langerhans cell histiocytosis		Induces formation of Birbeck granules
Clusterin *(Apolipoprotein J, complement lysis inhibitor, gp80, SGP-2, SP40, TRPM2, T64, ApoJ)*	Multifunctional protein involved in lipid transport, complement regulation, immune regulation, cell adhesion, other functions *(Membrane, cytoplasm, nucleus)*	Many tissues	Anaplastic large cell lymphoma (Golgi pattern) Alzheimer's disease – present in amyloid plaques and cerebrovascular deposits Many types of carcinomas		

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
Hematopathology Markers					
Cyclin D1 *(PRAD1, bcl-1)*	Cyclin regulating cyclin dependent kinases during G1 in the cell cycle, phosphorylates and inactivates the retinoblastoma tumor suppressor protein *(Nucleus)*	Cycling cells (however, lymphocytes usually express only cyclins D2 and D3)	Mantle cell lymphoma Breast cancer (especially lobular carcinomas and other ER positive carcinomas), esophageal cancer, bladder cancer, lung cancer, HCC, colon carcinoma, pancreatic carcinoma, head and neck squamous cell carcinomas, pituitary tumors, sarcomas Parathyroid adenomas (inversion involving cyclin D1 gene and the parathormone receptor)	ID of mantle cell lymphoma	Involved in t(11;14)(q13;q32) translocation in mantle cell lymphoma
DBA.44 *(HCL)*	B-cell antigen *(Cytoplasm, membrane)*	Mantle zone B cells, some immunoblasts	Hairy cell leukemia (>95%), B-cell lymphomas (30%)	Evaluation of hairy cell leukemia	
Epithelial membrane antigen *(EMA, MUC1, HMFG, DF3, CA 15-3, CA 27.29, PEM, many others)*	Episialin, glycoprotein found in human milk fat globule membranes *(Cytoplasm [more common in malignant cells], membrane [more common in benign cells])*	Epithelial cells, perineurial cells, meningeal cells, plasma cells, usually negative in mesothelial cells, monocytes	Some anaplastic large cell lymphomas (CD30+), plasma cell neoplasms, malignant histiocytosis, erythroleukemia, AML (M4 and M5), LP HD Carcinomas, mesotheliomas, some sarcomas (synovial sarcoma, epithelioid sarcoma), adenomatoid tumor, chordomas, perineurioma, neurofibroma, meningiomas, desmoplastic small round cell tumor, Sertoli cell tumor	ID of epithelial differentiation in tumors – however, keratin is more specific for this purpose. Beware of EMA in some large cell lymphomas Synovial sarcoma typically shows focal positivity	There are over 50 monoclonal antibodies recognizing different glycosylation patterns in normal tissues and tumors[18]

Epstein-Barr virus					
EBV-encoded nonpolyadenylated early RNAs *(EBERS)*	RNA produced by EBV *(Nucleus)*	EBV-infected B cells	All EBV-related tumors	Most sensitive marker for EBV	Detected by in situ hybridization for RNA on paraffin sections
LMP-1	Latent membrane protein *(Membrane)*	EBV-infected B cells	Nasopharyngeal carcinomas, Reed-Sternberg cells (not LP HD), transplant lymphomas, AIDS-related lymphomas, endemic Burkitt lymphoma (rare in sporadic cases)	Evaluation of EBV-related neoplasms	
EBNA 2 *(nuclear antigen 2)*	Nuclear protein *(Nucleus)*	EBV-infected B cells	Transplant-related lymphomas, AIDS-related lymphomas. Not present in Burkitt lymphoma or nasopharyngeal carcinomas	Evaluation of transplant- and AIDS-related lymphomas	
Fascin	Actin bundling protein regulated by phosphorylation *(Cytoplasm)*	Interdigitating reticulin cells from the T-cell zones, dendritic cells, reticular network, histiocytes, smooth muscle, endothelium, squamous cells, splenic sinuses	Reed-Sternberg cells (but not in LP HD) High-grade breast carcinomas	ID of Reed-Sternberg cells in classical HD. Fascin positivity has also been reported in anaplastic large cell lymphoma	
FMC7	Antigen on subgroups of mature B cells, epitope of CD20 *(Cytoplasm)*	B cells	B-cell lymphomas	Not expressed by CLL	Pan B-cell marker Epitope of CD20 but reactivity low in cells with low cholesterol
Glycophorin A *(GPA)*	A glycosylated erythrocyte membrane protein *(Membrane)*	Erythroid elements at all stages	Erythroleukemia	ID of erythroid elements (normal and neoplastic)	
Granzyme B	Neutral serine proteases stored in granules in cytotoxic T cells and in NK cells involved in target cell apoptosis by exocytosis *(Cytoplasm)*	Cytotoxic T cells and NK cells	Some T-cell lymphomas, Reed-Sternberg cells of some cases of EBV-positive HD		

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
Hematopathology Markers					
Heavy immunoglobulin chains *(G, A, M, D)*	Heavy chain of immunoglobulins *(Cytoplasm [plasma cells], membrane [lymphocytes])*	Plasma cells (G>A>M>D)	Plasma cell tumors (monotypic expression of usually G or A), mantle zone lymphomas and WDLL/CLL may coexpress M and D, lymphoplasmocytic lymphoma (M)	ID of monoclonal populations of plasma or plasmacytoid cells	
HECA-452 *(endothelial cell antigen, cutaneous lymphocyte-associated antigen, CLA)*	Cell surface glycoprotein *(Membrane)*	T cells, more common in cutaneous T cells	Mycosis fungoides and other cutaneous T-cell lymphomas		Note: CLA is also used to refer to CD45
Hemoglobin *(Hb)*	Hemoglobin *(Cytoplasm)*	Erythroid cells	Some leukemias	Marker for erythroid cells	
HHV8	Latent nuclear antigen of human herpes virus type 8 *(Nucleus)*	Absent in normal tissue	Primary effusion lymphoma (PEL), AIDS-associated multicentric Castleman's disease Kaposi's sarcoma (endothelial cells and some perivascular cells)	Evaluation of Kaposi sarcoma and primary effusion lymphoma	
HLA-DR	Major histocompatibility complex Class II gene *(Membrane)*	B lymphocytes, macrophages, Langerhans cells, dendritic cells, activated T cells, some endothelial and epithelial cells	Leukemic myeloblasts		Not very specific for cell type
Light immunoglobulin chains *(lambda [L], kappa [K])*	Light chain of immunoglobulins *(Cytoplasm)*	Plasma cells (normally K > L), B cells	Plasma cell tumors, B-cell lymphomas	ID of monoclonal populations of plasma cells and B cells ID of some types of amyloid	May require frozen tissue for assessment of B lymphoid cells Excellent Ig preservation in plasma cells in B5 or Zenker's fixed tissue

Lysozyme *(Ly)*	Muramidase *(Cytoplasm)*	Circulating monocytes, some tissue macrophages, granulocytes, salivary gland, lacrimal gland, stomach and colon epithelial cells (inflamed or regenerative), apocrine glands, some other epithelial cells	AML with monocytic differentiation, salivary gland tumors, stomach and colon carcinomas	Marker for histiocytes but not specific. May mark activated phagocytic macrophages Evaluation of myeloid leukemias Strongly positive in monocytoid leukemias	Not specific for solid tumor identification
Mast cell tryptase	Serine protease *(Cytoplasm)*	Mast cells	Mast cell neoplasms	ID of mast cell differentiation	
Myeloperoxidase *(MPO)*	Enzyme in primary granules of myeloid cells *(Cytoplasm)*	Myeloid cells, monocytes	AML, chloromas	Classification of leukemias	Can be used with tissue fixed in Zenker's fixative
Oct2 *(Octomer transcription factor)*	Transcription factor of the POU homeodomain family binding to the Ig gene octomer sites regulating B-specific genes *(Nucleus)*	B cells	B-cell lymphomas and leukemias Reed-Sternberg cells in LP HD (but not other types)	Evaluation of HD	Interacts with the transcriptional coactivator BOB.1. BOB.1 and Oct are necessary (but not sufficient) for Ig expression
Perforin	Pore-forming protein in cytoplasmic granules of cytotoxic T cells *(Cytoplasm)*	NK cells, large granular lymphocytes, gamma/delta T cells	NK-cell lymphomas, anaplastic large cell lymphoma	Evaluation of T-cell lymphomas	
TCR *(T-cell antigen receptor, JOVI 1)*	Two polypeptide chains (alpha and beta)	Peripheral T cells	Many T-cell lymphomas	Evaluation of T-cell lymphomas	Alpha/beta and gamma/delta T-cell receptors can be evaluated in frozen tissue

Continued

TABLE 7–43. ANTIBODIES FOR IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY—cont'd

NAME (ALTERNATE NAME)	ANTIGEN (LOCATION)	NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES	TUMORS	USES	COMMENTS
Hematopathology Markers					
Terminal deoxytransferase *(TdT)*	Enzyme that catalyzes addition of nucleotides to ss DNA *(Nucleus)*	Immature T and B cells	Lymphoblastic lymphoma/ALL	Lymphoblastic lymphoma (+) vs. Burkitt lymphoma (-)	
TIA-1 *(T-cell intracellular antigen)*	A cytolytic granule-associated protein expressed in some CD8+ T cells *(Cytoplasm)*	T cells, mast cells, polymorphonuclear leukocytes, eosinophils	Many T-cell lymphomas	Evaluation of T-cell lymphomas	
traf-1 *(Tumor necrosis factor receptor-associated factor)*	Membrane-bound proteins that activate the nuclear factor-κB (NF-κB) transcription factor resulting in cell proliferation *(Cytoplasm)*	Usually absent	Hodgkin lymphoma, primary mediastinal large B-cell lymphoma	Negative in most DLBCL and ALCL	May interact with LMP1

Notes:
NAME: The most common name used to refer to the marker. The name may refer to the antigen, a CD number, or a specific antibody raised to the antigen. In some cases more than one name is commonly used. Underlined antibodies appear in the tables. Most CD numbers correspond to a specific gene product. However, some correspond to antigens from post-translational modifications. For example, CD15 (LeuM1) is a carbohydrate side chain linked to a protein.
ALTERNATE NAME: This list includes abbreviations, antibody names (sometimes recognizing different epitopes), or other terms for the marker.
ANTIGEN: The antigen recognized by the antibody.
LOCATION: The normal location of the antigen. In some cases, only certain locations of the antigen are considered a positive result (e.g., nuclear immunoreactivity for estrogen receptor, membrane immunoreactivity for HER2/neu).
NORMAL CELLS AND TISSUES: The presence of the marker in normal cells and tissues. These cells serve as important internal positive controls. Abnormal positive immunoreactivity is also an important control for the specificity of the study.
TUMORS: The tumors in which immunoreactivity is typically expected. Refer to the Tables for additional information.
USES: The most common uses for the marker. Different pathologists and institutions will often have preferences for the use of certain markers.
COMMENTS: Additional comments regarding the marker.
Additional information on CD antigens can be found at http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/prow/guide/45277084.htm.
Abbreviations: AD, Alzheimer's disease; AIDS, acquired immunodeficiency syndrome; ALL, acute lymphocytic leukemia; AML, acute myelogenous leukemia; APML, acute promyelogenous leukemia; BM, basement membrane; CML, chronic myelogenous leukemia; CMV, cytomegalovirus; DFSP, dermatofibrosarcoma protuberan; EBV, Epstein Barr virus; FISH, fluorescence in situ hybridization; GIST, gastrointestinal stromal tumor; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; HD, Hodgkin's disease; HNPCC, hereditary non-polyposis colorectal cancer; ID, identification; KS, Kaposi's sarcoma; LP HD, lymphocyte predominant Hodgkin's disease; MF, mycosis fungoides; MPNST, malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumor; NK, natural killer; PIN, prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia; PNET, primitive neuroectodermal tumor; RCC, renal cell carcinoma; RS, Reed Sternberg; TCC, transitional cell carcinoma.

TABLE 7–44. ALTERNATIVE NAMES FOR ANTIGENS

LOOKING FOR?	FIND IT UNDER:	LOOKING FOR?	FIND IT UNDER:
1D5	Estrogen receptor (G)	B4	CD19 (H)
6F/3D	Beta-amyloid	B72.3	B72.3 (G)
12E7	CD99 (G, H)	bcl-1	Cyclin D1 (H)
34βE12	Keratins (G)	bcl-2	bcl-2 (H, G)
38.13	CD77(H)	B-cell specific activator protein	BSAP (H)
70 kD NF	Neurofilaments (G)	BER-EP4	BER-EP4 (G)
200 kD NF	Neurofilaments (G)	BERH2	CD30 (G, H)
903	Keratins--34βE12 (G)	Beta-amyloid	Beta-amyloid (G)
A (blood group antigen)	Blood group antigens (G)	Beta-catenin	Beta-catenin (G)
A (Ig heavy chain alpha)	Heavy chain immuno-globulins (H)	Beta-2 microglobulin	Beta-2 microglobulin (G)
A32 antigen	CD146 (G)	BG8	BG8 (G)
A103	MELAN-A (G)	B-HCG	Human chorionic gonadotropin (G)
AAT	Alpha 1-antitrypsin (G, H)	BLA.36	CD77 (H)
ACH	Alpha-1 antichymotrypsin (H)	BL-CAM	CD22 (H)
AE1/AE3	Keratins (G)	Blood group antigens	Blood group antigens (G, H)
AFP	Alpha-fetoprotein (G)	BR-2	Gross cystic disease fluid protein-15 (G)
Alpha 1-antitrypsin	Alpha 1-antitrypsin (G, H)	BRST-2	Gross cystic disease fluid protein-15 (G)
Alpha 1-antichymotrypsin	Alpha 1-antichymotrypsin (H)	C3b/C4bR	CD35 (H)
Alpha 1-fetoprotein	Alpha fetoprotein (G)	C5b-9	C5b-9 (G)
Alpha fetoprotein	Alpha fetoprotein (G)	c-kit	CD117 (G)
Alpha-methylacyl-CoA racemase	AMACR (G)	CA 15-3	Epithelial membrane antigen (G, H)
Alpha smooth muscle actin	Alpha smooth muscle actin (G)	CA 19-9	CA 19-9 (G)
AMACR	AMACR (G)	CA 27.28	Epithelial membrane antigen (G, H)
Amyloid	Beta-amyloid (G)	CA 72-4	B72.3 (G)
Androgen receptor	Androgen receptor (G)	CA125	CA125 (G)
Apolipoprotein J	Clusterin (H)	CA19-9	CA19-9 (G)
AR	Androgen receptor (G)	Calcitonin	Calcitonin (G), Hormones (G)
B (blood group antigen)	Blood group antigens (G)	Caldesmon	Caldesmon (G)
B1	CD20 (H)	Calgranulin	MAC 387 (G)
B2	CD21 (H)		

Continued

TABLE 7–44. ALTERNATIVE NAMES FOR ANTIGENS—cont'd

LOOKING FOR?	FIND IT UNDER:	LOOKING FOR?	FIND IT UNDER:
CALLA	CD10 (G, H)	CD38	CD38 (H)
CALP	Calponin (G)	CD43	CD43 (H)
Calponin	Calponin (G)	CD44v3	CD44v3 (G)
Calprotectin	MAC 387 (G)	CD45	CD45 (H)
Calretinin	Calretinin (G)	CD45RA	CD45RA (H)
CAM5.2	Keratins (G)	CD45Ro	CD45Ro (H)
Carbohydrate antigen 19-9	CA19-9 (G)	CD56	CD56 (H)
Carcinoembryonic antigen	Carcinoembryonic antigen (G)	CD57	CD57 (G)
CD1a	CD1a (H)	CD61	CD61 (H)
CD2	CD2 (H)	CD68	CD68 (G, H)
CD3	CD3 (H)	CD74	CD74 (H)
CD4	CD4 (H)	CDw75	CDw75 (H)
CD5	CD5 (G, H)	CD77	CD77 (H)
CD7	CD7 (H)	CD79a	CD79a (H)
CD8	CD8 (H)	CD79b	CD79b (H)
CD10	CD10 (G, H)	CD95	CD95 (H)
CD11b	CD11b (H)	CD99	CD99 (G, H)
CD11c	CD11c (H)	CD117	CD117 (G)
CD13	CD13 (H)	CD141	CD141 (G)
CD15	CD15 (G, H)	CDX	CDX (G)
CD16	CD16 (H)	CDKN2	p16 (G)
CD19	CD19 (H)	CDP	Gross cystic disease fluid protein-15 (G)
CD20	CD20 (H)	CEA	Carcinoembryonic antigen (G)
CD21	CD21 (H)	c-erbB2	HER-2/neu (G)
CD22	CD22 (H)	Chromogranin A	Chromogranin A (G)
CD23	CD23 (H)	c-kit	CD117 (G)
CD25	CD25 (H)	CLA	CD45 (H) or HECA-452 (H)
CD30	CD30 (G, H)	CLDN1	Claudin (G)
CD31	CD31 (G)	Clusterin	Clusterin (H)
CD33	CD33 (H)	Collagen IV	Collagen IV (G)
CD34	CD34 (G, H)	Common acute leukemia antigen	CD10 (G, H)
CD35	CD35 (H)		

TABLE 7–44. ALTERNATIVE NAMES FOR ANTIGENS—cont'd

LOOKING FOR?	FIND IT UNDER:	LOOKING FOR?	FIND IT UNDER:
Complement lysis inhibitor	Clusterin (H)	Factor XIIIa	Factor XIIIa (G)
CR1	CD35 (H)	Fascin	Fascin (H)
Cyclin D1	Cyclin D1 (H)	Fast myosin	Myosin heavy chain (G)
Cystic fibrosis antigen	MAC 387 (G)	Fibronectin	Fibronectin (G)
D (Ig heavy chain delta)	Heavy chain immunoglobulins (H)	Fli-1	Fli-1 (G)
		FMC7	FMC7 (H)
DBA.44	DBA.44 (H)	FMC 29	CD99 (G, H)
Desmin	Desmin (G)	Friend leukemia integrin-site 1	Fli-1 (G)
DF3	Epithelial membrane antigen (G, H)	FVIII:g	Factor VIII (G)
DPB	CD45RA (H)	G (Ig heavy chain gamma)	Heavy chain immunoglobulins (H)
E2 antigen	CD99 (G, H)		
EBERS	Epstein-Barr virus (G, H)	Gal-3	Galectin-3 (G)
EBNA	Epstein-Barr virus (G, H)	Galectin-3	Galectin-3 (G)
E-cadherin	E-cadherin (G)	Gastrin	Hormones (G)
EGFR	EGFR (G)	GCDFP	Gross cystic disease fluid protein-15 (G)
EM ACT	HHF-35 (G)	GFAP	Glial fibriallary acidic protein (G)
EMA	Epithelial membrane antigen (G)		
E-MEL	HMB-45 (G)	Glial fibrillary acidic protein	Glial fibriallary acidic protein (G)
Endothelial cell antigen	HECA-452 (H)	Glucagon	Hormones (G)
Ep-CAM	BER-EP4 (G)	Glucose transporter 1	GLUT-1 (G)
Epidermal growth factor receptor	EGFR (G)	GLUT-1	GLUT-1 (G)
		GPIIIa	CD61 (H)
Epithelial membrane antigen	Epithelial membrane antigen (G, H)	gp80	Clusterin (H)
Epithelial specific antigen	BER-EP4 (G)	gp200	RCC (G)
Epstein-Barr virus	Epstein-Barr virus (G, H)	GPA	Glycophorin A (H)
ER	Estrogen receptor (G)	Granzyme B	Granzyme B (H)
erbB2	HER-2/neu (G)	Gross cystic disease fluid disease-15	Gross cystic disease fluid protein-15 (G)
ESA	BER-EP4 (G)		
Estrogen receptor	Estrogen receptor (G)	H (blood group antigen)	Blood group antigens (G)
Ewing's sarcoma marker	CD99 (G, H)	H222	Estrogen receptor (G)
Factor VIII related antigen	Factor VIII (G)	Hb	Hemoglobin (H)
FVIII:RAg	Factor VIII (G)	HBME-1	HBME-1 (G)

Continued

TABLE 7–44. ALTERNATIVE NAMES FOR ANTIGENS—cont'd

LOOKING FOR?	FIND IT UNDER:	LOOKING FOR?	FIND IT UNDER:
h-caldesmon	Caldesmon (G)	IL-2 receptor	CD25 (H)
H-CAM	CD44v3 (G)	Inhibin-alpha subunit	Inhibin-alpha subunit (G)
HCG	Human chorionic gonadotropin (G)	Insulin	Hormones (G)
HCL	DBA.44 (H)	J5	CD10 (G, H)
HBME-1	HBME-1 (G)	JOVI 1	TCR (H)
Heavy chain immuno-globulins	Heavy chain immunoglobulins (H)	K (Ig lighit chain kappa)	Light chain immunoglobulins (H)
HECA-452	HECA-452 (H)	Keratin 5/6	Keratins (G)
Hematopoietic progenitor cell, class 1	CD34	Keratin 7	Keratins (G)
Hemoglobin	Hemoglobin (H)	Keratin 20	Keratins (G)
HepPar-1	HepPar-1 (G)	Keratins	Keratins (G)
Hepatocyte paraffin-1	HepPar-1 (G)	Ki-1	CD30 (G, H)
HER-2/neu	HER-2/neu (G)	Ki-67	Ki-67 (G)
HHF-35	HHF-35 (G)	kip2	p57 (G)
HHV8	HHV8 (H)	Kit	CD117 (G)
HLA-DR	HLA-DR (H)	KP-1	CD68 (G, H)
HMB-45	HMB-45 (G)	L (Ig light chain lambda)	Light chain immunoglobulins (H)
HMFG	Epithelial membrane antigen (G, H)	L1 antigen	MAC 387 (G)
hMLH1	hMLH1 (G)	L26	CD20 (H)
hMSH2	hMLH1 (G)	L60	CD43 (H)
HNK-1	CD57 (G)	Laminin	Laminin (G)
HP1	HepPar-1 (G)	LCA	CD45 (H)
HPCA-1	CD34 (G, H)	Leu 1	CD5 (H)
HPL	Human placental lactogen (G)	Leu 2	CD8 (H)
HuLy-m6	CD99 (G, H)	Leu 3	CD4 (H)
Human chorionic gonadotropin	Human chorionic gonadotropin (G)	Leu 5a + b	CD2 (H)
Human herpes virus 8	HHV8 (G, H)	Leu 7	CD57 (G, H)
Human mutL homologue 1	hMLH1 (G)	Leu 9	CD7 (H)
Human mutS homologue 2	hMLH1 (G)	Leu16	CD20 (H)
Human placental lactogen	Human placental lactogen (G)	Leu 22	CD43 (H)
		Leukocyte common antigen	CD45 (H)
		Leu-M1	CD15 (G, H)

TABLE 7–44. ALTERNATIVE NAMES FOR ANTIGENS—cont'd

LOOKING FOR?	FIND IT UNDER:	LOOKING FOR?	FIND IT UNDER:
Light chain immunoglobulins	Light chain immunoglobulins (H)	MSH2 or MSH6	hMLH1
LFA-2	CD2 (H)	MTS1	p16 (G)
LMP-1	Epstein-Barr virus (G, H)	MUC1	Epithelial membrane antigen (G, H)
LN1	CDw75 (H)	MUC18	CD146 (G)
LN2	CD74 (H)	Muscle common actin	HHF-35 (G)
Lysozyme	Lysozyme (H, G)	Muscle specific actin	HHF-35 (G)
M (Ig heavy chain mu)	Heavy chain immunoglobulins (H)	My 7	CD13 (H)
Mac-1	CD11b (H)	My 9	CD33 (H)
MAC 387	MAC 387 (G)	Myeloperoxidase	Myeloperoxidase (H)
Mac-M	CD68 (G, H)	Myf-4	Myf-4 (G)
MART 1	MELAN A (G)	MyoD1	MyoD1 (G)
Mast cell tryptase	Mast cell tryptase (H)	Myogenin	Myf-4 (G)
mb-1	CD79a (H)	Myoglobin	Myoglobin (G)
MCAM	CD146 (G)	Myosin heavy chain	Myosin heavy chain (G)
ME491	CD63 (G)	NCAM	CD56 (H)
MELAN-A	MELAN-A (G)	Neprilysin	CD10 (G, H)
Melanoma antigen recognized by T cells	MELAN-A (G)	NEU N	NEU N (G)
Melanoma-associated antigen	CD63 (G)	Neurofilaments	Neurofilaments (G)
Melanoma cell adhesion molecule	CD146 (G)	Neuron specific enolase	Neuron specific enolase (G)
Melanoma-specific antigen	HMB-45 (G)	NFP	Neurofilaments (G)
MELCAM (or Mel-CAM)	CD146 (G)	NKI-betab	HMB-45 (G)
MIB-1	Ki-67 (G)	NKI/C3	CD63 (G)
MIC-2	CD99 (G, H)	NSE	Neuron specific enolase (G)
MLH1	hMLH1	O13	CD99 (G, H)
MN-4	CD146 (G)	OC125	CA125 (G)
MNF-116	Keratin--Pan-K (G)	Oct2	Oct2 (H)
MPO	Myeloperoxidase (H)	Octomer transcription factor	Oct2 (H)
MRF4	Myf-4 (G)	p16	p16 (G)
MSA	HHF-35 (G)	$p27^{kip1}$	$p27^{kip1}$ (G)
		p53	p53 (G)
		p57	p57 (G)

Continued

TABLE 7–44. ALTERNATIVE NAMES FOR ANTIGENS—cont'd

LOOKING FOR?	FIND IT UNDER:	LOOKING FOR?	FIND IT UNDER:
p63	p63 (G)	S-Endo-1	CD146 (G)
P504S	AMACR (G)	SGP-2	Clusterin (H)
PAN-K	Keratins (G)	SMA	Alpha smooth muscle actin (G)
PAP	Prostate acid phosphatase (G)	SM-ACT	Alpha smooth muscle actin (G)
PECAM-1	CD31 (G)	Smad4	DPC4 (G)
PEM	Epithelial membrane antigen (G, H)	SM-MHC	Myosin heavy chain (G)
Perforin	Perforin (H)	Somatostatin	Hormones (G)
PGM1	CD68 (G, H)	SP40	Clusterin (H)
PgR	Progesterone receptor (G)	Stem cell factor receptor	CD117 (G)
PK antigen	CD77 (H)	Synaptophysin	Synaptophysin (G)
Placental alkaline phosphatase	Placental alkaline phosphatase (G)	Syndecan-1	CD138 (H)
PLAP	Placental alkaline phosphatase (G)	Synuclein-1	Synuclein-1 (G)
Platelet glycoprotein IIIa	CD61 (H)	T3	CD3 (H)
PMS2	hMLH1	T4	CD4 (H)
Podoplanin	D2-40	T6	CD1a (H)
PR	Progesterone receptor (G)	T8	CD8 (H)
PRAD1	Cyclin D1 (H)	T11	CD2 (H)
PrAP	Prostate acid phosphatase (G)	T64	Clusterin (H)
Prealbumin	Prealbumin (G)	TAG-72	B72.3 (G)
Progesterone receptor	Progesterone receptor (G)	Tau	Tau (G)
Prostate acid phosphatase	Prostate acid phosphatase (G)	T cell antigen receptor	TCR (H)
Prostate specific antigen	Prostate specific antigen (G)	T cell intracellular antigen	TIA-1 (H)
PSA	Prostate specific antigen (G)	TCR	TCR (H)
QBEnd10	CD34 (G, H)	TdT	Terminal deoxytransferase (H)
Renal cell carcinoma marker	RCC (G)	TE	CD2 (H)
ret	ret (G)	Terminal deoxytransferase	Terminal deoxytransferase (H)
RCC	RCC (G)	TH	CD4 (H)
rT3	CD2 (H)	Thrombomodulin	CD141 (G)
S-100	S-100 (G)	Thyroglobulin	Thyroglobulin (G)

TABLE 7–44. ALTERNATIVE NAMES FOR ANTIGENS—cont'd

LOOKING FOR?	FIND IT UNDER:	LOOKING FOR?	FIND IT UNDER:
Thyroid transcription factor 1	TTF-1 (G)	Tumor necrosis factor receptor–associated factor	traf-1 (H)
TIA-1	TIA-1 (H)	UCHL-1	CD45Ro (H)
TM	CD141 (G)	UEA 1	Ulex (G)
traf-1	traf-1 (H)	Ulex	Ulex (G)
Transthyretin	Prealbumin (G)	Vimentin	Vimentin (G)
TRPM2	Clusterin (H)	von Willebrand's factor	Factor VIII (G)
TTF-1	TTF-1 (G)	VWF	Factor VIII (G)
TTR	Prealbumin (G)	Wilms' tumor 1 protein	WT1 (G)
Tumor-associated glycoprotein 72	B72.3 (G)	WT1	WT1 (G)

G, general markers; H, hematopathology markers.

ELECTRON MICROSCOPY

Indications for EM Studies.

- Diagnostic renal biopsies for glomerular disease
- Adenocarcinoma versus mesothelioma (see Table 7-36)
- Difficult to classify tumors (Tables 7-45 and 7-46)
- Nerve (e.g., toxic or drug-induced neuropathy) and muscle biopsies (e.g., inclusion body or nemaline myopathy)
- Bullous skin diseases (e.g., epidermolysis bullosa)
- Ciliary dysmorphology (primary ciliary dyskinesia or Kartagener syndrome)
- Endomyocardial biopsies (e.g., adriamycin toxicity, amyloid, nemaline myopathy)
- Liver biopsies for microvesicular fat in acute fatty liver of pregnancy
- Small bowel biopsies to look for pathogens (e.g., Whipple disease)
- Congenital, inherited, and metabolic diseases (e.g., ceroid lipofuscinoses)
- Prion diseases

Method. Ultrastructural details of tissues are lost rapidly. Therefore, fresh tissue must be fixed rapidly and well for EM. Tissues are usually fixed in special fixatives for EM to preserve lipids and glycogen (e.g., 2% paraformaldehyde and 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer, pH 7.4).

1. Place a small fragment of tissue in a drop of fixative on a cutting surface.
2. Cut the tissue into multiple tiny fragments, each no greater than 0.1 cm in any dimension.
3. Place the tissue into the vial of fixative. Shake the vial to make sure all the tissue fragments are covered by fixative.

Note: If tissue from a small biopsy is found to be nondiagnostic on H&E, any tissue saved for EM should be retrieved for examination by light microscopy.

Results. A separate electron microscopy report is usually issued. The results should be incorporated into the final diagnosis.[19]

TABLE 7–45. ELECTRON MICROSCOPIC FEATURES OF POORLY DIFFERENTIATED TUMORS

TUMOR	ULTRASTRUCTURE	ADDITIONAL TESTS	COMMENTS
Carcinoma	Well-developed desmosomes (pentalayered with a dense central line in the intracellular space) with intermediate filament attachment. Tonofilaments and bundles of filaments (keratin). Adenocarcinomas: • Intercellular lumina (but also present in vascular tumors) • Microvilli • Intracellular lumina (mucin vacuoles in signet ring cells) Squamous cell carcinomas • Numerous intermediate filaments (keratin) and desmosomes	IHC: Cytokeratins are present in almost all carcinomas if broad spectrum antibodies are used. EMA is present in almost all carcinomas, but is less specific and sensitive. Additional markers can be used to identify specific carcinomas.	Other tumors can also be keratin positive and have desmosomes, filaments, and cytokeratin (mesothelioma, meningioma, synovial sarcoma, and epithelioid sarcoma)
Melanoma	Melanosomes in various stages of development – indicative of a melanin-forming cell type. Abnormal pleomorphic melanosomes may be present in melanomas. Desmoplastic melanomas lack melanosomes.	IHC: S100, HMB45, MART-1 HMB45 and MART-1 may be absent in non-epithelioid melanomas. The HMB-45 epitope (gp100) is present in immature melanosomes or premelanosomes, but is not specific to these structures.	Melanosomes are also seen in clear cell sarcoma, pigmented schwannomas, PEComa, and other rare tumors. Mature forms can be taken up by melanophages, keratinocytes, and carcinomas.
Lymphoma	No specific features are present. The cells lack cellular junctions and there is a paucity of cytoplasmic organelles.	IHC: LCA	LCA may be absent in 30% of anaplastic (ALK1) lymphomas. These tumors can be EMA (+) but are keratin (-).
Sarcoma	Some types have specific diagnostic features of cell type (e.g., neural, smooth muscle, striated muscle). No well-developed desmosomes.	IHC: May be helpful for identifying specific types.	Keratin negative except for synovial sarcoma and epithelioid sarcoma (or rarely in other types).

TABLE 7–46. CELLS, TUMORS, AND STRUCTURES WITH CHARACTERISTIC FINDINGS BY ELECTRON MICROSCOPY

TUMOR	EM FINDINGS	CORRELATIONS AND OTHER DIAGNOSTIC TESTS
Alveolar soft part sarcoma	Rhomboid, rod-shaped, or spiculated crystals in a regular latttice pattern.	The characteristic cytoplasmic crystals are composed of monocarboxylate transporter 1 (MCT1) and its chaperone CD147. These proteins are found in many other cell types and are not specific for this tumor. Cytogenetics: t(X;17) creates a ASPL-TFE3 fusion protein. IHC: TFE3 positive (as well as rare pediatric renal tumors with the same translocation). Nuclear immunoreactivity is not present in other tumors or normal tissues. Histo: The crystals are PAS with diastase positive.

TABLE 7–46. CELLS, TUMORS, AND STRUCTURES WITH CHARACTERISTIC FINDINGS BY ELECTRON MICROSCOPY—cont'd

TUMOR	EM FINDINGS	CORRELATIONS AND OTHER DIAGNOSTIC TESTS
Amyloid	Non-branching fibrils, 7.5 to 10 nm in width and up to 1 micron in length.	May be present associated with plasma cell tumors, medullary carcinoma of the thyroid, Alzheimer's disease, or as an isolated finding (primary amyloidosis). IHC: Can be used to identify specific types of amyloid (e.g., lambda or kappa chains, beta2 microglobulin, calcitonin, tau)
Bronchioloalveolar carcinoma of the lung (BAL)	Lamellar (surfactant) "myelin-like" granules in the supranuclear cytoplasm (typical of Type II pneumocytes). Clara-like electron-dense granules in supranuclear cytoplasm. Intranuclear inclusions comprised of parallel microtubular arrays. These features can also be seen in metastatic BAL.	Cytogenetics: These carcinomas are less likely to be associated with smoking and have fewer cytogenetic changes. Bronchioloalveolar carcinomas or adenocarcinomas with features of BAL are more likely to respond to Iressa (38%) as compared to other lung carcinomas (14%) due to specific mutations in EGFR. Mucinous BAL has intranuclear inclusions but generally lacks the other EM features.
Chordoma	Desmosomes, large vacuoles, glycogen, dilated ER, cytoplasmic invaginations, and intermediate filaments The physaliphorous (= having bubbles or vacuoles) appearance is due to dilated ER, glycogen, and cytoplasmic invaginations.	IHC: Keratin (corresponds to intermediate filaments), EMA, S100
Clear cell sarcoma	Melanosomes in various stages of development. Glycogen (resulting in clear cytoplasm).	Cytogenetics: t(12;22) EWS;ATF1 fusion protein IHC: S100, HMB45
Dense core granules	Dense core granules (vesicle bound by a single membrane with a dense center – 60 to 300 nm) – cytoplasmic organelles involved in regulated exocytosis of cell products. Examples: Pancreatic beta cells (insulin): angular crystalline inclusions Pheochromocytoma (epinephrine and norepinephrine): Large, pleomorphic, often clear or only partially filled Carcinoid: • Foregut – small, round • Midgut – larger, pleomorphic • Hindgut – mixed	Found in tumors of neuronal or neuroendocrine origin. Vesicles are comprised of granins (predominantly chromogranin A, chromogranin B, and secretogranin II) and various peptide hormones and transmitters, ATP, and biogenic amines IHC: Chromogranin A (most specific). Specific products of tumors can also be detected. Note: Prostate cancers and breast cancers can also show strong chromogranin positivity and can be mistaken for neuroendocrine tumors, particularly at metastatic sites.
Desmoplastic small round cell tumor	Numerous desmosomes and tight junctions, numerous cell processes, large number of organelles (mitochondria and RER), microfilaments, small neurosecretory granules	Cytogenetics: t(11;22) EWS;WT1 fusion protein IHC: Keratin, desmin, WT-1, actin, EMA, NSE
Endothelial cells	Weibel-Palade bodies (cigar-shaped membrane-bound structures filled with tubules in parallel arrays). Intracytoplasmic lumina may be present in normal cells and in epithelioid vascular neoplasms.	Weibel-Palade bodies are frequently absent in tumors arising from endothelial cells (e.g., angiosarcomas). IHC markers are more sensitive to detect endothelial derivation. The membranes are formed by P-selectin and the tubules contain FVIII. IHC: Vascular markers (CD34, CD31, FVIII)
Ewing sarcoma (PNET)	Homogeneous cell population characterized by the lack of specialized features, large pools of glycogen, no organelles, no extracellular matrix, variable numbers of neurosecretory granules and cell processes.	Cytogenetics: t(11;22) EWS;FLI1 fusion protein (and other less common variants) IHC: CD99. FLI1 is also present, but is less specific. Histo: PAS +/– diastase can detect glycogen, but is not currently used for diagnosis.

Continued

TABLE 7–46. CELLS, TUMORS, AND STRUCTURES WITH CHARACTERISTIC FINDINGS BY ELECTRON MICROSCOPY—cont'd

TUMOR	EM FINDINGS	CORRELATIONS AND OTHER DIAGNOSTIC TESTS
Granular cell tumor	Numerous lysosomes (filled with tubular, vesicular, and amorphous material), phagosomes, and granules (correlating with the "granular" cytoplasm), reduplicated basal lamina surrounding groups of cells.	IHC: S100, inhibin, CD68, calretinin
Langerhans cell histiocytosis	Birbeck granules (rod-or tennis racket-shaped) structures of variable length with a central periodically striated lamella.	May serve as a reservoir for Langerin (a transmembrane type II Ca2+-dependent lectin) and CD1a in the endosomal recycling compartment. IHC: CD1a, Langerin, S100
Mast cells	Lameller or scroll-like membrane pattern, granules of variable size.	IHC: CD117 (c-kit), mast cell tryptase
Medullary carcinoma of the thyroid	Numerous neurosecretory granules (calcitonin) associated with stromal amyloid (calcitonin).	Cytogenetics: Mutations in the RET gene (sporadic and germline) IHC: Calcitonin (in tumor cells and amyloid), chromogranin
Merkel cell carcinoma	Neurosecretory granules in processes or along cell membranes (subplasmalemmal).	IHC: Chromogranin, NSE, cytokeratin 20
Mesothelioma	Elongated, serpiginous, and branched microvilli (generally 10 to 16 length: 1 width) apical without a glycocalyx or actin rootlets.	Cytogenetics: Characteristic chromosome deletions and loss of 9 and 22 IHC: Calretinin, WT-1
Neuroblastoma	Cellular processes with microtubules (neuropil), dense core granules, Homer-Wright rosettes (the center is comprised of a tangle of cell processes), synaptic vesicles, no glycogen	Cytogenetics: Changes are linked to prognosis IHC: Chromogranin, NSE, NFP, synaptophysin
Oncocytoma	Numerous mitochondria packed in the cytoplasm (correlating with the granular appearance of the cytoplasm). In contrast, chromophobe renal cell carcinoma has fewer mitochondria and more microvesicles.	Cytogenetics: Monosomy with loss of X or Y, 11q13. Chromophobe carcinomas have different cytogenetic changes. IHC: RCC is negative in oncocytomas but positive in 45% to 50% of chromophobe renal cell carcinomas.
Perineurioma	Long cell processes wrapping around adjacent cells	IHC: Claudin-1 (a component of tight junctions), EMA
Rhabdoid tumor of the kidney	Large paranuclear whorls of intermediate filaments (corresponding to cytokeratin and vimentin) and occasional tonofilaments	Cytogenetics: hSNF5/INI1 deletions and mutations on chromosome 22 IHC: Cytokeratin (+), vimentin (+), absence of INI1 nuclear protein
Rhabdomyosarcoma	Parallel thick (12 to 15 cm) and thin (6 to 8 nm) myosin-actin filaments, Z-bands, filament ribosomal complexes. Spider cells may be seen in cardiac tumors (clear cytoplasm divided by cytoplasmic processes and cross striations formed by leptofibrils).	Cytogenetics: Characteristic changes in alveolar and embryonal types IHC: Muscle markers (HHF-35, desmin, myf4)
Schwannoma	Basal lamina prominent, often reduplicated. Luse bodies (long spacing collagen, extracellular), myelin figures, long cell processes wrapping around collagen, may rarely have melano-somes (melanotic schwannoma)	Cytogenetics: Deletion of 2q (NF2 inactivation) IHC: S100

See Tables 7-8, 7-9, 7-22, and 7-47 for additional information.

SNAP FROZEN TISSUE

Frozen tissue is useful for staining (some antibodies only detect antigens in frozen tissue), enzyme studies (muscle biopsies), and to save tissue for DNA or RNA studies.

Indications. All specimens with a question of a lymphoproliferative disorder, sarcomas, unusual tumors, muscle biopsies.

Methods. Small (approximately 0.5 × 0.5 × 0.3 cm^3) portions of tissue are placed in a clean specimen container moistened with a small amount of normal saline until they can be frozen. Specimens should be snap frozen using liquid nitrogen or dry ice and stored at –20°C.

Results. The results of studies on frozen tissue are usually incorporated into the surgical pathology report.

IMMUNOFLUORESCENCE

Like immunoperoxidase studies, immunofluorescence (IF) detects antigens in tissues. However, because amplification of the signal is not used, it is better suited for precise localization of antigen/antibody complexes in tissues or for determining the deposition pattern of immune complexes (e.g., linear vs. granular). Thus, it is most useful for the investigation of diseases related to immune complex deposition such as glomerular diseases and bullous diseases of the skin.

Tissue for IF may be snap frozen (see instructions earlier) or stored in special fixatives for IF. If the specimen is not frozen, special care must be taken to ensure that the biopsy is kept moist in a sealed container.

- **Direct IF:** Uses antibodies to detect antigens in the patient's **tissues**.
- **Indirect IF:** Uses control tissues to detect antibodies (e.g., anti-BM) in the patient's **serum**.

Indications. Some skin biopsies (e.g., lupus, pemphigus, pemphigoid, and dermatitis herpetiformis), all diagnostic nontransplant renal biopsies, some transplant renal biopsies, identification of amyloid in cardiac biopsies, and the evaluation of vasculitis in nerve biopsies.

Method. Tissue must be submitted fresh.

Results. The results of the examination are usually incorporated into the surgical pathology report.

Immunofluorescence of Skin Lesions

- **SLE (lupus band test)**: linear or granular staining along dermal epidermal junction for multiple immunoreactants in about 80% of cases (most commonly IgG and less often IgM or C3). The specificity increases with the number of positive immunoreactants. Uninvolved sun-exposed skin shows positivity in most patients with active systemic lupus. Uninvolved skin in patients with discoid lupus is usually negative for this test.
- **Herpes gestationis:** perilesional skin shows linear BM zone C3 and sometimes IgG.
- **Dermatitis herpetiformis:** granular IgA at tips of dermal papillae of uninvolved skin.
- **Pemphigus:** IgG and C3 between epidermal cells creating a net-like pattern. In pemphigus vulgaris, a split just above the basal cell layer creates a "tombstone" appearance to the row of basal cells at the base of the vesicle. In pemphigus foliaceus and related disorders, the split occurs near the granular cell layer.
- **Pemphigoid:** Ig and C3 along basement membrane but not between cells. Indirect IF reveals an anti-BM antibody.

MOLECULAR GENETIC PATHOLOGY

Molecular genetic pathology is the newest subspeciality in pathology with board certification. Molecular diagnostics incorporates many types of techniques for the investigation of genetic alterations in cells and viruses (e.g., Southern blotting, PCR analysis, FISH). It has applications in three main areas:

Inherited diseases:
- Identification of inherited diseases (e.g., cystic fibrosis, hemochromatosis, Factor V Leiden, Prothrombin 20210A, Fragile X syndrome).
- Identification of genes conferring susceptibility to diseases (e.g., microsatellite instability [MSI], BRCA1 and 2)

Infectious diseases:
- Detection of organisms
- Identification of specific organisms
- Quantitation of viral infection (e.g., HIV viral load)

Cancer:
- Identification of specific genetic alterations associated with tumors
- Identification of gene mutations associated with susceptibility to treatment (e.g., EGFR mutations in lung cancer, c-kit mutations in GIST)
- Identification of clonality in hematolymphoid proliferations
- Detection of minimal residual disease after treatment

These studies are especially helpful for hematolymphoid proliferations that are difficult to classify because of the frequent and characteristic rearrangements that occur in many of these disorders. Unlike cytogenetics, the cells need not be viable. However, it is preferable that the nucleic acids are relatively intact. Southern blot and RNA-based PCR (RT-PCR) assays are best performed on fresh or frozen tissues. Formalin-fixed,

paraffin-embedded tissue is amenable to DNA-based PCR assays. Some fixatives (e.g., Bouin's) cause extensive breakage of DNA and may preclude genetic analysis of the tissue.

Indications.

- B-cell proliferations – clonal rearrangements of the immunoglobulin heavy and light chain genes; specific translocations
- T-cell proliferations – rearrangements of the γ and β T-cell receptor genes
- Leukemias
- Post-transplant lymphoproliferative disorders – clonal populations of EBV-infected cells
- Oligodendrogliomas – PCR-based LOH analysis for 1p/19q deletions.
- Colon cancers possibly associated with hereditary non-polyposis colorectal carcinoma syndrome (HNPCC): microsatellite instability (MSI) testing of colon cancers occurring in patients 50 years of age or younger.
- Human papilloma virus testing: cervical PAP smears, squamous cell carcinomas of the head and neck (see subsequent section).
- GIST – most have mutations in the KIT tyrosine kinase gene. A smaller group (5% to 7%) have mutations in the KIT-homologous tyrosine kinase PDGFRA. About 10% to 15% of GISTs are negative for KIT and PDGFRA mutations (termed "wild-type GISTs"). The specific type of mutation is correlated with prognosis and the respone to specific types of treatment.
- Lung adenocarcinoma – some cancers have mutations in EGFR that predict response to the tyrosine kinase inhibitor gefitinib.

Method of Submitting Tissue. Fresh or frozen tissue (e.g., snap frozen tissue) as well as fluids may be used. Cytologic preparations can be used for FISH. Paraffin blocks can also be used.

Results. The results are usually either reported separately or incorporated into the surgical pathology report.

CYTOGENETICS

Cytogenetic studies have been demonstrated to be useful in several areas important to pathology:

- **Tumor classification:** Particularly sarcomas (e.g., Ewing's sarcoma and synovial sarcoma), lymphomas, leukemias, kidney tumors, brain tumors, and other unusual tumors.
- **Benign vs. malignant lesions:**
  - Reactive mesothelial cells vs. mesothelioma
  - Lipoma vs. liposarcoma
- **Prognosis:** Neuroblastoma, oligodendroglioma, multiple myeloma, chronic lymphocytic leukemia.
- **Treatment:** Amplification of HER2/neu to predict response to Herceptin.
- **Research:** Translocations are common to many tumors and usually identify genes important to the pathogenesis of the tumor

Cells may be cultured to perform complete karyotype analysis or tissues can be analyzed for specific chromosomal alterations by fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH).

FISH studies can be performed on cultured cells, cytology specimens, touch preparations, and paraffin-embedded tissues.

Indications.

- **For karyotype analysis:** Soft tissue tumors, mesotheliomas (tissue or pleural fluid), unusual tumors, poorly differentiated tumors, all subcutaneous lipomas >10 cm or of unusual gross appearance, all deep-seated lipomas (subfascial, intramuscular, intraabdominal, retroperitoneal, clinically apparent cord tumors), unusual uterine masses.
- **For FISH:** Oligodendroglioma, neuroblastoma.

Method for Submitting Tissue. Tissue for karyotyping must be fresh, viable, and relatively sterile. However, tissue may be submitted even if it has not been handled under strictly sterile conditions (contamination is not usually a problem). If specimens are to be held overnight, the tissue should be minced (into 0.1 cm cubes) in a sterile specimen container, covered with culture medium, and held overnight in the refrigerator. Fluids may also be submitted for analysis (especially pleural effusions with a suspicion of mesothelioma).

Results. The results of the cytogenetic analysis should be incorporated into the final diagnosis or reported separately (Tables 7-47 and 7-48).

Text continues on page 178.

TABLE 7–47. COMMON CYTOGENETIC AND GENETIC CHANGES IN SOLID TUMORS OF DIAGNOSTIC OR THERAPEUTIC SIGNIFICANCE

TUMOR TYPE	CHARACTERISTIC CYTOGENETIC CHANGES	GENETIC CHANGES	FREQUENCY	COMMENTS
Adenoid cystic carcinoma	6q translocations and deletions		>50%	
Adrenal cortical carcinomas		2p16 loss	>90%	This area is close to the region associated with Carney complex type 2.
		17p13 LOH	85%	These changes are less common in localized tumors (25% to 35%) but, if present, such tumors are more likely to metastasize. The 11p15 imprinted region is also involved in Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome.
		11p15 LOH with duplication of the active paternal allele leading to IGF-II overexpression	85%	
Aggressive angiomyxoma	t (12q15)	HMGA2 involvement	>20%	
Alveolar soft part sarcoma	t(X;17)(p11.2;q25)	ASPL-TFE3 fusion	>90%	TFE3 can be detected by IHC. This translocation is also present in rare papillary-like renal tumors in young adults (see "Renal tumors").
Aneurysmal bone cyst	t(16;17)(q22;p13)	CDH11-USP6 fusion	20%	
	t(17p13.2)	USP6 fusions	>50%	
Angiomatoid fibrous histiocytoma	t(12;16)(q13;p11)	FUS-ATF1 fusion	Unknown	
	t(12;22)(q13;q12)	EWSR1-ATF1 fusion		EWSR1-ATF1 translocation also present in clear cell sarcoma
	t(2;22)(q33;q12)	CREB1-EWSR1 fusion		
Bizarre parosteal osteochondromatous proliferation (Nora's lesion)	t(1;17)(q32;q21)			A breakpoint in 1q32 was found in 100% of lesions. A breakpoint in 17q21 was found in 4 or 5 cases.
	t(1;17)(q42;q23)			Only one case with different breakpoints
Breast carcinoma		HER2/neu amplification	15-20%	Detected by FISH (gene amplification) or IHC (protein overexpression). Positive carcinomas are more likely to respond to Herceptin.[a]
		BRCA1 and BRCA2 germline mutations	<5%	Patients are more likely to be young and have multiple carcinomas. BRCA1 carcinomas are frequently high grade, have "medullary" features, and lack ER, PR, HER2. BRCA2 carcinomas have no specific pathologic features.
	t(12;15)	ETV6-NTRK3 fusion	100% (secretory carcinoma)	This translocation is found in secretory carcinomas. The same translocation is found in infantile fibrosarcoma and cellular mesoblastic nephroma.

Continued

TABLE 7–47. COMMON CYTOGENETIC AND GENETIC CHANGES IN SOLID TUMORS OF DIAGNOSTIC OR THERAPEUTIC SIGNIFICANCE—cont'd

TUMOR TYPE	CHARACTERISTIC CYTOGENETIC CHANGES	GENETIC CHANGES	FREQUENCY	COMMENTS
Carcinoma of the upper aerodigestive tract in children	t(15;19)(q13;p13.2)	BRD4-NUT fusion		Patients with this translocation have a poor prognosis.
Chondromyxoid fibroma	Deletion of 6q		>75%	
Clear cell hidradenoma	t(11;19)(q21;p13)	MECT1-MAML 2 fusion		Same translocations as mucoepidermoid carcinoma and Warthin tumor
Clear cell sarcoma	t(12;22)(q13;q12)	EWSR1-ATF1 fusion	>75%	
	t(2;22)(q33;q12)	EWSR1-CREB1 fusion	Unknown	
Colon carcinoma		hMLH1 and hMSH2 mutations	15% of sporadic carcinomas	95% of HNPCC patients have germline mutations in these genes. Absence can be detected by IHC or by PCR assays for microsatellite instability. Mutations are correlated with characteristic clinical, pathologic, and treatment response features.
		EGFR (HER1) overexpression	82% of all carcinomas	Approximately 23% of patients treated with cetuximab[b] and chemotherapy respond.
		APC mutations	80% of all carcinomas	Also present as a germline mutation in familial adenomatous polyposis syndrome.
		LKB1/STK11 LOH	~ 15%	Germline mutations occur in some cases of Peutz-Jeghers syndrome. Mutations appear to be rare in sporadic colon carcinoma but LOH is observed in some.
		DPC4 (Smad4 or MADH4) mutations (18q21.1)	10–20%	Germline mutations in occur in some cases of juvenile polyposis syndrome. Mutations in sporadic carcinomas are uncommon.
Desmoplastic fibroblastoma	t(2;11)(q31;q12)	Unknown		
Desmoplastic small round cell tumor	t(11;22)(p13;q12)	EWSR1-WT1 fusion	>95%	WT1 can be detected by IHC.
Dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans/ giant cell fibroblastoma	+r(17;22)(q21;q13) t(17;22)(q21;q13),	COL1A1-PDGFB fusion COL1A1-PDGFB fusion	>75%	The same translocation is present in giant cell fibroblastoma, but without formation of a ring chromosome.

TABLE 7–47. COMMON CYTOGENETIC AND GENETIC CHANGES IN SOLID TUMORS OF DIAGNOSTIC OR THERAPEUTIC SIGNIFICANCE—cont'd

TUMOR TYPE	CHARACTERISTIC CYTOGENETIC CHANGES	GENETIC CHANGES	FREQUENCY	COMMENTS
Endometrial stromal sarcoma	t(7;17)(p15;q21)	JAZF1-JJAZ1 fusion	30%	
	t(6;7)(p21;p15)	JAZF1-PHF1 fusion	10%	
	t(6;10)(p21;p11)	EPC1-PHF1 fusion	Rare	
Epithelioid hemangioendothelioma	t(1;3)((p36.3;q25)			
Epithelioid sarcoma	t/del(22q11.2)	INI1 deletion, mutations		Absence can be detected by IHC.
Ewing sarcoma/ PNET	t(11;22)(q24;q12)	EWSR1-FLI1 fusion	>80%	FLI1 can be detected by IHC but is not specific for Ewing's. FISH can detect fusion genes. The type of fusion is correlated with prognosis (e.g., Type I exon 6 has >100 month survival, Type II exon 5 has 2 year survival).
	t(21;22)(q22;q12)	EWSR1-ERG fusion	5-10%	
	t(2;22)(q33;q12)	EWSR1-FEV fusion	<5%	
	t(7;22)(p22;q12)	EWSR1-ETV1 fusion	<5%	
	t(17;22)(q12;q12)	EWSR1-E1AF fusion	<5%	
	inv(22)(q12)(q12)	EWSR1-ZSG fusion	<5%	
	t(16;21)(p11;q22)	FUS-ERG fusion	Unknown	
	t(2;22)(q31;q12)	EWSR1-SP3 fusion		
	t(2;16)(q33;p11)	FUS-FEV fusion		
Extraskeletal myxoid chondrosarcoma	t(9;22)(q22;q12)	EWS-NR4A3 fusion	>75%	
	t(9;17)(q22;q11)	TAF2N-NR4A3 fusion	<10%	
	t(9;15)(q22;q21)	TCF12-NR4A3 fusion	<10%	
	t(3;9)(q11;q22)	TGF-NR4A3 fusion		
Fibromatosis (desmoid)	Trisomies of 8 and 20		30%	
	Deletion of 5q21	APC inactivation	10%	
		Beta-catenin mutations	50%	Nuclear beta-catenin can be detected by IHC.
Fibromyxoid sarcoma, low grade	t(7;16)(q32-34; p11.2)	FUS-CREB3L2 fusion	96%	
	t(11;16)(p11;p11)	FUS-CREB3L1 fusion	Rare	

Continued

TABLE 7–47. COMMON CYTOGENETIC AND GENETIC CHANGES IN SOLID TUMORS OF DIAGNOSTIC OR THERAPEUTIC SIGNIFICANCE—cont'd

TUMOR TYPE	CHARACTERISTIC CYTOGENETIC CHANGES	GENETIC CHANGES	FREQUENCY	COMMENTS
Fibrosarcoma, infantile	t(12;15)(p13;q25)	ETV6-NTRK3 fusion	>75%	The same translocation is seen in cellular mesoblastic nephroma and secretory breast carcinoma.
	Trisomies 8, 11, 17,20		>75%	
Gastrointestinal stromal tumor	Monosomies 14 and 22		>75%	
	Deletion of 1p		>25%	
		KIT or PDGFRA mutation	>90%	CD117 (KIT) is detected by IHC and is useful for diagnosis. Gleevec[c] is effective against tumors with activating mutations in either gene. The type of mutation correlates with treatment response.
Germ cell tumors	Isochromosome 12p		>80-90%	Includes all histologic subtypes in males and dysgerminomas of ovary
		KIT mutations	25-70%	Seminomas
Giant cell tumor	Telomeric changes		>50%	
Giant cell tumor, diffuse type (PVNS)	t(1;2)(p13;q37)	COL6A3-CSF1 fusion	>25%	
	Trisomies 5 and 7		Unknown	
Glioblastoma multiforme (anaplastic mixed glioma)		EGFR (HER1) amplification	40%	Detected by ISH. IHC is not helpful for detecting overexpression. The co-deletion of 1p36 and 19q13.3 is absent.
Hepatoblastoma	Trisomies 2q and 20		>75%	
Hibernoma	11q13 rearrangement		>50%	
Inflammatory myofibroblastic tumor	t(1;2)(q22;p23)	TPM3-ALK fusion	Unknown	ALK can be detected by IHC in one third of cases. There are other partners for ALK fusion.
	t(2;19)(p23;p13)	TPM4-ALK fusion		
	t(2;17)(;23;q13)	CLTC-ALK fusion		
	t(2;2)(p23;q13)	RANB2-ALK fusion		
Leiomyoma, uterine	t(12;14)(q15;q24) Deletion of 7q Deletion of 1p	HMGA2 rearrangement	40%	Uterine leiomyosarcomas have more complex karyotypes. These tumors are cellular and have gene expression patterns similar to leiomyosarcomas.

TABLE 7–47. COMMON CYTOGENETIC AND GENETIC CHANGES IN SOLID TUMORS OF DIAGNOSTIC OR THERAPEUTIC SIGNIFICANCE—cont'd

TUMOR TYPE	CHARACTERISTIC CYTOGENETIC CHANGES	GENETIC CHANGES	FREQUENCY	COMMENTS
Lipoblastoma	8q12 rearrangement	PLAG1 oncogene	>80%	
	Polysomy 8			
Lipoma				
Typical	t(12q15)	HMGA2 rearrangement	40%	
	t(6p21)	HMGA1 rearrangement	10%	
	t(8q12)	PLAG1	5%	
	Deletion 13q		5%	
Spindle cell or pleomorphic	Deletion of 13q or 16q		>75%	
	t(11;16)(q13;p12-13)		Unknown	
Liposarcoma				
Well-differentiated	Ring /giant markers (12q13-q15)	HMGA2, MDM2 amplification	>75%	Similar ring/giant markers are seen in dedifferentiated liposarcomas, with additional aberrations
Myxoid/round cell	t(12;16)(q13;p11) t(12;22)(q13;q12)	FUS-DDIT3(CHOP) fusion EWS-CHOP fusion	>75% <5%	
Pleomorphic	Complex		90%	
Dedifferentiated	Ring /giant markers (12q13-q15)	HMGA2, MDM2 amplification		
Lung adenocarcinomas that respond to gefitinib (most in women, nonsmokers, with features of BAC)	Fewer changes than seen in carcinomas associated with smoking	EGFR - small deletions or amino acid substitutions	10-20% of all lung carcinomas	Mutations predict response (gain of function) to the tyrosine kinase inhibitor gefitinib (Iressa).[d] 40% to 80% of lung carcinomas show EGFR overexpression by IHC, but only carcinomas with specific mutations respond to gefitinib.
Medulloblastoma	Isochromosome 17q		>25%	
Meningioma	Monosomy 22		90%	
	1p deletion		25%	

Continued

TABLE 7–47. COMMON CYTOGENETIC AND GENETIC CHANGES IN SOLID TUMORS OF DIAGNOSTIC OR THERAPEUTIC SIGNIFICANCE—cont'd

TUMOR TYPE	CHARACTERISTIC CYTOGENETIC CHANGES	GENETIC CHANGES	FREQUENCY	COMMENTS
Mesothelioma	Deletion of 1p	? BCL10 inactivation	>50%	Cytogenetic changes are less complex than those seen in carcinomas. Cytogenetic analysis of cytologic specimens (e.g., pleural fluid) can be of value if larger biopsies are not available.
	Deletion of 9p	p15, p16, and p19 inactivation	>75%	
	Deletion of 22q	NF2 inactivation	>50%	
	Deletions of 3p and 6q		>50%	
Mucoepidermoid carcinoma	t(11;19)(q21;p13)	MECT1-MAML 2 fusion	>50%	Same translocation as Warthin tumor and clear cell hidradenoma
Neuroblastoma	Hyperdiploid, no 1p deletion		40%	Good prognosis
	1p deletion		40%	Poor prognosis
	Double minute chromosomes	N-MYC amplification	>25%	Poor prognosis
Oligodendroglioma	Co-deletion of 1p36 and 19q13.3		50%	Useful for diagnosis and to predict response to radiation and/or chemotherapy. EGFR amplification is absent.
	9p21 deletion	CDKN2A (p16) deletion		Occurs in some anaplastic oligodendrogliomas. Poor prognostic factor.
Osteochondroma	Deletion of 8q	EXT1 inactivation	>25%	
Osteosarcoma				
Low grade	Ring chromosomes		>50%	
High grade	Complex	RB and P53 inactivation	>80%	
Pheochromocytoma				
Sporadic (70%)		Losses on 1p	>80%	
Hereditary (30%)		Germline mutations in RET, VHL, NF1, SDHB, SDHD, MEN2A, MEN2B	>90% of hereditary cases	Patients are more likely to be young (<50), have multiple tumors, and have a family history of pheochromocytoma, paraganglioma, or medullary carcinoma of the thyroid.
Pleomorphic adenoma (salivary)	t(3;8)(p21;q12)	CTNNB1-PLAG1 fusion	>50%	
	t(8q12)	PLAG1 fusions	<20%	
	t(9;12)(p12;q15)	NFB1-HMGA2 fusion		

TABLE 7–47. COMMON CYTOGENETIC AND GENETIC CHANGES IN SOLID TUMORS OF DIAGNOSTIC OR THERAPEUTIC SIGNIFICANCE—cont'd

TUMOR TYPE	CHARACTERISTIC CYTOGENETIC CHANGES	GENETIC CHANGES	FREQUENCY	COMMENTS
Prostate cancer	t(21;21)(q22.2;q22.3)	TMPRS2-ERG fusion	Unknown	
	t(7;21)(p21.2;q22.2)	TMPRSS2-ETV1 fusion	Unknown	
Renal Tumors				
Clear cell carcinoma	Deletion of 3p		90%	
		VHL	70%	Deletion or inactivation
Papillary carcinoma – adult	Trisomies 3, 7, 12, 16, 17, and 20		>90%	
		KIT mutations	>90%	CD117 (c-kit) present by IHC in cytoplasm and is associated with activating mutations.
Xp11.2 or TFE3 translocation carcinomas (young adults [<1% of all adults] and children [30% to 50% of pediatric cases], female > male, 10% to 15% have prior treatment)	t(X;17)(p11.2;q25.3)	ASPL/TFE3 fusion		Tumors have voluminous cytoplasm. The ASPL-TFE3 fusion is also present in alveolar soft part sarcoma. TFE3 and TFEB can be detected by IHC.
	t(X;1)(p11.2;q21)	PRCC/TFE3 fusion		
	t(X;1)(p11.2;p34)	TFE3-PSF fusion		
	inv(X)(p11.2q12)	TFE3/*NonO* fusion		
	t(6;11)(p21.1;q12)	TFEB-*Alpha* fusion		Tumors have a more solid, compact architecture, less voluminous cytoplasm, less frequent psammoma bodies and hyaline nodules, and less prominent nucleoli.
Oncocytoma	-1, -X or -Y		>25%	
	11q13 rearrangement		>25%	
Chromophobe carcinoma	Monosomies 1, 2, 3, 6, 10, 13, 17, and 21		>75%	CD117 (c-kit) is present by IHC on membranes, but activating mutations have not been detected.
Mesoblastic nephroma	t(12;15)(p13;q25)	ETV6-NTRK3 fusion		The same translocation is seen in infantile fibrosarcoma and secretory breast carcinoma.
Retinoblastoma	13q14 deletion	RB1 inactivation	>75%	40% of cases are due to germline mutations in RB1.
	Isochromosome 6p		25%	

Continued

TABLE 7–47. COMMON CYTOGENETIC AND GENETIC CHANGES IN SOLID TUMORS OF DIAGNOSTIC OR THERAPEUTIC SIGNIFICANCE—cont'd

TUMOR TYPE	CHARACTERISTIC CYTOGENETIC CHANGES	GENETIC CHANGES	FREQUENCY	COMMENTS
Rhabdoid tumor of the kidney and atypical teratoid/rhabdoid tumor (AT/RT)	Normal karyotype	hSNF5/INI1 (22q11.2) deletions and mutations	>90%	Infants and children with both tumors have a germline mutation in INI1 (rhabdoid predisposition syndrome). Choroid plexus carcinomas are also associated with non-function of this gene (70%).
	del/t(22)(q11.2)	hSNF5/INI1 deletions and mutations		
Rhabdomyosarcoma				
Alveolar	t(2;13)(q35;q14)	PAX3-FKHR fusion	>75%	Poor 4-yr survival if metastatic (8%)
	t(1;13)(p36;q14), double minutes	PAX7-FKHR fusion	10-20%	Better 4-yr survival if metastatic (75%)
	t(2:2)(q35;23)	PAX3-NCOA1 fusion	rare	
	t(X;2)(q35;q13)	PAX3-AFX fusion	rare	
Embryonal	Trisomies 2q, 8, and 20		>75%	
		LOH 11p15.5	>75%	
Schwannoma and perineurioma	Deletion of 22q	NF2 inactivation	>80%	5% of cases of vestibular schwannomas are associated with neurofibromatosis type 2 (germline NF2 mutations).
Subungual exostosis	t(X;6)(q13-14;q22)	COL4A5 and COL12A1 involvement		
Synovial sarcoma				
Monophasic	t(X;18)(p11;q11)	SYT with SSX1, SSX2, or SSX4 fusion	>90%	
Biphasic	t(X;18)(p11;q11)	SYT-SSX1 fusion	>90%	

TABLE 7–47. COMMON CYTOGENETIC AND GENETIC CHANGES IN SOLID TUMORS OF DIAGNOSTIC OR THERAPEUTIC SIGNIFICANCE—cont'd

TUMOR TYPE	CHARACTERISTIC CYTOGENETIC CHANGES	GENETIC CHANGES	FREQUENCY	COMMENTS
Thyroid carcinoma				
Papillary	10q11 rearrangement	RET/PTC rearrangements	20%	Most common in younger patients (avg 26) and radiation-associated carcinomas, all have psammoma bodies
		RAS mutations	15%	All follicular variant, rare LN mets, 6 women to 1 man, larger tumors
	1q21 rearrangement	NTRK1 fusion oncogenes	>10%	
		BRAF point mutation	44%	Older patients (avg 48), some anaplastic and poorly differentiated carcinomas (15% are tall cell), higher stage, more extrathyroidal invasion
Follicular	t(2;3)(q13;p25)	PAX8-PPARG fusion	>40%	45% have RAS mutations
Medullary				
Sporadic (75%)		RET activating mutations	>90%	
Hereditary (25%)		Germline RET, MEN2A, or MEN2B mutations	>90%	Indication for screening for pheochromocytoma and screening family members
Wilms tumor, pediatric	Deletion 11p13	WT1 inactivation	25%	Germline mutations occur in several syndromes. WT1 mutations also occur in sporadic tumors.
	Trisomy 12		40%	
		WTX		WTX is inactivated in approximately one-third of Wilms tumors

[a]Trastuzumab (Herceptin) = a monoclonal antibody directed against the HER2/neu receptor. Patients are selected for treatment by testing carcinomas with IHC or FISH.
[b]Cetuximab (C225, Erbitux) = a monoclonal antibody directed against the EGFR receptor. A test has been approved by the FDA for the determination of EGFR (DakoCyomation, EGFR PharmDX). This test is not used for lung carcinomas.
[ca]Imatinib mesylate (STI571, Gleevec, Glivec) is a small molecule tyrosine kinase inhibitor that may be used for the treatment of tumors overexpressing tyrosine kinases:
Bcr-Abl tyrosine kinase: CML, ALL (Ph+)
KIT tyrosine kinase: GIST, systemic mastocytosis, some types of AML
PDGFR kinase: CMML, chronic eosinophilic leukemia, rare cases of GIST
The KIT protein (CD117) is encoded by the c-kit proto-oncogene and is a transmembrane receptor protein with tyrosine kinase activity. Mutations may render KIT independent of its ligand, SCF (stem cell factor). Mutated proteins may or may not respond to therapy with Imatinib. Wild-type KIT and KIT with mutations in the juxtamembrane domain (the intracellular segment between the transmembrane and tyrosine kinase domains) are found in GISTs and are sensitive to imatinib. Other tumor types are associated with mutations in the enzymatic domain and the altered protein is generally not sensitive to imatinib. Overexpression of the protein is detected by IHC.
[d]Gefitinib (Iressa) = a tyrosine kinase inhibitor effective against a small subset of lung adenocarcinomas with specific activating mutations in EGFR. IHC for EGFR is not helpful for identifying carcinomas likely to respond to treatment.
For additional information on specific genes, see Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM; www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov).

TABLE 7–48. COMMON CYTOGENETIC CHANGES IN LYMPHOMAS AND LEUKEMIAS

TUMOR TYPE	CYTOGENETIC CHANGES	MOLECULAR EVENTS	FREQUENCY	COMMENTS
Chronic Leukemias and Mastocytosis				
CML (Ph[1])	t(9;22)(q34;q11.2)	BCR-ABL fusion (usually p210, but also p190 and p230 fusion proteins)	90-95%	Philadelphia chromosome. Also present in 5% of children and 15-30% of adults with ALL and 2% of patients with AML. Treated with the ABL tyrosine kinase inhibitor imatinib (Gleevec)[a]. Mutations in BCR-ABL are associated with resistance. RT-PCR is used to detect minimal residual disease.
	Other variants or cryptic translocations	BCR-ABL fusion (usually p210, but also p190 and p230 fusion proteins)	5-10%	
CML, accelerated phase or blast phase	Additional changes: extra Ph, +8, or i(17)(q10)		80%	May be myeloid (70%) or lymphoid (30%).
Juvenile myelomonocytic leukemia		PTPN11 mutation	35%	11% of patients have neurofibromatosis type 1.
		NF1 mutation	20%	
		NRAS and KRAS2 mutations	20%	
Chronic eosinophilic leukemia	t(5;12)(q33;p13)	ETV6 (also called TEL) - PDGFRB fusion	Rare	With eosinophilia. Excellent response to imatinib.[a]
	t(5q33)	Several PDGFRB fusions	?rare	Excellent response to imatinib.[a]
	Cryptic del(4)(q12) – interstitial 800 kb deletion	FIP1L1-PDGFRA fusion	~ 50%	The fusion protein is an activated tyrosine kinase. Excellent response with the tyrosine kinase inhibitor imatinib.[a]
		FIP1L1-PDGFRA mutation (T6741)		Detected by FISH. Homologous to the resistance-inducing T3151 mutation in BCR-ABL.
	t(4q12)	Several PDGFRA fusions	?rare	
Stem cell leukemia-lymphoma syndrome	t(8;13)(p11;q11-12)	FGFR1-ZNF198 fusion	Unknown	Features of both lymphoma and eosinophilic MPD.
	t(8p11)	Several FGFR1 fusions	Rare	
Classic MPD				
Polycythemia		JAK2V617F	95%	
		JAK2 exon 12 mutation	5%	
Essential thrombocythemia		JAK2V617F	50%	
		MPLW515L/K	1%	
Primary myelofibrosis		JAK2V617F	50%	
		MPLW515L/K	5%	

TABLE 7–48. COMMON CYTOGENETIC CHANGES IN LYMPHOMAS AND LEUKEMIAS—cont'd

TUMOR TYPE	CYTOGENETIC CHANGES	MOLECULAR EVENTS	FREQUENCY	COMMENTS
Chronic Leukemias and Mastocytosis				
Unclassified MPD	t(9;21)(p24;p13)	ETV6-JAK2		
	t(9;22)(p24;q11.2)	BCR-JAK2 fusion		
	t(8;9)(p22;p24)	PCM1-JAK2 fusion		
Systemic mastocytosis		c-KIT point mutations (Asp816Val)	100%	CD117 (c-kit) is detected by IHC in normal and abnormal mast cells. The most common mutations do not result in proteins sensitive to imatinib.
	Cryptic del(4)(q12) – interstitial 800 kb deletion	FIP1L1-PDGFRA fusion	~60% of patients with eosinophilia	Found in mastocytosis with associated eosinophilia. These patients do not have the typical c-KIT mutation. Excellent response to treatment with imatinib [a].
Acute Myeloid Leukemia				
AML	Normal karyotype		40-50%	
		FLT3 (13q12) internal tandem duplications (ITD, 20%) or point mutations (7%)	20 -30%	More common in monocytic AML (M5), less common in myeloblastic leukemia with maturation (M2) or erythroleukemia (M6). Less common in AML with cytogenetic changes (10%). Poor prognostic factor. Results in an activated tyrosine kinase. Current trials are evaluating response to a kinase inhibitor – PKC412.
		Partial tandem duplication MLL (11q23)	10%	Exon 2 through 6 also carry FLT3-IDT mutation.
		High expression BAALC (8q22.3)		Adult younger than 60 yrs with de novo AML, unfavorable prognostic impact Independent adverse prognostic factor for resistance to initial induction chemotherapy.
		CEBPA (19q13.1) mutation	4-15%	Favorable prognostic significance.
		NPM1(5q35) mutation	45-62%	Cytoplasmic localization of nucleophosmin 956dupTCTG in exon 12 (type A). Female, higher WBC, low/absence CD34+, 40% also carry FLT3-IDT or TKD mutation. Patients with NPM1 mutations lacking FLT3-IDT had significantly better CR rates.
		Overexpression ERG (21q22)		Adverse prognosis.

Continued

TABLE 7–48. COMMON CYTOGENETIC CHANGES IN LYMPHOMAS AND LEUKEMIAS—cont'd

TUMOR TYPE	CYTOGENETIC CHANGES	MOLECULAR EVENTS	FREQUENCY	COMMENTS
Acute Myeloid Leukemia				
AML (M1, M2, or M4)	t(6;9)(p23;q34)	DEK-CAN fusion	1% of all AML	Poor prognosis.
		FLT3 ITDs	90% of this AML type	
AML with t(8;21) (M2)	t(8;21)(q22;q22)	AML1(RUNX1)-ETO fusion	5-12% of AML	30% of cases of AML with karyotypic abnormalities and maturation in neutrophilic lineage. Usually younger patients, good prognosis
		c-KIT mutations	~50% of this AML type	Response to imatinib[a] untested.
		Other RUNX1 fusion		Toxic exposure.
Acute promyelocytic leukemia (M3, M3v.)	t(15;17)(q22; q11-12)	PML-RARA fusion	5-8% of AML (95-100% of APML)	Abnormal promyelocytes predominate. Usually occurs in adults in mid life. Treatment with all trans-retinoic acid acts to differentiate the cells. Favorable prognosis.
	t(11;17)(q23;p21)	PLZF-RARA fusion		
	t(5;17)(q34;q12)	NPM1-RARA fusion		
	t(11;17)(p13;q21)	NUMA-RARA fusion		
		FLT3 ITDs	32% of APML	
AML with inv(16) or t(16;16)	inv (16)(p13)(q22) t(16;16)(p13;q22) del(16q) Other rare variants or cryptic translocations	CBFB-MYH11 fusion	10-12% of AML (100% of M4EO)	Monocytic and granulocytic differentiation and abnormal eosinophils in the marrow. Usually younger patients. Favorable prognosis.
		c-KIT mutations	~50% of this AML type	Response to imatinib[a] untested.
AML with 11q23 abnormalities	11q23 abnormalities	MLL fusion with numerous different partners (86)	5-6% of AML	Usually associated with monocytic features. Occurs in infants and in patients after therapy with topoisomerase II inhibitors. Intermediate prognosis.
AML and MDS, therapy related	5q-/7q-/12p-/20q-			Occurs after alkylating agents and/or radiation, usually 5 to 6 years after treatment. Poor prognosis.
	t(9;11), t(11;19), t(6;11)	MLL balanced translocations		Occurs after DNA-topoisomerase II inhibitors, usually 3 years after treatment. Long-term prognosis unknown.
	t(21q22)	Other RUNX1 fusion		

TABLE 7–48. COMMON CYTOGENETIC CHANGES IN LYMPHOMAS AND LEUKEMIAS—cont'd

TUMOR TYPE	CYTOGENETIC CHANGES	MOLECULAR EVENTS	FREQUENCY	COMMENTS
B Cell				
B lymphoblastic leukemia/ lymphoma (ALL)				
	t(9;22)(q34;q11.2)	BCR-ABL fusion (usually p190 [esp. in children], but also p210 protein)	5% of childhood ALL, 20-25% of adult ALL	Philadelphia chromosome. Poor prognosis.
	t with 11q23	MLL rearrangements		Poor prognosis. Usually infants.
	t(12;21)(p13;q22)	ETV6(TEL)-AML1 fusion	> 50% of childhood ALL or hyperdiploid	Good prognosis. This translocation is not detected by standard cytogenetics. Detected by FISH.
	t(1;19)(q23;p13.3)	PBX1-E2A fusion	5-6%	Pre-B-ALL; most common translocation in childhood. Unfavorable but modified by therapy.
	Hypodiploid			Poor prognosis.
	Hyperdiploid >50			Good prognosis (= DNA Index 1.16 to 1.6).
	t(5;14)(q31;q32)	IL3-IGH fusion		Poor prognosis.
	t(8;14)(q24;q32)	MYC-IGH fusion		Good prognosis.
	t(2;8)(p12;q24)	IGK-MYC fusion		Good prognosis.
	t(8;22)(q24;q11)	MYC-IGL fusion		Good prognosis.
	t(17;19)(q21;p13)	HLF-E2A fusion		Poor prognosis.
	t(4;11)(q21;q23)	MLL-AF4 fusion		Poor prognosis.
ALL, therapy related				Similar to therapy-related AML.
Small lymphocytic lymphoma/CLL	trisomy 12		16%	Usually do not have I_gV_H mutations. Aggressive clinical course.
	del(11q22-23)	ATM deletion	18%	Poor prognosis. Detected by FISH.
	del(13q14)	D13S319 deletion	55%	Usually do have I_gV_H mutations. Long term survival. Detected by FISH.

Continued

TABLE 7–48. COMMON CYTOGENETIC CHANGES IN LYMPHOMAS AND LEUKEMIZAS—cont'd

TUMOR TYPE	CYTOGENETIC CHANGES	MOLECULAR EVENTS	FREQUENCY	COMMENTS
B Cell				
	del(17p)	P53 deletion	7%	Worse prognosis. Detected by FISH.
		I_gV_H not mutated	40-50%	Worse prognosis (< 8 year median survival).
		I_gV_H (mutated, > 2% difference in nucleotide sequence) ZAP70	50-60%	Better prognosis (median survival > 24 years).
Lymphoplasmacytic lymphoma (Waldenström macroglobulinemia)	6q deletion		50% if in bone marrow	Detected by FISH. Not specific for LPL.
Mantle cell lymphoma	t(11;14)(q13;q32)	CCND1-IGH fusion ATM point mutations	>95%	Overexpression of cyclin D1 detected by IHC.
Marginal zone lymphoma (MALT)	+3		60%	
	t(1;14)(p21;q32)	BCL10-IGH fusion		
	t(11;18)(q21;q21)	API2-MALT1 fusion	25-50%	
	t(11;14)(q21;q32)	MALT1-IGH fusion		
Splenic	del(7q21)			
Follicular lymphoma	t(14;18)(q32;q21)	IGH-BCL-2 fusion	70-95%	
	t(2;18)(p12;q21)	IGK-BCL-2 fusion	Rare	
Burkitt lymphoma and Burkitt-like lymphoma	t(8;14)(q24;q32)	MYC-IGH fusion	85%	
	t(2;8)(p12;q24)	MYC-IGK fusion	Rare	
	t(8;22)(q24;q11)	MYC-IGL fusion	Rare	
	t(8q24)	Other MYC fusion		
Mediastinal (thymic) large B-cell lymphoma	9p+	REL amplification		
Diffuse large B-cell lymphoma	t(3q27)	BCL6 translocations with many partners	30%	BCL6 is detected by IHC in most cases, BCL2 in some cases.
	t(14;18)(q32;q21) trisomy 18	BCL2-IGH fusion	20-30%	

TABLE 7–48. COMMON CYTOGENETIC CHANGES IN LYMPHOMAS AND LEUKEMIAS—cont'd

TUMOR TYPE	CYTOGENETIC CHANGES	MOLECULAR EVENTS	FREQUENCY	COMMENTS
B Cell				
Hairy cell leukemia				No consistent changes.
Hodgkin lymphoma				No consistent changes.
Primary effusion lymphoma				No consistent changes.
Plasmacytoma/ myeloma	t(11;14)(q13;q32)	CCND1-IGH fusion		Best prognosis.
	t(6;14)(p21;q32)	CCND3-IGH fusion		
	t(4;14)(p16;q32)	FGF23-IGH fusion		Adverse prognosis.
	t(14;16)(q32;q23)	IGH-MAF fusion		Adverse prognosis.
	Monosomy 13/13q-		15-40%	
T Cell				
Precursor lymphoblastic leukemia/ lymphoblastic lymphoma	Translocations involving TCR alpha, beta, delta, and gamma and partner genes MYC, TAL1, RBTN1, RBTN2, HOX11, and LCK		30%	
	del(1)	TAL1 (small deletion)	25%	Adolescents.
	t(1;14)	TAL1-TCRdelta fusion	>30%	Adolescents.
	t(5;14)	HOX11L2-TCRdelta fusion		Young children.
	del(9p)	CDKN2A deletion		
T-cell prolymphocytic leukemia	inv(14)(q11;q32)	TCRα/β-TCL1 & TCL1b fusion	80%	
	t(14;14)(q11;q32)	TCRα/β-TCL1 & TCL1b fusion	10%	
	t(7;14)(q35;q32.1)	TCRβ-TCL 1A fusion	70-80%	
	Chrom 8 abnormalities			
Adult T-cell lymphoma/ leukemia				No consistent changes.

Continued

TABLE 7–48. COMMON CYTOGENETIC CHANGES IN LYMPHOMAS AND LEUKEMIAS—cont'd

TUMOR TYPE	CYTOGENETIC CHANGES	MOLECULAR EVENTS	FREQUENCY	COMMENTS
T Cell				
Mycosis fungoides and Sezary syndrome				No consistent changes.
Peripheral T-cell lymphoma, NOS				No consistent changes.
Hepatosplenic T-cell lymphoma	i(7q)(q10)		100%	
Panniculitis-like T-cell lymphoma				No consistent changes.
Angioimmunoblastic lymphoma	Trisomy 3, trisomy 5, + X			
Enteropathy-type T-cell lymphoma				No consistent changes.
Anaplastic large cell lymphoma (CD30+)	t(2;5)(p23;q35)	NPM1-ALK fusion protein (p80)	70-80%	ALK detected by IHC in nucleus, nucleolus, and cytoplasm.
	t(2p23)	Several ALK fusions		ALK detected by IHC in cytoplasm.
Extranodal NK/T-cell lymphoma, nasal type				No consistent changes.
Blastic NK-cell lymphoma				No consistent changes.

[a]Imatinib mesylate (STI571, Gleevec, Glivec) is a small molecule tyrosine kinase inhibitor that may be used for the treatment of tumors overexpressing tyrosine kinases:
Bcr-Abl tyrosine kinase: CML, ALL (Ph+)
KIT tyrosine kinase: GIST, systemic mastocytosis, some types of AML
PDGFR kinase: CMML, chronic eosinophilic leukemia, rare cases of GIST
The KIT protein is encoded by the c-kit proto-oncogene and is a transmembrane receptor protein with tyrosine kinase activity. Mutations may render KIT independent of its ligand, SCF (stem cell factor). Mutated proteins may or may not respond to therapy with Imatinib. Wild-type KIT and KIT with mutations in the juxtamembrane domain (the intracellular segment between the transmembrane and tyrosine kinase domains) are found in GIST's and are sensitive to imatinib. Other tumor types are associated with mutations in the enzymatic domain and the altered protein is generally not sensitive to imatinib.
For additional information on specific genes, see Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM; www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov).

Tumors and Diseases Associated with Germline Mutations (Tables 7-49 and 7-50)

The following features are suggestive of hereditary susceptibility to cancer:

- Two or more close relatives on the same side of the family with cancer
- Evidence of autosomal dominant transmission
- Early development of cancer in the patient and relatives (in general, <50 years of age)
- Multiple primary cancers
- Multiple types of cancers
- Unusual pathologic features of tumors (Table 7-49)
- A constellation of tumors suggestive of a specific syndrome (Table 7-50)

Pathologists can aid in the detection of hereditary carcinomas by being aware of the types and pathologic characteristics of carcinomas associated with these syndromes. Patients with germline mutations are important to identify in order to:

- Screen patients for other common tumors or other components of the disease
- Consider prophylactic surgery or preventive interventions
- Offer screening to family members at risk and genetic counseling

Text continues on page 184.

TABLE 7–49. PATHOLOGIC FEATURES OF TUMORS AND DISEASES SUGGESTIVE OF A GERMLINE MUTATION

TYPE OF TUMOR	% OF CASES RELATED TO KNOWN GERMLINE MUTATIONS	SYNDROMES/GENES INVOLVED	CLUES FOR THE PATHOLOGIST
Adrenocortical carcinoma in children	50% to 100%	Li-Fraumeni, Beckwith-Wiedemann, MEN1	Unusual occurrence in a child.
Angiomyolipoma of kidney	20%	Tuberous sclerosis	Patients may be screened for other features of tuberous sclerosis.
Basal cell carcinoma	Rare if solitary	Nevoid basal cell carcinoma syndrome	Risk of a mutation is increased if multiple or if tumor occurs at <30 years of age.
Breast cancer, poorly differentiated, ER negative*	>25% if <35 years old, <10% if >35 years old	BRCA1	BRCA1 cancers are more likely to have "medullary" features, and be ER- PR- HER2/neu -. BRCA1 mutation more likely if patient has a family history or has bilateral cancer.
Breast cancer, male	4% to 14%	BRCA2	Cancers are of no specific type.
Colorectal carcinoma, poorly differentiated, mucinous, or with prominent lymphocytic infiltrate	~ 10–15% overall, ~80% if patient is <40	HNPCC	HNPCC carcinomas are more likely right -sided (two-thirds), poorly differentiated ("medullary"), mucinous, signet ring, lymphocytic infiltrate. IHC for MSH2 and MLH1 can be used to detect many, but not all, cases, but MLH1 may also be absent in sporadic cases.
GI neuroendocrine tumors: Somatostatinoma PPoma Non-functioning Gastrinoma Glucagonoma VIPoma Insulinoma Carcinoid	 45% 18-44% 18-44% 20-25% 1-20% 6% 4-5% Rare	MEN1 mutations	MEN1 mutations are also found in 15% to 70% of sporadic neuroendocrine tumors.
Hirschsprung disease	20-40%	MEN2A (RET mutations in codons 609, 618, 620)	
Juvenile (hamartomatous) polyps	Rare if solitary	Juvenile polyposis syndrome	Suspect JPS if there are >5 polyps, if present throughout the GI tract, or if there is a family history of juvenile polyps.
Medullary carcinoma of the thyroid	25%	MEN2A, MEN2B, familial medullary carcinoma (RET mutations)	May be multiple and associated with C cell hyperplasia. Cancers in occur in children in MEN2B and in young adults in MEN2A.
Medulloblastoma	Rare (?)	Nevoid basal cell carcinoma syndrome	If <3 years of age or of desmoplastic type, risk of mutation is increased.
Myxoma, cardiac	<5%	Carney complex	Increased likelihood if multiple, right-sided, and/or recurrent and in young patients (<30).
Neurofibromas	~10% if solitary but >90% if plexiform	Neurofibromatosis type 1	Increased risk if there are ≥2 neurofibromas or one plexiform neurofibroma.

Continued

TABLE 7–49. PATHOLOGIC FEATURES OF TUMORS AND DISEASES SUGGESTIVE OF A GERMLINE MUTATION—cont'd

TYPE OF TUMOR	% OF CASES RELATED TO KNOWN GERMLINE MUTATIONS	SYNDROMES/GENES INVOLVED	CLUES FOR THE PATHOLOGIST
Ovarian carcinoma	Rare	BRCA1, BRCA2	Increased risk if there is a history of breast cancer. BRCA1-associated carcinomas are more likely to be serous in type.
Pheochromocytoma	30% of all cases, 59% if patient is <18, 84% if bilateral	MEN2A, MEN2B, VHL, Isolated familial pheochromocytoma	Multiple tumors, hyperplasia of the medulla.
Primary pigmented nodular adrenocortical disease (PPNAD)	>90%	Carney complex (25% have PPNAD)	May present with Cushing syndrome. Most are associated with germline mutations, but patients may not have other manifestations of the Carney complex.
Retinoblastoma	40% of all cases, 100% if bilateral or with a positive family history	RB mutations (13q14.1-q14.2)	
Rhabdomyoma of heart in infants	50%	Tuberous sclerosis	
Sarcoma, children	7-33%	Li-Fraumeni, basal cell nevus syndrome, neurofibromatosis type 1, pleuropulmonary blastoma syndrome	
Sebaceous carcinoma	~10% if ocular, 40% if above the chin, 80% if elsewhere	HNPCC	Increased likelihood if the tumor has cystic degeneration or features of keratoacanthoma. Usually due to germline MSH2 mutations.
Schwannoma, psammomatous melanotic	>50%	Carney complex	Higher likelihood if patient is young (<30 years) and/or multiple tumors present.
Schwannoma, vestibular	5%	Neurofibromatosis type 2	Risk is increased if the patient is <30 or if there is bilateral involvement. Sporadic cases almost all have somatic NF2 mutations.
Sertoli cell tumor, large-cell calcifying	25-35%	Carney complex, Peutz-Jeghers	Most are bilateral and multifocal in young patients. Rarely malignant. Present in 30% of males with Carney complex.
Trichilemmoma, facial, multiple	~80%	PTEN	Sporadic tumors also have loss of PTEN which can be shown by IHC.
Wilms tumor	10-15%	Germline mutations in WT1 (11p13)	Nephrogenic rests are present and may be extensive. 5% to 10% of cases associated with germline mutations are multicentric or bilateral. Associated with WAGR syndrome (Wilms tumor, aniridia, GU anomalies, mental retardation) and Denys-Drash syndrome.

*See Lakhani SR, et al, The pathology of familial breast cancer: predictive value of immunohistochemical markers estrogen receptor, progesterone receptor, HER-2, and p53 in patients with mutations in BRCA1 and BRCA2. J Clin Oncol 20:2310-2318, 2002, for additional information relating pathologic characteristics to risk of a BRCA1 mutation.

TABLE 7–50. HEREDITARY SYNDROMES ASSOCIATED WITH MULTIPLE TUMORS

SYNDROME	GERMLINE MUTATIONS	TUMORS (% OF PATIENTS DEVELOPING TUMOR)	COMMENTS
Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome	11p15 abnormalities (loss of methylation, uniparental disomy, mutations in CDKN1C)	Wilms tumor, neuroblastoma, hepatoblastoma, adrenocortical carcinoma, rhabdomyosarcoma	Macrosomia, macroglossia, visceromegaly, ear creases and pits, omphalocele, hypoglycemia.
Bloom syndrome	BLM (RecQL3), 15q26.1	Acute leukemia, lymphoma, gastrointestinal adenocarcinoma (20% of patients develop a malignancy)	Characteristic appearance, café-au-lait spots, telangiectasias. Carcinomas do not have a specific appearance.
BRCA1 and 2	BRCA1 (17q21), BRCA2 (13q12.3)	Breast (85%), ovary (BRCA1 63%, BRCA2 27%), prostate carcinoma, others	BRCA1 breast cancers are more often poorly differentiated, have medullary features, are ER- PR- HER2/neu -, and have p53 mutations. Ovarian carcinomas are generally serous (90%), high grade, and bilateral. BRCA2 cancers do not have specific pathologic features.
Carney complex	Type 1 (CNC1) (30% of patients): PRKAR1A (17q23-24) Type 2 (CNC2) (40% of patients): locus at 2p16 30% of patients do not have identified mutations	Myxomas (cardiac, cutaneous, breast), primary pigmented nodular adrenocortical disease (25%), large-cell calcifying Sertoli cell tumors (> 90% males), multiple thyroid nodules or carcinoma (75%), growth hormone producing pituitary adenoma (10%), psammomatous melanotic schwannoma (10%), breast duct adenomas, osteochondromyxoma of bone Pigmented skin lesions (lentigos, blue nevi (especially epithelioid blue nevus), café-au-lait spots)	The skin lesions characteristically involve the vermillion border of the lip and the intercanthal portion of the eye. Myxomas of the heart can involve all chambers (sporadic tumors usually involve the left atrium) and frequently recur.
Carney triad	Unknown	Gastric gastrointestinal stromal tumor, pulmonary chondroma, extra-adrenal paraganglioma Also esophageal leiomyomas and adrenocortical tumors	Most patients are young and female. Only 22% have all three tumors. Most family members are not affected.
Familial adenomatous polyposis (FAP; including Gardner syndrome and Turcot syndrome)	APC (5q21-22)	Colorectal carcinoma, upper GI carcinoma, desmoid, Gardner fibroma, osteoma, thyroid, brain (1/3 to 2/3 are medulloblastomas – Turcot syndrome)	
Familial gastrointestinal stromal tumor syndrome	KIT (4q12) PDGFRA	GIST, often multiple (> 90% lifetime risk), hyperplasia of the interstitial cells of Cajal	GIST may occur at younger ages.
Familial medullary thyroid carcinoma	RET mutations in codons 10, 11, 13, 14 (10q11.2)	Medullary thyroid carcinoma	Cancers usually occur in adults.

Continued

TABLE 7–50. HEREDITARY SYNDROMES ASSOCIATED WITH MULTIPLE TUMORS—cont'd

SYNDROME	GERMLINE MUTATIONS	TUMORS (% OF PATIENTS DEVELOPING TUMOR)	COMMENTS
Hereditary diffuse gastric cancer syndrome	CDH1 (e-cadherin) (16q22.1)	Signet ring cell carcinoma of the stomach (67% men, 83% women), lobular carcinoma of the breast (39% women)	50% of sporadic signet ring cell carcinomas have CDH1 somatic mutations and all show loss of e-cadherin by IHC.
Hereditary non-polyposis syndrome* ("Lynch syndrome" but first patients were described by Warthin)	Mismatch repair genes: MSH2 (2p22-p21) (40%), MLH1 (3p21.3) (40%), MSH6 (2p16) (5 to 7%), PMS2 (7p22) (rare)	Colon carcinoma (80%), endometrial carcinoma (20 to 60%), ovarian carcinoma (9 to 12%), stomach carcinoma (11 to 19%), hepatobiliary tumors (2 to 7%), transitional cell carcinoma (4 to 5% - esp ureter and renal pelvis), small bowel tumors (1 to 4%), lymphoma (rare) Sebaceous skin tumors, adenomas, epitheliomas, carcinoma, keratoacanthomas (Muir-Torre – usually MSH2)	Colon carcinomas are more likely (overall, 66%) to be on the right side, poorly differentiated ("medullary"), mucinous, signet ring, or undifferentiated, with a prominent lymphocytic infiltrate. IHC can be used to detect the absence of MSH2 (usually due to germline mutations) and MLH1 (can be due to germline mutations, epigenetic changes (methylation), or less commonly, somatic mutations) in many patients. IHC is 92% sensitive for MSI and 100% specific. MSI testing is also used.
Juvenile polyposis syndrome	MADH4 (or SMAD4) (18q21.10 (15%) or BMPR1A (10q22.3) (25%)	Hamartomatous (juvenile) polyps, GI carcinomas	
Li-Fraumeni	p53 (17p13.1), rarely CHEK2 (22q12.1)	Sarcomas, breast cancer, leukemia, osteosarcomas, brain tumors, adrenocortical carcinoma, others	
MEN1	MEN 1 (11q13)	Pituitary adenoma, pancreatic islet cell tumors, parathyroid adenomas, adrenocortical tumors, carcinoids, lipomas	MEN1 mutations also occur in 15 to 70% of sporadic neuroendocrine tumors.
MEN2A	RET exon 10 and 11 missense mutations (10q11.2)	Medullary thyroid carcinoma (95%), hyperplasia of the parathyroids (15-30%), pheochromocytoma (50%), ganglioneuromatosis of GI tract. Subsets of patients have Hirschsprung disease or cutaneous lichen amyloidosis	Specific mutations correlate with age at development of medullary thyroid carcinoma.
MEN2B	RET missense mutation in exon 16 (10q11.2)	Medullary thyroid carcinoma (100%), pheochromocytoma (50%) Mucosal neuromas of lips and tongue,	Marfanoid habitus, distinctive facies.
Nevoid basal cell carcinoma syndrome (Gorlin syndrome)	PTCH (9q22.3)	Basal cell carcinomas (90%), odontogenic keratocysts (90%), cardiac or ovarian fibromas (20%), medulloblastoma in childhood (5%)	Macrocephaly, skeletal anomalies, palmar or plantar pits, calcification of falx (90%).
Neurofibromatosis type 1	NF1 (17q11.2)	Neurofibromas (esp plexiform) (100%), optic gliomas, adrenal ganglioneuromas, pheochromocytoma (0.1 – 6%), MPNST (10%), leukemia, ganglioneuromatosis of the GI tract	Café-au-lait macules (95%), iris hamartomas (Lisch nodules), axillary freckling.

TABLE 7–50. HEREDITARY SYNDROMES ASSOCIATED WITH MULTIPLE TUMORS—cont'd

SYNDROME	GERMLINE MUTATIONS	TUMORS (% OF PATIENTS DEVELOPING TUMOR)	COMMENTS
Neurofibromatosis type 2	NF2 (22q12.2)	Bilateral vestibular schwannomas (100%, 40% have lobular pattern), schwannomas of other nerves, meningiomas (50%, often fibroblastic)	
Peutz-Jeghers (Hamartomatous polyp syndrome)	LKBI/STK11 (19p13.3)	Colon, breast, stomach, pancreas, small bowel, thyroid, lung, uterus, sex cord stromal tumors, calcifying Sertoli cell tumors Hamartomatous polyps of GI tract	Perioral pigmentation.
Pheochomocytoma or paraganglioma, familial	SDHB (1p36.1-p35) SDHD (11q23) SDHC (1q21) (paraganglioma)	Pheochromocytoma, paraganglioma	Patients are more commonly young (< 40), with multifocal adrenal tumors, or extra-adrenal disease. SDHD is imprinted and only confers susceptibility after paternal transmission.
PTEN hamartoma syndrome (including 80% of Cowden's syndrome, 50-60% of Bannayan-RIley-Ruvalcaba syndrome)	PTEN (10q23.31)	Breast cancer (25 to 50%), thyroid carcinoma (10% - especially follicular), endometrial carcinoma (5 to 10%), hamartomatous polyps of GI tract Multiple facial trichilemmomas, acral keratosis, oral papillomatous lesions, mucosal lesions	Macrocephaly (megalencephaly, 97th percentile), Lhermitte-Duclos disease.
Tuberous sclerosis	TSC1 (9q34), TSC2 (16p13,3)	Subependymal glial nodules (90%), cortical or subcortical tubers (70%), angiomyolipoma of kidney (70%), lymphangiomyomatosis of lung (1 to 6%), rhabdomyoma of heart (47 to 67%) Skin lesions (100%, including myomelanotic macules, multiple facial angiofibromas, shagreen patch, fibrous facial plaque, ungual fibroma)	Seizures (80%), developmental delay or retardation (50%).
Von Hippel-Lindau (VHL)	VHL (3p26-p25)	Hemangioblastomas (retinal, cerebellar, spinal cord) (80%), renal cell carcinoma (40%), renal cysts, pancreatic cysts, pheochromocytoma, endolymphatic sac tumors (10%), epididymal cystadenomas	

*MSI-H is found in 11% of sporadic colon carcinomas and has histologic features similar to patients with germline mutations. There is reduced response to 5-FU but better survival. >5 fold increased risk of metachronous cancers.
For additional information on most syndromes, see http://www.genetests.org/and Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM; www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov).

Although the sporadic forms of cancers, in general, far outnumber cases associated with germline mutations, in some cases the appearance or site of a carcinoma is highly suggestive of a known syndrome and further investigation may be warranted.

ANALYTICAL CYTOLOGY (FLOW CYTOMETRY)

Flow cytometers analyze populations of thousands of dissaggregated cells as they pass by stationary detectors. Cell size and cytoplasmic granularity can be measured as well as DNA content and the presence or absence of immunohistochemical markers added to the cell suspension. Newer techniques can analyze three or more features simultaneously to divide cells into unique populations. DNA content can be used to determine the number of cells in S-phase (a measure of proliferation - S-phase fraction). Because cells are not visualized by this technique, one must be sure to submit only lesional tissue.

Indications for Ploidy and S-Phase Analysis.

- Hydatidiform moles – complete (diploid), partial (triploid)
- Some carcinomas – DNA ploidy and S-phase have been reported to be of prognostic significance for some carcinomas (e.g., colon, breast, and prostate) but is not routinely performed at all institutions or used by all oncologists.

Indications for Cell Surface Marker Analysis.

- Lymphomas and leukemias

Method for Submitting Tissue. Single cell suspensions are necessary for analysis. For fresh tissues, cells must be viable. Fresh tissue (approximately 0.3 to 0.5 cm^3) is placed in a specimen container and kept moist with HBSS. Tissues can be held overnight in a refrigerator.

Formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded sections may also be used for DNA ploidy analysis by the Hedley method, although the results are not as satisfactory due to nuclear fragmentation.

Results. The results are usually incorporated into the final surgical pathology report.

CYTOLOGIC PREPARATIONS FROM SURGICAL SPECIMENS

Cytologic preparations of surgical specimens often add additional information.

- **Intraoperative diagnosis:** Touch preps or smears are especially valuable for:
  - Infectious cases (to avoid contamination of the cryostat and aerosolization of infectious agents)
  - Neuropathology cases – for diagnosis and for the performance of cytogenetic (FISH) analysis.
  - Tumors (for excellent cytologic detail, especially lymphomas and papillary carcinomas of the thyroid)
- **Special stains:** Stains for microorganisms can be performed the same day on cytologic smears of specimens from critically ill patients. Do not submit air-dried smears of infectious cases for staining as the unfixed material may constitute a hazard to laboratory personnel. Fat is dissolved during routine processing, but can be demonstrated with fat stains on air dried slides.
- **Genetic studies (FISH):** In touch preparations nuclei are intact, unlike tissue sections in which only partial nuclei are present. This feature makes these preparations superior for techniques such as FISH and image analysis.

Comparing cytology preparations and the corresponding surgical specimen is always a useful exercise in learning the comparative morphology of these techniques.

SPECIMEN RADIOGRAPHY

Specimen radiographs are often preferable over patient radiographs:

- A permanent record of the radiograph can be kept with the case.
- A radiograph of the specimen may reveal more details of the underlying process (e.g., fewer structures may be present to complicate the appearance).
- There may have been a significant time interval between the patient radiograph and the surgical excision.
- The radiograph will often indicate important sites to examine histologically (tumor invasion into a rib or microcalcifications in a breast biopsy).
- The specimen radiograph can confirm that the clinical lesion was removed.

Indications.

- Tumors of bone and cartilage
- Tumors invading into bone
- Avascular necrosis
- All bioprosthetic heart valves (to document the degree of calcification)
- Breast biopsies or mastectomies performed for mammographic lesions that cannot be located grossly. Paraffin blocks of breast tissue can be radiographed if microcalcifications were seen by specimen radiography but not in histologic sections and were not identified prior to processing. Clips placed after core needle biopsy are also easily identified.

Calcifications can dissolve in formalin over several days. If the demonstration of calcifications is important (e.g., mammographically detected calcifications) it is preferable to process the tissue within 1 to 2 days. If processing is to be delayed, the tissue can be stored in ethanol.

Method. Radiographic equipment is available in radiology departments and in some pathology departments. The specimen may be placed on a piece of wax paper (to keep the surfaces clean) lying on the film. Specimens can be radiographed after decalcification (not all calcium is removed) but best results are obtained on fresh undecalcified specimens. Lungs should not be inflated prior to radiography.

If the specimen is small, two exposures at different settings or at different angles may be useful. Lead sheets can be used to allow two exposures on one piece of film.

If the film is too dark (overexposed), the exposure is too high and a lower setting should be tried. If the film is too light (i.e., unexposed) the exposure is too low and a higher setting is indicated.

Special injection techniques with radiocontrast media are available for unusual specimens (e.g., a recipient lung with pulmonary hypertension, vascular ectasia of the bowel).

Octreotide and Sentinel Nodes. Labeled compounds are sometimes used to localize certain types of tumors (generally neuroendocrine) or sentinel lymph nodes. The patient is injected with the isotope prior to surgery and the surgeon uses a hand held probe to identify the labeled tissue. The amount of radioactivity in the tissue is small and generally does not pose a hazard to pathologists handling the tissue and does not need special disposal methods. However, each pathology department should consult with their radiation safety department to ensure appropriate handling of such tissues. In some cases, if a gross lesion is not present corresponding to the area of octreotide uptake, specimens can be imaged using a gamma camera.

Results. The radiographs are documented in the gross description and any information gained from the radiograph is incorporated into the surgical pathology report.

TISSUE FOR RESEARCH — TUMOR BANK

The pathology department is a unique resource for researchers who need human tissues. The pathologist plays a key role as patient advocate and diagnostician in order to provide appropriate human tissues for biologic research. Most hospitals have a policy that allows the release of tissue for research **if it would otherwise be discarded**. Therefore, tissue is never provided for research until all necessary tissue has been taken for diagnosis. Tissue from primary diagnostic breast biopsies and open lung biopsies without gross lesions must not be given away. It is in the best interest of the patient that a pathologist evaluate the specimen rather than have tissue given away by nonpathologists who are not aware of what is needed for diagnosis.

Indications. By request of researchers who have obtained permission from the hospital Institutional Review Board (IRB). Patients must provide specific consent. In some cases, all patient identification will need to be removed from the specimen.

MICROBIOLOGICAL CULTURE AND SMEARS

The investigation of infectious disease by culture is complementary to its investigation by histologic sections (Tables 7-51 to 7-53).

TABLE 7–51. IDENTIFICATION OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES

CULTURE	HISTOLOGIC SECTIONS
Can be performed on aspirates, swabs, fluids, or tissues.	Requires surgical excision of tissues.
Cultures amplify the number of organisms present, allowing them to be recognized.	Organisms may be rare, or not seen in tissue sections.
The specific organism can be identified and tested for drug susceptibility.	Categories of organisms can be recognized but specific identification may not be possible.
Some organisms cannot be cultured.	Many organisms can be identified that will not grow in culture or that require long culture times (e.g., TB).
It may be difficult to exclude contamination for a positive culture.	Morphologic evidence of an inflammatory response provides evidence for a clinical infection. The location of the infection may be of diagnostic importance (e.g., cellulitis vs. necrotizing fasciitis or superficial colonization of devitalized tissue vs. deep infections involving viable tissues). The use of special studies, such as PCR and other molecular assays, may be warranted if the tissue pattern of injury is indicative of a potential organism despite lack of culture evidence and/or lack of organisms seen on tissue sections.

Indications.
- Suspected infectious processes, either by clinical data or by frozen section
- Suspected sarcoid to exclude an infectious process

Method. Tissue is kept as sterile as possible. Suture removal kits are a convenient source of sterile scissors and forceps. Serially section the specimen to determine if there are focal lesions. Place representative sections in a sterile specimen container making sure to retain a duplicate piece of tissue for histology. Label with the patient's name and unit number, patient's physician, type of specimen, collection date, and time of collection (required for Joint commission accreditation).

Results. The results are generally reported by the microbiology laboratory. Communication with the microbiology laboratory and staff is essential to correlate histologic results with microbiology results from the same specimen.

Reports. The results of culture of surgical specimens are usually reported in a separate report.

TABLE 7-52. FUNGI: HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE IN SURGICAL SPECIMENS

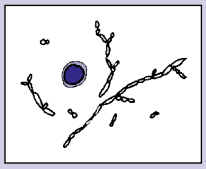
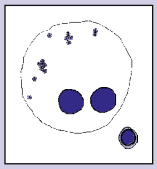
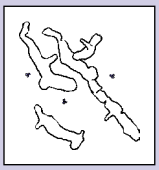
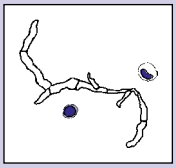
HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE OF FUNGUS		STAINS	USUAL SITES OF INFECTION (PATIENT GROUPS)	TISSUE RESPONSE
***CANDIDA* SPECIES (*C. ALBICANS*, 60%; *C. TROPICALIS, C. PARAPSILOSIS, C. KRUSEI*)**				
	3- to 4-μm round yeast forms True hyphae with acute angle branching (5-10 μm) Budding yeast (single bud) Extracellular	MSS (+) PAS (+) Gram (+) (unlike most other fungi)	Skin/oral: superficial Larynx (thrush) (immunocompromised; newborn) Vagina (pregnancy; DM; antibiotic use) Esophagus (HIV; malignancy) Invasive/systemic: kidney, liver, lung, heart valves (immunocompromised) Oral, vaginal, disseminated (immunocompromised; antibiotic therapy; elderly; denture wearing)	Fungi on surface of epithelium, CI, +/– eosinophils Ulcer, pseudomembrane, dirty necrosis, PMNs, MP, GC, occasional GRAN AI
***CANDIDA GLABRATA* ("TORULOPSIS")**				
	Similar to other *Candida* but no true hyphae Only small yeast forms are usually present		Urogenital tract (immunocompromised) Bloodstream (immunocompromised)	Similar to *C. albicans*
HISTOPLASMA CAPSULATUM				
	2- to 5-μm yeast forms Unequal budding Often intracellular in histiocytes or PMNs (looks like leishmania but with no kinetoplast—one dot only) Very rare short pseudohyphae Giemsa may give false impression of a capsule	MSS (+) PAS (+) Mucicarmine (–) FM (–) Giemsa (+)	Lung (Mississippi and Ohio River valleys): usually an incidentally found fibrocaseous nodule in lung, lymph node, liver, or spleen (patients are not immunocompromised) Disseminated (e.g., gastrointestinal, lung, lymph node) (immunocompromised)	NEC GRAN or old resolved GRAN with calcifications, degenerate fungal forms Predominantly intracellular organisms, MP, GRAN, not AI

TABLE 7–52. FUNGI: HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE IN SURGICAL SPECIMENS—cont'd

HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE OF FUNGUS		STAINS	USUAL SITES OF INFECTION (PATIENT GROUPS)	TISSUE RESPONSE
ZYGOMYCETES (INCLUDING THE GENERA *MUCOR, RHIZOPUS, RHIZOMUCOR, ABSIDIA*, AND *CUNNINGHAMELLA*)				
	Large hyphae, irregular in width, infrequently septate hyphae, 6-50 μm Right angle branching Budlike or bulbous projections No yeast forms Usually seen without stains	MSS (weak) PAS (weak) H&E (+)	Skin (primary or hematogenous) (DM) Rhinocerebral (DM, leukemia, dialysis) Lung (immunocompromised) GI or bladder	Invasion of BVs with infarction, hemorrhage, perineural invasion, little host response or AI (all patients are immunocompromised)
***ASPERGILLUS* SPP. (*A. FUMIGATUS*, 90%; *A. FLAVUS, A. NIGER, A. TERREUS, A. NIDULANS*)**				
	Septate hyphae, 45-degree branching, 3-8 μm, evenly contoured Fruiting bodies (pigmented) seen only in necrotic tissue with air exposure (rarely in invasive lesions) Dilated and distorted hyphae are present in chronic lesions	MSS (+) PAS (+) Gram (weak) IHC and ISH available	Nose/sinus: Invasive (immunocompromised) Noninvasive Allergic mucin Bronchopulmonary: Superficial (allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis) Bronchocentric granulomatosis Aspergilloma: fungal ball in preexisting necrotic cavity (not immunocompromised) Invasive: target lesions (necrotic areas with peripheral hemorrhage) (immunocompromised) Skin: usually secondary to hematogenous spread	Ulceration, AI, fungi in viable tissue Mat of fungal hyphae, little or no inflammation Eosinophils and hyphae in mucin, Charcot-Leyden crystals Bronchiolitis or alveolitis, eosinophils, mucoid impaction with fragmented fungal hyphae Circumferential GRAN of small airways, mucin impaction with fragmented fungal hyphae, eosinophils Little tissue response, CI. Conidiophores (fruiting bodies) may be present if in contact with air. *Aspergillus niger* is associated with calcium oxalate production causing thrombosis and ischemic necrosis Invasion of arteries with thrombosis and infarction, may be +/– host response; may resolve with GRAN Microabscesses and NEC GRAN

Continued

TABLE 7–52. FUNGI: HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE IN SURGICAL SPECIMENS—cont'd

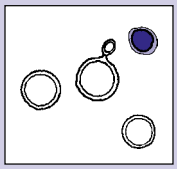
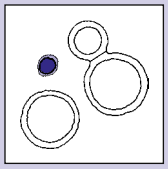
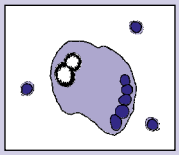
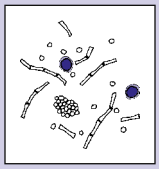
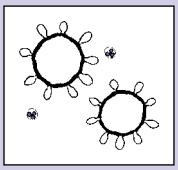
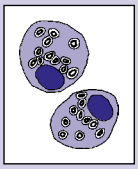
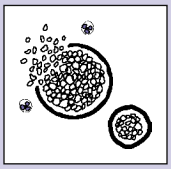
HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE OF FUNGUS		STAINS	USUAL SITES OF INFECTION (PATIENT GROUPS)	TISSUE RESPONSE
CRYPTOCOCCUS NEOFORMANS				
	2-15 μm, spherical or oval narrow-based unequal buds, prominent capsule (mucicarmine positive); variable size and shape is characteristic Single or multiple buds, rare pseudohyphae. Capsule-deficient forms (mucicarmine negative) may be present. However, FM is usually positive.	PAS (+) Gram (weak) MSS (+) FM (+) AB (+ capsule) Mucicarmine (+ capsule) ICH available	Lungs: symptomatic pneumonia that may affect both lungs. Can also form residual fibrocaseous granulomas (rarely calcify). Meningoencephalitis (soap-bubble lesions): CSF (India ink positive, but antigen test is better) (immunocompromised); the antigen test cross-reacts with *Trichosporon* species. Disseminated (any organ) (immunocompromised)	Solitary, well-circumscribed focus of yeast forms surrounded by GRAN and GC Fungi in Virchow-Robin space, little host response Little host response
BLASTOMYCES DERMATITIDIS				
	8-20 μm spheres with broad-based budding Double contour thick capsule Often in giant cells Multiple nuclei No hyphae	MSS (+) PAS (+) Mucicarmine (+/–) FM (–)	Lung (Mississippi and Ohio River valleys) (residual nodules are much rarer than for *Histoplasma* or *Coccidioides* species) Skin: fleshy fungating ulcers, may be verrucous Disseminated (bones, GI, CNS, prostate, liver, spleen, kidney)	Usually solitary focus of GRAN, rarely calcified Pseudoepitheliomatous hyperplasia hyperkeratosis, microabscesses, AI (intraepithelial), GRAN
DEMATIACEOUS FUNGI (BROWN PIGMENTED; >100 SPECIES)				
	1.5- to 5-μm brown to black yeast "copper penny," may be present in giant cells, often in pairs Sclerotic bodies (septated cells) and septate hyphae	H&E (+) MSS (+) PAS (+)	Chromoblastomycosis usually due to traumatic introduction of fungi by thorn or splinter Phaeohyphomycosis (cutaneous phaeomycotic cyst) usually due to traumatic introduction of fungi by thorn or splinter Mycetoma (chronic tumor-like lesion with draining sinuses) Systemic (cerebral)—rare	Hyperkeratosis, microabscesses, PMNs, and GRAN; verrucous appearance, sclerotic bodies present Subcutaneous cystic granulomatous nodule, surface not involved, hyphae usually present GRAN, AI, hyaline granules Abscesses
DERMATOPHYTES (*TRICHOPHYTON, MICROSPORUM, EPIDERMOPHYTON* SPECIES)				
	Septate hyphae and yeast forms ("spaghetti and meatballs")	MSS (+) PAS (+) FM (+)	Skin (tinea corporis or "ringworm," tinea pedis or athlete's foot), hair (tinea capitis), and nails (tinea unguium or onychomycosis) Disseminated (immunocompromised)—very rare	Chronic dermatitis and spongiosis, little host response, superficial fungal forms

TABLE 7–52. FUNGI: HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE IN SURGICAL SPECIMENS—cont'd

HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE OF FUNGUS		STAINS	USUAL SITES OF INFECTION (PATIENT GROUPS)	TISSUE RESPONSE
***PARACOCCIDIOIDES BRASILIENSIS* (SOUTH AMERICAN BLASTOMYCOSIS)**				
	5- to 25-μm double-walled yeast forms that reproduce by gemmulation: 10- to 60-μm "ship's wheel"	MSS (+) PAS (+)	Skin ulceration (trauma with soil, residency in South America) Upper and lower respiratory tract Disseminated (lymph nodes, liver, spleen, gastrointestinal, genitourinary, bones, adrenal, CNS)	Ulcers or vegetations, AI, GRAN, eosinophils Ulcers or vegetations, AI, GRAN, eosinophils, followed by fibrosis Ulcers or vegetations, AI, GRAN, eosinophils
SPOROTHRIX SCHENCKII				
	Round or oval 2- to 6-μm yeast, often in GC Unequal narrow-based budding Elongated cigar-shaped forms No hyphae	MSS (+) PAS (+)	Skin (nodular lymphangitic cutaneous sporotrichosis): red papule that ulcerates and local lymphadenitis (farmers and gardeners, exposure to cats) Extracutaneous: bones and joints, lung—very rare	AI and NEC GRAN, hyperkeratosis, pseudoepitheliomatous hyperplasia, intraepithelial abscesses (looks like blastomycosis) Cavitary pneumonitis in one upper lobe
***COCCIDIOIDES* SPECIES (*C. IMMITIS, C. POSADASII*)**				
	20- to 200-μm nonbudding thick-walled spherules containing 2- to 5-μm endospores Hyphae may rarely be found in pulmonary cavities	MSS (+) PAS (+) Mucicarmine (–) FM (–)	Lung (San Joaquin valley, SW and W): often seen as residual fibrocaseous nodules—organisms may be rare or absent Systemic (meninges, bone, adrenal CNS, liver) (immunocompromised, DM, elderly, pregnant)	Single focus, may calcify, AI or GRAN (no GCs) GRAN: if spherules are unruptured AI: if spherules ruptured and endospores released May be hazardous to laboratory workers if cultured

AB, Alcian blue; AI, acute inflammation; BV, blood vessel; CNS, central nervous system; CSF, cerebrospinal fluid; DM, diabetes mellitus; FM, Fontana Masson; GC, giant cell; GI, gastrointestinal; GRAN, granulomas; IHC, immunohistochemical methods; ISH, in situ hybridization methods; MP, macrophage; MSS, silver stain (similar to GMS—Grocott-Gomori methenamine silver); NEC GRAN, necrotizing granulomas; PAS, periodic acid–Schiff; PMNs, polymorphonuclear leukocytes; (+), positive; (-), negative.
Data from Lerone DH. Medically Important Fungi: A Guide to Identification, 4th ed. Washington, DC: ASM Press, 2004; and Chandler FW, Watts JC. Pathologic Diagnosis of Fungal Infections. Chicago: ASCP Press, 1987.

TABLE 7-53. VIRUSES: HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE AND ASSOCIATED NEOPLASMS

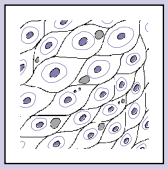
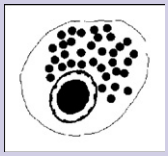
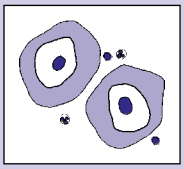
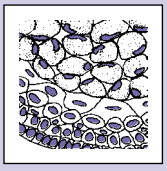
HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE OF VIRUS	HOST REACTION	COMMON SITES (OR CELLS) OF INVOLVEMENT	ASSOCIATED NEOPLASMS/ VALUE OF TESTING FOR VIRUS	TESTS TO IDENTIFY VIRUS
HERPES SIMPLEX VIRUS (HSV I AND II) (ds DNA)				
 Multinucleated squamous cells, hepatocytes, pneumocytes, microglial cells, or placenta Glassy nuclei with chromatin compressed at nuclear membrane Intranuclear eosinophilic inclusions with a clear halo and thick nuclear membrane (Cowdry A*)	Vesicles or ulcerated surface with CI and AI Necrosis of organs in neonates or immunocompromised patients	Squamous mucosa of esophagus, cervix, or anus Skin Lung Temporal lobe (diagnosed by PCR of CSF)	No associated neoplasms	IHC for viral proteins (does not distinguish types I and II) ISH/PCR
VARICELLA-ZOSTER VIRUS (VZV, ds DNA)				
Similar to HSV	Similar to HSV	Skin: rarely biopsied Lung	No associated neoplasms	IHC (can distinguish VZV from HSV)
SMALLPOX VIRUS (ds DNA)				
 Eosinophilic cytoplasmic inclusions (Guarnieri bodies), ballooning degeneration of epithelial cells†	Multilocular vesicles that coalesce, perivascular lymphocytic infiltrate, AI	Skin GI tract All organs in severe forms	No associated neoplasms	IHC electron microscopy: fluid from vesicles can be used to detect viral particles PCR Report immediately to the CDC!
CYTOMEGALOVIRUS (CMV; ds DNA)				
 Enlarged cells with amphophilic intranuclear (with a surrounding halo) and basophilic intracytoplasmic inclusions	Ulcerated mucosa with CI and AI Endothelial cells with thrombosis and infarction Interstitial pneumonitis	Esophagus, colon, lung, adrenal, heart, liver, placenta	No associated neoplasms	IHC (>40% of U.S. population is infected; significance of [+] in normal-appearing cells is unclear) ISH/PCR

TABLE 7–53. VIRUSES: HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE AND ASSOCIATED NEOPLASMS—cont'd

HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE OF VIRUS	HOST REACTION	COMMON SITES (OR CELLS) OF INVOLVEMENT	ASSOCIATED NEOPLASMS/ VALUE OF TESTING FOR VIRUS	TESTS TO IDENTIFY VIRUS
HUMAN PAPILLOMAVIRUS (HPV, MORE THAN 200 TYPES; ds DNA)				
	Koilocytosis (irregular nuclear enlargement with perinuclear clearing), disrupted keratohyaline granules, hyperkeratosis, parakeratosis	Squamous cells with acanthosis, papillomatosis, and coarse clumped keratohyaline granules	Verruca vulgaris: hands, oral cavity, larynx (HPV 2), EV (HPV 5 and 8) Verruca plana: foot (HPV 5 and 8) Condyloma acuminatum: external genitalia (HPV 6 and 11) Cervix: LSIL, HSIL, cancer (HPV 16 and 18) Head and neck cancer (especially tonsil) (HPV 16)	SCC of cervix, tonsil, anogenital, papillomas of skin and other sites, cervical adenocarcinoma Value of viral testing: cervical cancer screening Metastatic SCC: probable primary site‡ HPV+ tonsillar carcinomas have a better prognosis	ISH/PCR IHC for p16 (cellular protein overexpressed in >90% of HPV infections, especially HPV 16 and 18)
EPSTEIN-BARR VIRUS (EBV; ds DNA)				
	No diagnostic features Infected B cells may have a plasmacytoid immunoblastic appearance In oral hairy leukoplakia, the epithelial cells have a foamy balloon cell appearance	Lymphocytic infiltrate, peripheral lymphocytosis	B cells, oropharyngeal epithelial cells, gastric mucosa, smooth muscle	Lymphomas,§ nasopharyngeal carcinoma, lymphoepithelioma-like gastric carcinoma, EBV-associated smooth muscle tumors, IPFDT Value of viral testing: diagnosis of HD; diagnosis of nasopharyngeal carcinoma EBV+ gastric carcinoma has a better prognosis	IHC for LMP-1 (nasopharyngeal carcinomas, HD [not LP], transplant lymphomas, AIDS-related lymphomas, endemic Burkitt lymphoma) and EBNA 2 (transplant lymphomas, AIDS-related lymphomas) ISH/PCR for EBER-1 and -2 RNA
MOLLUSCUM CONTAGIOSUM (ds DNA)				
	Intracytoplasmic molluscum bodies in squamous cells of granular layer	Acanthosis of skin	Skin: umbilicated nodules	No associated neoplasms	

Continued

TABLE 7–53. VIRUSES: HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE AND ASSOCIATED NEOPLASMS—cont'd

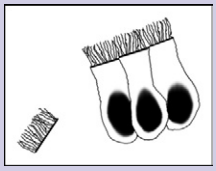
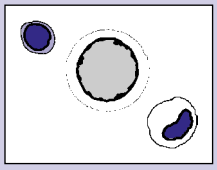
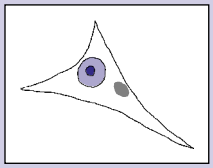
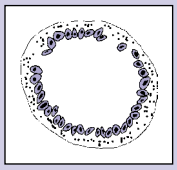
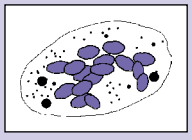
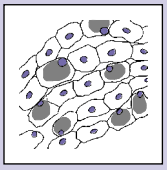
HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE OF VIRUS	HOST REACTION	COMMON SITES (OR CELLS) OF INVOLVEMENT	ASSOCIATED NEOPLASMS/ VALUE OF TESTING FOR VIRUS	TESTS TO IDENTIFY VIRUS
ADENOVIRUS (ds DNA)				
 Alveolar lining cells and bronchial epithelial cells with inclusions filling enlarged nuclei ("smudge cells")	Necrotizing bronchiolitis and pneumonia Diffuse alveolar damage No GCs	Lung and other organs	No associated neoplasms	ISH/PCR (rarely biopsied; may be cultured)
PARVOVIRUS B19 (ss DNA)				
 Large glassy nucleus of nucleated red blood cells	None	Bone marrow, placenta, fetus, and sites of EMH	No associated neoplasms	ISH/PCR
RABIES VIRUS (ss RNA)				
 Negri bodies: cytoplasmic round to oval or bullet-shaped eosinophilic inclusions	Little inflammation present	Neurons or Purkinje cells	No associated neoplasms	ISH/PCR IHC
MEASLES VIRUS (ss RNA)				
 GC with eosinophilic nuclear and cytoplasmic inclusions, Warthin-Finkeldey cells (multinucleated giant cells)	GCs in tracheobronchial mucosa, alveoli, and lymphoid tissue	Lung: diffuse alveolar damage Brain: subacute sclerosing panencephalitis or measles inclusion body encephalitis	No associated neoplasms	ISH/PCR (rare in vaccinated populations; rarely biopsied)
RESPIRATORY SYNCYTIAL VIRUS (RSV; ss RNA)				
 Intracytoplasmic eosinophilic inclusions	Syncytial GCs, diffuse alveolar damage, CI	Lung	No associated neoplasms	Rarely biopsied; clinical tests are available
MERKEL CELL POLYOMA VIRUS (MCV, MCPYV; ds DNA)				
No specific features	No specific host response	Skin	Merkel cell carcinoma	Clinical tests not yet available
JC VIRUS, POLYOMAVIRUS (ds DNA)				
Intranuclear basophilic inclusions in oligodendroglia	Demyelination without inflammation	Subcortical white matter (progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy)	No associated neoplasms	IHC ISH/PCR (can be performed on CSF)

TABLE 7–53. VIRUSES: HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE AND ASSOCIATED NEOPLASMS—cont'd

	HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE OF VIRUS	HOST REACTION	COMMON SITES (OR CELLS) OF INVOLVEMENT	ASSOCIATED NEOPLASMS/ VALUE OF TESTING FOR VIRUS	TESTS TO IDENTIFY VIRUS
BK VIRUS, POLYOMAVIRUS (ds DNA)					
	Decoy cells (tubular or urothelial cells with inclusions) in urine Nuclear enlargement in tubules in late phase of infection	PVAN Tubular cell necrosis, interstitial inflammation, fibrosis	Urinary tract (transplanted kidneys)	No associated neoplasms	IHC ISH/PCR (can be used on urine or bladder washings) Electron microscopy–specific intranuclear inclusions
HEPATITIS B VIRUS (HBV; ds DNA)					
	Cells with ground-glass cytoplasm displacing the nucleus	Chronic active hepatitis, cirrhosis Apoptotic bodies	Hepatocytes	Hepatocellular carcinoma	IHC for core antigen (HBcAg) and surface antigen (HbsAg) ISH/PCR
HEPATITIS C VIRUS (ss RNA)					
	No diagnostic features	Chronic active hepatitis, steatosis, intralobular inflammation, plasma cells, cirrhosis	Hepatocytes	Hepatocellular carcinoma	IHC ISH/PCR
KAPOSI SARCOMA–ASSOCIATED HERPESVIRUS (KSHV, HUMAN HERPESVIRUS-8 [HHV-8]; ds DNA)					
	No diagnostic features	None	Vascular endothelial cells, lymphocytes	Kaposi sarcoma, multicentric Castleman disease, HHV-8–related lymphomas, primary effusion lymphoma Value of testing for virus: diagnosis of Kaposi sarcoma	ISH/PCR Note: most primary effusion lymphomas are also EBV+
HUMAN T-CELL LEUKEMIA VIRUS (HTLV-1; ds DNA)					
	Lymphocytes with condensed chromatin and a convoluted polylobated nucleus ("flower cells")	No specific reaction	T cells	Adult T-cell leukemia Value of testing for virus: diagnosis in patients seronegative for HTLV-1	ISH/PCR

Continued

TABLE 7–53. VIRUSES: HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE AND ASSOCIATED NEOPLASMS—cont'd

HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE OF VIRUS		HOST REACTION	COMMON SITES (OR CELLS) OF INVOLVEMENT	ASSOCIATED NEOPLASMS/ VALUE OF TESTING FOR VIRUS	TESTS TO IDENTIFY VIRUS
HUMAN IMMUNODEFICIENCY VIRUS (HIV; ss RNA)					
	No specific changes	No specific reaction	CD4+ T cells	Immunosuppression increases risk for other virus-associated neoplasms	Diagnosis usually made by serology

*Cowdry type B inclusions were described as smaller inclusions associated with polio. However, this finding has not been validated and is not currently used for diagnosis.

†Monkeypox has a similar appearance. Intracytoplasmic inclusions are characteristic of smallpox and are not seen in HSV or VZV infections. It may be difficult to distinguish smallpox, HSV, and VZV by H&E alone (Nuovo GJ, Plaza JA, Magro C: Rapid diagnosis of smallpox infection and differentiation from its mimics. Diagn Mol Pathol 12:103-107, 2003).

‡The presence of HPV in metastatic carcinoma to a lymph node suggests a primary in the tonsil (if in the head and neck) or cervix (if abdominal).

§Burkitt lymphoma, classic Hodgkin lymphoma (but not lymphocyte-predominant Hodgkin lymphoma), AIDS-associated B-cell lymphoma, plasmablastic lymphoma, post-transplantation lymphoproliferative disorder, lymphomatoid granulomatosis, methotrexate-associated B-cell lymphoma, severe combined immunodeficiency–associated B-cell lymphoma, Wiskott-Aldrich syndrome–associated B-cell lymphoma, X-linked lymphoproliferative disorder–associated B-cell lymphoma, EBV-positive diffuse large B-cell lymphoma of the elderly, peripheral T-cell lymphoma, extranodal NK/T-cell lymphoma, nasal type, virus-associated hemophagocytic syndrome T-cell lymphoma. Angioimmunoblastic T-cell lymphoma is associated with EBV+ B cells. However, the neoplastic T cells are negative for EBV.

AI, acute inflammation; CI, chronic inflammation; CDC, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; CSF, cerebrospinal fluid; ds, double-stranded; EBER, EBV-associated nonpolyadenylated early RNAs; EBNA 2, EBV nuclear antigen 2; EMH, extramedullary hematopoiesis; EV, epidermodysplasia verruciformis; GC, multinucleated giant cells; GI, gastrointestinal; HD, Hodgkin disease; HSIL, high-grade squamous intraepithelial lesion; IHC, immunohistochemistry uses antibodies to visualize either viral proteins (e.g., LMP-1 or HBcAg) or cellular proteins increased during infection (e.g., p16) on tissue sections; IPFDT, inflammatory pseudotumor-like follicular dendritic cell tumor; ISH/PCR, viral nucleic acids are amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and either quantified or visualized on tissue sections (in situ hybridization); LMP-1, latent membrane protein 1; LNA-1, latency-associated nuclear antigen (or LANA1); LP, lymphocyte predominant HD; LSIL, low-grade squamous intraepithelial lesion; PVAN, polyomavirus-associated nephropathy; SCC, squamous cell carcinoma; ss, single-stranded.

Data from Eyzaguirre E, Haque AK: Application of immunohistochemistry to infections. Arch Pathol Lab Med 132:424-431, 2008; McLaughlin-Drubin ME, Munger K: Viruses associated with human cancer. Biochim Biophys Acta 1782:127-150, 2008; Nuovo GJ: The utility of in situ-based methodologies including in situ polymerase chain reaction for the diagnosis and study of viral infections. Hum Pathol 38:1123-1136, 2007; Slifka MK, Hanifin JM: Smallpox: the basics. Dermatol Clin 22:263-274, 2004.

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8 Safety Precautions

A pathology department can be a dangerous place to work. Hazards include physical injury (scalpel cuts, needle sticks), infectious disease, radioactivity, and noxious chemical fumes. Although we all take risks when we work with specimens from patients, these risks can be minimized for both ourselves and our coworkers by following the procedures outlined in this section.

INFECTIOUS DISEASE: THE BAD NEWS

The incidence of infectious diseases, particularly those that are incurable or difficult to treat, is on the rise. In a study of patients undergoing major surgery in New York, 5.2% were HCV positive, 1.4% HBV positive, and 1.6% HIV positive (or 6.7% with one or more of these viruses).[1] Often, the presence of infection is unknown or unreported to the pathology department. Healthcare workers are at risk for contracting these diseases by working with patients. The risk is lower for pathology personnel, but exposure can occur by aerosolization of tissues, needlestick injury, scalpel wounds, and mucocutaneous exposure during the processing of pathology specimens (Box 8-1).

Other types of infectious agents (e.g., other types of bacteria or fungi, *Pneumocystis jiroveci*, other viral agents) are also potential dangers, particularly to immunocompromised healthcare workers, but transmission is very rare and has not yet been reported.

INFECTIOUS DISEASE: THE GOOD NEWS

The actual incidence of transmission of infectious agents from **unfixed surgical specimens** to pathology department personnel is extremely low. There are only three reported cases, all involving conversions to positive tuberculin skin tests after using an aerosolized gas coolent to freeze a tissue block during an intraoperative consultation.[2,3] However, transmission of other types of infectious disease is theoretically possible and has occurred for HBV, HIV, and TB during the performance of autopsies.

The good news is that pathology personnel can take action to protect themselves: by educating themselves about risks, taking physical precautions to protect themselves and others, avoiding the use of hollow-bore needles, and making sure they are vaccinated for HBV (Table 8-1). Personnel who are themselves immunocompromised must be especially vigilant.

BOX 8–1. Diseases that have been transmitted to healthcare workers

- Hepatitis B, C, and A
- Tuberculosis (including strains resistant to multiple drugs)
- HIV
- Syphilis
- Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease
- *Coccidioides immitis* (risk is primarily from cultures of the fungus in microbiology laboratories); if this infection is suspected all specimens must be labeled appropriately
- Also parvovirus, *H. pylori*, *Cryptosporidium*, scabies, pertussis

Hepatitis B Virus (HBV)

The CDC estimated that 18,000 healthcare workers whose jobs entailed exposure to blood became infected with HBV each year prior to widespread vaccination. Of these, 200 to 300 died of complications of HBV infection. Prior to widespread vaccination, 25% to 30% of pathologists were positive for HBV with their exposures likely due to the performance of autopsies. However, the incidence of HBV infection has sharply declined with vaccination, and all pathology department workers who come into contact with tissue should be vaccinated. OSHA bloodborne standards require that employers offer the vaccine at no cost to all employees at risk.

Seroconversion is 30% after a needle stick from HBeAg-positive blood and <6% after HBeAg-negative blood in nonvaccinated individuals. Mucocutaneous exposure can also occur.

Postexposure prophylaxis with HBV hyperimmune globulin and vaccine is suggested for nonvaccinated individuals or in vaccinated persons with low antibody titers. Treatment provides about 75% protection from infection if instituted within a week.[4,5]

Hepatitis C Virus (HCV)

The seroprevalence in healthcare workers has ranged from 0% to 1.7% in multiple studies. Occupational infections in pathology personnel have not been reported. Eighty percent to 90% of infections will become chronic with risk for the development of chronic hepatitis, cirrhosis (3% to 20% of patients), and hepatocellular carcinoma. HCV has also been linked to cryoglobulinemia and many other immune system–related diseases.

TABLE 8–1. RISK OF EXPOSURE TO COMMON INFECTIOUS AGENTS

AGENT	% OF HOSPITAL PATIENTS	RISK OF INFECTION AFTER PERCUTANEOUS INJURY*	RISK AFTER MUCOCUTANEOUS EXPOSURE	RISK OF ENVIRONMENTAL EXPOSURE	POST-EXPOSURE PROPHYLAXIS AVAILABLE
HIV	~ 0.2 - 14%	0.3%	0.09%	Possible, but very rare	YES – effective
HCV	~ 2 - 5%	1.8%	Rare	Yes, but rapidly degrades	NO – not shown to be effective
HBV	~ 2%	30%	Yes, probably high	Occurs, can be found in dried blood ~ 1 week	YES – effective
TB	~ 10%	Yes – risk not quantified	Yes – risk not quantified	Yes	NO – treatment initiated only if skin test converts

*Percutaneous injury: needlestick injury (majority) or other penetrating injury with a sharp object (e.g., scalpel, broken glass).

The risk is about 1.8% for HCV transmission after a needle stick. Risk after skin or mucous membrane exposure is likely to be very low.

Postexposure treatment has not been shown to be effective. If there has been a potential exposure, the person should be monitored for infection in order to start treatment as early as possible.[4-6]

Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV)[7-15]

As of 2001, 57 healthcare workers had developed HIV infection following documented occupational exposure and an additional 138 workers were considered possible cases. Most exposures (88%) were percutaneous involving hollow-bore needles, scalpels, and broken vials. 20% occurred during the disposal of sharp objects. Mucous membrane and skin exposure were responsible in about 10% of cases. The source in almost all cases was infected blood (86%). The risk is increased with the volume of blood, the depth of the injury, and the viral titer of the patient (with an increased risk with patients close to death).

A pathologist was infected by HIV after a scalpel wound to the hand during an autopsy.[10] Surgical specimens containing blood could also potentially transmit the virus, if an injury occurs. HIV can be cultured from cadavers hours to days after death. The effect of fixation has not been studied but would presumably lower or eliminate risk.

Approximately 0.3% of persons will seroconvert after a needle-stick exposure to HIV, 0.1% after mucocutaneous exposure, and <0.1% after skin exposure.

Postexposure treatment with antiviral agents can decrease the risk of seroconversion by 81%. Treatment should be started as soon as possible, as it may be less effective after 2 to 3 days. Additional agents used in combination for prophylaxis may be more effective, as the source patients for occupational cases have a high prevalence of drug-resistant HIV. There have been 21 cases of healthcare personnel becoming infected with HIV despite postexposure prophylaxis.

Tuberculosis

The risk of transmission of tuberculosis to autopsy personnel during the performance of necropsies is well documented. TB can be transmitted as an aerosol but also percutaneously.[16] It must be kept in mind that many cases of TB are first diagnosed after death. Multiple individuals had skin test conversions after the autopsy of an infected person.[17]

The three cases of conversion to positive skin tests after frozen sections previously mentioned were associated with use of an aerosolized coolant. This method of cooling should not be used.

Healthcare workers also have a significant risk of contracting multiple-drug-resistant tuberculosis. Although healthcare workers have been infected by drug-resistant TB, no fatal cases have been reported (yet!) if the worker did not have an underlying immunodeficiency disorder.

Mycobacteria can survive in tissue fixed in formalin. Of 138 autopsy cases with histologically documented acid-fast bacilli, 12 (8.7%) grew mycobacteria, including three cases of *M. tuberculosis*.[18] Thus, even fixed tissue must be regarded as potentially infectious.

Special respiratory protective devices are recommended for personnel that may be exposed to tuberculosis.

If an exposed person does not develop a positive skin test, no treatment is necessary. Converters and persons who are immunocompromised should be treated.

Hospital workers are required to undergo yearly TB testing.

Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS)

SARS was first identified in China in late 2002. It is caused by SARS-associated coronavirus (SARS-CoV). Spread is via respiratory droplets contacting the mucous membranes of a second person. Occupationally-acquired cases have occurred among healthcare workers. The risk to surgical

pathology personnel is likely to be low, as most patients will not undergo surgical procedures. However, autopsies may be performed.

There are no reported cases of transferring SARS via the handling of pathology specimens. However, as there is little experience with this virus, all cases from patients with known or suspected SARS may best be handled as for cases of HBV. All tissue should be promptly fixed and the cryostat decontaminated if necessary.[19]

Creutzfeldt-Jakob Disease

The only cases of infection in laboratory personnel from **fixed tissue** are due to Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease. As of 1995, 24 healthcare workers had developed Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease including two histotechnologists and one pathologist. Infectious units are present in fixed and paraffin-embedded tissue for years. Any adult patient with a rapidly progressive dementia, myoclonus, and nonspecific neurologic findings should be considered as potentially having the disease.

Any tissues from affected patients are potentially infectious. The virus is not inactivated by standard formalin fixation or boiling water. Tissues should be fixed in formalin for 24 hours, then in 95% formic acid for one hour followed by formalin fixation for one day.[20,21]

BIOLOGIC TERRORISM

Hopefully, pathologists will not receive specimens from acts of biologic terrorism, but if such an event occurs, pathologists can aid in recognizing the disease and the likely method of infection (Table 8-2).[22-31] The first anthrax case in 2001 was suspected when typical organisms were seen on a Gram stain of CSF. The autopsy determined that the mode of exposure was inhalational and this finding helped direct investigators to search for possible sources of airborne spores.

In the event of an actual or threatened bioterrorist attack, local health and law enforcement agencies should be contacted and additional information can be found at www.bt.cdc.gov/emcontact/index.asp or the CDC Emergency Response Hotline 770-488-7100.

The CDC recommends saving tissue from autopsies (and other specimens) from possible victims of biologic terrorism:

- Fixed tissue: Histologic examination for patterns of tissue damage and special stains for identification of organisms. IHC and DFA assays are available at the CDC and most can be performed on fixed tissue.
- Blood, cerebrospinal fluid, tissue samples, or swabs for bacterial and viral culture. Mucosal swabs for cases of possible botulinum toxin inhalation.
- Serum for biologic and serologic assays
- Frozen tissue for PCR
- Fixed tissue (glutaraldehyde) for electron microscopy to identify viral particles.

Laboratory Response Network

The Laboratory Response Network (LRN) is a partnership of local, state, and federal public health laboratories, and veterinary, food, and environmental laboratories, the CDC, the Food and Drug Administration, the Environmental Protection Agency, the US Army Medical Research Institute of Infectious Diseases, and other Department of Defense laboratories (see www.bt.cdc.gov/lrn/biological.asp). The network functions to channel specimens from sentinel laboratories to advanced laboratories for confirmation and final identification of pathogens. Specimens from suspected biologic terrorism-related cases can be submitted to the state public health laboratory. Contact information for all state laboratories is included in the CDC guidebook listed in the resources. If the suspected agent is smallpox, the state laboratory should be notified as such specimens may be transported directly to the CDC.

Risks to Pathology Personnel

All of the infectious agents listed in Table 8-2 could potentially be transmitted to personnel during the performance of an autopsy or by handling fresh tissue, except for botulinum toxin. Smallpox, tularemia, and viral hemorrhagic fevers have been transmitted to persons performing autopsies. Biologic terrorism raises an additional risk of surface contamination by the agent (e.g., powders used to transmit anthrax or botulinum toxin). Because of the incubation period, it is likely victims will have changed clothes and bathed and such contamination, in most cases, will likely be minimal. Standard universal safety precautions should be used for all and should be protective.

Cadavers of patients dying of *B. anthracis*, *Y. pestis*, or botulinum toxin are unlikely to pose a threat to nonautopsy personnel (e.g., funeral home workers). However, smallpox virus and hemorrhagic fever viruses could be transmitted and should only be handled with safety precautions. In general, such bodies should not be embalmed as this might impose increased risk.

Sending Specimens to Reference Laboratories

Detailed descriptions for the packaging and shipping of specimens to reference laboratories are available at the CDC website. In general, such specimens must have three levels of containment and must be marked with an "Infectious Substance" label. The laboratory director of the state health department should be contacted before shipping a specimen with a suspected biologic agent.

TRANSMISSION OF TUMORS

In general, malignant tumors do not pose a risk to people other than the patient. However, malignancies can be transferred from a graft to organ transplant recipients.[32]

TABLE 8–2. AGENTS MOST LIKELY TO BE USED FOR BIOLOGIC TERRORISM (CATEGORY A AGENTS)

AGENT ***MODE OF TRANSMISSION***	CLINICAL SYNDROME	PATHOLOGIC FINDINGS	AVAILABLE TESTS[a]/ APPEARANCE OF ORGANISM	TREATMENT/PROPHYLAXIS
Smallpox virus (variola major) *Inhalation – aerosols* *Direct contact with lesions or contaminated surfaces* *Person to person spread*	Diffuse rash (including palms and soles): deep-seated, firm/hard, round well circumscribed vesicles or pustules, all in same stage of development Hemorrhage into skin and GI tract	Early vesicles are multilocular (but coalesce in later stages), ballooning degeneration of epithelial cells (not multinucleated), eosinophilic intracytoplasmic viral inclusions (Guarnieri bodies)	IHC EM: fluid from vesicles can be used to detect viral particles PCR: viral DNA.	Vaccine available[b]. Routine vaccination in the US ended in 1972. Persons with remote vaccination probably have some, but not complete, immunity.
Bacillus anthracis (anthrax) *Direct contact with spores (skin or ingestion)* *Inhalation of spores* *No person-to-person spread*	Cutaneous – eschar with hemorrhage, edema, necrosis, perivascular infiltrate, vasculitis Gastrointestinal – hemorrhagic enteritis, hemorrhagic lymphadenitis, mucosal ulcers with necrosis in the terminal ileum and cecum, peritonitis Inhalational - hemorrhagic mediastinitis, hemorrhagic lymphadenitis, hemorrhagic pleural effusion CNS – hemorrhagic meningitis	Skin: edema, focal necrosis, vasculitis, acute inflammation, ulceration. Organisms only rarely seen by H&E. Lymph nodes: hemorrhage, necrosis After antibiotic treatment, organisms may only be visible by silver stains and IHC	Gram, silver stains: Large broad (3 × 5 μm × 1 × 1.5 μm) encapsulated Gram pos bacilli with flattened ends in short chains India ink: shows capsule in blood and CSF IHC – sensitive and specific DFA (but cannot be used on formalin fixed tissue) PCR: formalin or fresh tissue	Vaccine available[b] Antibiotic prophylaxis available
Yersinia pestis (plague) *Flea bites* *Inhalation – aerosols* *Person-to-person spread*	Bubonic – acute lymphadenitis with surrounding edema (a bubo is a local painful swelling) Pneumonic – severe, hemorrhagic bronchopneumonia, often with fibrinous pleuritis, diffuse alveolar damage (ARDS), sepsis with DIC CNS - meningitis	Lung: severe, confluent, hemorrhagic, necrotizing bronchopneumonia, often with fibrinous pleuritis Lymph nodes: necrosis – preferred for histologic examination and culture	Gram, silver, Giemsa stains: Short fat Gram neg bacilli IHC DFA	Vaccine available (but does not protect against pneumonia)[b] Antibiotic prophylaxis available
Clostridium botulinum toxin (botulism) *Ingestion or inhalation of preformed neurotoxin* *No person-to-person spread*	CNS – hyperemia and microthrombosis of small vessels associated with symmetrical, descending pattern of weakness and paralysis of cranial nerves, limbs, and trunk	No specific findings for cases due to ingestion or inhalation of preformed toxin Swabs of mucosal surfaces or serum may be used for the botulinum toxin mouse bioassay Samples should be taken prior to the use of antitoxin	Gram-positive bacteria – however organisms unlikely to be present in a terror attack	Antitoxin available

continued

TABLE 8–2. AGENTS MOST LIKELY TO BE USED FOR BIOLOGIC TERRORISM (CATEGORY A AGENTS)—cont'd

AGENT *MODE OF TRANSMISSION*	CLINICAL SYNDROME	PATHOLOGIC FINDINGS	AVAILABLE TESTS[a]/ APPEARANCE OF ORGANISM	TREATMENT/PROPHYLAXIS
Francisella tularensis (tularemia) *Tick bite* *Direct contact with infected fluids or tissues* *Ingestion of infected meat* *No person-to-person spread*	Ulceroglandular – skin ulcer with associated suppurative lymphadenitis Glandular – suppurative necrotizing lymphadenitis without associated skin ulcer Oculoglandular – eyelid edema, acute conjunctivitis and edema, small conjunctival ulcers, regional lymphadenitis Pharyngeal – exudative pharyngitis or tonsillitis with ulceration, pharyngeal membrane formation, regional lymphadenitis Typhoidal – systemic involvement, DIC, focal necrosis of major organs Pneumonic – acute inflammation, diffuse alveolar damage	Ulcer with a nonspecific inflammatory infiltrate and a granulomatous reaction. In some cases, large necrotizing granulomas with giant cells may be present. Lymph nodes: extensive necrosis, irregular microabscesses and multiple granulomas with caseous necrosis. Lung: necrotizing pneumonia with abundant fibrin, acute inflammation	Small encapsulated Gram-negative coccobacilli - difficult to see with histochemical stains IHC DFA	Antibiotic prophylaxis available
Hemorrhagic fever viruses, including: -Filoviruses (including Ebola and Marburg viruses) -Arenaviruses (e.g., Lassa fever) *Close personal contact with infected person, blood, tissue, or body fluids*	Diffuse rash, massive hepatocellular necrosis, extensive necrosis in other major organs, diffuse alveolar damage	Massive hepatic necrosis with filamentous viral inclusions in hepatocytes, extensive necrosis of other organs	IHC EM: viral inclusions PCR	No specific treatment

ARDS: acute respiratory distress syndrome, DIC: disseminated intravascular coagulopathy, IHC: immunohistochemistry; DFA: direct fluorescent assay.
[a]IHC and DFA tests for each of these organisms are available at the CDC. Consult their website to determine how to decide if a specimen is appropriate for testing and how to send such a sample: call the CDC at 404-639-3133 or fax the CDC at 404-639-3043, for more information.
[b]Vaccination is not currently recommended for individuals without a known exposure. Vaccination for smallpox may be considered for selected personnel who would be a first responder for the examination of the remains or specimens from patients dying of smallpox.

Benign and malignant tumors can be transferred among dogs and wolves and among Tasmanian devils by contact. The transfer of these tumors has been species-specific.

There has been one case of a sarcoma transferred to the hand of a nonimmunocompromised surgeon after a scalpel injury.[33] Thus, although the risk is extremely small, tumors (and all human tissue) must be handled with appropriate safety precautions.

GUIDELINES FOR PROCESSING SPECIMENS WITH KNOWN/PROBABLE INFECTIOUS DISEASE

Specimens from patients with infections not posing a risk to immunocompetent individuals (e.g., routine bacterial and fungal infections, opportunistic pathogens) can be processed as for other pathology specimens using universal precautions. Specimens from patients with infections (or suspected infections) posing a greater risk to pathology personnel (TB, HBV, HCV, HIV, Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease) must be handled with special precautions. All specimens must be fixed as soon as possible and stored in rigid leakproof containers. Gloves must always be worn when handling specimens.

Fresh tissues are potentially infective and all specimens are placed in fixative as soon as possible. Formalin is effective for inactivating viruses (including HIV and HBV) and will reduce the infectivity of mycobacteria. Procedures that could aerosolize an infectious agent (e.g., cutting a specimen with a bone saw) should not be performed. Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease requires special procedures for handling it safely (see specific section).

Small specimens (e.g., colon biopsies and open lung biopsies) are usually of immediate diagnostic importance and can be processed as usual as long as the specimens fix in formalin for at least four to six hours.

Larger specimens, if of no immediate diagnostic importance (e.g., a placenta from a normal delivery or a colon resection for trauma) can be sectioned thinly and placed in an adequate volume of fixative (1:10 specimen/formalin fixative ratio) for 72 hours before submitting for histologic processing. If the specimen is of immediate diagnostic importance, small sections can be cut for blocks and fixed as above before processing.

Potentially infectious cases are not photographed in the fresh state. If it is an especially interesting case, pictures after fixation may be taken if special precautions are used in order not to contaminate surfaces or the camera.

Frozen sections on potentially infectious cases may be performed but should be avoided if cytologic preparations can be used or an intraoperative diagnosis is not necessary. Freezing does not inactivate infectious agents. If an infectious case is cut in a cryostat, the cryostat should be decontaminated. Pressurized sprays should not be used as this can aerosolize infectious agents. Air-dried slides should be considered potentially infectious and are not saved or submitted to the histology laboratory. Any smears submitted for special stains must be fixed in methanol.

PREVENTION OF INJURIES AND EXPOSURES

Prevention of injuries and exposures is the goal of all pathology personnel. The most common injury is to the nondominant hand. Most injuries and exposure to blood and other body fluids can be prevented if the following guidelines are followed:

- Gloves must be worn when handling fresh and fixed tissues. Two pairs of gloves are recommended for hazardous specimens, as small tears in gloves are common. Metal mesh and Kevlar cloth type gloves can help prevent puncture injuries
- Latex gloves will protect against biohazards but not fixatives. Nitrile gloves will also provide protection from fixatives. Some individuals (5% to 10%) have or develop allergic reactions (usually dermatitis but sometimes asthma or anaphylaxis) to latex antigens.
- Do not touch objects in general use (door handles, telephone, computer, etc.) with contaminated gloves.
- Hands must always be washed after handling specimens and after leaving a specimen handling area because gloves are not completely leakproof.
- Protective clothing, including gloves, must be removed and disposed of properly before leaving the surgical cutting or OR consultation rooms.
- Scrub suits or disposable jumpsuits are recommended if large bloody specimens need to be processed.
- Aprons must be worn when handling many specimens (e.g., at a cutting bench) or for handling large specimens.
- If lab coats are worn while working in the surgical cutting room, they cannot be worn outside of this area.
- Any person using a scalpel blade, razor blade, or syringe needle is responsible for disposing of it properly. Scalpel blades are removed from the handle with extreme caution after gross blood and tissue have been removed. Frozen section blocks are not removed from the chuck with a razor blade. Holding the stem for a few seconds will melt the embedding medium sufficiently for removal with a fingertip. Syringe needles are never recapped. All blades, needles, and disposable scissors must be discarded into impervious labeled sharps containers. Broken glass slides and coverslips must also be disposed into designated containers.
- Reusable but contaminated equipment should be decontaminated with bleach.
- All tissues are fixed as soon as possible. Unfixed specimens must be kept in leakproof containers and stored in an appropriate biohazard refrigerator or freezer.
- Always dispose of all blood and tissue fragments before leaving a worksite. All tissues, or nonreusable material contaminated by any body fluid or tissue, must be disposed in labeled hazardous waste containers (containers with red bags and biohazard symbols). Urine, blood, and feces may be disposed directly into the municipal sewerage system.
- Areas contaminated after handling a known infectious case should be immediately cleaned with dilute bleach.

- Eye protection should be worn when cutting into large specimens. Cysts may feel deceptively solid when filled with fluid. Such fluid may be under pressure and can travel several feet when the cyst is opened (this has been documented by many pathologists!). Place near sink on a surgical drape or blue barrier and make a small nick near the bottom in order to let fluid slowly drain out of the cyst.
- Food or beverages must not be consumed, or brought into, the cutting room or the OR consultation room. Foods cannot be stored in refrigerators used to store specimens. Food or food containers (e.g., an empty coffee cup) cannot be disposed into containers in these areas as this may be used as evidence that food consumption is occurring in these areas. Evidence of food consumption is monitored by OSHA and can be grounds for penalties or closure.

RADIATION[34-39]

Radioactive substances are widely used in the evaluation of patients and may be present in tissues submitted to pathology departments. In some cases, patients will have been injected with radioactive agents for the purpose of localizing and surgically removing a lesion (e.g., sentinel nodes, octreotide-positive lesions). In general, patients are injected with small amounts (<5 millicuries) and typical half-lives are short (e.g., the half-life of ^{99m}technetium used for sentinel lymph nodes is 6 hours). Specimens should have minimal residual radioactivity and can be generally handled and disposed without special precautions. However, radiation safety personnel should be consulted to determine the appropriate procedures for the techniques used in individual institutions.

Federal law allows routine methods of solid medical waste disposal for radioactive specimens after decay in storage, which requires the lapse of 10 half-lives. Thus, specimens containing technicium can be disposed using normal methods 60 hours after the time of surgery.

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9 Microscopy and Photography

A pathologist without a microscope is like a surgeon without a scalpel or a dermatologist without steroid cream — all are tools essential to our practice of medicine. Although it is not necessary to have an advanced degree in optics, it is important to understand the basics of microscope use, special techniques useful to the pathologist, and optical properties of biologic and synthetic materials present in clinical specimens. These topics are covered in the sections below.

OPTIMAL OPTICS

Optimal image formation occurs when the image is in focus and the illumination is appropriately adjusted. First, the eyepieces should be adjusted for width (by sliding them back and forth) in order to form a single image. Secondly, each eye is closed in turn individually to adjust the focus of each eyepiece. Many people have subtle differences between their two eyes. Finally, the illumination is adjusted to ensure that the light is bright, evenly dispersed, glare free, and that good image contrast is achieved. This procedure is termed "Koehler illumination" after the person who first determined the optimal settings (Boxes 9-1 and 9-2; Fig. 9-1).

Using this technique, the microscope is now optimally adjusted for one objective. Other objectives will require readjustment and in practical terms usually a compromise position is used that is adequate for all of the objectives. A reasonable solution is to center the field diaphragm for a 40× objective and maintain its opening for a 10× field. The substage condenser should be slightly below the level where dust is brought into focus under 10×. As objectives are changed, only the aperture diaphragm need be changed to optimize contrast.

If the light intensity needs to be adjusted, it is accomplished by using the transformer, not by changing the position of the condenser or diaphragm.

Contrast can be increased by closing the aperture diaphragm below 60% or by lowering the substage condenser. However, resolution and sharpness are reduced. This maneuver may be useful if looking for refractile material (see section below).

BOX 9–1. Definitions

- **Field diaphragm:** Source of light at the base of the microscope. Adjusted by moving the circular ring around it.
- **Substage condenser:** Located just below the stage. It can be moved up and down and centered with two screws.
- **Aperture iris diaphragm:** Located in the substage condenser. Adjusted by using a rotating ring on the front of the condenser.

BOX 9–2. Adjusting a microscope for Koehler illumination

1. Open the aperture diaphragm and the field diaphragm completely. Using a 20× objective, focus on a slide on the stage.
2. Close the field diaphragm almost completely. Raise the condenser until the edges of the diaphragm are sharply focused (the condenser is usually at about its highest position).
3. Use the centering screws on the substage condenser to center the image of the field diaphragm. Slowly open the field diaphragm until it just disappears from view.
4. Remove one eyepiece objective and look into the tube. Open and close the aperture diaphragm until only 66% to 77% of the back lens is illuminated (see Fig. 9-1). This prevents unnecessary light from entering that will create glare.

OIL IMMERSION MICROSCOPY

Oil immersion lenses (usually 100×) can achieve higher magnifications than dry lenses. Because the refractive index of oil is higher than that of air, light rays coming from the slide are bent to a greater degree and thus an oil objective can capture more of these light rays, which results in greater resolution.

There are two major uses in surgical pathology for oil immersion magnification:

1. Hematologic specimens (due to the generally small size of the cells and the importance of subtle nuclear and cytoplasmic features for characterization)
2. Small microorganisms (e.g., acid-fast bacilli or microsporidia).

There is virtually no other use for oil immersion lenses. The use of oil should be avoided outside of the applications cited above due to the frequent contamination of the microscope and other objectives with oil if great care is not used.

Only immersion oil designed for microscopic use should be employed. Lint-free tissues or lens paper should always be available to wipe away any excess oil before it drips into the microscope or onto other surfaces (Box 9-3).

Figure 9–1. Aperture size.

BOX 9–3. Using an oil immersion lens

1. Focus the microscope using the highest magnification available with a dry objective. It is helpful to identify and mark the area(s) of the slide to be examined under oil with ink to avoid the need to scan the slide after oil is applied.
2. Swing this objective away (in the direction to bring the oil objective into place) and place a small amount of oil on the slide.
3. Swing the oil objective into place, making sure that the space between the objective and the slide is filled with oil. The slide may now be observed.
4. After viewing, again swing the oil objective partially away from the slide.
5. Immediately wipe the objective with lens paper to prevent oil from dripping onto the microscope.
6. Remove the slide and wipe off excess oil with lens paper. The slide may then be cleaned with a small amount of xylene. Peripheral blood smears are often viewed under oil without using a coverslip. The oil can be wiped directly off the slide.

Do not attempt to view a slide with a high power dry objective while there is oil on the slide! If it is necessary to scan a slide, place a 4× objective adjacent to the oil objective. One can safely alternate between these two objectives without contaminating the 4× objective with oil. It is very difficult to clean oil off a dry objective (see the section on cleaning objective below).

OPTICAL PROPERTIES

The optical properties of microscopic objects reveal clues about their structure and identity (Table 9-1).

"Refractile" Objects

These objects have a refractive index different than that of normal tissue. Refractility can be highlighted by increasing the contrast (i.e., by lowering the condenser or closing the aperture diaphragm). Refractile objects look brighter and shinier than tissues. This material is usually foreign (e.g., suture material) but can be endogenous. "Doubly refractile" is sometimes used to describe objects that are polarizable.

"Polarizable" Objects

Polarized light is light oriented in one specific plane and is produced by using two crossed polarizing filters. Most tissues are isotropic and do not change the quality of light passing through them. They appear dark under polarized light as very little light passes through the filters in any given plane.

"Polarizable," "birefringent," or "anisotropic" are terms used to describe substances that change the direction and speed of the light passing through them. Polarized light passing through such an object is deviated in a particular plane or planes and can pass through a second polarizing filter at an angle to the first. A "polarizable" object appears bright in comparison to the surrounding dark nonpolarizable tissue. Some substances can reflect light at two different wavelengths (e.g., the "dichroic birefringence" of amyloid). Many of these polarizable substances have regular repeating structures (e.g., crystalline) and may be biologic (e.g., amyloid or collagen) or synthetic (e.g., polyethylene).

Polarizing Objects

Some microscopes have built-in high-quality polarizers. Polarizing material may also be purchased as sheets and has the advantage in being transportable. It is available from Edmund Scientific Company (101 East Gloucester Pike, Barrington, NJ 08007-1380, [609] 573-6879; TECHSUP@EDSCI.COM or www.edsci.com). However, polarizing material varies greatly in quality. Tissues (especially with suspected amyloid) should be observed using the higher quality built-in polarizers before it is determined that polarizable material is not present.

When the polarizer and the analyzer are at ninety degrees to each other, no light can pass through and the field is dark (Box 9-4). As the angle between the filters is changed by rotating the polarizer, substances that preferentially reflect light in a specific direction (i.e., polarizable materials) allow light to pass through the analyzer and will appear bright.

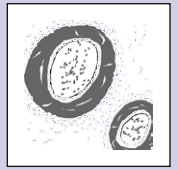
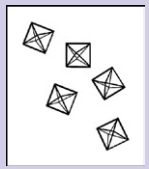
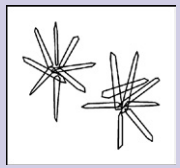
BOX 9–4. Definitions

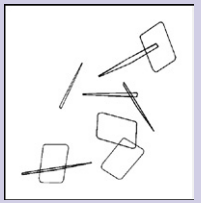
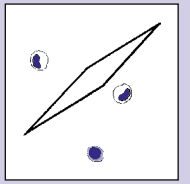
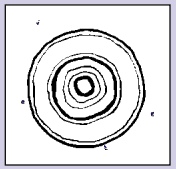
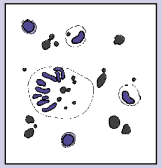
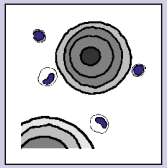
- **Polarizer:** The polarizing disk below the condenser.
- **Analyzer:** The polarizing disk above the specimen (laid on top of the slide or built into microscope above the objectives).

The determination of "positive" and "negative" birefringence requires using a compensating first order red filter under polarized light and can be used to distinguish uric acid crystals from CPPD crystals. However, this determination is best performed on crystals in solution and cannot be reliably performed on fixed tissue.

Text continues on p.213

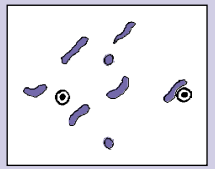
TABLE 9–1. OPTICAL PROPERTIES OF COMMONLY SEEN NONCELLULAR MATERIAL

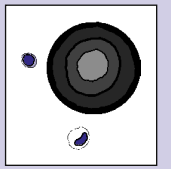
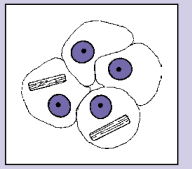
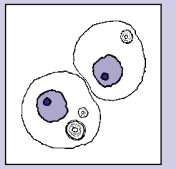
TYPE	POLARIZATION	REFRACTILE	LOCATIONS USUALLY SEEN	APPEARANCE/STAINS	COMMENTS	HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE
Endogenous Material						
Amyloid	Yes	Yes/no	Bone marrow (multiple myeloma), medullary carcinoma of the thyroid, periarticular tissue in dialysis patients, many other sites	Acellular homogeneous pink material, sometimes with giant cells. Congo red +: orange/red without polarization and apple green with polarization	Immunoperoxidase studies can be used to identify specific types of amyloid: • Multiple myeloma – lambda and kappa chains • Medullary carcinoma of the thyroid – calcitonin • Dialysis-related amyloidosis – β2 microglobulin EM can also be used to recognize amyloid	
Bile	No	No	Liver — hepatocytes or intracanicular	Dark green–brown globules (intra- or extracellular). PAS positive	May be helpful for recognition of HCC	
Bone and collagen	Yes	No	Joints and connective tissue	Normal bone – polarization shows regular osteoid seams (not seen in woven bone). Type I collagen is polarizable. Type III collagen (reticulin) is not polarizable.	Bone and collagen overstained with Congo red will also be apple green after polarization. The background must not show staining. Trichrome stains and reticulin stains can be used to identify collagen. Nodular sclerosing Hodgkin disease is associated with polarizable collagen.	
Calcium oxalate	Yes	Yes	Apocrine cysts of the breast, benign thyroid follicles, giant cells in sarcoidosis	Flat rhomboid (sometimes needle shaped) colorless or pale yellow crystals. Can be difficult to see without polarization.	Can be the source of mammographic calcifications in breast biopsies. Also present in congenital hyperoxaluria.	
Calcium phosphate	No	No	Benign and malignant breast lesions, areas of chronic inflammation or necrosis, deposition on collagen (e.g., heart valves), pulmonary blue bodies	Purple granular material. Calcium stain +.	Most common source of mammographic calcifications	

Calcium pyrophosphate dihydrate crystals ("pseudogout" or chondrocalcinosis)	Yes	Yes	Large joints in periarticular tissues (uncommon in small joints of foot or hand)	Blue to purple short rhomboid crystals (but may be needle shaped)	The crystals are water soluble and require anaqueous processing for best demonstration	
Charcot-Leyden crystals	No	Yes	Sites of eosinophil accumulation (e.g., chronic sinusitis, parasitic infections, asthma)	Bright-red, needle-like crystals		
Corpora amylacea	No	No	Prostate, brain, lung	Extracellular laminated light pink spherical structures	Incidence increases with age	
Gamna-Gandy nodules	No	Yes/no	Spleen, lymph nodes, thymus gland, thyroid, cardiac myxomas	Granulomas consisting of hemosiderin, calcium, foreign body giant cells, and ovoid or bamboo-shaped structures	"Siderotic granulomas" found in sites of prior hemorrhage Can mimic fungal mycelia or parasite eggs	
Hamazaki-Wesenberg bodies	No	Yes	Areas of prior hemorrhage, lymph nodes (sinusoids)	Small round to ovoid brown bodies that may appear to be budding	Can mimic pigmented fungal forms or bacteria.[2]	
Hemosiderin	No	Yes	Any area of hemorrhage Liver in hemochromatosis and hemosiderosis	Coarse granular brown intra- and extracellular granules. Iron stain +.	A complex of iron and ferritin Useful in distinguishing prior bleeding from intraoperative bleeding	
Liesegang rings	No	No	Any area of old hemorrhage	Round extracellular concentric laminated or fibrillated concretions of precipitated proteins	May be mistaken for the Giant Kidney Worm or fungal organisms[3]	

Continued

TABLE 9–1. OPTICAL PROPERTIES OF COMMONLY SEEN NONCELLULAR MATERIAL—cont'd

TYPE	POLARIZATION	REFRACTILE	LOCATIONS USUALLY SEEN	APPEARANCE/STAINS	COMMENTS	HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE
Endogenous Material						
Lipids	No/Yes	No	Polarizable lipids may be present in xanthomas, histiocytosis X, and other dermatopathologic entities, and fat necrosis secondary to pancreatitis. Cholesterol crystals are often seen as empty clefts in areas of cell injury.	Needle-shaped clear crystals of varying size, plate-like structures, or intracellular rounded structures. Oil red O +. Sudan black +.	Must have special processing or frozen sections to avoid loss during processing Also present in metabolic storage diseases such as Gaucher, Niemann-Pick, and Wolman diseases Fat necrosis[4]	
Lipofuscin (oxidized lipid precursors)	No	No	Sites of atrophy or chronic injury	Fine yellow-brown granules to coarse granules resembling hemosiderin. PAS +.	Ochrocytes are histiocytes containing lipofuscin	
Malaria pigment (haemozoin, hematin)	Yes	No	Macrophages and erythrocytes	Brown to black granules inside macrophages	Present in malaria and schistosomal infections or severe hemolytic anemia Formalin pigment can resemble malaria pigment	
Melanin	No	No	Normal melanocytes in basal epithelium, pigmented malignant melanomas	Fine brown or black granules but can sometimes resemble hemosiderin. Fontana Masson +.		
Michaelis-Gutmann body	No	No	Malakoplakia	Concentric targetoid bodies ("owl-eye"), intra- and extracellular. Iron stain +, von Kossa +, PAS +.	These bodies may form due to defective phagocytosis of bacteria – most patients have a chronic coliform infection	
Prostatic crystalloids	No	Yes	Prostate carcinomas	Bright eosinophilic angulated crystals in lumens of adenocarcinomas	Always associated with cancer – if present on a core needle biopsy, additional levels should be examined Similar crystals are rarely seen in DCIS of the breast	

Psammoma body	No	No	Papillary carcinoma of the thyroid, ovarian carcinoma, breast, others	Laminated concentric rings of calcium phosphate	Very specific in the thyroid for papillary carcinoma	
Reinke crystals	No	Yes	Leydig cells of the testis, hilus cells of ovary, and their tumors	Rod-shaped eosinophilic crystals. Masson's trichrome + (magenta).		
Schaumann bodies	No	No	Lymph nodes in sarcoidosis	Concentric basophilic rings	The other two types of inclusions in sarcoidosis are calcium oxalate and asteroid bodies (spider-shaped inclusions). These findings are not specific for sarcoid.	
Spironolactone bodies	No	No	Adrenal adenomas associated with Conn syndrome	Concentric laminated eosinophilic inclusions (2 to 12 microns) in cytoplasm. PAS +.	Found in tumors in patients with Conn syndrome, treated with spironolactone IHC can identify aldosterone in the bodies	
Uric acid crystals (gout)	Yes	Yes	Periarticular tissues around joints, other areas of connective tissue	Long needle-shaped crystals (sheaves of wheat) are characteristic but may be fractured and appear to be smaller crystals	Requires anaqueous processing for preservation. In routine H&E sections only needle-shaped holes may be seen where the crystals are dissolved. The crystals may be seen in routinely fixed tissue if the tissue is unstained.	
Iatrogenic Material						
Barium sulfate	No/yes	Yes	In GI tract after radiologic examination, in peritoneum after perforation, within bone cement	Golden refractile granular material. May be intra- or extracellular.	Rarely incites an inflammatory reaction	
Cotton fibers	Yes	Yes	Around surgical sites	Hollow discoid fibers, present intra- or extracellularly		

Continued

TABLE 9–1. OPTICAL PROPERTIES OF COMMONLY SEEN NONCELLULAR MATERIAL—cont'd

TYPE	POLARIZATION	REFRACTILE	LOCATIONS USUALLY SEEN	APPEARANCE/STAINS	COMMENTS	HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE
Iatrogenic Material						
Cornstarch	Yes	No	In surgical sites	3 to 20 micron spheres. Maltese cross appearance after polarization. PAS+, MSS+.	Used to lubricate surgical gloves. However, cornstarch may be avoided as it can incite a granulomatous response.	
Formalin pigment	No	Yes	Most commonly seen in bloody tissues	Brown or black finely granular extracellular deposits	Due to a reaction between formic acid and heme during fixation. Can be avoided by using buffered formalin. Can be mistaken for malaria pigment.	
Gelfoam	No/yes	No/yes	Within vascular spaces of hemangiomas or other vascular lesions, sometimes used to mark breast core needle biopsy sites	Irregular fenestrated bluish or clear material	Elastic stains may help in identification[5]	
Gold	Yes	No	Skin, lymph nodes, organs of patients treated with gold for RA	Small intracellular black particles in histiocytes	Gold in intramammary LNs can mimic mammographic calcifications Polarization can be helpful for identification[6]	
Graft material – Gore-Tex or Dacron	Yes	Yes	Grafts	Numerous uniform round filaments with small black granules		
India ink (tattoo pigment)	No	No	Injected into the site of biopsied colonic polyps	Black granular pigment in stroma or within histiocytes	May be useful to document the site of a previously biopsied polyp that has been completely removed	
Melanosis coli	No	No	Lamina propria of the colon	Fine brown to black granules in macrophages. PAS +, silver stain +.	Associated with anthracene-derived bowel cathartics. Can cause grossly pigmented colonic mucosa.	
Mercuric chloride	Yes/no	No	Tissues fixed in mercury-containing fixatives	Dark brown granular extracellular deposits throughout the tissues	Should be removed by proper tissue processing	

Metal	No	No	Tissue around prosthetic joints	Small black irregular angulated or needle-shaped fragments that may be intra- or extracellular		
Minocycline	No	No	Thyroid, atheromatous plaques, substantia nigra	Black granular pigment	Found in patients treated with minocycline	
Myospherulosis	No	No	Nasal cavity and paranasal sinuses	Sac-like structures with outer lipid surrounding endobodies (red blood cells)	Due to packing with a petroleum-based ointment Can be mistaken for prototheco sis or fungi	
Polyethylene	Yes	Yes	Tissue around prosthetic joints	Large fragments, filaments, shards, or small intracellular fragments. Often with a giant cell reaction. Oil red O +.		
Polymethylmethacrylate (bone cement)	No	No	Tissue around prosthetic joints	Round to oval holes surrounded by a giant cell reaction	Disolves in xylene. Barium sulfate may be present within the bone cement.	
Silicone	No	Yes	In tissue around implants, rarely in draining lymph nodes	Silicone may be removed during processing and appear as empty holes with residual refractile material around the edge	Intracellular silicone appears like multiple vacuoles in histiocytes that can be mistaken for lipoblasts Other organic oils can have the same appearance	
Sodium polystyrene sulfonate (Kayexalate)	No	Yes	Gastrointestinal tract	Irregular eosinophilic crystals present in the lumen or within ulcers. PAS + and AFB +.	May cause necrosis of bowel wall.[7]	
Sutures						
Surgical gut	Yes	No	Prior biopsy sites (often seen in breast)	Ovoid deeply eosinophilic monofilament often surrounded by a chronic inflammatory response and giant cells	Nuclei may be spindle shaped (due to sterilization by cautery) and the suture may develop jagged edges during resorption. Gut sutures may be mistaken for metaplastic bone.	

Continued

TABLE 9–1. OPTICAL PROPERTIES OF COMMONLY SEEN NONCELLULAR MATERIAL—cont'd

TYPE	POLARIZATION	REFRACTILE	LOCATIONS USUALLY SEEN	APPEARANCE/STAINS	COMMENTS	HISTOLOGIC APPEARANCE
Iatrogenic Material						
Other sutures	Yes	Yes	Surgical sites	May be monofilament or polyfilament. Often colorless	Absorbable sutures may be surrounded by chronic inflammation	
Talc	Yes	Yes	Pleura after talc pleurodesis, granulomas in IVDAs	Irregular clear to yellow crystalline material		
Thorotrast	No	No	Liver and spleen	Coarse light brown or gray granules in histiocytes or stroma – similar to the appearance of hemosiderin	This radiocontrast agent is no longer used as it is associated with cirrhosis, HCC, bile duct carcinoma, and angiosarcomas of the liver and spleen. It has a half-life of 400 years.	
Environmental Material						
Anthracotic pigment (carbon)	No	No	Lymph nodes of the respiratory tract	Black granular deposits in macrophages		
Asbestos fibers	No/yes	No	Lung	Thin fibers encrusted with beaded protein and iron (ferruginous bodies)	Specific identification requires spectroscopic analysis. Similar bodies can be seen with aluminum silicate, fiberglass, or lung elastin. Quantification and identification of fibers can be performed by energy dispersive x-ray analysis.	
Insects (flies and ticks)	Yes	Yes	Skin and subcutaneous tissue	Variable		
Silica	Yes	No	Lymph nodes of the respiratory tract, silicotic nodules	Minute polarizable material in histiocytes and fibrotic nodules	May be seen in workers exposed to silica Lung disease is often complicated by superimposed infections	
Plant material	Yes	Yes	Colonic rupture, lung (if aspirated)	Cell walls are readily identifiable by polarization	Can be useful to document colonic rupture	

This table lists the most common findings for these materials. However, materials can be altered by in vivo responses, fixation conditions, and staining.
Energy dispersive x-ray analysis (EDAX), as well as other methods, can be used to identify small deposits of elements in tissue specimens. Other types of spectroscopy can be used as well.
See references 8 to 14.

Substances may be neither refractile or polarizable (most tissues and cells), refractile but not polarizable (e.g., hemosiderin), polarizable but not (or poorly) refractile (e.g., amyloid), or both (e.g., suture material). Amyloid can be identified by the apple-green color seen under polarization.[1]

MEASURING WITH THE MICROSCOPE

In some instances it is necessary to accurately measure microscopic sizes. For example:

- Depth of invasion of malignant melanomas
- Depth of invasion of cervical carcinomas
- Fuhrman nuclear grading
- Standardization of microscopic field size for counting mitoses (breast carcinoma grading, sarcoma grading)
- Size of lymph node metastases (isolated tumor cells vs. micrometastasis vs. macrometastasis)

Different methods are available depending upon the need for accuracy, the size of the object to be measured, and the equipment available (Table 9-2).

Estimation from Known Field Diameters

The field diameters on a microscope can be used to rapidly gauge the size of an object. The field diameter must also be known in order to use some types of grading systems, as the number of mitoses scored must be standardized to a given area.

The size of a microscope field will be affected by:

- The brand of the microscope.
- The eyepiece magnification and the objective magnification.
- The distance between the eyepiece and the objective. The distance may be lengthened by additional heads added to the microscope and built-in polarizing lenses.

The size of a microscope field can be determined by:

- Carefully marking two edges of the field on a glass slide and measuring with a ruler.
- Using the Vernier scale (see below). The edge of a coverslip is a convenient landmark that can be moved across the field.
- Using a stage micrometer to measure a high power field directly (most micrometers are too small to measure the other fields). The size of the other fields can be calculated with the following formula (Box 9-5):

Eyepiece magnification × *objective magnification* × *field diameter* = *a constant*

Once the field sizes are known (and conveniently posted on the microscope) the size of objects can be estimated by determining the relative size to the microscopic fields (typically ranging between 0.05 and 1 cm). If grading systems using the number of mitoses per HPF are employed, it is useful to make a table of equivalent mitotic counts for the size of the HPF the system is based on (see Table 15-4). Unfortunately, many different sizes of HPFs are used. The area of a HPF on a microscope can be calculated once the radius (equal to half the diameter) of the field is known:

$$\text{Area of HPF} = 3.1415 \times \text{radius}^2$$

Size can also be estimated by comparison to cells with relatively constant sizes:

- A lobe of a neutrophil nucleus: 2 μm
- Nucleus of a small lymphocyte: 5 to 6 μm
- A red blood cell: 7 μm
- A histiocyte nucleus: 10 μm

Direct Measurement on Slides

This is the most convenient method for objects measuring several millimeters in size. The borders to be measured are carefully marked by ink and an accurate ruler used to make a direct measurement. Small breast carcinomas can often be measured using this method as the gross measurements may underestimate or overestimate the extent of the invasive carcinoma.

There are some coverslip films that are permanently marked by ink. Marking on such slides should be minimized.

TABLE 9–2. METHODS OF MEASURING

METHOD	APPROXIMATE ACCURACY
Estimation from known field diameters	1-2 mm
Direct measurement on the slide	1-2 mm
Vernier scale on movable stage	0.1 mm
Ocular reticle (graticule)	0.01 mm (10 μm)

BOX 9–5. Calculation of field diameter

A microscope has 10× eyepieces. The size of the field for the 2× objective is measured with a ruler as 0.8 cm. Using the formula the value of the constant for this microscope can be calculated:

10 (eyepiece magnification) × 2 (objective magnification) × 0.8 cm (field diameter) = 16 cm (a constant)

The field size for the 10× objective can be calculated using the formula:

10 (eyepiece magnification) × 10 (objective magnification) × X (field diameter) = 16 cm (a constant)

Or

X (field diameter) = 16 cm/10 (eyepiece magnification) × 10 (objective magnification) = 0.16 cm

BOX 9–6. Definitions

- **Rule scale:** Located on the stage and divided into millimeters.
- **Vernier scale:** Adjacent to the rule scale but fixed in position. It is divided into 10 divisions, each measuring 0.9 mm.

BOX 9–7. Measuring with the Vernier scale

1. The first reading is taken as the number of millimeters on the rule scale immediately before the "0" on the Vernier scale.
2. The decimal place is read off the Vernier scale and is the number at which there is perfect alignment between the two scales.
3. To measure an object, a reading is taken with the object at the edge of the field of view. The stage is then moved over the length of the object and a second reading is taken. The first number is subtracted from the second number to determine the distance the stage has moved.

Vernier Scale

The Vernier scale is found on the edge of most microscope stages and is used to measure the movement of the stage (Box 9-6). Because the movement of the stage is measured directly, the eyepiece and objective magnifications are irrelevant to the measurement.

There are usually two sets of scales corresponding to X and Y axes.

The use of the Vernier scale is clearly described and illustrated by Warren, et al.[15] (Box 9-7). Its use in measuring objects not aligned in the X and Y axis is described by Clark and Kung.[16] This method can be more reproducible than other measuring techniques.[17]

Ocular Reticle

The most precise measurements may be made using a scale mounted in an eyepiece objective that has been calibrated. The disadvantage of this method compared to other methods is that two special pieces of equipment are required:

1. **Reticle:** A reticle (graticule) has either a line scale or grid inscribed on the surface of a disc (either glass or plastic). It is used in conjunction with a focusing objective. The scale distances are arbitrary and must be calibrated for each microscope.
2. **Stage micrometer:** This is a glass slide with a very accurate scale of known size etched into its surface. Typically the scale is 1 mm in length divided into 100 equal divisions (1 mm = 1000 μm, thus each division equals 10 μm).

Reticles cost from $30 to $90, focusing eyepieces from $70 to $130, and stage micrometers from $100 to $200. After a reticle is calibrated for a microscope, the stage micrometer is no longer needed. Most measurements (with the exception of the thickness of melanomas) can be made using the diameter of microscopic fields. Therefore, one reticle and stage micrometer can suffice for an entire department (Boxes 9-8 and 9-9).

BOX 9–8. Calibrating a reticle and measuring objects

1. The measuring reticle is placed in one eyepiece in the microscope. If possible, it is most convenient to have a focusing objective with the reticle permanently installed.
2. The stage micrometer is viewed through the objective. The distance between the lines on the reticle is measured.
3. This is repeated for all the objectives on the microscope.
4. A table giving the calibration of the markings on the reticle is made and kept with each microscope. It is also useful to include the diameter of each microscope field.

BOX 9–9. Measuring microscopic objects using a reticle

1. The measuring reticle is placed in one eyepiece in the microscope.
2. The calibration line is placed over the object or distance to be measured.
3. The object or distance is measured by determining the number of units spanned on the calibration line. This number can then be converted to microns or millimeters using the table prepared for the microscope.

Reticles and stage micrometers are available from Edmund Scientific Company (101 East Gloucester Pike, Barrington, NJ 08007-1380, (609) 573-6879; TECHSUP@EDSCI.COM or www.edsci.com).

CLEANING AND CARE OF THE MICROSCOPE AND GLASS SLIDES

The Microscope

The best method to keep a microscope clean is to prevent it from getting dirty by employing a cover when not in use and avoiding the use of immersion oil. However, inevitably microscopes will gather dust or oil on the objectives. Only lens paper should be used to touch the objectives. Other types of paper may be too coarse or may be dusty and will scratch the lens. Fingers contain oils that may damage the coatings. If wiping the objective does not remove the dirt, a small amount of xylene or other cleaning solution applied to piece of lens paper may be used. Do not place cleaning solution directly onto the objective as it may seep inside of the objective. Xylene should be wiped away immediately as it will damage the adhesives used to construct the objective. Do not use alcohol, as this substance will damage the objective.

Glass Slides

The day a microscope slide is made, the mounting media will still be wet. It takes six to seven days to dry and the mounting media will not be completely dry for one to two months. Therefore, special care must be taken when cleaning the coverslip as it is easily moved and may damage the underlying tissue. The corner of the coverslip should be held with the tip of the finger to prevent dislodging it. Slides should not be filed until the following day for the same reason. An adhesive footplate on the end opposite the label can help prevent them from sticking together.

Microscope slides often become soiled due to handling. Smears and oil can be cleaned using a small amount of xylene on a lint free tissue. Excess dried mounting media can be gently scraped off on the side of the microscope stage. Peripheral blood smears often do not have a coverslip. Oil can be gently wiped off the surface.

Sometimes slides will be received with air bubbles caught under the coverslip. As a temporary measure, before the mounting media has dried, a small amount of xylene can be introduced under the coverslip to allow viewing of the tissue. However, these slides should be re-coverslipped to avoid permanent damage to the tissue by drying.

If one wishes to notate findings on a glass slide it is convenient to write them on a small adhesive footplate on the opposite end of the slide from the label. These footplates are easily replaced, unlike the surgical number label, and also serve to protect the slide when filed.

If a slide cannot be focused, the slide may be upside down on the stage. Rarely a coverslip will be placed on the wrong side or two coverslips may be present.

PHOTOGRAPHY

One of the most important roles of a pathologist is as an educator. Most doctors, including surgeons, never have the opportunity to directly see the disease processes that they diagnose and treat. Photography is an excellent means to convey to clinicians the pathology of disease. For example, the stellate appearance of a mass on a mammogram or the irregular feel of a breast mass on physical exam can be correlated with the irregular margins of a breast carcinoma in a gross specimen. The underlying histologic finding of infiltration of fibroadipose tissue by the carcinoma can then be appreciated.

Photomicroscopy

Photomicrographs are invaluable additions to teaching conferences and publications. Most photographs are now taken with the digital cameras and are then manipulated in Photoshop.

Slide Selection. The tissue should be well cut and stained without wrinkles or bubbles. Any ink present on the coverslip should be removed. The slide and coverslip should be wiped clean of dust and oils before photography.

BOX 9–10. Specimens in which photography may be helpful

- Surgical resections of tumors
- Colon resections for IBD
- Artificial heart valves and intact native valves
- Transplant lungs, kidneys, and hearts
- Possible medicolegal cases (e.g., amputations due to trauma, explanted permanent silicone implants, bullets)
- Pertinent negative specimens (e.g., a resection for a tumor if the tumor was not present on pathologic examination)
- Unusual specimens or specimens with examples of classic pathology (e.g., a classic porcelain gallbladder, Paget's disease of the nipple, rare grossly-evident prostate carcinomas)

Magnification. For the novice, it is often tempting to take photographs of the same image at each available magnification. However, the maximum amount of information is usually obtained with one lower power picture to show the general location and architecture of the tissue and one higher power picture to show the specific important pathologic features. If you find yourself repeatedly saying at conference ". . . and here is another picture of X," then you are taking too many photographs! Each image should reveal another feature of the tumor or pathologic process.

Adding Text to Photographs. Simple additions (e.g., letters indicating the type of immunoperoxidase stain represented), text, arrows, or graphics can greatly enhance the information provided by the microscopic image.

Modifications of Digital Images. Images can be markedly improved with a few of the tools available in imaging processing programs:

- Focus ("unsharp mask") – but overuse will lead to pixillated pictures.
- Color – background color can be corrected to white.
- Cropping – use to remove unnecessary peripheral areas.
- Rips in the tissue, uneven staining, ink spots, and other distracting marks – remove or copy over using erasing and cloning tools.

Photography of Gross Specimens (Box 9-10)

Most specimens are photographed best prior to fixation.[18,19] Blood, bile, and fecal material should be gently rinsed off the specimen using saline. Immersion in 80% ethanol for 15 to 30 minutes will restore some of the original color to the specimen.

Some specimens are better demonstrated after fixation in an inflated state, such as lung, bladder, or colon resections for diverticulosis.

Dissection. Most pathologic lesions are best demonstrated after partial dissection of the specimen. Think about how best to demonstrate the lesion before starting dissection. However, do not alter the specimen in a way that will impair the final diagnosis. Cross-sections of tumors offer much more information about tumor appearance and relationships with normal structures. Examples:

- Colon carcinoma: A cross-section can reveal residual villous adenoma at the edge of the tumor as well as tumor invasion into and through the muscularis propria.
- Whipple specimen: A photograph of a section taken through the plane of the common bile duct, the pancreatic duct, and the ampulla of Vater will reveal the appearance of the tumor and its relationship (obstruction, invasion, dilation) to these structures.

Photographing Under Saline. Saline supports delicate tissues and can be very helpful in bringing out fine textures. Sections of lungs (e.g., severe emphysema) or papillary structures (e.g., villous adenomas, PVNS, placental villi) can be demonstrated best under saline. Transillumination through saline on a light box often gives the best demonstration of a delicate floating structure.

Probes and Arrows. In some cases the informational value of a picture will be enhanced if certain features are emphasized. For example, a Whipple resection may be photographed with a probe in the ampulla of Vater to demonstrate the relationship of the tumor to the ampulla or a probe can be used to indicate the site of a colon perforation. Small arrows may be cut out of white cardboard and used to indicate subtle features. Some specimens may need to be propped open (e.g., laryngectomies) to show the important lesions. The handle of a Q-tip (with the tip cut off) can be used. Avoid including hands in the picture. If something needs to be held, grasp it with a hemostat.

Composition of the Photograph

Label. A label with the surgical pathology number and a ruler are always included.

Place the ruler/label in an anatomically appropriate orientation (e.g., with the upper pole of the kidney at the upper part of the photograph) so that it will be legible when the picture is displayed.

Orient the ruler/label with the edge of the photograph. Do not place ruler/labels diagonally as they will be more difficult to read and crop if necessary. The ruler should be closer to the specimen than the label in order to be able to crop the label but leave the ruler if the photograph is used for publication.

Do not allow the ruler/label to touch or overlap the specimen. If the specimen will fill the entire field, take one lower magnification picture first to include the ruler/label, or take one picture with the label over the specimen first, and then remove it to take the remaining photographs.

Always keep the label clean. It is generally best to prepare the label first, before handling the specimen, or to change gloves before making the label. The label can be attached to a clean glass microscope slide in order to handle it without soiling it.

The ruler/label and the lesion of interest should be in the same plane of focus. Use blocks or specimen cassettes to elevate the ruler/label to the appropriate height.

Specimen Placement. Most specimens photograph well on a dark background. For some specimens that are very dark (e.g., a metastatic melanoma or a thyroid after minocycline therapy), it may be more appropriate to select a light-colored background (e.g., a clean blue pad or drape).

Place the specimen in an anatomically reasonable position if possible. Avoid confusing ways of showing specimens. For example, if a kidney has been bivalved, photograph only half of the specimen. Orient the specimen so that it will fill the frame of the photograph.

Use as high a magnification as possible without leaving out important features of the specimen. It is often useful to take both a low magnification and a high magnification view. For example, clinicians can better understand a Whipple specimen if the photograph includes the stomach, duodenum, and pancreas. A second closeup photograph can be taken showing the relationship of the tumor to the ampulla.

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10 Approaching Perfection: Avoiding Errors in Surgical Pathology

Start out with the conviction that absolute truth is hard to reach in matters relating to our fellow creatures, healthy or diseased, that slips in observation are inevitable even with the best-trained faculties, that errors in judgment must occur in the practice of an art which consists largely in balancing probabilities.

Sir William Osler[1]

Show me a pathologist who has never made a mistake, and I'll show you a liar or someone who has never looked down the end of a microscope.

A respected professor of pathology[2]

The standard of care is not perfection.

A malpractice defense attorney

When error is mentioned in medicine, the immediate presumption is that a physician failed to provide good care due to either negligence or ignorance. The thought of being responsible for such an error strikes dread into the heart of all pathologists. However, within the broad spectrum of possible medical errors, errors due to negligence or ignorance are rare. Other types of errors are much more common and most of these can be minimized by understanding how they occur and designing systems to detect and prevent them.

The Institute of Medicine issued a report on medical error and patient safety on November 29, 1999.[3] The report states that the current error rate is unacceptable and mandates a 50% reduction within 5 years. Both CAP and JCAHO have issued patient safety goals for surgical pathology.[4] Some changes have taken place at the regulatory and governmental level, but the most important steps will occur at the institutional and individual practitioner level.[5-16]

Dr. Ronald Sirota has described the "culture of safety" that creates an environment that prioritizes patient safety and error reduction (Table 10-1).[3]

TABLE 10–1. THE CULTURE OF SAFETY

A TYPICAL MEDICAL SYSTEM	A BETTER MEDICAL SYSTEM
Patient safety and error reduction are important, but may not be given as much attention as other organizational goals.	Patient safety and error reduction are top organizational priorities.
Assumes that the system is perfect and that pathologists never make mistakes.	Assumes that mistakes are inevitable.
Systems (e.g., procedures, computer programs) are not designed to prevent and detect errors.	Systems are designed to prevent and detect all types of error.
All errors are considered to be the result of individual incompetence.	Recognizes that there are many types of error. Only a small number are due to incompetence. Most are due to system failures.
Creates strong incentives to not find errors or to conceal them.	Creates strong incentives to find and correct errors. Errors are openly reported and discussed.
Error detection results in shame and derision.	Uses each error as an opportunity to improve the system and to educate others in error prevention.

SOURCES OF ERROR

Errors can occur before specimens arrive in the pathology department, during pathologic evaluation, or after the report leaves the pathology department.

Pre-pathology errors:

- Failure to provide appropriate patient and specimen identification.
- Failure to provide relevant clinical history.
- Failure to provide tissue in a timely and appropriate manner to perform necessary pathology examination.
- Failure to transport the specimen to the pathology laboratory.

Pathology errors:

- Loss of specimen.
- Errors in accessioning specimens.
- Errors in gross sampling of tissue.
- Failure to preserve tissue in appropriate fixatives or for special studies necessary for diagnosis.
- Failure to make the correct diagnosis or significant omissions to the pathology report.
- Failure to provide a completed pathology report without typographical errors.
- Billing errors - usually due to failure to document billable procedures in the report.

Post-pathology errors:

- Failure of the pathology report to be available to treating clinicians.
- Failure of the clinician to understand the report.
- Failure to inform clinicians directly of significant changes in diagnosis in addendums.

Pre-Pathology Errors

Both CAP and the JCAHO have issued guidelines for the submission of specimens for pathologic examination. A Q-probes study revealed that 6% of specimens failed to meet these standards.[17] Errors constituted the following:

- Discrepant or missing information: 77.0%
- Specimen not appropriately identified: 9.6%
- Specimen handling: 3.6%

If a specimen is received without appropriate documentation, the submitting clinician must be contacted before accessioning the case.

Pathology Errors

Specimen identification

Specimens must be correctly identified by the clinician submitting the specimen. This identification should be confirmed by the following:

1. The tissue must correspond to the site biopsied. If it does not, identify the problem as clinician error (e.g., endometrial curettings are actually colonic mucosa) or pathology error (mixed-up specimens or extraneous tissue).
2. Correlate the pathologic findings with the clinical setting. If discordant, consider the possibility of a misidentified specimen.

Clinicians often provide information that aids in detecting such errors. If a clinician questions a diagnosis, the possibility of an error should be addressed. In rare cases, it may be appropriate to identify the specimen by tissue typing.

Gross examination

Advances in disease detection have resulted in the removal of increasingly smaller tumors or in situ disease that may be difficult to find on gross examination.

Small specimens that are completely examined microscopically rarely present a problem. However, large resections, particularly after preoperative therapy, can be problematic. One study investigated the incidence of errors in breast pathology.[18] The investigators found that failure to adequately examine specimens grossly were responsible for major discrepancies in 5% of cases and minor discrepancies in 6% of cases, including missed cancers, missed metastatic carcinoma to lymph nodes, and undetected skin invasion. The majority (83%) of the major discrepancies occurred in mastectomy specimens. In contrast, review of the original glass slides revealed major discrepancies in only 1.5% of cases and minor discrepancies in 6%. Errors due to suboptimal gross examination may be reduced by the following procedures:

1. Provide increased supervision for first year residents or new pathology assistants for large complicated specimens. Most major discrepancies occur with less experienced prosectors.
2. Utilize additional techniques to find lesions when necessary. For example, specimen radiography may be necessary to localize small mammographic lesions in mastectomies when the diagnosis was made by needle biopsy.
3. Reexamine specimens grossly after microscopic evaluation if the following occurs:
   - Prior diagnostic findings not confirmed (e.g., FNA suspicious for papillary carcinoma but no carcinoma found in the thyroid on initial sampling).
   - Fewer lymph nodes than expected found.
   - Prior biopsy or tumor site not identified.
   - Radiologic findings not found. Radiographic reexamination of the specimen can be helpful.

Microscopic examination

The major reasons for differences in diagnosis among pathologists in the microscopic examination of specimens include the following:

1. Failure to see an area of a slide or an entire slide.
   - Slides should be scanned on low power first to identify all tissue fragments.

- If there are many fragments on the slide, it can be helpful to mark a line around all the fragments (to facilitate screening the entire circled area) or to make a line interconnecting all the fragments (e.g., multiple lymph node sections).
- Avoid distractions during sign-out. Some pathologists mark each slide as it is examined or reverse examined slides in the tray.

2. Failure to recognize a diagnostic entity. This is what most pathologists think of as an "error" although this is only a small portion of the total number of errors possible. Pathologists do need to establish an adequate knowledge base and to know their limitations. One should resist the temptation to make a rare diagnosis with which one has little familiarity and should have a low threshold to seek consultation with colleagues or acknowledged experts. **This type of error is rare, occurring in <1% of cases.**
3. Imprecise or ambiguous terms, or terminology without universally agreed upon definitions. Two pathologists can see the same entity but render different diagnoses based on different opinions or use of terms (e.g., "positive" or "negative" to describe the same result of an immunohistochemical study). Efforts to generate uniform diagnostic criteria and checklists should reduce this variability.
4. Diagnostically difficult cases. Although there will be little variation in the diagnosis of some lesions (e.g., invasive colon carcinoma), other lesions can be very difficult to classify. Differences in opinion for such lesions do not, in general, constitute an error on the part of a pathologist who may disagree with another pathologist. Unfortunately, it is often difficult for non-pathologists to understand that there can be a differential diagnosis for pathologic lesions. Such cases may benefit by obtaining and documenting opinions from more than one pathologist in the final report.

Pathology reporting

1. Typographical errors. This is probably the most common type of error. Pathologists must be vigilant in detecting such errors, as they can sometimes change a final diagnosis. Computer systems with spell checkers can be helpful, but will not find many errors in meaning. Synoptic reports aid in typing reports and reducing spelling errors, but are difficult to proofread.
2. Errors of omission: Failure to provide information required for the treatment of patients can adversely affect patient care. To some extent, this is dependent on the information desired by the clinicians in each institution.

There are published recommendations for cancer reporting from the Association of Directors of Surgical Pathology (ADASP; see www.adasp.org) and the College of American Pathologists (CAP; see www.cap.org). As of January 1, 2004, the American College of Surgeons Commission on Cancer (ACS CoC) requires the reporting of all scientifically validated or regularly used data elements of the CAP checklists in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens (not including cytologic specimens, diagnostic biopsies, and palliative resection specimens) from CoC-approved cancer centers.

Post-Pathology Errors

These errors consist of failure of the pathology information provided in a report to reach the relevant clinicians.

Unexpected diagnosis

Clinicians may not see a pathology report on a routine specimen until the patient is next seen for follow-up. If this appointment is delayed or does not occur, an important unexpected diagnosis may be overlooked. Examples would include finding carcinoma in a hernia sac, endocarditis in a heart valve, and multiple myeloma in bone marrow from a joint replacement. In such cases, it is recommended to contact the clinician directly as well as to send the final report.

Changes in diagnosis after a case has been signed out

Information added in addendums can be easily lost or overlooked unless the original report specifically states that an addendum will be added. If important information needs to be added to a report at a later date, it is advisable to contact the clinician directly. Problems can be minimized:

1. Avoid putting important information in an addendum. If additional important diagnostic tests are being performed or consultation is sought, then it may be preferable to hold the report until all information is available to render a final diagnosis.
2. The original report can state that an addendum will be added if it is known additional information will be available later.
3. An amended report should be identified on the first page of the report. If the addendum is added to the end of the report, the clinician may not realize that additional information has been added.

Amending a report (i.e., unsigning a report and changing or adding information) must be carefully documented. The content of the original report must be preserved and the specific changes documented. This option should only be used for very significant changes in the diagnosis that could alter patient care.

Failure of the clinician to understand the diagnosis

A recent study showed that surgeons misunderstood pathology reports 30% of the time.[19] Although the presence or absence of carcinoma was well understood, problems arose

when surgeons had to interpret histologic descriptions. Such problems can be minimized:

1. Provide specific, well-understood diagnostic terms whenever possible.
2. Standardize terminology within a department. Sign-out checklists can help in providing all important information in a format familiar to clinicians.
3. Provide additional explanatory information in the report if possible (e.g., information on grading or classification systems).
4. Provide AJCC classifications when possible for malignant tumors.
5. Avoid providing misleading information. For example, clinicians may not understand that a specimen heading is not a diagnosis. If a specimen has been labeled "Left thigh sarcoma" but the lesion is not a sarcoma, it is advisable not to include the word "sarcoma" in the heading for the final diagnosis. The specimen heading can be documented in the gross description for medicolegal purposes.
6. Include important information from the gross examination in the final diagnosis. For example, the final determination of tumor size should be based a final assessment of both the gross and microscopic appearance and should be recorded in the final diagnosis. Similarly, the gross description should be edited after the microscopic examination to remove misleading information. For example, if the gross description states that a lymph node is grossly involved by tumor, but this later turns out to be false, this could potentially lead to confusion or the presumption that the pathologist has made an error.
7. Prioritize important information. The most important diagnosis should be stated first. A malignant diagnosis may be overlooked if placed within a paragraph describing benign findings.

TEN WAYS TO AVOID PERSONAL ERRORS

1. Avoid signing out when tired, stressed, or ill. Have a low threshold for setting aside difficult, unusual, or clinically important cases (e.g., a diagnostic biopsy prior to a major resection). Reflecting on a case a few hours later or the next day can provide important insights.

   A rapid incorrect diagnosis is never better than a delayed correct diagnosis.
2. Know your limitations and have a low threshold for seeking opinions from your colleagues.
3. Require that all cases are logically consistent. If a case does not make sense to you (e.g., a surgeon has resected a completely normal length of bowel) there is likely missing clinical history (e.g., a subtle lesion has been missed during grossing or the surgeon resected the wrong length of bowel).
4. Accept the fact that some lesions defy diagnostic certainty. A number of studies have shown that some lesions cannot be consistently classified, even by a panel of experts under ideal conditions. For such cases, a consensus opinion from a group of pathologists or an "expert" opinion may be helpful.
5. Establish error-reduction systems and make sure coworkers are aware of the reason for the system. Explain the importance of "redundant" systems to those using them (see later section).
6. Simplify tasks as much as possible for routine specimens:
   - Written procedures
   - Checklists
   - Synoptic reporting

   Save creativity for the rare unusual case.
7. Be responsive when clinicians question a pathology report, as this is an effective method of detecting and rectifying errors.
8. Demand sufficient clinical information when appropriate. On the other hand, remain appropriately skeptical of the information you do receive, as it may be incorrect or incomplete.

Clinical information is both our best friend and our worst enemy.
Ronald Sirota, MD

9. Be aware of common pitfalls that other pathologists have fallen into, in order to avoid them yourself (see the later section).
10. Be appropriately grateful when someone discovers one of your errors, especially if patient harm has been avoided. Refrain from gloating over or reviling colleagues when you discover they have made a mistake.

REDUNDANT SYSTEMS

Redundancy, or requiring that more than one person perform the same task, can be an effective means of reducing error. For example, one person makes up cassettes with the appropriate specimen number and a second person checks the number on the cassette before using it for a specimen. Or, there may be a departmental requirement that some pathologic diagnoses are reviewed by two pathologists.

If each person makes one mistake out of 100 specimens, then the chance that both will make the mistake on the same specimen is only one in 10,000.

However, it is human nature to minimize the amount of work one needs to do. If someone knows that another person is also performing the task, he or she is often less vigilant about performing it. Therefore, the error rate can increase for both people. The overall error rate may not only fail to be decreased, but may actually increase in a redundant system.

Therefore, when redundant systems are in place, everyone must be aware of how the system works and why they must not rely on someone else to check for mistakes. Each person must take responsibility for any error made rather than blaming a single person. Almost every error is due to more than one person making multiple errors.

FREQUENT DIAGNOSTIC PITFALLS

There are some diagnostic situations that pose frequent problems for pathologists. Knowledge of these problem areas can help avoid them.

Dermatopathology Specimens

Misdiagnosis of melanoma is the most common claim filed against pathologists in surgical pathology.

- Making a diagnosis of melanoma (or failing to make the diagnosis) on an inappropriate small or shave biopsy: Clinicians should be educated about appropriate biopsies of pigmented lesions.
- Melanomas vs. Spitz nevi.
- Failure to recognize desmoplastic melanoma: this diagnosis may be difficult as this type of melanoma may not be immunoreactive for typical melanoma markers.
- Metastatic melanoma vs. a primary sarcoma or carcinoma: markers for melanoma are helpful.
- Metastatic melanoma to a lymph node vs. lymphoma: this differential diagnosis is easily resolved with immunohistochemical markers.

Breast Specimens

These specimens are the second most common source of malpractice claims.

- Sclerosing adenosis vs. invasive carcinoma: This differential is made more difficult when the sclerosing adenosis is involved by apocrine metaplasia, LCIS, or DCIS. Smooth muscle alpha actin or P63 will show myoepithelial cells in sclerosing adenosis. This is a frequent difficult diagnosis in needle biopsies.
- Metastatic lobular carcinoma: The cells can be quite small and infiltrate in a diffuse pattern without a stromal response. A high index of suspicion and keratin studies may be necessary for diagnosis.
- Low grade DCIS vs. hyperplasia: Some of these lesions defy accurate classification. Micropapillary DCIS is often overlooked. Suspect carcinoma when cells of a similar appearance are seen in multiple ductal spaces.
- Freezing artifact in small lesions: Small lesions should never be entirely frozen. In general, frozen section should be avoided for any lesion less than 1 cm in size or if the pathologist thinks diagnosis would be compromised by freezing the lesion.

Pulmonary Specmens

- Crushed blue cells: Transbronchial biopsies may contain crushed blue cells. The diagnosis of small cell carcinoma may be made without considering the possibility of carcinoid tumor or lymphocytes. If it is small cell carcinoma, mitoses or tumor necrosis should be present. Immunoperoxidase studies can be used to distinguish lymphocytes from small cell carcinoma.
- Desmoplastic mesothelioma vs. reactive pleuritis: This can be a difficult differential diagnosis, particularly when the biopsy is small or the tumor is paucicellular. Repeat biopsies may be necessary. Cytogenetics on pleural fluid can be helpful if abnormal.

Genitourinary Specimens

- Atrophy vs. prostate carcinoma: IHC for basal cells can be helpful (see Chapter 7).
- Basal cell hyperplasia vs. PIN: IHC for basal cells can be helpful (see Chapter 7).
- Urothelial carcinoma in prostatic ducts vs. PIN: IHC can be helpful (see Chapter 7).
- Seminal vesicle vs. prostate carcinoma: The seminal vesicle can contain enlarged "monster cells." However, surrounding cells will appear normal in appearance. The seminal vesicle has a characteristic papillary appearance and often has a golden-yellow cytoplasmic pigment. The cells of the seminal vesicle are PSA-negative.
- Metastatic renal cell carcinoma: The cells can often be quite bland and mistaken for histiocytes. Metastases can occur decades after the original diagnosis and can occur in unusual sites (e.g., the eyelid).

Gastrointestinal Specimens

There are two types of pathologists. Those that have missed signet ring cell carcinoma and those that will someday miss signet ring carcinoma.

Anonymous Pathologist

- Signet ring cell carcinoma: The cells can be very bland and infiltrate in the lamina propria without disrupting the surrounding architecture. A high index of suspicion is necessary for all gastric biopsies. Mucin stains or IHC studies for keratin can be helpful. For women, metastatic lobular carcinoma of the breast should also be considered.
- Pancreatic carcinoma vs. pancreatitis: This is a difficult diagnosis on small specimens and on frozen section. Specific criteria for diagnosis have been published and are helpful in these situations (see Chapter 6).
- Carcinoma or pseudoinvasion in polyps: Glands can become entrapped in the stalk of a polyp and can be difficult to distiguish from invasion. Invasive carcinoma in a polyp should be considered as a possibility in small biopsies, particularly from the rectum. Inappropriate surgery may be avoided by good communication among the pathologist, the endoscopist, and the surgeon.

Soft Tissue Specimens

- Mistaking metastatic melanoma or carcinoma for sarcoma: A good clinical history and immunoperoxidase studies are often necessary for appropriate diagnosis.

- Nodular fasciitis: These lesions can have markedly atypical cells and look very alarming. A good clinical history (a rapidly growing mass, usually in a young adult) and a familiarity with this entity are helpful.
- Diffuse-type giant cell tumor (previously known as pigmented villonodular synovitis) can be mistaken for a sarcoma, particularly if extraarticular.
- Failure to recognize monophasic synovial sarcoma.
- Papillary endothelial hyperplasia (Masson lesion) vs. angiosarcoma: Organizing thrombi can closely mimic an angiosarcoma. There is often a history of prior trauma and the lesion may be within a vessel or have a well circumscribed border. There is no endothelial multilayering.

Gynecologic Specimens

- Metastatic carcinoma vs. primary ovarian carcinoma: IHC studies can be helpful (see Chapter 7).

Neuropathology

- Pituitary adenoma vs. multiple myeloma: On smears, plasma cells can closely resemble the cells of an adenoma.[20]

Hematopathology Specimens

- Lymphoma only partially involving a lymph node: This type of missed diagnosis usually occurs in lymph nodes taken out as part of a larger resection.
- Failure to diagnosis lymphoma in extranodal locations (e.g., skin, nasal cavity, mediastinum, stomach).
- Anaplastic lymphomas: These lymphomas can partially involve a lymph node and can closely mimic a metastatic carcinoma. They are occasionally EMA positive and LCA negative. However, keratins are virtually always negative.

Head and Neck Pathology

- Squamous cell carcinoma vs. radiation changes – this can be particularly difficult when the radiation changes involve small glands or ducts.
- Follicular variant of papillary carcinoma: Nuclear features of papillary carcinoma are present, but may be focal.
- Pseudoepitheliomatous hyperplasia over a granular cell tumor mistaken for squamous cell carcinoma.
- Necrotizing sialometaplasia vs. squamous cell carcinoma.
- Metastatic squamous cell carcinoma to a cervical lymph node vs. a branchial cleft cyst.

Bone Specimens

- Routine rib specimens: The most common missed diagnoses are multiple myeloma or chronic lymphocytic leukemia. However, the latter diagnosis is usually known to the clinicians because of the patient's peripheral blood count. In rare cases, unsuspected cases of multiple myeloma may be detected in incidental specimens.

WHEN AN ERROR IS DETECTED

If an error is detected, the report must be corrected and the clinicians notified.

An original report that has been issued should not be altered or deleted, as this report is part of the patient's medical record. Minor errors can be corrected in an addendum. If a major error has occurred then it may be advisable to add a heading over the original diagnosis stating that a change in diagnosis has been made and directing the reader to the corrected diagnosis. If an amended report is issued (i.e., the original report is unsigned and changed), the original diagnosis must be preserved and the changes fully documented.

The circumstances and procedures leading to the error should be reviewed to determine how the error occurred and whether the system can be improved. In general, it is found that at least two people have made an error before an incorrect pathology report is released. For example, one person makes an error, but a second person fails to detect it. These occurrences should be viewed as excellent opportunities to discover ways to improve procedures and to educate pathology personnel on the importance of following the procedures in place to prevent errors.

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Part 2

INTRODUCTION

Part Two is a guide to the gross description, dissection, and processing of commonly received pathology specimens. The following protocols have been found useful for most specimens. However, the optimal procedure will vary according to specific issues associated with individual cases, institutional practices, and personal preferences of pathologists and clinicians.

Format

Each section starts with a brief description of typical specimens and the commonly diagnosed disease processes.

"Relevant clinical history" lists the most important clinical information specific for the organ site that should be provided to the pathologist in order for a full evaluation of the specimen. Clinical history is required by JCAHO when a specimen is accepted for examination by pathologists (see also Chapter 1, Requests for Pathologic Evaluation). Important history for all specimens includes:

- The clinical indication for the procedure
- Any unusual features of the clinical presentation
- The organs/tissues resected or biopsied (including location and number of lesions present)
- Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled as observed by the surgeon, if unusual or unexpected
- Prior surgery or biopsies and the pathologic diagnoses
- Prior malignancies (type, location, stage)
- Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, or drugs that can alter the histologic appearance of tissues or increase susceptibility to infection)
- Immune system status (known immunosuppression or conditions that could result in immunosuppression)
- Current or recent pregnancy

"Processing the specimen" outlines the step by step description, dissection, and sampling of specimens in order to document all diagnostic and prognostic features.

"Special studies" lists tests beyond those applied to formalin fixed tissue that might be helpful for some types of specimens.

"Gross differential diagnosis" describes the appearances of the most common tumors and disease processes. Illustrations are provided for the most common tumors and lesions.

"Microscopic sections" lists the types of tissue to be submitted and guidelines for the number of cassettes to submit.

"Sample dictations" are provided as examples of gross descriptions for common specimens.

"Pathologic prognostic/diagnostic features sign-out checklist" gives the major features of tumors that are used for diagnosis, prognosis, staging, correlation with clinical and radiologic findings, and treatment decision making. These lists are a guide to information that should be included in the final pathology report. The lists incorporate the published recommendations of the Association of Directors of Surgical Pathology (ADASP) (see www.adasp.org) and the College of American Pathologists (CAP) (see www.cap.org), as well as the recommendations from other groups, when available. As of January 1, 2004, the American College of Surgeons Commission on Cancer (ACS CoC) requires the reporting of all scientifically validated or regularly used data elements of the CAP checklists in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens (not including cytologic specimens, diagnostic biopsies, and

palliative resection specimens) from CoC-approved cancer centers. These items are underscored in the checklists provided in this manual.

"AJCC classifications" are provided from the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, seventh edition, 2009. The AJCC sixth edition should be used to classify tumors diagnosed from Jan 1, 2003 through 2009. The seventh edition should be used after Jan 1, 2010. Other classification systems used for staging are also provided.

The AJCC classification pertains to characteristics of a single tumor as determined at presentation, prior to treatment. The classification system uses suffixes and prefixes to indicate other situations:

m: Indicates the presence of multiple tumors in a single site (e.g., T2 [m] N1 MX).

y: Indicates the classification of a tumor during or following therapy (e.g.. ypT1 N0 MX).

r: Indicates a recurrent tumor after a disease-free interval.

a: Indicates the classification at autopsy.

"Grading systems" are provided for some specimens. Not all are universally accepted or used. Alternative grading systems are provided for some types of tumors.

Other types of information useful for the preparation of the final surgical pathology report are provided (e.g., Rosen criteria for lymphovascular invasion for breast cancer, evaluation of salivary gland biopsies for Sjögren's syndrome, and endometrial dating).

Adrenal Gland 11

Adrenal glands may be resected en bloc as part of a radical nephrectomy, to remove a clinically evident tumor (usually a functional cortical adenoma or a pheochromocytoma), or to investigate an incidental mass seen on CT scan (usually adenomas, rarely carcinomas). Cortical carcinomas, primary or secondary hyperplasia, and other benign lesions (e.g., myelolipomas, ganglioneuromas) are less common. Biopsies are usually fine needle aspirations to confirm the diagnosis of metastatic carcinoma.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

TABLE 11–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR ADRENAL SPECIMENS
Clinical indication for the procedure	Clinical symptoms of functional tumors: **Adrenocortical tumors** Cushing syndrome- increased cortisol (central obesity, striae, hypertension) Conn syndrome – increased aldosterone (hypokalemia, hypertension) Hypoglycemia Combined excess syndromes **Pheochromocytomas/paragangliomas** – elevated catecholamine levels (episodic hypertension, rare Cushing syndrome)
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	
Organs resected or biopsied (including location an the number of lesions present)	
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled as observed by the surgeon, if unusual	
Prior surgery or biopsies and the pathologic diagnoses	
Prior malignancies (type, location, stage)	Radiologic findings (e.g., incidental mass or found on studies for non-specific symptoms of weight loss or malaise)
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, or drug use)	Family or personal history of other endocrine tumors (see Table 7-50)
Immune system status	
Current or recent pregnancy	

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. If a mass is present, or if the surrounding soft tissue is abnormal (e.g., grossly involved by tumor), ink the outer surface.
2. Serially section through the specimen at 2 to 3 mm intervals. If no masses are present and significant amounts of peri-adrenal soft tissue are present, the soft tissue is dissected away and the exact weight and size of the gland measured. Weight is an important feature in assessing hyperplastic glands as well as tumors.

   Normal glands weigh from 4 to 6 grams.

   If a mass is present with only a small amount of peri-adrenal soft tissue, the entire specimen may be weighed. If large amounts of soft tissue are present, take sections demonstrating margins and possible soft tissue invasion. Non-involved soft tissue may then be removed before weighing.

3. Describe any lesions present including size, capsule (benign lesions are usually well-encapsulated, malignant lesions may lack a capsule or invade into soft tissue), color (similar to normal cortex vs. brown, yellow/white, or red/brown), and relationship to normal adrenal gland (adenomas and carcinomas arise from the cortex, pheochromocytomas arise from the medulla).
4. Describe the non-lesional portion of the gland (color; golden yellow cortex, inner band of reddish zona reticularis, with a central pearly gray medulla), average thickness of gland (normal is 0.7 cm), and the presence or absence of nodularity.
5. Carefully section through any adjacent soft tissue to search for additional tumor nodules or lymph nodes.

SPECIAL STUDIES

Cytogenetics. Many adrenal tumors are associated with germline mutations (e.g., 50% to 100% of adrenocortical carcinomas in children are associated with Li-Fraumeni syndrome and 30% of pheochromocytomas are associated with MEN or other syndromes; see Table 7-50). Cytogenetic changes in sporadic cortical tumors have been associated with clinical behavior and may be helpful for their evaluation (see Table 7-47). Cytogenetic studies are also important for pediatric adrenal tumors (see below).

Chromaffin Reaction. Ninety percent of pheochromocytomas can be diagnosed grossly by a positive chromaffin reaction. Fresh tumor tissue placed in chromate solutions turns a mahogany brown or black. Zenker's fixative can be used, but is not as sensitive as it also contains acetic acid. A solution of potassium dichromate without acetic acid is preferable. Potassium iodide 10%, (which turns the tumors purple or magenta) may be used but may be less sensitive than potassium dichromate.

Pediatric Adrenal Tumors. Adrenal tumors in children are more likely to be neuroblastomas, ganglioneuroblastomas, and ganglioneuromas, although cortical tumors and pheochromocytomas also occur. As treatment decisions for neuroblastomas are based on biologic and morphologic variables, the pathologist plays a crucial role in managing the tissue allocation for these cases. In general, tissue should be placed in sterile culture medium for cytogenetic studies, snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen for molecular biology studies, saved as air-dried touch preparations for in situ hybridization, and placed in fixative for EM.[1,2]

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Normal Glands are flat ovoid structures with a reticulated surface (Fig. 11-1A). On cross section the cortex is a distinctive bright canary yellow color. Lesions of this color at other sites usually correspond to adrenal rests. The zona reticularis is a narrow inner reddish-brown band. The central medulla has a more homogeneous appearance and is a pearly gray color.

Hyperplastic Glands show either diffuse (usually secondary hyperplasia due to increased ACTH) or nodular enlargement (usually primary hyperplasia) and commonly weigh more than 6 grams (Fig. 11-1B). Multiple nodules may be present and are rarely encapsulated. There may be a dominant nodule but the entire cortex should be increased in size.

Primary Pigmented Nodular Adrenocortical Disease (PPNAD) is associated with Carney complex in over 90% of patients. Multiple black, brown, and/or red nodules involve the cortex of both glands. The remaining adrenal may be small, normal, or enlarged. Most patients also have Cushing syndrome.

Adenomas are usually solitary and relatively small (less than 5 cm or 50 grams) and arise from the cortex (Fig. 11-1C). Most have a homogeneous bright-yellow parenchyma (like cortex) with a well-circumscribed border. Larger lesions may have areas of necrosis or hemorrhage. Rarely adenomas will appear dark or black due to the presence of a pigment thought to be either lipofuscin or neuromelanin. These dark adenomas are usually non-functioning.

- **Cushing syndrome:** Adenomas are bright yellow and of moderate size. They cause suppression of ACTH by autonomously producing cortisol resulting in atrophy of the surrounding normal adrenal (as well as the contralateral gland). The cortex should measure less than 0.2 cm in thickness and there may be fibrous thickening of the capsule.

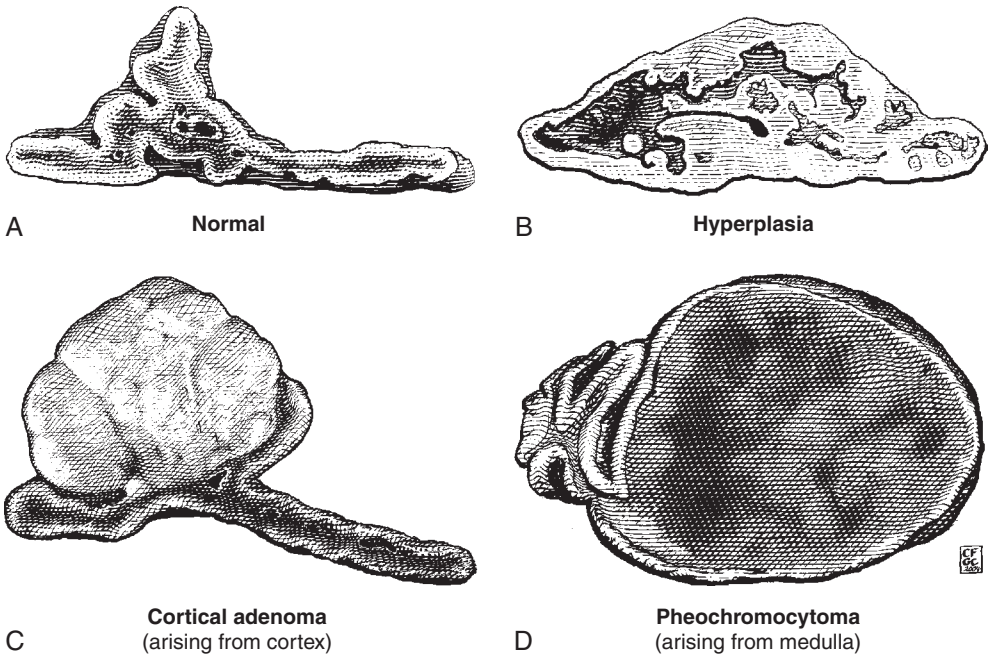

Figure 11–1. Gross pathology of the adrenal gland.

- **Conn syndrome**: Adenomas are often smaller (<2 cm) and paler in color than those associated with Cushing syndrome. The normal gland is not suppressed and should be normal in size.
- **Adenomas associated with virilization or feminization**: Often large (>1000 grams) and tan/white to brown.
- **"Incidentalomas":** Adenomas found incidentally due to radiologic imaging of the adrenal glands for another reason. These lesions are usually nonfunctioning and may be present in 0.6% to 1.3% of patients. Less than 1% of these lesions will be adrenal carcinomas. Large lesions or lesions showing growth over time are usually resected.

Adrenal Carcinomas are usually much larger (i.e., over 100 grams and 10 to 20 cm) than adenomas, but can be small. The tumors may be bright yellow but often have a variegated appearance with areas of necrosis and hemorrhage. A capsule is sometimes present but is often invaded by tumor with extension into adjacent tissues. Vascular invasion is common along with thrombosis or tumor embolism. Half are functional and may cause atrophy of the surrounding cortex.

Pheochromocytomas are yellow/white to red/brown and arise from the medulla (Fig. 11-1D). Small tumors tend to be unencapsulated whereas larger tumors usually have a capsule. Larger or malignant tumors may have areas of necrosis, hemorrhage, and cystic degeneration. Most are 5 to 8 cm in size and weigh 70 to 100 grams. The surrounding cortex may be compressed.

Pheochromocytomas associated with hereditary syndromes (about 30% of total), are associated with medullary hyperplasia in the adjacent gland; multiple nodules may be present. Adrenal medullary hyperplasia is usually associated with MEN IIa and IIb syndromes and consists of diffuse or nodular expansion of the medulla of both adrenal glands. A nodule >1 cm is classified as a pheochromocytoma.

- 10% rule: 10% bilateral, 10% extra-adrenal, 10% in children, 10% malignant.

Neuroblastomas are the most common adrenal tumors in children. The tumors are soft and hemorrhagic and may be cystic. Necrosis may be present and the tumor may invade into surrounding tissues. Ganglioneuroblastomas and ganglioneuromas are firmer, white to tan, and often have areas with calcification. Focal areas typical of neuroblastoma should be sought and sampled in such tumors.

Metastatic Tumors are usually firm and white and appear to invade or destroy the adjacent adrenal. Multiple nodules may be present. Adrenal glands with metastasis from a distant site (usually lung, breast, or melanoma) would be unusual surgical specimens, as the diagnosis can often be made by FNA.

However, if the adrenal gland is removed during a radical nephrectomy, the gland may harbor metastatic renal cell carcinoma (see Table 7-31).

Myelolipomas are soft, fleshy, circumscribed masses that resemble adipose tissue with focal red or fibrous areas. The mass compresses the adjacent gland. About 20% are associated with tuberous sclerosis.

Benign Cysts are usually unilocular and small and are filled with serous or serosanguinous fluid. Hemorrhagic cysts may be filled with clotted blood. Most probably arise from blood vessels or lymphatics.

Any lesion not corresponding to the above descriptions may be an unusual benign or malignant tumor (e.g., primary lymphomas of the adrenal, ganglioneuromas, etc.). Such lesions should be carefully documented and tissue may be taken for special studies (e.g., frozen tissue, EM, cytogenetics).

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Lesions:**
  - Small lesion (i.e., <2 cm): entire lesion including the capsule and relationship to adjacent adrenal gland.
  - Large lesion (i.e., >2 cm): Three cassettes plus an additional cassette for each 1 cm of greatest dimension. Include the capsule and sample all areas that have different gross features (e.g., unusual color, necrosis, hemorrhage). Include relationship to the adjacent gland.
- **Normal gland:** If no gross lesions are present, and were not suspected clinically, submit one representative section of the gland. If lesions are present, submit two sections of the junction of the nonlesional gland and the lesion.
- **Margins:** If the tumor is infiltrating into soft tissue, submit perpendicular margins.
- **Lymph nodes:** Serial section and submit (see Chapter 27).

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "right adrenal" is an adrenalectomy specimen (10 × 4 × 2 cm) completely surrounded by yellow/white unremarkable adipose tissue varying in thickness from 0.5 to 2.0 cm. There is a 20 gram 3 × 3 × 2 cm ovoid well-circumscribed bright-yellow tumor mass arising from the cortex of the adrenal, which is firm and lacks necrosis or hemorrhage. The tumor appears to compress the adjacent cortex, which is homogeneous and atrophic in appearance and measures 0.2 cm in thickness. The gray medulla is a narrow band and unremarkable. A single small (0.3 cm) lymph node is found in the adjacent soft tissue.

Cassette #1-4: Tumor including soft tissue margins, 4 frags, ESS.
Cassette #5: Remainder of tumor (ESS) and adjacent normal adrenal, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #6: Representative normal adrenal, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #7: Lymph node, 1 frag, ESS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR ADRENAL TUMORS

- **Specimen:** Unfixed, fixed in formalin
- **Procedure:** Total adrenalectomy, partial adrenalectomy, needle biopsy
- **Specimen Integrity:** Intact, fragmented. Laparoscopic removal may result in fragmentation.
- **Specimen Size:** Greatest dimension (optional: other dimensions). Adrenal cortical tumors over 6.5 cm in size are more likely to be malignant.
- **Specimen Lasterality:** Right, left
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (optional: other dimensions). Most cortical tumors over 5 cm will be malignant.
- **Tumor Gland Weight:** In grams. Most benign cortical tumors weigh <50 g and most malignant tumors weigh > 100 g. The weight includes the tumor and the gland.
- **Tumor Description:** Hemorrhagic, necrotic, invasive (capsule, vessels, extra-adrenal) Hemorrhage and necrosis are unusual in benign lesions. Lesions with zonal necrosis are more likely to be malignant.

TABLE 11-2. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF ADRENAL CORTICAL CARCINOMA

TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
T1	Tumor 5 cm or less in greatest dimension, no extra-adrenal invasion
T2	Tumor greater than 5 cm, no extra-adrenal invasion
T3	Tumor of any size with local invasion, but not invading adjacent organs*
T4	Tumor of any size with invasion of adjacent organs*
* Note: Adjacent organs include kidney, diaphragm, great vessels, pancreas, spleen, and liver.	
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional node metastasis
N1	Metastasis in regional lymph nodes
DISTANT METASTASIS	
M0	No distant metastasis (clinically)
M1	Distant metastasis
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.	

- **Histologic Type:** Cortical adenoma, cortical carcinoma, pheochromocytoma, neuroblastoma, ganglioneuroblastoma, ganglioneuroma, myelolipoma, other rare types. The WHO classification is recommended.
  - It is not always possible to determine whether a cortical or medullary tumor is benign or malignant in the absence of distant metastases. However, histologic features can be used to divide tumors into low- and high-risk groups (see later).
  - The Shimada classification system is used for pediatric neuroblastic tumors (see Fig. 11-2)
- **Margins:** Uninvolved, involved (specify site, extent of involvement)
- **Treatment Effect:** No prior treatment, no effect identified, treatment effect present
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Present or not identified
- **Perineural Invasion:** Present or not identified
- **Fuhrman Nuclear Grade:** For carcinomas (see under renal carcinomas for criteria)
- **Mitotic Rate:** Number of mitoses per 10 HPF. For adrenocortical carcinomas, >20 mitoses per 10 HPF is associated with a shorter disease-free survival (14 months) as compared with <20 mitoses (58 mo). A mitosis-karyorrhexis index is used for neuroblastic tumors.
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Degenerative changes (calcifications, hemorrhage, cystic change)
- **Nonlesional Adrenal:** Normal, atrophic, hyperplastic (cortex vs medulla)
- **Ancillary Studies:** Immunoperoxidase studies, histochemical stains, electron microscopy, cytogenetic studies, molecular studies
- **Regional Lymph Node Metastasis:** Absent, present (number of nodes involved, number of nodes examined)
- **Lymph Nodes, Extranodal Extension**: Present, not identified
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 11-2). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pMO category.

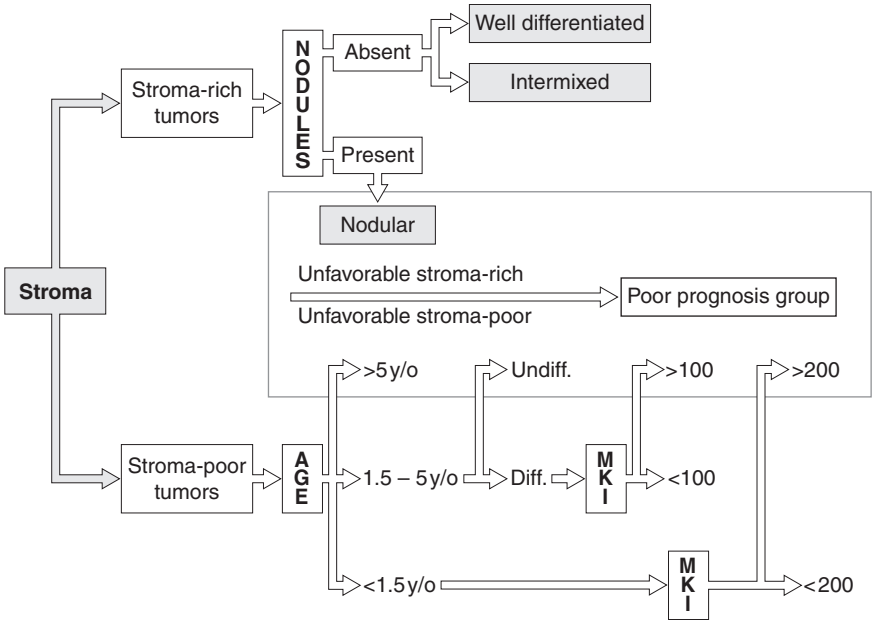

Figure 11–2. The age-linked Shimada classification of childhood neuroblastoma and ganglioneuroblastoma. An important factor is determination of the character of the stroma. Unfavorable stroma-rich and stroma-poor categories are seen. MKI is mitosis-karyorrhexis index. *(Reproduced with permission from Shimada H, Chatten J, Newton WA Jr, et al. J Natl Cancer Institute 73:405–416, 1984.)*

THE AGE-LINKED SHIMADA CLASSIFICATION OF CHILDHOOD NEUROBLASTOMA AND GANGLIONEUROBLASTOMA

The Shimada classification (Fig. 11-2) uses specific morphologic features (i.e., stroma, differentiation, mitosis-karyorrhexis index, nodularity, and calcification), age, stage, and nMYC status to evaluate pediatric neuroblastic tumors. The character of the stroma is important for prognosis.[1,2,12,13]

WEISS CRITERIA FOR MALIGNANCY FOR CORTICAL LESIONS IN ADULTS (>20 YEARS)

Fewer than 10% of cortical tumors will behave in a malignant fashion. No single or group of features is able to separate benign from malignant lesions. However, the criteria in Table 11-3 can be used to classify cortical lesions into high and low risk lesions.[3-5]

CRITERIA FOR MALIGNANT CLINICAL BEHAVIOR FOR CORTICAL LESIONS IN PEDIATRIC TUMORS (<20 YEARS OF AGE)[6]

1. Tumor weight >400 g
2. Tumor size >10.5 cm
3. Extension into periadrenal soft tissue and/or adjacent organs
4. Invasion into vena cava
5. Venous invasion
6. Capsular invasion
7. Presence of tumor necrosis
8. >15 mitoses per 20 HPF (400×)
9. Presence of atypical mitotic figures

Some tumors that would be classified as malignant by adult tumor criteria behave in a benign fashion in children.

- 0-2 criteria: benign long-term clinical outcome
- 3 criteria: indeterminate for malignancy (17% are malignant)
- >3 criteria: poor clinical outcome (64% are malignant)

TABLE 11–3. WEISS CRITERIA FOR MALIGNANCY FOR CORTICAL LESIONS IN ADULTS (>20 YEARS OF AGE)

CRITERION	DESCRIPTION
1. Nuclear grade III or IV	Use Fuhrman nuclear grade
2. Mitotic rate >5/50 HPF	×40 objective on a Zeiss microscope. Mitoses are evaluated by counting 10 random HPFs in the area of greatest numbers of mitotic figures on the 5 slides with the greatest number of mitoses (or if fewer slides, increase the number of HPFs per slide). Apoptotic and crushed cells are excluded.
3. Atypical mitotic figures	Atypical mitoses definitely have an abnormal distribution of chromosomes or an excessive number of mitotic spindles.
4. Eosinophilic tumor cell cytoplasm (75%)	≤ 25% clear or vacuolated cells resembling the normal zona fasciculata
5. Diffuse architecture (33%)	> one-third of the tumor forms patternless sheets of cells. Trabecular, cordonal, columnar, alveolar, or nesting patterns are not considered diffuse.
6. Necrosis	Must occur in confluent nests of cells.
7. Venous invasion	A vein must be an endothelial-lined vessel with smooth muscle as a component of the wall. Free tumor cells floating in a vessel lumen are not included.
8. Sinusoidal invasion	A sinusoid is an endothelial-lined vessel in the adrenal gland with little supportive tissues.
9. Capsular invasion	Nest or cords of tumor extend into or through the capsule with a corresponding stromal reaction.

Criteria 2, 3, and 7 were seen only in malignant tumors. >95% of malignant tumors had three or more of these criteria (most have 4), whereas >95% of benign lesions have two or fewer.
Tumors ≥50 grams behaved in a malignant fashion 91% of the time. Tumors ≥6.5 cm were malignant 92% of the time. Aldosterone-secreting tumors are always benign. These criteria do not accurately predict the clinical behavior of oncocytic adrenocortical tumors, as many have nuclear atypia and a diffuse growth pattern. However, the presence of necrosis, invasion, and mitoses do correlate with malignancy in this tumor type.

FEATURES ASSOCIATED WITH MALIGNANCY IN PHEOCHROMOCYTOMAS[7–9]

Five to 15% of pheochromocytomas will behave in a clinically malignant fashion, but it is impossible to predict this group based on any single histologic feature. Even tumors with capsular invasion, vascular invasion, and invasion into adjacent soft tissue may be surgically curable.

Two more recent systems (PASS [Table 11-4] and KIMURA [Table 11-5]) are controversial. Most pathologists do not currently employ any formal scoring system in routine practice, for reasons including the lack of prospective validation and uncertainty as to how to recognize some of the scored parameters.

The systems are described only for the purpose to elucidate some of the features described in malignant tumors. However, both systems await further studies and confirmation.

Both were developed to help predict the tumors most likely to behave in a clinically malignant fashion. The PASS system, however, has not shown to be reproducible and the criteria listed can be easily misinterpreted. Thus far, no validation studies have been performed assessing the robustness of this system, especially in correlating morphological parameters with tumor proliferative index, as assessed by MIB-1/Ki-67 staining, which has been most consistently correlated with malignancy in independent studies.

TABLE 11–4. PHEOCHROMOCYTOMA OF THE ADRENAL GLAND SCALED SCORE (PASS)

FEATURE	DESCRIPTION	SCORE
Large nests or diffuse growth (>10% of tumor volume)	A large nest is 3 to 4 times the size of a zellballen or the normal size of the medullary paraganglia nests.	2
Central (middle of large nests) or confluent tumor necrosis	Does not include degenerative change (cyst formation, hemorrhage, hemosiderin-laden macrophages, and fibrosis)	2
High cellularity	Many cells with a high nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratio	2
Cellular monotony		2
Tumor cell spindling (even if focal)		2
Mitotic figures >3/10 HPF	×40 with a ×10 objective using an Olympus BX40 microscope	2
Atypical mitotic figure(s)	Abnormal chromosome spread, tripolar or quadripolar forms, circular forms, or indescribably bizarre	2
Extension into adipose tissue		2
Vascular invasion (either lymphatic or blood vessel)	Direct extension into the vessel lumen, intravascular attached tumor thrombi, and/or tumor nests covered by endothelium identified in a capsular or extracapsular vessel Tumors involving vessels within the tumor are not included	1
Capsular invasion		1
Profound nuclear pleomorphism	Greatly enlarged nuclear size, irregular shape, and bizarre forms	1
Nuclear hyperchromasia	Complete opacification and heavy nuclear chromatin deposition	1
Total		20

Benign tumors did not show invasion into adipose tissue, central confluent necrosis, or atypical mitotic figures. Sustentacular cells (identified by S100) were present in the primary tumors as well as in metastases. Although malignant tumors tend to be larger and weigh more, these features are not reliable for determining clinical behavior.
The tumor is evaluated for each feature and a total score generated.

PASS SCORE	CLINICAL BEHAVIOR
<4	All clinically benign
≥4	66% clinically malignant

TABLE 11–5. SCORING SCALE FOR PHEOCHROMOCYTOMAS AND EXTRA-ADRENAL SYMPATHETIC PARAGANGLIOMAS (KIMURA)

FEATURE	SCORE
Histologic pattern	
Uniform cell nests	0
Large and irregular nests	1
Pseudorosettes (even if focal)	1
Cellularity	
Low (<150 cells/mm^2)	0
Moderate (150 to 250 cells/mm^2)	1
High (>250 cells/mm^2)	2
Necrosis (confluent or central in large nests)	2
Vascular or capsular invasion	1
Ki-67 immunoreactivity	
>1% or 20 cells per medium-power field	1
>3% or 50 cells per medium-power field	2
Catecholamine phenotype	
Adrenergic	0
Noradrenergic or "nonfunctional"	1
Total	10

Metastases were reported in 13% of tumors with scores 1-2, 63% with 3-6, and 100% with 7-10. In addition, 5-year survivals of patients in the three groups were reported to be 92%, 69% and 0, respectively (Kimura).

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12 Amputations and Large Resections

The most common reasons for amputations are peripheral vascular disease, trauma, and occasionally tumors. Some amputation specimens may be requested by the patient (e.g., some religions require burial of the limb).

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

TABLE 12–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR AMPUTATION SPECIMENS
Clinical indication for the procedure	Joint disease (e.g., gout or rheumatoid arthritis)
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	Reason for the amputation (e.g., vascular disease associated with diabetes, avascular necrosis, malignancy, pathologic fracture, traumatic amputation)
Organs resected or biopsied (including location and number of lesions present)	Prior malignancy (e.g., primary bone tumor, metastases to bone, or tumors such as lymphoma that involve bone marrow)
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesions sampled as observed by the surgeon, if unusual	Prior treatment (e.g., vascular grafts, treatment of malignant tumors)
Prior surgery or biopsies and the pathologic diagnoses	Radiologic findings (e.g., incidental mass or found on studies for nonspecific symptoms of weight loss or malaise)
Prior malignancies (type, location, stage)	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Immune system status	
Current or recent pregnancy	

GENERAL GROSS DESCRIPTION

The description of all amputations includes the following:

- Structures present:
  - Left lower leg below-the-knee amputation, right foot, left index finger, etc.

- Dimensions of each structure (e.g., upper leg, lower leg, foot) including length and maximum circumference of limbs.
- **Type of procedure:** Disarticulation (cartilage-covered joint surface present) vs. amputation (exposed bone surface present)
- **Type of resection margin:** Smooth (surgical) or irregular (traumatic) resection margin.
- **Soft tissue at resection margin:** Condition (e.g., grossly viable vs. necrotic or ulcerated). Distance of skin and soft tissue from bony resection margin.
- **Skin:** Color, lesions (ulcers, areas of discoloration, bruising, gangrene) or identifying marks (e.g., scars, tattoos).
- **Lesions:** Bone fractures, blood vessels (atherosclerosis, thrombosis), osteomyelitis, tumor (if present), previous amputation sites.
- **Prior surgical procedures:** Amputations, vascular grafts, etc.
- **Decalcification:** Decalcification must be documented as this procedure can alter the histologic appearance and immunogenicity of tissues and is required for appropriate billing.

TRAUMATIC AMPUTATIONS

Traumatic amputations may involve litigation and the pathologic examination may become legal evidence. It is helpful to photograph such specimens for documentation. Process as described for amputations for vascular insufficiency. The presence and extent of peripheral vascular disease may be of clinical value if present.

DIGITS – NON-TUMOR

Fingers and toes are usually removed due to vascular insufficiency (toes) or trauma (usually fingers).

1. Describe including the features listed above.
2. Submit one section of soft tissue margin and an additional section of any skin lesions.
3. Fix entire specimen overnight.
4. Decalcify the following day.
5. When the bone is sufficiently decalcified, take one section of bone at the resection margin and one additional section of bone if there is a question of osteomyelitis (e.g., bone below a deep ulcer bed).

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Skin and soft tissue:** One section of margin and additional section(s) to evaluate any skin lesions.
- **Bone:** One section of the resection margin. Additional section(s) of bone beneath deep ulcers if there is a question of osteomyelitis.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "toes" are two digits amputated through the first metatarsal bone with a smooth resection margin and measuring 2 × 2 × 1.5 cm and 1.5 × 1.5 × 1 cm. The larger digit has a deep ulcer on the plantar surface (1 × 1 cm) that grossly appears to extend to the underlying bone. The skin of the smaller digit has a purple/black color, but no ulceration is present. The nails are unremarkable. The resection margins consist of unremarkable bone and soft tissue. The bone is fixed and decalcified prior to submission.

Cassette #1: Larger digit, ulcer, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #2: Larger digit, skin at margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #3: Larger digit, bone below ulcer, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #4: Larger digit, bone at margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #5: Smaller digit, representative skin and soft tissue at tip, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #6: Smaller digit, skin at margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #7: Smaller digit, bone at margin, 1 frag, RSS.

LOWER EXTREMITY – NON-TUMOR

Vascular Insufficiency

Vascular insufficiency is the most common reason for amputations. Often there will be prior amputations (e.g., several toes) and skin lesions (ulcers or frank gangrene). To document the disease process, dissect and examine the vessels of the leg.

Dissection of the Vessels of the Lower Extremity

See Figure 12-1.

1. Make a skin incision that starts just behind the medial malleolus and extends proximally in an oblique manner to reach the posterior aspect of the leg, and thence straight upwards to the line of resection.
2. Identify the posterior tibial neurovascular bundle behind the medial malleolus. Sever the distal ends and proceed to strip the vessels upwards, dissecting the muscle and subcutaneous tissue away from the vessels. Stop when the junction of the posterior tibial and popliteal arteries is reached at the interosseous membrane between the tibia and fibula.
3. Return to the ankle region and extend the original incision distally and then laterally to traverse the dorsum of the foot just distal to the ankle. Reflect the skin flap to expose the anterior compartment of the leg.
4. Identify the anterior tibial neurovascular bundle at the ankle (the anterior tibial artery becomes the dorsalis pedis artery and traverses the dorsum of the foot at this site). Sever the distal ends and reflect proximally as for the posterior tibial. When the interosseous membrane is reached, dissect bluntly around the vessel to free it. Then return to the posterior aspect of the leg and pull the anterior tibial vessels through the interosseous membrane.
5. Complete the removal of the vessels by continuing the reflection of the popliteal artery to the lines of resection.

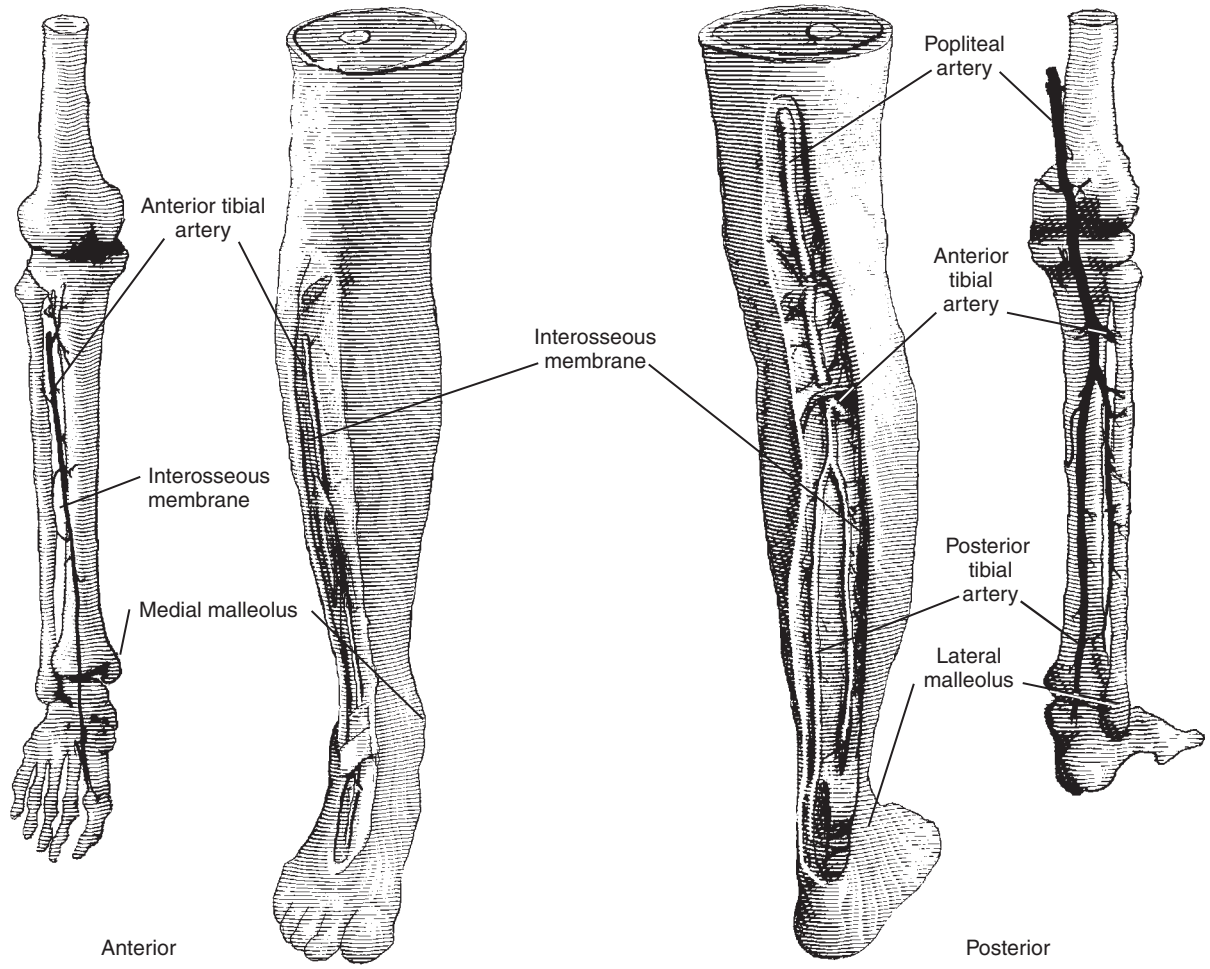
Usually the vessels will be densely calcified and will require decalcification before cutting.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record the measurements and features described in the first section.
2. Dissect out the anterior and posterior vessels and any grafts, if present (see above). If vein grafts are present, describe their anatomic relationships to other vessels, the status of the anastomosis (intact, patent, obstructed) and the presence or absence of thrombi.
3. Take skin and soft tissue sections from the margin and from any lesions present. Take a cross section of the soft tissue of one of the grossly normal toes to look for small vessel disease. Bone sections need not be taken if there are no gross lesions. If there is a suspicion of bone involvement (osteomyelitis), that section of bone is resected with the bone saw for fixation and decalcification.

   The metatarsal-phalangeal joint of the great toe is dissected open and examined for evidence of joint disease (see in Chapter 14, "Synovium," for gross differential diagnosis of joint disease).

   The marrow can be removed from the cut section of the bone and prepared as for a rib marrow squeeze if there is a clinical suspicion of disease involving the marrow.
4. Fix the tissue sections and blood vessels in small formalin containers with appropriate labels (e.g., "anterior vessels and margin," "posterior vessels and skin lesion"). The remainder of the specimen is kept unfixed but refrigerated.
5. The following day the soft tissue is submitted for processing (one cassette of margin, cassette[s] of lesion[s], cassette of soft tissue of toe). The vessels are decalcified.
6. The next day the vessels and grafts are serially sectioned. Record the location and extent of occlusions (calcified plaque, thrombosis). Submit multiple cross sections in two separate cassettes from the anterior and from the posterior vessels of the areas of greatest occlusion. If a graft is present, submit areas of obstruction and the vein-artery anastomotic site.



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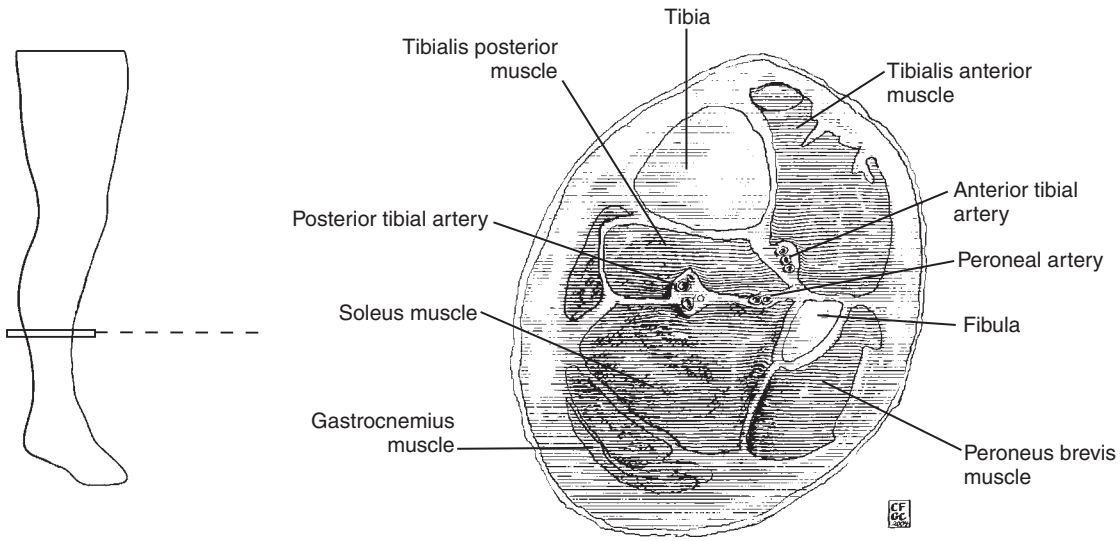

B

Figure 12–1. Dissection of the lower extremity.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Skin and soft tissue:** One section of margin and additional section(s) to evaluate any skin lesions.
- **Cross section of toe:** One cross section (to evaluate small vessel disease).
- **Bone:** Only submit section(s) of bone if there is a question of osteomyelitis or if bony lesions are present. The margin need not be submitted.
- **Vessels and grafts:** Submit one cassette each of anterior and posterior vessels showing area(s) of greatest occlusion. Submit area of greatest occlusion of grafts and the vein-artery anastomotic site.
- **Bone marrow:** Only submitted if there is a clinical suspicion of disease affecting the bone marrow.
- **Joint:** Only submitted if there is clinical suspicion or gross evidence of disease affecting the joints (e.g., gout).

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "leg" is a right lower extremity amputated through the tibia and fibula with a smooth resection margin (length of leg 37 cm; circumference of calf 40 cm; foot 26 × 9 cm). The fourth and fifth digits have been previously amputated. The skin is diffusely mottled purple and red. There are ulcerations present on the lateral aspect of the foot (3 × 1 cm) and on the plantar surface of the great toe (1 × 1 cm). The anterior vessels are diffusely calcified with luminal obstructions of up to 80%. The posterior vessels are diffusely calcified with luminal obstructions of up to 50%. The metatarsal-phalangeal joint of the great toe consists of smooth glistening white cartilage and is grossly unremarkable. The bone and soft tissue at the resection margin are unremarkable. A cross section of the third digit is fixed and decalcified prior to submission.

Cassette #1: Skin, ulcers, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #2: Skin and soft tissue at margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #3: Cross section of third digit, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #4: Anterior vessels, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #5: Posterior vessels, 1 frag, RSS.

AMPUTATIONS OR LARGE RESECTIONS FOR TUMOR

Large tumor resections are unusual and usually involve either tumors of bone or cartilage or soft tissue tumors involving major neurovascular bundles.[1-4] See in Chapter 14, "Bone Resections for Tumors" and Chapter 32 for additional information about these specimens.

If bone is present, radiographs of the specimen are helpful to document the bony structures present and to identify areas of destruction of normal bone or abnormal bone formation for sampling. Tumors involving bone may require sectioning (either longitudinal or cross sections) with an electric hand-saw or a band saw. If the distal limb is not involved, separating this part of the specimen may simplify dissection and fixation.

Diagrams are often useful to document complex specimens and can be used to designate the location of tissue blocks. Polaroid photographs and photocopies have also been used for this purpose.[1]

Describe the specimen as outlined above in the general section. Identify the muscles, nerves, and arteries present at the margin of the specimen and the sites of any prior biopsies. The best way to process the specimen will depend on the type and location of the tumor. Tumors involving nerve bundles may be best demonstrated by partial dissection of nerve trunks.

Describe the tumor, including size, appearance (color, necrosis, bone formation, cartilage formation), location (tissue compartment), relationship to surrounding structures (bone, vessels, nerves, muscle), center of tumor (epiphysis, metaphysis, diaphysis, intramedullary, periosteal), erosion of cortex, extension into soft tissue (compression or true invasion), extension through epiphyseal plate, extension into or across joint space, vascular involvement, skip metastases, distance from each margin.

After all soft tissue sections have been removed, tumors involving bone can be decalcified after fixation. Over-decalcification resulting in loss of histologic detail should be avoided by periodically checking the specimen to minimize exposure. Bone dust may create histologic artifacts (i.e., bone fragments within the marrow space). To avoid this, small sections of bone should be decalcified, the decalcified tissue thinly sectioned with a scalpel, and the tissue sections embedded so that the surface away from that cut by the saw is used to prepare tissue for slides.

All margins, usually perpendicular, must be evaluated including soft tissue, blood vessels, nerves, and bone. Bone margins can be removed with a bone saw and decalcified separately.

SPECIAL STUDIES

- **Untreated tumors:** Most amputations are performed for sarcomas, bone tumors, or other unusual tumors. It is often helpful to save tumor for rapid formalin fixation, electron microscopy, snap freezing, and cytogenetics.
- **Treated tumors:** If the tumor has been previously diagnosed and special studies performed, and the patient has received preoperative chemotherapy and/or radiation therapy, the tumor may be largely necrotic and additional studies may not be possible. However, a complete cross-section of the tumor (using multiple cassettes with locations indicated on a diagram) may be helpful to evaluate the extent of necrosis in response to treatment for osteosarcoma and Ewing sarcoma (see Chapter 14).

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** At least one section per cm including areas of intratumoral heterogeneity, relationship to adjacent normal structures, and relationship to margins. A diagram with a section code is usually needed.
- **Margins:** All margins including soft tissue and bone are sampled using perpendicular sections.
- **Normal structures:** Representative sections of normal structures (e.g., blood vessels, major nerve bundles).
- **Lymph nodes:** Submit all lymph nodes found (see Chapter 27).

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13 Small Biopsies

Small biopsies are minute tissue fragments either taken by pinching and tearing tissue (e.g., endomyocardial, gastrointestinal, bladder, synovium, larynx, or lung) or with a core needle biopsy (e.g., liver, kidney, bone marrow, prostate, and breast) for a wide variety of reasons (e.g., malignancy, infection, inflammatory diseases, radiologic lesions, transplant rejection). The tissue is usually unidentifiable as to anatomic site.

Biopsies of the small bowel, breast, heart, liver, bladder, lung (transbronchial), colon, synovium, brain, stomach, temporal artery, bone marrow, kidney, and skin have additional processing protocols in their respective chapters.

Because there is limited tissue, the initial sections of the block must be made so as to conserve tissue for necessary studies. For example, if the biopsy is of a suspected malignancy, it is often helpful to order unstained slides suitable for immunoperoxidase studies when the first H&Es are cut.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

TABLE 13–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR SMALL BIOPSIES
Clinical indication for the procedure	Type of biopsy (e.g. needle, forceps, wedge, curettage, punch)
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	
Organs resected or biopsied (including location and number of lesions present)	Number of biopsies or fragments
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesions sampled as observed by the surgeon, if unusual	Appearance of the clinical lesion
Prior surgery or biopsies and the pathologic diagnoses	
Prior malignancies (type, location, stage)	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Immune system status	
Current or recent pregnancy	

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record:
   - Number of fragments (if many, give an estimate, not "many" or "numerous")
   - Aggregate dimensions
   - Greatest dimension of largest fragment. If there are only a few fragments (e.g., two to three), the dimensions of each one may be given.

At sign-out it is important to correlate the number of fragments on the slide with the number of tissue fragments received to ensure that all tissue fragments are represented microscopically.

Check the sides and lid of the container, as well as any gauze or tissue paper, for small fragments that may be attached. Every piece of tissue is important because sometimes a diagnosis can be made on only a few cells!

On the other hand, small specimens are particularly susceptible to cross contamination from other specimens. The work area must be kept fastidiously clean and all dissecting tools cleaned between cases.

Specimens may be submitted on gauze; this can introduce artifacts into tissues that look like perpendicular empty hatchmarks under the microscope, corresponding to the weave of the cloth.

2. Record the shape of the fragments – needle cores or small irregular fragments.
3. Record the color and consistency of the fragments.
   - White, firm – usual appearance of tissue
   - Yellow, soft – adipose tissue, may fragment and not be seen well on slides
   - Red, friable – usually blood clot, may not survive processing
   - Brown, hard – may be foreign matter (e.g., seeds) sometimes present in colon biopsies

These features can be used to distinguish tissue fragments from non-tissue material in order to correlate with the number of tissue fragments on the final slides.

4. Small biopsy specimens should not be cut or inked. If the specimen is large enough to orient (e.g., colon polyps, skin, or temporal arteries), see the specific section concerning this type of biopsy.
5. All small biopsies must be supported within the cassette to prevent tissue loss during processing. All fragments are submitted. Small fragments may be dipped in eosin to make them more visible.
   - **Lens paper** can be used for very small specimens or cell blocks. The paper must be thin enough for formalin to penetrate easily. Cut each sheet of lens paper into four 2" × 3" pieces. Wet the paper with formalin. Tissue sticks to dry paper and this causes fragmentation and artifacts. Place the specimen or specimens in the center of the paper. The tissue should not overlap. Needle biopsies should be aligned in a row. If necessary, use more than one cassette for large and/or numerous biopsies. Fold the paper in thirds over the tissue (Fig. 13-1). Fold over the ends. Overfolded specimens may be difficult to unfold for tissue embedding and underfolding may result in the paper opening during processing with loss of the specimen. A sponge can be placed in the cassette with the paper packet to keep the specimens flat and aligned.

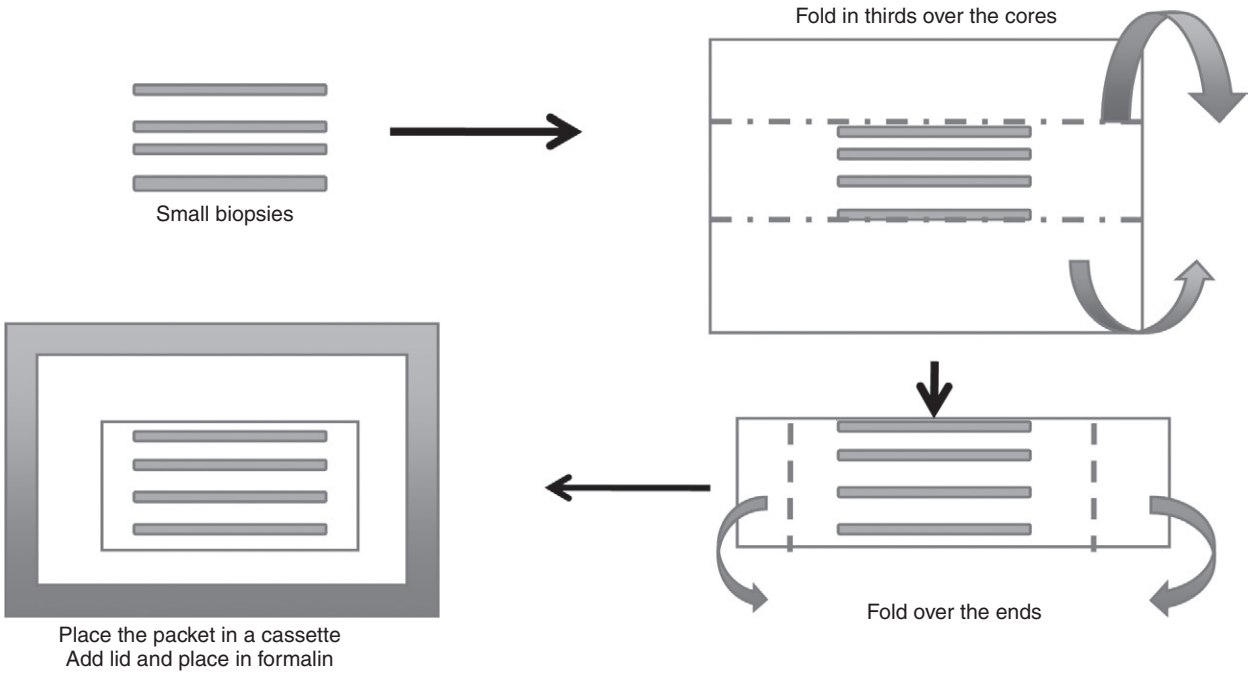


Figure 13–1. Preparation of small biopsies for pathology.

- **Nylon specimen bags** can be used in the same manner as lens paper. Make sure the fragments are near the bottom of the bag. Fold two times and place in a cassette. Specimen bags can also be used for cell blocks. The cell suspension is poured through the bag. The filtered formalin should be collected in a clean specimen cup in order to retrieve specimens in case of spillage.
- **Sponges** hold the tissue flat and aid in embedding the tissue in the same plane. However, sponges can create artifacts within the tissue (i.e., angulated "holes" within the tissue). They cannot be used for cell blocks. Wrapping the tissue in paper before placing between sponges may minimize tissue distortion.
- Most types of biopsies have standard numbers of levels and special stains (see Chapter 3). Nonroutine small biopsies (i.e., none of those listed above) may be from tumors at unusual locations or unusual disease processes. **Additional levels and unstained slides should be considered for these specimens according to the clinical history, in order to conserve tissue when the block is first cut.**

SAMPLE DICTATIONS

Example 1. Received in formalin labeled with the patient's name, unit number, and "heart biopsies" are five fragments of soft tissue, each measuring approximately 0.4 × 0.3 × 0.3 cm. Three of the fragments are brown, one is white, and one is friable and red/brown.

Cassette #1: five frags, ESS

Example 2. Received in formalin labeled with the patient's name, unit number, and "PNBX left" are three white/tan needle biopsies measuring 0.1 cm in diameter and 0.7, 0.5, and 0.3 cm in length.

Cassette #1: three frags, ESS.

Example 3. The specimen consists of three parts, all received in formalin labeled with the patient's name and unit number.

The first part is labeled "Transverse " and consists of a single fragment of tan soft tissue (0.4 × 0.4 × 0.4 cm).

Cassette #1: one frag, ESS.

The second part is labeled "Sigmoid" and consists of two fragments of white/tan soft tissue, each approximately 0.3 × 0.3 × 0.3 cm.

Cassette #2: two frags, ESS.

The third part is labeled "Rectum" and consists of three fragments of white/tan soft tissue, each approximately 0.4 × 0.3 × 0.2 cm and one fragment of friable tan/brown material measuring 0.2 × 0.2 × 0.2 cm.

Cassette #3: four frags, ESS.

Example 4. Received in formalin labeled with the patient's name, unit number, and "Bladder tumor" are approximately 20 fragments of soft tan/white tissue with a micropapillary architecture, measuring in aggregate 0.7 × 0.7 × 0.3 cm, the largest fragment measuring 0.4 × 0.4 × 0.4 cm.

Cassette #1: mult frags, ESS.

14 Bone and Joints

Bones are common surgical specimens that may be submitted after reconstructive or joint replacement surgery, as part of a larger soft tissue resection, to diagnose metabolic bone disease, or after resection of tumors primary to bone.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

TABLE 14–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR BONE AND JOINT SPECIMENS
Clinical indication for the procedure	Reason for the procedure (e.g., degenerative joint disease, failed joint replacement, fracture, infection, malignancy, osteonecrosis, evaluation of metabolic bone disease)
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	
Organs resected or biopsied (including location and number of lesions present)	
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesions sampled as observed by the surgeon, if unusual	Joint disease (e.g., gout, rheumatoid arthritis)
Prior surgery or biopsies and the pathologic diagnoses	History of Paget disease of bone, bone infarction, or osteomyelitis
Prior malignancies (type, location, stage)	Family history of Ollier disease, Mafucci syndrome, Rothmund-Thomsom syndrome, etc.
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Immune system status	
Current or recent pregnancy	

TOTAL JOINT ARTHROPLASTY (HIPS AND KNEES)

Bone, cartilage, and adjacent soft tissues are removed during artificial joint replacements, usually performed to treat degenerative joint disease, but also performed in patients with rheumatoid arthritis, osteonecrosis, traumatic fractures, and pathologic fractures.

Clinically important unsuspected diseases may be found in "routine" specimens for degenerative joint disease (e.g., hemochromatosis, rheumatoid arthritis, gout, tumors, infection, osteonecrosis, Gaucher disease, and others). However, the incidence of such findings is small, ranging from <1% to 8% in different studies.[1-7]

The method of examining well-defined "routine" specimens (defined by therapeutic procedures for degenerative joint disease in patients without a history of malignancy [or risk factors for malignancy such as prior radiation], infection, or immunocompromise, and with normal gross findings) should be made jointly among pathologists and clinicians and, in accordance with Joint Commission standards,[8] should be part of a written hospital or laboratory policy (see also "Gross Examination"). Alternatives are gross examination by the surgeon, gross examination by both surgeon and pathologist, or gross and microscopic examination by the pathologist. Even if not all specimens are examined microscopically, this is always an option that can be requested by the surgeon.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Describe the number of fragments of bone (estimate if many), size in aggregate, range of sizes. Describe any recognizable portions of bone: femoral head (see next section), tibial plateau, femoral condyles.
2. Describe articular surface including color (usually white, black if ochronosis, brown/green if hemochromatosis), crystalline deposits (both gout and chondrocalcinosis will produce chalky white deposits), erosions or pits, or eburnation (= bone that is markedly thickened and smooth [like ivory] due to complete loss of the overlying cartilage - do not mistake eburnated bone for cartilage!). Describe subchondral cysts or osteophytes if present.
3. Describe the number of fragments of soft tissue (estimate if many), size in aggregate, range of sizes.
4. Describe the color and consistency of the soft tissue:
   - Normal = white/tan, delicate, villous
   - Hemochromatosis = brown/green
   - β2 microglobulin amyloidosis = tan/yellow, firm, and homogenous
   - Giant cell tumor, diffuse type (pigmented villonodular synovitis or PVNS) = red/brown and shaggy (delicate villi with small nodules may be appreciated if the tissue is floated in saline). Necrotic foci may appear yellow due to the presence of histiocytes.
   - Gout or chondrocalcinosis = chalk white crystalline material. See the separate section on "Synovium" for a more complete description and special processing of unusual specimens.
5. The bone is separated from the soft tissue. Submit one section of soft tissue including synovium if possible. Normal synovium will look like a thin delicate membrane. Fix the bone overnight in formalin and decalcify the following day. All decalcification procedures must be documented in the gross description.
6. Serially section through the decalcified bone to find the best diagnostic areas. One fragment of bone should include the junction of normal and abnormal cartilage and the other fragment should be from the periphery to include exostosis and/or pannus. The sections should be about 2 × 1 cm in size with the short axis perpendicular to the cartilage surface including 5 to 10 mm of subchondral bone.

If osteonecrosis is suspected, the entire specimen must be serially sectioned to look for the characteristic gross findings (see below). Submit sections to document the interface of normal and abnormal bone. Radiography of the specimen may be helpful to identify the area of necrotic bone.

SPECIAL STUDIES

Crystal Disease. Chalky white deposits in soft tissue may be due to urate crystals (gout) or calcium pyrophosphate dihydrate crystals (= calcium pyrophosphate dihydrate deposition disease [CPPD] = pseudogout = chondrocalcinosis). Tissue must be saved in absolute (100%) alcohol because these crystals are soluble in aqueous solutions. The tissue must be hand processed and stained with an anaqueous Wright stain. Crystals can also be visualized in tissue smears, frozen sections, or unstained sections.

Crystals sometimes survive routine processing in aqueous solutions but are lost in the final staining steps. Look for preserved crystals in tissue folds if present. An unstained slide may also be requested and examined under polarized light after deparaffinizing.

Crystals can also be examined directly by smearing the unfixed crystals on a slide, or by suspending in absolute alcohol as necessary (remember that they will dissolve in water). If the crystals are viewed using a compensating first-order red filter under polarized light, uric acid can usually be distinguished from CPPD crystals. The crystals are aligned parallel to the line on the compensating filter. If not available in the pathology department, most rheumatologists will have such a microscope available for examination

of synovial fluids. Crystals will polarize in properly fixed and stained histologic sections, but positive and negative birefringence cannot be reliably performed on fixed tissue (see Chapter 9 for a description of polarization).[9,10]

- **Uric acid:** needle shaped, strong negative birefringence, bright yellow
- **CPPD crystals:** rhomboid, weakly positive birefringence, less bright and blue

Calcium oxalate crystals can be seen in bone, articular cartilage, and bone marrow in patients with primary (familial) oxalosis or secondary oxalosis (usually due to chronic renal failure). The crystals are needle shaped in radially arranged clusters and are both refractile and polarizable. They can dissolve in formalin, but only after several days. The type of crystal can be identified by chemical analysis, x-ray diffraction, or electron diffraction.

Metastasis. Determine from the clinical history whether there is a known primary malignancy. If not, additional studies may be warranted (e.g., snap freezing, EM, or immunohistochemistry). Remove as much soft tissue as possible to avoid exposing potential tumor to decalcification.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Degenerative Joint Disease. The cartilage surface shows fibrillation and loss over the center of the femoral head or over the tibial plateau. The exposed bone becomes thickened and smoothly polished ("eburnated" or "like ivory") and can be mistaken for a cartilage surface. Fractures through articular bone result in subchondral cysts and collapse of the bone. The femoral head is often flattened and misshapen. Osteophytes commonly form around the edge of the articular surface. The soft tissue is relatively unaffected and may be fibrotic.

Rheumatoid Arthritis. Patients usually undergo arthroplasty after significant secondary degenerative changes have occurred. Thus, most will show the changes of degenerative joint disease and features of rheumatoid arthritis may be subtle or absent. Findings characteristic of rheumatoid arthritis include an edematous hyperplastic synovium with growth over the cartilage surface to form a pannus.

Gout or CPPD. Chalky white crystalline deposits are present in soft tissue, cartilage, and sometimes erode bone. The synovium becomes fibrotic, thickened, and hyperplastic and forms a pannus overlying cartilage. It is usually not possible to distinguish gout from chondrocalcinosis grossly in mid-sized joints in which both are common. However, CPPD crystals may preferentially be found within the cartilage and uric acid crystals in periarticular soft tissue. Gout is much more common in small joints of the foot and hand. Neither commonly affects the hip. Usually joint replacement is performed after significant secondary degenerative changes have occurred (see above). Crystals should be saved in alcohol (see "Special Studies").

Osteonecrosis (Aseptic Necrosis, Avascular Necrosis). Osteonecrosis of bone is a common cause of joint disease (approximately 10% of joint replacements) and is often bilateral. Patients are younger than the typical patient with degenerative joint disease (averaging 55 vs. 67 years) and often have predisposing conditions such as steroid use, sickle cell disease, or alcoholism. The pathogenesis is poorly understood but is thought to result from ischemic infarction of subchondral bone.

There is a characteristic wedge-shaped area of pale yellow necrotic bone below the cartilage surface. A band of hyperemia is often present below this area. Usually the overlying cartilage will have separated away from the bone. The infarcted bone may collapse with distortion of the cartilage and resultant degenerative changes. Radiographs of bone slices can be helpful to look for areas of abnormal mineralization.

Metastatic Disease. A joint replacement is sometimes performed to repair a known or suspected pathologic fracture, generally within the femur. The metastatic tumor may be subtle and only apparent after histologic examination of numerous sections. The bone destruction observed radiologically is usually due to soluble factors produced by the tumor cells and not replacement of bone marrow by tumor per se. Therefore, in such cases histologic sampling of the fracture site is necessary to evaluate the presence of tumor. If a pathologic fracture is strongly suspected either clinically or grossly, and the primary site is unknown, consider taking tissue for special studies (e.g., snap freezing, EM). If possible, separate soft tissue and submit separately as decalcification adversely affects some antigens (e.g., ER and PR).

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Soft tissue:** One section including any grossly recognizable synovium. If a metastatic deposit is suspected, submit as much soft material from the possible tumor and/or fracture site as possible that will not need decalcification.
- **Bone:** One section including the junction of normal and abnormal cartilage and one from the periphery.

If osteonecrosis is known or suspected, submit one to two sections of necrotic bone including interface with normal bone and the area below the detached cartilage.

- **Crystals:** If crystals are present, submit one section fixed in absolute alcohol for special anaqueous processing. Order 1 H&E, 1 anaqueous Wright stain, and one unstained slide.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "left total knee" are multiple fragments of bone (in aggregate 5 × 5 × 3 cm, largest 2 × 1 × 1 cm) and soft tissue (4 × 3 × 2 cm, largest 3.5 × 2 × 1 cm). The bone fragments include recognizable portions of the tibial plateau and femoral condyles. The articular surface is markedly roughened with areas of cartilage loss and eburnation of the bony surface. The soft tissue is tan/pink and includes fragments of meniscus. The bone is fixed and decalcified.

Cassette #1: bone with articular surface, 4 frags, RSS.
Cassette #2: soft tissue, 3 frags, RSS.

Specimens with Intact Femoral Heads

1. The femoral head is cut into thirds, parallel to the long axis, with the bone saw. The central section must be thin, approximately 0.5 cm in width.
2. Describe the femoral head including dimensions, shape (flattened, round), cartilage surface (smooth and glistening, erosions, pits, eburnation of bone surface, fibrillation of cartilage, pannus formation), detachment of cartilage (as in osteonecrosis), presence of exostoses. Describe the quality of the bone (osteoporotic, sclerotic, pale as in osteonecrosis) and subchondral cysts.
3. Describe the resection margin including surface (flat and smooth if surgical, jagged and with medullary hemorrhage if fracture), quality of adjacent bone (osteoporotic, sclerotic, or soft – may indicate metastatic tumor). If the fracture site is grossly or clinically suspicious for a pathologic fracture, save as much soft tissue from this site as possible in a cassette without bone (to avoid tissue alterations associated with decalcification) and consider taking tissue for special studies (see above).
4. Describe soft tissue (see description above) and submit one cassette including synovium if possible.
5. Fix the femoral head in formalin overnight and decalcify the following day.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Soft tissue:** One section including any grossly recognizable synovium.
- **Bone:** One section including the junction of normal and abnormal cartilage and one from the periphery.
- **Fracture site:** Two representative sections in one cassette from the fracture site. If sufficient soft tissue (i.e., possible tumor) is present, submit an additional cassette of nondecalcified tissue.

SAMPLE DICTATION - HIP REPLACEMENT FOR DEGENERATIVE JOINT DISEASE

Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "left hip" is a 5 × 5 × 4 cm flattened femoral head and attached neck with a smooth resection margin. The articular surface is covered by irregularly surfaced cartilage with areas of cartilage loss and eburnation of the underlying bone. Multiple peripheral osteophytes are present. The bone is fixed and then decalcified. Also received are multiple fragments of pink/tan fibrous tissue measuring in aggregate 3 × 3 × 2 cm.

Cassette #1: Joint surface, 4 frags, RSS.
Cassette #2: Soft tissue, 3 frags, RSS.

SAMPLE DICTATION - HIP REPLACEMENT AFTER FRACTURE

Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "right hip" is a 5 × 5 × 3 cm round femoral head with a smooth white cartilage surface. The femoral neck resection margin is irregular and hemorrhagic. There are multiple smaller fragments of irregular bone measuring in aggregate 3 × 3 × 1 cm. There are no areas of soft tissue within the bone. The bone trabeculae are markedly thinned. The bone is fixed and then decalcified. Also received are multiple fragments of pink/tan fibrous tissue measuring in aggregate 3 × 3 × 2 cm.

Cassette #1: Fracture site, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #2: Joint surface, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #3: Soft tissue, 3 frags, RSS.

SAMPLE DICTATION - HIP REPLACEMENT FOR AVASCULAR NECROSIS

Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "right hip" is a 4.5 × 4 × 4 cm deformed flattened femoral head with a smooth resection margin. There is a wedge-shaped area of pale yellow bone immediately beneath the cartilage surface measuring 2 × 2 × 1 cm with a red/brown border. The overlying cartilage is intact but has pulled away from this area leaving a gap. The sliced section is radiographed. The bone is fixed and then decalcified. The remainder of the cartilage surface is smooth and unremarkable. Also received are multiple fragments of pink/tan fibrous tissue measuring in aggregate 3 × 2 × 2 cm.

Cassettes #1 - 2: Area of probable necrosis, 4 frags, RSS.
Cassette #3: Joint surface, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #4: Soft tissue, 3 frags, RSS.

Revision Total Joint Arthroplasty

About 5% of prosthetic joints fail, either from mechanical loosening or due to infection. It may be difficult to clinically distinguish between these two possibilities as the presentation may be similar and false positive and negative culture results are possible. Prosthetic joints that have failed mechanically may be removed and replaced in the same procedure. If infection is present, drainage or removal of the prosthesis may be indicated and replacement may be delayed until after treatment. The most common acute pathogens are *S. epidermidis* and *S. aureus* with gram-negative bacilli being more common in later infections. A frozen section evaluation of periarticular soft tissue may be requested if infection is suspected (see Chapter 6).

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. The specimen usually consists of small fragments of bone, fibrous soft tissue, and, often, fragments of bone cement. Bone cement is usually light brown, homogeneous in appearance, hard, and may be difficult to distinguish from bone. The soft tissue may be gray or black due to metallic debris.
2. Describe the number of fragments of bone (estimate if many), size in aggregate, range of sizes. However, bone may not be present.
3. Describe the number of fragments of soft tissue (estimate if many), size in aggregate, range of sizes, color, presence of necrosis. If infection is suspected clinically or by gross examination, and cultures have not yet been sent, send tissue for bacterial culture.
4. The explanted prosthesis is described including number of parts, hip or joint prosthesis, identification markings (e.g., serial numbers, brand names), and the presence of any marked abnormalities (e.g., broken metal components, erosions, ridges, or pits in the articular surfaces).
5. The bone is separated from the soft tissue. Submit one section of soft tissue, including synovium, if possible. Fix the bone overnight in formalin and decalcify the following day. All decalcification procedures must be documented in the gross description.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Detritic Synovitis. Occasionally, there will be an exuberant papillary proliferation of synovium with hemosiderin deposition in response to foreign material that grossly mimics pigmented villonodular synovitis (PVNS or giant cell tumor, diffuse type). However, unlike PVNS, there will be a history of an

artificial joint, foreign material is present, and the process is usually superficial and does not extend deeply into soft tissue.

Foreign Material from Implants. Numerous types of foreign material derived from the implant can be found around failed prostheses and include bone cement (with barium to make the material radiopaque), metal fragments, polyethylene, methylmethacrylate, silicone, and ceramic (see "Noncellular Material in Histologic Sections"). The tissue may be black due to deposits of oxidized metal.

Infection. The soft tissue from infected joints may be necrotic and purulent. Cultures should be sent either by the surgeon or the pathologist. Some infections may not be apparent grossly.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Soft tissue:** One section including any grossly recognizable synovium.
- **Bone:** One section.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "left hip" are multiple fragments of soft tissue and bone. There are five bone fragments, measuring in aggregate 3 × 2 × 2 cm. No articular surfaces are present. The bone is fixed and decalcified prior to submission. There are approximately 20 fragments of tan/white fibrous soft tissue without recognizable synovium.

Also received is a joint prosthesis consisting of an acetabular component consisting of a white prosthetic socket (6 × 6 × 4 cm) inscribed with "ABDC" and femoral component consisting of a metallic ball attached to a stem (15 × 3 × 2 cm). A fragment of brown bone cement with a smooth outer surface is also present (4 × 2 × 2 cm).

Cassette #1: Bone, 4 frags, RSS.
Cassette #2: Soft tissue, 3 frags, RSS.

CORE BIOPSY FOR ASEPTIC (AVASCULAR) NECROSIS

Cores of bone may be submitted from patients with clinical and radiologic osteonecrosis. These cores are taken through the femoral head and into the area of necrosis in order to promote revascularization ("decompression"), and are generally used for treatment and not diagnosis. There should be an area of osteonecrosis at one edge of the biopsy. These core biopsies are fixed in formalin and then gently decalcified. If the specimen will not fit in a cassette in entirety, section the specimen longitudinally.

BIOPSY, METABOLIC BONE DISEASE

Needle or core bone biopsies are sometimes submitted from patients with metabolic bone disease (osteomalacia, osteoporosis, hyperparathyroidism, effects of long-term hemodialysis, etc) with a request for metabolic bone studies.

The evaluation of metabolic disease requires sectioning of nondecalcified bone, special stains, and morphometry. These techniques are generally performed by a specialty laboratory. The specialty laboratory will provide instructions for the fixation and transportation of these specimens.

CURETTINGS AND NEEDLE BIOPSIES, BONE TUMORS

Biopsies of bone lesions are occasionally performed for both benign and malignant lesions. See Chatper 6 for a description of how bone biopsies are processed for frozen sections. See Chapter 12 and below for larger specimens.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Determine the type of specimen: needle biopsy or curettings. Grossly examine for the presence of bone and soft tissue. Most cases have at least small foci of soft, non-calcified non-necrotic tissue that can be taken for special studies. However, if a definitive diagnosis of lesional tissue has not

been made intraoperatively, most of the tissue should be reserved for routine sections and tissue should not be taken for studies that will preclude examination of the tissue (e.g., cytogenetics). The clinical and radiologic differential diagnosis is helpful in guiding apportionment of tissue.

2. Fix the specimen in formalin for 2 to 4 hours depending on size.
3. After fixation, the bone is gently decalcified for 4 to 12 hours. In unusual cases including larger pieces of bone, it may be necessary to fix overnight, decalcify during the day (with periodic checks to see if the bone is soft), wash, fix again overnight, and decalcify again (up to four daily cycles) for optimal specimen preparation.

SPECIAL STUDIES

Most of these tumors are unusual and will warrant special studies. After lesional tissue has been taken for fomalin fixation, additional tissue can be taken for snap freezing, EM, and/or Zenker's fixation (which decalcifies while preserving cytologic detail).

If definite lesional tissue is present, then tissue can be submitted for **cytogenetics**. For example, Ewing's/PNET has a characteristic t(11;22) and extraskeletal myxoid chondrosarcoma has a characteristic t(9;22) (see Table 7-47). If no definitive lesional tissue is present, then all tissue should be examined histologically.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

In general, gross examination of these small fragmented specimens is not helpful.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** Entire specimen up to 10 cassettes. If little tissue is available (e.g., only one cassette is submitted), three levels are ordered.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "femur lesion" are multiple irregular fragments of tan/brown tissue with minute areas of irregular bone, measuring in aggregate 1 × 1 × 0.5 cm (the largest fragment measuring 0.4 cm in size). Frozen section examination is performed on a representative section. Tissue is apportioned for snap freezing, electron microscopy, and cytogenetics. The remainder of the tissue is fixed in Zenker's fixative or fixed in formalin and then decalcified.

Cassette 1: Frozen section remnant, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassette 2: Tissue fixed in Zenker's, 3 frags, ESS.
Cassettes 3 - 9: Remainder of specimen in formalin and decalcified, mult frags, ESS.

BONE RESECTIONS FOR TUMORS

Bone resections may be performed for either benign (enchondromas, osteochondromas, osteoid osteomas, bone cysts, fibrous dysplasia, giant cell tumors) or malignant (most chondrosarcomas, some osteosarcomas) lesions.[11-13] The radiologic features of bone lesions are very helpful, and sometimes necessary, to distinguish benign from malignant tumors.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Determine the type of specimen (e.g., above-knee amputation, hip disarticulation, etc.). See the section on Chapter 12 for additional information.

Give the dimensions of each structure present including length and maximum circumference of limbs.

2. Radiograph the intact specimen. The radiograph provides diagnostic information and is helpful to guide the specimen dissection.
3. Incise the soft tissue in a plane that will demonstrate the greatest extent of the tumor. A band saw can be used to bisect the specimen. Gently brush away bone dust under running water and

photograph the specimen. It is useful at this point to make a diagram of the specimen to indicate where sections will be taken. For large specimens, an additional 0.5 cm parallel cut through bone should be made to produce a relatively thin cut section of the tumor. This section is also photographed if it yields additional information.

4. Describe the tumor including:
   - Size – three dimensions
   - Appearance – color, bone formation and/or cartilage formation
   - Necrosis – % of tumor (areas that appear necrotic may be myxoid or edematous)
   - Location – tissue compartment, region of bone (epiphysis, metaphysis, diaphysis, intramedullary, periosteal)
   - Relationship to surrounding structures (bone, vessels, nerves, muscle)
   - Erosion of cortex
   - Extension into soft tissue (compression or true invasion)
   - Extension through epiphyseal plate
   - Extension into or across joint space
   - Vascular involvement
   - Skip metastases
   - Distance from each margin.
5. Take soft tissue sections of margins, representative structures (e.g., vessels and nerves), and any areas of noncalcified tumor showing relationships to soft tissues. Tumor can be taken for special studies if not previously performed. Carefully search for lymph nodes and submit. Identify the prior biopsy site and sample this area to evaluate for soft tissue implants.
6. Fix the entire specimen in formalin. After overnight fixation, gently decalcify the sections with bone. The specimen must be checked every few hours in order to avoid overdecalcification which will adversely affect histologic examination.
7. Sections are taken to show the tumor, relationship to adjacent normal bone, invasion of contiguous structures (e.g., cortex, soft tissue, joint space), and margins. The location of sections taken is indicated on a diagram of the specimen. All areas of different radiologic appearance are sampled and correlated with the radiograph. For osteosarcomas and Ewing's sarcoma the extent of post therapy tumor necrosis is important to determine. An entire cross-section of these tumors is mapped out and submitted for histologic examination.

Bone dust can create artifacts that may be difficult to interpret. Orient the sections so that the portion cut by the histology laboratory will be opposite the side cut by the saw (e.g., ink one side and indicate the appropriate side to be sectioned).

SPECIAL STUDIES

Many of these tumors will be pretreated with radiation, chemotherapy, or both and will be predominantly necrotic. Special studies in general are not performed on such tumors. Cases with untreated tumors should have tissue sent for cytogenetic studies. Refer to Chapter 13.

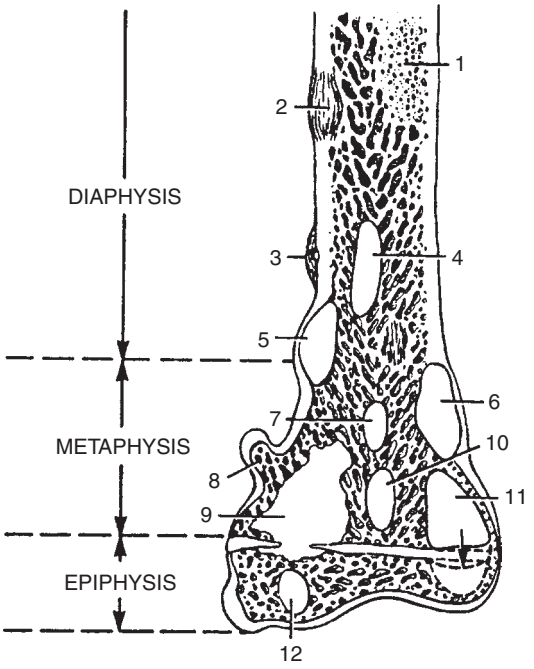
GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

See Figure 14-1.

Ewing's Sarcoma/PNET. These tumors are generally treated with radiation and chemotherapy and not resected. Therefore, they will usually be diagnosed in biopsy specimens (see previous section). Grossly, the tumors are grayish white with indistinct borders and may have hemorrhage, cystic degeneration and necrosis. The adjacent bone is usually destroyed.

Osteoid Osteoma. The lesion is usually present in the cortex of a long bone and is less than 2 cm in size. Grossly, it may look like a bright red or pink nodule. Radiographs of the specimen can be helpful to demonstrate the characteristic central lucent zone with a rim of surrounding dense bone.

Fibrous Dysplasia. A fusiform expansion of the bone, with thinning of the cortex and replacement of the bone by firm white/gray gritty tissue. Cysts and cartilage may be present in the lesion. There may be a fracture site through the lesion.



1. Ewing's sarcoma, lymphoma, myeloma
2. Osseofibrous dysplasia, adamantinoma
3. Osteroid osteoma
4. Fibrous dysplasia
5. Chondromyxoid fibroma
6. Nonossifying fibroma
7. Bone cyst, osteoblastoma
8. Osteochondroma
9. Osteosarcoma
10. Enchondroma, chondrosarcoma
11. Giant cell tumor
12. Chondroblastoma

Figure 14–1. Most frequent locations of common osseous lesions. *(From Fechner RE, Mills SE: AFIP Atlast of Tumor Pathology: Tumors of the Bones and Joints, 3rd series, fascicle 8. Washington, DC, Armed Forces Institute of Pathology, 1993.)*

Aneurysmal Bone Cyst. A multiloculated cystic lesion, with cysts lined by soft brown fibrous tissue. The cysts may contain blood clots. The telangiectatic variant of osteosarcoma can mimic an aneurysmal bone cyst radiologically and clinically. Extensive sampling may be necessary to exclude this diagnosis.

Osteochondroma. A mushroom shaped subperiosteal projection or exostosis from the bone surface, usually juxta-articular. The bone merges with cortical bone and the medullary cavities are in continuity. The bone is covered by a thick cartilage cap.

Osteosarcoma. A destructive bone-forming tumor that often invades through the cortex and may invade into adjacent soft tissue. Lytic areas may be present. The tumor replaces the normal marrow space with firm tissue. Bone and/or cartilage may be present within the tumor mass.

Chondrosarcoma. Usually appears as a lobulated grayish white or blue tumor mass that often is calcified. The tumor may invade into or through normal bone. Areas of necrosis may be present.

Enchondroma. An intramedullary cartilagenous neoplasm consisting of multiple lobules of cartilage within bone.

Giant Cell Tumor. A well-defined lesion within the marrow space consisting of homogeneous tan/pink tissue. Hemorrhage and necrosis may be present.

Tumors after Treatment. Treated tumors may be predominantly necrotic or can be replaced by dense fibrous tissue. It may be difficult to find diagnostic areas.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** At least 1 section per cm showing relationship to cortex, medulla, adjacent joint, soft tissue. Osteosarcomas and Ewing sarcoma cases that have been previously treated are blocked out in a complete cross section in order to evaluate the extent of necrosis. The location of blocks of tissue should be recorded on a diagram. Additional blocks are taken perpendicular to the cross section

to determine the extent of tumor in three dimensions. Blocks of tissue are also taken from areas that may be less susceptible to chemotherapy: soft tissue extension, tumor/nodal tissue interface, cortex, subcortical marrow, pericartilaginous regions, and areas surrounding hemorrhagic necrosis and ligaments.

Other types of tumors do not need to be mapped in such detail. At least one section per cm should be taken including all unusual appearing areas and satellite lesions.

- **Margins:** Usually will include both soft tissue and bone.
- **Normal structures:** Representative sections of all normal structures (e.g., major vessels, major nerve trunks).
- **Lymph nodes:** Submit all lymph nodes found (see Chapter 27).

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh labeled with the patient's name, unit number, and "left distal femur" is an above-the-knee amputation with disarticulation of the knee (12 × 9 × 7 cm). The distal femur is 12 cm in length and surrounded by skeletal muscle. Centered within the metaphysis is a tan/yellow tumor (7.8 × 7 × 7 cm) that occupies the majority of the medullary cavity. The tumor appears to be entirely viable without gross areas of necrosis or hemorrhage. The tumor invades through the cortex medially, laterally, anteriorly, and posteriorly, and extends into soft tissue medially to form a soft tissue mass (2 × 1.8 × 0.4 cm). The tumor does not grossly involve the joint space. The tumor is located 3.5 cm from the proximal surgical resection margin, 0.4 cm from the posterior and lateral margins, and 0.1 cm from the anterior and medial margins. The tumor is 1 cm from the distal resection margin which consists of the grossly unremarkable cartilage surface of the distal femur. There is an attached skin ellipse over the anterior/medial portion of the specimen, measuring 9.3 × 1.1 cm, with a centrally located well-healed surgical scar measuring 7.5 cm. There is a hemorrhagic biopsy cavity (1 × 1 × 0.6 cm) located 4.5 cm deep to the skin surface and adjacent to the tumor. The femoral artery and accompanying nerves and vein are not present. The specimen is radiographed. A diagram is prepared with the location of sections marked. Sections containing bone are fixed and decalcified prior to submission.

Cassettes 1-15: Complete cross section of tumor including relationship to cortex, submitted from proximal to distal, 15 frags, RSS.
Cassette 16: Tumor and medial margin including soft tissue extension, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette 17: Tumor and lateral margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette 18: Tumor and posterior margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette 19: Tumor and anterior margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette 20: Bone at proximal margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette 21: Bone and cartilage at distal margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette 22: Soft tissue at proximal margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette 23: Soft tissue at proximal margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette 24: Skin with scar, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette 25: Biopsy site, 1 frag, RSS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR BONE TUMORS

- **Specimen**: Bone involved
- **Procedure**: Core needle biopsy, curettage, excisional biopsy, intralesional resection, marginal resection, segmental/wide resection, radical resection
- **Tumor Location(s)**:
  - Epiphysis (articular cartilage to epiphyseal plate) or apophysis (a process on certain bones)
  - Metaphysis (epiphyseal plate to diaphysis)
  - Diaphysis (end of proximal metaphysis to beginning of distal metaphysis)
  - Cortical
  - Medullary cavity
  - Surface
  - Tumor involves joint
  - Tumor extension into soft tissue

TABLE 14-2. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF BONE TUMORS

Grade	GX	Grade cannot be assessed.
	G1	Well differentiated, low grade
	G2	Moderately differentiated, low grade
	G3	Poorly differentiated
	G4	Undifferentiated
Note: Ewing's sarcoma is classified as G4.		
Tumor	TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
	T0	No evidence of primary tumor
	T1	Tumor 8 cm or less in greatest dimension
	T2	Tumor more than 8 cm in greatest dimension
	T3	Discontinuous tumors in the primary bone site
Regional Lymph Nodes	NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
	N0	No regional node metastasis
	N1	Regional node metastasis
Note: Because of the rarity of lymph node involvement in bone sarcomas, the designation NX may not be appropriate, and cases should be considered N0 unless clinical node involvement is clearly evident.		
Distant Metastasis	M0	No distant metastasis
	M1	Distant metastasis
	M1a	Lung
	M1b	Other distant sites

This system is used for all primary malignant tumors of bone except lymphoma and multiple myeloma.
Note: Primary malignant lymphoma and multiple myeloma are not included.
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.

- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (other dimensions optional), multifocal tumor/discontinuous tumor at primary site (skip metastasis)
- **Histologic Type**: The most important feature. Usually the diagnosis will have been established before definitive resection. The WHO Classification of bone tumors should be used.
- **Mitotic Rate:** Number of mitoses per 10 HPF (1 HPF = 0.1734 mm^2) The most proliferative area should be counted.
- **Necrosis**: Not identified, present (extent: %)
- **Histologic Grade**: See Tables 14-2 to 14-6 for grades of common bone tumors.
- **Margins**:
  - Bone, soft tissue, marrow, involvement and distance of tumor from margin
  - Neurovascular bundle at the margin: involved or not involved
  - Intralesional margin = positive margin
  - Marginal margin = < 2 cm of normal tissue at margin; less if the margin is fascia
  - Wide margin = > 2 cm of normal tissue at margins, less if bounded by fascia
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present (present in 3% to 13% of osseous sarcomas)
- **Cystic Change:** Identified, not identified

TABLE 14–3. BONE TUMORS – GRADE	
Grade 1 (low grade)	Low-grade central osteosarcoma
	Parosteal osteosarcoma
	Adamantinoma
Grade 2	Periosteal osteosarcoma
Grade 3 (high grade)	Malignant giant cell tumor
	Ewing sarcoma/PNET
	Mesenchymal chondrosarcoma
	Dedifferentiated chondrosarcoma
	Conventional osteosarcoma
	Telangiectactic osteosarcoma
	Small cell osteosarcoma
	Secondary osteosarcoma
	High-grade surface osteosarcoma
Variable grade	Dedifferentiated chordoma
	Conventional chondrosarcoma of bone (grades 1 to 3)
	Soft-tissue type sarcomas (e.g., leiomyosarcoma)
See CAP protocol for tumors of bone (www.cap.org).	

TABLE 14–4. CHONDROSARCOMA – GRADE				
	Cellularity	**Nuclear Atypia**	**Mitoses**	**Other Features**
Grade 1 (low grade)	Hypocellular	Minimal	Minimal	Appearance similar to enchondroma
Grade 2 (intermediate grade)	More cellular	More atypia, greater hyperchromasia, increased nuclear size	Minimal	May have extensive myxoid stroma
Grade 3 (high grade)	Hypercellular	Pleomorphic nuclei	Prominent	
See CAP protocol for tumors of bone (www.cap.org).				

- **Hemorrhage:** Identified, not identified
- **Radiographic Findings**: Correlate with radiographic images
- **Treatment Effect**: No prior treatment, not identified, present. Report proportion of tumor that is necrotic or replaced by fibrous or granulation tissue (Tables 14–5 and 14–6 for osteosarcoma and Ewing sarcoma).
- **Ancillary Studies (if performed):** Immunohistochemistry, cytogenetics, molecular studies
- **Regional Lymph Node Metastasis**: Absent, present (number of nodes involved, number of nodes examined)
- **Distant Metastasis**: Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.

TABLE 14–5. OSTEOSARCOMA – HISTOLOGIC RESPONSE GRADE TO TREATMENT	
I	No effect identified
IIA	Some necrosis, more than 50% viable tumor remaining
IIB	3% to 50% viable tumor remaining
III	Scattered foci, <3% viable tumor remaining*
IV	No viable tumor noted

*In some systems, 90% or 95% is used rather than 97%, which is the current standard of the Children's Oncology Group. Tumors that have 90% to 97% necrosis have a better prognosis.

TABLE 14–6. EWING SARCOMA – HISTOLOGIC RESPONSE GRADE TO TREATMENT	
Grade I	Macroscopic viable tumor
Grade II	Microscopic viable tumor
Grade III	No viable tumor

See CAP protocol for tumors of bone (www.cap.org).

- **AJCC Classification**: T, N, and M categories should be provided, when possible. M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

INCIDENTAL RIBS

Portions of ribs are often removed to perform thoracotomies or nephrectomies. The rib is usually 2 to 5 cm long and is rarely of diagnostic importance. The most important missed histologic diagnosis on incidental ribs is multiple myeloma. The patients often survive for long periods of time, may have procedures performed not related to the disease (unlike, for example, acute leukemia), and the disease may not have been diagnosed clinically. Plasma cell dyscrasias can be diagnosed even on suboptimally fixed and decalcified tissue. Involvement by chronic lymphocytic leukemia is also occasionally found, but is usually clinically evident due to a high peripheral white blood count.

SPECIMEN PROCESSING

Ribs resected from patients without malignant disease and without other clinical indication for examination (e.g., a known hematologic disorder) do not necessarily require histologic examination. There are two methods for examining all other specimens.

Decalcification Method. This method should be used for all patients with a history of lymphoma or other hematologic disorder (treat as a diagnostic bone marrow biopsy; see Chapter 27); a history of a malignancy that frequently metastasizes to bone marrow (e.g., small cell lung carcinomas); or ribs with grossly evident or clinically suspected lesions.

1. The rib is described (measurements, color, gross identification as portion of rib) and fixed in formalin. Cartilage may be present at one end if near the costochondral junction. It will be homogeneously pale white, will cut easily with a razor blade, and will not be visible on x-ray.

2. If a gross lesion is present that is suspicious for metastatic disease, the specimen is radiographed, serially sectioned, and any soft tissue (i.e., potential tumor) removed prior to decalcification.
3. The remainder of the bone is gently decalcified. Grossly normal bones can be submitted as multiple sections in one cassette. If gross or radiographic lesions are present, submit them in a separate cassette. Do not submit grossly benign cartilage.

Rib Squeeze Method. The disadvantage of this method is that metastatic tumors and lymphomas may not be easily expressed from the bone marrow due to accompanying marrow fibrosis. However, often bone marrow involvement will have been investigated clinically before surgery is performed and the finding of malignancy in incidental ribs is very rare.

The advantage of this method is that it provides better histologic preservation of the bone marrow elements and does not delay the rib in processing. Thus, this is the preferred method with the exceptions noted above.

1. The rib is described as above.
2. The specimen must be fresh and unfixed. Use a bone saw to cut a portion about 2 cm in length with marrow present at both ends of the specimen. Use pliers to squeeze until marrow is expressed from both ends. Collect the marrow in formalin. If very little marrow can be expressed, the bone should be fixed and decalcified as described above. The remainder of the rib is cut longitudinally and examined for gross lesions. Submit any lesions seen. Document in the gross description that the bone was not decalcified.
3. The marrow should be wrapped in paper or placed in a specimen bag and submitted in one cassette.

MENISCUS

Menisci are usually removed because of traumatic tears that interfere with articular movement. Occasionally joint mice (= loose bodies) may be removed during the same type of procedure. These are fragments of free cartilage in the joint space and often become ossified. The meniscus can also be affected by CPPD and ochronosis (see gross differential diagnosis under "Synovium").

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Describe the specimen including size, color (normally white and glistening), texture (smooth, fibrillated), and presence or absence of tears.
2. If chalky white deposits are present, a portion of the specimen is processed in absolute ethanol to preserve crystals (see also "Synovium").
3. Submit representative sections in one cassette.

SYNOVIUM

Synovium may be biopsied for diagnostic purposes (e.g., inflammatory arthritis) or removed for the treatment of disease (e.g., pigmented villonodular synovitis [giant cell tumor, diffuse type] or dialysis-related amyloidosis).

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record the aggregate dimensions, size range, and approximate number of fragments.
   Describe the color and consistency of the synovium (see descriptions under "Gross Differential Diagnosis").
   If infection is suspected and fresh tissue is received, confirm that cultures have been taken. If not, send sterile tissue to microbiology.
2. Submit up to two cassettes and order one level (H&E). Order special studies as indicated below for specific cases. If the specimen is a small biopsy, submit all the tissue and order three levels.

SPECIAL STUDIES

- **Crystal disease:** Chalky white deposits may be present in synovium and representative sections must be fixed in absolute alcohol. See "Total Joint Arthroplasty - Special Studies."

- **Amyloidosis:** All tissue can be fixed in formalin. Amyloid can be diagnosed using a Congo red stain and polarized light. Immunohistochemistry can be used to identify the type of amyloid present. Dialysis related amyloidosis of joints is due to β2 microglobulin.
- **Infection:** Fresh sterile tissue may be sent for culture.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Normal Synovium. Normal synovium is glistening white with delicate villous projections.

Gout or CPPD. Chalky white or crystalline deposits are present and must be fixed in absolute alcohol. See "Total Joint Arthroplasty - Special Studies" for information on how to process.

Giant Cell Tumor, Diffuse Type (Pigmented Villonodular Synovitis, PVNS). The synovium is a rusty red color due to extensive hemosiderin deposition. Coarse villi with occasional attached nodules are present. These areas become more apparent when floated in saline and can be photographed well in this manner. There may be an abundance of tissue with areas of fibrosis. Necrotic foci may appear yellow due to the presence of histiocytes.

Detritic Synovitis. Changes occurring around an artificial joint, which can appear very similar to PVNS (see "Revision Total Joint Arthroplasty").

Dialysis-Related Amyloidosis. There are characteristic yellow/tan plaques that may be superficial, run along tendons, or form large homogeneous nodules.

Synovial Chrondromatosis. Multiple small nodules of cartilage are present within the synovial tissue. The cartilage may need to be decalcified.

Hemochromatosis. The synovium can become hyperplastic and brown in color due to dense hemosiderin deposition. The appearance can mimic PVNS, but nodules are not present. The cartilage takes on a characteristic greenish-black appearance.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Synovium:** Up to two cassettes. If the biopsy is small (only enough tissue for one cassette), order three levels.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh labeled with the patient's name, unit number, and "synovium right knee" are multiple fragments of reddish brown soft tissue measuring in aggregate 5 × 4 × 1 cm. Delicate villous projections and small nodules are present.

Cassettes 1 and 2: mult frags, RSS.

CARPAL TUNNEL RELEASE (TENOSYNOVIUM)

Most patients present with idiopathic carpal tunnel syndrome, and only a small fraction of these patients will show evidence of amyloid on microscopic examination. However, in renal dialysis patients carpal tunnel syndrome is very common and β2 microglobulin amyloidosis is often present.

These specimens consist of synovium and soft tissue from around the tendons and nerves of the carpal tunnel that are removed during a carpal tunnel release procedure. The specimens may be processed in the same manner as synovium, but are examined with one level.

INTERVERTEBRAL DISC MATERIAL

These specimens are derived from operations on herniated discs and will consist of small fragments of bone, nucleus pulposus, annulus fibrosus, and ligamentum flavum. The specimen is fixed, decalcified, and one representative section is submitted.

The likelihood of finding a clinically significant unsuspected finding in a patient without a history of malignancy and/or suspected infection is very low (<1%).[14-18] However, if the patient has a significant history or an unusual presentation, important pathologic findings are reported in over half of cases. If an adequate clinical history is provided, it may not be necessary to examine all such specimens histologically. See "Gross Specimens" for a discussion of this issue.

Special cases:

- **Metastatic disease:** Any soft tissue is dissected away and submitted without decalcification. If the primary site is unknown, and there is sufficient tissue, then consideration should be given to saving tissue for special studies (e.g., frozen tissue or EM).
- **Infection:** Any soft tissue is dissected away and submitted without decalcification. If there is sufficient tissue, consideration should be given to sending tissue for cultures. Special stains may be helpful. Aspergillus can invade into cartilage without an inflammatory response and may not be detectable without fungal stains.

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15 Breast

Breast biopsies are common surgical specimens for the evaluation of palpable masses, radiologic lesions, or nipple discharge, to search for possible cancer. Clinically significant non-malignant diseases of the breast are rare. Surgery for malignant disease may include portions of the breast (e.g., lumpectomies or quadrantectomies) or the entire breast (mastectomy). Less commonly, breasts are removed for prophylactic (simple mastectomy) or cosmetic/functional reasons (reduction mammoplasty or gynecomastia).

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

TABLE 15–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR BREAST BIOPSIES
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Type of lesion biopsied (e.g., palpable mass, mammographic lesion [density, calcifications, or architectural distortion], or nipple discharge). If the lesion is mammographic, a specimen radiograph with interpretation may be required in order to fully evaluate the specimen.
Purpose of the procedure	
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	Current pregnancy or lactation
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	Drug use that could change the appearance of the breast (e.g., oral contraceptives or other hormonal therapy)
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	Prior personal or family history of breast carcinoma
	Collagen vascular disease
	History of radiation therapy or neoadjuvant chemotherapy.
Compromised immune system	

LARGE CORE NEEDLE BIOPSIES

Large core needle biopsies may be performed for palpable masses (Tru-Cut) without radiologic guidance, under ultrasound guidance to sample masses, mammographically directed ("stereotactic") for either calcifications or mammographic densities, or using MRI to detect enhancing lesions.

SPECIMEN PROCESSING

1. Describe the number of cores, color, and size.
2. All tissue cores are wrapped in paper on a flat surface aligned in parallel (see Chapter 13 for details concerning this method). A sponge can be used in the cassette to hold the biopsies flat. Order three levels.

SPECIAL STUDIES CALCIFICATIONS

Calcifications. If malignancy is present in a breast biopsy for radiologically suspicious calcifications, the carcinoma will either be at the site of the calcifications or within 1 cm in over 95% of cases.

Radiologic calcifications associated with malignancy are numerous, clustered (or in a linear array), and small. On mammography, or in specimen radiography, the calcifications occupy a three dimensional space. Although an object must approximately 100 microns in size to be imaged in these studies, many of the "calcifications" present are likely due to many overlapping small crystals.

Histologic sections reduce the tissue to essentially two dimensions. Many more calcifications are visualized that are either too small to be detected radiographically, or that would not be in a suspicious clustered configuration. Therefore, it is usually difficult, or impossible, to definitively identify a radiologic cluster of calcifications by the size, quantity, or distribution of calcifications on a histologic section. Thus it is imperative that the pathologist identifies the tissue grossly that contains the radiographic finding.

Radiologists should document calcifications in the cores by specimen radiography. It is preferable for the cores to be wrapped in lens paper and placed in a cassette immediately after biopsy to minimize the likelihood that the calcifications will be lost during fixation and processing. Different cassettes may be used for different lesions or cores with or without calcifications.

It is useful to have the histology laboratory make shallower initial levels of cores containing calcifications to make sure all tissue present is adequately sampled.

- **Calcium phosphate crystals** are purple in color and do not polarize. They are commonly seen in association with cysts, sclerosing adenosis, and in hyalinized fibroadenomas, as well as in DCIS and invasive carcinomas.
- **Calcium oxalate crystals** are rhomboidal refractile pale-yellow or clear crystals usually found in apocrine cysts and are easily seen under polarized light. They are sometimes seen in stroma adjacent to cysts, with or without a giant cell reaction. When the crystals are numerous in large cysts, they are referred to as "milk of calcium" by radiologists as they line the bottom of cysts in a tea-cup shape in the medial-lateral-oblique view and change in spatial orientation (flatten) in the cranial-caudal view. Calcium oxalate crystals have not been associated with carcinomas.

If calcifications are not found, deeper sections are obtained of the blocks with radiologic calcifications. In some cases it may be useful to radiograph the paraffin blocks to localize the calcifications (see in Chapter 7, "Specimen Radiography"). It can be helpful to radiograph the blocks flat and on edge to determine the depth of the calcifications in the block for the histotechnologist.

Radiographic "calcifications" can rarely be due to surgical debris (at an old biopsy site) that may not be evident histologically. Evidence of an old biopsy site should be present. Material that looks like calcifications can also be due to gold in macrophages after injections for rheumatoid arthritis or from foreign material after traumatic injuries. Calcifications can also dissolve if left in formalin for over 24 hours.[1] Small biopsies should be processed expeditiously or stored in alcohol if processing will be delayed.

Hormone Receptors and HER2/neu. Hormone receptor and HER2/neu status can be determined on carcinomas by immunohistochemistry (see "Excisional Biopsies").

INCISIONAL BIOPSIES

Incisional biopsies are unusual specimens that are almost always performed to evaluate unresectable invasive carcinomas. Often the purpose of the biopsy is to confirm the clinical diagnosis and to obtain hormone receptor and HER2/neu status.

The specimen usually consists of a single small fragment, or multiple small fragments, of tissue. The entire specimen is submitted. The tissue need not be inked if clearly labeled as an incisional biopsy.

EXCISIONAL BIOPSIES

Excisional biopsies are defined as procedures intended for the primary evaluation of a breast lesion with complete removal of the lesion. If there has been a prior diagnosis of malignancy (e.g., by core biopsy), the intent of the procedure is to obtain adequate margins. The processing of an excisional biopsy will vary depending on the type of lesion resected.

All biopsies must be inked in order to evaluate margins. Fragmented biopsies are inked because the lesion may be located in only one of the fragments.

Orientation

Some surgeons attempt to minimize cosmetic deformities by only resecting specific positive margins if malignancy is found. In such cases, it is necessary to identify each of six possible margins (superior, inferior, medial, lateral, anterior, posterior) and to evaluate them separately. This can be accomplished if the surgeon provides at least two orienting sutures perpendicular to each other (e.g., "superior" and "lateral"). Orientation can be maintained by taking and labeling sections in relation to the sutures, or by inking each margin with a different color. It is helpful to develop a standard method of inking margins to be used for all specimens.

The posterior margin always corresponds to the deep margin closest to the chest wall. The superficial (skin) margin is usually anterior but can correspond to any of the other margins depending on the location of the biopsy within the breast.

Excisional Biopsies for Palpable Masses

A primary biopsy performed without wire localization (see "Excisional Biopsies for Mammographic Lesions with Wire Localization") or a history of nipple discharge (see "Duct Dissections") is usually to excise a palpable mass. Invasive carcinoma will be found in about 20% of the specimens (average size 2 cm), DCIS alone in less than 5%, and fibroadenomas in about 20%. The remainder of the specimens will have a wide variety of benign lesions or other (very rare) malignant lesions.

SPECIMEN PROCESSING

1. Record total dimensions and note any orienting sutures. Record the orientation of the dimensions (i.e., distance from medial to lateral, anterior to posterior, and inferior to superior).
   - Ink all fragments. Blot the surface dry and change gloves if necessary to avoid introducing ink into the interior of the specimen.
   - Unoriented specimens can be inked entirely in black. Oriented specimens may be inked using colored inks to identify specific margins. If there is any ambiguity about specimen orientation (e.g., a suture has fallen off), contact the surgeon before proceeding.
   - Serially section the specimen.
2. Describe lesions including size (accurate to nearest mm for staging), consistency (rubbery and bulging, soft, firm, hard), growth pattern (well-circumscribed, stellate, invasive, poorly-circumscribed), necrosis, and distance from margins. If there are multiple lesions, describe their relationship to each other and the distance between lesions.
   - Sample all gross lesions. For lesions suspicious for malignancy, four to five cassettes of the lesion are adequate. For fibroadenomas, or other grossly benign lesions, one section per 1 cm (two per cassette) of greatest dimension is adequate. If there are multiple lesions, submit a section of tissue in between the two lesions.
   - If a gross lesion is not evident, make sure the biopsy was performed for a palpable mass. Most masses palpable to the surgeon will be grossly evident to the pathologist. Occasionally, surgeons will biopsy vaguely denser areas of breast tissue without a discrete mass. In such cases, submit at least 10 cassettes selecting out the most fibrous areas and avoiding pure adipose tissue. If carcinoma in situ or atypical hyperplasia is found in this tissue, then the entire specimen is submitted for histologic examination.[2]
   - Never take tissue for special studies or research unless a definitive diagnosis of invasive carcinoma has been established.
3. Submit perpendicular sections of the closest approach of suspicious lesions to all margins of oriented specimens. Up to twelve cassettes (corresponding to two sections from each of the six margins) may be submitted if malignancy is known or highly suspected. Often margins are included in the same cassette with a section of the lesion.
4. If there is additional fibrous parenchyma not included in the cassettes with the lesion or margin, submit at least one cassette. If skin is present submit one section.

Most specimens can be submitted in ten cassettes or less. If the entire specimen is not submitted, the gross description should include a statement estimating the percentage of the lesion and total specimen submitted for histologic examination.

If there is a prior diagnosis of DCIS, it is preferable to submit the entire specimen in sequence (e.g., from medial to lateral) in order to determine the extent of the DCIS, the status of margins, and to exclude any areas of invasive carcinoma.

SPECIAL STUDIES

Estrogen and Progesterone Receptors. This information is used for prognosis for patients with invasive breast cancer and to determine if a patient would benefit from hormonal therapy (see in Chapter 7, "Estrogen and Progesterone Receptor Evaluation," and Tables 7-12, 7-13 and 7-14).

Hormone receptor antigenicity can be diminished or eliminated by some fixatives (e.g., Bouin's fixative), over- or underfixation in formalin, or decalcification. Thus, these conditions should be avoided if hormone receptors may need to be determined. Delayed fixation or heat (e.g., by surgical cautery) can also result in degradation of receptor proteins. If negative results are obtained (e.g., in both the carcinoma and in normal tissue), and the specimen was not optimally fixed in formalin, this should be noted as a possible cause of false negative results.

HER2/neu (c-erb B2). Overexpression can be determined either by IHC or by FISH on formalin-fixed tissue, as about 95% of carcinomas with protein overexpression also have gene amplification (see Tables 7-15 and 7-16). Rare cancers will overexpress HER2 due to other mechanisms.

Flow Cytometric Analysis. Flow cytometry may be used to determine DNA content and S phase fraction (SPF). Abnormal DNA content and high SPF are poor prognostic factors. These studies are best performed on fresh tissue, but can also be performed on formalin-fixed tissue. See Chapter 7, "Analytical Cytology," for more information.

Tissue for Research. Tissue can only be removed for research if a diagnosis of invasive carcinoma has been firmly established. In all other cases, it may be necessary to examine all the breast tissue microscopically.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

See Figure 15-1.

Invasive Carcinoma. Invasive carcinoma usually appears as a very hard white mass with irregular or stellate borders. The consistency when cut through is gritty (like a water chestnut). Pale yellow streaks in the tumor are usually due to elastosis in the desmoplastic response, not to necrosis. Some invasive tumors are well-circumscribed (e.g., medullary or mucinous carcinomas) and may be firm or soft. Occasionally they are mistaken for fibroadenomas. However, these tumors will not bulge or have clefts and may have areas of necrosis. Mucinous carcinoma may have a gelatinous appearance.

The size of invasive carcinomas is difficult to determine visually, as the borders often blend into the surrounding fibrous tissue. Size is better determined by palpation. The edges of the carcinoma usually form a shelf that can be pinched between the fingers and this defines the extent of the desmoplastic response around the carcinoma.

Less commonly, lobular carcinomas, as well as some ductal carcinomas, may have a diffusely infiltrating pattern and may be subtle (consisting of diffusely firm white tissue) or occult on gross examination. The size of such tumors can only be estimated using both gross and microscopic appearances.

Inflammatory Carcinoma. This is a diagnosis based on both clinical and pathologic features. The patient presents with diffuse erythema and edema involving the breast and skin. The carcinoma often has a diffusely invasive pattern with little or no desmoplasia and typically there is not a palpable mass. The skin changes correlate with tumor in dermal lymphatics; true inflammation is not present. The erythema and edema are not apparent in the excised breast. Mastectomy is often performed only after the patient has responded to chemotherapy.

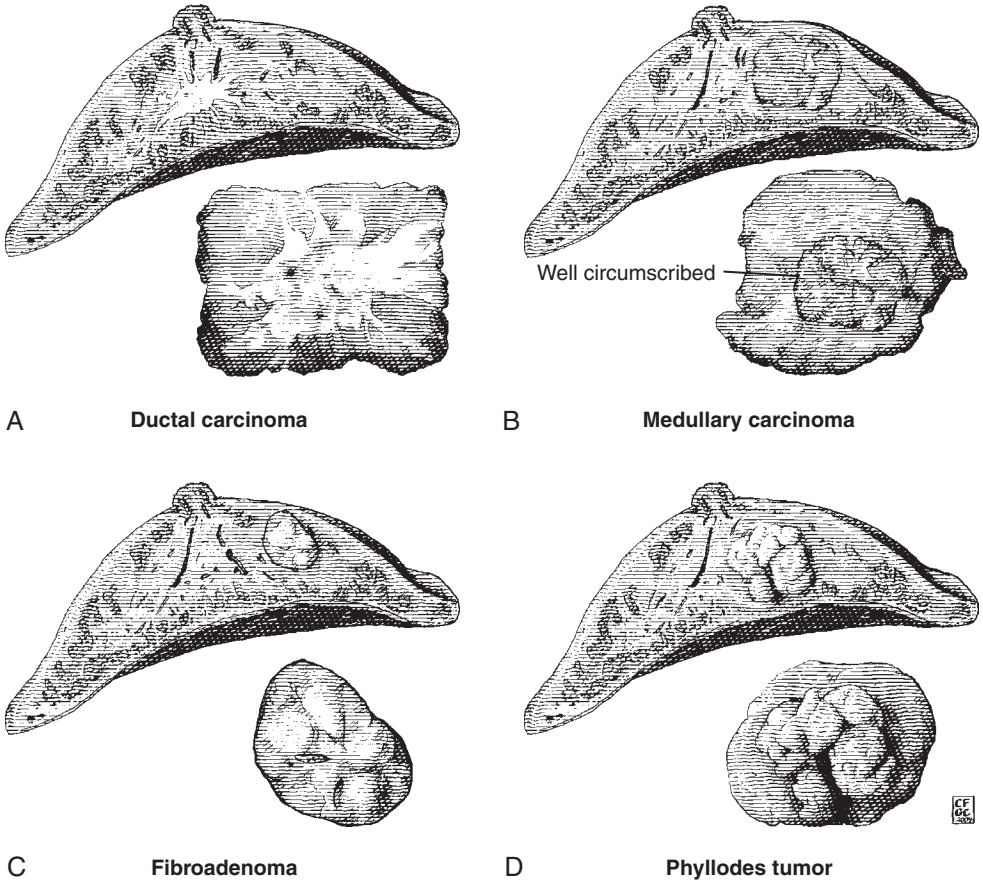

Figure 15-1. Gross appearance of breast lesions.

Metastatic Carcinoma to a Lymph Node with an Occult Primary. This is a rare presentation for breast cancer. If all radiologic studies are negative, including MRI, it is unlikely that the primary will be found by gross or microscopic examination of the mastectomy. Prognosis is governed by the number of involved lymph nodes and is not altered whether or not the primary carcinoma is identified.

Ductal Carcinoma in Situ (DCIS). DCIS is most often occult on gross examination due to the lack of a surrounding desmoplastic response. The one exception is comedo type DCIS, which is often associated with periductal fibrosis and can have pinpoint areas of necrosis ("comedone-like"), which are extruded when the tissue is gently squeezed. The grossly involved area may be an ill-defined area of firm gray/white tissue.

Papillary carcinoma in situ may appear as a well-circumscribed mass with a fine papillary surface when it involves a large duct.

Paget Disease of the Nipple. Paget disease of the nipple is a result of DCIS spreading from a ductal system into the skin of the breast. The normal squamous barrier is disrupted and extracellular fluid seeps onto the surface, resulting in a scale crust. This crust is removed by cleaning the skin prior to surgery and involved nipples usually have a normal gross appearance in the specimen. The malignant cells rarely extend beyond the nipple and areola within the skin.

Fibroadenomas (FAs). FAs are the most common benign mass-forming lesions of the breast and usually occur in women under 40 years of age. The characteristic appearance is of an ovoid or smoothly-lobulated mass with a rubbery, firm consistency. Clefts are often grossly apparent due to stromal overgrowth surrounded by epithelial lining cells. FAs are firmer than the surrounding tissue and appear to stand up from it and bulge outward. FAs may infarct during pregnancy and appear poorly circumscribed with areas of necrosis and hemorrhage. There are numerous other benign lesions that are grossly similar (e.g., hamartomas, adenosis lesions, sclerosing lobular hyperplasia, pseudoangiomatous stromal hyperplasia, fibrous tumors). Well-circumscribed carcinomas should be suspected in women >50 years of age and when the lesion is not grossly typical for FA (e.g., flat or depressed instead of bulging).

Phyllodes Tumors. These may grossly resemble FAs. Phyllodes tumors are usually larger, may have areas of necrosis and hemorrhage, and may be less well circumscribed due to invasion into the surrounding stroma. Most large biphasic stromal lesions (either FAs or phyllodes tumors) will have "leaf-like" protruberances due to areas of stromal overgrowth. Phyllodes tumors are rare and usually present at an older age than FAs.

Fibrocystic Changes. Fibrocystic changes occasionally form palpable masses. A single unilocular cyst is generally aspirated and not excised. However, recurrent cysts or cysts that fail to disappear after aspiration (e.g., due to debris within the cyst) may be excised. Tissue may be diffusely firm due to small cysts and fibrosis resulting from chronic inflammation. A discrete mass is usually not present.

Radial Sclerosing Lesions (Radial Scars). These lesions consist of a central hyalinized nidus with radiating arms consisting of epithelial hyperplasia. These lesions are rarely palpable. However, they may present as spiculated mammographic densities closely mimicking invasive carcinomas. The center of the lesion is usually small in relation to the long arms as opposed to invasive carcinomas that have a more solid center and shorter spiculations. Grossly, radial sclerosing lesions may look stellate but are often soft except for the small firm nidus. Frozen sections should be avoided as the center of the lesion is easily mistaken for an invasive carcinoma and examination of the intact lesion is helpful for diagnosis.

Biopsy Sites. Most biopsy sites will form irregular firm (but not hard) areas of fibrosis with streaks of yellow (fat necrosis). Core needle biopsy sites may be quite subtle and can heal in less than a month. Some radiologists use systems that insert gel beads and a clip into the biopsy site. The gel beads will look like ovoid white hard masses that may pop out of the biopsy site. The beads will be absorbed over time.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Mass:** Four to five cassettes of possible carcinomas or one section per cm for other grossly identifiable masses.
  In the absence of a discrete mass, at least 10 cassettes of fibrous tissue are submitted.
  If a diagnosis of DCIS has been made on core needle biopsy, it is preferable to completely submit the specimen in sequence.
- **Margins:** At least twelve perpendicular sections representing each of the six margins for oriented specimens suspicious for carcinomas (two cassettes per margin).
- **Normal tissue:** At least one cassette of representative fibrous tissue if not present in the slides above.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "left breast mass" is a 6 (medial to lateral) × 4 (inferior to superior) × 3 (anterior to posterior) cm breast biopsy with two sutures - the long designated "lateral" and the short designated "superior." There is a 2.3 × 2.0 × 1.5 cm very hard white stellate mass that is grossly within 0.1 cm of the medial resection margin. The mass is 1 cm from the superior margin, 1.5 cm from the inferior margin, 4 cm from the lateral margin, 1.5 cm from the posterior margin, and 0.8 cm from the anterior margin. The remainder of the breast tissue consists of grossly unremarkable adipose tissue. The entire tumor and 80% of the entire specimen are submitted for histologic examination. The specimen is inked for the evaluation of margins: posterior = black; anterior = blue; superior = red; inferior = green; lateral = yellow; medial = orange. Sections of margins are submitted for microscopic examination.

Cassettes #1-2: Tumor and medial margin, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassettes #3-4: Tumor and anterior margin, 4 frags, ESS.
Cassettes #5-6: Remainder of tumor, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassettes #7-8: Superior margin, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #9-10: Inferior margin, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #10-11: Lateral margin, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #12-13: Posterior margin, 2 frags, RSS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR TUMORS

See section after "Mastectomies."

Excisional Biopsies for Mammographic Lesions with Wire Localization

Mammographic (nonpalpable) lesions are biopsied by placing a wire in the breast at the site of the mammographic abnormality. After excision, the biopsy is sent to mammography for a specimen radiograph and a radiologist confirms the presence of the lesion. The pathologist should receive a copy of the specimen radiograph as well as the interpretation by the radiologist. It is helpful to have the radiologist circle lesions (e.g., faint calcifications) that are not readily apparent.

Biopsies performed for mammographic densities will reveal invasive carcinomas in 20% to 30% of cases (average size 1 cm), DCIS alone in less than 5%, and fibroadenomas in 20% to 30%. The types of mass-forming lesions are similar to those forming palpable masses but are smaller in size.

Biopsies performed for mammographic calcifications without a mass will reveal invasive carcinomas in less than 10% of cases (average size less than 1 cm), DCIS alone in 20% to 30%, and fibroadenomas in 5% to 10%.

Biopsies for architectural distortion are less common and may either correspond to irregular involution, DCIS, or diffusely invasive carcinomas such as invasive lobular carcinoma.

Biopsies for MRI-detected areas of enhancement are performed for lesions that cannot be identified by mammography or US (otherwise these modalities would be used to identify the lesion). A specimen radiograph may be performed, but usually does not show the targeted lesion (although other incidental findings such as calcifications may be present). The specimen should be completely submitted, if possible. In general, women who undergo MRI are at high risk for carcinoma either because they have current or prior breast carcinoma or because they have a germ line mutation. Around one third of these biopsies will reveal carcinoma.[3] Two thirds are small invasive carcinomas and one third DCIS.

Wide excisions after a core needle diagnosis of malignancy are processed similarly to diagnostic excisional biopsies, as the lesion is still within the specimen and will be marked with a wire. More extensive sampling (usually submission of the entire specimen) is indicated if a diagnosis of DCIS or ADH has already been established. Important prognostic factors for DCIS are the size of the lesion and distance from the margins (preferably at least 1 cm). In order to optimally evaluate these features, it is usually preferable to submit the entire specimen in consecutive order with oriented margins. If this would require more than 20 blocks, it may be appropriate to examine initial sections before submitting additional tissue.

SPECIMEN PROCESSING FOR MAMMOGRAPHIC DENSITIES

These specimens usually contain the same types of lesions present in biopsies for palpable masses with the exception that the lesions are smaller. They may be processed in a similar fashion if the lesion is grossly evident. Lesions that cannot be identified grossly will require radiologic guidance.

1. Examine the specimen radiograph and the radiologist's report, and determine what type of mammographic lesion is present (irregular, well-circumscribed, ill-defined) and its location within the specimen using the shape of the specimen and the wire as guides. Larger masses can often be palpated.

   It is helpful to identify and label the four margins identified on the specimen radiograph in order to compare radiographic distance from margins to microscopic findings.

   The specimen can be inked one color if not oriented or multiple colors if oriented.

   The specimen can be bisected along the plane of the wire. In the majority of cases, a gross lesion will be identified corresponding to the radiologic density and the specimen can be processed as for palpable masses.

   In rare cases, if no gross lesion can be identified, it is important to identify the tissue in the area of the radiologic density. It is usually difficult or impossible to find a subtle mass lesion by radiographing the specimen again once the specimen has been sliced. If the site of the radiographic lesion cannot be identified, all fibrous tissue should be processed.

   Never take tissue for special studies or research unless a definitive diagnosis of invasive carcinoma has been established.

2. If the specimen is oriented, oriented margins should be submitted if the lesion is suspicious for malignancy. Up to two cassettes per margin (12 total) may be submitted.
3. If the entire specimen is not submitted, the gross description should make a statement estimating the percentage of the specimen submitted.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Mass:** Four to five cassettes of possible invasive carcinomas or one section per cm for other grossly evident masses.
  If a diagnosis of DCIS has been made, it is preferable to submit the entire specimen in sequence.
  In the absence of an identified mass, all fibrous breast tissue is submitted.
- **Margins:** Up to 12 perpendicular sections representing each of the six margins for oriented specimens suspicious for carcinoma or known to have carcinoma.
- **Normal tissue:** At least one cassette of representative fibrous tissue if not present in the slides above.

SPECIMEN PROCESSING FOR MAMMOGRAPHIC CALCIFICATIONS OR PRIOR NEEDLE DIAGNOSES OF DCIS OR ADH

Excisions for mammographic calcifications have the highest probability of revealing DCIS (20% to 30%). Carcinomas are almost always at or very near the area of the calcifications.[4] The lesions are usually not grossly evident and the specimen usually consists of benign-appearing breast tissue.

1. Examine the specimen radiograph and the radiologist's report and determine the location of the calcifications or clip within the specimen. Calcifications most likely to be associated with DCIS are small, numerous, clustered, and may be linear or branching. If a core has been performed and has removed most of the calcifications, the radiologists will have placed a small clip at the biopsy site. Large ("popcorn") calcifications are not normally biopsied, but may be present incidental to another mammographic lesion.
   - The specimen can be inked one color if not oriented or multiple colors if oriented.
   - It is helpful to identify and label the four margins identified on the specimen radiograph in order to compare radiographic distance from margins to microscopic findings.
   - The specimen may be bisected along the plane of the wire. In the majority of cases, no gross lesion will be present. If a gross lesion is present correlating with the radiologic calcifications (e.g., a small hyalinized fibroadenoma with calcifications, a biopsy site, gel beads corresponding to a core site), the specimen may be processed as for palpable masses.
   - If there is no gross lesion, and the site of the calcifications cannot be identified (e.g., because the wire had fallen out of the specimen), then the sliced tissue should be re-radiographed. Small specimens (e.g., submitted in <10 cassettes) may be submitted in entirety without additional radiography.
   - **Low suspicion lesion:** The tissue containing the calcifications is completely submitted along with adjacent tissue on either side. The remaining slices may be placed in designated cassettes to maintain orientation, but need not be submitted if the tissue appears grossly benign. The location of this tissue can be marked on the sliced specimen radiograph. If the blocks of the mammographic calcifications reveal atypical hyperplasia or DCIS, all additional fibrous tissue should be examined microscopically.
   - **High suspicion lesion or prior diagnosis of DCIS or ADH by core needle biopsy:** Completely submit all the tissue containing the mammographic calcifications, all fibrous tissue, and at least two representative sections of each margin. It preferable to submit the sections in order (e.g., from medial to lateral) to be able to determine the extent of the DCIS.
   - Never take tissue for special studies or research unless a firm diagnosis of invasive carcinoma has been established.
2. If the entire specimen is not submitted, the gross description should make a statement estimating the percentage of the specimen submitted.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Calcifications:** All tissue containing the radiologic calcifications and adjacent tissue. Indicate which blocks contain tissue with calcifications. If DCIS or ADH has been diagnosed previously, it is preferable to submit all fibrous tissue.

- **Margins:** At least twelve cassettes of two perpendicular sections from each of the six margins for oriented specimens with known or suspected carcinoma.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "right breast" is a 5 (medial to lateral) × 3 (inferior to superior) × 2 (anterior to posterior) cm breast biopsy with a localization wire in place, a short suture marking the superior margin, and a long suture marking the lateral margin. An accompanying specimen radiograph demonstrates a tight cluster of calcifications in the central portion of the specimen, adjacent to the localization wire. The specimen is inked for the evaluation of margins: posterior = black; anterior = blue; superior = red; inferior = green; lateral = yellow; medial = orange. The tissue consists of dense fibrous parenchyma with multiple small blue dome cysts. A gross lesion at the site of the radiologic calcifications is not seen. The specimen is re-radiographed and the area of calcifications identified. This area is 0.2 cm from the superior margin, 2 cm from the inferior margin, 1 cm from the posterior margin, 0.5 cm from the anterior margin, 3 cm from the medial margin, and 2 cm from the lateral margin. Two sections of each margin are submitted for microscopic examination. The margins consist of unremarkable adipose tissue. 50% of the specimen is submitted including all fibrous tissue. The location of the tissue blocks is recorded on a specimen diagram.

Cassettes #1-2: Mammographic microcalcifications with superior margin, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassettes #3-4: Closest lateral margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassettes #5-6: Closest medial margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassettes #7-8: Closest anterior margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassettes #9-10: Closest inferior margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassettes #11-12: Closest posterior margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassettes #13-15: Remaining fibrous tissue, 5 frags, ESS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR TUMORS

See section after "Mastectomies."

RE-EXCISIONS

Breast re-excision is a general term for larger excisions of an excisional biopsy site when malignancy has been found. Lumpectomies (used loosely because usually a "lump" is no longer present) and quadrantectomies (used to refer to a larger resection of an entire breast quadrant) are examples of this type of specimen. Re-excisions often have a small ellipse of skin (containing the original biopsy scar) that may be oriented with sutures of different lengths. The nipple will not be present. A biopsy cavity must be identified. Separate axillary dissections or sentinel node biopsies are usually performed if invasive carcinoma was diagnosed.

In the absence of gross lesions, the entire specimen would need to be submitted to reliably detect every case of residual carcinoma of possible clinical significance. In one study, submitting one block per centimeter of maximal tissue dimension detected 88% of lesions of major clinical significance and 81% of lesions with any clinical significance, and resulted in a 52% reduction in the number of blocks examined.[5] Submitting two blocks per centimeter resulted in the detection of 97% of lesions of major clinical significance and 95% of lesions with any clinical significance, and resulted in a 17% reduction in the number of tissue blocks.

The amount of tissue appropriate to sample will also vary depending on the prior diagnosis. Almost all women with a history of invasive carcinoma will receive radiation to the breast, and the purpose of the margin evaluation is to exclude relatively large areas of residual DCIS. Thus, such re-excisions may not need to be sampled in entirety.

Although many women with DCIS alone will also receive radiation to the breast, there may be a subgroup of women with widely clear margins that do not require radiation. Therefore, thorough margin evaluation of the re-excision specimen in these patients is more important for guiding patient management. Even a small amount of DCIS at or near the margin would be treated with either additional surgery or radiation. In addition, if an area of invasion is found in the re-excision, the patient's prognosis changes, and very likely her treatment as well.

1. Record the total dimensions, size and color of skin ellipse, size and condition (well-healed, recent) of scar.
   - Ink the entire specimen except for the skin. Different colors of ink can be used if this will help in identifying margins.
   - Serially section the specimen without cutting through the skin or any sutures. Carefully palpate the specimen locating the biopsy cavity and any other lesions.
   - Describe the size of the indurated area around the cavity, the diameter and contents of the cavity, thickness (range) of cavity wall, and the size of any areas suspicious for residual tumor. Describe the nearest approach of the biopsy cavity and firm surrounding areas to the margins. Large specimens should be fixed overnight in formalin with gauze between the sections.
2. Submit up to four sections of the biopsy cavity, selecting areas that are most suspicious for residual carcinoma close to the margins. More extensive sampling of suspicious areas around the biopsy site and in the remaining breast is indicated for patients in whom only DCIS has been diagnosed. Invasive carcinoma may be difficult to detect due to the fibrosis of the prior biopsy cavity.
3. Sample all margins, giving orientation if provided. Twelve cassettes (corresponding to two sections of each of the six margins) are usually adequate unless there are multiple suspicious areas. Cases of DCIS alone should be sampled more thoroughly or completely submitted if possible.
4. Sample the skin to evaluate possible dermal lymphatic involvement or direct skin invasion.
5. If the entire specimen is not submitted, give an estimate of the amount of tissue submitted for histologic examination.
6. If an axillary tail is submitted, see the section under "Axillary Dissections" below for instructions on processing.

Occasionally a wire localization will be performed in addition to a re-excision to remove a mammographic lesion close to a prior biopsy site. These specimens are processed in order to evaluate the radiologic lesion as well as the prior biopsy cavity.

SPECIAL STUDIES

Special studies are usually not indicated because the primary tumor has been removed. If gross tumor is present, it would be prudent to determine whether studies have been performed on a prior specimen and consider determining hormone receptor status and HER2/neu on fixed tissue.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Biopsy cavity:** At least four cassettes including any areas suspicious for residual carcinoma.
- **Margins:** At least two sections of each margin. Take additional sections for specimens with only DCIS. It is preferable to submit the entire specimen, or all fibrous tissue, in these cases.
- **Skin:** One cassette.

SAMPLE DICTATION

The specimen is received fresh in two parts labeled with the patient's name and unit number.

The first part labeled "#1, right lumpectomy" consists of a 10 (medial to lateral) × 9 (inferior to superior) × 7 (anterior to posterior) cm re-excision specimen with a 4 × 1 cm white skin ellipse containing a 3.5 cm well-healed surgical scar and two orienting sutures designated "medial" and "superior." The specimen is inked for the evaluation of margins: posterior = black; anterior = blue; superior = red; inferior = green; lateral = yellow; medial = orange. 2 cm deep to the skin there is a 3 × 3 × 2 cm biopsy cavity filled with blood clot and surrounded by dense white tissue (approximately 1 cm in greatest thickness) and areas of fat necrosis. No areas grossly suspicious for invasive carcinoma are seen. The biopsy cavity is 0.5 cm from the deep margin, which is the closest margin. The remaining margins are at least two cm from the cavity and are taken as perpendicular sections for microscopic examination. The remainder of the specimen consists of yellow/white adipose tissue. Approximately 70% of the specimen is submitted for histologic examination.

Cassettes #1-4: Biopsy cavity, 4 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #5-6: Biopsy cavity and deep margin, 2 frags, RSS.

Cassettes #7-8: Inferior margin, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #9-10: Medial margin, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #11-12: Superior margin, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #13-14: Lateral margin, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #15: Skin, 3 frags, RSS.
Cassette #16: Representative fibrous tissue away from the biopsy cavity, 2 frags, RSS.

The second part labeled "#2, axillary nodes" consists of a 6 × 5 × 3 cm fragment of adipose tissue containing twelve possible lymph nodes. The largest lymph node measures 1.2 cm in size and is firm tan/white with irregular borders.

Cassette #13: Largest lymph node, 3 frags, ESS.
Cassette #14: Three lymph nodes, 3 frags, ESS.
Cassettes #15 - 18: Two lymph nodes per cassette, inked blue or black, 8 frags, ESS.
Cassette #19: Possible small lymph nodes, 5 frags, ESS.

SHAVE MARGINS

Shave margins consist of tissue take from a selected area of the primary biopsy cavity. These specimens are usually flattened pieces of tissue with one side marked with a suture as the new margin. It is preferable to mark these specimens with two colors of ink corresponding to the new margin and the side next to the biopsy site (i.e., not marginal tissue). Sections are taken perpendicular to the new margin. At least one section per 1 cm of length should be submitted. Additional sampling is indicated for women with DCIS alone (preferably the entire specimen unless it is quite large).

MASTECTOMIES FOR MALIGNANCY

A mastectomy attempts to remove all breast tissue. In some women, there may be ducts within subcutaneous tissue of the chest wall which will not be removed. There are several types of mastectomy:

- Subcutaneous – does not remove skin or nipple (only performed in males for gynecomastia)
- Simple – removes the nipple with skin, but axillary lymph nodes are not intentionally removed (however, a sentinel node biopsy may be performed)
- Prophylactic – a simple mastectomy in a woman at high risk for carcinoma
- Skin sparing – removes the nipple and areola with a narrow rim of surrounding skin
- Modified radical – a simple mastectomy with an axillary dissection (Fig. 15-2)
- Radical – removes the pectoralis muscles (performed only in exceptional cases with chest wall invasion)

Most women can be treated by breast conservation. Women undergoing mastectomy are more likely to have the following:

- Multiple cancers that cannot be resected in a single excision. If the cancers were diagnosed by core needle biopsy, radiologic examination of the specimen may be necessary to find the known cancers.
- Locally advanced cancers, often with chest wall or skin invasion. Many of these women will have received preoperative therapy.
- Inflammatory cancer – most of these women will have received preoperative therapy.
- Metastatic carcinoma to a lymph node with an occult primary.
- Recurrent cancer in patients having previously been treated with radiation.
- Women at high risk for additional carcinomas (e.g., due to BRCA1 or BRCA2 mutations).

Thus, mastectomies tend to be complicated specimens. Unless a good history is provided (and "breast cancer" does not constitute a good history!), it is usually necessary to review the medical record to determine the number and type of lesions present, as well as whether or not any preoperative therapy has been given, prior to gross examination of the specimen. Additional important information can be derived from mastectomies after excision of an invasive carcinoma (e.g., increase in tumor size, deep margin involvement, lymphatic invasion, skeletal muscle invasion, skin invasion) or DCIS (e.g., unsuspected areas of invasion). Mastectomy specimens require meticulous gross examination as only a small proportion of the specimen is examined microscopically. In one study, 83% of major diagnostic discrepancies in breast specimens were due to inadequate sampling of tissue from mastectomies.[6]

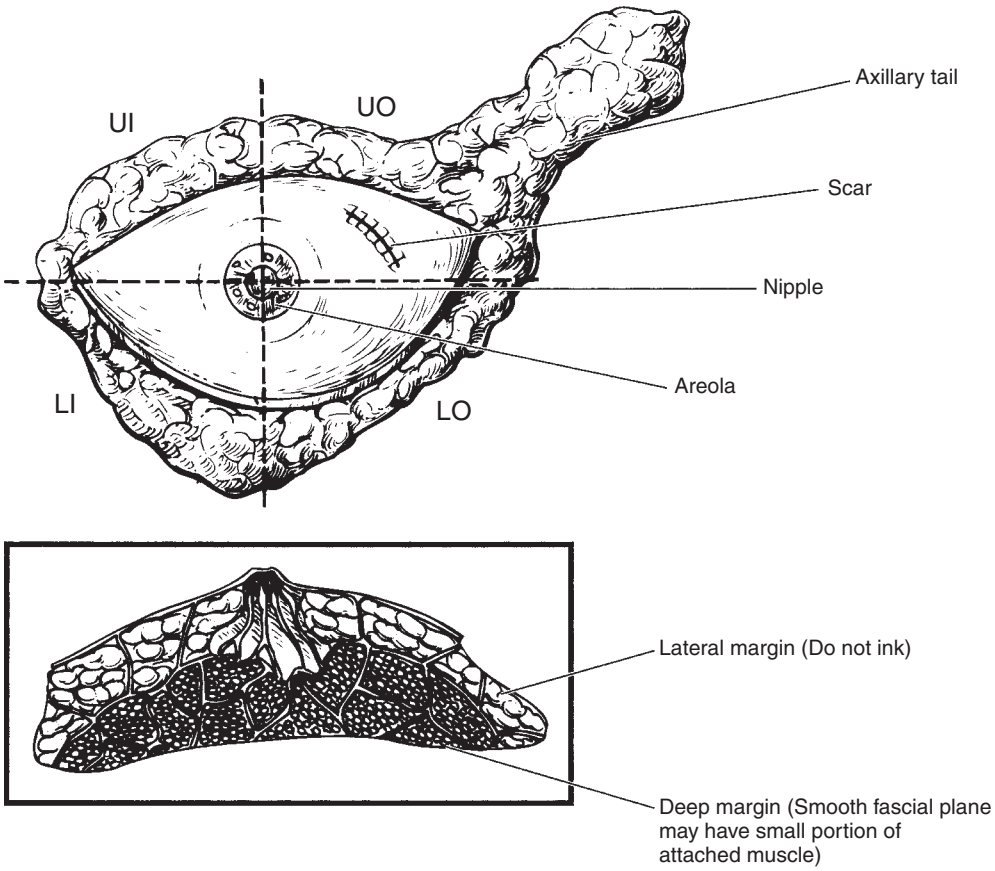

Figure 15-2. Modified radical mastectomy (left side).

Difficult cases:

- **Mastectomies after core needle biopsy** are often problematic as it may be difficult to find the site of the original lesion. If the biopsy was performed for a palpable mass or a mammographic density, most lesions can be found by careful gross examination. If the biopsy was performed for calcifications, it is helpful to radiograph the specimen prior to sectioning to locate the area of calcifications and any clips placed by the radiologist. Additional radiographs after sectioning of the specimen may be helpful to guide selection of tissue. Clips are difficult to see and can be displaced or lost after sectioning of the specimen.
- **Mastectomies or excisions after preoperative therapy** can be problematic as the tumor bed may be difficult to detect if there has been a marked response. The extent of residual carcinoma (viable or nonviable) is an important prognostic factor and must be documented. Women with a complete response (no residual invasive carcinoma) have a better prognosis than women with a partial or no response. The tumor bed must be identified and sampled.

If the carcinoma was originally palpable, the surgeon can indicate the site with a suture or a description. If there were mammographic findings associated with the carcinoma (e.g., calcifications or a clip placed prior to treatment), the specimen can be radiographed. Calcifications generally do not disappear after treatment. Once the site of the prior carcinoma is identified, it is helpful to take a series of consecutive sections to sample the tumor bed (e.g., one tissue section per cm from medial to lateral in an area of a previously palpable 5 cm carcinoma).

Processing the Specimen

1. Describe:
   - Weight: Entire specimen
   - Dimensions: Total size of breast, size of axillary dissection
   - Skin ellipse: Size, color, presence of skin retraction, presence of ulceration over tumors, skin lesions. Occasionally there will be red, oval-shaped marks that are often associated with

detachment of the overlying epidermis at the edges of the skin ellipse. These are clamp marks made during the procedure that need not be sampled.

- Nipple: Size of nipple (i.e., the raised area where the ducts emerge, not the pigmented areola), size of areola, retraction, inversion, irregular or crusted surface (may indicate Paget disease of the nipple).
- Scar: Size and condition (well-healed, recent, sutured) of surgical incision or scar, location of incision (e.g., quadrant - most commonly upper outer) and distance from nipple. Scars are most easily found when the specimen is fresh. Semi-circular scars around the areola may be difficult to see. Scars can be distinguished from marks on the skin by making an incision and looking for the area of underlying dermal fibrosis. A scar may be absent if the mastectomy was performed for prophylactic reasons, if the original diagnosis was made with a needle biopsy, or if a skin-sparing mastectomy is performed. If a scar or a biopsy cavity cannot be found and the reason for the mastectomy is unclear, the surgeon should be called.
- Deep margin: Usually consists of a smooth fascial plane overlying the pectoralis muscle. Areas of irregularity or attached portions of skeletal muscle are documented (size and location).

If the prior procedure was a core needle biopsy for a nonpalpable lesion, it may be useful to radiograph the intact specimen before sectioning.

2. Ink the deep fascial margin black, but not the lateral soft tissue margins. The adipose tissue not at the deep margin abuts subcutaneous tissue in the patient. Although breast ducts can sometimes be present in subcutaneous tissue, this tissue is not generally considered to be a true margin and a positive margin in this area is of unknown clinical significance. If this tissue is inked, it should be in a different color than the deep fascial margin and reported separately as a skin flap margin.
3. Separate the axillary tail and fix in a separate container. If removing the tail will make the specimen difficult to orient, cut a notch in the skin at the site of the tail. See the section on "Axillary Dissections" for processing.
   Lymph nodes **MUST** be searched for even in specimens designated "simple mastectomies". Often one or two low lymph nodes (but occasionally many more than this) are included; they are often the most clinically important tissue to examine.
4. Serially section the specimen at approximately 0.5 cm intervals but do not cut through the skin. Carefully palpate all sections and locate the biopsy cavity and any other suspicious lesions. This must be done in the fresh state because formalin hardens tissues and small lesions may be missed.
   Describe size, location (quadrant), and distance from the deep margin and skin of any lesions including the biopsy cavity. If tumor is present, also describe color, borders (infiltrating, well-circumscribed, ill-defined), consistency (firm, hard), relationship, if any, to the biopsy cavity and nipple, and distance from skin, deep margin, and other margins (e.g., lateral) if involved.
   The deep margin is always taken as a perpendicular margin because this is a true tissue plane and even a thin rim of tissue (e.g., less than 0.1 cm) would be considered a negative margin. Any skeletal muscle present is sampled to look for muscle invasion.
   If multiple lesions are present, describe their relationship to each other (distance and direction) and submit a cassette of tissue in between the lesions.
   The remainder of the non-lesional breast tissue is described (e.g., predominantly fatty, firm, white, cysts [size], gross calcifications, etc.).
   If a grossly inapparent radiographic lesion is present (e.g., calcifications), it is usually useful to radiograph the sliced specimen to ensure that the lesion is sampled.
5. Fix the specimen overnight in a large container filled with formalin. Gauze is used to separate the sections and is placed underneath the specimen.
6. The following day, tissue blocks are taken from the mastectomy at the sites noted (see below).

Nipple: In the usual nipple examination, one perpendicular section is taken. This type of section will only examine one to four of the main nipple ducts. If there is a reason to more thoroughly examine the nipple (e.g., the nipple is grossly abnormal or there is a clinical history of Paget disease) additional sections may be taken (Fig. 15-3). The nipple is amputated in a plane parallel to the skin surface. A second, deeper, section is taken in the same plane. This section will demonstrate all the major ducts as they approach the nipple. The more superficial section is serially sectioned perpendicular to the skin surface and all these slices submitted. These sections will demonstrate most of the nipple ducts as they empty onto the skin surface.

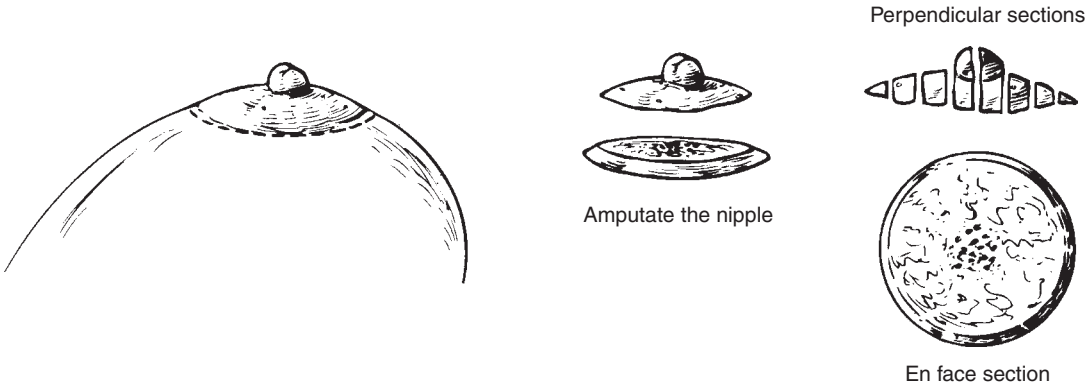

Figure 15-3. Nipple sectioning diagrams.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "MRM – left" is an 850 gram left modified radical mastectomy specimen (15 × 10 × 5.5 cm) with a white/tan skin ellipse (14 × 7 cm) and an attached axillary tail (7 × 6 × 3 cm). There is a 3.4 cm well-healed surgical scar in the upper outer quadrant, 2 cm from the unremarkable 0.5 cm nipple. One cm deep to this scar is a firm white area (4.5 × 4.0 × 2.0 cm) containing a recent biopsy cavity (3.0 cm in diameter) filled with organizing red/tan clot, 1.5 cm from the deep margin, which is a smooth fascial plane without skeletal muscle present. The wall of the cavity is firm and white to yellow, ranging from 0.5 to 1 cm in thickness, without gross tumor present. The remainder of the breast parenchyma is predominantly white and firm with small cysts measuring up to 0.3 cm in greatest dimension. There are fifteen tan lymph nodes in the axillary tail, the largest measuring 0.8 cm in greatest dimension. Lymph nodes placed in the same cassette are differentially inked.

Cassettes #1-4: Biopsy cavity, 4 frags, RSS.
Cassette #5: Deep margin of biopsy cavity, perpendicular section, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #6: Skin with scar, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #7: Upper outer quadrant, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #8: Upper inner quadrant, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #9: Lower outer quadrant, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #10: Lower inner quadrant, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #11: Nipple, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassettes #12-16: Lymph nodes, 3 per cassette, 15 frags, ESS.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Biopsy cavity:** At least four sections. More sampling is indicated in cases of DCIS alone (to look for foci of invasion), fewer for cases of known large invasive carcinomas.
- **Invasive carcinomas:** Residual tumor may be present if the prior procedure was an incisional biopsy or a core needle biopsy. Four to five cassettes of tumor including the relationship to skin and deep margin should be submitted.
- **Radiologic lesions:** Mastectomies may be performed after a prior diagnosis of DCIS or invasive carcinoma by core needle biopsy. The calcifications, density, and/or clip should be located by radiographing the specimen if not grossly evident. The entire area of involved tissue is submitted.
- **Skin:** One section of biopsy scar. Additional sections should be submitted of skin lesions, carcinoma involving skin, or if there was a clinical history of inflammatory carcinoma (i.e., carcinoma involving dermal lymphatics).
- **Deep margin:** One section if not grossly involved. Take at the biopsy cavity and near any other gross lesions. Always take as a perpendicular margin. Do not routinely sample other deep margins (e.g., from quadrants) unless grossly abnormal. Skeletal muscle at the deep margin is sampled using perpendicular sections.

- **Other margins:** One perpendicular section may be taken if the biopsy site or a gross lesion is very close to a non-deep (subcutaneous tissue) margin. The clinical significance of such margin involvement is unknown and such sections must be clearly distinguished from the deep margin.
- **Nipple:** One section. Two sections (perpendicular and deep en face) if gross lesions are present or if there is a clinical history of Paget disease.
- **Representative:** One section from each quadrant (upper outer, upper inner, lower quadrants outer, lower inner). These sections should be away from any other lesions sampled (e.g., the biopsy cavity). If they are not, this is noted in the gross description. They are taken of fibrous breast parenchyma (not adipose tissue).
- **Lymph nodes:** Each thinly sliced (0.2 to 0.3 cm) and entirely submitted. More than one lymph node can be placed in one cassette if selectively inked in different colors.

AXILLARY DISSECTIONS

Axillary dissections are performed for the staging of women with invasive carcinoma. The number of lymph nodes with metastases is the most important prognostic factor for women with breast carcinoma. Treatment protocols may require a minimum number of examined lymph nodes for entry (typically 6 or 10) to avoid enrolling women misclassified because of inadequate sampling.

See Chapter 27 for instructions on processing. All lymph nodes are thinly sliced and are completely submitted. The number of lymph nodes with metastases is important for prognosis and for treatment protocols. In order to count the nodes, a single node should be placed in each cassette, or multiple lymph nodes may be placed in the same cassette if differentially inked to avoid mistaking fragments of the same lymph node as multiple nodes.

Record the total number of lymph nodes, the size of the largest lymph node, and the presence of any lymph nodes with areas suspicious for metastatic tumor (firm white lymph nodes or with irregular borders). If there is extensive extranodal extension with matting of lymph nodes, estimate the probable total number of lymph nodes involved.

Most axillary dissections should yield between 10 and 20 lymph nodes. If fewer than 10 nodes are found grossly, re-examine the specimen and submit any areas that may represent lymph nodes. Nodes largely replaced by fat may be difficult to recognize but will have a firm rim of tissue around the fatty center. If the specimen was not fixed in Bouin's originally, using this fixative later can help to identify nodes. Finally, the entire axillary tail may not have been identified on a mastectomy specimen and additional nodes in the lateral portion of the specimen should be sought.

If the mastectomy was performed for a diagnosis of extensive DCIS, some surgeons will perform a low axillary lymph node dissection. There may be fewer nodes in such specimens.

Although simple mastectomies do not specifically remove axillary nodes, a few low nodes are sometimes removed. Nodes should always be searched for in lateral tissue and their presence or absence documented.

If a portion of pectoralis minor muscle is attached, the level of the nodes can be determined. Level I nodes are inferior, Level II posterior, and Level III superior (these latter nodes often not resected because of the greater morbidity involved). The nodes are submitted in cassettes designated as to the levels and labeled this way in the final report.

Sentinel node biopsy is a common procedure for breast carcinoma staging. See Chapter 27, "Sentinel Node" for instructions on processing.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR BREAST CARCINOMAS

- **Specimen:** Partial breast, total breast
- **Procedure:** Needle core biopsy: U/S guided (masses), stereotactic (calcifications, density, architectural distortion), or for palpable mass, incisional biopsy, excisional biopsy for palpable mass, excisional biopsy for mammographic lesion (calcifications, density, architectural distortion), nipple duct excision, re-excision, simple mastectomy, skin-sparing mastectomy, modified radical mastectomy
- **Lymph Node Sampling:** No lymph node sampling, sentinel lymph node(s) only, sentinel node with axillary dissection, axillary dissection
- **Specimen Integrity:** Single intact specimen, multiple designated specimens, fragmented specimen

- **Specimen Size:** Greatest dimension of the specimen should be provided, if the procedure is less than a mastectomy. The size in three dimensions may also be given.
- **Specimen Laterality:** Right, left breast, unspecified.
- **Tumor Site:** Upper outer, lower outer, upper inner, lower inner, central, according to clock face, not specified.
- **Tumor Size:** Invasive: Greatest dimension to nearest 1 mm based on gross and microscopic findings. Describing as "small" or "microscopic" is inadequate for staging (see below). If an exact size cannot be given (e.g., due to fragmentation), an estimate or minimal size is clinically useful. Do not include adjacent areas of DCIS in the overall size.

  DCIS: The extent of DCIS refers to the volume of involved breast tissue. Although it is difficult or impossible to give an exact size due to the elasticity of fatty breast tissue, an estimate is clinically useful to determine the likelihood of completely removing the DCIS by surgery and the likelihood of occult areas of invasion. Extent can be determined using multiple methods:

  (1) Area of breast tissue involved in a single slide. This method can only be used if DCIS is only present on one slide. In other cases this method greatly underestimates extent.
  (2) Sequential serial sampling. If the entire specimen has been sectioned such that involved areas can be mapped as to location, the extent of the DCIS can be determined.
  (3) Number of involved blocks. The number of blocks multiplied by 0.4 cm (or another number if the width of gross slices is known) will give an estimate of the extent.
  (4) Distance from margins. If opposing margins are positive or close, and the distance between margins is known, this size can be used as extent.

  LCIS need not be quantified.
- **Tumor Focality:** Single focus of invasive carcinoma, multiple foci of invasive carcinoma.

  If there are multiple invasive carcinomas, special studies should be performed on the largest focus. If smaller carcinomas vary in histologic type or grade, it may be appropriate to also perform special studies on additional carcinomas.

  The aggregate size of grossly evident invasive carcinomas correlates better with the risk of lymph node metastases than the size of the largest carcinoma. However, sizes should not be added together for T classification. The presence of multiple invasive carcinomas is denoted by "m" or by giving the number of foci of invasion in parentheses.
- **Skin:** Not present, no skin invasion, direct invasion without skin ulceration, direct invasion with skin ulceration, satellite foci of invasive carcinoma.
- **Nipple:** Not involved, DCIS involves nipple epidermis (Paget disease of the nipple).
- **Skeletal Muscle:** No skeletal muscle present, skeletal muscle present and free of carcinoma, carcinoma invades into skeletal muscle, carcinoma invades into skeletal muscle and into the chest wall. Invasion into the pectoralis muscle alone is not considered chest wall invasion.
- **DCIS:** Not identified, present, architectural pattern.
- **Extensive Intraductal Component (EIC):** A carcinoma is EIC positive if DCIS is prominent within the area of invasive carcinoma and is present outside the area of invasive carcinoma or if the carcinoma is primarily DCIS with only focal invasion.

  EIC-positive carcinomas are more likely to have residual carcinoma in the breast if margins are positive or close compared with EIC-negative carcinomas.
- **LCIS:** Not identified, present.
- **Histologic Type:** Invasive carcinoma: ductal (no special type), lobular, mucinous, tubular, medullary, other rare types.

  DCIS, LCIS.

  In situ carcinoma with microinvasion (foci of invasive carcinoma measuring less than 0.1 cm in size).
- **Histologic Grade:** Invasive carcinoma: Graded using the Nottingham Histologic Score (the Elston-Ellis modification of the Scarff-Bloom-Richardson grading system; see Table 15-3 later).

  Grade all histologic subtypes of carcinoma. Necrosis is an additional poor prognostic indicator if extensive (≥1 HPF).

  DCIS: Nuclear grade (low, intermediate, high), presence or absence of necrosis. Necrotic areas should contain ghost cells and karyorrhectic debris to distinguish necrosis from secretory material.
- **Margins:** The method of evaluating and reporting margins has not been standardized. If shave margins (parallel to the margin) are taken by the pathologist, this must be specified. Perpendicular margins are recommended.

- Invasive carcinoma: Positive margins (= ink on tumor), give distance to closest margin. Describe extent of margin involvement (e.g., unifocal, multifocal, extensive, or give number of slides with margin involvement). Give orientation of positive margins if the specimen was oriented.

DCIS: Positive margins (= ink on tumor), give closest approach of DCIS to each margin if oriented. Describe extent of margin involvement (e.g., unifocal, multifocal, extensive, or give number of slides with margin involvement). Give orientation of positive margins if the specimen was oriented.
LCIS: Margins are not given (recognized to be multifocal and bilateral).

- **Treatment Effect:** In the breast: If the patient has received preoperative therapy, the response to treatment is a strong prognostic factor. Many different systems for evaluating response have been developed (see Miller-Payne and RCB systems [Tables 15-6 and 15-7]).
  Complete response: No invasive carcinoma identified. However, make sure the prior tumor site has been identified and changes consistent with treated tumor are present (stromal fibrosis, chronic inflammation, often residual DCIS and/or calcifications).
  Partial response: Often not grossly identifiable, or only a vague firmer area is present at the tumor bed. Microscopically, residual invasive carcinoma may consist of small islands of viable-appearing tumor cells within a larger area of fibrosis.
  No or minimal response: grossly evident tumor with little or no evidence of treatment effect.
  In the lymph nodes:
  The response in lymph node metastases is more important than the response in the breast. It is preferable to document a lymph node metastasis before treatment with FNA in order to leave the metastasis in place to be able to evaluate response. Small lymph node metastases after treatment have the small prognostic significance as larger metastases.
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present. Use criteria of Rosen (Box 15-1).
- **Dermal Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** No skin present, not identified, present.
  Dermal lymph-vascular invasion is a poor prognostic factor and is often associated with carcinomas presenting clinically as inflammatory carcinoma.
- **Lymph Nodes:** Number of nodes examined (intramammary nodes are included), number of sentinel nodes, number with metastases (tumor nodules in axillary fat without an indentifiable lymph node can be counted as positive nodes).
  Size of largest metastasis, number of nodes with macrometastases, number of nodes with micrometastases, number of nodes with isolated tumor cells.
- **Extranodal Extension:** Not identified, present.
- **Method of Evaluation of Lymph Nodes:** H&E, multiple levels, immunohistochemical studies, RT-PCR.
- **Perineural Invasion:** Present or absent. This feature is of uncertain prognostic significance and is optional to report.
- **Biopsy Cavity:** Absent, present. This is important to document in specimens with a prior needle core biopsy or excision. Include relationship to any residual tumor.
- **Ancillary Studies:** Hormone receptors and HER2/neu: Determined on all invasive carcinomas. Some oncologists may request these studies for DCIS.
  Other prognostic tests may be requested by oncologists for specific cases.
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Relevant findings such as ADH, ALH, benign calcifications, radiation changes, etc.

BOX 15–1. Rosen criteria for lymphovascular invasion (LVI)

1. Lymphatic invasion must be diagnosed outside the border of the invasive carcinoma. The most common area to find LVI is within 0.1 cm of the edge of the carcinoma.
2. The tumor emboli usually do not conform exactly to the contours of the space in which they are found. In contrast, invasive carcinoma with retraction artifact mimicking LVI will have exactly the same shape.
3. Endothelial cell nuclei should be seen in the cells lining the space.
4. Lymphatics are often found adjacent to blood vessels and often partially encircle a blood vessel.

LVI may be seen in stroma between uninvolved lobules and can sometimes be mistaken for DCIS. Immunohistochemical studies for vascular antigens have not been found to be superior to the histologic evaluation of LVI.

Adapted from Rosen PP, Tumor emboli in intramammary lymphatics in breast carcinoma: Pathologic criteria for diagnosis and clinical significance, Pathol Annu 18 pt 2:215-32, 1983.

Microcalcifications

If the surgery was performed for radiologically suspicious calcifications, it is helpful to report whether or not the calcifications were formed by the carcinoma.

Present in DCIS, present in invasive carcinoma, present in nonneoplastic tissue, present in both carcinoma and benign tissue.

- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 15-2). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.
  - Grading systems: see Tables 15-3 to 15-9.

This checklist incorporates information form the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

TABLE 15-2. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF BREAST CARCINOMAS

TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	Carcinoma in situ
Tis (DCIS)	Ductal carcinoma in situ
Tis (LCIS)	Lobular carcinoma in situ
Tis (Paget)	Paget disease of the nipple *NOT* associated with invasive carcinoma and/or carcinoma in situ (DCIS and/or LCIS) in the underlying breast parenchyma. Carcinomas in the breast parenchyma associated with Paget disease are categorized based on the size and characteristics of the parenchymal disease, although the presence of Paget disease should still be noted
T1	Tumor ≤ 20 mm in greatest dimension
T1mi	Tumor ≤ 1 mm in greatest dimension (microinvasion)
T1a	Tumor > 1 mm but ≤ 0.5 cm in greatest dimension
T1b	Tumor > 5 mm but ≤ 10 mm in greatest dimension
T1c	Tumor > 10 mm but ≤ 20 mm in greatest dimension
T2	Tumor > 20 mm but ≤ 50 mm
T3	Tumor > 50 mm in greatest dimension
T4	Tumor of any size with direct extension to the chest wall and/or to the skin (ulceration or skin nodules).
Note: Invasion of the dermis alone does not qualify as T4.	
T4a	Extension to the chest wall, not including only pectoralis muscle adherence/invasion
T4b	Ulceration and/or ipsilateral satellite nodules and/or edema (including peau d'orange) of the skin, which do not meet the criteria for inflammatory carcinoma
T4c	Both T4a and T4b
T4d	Inflammatory carcinoma
Note: Inflammatory carcinoma is restricted to cases with typical skin changes involving a third or more of the skin of the breast. Although the histologic presence of invasive carcinoma invading dermal lymphatics is supportive of the diagnosis, it is not required, nor is dermal lymphatic invasion without typical clinical findings sufficient for a diagnosis of inflammatory breast cancer.	

Continued

TABLE 15–2. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF BREAST CARCINOMAS—cont'd

REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
	The axillary node staging is simplified to the following categories in the absence of information about infraclavicular lymph nodes (level III axillary), internal mammary lymph nodes, and supraclavicular lymph nodes:
pNX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed (e.g., previously removed, or not removed for pathologic study)
pN0	No regional lymph node metastasis identified histologically
pN0(i–)	No regional lymph node metastases histologically, negative IHC
pN0(i+)	Malignant cells in regional lymph node(s) no greater than 0.2 mm (detected by H&E or IHC including ITC).
pN0(mol-)	No regional lymph node metastases histologically, negative molecular findings (RT-PCR)
pN0(mol+)	Positive molecular findings (RT-PCR), but no regional lymph node metastases detected by histology or IHC
pN1mi	Micrometastasis (greater than 0.2 mm and/or more than 200 cells, but none greater than 2.0 mm)
pN1a	Metastases in 1 to 3 axillary lymph nodes, at least one metastasis greater than 2.0 mm
pN2a	Metastases in 4 to 9 axillary lymph nodes (at least one tumor deposit greater than 2.0 mm)
pN3a	Metastases in 10 or more axillary nodes (at least one tumor deposit greater than 2.0 mm)
Note: Isolated tumor cell clusters (ITCs) are defined as small clusters of cells not greater than 0.2 mm, or single tumor cells, or a cluster of fewer than 200 cells in a single histologic cross section. ITCs may be detected by routine histology or by immunohistochemical (IHC) methods. Nodes containing only ITCs are excluded form the total positive node count for purposes of N classification but should be included in the total number of nodes evaluated. The node count includes intramammary lymph nodes. When the combination of sentinel and nonsentinel nodes removed is less than a standard low axillary dissection, (less than six nodes) the (sn) modifier is used. If six or more nodes are evaluated, the modifier is not used. Cancerous nodules in the axillary fat adjacent to the breast, without histologic evidence of residual lymph node tissue, are classified as regional lymph node metastases (≥N1).	
DISTANT METASTASES	
M0	No clinical or radiographic evidence of distant metastases
cM0(i+)	No clinical or radiographic evidence of distant metastases, but deposits of molecularly or microscopically detected tumor cells in circulating blood, bone marrow, or other non-regional nodal tissue that are no larger than 0.2 mm in a patient without symptoms or signs of metastases
M1	Distant detectable metastases as determined by classic clinical and radiographic means and/or histologically proven metastases larger than 0.2 mm
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition, New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.	

PROPHYLACTIC MASTECTOMIES

Prophylactic mastectomies are simple mastectomies performed to reduce the risk of developing breast cancer. Unilateral procedures may be performed on women with contralateral carcinoma. Bilateral procedures may be performed on women at high risk for developing invasive carcinoma either due to a diagnosis of LCIS or women with an inherited susceptibility to breast cancer (BRCA1 or BRCA2 carriers). Clinically and radiologically occult invasive carcinomas are found in 3% to 15% of prophylactic mastectomies and are typically small (<1 cm).[15-17]

If there is a known palpable or radiographic abnormality, the examination should be directed towards finding and examining this area.

TABLE 15-3. NOTTINGHAM COMBINED HISTOLOGIC GRADE (THE ELSTON-ELLIS MODIFICATION OF THE SCARFF - BLOOM - RICHARDSON GRADING SYSTEM) FOR INVASIVE BREAST CARCINOMAS

FEATURE	SCORE
Tubule formation	
Majority of tumor (> 75%)	1
Moderate degree (10–75%)	2
Little or none (< 10%) *Clear lumina must be present to be scored*	3
Nuclear pleomorphism	
Small, regular uniform cells *Size of normal cells, uniform chromatin*	1
Moderate increase in size and variability *Open, vesicular nuclei with visible nucleoli*	2
Marked variation, especially large and bizarre nuclei *Vesicular with prominent, often multiple nucleoli*	3
Mitotic counts (count 10 HPFs;) (see Table 15-4)	
≤3 mitoses per mm^2	1
4–7 mitoses per mm^2	2
≥8 mitoses per mm^2	3
Assess mitotic counts at the periphery of the tumor, in most mitotically active area. Only clearly identifiable mitotic figures are counted—do not include hyperchromatic, karyorrhectic, or apoptotic nuclei. Count at least 10 fields. The number of mitoses per 10 HPFs is used to determine the score. The size of a 40 field varies widely with microscope type and with modifications (e.g., multiheaded microscopes and built-in polarizers). The size of the field should be measured with a stage micrometer and the mitotic counts adjusted. See Chapter 9 for information on measuring field sizes.	

OVERALL TUMOR GRADE		
3–5 points	Grade I	Well differentiated
6–7 points	Grade II	Moderately differentiated
8–9 points	Grade III	Poorly differentiated
Note: All tumors should be graded regardless of histologic type. Overall, approximately 20% of cancers should be grade 1, 40% grade II, and 40% grade III. All tubular carcinomas are well differentiated and all medullary carcinomas are poorly differentiated. Other histologic types vary in grade.		

In the absence of a known abnormality, the breast is thinly sectioned and examined in the fresh state. All areas grossly suspicious for in situ or invasive carcinoma should be submitted. In the absence of grossly suspicious areas, one to two blocks of tissue per quadrant and one section of the nipple may be submitted for microscopic examination. Lymph nodes should not be present but should be searched for and submitted if present.

REDUCTION MAMMOPLASTY

Reduction mammoplasties are almost always bilateral and consist of fragments of breast tissue with attached skin. The nipples are not present. The procedure is considered therapeutic if the specimen weighs over 300 grams (e.g., to relieve back pain) but cosmetic if the specimen weighs less than this. The weight is important to document, as some insurance policies will not pay for cosmetic surgery.

Incidental carcinomas are found rarely (approximately 2 to 4 per 1000 cases). The two sides must be clearly labeled and designated tissue submitted separately from each side. If the side is not specified, the woman may require bilateral mastectomies if an incidental carcinoma is found.

TABLE 15-4. SCORING MITOTIC COUNTS

FIELD DIAMETER (mm)	AREA (mm^2)	NUMBER OF MITOSES PER 10 FIELDS CORRESPONDING TO:		
		SCORE 1	SCORE 2	SCORE 3
0.40	0.125	Up to 4	5 to 9	10 or more
0.41	0.132	Up to 4	5 to 9	10 or more
0.42	0.139	Up to 5	6 to 9	11 or more
0.43	0.145	Up to 5	6 to 10	11 or more
0.44	0.152	Up to 5	6 to 11	12 or more
0.45	0.159	Up to 5	6 to 11	12 or more
0.46	0.166	Up to 6	7 to 12	13 or more
0.47	0.173	Up to 6	7 to 12	13 or more
0.48	0.181	Up to 6	7 to 13	14 or more
0.49	0.189	Up to 6	7 to13	14 or more
0.50	0.196	Up to 7	8 to 14	15 or more
0.51	0.204	Up to 7	8 to 14	15 or more
0.52	0.212	Up to 7	8 to 15	16 or more
0.53	0.221	Up to 8	9 to 16	17 or more
0.54	0.229	Up to 8	9 to 16	17 or more
0.55	0.238	Up to 8	9 to 17	18 or more
0.56	0.246	Up to 8	9 to 17	18 or more
0.57	0.255	Up to 9	10 to 18	19 or more
0.58	0.264	Up to 9	10 to 19	20 or more
0.59	0.273	Up to 9	10 to 19	20 or more
0.60	0.283	Up to 10	11 to 20	21 or more
0.61	0.292	Up to 10	11 to 21	22 or more
0.62	0.302	Up to 11	12 to 22	23 or more
0.63	0.312	Up to 11	12 to 22	23 or more
0.64	0.322	Up to 11	12 to 23	24 or more
0.65	0.332	Up to 12	13 to 24	25 or more
0.66	0.342	Up to 12	13 to 24	25 or more
0.67	0.353	Up to 12	13 to 25	26 or more
0.68	0.363	Up to 13	14 to 26	27 or more
0.69	0.374	Up to 13	14 to 26	27 or more

Assess mitotic counts at the periphery of the tumor, in the most mitotically active area. Only clearly identifiable mitotic figures are counted – do not include hyperchromatic, karyorrhectic, or apoptotic nuclei. Count at least 10 fields. The number of mitoses per 10 HPFs is used to determine the score. The size of a 40× field varies widely with microscope type and with modifications (e.g., multiheaded microscopes and built-in polarizers). The size of the field should be measured and the mitotic counts adjusted. See in Chapter 9, "Measuring with the Microscope," for information on measuring field sizes. See the CAP protocol for the examination of specimens from patients with invasive carcinoma of the breast (www.cap.org).

TABLE 15–5. NUCLEAR GRADE OF DUCTAL CARCINOMA IN SITU

FEATURE	LOW GRADE	INTERMEDIATE GRADE	HIGH GRADE
Pleomorphism	Monomorphic	Intermediate	Marked
Size	1.5 to 2 × the size of a normal RBC or duct epithelial cell nucleus	Intermediate	>2.5 × the size of a normal RBC or duct epithelial cell nucleus
Chromatin	Diffuse, finely dispersed	Intermediate	Vesicular with irregular chromatin
Nucleoli	Only occasional	Intermediate	Prominent, often multiple
Mitoses	Only occasional	Intermediate	May be frequent
Orientation	Polarized towards luminal spaces	Intermediate	Usually not polarized toward luminal space

TABLE 15–6. THE MILLER-PAYNE GRADING SYSTEM FOR RESPONSE TO CHEMOTHERAPY

RESPONSE	DEFINITION
Grade 1	No change or some alteration to individual malignant cells but no reduction in overall cellularity.
Grade 2	A minor loss of tumor cells but overall cellularity still high; up to 30% loss.
Grade 3	Between an estimated 30% and 90% reduction in tumor cells.
Grade 4	A marked disappearance of tumor cells such that only small clusters or widely dispersed individual cells remain; more than 90% loss of tumor cells.
Grade 5	No malignant cells identifiable in sections from the site of the tumor. DCIS may be present.

From Ogston KN, et al, A new histological grading system to assess response of breast carcinomas to primary chemotherapy: prognostic significance and survival, The Breast 12:320-327, 2003.
This system does not include lymph node metastases. The presence of lymph node metastases, and the response to treatment in metastases, is more important for prognosis than the response in the breast itself for women with positive lymph nodes.

A unilateral reduction mammoplasty is occasionally performed in a woman who has had surgery for carcinoma on the contralateral side to obtain a balanced cosmetic result. Additional sections should be taken from such specimens because of the increased risk of carcinoma in these patients. Approximately one third of these patients will have a contralateral carcinoma (in most cases DCIS or LCIS).

1. Weigh the specimen. Measure the entire specimen in aggregate. Record the total number of fragments, number of fragments with skin, skin color, and range of greatest dimension of fragments.
2. Section and palpate each fragment for lesions.
3. Submit two sections per side including breast parenchyma and skin. Any suspicious areas are sampled.

Additional sections are submitted if the patient has risk factors for breast carcinoma (e.g., a previous history of breast cancer or a strong family history). Be suspicious if one side is markedly different in size than the other or if only one side is submitted. This may indicate that there has been a prior surgical procedure performed for cancer.

SAMPLE DICTATION

The specimen is received fresh in two parts, each labeled with the patient's name and unit number.

The first part labeled "left breast" is a 350 gram specimen consisting of five fragments of breast parenchyma with three of the fragments containing white/tan skin (in aggregate 25 × 10 × 10 cm; skin measuring up to 4 cm in size). A nipple is not present. The breast parenchyma consists of approximately 60% dense white tissue and the remainder yellow/white unremarkable adipose tissue. No gross lesions are present.

TABLE 15–7. RESIDUAL CANCER BURDEN (RCB) SYSTEM*

The following information is required to determine RCB:
- The size of the tumor bed in two dimensions.
- The overall cellularity of residual carcinoma (both invasive and DCIS) within the tumor bed, estimated as a percent.
- The percent of the carcinoma that is DCIS. The RCB value is based on only the residual invasive carcinoma.
- The number of positive lymph nodes.
- The size of the largest lymph node metastasis.

This information is entered into a weighted formula to calculate a continuous value – this can be performed at the website given below. The values are divided into four classes:

CLASS	RESPONSE
RCB 0	Pathologic complete response (no residual invasive carcinoma or LN metastasis)
RCB I	Major response
RCB II	Minor response
RCB III	No or minimal response

See www.mdanderson.org/breastcancer_RCB for an online calculator.
Unlike the Miller-Payne system, which compares changes in cellularity in the breast carcinoma, the RCB system evaluates the extent of residual carcinoma in the breast and lymph nodes without regard to the cellularity of the pre-treatment carcinoma.
If positive nodes are removed prior to treatment, RCB cannot be determined, because the response of the metastasis to treatment is unknown.

TABLE 15–8. FIBROADENOMA AND GRADING OF PHYLLODES TUMORS[a]

FEATURE	FIBROADENOMA	LOW GRADE ("BENIGN")	INTERMEDIATE GRADE ("BORDERLINE")	HIGH GRADE ("MALIGNANT")
Stromal cellularity	Paucicellular to mild	Mildly to moderately cellular	Moderate to markedly cellular	Usually highly cellular
Nuclear pleomorphism	Minimal	Minimal to mild	More evident	May be marked
Mitotic rate[b]	Usually absent or very rare	Usually present but infrequent (e.g., 0 to 1/10 HPF)	Slightly increased (e.g., 2 to 5/10 HPF)	Frequently have a high mitotic rate (e.g., >5/10 HPF)
Stromal overgrowth (absence of epithelium in cellular areas)	Absent (but may be hyalinized with atrophic or absent epithelium)	Absent or focal	Often present	Often marked (may be difficult to distinguish from a sarcoma)
Borders	Circumscribed (fibroadenomatoid changes may be ill-defined)	Usually circumscribed and pushing	Usually has some invasion into stroma	Usually has marked invasion into stroma
Heterologous elements	May have benign lipomatous and osseous metaplasia	May have benign lipomatous and osseous metaplasia	May have benign lipomatous and osseous metaplasia	May have malignant stromal components (e.g., rhabdomyosarcoma, liposarcoma, angiosarcoma)

[a]There is no generally accepted grading system for phyllodes tumors. The WHO system uses a three category system (benign, borderline, and malignant) based on the features in the table.[12]
[b]In published series, mitotic rates have not been standardized for the size of the microscopic field.
Due to the fact that rare "benign" phyllodes tumors have been reported to have metastasized and resulted in the death of patients and because the majority of "malignant" or high-grade lesions are cured by local therapy, diagnostic terms implying clinical behavior should be used with caution.[13]
Some pathologists prefer to separate phyllodes into three grades (low, intermediate, and high).

TABLE 15–9. BREAST ANGIOSARCOMA - GRADE

	LOW	INTERMEDIATE	HIGH
Histologic Features			
Endothelial tufting	Minimal	Present	Prominent
Papillary formations	Absent	Focal	Present
Solid and spindle cell foci	Absent	Absent or minimal	Present
Mitoses	Rare or absent	Present in papillary areas	Numerous, even in low-grade areas
Blood lakes	Absent	Absent	Present
Necrosis	Absent	Absent	Present
Clinical Features			
% of patients	40%	19%	41%
Median age	43	34	29
5- and 10-year survival	76%	70%	15%
Median DFS	15 years	12 years	15 months

Breast angiosarcomas in younger women are usually primary (and high grade) and in older women usually related to prior treatment for breast carcinoma (s/p radiation therapy or, less often, therapy-related edema).
Modified from Rosen PP, Rosen's Breast Pathology, 2nd edition. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, 2001. Other authors have not found grade to be an important prognostic factor.[14]

Cassettes #1-2: Breast parenchyma and skin, 4 frags, RSS.

The second part labeled "right breast" is a 375 gram specimen consisting of six fragments of breast parenchyma with three of the fragments bearing white/tan skin (in aggregate (27 × 11 × 10 cm; skin measuring up to 5 cm in size). A nipple is not present. There is a 2 cm area of small simple cysts measuring up to 0.4 cm in size in the breast tissue. The remainder of the breast tissue consists of approximately 60% dense white tissue and the remainder unremarkable yellow/white adipose tissue.

Cassette #3-4: Breast parenchyma including area of cysts and skin, 5 frags, RSS.

DUCT DISSECTIONS/NIPPLE BIOPSIES

Duct dissections are usually performed to evaluate nipple discharge without a palpable mass. The most common lesion found is a large duct papilloma, but occasionally papillary or micropapillary DCIS may be the cause of the discharge. A duct dissection specimen is usually small, and large ducts may be grossly visible. Ducts look like flaccid white tubes approximately 0.2 to 0.3 cm in diameter. Large papillomas may be evident grossly as lobulated outgrowths from the duct wall. Ink the outer portion of the specimen. If a ductal lesion is evident grossly, submit the ductal margin. Take cross-sections across the duct(s) and submit the entire specimen. Orient all sections if orientation is provided.

A nipple wedge excision (which includes skin) may be performed to treat a recurrent subareolar abscess.[18] Skin should be identified grossly and placed in designated cassettes as it may be difficult to distinguish skin from squamous metaplasia in tissue sections. If the lesion is recurrent, tissue may be sent for aerobic and anaerobic bacterial cultures as secondary infections may occur.

A nipple biopsy may be performed to evaluate possible Paget disease (see Table 7-18).

Small skin biopsies may be performed to evaluate possible inflammatory breast carcinoma. If carcinoma is not seen and another cause for the clinical appearance is not found (e.g., infection or an inflammatory dermatitis), inflammatory carcinoma is not excluded, as dermal lymphatic involvement by carcinoma in such cases can be very focal.

BREAST IMPLANTS

Explanted permanent implants should be well documented in the surgical pathology report due to the concern over possible long-term complications. The Safe Medical Devices Act (SMDA) went into effect in August of 1993. This act requires that certain medical devices (including breast implants) used after this date must be tracked by the manufacturer as well as by physicians and hospitals. Current information about implants can be found at www.fda.gov/cdrh/breastimplants/.

Implants are of two general types:

1. **Tissue expanders** are placed temporarily after a surgical procedure for malignancy. They are removed within days to weeks. These implants are almost always saline, have a textured surface, and a large port (a circular metallic disc) for changing the volume. These implants are unlikely to be involved in litigation and do not need to be photographed unless they were removed due to a complication (most likely infection).
2. **Permanent implants** are commonly placed for cosmetic reasons, are usually bilateral, and are filled with either silicone or saline. These implants may be removed due to complications (rupture, calcification, capsular contracture, infection), systemic complaints attributed to the implant, or because of patient concerns over safety. Implants that are removed may be requested for litigation. All such implants should be photographed.

The gross description includes:

- **Size:** Three dimensions
- **Shape:** Usually ovoid. If permanent folds or creases are present these are documented in the dictation and photographs taken.
- **Surface appearance:** Smooth or textured, presence or absence of calcifications and/or adherent tissue. A tacky (sticky) surface is usually indicative of silicone bleed through an intact shell. Implants with thicker shells or saline implants will have a dry smooth surface. The shell for both saline and silicone implants is most commonly made of silicone polymers.
- **Contents:** Silicone is more viscous than saline. Saline will freeze if placed in a freezer whereas silicone will not. However, this should not be done to distinguish the two because the shell may be damaged by freezing.
- **Color of contents:** Usually translucent or with a slight yellowish cast. If the contents are opaque, cloudy, or colored (e.g., red or brown) this is an unusual finding that may indicate infection or degradation.
- **Single or double lumen:** Some implants have an inner and outer chamber. One may be filled with silicone and the other with saline.
- **Presence of a patch:** A Dacron patch was present on some of the earliest implants.
- **Presence of a fill port:** Some saline implants will have a large port (if intended for temporary use) or a small port (if intended for permanent use) that can be used to alter the total volume. Silicone implants do not have a port.
- **Gross evidence of leakage:** A leaking saline implant will be completely collapsed and the surface will not be sticky. A leaking silicone implant may be intact or completely ruptured. In the latter case the specimen may consist of thick viscous sticky silicone gel with portions of the shell floating within it.
- **Source of leakage:** Tacky surface, pinpoint holes, or gross tears. Give the size of any tears present.
- **Identifying marks:** Most implants were not identified with the manufacturer's name. Some will have a name, number, or design.

Take three pictures (more if necessary) demonstrating identifying marks and gross abnormalities of permanent implants (not tissue expanders).

Soft tissue removed with the implant is carefully examined for gross evidence of foreign material. Essentially all implants release small amounts of silicone (i.e., "gel bleed"), even if leakage is not apparent grossly. Submit 1 to 2 cassettes and sample all tissue with grossly different appearances. Tumors may be difficult to detect clinically and radiologically in the presence of implants and must be diligently searched for in these specimens. Silicone granulomas can be very hard gritty nodular masses closely simulating the gross appearance and texture of carcinoma.

Some older implants were covered with a polyurethane shell. This shell is textured and rapidly becomes incorporated into the surrounding fibrous capsule. The capsular material may appear shiny if this material is present.

SAMPLE DICTATION

The specimen is received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number, in four parts.

The first part labeled "right implant" consists of an ovoid implant with a smooth dry surface and viscous translucent contents (9 × 9 × 4 cm). No gross ruptures, adherent tissue, or identifying marks are present. Photographs are taken.

The second part labeled "right capsule" consists of six fragments of tan/white fibrous tissue measuring in aggregate 7 × 5 × 4 cm. Most of the fragments have a smooth surface and an opposite surface which is irregular and is comprised of yellow/tan soft tissue. The fibrous areas measure up to 0.8 cm in thickness.

Cassettes #1 and 2: four frags, RSS.

The third part, labeled "left implant, ruptured," consists of three portions of synthetic translucent material measuring 9 × 9 × 0.3 cm, 9 × 7 × 0.3 cm, and 3 × 2 × 2 cm grossly consistent with the outer shell of a breast implant. No identifying marks are present. Associated with these fragments is viscous tacky translucent material measuring approximately 9 × 9 × 4 cm. Photographs are taken.

The fourth part, labeled "left capsule," consists of approximately fifteen fragments of tan/white soft tissue (in aggregate 6 × 5 × 5 cm). Two of the fragments have poorly circumscribed areas that are tan/grey, gritty in consistency, and measure 0.8 cm in greatest dimension. Some of the remainder of the fragments have a smooth surface and are grossly consistent with portions of the capsule.

Cassettes #3 and 4: gritty areas, four frags, ESS.
Cassettes #5 and 6: areas of capsule, RSS.

GYNECOMASTIA

The specimens are usually subcutaneous mastectomies. The skin and nipple are not present. The specimen is weighed and measured. Serially section the specimen and carefully palpate for gross lesions. Two sections are submitted unless gross lesions are present. If a mastectomy is performed in a male for breast carcinoma, it is processed as for a mastectomy in a female (see previous section).

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Cardiovascular Specimens

16

Information gained by the gross examination of some cardiac tissues (e.g., valves and hearts) is often of considerable diagnostic importance; gross findings are often more critical than microscopic features in rendering a specific etiologic diagnosis.

For general information on diagnostic and technical considerations, see Silver[1] and Schoen et al.[2]

ENDOMYOCARDIAL BIOPSIES

Biopsies of the heart taken percutaneously by catheter (typically from the right ventricle) are most often performed to evaluate graft status in cardiac transplant patients or to evaluate cardiomyopathies. Rarely, an endomyocardial biopsy will be performed to diagnose an intracavitary or myocardial tumor.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Describe the specimen, including the number of fragments (carefully check lid and sides of container), size, and color (myocardium = tan, scar = white, clot = red/brown).
   - Transplant biopsies (evaluation for rejection): At least 3 or 4 fragments of ≥50% myocardium for light microscopy.
   - Cardiomyopathies: At least 3 or 4 fragments of ≥50% myocardium for light microscopy and, in some cases, additional biopsies for EM and for freezing.
2. Wrap in lens paper and submit in one cassette. Three H&E stained sections are routinely cut on all tissue received in formalin. Masson's trichrome, iron, or amyloid stains may be ordered if indicated.

Additional biopsies may be received for special studies:

- Electron microscopy: Tissue is fixed in glutaraldehyde (Karnovsky's fixative).
- Immunofluorescence or freezing: Tissue is sent fresh on saline moistened gauze.

SPECIAL STUDIES FOR SPECIFIC DISEASES

Anthracycline (Adriamycin) Cardiotoxicity. Semithin (plastic) sections prepared prior to electron microscopy are necessary for the evaluation of myocyte vacuolization and myofibrillar lysis.

Amyloidosis. All forms of amyloidosis are characterized by deposition of extracellular fibrils resulting from protein misfolding into an extended β-pleated sheet. The β-pleated sheet conformation can be highlighted by Congo red staining, which shows apple-green birefringence under polarized light; amyloid also has a distinct color pattern when stained with sulfated Alcian Blue (amyloid: sea-foam green; myocytes: yellow; connective tissue: red-purple). The most common types affecting the heart are:

- Primary (AL) amyloid: immunoglobulin light chains
- Senile cardiac amyloid: transthyretin (or less commonly atrial natriuretic peptide)
- Hereditary amyloid: mutated transthyretin protein
- Chronic inflammation: SAA-type amyloid

Determining the type of amyloid protein deposited has become increasingly important for patient treatment and prognosis.

Typing of amyloid deposition requires examination by immunofluorescence (IF) and immunohistochemistry. In addition to myocardial biopsy fragments submitted in formalin, an additional piece should be submitted fresh for IF. Order summary for cases of amyloidosis:

- Histochemical stains: Sulfated alcian blue (SAB) and Trichrome
- Immunofluorescence: IgG, IgA, IgM, kappa, lambda, protein A (serum amyloid-associated protein), and albumin (negative control)
- Immunohistochemistry on formalin fixed tissue: Transthyretin.

Hemochromatosis and Hemosiderosis. Iron deposition can be diagnosed using iron stains on fixed tissue.

Metabolic Disease. Frozen tissue may be useful for the evaluation of metabolic disease.

Mitochondrial Myopathies. Electron microscopy is necessary for evaluation. However, the changes in the mitochondria are typically nonspecific.

Hypertrophic Cardiomyopathy. This is more appropriately diagnosed by clinical imaging studies (e.g., echocardiography). Biopsy material will almost never reveal diagnosable myocyte disarray. Even if disarray is present, it is not pathognomonic for hypertrophic cardiomyopathy.

PATHOLOGIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST

Nontransplant

- **Site:** Right ventricle
- **Adequacy:** At least 3 to 4 fragments of evaluable ≥50% myocardium
- **Myocyte hypertrophy:** Present or absent, mild, moderate, or severe
- **Interstitial and/or perivascular fibrosis:** Present or absent, mild, moderate, or severe
- **Subendocardial myocyte vacuolization:** Present or absent, focal or diffuse (suggestive of chronic ischemia)
- **Replacement fibrosis:** Present or absent (consistent with healed ischemic injury)
- **Myocardial infarction:** Present or absent, acute or organizing
- **Scattered necrotic myocytes/inflammation:** Present or absent (consistent with catecholamine effect)
- **Endocardial thickening:** Present or absent, focal or diffuse
- **Active myocarditis:** Present or absent, focal lymphocytic, diffuse lymphocytic, eosinophilic (hypersensitivity), giant cell, toxoplasma, CMV, granulomatous
- **Mesothelial cells:** Present or absent, indicates cardiac perforation
- **Other:** Amyloid, iron deposition, carcinoid plaque, anthracycline cardiotoxicity, old biopsy site, contraction bands, thrombus

Transplant

- **Site:** Right ventricle
- **Adequacy:** At least 3 or 4 fragments of evaluable ≥50% myocardium should be present
- **Time since transplantation:** Interval since operation
- **Rejection:** Give ISHLT grade (Table 16-1)[3]
- **Coagulation necrosis:** Present or absent, focal, multifocal, confluent
- **Healing ischemic injury:** Present or absent, focal, multifocal, confluent
- **Subendocardial myocyte vacuolization:** Present or absent, mild, moderate, or severe (suggestive of chronic ischemia)
- **Endocardial infiltrate:** Quilty lesions (A and B lesions are no longer distinguished)
- **Mesothelial cells :** Present or absent, indicates cardiac perforation
- **Other:** Old biopsy site, fat necrosis, foreign body giant cell reaction, dystrophic calcification

TABLE 16–1. INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY FOR HEART AND LUNG TRANSPLANTATION (ISHLT) GRADING OF CARDIAC REJECTION

LEVEL	DIAGNOSIS
Acute Cellular Rejection	
0R	No rejection
1R, mild	Interstitial and/or perivascular infiltrate with up to 1 focus of myocyte damage
2R, moderate	Two or more foci of infiltrate with associated myocyte damage
3R, severe	Diffuse infiltrate with multifocal myocyte damage +/- edema, +/- hemorrhage +/– vasculitis
Acute Antibody-Mediated Rejection (AMR)*	
AMR 0	Negative for acute antibody-mediated rejection No histologic or immunopathologic features of AMR
AMR 1	Positive for AMR Histologic features of AMR Positive immunofluorescence or immunoperoxidase staining for AMR (positive CD68, C4d)

*Acute antibody-mediated rejection (AMR) remains controversial with a highly varied incidence between transplant centers and no consensus on its recognition and diagnosis either by histopathologic or immunologic testing. If there is suspicion of AMR, either clinically or by proposed histologic criteria, biopsies may be analyzed by immunofluorescence or immunohistochemistry for (1) immunoglobulin (IgG, IgM, and/or IgA) plus complement deposition (C3d, C4d, and/or C1q) in capillaries, (2) CD68 staining of macrophages within capillaries, and/or (3) C4d staining of capillaries. Treatment of patients with AMR typically requires the presence of hemodynamic compromise and the presence of circulating HLA antibodies in addition to positive biopsy findings.
Note: "R" indicates the 2004 revision.
Adapted from Stewart S, Winters GL, Fishbein MC, et al: Revision of the 1990 working formulation for the standardization of nomenclature in the diagnosis of heart rejection. The Journal of Heart and Lung Transplantation 24(11):1710-1720, 2005.

NATIVE MITRAL AND AORTIC VALVES

Critical information relative to removed valves is obtained from the gross examination and dissection of the valves. Although all specimens (excluding mechanical valves) are sectioned, histologic study is particularly valuable to address a specific question such as endocarditis. All prosthetic valves, intact native valves, and any unusual lesions (e.g., vegetations or endocardial fibroelastomas) should be photographed, as close-up as possible. Document both acute and underlying chronic lesions. For more information see Schoen.[4]

Native aortic valves are most frequently replaced due to calcific degeneration (valves with either two or three cusps). Mitral valves are replaced for rheumatic valve disease or because of myxomatous degeneration. In most cases, the most important diagnostic information is derived from the gross examination of the specimen.

SPECIMEN EXAMINATION, DICTATION, AND PROCESSING

1. Examine grossly and determine type of valve (aortic or mitral).
   - Leaflets or cusps: Number of recognizable leaflets (atrioventricular valves) or cusps (semilunar valves), size, consistency (thickened, fibrotic, calcified, thinned, redundant [ballooned], perforated), additional fragments. If an abnormality is present describe the distribution (focal or diffuse), surface (atrial or ventricular or both), and location (free edge or base).
   - Commissures: Relationship to each other (fused, completely, partially).
   - Chordae tendineae (tendinous cords): Length (shortened, elongated), status (intact, thickened, ruptured, fused). Mitral valves, but not aortic valves, have cords.
   - Papillary muscles: Dimensions, abnormalities (hypertrophied, elongated, scarred).

- Vegetations: Color, size, location, consistency (firm, friable), presence or absence of destruction of underlying tissue.
- Endocarditis is a life-threatening disease and any indication that acute endocarditis is present should be immediately brought to the attention of the clinician. Order Gram and MSS if there is any possibility of endocarditis, either from clinical information or after gross or histologic examination.

2. Submit one cassette with representative sections taken from the free edge to the annulus. It may be necessary to decalcify some specimens.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

See Figures 16-1, 16-2, and 16-3 and Tables 16-2 and 16-3.

Degenerative Calcific Aortic Valve Stenosis. Calcific deposits are present within the cusps, primarily at the base (attachment margin). The free cuspal edges are usually not involved. The cusps may be heavily fibrosed and thickened but are not fused. Congenital bicuspid valves are predisposed to degenerative calcification. Usually one of the cusps is larger with a midline raphe resulting from the incomplete separation of two cusps. Less frequently the cusps may be of equal size. The raphe is often the site of extensive calcification.

Mitral Annular Calcification. Calcifications occur in the annulus of the mitral valve. The chordae are uninvolved.

Myxomatous Degeneration of the Mitral Valve. The leaflet is enlarged, thickened and redundant. The cords may be elongated and thinned and sometimes ruptured.

Aortic Post-inflammatory Scarring (Rheumatic Type). The cusps are fused at the commissures. There is diffuse thickening and calcification is rather evenly distributed and includes the free cuspal edges. The mitral valve is virtually always involved as well.

Mitral Post-inflammatory Scarring (Rheumatic Type). The leaflets are thickened and there is commissural fusion and shortening. The cords are thickened and fused. Calcification is often present.

Endocarditis. In acute bacterial endocarditis, large friable vegetations are found on the valves and may be single or multiple. They may extend onto the chordae. There is often perforation or erosion of the underlying valve. The vegetations of nonbacterial thrombotic endocarditis (NBTE) are small, bland, and typically attached at the line of closure on the flow surfaces of the valve. Systemic lupus may be associated with small bland vegetations that can be located on both surfaces of the valve or on the cords (Libman-Sacks endocarditis).

SAMPLE DICTATION FOR CALCIFIC DEGENERATION OF THE AORTIC VALVE

The specimen, received fresh, labeled with the patient's name, unit number, and "aortic valve," consists of three semilunar valve cusps, measuring 2.5, 2.6, and 2.3 cm along the free edges and 1.0 cm from free edge to base. The outflow surfaces of all three cusps contain numerous irregular yellow/tan calcific deposits up to 1.0 cm. There is no evidence of commissural fusion. No vegetations are present. The specimen is fixed and decalcified prior to processing.

Micro 1: Aortic valve cusp, 3 frags, RSS.

SAMPLE DICTATION FOR MYXOMATOUS DEGENERATION OF THE MITRAL VALVE

The specimen, received fresh, labeled with the patient's name, unit number, and "mitral valve leaflet," consists of an atrioventricular valve leaflet measuring 4.0 cm along the free edge and 1.4 cm from free edge to base. There is diffuse myxomatous thickening of the leaflet which appears billowing and redundant. The chordae are thin and elongated and there is rupture of one chorda.

Micro 1: Mitral valve leaflet, 3 frags, RSS.

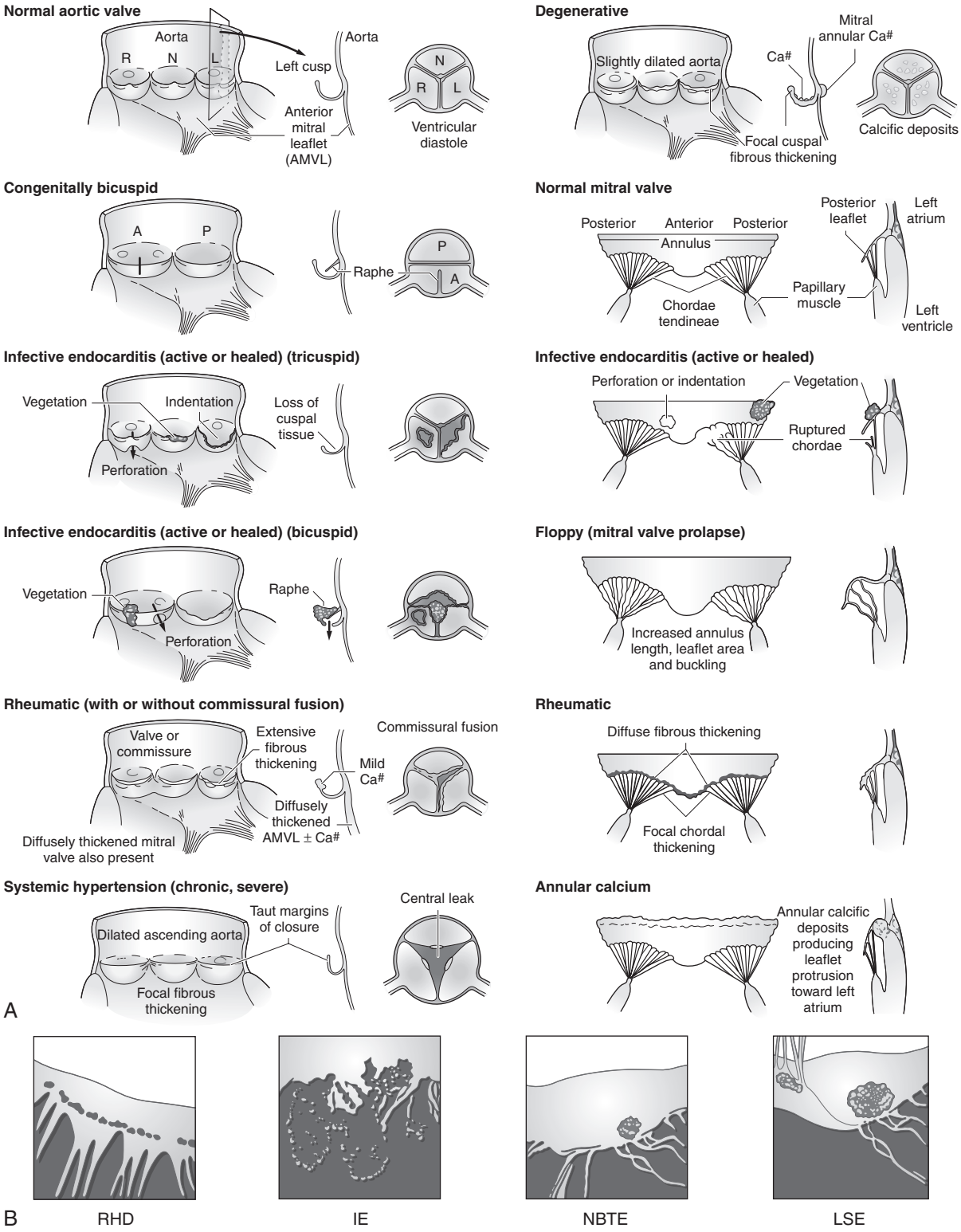

Figure 16–1. **A, B,** Evaluation of operatively excised cardiac valves: etiologic determination of valvular heart disease. RHD, rheumatic heart disease; IE, infective endocarditis; NBTE, nonbacterial thrombotic endocarditis; LSE, Libman-Sacks endocarditis. *(**A** modified from Waller BF, et al: Cardiol Clin 2:687, 1984. **B** modified from Schoen FJ: The heart. In Cotran RS, Kumar V, Robbins SL [eds]: Robbins Pathologic Basis of Disease, 5th ed., Philadelphia, W.B. Saunders, 1994, p. 554.)*

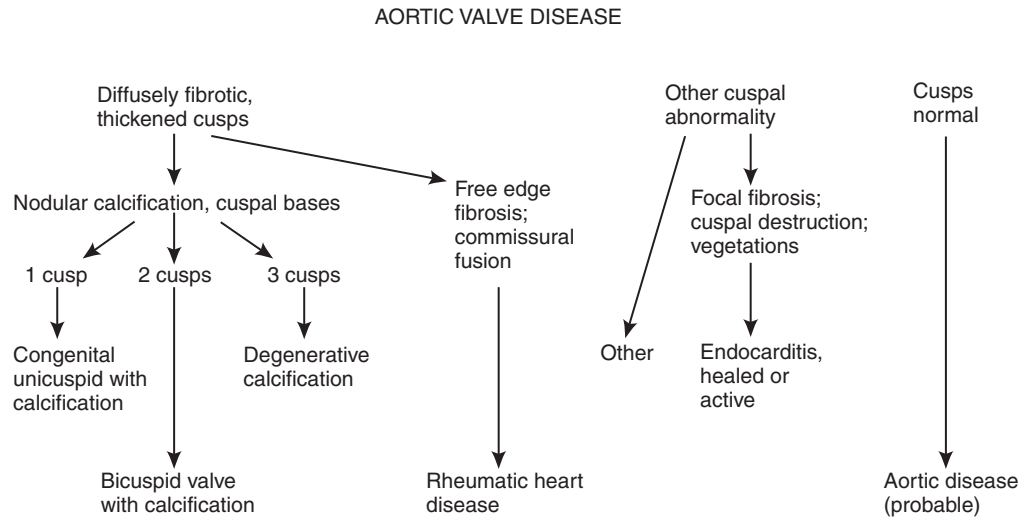

Figure 16–2. Overview of major diagnostic considerations in aortic valve disease. *(From Schoen FJ: Evaluation of surgically removed natural and prosthetic heart valves. In Virmani R, Fenoglio JJ [eds]: Cardiovascular Pathology. Philadelphia, W.B. Saunders, 1991, p. 404.)*

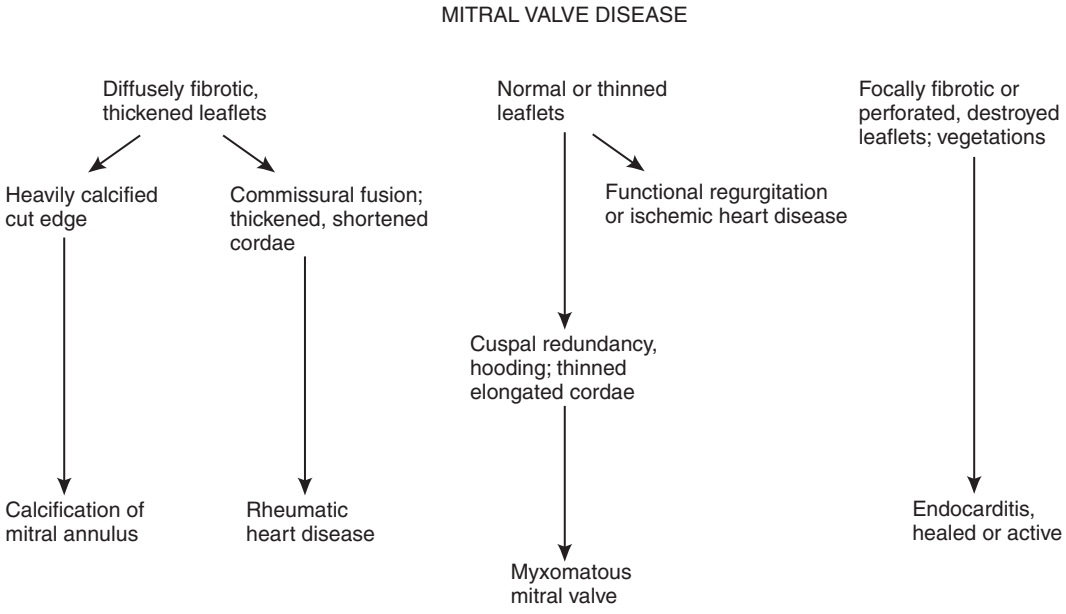

Figure 16–3. Overview of major diagnostic considerations in mitral valve disease. *From Schoen FJ: Evaluation of surgically removed natural and prosthetic heart valves. In Virmani R, Fenoglio JJ [eds]: Cardiovascular Pathology. Philadelphia, W.B. Saunders, 1991, p. 404.)*

SAMPLE DICTATION FOR RHEUMATIC MITRAL VALVE

The specimen, received fresh, labeled with the patient's name, unit number, and "mitral valve leaflet," consists of an atrioventricular valve leaflet measuring 3.5 cm along the free edge and 1.5 cm from free edge to base. The leaflet is diffusely thickened to 0.4 cm and fibrotic. The surface of the leaflet is white/tan and smooth without vegetations or perforations. Focal calcific deposits are located toward the annulus. The attached chordae are thickened, measuring up to 1.8 cm in length and 0.2 cm in thickness, and are focally fused.

Micro 1: Mitral valve leaflet, 3 frags, RSS.

TABLE 16–2. GROSS MORPHOLOGIC ASSESSMENT OF ABNORMAL CARDIAC VALVULAR FUNCTION

PATHOLOGIC FEATURE	STENOTIC VALVE	PURELY REGURGITANT VALVE
For All Valves		
Valve weight	Increased	Normal, or slightly increased or decreased
Fibrous thickening	Diffuse	Diffuse, focal, or none
Calcific deposits	None to heavy	Minimal (if any)
Tissue loss (perforation, indentation)	None	May be present
Vegetations	Minimal	May be present
Commissural fusion	May be present	Minimal (if any)
Annular circumference	Normal	Normal or increased
For Aortic Valves		
Number of cusps	One to three	Two or three
For Mitral (or Tricuspid) Valves		
Abnormal papillary muscles	No	May be present
Chordae tendineae		
Fusion	Usually present	Absent
Elongation	Absent	May be present
Shortening	Usually present	May be present
Rupture	Absent	May be present

From Schoen FJ, Surgical pathology of removed natural and prosthetic cardiac valves, Hum Pathol 18:558, 1987.

PATHOLOGIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST

- **Type of valve:** Aortic, pulmonary, mitral, tricuspid
- **Disease process:** Calcific degeneration; congenital bicuspid aortic valve; myxomatous degeneration; post-inflammatory scarring, rheumatic type; endocarditis
- **Papillary muscle:** Infarcted or scarred
- **Vegetations:** Present or absent, type

PROSTHETIC HEART VALVES

A good reference for the examination of prosthetic heart valves is Schoen.[5]

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Identify the type of prosthesis by using Figures 16-4, 16-5, 16-6, and 16-7 and Table 16-4. Measure the external diameter of the outside sewing ring. The type of valve is included in the diagnosis. Commonly used valves are either Hancock or Carpentier-Edwards porcine bioprostheses, bovine pericardial bioprostheses, or St. Jude bileaflet (all carbon) valves.
2. Describe any tissue overgrowth of the sewing ring.
3. For mechanical valves, also describe any asymmetry, notches, or cracks of any of the components. Describe any impairment in motion of the components.

TABLE 16–3. ETIOLOGIC ASSESSMENT OF VALVULAR HEART DISEASE

	SENILE DEGENERATION	MYXOMATOUS DEGENERATION	RHEUMATIC	INFECTIVE	SECONDARY
Gross Features					
Leaflet/cuspal thickening	0	0/+	+	0	0
Calcification	+	0	0/+	0	0
Commissural/ chordal fusion	0	0	+	0	0
Leaflet/cuspal redundancy	0	+	0	0	0
Leaflet/cuspal defects	0	0	0	+	0
Chordal rupture	0	0/+	0	0/+	0
Histologic Features					
Preservation of layered architecture	+	+	0	0/+	+
GAG accumulation in spongiosa	0	+	0	0	0/+
Thinned fibrosa	0	+	0	0	0
Neovascularization	0	0	0/+	0/+	0
Superficial fibrosis only	0/+	0/+	0	0/+	0/+

0, absent; +, present; 0/+, present in some cases; GAG, glycosaminoglycan.
From Schoen FJ, Surgical pathology of removed natural and prosthetic cardiac valves, Hum Pathol 18:558, 1987.

4. For tissue valves, describe any tears or perforations of the cusps and/or any impairment of cusp motion.
5. Describe tissue overgrowth, vegetations including color, site (surface of valve, sewing ring), size, consistency (firm, friable), presence or absence of destruction of underlying material.
6. Describe any calcific deposits and their location.
7. Photograph all valves. Radiograph tissue valves, but not mechanical valves, to evaluate the degree of calcification. Calcification is graded on a scale from 0 to 4 using the specimen radiograph.
8. Submit a portion of bioprosthetic valve cusps for histologic examination.

IMPORTANT: Submit tissue on the sewing ring adjacent to ***all*** valve prostheses, as infection of the sewing ring annulus may be the only manifestation of endocarditis in mechanical valves, and also occurs in bioprosthetic valves. In cases of suspected endocarditis, Gram and fungal (methenamine silver) stains are ordered.

SAMPLE DICTATION FOR MECHANICAL VALVES

The specimen, received fresh, labeled with the patient's name, unit number, and "aortic valve," consists of a St. Jude bileaflet tilting-disc prosthesis with an external sewing ring diameter of 21 mm. The prosthesis is intact. There is focal tissue overgrowth of the sewing ring. The leaflets move freely and open and close completely. No thrombi or vegetations are present. Also present in the same container are multiple detached fragments of tan soft tissue measuring in aggregate 3.0 × 2.5 cm. The specimen is photographed.

Micro 1: Tissue from sewing ring and detached tissue fragments, mult frags, ESS.

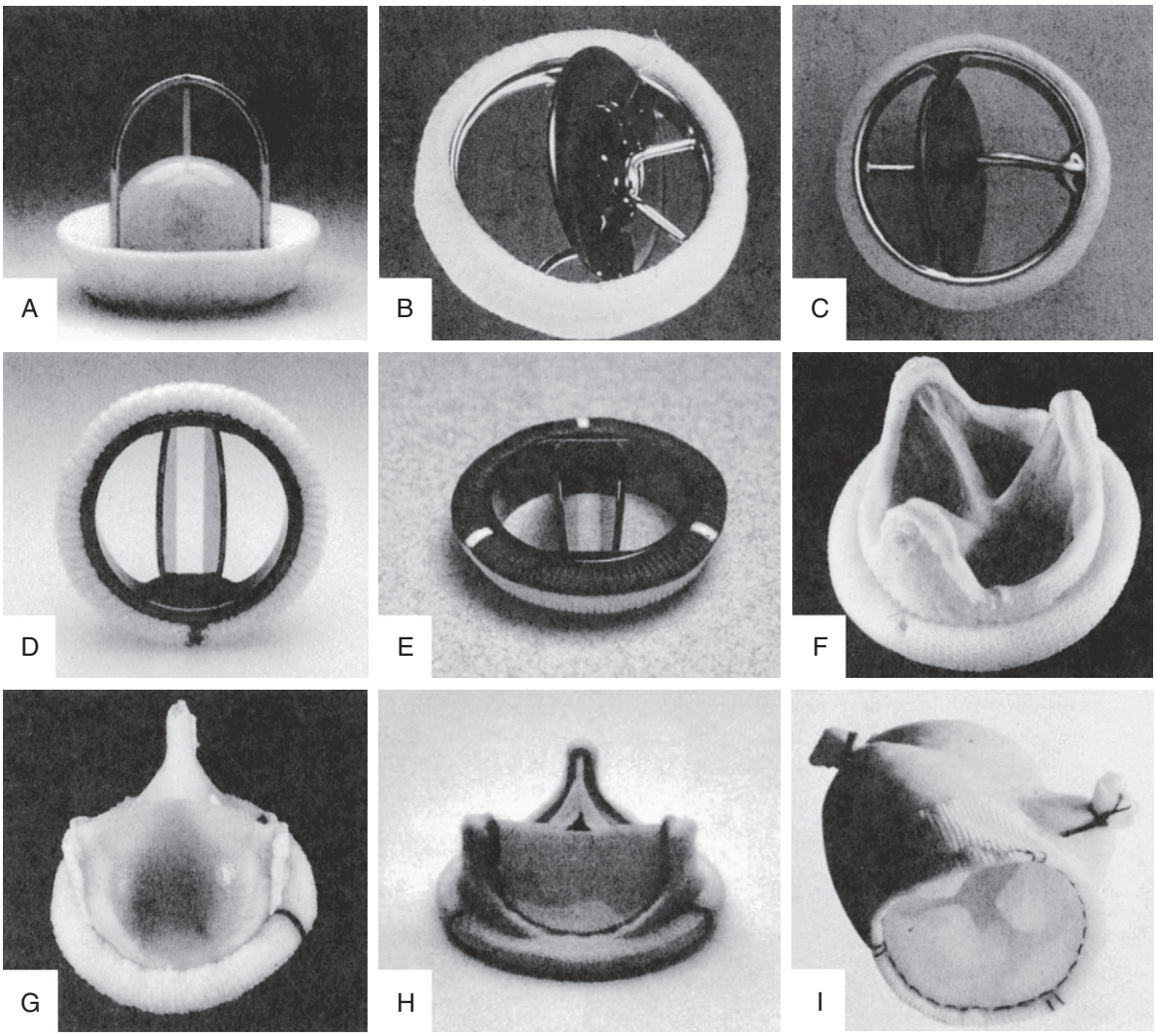

Figure 16–4. Representative prosthetic heart valves. **A,** Starr-Edwards caged ball valve. **B,** Björk-Shiley tilting disk valve. **C,** Medtronic-Hall tilting disk valve. **D,** St. Jude Medical tilting disk valve. **E,** CarboMedics (CPHV) bileaflet tilting disk valve. **F,** Hancock porcine aortic valve bioprosthesis. **G,** Ionescu-Shiley bovine pericardial bioprosthesis. **H,** Carpentier-Edwards bovine pericardial bioprosthesis. **I,** Medtronic Freestyle stentless porcine aortic valve prosthesis.

SAMPLE DICTATION FOR BIOPROSTHETIC VALVES

The specimen, received fresh, labeled with the patient's name, unit number, and "mitral valve," consists of a bioprosthetic valve with an external sewing ring diameter of 31 mm. The valve cusps are moderately stiffened and there is focal commissural calcification. One of the cusps contains a single 0.4 cm linear tear near the commissure involving the cuspal free edge. The remaining cusps are intact. No thrombi or vegetations are present. Also present in the same container are 6 detached irregular fragments of tan/yellow soft tissue, measuring in aggregate 2.0 × 1.5 cm. The specimen is photographed and radiographed.

Micro 1: Valve cusp and detached fragments, mult frags, RSS.

PATHOLOGIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST

- **Site:** Aortic or mitral
- **Type of valve:** Use Figures 16-4 to 16-7 and Table 16-4 to identify the type of valve
- **Calcifications:** Grade 0 to 4+ using the specimen radiograph
- **Cuspal tears:** Present or absent, size
- **Mechanical degeneration:** Type, location

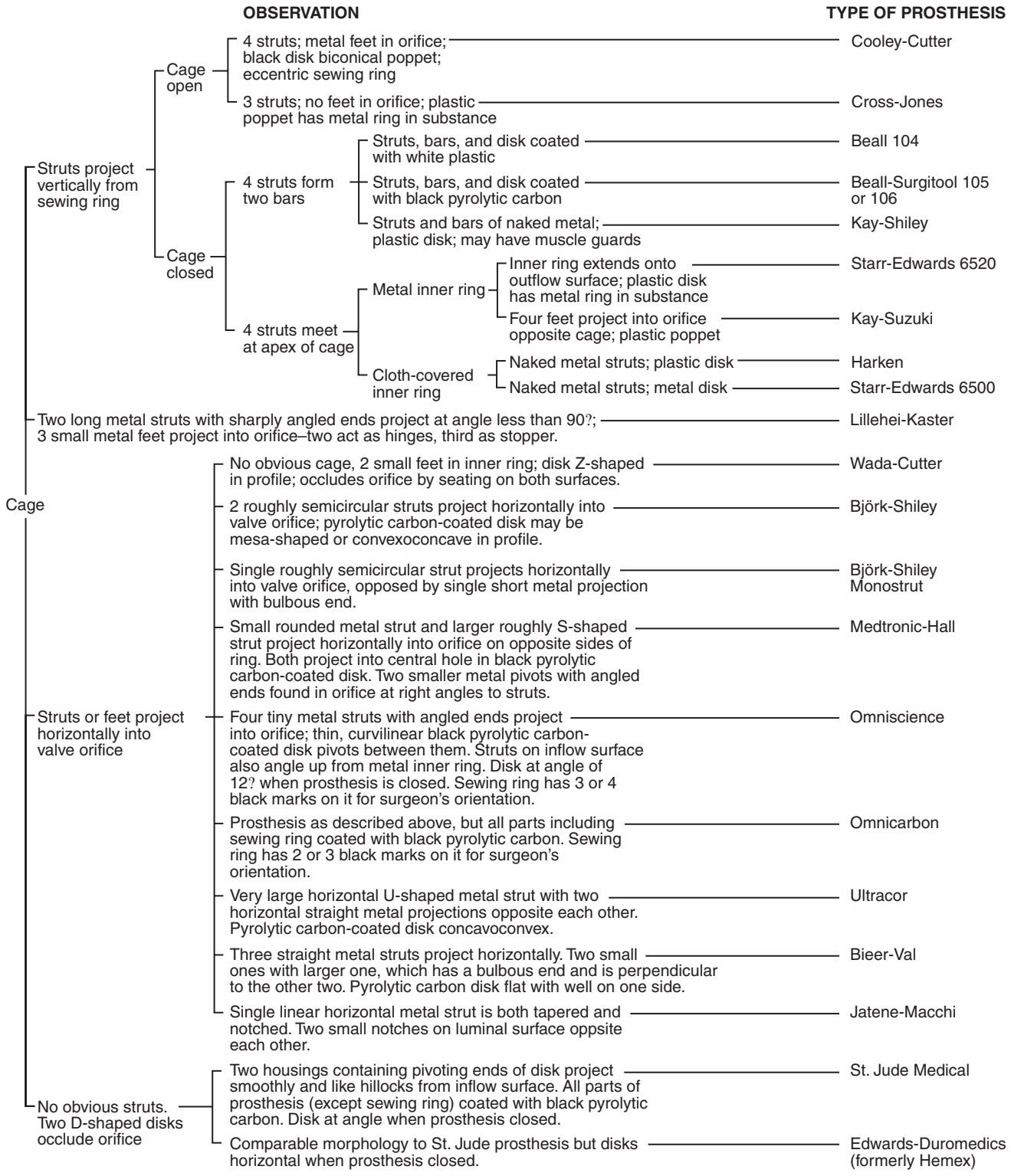

Figure 16–5. Key for identifying caged-disk and tilting prostheses. *(Modified from Silver MD, Wilson JG: Pathology of cardiovascular prostheses including coronary artery bypass and other vascular grafts. In Silver MD [ed]: Cardiovascular Pathology. New York, Churchill Livingstone, 1991.)*

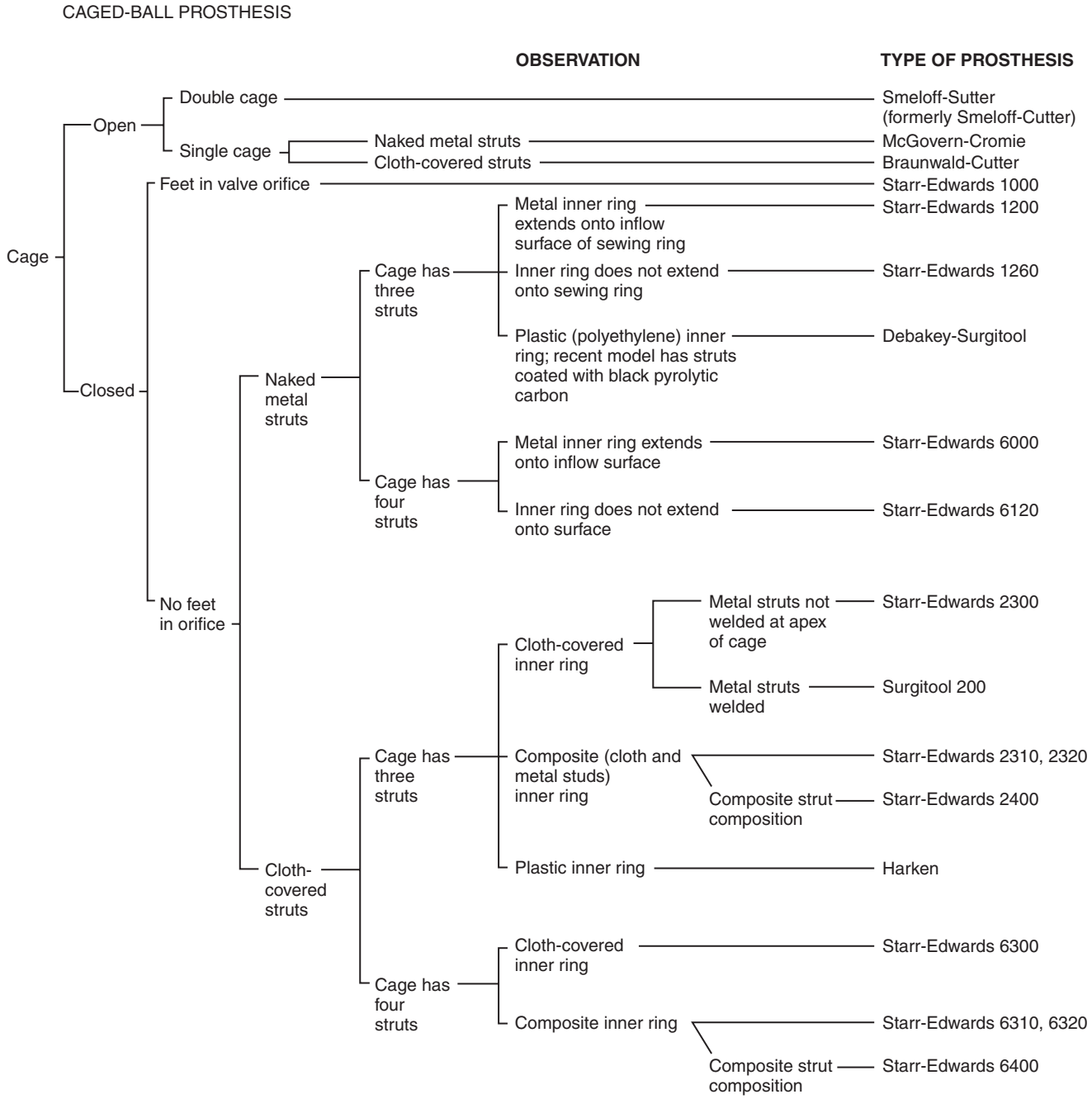

Figure 16–6. Key for identifying caged-ball prostheses. *(Modified from Silver MD, Wilson JG: Pathology of cardiovascular prostheses including coronary artery bypass and other vascular grafts. In Silver MD [ed]: Cardiovascular Pathology. New York, Churchill Livingstone, 1991.)*

- **Tissue degeneration:** Present or absent
- **Tissue overgrowth:** Focal or extensive
- **Overhanging suture:** Present or absent
- **Endocarditis:** Present or absent
- **Vegetations:** Present or absent
- **Cuspal perforation:** Present or absent

HEART TRANSPLANTS

Patients receiving heart transplants are typically in end-stage cardiac failure due to ischemic heart disease or idiopathic cardiomyopathy. The specimen usually consists of both ventricles and atria amputated above the ventricles. Occasionally small portions of the donor heart will also be received (e.g., auricular appendages).

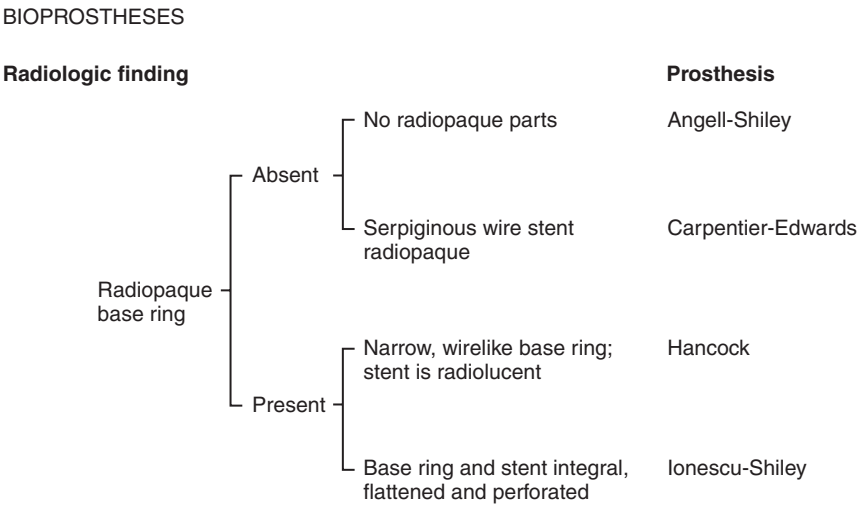

Figure 16–7. Key for identifying bioprostheses. *(Modified from Silver MD, Wilson JG: Pathology of cardiovascular prostheses including coronary artery bypass and other vascular grafts. In Silver MD [ed]: Cardiovascular Pathology. New York, Churchill Livingstone, 1991.)*

TABLE 16–4. PATHOLOGIC ANALYSIS OF BIOPROSTHETIC VALVES

GROSS EXAMINATION	HISTOLOGY	RADIOGRAPHY
Identification (e.g., porcine aortic [Hancock or Carpentier-Edwards], pericardial [Pericardial])		Identification
Vegetations	Vegetations/organisms	
Thrombi	Thrombi	
Paravalvular leak	Host cell interactions	
Tissue overgrowth	Endothelialization	
Cuspal stiffness	Pannus overgrowth	
Cuspal hematomas	Degeneration	
Calcification	Calcification Degree Morphology Location	Calcification Degree Localization
Cuspal fenestrations and tears		
Cuspal abrasions		
Cuspal stretching		
Strut relationships		
Extrinsic interference or damage		
Tissue separation from strut		

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh the specimen. Normal weights for the entire heart are 270 to 360 gm for males and 250 to 280 gm for females.
2. Describe the epicardial surface including pericardial fat (abundant, scant), petechiae, and adhesions.
3. In general, hearts are cut after fixation in a manner dictated by the pathology to be demonstrated (Fig. 16-8).
   - Hearts with dilated cardiomyopathy are cut longitudinally from base to apex, bivalving both ventricles and bisecting the tricuspid and mitral valves ("four-chamber" cut).
   - Hearts with ischemic heart disease are typically cut transversely at approximately 1 to 2 cm intervals beginning at the apex to the level of the mitral valve ("serially sectioned"). The base of the heart may be cut longitudinally or opened according to the lines of flow.
4. Describe each ventricle separately including hypertrophy or dilatation, fibrosis (endocardial, epicardial, transmural, location and degree), infarcts (old or recent, size, location, transmural or subendocardial), trabeculation, papillary muscles (hypertrophied, thinned, scarred, infarcted), presence of mural thrombus. Measure the wall thickness of both ventricles. Normal thickness of the left ventricle is 0.9 to 1.5 cm and the right ventricle 0.25 to 0.3 cm. The diagrams provided may facilitate documentation of findings.
5. Describe atria if there are any endocardial lesions.
6. Describe any valve lesions as in section above (native or prosthetic).
7. Atherosclerotic coronary arteries are dissected from the heart, fixed and decalcified, and sectioned transversely at 3 to 5 mm intervals. Soft, unobstructed coronary arteries may be carefully cut in transverse sections on the fixed heart at 3 mm intervals. Describe the arteries including dominance (right or left), percent of luminal compromise, location, recent thrombi or plaque hemorrhage, and the locations of these lesions.
8. Describe any bypass grafts including type (saphenous vein, left internal mammary), location of graft to native vessel, and patency. Remove the junction of the graft and native vessel as a block of tissue from the epicardial surface. Serially section perpendicular to the vessels to look for luminal obstructions.
9. Describe any devices or parts thereof, including pacer wires, AICD wires, annuloplasty rings, Alfieri stitches, VAD cannulae, etc.
10. Submit sections according to the list below.

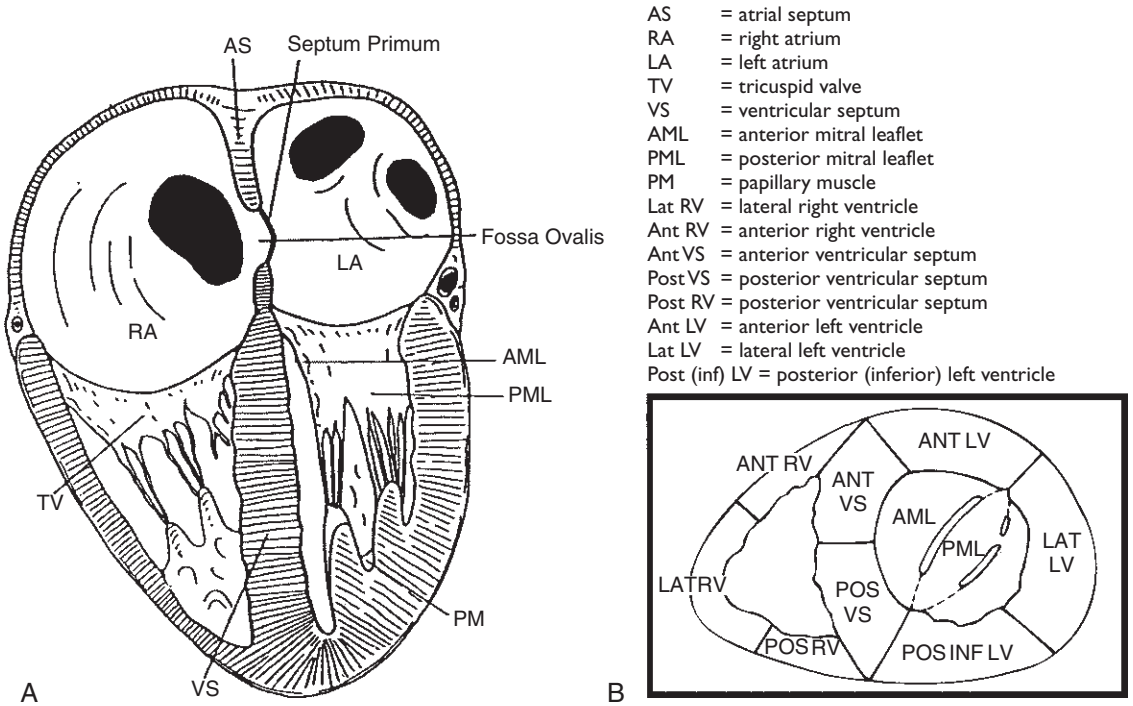

Figure 16–8. Cardiac anatomy. **A,** Longitudinal cut. **B,** Transverse cut. (**A** *from Virmani R, Ursell PC, Fenoglio JJ: Examination of the heart. In Varmani R, Atkinson JB, Fenoglio JJ [eds]: Cardiovascular Pathology. Philadelphia, W.B. Saunders, 1991, p. 9.)*

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Left ventricular free wall:** Two sections (apex and base) in one cassette.
- **Right ventricular free wall:** Two sections (apex and base) in one cassette
- **Septum:** Two sections (apex and base) in one cassette
- **Native coronary arteries:** Up to four cassettes if abnormalities are present in the left main (LMA), left anterior descending (LAD), left circumflex (LCX), and right coronary artery (RCA) including areas of obstruction.
- **Bypass grafts:** One cassette of each graft.
- **Other lesions:** Representative sections

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Ischemic Heart Disease. By the time a patient comes to cardiac transplantation, there is usually extensive damage present. There may be fibrous scars and pericardial adhesions due to previous healed infarcts. Aneurysms may be present. The vessels usually are involved by extensive atherosclerosis and bypass grafts are often present.

Idiopathic Dilated Cardiomyopathy. The heart is usually enlarged (two to three times the normal weight) and all four chambers are enlarged. The ventricular wall thickness can be thin, thick, or normal, depending on the balance of hypertrophy and dilatation. There may be small patchy subendocardial fibrous scars in the left ventricle. Endocardial plaques may be present. Mural thrombi are commonly found near the apex of the ventricles. The valves and coronary arteries are generally normal.

SAMPLE DICTATION FOR IDIOPATHIC DILATED CARDIOMYOPATHY

The specimen, received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number, consists of a heart weighing 650 grams. The atria have been severed approximately 3 cm above the ventricles. The epicardial surface is smooth and glistening without adhesions. The major epicardial coronary arteries arise in their usual configuration in a right dominant system and show no gross atherosclerosis. Sectioning the heart longitudinally reveals severe biventricular dilatation and hypertrophy. There is patchy fibrous thickening of the endocardium. No mural thrombi are present. The valves are grossly of normal configuration. The left ventricular myocardium is 1.3 cm in thickness; the right ventricular myocardium is 0.3 cm in thickness. There is no evidence of myocardial discoloration or necrosis.

Micro 1: Left ventricle, base and apex, 2 frags, 1 cass.
Micro 2: Interventricular septum, base and apex, 2 frags, RSS.
Micro 3: Right ventricle, base and apex, 2 frags, RSS.

SAMPLE DICTATION FOR ATHEROSCLEROTIC CORONARY ARTERY AND ISCHEMIC HEART DISEASE WITH BYPASS GRAFTS

The specimen, received fresh, labeled with the patient's name, unit number, and "heart," consists of a heart weighing 485 grams. The atria have been severed approximately 3 cm above the ventricles. The epicardial surface contains dense fibrous adhesions which are most extensive over the base of the heart. Within these adhesions, segments of bypass grafts inserting into the left anterior descending, circumflex, and right coronary arteries are identified. The graft to the left anterior descending artery is totally occluded by thrombus. The graft to the circumflex has a circumferentially thickened wall but remains patent. The graft to the right coronary artery is widely patent. Examination of the native epicardial coronary arteries reveals a right dominant system with severe, diffuse atherosclerosis. The left main coronary artery is approximately 50% occluded by atheromatous plaque. The left anterior descending coronary artery is 100% occluded by atheromatous plaque. The left circumflex and right coronary arteries are each approximately 70% occluded by atheromatous plaque. There are no acute plaque changes. Sectioning the heart transversely reveals biventricular dilation with aneurysmal dilatation to 4 cm of the anterior left ventricle at the apex. The anterior left ventricular myocardium is replaced by dense white transmural fibrous scarring and measures 0.3 cm in thickness. The lateral, posterior, and septal walls contain focal areas of fibrous scarring up to 1 cm. The endocardium of the anterior wall is thickened, measuring 0.2 cm. No mural thrombus is present. The right ventricular myocardium measures 0.3 cm and shows no

evidence of scarring or necrosis. The valves are grossly of normal configuration. The coronary arteries are removed from the specimen and decalcified prior to processing.

Micro 1: Left ventricle anterior, 1 frag, RSS.
Micro 2: Left ventricle lateral, 1 frag, RSS.
Micro 3: Left ventricle posterior, 1 frag, RSS.
Micro 4: Interventricular septum, 1 frag, RSS.
Micro 5: Right ventricle, 2 frags, RSS.
Micro 6: Left main coronary artery, 3 frags, RSS.
Micro 7: Left anterior descending coronary artery, 3 frags, RSS.
Micro 8: Left circumflex coronary artery, 3 frags, RSS.
Micro 9: Right coronary artery, 3 frags, RSS.
Micro 10: Bypass graft to left anterior descending, 3 frags, RSS.
Micro 11: Bypass graft to left circumflex, 3 frags, RSS.
Micro 12: Bypass graft to right coronary artery, 3 frags, RSS.

PATHOLOGIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST

- **Size:** Weight in grams
- **Hypertrophy:** Present or absent, degree (mild, moderate, or severe), gross or microscopic
- **Dilatation:** Present or absent, degree (mild, moderate, or severe)
- **Asymmetric septal hypertrophy:** Present or absent
- **Atrial septal defect:** Present or absent, size
- **Ventricular septal defect:** Present or absent, size
- **Foramen ovale:** Describe if patent
- **Previous interventional sites:** If present, describe (e.g., stents, annuloplasty rings present)
- **Myocardial infarcts:** Acute, remote, location, size, extent (transmural)
- **Aneurysm:** Location, size
- **Mural thrombus:** Location, size
- **Subendocardial myocyte vacuolization:** Focal or diffuse (suggestive of chronic ischemia)
- **Replacement fibrosis:** Focal or diffuse
- **Myofiber disarray:** Present or absent in septum
- **Endocardial fibrosis:** Present or absent, degree (focal, multifocal, diffuse)
- **Endocarditis:** Present or absent
- **Myocarditis:** Present (lymphocytic, eosinophilic, giant cell/granulomatous) or absent
- **Pericardium:** Fibrous or fibrinous pericarditis
- **Coronary arteries:** Atherosclerosis, location, degree (% occlusion), thrombosis, acute plaque change
- **Bypass grafts:** Present or absent, location, intimal hyperplasia (% luminal narrowing)
- **Valves:** Report as for native or prosthetic valves as appropriate
- **Devices:** Pacemaker wire, defibrillator patches, ventricular assist device

VENTRICULAR ASSIST DEVICES

Ventricular assist devices (VADs) may be used to provide mechanical support as a bridge to transplantation, and are sometimes received with an explanted heart. Either the entire device or parts of the device attached to the heart may be received. Often the device is removed several days after the heart transplant.

VADs can totally replace ventricular function for extended periods and may be inserted into the left ventricle (LVAD), right ventricle (RVAD), or both ventricles (BiVAD). The device is connected from the atrium or ventricle to the pump via the inflow (inflow to the pump) cannula and from the pump to the aorta or pulmonary artery via the outflow (outflow from the pump) cannula. Prosthetic valves are present within the metal connectors of both cannulae.

Two types of VADs are the Thoratec HeartMate (Fig. 16-9A), Abiomed, and Thoratec (Fig. 16-9B). The HeartMate is inserted into the left ventricular apex (resulting in a specimen consisting of an apical core of ventricle) and is powered either pneumatically or electrically. It can only be used in the left ventricle and is typically considered not removable once inserted. The Abiomed and Thoratec devices may be used to augment either (or both) ventricles. They may be inserted with their inflow cannulae in the atria and, therefore, can be removed should cardiac function of the native heart recover.

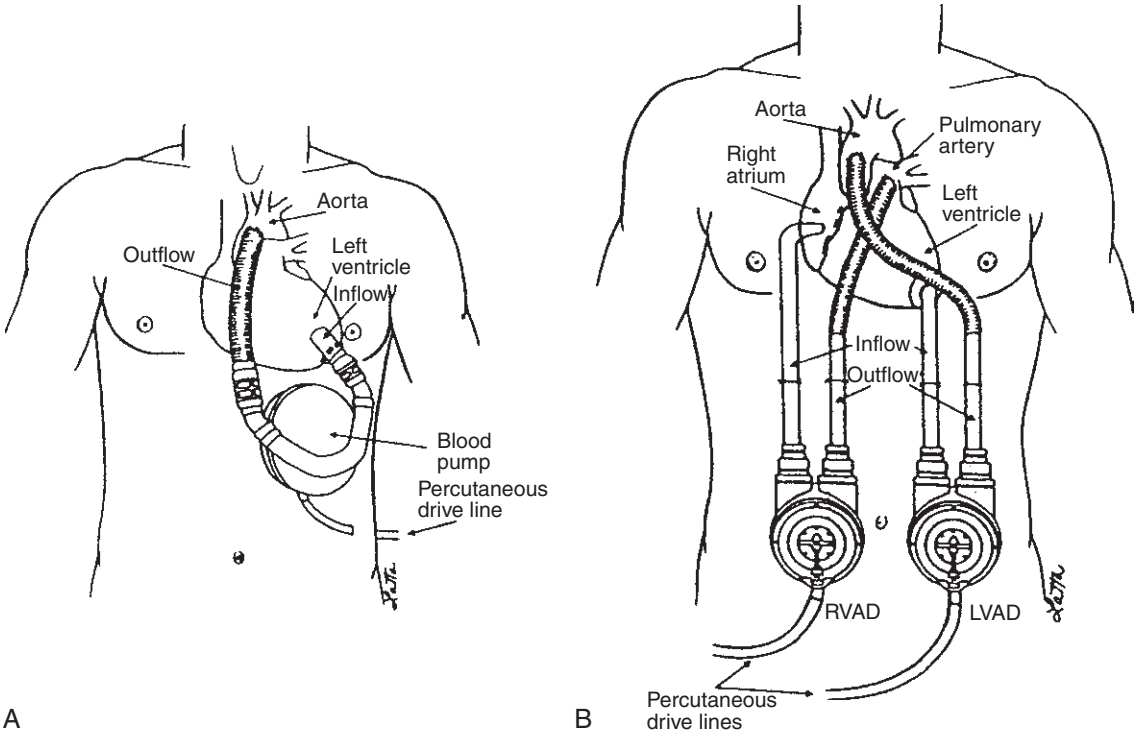

Figure 16–9. **A,** The HeartMate implantable pneumatic left ventricular assist system. **B,** The Thoratec ventricular assist system in the biventricular support configuration. RVAD, right ventricular assist device; LVAD, left ventricular assist device. *(From Hunt SA, Frazier OH: Mechanical circulatory support and cardiac transplantation. Circulation 97:2079-2090, 1998.)*

Goldstein,[6] Hunt,[7] and Schoen[8] provide a more detailed discussion of pathologic analysis and device complications.

SAMPLE DICTATION (ESSENTIALLY DESCRIBING THE DEVICE IN THE ORDER THAT BLOOD PASSES THROUGH THE COMPONENTS)

The specimen is received fresh, in one part, labeled with the patient's name, medical record number and the description "LVAD." The specimen consists of a Thoratec HeartMate left ventricular assist device with the serial number "VAD 12345" inscribed on the pump. The bioprosthetic inflow valve within the inflow cannula has a single 4 mm tear in one cusp. The inflow valve and cannula are otherwise unremarkable. The pump itself is unremarkable with no thrombi or vegetations within. Attached to the pump is a 25 cm segment of driveline with scant attached soft tissue. The bioprosthetic outflow valve within the outflow cannula is unremarkable with no vegetations, tears, thrombi or apparent calcification. The outflow graft to the aorta is unremarkable. The specimen has been photographed. No microscopic sections are submitted.

ATRIAL OR VENTRICULAR MYOCARDIUM

Portions of the heart may be removed during open heart surgery (e.g., repair of ventricular aneurysms, hypertrophic cardiomyopathy septal resection, Maze procedures to treat atrial fibrillation, or removal of atrial myxomas). An apical core may be removed during insertion of a cardiac assist device. Describe the specimen including size, variations in the thickness of the wall, presence of scarring (transmural or not transmural), necrotic tissue, calcification, or mural thrombus (organized or not organized), hemorrhage, color and thickness of epicardium, color and thickness of endocardium.

Usually 2 to 3 sections in one cassette are sufficient. For hypertrophic cardiomyopathy, submit 2 to 3 cassettes and order Masson's trichrome and H&E stains. For atrial myxomas, submit 2 to 3 cassettes.

BLOOD VESSELS

Typical specimens include endarterectomies of the carotid bifurcation, abdominal aortic aneurysm repairs, revision of vascular grafts, and varicose veins. Temporal artery biopsies are performed for the diagnosis of arteritis.

Aorta (With or Without Dissection)

An aortic dissection results in a medial hematoma that usually has an associated intimal flap entrance site and often has either an intimal reentrant or adventitial rupture site. These specimens may be labeled "ascending aortic aneurysm" or "thoracic aortic aneurysm." Specimens taken during aortic aneurysm repair consist of the inner media only or both inner and outer media. Increasingly, fragments of aorta are also submitted from aortic valve replacements or from bypass cannula sites and may be of diagnostic importance.

In cases of dissections, sections are taken from areas of medial separation. Representative sections (three to four in one cassette) are also taken of grossly normal tissue. It is important to characterize the location of any dissection, its age, medial flaps, the presence of prior dissection, and underlying vessel wall pathology as the etiology of the dissection. Request that the histology laboratory carefully orient the specimens on edge, to ensure that the entire wall thickness may be assessed. The signout diagnosis should include a statement regarding the presence or absence of acute aortitis, dissection and/or other pathologic lesions.

Abdominal Aortic Aneurysm

During the surgical repair the aneurysm is opened, the clot removed, and the graft sewn inside the aorta. The aorta is then closed around the graft. The specimen usually consists of laminated thrombus, with or without calcified plaque. It is relatively unusual to receive portions of the aortic wall. Portions of the wall can usually be identified because they have more consistency (i.e., they are less "flaky" and friable) than thrombus.

The thrombus is serially sectioned grossly (to look for the rare mycotic [infected] aneurysm, or tumor metastasis – these diseases do occur!). Describe overall dimensions, color, consistency (rubbery), and presence of calcifications. Several representative sections of thrombus in one cassette are adequate. If aortic wall is present, additional sections are submitted.

Atherectomy Specimens

Techniques are now available for the removal of atherosclerotic plaque via a catheter in the cardiac catheterization laboratory. The most widely used method, rotational atherectomy, uses a catheter with a cylindrical cutting blade at its end. This procedure results in multiple strips of fibrous and calcified plaque that defy anatomic orientation. These pieces are submitted in their entirety.

Endarterectomy Specimens

These specimens consist of the luminal plaque with portions of the intima and media attached. The adventitia is not removed. Often the specimen retains the shape of the bifurcation. Open the specimen (if intact) longitudinally. Describe the shape ("Y-shaped fragment consistent with carotid bifurcation"), color, size, presence of calcifications, degree of stenosis, and the presence of acute plaque change. One section is adequate. Most specimens require decalcification.

Small Vascular Segments

Portions of vessels are resected due to atherosclerotic occlusion or aneurysm, vasculitis, or fibromuscular dysplasia. For some non-aortic arterial aneurysms and small vascular segments, the best approach to sectioning may be longitudinal (for example, in fibromuscular dysplasia, the variable thickness of the media is best demonstrated by longitudinal, not transverse, sectioning).

Vascular Grafts

Grafts are generally removed due to thrombosis, fibrous obstruction, or infection. Cultures may be requested (order bacteria [aerobic and anaerobic], fungi, and AFB cultures). Describe dimensions (length, diameter), integrity (any holes or tears), color (usually white and not discolored), type of graft (e.g., saphenous vein, Gore-Tex, Dacron, see below), and soft tissue present in the lumen.

Gore-Tex (expanded polytetrafluoroethylene) is smooth-surfaced and homogeneous, and is about 0.5 mm thick. It does not appear woven or corrugated. In contrast, Dacron polyester is a fabric with a grossly visible weave; it has a rough surface and it is corrugated. Tissue grafts are usually derived from large veins and are easily distinguished from synthetic material.

Any soft tissue is submitted for histologic examination, as infection is frequently occult. The graft is also submitted. Saphenous vein and Gore-Tex grafts cut easily with a scalpel blade and are easily sectioned for slides. Dacron grafts are difficult to section with a scalpel and will feel "gritty" to the blade. When Dacron graft material is submitted it is helpful to notify the histology laboratory as it will likely be difficult to cut with a microtome. A Gram stain is ordered on any grafts with a clinical history of infection or with a request to rule out infection.

Coronary Bypass Grafts

Saphenous vein or internal mammary artery grafts may occasionally be removed during a second coronary artery bypass operation. Describe length, average diameter, presence of atherosclerosis or intimal hyperplasia, acute plaque change, thrombus, presence and extent of occlusions. One cassette per graft containing multiple cross-sections of the specimen is usually sufficient.

Varicose Veins

Varicose veins are flaccid veins from the lower extremities. They are often inverted during removal. Describe length, average diameter, and unusual features (such as obvious thrombus, tortuosity, thickening of wall, or nodularities). One transverse section is sufficient.

Temporal Arteries

Temporal arteries are biopsied (approximately 1 cm in length) to evaluate patients for temporal (giant cell) arteritis. Describe the dimensions (length and diameter), color, and any additional soft tissue. Do not cut the specimen! Orientation is very important for proper evaluation and cannot be accomplished with small cross-sections. Wrap the entire specimen in lens paper. The specimen should be cut into cross sections by the histotechnologist after processing, and just before embedding. The histologic findings may be scored (Table 16-5).

TABLE 16–5. SCORING SYSTEM FOR TEMPORAL ARTERITIS

SCORE	HISTOLOGIC FEATURES
Positive	Inflammatory infiltrate with giant cells
Probable	Lymphohistiocytic infiltrate involving the arterial wall transmurally or constituting 25% or more of the arterial wall without giant cells, or evidence of healed arteritis (transmural fibrosis).
Healed arteritis	Disruption of the elastica for at least a third of the circumference of the vessel with transmural fibrosis.
Negative	No inflammatory infiltrate or giant cells or evidence of healed arteritis.

Adapted from Robb-Nicholson C, et al, Diagnostic value of the history and examination in giant cell arteritis: A clinical pathological study of 81 temporal artery biopsies, J Rheumatol 15:1793-6, 1988.

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7. Hunt SA, et al: Mechanical circulatory support and cardiac transplantation. Circulation 97:2079, 1998.
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17 Cytology Specimens

Cytologic specimens are obtained by minimally invasive methods:

- Brushings and scrapes: bronchial brushings, GI brushings, Pap tests
- Washings: bronchial washings, bronchoalveolar lavage, peritoneal washings
- Aspirations: fine needle aspiration (FNA) of mass lesions, body cavity effusions (e.g., CSF or pleural effusions)
- Sputum
- Urine

Cytologic preparations can also be made after surgical excision (e.g., touch preparations). Cytologic specimens have the following advantages over excisional specimens or large core biopsies:

- Minimal or no morbidity to patient.
- Excellent cytologic preservation (e.g., crush and cautery artifacts are absent).
- Large areas can be sampled.
- Cells and nuclei are intact; this is an advantage for certain studies such as FISH.
- Specimen acquisition, preparation, and examination can be performed in a short period of time.

CELL BLOCKS

Cells suspended in fluid solution may be used to make smears, cytospins, Thin-Preps, or cell blocks. The cell block is the leftover sediment fixed in formalin, embedded in paraffin, and sectioned like a tissue biopsy. Cell blocks can provide multiple sections of the same group of cells to be used for histochemical stains and/or immunoperoxidase studies.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN FLUIDS

1. Record the volume and color of the fluid and the size of any particulate matter in the specimen. Remove any clots, wrap in lens paper, and submit as cell blocks.
2. Centrifuge 80 mL (in two 50 mL tubes) for 20 minutes at maximum speed. If the sediment is scanty, decant the fluid, refill the tubes with more specimen fluid, and recentrifuge.
3. Decant the fluid, being careful not to lose any of the pellet or particulate matter. Make about 4 smears on previously labeled glass slides. Use a wooden applicator or spatula to transfer a small portion of the pellet to one end of the slide. Use a second slide to make a smear. Immediately fix in 95% alcohol.
4. Transfer the pellet and wrap it in lens paper. Alternatively, the pellet may be resuspended in a small amount of fluid and poured through a nylon specimen bag. Do this over a clean specimen cup, in order to be able to retrieve any spilled fluid. Order one H&E stain as well as other special stains as indicated.
5. If the quantity of fluid is small and appears clear or yields essentially no sediment, the specimen may require processing by the cytospin method.

Bronchoalveolar lavage is a method in which small quantities of fluid are introduced into the bronchial tree via a fiberoptic bronchoscope and then aspirated for analysis of cells and secretions from the distal airways. It is a useful method to recover pathogenic organisms (*Pneumocystis*, fungi, bacteria, mycobacteria, and CMV) from

immunocompromised patients. These cases are treated as potentially infectious. Masks, gloves, and aprons should be worn. The specimen should be handled gently to avoid aerosolization of organisms. All instruments and surfaces should be cleaned with bleach.

Fine Needle Aspirations. The following equipment should be assembled in a kit:

- Blank slides
- Pencil
- Spray fixative
- A 50 mL Falcon tube with normal saline ("normosol" = 0.9% saline) – store in refrigerator when not in use
- Empty container or tube holder
- Slide tray

After the FNA is performed the specimen is prepared as follows:

1. Take the needle and syringe and express a small drop on each of two slides (using a stylet if the material is stuck in the needle). Stand the needle/syringe in the Falcon tube.
2. Immediately take one slide with material and spread the drop with a blank spreader slide GENTLY but quickly.
3. Spray fix these two slides IMMEDIATELY or they will air dry within seconds, rendering the nuclear detail less distinct and difficult to interpret.
4. Take the other slide with a drop of material and spread it with yet another blank spreader slide, but allow these two to thoroughly air dry. Cytoplasmic and extracellular material are seen well in air-dried slides.
5. Rinse the needle/syringe into the Falcon tube, backwashing 2 to 3 times.

The needle rinsings (in saline) may be critical for special studies (e.g., flow cytometry, Thin-Preps, cell blocks).

- Lymphoma: The specimen may be sent for flow cytometry.
- Infection: If an infectious process is suspected, notify the radiologist, who will usually take a separate aspiration for multiple cultures.
- Cell block: The remainder of the specimen can be used to prepare a cell block.

The slides may be stained with DiffQuik or PAP stains if the adequacy of the specimen is to be assessed or a diagnosis is to be made at the time of the procedure.

STORAGE OF CYTOLOGY SPECIMENS

Cytology specimens obtained at night or during the weekend may need to be stored before processing. Most fluids are reasonably preserved for 48 to 72 hours in a refrigerator without fixation, especially pleural fluids. Other fluids (urine, cerebrospinal fluid) may deteriorate after 24 hours, even if refrigerated. This can be prevented by adding an equal volume of 50% ethanol (final concentration 25%) to the fluid and refrigerating. Note that adding ethanol precludes the preparation of air-dried slides, which are especially useful in the evaluation of lymphoma and leukemia.

18 Dermatopathology

Of all organ systems, the skin has the greatest number of lesions described, perhaps because the skin is subject to a wide variety of environmental exposures and no special procedures are necessary to visualize its surface.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

TABLE 18–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR DERMATOPATHOLOGY SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Site, duration, and appearance of the lesion (especially for incisional biopsies)
Purpose of the procedure	
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	Systemic diseases that affect the skin
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	Clinical differential diagnosis
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	Family history (see Table 7-50)
Prior surgery/biopsies – results	Previous similar lesions
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Compromised immune system	

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

The ability to clearly visualize the entire epidermis in a perpendicular section is important for diagnosis, and at times for prognosis (e.g., malignant melanoma). Therefore, try to maintain vertical orientation at all times in sections. Any specimen that is labeled "excision," regardless of the type of specimen, must have the margins evaluated by inking and submission of appropriate sections. Diagrams are used for any difficult or complicated specimens.

Never cut through small vesicular lesions in any type of specimen. The overlying tissue layer is important for diagnosis, but is fragile and easily detached and lost. Cut the specimen so as to leave the vesicle intact or submit small specimens whole and request that the histotechnologists bisect the specimen after processing.

SKIN - SPECIAL STUDIES

Occasionally fresh or frozen specimens (usually punch biopsies) will be submitted for special studies for the evaluation of specific disease:

- Immunofluorescence: lupus erythematosus, bullous pemphigoid, or pemphigus
- Immunofluorescence on frozen tissue: leukemias and lymphomas

- Electron microscopy: epidermolysis bullosa, other blistering diseases, some melanomas (e.g., S100 negative tumors), unusual tumors, amyloid

SKIN PUNCH BIOPSIES

Punch biopsies are performed to completely excise small lesions, to sample large lesions, or to evaluate an inflammatory process or a systemic disease (e.g., pustular psoriasis). Punches can be 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, or 10 mm in diameter.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Describe the type of specimen ("punch biopsy") including diameter and depth and skin color. Describe any lesions including size, type (macular, papular, vesicular, plaque), borders (well-circumscribed, irregular), color (brown, black, variegated), shape (verrucous, lobulated), and distance from the closest margin. Ink all punch biopsies.
2. Punch biopsies 3 mm or less are submitted uncut in their entirety (Fig. 18-1). These specimens can be bisected by the histology laboratory.
   Punch biopsies greater than 4 mm are bisected or trisected, depending on size. If there is a discrete lesion, cut in a plane to demonstrate the closest margin. If the lesion is very small (i.e., leveling the block might remove the lesional tissue), cut the punch biopsy on either side of the lesion. Do not section through vesicles or blisters – submit whole and request sectioning by the laboratory.
3. Request three levels.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received in formalin labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "5 mm punch, left leg" is a 5 mm in diameter by 5 mm (depth) punch biopsy with tan/white skin. There is a flat homogeneously brown lesion with slightly irregular margins, 0.3 × 0.3 cm, on the skin surface. The lesion is less than 0.1 cm from the nearest margin, but does not grossly involve the margin.

Cassette: bisected, 2 frags, ESS.

SKIN SHAVE BIOPSIES

Shave biopsies are usually performed to remove nonmalignant lesions (e.g., seborrheic keratoses, actinic keratoses, or fibroepithelial polyps) or for diagnosis of basal cell carcinomas. Shave biopsies of pigmented lesions should be strongly discouraged and interpreted with caution. The diagnosis of melanoma may be difficult in such a specimen due to limited sampling and the depth of invasion may be impossible to assess. Specimens are inked if designated "excisions."

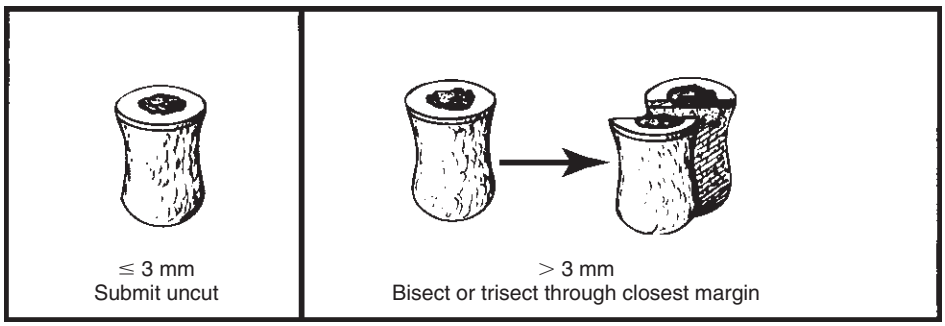

Figure 18–1. Punch biopsy of the skin.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Describe the specimen type ("shave biopsy"), the dimensions (including depth) and the surface appearance. The specimen is usually oval and relatively flat. The edges may curl due to retraction of the dermis. Ink the base to aid in orientation during embedding.
   Specimens greater than 3 to 4 mm in diameter may be bi- or trisected. Try to maintain the vertical orientation in sections by making one or more cuts perpendicular to the surface at 2 to 3 mm intervals.
2. Submit in entirety and order three levels. Indicate that the fragments should be embedded on edge.

SKIN CURETTINGS

Skin scrapings (curettings) of seborrheic or actinic keratosis or basal cell carcinoma may be performed.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Describe the specimen, including number of fragments (or estimate), color, and size in aggregate.
2. Submit entirely using a nylon specimen bag or lens paper to wrap the fragments. Check the sides of the container and lid for small pieces. Orientation is usually not possible. Margins cannot be evaluated due to the specimen fragmentation.
3. Order three levels.

SKIN ELLIPSES

These specimens are excisions of malignant tumors (squamous cell carcinoma or basal cell carcinoma), typical or atypical melanocytic nevi (and to rule out melanoma), or large benign lesions (e.g., epithelial inclusion cysts). Occasionally, ellipses are submitted for the evaluation of panniculitis or large vessel vasculitis.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record the dimensions (length, width, and depth) and describe the skin color.
   Describe any lesions including color, borders, ulceration, shape, and distance from margins. Describe any scars from prior biopsies (length, recent or well-healed).
2. If an orienting suture is present, use the clinical designation or (lacking this) designate it 12 o'clock. Use two different colors of ink to mark the two longitudinal halves of the specimen and dictate the location of the inks (e.g., "the 12 o'clock margin is inked green and the 6 o'clock margin is inked blue"). Green and blue inks are reccommended as these colors are easier for the histotechnologists to see during embedding and sectioning the tissue (Fig. 18-2).
   Serially section the entire specimen along the short axis at 2 to 3 mm intervals.
   Submit the most distal sections ("tips") as two of the margins in two cassettes. If the ellipse is small and unoriented, both tips can be placed in one cassette. Each tip is taken as a 0.1 to 0.2 cm en face margin.
   Submit the remainder of the specimen in one or more cassettes.
   A simple diagram showing orientation and sections is very helpful in interpreting the sections histologically. This is especially true for large or irregularly shaped skin excisions.
   For pigmented lesions, the initial cut is made through the thickest or darkest portion of the lesion (most likely area to have deep invasion). Describe the gross depth of invasion or involvement of subcutaneous tissues.
3. Very large ellipses (several centimeters) are usually re-excisions. The central scar is serially sectioned and representative sections taken including the deep margin. Representative sections are taken of the 3, 6, 9, and 12 o'clock margins.
4. The following levels are ordered:

- Non-pigmented lesions and re-excisions: One level on all blocks
- Pigmented lesions:
  - Three levels on the block with the lesion
  - One level on other blocks (e.g., tips without lesion)

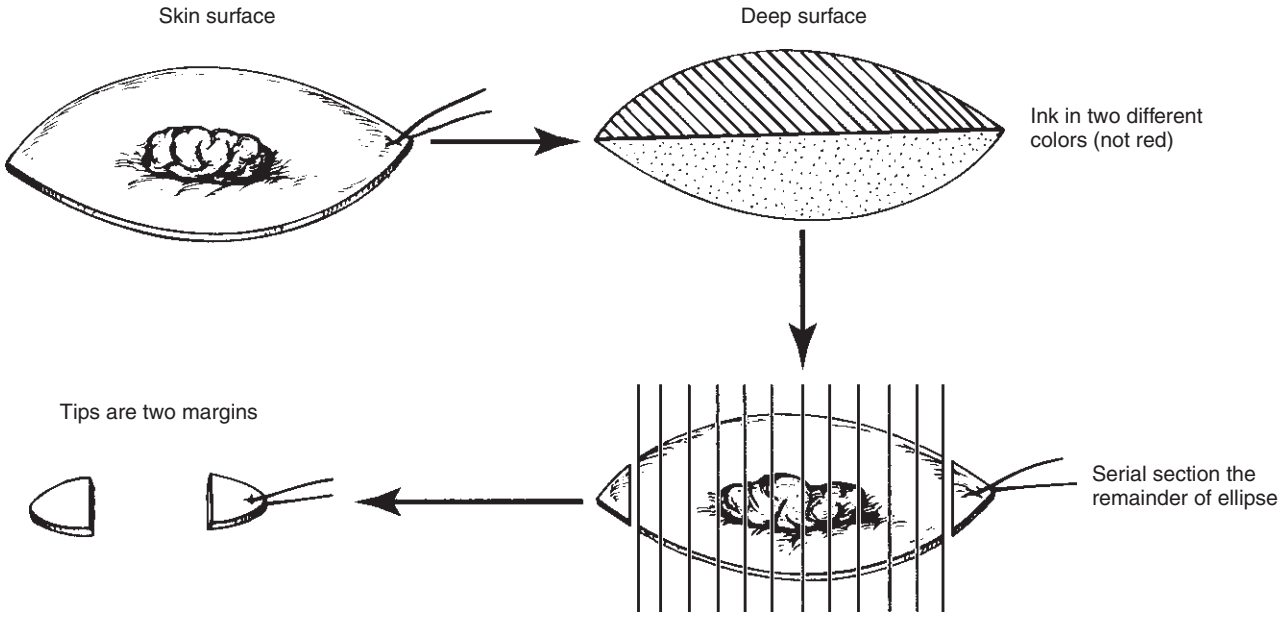

Figure 18–2. Skin ellipses.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Seborrheic Keratosis. This is a rounded, raised, lesion sharply demarcated from any surrounding skin with a "stuck on" appearance. The color is usually dark brown, black, or gray and has a dirty appearance due to the presence of horn cysts containing keratinous debris.

Epidermal Inclusion Cyst. These cysts are often received in multiple fragments. The wall of the cyst is thin (1 to 2 mm) and has a smooth inner lining. The cyst is filled with white or yellow friable, often malodorous, material corresponding to keratinaceous debris. Some are due to traumatic or iatrogenic introduction of keratinizing epithelium into deep soft tissues. If located near the nipple, the lesion may be in a lactiferous sinus (squamous metaplasia of lactiferous ducts or recurrent subareolar abscess).

Fibroepithelial Polyp (Acrochordon). A flesh colored papule often designated "skin tag" by the clinician.

Basal Cell Carcinoma. Translucent papule or plaque with a yellow or pearly hue. Central ulceration with a rolled border is common in larger lesions. The outer margin tends to be sharply demarcated from the surrounding skin.

Squamous Cell Carcinoma. A raised irregular flesh colored lesion that is often centrally ulcerated.

Nevus. A pigmented or flesh-colored flat or raised lesion. Dysplastic nevi have some of the characteristics of melanoma such as an irregular shape and some variation in pigmentation.

Malignant Melanoma. The most common appearance is as a pigmented lesion with irregular or notched borders. The pigmentation is often variable and may be very dark. Nodules or ulcers within the lesion are usually indicative of invasion.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Small ellipses (<2 cm):** The lesion is entirely submitted in the first cassette(s). Submit tips in one cassette (if unoriented) or in two cassettes (if oriented).
- **Larger ellipses (>2 cm):** Representative sections of the lesion and margins submitted. Re-excisions must have the margins carefully evaluated.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received in formalin labeled with the patient's name, unit number, and "right shoulder" is a 2.5 × 1 × 0.8 cm (depth) skin ellipse with tan/brown skin and an orienting suture at one tip (designated by the surgeon as 12 o'clock). There is a variegated brown and black lesion (1 × 0.8 cm) with markedly irregular borders with notching located in the center of the ellipse. Within the lesion there is a raised black nodule (0.3 × 0.3 cm) that grossly appears to extend through the epidermis into the dermis and is 0.2 cm from the deep resection margin. The closest margin is the 3 o'clock margin, which is 0.1 cm from the lesion. The 3 o'clock margin is inked black and the 9 o'clock margin is inked blue.

Cassette #1: 12 o'clock margin, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassette #2: 6 o'clock margin, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassette #3: Cross sections from 3 to 9 o'clock, 4 frags, ESS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR SKIN CARCINOMAS

- **Procedure:** Punch biopsy, shave biopsy, curettings, excisional biopsy (ellipse)
- **Tumor Site:** Specify, if known
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (additional dimensions optional)
- **Histologic Type:** Squamous cell (subtypes: acantholytic, adenosquamous, basaloid, spindle cell (sarcomatoid), pseudovascular, undifferentiated (lymphoepithelioma), verrucous), basal cell, adenocarcinomas of sweat and sebaceous glands
- **Histologic Grade:** Well, moderate, poor, or undifferentiated (Table 18-2)
- **Maximum Tumor Thickness:** Thickness in millimeters
- **Anatomic Level:** Clark level (I to V)
- **Margins:** Radial ("peripheral" or non-deep): uninvolved (optional: distance form closest margin), involved (specify location if possible). Specify if carcinoma in situ or invasive carcinoma at margin.
  - Deep: Uninvolved (optional: distance form closest margin), involved (specify location if possible)
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Perineural Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Lymph Nodes:** Number of nodes, number of nodes with metastases
  - Optional: Size of largest metastatic deposit
- **Extranodal Extension**: Not identified, present
- **Tumor Features**: Inflammatory response, association with actinic keratosis, association with human papilloma virus (HPV), association with Bowen disease
- **Adjacent Epithelium**: Dysplasia, grade (mild, moderate, severe/CIS), extent (focal, multifocal, extensive), proximity to invasive carcinoma (adjacent or distant)

TABLE 18–2. HISTOLOGIC GRADE – SQUAMOUS CELL CARCINOMA

Grade 1	*Well differentiated* tumors are characterized by squamous epithelium that frequently shows easily recognizable and often abundant keratinization. Intercellular bridges are readily apparent. There is minimal pleomorphism, and mitotic figures are mainly basally located.
Grade 2	*Moderately differentiated* tumors show more structural disorganization in which squamous epithelial derivation is less obvious. Nuclear and cytoplasmic pleomorphism are more pronounced, and mitotic figures may be numerous. Keratin formation is typically limited to keratin pearls, horn cysts, and scattered individually keratinized cells.
Grade 3	In *poorly differentiated* tumors it may be difficult to establish squamous differentiation, usually by identification of rare intercellular bridges or small foci of keratinization.
Grade 4	Used to denote anaplastic or *undifferentiated* tumors.

From Protocol for the Examination of Specimens from Patients with Squamous Cell Carcinoma of the Skin (www.cap.org).

TABLE 18–3. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF CUTANEOUS SQUAMOUS CELL CARCINOMA AND OTHER CUTANEOUS CARCINOMAS

TUMOR		
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.	
T0	No evidence of primary tumor	
Tis	Carcinoma in situ	
T1	Tumor 2 cm or less in greatest dimension with less than two high-risk features*	
T2	Tumor greater than 2 cm in greatest dimension *or* Tumor any size with two or more high-risk features*	
T3	Tumor with invasion of maxilla, mandible, orbit, or temporal bone	
T4	Tumor with invasion of skeleton (axial or appendicular) or perneural invasion of skull base	
***HIGH-RISK FEATURES FOR THE PRIMARY TUMOR (T) STAGING**		
	Depth/invasion	> 2 mm thickness Clark level ≥ IV Perineural invasion
	Anatomic location	Primary site ear Primary site non-hair-bearing lip
	Differentiation	Poorly differentiated or undifferentiated
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES		
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.	
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis	
N1	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node, 3 cm or less in greater dimension.	
N2	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node, more than 3 cm but not more than 6 cm in greatest dimension; or in multiple ipsilateral lymph nodes, none more than 6 cm in greatest dimension; or in bilateral or contralateral lymph nodes, none more than 6 cm in greatest dimension.	
N2a	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node, more than 3 cm but not more than 6 cm in greatest dimension.	
N2b	Metastasis in multiple ipsilateral lymph nodes, none more than 6 cm in greatest dimension.	
N2c	Metastasis in bilateral or contralateral lymph nodes, none more than 6 cm in greatest dimension.	
N3	Metastasis in a lymph node, more than 6 cm in greatest dimension	
DISTANT METASTASIS		
M0	No distant metastasis	
M1	Distant metastasis	

Note: Used for squamous cell and basal cell carcinomas of the skin and adenocarcinomas developing from sweat or sebaceous glands. The classification is not used for carcinomas of the eyelid, melanomas, or Merkel cell carcinomas.
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.

- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 18-3). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements

TABLE 18–4. BRESLOW DEPTH OF INVASION	
Nonulcerated lesions	Measure from the top of the granular layer to the deepest point of invasion
Ulcerated lesions	Measure from the ulcer base overlying the deepest point of invasion
Difficult cases	Melanocytes in junctional nests (i.e., not invasive into stroma) are not included in the measurement. This includes junctional involvement of skin appendages. Microscopic satellite lesions in reticular dermis are sometimes used in measurements. It is usually preferable to measure a contiguous area of invasion from the surface. If satellite lesions are used, this can be described in the report. If there is marked epidermal hyperplasia (resulting in a thickened granular layer), then the measurement may overestimate the thickness of the melanoma. This situation can be described in the report. Lesions with tangential sectioning or curetted lesions cannot have the depth measured accurately.

Measurements should be performed with an ocular reticule.
Adapted from Breslow A: Thickness, cross-sectional areas and depth of invasion in the prognosis of cutaneous melanoma. Ann Surg 172:902-908, 1970.

are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR MELANOMA OF THE SKIN

- **Procedure:** Punch biopsy, shave biopsy, excisional biopsy, re-excision, lymphadenectomy (sentinel or regional nodes)
- **Specimen Laterality:** Right, left, midline
- **Tumor Site:** Specify (if known)
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (optional: additional dimensions), if gross tumor is present
- **Macroscopic Satellite Nodules:** Not identified, present (specify)
  - Distance from primary tumor
- **Macroscopic Pigmentation**: Not identified, present, diffuse, present, patchy/focal, indeterminate
- **Histologic Type:** Lentigo maligna, superficial spreading, nodular, acral lentiginous, desmoplastic, others
- **Maximal Tumor Thickness:** Measure in millimeters
  Prognosis is primarily related to the depth of invasion measured vertically in millimeters from the granular cell layer of the epidermis (or the base of the ulcer, if ulcerated) to the deepest point of tumor penetration, excluding tumor surrounding skin appendages (see Breslow A, Thickness, cross-sectional areas, and depth of invasion in the prognosis of cutaneous melanoma, Ann Surg 172:902-908, 1970, Table 18-4). If satellite lesions are used in this measurement, this should be recorded. An ocular micrometer should be used for measurements.
- **Anatomic Level**: Clark level (I to V; Table 18-5)
- **Ulceration:** Not identified, present
  - Post traumatic ulceration (e.g., due to prior surgery) should be distinguished from ulceration due to invasion by tumor when possible. The width of the ulcerated area should be reported.
  - Ulceration includes the following features:
  - Full-thickness epidermal defect (including absence of stratum corneum and basement membrane)
  - Reactive changes (fibrin deposition, neutrophils)
  - Surrounding epidermis is thinned or may show reactive hyperplasia
- **Margins:** Peripheral and deep: Involved or free, positive = ink on tumor. The distance to the closest margins should be given. Specify whether melanoma in situ or invasive melanoma.
- **Mitotic Index:** Mitoses per mm^2 < 1 mitotic figure per mm^2 or ≥ 1 mitotic figure per mm^2 is used for AJCC classification.

TABLE 18–5. CLARK LEVEL	
Level I	Melanoma confined to the epidermis and epidermal appendages
Level II	Extension into the papillary dermis by single cells, and sometimes small clusters of cells, with, at most, only a few cells extending to the interface between the papillary and reticular dermis
Level III	Extension of tumor cells throughout the papillary dermis, filling it and impinging upon the reticular dermis but not invading it
Level IV	Invasion of the reticular dermis
Level V	Invasion of the subcutaneous fat

Adapted from Clark WH Jr, From L, Bernardino EH, et al: Histogenesis and biologic behavior of primary human malignant melanoma of the skin. Cancer Res 29:705-727, 1969.

TABLE 18–6. IMMUNOHISTOCHEMICAL MELANOMA MARKERS		
TYPE OF CELL IN THE LYMPH NODE	S100	MART-1
Metastatic melanoma	POS	High*
Nevus cells	POS	POS
Dendritic cells	POS	neg
Nerves, ganglion cells	POS	neg

*About 20% of metastatic melanomas are negative for HMB45 and MART-1.

  - Assessed in the vertical growth phase (not the intraepidermal component). The area with the greatest number of mitoses should be counted first, and then the surrounding area, until a 1 mm^2 area has been counted. The size of a microscopic field depends on the microscope (see "Measuring with the Microscope").
- **Microsatellitosis:** Not identified, present. Defined as tumor cell nests greater than 0.05 mm in size in the reticular dermis, panniculus, or vessels beneath the principal invasive tumor but separated from it by at least 0.3 mm of normal tissue.
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Perineural Invasion**: Not identified, present
- **Tumor Infiltrating Lymphocytes (TILs)**: Not identified, non-brisk, brisk
  - TILs absent: no lymphocytes present, or present but do not infiltrate tumor
  - TILs non-brisk: lymphocytes infiltrate melanoma only focally or not along the entire base of the vertical growth phase
  - TILs brisk: lymphocytes diffusely infiltrate the entire base of the vertical growth phase or the entire invasive component of the melanoma.
- **Tumor Regression**: Not identified, present involving < 75%, present involving 75% or more of lesion
  - Partial or complete obliteration of melanoma by host response (fibrosis, telangiectasia, lymphocytes, and melanophagocytosis)
- **Growth Phase**: Radial growth phase: Present or not identified, type (lentigo maligna, acral-lentiginous, superficial spreading). The tumor is generally of uniform cytologic appearance and is wider than it is deep.
  - Vertical growth phase: Present or not identified, type (epithelioid, spindle, or mixed). Expansile nests of tumor cells are present in the papillary and/or reticular dermis.
- **Lymph Nodes:** Number of nodes examined, number of sentinel nodes, number of nodes with metastases
  - Extranodal invasion not identified or present

TABLE 18–7. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF MELANOMA OF THE SKIN

TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed. (e.g., curettaged or severely regressed melanoma)
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	Melanoma in situ
T1	Melanomas 1.0 mm or less in thickness with or without ulceration
T1a	≤ 1.0 mm in thickness, without ulceration, and mitosis < 1/mm^2
T1b	≤ 1.0 mm in thickness, with ulceration, or mitoses ≥ 1/mm^2
T2	Melanomas 1.01 to 2.0 mm in thickness with or without ulceration
T2a	1.01 to 2.0 mm in thickness without ulceration
T2b	1.01 to 2.0 mm in thickness with ulceration
T3	Melanomas 2.01 to 4.0 mm in thickness with or without ulceration
T3a	2.01 to 4.0 mm in thickness without ulceration
T3b	2.01 to 4.0 mm in thickness with ulceration
T4	Melanomas more than 4.0 mm in thickness with or without ulceration
T4a	> 4.0 mm in thickness without ulceration
T4b	> 4.0 mm in thickness with ulceration
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Patients in whom regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed (e.g., previously removed for another reason)
N0	No regional metastasis detected
N1	Metastasis in one lymph node
N1a	Clinically occult (microscopic) metastasis
N1b	Clinically apparent (macroscopic) metastasis
N2	Metastasis in two to three regional nodes or intralymphatic regional metastasis without nodal metastases
N2a	Clinically occult (microscopic) metastasis
N2b	Clinically apparent (macroscopic) metastasis
N2c	Satellite or in-transit metastasis without nodal metastasis
N3	Metastasis in four or more nodes, or matted nodes, or in transit metastasis/satellites with metastatic nodes.

Micrometastases are diagnosed after sentinel node biopsy and completion lymphadenectomy (if performed). A micrometastasis is a pathologically documented metastasis (of any size) in a node detected by clinical or radiologic examination. Metastases detected only by immunohistochemical studies (i.e., not present on H&E slides) should be confirmed by at least one melanoma-associated marker (e.g., HMB-45, Melan-A/MART-1) in addition to less specific markers such as S100 or tyrosinase.
Macrometastases are defined as clinically detectable nodal metastases confirmed by therapeutic lymphadenectomy or when nodal metastasis exhibits extracapsular extension.

TABLE 18–7. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF MELANOMA OF THE SKIN—cont'd

Definitions:
Satellite metastases: Defined arbitrarily as grossly visible cutaneous and/or subcutaneous metastases occurring within 2 cm of the primary melanoma.
Microsatellite metastases: Microscopic and discontinuous cutaneous and/or subcutaneous metastases found on pathologic examination adjacent to a primary melanoma.
In transit metastases: Defined arbitrarily as clinically evident cutaneous and/or subcutaneous metastases identified at a distance greater than 2 cm from the primary melanoma in the region between the primary and the first echelon of regional lymph nodes.

DISTANT METASTASIS	
M0	No detectable evidence of distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
M1a	Metastasis to skin, subcutaneous tissue, or distant lymph nodes, LDH is normal
M1b	Lung metastases, LDH is normal
M1c	All other visceral metastases, LDH is normal *or* Any distant metastasis, LDH is elevated

Note: This classification is not used for melanomas of sites other than skin (e.g., ocular, mucosal, urethral, etc.).
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.

Location of metastatic tumor in sentinel node: subcapsular, intramedullary, or subcapsular and intramedullary.
Sentinel nodes may be examined by mutliple H&E levels and immunoperoxidase studies; a standard protocol for all institutions has not been established. Typically, three H&E levels and one to three immunohistochemical studies on intervening levels are examined. S100 is sensitive but other markers are more specific (Table 18-6). The significance of small metastases (< 0.2 cm) is unknown but is currently being investigated.

- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Tables 18-7 and 18-8). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

LARGE SKIN EXCISIONS

Large resections are usually carried out after the lesion has been biopsied and a diagnosis made.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record the dimensions (length, width, depth), skin color, lesions, scars (presence of a prior biopsy scar), and deep margin (soft tissue, fascia, muscle). Describe the closest approach of the lesion to a margin.
2. Ink all margins, excluding skin surfaces. All sections taken must be thin to allow for adequate fixation of the fatty subcutaneous tissue.
3. There is usually an orienting suture with a designated "o'clock." If there are no orienting sutures, try to pick an identifiable area to designate 12 o'clock. Document in the gross description that the specimen is unoriented and the o'clock designations are arbitrarily assigned. Take four perpendicular sections of the margin at 12 o'clock, 3 o'clock, 6 o'clock, and 9 o'clock but including the closest approach of tumor to the margin(s). This is adequate unless the lesion is grossly at or near the margin. More sections are taken in these areas.

TABLE 18–8. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION – MERKEL CELL CARCINOMA

TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor (e.g., nodal/metastatic presentation without associated primary)
Tis	In situ primary tumor
T1	Less than or equal to 2 cm maximum tumor dimension
T2	Greater than 2 cm but not more than 5 cm maximum tumor dimension
T3	Over 5 cm maximum tumor dimension
T4	Primary tumor invades bone, muscle, fascia, or cartilage
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
cN0	Nodes negative by clinical exam* (no pathologic node exam performed)
pN0	Nodes negative by pathologic exam
N1	Metastasis in regional lymph node(s)
N1a	Micrometastasis
N1b	Macrometastasis
N2	In transit metastasis
* Clinical detection of nodal disease may be via inspection, palpation, and/or imaging. *Micrometastases* are diagnosed after sentinel or elective lymphadenectomy. A micrometastasis is a pathologically documented metastasis (of any size) in a node not detected by clinical or radiologic examination. *Macrometastases* are defined as clinically detectable nodal metastases confirmed by therapeutic lymphadenectomy or needle biopsy. *In transit metastasis:* a tumor distinct from the primary lesion and located either (1) between the primary lesion and the draining regional lymph nodes or (2) distal to the primary lesion.	
DISTANT METASTASIS	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Metastasis beyond regional lymph nodes
M1a	Metastasis to skin, subcutaneous tissues, or distant lymph nodes
M1b	Metastasis to lung
M1c	Metastasis to all other visceral sites
This system does not include Merkel Cell carcinoma of the eyelid. From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.	

Even the smallest ellipses must be cross-sectioned perpendicular to the scar (i.e., do not bisect longitudinally) in order to evaluate the closest (lateral) margins.

4. Block out the lesion or the biopsy scar and submit the entire lesion or biopsy site. If these sections do not include the deep margin, separate sections of the deep margin should be submitted.
5. Carefully section through soft tissue looking for lymph nodes. Submit all lymph nodes found.
6. Draw a diagram of the specimen that includes the location of all sections taken and a key to the corresponding cassettes in which they are submitted. This is particularly important for irregularly shaped specimens.

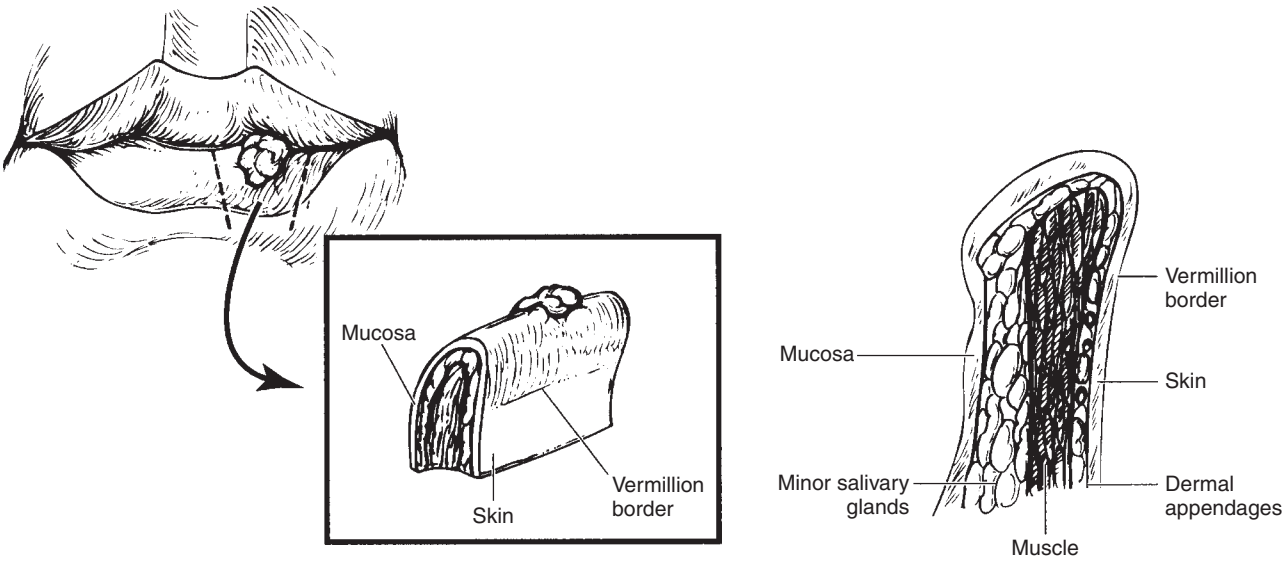

Figure 18–3. Lip resection.

LIP EXCISIONS

Squamous cell carcinoma is the most common neoplasm of the lip. The specimens are more complicated because there is often both a mucosal and skin surface (Fig. 18-3). There are three margins: the side margins (lateral and medial) margins and a deep margin.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Describe the specimen including overall dimensions and dimensions of mucosal and skin surfaces.
2. Describe any lesions including size, color, quality (exophytic, verrucous, polypoid, ulcerated), and location (with respect to skin, mucosa, and vermilion border, and distance from margins).
3. Ink the lateral, medial, and deep surgical margins.
4. Serially section the specimen. Note the depth of invasion of the tumor. Submit sections demonstrating the tumor and its deepest extent, relationship to skin and mucosa, and relationship to all margins.
5. Draw a diagram showing the location of the lesion and a key to the location of tissue sections and the corresponding cassettes.

FORESKIN

The foreskins of newborn infants are generally not submitted for histologic examination unless there are gross abnormalities. Circumcisions of older males are performed in two age groups:

- Young adults (18 to 25 years old): Usually performed for phimosis due to a subtle anatomic defect (e.g., minimal hypospadias). The only histologic finding is slight nonspecific chronic balanitis.
- Older men (>50): A specific inflammatory or neoplastic lesion is usually found. Common lesions are condylomas, balanitis xerotica obliterans (lichen sclerosus), balanitis circumscripta plasmacellularis (Zoon's balanitis), squamous cell carcinoma in situ, and invasive squamous cell carcinomas. If no lesions are detected on the initial sections, and the clinical history is not provided, call the clinician to find out the reason for the circumcision.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Measure length, width, and thickness. The specimen usually consists of a rectangle of tissue including skin and mucosa on the surface with underlying loose areolar tissue. It is usually not possible to orient the specimen as to proximal and distal margins.
2. Examine the surface carefully for any epidermal lesions. If any are present, describe size, appearance (verrucous, papillary, ulcerated), depth of invasion, and distance from the nearest cut edge. Ink margins if a focal lesion is present.

Describe the uninvolved skin including color, texture (rugose, atrophic, thickened).

3. The specimen is sectioned longitudinally including both skin and mucosa. One cassette with representative sections is adequate if there are no gross lesions and the foreskin is removed in the clinical context of phimosis. Additional cassettes are submitted to document all lesions and adjacent margins.

FINGERNAILS AND TOENAILS

Clippings

Toenail clippings may be sent for the evaluation of fungal infection. Inform the histology laboratory that the specimen consists of a nail as these specimens are usually very difficult to section and may require special techniques for softening.[1,2] Order a PAS stain (for fungi).

Nail bed biopsies are usually submitted for the evaluation of pigmented lesions. Do not order a PAS stain on these specimens.

Tumor

Subungual melanomas occur in all ethnic groups but are proportionately more common in persons of color. These lesions may present as linear pigmented streaks of the nail, if the melanoma cells involve the nail matrix. Specimens consisting of only the nail (and not the matrix) will not be diagnostic because melanocytes are not present. The appropriate specimen is a punch biopsy of the nail matrix. If a nail is received with a pigmented area, it is submitted for microscopic examination for evaluation of an atypical melanocytic lesion or melanoma.

REFERENCES

1. Lewin K, et al: Softening techniques for nail biopsies. Arch Dermatol 107:223-224, 1973.
2. Shapiro L. Softening hard keratin in specimens for microscopic sections. Am J Clin Pathol 54:773-774, 1970.

19 Gastrointestinal Specimens (Including Hepatobiliary and Pancreatic Specimens)

Specimens from the gastrointestinal tract are common. Endoscopic biopsies are often performed to evaluate patients with symptoms (bleeding, diarrhea, malabsorption), to look for pathogens, as well as to evaluate mass lesions (polyps and tumors). Resections are commonly performed for tumors but are also performed for inflammatory bowel disease, diverticulosis, and ischemic bowel.

ESOPHAGUS

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

TABLE 19–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY – ESOPHAGUS

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR ESOPHAGEAL SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Gross appearance of lesions (e.g., raised masses, ulcers, strictures)
Purpose of the procedure	
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	Location of biopsies in the esophagus
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	→ for example, a history of reflux or lye ingestion
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	→ for example, a history of Barrett's esophagus
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Compromised immune system	→ for example, thrush, HIV, bone marrow transplant

Biopsies

Biopsies are commonly performed for evaluation of heartburn (e.g., due to reflux or ulcers in immunocompromised patients), for the evaluation of dysphagia (usually secondary to strictures or tumors), or surveillance for dysplasia in patients known to have Barrett's esophagus. Small biopsies are submitted as described in Chapter 13.

Esophagectomies

The esophagus is usually removed with the proximal stomach for severe dysplasia or for adenocarcinoma arising in a background of Barrett's esophagus. Patients with squamous cell carcinomas are often treated with chemotherapy and radiation therapy prior to resection.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Stapled margins are removed by cutting away the staple line (as close as possible to the staples) with a pair of scissors. Locate the lesion by gently palpating the GE junction with one finger in the lumen. Open the specimen longitudinally. Avoid cutting across any palpable lesions.
2. Record the length, circumference, and wall thickness of the esophagus and of the stomach. Record the size of any lesions and the distance to distal and proximal margins.
3. Ink the proximal and distal margins and the deep margin underneath the tumor. Pin out on a board. If the tumor is large, make one to three longitudinal cuts into the tumor to aid in fixation. The specimen is fixed in formalin overnight.
   Describe the lesion and/or area of ulceration (if no gross tumor is present after preoperative therapy) including size, color, tumor configuration (exophytic or polypoid, ulcerated, or infiltrative), depth of invasion, location (including relationship to squamo-columnar junction), percent of circumference involved, luminal diameter at the site of the tumor, and proximal dilatation.
   The distance from the margins (distal, proximal, and deep) should be measured as soon as possible on the fresh specimen as considerable retraction occurs after excision.
   The squamo-columnar junction (Z line) is the intersection of glandular and squamous mucosa. The GE junction is defined as the junction of the tubular esophagus and the sack-shaped stomach, irrespective of the type of mucosa present. In normal individuals, this point usually corresponds to the proximal extent of the gastric folds. Any proximal displacement of the Z line above the GE junction is indicative of columnar-line (Barrett's) esophagus.
4. Describe uninvolved mucosa.
   - Normal esophagus (squamous): glistening smooth white mucosa.
   - Normal stomach (glandular): velvety pink/red mucosa with rugal folds.
   - Barrett's mucosa (glandular): pale pink, finely granular, and may be patchy.
5. The adventitial soft tissue away from the tumor can be stripped and placed in Bouin's to aid in identifying lymph nodes. Nodes are virtually always present and may be located very close to the esophagus or stomach. Even small areas of attached adipose tissue need to be searched for lymph nodes.
6. Submit sections after fixing the specimen overnight. Section through the fat and submit all lymph nodes.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

See Figure 19-1.

Adenocarcinomas of the esophagus are usually present at or just above the GE junction and have a gross appearance similar to colonic adenocarcinomas. The main tumor is often tan/pink, polypoid, and may have an ulcerated center. These tumors often tunnel underneath the proximal noninvolved squamous mucosa and may be present at the proximal or distal margins in the submucosa. This is of great importance when evaluating margins intraoperatively. A section that includes the full thickness of the esophageal or gastric wall should be taken.

Occasionally gastric tumors arising in the proximal stomach may be removed using a similar procedure. Note the location of the center of the tumor in relation to the GE junction to help discriminate between esophageal and gastric origin.

Barrett's Mucosa is pale pink, finely granular, and may be patchy. It is distinct from the normal esophageal squamous mucosa, which is white, smooth, and glistening. Barrett's mucosa is found extending proximally from the GE junction. It is often seen in association with esophageal adenocarcinomas, although the tumor may have obliterated the precursor lesion.

Squamous Cell Carcinomas can occur at any level of the esophagus. These tumors may be exophytic (intraluminal), ulcerating, or present as a diffuse thickening with narrowing of the lumen. In most

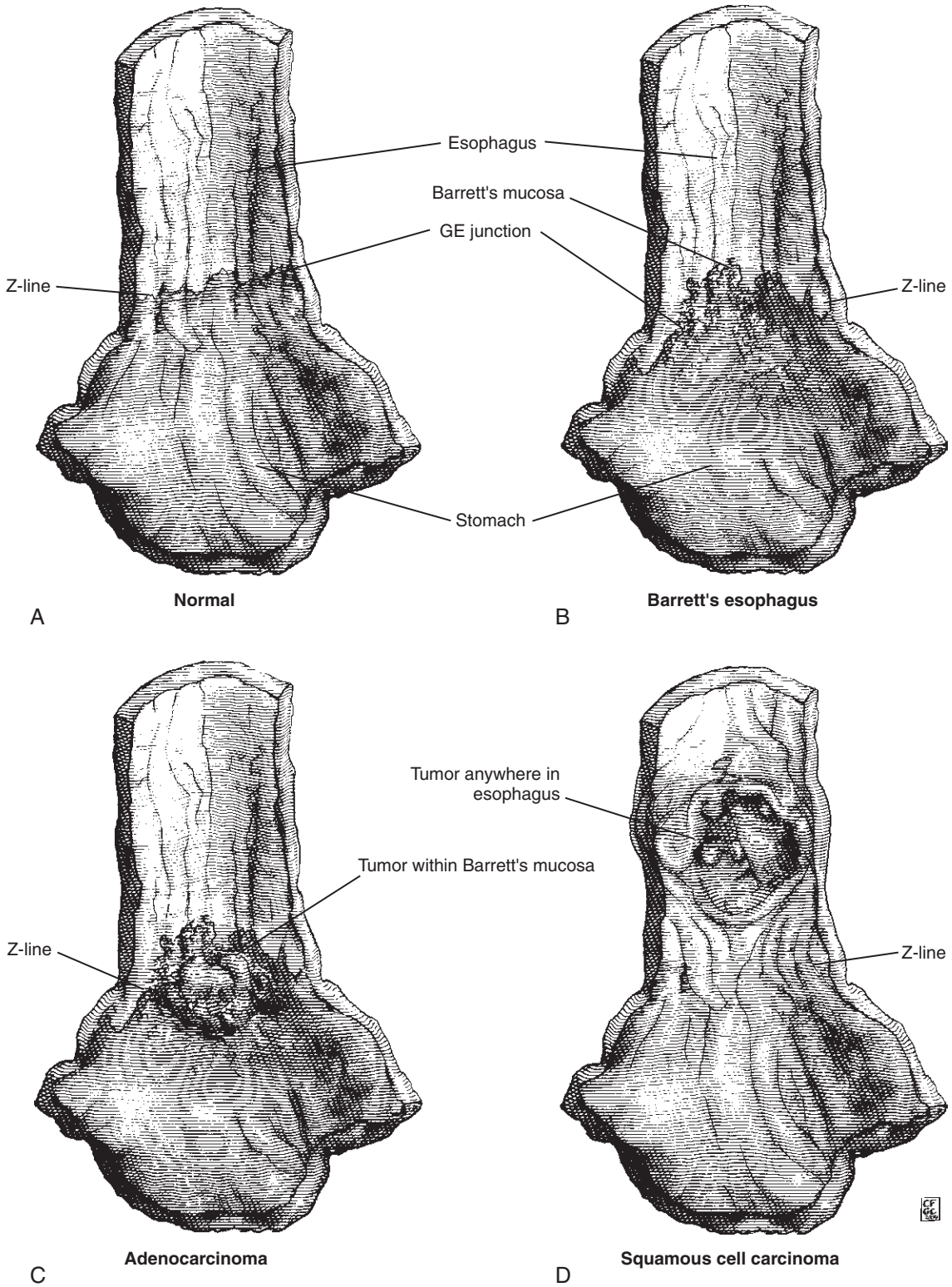

Figure 19–1. Esophagectomy specimens.

cases, preoperative radiation therapy will have been given. The residual tumor may be difficult to appreciate grossly and may consist of areas of shallow ulceration or irregular/granular appearing squamous mucosa. Intraoperatively the margins should be evaluated for carcinoma in situ in the squamous mucosa.

Tumors After Treatment. The main tumor mass may be absent with only a shallow ulceration present at its former site. Post-radiation changes may be present including fibrosis and esophageal mucosal erosions.

Leiomyomas of the esophagus almost always arise from the muscularis propria and only rarely from the muscularis mucosae. The tumors are well circumscribed, pink to white, and have a whorled appearance, similar to uterine leiomyomas. Most are present within the wall, but some may project into the lumen as a polypoid mass. GISTs are less common than leiomyomas in the esophagus, but are more common at other sites in the GI tract.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** Four or fewer sections including maximal depth of invasion, relationship to esophagus and stomach. Longitudinal sections are usually best.
  - If no gross tumor is present, block out the ulcerated/fibrosed area and submit four sections.
- **Margins:** Up to three sections of proximal, distal, and deep margins. The deep margin can usually also be one of the tumor blocks. Use en face (not perpendicular) sections of the proximal margins unless tumor and margin can be included in multiple perpendicular sections.
- **Esophagus and stomach:** Document normal esophageal and gastric mucosa if not included in margins.
- **Other lesions:** Submit sections of all other gross lesions including a representative area of Barrett's mucosa.
- **Lymph nodes:** Submit all lymph nodes found (see Chapter 27).

Note: LYMPH NODES ARE ALWAYS PRESENT. They may be very close to the esophageal wall. ALL attached adipose tissue must be searched for nodes.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "esophagus" is an esophagectomy and partial gastrectomy specimen consisting of esophagus (15 cm in length × 4 cm in circumference) and stomach (5 cm in length × 12 cm in circumference). There is a 3.5 × 3 cm tan/pink, firm, centrally-ulcerated tumor mass arising just proximal to, and partially involving, the gastroesophageal junction. The tumor invades into and focally through the muscularis propria into adjacent soft tissue. Tumor is present 0.1 cm from the deep margin which is inked. The tumor is 12 cm from the proximal margin and 5 cm from the distal margin. The esophageal mucosa adjacent to the tumor is tan/pink and finely granular and extends to within 5 cm of the proximal resection margin. The remainder of the mucosal surfaces are unremarkable. Five lymph nodes are found in the surrounding soft tissue, the largest measuring 1 cm in greatest dimension. This node is very firm and white. The specimen is photographed.

Cassettes #1-2: Tumor and deepest extent of invasion and deep margin, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassette #3: Tumor and adjacent esophageal mucosa, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #4: Tumor and adjacent gastric mucosa, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #5: Proximal margin, en face, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #6: Distal margin, en face, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #7: Abnormal esophageal mucosa, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #8: Largest lymph node, 3 frags, ESS.
Cassette #9: Four lymph nodes, 4 frags, ESS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR ESOPHAGEAL CARCINOMAS

- **Specimen:** Esophagus, proximal stomach
- **Procedure:** Endoscopic resection, esophagectomy, esophagogastrectomy, other
- **Tumor Site:** Center of tumor and extent of tumor: GE junction, stomach, location in esophagus
- **Relationship of Tumor to Esophagogastric Junction:** Entirely within tubular esophagus, tumor midpoint in the distal esophagus and involves GE junction, tumor midpoint at the GE junction, tumor midpoint in the proximal stomach or cardia and involves the GE junction
  - Give the distance of the tumor center from the GE junction, if applicable.
- Carcinomas with the epicenter within the proximal 5 cm of the stomach (cardia) that extend into the GE junction are classified as esophageal carcinomas for AJCC staging. Carcinomas within the proximal 5 cm of the stomach that do not extend into the GE junction, or carcinomas with the epicenter greater than 5 cm from the GE junction are classified as gastric carcinomas.

- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (additional dimensions are optional). Provide the greatest longitudinal dimension, the distance of the midpoint of the tumor from the GE junction, and the relative proportions of the tumor in the esophagus and in the stomach.
- **Histologic Type:** Adenocarcinoma (including mucinous [> 50% mucinous], signet ring cell [>50% signet ring cells] types), squamous cell carcinoma (including verrucous, spindle cell, and basaloid types), adenosquamous carcinoma, small cell carcinoma, undifferentiated carcinoma, other rare types. The WHO Classification is recommended.
- **Histologic Grade:** Well, moderately, or poorly differentiated, or undifferentiated (Tables 19-2 and 19-3)

TABLE 19-2. GRADING SYSTEM FOR ESOPHAGEAL ADENOCARCINOMAS

Grade X	Grade cannot be assessed.
Grade 1	Well differentiated (> 95% gland forming, includes tubular)
Grade 2	Moderately differentiated (50% to 95% of tumor composed of glands)
Grade 3	Poorly differentiated (< 49% of tumor composed of glands, includes signet ring cell carcinomas)
Grade 4	Undifferentiated (cannot be categorized as squamous cell carcinoma or adenocarcinoma) (includes small cell carcinoma)

The tumor is given the grade of the least differentiated part. Mucoepidermoid carcinomas and adenoid cystic carcinomas are not usually graded. For the purpose of AJCC staging, grade X carcinomas are grouped as grade 1 carcinomas and grade 4 carcinomas are staged as grade 3 squamous cell carcinomas.

TABLE 19-3. GRADING SYSTEM FOR ESOPHAGEAL SQUAMOUS CELL CARCINOMAS

Grade X	Grade cannot be assessed.
Grade 1	Well differentiated
Grade 2	Moderately differentiated
Grade 3	Poorly differentiated
Grade 4	Undifferentiated (cannot be categorized as squamous cell carcinoma or adenocarcinoma)

The tumor is given the grade of the least differentiated part. For the purpose of AJCC staging, grade X carcinomas are grouped as grade 1 carcinomas and grade 4 carcinomas are staged as grade 3 squamous cell carcinomas.

- **Microscopic Tumor:** High-grade dysplasia (carcinoma in situ) (Tis), invasion into lamina propria (T1a), invasion into muscularis mucosae (T1a), invasion into submucosa (T1b), invasion into muscularis propria (T2), invasion through muscularis propria into the periesophageal soft tissue (adventitia) (T3), invasion into adjacent structures (T4)
- **Margins:** Proximal, distal, and circumferential (radial or adventitial margin; soft tissue at deepest extent of tumor), involved or not involved, distance from closest margin, centimeters of involvement, type of mucosa at margin. Margins are also evaluated for the presence of dysplasia and/or Barrett mucosa.
- **Treatment Effect:** No prior treatment, no residual tumor (complete response, grade 0), marked response (grade 1, minimal residual cancer as single cells or small groups of cells), moderate response (grade 2, residual cancer outgrown by fibrosis), no definite response (poor or no response, grade 3 as extensive residual cancer)
  - Pools of acellular mucin should not be interpreted as residual carcinoma.
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Perineural Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** The total number and location of nodes examined should be specified, when possible.
  - The nodes around the stomach and esophagus are considered regional nodes.
  - Mediastinal nodes are regional nodes for the intrathoracic esophagus.
  - Cervical and supraclavicular nodes are regional nodes for the cervical esophagus.

  - Number of positive lymph nodes
  - Presence or absence of extranodal extension
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Barrett esophagus (intestinal metaplasia), dysplasia (low grade, high grade), esophagitis (type), gastritis (type), *Helicobacter pylori*, ulceration, granulomas
- **Ancillary Studies:** If performed.
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 19-4). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see *www.cap.org/*) and the ADASP (see *www.adasp.org*). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

TABLE 19-4. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF ESOPHAGEAL CARCINOMAS

TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	High-grade dysplasia*
T1	Tumor invades lamina propria, muscularis mucosae, or submucosa
T1a	Tumor invades lamina propria or muscularis mucosae
T1b	Tumor invades submucosa
T2	Tumor invades muscularis propria
T3	Tumor invades adventitia
T4	Tumor invades adjacent structures
T4a	Resectable tumor invading pleura, pericardium, or diaphragm
T4b	Unresectable tumor invading other adjacent structures, such as aorta, vertebral body, trachea, etc.
*High-grade dysplasia includes all noninvasive neoplastic epithelia that were formerly called carcinoma in situ, a diagnosis that is no longer used for columnar mucosae anywhere in the gastrointestinal tract.	
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Metastasis in 1-2 regional lymph nodes
N2	Metastasis in 3-6 regional lymph nodes
N3	Metastasis in seven or more regional lymph nodes
DISTANT METASTASIS	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
Note: This classification includes squamous cell carcinomas and adenocarcinomas but not well-differentiated neuroendocrine tumors (carcinoid tumors), lymphomas, or sarcomas. From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.	

STOMACH

The stomach is commonly affected by inflammatory processes (i.e., gastritis) as well as primary malignant tumors.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY

See Table 19-5.

TABLE 19–5. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY – STOMACH (IN addition TO AGE AND GENDER)

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR STOMACH SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Gastritis (*Helicobacter pylori* or atrophic gastritis)
Purpose of the procedure	
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	→ Gastric surgery (e.g., Billroth)
Prior malignancy	→ History of gastric dysplasia, location of biopsy
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Immunocompromise	

Biopsy

Biopsies can be processed as described in Chapter 13. Special stains (e.g., Alcian Yellow, Diff Quik, Giemsa, or Steiner) may be used to evaluate the biopsy for *Helicobacter pylori*.

If lymphoma is suspected, an unfixed biopsy specimen may be submitted. This tissue may be frozen for use for hematopathology markers.

Gastrectomy

Stomachs are resected for primary tumors (carcinoma or lymphoma, rarely partial resections for a gastrointestinal stromal tumor), less commonly for benign ulcers, and as part of larger resections (esophagogastrectomies or Whipple procedures).

Gastrectomies may be total, but usually are partial. Look carefully at the margins to determine whether duodenal or esophageal mucosa is present.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Examine the outer surface of the specimen for evidence of tumor invasion through the wall and describe the serosa (color, glistening, dull, indurated, retracted, nodules). Carefully ink the proximal and distal resection margins without getting ink on the mucosa. Once the specimen is opened, the mucosal edges tend to curl under, and it is sometimes difficult to identify the resection margins. The ink can help with this identification.
2. Very gently palpate the mucosa and wall to locate the lesion. The mucosa is very delicate and should be touched as little as possible. Open the stomach along the greater curvature, unless a lesion is present at that site. Record the length of the greater curvature, lesser curvature, proximal resection margin (circumference - look for esophageal mucosa), distal resection margin (circumference - look for duodenal mucosa), and the thickness of the wall. Cassettes can be clipped to the edges of the margins to help in identify them after the stomach is opened.

3. Identify mucosal lesions and describe:
   - Size (including depth of invasion) – Ink the deep margin of any lesions and make several cuts to evaluate the depth of penetration into the wall.
   - Color
   - Shape (ulcerating, polypoid, diffuse, exophytic)
   - Consistency (hard, firm, soft)
   - Margins of ulcers (irregular, rolled, puckered)
   - Location (cardia, fundus, antrum, greater or lesser curvature, anterior or posterior wall)
   - Perforation of wall
   - Relationship to resection margins – The distance to margins should be measured on the fresh specimen as soon as possible after resection, as considerable contraction of the specimen can occur.
   - Relationship to the visceral peritoneum – Tumor penetration of the visceral peritoneum (grossly corresponding to tumor present at the surface of the perigastric adipose tissue) is classified as T3, whereas tumor that invades into perigastric soft tissue (e.g., greater omentum) but not through visceral peritoneum is classified as T2.

     If the nature of the lesion (i.e., carcinoma vs. lymphoma) has not been established (e.g., by previous biopsy) and is not evident from the gross examination, a frozen section or cytologic preparation (e.g., a touch preparation) may be useful to aid in apportioning tissue (e.g., saving tissue for hematologic studies if lymphoma is suspected).

     Describe the uninvolved mucosa including color, texture (glistening, hemorrhagic, granular, flattened, fibrotic, constricted), and the preservation or absence of rugal folds.
4. Remove the adventitial soft tissue except at the deep margin of lesions and place in Bouin's fixative, if desired, to better visualize lymph nodes.
5. Pin out the stomach and fix overnight in formalin. The following day, submit microscopic sections of stomach and lesions. Section through soft tissue and submit all lymph nodes. Describe including size of largest node, evidence of metastasis (white, hard).

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

See Figure 19-2.

Benign Ulcers tend to be sharply delineated with converging mucosal folds. The edges are usually flat or only slightly heaped up. About 10% of ulcers thought to be clinically benign are shown to be malignant after pathologic examination. Malignancy is more common in ulcers over 2 cm in size.

Gastric Carcinomas of Intestinal Type are similar in appearance to colonic adenocarcinomas and usually arise in the antrum. The edges are usually heaped up and serpiginous with a central ulcer bed. Polypoid and villous architecture may be present. Nodularity around the edge of an ulcer or an exophytic component are more common in carcinomas. However, some tumors may be ulcerating and lack a heaped up border. Radial mucosal folds are usually absent. Intestinal-type carcinomas are associated with chronic atrophic gastritis that causes marked thinning and flattening of the surrounding mucosa. This type of carcinoma is more common in males than females.

Diffuse Type (Signet Ring Cell Carcinomas) are usually located in the prepyloric region or body of the stomach and can have minimal or absent superficial mucosal involvement. The only sign of an early lesion may be subtle mucosal effacement or erosion, which may be better appreciated in a fixed, pinned-out specimen. In advanced lesions the wall of the stomach is markedly thickened due to the infiltrative nature of the malignant cells (termed "linitis plastica") but the muscularis propria can still be identified and appears thickened and hypertrophic. It may be difficult to determine the extent of the tumor grossly. There is a similar incidence in males and females.

Lymphomas can have a gross appearance very similar to signet ring cell carcinomas, with little or no mucosal involvement (i.e., ulceration). Although they also commonly present in the distal stomach, they rarely involve the pyloric region. The gross appearance may resemble hypertrophied mucosal folds or may appear to be a large mass, sometimes with perforation. The wall may appear diffusely thickened (linitis plastica).

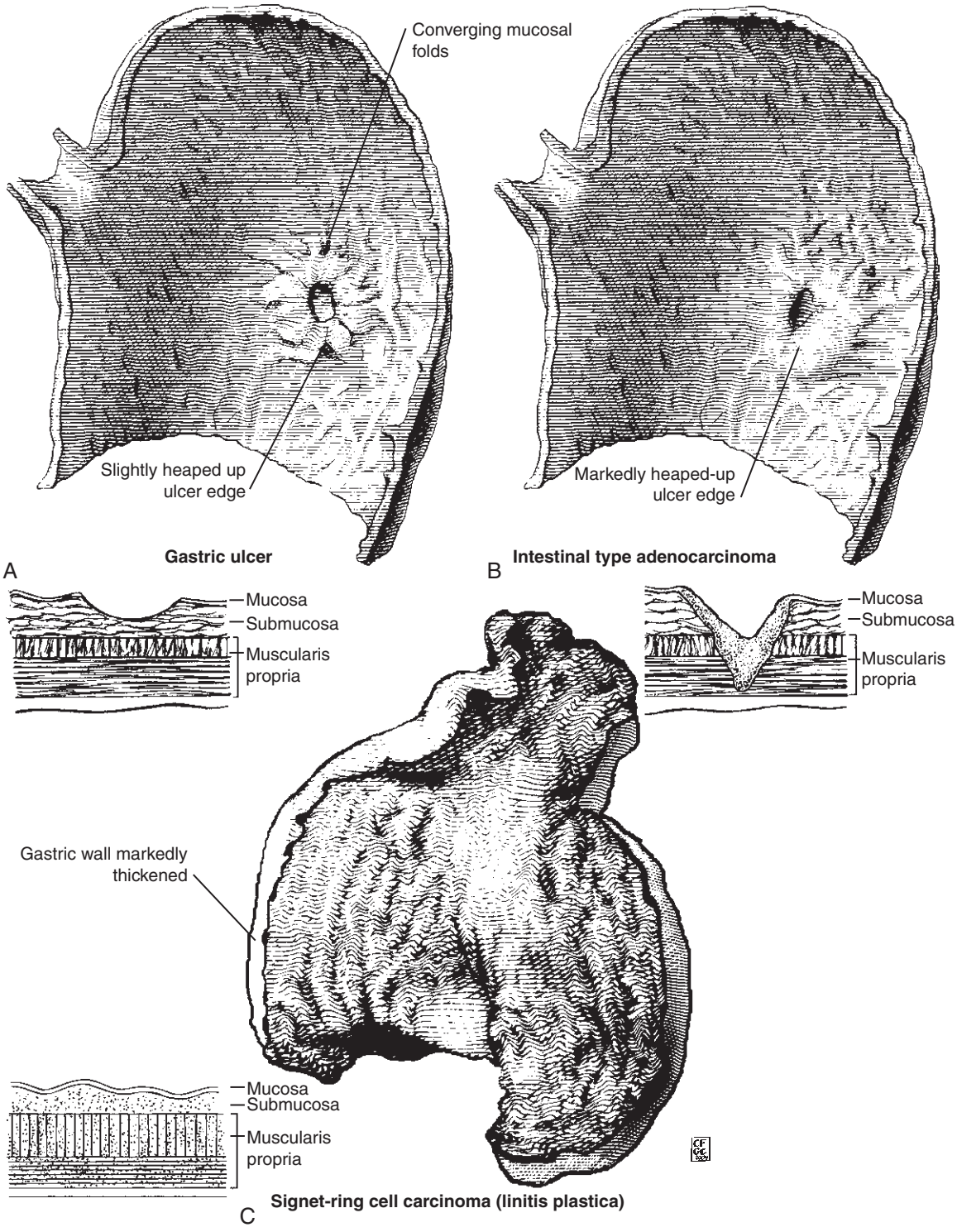

Figure 19–2. Gross appearances of stomach lesions.

Gastrointestinal Stromal Tumors (GISTs). arise from the specialized interstitial cells of Cajal in the muscularis propria. Some protrude into the lumen with ulceration of the overlying mucosa. Others protrude out on the serosal side. The cut surface is tan and lacks the whorled appearance of smooth muscle tumors. Most (60% to 70%) arise in the stomach with fewer in small intestine (30% to 40%), colon or rectum (5%), or esophagus (5%). The risk of malignant behavior is related to location (gastric tumors are less likely to behave in a malignant fashion), size, and mitotic rate (see Chapter 32 for a table with classification). Leiomyomas are uncommon in the stomach (<10%).

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Lesion:** Four or fewer sections including deepest penetration of wall and radial sections of ulcers.
- **Margins:** Representative proximal margin, distal margin, and deep margin (three sections). If esophagus is included, take an en face (not transverse) section of that margin. Take stomach margin en face if the tumor is far from this margin. Take sections perpendicular to the margin (and through the tumor if possible) if the tumor is close to the margin.
- **Stomach:** Representative sections of cardia, fundus, and antrum if not included in other sections.
- **Lymph nodes:** Submit all lymph nodes.

SAMPLE GROSS DESCRIPTION

Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "stomach" is a 20 (greater curvature) × 15 (lesser curvature) × 15 (circumference of proximal margin) × 5 cm (circumference of distal margin) total gastrectomy specimen with attached portion of duodenum (1.5 cm in length × 5 cm in circumference). The maximal wall thickness is 1.2 cm. There is a 3 × 2.5 cm firm tan/pink polypoid tumor with central ulceration located on the lesser curvature, which is 5 cm from the proximal margin and 7 cm from the distal margin. The tumor grossly invades through the muscularis propria into perigastric soft tissue, but is 0.2 cm from the deep (serosal) inked margin. The remainder of the mucosal surface is unremarkable. The gastric wall is not thickened away from the tumor (average thickness 0.5 cm). There is a small amount of attached adipose tissue (approximately 10 × 1 × 1 cm). A single hard white lymph node measuring 1 cm in greatest dimension is present. Five additional small lymph nodes, the largest measuring 0.3 cm in greatest dimension are present.

Cassettes #1-2: Deepest invasion by tumor and deep margin, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #3-4: Tumor and adjacent mucosa, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #5: Proximal margin, en face, cardia, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #6: Distal margin, en face, duodenum, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #7: Fundus, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #8: Antrum, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #9: Large lymph node, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassettes #10-11: Five lymph nodes, 5 frags, ESS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR STOMACH CARCINOMAS

- **Specimen:** Stomach, portion of stomach, distal esophagus, proximal duodenum
- **Procedure:** Endoscopic resection, partial gastrectomy (proximal or distal), total gastrectomy, other
- **Tumor Site:** Fundus (anterior or posterior wall), body (anterior or posterior wall, greater or lesser curvature), antrum (anterior or posterior wall, greater or lesser curvature)
  - Carcinomas involving the GE junction and with an epicenter > 5 cm from the GE junction are classified as gastric carcinomas.
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (additional dimensions optional)
- **Histologic Type:** Adenocarcinoma (intestinal or diffuse type), papillary adenocarcinoma, tubular adenocarcinoma, signet ring cell carcinoma (>50% signet ring cells), mucinous adenocarcinoma (>50% mucinous), carcinoma in situ (or high grade/severe dysplasia), other rare types
- **Histologic Grade:** Well, moderate, poor, undifferentiated (Tables 19-6 and 19-7)
- **Microscopic Extent of Tumor:** High-grade dysplasia, carcinoma in situ (Tis), invasion into lamina propria or muscularis mucosae (T1a), invasion into submucosa (T1b), invasion into muscularis propria (T2), invasion into subserosal connective tissue without invasion of visceral peritoneum or adjacent structures (T3), invasion of serosa (visceral peritoneum [T4a]), invasion of adjacent structures (T4b).
- **Margins:** Proximal, distal, radial (omental; lesser or greater), deep (if endoscopic), distance from closest margin, invasive or in situ carcinoma or adenoma
- **Treatment Effect:** No prior treatment, no residual carcinoma (complete response, grade 0), marked response (minimal residual cancer, grade 1), moderate response (grade 2), no definite response identified (poor or no response, grade 3)
  - Acellular pools of mucin should not be interpreted as residual carcinoma.

TABLE 19–6. GASTRIC ADENOCARCINOMA – GRADE

FEATURE	WELL (1)	MODERATE (2)	POOR (3)	UNDIFFERENTIATED (4)
Gland formation	Well developed	Less well developed, cribriform or acinar patterns	Poor gland formation, loss of cell cohesion, small clusters of cells	No gland formation, solid sheets of cells
Stroma	Desmoplasia present but less pronounced	Desmoplasia present but less pronounced	Desmoplastic	Desmoplastic
Cell types	Well differentiated, specialized types may be present	Some differentiation	Minimal differentiation. Most signet ring cell carcinomas belong in this group	No differentiation

See reference 2.

TABLE 19–7. GASTRIC ADENOCARCINOMA – CAP RECOMMENDED GRADING SYSTEM

Grade 1	Well differentiated (>95% of tumor composed of glands)
Grade 2	Moderately differentiated (50 - 95% of tumor composed of glands)
Grade 3	Poorly differentiated (<49% of tumor composed of glands)
Grade 4	Undifferentiated (cannot be determined to be squamous cell carcinoma or adenocarcinoma)

Tubular carcinomas are not usually graded but would correspond to grade 1.
Signet ring cell carcinomas are not typically graded but would correspond to grade 3.
Small cell carcinomas and undifferentiated carcinomas are not typically graded but would correspond to grade 4.
Modified from the CAP stomach protocol, revised October 2009. Available at www.cap.org.

- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Perineural Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Number of positive nodes and total number of nodes examined.
  - At least 15 lymph nodes should be examined.
- **Tumor Configuration:** Exophytic (polypoid), infiltrative, ulcerating, ulcerating and infiltrative, diffusely infiltrative (linitis plastica)
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Intestinal metaplasia, dysplasia, gastritis (*Helicobacter pylori*-type, atrophic, autoimmune, other), polyps (types, size)
- **Ancillary Studies:** If performed
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 19-8). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see *www.cap.org/*) and the ADASP (see *www.adasp.org*). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

TABLE 19-8. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF STOMACH CARCINOMAS

TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	Carcinoma in situ: intraepithelial tumor without invasion of the lamina propria
T1	Tumor invades lamina propria, muscularis mucosae, or submucosa
T1a	Tumor invades lamina propria or muscularis mucosae
T1b	Tumor invades submucosa
T2	Tumor invades muscularis propria*
T3	Tumor penetrates subserosal connective tissue without invasion of visceral peritoneum or adjacent structures†‡
T4	Tumor invades serosa (visceral peritoneum) or adjacent structures†,‡
T4a	Tumor invades serosa (visceral peritoneum)
T4b	Tumor invades adjacent structures
*A tumor may penetrate the muscularis propria with extension into the gastrocolic or gastrohepatic ligaments, or into the greater or lesser omentum, without perforation of the visceral peritoneum covering these structures. In this case, the tumor is classified as T3. If there is perforation of the visceral peritoneum covering the gastric ligaments or the omentum, the tumor should be classified as T4. †The adjacent structures of the stomach include the spleen, transverse colon, liver, diaphragm, pancreas, abdominal wall, adrenal gland, kidney, small intestine, and retroperitoneum. ‡Intramural extension to the duodenum or esophagus is classified by the depth of the greater invasion in any of these sites, including the stomach.	
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Regional lymph node(s) cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis*
N1	Metastasis in 1-2 regional lymph node(s)
N2	Metastasis in 3-6 regional lymph nodes
N3	Metastasis in 7 or more regional lymph nodes
N3a	Metastasis in 7-15 regional lymph nodes
N3b	Metastasis in 16 or more regional lymph nodes
*A designation of pN0 should be used if all examined lymph nodes are negative, regardless of the total number removed and examined. Regional lymph nodes are perigastric lymph nodes found along the greater or lesser curvatures; along the left gastric, common hepatic, splenic, or celiac arteries; or in the greater or lesser omentum. Involvement of other intra-abdominal lymph nodes, such as the hepatoduodenal, retropancreatic, mesenteric, and para-aortic, is classified as distant metastasis.	
DISTANT METASTASIS	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
The AJCC classification applies only to carcinomas, and should not be used for carcinoid tumors (low-grade neuroendocrine tumors), lymphomas, or sarcomas. From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.	

SMALL INTESTINE

The small intestine is subject to immunologic disease (e.g., sprue or Crohn disease), infectious disease (e.g., *Giardia*, *Cryptosporidia*, or rarely *Isospora*), ischemia, and neoplasms (carcinoids, lymphomas, ampullary adenomas, adenocarcinomas, and leiomyosarcomas).

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

See Table 19-9.

TABLE 19–9. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY – SMALL INTESTINE

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR SMALL INTESTINE SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Celiac disease (or other cause of malabsorption)
Purpose of the procedure	Inherited polyposis syndromes (including familial adenomatous polyposis, hereditary non-polyposis colon cancer, and Peutz-Jeghers syndrome, see Table 7-50)
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	Crohn disease
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Compromised immune system	

Biopsy

Biopsies are usually performed to evaluate patients with malabsorption and, less commonly, for neoplasms.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Specimens submitted in formalin can be processed like other small biopsies (see Chapter 13).
2. Some specimens may be submitted in Hollendes, which is possibly a better fixative for histologic detail. The biopsies are on mesh to preserve orientation. The biopsies must fix in Hollendes for two to four hours.
3. Each biopsy and its attached mesh are wrapped together in lens paper. Submit each biopsy in a separate cassette in order for each one to be oriented by the histotechnologist. Tissue fixed in Hollendes must be washed in water for at least 3 hours, and up to overnight. Transfer to formalin and submit after washing.

Resection

The small bowel is usually resected as part of a larger resection (Whipple, right colectomy), for inflammatory bowel disease (e.g., Crohn disease), or for ischemic bowel (e.g., due to a volvulus). Resection for primary tumors is unusual. Although carcinoid is the most common neoplasm, lymphoma, adenomas, adenocarcinoma, and gastrointestinal stromal tumor are occasionally seen.

Resections for tumors can be processed in the same manner as colon resections. If the resection is for Crohn disease, follow the guidelines for examination of the specimen and microscopic sections in the "Colon" section.

If the small intestine has been resected due to ischemia, sample the margins, the ischemic portion, and vessels found in the mesentery to look for vascular lesions such as atherosclerosis, thrombi, or vasculitis.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Most tumors of the small intestine will have the same gross appearance as that seen with colonic lesions.

Carcinoid tumors are most commonly found in the appendix, but the second most common site is ileum. The tumor grossly appears to be an intramural or submucosal very firm mass with a solid yellow appearance. The overlying mucosa may be intact or focally ulcerated. There is prominent desmoplasia that causes the muscularis to buckle or kink, which can lead to obstruction. Tumors in the stomach and ileum may be multicentric.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR SMALL INTESTINE TUMORS

- **Specimen:** Duodenum, jejunum, ileum, other organs excised
- **Procedure:** Polypectomy, segmental resection, pancreaticoduodenectomy (Whipple resection), other
- **Tumor Site:** Duodenum, jejunum, ileum
- **Tumor Configuration:** Exophytic (polypoid), infiltrative, ulcerating
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (other dimensions optional)
- **Macroscopic Tumor Perforation:** Not identified, present
- **Histologic Type:** Carcinoid, adenoma, adenocarcinoma, signet ring cell carcinoma (>50% signet ring cells), mucinous adenocarcinoma (>50% mucinous), squamous cell carcinoma, all others rare
- **Histologic Grade:** Carcinomas: Well, moderately, poorly, undifferentiated (similar to stomach and colorectal carcinomas; Table 19-10)

TABLE 19–10. HISTOLOGIC GRADE OF SMALL INTESTINE CARCINOMAS

Grade 1	Well differentiated (>95% of tumor composed of glands) with <5% of solid or cord-like growth patterns
Grade 2	Moderately differentiated (50% to 95% of tumor composed of glands) with 5% to 50% solid or cord-like growth patterns
Grade 3	Poorly differentiated (<50% of tumor composed of glands) with >50% of solid or cord-like growth patterns
Grade 4	Undifferentiated carcinoma and small cell carcinoma

- **Microscopic Tumor Extension:** Carcinoma in situ (Tis), invasion into lamina propria (T1a), invasion into submucosa (T1b), invasion into muscularis propria (T2), invasion through muscularis propria into subserosa or the nonperitonealized perimuscular tissue with extension of 2 cm or less (T3), perforation of the visceral peritoneum or direct invasion other organs or structures (T4)
- **Margins:** Proximal, distal, circumferential (radial), or mesenteric; distance to margin; specify invasive or in situ carcinoma or adenoma
  - Pancreatic and bile duct margins for pancreaticoduodenectomy (Whipple resection)
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Perineural invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Number of positive nodes and total number of nodes, with locations specified when possible
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Adenoma(s), Crohn disease, celiac disease, polyps, epithelial dysplasia, ulcers, strictures
  - If polyps are present, specify type, sessile or pedunculated, presence or absence of high-grade dysplasia or adenocarcinoma.
- **Ancillary Studies:** Microsatellite instability (stable, low, high; specify testing method)
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (see Table 19-11). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see *www.cap.org/*) and the ADASP (see *www.adasp.org*). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

MECKEL DIVERTICULUM

A Meckel diverticulum is persistence of a portion of the vitelline duct and always occurs on the antimesenteric border of the small bowel. This is a "true" congenital diverticulum that has a complete muscular wall (unlike the acquired sigmoid diverticula of diverticulosis or the esophageal Zenker diverticulum: both lack complete muscular walls). Ectopic tissue (gastric, pancreatic) may be found within the diverticulum. Often a diverticulum is removed due to symptoms of acid production by ectopic gastric mucosa causing ulceration or, rarely, because of intussusception or tumors.

TABLE 19-11. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF SMALL INTESTINE CARCINOMAS

TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	Carcinoma in situ
T1a	Tumor invades lamina propria
T1b	Tumor invades submucosa*
T2	Tumor invades muscularis propria
T3	Tumor invades through the muscularis propria into the subserosa or into the nonperitonealized perimuscular tissue (mesentery or retroperitoneum) with extension 2 cm or less*
T4	Tumor perforates the visceral peritoneum or directly invades other organs or structures (includes other loops of small intestine, mesentery, or retroperitoneum more than 2 cm, and abdominal wall by way of serosa; for duodenum only, invasion of pancreas or bile duct).
*The nonperitonealized perimuscular tissue is, for jejunum and ileum, part of the mesentery and, for duodenum in areas where serosa is lacking, part of the interface with the pancreas.	
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Metastasis in 1-3 regional lymph nodes
N2	Metastasis in four or more regional lymph nodes
METASTASIS	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
Note: This classification is not used for carcinoma arising at the ileocecal valve, carcinomas arising in Meckel diverticulum, carcinomas arising in the ampulla of Vater, carcinoid tumors, sarcomas, or lymphomas. From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.	

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Orient the specimen. The specimen usually consists of a segmental resection of the ileum with a small outpouching from the wall, which is often the size and shape of an appendix. Record the dimensions of the ileum (length and circumference) and diverticulum (length and diameter). Examine the ileal mucosa for ulceration, erosion, or inflammation (sometimes seen with production of acid by ectopic gastric mucosa).
2. The diverticulum can be processed like an appendix. Cut off the tip and submit one of the longitudinal sections. Submit a second cassette with cross-sections of the middle portion. Look carefully for heterogeneous areas. Ectopic gastric mucosa or pancreatic parenchyma is often found.
3. Submit the two margins of the ileum and representative sections of any lesions present.

COLON

The most common surgical diseases of the colon are neoplasms (almost all are adenocarcinomas or adenomatous polyps), inflammatory bowel disease (both ulcerative colitis and Crohn disease), diverticulosis, and, rarely, hemorrhage from ectatic blood vessels.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

See Table 19-12.

TABLE 19–12. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY - COLON

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR COLON SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Inflammatory bowel disease (type, history of dysplasia)
Purpose of the procedure	Inherited polyposis syndromes (including familial adenomatous polyposis, hereditary non-polyposis colon cancer, and Peutz-Jeghers syndrome, see Table 7-50)
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	→ pedunculated polyp or ulcerated mass
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	Colonic bleeding
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Compromised immune system	

Biopsies

Most biopsies can be processed as described in Chapter 13.

Small or large pedunculated polyps can be removed during colonoscopy. "Hot" polypectomies refer to removal of polyps with a cauterizing wire that may allow identification of the surgical margin by the presence of a cautery artifact.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN: POLYPS

1. Describe size, color, surface configuration (polypoid or villiform), and the base of the polyp (sessile, stalk: include length and width). Often the stalks (consisting of normal mucosa pulled out by the polyp) retract into the base and are difficult to see.
2. Always ink the base, if possible. The presence of cautery artifact is also a helpful landmark for the location of the margin (Fig. 19-3).
   - **Small polyps:** Bisect the polyp along the vertical plane of the stalk to reveal the surgical margin, and submit both halves in one cassette. Order three levels on this section if the polyp is over 1 cm in size.
   - **Large polyps:** If the head of the polyp is too wide to fit in a cassette, trim the sides away from the stalk. Submit the sections of the stalk in a designated cassette and order three levels. The peripheral fragments not containing the stalk are submitted in a separate cassette and can be examined in one level.

SPECIAL STUDIES

Hirschsprung disease: Children with constipation may undergo endoscopic or open biopsy. Normal bowel has nerve fibers and ganglion cells in the submucosa and muscularis propria with thin nerve fibers extending to the musclaris mucosa. In Hirschsprung disease, ganglion cells will be absent from the submucosal (and myenteric) plexuses. Frozen tissue may be used for acetylcholinesterase reactions to demonstrate coarse, irregular nerve fibers that extend from the muscularis propria to the lamina propria. Similar findings can be seen with neurofibromatosis, Crohn disease, and neuronal dysplasia (see Table 7-50).

Identification of Colon Segments

Large resections of colon are often submitted as specimens with nonspecific labels such as "colon" or misleading labels such as "sigmoid" when the actual specimen is rectosigmoid. It is important to identify all the anatomical subdivisions of the resected bowel. This is especially important in distinguishing rectal from sigmoid carcinomas as they have different natural histories, prognostic features, and treatment. Use Figures 19–4, 19–5, Table 19-13, and the descriptions to identify specimens. Isolated portions of the ascending, descending, and sigmoid colon cannot be distinguished by morphologic features.

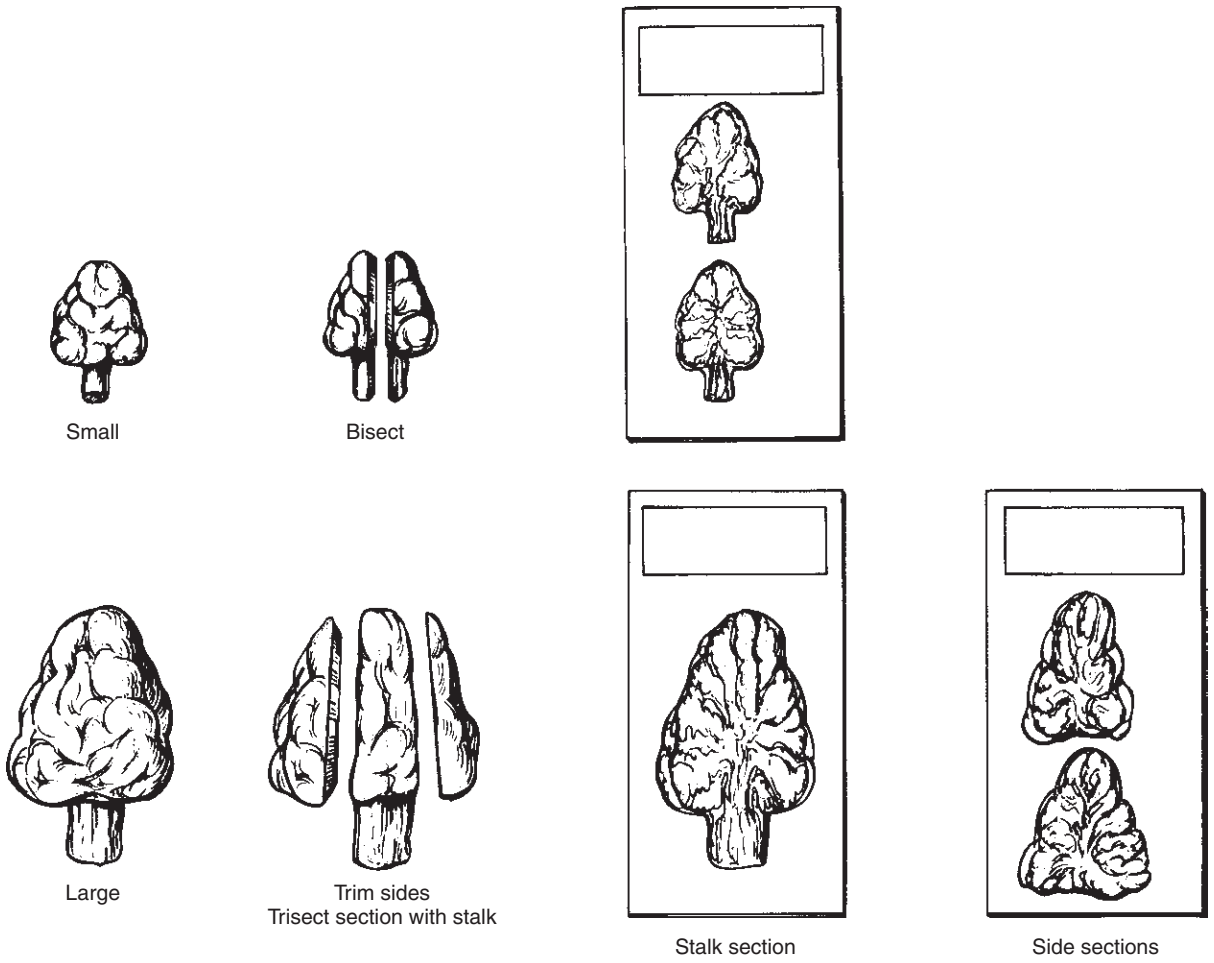

Figure 19–3. Polypectomies.

TYPICAL SPECIMENS

Rectosigmoid. To preserve the anal sphincter, only a limited amount of rectum can be resected. The tumor is usually very close to the distal end of the specimen, adjacent to the anal sphincter. The transition from the sigmoid to the rectum is marked by the fusion of the longitudinal taenia coli of the sigmoid to form the complete outer longitudinal muscle sheath of the rectum. However, it is easier to mark the transition to the rectum by identifying the end of the mesentery and the peritoneal serosal surface. Specifically, the rectum is covered by peritoneum on its anterior and lateral sides in the upper third, only the anterior aspect in the middle third, and has no peritoneum over the lower third. The point at which the peritoneal covering no longer completely surrounds the bowel segment is the rectosigmoid junction. In the gross description and in the final report, state the location of the tumor within the specimen (i.e., "sigmoid," "rectal," or "rectosigmoid junction").

The distance to the closest, usually distal, margin is important to document. Immediate examination after excision (before the colon contracts) is optimal. The length of this margin may be used to decide whether post-surgical radiation therapy is required.

Right Colectomy. This specimen consists of terminal ileum (which may be very short, only 1 to 2 cm, but is invariably present), cecum (has a wider lumen than the remainder of the colon), appendix (may have been removed by previous surgery), and a variable length of ascending colon. The ileocecal valve is used as a landmark for measurement of the lengths of the ileum and colon. The proximal portion of the ascending colon may be retroperitoneal; the distal portion is on a mesentery. The transverse colon has a mesentery and is usually not included in the resection.

Transverse Colon. This is the only portion of the colon with omentum. The omentum is sometimes submitted separately. The transverse colon is entirely intraperitoneal (i.e., surrounded by visceral peritoneum/serosa).

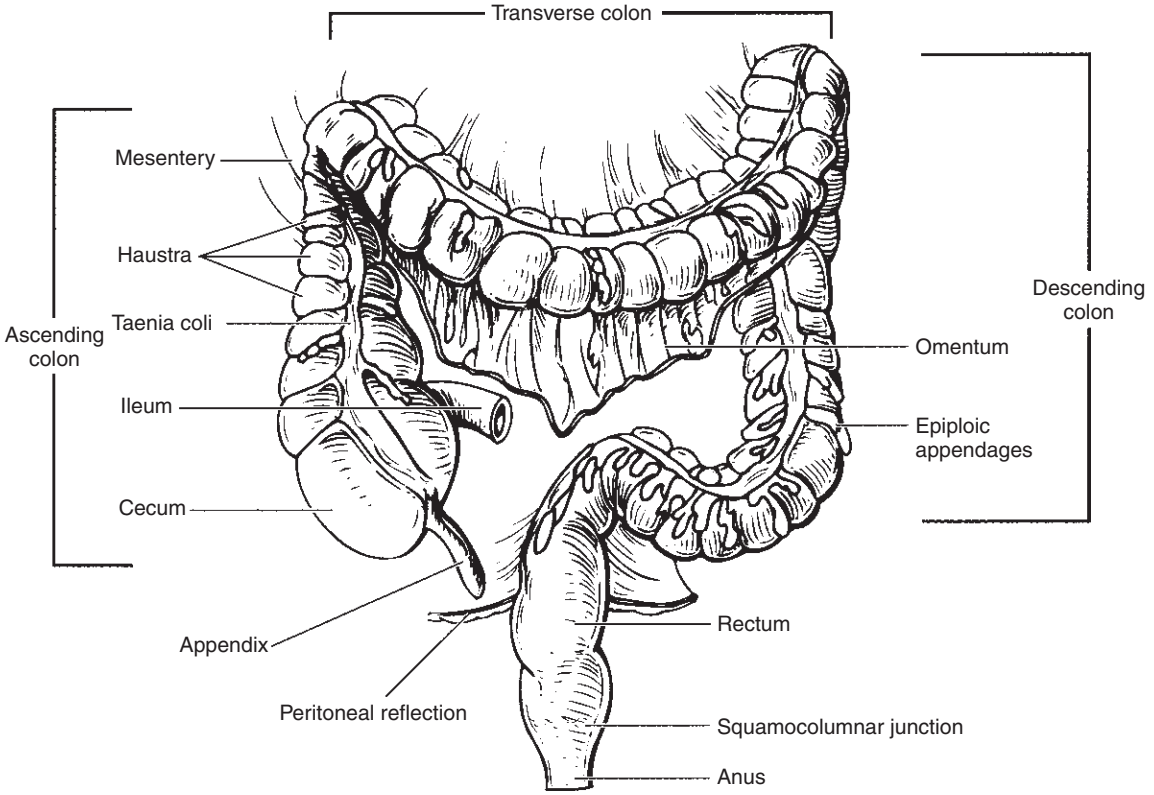

Figure 19–4. Gross anatomy of the colon.

A-P (Abdominoperineal) Resections. This specimen consists of perianal skin, anus, and rectum, and may include sigmoid. This procedure is used to resect low tumors of the rectum and anal tumors located at or near the anal sphincter.

The anus is a complex structure that is usually 3 to 4 cm in length, and is demarcated by the proximal and distal margins of the internal sphincter muscle.[3] The luminal surface is marked proximally by longitudinal folds (the rectal columns) that interface with distal folds (the anal columns) at the zone of transition from colonic to anal mucosa (the pectinate or dentate line). Anal papillae are raised projections of anal mucosa that extend upward on the rectal columns. Between the rectal columns are depressions termed rectal sinuses. The anal columns are linked circumferentially at the dentate line by transverse plicae, known as anal or semilunar valves that delineate the anal crypts. Although prominent in young persons, they may be indistinct or absent in adults.

There are many different definitions of what constitutes the anal canal. The surgical definition is the one most widely accepted and is used by the AJCC. It is based on clinically identifiable landmarks that are difficult to define in surgical specimens. The start of the anal canal is defined as the point where the rectum enters the puborectalis sling at the apex of the anal sphincter complex, which can be palpated clinically as the anorectal ring. By this definition, the upper portion of the anal canal is lined by 1 to 2 cm of rectal-type glandular mucosa and transitional (cloacogenic) mucosa (if present) at the dentate line (anal transition zone), and the lower portion by the non-keratinized squamous epithelium that extends to the perianal hair-bearing skin. On the anal papillae, the squamous and columnar mucosa interface directly.

Bowel Rings. Separate specimen(s) of small rings of colon, sometimes on a plastic rod, may be received. These are the products of a stapler that creates the surgical anastomosis. These rings represent the true margins of the specimen. Examine them for lesions and submit representative sections. Make sure that the submitted tissue does not contain staples or suture material.

Total Colectomy with Ileoanal Pull-Through Reconstruction (Performed for Ulcerative Colitis or Familial Adenomatous Polyposis). The specimen includes terminal ileum to rectum and a second specimen designated "rectal mucosa." The subdivisions of the total colectomy specimen (ileum, cecum, colon, and rectum) are identified and described as above. To perform the pull-through,

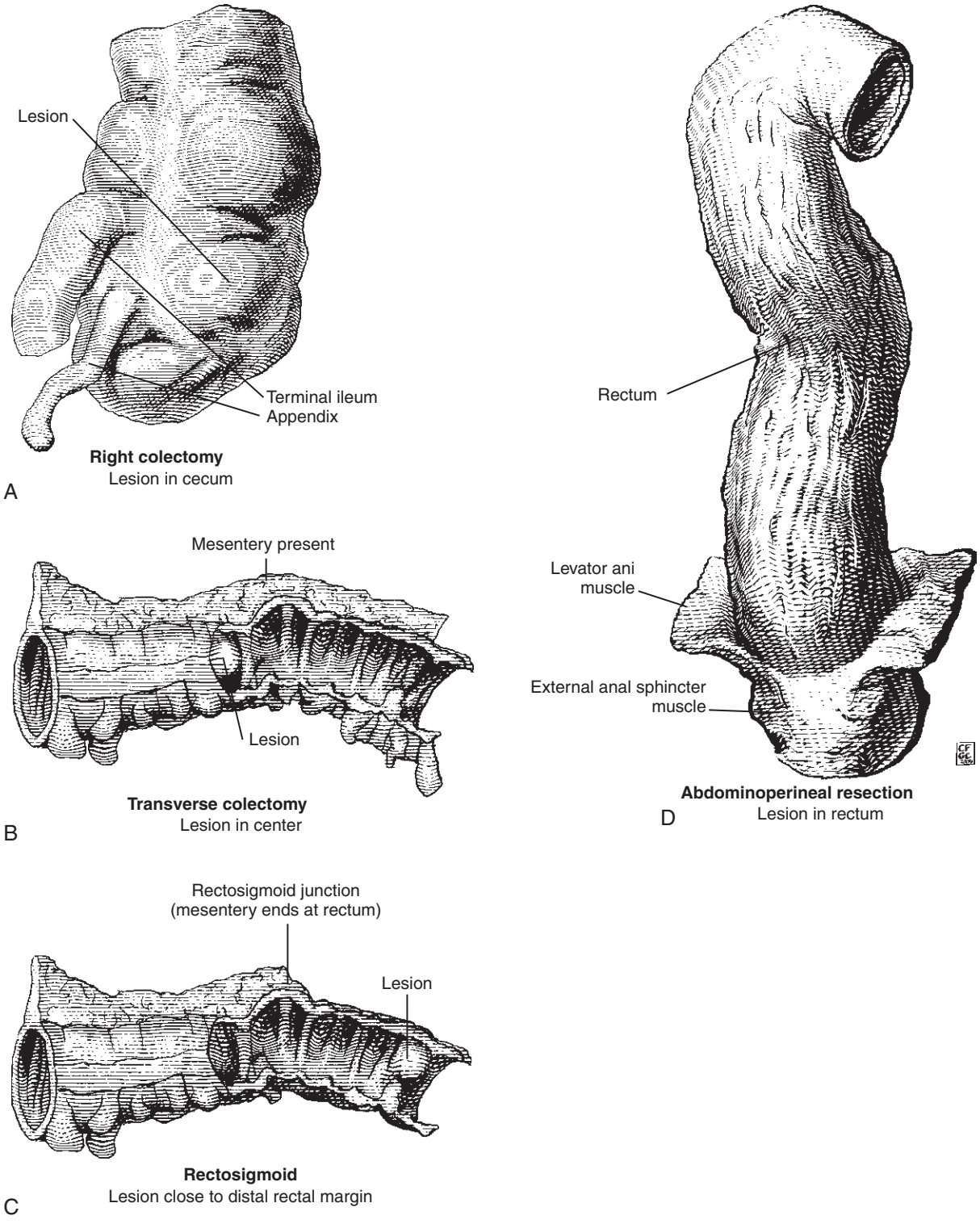

Figure 19–5. Common colon resections.

the surgeon dissects the rectal mucosa off the internal anal sphincter along the plane of the submucosa, generating an unoriented and traumatized collar of rectal tissue that is submitted as a separate specimen. The muscularis propria (i.e., the "sphincter") is not removed. One representative section of this latter specimen is submitted.

Rectal Resections. Small tumors of the rectum may be resected transanally without removing an entire circumferential segment, in order to preserve the sphincter. The specimens are usually small and

TABLE 19–13. GROSS FEATURES OF COLON SEGMENTS

COLON SEGMENTS	SEROSA	TAENIA COLI	EPIPLOIC APPENDAGES	MESENTERY	OMENTUM
Ileum	Present	Absent	Absent	Present	Absent
Appendix	Present	Present	Present or absent	Present	Absent
Cecum	Present	Present	Absent	Absent	Absent
Ascending colon	Present	Present	Present	Present or absent	Absent
Transverse colon	Present	Present	Present	Present	Present
Descending colon	Present	Present	Present	Present or absent	Absent
Sigmoid	Present	Present	Present	Present	Absent
Rectum	Absent	Absent	Absent	Absent	Absent
Anus	Absent	Absent	Absent	Absent	Absent

Taenia coli: Three longitudinal bands of muscle.
Haustra: Sacculation of wall due to taenia coli.
Epiploic appendages: Pouches of peritoneum filled with fat.

consist of an ovoid fragment of mucosa, submucosa, and superficial muscularis propria consisting almost entirely of tumor with a 1 to 2 mm rim of uninvolved mucosa around the tumor. The normal mucosa may curl under and may be difficult to see. Careful orientation, inking, fixation, and evaluation of all margins by taking perpendicular sections are very important to evaluate the completeness of the excision.

PROCESSING RESECTION SPECIMENS

See sections below for specific instructions depending on the underlying disease process.

1. Identify and record the components of the colon present. Palpate the specimen to identify the location of mass lesions. If no mass lesions are present, open the specimen along the antimesenteric border using blunt scissors. If a mass lesion is present, cut through an area of uninvolved mucosa and wall.

   For some specimens, primarily with diverticular disease, inflation of the bowel segment with formalin is advantageous, followed by further dissection (see the section "Diverticulosis").

   Clean the lumen using saline. Record the dimensions of each of the components of the specimen (length and circumference) including length of mesentery and size of omentum if present. If a mass lesion or stricture is present, document any dilation of the lumen proximal to the lesion. Record the bowel wall thickness and any variation in thickness (e.g., tumor, stricture, or muscular hypertrophy associated with diverticulosis).
2. Identify and describe any lesions (see special sections below). The distance of lesions (especially invasive carcinomas) from margins is noted.

   Bowel segments may contract as much as 40% within 10 to 20 minutes of resection.[4] Therefore, margins are best measured as soon as possible after excision. The distal margin of rectal carcinomas is typically short (due to the desire to avoid resecting the anal sphincter) and the length of this margin may indicate the need for postoperative radiation therapy (e.g., if this margin is <2 cm in length).
3. **Tumor cases:** Identify all lymph nodes present. The fat can be stripped off the colon and placed in Bouin's. HOWEVER, leave the fat at the deep margin of tumors intact and do not strip the fat in cases of diverticulosis (this maneuver will also remove the base of the diverticula). Soft tissue nodules in continuity with the main tumor mass must be described as such and submitted in designated cassette(s). If there is no histologic evidence of residual lymph node, such nodules are usually best interpreted as direct spread of tumor. Well-circumscribed soft tissue nodules with a smooth outer contour that are separate from the main tumor mass are classified as nodal metastasis, even in the absence of definitive nodal architecture.

   The number of lymph nodes present will depend on the length of the specimen. At least twenty should be present in an entire colectomy. In segmental resections, at least 12 (the minimum number considered necessary for accurate staging) are usually present (see Chapter 27, "Lymph Nodes for

Tumor Staging"). If fewer than 12 nodes are identified, re-examine the tissue and submit any areas that may represent small nodes. Lymph nodes in colon specimens tend to be small (<0.5 cm) even when involved by metastatic disease.

There may be prognostic significance if the metastases are present in proximal or distal lymph nodes with respect to the tumor. If the specimen can be oriented (e.g., right colectomy, rectosigmoid colectomy, obstructing tumors with obvious proximal dilation of the bowel lumen, or as oriented by surgeon), lymph nodes can be examined as separate groups. Strip the fat as above but keep proximal and distal soft tissue in separate containers. Identify lymph nodes in cassettes as "distal" or "proximal."

Non-tumor cases: Abnormal lymph nodes (enlarged, hard) must be diligently sought after and submitted for examination. Occasionally tumors will be first discovered by unsuspected lymph node metastases. However, it is not necessary to extensively search for and document at least 12 nodes. Only one block of the largest nodes found may be submitted. However, if carcinoma is present after microscopic examination, all nodes should be retrieved and submitted.

4. Pin the colon out on a paraffin block. Float upside down in formalin overnight.
5. Submit sections including representative sections of all components present (e.g., ileum, appendix, ascending colon, sigmoid, rectum) and all lesions (including polyps) present. Submit at least one representative block from grossly uninvolved colon mucosa (this can also serve as a margin if grossly normal). Submit sections of margins that are within 5 cm of the carcinoma. Grossly normal margins that are more than 5 cm from the carcinoma need not be submitted. Submit all lymph nodes (see earlier).

SPECIAL STUDIES

Hereditary non-polyposis colorectal cancer (HNPCC or Lynch syndrome): HNPCC is an autosomal-dominant disorder due to mutations in DNA repair genes, present in 0.1% of the population. There is an 80% lifetime risk for colorectal cancer and a 60% lifetime risk for endometrial cancer. HNPCC accounts for 2% to 5% of all colon carcinomas. Intensive surveillance and more extensive surgery can improve outcomes. Family members may be at risk and can be tested for the gene. 95% of HNPCC patients have germ-line mutations in two genes involved in mismatch DNA repair: hMSH2 (human mutS homolog 2) and hMLH1 (human mutL homolog 1). Other mutations are in hPMS1, hPMS2, hMSH6, as well as others. These mutations result in high microsatellite instability (MSI-H).

Clinical features typical of HNPCC:

- Young age (mean age 42 years compared to 65 for sporadic tumors), women > men
- Right sided carcinomas more common than left
- Multiple synchronous or metachronous tumors
- Extracolonic tumors: stomach, small bowel, biliary tract, pancreas, urothelium, kidney, ovarian, endometrial, brain tumors, sebaceous adenomas, and keratoacanthomas
- Better prognosis than sporadic carcinomas (fewer regional or distant metastases)
- Better response to anti-metabolic chemotherapy than to alkylating agents

Pathologic features typical of MSI-H (may vary with specific mutations):

- Large bulky tumors (often T3) with pushing borders.
- Prominent tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes (approximately 3 or more per HPF). These are distinguished from Crohn-like peritumoral infiltrates consisting of lymphoid aggregates or follicles at the edge of the tumor.
- Medullary growth pattern.
- High-grade tumor cells with necrosis, mucin production, or signet ring cell features
- Diploid DNA content
- Absence of hMSH2, hMLH1, PMS2, MSH6 and other gene products confirmed by immunohistochemisty – PCR assays are also used to detect microsatellite instability. Approximately 10 to 20% of sporadic tumors have inactivation of the same genes by methylation of the promoter (most commonly in hMLH1). These carcinomas also have similar clinical, histologic, and prognostic features and can be identified by immunohistochemistry or PCR assays.
- MSI-H positive colon carcinomas often have reduced CK20 positivity compared to microsatellite stable (MSS) cases (Table 19-14).

TABLE 19–14. MSI-H VERSUS MSS COLON CARCINOMA

CYTOKERATIN PATTERN	MSI-H	MSS
CK7–/CK20+	55%	77%
CK7+/CK20+	14%	14%
CK7–/CK20–	27%	9%
CK7+/CK20–	4%	0%

Data from McGregor DK, et al: Reduced expression of cytokeratin 20 in colorectal carcinomas with high levels of microsatellite instability, Am J Surg Pathol 28:712, 2004.

The Revised Bethesda criteria developed to identify individuals with HNPCC recommend testing colorectal carcinomas for microsatellite instability in the following cases:

1. Colorectal carcinoma diagnosed in a patient younger than 50 years.
2. Presence of synchronous, metachronous, or other HNPCC-associated tumors in patients of any age.
3. Colorectal cancer with MSI-H pathologic features in a patient younger than 60 years.
4. Colorectal cancer in one or more first-degree relatives with an HNPCC-related tumor, with one of the cancers being diagnosed at younger than 50 years.
5. Colorectal cancer diagnosed in two or more first- or second-degree relatives with HNPCC-related tumors, regardless of age.

Figure 19–6. Cross-section of bowel showing diverticulosis.

BOX 19–1. Linguistic note

The plural form of diverticulum is "diverticula," not diverticuli or diverticulae as is commonly believed (look it up in your dictionary! Or see in Chapter 2, "A Classical Interlude.").

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Diverticulosis of the descending colon and sigmoid is a common disease and is resected after multiple episodes of diverticulitis (Fig. 19-6 and Box 19-1). The muscularis propria becomes markedly hypertrophied (presumably due to long-term straining at stool) resulting in a thickened bowel wall and a narrowed lumen. The increased intraluminal pressure causes herniation of mucosa through weak points in the muscularis propria adjacent to the penetrating vasculature on either side of each taenia coli. These are false diverticula because they lack a complete muscular coat. True diverticula (e.g., Meckel diverticulum or a solitary cecal diverticulum) have a complete muscle coat and are thought to be congenital in origin.

The best demonstration of diverticula requires inflating an intact specimen with formalin. Close off the ends with hemostats or twine and fix overnight. Open along the antimesenteric side or hemisect. The fat should not be stripped from the specimen, as this will also remove the diverticula.

A metal probe can be used to find the ostia of the diverticula. Count the number of diverticula or estimate the number if there are many. Sections of diverticula can be obtained by cutting in the plane

of the probe. Sample areas of interdiverticular mucosa (two to three sections) to look for superimposed diverticulosis-associated colitis, inflammatory bowel disease or ischemia.

If the history is of diverticulitis or there is gross evidence of perforation (induration of pericolonic fat, a serosal exudate, hemorrhage, pericolonic necrosis), the perforated diverticulum should be identified. Probe the diverticula in the most inflamed area and cut cross sections. A perforated diverticulum will show effacement of the mucosa associated with necrosis and hemorrhage in the surrounding soft tissue. If the wall of the diverticulum can be seen, then it is not perforated and it is just an adjacent diverticulum surrounded by the inflammation. Submit sections of all diverticula that appear to be inflamed. Peritonitis without a documented site of perforation can be a medical emergency because the perforation is presumably still within the patient.

Solitary Cecal Diverticulum presents with symptoms of acute appendicitis. However, at surgery the appendix appears normal and a pericecal abscess is found. Often a right colectomy is performed. A solitary cecal diverticulum is thought to be congenital in origin (it is a true diverticulum with a complete muscular wall), is usually located within a few centimeters of the ileocecal valve, and has a broad orifice (as opposed to the narrow orifices of diverticulosis).

Vascular Ectasia (Angiodysplasia) This is a degenerative acquired lesion of older adults (>60 years) and usually presents as bleeding from the cecum or ascending colon. Clinical arteriography may reveal bleeding from an area of ectatic vessels, and embolization is sometimes attempted. The lesion consists of multiple small (5 to 10 mm) areas of ectatic thin-walled vessels in the submucosa and mucosa that rupture and bleed. The pathogenesis is thought to be obstruction of veins passing through the muscularis propria due to high wall tension in the right colon (Laplace's law predicts the highest wall tension in the area of greatest bowel diameter).

The specimen is usually unrevealing grossly because bleeding has usually been controlled at the time of surgery. There may be small petechial hemorrhages or areas of congestion or, commonly, there are no mucosal lesions. The area most often affected is near the cecum and the first 10 cm of ascending colon. Take sections of any mucosal lesions. If no lesions are visible, on the outer surface of the specimen the major vessels tied off with sutures can be located. If sections near these vessels are examined, large dilated vessels traversing the muscularis propria are sometimes identified.[5,6]

Inflammatory Bowel Disease. Segments of bowel may be removed in Crohn disease due to complications (e.g., strictures, fistulas), or a total colectomy may be performed for long-standing UC due to the increased risk of carcinoma.

Ulcerative colitis and Crohn disease can be distinguished in resected segments of bowel by their gross features (Table 19-15; Fig. 19-7). Typically, segments of large or small bowel involved by Crohn disease will not lie flat when opened due to the transmural inflammation and thickening of the bowel wall. Mesenteric fat also surrounds a greater portion of the bowel circumference ("creeping substitution"). In contrast, since UC involves only the mucosa, the bowel will flatten out once opened, similar to normal noninflamed bowel.

The pattern of mucosal involvement is an important feature to distinguish UC (which has continuous involvement) from colonic Crohn disease (which can have discontinuous involvement). Sequential sections are taken at every 10 cm (including both normal and abnormal appearing mucosa) to determine whether the involvement is continuous or patchy. Additional sections of any raised, polypoid areas, or areas of flat mucosa with velvety, villiform, or granular areas are taken, as these gross findings may indicate areas of dysplasia or early carcinoma. A mass lesion (mass, plaque-like region, polyp, or group of polyps) associated with microscopic dysplasia is associated with an increased risk of carcinoma (dysplasia-associated lesion or mass = DALM). These lesions are described as to whether they resemble an adenoma (which can possibly be treated with local excision) or do not resemble an adenoma (e.g., broad-based, irregular, associated with a stricture – may be best treated with colectomy).

Gross mucosal disease (aphthous ulcers) at or near (within 1 cm) of the surgical margins of resections for Crohn disease is very useful in determining the likelihood of recurrence after surgery. Microscopic involvement alone (e.g., a single crypt abscess) does not predict recurrence. Gross ulcers present at or near the margins predict a 100% probability of recurrence. Grossly nonulcerated margins have a 50% risk of recurrence. However, the amount of normal tissue required for adequate margins is controversial (see in Chapter 6, "Evaluation of Colon Specimens in the OR Consultation Room").

TABLE 19–15. GROSS FEATURES OF INFLAMMATORY BOWEL DISEASE IN COLONIC RESECTIONS

GROSS FEATURES	ULCERATIVE COLITIS	CROHN DISEASE
Distribution	Starts in rectum and spreads proximally. Discontinuous cecal/appendiceal involvement is rarely present (~ 10%).	Focal involvement with skip lesions; right > left.
Depth of inflammation	Mucosal and submucosal	Mucosal, submucosal, or transmural
Mucosal lesions	Irregular geographic ulcers. Adjacent mucosa is hyperemic with an inflammatory exudate. The mucosa may become atrophic.	Linear serpiginous ulcers connected by transverse ulcers (= cobblestoning*). The adjacent mucosa is relatively normal in appearance.
Pseudopolyps	May be present. May have mucosal bridges.	May be present. May have mucosal bridges.
Bowel wall	Not involved or may be fibrotic in late stages.	May be relatively normal or thickened and edematous.
Creeping substitution**	Absent	Often present
Strictures	Usually absent	Occasionally present
Internal fistulas	Usually absent	May be present
Fissuring	Usually absent	Common, but may be absent.
Ileal Involvement	Present in <10% of patients ("backwash ileitis" of distal 2 to 3 cm), with mild superficial active mucosal inflammation only.	Present in 50% of patients, often stenotic.
Rectal involvement	Present in all patients, but may appear minimal due to prior enema therapy.	Present in 15% of patients.
Anal involvement	Present in 5% to 10% of patients, may have a perianal fistula.	Present in 75% of patients; fissures, fistulas, and ulcerations are common.
Carcinoma	Increased risk.	Increased risk.

*The use of the term "cobblestone appearance" should be avoided because this term is imprecise and is used to describe different findings by clinicians, radiologists, and pathologists. Depending on the way it is used, it may be associated either with Crohn disease or with UC. Be descriptive in the gross dictation. If linear and transverse ulcers are present, describe them as such. If pseudopolyp formation is present (i.e., islands of normal mucosa surrounded by ulcerated areas) describe them accordingly.
**Extension of fat onto antimesenteric surface.

Resections for UC are always "complete" (i.e., all colonic mucosa is removed leaving the proximal margin in the small intestine). A section from the ileal mucosal margin, designated "proximal mucosal margin," is submitted.

Specimen integrity is better preserved if longitudinal, rather than transverse, sections are taken. Good perpendicular sections of the wall are taken after fixation to help determine wall thickness. The appendix is sampled if present.

Lymph nodes must be searched for and carefully evaluated because of the increased risk of carcinoma associated with inflammatory bowel disease. These cancers can occur in young patients and may be difficult to detect by biopsy due to the extensive inflammatory changes of the mucosa.

Polyposis Syndromes. Affected patients may have tens to thousands of colonic polyps. Total colectomy is performed to prevent the development of colon carcinoma. The specimen is carefully examined to look for any lesions suspicious for invasion. All polyps greater than 1 cm in size are sampled. Representative samples from smaller polyps are taken as one section per quadrant (four sections for a total colectomy). Lymph nodes are identified and abnormal nodes submitted for histologic examination.

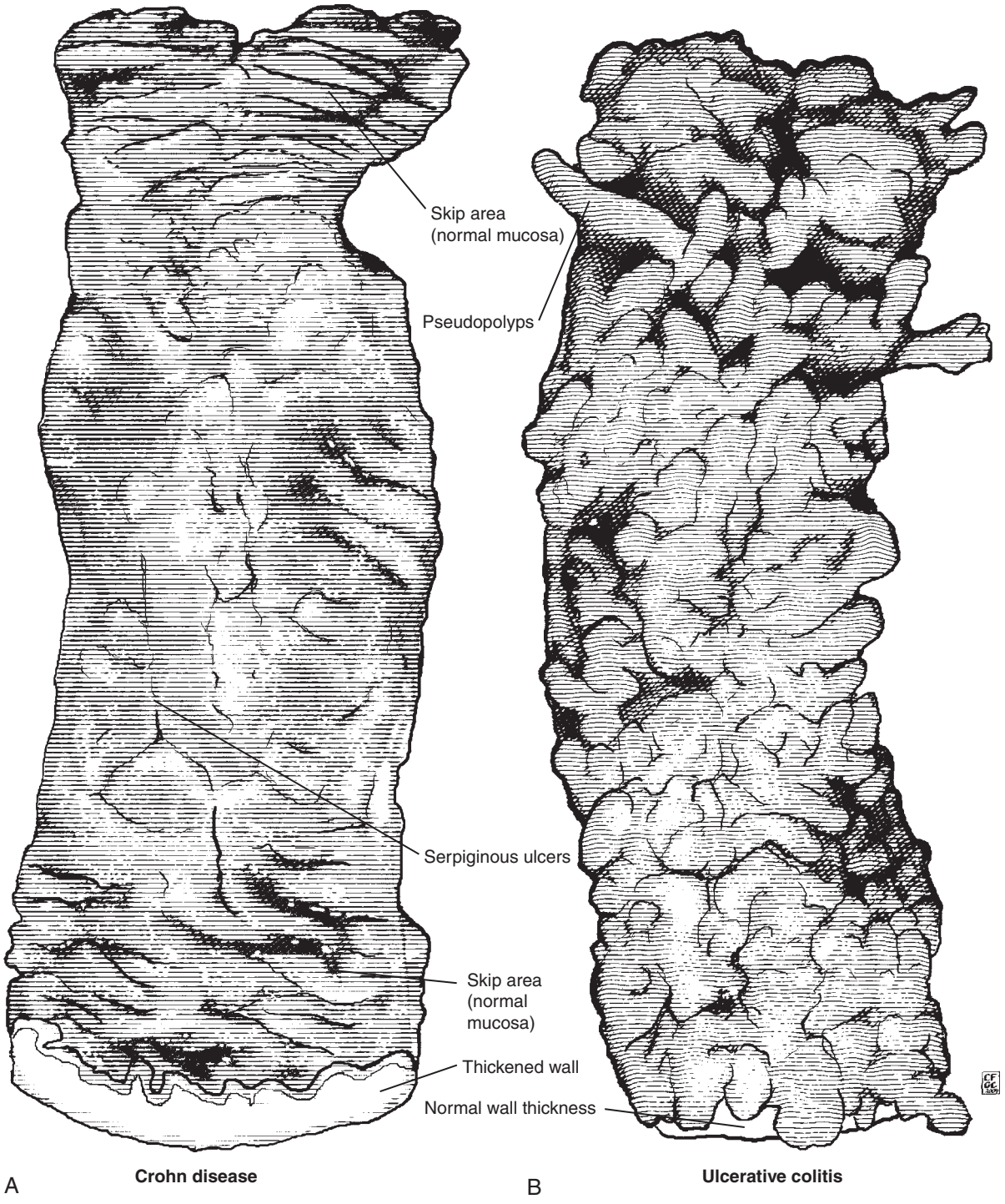

Figure 19–7. Inflammatory bowel disease.

Tumors. The description includes:

- Size
- Appearance: The typical colonic adenocarcinoma is firm, tan/pink, and has raised serpentine borders with an ulcerated center (Fig. 19-8). Mucinous tumors may produce lakes of gelatinous mucin within the tumor mass or bowel wall.
- Anatomic depth of invasion (e.g., into or through the muscularis propria).
- Location. If the specimen includes sigmoid colon and rectum, describe the location of the carcinoma with respect to the mesentery (i.e., sigmoid, junction of sigmoid and rectum, or rectal).

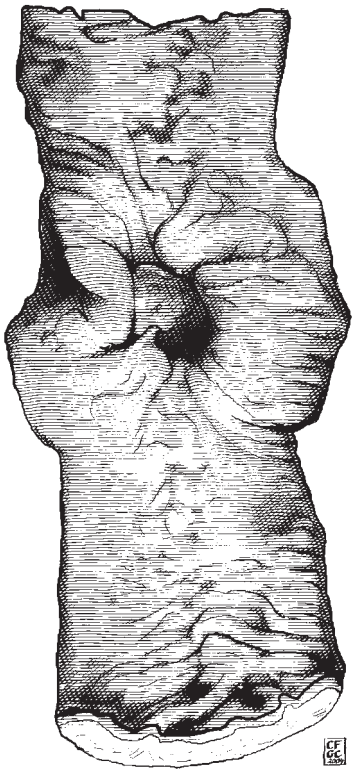

Figure 19–8. Gross appearance of colon carcinoma.

- Distance from margins including deep or serosal margin. The radial margin represents the adventitial (i.e., non-peritonealized) soft tissue margin closest to the deepest penetration of tumor. This margin is significant for rectal carcinomas and for colon carcinomas penetrating into the mesentery. This margin is not significant for colon carcinomas invading into adipose tissue on the antimesenteric side of the bowel unless the carcinoma penetrates the visceral peritoneum. For segments of colon that are completely surrounded by a peritonealized (serosal) surface (e.g., transverse colon), the only circumferential/radial margin is the mesenteric resection margin.
- Distance from anatomical landmarks such as ileocecal valve, rectosigmoid junction, squamocolumnar junction)
- Percent of circumference occupied by tumor and minimal luminal diameter at the site of the tumor (if the lesion is obstructing, describe the dilation of the proximal colon)
- Presence or absence of perforation - there may be induration of surrounding fat, a purulent exudate, and adhesions to other serosal surfaces.

While the specimen is fresh, ink the radial margin at the site of the tumor. The remainder of the fat can be stripped and placed into Bouin's to aid in searching for lymph nodes. It may be useful to separate proximal from distal lymph nodes (see above).

Primary vs. Metastatic Carcinomas to the Colon. The epicenter of a primary tumor is usually located in the mucosa and submucosa and the intraluminal component predominates. Sections from the edge of a primary tumor often reveal continuity with the remainder of the mucosa and association with a pre-existing adenoma. The epicenter of metastatic tumors is usually in pericolonic fat (because the tumor originates in a focus of lymphatic spread). The tumor may then invade through the muscularis propria and erode through the overlying mucosa. Metastatic carcinomas usually have the appearance of erupting upwards from below and may ulcerate the mucosal surface without an exophytic component. Findings consistent with a pre-existing polyp are not present, although carcinomas can sometimes grow for a distance along the surface.

Recurrent Colon Carcinoma. Carcinomas occasionally recur at a prior colonic resection site. The mucosa heals without scarring and the anastomosis is not grossly evident on the surface. However, surgical staples may be present and history will support the location of the carcinoma at the prior surgical site.

Melanosis Coli. The colonic mucosa is dark brown in color due to accumulation of pigment in lamina propria histiocytes. The right colon is involved more frequently than the left. This finding is secondary to chronic laxative ingestion and is generally an incidental finding.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** Four or fewer of the tumor, including relationship to adjacent mucosa (in-situ changes may reveal a pre-existing adenoma or exclude metastasis from another site), deepest extent of invasion, and any involvement of contiguous organs.
- **Other lesions:** Representative of all other lesions (e.g., polyps)
- **Diverticula:** One representative section. If resection was for diverticulitis, submit one section of the perforated diverticulum
- **Inflammatory bowel:** Sequential sections, every 10 cm, including all unusual, raised, or polypoid disease lesions and areas of grossly normal-appearing mucosa.
- **Lymph nodes:** All lymph nodes from tumor cases (see Chapter 27). Submit nodes so that the total number of positive nodes can be determined (e.g., by inking with different colors). If proximal and distal nodes have been separated, submit in separate identified cassettes. If cancer is not present, submit all abnormal lymph nodes.
- **Surgical margins:** Proximal and distal margins and the deep margin or serosal surface. The margins may be taken en face if the tumor is far from the margin. If the tumor is close to the margin, the section is taken perpendicular to the margin and through the tumor (if possible). If the tumor is ≥5 cm from the margin, sections need not be submitted if the mucosal surface appears normal.
- **Normal structures:** Any normal components that have not been sampled in the sections already (for example, in a right colectomy the margins are usually a sample of normal colon and ileum but one should also submit a section of the appendix).

SAMPLE DICTATION FOR TUMORS

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "colon" is a 35 cm in length segment of rectosigmoid colon which is 6 cm in circumference at the sigmoid margin and 3 cm in circumference at the rectal margin. A 6 cm in length mesentery is present along the 32 proximal cm of the colon and is absent from the distal 3 cm. There is a 2.5 × 3 × 2 cm tan/pink centrally ulcerated tumor with serpiginous borders arising 1 cm distal to the rectosigmoid junction. The tumor invades into, but not through, the muscularis propria. The tumor spares only 0.5 cm of the colon circumference and the lumen is narrowed to approximately 0.5 cm in diameter. The proximal colon is markedly dilated. The tumor is 1 cm from the distal margin and 32 cm from the proximal margin. The remainder of the mucosal surface is unremarkable. Ten firm lymph nodes are present in the pericolonic soft tissue, the largest measuring 0.6 cm in greatest dimension.

Cassette #1-2: Tumor at area of deepest invasion and deep margin, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassette #3: Tumor and adjacent mucosa, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #4: Distal margin and tumor, perpendicular, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #5-9: Lymph nodes, two per cassette, 10 frags, ESS.

SAMPLE DICTATION FOR DIVERTICULITIS

The specimen is received fresh in two parts, labeled with the patient's name and unit number.

The first part labeled "colon" consists of a segment of colon (12 cm in length by 3 cm in circumference with one stapled margin and one open margin). The bowel wall is markedly thickened and there are five diverticula. The tip of one diverticulum is perforated and is surrounded by a green-yellow purulent exudate which also covers the adjacent serosal surface. There is a 0.4 cm pedunculated polyp which is 4 cm from the closest margin (stapled). Three lymph nodes are found in the pericolonic fat.

Cassette #1: Area of perforation, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #2: Nonperforated diverticulum, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #3: Polyp, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassette #4: Three lymph nodes (inked black, blue, and green), 5 frags, ESS.

The second part labeled "rings" consists of two ring-shaped sections of colonic mucosa with tan/brown normally appearing mucosa. One ring is attached to a 5 cm green plastic rod.

Cassette #5: Representative mucosa from both rings, 2 frags, RSS.

SAMPLE DICTATION FOR INFLAMMATORY BOWEL DISEASE

The specimen is received in two parts, labeled with the patient's name and unit number.

The first part labeled "total colectomy" consists of a total colectomy specimen extending from the terminal ileum (4 cm in length × 4 cm in circumference), cecum with appendix (appendix 5 cm in length × 0.8 cm in diameter), and colon (100 cm in length × 5 cm circumference). The mucosal surface over the distal 50 cm is dusky red and has multiple ulcers and pseudopolyp formation. No skip lesions are seen grossly. The remainder of the proximal mucosa is tan/brown and unremarkable. The bowel wall is thin and the distribution of the adipose tissue is normal. The ulcerations extend to the distal margin. Twenty lymph nodes are found in the pericolic fat, the largest measuring 0.8 cm in size.

Cassettes #1-10: Sequential sections of colon from distal to proximal, every 10 cm, 10 frags, RSS.
Cassette #11: Terminal ileum, margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #12: Appendix, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #13: Two largest lymph nodes (one inked in black), 4 frags, ESS.
Cassettes #14-19: Three lymph nodes per cassette, 18 frags, ESS.

The second part labeled "rectum" consists of a mucosal segment measuring 10 cm in length by 4 cm in circumference. The mucosal surface is brown/red and irregular with effacement of the normal mucosal surface. The mucosal changes extend throughout the length of the specimen. No muscularis propria is present.

Cassette #20: Representative sections from one end, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #21: Representative sections from opposite end, 2 frags, RSS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR COLON AND RECTAL CARCINOMAS

- **Specimen:** Terminal ileum, cecum, appendix, ascending colon, transverse colon, descending colon, sigmoid colon, rectum, anus
- **Procedure:** Right hemicolectomy (terminal ileum, colon, and appendix), transverse colectomy, left hemicolectomy, sigmoidectomy, rectal/rectosigmoid colon (low anterior resection), total abdominal colectomy, abdominoperineal resection (sigmoid colon, rectum, and anus), total proctocolectomy (terminal ileum, colon, appendix, and rectum), transanal disk excision
- **Specimen Length:** Give length of each segment of colon present in cms, if applicable
- **Tumor Site:** Ileocecal valve, cecum, right (ascending) colon, hepatic flexure, transverse colon, splenic flexure, left (descending) colon, sigmoid, rectosigmoid, rectum, anus
- **Tumor Configuration:** Exophytic (pedunculated or sessile), endophytic (ulcerative), diffusely infiltrative (linitis plastica)
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension in cm (other dimensions optional)
- **Macroscopic Tumor Perforation:** Not identified, present
- **Macroscopic Intactness of Mesorectum:** Not applicable, complete, near complete, incomplete; evaluates the completion of resection of rectal tumors (Box 19-2)
- **Histologic Type:** Adenoma, adenocarcinoma, signet ring cell carcinoma (>50% signet ring cells), mucinous (colloid) adenocarcinoma (>50% mucinous), undifferentiated (no gland formation), medullary, small cell, squamous cell carcinoma, all others rare. The WHO Classification may be used.
- **Histologic Grade:** Low grade (well to moderately differentiated, ≥50% gland formation) or high grade (poorly differentiated to undifferentiated, <50% gland formation) (see later)
- Histologic Features Suggestive of Microsatellite Instability
- **Intratumoral Lymphocytic Response (tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes):** None, mild to moderate (0 to 2 lymphocytes per HPF), marked (≥3 lymphocytes per HPF)
- **Peritumor Lymphocytic Response (Crohn-like response):** None, mild to moderate, marked
- **Tumor Subtype and Differentiation:** Mucinous tumor component (specify percentage that is mucinous), medullary tumor component, high histologic grade (poorly differentiated)

BOX 19–2. Evaluation of the mesorectal envelope

Complete excision of the rectum and surrounding tissues decreases the risk of local recurrence. The extent of resection can be determined by gross evaluation of the nonperitonealized surface of the specimen. The entire specimen is scored according to the worst area.

Incomplete
- Little bulk to the mesorectum
- Defects in the mesorectum down to the muscularis propria
- After transverse sectioning, the circumferential margin appears very irregular.

Nearly complete
- Moderate bulk to the mesorectum
- Irregularity of the mesorectal surface with defects > 0.5 cm, but none extending to the muscularis propria
- No areas of visibility of the muscularis propria except at the insertion site of the levator ani muscles

Complete
- Intact bulky mesorectum with a smooth surface
- Only minor irregularities of the mesorectal surface
- No surface defects > 0.5 cm in depth
- No coning towards the distal margin of the specimen
- After transverse sectioning, the circumferential margin appears smooth

From Hermanek P, Hermanek P, Hohenberger W, Klimpfinger M, Kockerling F, Papadopoulos T: The pathological assessment of mesorectal excision: implications for further treatment and quality management, Int J Colorectal Dis;18(4):335-41, 2003.

- **Microscopic Tumor Extension:** Intraepithelial carcinoma (including invasion into lamina propria) (Tis), invasion into submucosa (T1), invasion into muscularis propria (T2), invasion through muscularis propria into pericolorectal tissues (T3), penetration to surface of visceral peritoneum (T4a), direct invasion or adherence to other organs or structures (T4b). A measurement of the depth of invasion is sometimes used for rectal carcinomas.
  - Invasion into another segment of the colorectum by way of the serosa or mesocolon is classified as T4b. Invasion into another segment of colorectum by growth along the bowel wall (e.g., a cecal carcinoma extending into the ileum) would not be sufficient for classification as T4.
  - Perforation of visceral peritoneum is defined using the following criteria:
    (1) Tumor present at the serosal surface with inflammatory reaction, mesothelial hyperplasia, and/or erosion/ulceration
    (2) Free tumor cells on the serosal surface (in the peritoneum) with underlying ulceration of the visceral peritoneum
- **Margins:** Proximal, distal, serosal, circumferential (radial) margin (for rectal carcinomas), mesenteric, distance to margin. Anastomotic recurrences are rare if the distance is >5 cm. A distal margin less than 2 cm for a rectal carcinoma may be an indication for radiation therapy.
  - The distance of a rectal carcinoma from the radial margin may be important for rectal carcinomas.
  - The margins for a noncircumferential transanal disk excision include all the sides of the specimen.
  - Margins should be evaluated for adenomatous changes, intramucosal carcinoma, and invasive carcinoma.
  - Colon segments contract after excision. Distances to margins are best determined while the specimen is fresh, immediately after excision.
  - The distance of a carcinoma from a nonperitonealized surface (the radial/circumferential or mesenteric margin) predicts local recurrence if positive or <0.1 cm. This includes if carcinoma within a lymph node is close to this margin. This margin should be considered negative if >0.1 cm.
- **Treatment Effect:** No prior treatment, present. If present, give degree of response:
  - Grade 0: No residual carcinoma
  - Grade 1: Minimal residual carcinoma, moderate response
  - Grade 2: Minimal response
  - Grade 3: No definite response, poor response
  - Note specific location of acellular mucin pools in wall and margins. These are not considered to be residual carcinoma.
  - Postchemotherapy inflammatory changes include fibrosis, obliterative vasculopathy, telangiectasia, cellular atypia, active inflammation, ulceration
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present, indeterminate

- **Perineural Invasion:** Not identified, present, indeterminate
- **Tumor Deposits:** Not identified, present, indeterminate
  - Carcinomas found away from the main tumor and not associated with a lymph node are likely satellite tumors due to lymph-vascular invasion or perineural invasion. These are not counted as metastases to lymph nodes but are considered "discontinuous extramural extension." The number of tumor deposits should be recorded. If the lymph nodes are free of carcinoma, then this finding is reported as N1c.
- **Type of Polyp (in which invasive carcinoma arose):** Tubular adenoma, villous adenoma, tubulovillous adenoma, traditional serrated adenoma, sessile serrated adenoma, hamartomatous polyp
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Adenoma, chronic ulcerative proctocolitis, Crohn disease, dysplasia arising in inflammatory bowel disease, other polyps
- **Ancillary Studies:** Microsatellite instability (immunohistochemistry, DNA studies), mutational analysis (*BRAF* V600E, *KRAS*)
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Number of positive nodes, number of nodes examined, presence of extracapsular invasion, specify location or "apical" if designated by surgeon
  - All nodes should be examined (preferably, at least 12). If fewer than 12 nodes are found, additional techniques to identify lymph nodes and additional tissue sampling should be considered.
  - Tumor nodules in pericolonic/perirectal fat without histologic evidence of residual lymph node tissue are classified as "tumor deposits."
- **Tumor border configuration**
  - Not assessed, pushing type (expansile, uniformly smooth), or irregular (infiltrative, streaming dissection), mixed (Box 19-3)
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Tables 19-16 and 19-17). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see *www.cap.org/*) and the ADASP (see *www.adasp.org*). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR ANAL CARCINOMAS

- **Specimen:** Anus, anorectal junction, rectum, sigmoid
- **Procedure:** Abdominoperineal resection (sigmoid colon, rectum, anus), transanal disk excision
- **Tumor Site:** Anus, anorectal junction, rectum. Rectum, anal canal, relationship to squamocolumnar junction, anterior wall
- **Tumor size:** Greatest dimension (T1 ≤ 2 cm; T2 > 2 but ≤ 5 cm; T3 > 5 cm) (other dimensions optional)
- **Specimen Length:** Give length of anus, rectum, and colon present in centimeters.

BOX 19–3. Diagnostic criteria for an infiltrative border of colorectal carcinoma

Naked eye examination of a microscopic slide of the tumor border

- Inability to define limits of invasive border of tumor and/or
- Inability to resolve host tissue from malignant tissue

Microscopic examination of the tumor border

- "Streaming dissection" of muscularis propria (dissection of tumor through the full thickness of the muscularis propria without stromal response) and/or
- Dissection of mesenteric adipose tissue by small glands or irregular clusters of cords of cells and/or perineural invasion

Data from Jass J, Ajioka Y, Allen JP, Chan YF, Cohen RJ, Nixon JM, et al. Assessment of invasive growth pattern and lymphocytic infiltration in colorectal cancer. Histopathology 28:543-548, 1996 and Jass JR: Lymphocytic infiltration and survival in rectal cancer, J Clin Pathol 39:585-589, 1986.

TABLE 19-16. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF COLON AND RECTAL CARCINOMAS

TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	Carcinoma in situ: intraepithelial or invasion of lamina propria*
T1	Tumor invades submucosa
T2	Tumor invades muscularis propria
T3	Tumor invades through the muscularis propria into pericolorectal tissues
T4a	Tumor penetrates to the surface of the visceral peritoneum*
T4b	Tumor directly invades or is adherent to other organs or structures†,‡

*Tis includes cancer cells confined within the glandular basement membrane (intraepithelial) or mucosal lamina propria (intramucosal) with no extension through the muscularis mucosae into the submucosa.
†Direct invasion in T4 includes invasion of other organs or other segments of the colorectum as a result of direct extension through the serosa, as confirmed on microscopic examination (e.g., invasion of the sigmoid colon by a carcinoma of the cecum) or, for cancers in a retroperitoneal or subperitoneal location, direct invasion of other organs or structures by virtue of extension beyond the muscularis propria (i.e., respectively, a tumor on the posterior wall of the descending colon invading the left kidney or lateral abdominal wall; or a mid or distal rectal cancer with invasion of prostate, seminal vesicles, cervix, or vagina).
‡Tumor that is adherent to other organs or structures, grossly, is classified cT4b. However, if no tumor is present in the adhesion, microscopically, the classification should be pT1-4a depending on the anatomical depth of wall invasion.

REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis*
N1	Metastasis in 1-3 regional lymph node(s)
N1a	Metastasis in 1 regional lymph node
N1b	Metastasis in 2-3 regional lymph nodes
N1c	Tumor deposit(s) in the subserosa, mesentery, or nonperitonealized pericolic or perirectal tissues without regional nodal metastasis
N2	Metastasis in 4 or more regional lymph nodes
N2a	Metastasis in 4-6 regional lymph nodes
N2b	Metastasis in 7 or more regional lymph nodes

Note: A satellite peritumoral nodule in the pericolorectal adipose tissue of a primary carcinoma without histologic evidence of residual lymph node in the nodule may represent discontinuous spread, venous invasion with extravascular spread (V1/2), or a totally replaced lymph node (N1/2). Replaced nodes should be counted separately as positive nodes in the N category, whereas discontinuous spread or venous invasion should be classified and counted in the site-specific factor category of Tumor Deposits (TD).
*Nodes with isolated tumor cells (single cells or small clusters of cells not more than 0.2 mm in greatest diameter) are classified as N0 (i+) and micrometastases (> 0.2 mm but ≤2 mm) are classified as N1mi.

Regional lymph nodes for the anatomic subsites of the colon and rectum are as follows:
Cecum: anterior cecal, posterior cecal, ileocolic, right colic
Ascending colon: ileocolic, right colic, middle colic
Hepatic flexure: middle colic, right colic
Transverse colon: middle colic
Splenic flexure: middle colic, left colic, inferior mesenteric
Descending colon: left colic, inferior mesenteric, sigmoid
Sigmoid colon: inferior mesenteric, superior rectal sigmoidal, sigmoid mesenteric
Rectosigmoid: perirectal, left colic, sigmoid mesenteric, sigmoidal, inferior mesenteric, superior rectal, middle rectal

TABLE 19–16. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF COLON AND RECTAL CARCINOMAS—cont'd

REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
Rectum: perirectal, sigmoid mesenteric, inferior mesenteric, lateral sacral, presacral, internal iliac, sacral promontory, superior rectal, middle rectal, inferior rectal Metastases to nonregional lymph nodes (e.g., external iliac, para-aortic) should be classified as distant metastases (M1).	
METASTASIS	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
M1a	Metastasis confined to one organ or site (e.g., liver, lung, ovary, nonregional node)
M1b	Metastases in more than one organ/site or the peritoneum

This staging system should not be used for carcinoid tumors. Appendiceal tumors have separate staging systems.
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois. This list also incorporates recommendations for reporting from the AJCC (Compton C, Fenoglio-Preiser CM, Pettigrew N, Fielding LP, American Joint Committee on Cancer Prognostic Factors Consensus Conference, Colorectal Working Group, Cancer 88:1739-1757, 2000).

TABLE 19–17. AJCC GRADE

GX	Grade cannot be assessed
G1	Well differentiated
G2	Moderately differentiated
G3	Poorly differentiated
G4	Undifferentiated

The AJCC recommends using a two-tiered system:
1. Low grade (G1-G2)
2. High grade (G3-G4)

Some authors suggest that G4 lesions be identified separately because they may represent a small subgroup of carcinomas that are very aggressive.
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.

- **Histologic Type:** Squamous cell carcinoma, adenocarcinoma, mucinous adenocarcinoma, small cell carcinoma, other rare types
- **Histologic Grade:** Well, moderately, poorly, or undifferentiated (Table 19-18)
- **Microscopic Tumor Extension:** In situ, invasion into lamina propria, invasion into muscularis mucosae, invasion into submucosa, invasion into sphincter muscle, invasion into muscularis propria, invasion into subserosa, invasion into perianal or perirectal soft tissue, invasion into adjacent structures. A measurement of the depth of invasion may be used as a prognostic factor for rectal carcinomas.
- **Margins:** Uninvolved (distance to closest margin), involved
  - Specify proximal, distal, and radial (circumferential) margin.
  - Specify if it is carcinoma in situ or invasive carcinoma at the margin.
- **Treatment Effect:** No prior treatment, prior treatment. If there was prior treatment, give degree of response:
  - Grade 0: Complete response, no viable tumor cells
  - Grade 1: Moderate response, single cells or small groups of tumor cells

TABLE 19–18. HISTOLOGIC GRADE OF ANAL ADENOCARCINOMAS	
Grade X	Grade cannot be assessed
Grade 1	Well differentiated (>95% of tumor composed of glands)
Grade 2	Moderately differentiated (50% to 95% of tumor composed of glands)
Grade 3	Poorly differentiated (<49% of tumor composed of glands)
Grade 4	Undifferentiated
Small cell carcinomas and tumors with no differentiation or minimal differentiation that is only present in rare small foci (classified as WHO undifferentiated carcinomas) are categorized as grade 4.	

  - Grade 2: Minimal response, residual tumor outgrown by fibrosis
  - Grade 3: No definite response, poor response, extensive residual tumor
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present, indeterminate
- **Perineural Invasion:** Not identified, present, indeterminate
- **Tumor Configuration:** Polypoid, exophytic, infiltrative, ulcerating, other
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Present or absent, number of nodes examined, number with metastases, location (perirectal, inguinal, internal iliac), size, presence of extracapsular invasion, specify location or "apical" if designated by surgeon
  - Carcinomas of the anal canal usually metastasize to the anorectal and perirectal nodes.
  - Carcinomas of the anal margin metastasize to superficial inguinal nodes.
- **Additional Findings:** Condyloma acuminatum, Paget disease, dysplasia, Crohn disease
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (see Table 19-19). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see *www.cap.org/*) and the ADASP (see *www.adasp.org*). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

APPENDIX

Appendices are generally removed due to acute appendicitis, occasionally "incidentally" during operations for other reasons, and as part of a right colectomy.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record dimensions (length, diameter including range), color (tan/pink, gray/green), external surface (edematous, fibrinous exudate, hyperemia, purulence, perforations, hemorrhagic (may be seen in endometriosis).

   If the mesoappendix is present, record dimensions, color, appearance (edema, fibrinous exudate, purulence).
2. Make a longitudinal section of the tip, just long enough to fit into a cassette. The serosal side may be inked to orient the tip for embedding. The remainder of the appendix is sectioned at 3 mm intervals (Fig. 19-9).

TABLE 19-19. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF ANAL CARCINOMAS*

TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	Carcinoma in situ (Bowen disease, high-grade squamous intraepithelial lesion [HSIL], anal intraepithelial neoplasia II-III [AIN II-III])
T1	Tumor 2 cm or less in greatest dimension
T2	Tumor more than 2 cm but not more than 5 cm in greatest dimension
T3	Tumor more than 5 cm in greatest dimension
T4	Tumor of any size with invasion of adjacent organ(s), e.g., vagina, urethra, bladder*
*Direct invasion of the rectal wall, perirectal skin, subcutaneous tissue, or the sphincter muscle(s) is not classified as T4.	
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Metastasis in perirectal lymph node(s)
N2	Metastasis in unilateral internal iliac and/or inguinal lymph node(s)
N3	Metastasis in perirectal and inguinal lymph nodes and/or bilateral internal iliac and/or inguinal lymph nodes
Regional lymph nodes include perirectal (anorectal, perirectal, and lateral sacral), internal iliac (hypogastric), and inguinal (superficial and deep). All other lymph node groups are considered distant metastasis.	
METASTASIS	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
Note: Carcinomas arising at the junction of the hair-bearing skin and mucous membrane of the anal canal are staged as skin cancers. This classification is only used for carcinomas. Melanomas, sarcomas, and carcinoid tumors are not included.	
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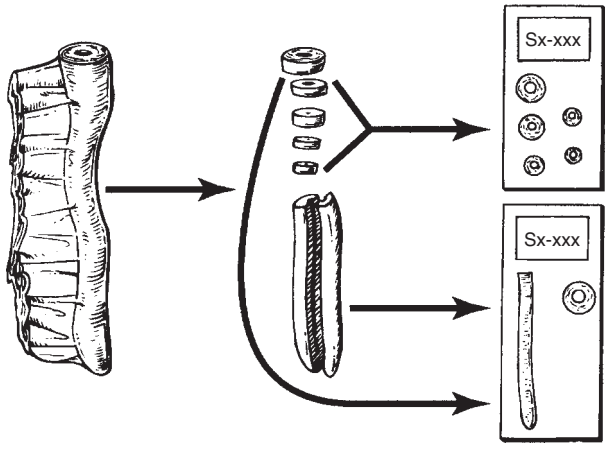

Figure 19–9. Appendectomies.

3. Record the thickness of the wall, the diameter of the lumen (dilated, fibrosed, constricted), the condition of the mucosa (glistening, ulcerated, hyperemic), and the contents of the lumen:
   - Fecalith
   - Foreign body (e.g., seeds, gallstone calculus)
   - Purulence or blood (acute appendicitis)
   - Parasites (*Oxyuris vermicularis*)
   - Mucin – may be associated with a mucocele or a mucinous neoplasm (check for mucinous implants on serosa)
   - Fibrous obliteration
4. Submit one longitudinal section of the tip and two transverse sections (one near the resection margin and one near the tip), including any abnormalities seen (perforations, ulcerations, serositis).

If there is mucin accumulation in the lumen (i.e., a possible cystadenoma or cystadenocarcinoma) or an area suspicious for tumor, submit the entire appendix and submit the resection margin in a separate cassette.

If the appendectomy was performed for appendicitis, and the appendix is grossly normal, the entire specimen must be submitted.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Appendicitis is usually apparent as a purulent exudate on the serosal surface of the appendix, often with a gross perforation. More subtle cases may appear edematous or may not be grossly apparent. Surgeons may be incorrect in up to 7% of cases of acute appendicitis (both false-positive and false-negative clinical diagnoses). Thus, histologic confirmation is useful for clinical management after appendectomy.

Neuroendocrine Tumors (e.g., carcinoid, tubular or goblet cell carcinoid, crypt cell carcinoma) are usually found at the tip of the appendix. Carcinoids are found incidentally in one to six specimens out of 1000 appendectomies and are the most common appendiceal tumor. Small tumors are often difficult or impossible to see grossly because of their infiltrative growth pattern in the submucosa. The normal architecture may be effaced. Large tumors may be firm, yellow to white, well circumscribed but not encapsulated, and usually look like a bulbous swelling of the tip.

Endometriosis is not an uncommon finding in the appendix. Often the muscularis propria will appear to be markedly hypertrophied and areas of focal hemorrhage may be present.

Mucocele is seen as diffuse globular enlargement of the appendix which is filled with mucus. Mucinous cystadenomas and mucinous cystadenocarcinomas have this same appearance.

Adenocarcinoma of the appendix is rare and has the same gross appearance as a colonic adenocarcinoma. Some tumors may perforate and present as acute appendicitis. These cases may be difficult to distinguish from inflammation grossly.

A Cecal Diverticulum (thought to be of congenital origin) may present clinically as appendicitis. Intraoperatively, the surgeon finds a pericecal abscess with a normal appendix and a right colectomy is performed. Search for the diverticulum in the proximal cecum with a metal probe – the probe will enter the abscess cavity from the mucosal surface.

Specific Infections such as TB or *Yersinia*, are rarely causes of appendiceal inflammation but may be more common in patients from outside the US. The gross appearance may be unremarkable or the same as for acute appendicitis.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "appendix," is a 5 cm in length × 0.9 cm in diameter appendix with attached mesoappendix (5 × 1 × 0.8 cm). There is a 0.3 cm in diameter perforation of the appendiceal wall, 1.5 cm from the tip. The serosal surface is dull and covered with purulent material. The mesoappendix is edematous, tan/brown, and has areas of focal hemorrhage. The

mucosal surface is red/brown and ulcerated. There is a 0.5 × 0.5 × 0.5 cm brown friable fecalith in the lumen of the proximal appendix.

Cassette #1: longitudinal section of tip and proximal margin, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #2: cross sections including area of perforation, 4 frags, RSS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR APPENDICEAL CARCINOMAS

- **Specimen:** Appendix, cecum, right colon, terminal ileum
- **Procedure:** Appendectomy, right colectomy (terminal ileum, appendix, cecum, and ascending colon)
- **Specimen Integrity:** Intact, fragmented
- **Specimen Length:** Give length of each segment of colon and appendix in centimeters.
- **Tumor Site:** Proximal half of appendix (base involved or not involved), distal half of appendix, diffusely involving appendix
- **Tumor Configuration:** Ulcerative, polypoid, infiltrative
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (cm) (additional dimensions are optional)
- **Histologic Type:** Adenocarcinoma, signet ring cell carcinoma (> 50% signet ring cells), mucinous (colloid) adenocarcinoma (> 50% mucinous), undifferentiated (no gland formation), small cell carcinoma, goblet cell carcinoid. The WHO Classification may be used.
  - Note: The AJCC system for appendicial carcinomas is also used for goblet cell carcinoid tumors. There is a separate system for carcinoid tumors.
- **Histologic Grade:** Well differentiated (> 95% gland formation; grade 1), moderately differentiated (50% to 95% gland formation; grade 2), poorly differentiated (5% to 50% gland formation; grade 3), undifferentiated (< 5% gland formation; grade 4)
- **Microscopic Tumor Extension:** Intraepithelial carcinoma (no invasion) (Tis), intramucosal carcinoma (invasion into lamina propria) (Tis), invasion into submucosa (T1), invasion into muscularis propria (T2), invasion through muscularis propria into the subserosa, or into mesoappendix, but not to the serosal surface (T3), perforation of visceral peritoneum (including mucinous peritoneal tumor within the right lower quadrant) (T4a), direct invasion of other organs or structures (T4b).
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Number of positive nodes, number of nodes examined, presence of extracapsular invasion. Regional lymph nodes for the appendix are anterior cecal, posterior cecal, ileocolic, and right colic.
- **Margins:** Proximal margin, distal margin, circumferential (radial) margin, mesenteric, (give distance from mesenteric margin). If the distance is > 5 cm, histologic confirmation is not necessary.
  - Margins should be evaluated for adenomatous changes and invasive carcinoma.
- **Perforation of Bowel Wall:** Present or absent, related to tumor or other process
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present, indeterminate
- **Satellite Peritumoral Nodules:** Not identified, present (give number)
  - Irregular foci of carcinoma in periappendiceal adipose tissue are classified as "discontinuous extramural extension" and may be due to lymph-vascular invasion or perineural invasion. They are not classified as lymph node metastases. If a focus of carcinoma has smooth borders and can be identified as a replaced lymph node, it is classified as a lymph node metastasis.
- **Perineural Invasion:** Not identified, present, indeterminate
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Inflammatory bowel disease (with or without dysplasia), appendicitis, diverticulosis, carcinoid tumor (low-grade neuroendocrine tumor, if a carcinoma is also present), perforation (not due to tumor)
- **Ancillary Studies:** MSI testing, if performed. Only a few appendiceal carcinomas show MSI, and this testing is not routinely recommended at this time.
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present, intraperitoneal metastasis beyond the right lower quadrant, including pseudomyxoma peritonei, nonperitoneal metastasis. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Tables 19-20 and 19-21). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are

TABLE 19-20. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF APPENDICEAL CARCINOMAS (INCLUDING GOBLET CELL CARCINOIDS)

TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	Carcinoma in situ: intraepithelial or invasion of lamina propria*
T1	Tumor invades submucosa
T2	Tumor invades muscularis propria
T3	Tumor invades through the muscularis propria into subserosa or into mesoappendix
T4a	Tumor penetrates visceral peritoneum, including mucinous peritoneal tumor within the right lower quadrant
T4b	Tumor directly invades other organs or structures†,‡
*Tis includes cancer cells confined within the glandular basement membrane (intraepithelial) or lamina propria (intramucosal) with no extension through the muscularis mucosae into the submucosa. †Direct invasion in T4 includes invasion of other segments of the colorectum, by way of the serosa, e.g., invasion of ileum. ‡Tumor that is adherent to other organs or structures, grossly, is classified cT4b. However, if no tumor is present in the adhesion, microscopically, the classification should be pT1-3 depending on the anatomical depth of wall invasion.	
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Metastasis in 1-3 regional lymph node(s)
N2	Metastasis in 4 or more regional lymph nodes
Note: A satellite peritumoral nodule or tumor deposit (TD) in the periappendiceal adipose tissue of a primary carcinoma without histologic evidence of residual lymph node in the nodule may represent discontinuous spread (T3), venous invasion with extravascular spread (T3, V1/2), or a totally replaced lymph node (N1/2). Replaced nodes should be counted as positive nodes, whereas discontinuous spread or venous invasion should be classified and counted in the site-specific factor (TD).	
METASTASIS	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
M1a	Intraperitoneal metastasis beyond the right lower quadrant, including pseudomyxoma peritonei
M1b	Nonperitoneal metastasis
Carcinoid tumors of the appendix have a separate staging system. However, goblet cell carcinoids are classified using the system for appendiceal carcinomas. From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.	

considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

HEMORRHOIDS

Hemorrhoids are dilated veins of the hemorrhoidal plexus resected due to recurrent bleeding and pain. The specimen consists of a local resection of anal mucosa and submucosa. Squamous cell carcinomas, condylomata, tuberculosis, and nonspecific granulomas can sometimes be found incidentally in the adjacent anal tissue. Occasionally a fibroepithelial polyp will clinically mimic a hemorrhoid.

TABLE 19-21. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF APPENDICEAL CARCINOID TUMORS

TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
T1	Tumor 2 cm or less in greatest dimension
T1a	Tumor 1 cm or less in greatest dimension
T1b	Tumor more than 1 cm but not more than 2 cm
T2	Tumor more than 2 cm but not more than 4 cm or with extension to the cecum
T3	Tumor more than 4 cm or with extension to the ileum
T4	Tumor directly invades other adjacent organs or structures, e.g., abdominal wall and skeletal muscle*
Note: Tumor that is adherent to other organs or structures, grossly, is classified cT4. However, if no tumor is present in the adhesion, microscopically, the tumor should be classified pT1-3 depending on the anatomical depth of wall invasion. *Penetration of the mesoappendix does not appear to be as important a prognostic factor as the size of the primary tumor and is not separately categorized.	
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Regional lymph node metastasis
METASTASIS	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
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PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record number of fragments and size of each one. Examine the anal mucosa carefully for any lesions. Serially section each fragment. Dilated vascular spaces with or without thrombosis can sometimes be seen grossly.
2. Submit one cassette of representative tissue. Submit additional cassettes to document any lesions seen.

LIVER

The liver is involved by a wide variety of non-neoplastic, and less commonly, neoplastic diseases. See Chapter 27 for processing of liver biopsies performed for staging of Hodgkin disease. Biopsies may be performed to evaluate a liver prior to transplantation. See Chapter 6 for more information.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

See Table 19-22.

Needle Biopsy

Needle biopsies are commonly used to assess liver diseases affecting hepatic function and are also used to evaluate liver masses (primary tumors or metastases). Scoring systems are available for chronic hepatitis (Table 19-23).

TABLE 19–22. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY – LIVER

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR LIVER SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Viral hepatitis (A, B, or C)
Purpose of the procedure	Hemochromatosis
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	Cirrhosis
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	Bile duct disease (e.g., liver fluke infection, obstruction, jaundice)
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	Liver function tests, serum AFP
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	Family history of liver tumors
Prior malignancy	Pregnancy
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	→ drug use that can alter the histologic appearance of the liver
Compromised immune system	

TABLE 19–23. GRADING AND STAGING OF LIVER SPECIMENS WITH CHRONIC VIRAL HEPATITIS

	GRADE OF NECROINFLAMMATORY ACTIVITY		
SCORE	Portal Activity	Lobular Activity	STAGE OF FIBROSIS/CIRRHOSIS
0	No portal inflammation	None	No fibrosis
1	Portal inflammation only, no/minimal piecemeal necrosis	Minimal inflammation, no necrosis	Enlarged fibrotic portal tracts
2	Mild piecemeal necrosis (some or all portal tracts)	Focal hepatocyte necrosis	Periportal or portal to portal septa; no bridging
3	Moderate piecemeal necrosis (all portal tracts)	Moderate, with multifocal necrosis	Bridging fibrosis with architectural distortion, no obvious cirrhosis
4	Severe piecemeal necrosis	Severe with prominent diffuse necrosis (may be bridging)	Cirrhosis

Grade refers to the extent of current inflammation and can increase or decrease over time. The most severe degree of portal or lobular injury is graded.
Stage refers to the degree of fibrosis and is usually progressive over time; fibrosis may regress during antiviral therapy.
See references 7 and 8.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Describe the specimen including color (tan/brown, white probably indicates capsular tissue or tumor), length, diameter, and whether the specimen appears fragmented (may indicate a cirrhotic liver).
2. Wrap in lens paper and submit in entirety. Trichrome, reticulin, and iron stains are often used in the evaluation.

SPECIAL STUDIES

Hemochromatosis (Iron). Iron stains show increased iron within hepatocytes. Fixed or unfixed tissue biopsies may be used for quantitative iron assessment by a specialty laboratory.

Wilson Disease (Copper). Quantitative copper measurements may require that the specimen be acquired and handled with special equipment to avoid contamination of the specimen with trace metals. The specialty laboratory should be contacted before processing such a specimen.

Special stains for copper (rhodanine stain) or copper-associated protein (orcein stain) can be used to visualize the abnormal copper stores within hepatocytes. These stains may also be positive in other diseases, such as chronic biliary disorders.

Acute Fatty Liver of Pregnancy, Reye's Syndrome, etc. These diseases require the demonstration of microvesicular fat which is removed by routine processing. Oil Red O stains may be performed on frozen tissue sections that have been air dried (do not fix in methanol). EM can also be used. Because these are acutely ill patients and a timely diagnosis is clinically useful, a frozen section is generally preferable to EM studies.

Alpha 1-Antitrypsin Deficiency. PAS-positive, diastase-resistant, eosinophilic hyaline globules can be seen in periportal hepatocytes in routinely fixed tissues.

Lymphoma. Evaluation of the disease process using a cytologic preparation may be helpful before allocating tissue. If lymphoma is suspected, a portion of the tissue may be fixed in B5. The entire specimen should not be fixed in B5 because nonlymphoid markers may not be optimally preserved if (e.g., keratins). If a portion is frozen, histologic sections of the frozen tissue should always be examined.

Lobectomy

Hepatocellular carcinomas may be treated with surgery but cholangiocarcinomas are rarely respectable. Resections are more commonly performed for adenomas and focal nodular hyperplasia. An individual metastasis from colon carcinoma also may be resected.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh and measure the specimen. Identify the cut surgical margins and the capsular surface. Assess the overall appearance of the resected liver (e.g., normal homogeneous parenchyma with a smooth capsule vs. the nodular and fibrotic appearance of a cirrhotic liver). Identify the vascular pedicle.
2. Section the specimen thinly at 0.5 cm to look for lesions.
3. Describe the size, location (with respect to the liver capsule and with respect to the surgical margins), color, and other gross features (central scar, hemorrhage, nodularity, bulging on cut section).
4. Describe the remainder of the liver parenchyma including color, presence of nodules (give range of sizes), congestion, fibrosis. Describe the appearance of the capsule (normal = thin, smooth and glistening; abnormal = thickened, nodular, adhesions, etc.).
   Examine major portal vein and hepatic vein structures for gross evidence of vascular invasion.
5. Take sections to demonstrate the lesion, nearby vasculature, cauterized margins, vascular margins, and uninvolved liver.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

See Figure 19-10.

Focal Nodular Hyperplasia (FNH). Usually a solitary (but 20% are multiple) gray/white unencapsulated nodule that may be located beneath the liver capsule. Most are <5 cm. On cut section there is a very characteristic white depressed area of fibrosis with broad strands radiating out in a stellate configuration and prominent nodularity of the intervening parenchyma. The surrounding liver is most commonly normal in appearance. An elastic stain on a section from the central scarred area helps to delineate the abnormal vasculature.

Adenoma. Usually a solitary, well-encapsulated mass with a homogeneous parenchyma that has a slightly different color from the adjacent normal parenchyma (yellow to tan/brown). Some can be quite large (up to 30 cm). They are usually located beneath the liver capsule, and some are pedunculated.

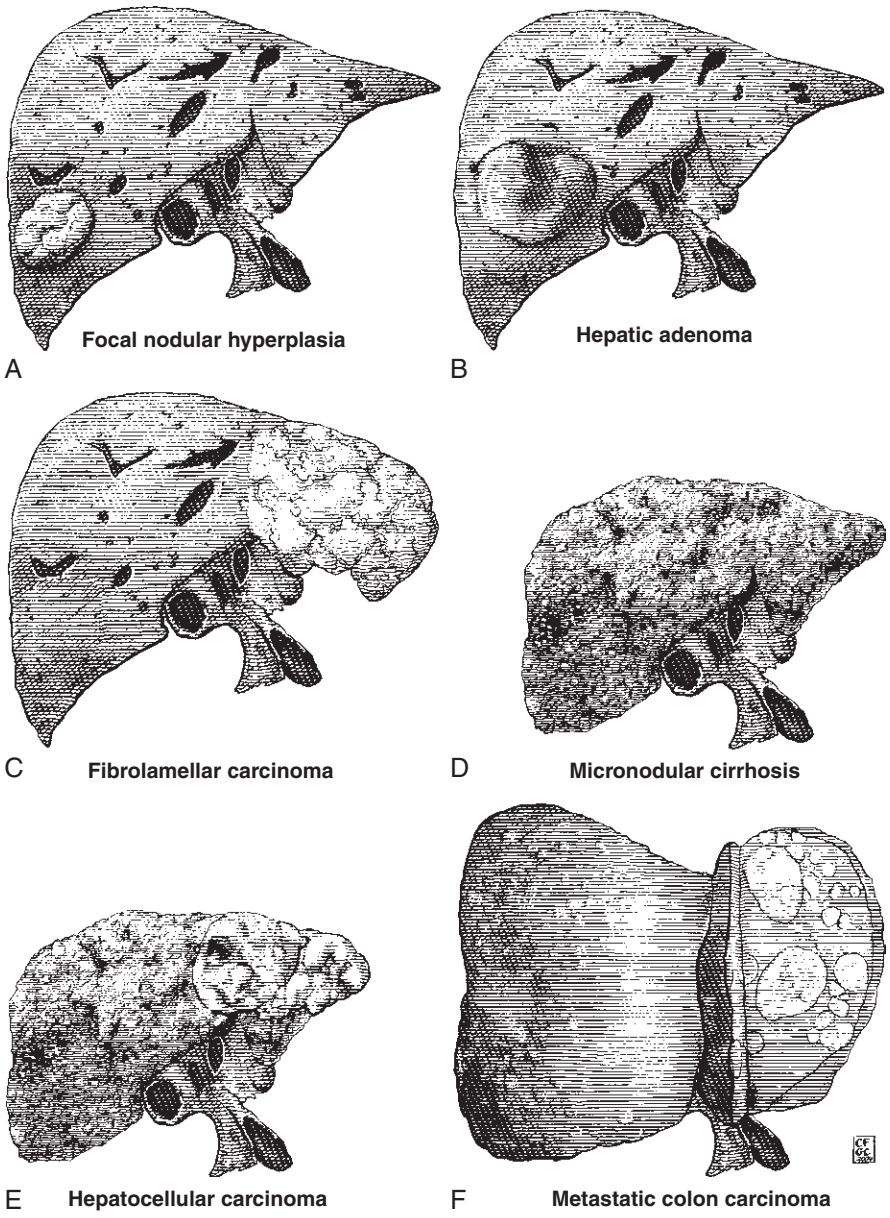

Figure 19–10. Gross appearance of common liver lesions.

Hemorrhage and necrosis are common. Look carefully for gross vascular invasion or pale areas that would suggest a well-differentiated carcinoma. The surrounding liver is usually normal in appearance. Most occur in young women and are related to oral contraceptive use.

Hepatocellular Carcinoma. May consist of multiple nodules or a large infiltrating mass. Tumors are usually white/yellow with areas of punctate hemorrhage and necrosis, although bile-producing tumors may be green. The surrounding liver parenchyma is often cirrhotic. Look for a "nodule within a nodule". This may represent an incipient carcinoma arising in a benign hyperplastic nodule.

Fibrolamellar carcinoma is an unusual variant but may be more likely to be resected because of its better prognosis. It usually presents as a single large mass that may have a capsule in a liver that is non-cirrhotic. The mass appears to be composed of smaller nodules (reminiscent of FNH).

Cholangiocarcinoma. These carcinomas are often unresectable at presentation, so excisional specimens are very uncommon. Intrahepatic tumors are gray/white hard irregular masses.

Extrahepatic tumors may be nodular or flat and usually invade into the wall of the bile duct. Klatskin (hilar) tumors originate at the hepatic duct junction and spread along the biliary tree. The liver may be green due to bile duct obstruction. The intrahepatic bile duct and distal extrahepatic bile duct margins must be evaluated.

Metastatic Carcinoma. Usually of colonic origin if resected. The tumor often appears as a circumscribed necrotic mass with a central depression beneath the surface of the liver. Multiple lesions may be present. The surrounding liver is usually normal in appearance. Margins are evaluated.

Pediatric Tumors. Children are subject to a wider variety of liver lesions, including hepatoblastomas, infantile hemangioendothelioma, mesenchymal hamartomas, and undifferentiated "embryonal" sarcoma, as well as lesions also found in adults.[9] At least one section per centimeter of greatest dimension of the tumor should be examined including all areas of differing appearance. Some tumors may have been treated prior to resection with chemotherapy or embolization. Special studies are not needed for the diagnosis of these tumors. However, since these tumors are rare, tissue should be saved for EM, frozen, and submitted for cytogenetic analysis if feasible.

- **Hepatoblastoma:** Essentially only occurs in infants. The tumor can be large (up to 25 cm) and is variegated in appearance, with cysts, necrosis, and hemorrhage. The surrounding liver appears normal. Tumor and normal tissue should be taken for snap-freezing and cytogenetic studies. There is a CAP protocol for the reporting of hepatoblastomas in pediatric patients with details about processing specimens and reporting (see www.cap.org).
- **Mesenchymal hamartoma:** Presents in the first two years of life as a large circumscribed mass comprised of multiple cystic spaces filled with clear fluid. Solid areas may be fibrous and white, myxoid, or resemble normal liver.
- **Embryonal (undifferentiated) sarcoma:** Most common between the ages of 6 and 10. The tumors are circumscribed and soft with a variegated solid and cystic appearance. Necrosis and hemorrhage may be present.

Bile Duct Hamartomas (Meyenburg Complexes). Usually multiple small (<0.5 cm) well-circumscribed nodules on the surface of the liver. They are most commonly biopsied during laparotomy to exclude metastatic carcinoma. Bile may be present.

Bile Duct Adenomas (Peribiliary Gland Hamartomas). Solitary lesions, usually <1 cm in size, located below the capsule. Like bile duct hamartomas, they are most commonly biopsied during laparotomy to exclude carcinoma. They do not connect to the biliary system and do not contain bile.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** Four cassettes including relationship to liver capsule, capsule of tumor, relationship to other anatomic landmarks (e.g., large vessels).
- **Margins:** Representative sections of all margins at the closest approach of the tumor. Take vascular margins if they can be identified.
- **Uninvolved liver:** Two cassettes of uninvolved liver parenchyma. Order reticulin, iron, and trichrome stains on one of the cassettes if diffuse liver disease is suspected clinically or grossly.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR LIVER TUMORS

- **Specimen:** Liver, gallbladder
- **Procedure:** Wedge resection, minor hepatectomy (three or more segments), major hepatectomy (less than three segments), explanted liver
- **Tumor Size:** Size of greatest dimension (additional dimensions optional)
- **Tumor Focality:** Solitary (location), multiple (locations)
- **Histologic Type**: Hepatocellular carcinoma, cholangiocarcinoma, combined hepatocellular and cholangiocarcinoma, fibrolamellar hepatocellular carcinoma, metastatic carcinoma, bile duct cystadenocarcinoma, other rare types. The WHO Classification is recommended.
- **Histologic Grade:** Well, moderately, poor, undifferentiated, or grades I to IV (Tables 19-24 and 19-25)

TABLE 19–24. GRADING OF HEPATOCELLULAR CARCINOMAS (EDMONDSON AND STEINER SYSTEM)

	CYTOPLASM	NUCLEI	N/C RATIO	COHESION	CELL FUNCTION	ARCHITECTURE
Grade I	Granular and acidophilic	Slightly abnormal	Normal	Normal	Bile frequent	Normal
Grade II	Granular and acidophilic with sharp and clear-cut borders	Larger and more hyperchromatic	Higher	Normal	Bile frequent	Frequent acini
Grade III	Not as granular and acidophilic	Larger and more hyperchromatic than Grade II	Higher, tumor giant cells may be present	Some intravascular single cells	Bile less frequent	Breakup or distortion of the trabecular pattern
Grade IV	Variable, often scanty, with fewer granules	Intensely hyperchromatic	Very high	Lack of cohesiveness	Rare acini with bile	Trabeculae difficult to find, spindle cells may be present

Grade I: Best reserved for those areas in Grade II hepatocellular carcinomas where the difference between the tumor cells and hyperplastic liver cells is so minor that a diagnosis of carcinoma rests upon the demonstration of more aggressive growths in other parts of the neoplasm.

Grade II: Cells show a marked resemblance to normal hepatic cells. Nuclei are larger and more hyperchromatic than normal cells but the cytoplasm is abundant and acidophilic. The cell borders are often sharp and clear cut. Acini are frequent with lumina varying in size from tiny canaliculi to large thyroid-like spaces. The lumina are often filled with bile or protein precipitate.

Grade III: Nuclei are usually larger and more hyperchromatic than Grade II cells. The nuclei occupy a relatively greater proportion of the cell (high N:C ratio). Cytoplasm is granular and acidophilic, but less so than Grade II tumors. Acini are less frequent and not as often filled with bile or protein precipitate. More single cells were seen in the intravascular growths than in Grade II. Tumor giant cells are the most numerous in this group.

Grade IV: Nuclei are intensely hyperchromatic and occupy a high percentage of the cell volume. Cytoplasm is variable in amount, often scanty and contains fewer granules. The growth pattern is medullary in character, trabeculae difficult to find, and cell masses seem to lie loosely without cohesion in vascular channels. Only rare acini are seen. Spindle cell areas are present in some tumors. Short plump cell forms, resembling "oat cell" carcinoma of the lung seen in some.

This system is sometimes simplified to a three grade system with grades I and II equivalent to grade I, grade III equivalent to grade II, and grade IV equivalent to grade III. This modification should be stated if used.

Modified from Edmondson HA, Steiner PE, Primary carcinoma of the liver, a study of 100 cases among 48,900 necroscopies, Cancer 7:462-503, 1954.

TABLE 19–25. GRADING SYSTEM FOR CHOLANGIOCARCINOMAS

Grade 1	Well differentiated (>95% of tumor composed of glands)
Grade 2	Moderately differentiated (50% to 95% of tumor composed of glands)
Grade 3	Poorly differentiated (5% to 49% of tumor composed of glands)
Grade 4	Undifferentiated (<5% of tumor composed of glands)

- **Tumor Growth Pattern:** For cholangiocarcinomas: mass-forming, periductal infiltrating, mixed mass-forming and periductal infiltrating
- **Extent of Invasion:** Hepatocellular carcinoma: Solitary tumor with no vascular invasion (T1), solitary tumor with vascular invasion or multiple tumors, none more than 5 cm (T2), multiple tumors more than 5 cm or tumor involving a major branch of the portal or hepatic veins (T3), tumors with direct invasion of adjacent organs other than the gallbladder or perforation of visceral peritoneum (T4).
  Cholangiocarcinoma: Carcinoma in situ (Tis), solitary tumor without vascular invasion (T1), solitary tumor with vascular invasion (T2a), multiple tumors (T2b), tumor perforating the visceral peritoneum or involving the local extrahepatic structures by direct invasion (T3), tumor with periductal invasion (T4). The periductal infiltrating pattern is a diffuse longitudinal growth pattern along the intrahepatic bile ducts on gross and microscopic examination.
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Absent (N0), present (N1), number of nodes examined, number with metastases
- **Margins:** Not involved or involved (distance from closest margin), bile duct margin (only for cholangiocarcinoma), invasive or in situ
- **Tumor Necrosis:** Present or absent (minimal, moderate, or extensive)
- **Macroscopic Venous (Large Vessel) Invasion:** Not identified, present. Portal vein or hepatic vein invasion are important prognostic factors. Identify the vessel involved, if possible.
- **Microscopic (Small Vessel) Invasion**: Not identified, present
- **Perineural Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Cirrhosis/fibrosis, hepatitis (type and activity), steatosis, macroregenerative nodule, hepatocellular dysplasia (low-grade dysplastic nodule, high-grade dysplastic nodule), ductal dysplasia, iron overload, primary sclerosing cholangitis, biliary stones
  - The degree of fibrosis as defined by Ishak (Ishak K, Baptista A, Bianchi L, et al. Histologic grading and staging of chronic hepatitis. J Hepatol 22:696-699, 1995) is a prognostic factor for hepatocellular carcinomas.
- **Distant Metastasis**: Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification**: T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Tables 19-26 and 19-27). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (*see www.cap.org/*) and the ADASP (see *www.adasp.org*). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

GALLBLADDER

Gallbladders are commonly removed for chronic cholecystitis with cholelithiasis. Tumors are uncommon, and are usually associated with gallstones. Carcinoma may also be associated with an anomalous choledochopancreatic junction or with chronic inflammatory bowel disease.

Laparoscopic cholecystectomies are frequent procedures. It is sometimes necessary for the surgeon to fragment the gallstones within the intact gallbladder with forceps prior to removing it through the small laparotomy incision. This can lead to a rather tattered appearance to the specimen. Gallbladders are occasionally torn during this procedure, spilling the contents into the abdominal cavity. Note should be made of whether the specimen is intact or if perforations and tears are present. The peritoneal cavity is not well visualized as in open cholecystectomies. Therefore, be alert to serosal implants or inflammation that could indicate clinically unsuspected disease outside of the gallbladder.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Describe the serosal appearance.
   - **Normal:** smooth and glistening
   - **Adhesions and/or portion of attached liver:** normally found at the attachment of the gallbladder to the liver capsule
   - **Inflammation:** dull and irregular, subserosal fibrosis, fat necrosis (very firm yellow hemorrhagic soft tissue, may indicate pancreatitis), fibrinous or purulent exudates.

TABLE 19-26. AJCC (7th EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF HEPATOCELLULAR CARCINOMA

TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
T1	Solitary tumor without vascular invasion
T2	Solitary tumor with vascular invasion or multiple tumors, none more than 5 cm
T3a	Multiple tumors more than 5 cm
T3b	Single tumor or multiple tumors of any size involving a major branch of the portal vein or hepatic vein
T4	Tumor(s) with direct invasion of adjacent organs other than the gallbladder or with perforation of the visceral peritoneum
Vascular invasion includes radiologic or pathologic (gross or microscopic) involvement of vessels.	
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Regional lymph node metastasis
A regional lymphadenectomy usually includes three or more lymph nodes. Regional lymph nodes include hilar, hepatoduodenal ligament, inferior phrenic, and caval lymph nodes.	
DISTANT METASTASIS	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
Note: This classification does not include intrahepatic bile duct tumors, sarcoma, or metastatic carcinomas. From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.	

- **Tumor implants:** firm tan/white nodules.
- **Necrosis:** blue-black discoloration (gangrene) associated with possible perforation
- **Porcelain gallbladder:** the wall may be markedly thickened in chronic cholecystitis. If there is extensive calcification the gallbladder may take on the appearance of "porcelain" (shiny hard and white).
- **Intact or with perforations and tears or previously opened**
  Look for lymph nodes, most commonly present near the cystic duct.

2. Open the gallbladder longitudinally, starting away from the cystic duct. The cystic duct is tortuous and need not be opened completely. Record the length, circumference and wall thickness. Describe the mucosa.
   - **Normal:** tan/green and velvety with a honeycomb pattern, thin pliable wall
   - **Cholesterolosis ("strawberry gallbladder"):** speckled yellow mucosa due to aggregates of foamy histiocytes in the mucosa. This finding has no definite clinical significance.
   - **Inflammation:** ulcerated, friable, flattened and white (atrophy), wall thickened and fibrotic or edematous. Acute acalculous cholecystitis (i.e., without gallstones) is a life-threatening disease of severely ill or debilitated patients. Often transmural (gangrenous) necrosis is present which may be apparent on examination of the serosa. The wall may be very thin and friable or markedly thickened by edema.
   - **Polyps:** usually small and papillary, uncommon
   - **Carcinoma** is rare and usually appears as a solid white mass infiltrating the wall or as an exophytic, soft, fronded intraluminal tumor. Papillary carcinomas may have a more favorable prognosis. However, infiltrating tumor may be obscured by superimposed inflammation and be occult grossly. The wall may be slightly thickened with effacement of the normal tissue planes. If present, describe and

TABLE 19-27. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF TUMORS OF INTRAHEPATIC BILE DUCTS

TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	Carcinoma in situ (intraductal tumor)
T1	Solitary tumor without vascular invasion
T2a	Solitary tumor with vascular invasion
T2b	Multiple tumors, with or without vascular invasion
T3	Tumor perforating the visceral peritoneum or involving the local extra hepatic structures by direct invasion
T4	Tumor with periductal invasion
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Regional lymph node metastasis
DISTANT METASTASIS	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis present

Note: This classification includes combined hepatocellular and cholangiocarcinoma (mixed hepatocholangiocarcinoma). It does not include sarcomas or metastases to the liver. There are separate AJCC classification systems for perihilar (proximal) extrahepatic bile duct tumors and distal extrahepatic bile duct tumors.
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.

document invasion through the wall (including serosa and adjacent liver if present), and submit the cystic duct as a margin.

3. Record the number (estimate if there are many, not just "several" or "many"), size in aggregate and range of sizes, color, quality, and shape (ovoid or faceted - if faceted there must have been multiple stones) of any gallstones present.
   - Cholesterol calculi: green/yellow/black, hard and crystalline
   - Pigment calculi: black, soft and crumbly

Note whether there are stones lodged in the isthmus or cystic duct.

If stones were fragmented during laparoscopy, the stones may appear to be "gravel" within the bile. Note whether the luminal contents include bile (viscous green/black fluid) or clear watery mucin (suggests total obstruction resulting in hydrops or mucocele).

Gallstones are sometimes requested for return to the patient (see Chapter 2, "Returning Specimens to Patients"). In these cases place them in a sealed container, labeled with the patient's name. Do not release a container filled with liquid formalin as the fixative is a biohazard. If the stones were placed in formalin, they can be rinsed in water and then placed in an empty container. If chemical analysis is requested, see below.

4. Submit one cassette of gallbladder with sections demonstrating cross-sections of the fundus, neck with serosa, and cystic duct. If a cystic duct lymph node is present a representative section should be submitted as well. Submit additional sections of gross lesions.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Adenocarcinomas. These tumors are rare (6 to 15 per 1000 cholecystectomies) and many may be grossly inapparent. Most have an infiltrating pattern and will appear as a diffuse homogeneous thickening of the wall that effaces the normal texture. About one third of tumors are exophytic and grow into the

lumen as a mass as well as invade into the wall. In most cases, gallstones and fibrosis will also be present. Porcelain gallbladders are associated with an increased risk of carcinoma.

Metastatic Carcinomas. Metastatic carcinoma (usually to the serosal surface) is found in one to five cases per 1000. Rarely, a lymph node removed adjacent to the cystic duct will reveal metastatic carcinoma or a lymphoma.

Acute Calculous or Acalculous Cholecystitis. The gallbladder is enlarged and firm and bright red, green-black, or violaceous. The lumen may be filled with cloudy hemorrhagic or purulent fluid. The wall may be markedly thickened and edematous. In gangrenous cholecystitis, the entire gland is necrotic with multiple perforations. The serosal surface is often covered with a fibrinous or purulent exudate.

Chronic Cholecystitis. The wall may be thickened and fibrotic. The mucosa is usually preserved. Serosal adhesions may be present. If the wall is thickened with multiple calcifications it may give the appearance of a porcelain gallbladder. Xanthogranulomatous cholecystitis has the appearance of a small shrunken nodular gallbladder and can be mistaken for a malignancy.

Mucoceles can be mistaken for mucinous carcinomas. Muciphages may resemble signet ring cells in the wall. However, these cells will not be immunoreactive for cytokeratin.

Infections. Gallbladders from patients with AIDS may show CMV, *Cryptosporidium* sp., or MAI. Rarely, parasites may be found.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Grossly normal:** Three sections (one from fundus, one from body, and one from neck). If carcinoma in situ or invasive carcinoma is found, additional sections should be submitted.
- **Tumors:** Most lesions can be submitted in entirety including the deepest extent of invasion and relationship to attached liver (if present). If a gross lesion is present, submit the cystic duct separately.
- **Lymph node:** If a lymph node is present, submit in its entirety.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "gallbladder," is a 6 × 4 × 0.5 cm (wall thickness) gallbladder with a green/tan velvety mucosa with focal ulcerations (largest 0.5 × 0.3 cm). The wall is slightly thickened but pliable and the serosal surface is smooth and glistening. Within the gallbladder is green/black bile and approximately 20 hard yellow crystalline faceted gallstones (in aggregate 4 × 3 × 2 cm; largest 1.5 cm). One of the gallstones is lodged within the cystic duct.

Cassette: Sections of wall and cystic duct, 6 frags, RSS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR GALLBLADDER CARCINOMAS

- **Specimen**: Gallbladder, liver, extrahepatic bile duct
- **Procedure**: Laparoscopic or open cholecystectomy, radical cholecystectomy (resection of liver tissue and possible resection of lymph nodes)
- **Tumor Site**: Fundus, body, neck, cystic duct, indeterminate
- Peritoneal side of gallbladder, hepatic side of gallbladder
- **Tumor Size**: Greatest dimension (additional dimensions optional)
- **Histologic Type**: Carcinoma in situ, adenocarcinoma, papillary adenocarcinoma, adenocarcinoma—intestinal type, adenocarcinoma—gastric type, mucinous adenocarcinoma (> 50% mucinous), adenosquamous carcinoma, small cell carcinoma, other rare types. The WHO Classification is recommended.
- **Configuration:** Exophytic (fungating/polypoid), endophytic (ulcerating), or diffusely infiltrating
  - Papillary carcinomas (usually polypoid) have a favorable prognosis.
- **Histologic Grade**: Well, moderately, poor, undifferentiated (Table 19-28)
  - Papillary adenocarcinoma and clear cell adenocarcinoma are usually not graded.

TABLE 19–28. GRADING SYSTEM FOR GALLBLADDER ADENOCARCINOMAS	
Grade 1	Well differentiated (>95% of tumor composed of glands)
Grade 2	Moderately differentiated (50% to 95% of tumor composed of glands)
Grade 3	Poorly differentiated (<49% of tumor composed of glands [includes signet ring cell carcinomas])
Grade 4	Undifferentiated (small cell carcinomas, undifferentiated carcinomas)
Papillary carcinomas and clear cell carcinomas are usually not graded.	

- **Microscopic Tumor Extension**: In situ (Tis), invasion into lamina propria (T1a), invasion into muscular layer (T1b), invasion into perimuscular connective tissue (no extension beyond serosa or into liver) (T2), perforates serosa (visceral peritoneum) and/or directly invades liver and/or one other organ or structure, such as the stomach, duodenum, colon, or pancreas, omentum, or extrahepatic bile ducts (T3), tumor invades the main portal vein or hepatic artery or invades two or more extrahepatic organs or structures (T4).
- **Margins**: Involved or not involved (distance from nearest margin), involved by invasive carcinoma or in situ carcinoma: cystic duct, liver parenchymal margin
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Perineural Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Regional Lymph Nodes**: No regional lymph node metastasis (N0), metastasis to nodes along cystic duct, common bile duct, hepatic artery, and portal vein (N1), metastasis to periaortic, pericaval, superior mesenteric artery, or celiac artery nodes (N2)
  - Number of nodes examined, number of nodes involved
- **Gallstones:** Absent, present. If absent, the carcinoma may be associated with anatomic abnormalities (e.g., an anomalous choledochopancreatic junction) or inflammatory bowel disease
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Acute cholecystitis, chronic cholecystitis, metaplasia (squamous, pyloric gland, intestinal), chronic inflammatory changes, dysplasia/adenoma, diffuse calcification (porcelain gallbladder)
- **Distant Metastasis**: Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification**: T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 19-29). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see *www.cap.org/*) and the ADASP (see *www.adasp.org*). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

Chemical Analysis of Gallstones

Rarely, there may be a request from a clinician for chemical analysis of gallstones to determine cholesterol content. This is an expensive test and is only ordered by special request. In these cases the gallstones are placed in a separate dry sterile container and sent to a specialty laboratory.

PANCREAS

The pancreas is most frequently biopsied or resected because of tumors or severe debilitating chronic pancreatitis.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

See Table 19-30.

TABLE 19-29. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF GALLBLADDER TUMORS	
TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	Carcinoma in situ
T1	Tumor invades lamina propria or muscular layer
T1a	Tumor invades lamina propria
T1b	Tumor invades muscular layer
T2	Tumor invades perimuscular connective tissue; no extension beyond serosa or into liver
T3	Tumor perforates the serosa (visceral peritoneum) and/or directly invades the liver and/or one other adjacent organ or structure, such as the stomach, duodenum, colon, or pancreas, omentum, or extrahepatic bile ducts
T4	Tumor invades main portal vein or hepatic artery or invades two or more extrahepatic organs or structures
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Metastasis to nodes along the cystic duct, common bile duct, hepatic artery, and/or portal vein
N2	Metastases to periaortic, pericaval, superior mesenteric artery, and/or celiac artery lymph nodes
DISTANT METASTASIS	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis (includes lymph nodes in peripancreatic nodes along the body and tail)

Note: This classification does not include carcinoid tumors or sarcomas. Tumors of the extrahepatic bile ducts have separate AJCC classification systems.
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.

TABLE 19–30. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY – PANCREAS	
HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	**HISTORY RELEVANT FOR PANCREATIC SPECIMENS**
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Diabetes mellitus
Purpose of the procedure	Pancreatitis
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	Jaundice
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	Zollinger-Ellison syndrome
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	Family or personal history of tumors or hyperplasia of other endocrine organs (i.e., MEN syndromes)
Prior surgery/biopsies – results	
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Compromised immune system	

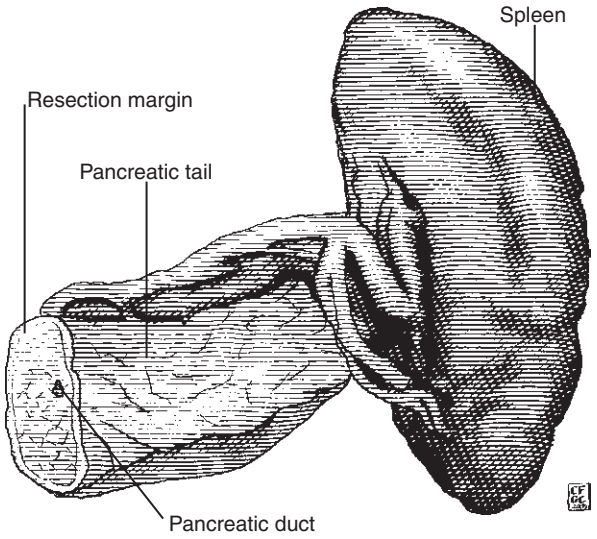

Figure 19–11. Distal pancreatectomy.

Biopsy

Pancreatic biopsies may be transabdominal (usually fine needle biopsies), via ERCP (often brushings), or intraoperative needle or incisional biopsies. Small biopsies are processed as described in Chapter 13. Frozen sections of pancreatic biopsies can be very difficult to interpret (see Chapter 6).

Pancreatic Resections

Pancreatic adenocarcinomas of the body or tail usually present late (because they don't obstruct) with extension into peripancreatic tissue or metastases, and therefore are rarely resectable. Resectable tumors of this region are more likely to be tumors of the ampullary region (presenting with obstruction), endocrine tumors, or unusual non-endocrine tumors (e.g., cystic lesions such as cystadenoma or cystadenocarcinoma). Benign conditions (e.g., pancreatic pseudocyst) or chronic pancreatitis are resected less frequently.

Examination of the lymph nodes as separate groups is important for staging and prognosis.[10] About half of small ampullary and duodenal carcinomas will have metastases at surgery. These tumors commonly metastasize to a single location (most often the posterior or inferior lymph node groups), and often to a single lymph node.

In contrast, most tumors of the head of the pancreas metastasize to multiple lymph node groups and often to multiple lymph nodes within the group. The most common sites are posterior, superior, and inferior nodal groups.

Metastases to gastric or splenic nodes are rare, probably due to the lack of lymphatic connections between these nodes and the pancreas. Therefore, metastases to these nodes indicate either a very aggressive tumor or a second primary site.

Distal Pancreatectomy

The specimen usually consists of distal pancreas and attached spleen (Fig. 19-11), but may also include transverse colon or stomach.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Orient the specimen (anterior, posterior, superior, inferior). Identify the pancreatic resection margin and the main pancreatic duct. Photographs are taken of the entire specimen, and of cross-sections when appropriate. Record the outer appearance including color (tan/yellow, white), consistency (firm, hard), texture (finely nodular, fibrous bands, architecture obscured by dense white infiltrate) noting whether there are areas grossly suspicious for tumor.

Ink the soft tissue margins around the pancreas. The proximal (pancreatic) resection margin may be taken en face or perpendicular, depending on the distance of the tumor from the margin.

2. Serially section through the pancreas, perpendicular to the long axis. Describe any lesions, including size, location (body or tail), color, borders (encapsulated, infiltrating), relationship to margins (pancreatic, anterior, retroperitoneal, superior, inferior).
3. Separate the spleen if not directly involved by tumor. Section thinly, looking for lesions (see Chapter 27, "Spleen"). Evaluate the splenic vein (if present) for thrombosis or tumor.
4. Fix entire specimen in formalin overnight. Take microscopic sections the following day. Cystic lesions are carefully sectioned and sections of any thickened walls or solid areas taken. Most should have the entire wall submitted. Take perpendicular sections of the closest approach of tumor to soft tissue margins (posterior, anterior, superior, and inferior) and place in labeled cassettes.

After the tumor and margins have been sampled, the soft tissue is examined carefully for lymph nodes. These are of great importance for prognosis (curative vs. palliative resection) and diagnosis (malignant vs. benign endocrine tumors). The peripancreatic nodes are described and submitted separately from the splenic nodes. These are all regional nodes for tumors in the body and tail. The adipose tissue may be carefully sectioned while attached to the specimen, or the adipose tissue can be removed and fixed in Bouin's overnight. Nodes adjacent to other structures (stomach, transverse colon) are submitted separately because these are not considered regional nodes.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** Submit at least one cassette per cm of tumor including borders and relationship to uninvolved pancreas. Cystic lesions are usually completely submitted unless >5 cm. In these cases one section per cm is taken including the most irregular and nodular areas.
- **Margins:** Proximal pancreatic margin (usually the most important), submit en face. This section should include the pancreatic duct. Soft tissue margins (perpendicular) around pancreas to evaluate invasion into soft tissue and/or retroperitoneum
- **Pancreatic duct:** The duct margin is sampled in the en face margin section.
- **Other structures:** One section of spleen (if no lesions). Representative sections of any other structures.
- **Lymph nodes:** Submit each lymph node. Describe as separate groups peripancreatic, splenic, and any other sites.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "pancreas," is the pancreatic tail (7 × 4 × 3 cm) and attached spleen (10 × 5 × 4 cm; 150 gm). Within the pancreas there is a 5 × 4 × 3 cm well-circumscribed, fleshy, homogeneous, yellow/tan tumor mass. The tumor is 2 cm from the pancreatic resection margin, which is uninvolved. The outer margins of the specimen consist of yellow/white adipose tissue varying in thickness from 0.5 to 2.0 cm. The margins are grossly uninvolved by tumor. The remainder of the pancreatic parenchyma is yellow/tan and grossly unremarkable. The spleen has a dark red/brown homogeneous parenchyma with slight prominence of the white pulp. Two lymph nodes are present in the perihilar soft tissue, the largest measuring 0.5 cm in greatest dimension. Two additional lymph nodes are present in the posterior and inferior soft tissue surrounding the distal pancreas, the largest measuring 0.4 cm in greatest dimension. A frozen section was performed on the pancreatic resection margin (en face). Tumor is saved for EM and snap freezing. The margins are inked and taken perpendicular to the specimen except as noted. Photographs are taken.

Cassette #1: Pancreatic resection margin, en face, FSR, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassette #2: Tumor and anterior margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #3: Tumor and superior margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #4: Tumor and posterior margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #5: Tumor and inferior margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #6: Tumor and adjacent pancreas, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #7: Spleen, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #8: Perihilar lymph nodes, 2 frags, ESS.

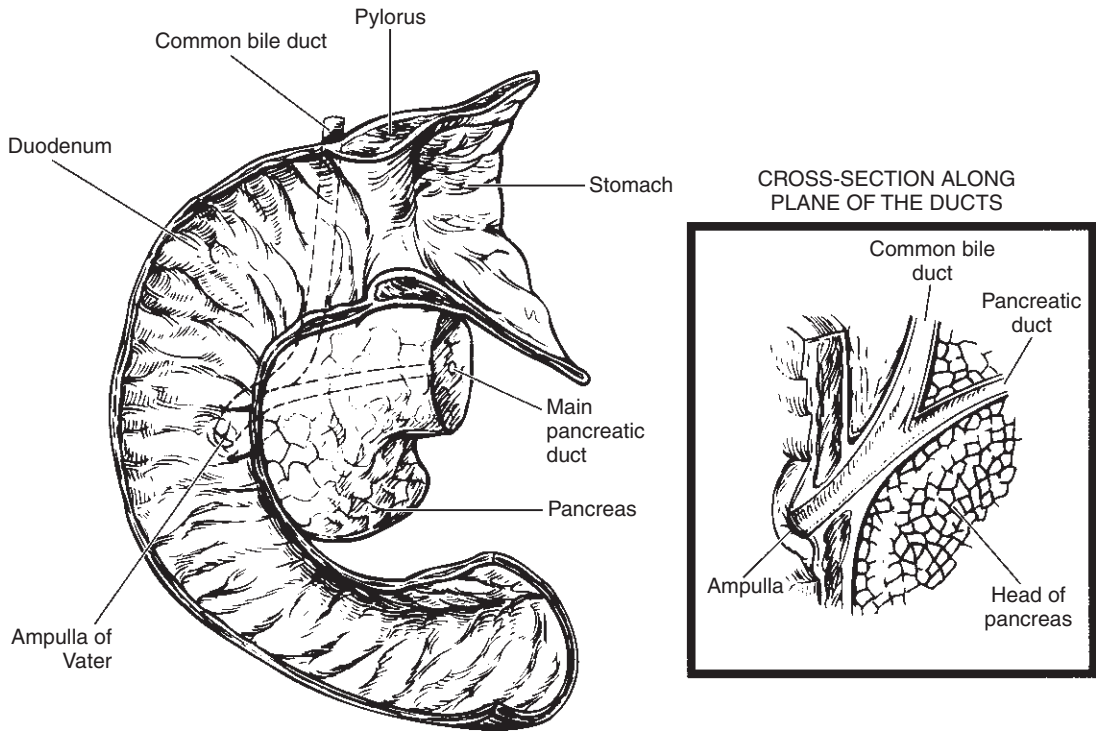

Figure 19–12. Whipple procedure.

Cassette #9: Inferior lymph node, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassette #10: Posterior lymph node, 2 frags, ESS.

Whipple Procedure (Partial Gastrectomy, Duodenectomy, Partial Pancreatectomy)

A Whipple procedure is performed for resection of tumors in the head of the pancreas or in the ampullary or periampullary region.

The specimen usually consists of distal stomach (although the pylorus may be spared), duodenum, head of pancreas, and common bile duct remnant (Fig. 19-12). The gallbladder is usually submitted as a separate specimen. The specimen is dissected carefully to determine the site of origin of the tumor (e.g., duodenal, ampullary, periampullary, bile duct, pancreatic duct, head of pancreas). Anatomic orientation must be maintained at all times.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. While the specimen is unfixed and pliable, open the stomach along the greater curvature, across the anterior wall of the pylorus, and down the outer curvature of the duodenum. The distal portion of the duodenal mucosa usually looks dusky because the blood supply to this portion is ligated earlier in the operation. Record the dimensions of the stomach (proximal to distal, greater curvature and lesser curvature, circumference, wall thickness), duodenum (length and circumference), pancreatic head (three dimensions), common bile duct (length and diameter), and margins (stapled vs. open, length, diameter).

   Clean the mucosa with saline and look for mucosal lesions, especially around the ampulla. A probe in the common bile duct extending to ampulla is helpful for orientation.

   Identify the distal pancreatic resection margin. It will be the only pancreatic tissue visible (the remainder being surrounded by a thin rim of soft tissue). Take two or more en face sections including the pancreatic duct if visible (more if suspicious for involvement by tumor) and place in labeled cassettes.

   Alternatively (particularly if the tumor appears close to the distal margin), this margin may be taken perpendicular to the resection margin after further dissection (see below).

   Identify the uncinate process of the pancreas, which extends inferiorly from the pancreatic head. The posterior surface of this portion of the pancreas is not peritonealized as it lies directly on the superior

mesenteric vessels for a distance of approximately 3 to 4 cm. This pancreatic margin is sometimes specifically designated by the surgeon, but is critical in all cases, since it represents a true surgical margin. Carcinomas may be closest to this margin as the surgeon must preserve the mesenteric vessels and is limited in the amount of surrounding tissue that he or she can take. Ink the uncinate margin and the deep posterior soft tissue margin different colors.

2. Identify the common bile duct as it exits the pancreas and passes behind the proximal duodenum. The duct is often markedly dilated because the tumor is usually causing obstruction. Remove the proximal bile duct margin en face and place in a separate cassette. Gently place a probe in the duct and advance it until it exits through the ampulla of Vater. This is usually possible to do even if the duct is functionally obstructed. This must be done while the specimen is fresh and pliable. Ink the soft tissue and uncinate process margins of the pancreas, excluding the distal resection margin (to be able to identify it for orientation).

Identify the main pancreatic duct. This may be difficult and may require two or three serial sections starting at the pancreatic margin to look for the duct as it enlarges proximally. If the duct is found, gently place a probe in it and advance the probe to the ampulla if possible.

If a probe cannot be advanced through the bile duct or the pancreatic duct into the ampulla, find the ampulla starting at the mucosal surface. It is usually more distal than it seems it should be and may appear like an edematous fold of mucosa. Note whether the duodenal mucosa appears grossly normal or abnormal in this region.

In about 8% of individuals the main pancreatic duct from the body and tail empties via the accessory duct of Santorini into an accessory papilla, usually located proximal to the ampulla of Vater. The uncinate head only drains into the ampulla. Thus, there may be no communication between the main ampulla and the main pancreatic duct.

3. Make a section along the plane of both pancreatic duct and bile duct probes or along the probe in the common bile duct. This bisects the ampulla. This gives the best demonstration of the relationship of the tumor to the ampulla, duodenal mucosa, common bile duct, pancreatic duct, and pancreatic parenchyma. If two parallel cuts are made on either side of this cut, the resulting sections are usually very photogenic and demonstrate the tumor relationships well. An alternative method involves cutting along the main pancreatic duct in the transverse (i.e., anterior to posterior) plane. This method illustrates the relationship of the tumor to the posterior margin and preserves the uncinate process in the inferior half of the specimen.

Describe the tumor, including size, color, consistency, cysts, relationship to anatomic sites, distance from margins, and obstruction of ducts.

The tumor may be grossly subtle, but is best identified as a lesion that partially effaces or blurs the normal lobular architecture of the pancreatic parenchyma, usually without gross scarring.

Describe the remainder of the pancreatic parenchyma, including color, fibrosis, nodularity, fat necrosis, cysts, ducts (determine if dilated), and calculi. Describe any anatomical variations of the merger of the common bile duct and pancreatic duct.

Only at this point is the specimen is fixed overnight (pinning out the stomach and duodenum) before taking additional sections.

4. Lymph node involvement is the most important prognostic indicator. Carefully section through the surrounding soft tissue to look for lymph nodes. The location of each lymph node found is recorded (i.e., anterior, inferior, posterior, superior pancreas, pyloric, stomach, distal duodenal, and splenic), as this information is used in staging. Although little adipose tissue is present, several lymph nodes are always present. Commonly, a lymph node is present near the common bile duct. Some lymph nodes may be submitted by the surgeon as separate specimens.

5. If other specimens are submitted (commonly the gallbladder or spleen) they are examined as described in the separate sections. However, special attention is paid to looking for tumor involvement as well as identifying additional lymph nodes.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

See Figure 19-13.

Adenocarcinomas may be difficult to define grossly. The tumor may be an infiltrating white mass that effaces the normal architecture and can resemble a chronically inflamed fibrotic pancreas. The distal common bile duct or pancreatic duct are frequently invaded at the head of the pancreas with obstruction

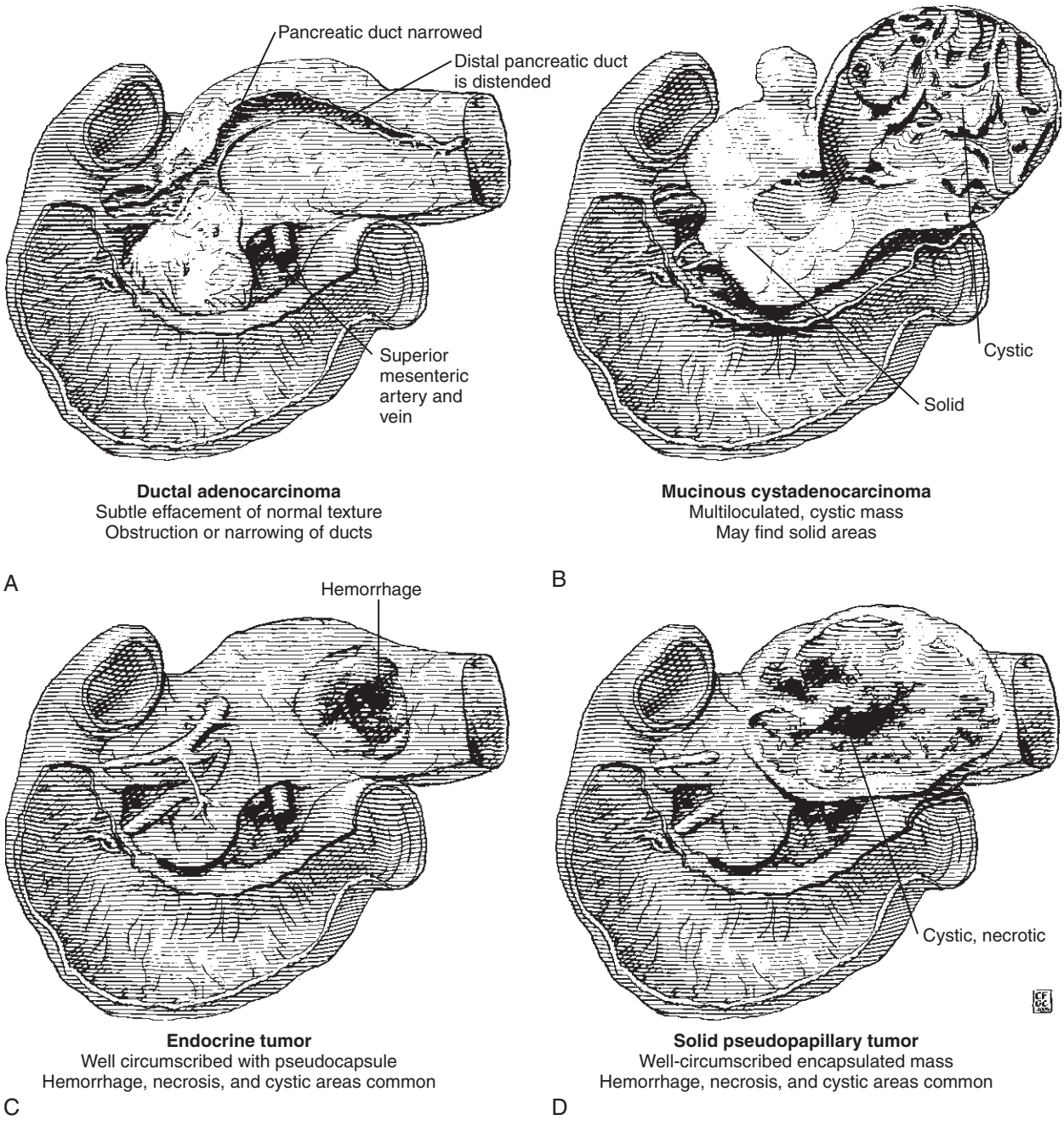

Figure 19–13. Differential diagnosis of pancreatic tumors.

and proximal dilatation of the duct. Carcinomas involving the ampulla typically present earlier with symptoms and are frequently small in size. In larger carcinomas, invasion into the retroperitoneum is common.

Endocrine Tumors tend to be well-circumscribed with a capsule and occur within the tail. May be fleshy, yellow, and homogeneous in appearance. Necrosis, cysts, and hemorrhage may be present. Save tissue for EM and snap freezing.

Solid Pseudopapillary Tumor is usually a well-circumscribed large mass arising anywhere in the pancreas, comprised of single or multiple cystic spaces. Central necrosis is common. The inner wall must be sectioned extensively to look for solid areas. This tumor is most common in young women and carries a relatively good prognosis.

Mucinous Cystic Tumors of the Pancreas (Cystadenoma and Cystadenocarcinoma) can be found anywhere in the pancreas, but more commonly occur in the body or tail. The tumors are comprised of mucin-containing cystic spaces, usually thin-walled. Look for solid areas or thickened walls with papillary excrescences; these areas are more likely to contain invasive tumor.

Serous Cystic Neoplasms are more uniform in appearance and are virtually always benign. These tumors only occasionally communicate with the normal ductal system. The tumors consist of a circumscribed area of small cysts separated by thin septa and may have a central stellate scar.

Intraductal Papillary Mucinous Neoplasms are grossly similar to mucinous cystic tumors in that they are comprised of mucin-containing spaces. However, these tumors are usually in continuity with the main pancreatic duct and are more common in the head region.

Acinar Cell Carcinoma occurs anywhere in the pancreas and consists of multiple, soft, well-circumscribed red/brown nodules separated by fibrous septa. Occasionally tumors can consist of multiple cysts.

Pancreatoblastoma is the most common pancreatic tumor of childhood. The large, soft, encapsulated mass can occur at any site in the pancreas.

Chronic Pancreatitis can result in a very hard, scarred pancreas that is difficult to distinguish from an invasive carcinoma. Calculi may be present within the pancreatic duct and pseudocysts may form in peripancreatic soft tissue.

Pseudocysts are usually associated with pancreatitis and arise due to digestion of tissues by pancreatic enzymes. The cystic cavity is generally extrapancreatic but attached by fibrotic tissue. A portion of the adjacent stomach may be included with the specimen. The cyst may be filled with blood and necrotic material.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** Up to six blocks, including relationship to pancreas, ducts, ampulla, duodenal mucosa, and surrounding soft tissue.
- **Margins:** Pancreatic resection margin (either perpendicular or en face), soft tissue around pancreas, common bile duct, stomach, duodenum. Only the posterior retroperitoneal soft tissue and the posterior (non-peritonealized) surface of the uncinate process are true margins being in continuity with the patient. The remaining soft tissue "margins" evaluate tumor invasion outside of the pancreas and are taken perpendicular to the tumor.
- **Uninvolved pancreas:** One to two cassettes including normal and abnormal-appearing areas.
- **Ampulla:** One cassette (if not previously submitted)
- **Lymph nodes:** Submit all lymph nodes as separate groups. Regional lymph nodes include the following:
  - Superior pancreatic nodes: superior to the head and body of the pancreas
  - Anterior pancreatic nodes: anterior pancreaticoduodenal, pyloric, and proximal mesenteric
  - Inferior pancreatic nodes: inferior to the head and body of the pancreas
  - Posterior pancreatic nodes: posterior pancreaticoduodenal, common bile duct or pericholedochal, and proximal mesenteric
  - Retroperitoneal nodes
  - Lateral aortic nodes
  - Hepatic artery nodes
  - Superior mesenteric nodes
  - Infrapyloric nodes (tumors of the head only)
  - Subpyloric nodes (tumors of the head only)
  - Celiac nodes (tumors of tne head only)
  - Pancreaticolienal nodes (tumors of the body and tail only)
  - Splenic nodes: hilum of spleen and tail of the pancreas (tumors of the body and tail only)

Involvement of other nodal groups is considered distant metastasis

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "Whipple," are the stomach (20 cm in length × 15 cm in circumference x 0.5 cm wall thickness), duodenum (30 cm in length × 4 cm in circumference) and pancreatic head (5 × 4 × 4 cm (length)). There is a tan/white, 3 × 2 × 2 cm, diffusely infiltrating tumor mass in the head of the pancreas which surrounds the main pancreatic duct and the common bile duct at their junction. The bile duct is patent but dilated to 0.7 cm in diameter. The pancreatic duct is obstructed by the tumor mass. The tumor is 1 cm from the ampulla of Vater and does not grossly involve the duodenal muscularis or mucosa. The tumor is 2 cm from the distal pancreatic resection margin which is grossly free of tumor. The lateral margins are composed of yellow/white adipose tissue ranging in thickness from 1 to 3 cm and are grossly free of tumor. The remainder of the pancreatic parenchyma is firm and nodular. The cystic duct remnant is 2 cm in length by 0.7 cm in diameter. There is an adjacent 1.1 cm fleshy lymph node. The gastric mucosa is unremarkable. Two lymph nodes are present in the perigastric soft tissue (0.5 and 0.3 cm). The distal 20 cm of the duodenal mucosa has a dusky red/brown color. Three periduodenal lymph nodes are found, the largest measuring 0.6 cm. Three lymph nodes are found adjacent to the pancreas (one anterior and two inferior), the largest measuring 0.9 cm. The margins are inked. Photographs are taken.

Cassettes #1-2: Pancreatic resection margin, en face, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassettes #3-4: Tumor and common bile duct, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #5-6: Tumor and pancreatic duct, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #7-8: Tumor and pancreatic parenchyma, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #9: Anterior margin, perpendicular, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #10: Superior margin, perpendicular, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #11: Posterior margin, perpendicular, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #12: Inferior margin, perpendicular, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #13: Gastric resection margin, en face, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #14: Duodenal resection margin, en face, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #15: Common bile duct margin, en face, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #16: Uninvolved pancreas, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #17: Ampulla, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #18: Common bile duct lymph node, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassette #19: Two perigastric lymph nodes, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassette #20: Three periduodenal lymph nodes, 3 frags, ESS.
Cassette #21: One anterior pancreatic node, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassette #22: Two inferior pancreatic nodes, 2 frags, ESS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR PANCREATIC TUMORS

- **Specimen**: Pancreas (head, body, or tail), duodenum, stomach, common bile duct, gallbladder, spleen, large vessels (portal vein, superior mesenteric vein)
- **Procedure**: Pancreaticoduodenectomy (Whipple procedure), distal partial pancreatectomy (body or tail), other organs included (spleen, gallbladder)
- **Tumor Site**: Ampulla, periampullary, head of pancreas (to the right of the left border of the superior mesenteric vein including the uncinate process), body of pancreas (between the left border of the superior mesenteric vein and the left border of the aorta), tail of pancreas (between the left border of the aorta and the hilum of the spleen). Clinical information may be necessary to identify the location of some tumors.
- **Tumor Size**: Greatest dimension (other dimensions optional)
  - For endocrine tumors, tumors ≥ 2.5 cm are correlated with aggressive biologic behavior (tumors < 2.5 cm are almost always benign, tumors > 10 cm are highly likely to be malignant).
- **Tumor Focality**: For endocrine tumors: unifocal, multifocal (give number)
- **Histologic Type**: Pancreas, exocrine: Ductal adenocarcinoma, mucinous noncystic carcinoma, signet ring cell carcinoma (> 50% signet ring cells), adenosquamous carcinoma, undifferentiated (anaplastic) carcinoma, mixed ductal-endocrine carcinoma, serous cystadenocarcinoma, mucinous cystic neoplasm (noninvasive or invasive), intraductal papillary-mucinous neoplasm (noninvasive or invasive), acinar cell carcinoma, acinar cell cystadenocarcinoma, mixed acinar-endocrine carcinoma solid pseudopapillary tumor, others

TABLE 19–31. CLASSIFICATION OF PANCREATIC ENDOCRINE TUMORS

TUMOR TYPE	CLINICAL SYMPTOMS
Pancreatic Endocrine Tumor, Functional	
Insulinoma (insulin-secreting)	Hypoglycemia, neuropsychiatric disorders
Glucagonoma (glucagon-secreting)	Diabetes, skin rash (necrolytic migratory erythema), stomatitis
Gastrinoma (gastrin-secreting)	Abdominal pain, ulcer disease, diarrhea, gastrointestinal bleeding
Somatostatinoma (somatostatin-secreting)	Diabetes, steatorrhea, achlorhydria
PP-oma (pancreatic polypeptide-secreting)	Clinically silent, elevated serum PP levels
VIP-oma (vasoactive intestinal polypeptide secreting, Verner-Morrison tumors)	Watery diarrhea, hypokalemia, achlorhydria
Adrenocorticotropic hormone secreting	Cushing syndrome: central obesity, muscle weakness, glucose intolerance, hypertension
Carcinoid tumor (serotonin-producing)	Carcinoid syndrome: flushing, diarrhea
Pancreatic Endocrine Tumor, Non-Functional	
Pancreatic endocrine tumor, non-secretory	
Mixed ductal-endocrine carcinoma	
Mixed acinar-endocrine carcinoma	

High mitotic activity (>4 per 10 HPFs, 80% malignant), a high degree of pleomorphism, and tumor necrosis correlate with malignant potential. Larger tumor size (≥2.5 cm) correlates with local invasion, vascular invasion, and metastasis.

  - Pancreas, endocrine: well-differentiated endocrine neoplasm, poorly differentiated endocrine carcinoma (small cell carcinoma or large cell carcinoma), other. The WHO Classification may be used (well-differentiated endocrine tumor, benign behavior, well-differentiated endocrine tumor, uncertain behavior, poorly differentiated endocrine carcinoma (Tables 19-31 and 19-32)
- **Functional Type:** If an endocrine tumor is present, correlate with clinical syndrome and/or elevated serum levels of hormone product
- **Mitotic Activity**: Endocrine tumors: Not identified, present (< 2 mitoses/10 HPF), present ≥ 2 mitoses/10 HPF). If Ki-67 is performed, report < 2%, 3% to 20%, or > 20% positive cells.
- **Tumor Necrosis:** Endocrine tumors: Not identified, present
- **Histologic Grade**: Well, moderately, poorly, undifferentiated (for ductal carcinomas; Table 19-33)
- **Microscopic Tumor Extension**: Carcinoma in situ (Tis), limited to pancreas, ≤ 2 cm (T1), limited to pancreas, > 2 cm (T2), extension beyond pancreas but without involvement of the celiac axis or the superior mesenteric artery (T3), involvement of the celiac axis or the superior mesenteric artery (T4)
  - Invasion of duodenum, ampulla of Vater, sphincter of Oddi, common bile duct, peripancreatic tissues (retroperitoneum, mesentery, mesocolon), stomach, spleen, colon, large vessels (portal vein, mesenteric vessels, common hepatic artery), mesentery, omentum
- **Margins**: Invasive carcinoma or in situ dysplasia or carcinoma:
  - Involved or not involved (distance from closest margin), including common bile duct margin, pancreatic parenchymal margin including pancreatic duct margin, uncinate process margin (nonperitonealized surface of the uncinate process), posterior (retroperitoneal) pancreas, duodenum, stomach, peripancreatic soft tissue margins (anterior, inferior, posterior, superior)
  - Type of ductal epithelium at parenchymal margin (normal, mucinous metaplasia, dysplasia). The PanIN classification scheme should be used.

TABLE 19–32. WHO CLASSIFICATION OF ENDOCRINE TUMORS OF THE PANCREAS

	WELL DIFFERENTIATED ENDOCRINE TUMOR	WELL DIFFERENTIATED ENDOCRINE CARCINOMA	POORLY DIFFERENTIATED ENDOCRINE CARCINOMA OR SMALL CELL CARCINOMA
Growth Pattern	Small solid nests, trabeculae, gyriform cords, or pseudoglandular structures	Solid nests and sheets, trabeculae, gyriform cords, or pseudoglandular structures	Large, ill-defined solid aggregates or diffuse sheets of cells
Cytologic Features	No or minimal atypia	Mild to moderate atypia, hyperchromatic nuclei, fairly prominent nucleoli	Highly atypical, small to intermediate sized cells with high N:C ratio, poorly granular or agranular cytoplasm
Local Extent	Usually circumscribed, can be ill-defined, confined to pancreas	May invade local structures	Usually invades locally
Size	<2 cm	Most >3 cm	Any size
Necrosis	Absent	Usually absent	Often present
Lymphovascular or perineural invasion	Absent	Often present	Usually prominent
Mitoses (per 10 HPF)	≤2	2 to 10	>10
Ki-67 (% of cells)	≤2%	>5%	>15%
P53			Frequently present
Metastases	Absent	May be present (regional lymph nodes or liver)	Often present (liver and extra-abdominal sites)

Mixed exocrine-endocrine carcinomas are tumors with an admixture of the two components; the biologic behavior is determined by that of the exocrine component.
From Kloppel G, Solcia E, Longnecker DS, Capella C, Sobin LH: Histological Typing of Tumours of the Exocrine Pancreas (WHO World Health Organization International Histological Classification of Tumours), 2nd ed. Springer, 2002.

TABLE 19–33. GRADING SYSTEM FOR INFILTRATING DUCTAL CARCINOMAS OF THE PANCREAS

Grade I	Well differentiated (>95% of the tumor is composed of glands)
Grade II	Moderately differentiated (50% to 95% of the tumor is composed of glands)
Grade III	Poorly differentiated (5% to 49% of the tumor is composed of glands)
Grade IV	Undifferentiated (<5% of the tumor is composed of glands)

See reference 11.

- **Treatment Effect**: No prior treatment, prior treatment with: no residual tumor (complete response, grade 0), marked response (minimal residual carcinoma, grade 1), moderate response (grade 2), no definite response (poor or no response, grade 3)
  - Pools of acellular mucin should not be interpreted as residual carcinoma.
  - **Lymph-Vascular Invasion**: Not identified, present

TABLE 19-34. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF EXOCRINE AND ENDOCRINE PANCREATIC TUMORS

TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	Carcinoma in situ*
T1	Tumor limited to the pancreas, 2 cm or less in greatest dimension
T2	Tumor limited to the pancreas, more than 2 cm in greatest dimension
T3	Tumor extends beyond the pancreas but without involvement of the celiac axis or the superior mesenteric artery
T4	Tumor involves the celiac axis or the superior mesenteric artery (unresectable primary tumor)
* This also includes the PanInIII classification (severe ductal dysplasia/carcinoma in situ).	
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Regional lymph node metastasis
DISTANT METASTASIS	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
Distant metastasis includes seeding of the peritoneum (even if limited to the lesser sac region) and positive peritoneal cytology. From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.	

- **Perineural Invasion**: Not identified, present
- **Tumor Configuration:** Infiltrative, circumscribed (solid or cystic, partially or entirely circumscribed)
- **Intraductal Lesions:** Papillary hyperplasia, carcinoma in situ
- Regional Lymph Nodes: Metastases present or absent, number of metastases, number of nodes examined
  - Regional vs. distant. Note**:** The definition of regional nodes depends on the location of the tumor.
  - Gastric lymph nodes: distant for all
  - Pyloric lymph nodes: regional for head, distant for body and tail
  - Peripancreatic lymph nodes: regional for all. Divide into superior, inferior, anterior, and posterior groups.
  - Splenic lymph nodes: regional for body and tail, distant for head.
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Nonlesional pancreas
  - Chronic pancreatitis, acute pancreatitis, fibrosis, pancreatic intraepithelial neoplasia, intraductal pancreatic mucinous tumor, islet cell hyperplasia, adenomatosis
  - Stomach and duodenum: Gastritis (chemical or *Helicobacter pylori*), duodenitis, peptic ulcer disease, ampullitis
- **Distant Metastasis**: Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification**: T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (see Table 19-34). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see *www.cap.org/*) and the ADASP (see *www.adasp.org*). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

TABLE 19–35. GRADING SYSTEM FOR NON-PAPILLARY CARCINOMAS OF THE AMPULLA OF VATER	
Grade I	Well differentiated (>95% of the tumor is composed of glands)
Grade II	Moderately differentiated (50% to 95% of the tumor is composed of glands)
Grade III	Poorly differentiated (<49% of the tumor is composed of glands)
Grade IV	Undifferentiated carcinomas and small cell carcinoma (high-grade neuroendocrine carcinomas in the WHO classification)

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR CARCINOMAS OF THE AMPULLA OF VATER

- **Specimen:** Ampulla of Vater, stomach, pancreas (head, body), duodenum, common bile duct, gallbladder
- **Procedure:** Pancreatoduodenectomy (Whipple procedure), ampullectomy
- **Tumor Site:** Intra-ampullary, periampullary, papilla of Vater (junction of ampullary and duodenal mucosa), not specified
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (tumors < 2.5 cm have a 65% 5-year survival rate whereas tumors > 2.5 cm have a 20% 5-year survival rate).
- **Histologic Type:** Papillary adenocarcinoma, adenocarcinoma, intestinal type, mucinous adenocarcinoma, clear cell adenocarcinoma, signet ring cell carcinoma (> 50% signet ring cells), adenosquamous carcinoma, others
- **Histologic Grade:** Well, moderate, poorly, undifferentiated (Table 19-35)
- **Microscopic Tumor Extension:** Carcinoma in situ, tumor limited to ampulla of Vater or sphincter of Oddi, invasion of muscle of the sphincter of Oddi, invasion of duodenal wall, invasion into pancreas, invasion into peripancreatic soft tissue or other adjacent organs or structures
- **Margins:** Involved or not involved, pancreatic margins, duodenal margins, distance to closest margin including common bile duct and pancreatic duct
- **Intraductal Lesions:** Papillary hyperplasia, carcinoma in situ
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Perineural invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Regional lymph nodes include nodes superior, inferior, and posterior to the head and body of pancreas, pyloric nodes, proximal mesenteric nodes, hepatic artery nodes, common bile duct nodes, infrapyloric nodes, subpyloric nodes, celiac nodes, superior mesenteric nodes, retroperitoneal nodes, and lateral aortic nodes.
  - Specify the number of nodes examined and the number with metastases
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Chronic pancreatitis, metaplasia, pancreatic intraepithelial neoplasia, acute pancreatitis, fibrosis, islet cell hyperplasia
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 19-36). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

TABLE 19-36. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF TUMORS OF THE AMPULLA OF VATER	
TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	Carcinoma in situ
T1	Tumor limited to the ampulla of Vater or sphincter of Oddi
T2	Tumor invades duodenal wall
T3	Tumor invades pancreas
T4	Tumor invades peripancreatic soft tissues or other adjacent organs or structures other than pancreas
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Regional lymph node metastasis
DISTANT METASTASIS	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
Note: This staging system is not used for carcinoid tumors or other neuroendocrine tumors.	

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20 Genitourinary Specimens

Genitourinary pathology includes specimens from the kidney, ureters, bladder, prostate, and testis. The kidney may be biopsied as part of the evaluation of renal function. Otherwise, genitourinary specimens are generally biopsied or excised for neoplastic disease.

KIDNEY

Needle or Wedge Biopsies

"Medical" renal biopsies are typically performed for evaluation of renal function or urinary abnormalities and are assessed in the context of the clinical presentation of the patient, with particular attention to the results of serological tests and the urinalysis (see Table 20-1). Resectable kidney masses are rarely biopsied because of the virtually diagnostic appearance of tumors on CT scan and the need for resection for treatment. Unresectable tumors are usually diagnosed by FNA. Occasionally, biopsies will be performed on kidneys with tumors that will be treated with cryotherapy, or before a kidney is used for transplantation (see Chapter 6).

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY

See Table 20-1.

TABLE 20–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY – KIDNEY

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR KIDNEY SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Urinalysis: presence and quantity of protein (spot urine protein to urine creatinine ratio, 24-hour quantification); blood; amount and type of casts (e.g., red blood cells, white blood cells, muddy brown).
Purpose of the procedure	Renal function tests (BUN and creatinine) and time frame of changes.
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	Systemic conditions (e.g., connective tissue and autoimmune diseases, acute or chronic infections, hemoglobinopathies, hypertension, obesity, diabetes mellitus, anti-phospholipid syndrome, myeloma, vasculitis, HUS)
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	Results of serology (e.g., anti-GBM antibodies, ANCA, ANA, C3, C4, cryoglobulins, hepatitis B and C)
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	Drug use (analgesics, penicillamine, hydralazine, chemotherapeutic agents, antihypertensives, ACE inhibitors, angiotensin receptor blockers)

TABLE 20–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY - KIDNEY—cont'd

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR KIDNEY SPECIMENS
Compromised immune system	Blood pressure
	Edema
	Glucose values and hemoglobin A1c
	Culture results
	SPEP and UPEP
	Radiographic findings (symmetry, obstruction, etc.)
	For transplants: Duration of transplant, donor information (living, deceased, related, unrelated, "expanded criteria", polyoma serology, history of prior transplants, results of prior transplant biopsies, relevant interventions (e.g., changes in immunosuppressive therapy), serum levels of immunosuppressive therapy.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. The biopsy is usually performed by a nephrologist in conjunction with a radiologist, under ultrasound guidance. Occasionally, the radiologist may perform a percutaneous biopsy under CT guidance, or a transjugular biopsy in the angiography suite. After each pass, the needle core biopsy (ideally 15-gauge) is examined unfixed under stereo-microscopy by the renal pathologist to assess the adequacy of the specimen and to determine the need for additional biopsies. The consensus classification for adequacy of a transplant biopsy recommends that there must be 10 or more glomeruli, and two arteries.[1]
2. **Clean forceps must be used when allocating tissue for light microscopy, IF, and EM! Minute amounts of formalin or glutaraldehyde can destroy the antigenicity of the tissue allocated for IF, and glutaraldehyde can create problems in interpreting tissue for light microscopy.**
   Representative cortex and, if available, medulla (for evaluation of casts), are allocated for IF by placement in Zeus transport solution (Michel's solution).
   A few viable glomeruli are usually sufficient for placement in Karnovsky's glutaraldehyde/paraformaldehyde fixative for EM.
3. The remaining tissue is fixed in formalin. Each core is separately wrapped in tissue paper and placed in a separate green cassette. Tissue sections are cut at 3 to 4 microns. Special stains are evaluated on all renal biopsies (H&E, PAS, Jones' silver methenamine, and AFOG trichrome.

Nephrectomy

Nephrectomies are commonly performed for tumors (usually renal cell carcinoma, rarely urothelial (transitional) cell carcinoma of the renal pelvis) or to remove nonfunctioning grafts. Native nonfunctioning kidneys are also sometimes removed. Partial nephrectomies are becoming more common to resect tumors if the other kidney is absent or nonfunctioning or if the primary tumor is small (e.g., a tumor found incidentally on CT scan or ultrasound).

The examination of the non-neoplastic kidney is important for the recognition of other diseases that put the patient at risk for progressive renal failure.[2,3]

Transplant Nephrectomy

Renal grafts are transplanted to the pelvis with a short vascular pedicle connected to the inguinal vessels. The specimen usually consists simply of the kidney, without surrounding soft tissue, and vessels cut flush with the hilum. Transplant failure may be due to preexisting disease in the allograft, vascular insufficiency (e.g., thrombosis or plaque), rejection, or recurrence of the patient's original renal disease.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh (normal is 125 to 170 gm for males and 115 to 155 gm for females) and record the measurements of the kidney. Record the length and diameter of any vessels at the hilum. Look for patency of vessels (thrombosis, intimal proliferation, atherosclerotic plaques).
2. Describe the renal parenchyma including color (tan/red, gray/green), thickness of cortex, shape of calyces and papillae (normal, blunted), state of pelvis and ureter, vessels, infarcts (size and location), hemorrhage, necrosis.
3. Submit four cassettes including cortex and medulla, hilar vessels, and focal lesions and request one H&E, PAS stain, Jones' silver methenamine, and trichrome (AFOG) on one block containing kidney cortex (see also below).

If the transplant has failed six months or more after transplantation, or if there is significant proteinuria, and recurrence of the patient's original disease is suspected, always save cortex for EM and immunofluorescence microscopy.

Native Kidney Nephrectomy

Nonfunctioning kidneys may be removed due to hypertension refractive to medical therapy, persistent pyelonephritis, severe renal protein loss, polycystic kidneys, or in patients with bilateral renal tumors. A native kidney may also be removed to provide a native ureter for the allograft.

Acquired cystic kidney disease (ACKD) occurs in over 30% of patients with end-stage renal disease, and the incidence increases over time. Papillary hyperplasia is commonly present in the walls of the cysts and is thought to be a precursor lesion for carcinomas. Adenomas are frequently found in this population (about 25%) and are typically multiple and bilateral.

Renal cell carcinomas develop in 5% to 10% of patients, and 70% to 80% of these patients will have ACKD. Carcinomas are more likely to be multifocal (50%) and 25% of patients have bilateral tumors. Although many are small and incidental, some do metastasize, for an overall five-year survival rate of 35%. Different types of tumor types are seen.[4] About one third are "ACKD associated" renal cell carcinomas – well circumscribed and encapsulated, often with papillary areas, AMACR+, CK7-. 15% are clear cell papillary carcinomas (AMACR-), 18% papillary, and 8% chromophobe.

The incidence of urothelial carcinomas is increased in patients with analgesic-related renal failure.

The cortex is examined as for a diagnostic renal biopsy to identify the etiology of the renal failure.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh (normal is 125 to 170 gm for males and 115 to 155 gm for females) and record the measurements of the kidney. Record the length and diameter of any vessels at the hilum. Look for patency of vessels (thrombosis, intimal proliferation, atherosclerotic plaques).
2. Describe the renal parenchyma including color (tan/red, gray/green), thickness of cortex, shape of calyces and papillae (normal, blunted), state of pelvis and ureter, vessels, infarcts (size and location), hemorrhage, necrosis. The number and size of cysts are recorded.
   The entire kidney is thinly sectioned and examined for solid lesions. The lining of cysts is examined for any areas of thickening or irregularities.
   Fresh normal cortical tissue may be saved for immunofluoresence (Zeus medium) and fixed for EM if these studies might be requested.
3. Submit four cassettes including cortex and medulla and hilar vessels. Additional cassettes are submitted to document any solid or cystic areas suspicious for carcinoma.

Laparoscopic Nephrectomy with Morcellation

Laparoscopic surgery offers numerous advantages for patients. However, in order to remove tissues and organs through a small skin incision, they must be morcellated (i.e., reduced to small fragments) and this procedure introduces new challenges to pathologists. This procedure has been used for the removal of adrenal glands, kidneys, spleens, and prostate glands.

It may not be possible to determine the size, status of margins, and renal vein involvement for such specimens. However, this information can also be determined from imaging studies and the decreased morbidity to the patient may outweigh the loss of specific pathologic confirmation.

A method has been described to allow inking of margins prior to morcellation.[5] If gross tumor, vessels, and/or ureter are apparent, these specific structures can be selected for microscopic examination.

Pathologic examination will be more problematic if there is a small mass and a prior diagnosis has not been made. In most cases, fragments containing tumor are grossly identifiable. A model has been described to estimate the amount of tissue that would need to be examined in order to find a tumor of a given size in a specimen of a certain size with 95% certainty if gross tumor cannot be identified.[6] For example, to find a 4.5 cm tumor in a normal-sized kidney, approximately 11 cassettes of tissue would need to be examined. However, it could take over 100 cassettes to find a 1 cm tumor. Cytology washings from the retrieval bag can also provide a diagnosis in the majority of patients.[7]

Radical Nephrectomy

Radical nephrectomies consist of the kidney, most of the ureter, renal vein and artery, perinephric fat, and surrounding Gerota's fascia. An adrenal gland may or may not be present.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh the entire specimen and record its dimensions. Examine the hilum carefully and identify the ureter, renal vein, and renal artery. The vessels will usually be tied off with sutures.

   Tumor involvement of the renal vein is usually obvious and has the appearance of a smoothly surfaced projection of tumor extending out from the hilum. There may be a "plug" of tumor in the lumen, or the tumor may invade into the vessel wall. It is useful to determine if vessel invasion was seen on pre-operative radiologic studies in order to specifically document this finding.

   Take cross-sections of the margins (vein, artery, and ureter) and place in a labeled cassette.

   Palpate the hilar region for any lymph nodes and save in a labeled cassette. Typically lymph nodes are not found.
2. Inspect the outer portion of the specimen. The kidney is surrounded by perirenal fat. Surrounding this fat, the kidney, and the adrenal gland is the renal fascia ("Gerota's fascia").

   If there are areas suspicious for tumor at the margin (which is rarely seen as most tumors are limited to the renal parenchyma), ink these areas selectively.

   The kidney is then bivalved with a single longitudinal cut.

   If the section starts at the hilum, place a probe into the ureter. Cut along the probe to bisect the ureter and extend the cut to divide the kidney. This method facilitates the complete evaluation of the urothelium in cases of urothelial (transitional) cell carcinoma.

   Alternatively, start at the side of the kidney opposite the hilum and bivalve the kidney, but do not cut completely through the hilum.

   Describe all lesions including size, number (both RCC and TCC may be multifocal), location (with respect to the upper and lower pole, cortex, pelvis), distance from margins (Gerota's fascia, vascular, ureteral), involvement of calyceal or pelvic mucosa (open completely with scissors), gross invasion of capsule, perirenal soft tissue,or hilar soft tissue, involvement of adjacent structures (renal vein, adrenal). Make additional cuts as necessary to assess the parenchyma.

   Describe the uninvolved renal parenchyma including color, thickness of the cortex, corticomedullary junction (well defined, effaced), shape of the papillae (blunted, necrotic), calyces, renal pelvis (dilation, petechiae, mucosa), presence of calculi, and types of cysts (simple are usually benign; complex cysts may represent tumor). Note any tan/yellow or white nodules in the cortex that might represent a cortical "adenoma" or additional foci of tumor.
3. Fix the entire specimen in formalin overnight. Large tumors are partially sectioned with gauze used to wick formalin around the sections.
4. The following day sections of the tumor, margins, and kidney are taken. The adrenal gland may be present at the upper pole. Free the gland from the surrounding fat and describe including color, size, nodularity (see Chapter 11). Section it carefully looking for evidence of tumor metastasis (nodules). If abnormal, weigh the gland and/or focal lesions.
5. Carefully section through the remainder of the fat looking for lymph nodes. Most nodes will be near the renal hilum.
6. A portion of rib may be submitted with the nephrectomy specimen. See in Chapter 14, "Incidental Ribs," for instructions on processing.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

See Figure 20-1.

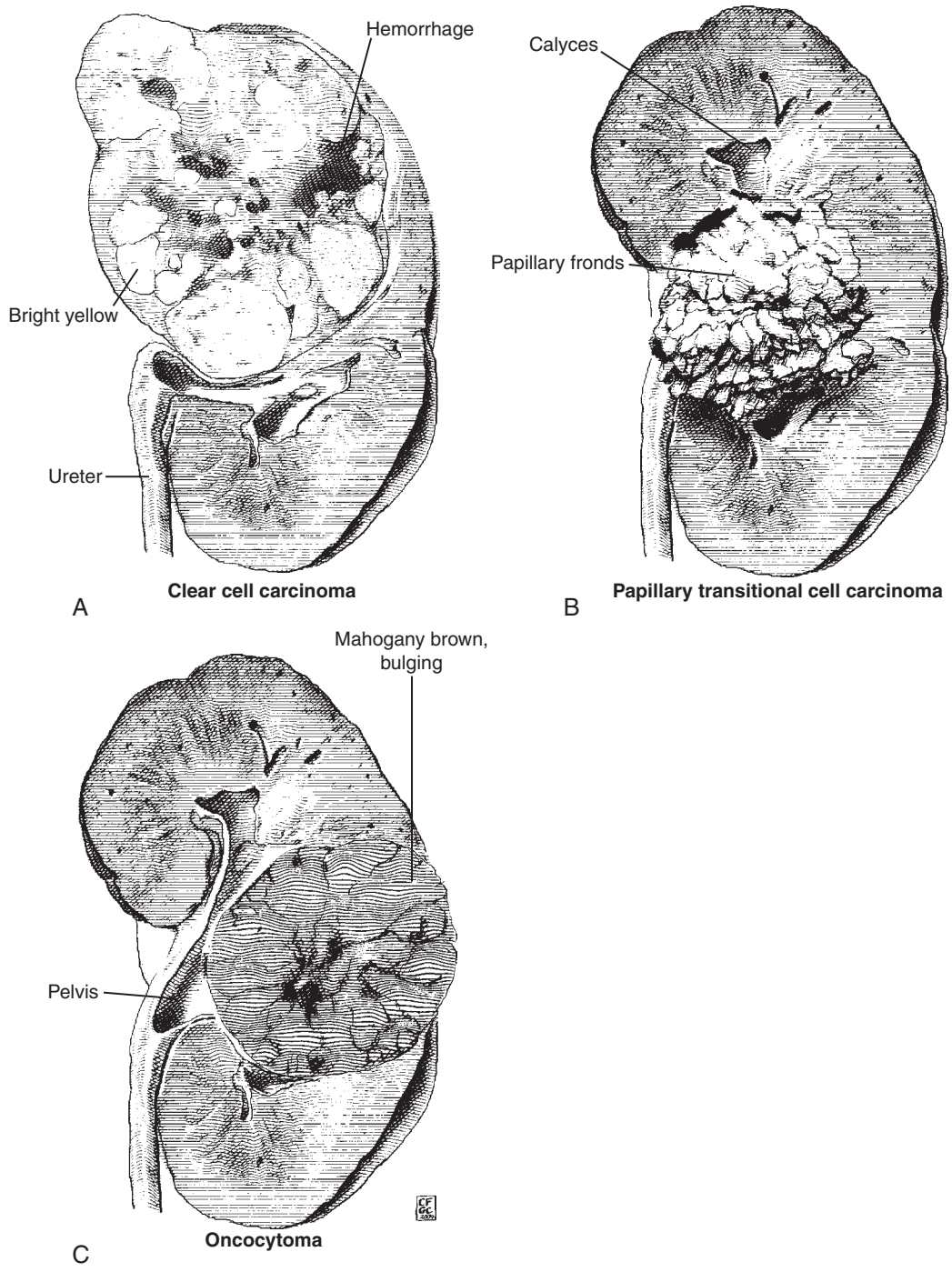

Figure 20–1. Renal lesions.

Renal Cell Carcinoma. The most common type is clear cell (conventional) carcinoma, but other types are also seen.

- **Clear cell carcinomas** are usually golden yellow to red, spongy to firm, and occur in discrete nodules with pushing borders. Blood lakes are typical. Necrosis may be present. The tumor may appear brown if the cytoplasm is granular. Cysts may be absent or quite prominent. Most are in the upper pole. The tumor may bulge out beyond the contour of the renal capsule, but rarely invades into adipose tissue.
- **Papillary carcinomas** are brown (due to hemosiderin) and very soft and friable, and thus may appear to be necrotic (although they usually are not).
- **Chromophobe carcinomas** are usually well circumscribed and tan/brown in color, with possible focal necrosis or hemorrhage.

- **Collecting duct carcinomas** occur in the renal medulla and have a hard gray/white appearance. The borders are typically irregular, and necrosis is frequent.
- **Sarcomatoid differentiation** in tumors of all types appears as gray/white firm to fleshy masses. Hemorrhage and necrosis are common.
- **Renal cell carcinoma in the setting of acquired cystic disease** may be quite subtle and have the appearance of an irregular area or papillary projection within a cyst. Different tumor types are seen in this setting (see "Native Kidney Nephrectomy").

Cytogenetic studies can be helpful to distinguish the different types of RCC (see Table 7-47). EM can be helpful to distinguish chromophobe carcinomas from oncocytomas (see Table 7-46).

Urothelial (Transitional) Cell Carcinoma is usually a tan/pink friable mass with a minute villous architecture. There may be a rather small base, compared to the size of the tumor, attached to the renal pelvic urothelium. However, some tumors have a broad base and involve the majority of the urothelium of the renal pelvis.

Renal Cortical Adenomas are usually well circumscribed, unencapsulated gray or yellow tumors present below the renal capsule. They are typically an incidental finding and are less than 2 cm in size. They are sometimes associated with long-term hemodialysis or chronic pyelonephritis.

Metanephric Adenomas are also well circumscribed but can range in size from 1 to 15 cm. The color is fleshy tan/yellow, and hemorrhage or necrosis may be present.

Oncocytomas are usually deep red/brown, soft, and well circumscribed, without areas of necrosis, and located in the cortex. Central "scarring" is present in about half of cases, especially in larger tumors.

Pediatric Tumors The types of renal tumors occurring in children are quite different than those seen in adults, and include nephroblastoma (Wilms tumor), clear cell sarcoma, rhabdoid tumor, mesoblastic nephroma, lymphoma, neural tumors, renal cell carcinoma, and angiomyolipoma. The specimens may be processed as above, but additional sections should be taken to document the relationship of the tumor to the normal kidney and to evaluate the relationship of the tumor to the capsule and the renal sinus. Normal-appearing cortex should also be sampled. Since these tumors tend to be more heterogeneous in appearance, at least one section per centimeter of greatest tumor dimension should be taken including all areas of differing appearance. Some protocols require that the patient have negative lymph nodes. Therefore, all hilar tissue should be examined microscopically. Tissue should also be taken for special studies (Box 20-1).

- **Nephroblastoma (Wilms tumor):** This is the most common type of pediatric renal tumor (80% of total) and occurs in children from 1 to 6 years of age. Most are well circumscribed lobulated masses with a variegated appearance from gray to pink. Extensive necrosis and hemorrhage are common. If there are multiple nodules, each should be sampled. Cysts may be present. The tumor may invade into the renal vein, ureter, or adipose tissue. Characteristic cytogenetic changes are present (see Table 7-47).

BOX 20–1. Special studies in pediatric renal tumors

- **Snap-frozen:** The National Wilms Tumor Study Protocols (see www.nwstg.org) require snap-frozen tissue from all pediatric renal tumors and adjacent normal tissue (preferably 1 gram or a minimum of 100 mg in two or more vials along with a separate portion of normal kidney in at least one vial). Nephrogenic rests may also be frozen. Adjacent tissue should be sampled for formalin fixation for histologic correlation.
- **EM:** EM may occasionally be of use.
- **Touch preparations:** Fixed in 95% alcohol. Can be used for some studies (e.g., FISH) if other tissue is not available.
- **Flow cytometry:** In some cases flow cytometric analysis of ploidy, S-phase fraction, or surface markers (i.e., for lymphomas) may be requested.
- **Cytogenetics:** Cytogenetic studies may be useful for classification and prognosis:
  - Cellular mesoblastic nephroma: t(12;15)
  - Malignant rhabdoid tumor: 22q11.2 deletion
  - Wilms tumor: del 11p13

See references 8 and 9.

TABLE 20–2. TYPES OF NEPHROGENIC RESTS

FEATURE	PERILOBAR REST	INTRALOBAR REST
Site in renal lobe	Periphery (including subcortical)	Random; cortex,medulla, sinus
Margins	Clearly demarcated	Poorly demarcated
Relation to nephrons	No nephrons within rest	Dispersed between nephrons
Composition	Blastemal or tubular; stroma scanty or sclerotic	Tubules, blastema, cysts; stroma usually predominates
Number	Usually numerous	Often single
Associations	Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome, Perlman syndrome, and hemihypertrophy	WAGR syndrome and Denys-Drash syndrome

Modified from Mills SE (ed): Sternberg's Diagnostic Surgical Pathology, 4th ed., Philadelphia, Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, 2004.

The weight of the kidney may be used as an eligibility factor for clinical protocols and must be determined accurately.

At least one section per cm of tumor should be taken, as tumors can be quite heterogeneous. Most sections should be taken from the periphery to evaluate the relationship to the capsule, the renal sinus, the normal kidney, and possible vascular involvement.

More than one third of cases will be associated with nephrogenic rests (Table 20-2). These appear as grossly pale areas. The presence of nephrogenic rests is associated with the probability of a syndrome and involvement of the contralateral kidney. Renal lobes are more easily seen in the kidneys of infants and children. Nephroblastomatosis is defined as multiple or diffusely distributed rests.

The renal sinus (the hilum of the kidney occupied by the renal pelvis, hilar vessels, and fat) should be well-sampled, as tumors often involve vessels at this point. The renal cortex lacks a capsule here. The tumor often involves the renal vein as a tumor thrombus, and the vein may retract around a tumor thrombus. This should not be interpreted as a positive margin if the thrombus is not transected.

- **Clear cell sarcoma:** These make up 4% of renal tumors in children and occur in children between the ages of 1 and 3 years. Thirty percent present with metastases to lymph nodes. The tumor is usually a large, well-circumscribed gray/white mass with pushing borders into the adjacent renal parenchyma. Focal necrosis and hemorrhage may be present. Characteristic cytogenetic changes are present (see Table 7-47).
- **Rhabdoid tumor:** Most are well defined and fleshy in appearance with frequent necrosis and hemorrhage. The renal pelvis is usually involved. Characteristic cytogenetic changes are present (see Table 7-47).
- **Congenital mesoblastic nephroma:** Rare tumors (2% of pediatric renal tumors) that occur in children from birth to age 2 (most patients are less than 3 months old). The tumor is an irregular gray/white to tan mass often of large size. Cysts, necrosis, or hemorrhage are unusual. These tumors can involve the renal vein and the vessels at the hilum; this is an important prognostic factor, and this area should be thoroughly sampled. Characteristic cytogenetic changes are present (see Table 7-47). There are two main types:
  - Classic CMN (24% of cases) corresponds to infantile fibromatosis
  - Cellular CMN (66% of cases) corresponds to infantile fibrosarcoma and have a t(12;15). All relapses are of this type or mixed.
  - Mixed CMN (10%) have features of both histologic types.
- **Lymphoma:** A well-defined homogenous gray to white mass involving the cortex or medulla.

Cystic Kidney Disease. Genetic (presenting at birth or as an adult), sporadic, and acquired (due to long-term hemodialysis) forms occur. The location and size of the cysts vary among the different types of cystic renal disease. Because of the increased risk of RCC in acquired cystic disease, all cysts must be carefully examined for mural nodules or papillary projections (Table 20-3).

Xanthogranulomatous Pyelonephritis. Appears as single or multiple golden-yellow nodules in and around the pelvis and calyces. The nodules may rarely be found in the renal capsule or in adjacent fat. The gross appearance can mimic a renal cell carcinoma.

TABLE 20–3. CYSTIC KIDNEY DISEASE

DISEASE	KIDNEY SIZE	LOCATION OF CYSTS	SIZE OF CYSTS	CLINICAL CORRELATIONS
Infantile polycystic kidney disease	Massively enlarged	Cortex and medulla, radially arranged and oriented perpendicular to renal capsule	Small	Autosomal recessive Can also affect liver (congenital hepatic fibrosis – Caroli disease) Usually fatal at birth
Medullary sponge kidney	Normal	Arise in collecting ducts and found in medullary pyramids and renal papillae	Small, <0.5 cm	Most sporadic – rarely hereditary Rarely progress to renal failure, associated with urolithiasis
Medullary cystic kidney disease	Small, contracted, granular surface	Corticomedullary junction	Small, <2 cm	Autosomal dominant Two types – gout often develops in type 2 Renal failure develops from 30 to 70 yrs
Nephronophthisis/ medullary cystic kidney disease	Small, contracted, granular surface	Corticomedullary junction	Small, <2 cm	Autosomal recessive Four types – renal failure develops from 1 to 19 yrs 15% develop retinal disease
Adult polycystic kidney disease	Normal to marked increase	Cortex and medulla	Small to very large (several centimeters)	Autosomal dominant Liver cysts may be present About half progress to renal failure in adulthood
Acquired cystic disease	Small	Cortex	Variable – small to very large	Occurs after long term hemodialysis. There is an increased risk of RCC

Angiomyolipoma. The tumors are usually well-circumscribed. The radiologic appearance is often diagnostic. The tumors are variegated due to the mixture of adipose tissue (yellow) and smooth muscle (gray/white). However, some tumors can consist almost entirely of smooth muscle and mimic a smooth muscle neoplasm. The smooth muscle cells are positive for HMB-45 and other melanoma markers (see Table 7-9). The vascular component is often associated with hemorrhage. The tumor may be confined to the kidney, or extend through the capsule. Rare cases may involve the renal vein or regional lymph nodes. The gross appearance can closely mimic a RCC. About half the cases are associated with tuberous sclerosis, and these patients more commonly have multiple and bilateral tumors. These tumors can rarely be associated with RCC. Therefore, adequate sampling of non-fatty areas is necessary to evaluate this possibility.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** Three to four cassettes including portions of tumor with varying appearance, relationship to adjacent uninvolved tissue, invasion of adjacent structures (such as perinephric or perihilar fat). If involvement of the renal vein is known or suspected, representative sections of the vein should be submitted.
- **Margins:** Radial margin in perirenal fat, vascular margins and ureteral margin (these latter three sections can be submitted in the same cassette).
- **Other lesions:** Cysts, infarcts, adenomas, etc. One section of each.
- **Normal kidney:** At least one cassette of uninvolved kidney. If an underlying disease is suspected that could affect the other kidney, tissue for EM or immunofluorescence and special stains may be indicated.

- **Adrenal:** At least one cassette demonstrating normal adrenal. Additional cassettes to demonstrate lesions.
- **Lymph nodes:** Submit all lymph nodes found.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name, unit number, and "kidney," is a 333 gram left radical nephrectomy specimen including kidney (12 × 8 × 5.5 cm) and left adrenal gland (3.8 × 1.8 × 0.7 cm) and surrounding perirenal fat measuring in thickness from 2 to 3 cm. Extending from the renal pelvis is a ureter (1 cm in length by 0.3 cm in diameter), renal vein (2.5 cm in length by 1 cm in diameter), and renal artery (1 cm in diameter by 0.4 cm in diameter). In the upper pole is a circumscribed golden-yellow tumor mass with areas of hemorrhage (5 × 5 × 3 cm). The tumor protrudes into the renal vein for a distance of 3.2 cm but is not present at the vein margin. The tumor pushes against the renal capsule but does not appear to penetrate the capsule or invade into the perirenal fat. The remainder of the renal cortex is tan/brown with a well-defined cortical medullary junction. The pelvis and calyces are covered by smooth glistening mucosa. The adrenal gland consists of normal medulla and cortex without focal lesions. The adipose tissue is thinly sectioned and no lymph nodes are found.

Cassette #1: Tumor and capsule and perirenal fat, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #2: Tumor and adjacent normal kidney, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #3: Tumor and renal vein, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #4: Renal vein margin, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassette #5: Renal artery and ureter margins, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassette #6: Normal kidney, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #7: Representative sections of adrenal, 2 frags, RSS.

Partial Nephrectomy

A partial nephrectomy is performed for a radiologically indeterminate mass, tumor in a solitary kidney (the contralateral nephrectomy may have been performed for prior tumor), or underlying disease expected to affect renal function (e.g. diabetes). Process as above with the following exceptions:

1. Examine the cut surface of the kidney for areas suspicious for tumor. Ink this margin. Often, the surgeon will indicate the resection margin using a surgical suture. Because orientation and evaluation of this margin is very important, contact the surgeon for orientation if necessary. Serially section through the specimen. Describe the distance of the tumor from the cut renal resection margin.
2. No major vessels or the ureter will be present.
3. Take multiple sections demonstrating the relationship of the tumor to the renal resection margin as well as to the deep (perirenal fat) margin.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR RENAL TUMORS

- **Specimen:** Kidney, adrenal
- **Procedure:** Partial nephrectomy, radical nephrectomy
- **Specimen Laterality:** Right, left
- **Tumor Site:** Upper pole, middle pole, lower pole, hilum, medulla, cortex
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (4 cm, 7 cm, and 10 cm are used for staging), if multiple tumors, give the size of the largest tumor
- **Focality:** Unifocal, multifocal
- **Macroscopic and Microscopic Extent of Tumor:** RCC: Limited to kidney, extension into perinephric tissues, extension beyond Gerota fascia, extension into adrenal (direct invasion is classified as T4, noncontiguous involvement is classified as M1), extension into major veins
  - TCC: Into or through renal pelvis into parenchyma or invades into peripelvic fat
  - Ureter: involvement of lamina propria, muscularis propria, periureteric soft tissue
- **Histologic Type:** Clear cell (conventional) renal cell carcinoma, multilocular clear cell renal cell carcinoma, papillary renal cell carcinoma, chromophobe renal cell carcinoma, collecting duct carcinoma, renal medullary carcinoma, translocation carcinoma (Xp11 or others), urothelial (transitional) cell carcinoma, oncocytoma, Wilms tumor, others

- **Sarcomatoid Features:** RCC: Not identified, present (give percentage of sarcomatoid element)
- **Tumor Necrosis:** RCC: Not identified, present
- **Histologic Grade:** RCC: Fuhrman nuclear grade (Table 20-4)
  - TCC: various systems (see "Bladder")
- **Margins:** Involved or not involved, renal vein, ureter, perinephric fat, Gerota fascial margin, renal parenchyma (for partial nephrectomies), renal capsular margin (for partial nephrectomies)
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present. This does not include the renal vein and its muscle containing segmental branches or the inferior vena cava. Involvement of these vessels is reported separately.
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Metastases present or absent, number of involved nodes, number of nodes examined, size of largest metastasis, extracapsular invasion
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Glomerular disease, tubulointerstitial disease, vascular disease, cysts, adenomas, inflammation
  - For Wilms tumor: nephrogenic rests (intralobar or perilobar)
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Tables 20-5 and 20-6). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

TABLE 20–4. FUHRMAN NUCLEAR GRADING SYSTEM FOR RENAL CELL CARCINOMA

	NUCLEI	NUCLEOLI
Grade I	Round, uniform, measure 10 microns	Inconspicuous or absent
Grade II	Slightly irregular, measure 15 microns	Small
Grade III	Very irregular, measure 20 microns	Prominent, large
Grade IV	Bizarre multilobated, chromatin clumping, ≥ 20 microns	Prominent

Modified from Fuhrman SA, et al, Prognostic significance of morphologic parameters in renal cell carcinoma. Am J Surg Pathol 6:655, 1982.

TABLE 20–5. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF RENAL CELL CARCINOMAS

Tumor	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
T1	Tumor 7 cm or less in greatest dimension, limited to the kidney
T1a	Tumor 4 cm or less in greatest dimension, limited to the kidney
T1b	Tumor 10more than 4 cm but not more than 7 cm in greatest dimension limited to the kidney
T2	Tumor more than 7 cm in greatest dimension limited to the kidney
T2a	Tumor more than 7 cm but less than or equal to 10 cm in greatest dimension, limited to the kidney
T2b	Tumor more than 10 cm, limited to the kidney
T3	Tumor extends into major veins or perinephric tissues, but not into the ipsilateral adrenal gland and not beyond Gerota's fascia
T3a	Tumor grossly extends into the renal vein or its segmental (muscle-containing) branches, or tumor invades perirenal and/or renal sinus fat but not beyond Gerota's fascia

Continued

TABLE 20–5. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF RENAL CELL CARCINOMAS—cont'd	
Tumor	
T3b	Tumor grossly extends into the vena cava below the diaphragm
T3c	Tumor grossly extends into the vena cava above the diaphragm or invades the wall of the vena cava
T4	Tumor invades beyond Gerota's fascia (including contiguous extension into the ipsilateral adrenal gland)
Regional Lymph Nodes	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Metastasis in regional lymph node(s)
Note: Regional lymph nodes include renal hilar, paracaval, aortic, and retroperitoneal. Laterality does not affect the N classification. If a lymph node dissection is performed, usually at least 8 would be included.	
Distant Metastasis	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
Note: Sarcomas and adenomas are not included in this classification. There is a separate staging system for pediatric Wilms tumors (see "Cancer Protocols and Checklists" at www.cap.org). From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.	

TABLE 20–6. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF TUMORS OF THE RENAL PELVIS AND URETER	
Tumor	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Ta	Papillary noninvasive carcinoma
Tis	Carcinoma in situ
T1	Tumor invades subepithelial connective tissue
T2	Tumor invades the muscularis
T3	(For renal pelvis only) Tumor invades beyond muscularis into peripelvic fat or the renal parenchyma
T3	(For ureter only) Tumor invades beyond muscularis into periureteric fat
T4	Tumor invades adjacent organs, or through the kidney into the perinephric fat
Regional Lymph Nodes	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Metastasis in a single lymph node ≤ 2 cm
N2	Metastasis in a single lymph node > 2 cm but ≤ 5 cm or in multiple lymph nodes ≤ 5 cm
N3	Metastasis in a lymph node > 5 cm
Note: Regional lymph nodes for the renal pelvis are renal hilar, paracaval, aortic, and retroperitoneal. Regional lymph nodes for the ureter are renal hilar, iliac, paracaval, periureteral, and pelvic. Laterality does not affect N classification.	
Distant Metastasis	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.	

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

There is a separate CAP Cancer Protocol for the reporting of pediatric Wilms tumor (see "Cancer Protocols and Checklists" at www.cap.org).

BLADDER

Urothelial (transitional) cell carcinoma is the most common tumor of the bladder. Other tumors at this site are rare (e.g., squamous cell carcinoma or adenocarcinoma).

The bladder muscularis mucosae is poorly defined (not unlike the gallbladder!) and incomplete. Therefore the term "submucosa" is not used. Invasion is reported as being into the lamina propria or deeper into the muscularis propria.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

See Table 20-7.

TABLE 20–7. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY – BLADDER

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR BLADDER SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Renal or bladder stones
Purpose of the procedure	Recent urinary tract infections
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	Recent urinary tract procedures
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	Obstruction
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	Infections
Prior surgery/biopsies – results	Hereditary non-polyposis colon cancer (HNPCC) syndrome – can be associated with carcinomas of the ureter
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	Systemic or intravesical chemotherapy, immunotherapy with BCG, or radiation
	Analgesic nephropathy, with papillary necrosis – may increase the risk of renal pelvic tumors
Compromised immune system	

Biopsies and Transurethral Resection of Bladder Tumors

Bladder biopsies are processed as small biopsies (see Chapter 13). Transurethral resections of bladder tumors (TURBT) sometimes result in specimens grossly recognizable as papillary tumors. Orient if possible. However, the specimens generally cannot be oriented.

Order two levels on each small biopsy. Order one level on grossly recognizable tumor specimens.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR BLADDER TUMOR BIOPSIES

- **Procedure:** Biopsy, transurethral resection of bladder tumor (TURBT)
- **Histologic Type:** Urothelial (transitional) cell carcinoma, squamous cell carcinoma, adenocarcinoma, others
- **Associated Epithelial Lesions:** Urothelial (transitional cell) papilloma, urothelial (transitional cell) papilloma, inverted type, papillary urothelial (transitional cell) neoplasm, low malignant potential

- **Histologic Grade:** Urothelial carcinoma: Low-grade, high-grade (WHO 2004/International Society of Urologic Pathology Consensus Classification)
  - Adenocarcinoma and squamous cell carcinoma: well differentiated, moderately differentiated, poorly differentiated
- **Tumor Configuration:** Papillary, solid/nodule, flat, ulcerated
- **Muscularis Propria:** Muscularis propria (detrusor muscle) not identified, muscularis propria (detrusor muscle) present
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Microscopic Extent of Tumor:** Noninvasive papillary carcinoma, flat carcinoma in situ, invasion of subepithelial connective tissue (lamina propria), invasion of muscularis propria (detrusor muscle), urothelial carcinoma in situ in prostatic urethra in prostatic chips, urothelial carcinoma in situ involving prostatic ducts and acini in prostatic chips, urothelial carcinoma invasive into prostatic stroma in prostatic chips
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Urothelial dysplasia (low-grade intraurothelial neoplasia), inflammation or regenerative changes, therapy-related changes, cautery artifact, cystitis cystica glandularis, keratinizing squamous metaplasia, intestinal metaplasia

This list incorporates the recommendations in Gephardt GN, Baker PB, Interinstitutional comparison of bladder carcinoma surgical pathology report adequacy: A College of American Pathologists Q-probes study of 7234 bladder biopsies and curettings in 268 institutions. Arch Pathol Lab Med 119:681-685, 1995; and the CAP Protocol for the Examination of Specimens from Patients with Carcinoma of the Urinary Bladder (see "Cancer Protocols and Checklists" at www.cap.org).

Radical or Partial Cystectomy

The bladder is usually resected because of biopsy-proven invasive urothelial (transitional) cell carcinoma. Rarely, the bladder will be removed because of prostatic carcinoma invasive into the bladder or because of synchronous bladder and prostatic primary tumors. It is not uncommon to have the majority of the tumor removed by biopsy and have only minimal, or no, tumor present in the cystectomy specimen. It is also common to find an incidental (clinically occult) prostate carcinoma.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record outer dimension of bladder, length and diameter of attached ureters.
   Males: The prostate is attached (Fig. 20-2). Record outer dimensions, seminal vesicles (dimensions), vasa deferentia (length and diameter).
   Females: The anterior vaginal wall will be attached. Describe size (length, width, depth), color (usually white), any lesions.
   Record the outer appearance of the specimen (e.g., any gross tumor present at the resection margin). Usually the margin consists of unremarkable adipose tissue. Palpate (but do not remove) this tissue, looking for grossly involved lymph nodes. Usually lymph nodes will not be found.
2. Ink the prostate (if present) and any suspicious areas of the external bladder.
   Bladders that arrive intact are inflated with formalin through the urethra and allowed to fix in an expanded state overnight. It is very difficult to examine a contracted and highly folded bladder mucosa for small or multicentric tumors.
   Hold the bladder neck upright with a hemostat. Fill the lumen with formalin. When the bladder is full, the urethra can be plugged with a large cotton swab.
   If the bladder has already been opened, the specimen is pinned out on a paraffin board for fixation overnight.
3. Before opening the bladder, determine the location of the tumor by looking up prior biopsy specimens or radiology reports. Avoid cutting through the tumor when opening the bladder.
   If the location is unknown, or if it is in the usual location near the trigone, open the bladder anteriorly through the urethra and extend the incision to the dome. A probe placed into the urethra is helpful to guide the knife.
4. Locate the site of the tumor. Avoid touching the mucosal surface because it is very delicate and is easily denuded. In some cases the luminal tumor will be very small or only a shallow ulceration from a prior biopsy will be present.

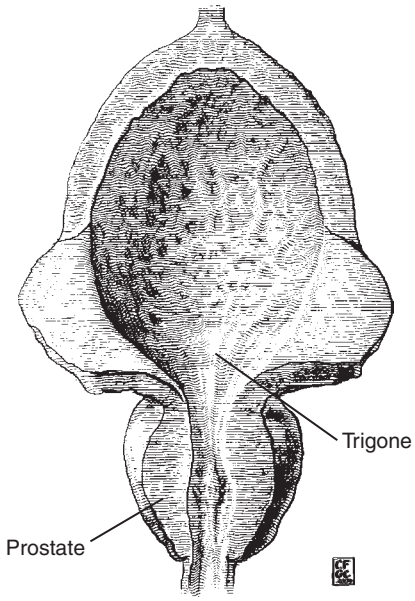

Figure 20–2. Cystectomy.

Ink the deep margin at the site of the tumor. Make parallel sections through the tumor.

Record the tumor's size, configuration (papillary, sessile, ulcerated, fungating, flat or plaque-like), color, consistency (firm, soft), depth of penetration of wall (submucosa, into or through muscularis propria, into perivesical soft tissue), location (dome, anterior, posterior, lateral wall, trigone), relationship to ureteral orifices (obstructing, extending into ureter).

Submit up to four sections of tumor (more if the tumor is very large) including junction with uninvolved mucosa, deepest extension through wall, and deep margin.

5. Describe the remainder of the bladder mucosa (smooth and glistening, hemorrhagic, edematous). If there are any abnormal areas, describe location and appearance.

   Submit representative sections of anterior wall, posterior wall, lateral wall, dome, and any abnormal areas.

6. The true ureteral margins are usually submitted separately and have often been examined by frozen section. Additional margins from the specimen do not need to be submitted.

   The entire length of the ureter is examined for additional foci of tumor. Either take multiple cross sections or open longitudinally. Submit any suspicious lesions.

7. **Males:** The prostate can be processed similar to radical prostatectomies (see the section on prostatectomies for details). The prostate is sectioned through the posterior surface in serial sections perpendicular to the prostatic urethra. Describe color (white, yellow), consistency (firm, hard), and any areas of necrosis or hemorrhage, and texture (nodular or effaced). The most common location of tumors is along the posterior wall. If no gross lesions are present, submit four sections from the posterior right lobe and four sections from the posterior left lobe. If lesion(s) are present, submit enough sections to document them as well as representative sections from the uninvolved prostate.

   The bladder base is not a margin and is not submitted. However, if gross tumor is present take a section to document invasion into prostate.

   The urethral margin (also the apex of the prostate) is best sampled with a perpendicular section through the urethra to try to assess urethral mucosa which may be retracted and not seen in an en face apical margin.

   Section the seminal vesicles perpendicular to the long axis. Submit one section of each at the junction with the prostate.

8. **Females:** Submit one representative section of the vaginal mucosa and any gross lesions.

9. After all microscopic sections have been taken, the perivesical soft tissue is carefully sectioned to look for lymph nodes. These nodes are found in only a small percentage of cases and more often in females than in males.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** Up to four cassettes including junction with normal mucosa, deepest point of invasion, deep margin.
- **Bladder mucosa:** Up to six cassettes of representative sections of anterior wall, posterior wall, right and left lateral walls, if no gross tumor is present. If gross tumor is present, additional representative mucosa need not be sampled in that area.
- **Ureters:** Need not be submitted if margins have been evaluated in separate specimens. Up to four cassettes including left and right specimen margins, and all lesions.
- **Prostate:** Four cassettes of posterior right lobe and four cassettes of posterior left lobe.
- **Urethral margin:** One perpendicular section.
- **Seminal vesicles**: Two cassettes documenting left seminal vesicle and right seminal vesicle.
- **Anterior vaginal wall:** One cassette documenting normal mucosa and any lesions present.
- **Lymph nodes:** All lymph nodes present in perivesical soft tissue.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh labeled "Bladder" is a radical cystectomy specimen containing bladder (15 × 10 × 5 cm), prostate (5 × 4.5 × 4 cm) and right (7 cm in length × 0.8 cm in diameter) and left (6 cm in length × 0.8 cm in diameter) ureters. There is a soft tan/pink papillary tumor (3.0 × 2.0 × 1.5 cm) located at the base of the posterior wall. The tumor extends into, but not through, the muscularis propria, and is 1.5 cm from the deep margin.

There is a second soft tan/pink papillary tumor (1.2 × 0.8 × 0.7 cm) located in the dome of the bladder which is confined to the mucosal surface. This tumor is 8 cm from the previously described tumor.

The remainder of the bladder mucosa is edematous and congested; however, no other gross lesions are noted.

The right ureter is unremarkable. In the left ureter there is an area of mucosal irregularity (0.3 × 0.3 cm), which is 3 cm from the unremarkable surgical margin.

The prostate consists of diffusely firm white parenchyma with a whorled appearance. The right seminal vesicle (3 × 1.5 × 0.5 cm), left seminal vesicle (2.5 × 1.8 × 0.6 cm), right vas deferens (0.8 cm in length × 0.5 cm in diameter), and left vas deferens (0.6 cm in length × 0.6 cm in diameter) are unremarkable.

Three fleshy tan lymph nodes are present in the perivesical soft tissue, the largest measuring 0.5 cm in greatest dimension.

Cassettes #1-2: deepest extent of invasion of large tumor including deep margin, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassettes #3-4: large tumor and adjacent mucosa, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #5-6: small tumor including deep margin, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassette #7: anterior wall, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #8: right lateral wall, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #9: posterior wall, between the two tumors, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #10: left lateral wall, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #11: right ureter margin, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassette #12: left ureter margin, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassette #13: suspicious area in left ureter, 3 frags, ESS.
Cassette #14: right seminal vesicle, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #15: left seminal vesicle, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #16: urethral margin of prostate, perpendicular, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassettes #17-20: right lobe, 4 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #21-24: left lobe, 4 frags, RSS.
Cassette #25: three lymph nodes, 3 frags, ESS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR BLADDER TUMORS

- **Specimen:** Bladder, prostate, vaginal wall
- **Procedure:** Partial cystectomy, total cystectomy, radical cystectomy, radical cystoprostatectomy, anterior exenteration
- **Tumor Site:** Trigone, right lateral wall, left lateral wall, anterior wall, posterior wall, dome

TABLE 20–8. WHO/INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY OF UROLOGICAL PATHOLOGY CONSENSUS CLASSIFICATION OF UROTHELIAL (TRANSITIONAL CELL) NEOPLASMS OF THE URINARY BLADDER (WHO 2004)

	ARCHITECTURE		CYTOLOGY					
	PAPILLAE	ORGANIZATION OF CELLS	NUCLEAR SIZE	NUCLEAR SHAPE	NUCLEAR CHROMATIN	NUCLEOLI	MITOSES	UMBRELLA CELLS
Papilloma	Delicate	Identical to normal	Identical to normal	Identical to normal	Fine	Absent	Absent	Uniformly present
PUNLUMP[a]	Delicate, occasionally fused	Polarity identical to normal; any thickness, cohesive	May be uniformly enlarged	Elongated, round-oval, uniform	Fine	Absent to inconspicuous	Rare, basal	Present
Low-grade papillary carcinoma	Fused, branching, delicate	Predominantly ordered, yet minimal crowding and minimal loss of polarity; any thickness; cohesive	Enlarged with variation in size	Round-oval; slight variation in shape and contour	Mild variation within and between cells	Usually inconspicuous[b]	Occasional, at any level	Usually present
High-grade papillary carcinoma[c]	Fused, branching, delicate	Predominantly ordered with frequent loss of polarity; any thickness; often discohesive	Enlarged with variation in size	Moderate-marked pleomorphism	Moderate-marked variation both within and between cells with hyperchromasia	Multiple prominent nucleoli may be present	Usually frequent, at any level	May be absent

[a]Papillary urothelial neoplasm of low malignant potential. It is suggested that this diagnosis be accompanied by the following note: "Patients with these tumors are at risk of developing new bladder tumors ("recurrence"), usually of a similar histology. However, occasionally these subsequent lesions manifest as urothelial carcinoma, such that follow-up of the patient is warranted."
[b]If present, small and regular and not accompanied by other features of high-grade carcinoma.
[c]The degree of nuclear anaplasia may be included in a note.
From Epstein JI, Amin MB, Reuter VR, Mostofi FK, and the Bladder Consensus Conference Committee, The World Health Organization/International Society of Urological Pathology Consensus Classification of Urothelial (Transitional Cell) Neoplasms of the Urinary Bladder, Am J Surg Pathol 22:1435-1448, 1998.

Definitions:

- **Urothelial papilloma:** Exophytic urothelial papilloma composed of a delicate fibrovascular core covered by urothelium indistinguishable from that of the normal urothelium.
- **Inverted papilloma:** Benign urothelial tumor that has an inverted growth pattern with normal to minimal cytologic atypia of the neoplastic cells.
- **Papillary urothelial neoplasm of low malignant potential (PUNLMP) (former WHO Grade 1):** A papillary urothelial tumor that resembles the exophytic urothelial papilloma, but shows increased cellular proliferation exceeding the thickness of normal urothelium.
- **Non-invasive low grade papillary urothelial carcinoma (former WHO Grade 2):** A neoplasm of urothelium lining papillary fronds that shows an orderly appearance, but easily recognizable variations in architecture and cytologic features.
- **Non-invasive high grade papillary urothelial carcinoma (former WHO Grade 3):** A neoplasm of urothelium lining papillary fronds that shows a predominant pattern of disorder with moderate to marked architectural and cytologic atypia.
- **Urothelial carcinoma in situ:** A non-papillary (i.e. flat) lesion in which the surface epithelium cells are cytologically malignant.

  - Tumors at the dome or anterior surface of the bladder have a worse prognosis than those at the base. Most tumors occur near the trigone.
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (additional dimensions optional)
- **Histologic Type:** Urothelial (transitional cell) carcinoma, adenocarcinoma, squamous cell carcinoma, other rare types.
- **Associated Epithelial Lesions:** Urothelial (transitional cell) papilloma, urothelial (transitional cell) papilloma, inverted type, papillary urothelial (transitional cell) neoplasm, low malignant potential
- **Histologic Grade:** Urothelial carcinoma: Low-grade, high-grade (Table 20-8)
  - Adenocarcinoma and squamous cell carcinoma: well differentiated, moderately differentiated, poorly differentiated
- **Tumor Configuration:** Papillary, solid/nodule, flat, ulcerated
- **Microscopic Tumor Extension:** Noninvasive papillary carcinoma (pTa), flat carcinoma in situ (pTis), tumor invades subepithelial connective tissue (lamina propria) (T1), tumor invades superficial muscularis propria (inner half) (pT2a), tumor invades deep muscularis propria (outer half) (pT2b), tumor invades perivesical tissue microscopically (pT3a), tumor invades perivesical tissue (an extravesical mass is present) (pT3b), tumor invades prostatic stroma, seminal vesicles, uterus, vagina (pT4a), tumor invades pelvic wall or abdominal wall (pT4b).
  - Also specify whether the carcinoma invades rectum or ureter. Carcinoma in situ may involve the prostatic urethra, ducts, and acini.
  - Distinguish invasion of muscularis mucosae from invasion of muscularis propria.
  - Extent of invasion: focal or extensive; depth in millimeters; by level—above, at, or below muscularis mucosae.
  - The depth of invasion in muscularis propria should not be staged in TURBT specimens. Adipose tissue is sometimes present in the lamina propria and muscularis propria, and involvement does not necessarily indicate extravesicular invasion.
- **Margins:** Uninvolved or involved, distance from closest margin, invasive carcinoma or in situ carcinoma.
  - Ureteral, urethral, soft tissue, invasion through to peritoneal surface
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Multiple Tumors:** Multiple tumors are common and if present predict a greater likelihood of tumor at other sites (ureter, renal pelvis) and recurrence; pagetoid spread of carcinoma in situ in urethral mucosa.
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Number of nodes examined, number with metastases, size of metastasis. Pelvic nodes are usually submitted separately. Nodes in the perivesical fat are also reported.
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Urothelial dysplasia (low-grade intraurothelial neoplasia), inflammation/regenerative changes, cystitis cystica glandularis, keratinizing squamous metaplasia, intestinal metaplasia, granulomatous cystitis, ulceration, therapy related changes
- **Prostate:** Normal, hyperplasia, PIN, carcinoma (report as for prostatectomies), invasion by bladder carcinoma
- **Vaginal Wall:** Normal, lesions
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 20-9). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

URETER

Ureters are rarely removed intentionally except as part of a radical cystectomy, radical nephrectomies for urothelial (transitional) cell carcinoma, or if there is a tumor present in the ureter. Almost all tumors of the ureter will be transitional cell carcinomas and are sometimes associated with HNPCC. The ureteropelvic junction is sometimes resected to relieve obstruction (see section later).

TABLE 20–9. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF URINARY BLADDER CARCINOMAS

Tumor	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Ta	Noninvasive papillary carcinoma
Tis	Carcinoma in situ: "flat tumor"
T1	Tumor invades subepithelial connective tissue
T2	Tumor invades muscularis propria
T2a	Tumor invades superficial muscularis propria (inner half)
T2b	Tumor invades deep muscularis propria (outer half)
T3	Tumor invades perivesical tissue
T3a	Microscopically
T3b	Macroscopically (extravesical mass)
T4	Tumor invades any of the following: prostatic stroma, seminal vesicles, uterus, vagina, pelvic wall, abdominal wall
T4a	Tumor invades prostatic stroma, uterus, or vagina
T4b	Tumor invades pelvic wall, abdominal wall
Regional Lymph Nodes	
NX	Lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No lymph node metastasis
N1	Single regional lymph node metastasis in the true pelvis (hypogastric, obturator, external iliac, or presacral lymph node)
N2	Multiple regional lymph node metastasis in the true pelvis (hypogastric, obturator, external iliac, or presacral lymph node)
N3	Lymph node metastasis to the common iliac lymph nodes
Regional lymph nodes include both primary and secondary drainage regions. All other nodes above the aortic bifurcation are considered distant lymph nodes.	
Distant Metastasis	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis

From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record the length and diameter (range if it varies). Palpate the specimen and determine if a lesion is present. The proximal and distal margins are taken as thin cross sections at either end of the specimen.
2. Carefully open the ureter longitudinally with a small pair of scissors and avoid cutting into any lesions. Examine the mucosal surface for any lesions. Urothelial (transitional) cell carcinoma usually looks like a soft tan/pink papillary mass on a stalk.
3. If a lesion is present, photograph the specimen. Ink the deep margin. Pin out on a paraffin board and fix overnight.
4. Section through the tumor looking for the deepest extent of invasion. If soft tissue is attached, look for lymph nodes.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** Up to four cassettes including greatest depth of invasion into the wall of the ureter and deep margin.
- **Margins:** Proximal and distal mucosal margins.
- **Ureter:** Submit at least one cassette of uninvolved ureter to look for additional lesions.
- **Lymph nodes:** Submit all lymph nodes.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR URETERAL TUMORS

- **Procedure**: Ureterectomy, nephroureterectomy (partial or complete)
- **Specimen Laterality:** Right, left
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (additional dimensions optional)
- **Histologic Type:** Urothelial (transitional cell) carcinoma (papillary or nonpapillary), rarely adenocarcinoma or squamous cell carcinoma. The WHO Classification is recommended.
- **Associated Epithelial Lesions:** Urothelial (transitional cell) papilloma, urothelial (transitional cell) papilloma, inverted type, papillary urothelial (transitional cell) neoplasm, low malignant potential
- **Histologic Grade:** Urothelial carcinoma: low grade, high grade (use the WHO/International Society of Urologic Pathology Classification)
  - Adenocarcinoma or squamous cell carcinoma: well differentiated, moderately differentiated, poorly differentiated
- **Tumor Configuration:** Papillary, solid/nodule, ulcerated, flat
- **Margins:** Uninvolved, involved, invasive or in situ carcinoma, distance to closest margin.
  - Ureteral, soft tissue margins
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Extent of Invasion:** Papillary noninvasive carcinoma (pTa), carcinoma in situ (Tis), tumor invades subepithelial connective tissue (lamina propria) (pT1), tumor invades the muscularis (pT2), tumor invades beyond muscularis into periureteric fat (pT3), tumor invades adjacent organs (pT4)
- **Multiple Tumors:** Multiple tumors are common and if present predict a greater likelihood of tumor at other sites (ureter, renal pelvis) and recurrence; pagetoid spread of carcinoma in situ in urethral mucosa.
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Absent (N0), present in one node ≤ 2 cm in size (N1), present in one node > 2 cm but ≤ 5 cm, or multiple nodes, none > 5 cm (N2), or present in a lymph node > 5 cm (N3).
  - Number of nodes examined, number with metastases, size of metastasis. Pelvic nodes are usually submitted separately.
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Urothelial carcinoma in situ, urothelial dysplasia (low-grade intraurothelial neoplasia), inflammation/regenerative changes, cystitis cystica glandularis, keratinizing squamous metaplasia, intestinal metaplasia, granulomatous cystitis, ulceration, therapy related changes.
  - If kidney is present: glomerular disease, tubulointerstitial disease, vascular disease, inflammation
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (see Table 20-6). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

URETEROPELVIC JUNCTION

Primary causes of ureteropelvic junction obstruction are usually congenital in origin and may be due to muscular bundle disarray or absence, increased collagen deposition, or abnormal anatomical location of the renal pelvis. The diagnosis of these lesions is histologically problematic, does not affect the treatment or prognosis of the patient, and should not be attempted except on a research basis.

In adults, secondary causes of obstruction such as papillary urothelial (transitional) cell carcinoma or external compression by metastatic carcinoma, as well as lesions unrelated to the obstruction such as urothelial dysplasia, must be excluded.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. The specimen may be funnel-shaped if unopened. Describe the length, diameter at both ends, thickness of wall, and the presence and size of any strictures. Open the specimen along the long axis.

If the specimen has been opened, it may look like a triangular fragment of mucosa. Describe the dimensions including the wall thickness.

2. Carefully examine the surface of the mucosa for any lesions or irregularities in texture. Examine the outer surface for any mass lesions, fibrosis.
3. Take sections along the long axis. Submit multiple sections in one cassette.

CALCULI (KIDNEY AND BLADDER)

Kidney and bladder calculi are submitted for chemical analysis.

- Phosphate stones: gray to gray/white and may be hard or soft
- Urate stones: yellow or brown, hard, and round to oval
- Cystine stones: yellow, hard, smooth, and have a waxy appearance
- Oxalate stones: hard and may be either multilobated or spiculated.

If bleeding has occurred the stones may be black or dark brown.

The specimen is described including number, color, shape (round, multilobated, spiculated), consistency (soft, hard), and dimensions (in aggregate and range of sizes). **Do not place in fixative!**

The unfixed specimen may be sent to a commercial laboratory for chemical analysis.

PROSTATE

Prostates are biopsied to evaluate nodules or to investigate an increased serum PSA. Transurethral resections of the prostate (TURP) are performed to relieve urinary obstruction, generally for benign disease. However, tumor may be found incidentally. Prostates are resected for tumor (radical prostatectomy) or less commonly for benign hyperplasia (suprapubic prostatectomy).

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE)

See Table 20-10.

TABLE 20–10. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY – PROSTATE

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR PROSTATE SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	PSA level
Purpose of the procedure	Results of prior biopsies
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	→ Radiation or hormonal treatment
Compromised immune system	

Needle Biopsy

Biopsies are usually thin, obtained using a "biopsy gun," and are processed as described in Chapter 13. Three levels are needed to detect significant lesions. If focal glandular atypia is found in the first three slides, additional levels may show prostatic carcinoma.[12-14]

It can be helpful to request intervening unstained slides between the H&E levels. If a difficult-to-classify glandular lesion is present, these slides can be used for immunoperoxidase studies (see "Immunoperoxidase Studies," "Prostate").

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR PROSTATE CARCINOMA DIAGNOSED ON NEEDLE BIOPSY

- **Histologic Type:** Adenocarcinoma, other rare types
- **Histologic Grade:** Primary (predominant pattern), secondary (worst remaining) pattern; total score (Gleason pattern)
- **Tumor Quantitation:** Number of cores with carcinoma and total number of cores
  - Proportion (percentage) of prostatic tissue involved by tumor and/or total linear millimeters of carcinoma/length of core
- **Periprostatic Fat Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Seminal Vesicle Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Perineural Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** High-grade prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia (PIN), atypical adenomatous hyperplasia (adenosis), inflammation (type)

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

Transurethral Resection of Prostate (TURP)

In this procedure, multiple fragments are curetted from the central transitional zone of the prostate in order to relieve obstruction. TURPs are performed less commonly than in the past due to advances in the non-surgical therapy of prostatic enlargement. The intent is not to diagnose cancer, as the majority of carcinomas (about 75%) arise in the unsampled peripheral zone.

Nevertheless, carcinoma is found in 7% to 8% of TURPs with limited sampling and 14% to 19% if the entire specimen is examined. The likelihood of finding cancer is 6.4% if preoperative PSA and digital rectal examination are negative, 11.9% to 15% if either are positive, and 43.9% if both are positive (Zigeuner). The majority (70% to 80%) are T1a (involving 5% or less of tissue) carcinomas and the remainder T1b (involving >5% of tissue).

The criteria for "clinically significant" prostate cancer have included extent, grade, and age of the patient, but there is no universally accepted definition. A quarter to a third of incidentally found prostate carcinomas will progress if followed for 10 years, but the selection of patients for treatment remains controversial.

Because the likelihood of finding incidental carcinoma varies according to how much tissue is examined, and the amount of tissue from a TURP may be quite large, studies have been undertaken to determine how much sampling is necessary.

In some studies, limited sampling has been effective in detecting all carcinomas defined to be clinically important. For example, examination of 6 grams of chips found all Stage A2 carcinomas.[15] Examination of 12 grams revealed 90% of the incidental carcinomas, including all of the clinically significant cancers (i.e., excluding small well differentiated Stage A1 cancers). However, in other studies 6% to 7% of the incidental cancers were high grade and could have been missed if the entire specimen had not been examined.[16,17]

CAP recommends examining specimens weighing 12 grams or less in their entirety (see www.cap.org). For larger specimens, the first 12 grams should be submitted (in 6 to 8 cassettes – in general

1 to 2 grams of tissue will fit in one cassette), with one more cassette for each additional 5 grams of tissue. If an unsuspected carcinoma is found involving <5% of tissue, the remaining tissue is generally submitted for examination.

If firm, yellow or yellow-orange chips are present, they should be submitted, as these chips are more likely to contain carcinoma.[18] Additional recommendations in the literature have been to submit the entire specimen in the following situations:

Patients <60 years of age (small low grade carcinomas may be more likely to become clinically significant in this group).

Patients with elevated PSA (may have centrally located carcinomas)

Each institution may develop its own policy for the extent of examination.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh the specimen. The easiest method is to weigh the entire container (without fixative) and subtract the weight of the container. Record the dimensions in aggregate. Describe the fragments including color (gray/tan = normal, yellow suggests tumor), consistency (rubbery = normal, hard suggests tumor), and all areas with a different appearance (e.g., necrosis, hemorrhage).
   Note: The yellow or yellow-orange color seen in association with carcinoma is best seen in unfixed tissue.
2. Submit the entire specimen if possible, up to 12 blocks. For larger specimens, the institutional protocol should be followed (see discussion). Additional sampling should be considered for patients with an elevated PSA or under the age of 60.
   If carcinoma is present on the initial slides, and involves <5% of tissue, all the remaining tissue is generally submitted.
3. Since carcinomas tend to be near the capsule, and the clinician may take smaller slices to avoid going through the capsule, smaller fragments may be more likely to contain carcinoma.
4. For cases with one to two cassettes, order two levels. For cases with three or more cassettes, order one level.

The proportion of prostatic tissue involved by tumor (≤5% or >5%) is reported. The number of chips with tumor and the number of total chips may also be reported. See the next section for reporting recommendations.

Suprapubic Prostatectomy or Retropubic Simple Prostatectomy (Enucleation) for Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia

These enucleation procedures are performed rather than a TURP if the prostate is very enlarged or if there are other contraindications for transurethral surgery (e.g., urethral disease, bladder diverticula). The specimen usually looks like a large apple with a wedge cut out of one side, but may come in two or more fragments. There are usually no orienting features. The entire prostate is not removed so margins are irrelevant.

As for TURP specimens, there is no consensus on the appropriate amount of sampling. From 4% to 13% of cases will reveal unsuspected carcinoma. A minimum of one cassette for each 5 grams of tissue has been suggested. CAP recommends submitting 8 cassettes. If an unsuspected carcinoma is found, and it involves <5% of tissue, additional blocks should be submitted.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh the entire specimen and aggregate dimensions. Serially section the specimen at 3 to 4 mm. If the urethra can be identified (usually it cannot) make the sections perpendicular to it.
2. Describe the parenchyma including color (white/tan, yellow, gray), consistency (firm, hard, soft, indurated), areas of necrosis or hemorrhage. Carcinomas may be more yellow and firmer than hyperplastic nodules.
3. Submit at least eight cassettes from different areas including (if recognizable) urethra, right and left lobes, and capsule and any areas suspicious for tumor.

The percent of tissue involved by carcinoma is reported. If a dominant nodule can be identified, the size should be given.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR PROSTATE CARCINOMA DIAGNOSED ON TURP OR ENUCLEATION SPECIMENS

- **Procedure:** Transurethral prostatic resection, enucleation (subtotal prostatectomy)
- **Specimen Size:** Give weight in grams or size for enucleation specimens
- **Histologic Type:** Adenocarcinoma, other rare types
- **Histologic Grade:** Primary (predominant pattern), secondary (worst remaining) pattern; total score (Gleason pattern)
- **Tumor Quantitation:** TURP specimens:
  - Proportion (percentage) of prostatic tissue involved by tumor or
  - Incidental finding in ≤5% of tissue (cT1a), or
  - Incidental finding in > 5% of tissue (cT1b), or
  - Number of positive chips/total chips
  - Enucleation specimens:
  - Proportion (percentage) of prostatic tissue involved by tumor
  - Tumor size (dominant nodule, if present), in centimeters
- **Periprostatic Fat Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Seminal Vesicle Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Perineural Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** High-grade prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia (PIN), atypical adenomatous hyperplasia (adenosis), inflammation (type), nodular prostatic hyperplasia

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

Radical Prostatectomy

Radical prostatectomies are performed after carcinoma has been documented. Numerous protocols for submitting tissue have been proposed ranging from submission of the entire specimen in whole mount specimens to limited sampling using standard slides.[19,20] Any method used should be designed to evaluate the extent of carcinoma, grade, stage, and margin status.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh the entire specimen and record the outer dimensions including prostate and seminal vesicles. Orient the specimen (Fig. 20-3) to identify right and left, anterior and posterior, superior and inferior. It may be helpful to place a probe through the urethra. Note any unusual appearance to the prostatic capsule, which is normally relatively smooth (irregular areas may indicate tumor invasion or incomplete surgical excision).
2. Ink the right and left halves of the specimen different colors, including the soft tissue around the seminal vesicles and ductus deferentia.
3. Amputate each seminal vesicle and submit the basal section of each one at the junction with the prostate (RSV and LSV). Carcinomas may penetrate the prostatic capsule at the base and invade through adipose tissue and into the seminal vesicle in this area.
4. The bladder neck base margin (also referred to as the proximal urethral margin [PUM]) surrounds the prostatic urethra nearest the seminal vesicles on the superior surface. This margin is cut perpendicular to the urethra as thin (0.7 cm) shaved wedges. This margin is cut perpendicular to the initial cut and submitted on edge (RPUM and LPUM). The right and left sides are submitted separately.

   The apex (also referred to as the distal urethral margin - DUM) is cut perpendicular to the urethra as a thin (0.7 cm) shave margin. This margin is cut perpendicular to the initial cut and submitted on edge. The right and left sides are submitted separately (RDUM and LDUM).
5. Section the remaining prostate at 5 mm intervals using cuts perpendicular to the urethral axis. Alternate sections are quartered and submitted from apex (= slice #1) to base. Each cassette should be coded

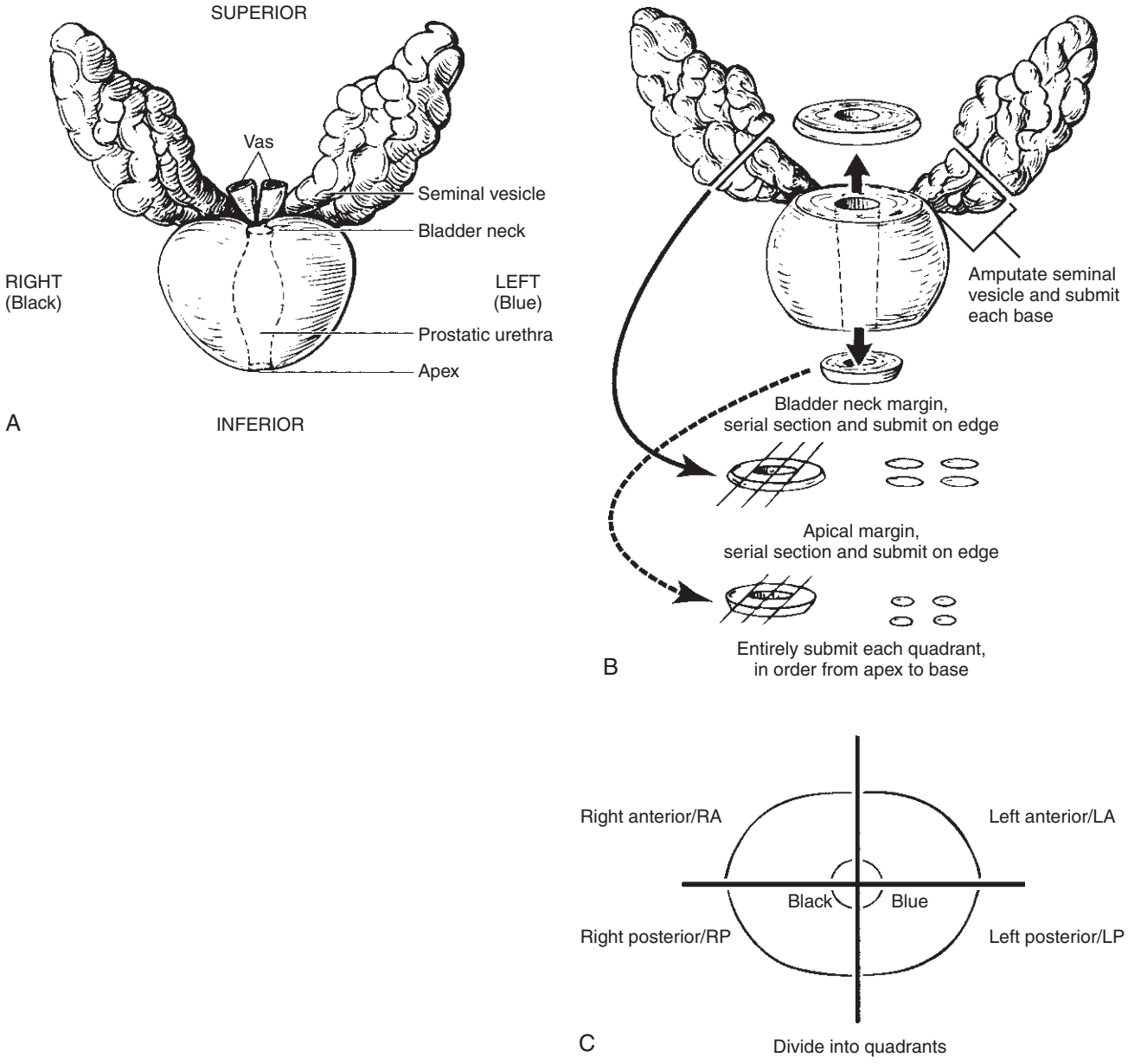

Figure 20–3. Radical prostatectomy. **A**, Orientation. **B**, Margins and seminal vesicles. **C**, Quadrants.

as to the slice number (e.g., "1," "3," "5"), right vs. left, and anterior vs. posterior (e.g., 1RA, 1RP, 1LA, 1LP).

Examine each slice for the presence of gross lesions (see below). Note the location of any lesions (ant/post, right/left, superior/inferior), color, extension to capsule or other structures, and their size. However, many tumors are small (due to the effects of screening) and are not detectable grossly.

Describe the remainder of the parenchyma including color, consistency, and nodularity. If a gross lesion is present, a photograph should be taken.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Adenocarcinoma. Prostate carcinoma is the most difficult malignancy to detect grossly because of the underlying firmness of the normal or hyperplastic gland, the small size of many tumors, and the tendency of many tumors to infiltrate into and around normal tissue or to grow in a nodular pattern mimicking normal parenchyma.

The majority of carcinomas (about 75%) are located in the posterior peripheral zone. It is helpful to look for smooth solid areas with effacement of the normal spongy or cystic appearance or an area where the capsule appears to be effaced. An asymmetry of the right and left posterior lobes may indicate the location of a tumor. Tumors may have a slightly different color (sometimes yellow), but often do not. Palpation may be helpful in fresh tissues (carcinomas may be firm or gritty and less spongy than normal tissue), but is not helpful after fixation. Even experienced pathologists cannot identify at least 50% of prostate carcinomas grossly.

Historical data may be helpful. Prior biopsy reports may indicate location (i.e., right vs. left). Lesions diagnosed by needle biopsy and/or as a palpable mass are most likely located in the posterior portion of the gland. Lesions diagnosed by TURP specimens are often located centrally or anteriorly.

Nodular Hyperplasia (Benign Prostatic Hypertrophy or Hyperplasia). The gland is diffusely enlarged due to centrally located nodules of variable size. The nodules may be soft and tan/pink and exude prostatic fluid or be firm and gray with a whorled appearance. The nodules often encroach laterally on the prostatic urethra. The peripheral zone may appear compressed.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Lesions:** Make sure all sections can be identified as either the right lobe or the left lobe (right inked black, left inked blue, and designate in cassette code). Submit lesions in their entirety.
- **Grossly normal prostate:** Submit alternate sections.
- **Margins:** Submit bladder neck margin and apical margin (see Fig. 20-3 for details).
- **Seminal vesicle:** Submit one section from the base of each vesicle.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "prostate," is a 52 gram radical prostatectomy specimen that measures 6 cm right to left, 5.5 cm anterior to posterior, and 4.7 cm superior to inferior. The right seminal vesicle measures 1.5 × 0.8 × 0.4 cm and the left seminal vesicle measures 1.7 × 0.6 × 0.4 cm. The right side of the prostate is inked in black, the left side in blue. The external surface of the prostate is smooth. There are multiple nodules grossly consistent with benign prostatic hyperplasia located centrally, the largest of which measures 1 × 1 × 0.5 cm. There is a 0.9 × 0.5 × 0.5 cm grey/yellow mass in the right posterior lobe that may represent tumor that does not extend across the midline. This lesion is within 0.1 cm of the posterior margin, but is not grossly present at the margins. The prostate is sectioned into 5 slices. Alternate slices are submitted completely from apex (slice #1) to base (slice #5) for histologic examination. The remainder of the tissue is saved for the tumor bank.

Cassette 1: RSV, RSS, 1 frag.
Cassette 2: LSV, RSS, 1 frag.
Cassette 3: RPUM, ESS, 5 frags.
Cassette 4: LPUM, ESS, 6 frags.
Cassette 5: RDUM, ESS, 1 frag.
Cassette 6: LDUM, ESS, 1 frag.
Cassette 7: 1 RA, ESS, 1 frag.
Cassette 8: 1 LA, ESS, 1 frag.
Cassette 9: 1 RP, ESS, 1 frag.
Cassette 10: 1 LP, ESS, 1 frag.
Cassette 11: 3 RA, ESS, 1 frag.
Cassette 12: 3 LA, ESS, 1 frag.
Cassette 13: 3 RP, ESS, 1 frag.
Cassette 14: 3 LP, ESS, 1 frag.
Cassette 15: 5 RA, ESS, 1 frag.
Cassette 16: 5 LA, ESS, 1 frag.
Cassette 17, 5 RP, ESS, 1 frag.
Cassette 18: 5 LP, ESS, 1 frag.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR PROSTATE CARCINOMAS IN RADICAL PROSTECTOMY SPECIMENS

- **Procedure:** Radical prostatectomy
- **Prostate Size:** Give weight and size in three dimensions
- **Lymph Node Sampling:** Pelvic lymph node dissection, no lymph node excision
- **Histologic Type:** Adenocarcinoma (acinar type), prostatic duct adenocarcinoma, mucinous (colloid) adenocarcinoma, signet ring cell carcinoma, adenosquamous carcinoma, others
- **Histologic Grade:** Primary (predominant pattern), secondary (worst remaining) pattern; total score (Gleason pattern)
  - Gleason score is not used for carcinomas that have been treated.
- **Tumor Quantitation:** Proportion (%) of prostate involved by tumor
  - Tumor size (dominant nodule, if present), in cm
  - Number of blocks with tumor
  - Various methods are used, some requiring submission of the entire gland and image analysis (Humphrey PA, Vollmer RT. Percentage carcinoma as a measure of prostatic tumor size in radical prostatectomy tissues. Mod Pathol 10:326-333, 1997). The greatest dimension of tumor on the glass slides can be used to predict tumor volume (Renshaw AA, Chang H, D'Amico AV. Estimation of tumor volume in radical prostatectomy specimen in routine clinical practice. Am J Clin Pathol 107:704-708, 1997; Renshaw AA, Richie JP, Loughlin KR, et al. The greatest dimension of prostate carcinoma is a simple, inexpensive predictor of prostate specific antigen failure in radical prostatectomy specimens. Cancer 83:748-752, 1998).
- **Extraprostatic Extension:** Not identified, present. If present:
  - Focal (site), nonfocal (established extensive, site)
  - Unifocal or multifocal (extensive): The extent of extraprostatic invasion is of prognostic value. Extraprostatic invasion may be defined as "focal" (≤ 1HPF on ≤2 slides) or "nonfocal" (any degree of invasion more than focal).
  - Defined as tumor beyond the confines of the prostatic gland:
    - Tumor abutting on or admixed with fat
    - Tumor involving perineural spaces in neurovascular bundles beyond the prostate
    - Tumor beyond the confines of the normal glandular prostate (anterior prostate and bladder neck). However, a T4 designation usually requires gross involvement of the bladder neck.
  - Skeletal muscle is present at the apex. Carcinoma in skeletal muscle at this site does not constitute extraprostatic extension.
  - The prostatic capsule is ill defined and incomplete. Carcinomas typically extend along the periphery of the posterior lobes. Only unequivocal extraprostatic extension into adjacent adipose tissue should be diagnosed as extraprostatic extension.
- **Seminal Vesicle Invasion:** Not identified, present (invasion of muscular wall), or no seminal vesicle present
  - Invasion must be into the muscular wall vesicle (invasion into the adventitia but not the wall does not qualify as invasion into the seminal vesicle)
- **Margins:** Not identified, present, location (apical—the most inferior portion of the prostate), bladder neck, anterior, lateral, posterolateral (neurovascular bundle), posterior, other
  - Unifocal or multifocal, extent (e.g., focal or extensive, number of blocks, linear millimeters)
  - Positive margins are defined as ink on tumor cells. Close margins (without ink on tumor cells) are reported as negative. A margin may be positive without the presence of extraprostatic invasion.
  - Benign glands at the margin may be reported.
- **Treatment Effect:** No prior treatment, no effect present, radiation therapy effect, hormonal therapy effect
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Perineural Invasion:** Not identified, present, within or outside the capsule. Perineural invasion is a common finding, and there is not a universal consensus as to its significance within the capsule.
- **Extent of Invasion:** Unilateral, involving one half of one lobe or less (T2a), unilateral involving more than one half of one lobe (T2b), involving both lobes (T2c), extension beyond the prostate or microscopic invasion of bladder neck (T3a), extension into seminal vesicle (T3b), invasion of rectum, levator muscles, and/or pelvic wall (T4)
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Present or absent, number of involved nodes, number of nodes examined

TABLE 20–11. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF PROSTATE TUMORS

TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
T1	Clinically inapparent tumor neither palpable nor visible by imaging
T1a	Tumor incidental histologic finding in 5% or less of tissue resected
T1b	Tumor incidental histologic finding in more than 5% of tissue resected
T1c	Tumor identified by needle biopsy (e.g., because of elevated PSA). Includes tumors found in both lobes by needle biopsy.
pT2	Tumor confined within the prostate*
pT2a	Unilateral, one half of one side or less
pT2b	Unilateral, involving more than one half of one side but not both sides
pT2c	Bilateral disease
pT3	Extraprostatic extension
pT3a	Extraprostatic extension or microscopic invasion of bladder neck†
pT3b	Seminal vesicle invasion
pT4	Invasion of rectum, levator muscles, and/or pelvic wall
*Tumor found in one or both lobes by needle biopsy, but not palpable or reliably visible by imaging, is classified as T1c. †Positive surgical margin should be indicated by an R1 descriptor (residual microscopic disease)	
Regional Lymph Nodes	
NX	Regional nodes not sampled
N0	No positive regional nodes
N1	Metastases in regional node(s)
Distant Metastasis*	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
M1a	Nonregional lymph node(s)
M1b	Bone(s)
M1c	Other site(s) with or without bone disease
*When more than one site of metastasis is present, the most advanced category is used. pM1c is most advanced. Note: This classification system does not apply to sarcomas or urothelial (transitional) cell carcinomas. Urothelial (transitional) cell carcinomas of the prostate should be classified as urethral tumors.	

- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** High-grade prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia (PIN), inflammation (type), atypical adenomatous hyperplasia (adenosis), nodular prostatic hyperplasia
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 20-11). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are

considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

GLEASON GRADING OF PROSTATIC ADENOCARCINOMAS

The two predominant patterns are graded from one to five and added together to derive a Gleason's score (Fig. 20-4 and Table 20-12). If there is only one pattern, the same grade is duplicated. The score and the grade should be reported with the predominant grade listed first (e.g., Gleason score 7 [3+4] or Gleason score 7 [4+3]).

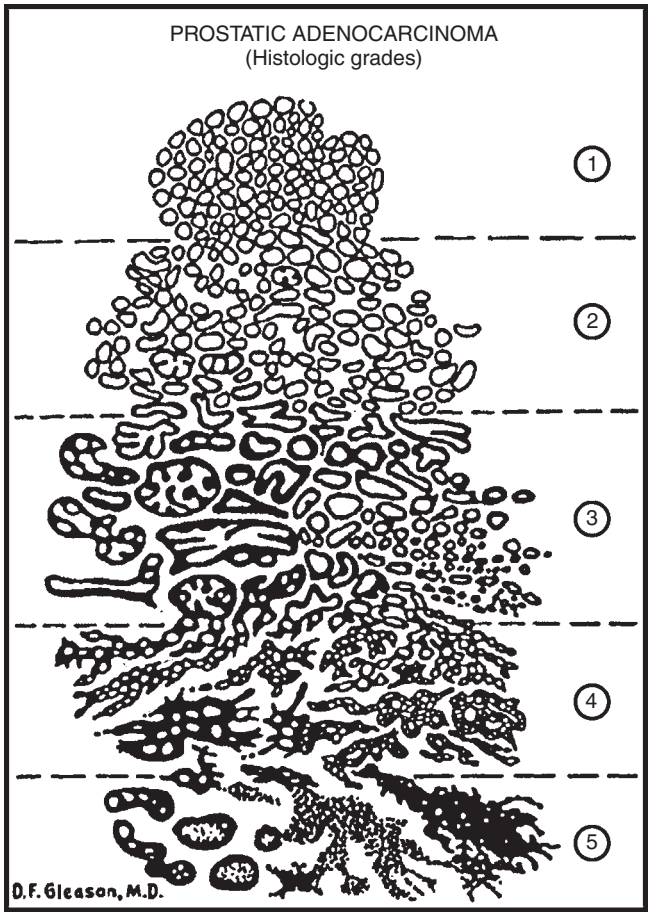

Figure 20–4. Gleason grade. *(Image from Gleason DF: Histologic grading of prostate cancer: A perspective. Hum Pathol 23:273-279, 1992; text from Epstein JI, Allsbrook WC Jr, Amin MB, Egevad LL; ISUP Grading Committee: The 2005 International Society of Urological Pathology (ISUP) Consensus Conference on Gleason grading of prostatic carcinoma, Am J Surg Pathol 29:1228-1242, 2005.)*

TABLE 20–12. GLEASON SCORE

2-4	Well differentiated
5-6	Moderately differentiated
7	Moderately poorly differentiated
8-10	Poorly differentiated

Data from Gleason DF: Histologic grading of prostate cancer: A perspective. Hum Pathol 23:273-279, 1992.

In core needle biopsies, when more than two patterns are present, and the highest grade is not the predominant or second most common grade, the predominant pattern and the highest grade are used to derive a score. For example, if 70% of the carcinoma is grade 3, 20% grade 2, and 10% grade 4, this would be reported as Gleason score 7 (3+4). If more than one tumor of different grade is found in a prostatectomy specimen, the grade of each should be reported.

If Gleason pattern 5 is present as a tertiary pattern, this finding should be reported (e.g., "Gleason score 7 [3 + 4] with tertiary Gleason pattern 5").

In current practice, Gleason grade 1 carcinomas are vanishingly rare and grade 2 carcinomas are uncommon. Carcinomas are not graded if there has been prior treatment.[24,25]

TESTIS

Biopsies are usually performed for the evaluation of infertility. Unilateral orchiectomies are performed to resect tumors (almost all germ cell tumors). Retroperitoneal lymph node dissections for testicular carcinoma require special evaluation (see below). Bilateral orchiectomies are sometimes performed for the treatment of prostate carcinoma.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY

See Table 20-13.

TABLE 20–13. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY – TESTIS

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR TESTICULAR SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Cryptorchidism (with or without prior orchiopexy)
Purpose of the procedure	Retroperitoneal or para-aortic lymphadenectomy
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	Prior contralateral testicular tumor, prior ipsilateral intratubular germ cell neoplasia
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	
Prior surgery/biopsies – results	Serum levels of alpha-fetoprotein (AFP) and human chorionic gonadotropin (β-hCG)
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	Gynecomastia (more frequently associated with sex cord/stromal tumors than with germ cell tumors)
Compromised immune system	Intersex syndrome (e.g., ambiguous genitalia or feminization)

Biopsy for Infertility

Bouin's is the preferred fixative. The yellow/tan tubules of the testicular parenchyma can be identified grossly. The entire specimen is submitted. Order 2 H&E, trichrome, elastic stain, and PAS to aid in the evaluation of basement membranes.

In lesions in which some spermatogenesis is seen (Box 20-2, categories 3 and 4, rarely 5), count the spermatids in selected (10 to 20) tubules and derive an average spermatid per tubular cross section count. Count all small, elongated, compact oval nuclei (these cells have no tails yet). Then use Figure 20-5 to calculate the predicted sperm count and report this number as well. 100×10^6 sperm/cc is considered a normal count.

Unilateral Orchiectomy for Tumor

Germ cell tumors are the most common tumors of the testis; they are readily locally controlled but often metastasize.

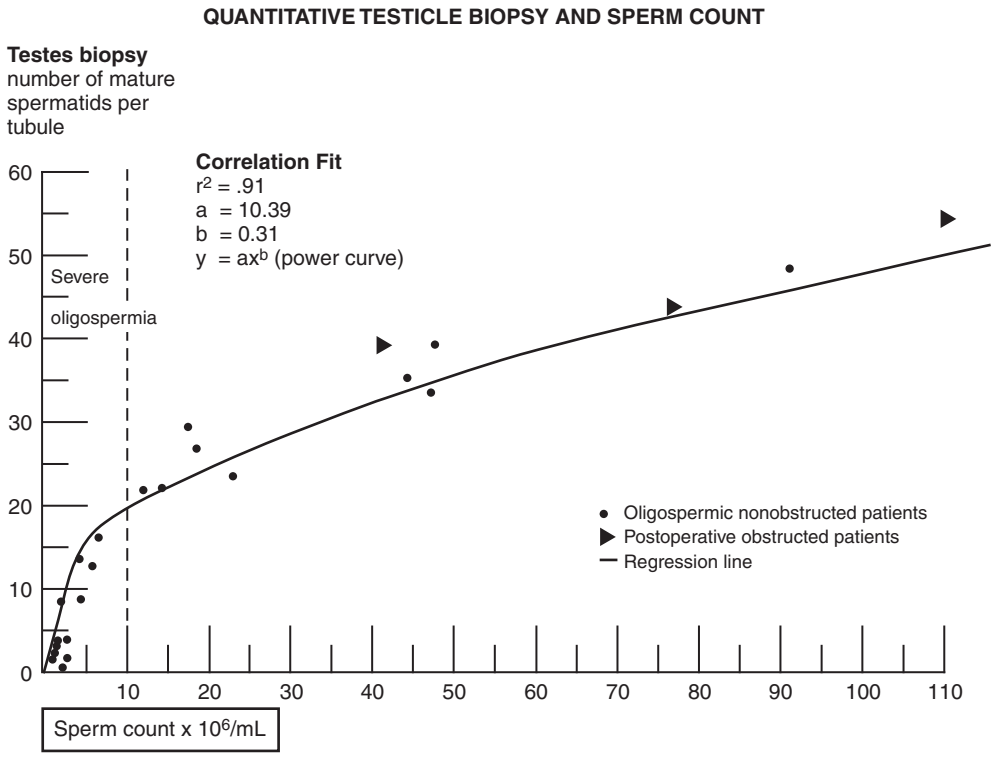

Figure 20–5. Correlation between the number of mature spermatids per tubule and the sperm counts. *(From Silber SJ, Rodriguez-Rigau LJ: Quantitative analysis of testicle biopsy: determination of partial obstruction and prediction of sperm count after surgery for obstruction, Fertil Steril 36:480-485, 1981.)*

BOX 20–2. Histologic patterns in testicular biopsies

1. Normal
2. Prepubertal
3. Sloughing
4. Hypospermatogenesis
5. Spermatogenic arrest
6. Sertoli only
7. Hyalinized

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh the specimen and record the dimensions of the testis (three dimensions), epididymis (three dimensions), and spermatic cord (length and diameter).

2. Remove the proximal resection margin of the spermatic cord and place in a labeled cassette. Note: The vas deferens often retracts. Try to find the end of the vas by looking for a thin firm white tubular structure.

Section through the remainder of the cord, looking for gross evidence of tumor spread.

Note: Some germ cell tumors (particularly seminoma or necrotic tumors) are very loosely cohesive and are easily smeared on to other areas of the specimen. It is preferred to take the margin before cutting into the tumor. True margin involvement is rare and will usually be evident on gross examination.

3. The tunica vaginalis is a closed peritoneal sac surrounding the front and sides of the testis and extends upward over the spermatic cord. It should not be adherent to the tunica albuginea away from the cord, unless there is tumor invasion or infiltration. Any areas of adherence should be noted. Open the sac along the anterior border.

The testis is surrounded by the thick white tunica albuginea. The epididymis is posterior and in continuity with the spermatic cord. Bisect the testis parallel to, and through, the epididymis. Additional cuts can be made parallel to this plane.

Describe any lesions including size, color, consistency, variegation (it is very important to sample all areas with a different gross appearance), hemorrhage or necrosis. Determine if tumor extends through the tunica albuginea or into the epididymis. Invasion most commonly occurs at the junction of the testis and the epididymis.

Describe the remainder of the testicular parenchyma including color (tan/yellow), consistency (stringy). The normal seminiferous tubules can be demonstrated grossly by gently teasing them out with a forceps.

4. Take sections of all lesions, including all areas of different gross appearance, and relationship to tunica vaginalis and epididymis. Take one section of uninvolved testis.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Seminomas. (40% of germ cell tumors) are usually solid homogeneous light-yellow to tan fleshy nodules that often have sharply circumscribed areas of necrosis. Cystic areas or hemorrhage are unusual and may indicate that another type of germ cell tumor is present. Some patients have elevated serum HCG (10% to 25%) due to the presence of syncytiotrophoblast cells. AFP is usually normal.

Embryonal Carcinomas are firm with a more heterogeneous gray/white coloration and may have areas of hemorrhage and necrosis.

Choriocarcinomas are often small, gray/white, and usually very hemorrhagic and necrotic. Almost all patients will have elevated serum HCG.

Teratomas (4% to 5% of germ cell tumors) are usually cystic or multiloculated and often have grossly evident cartilaginous differentiation. 57% are mature and 43% immature. Fat and bone may be present. Immature teratomas may grossly resemble brain tissue. 90% are associated with ITGCN. Teratomas are aneuploid and have the i(12p) characteristic of other germ cell tumors.

Dermoid and Epidermoid Cysts can be benign and are not associated with ITGCN.

Endodermal Sinus Tumors (yolk sac) are rarely seen in a pure form in adults, and are usually not evident grossly if a minor component. Pure tumors in children under 2 years of age may have a soft, gelatinous, microcystic appearance and be pale tan or yellow. Larger tumors may be focally necrotic. Almost all patients have elevated serum AFP.

Regressed Germ Cell Tumors may consist of a small fibrous scar or area of calcification. If a patient has a known metastatic germ cell tumor, and a gross lesion cannot be found, the entire testis should be examined histologically.

Leydig Cell Tumors are well circumscribed or lobulated and yellow, tan, or brown. Hemorrhage and necrosis are uncommon.

Sertoli Cell Tumors are gray/white, firm, and circumscribed.

Lymphomas are rare, usually seen in older males, and are usually part of more generalized involvement (i.e., not solely present in testis). The testis is diffusely enlarged by homogeneous fleshy gray/creamy white tissue that may be multinodular. About half of cases also involve epididymis or spermatic cord. Tissue is taken for hematopathologic studies (see Chapter 27).

Acute and Chronic Leukemias frequently involve the testes. The tumors may closely resemble a seminoma with a creamy yellow to white homogeneous appearance. The testis is a frequent site of relapse after treatment of leukemia due to decreased penetration of chemotherapy.

Pediatric Germ Cell Tumors are more commonly endodermal sinus tumors or teratomas and the behavior may be different from that observed in adults.[26] Cytogenetic studies may be useful as the genetic changes have been reported to be different from those observed in adults and may predict different behavior. Tissue for EM and snap-freezing is not used routinely for diagnosis but may be saved for possible studies in unusual cases.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** 4 to 10 cassettes demonstrating all types of gross appearances including all hemorrhagic and necrotic areas. In general, at least one cassette per 1 cm of greatest dimension should be examined. Include sections demonstrating relationship to tunica vaginalis and near the base of the epididymis (this is the most common site to find tumor invasion outside the testis).

If serum β-HCG is increased in the absence of Leydig cell hyperplasia or choriocarcinoma, take more samples to look for choriocarcinoma.

If serum alpha-fetoprotein is increased and yolk sac carcinoma is not seen, sample more to look for possible yolk sac carcinoma.

- **Testis:** One cassette of uninvolved testis and epididymis. A section of the rete testis is needed for staging.
- **Spermatic cord:** Resection margin, representative sections from center of cord, representative sections from peritesticular cord.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "right testis" is a 30 gm orchiectomy specimen including testis (4.5 × 4 × 4 cm), epididymis (1 × 1 × 0.5), and spermatic cord (9 cm in length × 1.5 cm in diameter). There is a 3 × 2 × 2 cm tan/white firm circumscribed mass with focal areas of hemorrhage and necrosis and small (0.2 cm) cystic spaces within the testis. The tumor does not grossly extend into the tunica albuginea or into the epididymis. The remainder of the testicular parenchyma is brown/tan with grossly normal tubules present. The spermatic cord consists of vas deferens, arteries, and veins, and is grossly unremarkable.

Cassettes #1-2: Tumor with homogeneous appearance, 3 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #3-4: Tumor with necrosis and hemorrhage, 3 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #5-6: Tumor with small cystic areas, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #7: Tumor and tunica vaginalis, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #8: Tumor and epididymis, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #9: Uninvolved adjacent testis, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #10: Spermatic cord, resection margin, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassette #11: Spermatic cord, mid section, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #12: Spermatic cord, peri-testicular, 1 frag, RSS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR TESTICULAR TUMORS

- **Serum Tumor Markers:** Unknown, normal, alpha-fetoprotein (AFP) elevation, beta-subunit of human chorionic gonadotropin (β-hCG) elevation, lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) elevation
  If the serum markers are elevated and a histologic correlate is not found (i.e., yolk sac for AFP or choriocarcinoma or Leydig cell hyperplasia for β-hCG) additional tumor sampling may be helpful.
- **Specimen Laterality:** Right, left, both
- **Tumor Focality:** Unifocal, multifocal
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension of main tumor (additional dimensions are optional), greatest dimension of additional tumor nodules. Seminomas > 4 cm in size have an increased risk for recurrence.
- **Extent of Tumor:** Rete testis, epididymis, hilar fat, spermatic cord, tunica vaginalis (perforates mesothelium), scrotal wall
  - Intratubular germ cell neoplasia (Tis), limited to testis (including rete testis and epididymis) without vascular/lymphatic invasion (tumor may invade tunica albuginea but not tunica vaginalis) (T1), tumor with vascular/lymphatic invasion or extension through tunica albuginea with involvement of tunica vaginalis (T2), tumor invades spermatic cord (T3), tumor invades scrotum (T4).
  - Rete testis involvement (extension of tumor into testicular mediastinum without necessarily involving tubular lumens) is associated with increased risk for recurrence for seminoma (see Warde P, et al, Prognostic factors for relapse in stage I seminoma managed by surveillance: a pooled analysis. J Clin Oncol 20:4448-4452, 2002).
  - Involvement of parenchyma beyond the area of the main tumor mass may also be of prognostic importance for seminoma.

- **Histologic Type:** Seminoma (classic type or with syncytiotrophoblastic cells), seminoma associated with a scar, teratoma, embryonal carcinoma, choriocarcinoma, endodermal sinus (yolk sac) tumor, intratubular germ cell neoplasia, sex cord stromal tumors, others. Include the presence of syncytiotrophoblasts.
  - Many tumors are of mixed types. The proportion of each type is given.
- **Margins:** Spermatic cord, parietal layer of tunica vaginalis, scrotal skin
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Absent or present, number of involved nodes (number of nodes examined), size of metastasis (< 2, < 5 cm, < 10 cm), presence of extranodal invasion
  - If prior treatment has been given, see the section on "Retroperitoneal Lymph Node Dissection for Testicular Carcinoma."
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Intratubular germ cell neoplasia, atrophy, fibrosis, hemosiderin-laden macrophages and intratubular calcifications (possibly regressed tumor), spermatogenesis present or absent, Leydig cell hyperplasia (may be associated with β-hCG elevation), Sertoli cells, abnormal testicular development (e.g., due to dysgenesis or androgen-insensitivity syndrome)
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 20-14). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.
  - The Modified Royal Marsden staging system may be used for classification of pure seminomas.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

Retroperitoneal Lymph Node Dissection for Testicular Carcinoma

Often these procedures are performed following chemotherapy. Therefore, much of the tissue may be hemorrhagic, cystic, and/or necrotic. In such cases, it is especially important to take many sections to document the presence or absence of *viable* residual high-grade tumor (embryonal carcinoma, endodermal sinus tumor, or choriocarcinoma). The size of the largest lymph node metastasis (or confluent area of tumor involvement) and number of involved lymph nodes is recorded.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR RETROPERITONEAL LYMPHADENECTOMY FOR TESTICULAR TUMORS

- **Prelymphadenectomy Treatment:** None, chemotherapy, radiation therapy
- **Serum Tumor Markers:** Unknown, within normal limits, AFP elevation, β-hCG elevation, LDH elevation

  If the serum markers are elevated and a histologic correlate is not found (i.e., yolk sac for AFP or choriocarcinoma or Leydig cell hyperplasia for β-hCG), additional tumor sampling may be helpful.
- **Specimen Site(s):** Nodal groups
- **Number of Nodal Groups Present:** Give number
- **Size of Largest Metastasis:** Greatest dimension (additional dimensions optional)
- **Histologic Viability of Tumor:** No tumor present, viable teratoma present, viable nonteratomatous tumor present
- **Histologic Type of Metastatic Tumor**: Same as for testicular tumors
- **AJCC Classification:** Number of nodes with metastases, number of nodes examined, size of largest metastatic deposit
- **Nonregional Lymph Node Metastasis:** Not identified, present

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

TABLE 20–14. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF TESTICULAR TUMORS

Tumor					
pTX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.				
pT0	No evidence of primary tumor (e.g., histologic scar in testis)				
pTis	Intratubular germ cell neoplasia (carcinoma in situ)				
pT1	Tumor limited to the testis and epididymis without vascular/lymphatic invasion; tumor may invade into the tunica albuginea but not the tunica vaginalis				
pT2	Tumor limited to the testis and epididymis with vascular/lymphatic invasion, or tumor extending through the tunica albuginea with involvement of the tunica vaginalis				
pT3	Tumor invades the spermatic cord with or without vascular/lymphatic invasion				
pT4	Tumor invades the scrotum with or without vascular/lymphatic invasion				
Regional Lymph Nodes					
pNX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.				
pN0	No regional lymph node metastasis				
pN1	Metastasis with a lymph node mass, ≤ 2 cm in greatest dimension and ≤ 5 nodes positive, none > 2 cm in greatest dimension				
pN2	Metastasis with a lymph node mass, > 2 but ≤ 5 cm in greatest dimension; or more than 5 nodes positive, none ≤ 5 cm; or evidence of extranodal extension of tumor				
pN3	Metastasis with a lymph node mass > 5 cm in greatest dimension				
Note: Regional lymph nodes include interaortocaval, para-aortic (peri-aortic), paracaval, preaortic, precaval, retroaortic, and retrocaval. Intrapelvic, external iliac, and inguinal nodes are considered regional only after scrotal or inguinal surgery before the presentation of the testis tumor. Laterality does not affect N classification.					
Serum Tumor Markers					
SX	Marker studies not available or not performed				
S0:	Marker study levels within normal limits				
	LDH		**HCG (mIU/mL)**		**AFP (ng/mL)**
S1	< 1.5 × N	and	< 5000	and	< 1000
S2	1.5-10 × N	or	5000-50,000	or	1000-10,000
S3	> 10 × N	or	> 50,000	or	> 10,000
*N indicates the upper limit of normal for the LDH assay.					
Metastasis					
M0	No distant metastasis				
M1	Distant metastasis				
M1a	Nonregional nodal or pulmonary metastasis				
M1b	Distant metastasis other than to nonregional lymph nodes and lung				
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.					

Bilateral Simple Orchiectomy – Non-tumor

Bilateral orchiectomies are sometimes performed for the treatment of prostate cancer. A unilateral simple orchiectomy may be performed for torsion.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh each testis and record the measurements of the testis and spermatic cord (length and diameter), if present.
2. Make a single incision through the testis. If focal lesions are present, follow the protocol above for tumors. If no lesions are present, describe the parenchyma (soft, yellow/tan), look for the presence of tubules, capsule (smooth, white).
3. Submit one representative section of each testis.

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21 Gross Examination

Certain specimens do not require submission for histologic examination. These specimens include inanimate objects (that cannot be examined under the microscope) as well as tissue specimens that do not yield useful diagnostic information.

Each hospital must develop guidelines and policies for the types of specimens not to be examined histologically. The following factors should be considered:

- The likelihood of a clinically significant finding.
- The need for documentation of surgical procedures for quality assurance.
- Educational value for doctors in training.
- Potential medicolegal issues.

In accordance with JCAHO guidelines and CAP,[1] there can be an exception to mandatory submission of tissue when the following conditions are met:

- The quality of health care is not compromised by the exemption.
- Another suitable means of verification of removal is in place.
- There is an operative note or other official report that documents tissue removal.

These decisions are made by consensus of the hospital staff, including pathologists, and are put in writing. All clinicians should be informed as to the types of specimens that are not examined routinely in order that a specific request can be made in those cases in which microscopic examination is indicated.

A Q-Probes study by CAP revealed that 87.1% of institutions had written policies concerning specimens to be examined by gross examination only.[2] Only four tissue specimens were exempt from submission to the pathology department in more than 50% of institutions:

1. Placentas from routine uncomplicated pregnancies that were grossly normal
2. Foreskins from the circumcision of newborn children
3. Lens cataracts
4. Teeth

There were five types of tissue specimens that were exempt from microscopic examination in more than 50% of institutions:

1. Calculi (renal, ureteral, bladder)
2. Teeth
3. Lens cataracts
4. Cartilage and bone from septorhinoplasty
5. Toenails and fingernails

Thus, most institutions continue to examine most specimens grossly and microscopically.

INANIMATE OBJECTS GENERALLY NOT EXAMINED MICROSCOPICALLY

- Orthopedic hardware (see specific section in Chapter 28)
- Foreign bodies (see specific section in Chapter 28)
- Bullets (see specific section in Chapter 28)
- Gallstones (see specific section in Chapter 19)
- Bladder stones (usually sent for chemical analysis, see specific section in Chapter 20)
- Silicone implants (see specific section in Chapter 15)
- Vascular grafts may be submitted for histologic examination (see in Chapter 16, “Vascular Grafts”).

TISSUE SPECIMENS GENERALLY EXAMINED GROSSLY BUT NOT MICROSCOPICALLY

- Teeth without attached soft tissue
- Skin from plastic surgery reconstruction if the surgeon does not request examination, no lesions are present, and there is no history of malignancy.
- Skin with cicatrix (if there is no history of malignancy)
- Rib (as part of a resection if there is no history of malignancy and no gross lesions)
- Nasal septum (if part of a plastic surgery procedure or for chronic sinusitis)
- Stapes (removed to treat otosclerosis)
- Tonsils from children for hyperplasia without gross lesions
- Foreskins from newborns
- Saphenous vein harvest for CABG
- Placentas from routine pregnancies
- Fetuses from therapeutic abortions (if there is no clinical indication for examination)
- Finger and toenails (if there is no clinical indication for examination)
- Lens (if removed for cataracts)
- Pannus or bowel resections for treatment of obesity if grossly normal

SPECIMENS THAT INSTITUTIONS MAY CHOOSE TO EXCLUDE FROM MANDATORY SUBMISSION TO THE PATHOLOGY DEPARTMENT

- Bone donated to a bone bank
- Bone fragments removed as part of reconstructive orthopedic procedures
- Cataracts removed by phacoemulsification
- Dental appliances
- Fat removed by liposuction
- Foreign bodies that are medicolegal evidence that are released directly to law enforcement personnel
- Foreskin from the circumcision of newborns
- IUDs without soft tissue
- Medical devices such as catheters, gastrostomy tubes, myringotomy tubes, stents, and sutures that have not contributed to patient illness, injury, or death
- Middle ear ossicles
- Orthopedic hardware and other devices if there is an alternative policy to document their surgical removal
- Placentas from uncomplicated pregnancies that appear normal at the time of delivery
- Rib segments or other tissues removed for gaining surgical access, if the patient does not have a history of malignancy
- Saphenous vein segments harvested for coronary artery bypass
- Skin or other normal tissue removed during a cosmetic or reconstructive procedure, if the patient does not have a history of malignancy
- Teeth without attached soft tissue
- Therapeutic radioactive sources
- Normal toenails and fingernails that are removed for cosmetic or hygienic purposes

OTHER SPECIMENS

It has been suggested that some specimens (specifically gallbladders, tonsils in adults, appendices, bone from orthopedic procedures, and hernia sacs) need not be examined, as the diagnostic yield is small. In sufficiently large studies, the incidence of clinically important unsuspected diagnoses in this group of specimens is about 1 to 10 per 1,000 specimens. Thus, it becomes an economic decision as to whether it is of value to histologically examine all of these specimens. In a cost-benefit analysis, it was concluded that at least 1 of every 2,000 specimens would need to show a clinically significant diagnosis to justify histologic examination.[3]

Studies have clearly shown that specimen types with a generally low diagnostic yield have a much higher yield of important diagnoses if certain features are present. These include:

- Specimens from patients with a “non-routine” clinical presentation (e.g., asymmetric tonsils)
- Grossly abnormal findings noted by the surgeon

Request for pathologic examination.

Yes	No	
☐	☐	Is this a "routine" specimen (i.e., with the typical clinical presentation for this procedure)?
		If no, explain: _____
☐	☐	Did the tissue appear typical for a routine specimen?
		If no, explain: _____
☐	☐	Is the patient free of known malignancies?
		If no, explain: _____
☐	☐	Does the patient lack conditions that could place him or her at higher risk for unusual infections or other diseases, such as immunocompromise (e.g., HIV), organ transplant, corticosteroid therapy, chemotherapy, chronic ambulatory peritoneal dialysis, diabetes mellitus, antibiotic therapy, antifungal therapy, assisted ventilation, extensive burns, implanted monitoring devices or catheters, or chronic sinusitis?
		If no, explain: _____
☐	☐	Is only a gross examination of tissue requested?
		If a microscopic examination is requested, explain the reason for the examination: _____

If the answers to the above questions are all "yes" and the tissue appears grossly unremarkable, then the specimen may not be examined microscopically.

If any of the answers are "no" or unknown, or if the tissue appears to be abnormal, or at the discretion of the pathologist, the tissue may be examined microscopically.

Figure 21–1. Request for pathologic examination.

- Grossly abnormal findings noted by the pathologist
- Specimens from patients with a history of malignancy
- Specimens from patients in whom an infectious process is suspected
- Specimens from patients who are known to be immunocompromised or who are at higher risk for unusual infections (organ transplant, corticosteroid therapy, chemotherapy, chronic ambulatory peritoneal dialysis, diabetes mellitus, antibiotic therapy, antifungal therapy, assisted ventilation, extensive burns, implanted monitoring devices or catheters, or chronic sinusitis)

Thus, if a decision is made to not examine some types of "routine" specimens, it is important that none of the features above are present. **The absence of clinical history provided by the submitting physician never can be interpreted to mean that no relevant clinical history exists.** Figure 21-1 is an example of a requisition form that could be required from a submitting physician for such specimens.

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22 Gynecologic and Perinatal Pathology

UTERUS

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE)

See Table 22-1.

TABLE 22–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY - UTERUS

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR UTERINE SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Date of last menstrual period or if postmenopausal
Purpose of the procedure	Current or recent pregnancy.
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	Use of exogenous hormones (type and duration)or hormonal treatment (e.g., tamoxifen)
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	Family history of breast or ovarian carcinoma.
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	Abnormal bleeding
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Compromised immune system	

Endometrial Biopsies or Curettings

The endometrium is biopsied to evaluate abnormal bleeding in postmenopausal women, to monitor patients at high risk for endometrial carcinoma (e.g., women taking tamoxifen), and in the evaluation of infertility (Table 22-2).

For patients with trophoblastic disease, the history would include week of pregnancy, passage of tissue, prior history of hydatidiform mole, and human chorionic gonadotropin level.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

The entire specimen is submitted. One level is examined for women <45 years of age (usually luteal phase defect, increased bleeding to suspected polyps, endometritis); three levels for women ≥45 years of age or for women with any history or clinical question of hyperplasia (endometrial intraepithelial neoplasia = EIN) or carcinoma.

TABLE 22–2. ENDOMETRIAL DATING (NOYES CRITERIA)	
PROLIFERATIVE EM (PE)	Round or tubular glands, pseudostratified nuclei, no cytoplasmic vacuolization, apical **mitoses, no vacuoles**
Day 16 EM	Like PE, tubular glands with mitoses, but with **scattered basal cytoplasmic vacuoles**
	These changes can be caused by estrogen alone and are not diagnostic of ovulation
SECRETORY EM	
Day 17	Tubular glands with very regular, even subnuclear vacuoles (**"piano keys"**). A few mitoses may be present
Day 18	**Increased glandular complexity** (infolding) and intraglandular secretions, persistent cytoplasmic vacuoles
Day 19	Like Day 18 with only **scattered** cytoplasmic vacuoles. There are increased intraluminal secretions. No mitoses are present.
Day 20	Like Day 19 **without** cytoplasmic vacuoles. Secretions peak.
Day 21-22	Like Day 20 with **maximal stromal edema; no decidual change.** On day 22 the nuclei appear "naked".
Day 23	Decidual change **cuffing around arterioles**
Day 24	Decidual change expanding **from gland-to-gland**, but not going to surface
Day 25	A **thin** layer of decidual change underneath the surface
Day 26	A **thick** layer of decidual change underneath the surface
Day 27	"Inflammatory cells" (**stromal granulocytes**) in decidua; **scattered karyorrhexis** in glandular epithelium
Day 28 (menstrual endometrium, ME)	Hemorrhagic stroma (falling apart), prominent glandular karyorrhexis, and balls of necrotic stroma ("blue balls") surrounded by eosinophilic ("reparative") epithelium
As a general rule of thumb, pathology residents are always one day off the correct day. Modified from Noyes RW, Hertig AT, Rock J, Dating the endometrial biopsy, Fertil Steril 1:3-25, 1950.	

Hysterectomy and Salpingo-Oophorectomy

The type of hysterectomy (total or radical) and the disease (benign or malignant) determine the method for processing the specimen. Specimens fall into three categories:

1. Total hysterectomies for benign conditions (e.g., prolapse or fibroids).
2. Total hysterectomies for malignant conditions (e.g., endometrial carcinoma).
3. Radical hysterectomies for malignant conditions (e.g., cervical carcinoma) that include vaginal cuff, parametrium, and regional lymph nodes.

Gravid hysterectomies are rarely performed. These specimens are unusual and may have medicolegal implications.

ORIENTATION OF HYSTERECTOMIES

Proceeding anterior to posterior are the round ligament, the fallopian tube, the ovary, and finally, the ovarian ligament (Fig. 22-1).

The peritoneal reflection is lower on the posterior surface and often comes to a point. It is higher and blunter on the anterior surface where the bladder has been dissected away.

If a specimen cannot be oriented, designate the two sides "A" and "B" when submitting sections.

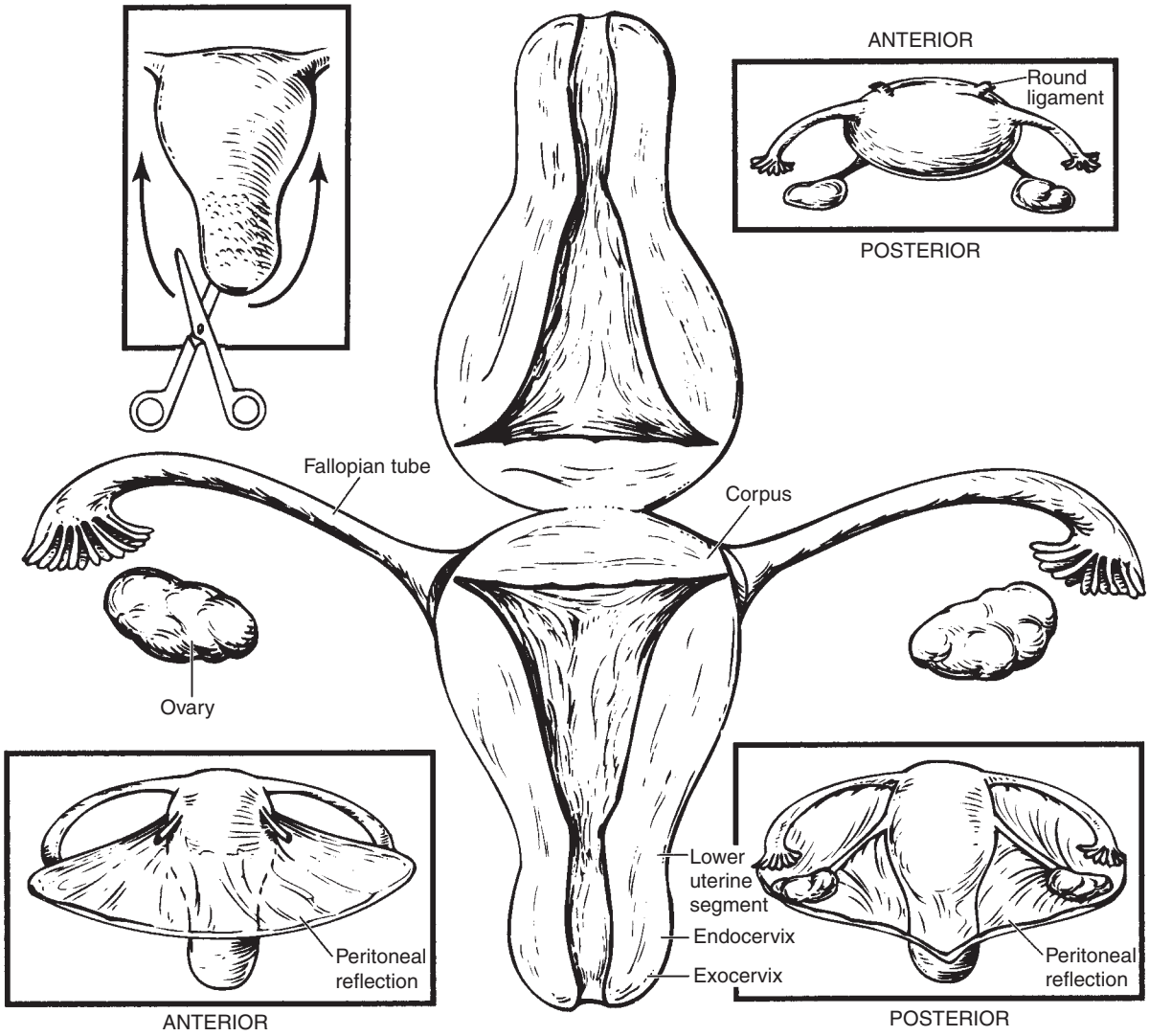

Figure 22–1. Total abdominal hysterectomy: orientation.

Total hysterectomy for benign conditions

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh the specimen. Orient the specimen as to anterior and posterior.

   Examine the serosal surface for adhesions, endometriosis, tumor implants, or inflammation and describe.

   Record the overall dimensions of the uterus (three dimensions), tubes (length and diameter), and ovaries (three dimensions).

   Record the dimensions of the exocervix (two dimensions) and the diameter and shape (round or slit-like) of the external os. Describe the appearance (smooth, white, glistening) and any lesions of the cervix (ulcerated, irregular, granular). In cases of uterine prolapse, a vaginal cuff may be present and should be described.

   Specimens received as supracervical hysterectomies should be documented grossly, and the resection margin should be inked prior to opening the uterus.

2. Open the uterus with scissors, along the lateral margins from the external os to the cornu. Never use a scalpel. It is useful to use a probe within the os to guide the scissors. Make transverse incisions through the entire mucosa to, but not through, the serosa. Do not abrade the mucosa or wash with water.

   Describe the endometrial cavity and lining including size (cornu to cornu, fundus to endocervical canal), distortion (by leiomyomas), color (tan, hemorrhagic), thickness, and any lesions. If lesions are present, describe location (anterior or posterior), size, color, consistency, and depth of invasion into myometrium.

Describe the endocervix including size (length and width), color, normal herringbone pattern, and any lesions.

Describe the myometrium including average thickness, normal trabeculated pattern, or adenomyosis (coarse trabeculations or cystic hemorrhagic areas). If leiomyomas are present describe number, size (or range in size if many), location (subserosal, mural, submucosal, anterior or posterior), color, presence of hemorrhage or necrosis or variation in pattern.

Describe each fallopian tube (see "Fallopian Tube" for instructions on sampling).

Describe each ovary (see "Ovary" for instructions on sampling).

3. Hysterectomies for benign disease can have sections taken from unfixed tissue. The remainder of the specimen is stored in formalin. However, if a neoplastic process is known or suspected, follow the protocol for malignant uteri.
4. For certain high risk patients, the entire endometrial surface should be examined, even in the absence of any gross lesion, as small and/or grossly inconspicuous carcinomas may be present. Examples of high risk patients:
   - Biopsy-proven endometrial intraepithelial neoplasia (EIN) or repeated biopsies raising suspicion for EIN.
   - A concurrent ovarian endometrioid carcinoma.
   - A concurrent estrogen-producing tumor (e.g., a granulosa cell tumor).
   - Known germ line mutations causing HNPCC (Lynch syndrome) or Cowden syndrome

If the patient has a BRCA1 or 2 mutation, the entire endometrium does not need to be submitted. However, the fallopian tubes should be examined using the SEE FIM protocol (see under "Fallopian Tube").

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Cervix:** Anterior and posterior cervix taken, to include both exo- and endocervix and the transformation zone.
- **Lower uterine segment:** One transmural section from each of the anterior and posterior sides.
- **Endometrium and myometrium:** Two transmural endometrial sections from anterior and posterior walls; if the myometrium is very thick, include only a portion of wall. Sample any lesions (e.g., polyps). If leiomyomata are present, section through each one and examine grossly. Take up to three representative sections TOTAL. More sections are taken if there are areas of necrosis, hemorrhage, or areas of unusual appearance.

If the hysterectomy is supracervical, take a section perpendicular to the resection margin (after inking) to determine at what level (endocervix or lower uterine segment) the resection was performed. If all endometrium is not removed, the patient may be at risk for developing carcinoma and decisions concerning hormonal treatment could be affected.

- **Serosa:** If serosa is not included in the sections of endometrium, submit a separate section.
- **Fallopian tubes:** Amputate the fimbria and serial section the remainder of the tube. Submit the entire fimbria as the representative section in all benign cases (including hysterectomies for leiomyomata). Submit the entire tube in any uterine and pelvic epithelial malignancy, or in any case with a positive family history for breast or ovarian cancer, or otherwise risk-reducing salpingo-oophorectomy, using the SEE FIM protocol (see under "Fallopian Tube"). Submit right and left tubes in separate designated cassettes.
- **Ovary:** Serially section the ovaries transversely to the long axis and submit one representative section from each ovary including the capsule. This section can be submitted with the fallopian tube in the same cassette.

  Note: If the woman has a personal or family history of breast carcinoma, the adnexal structures should be ENTIRELY submitted.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "TAH-BSO," is a 350 gram specimen including an unopened uterus (10 × 6.5 × 4.0 cm), right fallopian tube (5 cm in length × 0.7 cm in diameter), right ovary (3.5 × 2.0 × 0.9 cm), left fallopian tube (4.3 cm in length × 0.7 cm in diameter), and left ovary (3.8 × 2.4 × 1.0 cm). The exocervix (3.0 × 2.8 cm) is covered by smooth glistening white mucosa. The external os is circular and measures 0.7 cm in diameter. The endocervical canal (2.7 cm in length) has a tan herringbone mucosa. The endometrial cavity (6.5 cm from cornu to cornu, 5.0 cm in length) has a tan/pink

hemorrhagic endometrium (0.5 cm in average thickness). The myometrium measures 1.5 cm in maximum thickness and contains two subserosal leiomyomata (1.2 and 0.8 cm in greatest dimension) that have a white/tan whorled appearance without hemorrhage or necrosis. The serosa is dull and there are multiple fine adhesions.

The fallopian tubes are patent and have fimbriated ends. The left tube has a 0.3 cm in greatest dimension, thin-walled, paratubal cyst filled with clear fluid.

The right ovary has a smooth white surface and a single smooth-walled cortical cyst (0.3 cm in greatest dimension). The left ovary has multiple fine adhesions on the outer surface and a golden yellow corpus luteum is present with a hemorrhagic center. Multiple corpora albicantia are present in both ovaries.

Cassette #1: Anterior cervix, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #2: Posterior cervix, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #3: Anterior lower uterine segment, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #4: Posterior lower uterine segment, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #5: Anterior endometrium, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #6: Posterior endometrium, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #7: Serosa including adhesions, 3 frags, RSS.
Cassette #8: Right fallopian tube (fimbria) and ovary with cyst, 4 frags, RSS.
Cassette #9: Left fallopian tube (fimbria) with cyst and left ovary with corpus luteum and adhesions, 4 frags, RSS.

Total hysterectomy for uterine tumors

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh the specimen and orient as above. Examine the serosal surface carefully for adhesions, serosal implants, or direct invasion by tumor. The vaginal reflection at the cervix should be examined for tumor implants. Ink the parametrial surgical resection margin (disrupted areas) and the vaginal/cervical margin. The intact serosal surfaces need not be inked. If desired, the anterior and posterior resection margins may be inked in different colors, but this is not necessary if orientation is obvious. Do not ink surfaces exposed by cutting into the specimen. State in the description if the specimen was received intact or was previously opened.
2. Open with scissors along the lateral margins from external os to cornu. Avoid cutting through areas suspicious for involvement by tumor. Try to make clean cuts when opening the uterus so that true surgical margins and serosal surface will be apparent. Do not abrade the mucosa or wash with water.
3. Make serial transverse incisions (with a blade larger than the uterus, i.e., not scissors or a scalpel) from the mucosal surface to, but not through, the serosal surface at approximately 0.5 cm intervals. Leave all tissues attached in order to maintain orientation.
4. Describe as above, but include any irregularities or piling up of the mucosal surface, location of lesions (e.g., anterior vs. posterior), the portion of the endometrial surface involved, and gross invasion (depth). Gross invasion is appreciated as an effacement of the normal myometrial texture but may be difficult to appreciate grossly. For mesenchymal tumors, describe the location (mural and/or exophytic) including smooth vs irregular interfaces with normal tissues, and the texture of the tumor, as well as areas of necrosis and hemorrhage.
5. Fix overnight in formalin. Paper towels (not gauze) should be placed between transverse sections to wick the formalin and ensure adequate fixation.
6. Sections are taken the following day. Search for all parametrial lymph nodes and note their location. Usually nodes are not found.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** Transmural sections demonstrating depth of invasion to the inked margin. In most cases four anterior and four posterior sections are adequate. If the tumor is in the LUS or near the cervix the entire vaginal margin (inked) is divided into quadrants and submitted and extra slides of the LUS and LUS/endocervical junction are also submitted. If no gross lesions are identified, or only EIN is suspected, submit the ENTIRE endometrium (all sections do not need to be full thickness but all should include the endomyometrial interface to assess for invasion).

Note: The edges of transmural sections are trimmed to remove areas of myometrium without overlying endometrium (Fig. 22-2).

For mesenchymal tumors (i.e., leiomyosarcomas or endometrial stromal sarcomas), submit one section per cm of tumor. Be sure to include the interface with the surrounding myometrium and areas of possible necrosis.

- **Cervix:** Anterior and posterior cervix taken to include both exo- and endocervix and the transformation zone.
- **Lower uterine segment:** Two transmural sections from the posterior and anterior sides. See under "tumor" if the tumor is near the LUS.
- **Fallopian tubes:** Submit the entire tube using the SEE FIM protocol ("**S**ection and **E**xtensively **E**xamine the **FIM**briated end of the fallopian tube") (see under "Fallopian Tube"). The cassettes containing the fimbriae must be indicated in the cassette key.
- **Ovary:** Submit the entire ovaries (sections taken transverse to the longitudinal axis) including capsule.
- **Serosa:** If serosa is not included in the sections of endometrium, submit a separate section.
- **Parametrium:** Submit any parametrial nodules or lymph nodes.
- **Other lesions:** Submit sections of any other lesions (e.g., polyps, leiomyomata).

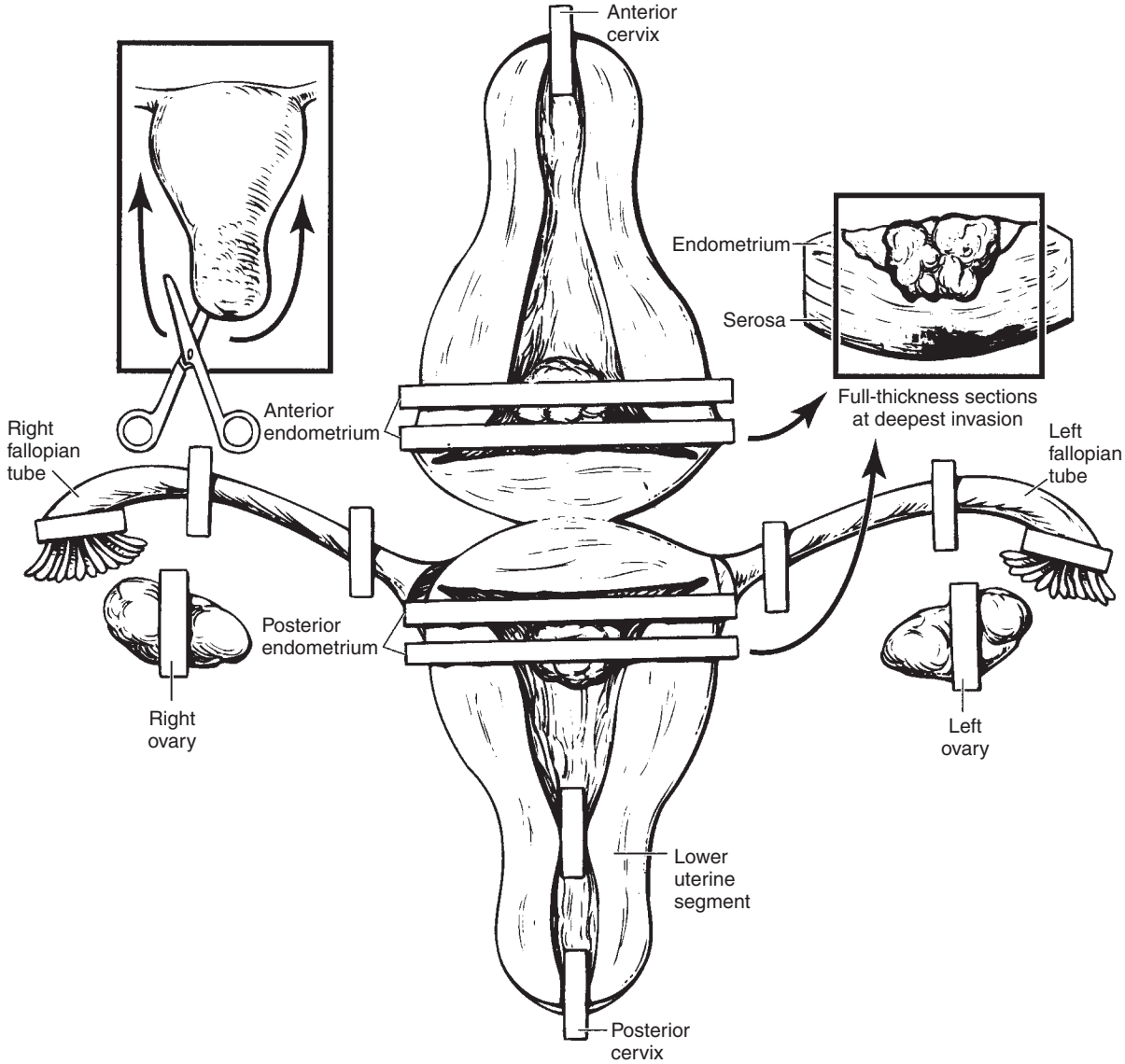

Figure 22–2. Total hysterectomy for malignant tumors (endometrial).

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "Hysterectomy," is a 400 gram specimen including an unopened uterus (11 × 7 × 5.2 cm), right fallopian tube (4.5 cm in length × 0.7 cm in diameter), right ovary (3.0 × 2.0 × 1.0 cm), left fallopian tube (5.1 cm in length × 0.7 cm in diameter), and left ovary (3.5 × 3.2 × 0.9 cm). The exocervix (3.0 × 3.0 cm) is covered by smooth glistening white mucosa. The external os is circular and measures 0.6 cm in diameter. The endocervical canal (3.1 cm in length) has a tan herringbone mucosa. The endometrial cavity (7.1 cm from cornu to cornu, 6.0 cm in length) has a tan/pink hemorrhagic endometrial lining. There is a 2 × 2 cm mass of heaped up pink/gray mucosa on the posterior wall. There grossly appears to be myometrial invasion to a depth of one third of the myometrial thickness. A representative section was submitted for frozen section. The mass is located 3 cm from the lower uterine segment. The myometrium measures 2.1 cm in maximum thickness. The serosa is shiny and glistening without adhesions.

The fallopian tubes are patent and have fimbriated ends. The entire tubes are submitted for microscopic examination.

The right ovary has a smooth white outer surface and multiple corpora albicantia. The left ovary has a smooth white outer surface and a single smooth walled simple cyst (0.8 cm in greatest dimension). The entire ovaries are submitted for microscopic examination.

One lymph node (0.6 cm) is located within parametrial soft tissue and is completely submitted for microscopic examination.

Cassette #1: Frozen section remnant, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassettes #2-5: Posterior wall of uterus including deepest extent of invasion, 4 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #6-9: Anterior wall of uterus including areas suspicious for tumor involvement, 4 frags, RSS.
Cassette #10: Anterior cervix, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #11: Posterior cervix, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #12: Lower uterine segment, posterior, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #13: Lower uterine segment, anterior, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #14: Left fallopian tube fimbria, 4 frags, ESS.
Cassette #15: Left tube and ovary, mult frags, ESS.
Cassette #16: Right fallopiman tube fimbria, 4 frags, ESS.
Cassette #17: Right tube and ovary, mult frags, ESS.
Cassette #18: Lymph node, 2 frags, ESS.

Radical hysterectomy for cervical carcinoma

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh the specimen and orient as described previously. Examine the serosal surface for adhesions, serosal tumor nodules, or direct invasion by tumor (Fig. 22-3).

   Ink the parametrial and cervical resection margins (disrupted areas) and the vaginal cuff margin. The intact serosal surface need not be inked. The anterior and posterior resection margins may be inked in two different colors, but this is not necessary if orientation is obvious.

   Do not spill ink onto the exocervix. Do not ink surfaces exposed by cutting into the specimen.

   State in the description whether the specimen was received intact or was previously opened.
2. Amputate the cervix with the vaginal cuff. Open anterior surface (12 o'clock). Pin onto corkboard and fix in formalin overnight.

   Open the uterine corpus with scissors along the lateral margins from external os to cornu. Avoid cutting through areas suspicious for involvement by tumor. Try to make clean cuts when opening the uterus so that true surgical margins and serosal surface will be apparent. Do not abrade the mucosa or wash with water.
3. Make serial transverse incisions (with a blade larger than the uterus, i.e., not scissors or a scalpel blade) from the mucosal surface to, but not through, the serosal surface at approximately 0.5 cm intervals. Leave all tissues attached in order to maintain orientation.
4. Describe as for a nontumor hysterectomy but include location of lesions (e.g., anterior vs. posterior, involvement of exocervix, endocervix, and/or LUS), distance from margins, and gross invasion (depth). Fix overnight in formalin.
5. Carefully search for parametrial lymph nodes and note their location, side, and number. Lymph nodes are frequently received from the surgeons as separate specimens.

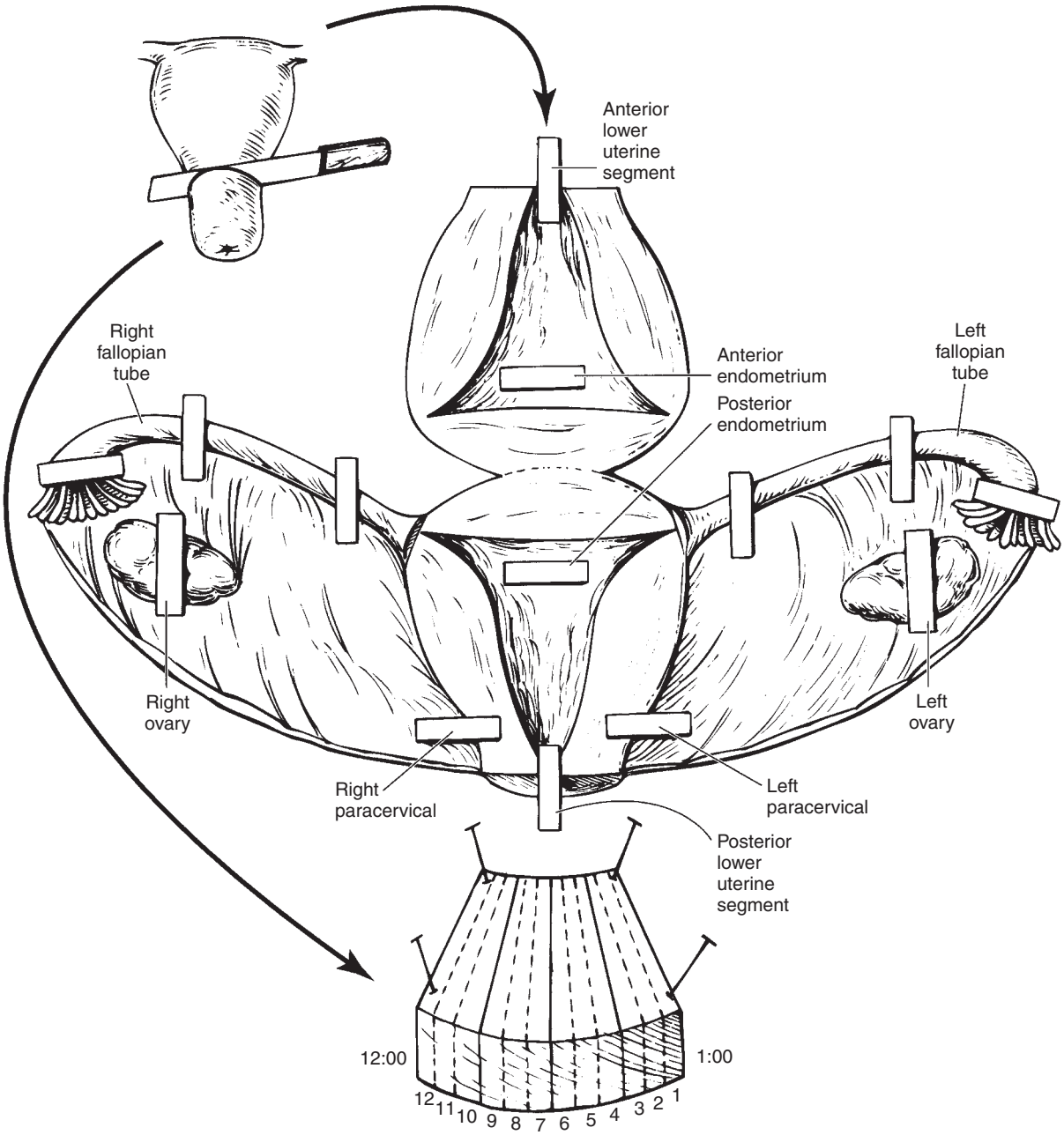

Figure 22–3. Radical hysterectomy for malignant tumors (cervical carcinoma).

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor (cervix):** Submit the entire cervix by clock positions (as described for cone biopsies – see below). The vaginal margin can be left on the cervix and included with these sections if small. If this margin is large, representative sections can be submitted using clock positions. If tumor is close or involves the vaginal margin, the entire margin should be submitted as clock positions.
  If the tumor extends beyond the cervix, sample these areas (e.g., parametrium and adjacent uterine serosa).
- **Lower uterine:** Two transmural section from the posterior and anterior sides. See under segment "tumor" if the tumor is near the LUS.
- **Endometrium:** Two sections (anterior and posterior).
- **Fallopian tubes:** At a minimum, submit the entire fimbriae and a representative cross section of the tube.

The cassettes containing the fimbriae must be clearly indicated in the cassette key.

- **Ovary:** Submit at least 2 representative sections from each ovary (taken transverse to the longitudinal axis) including capsule.
- **Serosa:** If serosa is not included in the sections of endometrium, submit a separate section.
- **Parametrium:** Submit any parametrial nodules or lymph nodes. Note number, location, and side. If no gross tumor is present in this location, submit two representative sections (may be included as full thickness sections of the cervix).
- **Other lesions:** Submit sections of any other lesions (e.g., polyps, leiomyomata).

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "Radical Hysterectomy," is a 420 gram specimen including an unopened uterus (9.0 × 5.5 × 5.0 cm) with attached cervix and vaginal cuff, right fallopian tube (4.5 cm in length × 0.7 cm in diameter), right ovary (3.8 × 1.8 × 1.2cm), left fallopian tube (5.0 cm in length × 0.7 cm in diameter), and left ovary (4.2 × 3.0 × 1.2 cm). There is a white/tan centrally ulcerated mass (1.5 × 1.0 × 0.5 cm) located on the posterior surface of the exocervix (3.0 × 2.8 cm). The mass appears to invade to a depth of 0.5 cm but is grossly 0.8 cm from the outer surface. The mass extends into the endocervical canal but not to the lower uterine segment. The mass is 4 cm from the vaginal cuff margin. The external os is distorted by the mass and is 0.2 cm in diameter. The endocervical canal (3.1 cm in length) has a tan herringbone mucosa. The endometrial cavity (6.3 cm from cornu to cornu, 4.8 cm in length) has a tan/pink hemorrhagic endometrium (0.3 cm in average thickness). The myometrium measures 1.2 cm in maximum thickness and contains one submucosal leiomyoma (2.5 cm in greatest dimension) that has a white/tan whorled appearance without hemorrhage or necrosis. The serosa is glistening with an adhesion on the posterior surface.

The fallopian tubes are patent and have fimbriated ends. The tubes are completely examined microscopically.

The right ovary has a smooth white surface and multiple corpora albancantia. The left ovary has multiple corpora albicantia and a golden yellow corpus luteum. The ovaries are completely examined microscopically.

Three lymph nodes are located in the right parametrial soft tissue. The largest node measures 1.2 cm and is grossly white and firm. Two lymph nodes are located in the left parametrial soft tissue. Both are tan and the largest measures 0.8 cm in greatest dimension. The nodes are completely examined microscopically.

Cassettes #1-4: Posterior cervix including mass, 4 o'clock to 7 o'clock, 4 frags, ESS.
Cassettes #5-12: Remainder of cervix, 8 o'clock to 3 o'clock, 8 frags, ESS.
Cassettes #13-16: Vaginal cuff margin, sections at 12, 3, 6, and 9 o'clock, 4 frags, RSS.
Cassette #17: Lower uterine segment, posterior, closest to mass, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #18: Lower uterine segment, anterior, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #19: Anterior endometrium, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #20: Posterior endometrium, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #21: Right fallopian tube fimbria, 4 frags, ESS.
Cassette #22: Right tube and ovary, mult frags, ESS.
Cassette #23: Left fallopian fimbria, 4 frags, ESS.
Cassette #24: Left tube and ovary, mult frags, ESS.
Cassette #25: Leiomyoma, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #26: Largest right lymph node, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassette #27: Two additional right lymph nodes (inked blue and black), 4 frags, ESS.
Cassette #28: Two left lymph nodes (inked blue and black), 4 frags, ESS.

Morcellated laparoscopic hysterectomy

Laparoscopic hysterectomies (complete or supracervical) are performed for benign conditions, and may be received intact or morcellated (in small fragments). For the latter, weigh the specimen, take an aggregate measure of the total tissue, and attempt to identify and describe specific tissues (i.e., endometrium, myometrium, serosa, leiomyomata, ovary, fallopian tube). Approximately 4 to 8 cassettes of the tissue (including all identifiable tissue) should be submitted for histologic examination. If certain tissues are not found, or if an unsuspected malignancy is identified, additional tissue may need to be submitted.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "Uterus and cervix, both tubes and ovaries," are multiple tan/white fragments of soft tissue (232 g; 14.5 × 11.5 × 7.8 cm), grossly consistent with a morcellated uterus. The segments of tissue average 1.0 cm in diameter, and range up to 10 cm in greatest dimension. Identifiable structures include fibromuscular tissue with a possible endometrial lining, serosa, possible cervix, ovary with corpora albicantia, and a corpus luteum, and fallopian tube. Additional tan/white whorled fragments are consistent with leiomyomata without evidence of hemorrhage or necrosis. Representative sections are submitted.

Cassette A1: Endomyometrium, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette A2: Myometrium and serosa, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette A3: Possible cervix, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette A4: Ovary and fallopian tube, 3 frags, RSS.
Cassettes A4-A5: Leiomyomata, 5 frags, RSS.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF ENDOMETRIAL AND MYOMETRIAL LESIONS

Leiomyomas. These tumors are firm whorled white to tan nodules present within myometrium, bulging into the endometrial lumen or protruding into the peritoneal cavity. Cystic degeneration and softening may be seen in the center of large leiomyomas. Hemorrhage and necrosis should not be seen (unless secondary to ischemic change).

- Subserosal: immediately below the serosa, some are pedunculated and can appear to be peri-uterine masses
- Intramural: within the myometrium
- Submucosal: immediately below the endometrium

Leiomyosarcoma. Only one to three women out of 1,000 with a preoperative diagnosis of leiomyoma will prove to have a sarcoma. Most are >40 years old. The risk is increased if there is a history of a mass increasing in size. A leiomyosarcoma is usually the dominant lesion (or often solitary) and is usually larger (>10 cm) and softer than leiomyomas. The color may be gray/yellow rather than white. Areas of hemorrhage and necrosis (green) may be present. Invasion into the surrounding myometrium may be present. However, some are grossly indistinguishable from leiomyomas and are circumscribed. Malignant lesions generally have complex karyotypes as compared to leiomyomas (see Table 7-47).

Stromal Nodules/Sarcomas. May be well circumscribed (nodules) or diffusely infiltrative (sarcomas). Lymphovascular invasion can often be seen as "worm-like" masses within the myometrium. About one third will invade into adjacent tissues. Necrosis and hemorrhage are not uncommon in sarcomas.

Adenomyosis. Due to benign glands embedded within myometrium. The myometrium appears thickened with coarse trabeculations. Pinpoint hemorrhage may be present.

Endometrial Polyps. Usually large, broad-based, finger-like projections from the endometrial wall. The center is comprised of fibrous stroma and the surface is covered by endometrium.

Endometrial Carcinoma. The endometrial lining may be heaped up, but a yellow, friable appearance is more characteristic of carcinomas. This may be best appreciated on cross section. Invasive carcinomas may efface the normal myometrial texture. This finding may be subtle or obscured by adenomyosis.

Malignant Mixed Mullerian Tumor (Carcinosarcoma). Usually a very large friable mass completely filling the endometrial cavity and extending through the cervical os. The myometrium is typically deeply invaded. Foci of bone or cartilage may be present.

Adenomatoid Tumor. A poorly circumscribed soft mass within the myometrium, near the serosal surface. Large tumors may extend into the endometrium.

Gestational Trophoblastic Tumors. Complete or partial hydatidiform moles are usually received as products of conception and are grossly recognized by the numerous dilated grape-like vesicles. Fetal parts may be present in partial hydatidiform moles. Grossly, it will look like a hemorrhagic mass adherent to the wall of the uterus.

Gestational Choriocarcinoma. can also arise from placental tissues from either a normal or abnormal pregnancy. It is a soft, fleshy, yellow-white tumor, often with large areas of necrosis, and usually with extensive hemorrhage. The tumor invades into the myometrium and may extend out into the serosa. There is a separate AJCC staging system for these tumors.

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR ENDOMETRIAL CARCINOMAS

- **Specimen:** Uterus, cervix, ovary (right, left), fallopian tube (right, left), parametrium (right, left), vaginal cuff, omentum
- **Procedure(s):** Hysterectomy (supracervical or simple), radical hysterectomy (including parametria), oophorectomy (right, left), salpingectomy (right, left), omentectomy, peritoneal biopsies, pelvic exenteration
- **Lymph Node Sampling:** Pelvic lymph nodes, para-aortic lymph nodes, no lymph nodes sampled
- **Specimen Integrity:** Morcellated hysterectomy specimen, intact hysterectomy specimen
- **Tumor Site:** Location (anterior, posterior)
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (additional margins are optional)
  - Extent of surface area involved (< 4 cm versus > 4 cm) is correlated with higher stage disease.
- **Histologic Type:** Endometrioid carcinoma (and subtypes), mucinous adenocarcinoma, serous adenocarcinoma, clear cell adenocarcinoma, squamous cell carcinoma, undifferentiated carcinoma, other rare types. The WHO Classification is recommended.
- **Histologic Grade:** Different grading systems are used for different tumor types (see later).
- **Myometrial Invasion:** Report as depth of invasion in millimeters or percentage of myometrium involved (< 50%, ≥ 50%)
- **Involvement of Cervix:** Not involved, invasion of cervical stromal connective tissue
- **Extent of Involvement of Other Organs:** Involvement of fallopian tube, ovary, vagina, peritoneum, parametrium, omentum bladder wall, bladder mucosa, colon or rectal wall, bowel mucosa, pelvic wall
- **Peritoneal Ascitic Fluid:** Negative for malignancy, atypical or suspicious, malignant, nondiagnostic
- **Margins:** Uninvolved, involved, distance of invasive carcinoma from the margin
  - Cervical, parametrial, and serosal margins
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Extent of Invasion:** Carcinoma in situ (pTis), tumor limited to endometrium or invades less than one half of the myometrium (pT1a), tumor invades one half or more of the myometrium (pT1b), tumor invades stromal connective tissue of the cervix but does not extend beyond the uterus (pT2), tumor involves serosa and/or adnexa (direct extension or metastasis) (pT3a), tumor involves vagina (direct extension or metastasis) or involves parametria (pT3b), tumor involves bladder mucosa and/or bowel mucosa (pT4)
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Number of nodes examined, number involved, location (pelvic, para-aortic)
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Hyperplasia (simple without cytologic atypia, complex without cytologic atypia), atypical hyperplasia (simple, complex), endometrial intraepithelial neoplasia (EIN), atrophy, polyps
- **Ancillary Studies:** In some cases, estrogen and progesterone studies may be requested. Testing for microsatellite instability or DNA mismatch repair gene products may be requested for carcinomas arising in patients < 50 years of age at risk for hereditary nonpolyposis colon carcinoma (Lynch syndrome; family history of endometrial or colorectal carcinoma)
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC or FIGO Classification:** Categories should be provided, when possible (Table 22-3).

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

TABLE 22–3. AJCC AND FIGO (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF ENDOMETRIAL CARCINOMAS

TNM CATEGORIES	FIGO STAGES	DEFINITIONS
Primary Tumor		
TX	—	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	—	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis*	—	Carcinoma in situ (preinvasive carcinoma)
T1	I	Tumor confined to corpus uteri
T1a	IA	Tumor limited to endometrium or invades less than one half of the myometrium
T1b	IB	Tumor invades one half or more of the myometrium
T2	II	Tumor invades stromal connective tissue of the cervix but does not extend beyond uterus†
T3a	IIIA	Tumor involves serosa and/or adnexa (direct extension or metastasis)
T3b	IIIB	Vaginal involvement (direct extension or metastasis) or parametrial involvement
T4	IVA	Tumor invades bladder mucosa and/or bowel mucosa (bullous edema is not sufficient to classify a tumor as T4)
* FIGO no longer includes stage 0 (Tis). † Endocervical glandular involvement only should be considered as stage I and not stage II.		
Regional Lymph Nodes		
NX	—	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	—	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	IIIC1	Regional lymph node metastasis to pelvic lymph nodes
N2	IIIC2	Regional lymph node metastasis to para-aortic lymph nodes, with or without positive pelvic lymph nodes
Distant Metastasis		
M0	—	No distant metastasis
M1	IVB	Distant metastasis (includes metastasis to inguinal lymph nodes, intraperitoneal disease, or lung, liver, or bone. It excludes metastasis to para-aortic lymph nodes, vagina, pelvic serosa, or adnexa)
Note: There are separate AJCC and FIGO classifications for leiomyosarcoma and endometrial stromal sarcoma and for adenosarcoma. From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.		

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR GESTATIONAL TROPHOBLASTIC MALIGNANCIES

- **Specimen:** Uterus
- **Procedure:** Dilation and curettage, hysterectomy, radical hysterectomy, pelvic exenteration
- **Tumor Site:** Location
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (additional margins are optional)
- **Histologic Type:** Hydatidiform mole (complete, partial, or invasive), choriocarcinoma, placental site trophoblastic tumor, epithelioid trophoblastic tumor, malignant trophoblastic tumor, type cannot be determined
- **Extent of Invasion:** Tumor limited to uterus (pT1), tumor extends outside of uterus but is limited to the genital structures (adnexa, vagina, broad ligament) (pT2), tumor extends to nongenital organs or structures
  - Myometrial invasion: present (% of thickness), absent
  - Serosal surface: involved, not involved
- **Margins:** Uninvolved, involved, distance to nearest margin

TABLE 22–4. AJCC AND FIGO (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF GESTATIONAL TROPHOBLASTIC TUMORS

TNM CATEGORIES	FIGO STAGES	DEFINITIONS
Primary Tumor		
TX	—	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	—	No evidence of primary tumor
T1	I	Tumor confined to uterus
T2	II	Tumor extends to other genital structures (ovary, tube, vagina, broad ligaments) by metastasis or direct extension
	IIA	With low-risk prognostic score
	IIB	With high-risk prognostic score
Distant Metastasis		
M0	—	No distant metastasis
M1	—	Distant metastasis
M1a	III	Lung metastasis
	IIIA	With low-risk prognostic score
	IIIB	With high-risk prognostic score
M1b	IV	All other distant metastasis
	IVA	With low-risk prognostic score
	IVB	With high-risk prognostic score

From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.

- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Fetal Tissue:** Not identified, present (specify type)
- **Fetal Anomalies:** Cannot be determined, not identified, present (specify type)
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Implantation site, leiomyoma, adenomyosis
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present (give number and site of metastases). If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC or FIGO Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Tables 22-4 and 22-5). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

GRADING OF UTERINE TUMORS

In serous and clear cell adenocarcinomas, nuclear grading takes precedent. Most are high grade (i.e., grade 3). Rare serous tumors with a solid growth pattern in small nests with a high degree of nuclear maturation and psammoma bodies are assigned grade 1 to 2.

There is no universally accepted system for mucinous carcinomas. Architectural and nuclear features are evaluated.

Endometrioid adenocarcinomas are graded according to the architectural configuration (see "architectural grading" below). Squamous and mucinous differentiation are documented, if present.[1]

TABLE 22–5. GESTATIONAL TROPHOBLASTIC NEOPLASIA – PROGNOSTIC SCORE				
PROGNOSTIC FACTOR	**0**	**1**	**2**	**4**
Age	<40	≥40		
Antecedent pregnancy	H. mole	Abortion	Term pregnancy	
Months from index pregnancy	<4	4-<7	7–12	>12
Pretreatment serum hCG (U/mL)	$<10^3$	10^3-$<10^4$	10^4-$<10^5$	$\geq 10^5$
Largest tumor size including uterus	<3 cm	3-<5 cm	≥5 cm	
Sites of metastasis	Lung	Spleen, kidney	Gastrointestinal tract	Liver, brain
Number of metastases		1–4	5–8	>8
Previous failed chemotherapy			Single drug	2 or more drugs
RISK CATEGORIES: • Low risk: 6 or less (add "A" to FIGO stage) • High risk: 7 or more (add "B" to FIGO stage)				
This classification is used for invasive hydatidiform mole, choriocarcinoma, placental site trophoblastic tumors, and epithelioid trophoblastic tumors.				

FIGO Grading of Endometrial Carcinomas.

Architectural grade (endometrioid carcinomas):

- Well differentiated (G1): 5% or less solid growth (excluding squamous or morular growth patterns)
- Moderately differentiated (G2): 6% to 50% solid growth (nonsquamous or nonmorular growth pattern)
- Poorly differentiated (G3): >50% solid growth (nonsquamous or nonmorular growth pattern)

Notable nuclear atypia (grade 3 nuclear atypia), inappropriate for the architectural grade, raises the grade of a grade 1 or grade 2 tumor by 1 grade.

Nuclear grade (clear cell, squamous, and serous carcinomas):

1. Uniform nuclei (round to oval), small nucleoli, even chromatin, usually in a single row or moderately stratified, rare mitoses.
2. Variable size and shape of nuclei, larger nucleoli, more mitoses.
3. Enlarged pleomorphic nuclei, prominent nucleoli, coarse chromatin, frequent mitoses.

Criteria Defining Stromal Invasion of Endometrial Carcinomas.

One of the following should be present:

1. Irregular infiltration of glands associated with an altered fibroblastic stroma (desmoplastic response).
2. Confluent glandular pattern (cribriform growth).
3. Extensive papillary growth pattern (at least 0.42 cm in diameter)

OVARY

Ovaries are removed for evaluation of a mass, as part of a larger resection, or prophylactically in a patient with a personal or family history of breast cancer or a BRCA mutation. Occasionally, biopsies are performed for incidental mass lesions (e.g., a corpus luteum of pregnancy during a Cesarean section), or for treatment (e.g., Stein-Leventhal syndrome) (Fig. 22-4).

Neoplasms generally have one of the three following appearances:

1. **Simple cyst,** thin-walled, without solid areas. Almost always benign. Most are follicular cysts (cystic follicles), corpus luteum cysts, or cystadenomas (epithelial-lined cysts). This is the most common type of cyst.

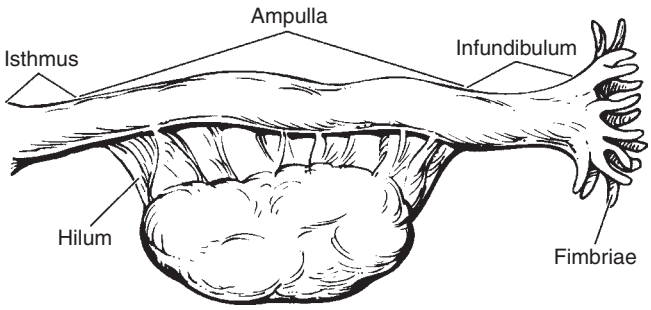

Figure 22–4. Ovary and fallopian tube.

2. **Complex cyst** with or without a solid component. May be nonneoplastic (e.g., an endometriotic or "chocolate" cyst), a benign neoplasm (dermoid), a borderline tumor, or a malignant tumor.
3. **Solid tumors.** May be benign fibromas, Brenner tumors, granulosa cell tumors, or malignant carcinomas. Most have cystic areas.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE)

See Table 22-6.

TABLE 22–6. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY – OVARY

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR OVARIAN SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Pregnancy
Purpose of the procedure	Abnormal uterine bleeding
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	Personal or family history or ovarian or breast carcinoma
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	Stein-Leventhal syndrome
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Compromised immune system	

Incidental Ovaries or Prophylactic Oophorectomies

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record the overall dimensions of the ovary and describe the outer surface including color (white), surface (smooth or convoluted, adhesions, papillary projections), simple cysts (thin-walled without a solid component).

   Avoid rubbing or abrading the outer surface in order to preserve the delicate (and very fragile) epithelial lining.
2. If any abnormality is present (e.g., cysts, papillary projections), ink the outer surface.

   Serially section the ovary, parallel to the short axis.

   Describe the ovary including color and presence of corpus luteum and corpora albicantia. If cysts are present describe number, size, unilocular vs. multilocular, lining (smooth, irregular, papillary

projections, velvety as in endometriotic cyst), thickness of wall, contents (fluid vs. keratinaceous material and hair as in mature teratoma, serous vs. mucinous, hemorrhagic), calcified areas or bone. If it is a large cyst, try to identify remaining ovary as a focal thickening of the wall.

3. The usual unremarkable ovary with only small simple cysts can be sampled with one section demonstrating any features noted above.

   If the ovary was removed as a prophylactic procedure in a woman with a personal or family history of ovarian or breast carcinoma or who has a known BRCA mutation, the entire specimen (ovary, fallopian tube, and adnexal soft tissue) is examined histologically. See under "Fallopian Tube" for processing tubes removed for prophylaxis.

   Large thin-walled cysts can be rolled into a "jelly roll" and fixed in formalin overnight. Submit transverse sections of the roll. Try to submit a section of the residual ovary.

   If there is any suspicion of malignancy (e.g., mucinous cyst, complex cyst, papillary projections, solid areas) additional sections must be taken to document these areas and any extension into adjacent tissues (see below).

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "right ovary," is an ovary (3.0 × 2.5 × 1.0 cm) with a smooth white convoluted surface and multiple corpora albicantia. There is a smooth walled 0.6 cm superficial intact cyst.

Cassette #1: Representative cross section including cyst, 1 frag, RSS.

Ovary with Simple Cyst

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record the overall dimensions of the ovary and describe the outer surface including color (white), surface (smooth or convoluted, adhesions, papillary projections), simple (thin-walled without a solid component) cysts. Papillations or a "nubby" appearance on the surface of the ovary could indicate either invasion of a tumor through the capsule or a serosal implant.

   Avoid rubbing or abrading the outer surface in order to preserve the surface epithelial lining.

2. Ink the outer surface including all areas of irregularity.

   Ovarian cysts are opened with great care as the cyst fluid may be under pressure. Wear goggles and appropriate clothing protection. Open in a pan or on sufficient numbers of surgical drapes to absorb all the fluid. Very large cysts may need to be opened in a sink. Make a small initial incision inferiorly (away from the face of the prosector) to allow the fluid to drain slowly.

   Try to identify remaining ovarian tissue. It can sometimes be seen as a thickened portion of the wall readily visible on transillumination. Do not abrade the lining by excessive handling.

   Describe the cyst including size, inner surface (smooth or with papillary areas or solid areas, velvety texture as in endometriotic cysts), wall thickness, contents (blood, serous fluid, mucinous fluid, keratinaceous and sebaceous material and hair as in mature teratoma), solid areas (color, texture, extension to serosal surface). If the fallopian tube is included, describe its relationship to the cyst. Describe the remaining ovary including color, corpus luteum, corpora albicantia.

3. Large thin-walled cysts can be rolled into a "jelly roll" and fixed in formalin overnight. Submit transverse sections of the roll. Submit a section of the residual ovary.

   If there is any suspicion of malignancy (e.g., mucinous cyst, complex cyst, papillary projections, solid areas) additional sections must be taken to document these areas and any extension into adjacent tissues. At least one cassette per cm greatest dimension of cyst must be taken if the cyst is mucinous (malignant features can be focal in this type of neoplasm). Submit a section with fallopian tube, if present.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "left ovary," is an intact 10 × 8 × 8 cm thin walled (0.3 cm) white/tan unilocular cyst with smooth inner and outer surfaces. A 1 × 1 × 0.8 cm area of white fibrotic tissue is present, possibly representing residual ovarian tissue. No corpora albicantia are seen. The cyst is filled with clear nonviscous fluid.

Cassette #1: Transverse sections of cyst wall, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #2: Possible residual ovarian tissue, 1 frag, RSS.

Ovary with Complex Cyst

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record the overall dimensions of the ovary and describe the outer surface including color (white), surface (smooth or convoluted, adhesions, papillary projections), simple (thin-walled without a solid component) cysts. Carefully examine the surface for invasion or adhesion to adjacent structures.
   Avoid rubbing or abrading the outer surface in order to preserve the surface epithelial lining.
2. Ink the outer surface in all irregular areas. Open ALL cysts and examine carefully for papillary or solid components. See section above for precautions on opening cysts with fluid under pressure.
   Try to identify remaining ovarian tissue. It can sometimes be seen as a thickened portion of the wall read ily visible on transillumination. Do not abrade the lining by excessive handling.
   Describe the cystic spaces including number, size, inner surface (smooth or with papillary areas or solid areas, velvety texture as in endometriotic cysts), wall thickness, contents (blood, serous fluid, mucinous fluid, keratinaceous and sebaceous material and hair as in mature teratoma), solid areas (color, texture, extension to serosal surface). If the fallopian tube is included, describe its relationship to the cyst. Describe the remaining ovary including color, corpus luteum, corpora albicantia.
3. Fix the specimen in formalin overnight. One cassette per cm largest cyst diameter should be submitted if there is any suspicion of malignancy. Include solid or papillary areas within wall and areas of gross invasion. Submit a section of the residual ovary.
   At a minimum, submit the entire fimbriae and a representative cross section of the tube, but consider submitting the ENTIRE fallopian tubes according to the SEE FIM ("**S**ection and **E**xtensively **E**xamine the **FIM**briated end of the fallopian tube") protocol (see below in the "Fallopian Tube" section).

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "left ovary," is an intact 18 × 15 × 10 cm multilocular tan/white cyst. Most of the cyst wall is thin (0.2 cm) but focal areas of thickening are present measuring up to 0.8 cm. The outer surface is smooth. Within the inner surface of the cysts there are multiple minute papillary areas (all less than 0.4 cm in height). A representative frozen section was taken of one of these areas. A 1 × 0.8 cm area of residual ovarian tissue is present with a single corpus albicans. The cysts are filled with thick yellow viscous fluid.

Cassette #1: Frozen section remnant, papillary area, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassettes #2-19: Representative sections of cyst including papillary areas and areas of thickened wall, 18 frags, RSS.
Cassette #20: Residual ovarian tissue, 1 frag, RSS.

Ovary with Solid Tumor

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record the overall dimensions of the ovary and describe the outer surface including:

   - Color: usually white
   - Surface: smooth or convoluted, adhesions, papillary projections
   - Presence of simple cysts: thin-walled cysts without a solid component

   Carefully examine the surface for invasion or adhesion to adjacent structures.
   Avoid rubbing or abrading the outer surface in order to preserve the surface epithelial lining.
2. Ink the outer surface. Serially section through the tumor. Describe size, surface, color, relationship to surface and adjacent ovary (i.e., margins), the presence of a cystic component (describe as above), and texture upon cutting.

3. Fix the specimen in formalin overnight. One cassette per cm largest tumor diameter should be submitted if there is any suspicion of malignancy. Include at least one section to demonstrate relationship of tumor to adjacent ovary and peritoneal surface. Include all areas of gross invasion. Submit a section of the residual ovary.
   At a minimum, submit the entire fimbriae and a representative cross section of the tube, but consider submitting the ENTIRE fallopian tubes according to the SEE FIM ("**S**ection and **E**xtensively **E**xamine the **FIM**briated end of the fallopian tube").

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "left ovary," is a 12 × 10 × 7 cm lobulated mass attached to the fallopian tube (5 cm in length × 0.8 cm in diameter with a fimbriated end). The mass has multiple small cysts of variable size (0.3 to 2 cm) filled with hemorrhagic viscous fluid occupying approximately half the area. The remaining portion of the mass is firm and solid with a mottled appearance ranging from dark red/brown to yellow. The outer surface is irregular with multiple shaggy adhesions. Definite residual ovarian tissue is not identified. The mass does not grossly involve the fallopian tube. During an intraoperative consultation a representative frozen section of a solid area was taken as frozen section A.

Cassette #1: Frozen section remnant, solid area, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassettes #2-7: Representative sections of cystic areas of mass, 6 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #8-10: Representative sections of solid areas of mass, 3 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #11-12: Mass and relationship to surface, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #13: Mass and fallopian tube and additional section of fallopian tube, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #14: Possible residual ovarian tissue, 1 frag, RSS.

Omental Biopsies for Staging Ovarian Malignancies

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

- **Carcinomas:** If there is a grossly evident metastatic focus, one section is sufficient to document. If the omentum is grossly negative, take 5 to 10 sections (or entire specimen if possible) to evaluate for subgross metastases.
- **Borderline tumors or immature teratomas:** Multiple sections of grossly evident metastases are taken to evaluate invasive versus noninvasive implants (borderline tumors) and maturity of implants (teratomas). If the omentum is grossly negative, take 5 to 10 sections (or entire specimen if possible) to evaluate for subgross metastases.

SPECIAL STUDIES

- **Ovarian carcinoma:** Special studies including hormone receptor analysis, DNA analysis, and genetic studies are under investigation but none are routinely used for clinical decision making.
- **Steroid producing tumors:** It may be helpful to save frozen tissue of solid yellow tumors for oil red O stains. However, such stains are rarely necessary.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF OVARIAN LESIONS

See Figure 22-5.

Follicular Cysts. Small (<2 cm) unilocular smoothly surfaced cysts filled with clear serous fluid.

Corpus Luteum. A yellow/orange 1.5 to 2.0 cm ovoid structure with convoluted borders and a hemorrhagic center. The corpus luteum associated with pregnancy is larger (i.e., may occupy half the area of the ovary), brighter yellow, and has a cystic center.

Corpora Albicantia. A corpus luteum regresses to become a corpus albicans. Corpora albicantia are small, fibrotic, well-circumscribed white structures with convoluted borders, usually seen multiply in both ovaries.

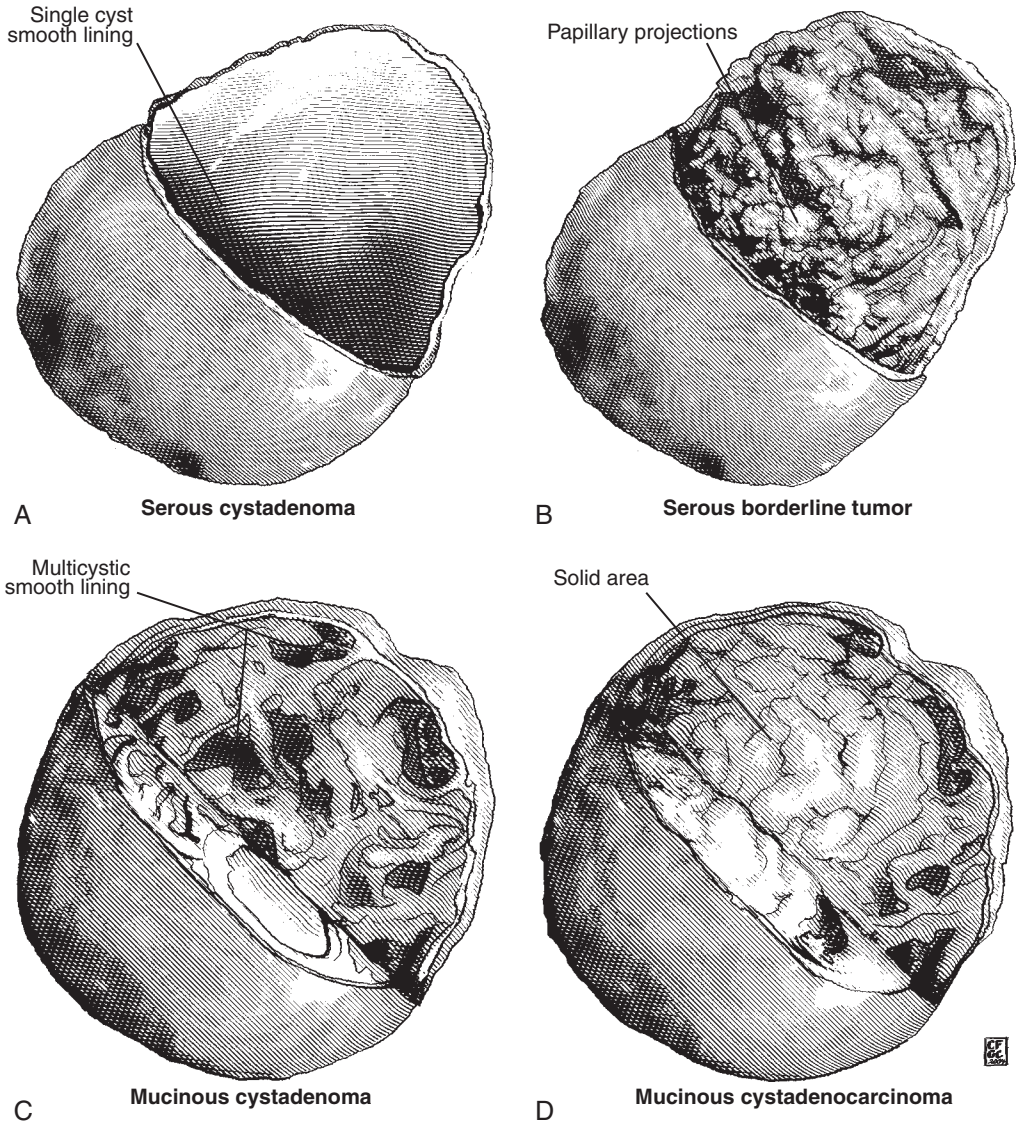

Figure 22–5. Gross appearance of ovarian tumors.

Polycystic Ovaries (Stein-Leventhal syndrome). Both ovaries are generally enlarged (2 to 5 times normal) with a thick superficial cortex and multiple superficial, small, smooth-walled cysts measuring less than 1 cm in size. Corpora lutea or albicantia are absent.

Brenner Tumor. Usually small (<2 cm) well-circumscribed white/tan or yellow solid fibrous tumors. Cysts may be present. In 25% of cases, there will be a second tumor (most are mucinous cystadenomas).

Teratomas (Dermoid Cysts). Unilocular (less commonly multilocular) cysts containing hair and cheesy sebaceous material. Ten to 15% are bilateral. A nodule of tissue projects into the cyst cavity (Rokitansky's protuberance) and often contains bone or teeth. Immature teratomas are more likely to be solid and resemble brain tissue (gray and fleshy), and may have foci of necrosis. These tumors are more likely to spontaneously rupture. The immature elements may be intermingled with mature areas. Struma ovarii is red/brown and has small colloid-filled cysts (with brown or green/brown fluid) that correspond to thyroid tissue.

Endometriotic (Chocolate) Cyst ("Endometrioma"). Cyst with a dark red or brown ("chocolate") shaggy lining containing coagulated blood. "Powder burn" is used to describe ecchymotic or brown areas of involvement. The surface is usually covered by dense fibrous adhesions. Solid areas or thickened plaque-like areas may represent a malignancy arising within the cyst (most commonly endometrioid carcinoma or clear cell carcinoma).

Mucinous Neoplasms. These tumors tend to be large, and consist of multiple cysts of varying size and shape. The cysts are filled with viscous gelatinous fluid. About 10% are malignant and 10 to 15% borderline. Benign lesions will have thin delicate cyst walls and smooth inner linings. Malignant tumors often have solid areas of growth and may have areas of necrosis. Borderline tumors may have subtle areas of papillary projections from the inner cyst wall. Surface involvement is less common than that seen in serous tumors. Mucinous tumors may vary histologically within the tumor. Thus, extensive sampling is necessary to exclude malignancy. About 5% of cystadenomas are bilateral and 20% of carcinomas are bilateral.

Serous Neoplasms. One to several cysts are generally present filled with watery clear fluid. Benign lesions have thin walls and smooth cyst linings. About 20% to 25% are malignant and 5% to 10% borderline. Malignant lesions have areas of solid growth and/or papillary growth with possible areas of necrosis. Invasion into adjacent structures may be present. Borderline lesions usually have numerous small soft friable papillary projections. Surface involvement may be present. 25% to 30% are bilateral and 30% have extraovarian implants.

Endometrioid Neoplasms. There is usually a mixture of solid and cystic areas. Most are malignant. The cysts may be filled with bloody or mucinous fluid. About 15% to 20% are associated with endometriosis. 40% are bilateral.

Clear Cell Carcinomas. These tumors may be solid or have cystic areas ("Swiss cheese-like"). There may be white/tan papillary projections into the lumens. Some arise in an endometriotic cyst and may look like fleshy nodules in the wall of the cyst.

Metastatic Carcinomas. Most commonly from primaries in the breast, stomach, colon, biliary tract, and pancreas. Bilaterality is common, but some primary ovarian neoplasms can also be bilateral. The tumors may have a homogeneous appearance and may look like a fibroma or involve the ovary as multiple nodules. The classic Krukenberg tumor is a metastatic signet ring cell carcinoma (usually from stomach but also arising in other sites) metastatic to the ovary.

Fibroma. Circumscribed hard, chalky-white whorled appearance, usually 5 to 6 cm in size. Calcifications may be present. >90% are bilateral. Fibrosarcomas are rare and are usually softer with areas of hemorrhage and necrosis.

Thecoma. Lobulated, solid, yellow tumor, often large in size (10 cm). Most are unilateral. Foci of calcification, cysts, hemorrhage, and necrosis may be present. Endometrial hyperplasia may be present due to tumor secretion of estrogen.

Granulosa Cell Tumor. Most are unilateral and large (12 cm). The tumor is circumscribed, soft, and yellow to gray. Hemorrhagic cysts or necrosis may be present. Endometrial hyperplasia may be present due to tumor secretion of estrogen. 5% are bilateral.

Pseudomyxoma Peritonei. The tumor may involve one or both ovaries and mimic a primary mucinous ovarian tumor. However, most cases arise from the appendix. The appendix should also be carefully examined during surgery.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- Ovary:
  - Normal/incidental: One section
  - Prophylactic for family history of ovarian or breast carcinoma or known BRCA mutation: Submit entire ovary, fallopian tube, and adnexal soft tissue.
  - Simple cysts: One section of wall, one section of residual ovary
  - Complex cysts: One section per cm of greatest dimension including all thickened or papillary areas and relationship to surface, one section of residual ovary.
  - Solid masses: One section per cm of greatest dimension including relationship to surface, one section of residual ovary.

- **Fallopian tube:** One or more (with malignancies) sections demonstrating relationship to ovary. The fimbrial sections must be clearly designated in the cassette key.
- **Soft tissue:** Sections of any abnormal areas of adjacent soft tissue (e.g., suspicion of tumor implant) or any lymph nodes found in soft tissue.
- **Omentum:** Multiple sections (5 to 10) including all gross lesions as well as grossly normal-appearing adipose tissue. Some metastases are not grossly apparent.

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR OVARIAN CARCINOMAS

- **Specimen:** Ovary (right, left), fallopian tube (right, left), uterus, cervix, omentum, peritoneum
- **Procedure(s):** Oophorectomy (right or left), salpingo-oophorectomy (right or left), subtotal oophorectomy (right or left), removal of tumor in fragments, hysterectomy with salpingo-oophorectomy, omentectomy, peritoneal biopsies
- **Lymph Node Sampling:** Lymph nodes sampled, not sampled
- **Specimen Integrity:** Capsule intact, ruptured, fragmented. List separately for right and left ovary.
  - If the capsule is ruptured, state relationship of rupture to carcinoma (i.e., Is the malignancy at the site of the rupture?).
- **Primary Tumor Site:** Ovary (right or left), bilateral
- **Ovarian Surface Involvement:** Not identified, present
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (additional dimensions optional)
- **Histologic Type:** Serous carcinoma, mucinous carcinoma, endometrioid carcinoma, clear cell carcinomas, transitional cell carcinoma, squamous carcinoma, undifferentiated carcinomas, borderline tumors, Brenner tumor, granulosa cell tumor, sex-cord stromal tumor, germ cell tumor
  - The WHO Classification is recommended.
- **Histologic Grade:** Well differentiated (G1), moderately differentiated (G2), poorly differentiated (G3), undifferentiated (G4). The WHO Classification is recommended.
  - Endometrioid, serous, and clear cell carcinomas: Use grading system for endometrial carcinomas (see prior section). A two-tier system (low grade and high grade) may be used for serous carcinomas.
  - Transitional cell and Brenner tumors are graded based on cytologic atypia.
  - Immature teratoma is graded based on the quantity of embryonal elements, almost always neuroectodermal (Table 22-7).
- **Implants (for Serous and Seromucinous Borderline Tumors:** Noninvasive (epithelial) implants: Not present, site
  - Noninvasive (desmoplastic) implants: Not present, site
  - Invasive implants: Not present, site
  - Size of peritoneal metastases (< or >2 cm)
- **Extent of Involvement of Other Organs and Tissues:** Ovary (right, left), fallopian tube (right, left), omentum, uterus, peritoneum
- **Treatment Effect:** No prior treatment, prior treatment: no definite or minimal response identified (poor or no response); marked response (minimal residual carcinoma)
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
  - Seen more commonly in metastases to the ovary than associated with primary ovarian carcinomas.
- **Extent of Invasion:** Tumor limited to ovaries, involvement of capsule, presence or absence on ovarian surface, presence or absence in ascites or peritoneal washings, extension and/or implants on uterus and/or tubes, microscopic or macroscopic peritoneal metastases
  - Superficial tumors (< 0.5 cm invasion into ovary) may be primary peritoneal carcinomas or metastases. Tumors at the hilum are more commonly metastatic carcinomas.

TABLE 22–7. IMMATURE TERATOMA – GRADE

Grade I	Rare foci of immature neural tissue occupying <1 low power field per slide
Grade II	Moderate amounts of immature neural tissue occupying >1 but <4 low power fields per slide
Grade III	Large quantities of immature neural tissue occupying ≥4 low power fields per slide
Other germ cell tumors are not routinely graded.	

- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Number of nodes examined, number with metastases
- **Cytology:** Ascitic fluid or peritoneal washings: Positive or negative for malignant cells
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Endometriosis (ovarian or extraovarian), endosalpingiosis, ovarian or tubal cysts
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present (give number and site of metastases). If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC or FIGO Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 22-8). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

FALLOPIAN TUBE

Fallopian tubes are most commonly received as part of a TAH-BSO specimen but may be submitted after tubal ligation (small cross-sections), in cases of ectopic pregnancy, or very rarely for tumors.

Some women present with a sudden discharge of clear fluid from the vagina accompanied by abdominal pain and reduction of an abdominal mass.

Fallopian tubes are removed as part of a prophylactic oophorectomy in women at high risk for cancer (e.g., BRCA1 or BRCA2 carriers). Early papillary serous carcinomas may be found involving the fimbriae, and specific guidelines are given below for processing.

Routine Cases

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Describe the size (length and diameter), and the presence or absence of a fimbriated end. Check for patency with a probe. A plastic ring may be present if there has been a prior tubal ligation.
2. Describe the serosal surface (normal = smooth and glistening) including adhesions, paratubal cysts, purulent or fibrinous exudates, and ruptures.
3. Make cross-sections across the tube. Note any luminal contents (purulent exudate, hemorrhage, placental or fetal tissue or membranes, see below).
4. Submit three sections in one cassette including the fimbriated end, mid-portion, and cornual portion of the tube. Additional cassettes can be used to document any gross lesions. In cases of ectopic pregnancy, also sample blood clot as this may contain the products of conception.
5. If the procedure was a tubal ligation, instruct the histology laboratory to embed the specimen as cross sections. A complete cross-section of the tube is necessary to document that a sterilizing procedure was performed.

Malignancies and Prophylactic Cases in High Risk Women

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

SEE FIM Protocol ("**S**ection and **E**xtensively **E**xamine the **FIM**briated end of the fallopian tube"):

1. Describe the size (length and diameter), and the presence or absence of a fimbriated end. Check for patency with a probe. A plastic ring may be present if there has been a prior tubal ligation.
2. Describe the serosal surface (normal = smooth and glistening) including adhesions, paratubal cysts, purulent or fibrinous exudates, and ruptures.
3. The fallopian tube is submitted according to the SEE FIM protocol:

The distal (fimbriated) 1 to 2 cm of the fallopian tube is amputated and cut longitudinally.

Longitudinal sections of the fimbriae are submitted to entirely evaluate 2 to 3 mm slices and to maximize the examined surface area. This will usually require four sections, although in rare cases (where the tubes and fimbriae are particularly small), fewer than 4 sections may suffice.

TABLE 22–8. AJCC AND FIGO (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF OVARY AND PRIMARY PERITONEAL CARCINOMAS

TNM CATEGORIES	FIGO STAGES	DEFINITION
Primary Tumor		
TX	—	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	—	No evidence of primary tumor
T1	I	Tumor limited to ovaries (one or both)
T1a	IA	Tumor limited to one ovary; capsule intact, no tumor on ovarian surface, no malignant cells in ascites or peritoneal washings
T1b	IB	Tumor limited to both ovaries; capsules intact, no tumor on ovarian surface, no malignant cells in ascites or peritoneal washings.
T1c	IC	Tumor limited to one or both ovaries with any of the following: capsule ruptured, tumor on ovarian surface, malignant cells in ascites or peritoneal washings.
T2	II	Tumor involves one or both ovaries with pelvic extension.
T2a	IIA	Extension to and/or implants on the uterus and/or tube(s); no malignant cells in ascites or peritoneal washings
T2b	IIB	Extension to and/or implants on other pelvic tissues, no malignant cells in ascites or peritoneal washings
T2c	IIC	Pelvic extension and/or implants (T2a or T2b) with malignant cells in ascites or peritoneal washings
T3	III	Tumor involves one or both ovaries with microscopically confirmed peritoneal metastasis outside the pelvis.
T3a	IIIA	Microscopic peritoneal metastasis beyond the pelvis (no macroscopic tumor)
T3b	IIIB	Macroscopic peritoneal metastasis beyond pelvis 2 cm or less in greatest dimension
T3c	IIIC	Peritoneal metastasis beyond pelvis more than 2 cm in greatest dimension and/or regional lymph node metastasis
Regional Lymph Nodes		
NX	—	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	—	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	IIIC	Regional lymph node metastasis
Distant Metastasis		
M0	—	No distant metastasis
M1	IV	Distant metastasis (excludes peritoneal metastasis)

Note: Liver capsule metastasis is classified as T3. Liver parenchymal metastasis is classified as M1. Pleural effusion must have positive cytology to be classified as M1.
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.

The remaining tubal portion of the fallopian tube (infundibulum, ampulla, and isthmus) is entirely submitted in cross sections.
The FIMBRIAL cassettes must be designated clearly in the gross description and on the grossing histology worksheet.

SPECIAL STUDIES

Tubal pregnancies: Tissue may be sent for karyotyping if requested.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF FALLOPIAN TUBE LESIONS

Tubal Cysts. Commonly seen are benign inclusion cysts - 0.1 to 0.2 cm unilocular smoothly surfaced cysts located beneath the serosal surface.

Tubal Pregnancies. The tube is dilated and darkened due to blood within the lumen. An embryo or villi may be identifiable within the hemorrhagic area. The outer surface may be ruptured. Peritubal adhesions may be present indicative of prior salpingitis.

Tubal Carcinomas. Microscopic foci of carcinoma (tubal intraepithelial carcinomas with or without invasion) most frequently involve the fimbria (and may be present in >50% of women with BRCA mutations). Infundibulum or ampulla based carcinomas may appear enlarged (resembling a sausage) and filled with a papillary or solid growth.

Tubes in Women Exposed to DES. Abnormalities, such as hypoplasia, may be present.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Incidental tube:** One cassette including fimbriated end, mid section, and cornual portion.
- **Ectopic pregnancy:** Representative sections of hemorrhagic areas and grossly evident placental or embryonic tissue.
- **Carcinomas:** Submit ENTIRE fallopian tube according to the SEE FIM protocol.

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR FALLOPIAN TUBE CARCINOMA

- **Specimen:** Fallopian tube (right, left), ovary (right, left), uterus
- **Procedure:** Salpingectomy (right or left), salpingo-oophorectomy (right or left), hysterectomy with salpingo-oophorectomy
- **Lymph Node Sampling:** Common iliac, external iliac, internal iliac (hypogastric), obturator, paraaortic, inguinal, pelvic nodes
- **Tumor Site:** Fallopian tube (right or left)
  - Relationship to ovary: not fused or fused
  - Status of fimbriated end: open or closed
  - The closure of the fimbriated end may be associated with a more favorable prognosis.
- **Tumor Location:** Fimbria, ampulla, infundibular portion, isthmus
- **Specimen Integrity:** Intact, ruptured, fragmented
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (additional dimensions optional)
- **Histologic Type:** Tubal intraepithelial carcinoma, serous carcinoma, mucinous carcinoma, endometrioid carcinoma, clear cell carcinoma, other rare types
- **Histologic Grade:** Use grading system for endometrial /ovarian carcinomas (see section above).
- **Tumor Extension:** Tubal intraepithelial carcinoma (limited to fallopian tube(s) (pTis), tumor limited to one tube without penetrating the serosal surface and without ascites (pT1a), tumor limited to both tubes without penetrating the serosal surface and without ascites (pT1b), tumor limited to one or both tubes with extension into or through the tubal serosa or with malignant cells in ascites or peritoneal washings (pT1c), tumor involves one or both tubes with pelvic extension and/or metastasis to the uterus and/or ovaries (pT2a), extension to other pelvic structures (pT2b), pelvic extension with malignant cells in ascites or peritoneal washings (pT2c), tumor involves one or both tubes with microscopic peritoneal metastasis beyond pelvis (pT3a), macroscopic peritoneal metastasis beyond the pelvis ≤ 2 cm

in size (pT3b), peritoneal metastasis beyond the pelvis > 2 cm in size and/or regional lymph node metastasis (pT3c).

- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Lymph Nodes:** Absent (N0), present (N1), number of nodes examined, number with metastases, location of nodes
  - Note: Endosalpingiosis and müllerian inclusions are common findings in lymph nodes. These should be reported but distinguished from metastases.
- **Cytology:** Ascites or peritoneal washings: Positive or negative for malignancy
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Hyperplasia, in situ carcinoma, dysplasia, salpingitis isthmica nodosa, chronic salpingitis, mucosal metaplasia
  - Severe salpingitis (e.g., tuberculous salpingitis) can be associated with pseudocarcinomatous changes. Carcinoma is rarely associated with salpingitis.
  - Endometriosis, endosalpingiosis
  - Endometriosis can be associated with endometrioid carcinoma of the tube.
- **Ancillary Studies:** p53 immunohistochemistry may be requested
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present (give number and site of metastases). If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC or FIGO Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 22-9). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are

TABLE 22–9. AJCC AND FIGO (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF FALLOPIAN TUBE TUMORS

TNM CATEGORIES	FIGO STAGES	DEFINITION
Primary Tumor		
TX	—	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	—	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	0	Carcinoma in situ (limited to tubal mucosa)
T1	I	Tumor limited to the fallopian tube(s)
T1a	IA	Tumor limited to one tube, without penetrating the serosal surface; no ascites
T1b	IB	Tumor limited to both tubes, without penetrating the serosal surface; no ascites
T1c	IC	Tumor limited to one or both tubes with extension onto or through the tubal serosa, or with malignant cells in ascites or peritoneal washings
T2	II	Tumor involves one or both fallopian tubes with pelvic extension
T2a	IIA	Extension and/or metastasis to the uterus and/or ovaries
T2b	IIB	Extension to other pelvic structures
T2c	IIC	Pelvic extension with malignant cells in ascites or peritoneal washings
T3	III	Tumor involves one or both fallopian tubes, with peritoneal implants outside the pelvis.
T3a	IIIA	Microscopic peritoneal metastasis outside the pelvis
T3b	IIIB	Macroscopic peritoneal metastasis outside the pelvis 2 cm or less in greatest dimension
T3	IIIC	Peritoneal metastasis outside the pelvis and more than 2 cm in greatest dimension

TABLE 22–9. AJCC AND FIGO (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF FALLOPIAN TUBE TUMORS—cont'd		
Regional Lymph Nodes		
NX	—	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	—	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	IIIC	Regional lymph node metastasis
Distant Metastasis		
M0	—	No distant metastasis
M1	IV	Distant metastasis (excludes metastasis within the peritoneal cavity)

Note: Liver capsule metastasis is classified as T3. Liver parenchymal metastasis is classified as M1. Pleural effusion must have positive cytology to be classified as M1.
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.

considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

CERVIX

The cervix is one of the most frequently sampled tissues due to the high incidence of dysplasia and carcinoma. Cervical biopsies and cone biopsies are frequent surgical procedures to evaluate or treat cervical lesions.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE)

See Table 22-10.

TABLE 22–10. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY – CERVIX	
HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	**HISTORY RELEVANT FOR CERVICAL SPECIMENS**
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Results of PAP smears or biopsies
Purpose of the procedure	HPV test results
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	Hormone use
	Pregnancy
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	IUD (intrauterine device) use
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	DES exposure in utero*
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Compromised immune system	

*DES was used up until 1971 until it was banned by the FDA, due to the association with clear cell carcinomas of the cervix and upper vagina when women were exposed in utero. The risk of developing these types of carcinoma after exposure is about 1 in 10,000. DES is no longer used in pregnant women and currently most women with clear cell carcinoma do not have a history of exposure. It is possible some exposed women may develop carcinomas at an older age.

Cervical Biopsies

Describe color, number of fragments, and size, and submit the entire specimen.

Cone Biopsies

Cone biopsies are resections of the entire transition zone and the endocervical canal (Fig. 22-6). They are performed when dysplasia is present within the endocervical canal (i.e., the lesion cannot be treated adequately externally). LEEP specimens are discussed in the next section.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. The "deep" (endocervical) margin is inked blue and the "radial" (lateral) margin is inked black.
2. Open along the cervical canal using scissors. If a suture marks the 12 o'clock position, open at this point. If not, make the cut at any site.
3. Pin the opened specimen on a wax board, with the mucosa side up and fix overnight. Fix the cone biopsy as soon as possible.
4. Describe the length of the endocervical canal, the circumference at the external os, and the circumference at the portio. Describe any visible lesions including size, color, location, relationship to margins, and invasion. Frequently, the lesions present will not be evident grossly.
5. Take sections along the axis of the cervical canal in order that each section contains external os, endocervical canal and portio. All the tissue in at least 12 sections is taken (corresponding to clock positions). If the specimen is unoriented, submit in the same manner starting at some random point and state that the specimen was not oriented.

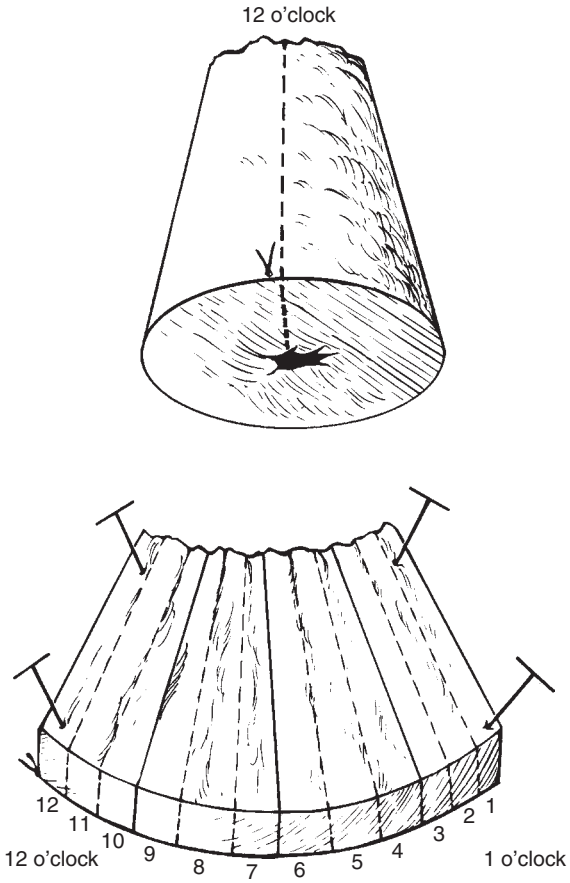

Figure 22–6. Cervical cone biopsy.

Loop Electrocautery Excision Procedure (LEEP)

The majority of cases previously managed by cold knife cone are currently removed by electrocautery using a thin wire loop. These specimens can be distinguished grossly from cold knife cone biopsies by the presence of cauterization at the deep margin. The specimen may be submitted as a single fragment similar in appearance to a cone biopsy. More commonly, the procedure produces two or more specimens, including anterior and posterior cervix, and a deep endocervical specimen. Because of the fragmented nature of some of these specimens, it is critical that the specimen be evaluated and oriented grossly before taking sections.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. The specimen is oriented with the mucosal side up and sectioned on the axis of the cervical canal, with portio and endocervix represented in each section, identical to the orientation of a cone biopsy.
   The mucosal side will appear either shiny and white (portio) or pink and finely granular (endocervix). The deep side will be irregular and cauterized.
2. Sections are obtained at 1 to 2 mm intervals. Inking of the specimen is not necessary, inasmuch as the cauterized margins are easily identified on histologic examination. However, ink the margin if uncertain.

SPECIAL STUDIES

There are no special studies indicated for routine examinations. If HPV testing is requested, the test can be performed on paraffin blocks.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF CERVICAL LESIONS

Squamous Intraepithelial Lesions (LSIL and HSIL) appear as raised irregular plaques or papules, may be white or red. These lesions are usually removed as small biopsies and are not well appreciated grossly.

Squamous Cell Carcinomas appear as red papules, white plaques, or irregular ulcerated hard masses. Small carcinomas may be removed as cone biopsies.

Adenocarcinomas occur in the endocervix and are usually exophytic. These carcinomas are also associated with HPV infections and can also be associated with squamous lesions/carcinomas.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

Cervix: Entirely sectioned with orientation from portio to endocervix

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "cone," is a 1.5 cm in length by 2.3 cm in circumference intact cone biopsy with a suture marking the 12 o'clock axis. The distal 1 cm of the mucosal surface is covered by shiny white mucosa without visible lesions. The proximal 0.5 cm of the mucosal surface is finely granular and pink, consistent with endocervix. The deep, proximal, and distal margins are inked.

Cassettes #1-12: Longitudinal sections from 1 o'clock to 12 o'clock, 12 frags, ESS.

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR CERVICAL CARCINOMAS

- **Specimen:** Cervix, uterus, ovary (right, left), fallopian tube (right, left), vagina, urinary bladder, rectum
- **Procedure:** Colpectomy, trachelectomy (cervicectomy), hysterectomy, radical hysterectomy, pelvic exenteration
- **Tumor Size:** Size in three dimensions
- **Tumor Site:** Right superior quadrant (12 to 3 o'clock), right inferior quadrant (3 to 6 o'clock), left inferior quadrant (6 to 9 o'clock), left superior quadrant (9 to 12 o'clock)

- If no tumor is found (e.g., after a positive Pap smear), the adequacy of the specimen (including glandular and squamous epithelium) should be documented.

- **Histologic Type:** Squamous cell carcinoma (keratinizing or nonkeratinizing), adenocarcinoma (mucinous, endometrioid, clear cell), other rare types. The WHO Classification is recommended.
- **Histologic Grade:** Squamous cell carcinoma: Nonkeratinizing or keratinizing well, moderately, and poorly differentiated
  - Adenocarcinoma: The grade has prognostic value (Table 22-11).
- **Margins:** Endocervical, exocervical, and deep margin (give location if possible)

TABLE 22–11. GRADING OF CERVICAL ADENOCARCINOMA

G1	Well differentiated (small component of solid growth and mild to moderate nuclear atypia)
G2	Moderately differentiated (intermediate between G1 and G3)
G3	Poorly differentiated (solid pattern with severe nuclear atypia)
G4	Undifferentiated carcinomas (no or minimal differentiation in only rare small foci)

TABLE 22–12. AJCC AND FIGO (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF CERVICAL CARCINOMAS

TNM CATEGORIES	FIGO STAGES	DEFINITION
Primary Tumor		
TX	—	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	—	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis*	—	Carcinoma in situ (preinvasive carcinoma)
T1	I	Cervical carcinoma confined to uterus (extension to corpus should be disregarded)
T1a†	IA	Invasive carcinoma diagnosed only by microscopy. Stromal invasion with a maximal depth of 5.0 mm measured from the base of the epithelium and a horizontal spread of 7.0 mm or less. Vascular space involvement, venous or lymphatic, does not affect classification.
T1a1	IA1	Measured stromal invasion 3.0 mm or less in depth and 7.0 mm or less in horizontal spread
T1a2	IA2	Measured stromal invasion more than 3.0 mm and not more than 5.0 mm with a horizontal spread 7.0 mm or less
T1b	IB	Clinically visible lesion confined to the cervix or microscopic lesion greater than T1a2/IA2
T1b1	IB1	Clinically visible lesion 4.0 cm or less in greatest dimension
T1b2	IB2	Clinically visible lesion more than 4.0 cm in greatest dimension
T2	II	Cervical carcinoma invades beyond uterus but not to pelvic wall or to the lower third of vagina.
T2a	IIA	Tumor without parametrial invasion.
T2a1	IIA1	Clinically visible lesion 4.0 cm or less in greatest dimension
T2a2	IIA2	Clinically visible lesion more than 4.0 cm in greatest dimension
T2b	IIB	Tumor with parametrial invasion.
T3	III	Tumor extends to the pelvic wall and/or involves the lower third of the vagina and/or causes hydronephrosis or nonfunctioning kidney.

TABLE 22–12. AJCC AND FIGO (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF CERVICAL CARCINOMAS—cont'd

TNM CATEGORIES	FIGO STAGES	DEFINITION
T3a	IIIA	Tumor involves lower third of the vagina, with no extension to the pelvic wall.
T3b	IIIB	Tumor extends to pelvic wall and/or causes hydronephrosis or non-functioning kidney.
T4	IVA	Tumor invades mucosa of the bladder or rectum and/or extends beyond the true pelvis (bullous edema is not sufficient to classify a tumor as T4).
*FIGO no longer includes stage 0 (Tis). †All macroscopically visible lesions, even with superficial invasion, are T1b/IB.		
Regional Lymph Nodes		
NX	—	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	—	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	IIIB	Regional lymph node metastasis
Regional lymph nodes include paracervical, parametrial, hypogastric (obturator), common, internal, and external iliac, presacral and sacral nodes.		
Distant Metastasis		
M0	—	No distant metastasis
M1	IVB	Distant metastasis (including peritoneal spread, involvement of supraclavicular, mediastinal, or para-aortic lymph nodes, lung, liver, or bone)
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.		

  - Uninvolved: Give distance of carcinoma from the margin.
  - Involved: Type of involvement (invasive or carcinoma in situ)
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Stromal Invasion:** Depth: millimeters of invasion as measured from the base of the epithelium (either surface or glandular) from which it originates. It is the distance from the epithelial-stromal junction of the adjacent most superficial epithelial papilla to the deepest point of invasion. Vascular space involvement is not included in the measurement.
  - Horizontal extent: millimeters on mucosal surface or by using clock face labels (e.g., from 1 o'clock to 6 o'clock)
- **Extent of Invasion:** No invasion = carcinoma in situ
  - Depth of invasion
  - Tissues invaded: cervical stroma, uterus, vagina (upper two thirds or lower third), pelvic wall, parametrium, obstruction of ureter, bladder mucosa, mucosa of rectum, beyond true pelvis
  - If the carcinoma involves the uterine corpus, a determination of the most likely primary site (cervix or uterus) should be made.
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Absent (N0), present (N1)
  - Number of nodes examined, number of nodes with metastases
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Carcinoma in situ of cervix, glandular dysplasia or carcinoma in situ of endocervix, inflammation, koilocytosis
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present (give number and site of metastases). If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC or FIGO Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 22-12). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

VAGINA

Primary neoplasms of the vagina are very rare. Specimens from the vagina are usually biopsies or part of larger resections (e.g., radical hysterectomies or bladder resections).

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE)

See Table 22-13.

TABLE 22–13. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY – VAGINA

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR VAGINAL SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Dysplasia or cervical carcinoma
Purpose of the procedure	DES exposure in utero*
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	Gross features of vagina (cervical hypoplasia, pseudopolyps, coxcomb deformity, vaginal adenosis, or vaginal ridge) that are suggestive of DES exposure (present in about one third of exposed patients).
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Compromised immune system	

*DES was used up until 1971 until it was banned by the FDA, due to the association with clear cell carcinomas of the cervix and upper vagina when women were exposed in utero. The risk of developing these types of carcinoma after exposure is about 1 in 10,000. DES is no longer used in pregnant women, and currently, most women with clear cell carcinoma do not have a history of exposure. It is possible some exposed women may develop carcinomas at an older age.

Vaginal Biopsies

Describe color, number of fragments, and size, and submit the entire specimen.

Vaginal Resections

Vaginal resections are rare specimens, usually performed for squamous cell carcinomas. If the uterus is also removed, the specimen can be processed as a radical hysterectomy with sampling of the primary tumor and deep soft tissue paravaginal margin.

If the uterus has been removed previously, the vagina will end in a blind pouch and this portion of the specimen will not be a margin. The vagina can be opened and processed similar to a large skin excision. The distal margin and deep soft tissue margins are sampled.

Schiller's or Lugol's solutions stain glycogenated epithelium brown (either normal or glycogenated tumors). They do not stain areas of vaginal adenosis or immature squamous metaplasia and can be useful to identify such areas. Microscopically, dark brown-black deposits are seen on the surface of epithelium. If the solution is too concentrated, the cells can become shrunken with nuclear pyknosis and can mimic squamous dysplasia.

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR VAGINAL CARCINOMAS

- **Specimen:** Vagina
- **Procedure:** Excisional biopsy, partial vaginectomy, radical vaginectomy
- **Tumor Site:** Upper third, middle third, lower third
  - Circumferential, anterior, posterior, left lateral, right lateral
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (additional dimensions optional)
- **Histologic Type**: Squamous cell carcinoma, adenocarcinoma, clear cell carcinoma, other rare carcinomas. The WHO Classification is recommended.
- **Histologic Grade:** Well, moderate, poor, undifferentiated
- **Margins:** Uninvolved, involved, distance of carcinoma to closest margin
  - Invasive or carcinoma (dysplasia) in situ
  - Distal vagina, paravaginal soft tissue
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Extent of Invasion:** Carcinoma in situ (pTis), tumor confined to vagina (pT1), tumor invades paravaginal tissues but not to pelvic wall (pT2), tumor extends to pelvic wall (pT3), tumor invades mucosa of bladder or rectum and/or extends beyond the true pelvis (pT4)
  - Report depth in millimeters.
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Absent (N0), present (N1)
  - Number of nodes examined, number of nodes with metastases
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Condyloma acuminatum, squamous dysplasia, carcinoma in situ, adenocarcinoma in situ, endometriosis, adenosis, atypical adenosis, dysplasia
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present (give number and site of metastases). If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC or FIGO Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 22-14). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

TABLE 22–14. AJCC AND FIGO (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF VAGINAL CARCINOMAS

TNM CATEGORIES	FIGO STAGES	DEFINITION
Primary Tumor		
TX	—	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	—	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis*	—	Carcinoma in situ (preinvasive carcinoma)
T1	I	Tumor confined to the vagina
T2	II	Tumor invades paravaginal tissues but not to the pelvic wall.
T3	III	Tumor extends to the pelvic wall.†
T4	IVA	Tumor invades the mucosa of the bladder or rectum and/or extends beyond the true pelvis (bullous edema is not sufficient to classify a tumor as T4).
*FIGO no longer includes stage 0 (Tis). †Pelvic wall is defined as muscle, fascia, neurovascular structures, or skeletal portions of the bony pelvis. On rectal examination, there is no cancer-free space between the tumor and pelvic wall.		
Regional Lymph Nodes		
NX	—	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	—	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	III	Pelvic or inguinal lymph node metastasis
Distant Metastasis		
M0	—	No distant metastasis
M1	IVB	Distant metastasis

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

GRADING OF VAGINAL CARCINOMAS

There is no established grading system for vaginal carcinomas. The following system is suggested. Grades 1 to 3 are used for carcinomas showing glandular or squamous differentiation. Grade 4 is used for carcinomas without such differentiation.

- Grade 1: Well differentiated
- Grade 2: Moderately differentiated
- Grade 3: Poorly differentiated
- Grade 4: Undifferentiated

VULVA

The vulva is subject to specific diseases of this site (e.g., lichen sclerosus), infectious disease (e.g., HPV infection, syphilis), and, most commonly, squamous dysplasia and neoplasia.

Vulvar Biopsies

Small biopsies or excisional biopsies are processed like skin biopsies.

Vulvectomies

Most vulvectomies are performed for the treatment of invasive squamous cell carcinoma or carcinoma in situ. Most carcinomas arise on the labia (majora > minora) or less commonly on the clitoris or posterior fourchette (Table 22-15) . Total vulvectomies will include all the perineum surrounding the vagina (Fig. 22-7). More commonly, partial vulvectomies are performed that will look grossly like large skin ellipses and can be processed in a similar fashion.

TABLE 22–15. LINGUISTIC NOTE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
Labium	Labia
Majus	Majora
Minus	Minora

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. If a total vulvectomy is performed, it will look like an ellipse of skin with a central defect (corresponding to the vaginal vault). Orient the specimen using the following landmarks. If inguinal fat is present, it will be in the superior portion of the specimen and to either side. The clitoris is present superiorly and midline. The hair-bearing labia majora are present laterally. Partial vulvectomies will require orientation by the surgeon.

   Radical vulvectomies are complicated specimens which have numerous resection margins including deep (soft tissue), exterior (lower abdomen, leg, groin, perineal, perianal) and central (vagina and possibly urethral). It is prudent to study the specimen carefully to orient the probable tumor to these various resection margins. If there is any doubt as to orientation, contact the surgeon before sectioning.

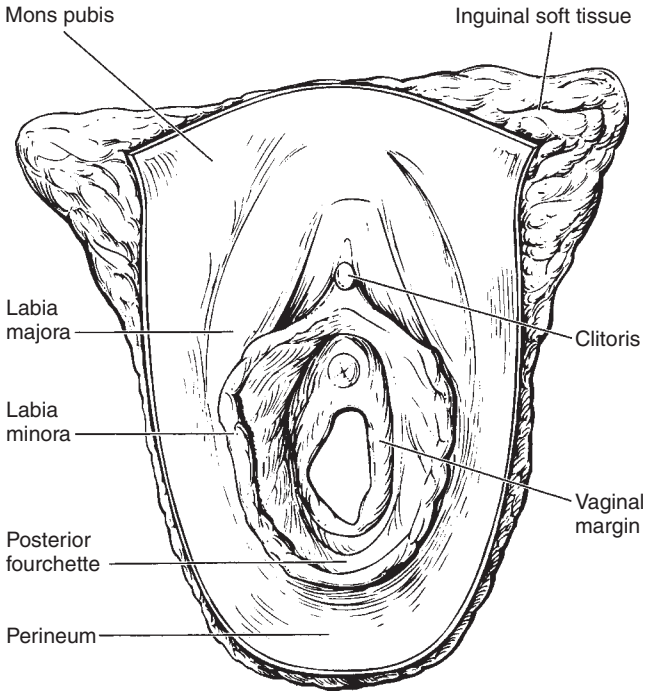

Figure 22–7. Total vulvectomy.

Before dissecting, it is usually helpful to sketch the specimen noting any lesions and the relationship to margins.

Measure length, width, and depth. Diagrams are mandatory for complicated specimens.

Lesions may be obvious ulcerating or fungating carcinomas or may be quite subtle if the procedure was performed for VIN. VIN usually appears as a maculopapular lesion with color changes ranging from white to red to dark shades of brown. Sometimes, however, no gross lesion will be detectable. The location of prior diagnostic biopsies may be helpful to guide sectioning.

Describe each gross lesion including the distance to the nearest skin and vaginal margin.

2. Ink the exposed epithelial and soft tissue margins. It may be helpful to ink the vaginal margin with a different color.

   Pin the specimen flat and fix overnight.
3. Sample all gross lesions. For invasive carcinomas, find the area of deepest invasion and sample with deep margin. Sample all close margins with perpendicular (not en face) margins.
4. If there is attached inguinal fat, search diligently for lymph nodes. Submit each node in entirety and separate right from left inguinal nodes.

SPECIAL STUDIES

None indicated for routine evaluation of vulvar specimens.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF VULVAR LESIONS

Squamous Cell Carcinoma. Exophytic irregular masses, often with invasion into the subcutaneous tissue. Central ulceration is common.

Vulvar Intraepithelial Neoplasia (VIN). Flat or papular lesions that may be white, red, gray, brown, or black. In some cases, a gross lesion may not be apparent.

Lichen Sclerosus/Simplex Chronicus. Flat white thinned plaque-like epidermis. This lesion is not usually resected, but may be an incidental finding in vulvar excisions.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** Submit sections of tumor to demonstrate the deepest invasion of tumor.
- **Margins:** Submit perpendicular sections of the margins in relationship to the tumor including the nearest skin and vaginal margins.
- **Other lesions:** Submit sections of all other lesions (e.g., areas suspicious for VIN associated with an invasive tumor with the nearest margin[s]).
- **Lymph nodes:** Serially section and completely submit all lymph nodes. Separate right side and left side.
- **Normal:** Submit sections of clitoris, fourchette, perineum, and contralateral labia majora and minora.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "vulva," is an ovoid excision of white/tan skin (11 × 10 × 0.5 cm [depth]) with a centrally located circular defect (2 × 1.8 cm). The labia majora and clitoral hood are identified. There is a 1.2 × 0.9 cm white exophytic lesion located on the right labium majus which is 2.5 cm from the lateral margin and 2.1 cm from the vaginal margin. The lesion invades into the superficial soft tissue but is grossly 0.3 cm from the deep soft tissue margin. There is a depressed white fibrotic area (0.5 × 0.4 cm) located on the posterior fourchette which is 1 cm from the closest (posterior) margin. No gross invasion is seen. The remainder of the epidermal surface is unremarkable. Two lymph nodes are located in the right inguinal soft tissue, the largest measuring 0.5 cm. One lymph node is located in the left inguinal soft tissue measuring 0.6 cm. The deep and exterior epidermal margins are inked black. The vaginal epidermal margin is inked blue.

Cassettes #1-3: Exophytic lesion including deep margin, 3 frags, ESS.
Cassette #4: Closest right lateral margin, perpendicular, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #5: Closest vaginal margin, perpendicular, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #6: Flat lesion of posterior fourchette, including deep margin, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassette #7: Closest posterior margin to flat lesion, perpendicular, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #8: Clitoris, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #9: Left labium majus and minus, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #10: Right inguinal lymph nodes, inked green and red, 4 frags, ESS.
Cassette #11: Left inguinal lymph node, 2 frags, ESS.

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR VULVAR CARCINOMAS

- **Specimen:** Vulva
- **Procedure:** Local excision, wide excision, partial vulvectomy, total vulvectomy, radical vulvectomy
- **Lymph Node Sampling:** Sentinel lymph node biopsy, inguinal-femoral nodes, pelvic nodes
- **Lymphadenectomy:** Not performed, sentinel lymph node biopsy, inguinal-femoral nodes, pelvic nodes
- **Specimen Size:** Greatest dimension (other dimensions optional)
- **Tumor Site:** Right vulva (labia major or minor), left vulva (labia major or minor), clitoris, other
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (additional dimensions optional)
- **Tumor Focality:** Unifocal, multifocal
- **Histologic Type:** Squamous cell carcinoma, verrucous carcinoma, Paget disease of the vulva, adenocarcinoma, basal cell carcinoma, Bartholin gland carcinoma, other rare malignancies. Melanomas should be reported as for skin melanomas. The WHO Classification is recommended.
- **Histologic Grade:** Well, moderate, poor, undifferentiated
- **Depth of Invasion:** Squamous cell carcinoma: Report in millimeters measured from the deep border of the granular cell layer or, if absent, from the surface to deepest point of invasion
- **Tumor Border:** Squamous cell carcinoma: broad pushing front (verrucous carcinoma) or infiltrating (finger-like). The latter pattern is more likely to be associated with lymph node metastases.
- **Margins:** Uninvolved, involved, distance of carcinoma to closest margin
  - Invasive or in situ carcinoma
  - Cutaneous (give location as right or left, superior or inferior), perineal, vaginal, deep soft tissue
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Number of nodes examined, number of nodes with metastases
  - Size of metastases (< 5 mm; ≥ 5 mm)

  - Absence or presence of extranodal invasion (may correlate with an increased risk for recurrence).
  - Unilateral, bilateral
  - Fixed or ulcerated femoral-inguinal lymph nodes
- **Extent of Invasion:** Report in millimeters of invasion from the epithelial-stromal junction of the adjacent most superficial dermal papillae to the deepest extent of invasion. Squamous cell carcinomas that invade deeper than 0.1 cm may be more likely to be associated with lymph node metastasis.
  - Carcinoma in situ, invasion of vulva, perineum, lower urethra, vagina, anus, bladder mucosa, rectal mucosa, upper urethral mucosa, pubic bone
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Lichen sclerosus, VIN3 (severe dysplasia/carcinoma in situ), condyloma acuminatum
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present (give number and site of metastases). If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC or FIGO Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 22-16). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

PLACENTA

Placentas are examined for many reasons: multiple gestations, abnormal labor, neonatal indications, unusual features of the placenta, or if there is a significant maternal medical history. Examination can often reveal significant findings relating to the health of the placenta and fetus prior to birth. The College of American Pathologists has issued a comprehensive guideline for the examination of the placenta.[2]

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY FOR PLACENTAL EXAMINATION

- Number of gestations
- History of selective termination
- Any known abnormalities with the gestation including:
  - Low birth weight
  - Low Apgar scores
  - Fetal demise
  - Twin-twin transfusion syndrome
  - Congenital malformations
  - Trophoblastic disease
- Unusual features of the placenta noted at delivery (e.g., small size, green discoloration, knots in the umbilical cord)
- Any abnormalities with the labor and delivery
- History of infection
- Maternal history of hypertension, malignancy, or compromised immune system.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

There are three major placental tissues to be examined: the umbilical cord, the membranes, and the placental parenchyma itself. Additional procedures are indicated for multiple gestation placentas (see later). The routine for processing a single gestation placenta is as follows:

1. Obtain standard measurements:
  - Dimensions of disk
  - Length of umbilical cord

TABLE 22–16. AJCC AND FIGO (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF VULVAR CARCINOMAS

TNM CATEGORIES	FIGO STAGES	DEFINITIONS
Primary Tumor		
TX	—	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	—	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis*	—	Carcinoma in situ (preinvasive carcinoma)
T1a	IA	Lesions 2 cm or less in size, confined to the vulva or perineum and with stromal invasion 1.0 mm or less†
T1b	IB	Lesions more than 2 cm in size or any size with stromal invasion more than 1.0 mm, confined to the vulva or perineum
T2‡	II	Tumor of any size with extension to adjacent perineal structures (lower/distal one third of the urethra, lower/distal one third of the vagina, anal involvement)
T3§	IVA	Tumor of any size with extension to any of the following: upper/proximal two thirds of the urethra, upper/proximal two thirds of the vagina, bladder mucosa, rectal mucosa, or fixed to pelvic bone
*FIGO no longer includes stage 0 (Tis). †The depth of invasion is defined as the measurement of the tumor from the epithelial-stromal junction of the adjacent most superficial dermal papilla to the deepest point of invasion. ‡FIGO uses the classification T2/T3. This is defined as T2 in TNM. §FIGO uses the classification T4. This is defined as T3 in TNM.		
Regional Lymph Nodes		
NX	—	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	—	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	—	One or two regional lymph nodes with the following features:
N1a	IIIA	One lymph node metastasis each 5 mm or less
N1b	IIIA	One lymph node metastasis 5 mm or greater
N2	IIIB	Regional lymph node metastasis with the following features:
N2a	IIIB	Three or more lymph node metastases each less than 5 mm
N2b	IIIB	Two or more lymph node metastases 5 mm or greater
N2c	IIIC	Lymph node metastasis with extracapsular spread
N3	IVA	Fixed or ulcerated regional lymph node metastasis
Note: An effort should be made to describe the site and laterality of lymph node metastases.		
Distant Metastasis		
M0	—	No distant metastasis
M1	IVB	Distant metastasis (including pelvic lymph node metastasis)
Note: This classification system is not used for malignant melanoma. From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.		

2. Examine the membranes and cord:
   Membranes: Color and transparency
   - Normal: shiny, translucent and thin
   - Opaque or dull: suggests chorioamnionitis
   - Green: suggests meconium staining and/or chorioamnionitis
   - Yellow or white nodules on membrane: amnion nodosum
   - Single yellow patch on membrane (possibly calcified): yolk sac
   - Fetus papyraceus: a flattened fetus may be present within the membranes in cases of selective reduction

   Umbilical cord:
   - Normal: Two arteries and a vein. Examine at least 5 cm above the chorionic plate, as the arteries may normally fuse near the insertion. A single umbilical cord artery is associated with fetal cardiac and renal anomalies
   - Twist: Helical twisting is normal. Left-handed twists (as observed looking down cord towards disc) are most common. Location of insertion of umbilical cord: central, eccentric, marginal, membranous
   - In a partially membranous (velamentous) cord the cord vessels separate and run within the membrane for a distance. Measure the length of the velamentous vessels.
   - Furcate insertion: The cord vessels spread out over the placental disc within membranes.
   - True knots in umbilical cord: Note presence and tightness and differences in cord color and diameter on either side of knot. False knots appear as bulbous expansions of the cord and are formed by ectatic vessels with reduction in Wharton's jelly. If a true knot is present, photograph the knot before and after untying the knot, in order to best document the tightness of the knot.
   - Thrombosis, congestion, thinning, or necrosis.
3. Examine the insertion of the membranes into the placental disc and estimate the percent of each type of insertion (Fig. 22-8):
   - Inserts at edge (normal situation) = **marginal**
   - Inserts inside edge = **circummarginate**
   - Inserts inside edge with a prominent ridge as membrane is folded back upon itself = **circumvallate**
4. Selected sections are taken for fixation and histologic sections. The remainder of the placenta may be stored refrigerated until after final sign-out.

   Prepare one membrane roll. Cut a long strip of membrane approximately 3 cm wide from the point of rupture of the membrane inward toward the placental disc. Leave a small piece of disc at the end of the strip. Grasp the disc in a pair of flat-tipped forceps and roll the membrane tightly around it. Slip the roll off gently and drop into a formalin container.
5. Cut two sections of umbilical cord (proximal and distal) and add to the formalin container.
6. Cut off the entire umbilical cord and membranes and weigh the placenta.

   For multiple gestation placentas, record a combined weight after trimming the cords and membranes. Do not attempt to physically separate the two disks.
7. Examine the fetal surface (chorionic plate), paying close attention to the fetal vessels. These vessels can be dilated and thrombosed in cases of gross cord abnormalities and/or intrauterine fetal demise. Make sure to include these fetal vessels in your full-thickness placental parenchymal sections.
8. With a large sharp knife, serially section the placenta in 0.5 cm sections. Examine the parenchyma carefully for infarcts (firm white/yellow areas), intervillous thrombi, large, significant areas of hemorrhage, and any other unusual findings. Place two or three representative strips of placental parenchyma into the formalin container.

   The remainder of the placenta is stored in the freezer in routine cases until after sign-out, UNLESS THERE IS ASSOCIATED INTRAUTERINE FETAL DEATH, in which case the remaining tissue is placed in formalin.
9. The following day, the fixed placental tissue can be sectioned. Submit two cross sections of the umbilical cord and two cross sections of the membrane roll. Sections of placental parenchyma showing both pathology (if present) and adjacent normal tissue should be submitted for comparison. In patients with a history of hypertension, diabetes, lupus erythematosus, or eclampsia, submit an additional membrane roll.

Multiple Gestation Placentas

At delivery, the placentas may be identified by clamping only one umbilical cord or using different numbers of clamps on the two cords. Identify the placentas using the number of clamps when present. If clamps are not present, designate the placentas arbitrarily as "A" and "B." The placentas should be

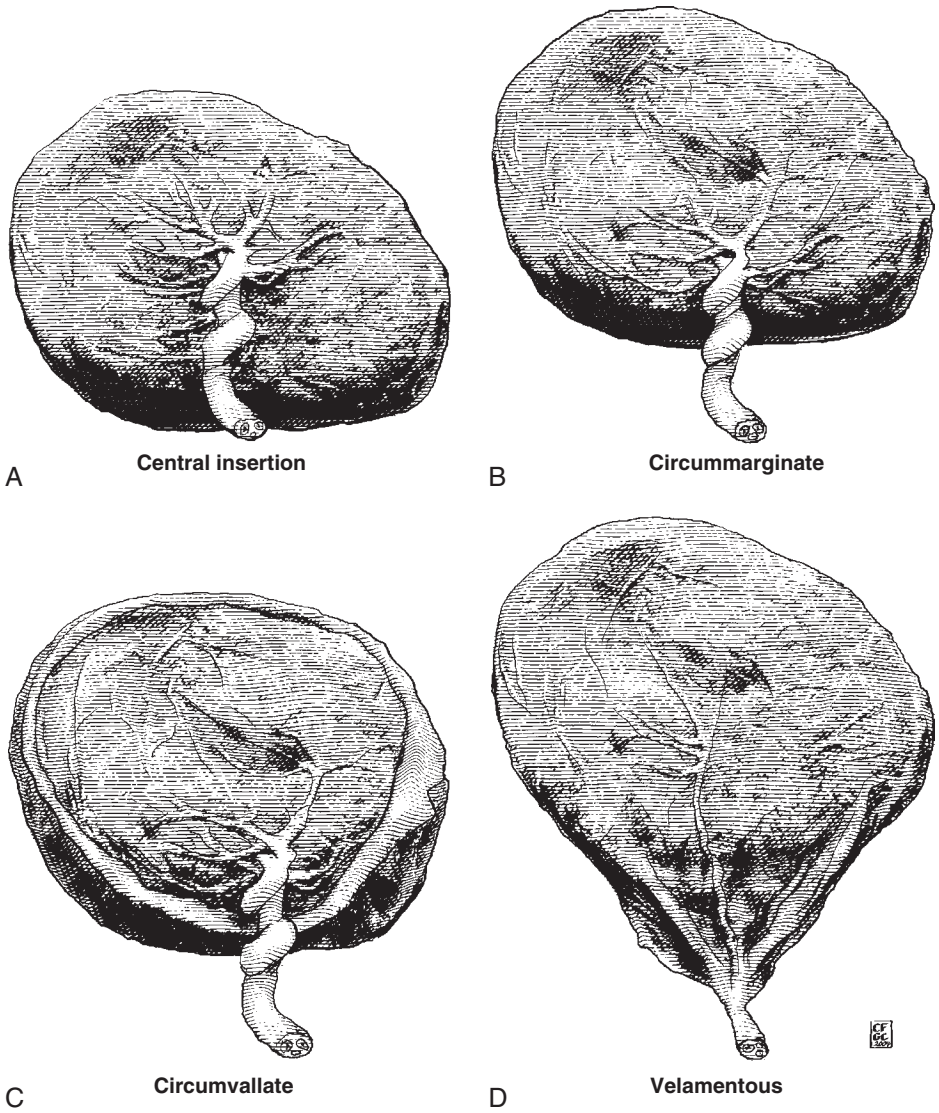

Figure 22–8. Insertion of membranes into the placental disc.

identifiable after dissection. For example, the cord stump on placenta "A" may be left longer than the cord stump on placenta "B." The disks should be left attached and not physically separated.

There are four types of multiple gestation placentas (Fig. 22-9):

1. **Diamniotic/dichorionic separated twin placentas** (zygosity of the twins cannot be assessed).
   The discs are completely separate but the membranes may be adherent. The membranes are separated by pulling on them *gently*. Each placenta is described separately.
2. **Diamniotic/dichorionic fused twin placentas** (zygosity of the twins cannot be assessed). See later.
3. **Diamniotic/monochorionic fused twin placentas** (implies monozygosity); may be associated with twin-twin transfusions.

   Cases 2 and 3 consist of a single placental disc with two umbilical cords, a common outer membrane, and a twin dividing membrane separating the cords. The outer membrane may be ruptured in two separate places, or, more typically, have a single large rupture.

   In case 2, the dividing membrane consists of two complete amnions and two complete fused chorions. The dividing membrane is thick and opaque. Peel off the amnionic membranes from both sides of the membrane, leaving a part of the fused thick chorionic membrane in the middle. Grossly, it appears *trilaminar* (two amnions with attached chorion and fused center of chorion).

   In case 3, the dividing membrane consists of two amnions on either side of a single chorion. The membrane is thin and almost transparent. Separate the amnions, producing two membrane

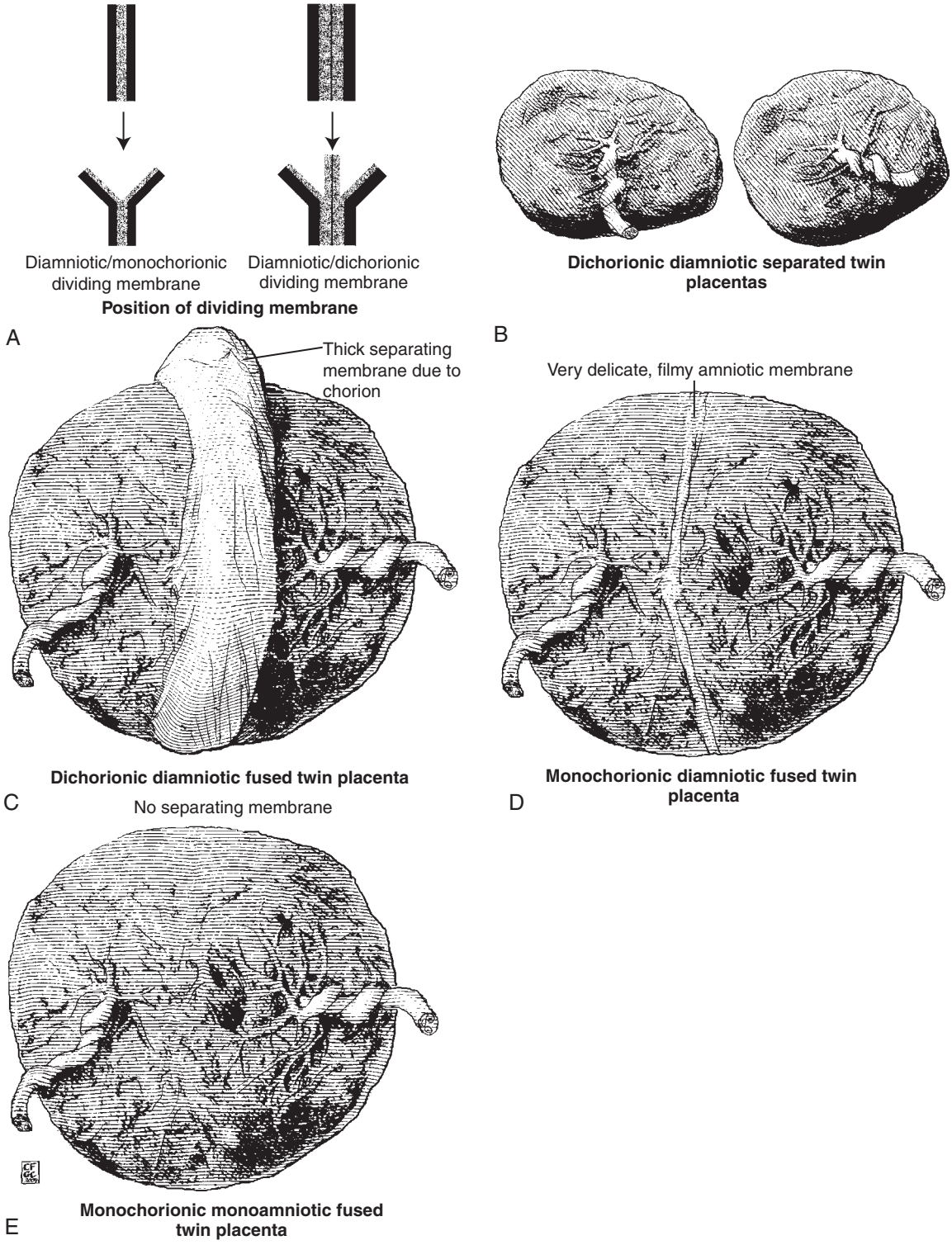

Figure 22–9. Twin placentas.

leaflets. Grossly, it appears *dilaminar* (two amnions with attached chorion, no thickened central chorion).

Submit the dividing membrane for microscopic examination in addition to routine sections of each placenta.

4. **Monoamniotic/monochorionic fused twin placentas** (monozygous); associated with a high rate of complications, such as fetal death from cord entanglement. There are two umbilical cords, but no dividing membrane. Routine sections are taken from each cord, disc, and membranes.

Triplet placentas are processed similarly to twin placentas, except that there will be three umbilical cords and three dividing membranes to examine.

SPECIAL STUDIES

Vascular Anastomoses. Vascular anastomoses are searched for in monochorionic twin placentas. These are usually superficial arterial-to-arterial and venous-to-venous connections which are inconsequential, but there may be a deep A-V anastomosis which has implications for possible twin-twin transfusion syndrome. A membrane roll from between the placentas is taken first (to document chorionicity). To assess the presence of anastomoses, the entire amnion is peeled away from the chorionic surface. This allows optimal visualization of the fetal vessels. Arteries and veins can then be readily traced, and A-A, V-V, and A-V anastomoses can be visualized. The arteries run *over* the veins in the chorionic plate.

Monochorionic placentas without twin-twin transfusion syndrome tend to have multiple anastomoses, whereas monochorionic placentas with twin-twin transfusion syndrome almost always have a single deep anastomosis.[3]

Cytogenetics. If there is a clinical suspicion of a genetic abnormality, or multiple congenital malformations are present, or if the fetus is growth restricted or stillborn, it may be appropriate to send fresh sterile tissue taken from the midportion of the placenta for analysis. Sometimes the fetus is not available (or is very macerated) and the best tissue available is the placenta.

Infectious Cases. If there is suspected chorioamnionitis, premature rupture of membranes, maternal fever, or suspected neonatal infection, it may be appropriate to take fresh tissue for culture. Cultures taken from the chorionic surface beneath the amnion may be the most representative. The most common pathogens can be detected by aerobic and anaerobic bacterial cultures. If there is a clinical suspicion of unusual infectious agents (e.g., syphilis, tuberculosis, tularemia, listeria, toxoplasmosis, brucellosis, Q fever, or viruses) tissue can be taken and submitted for special cultures.

Potentially infectious placentas that could place pathology workers at risk (e.g., those from mothers with HIV or hepatitis) may be fixed for one week prior to processing unless there is a clinical reason for more rapid evaluation. Place the entire placenta in a large specimen container and fill it with formalin. Put paper towels underneath and over the placenta. It is very difficult to fully fix a placenta.

Metabolic Diseases. In rare cases of suspected metabolic diseases, 10 to 20 grams of fresh tissue can be rapidly frozen.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF PLACENTAL LESIONS

Chorioamnionitis. The membranes are opaque and may be yellow to green in color. Candidal infections can cause white microabscesses on the cord.

Selective Reductions. In multiple gestations due to infertility treatment (i.e., multiple fertilized eggs introduced into the uterus), one or more fetuses may be terminated to reduce the total to two or three. The fetuses may be found as thickenings in the membranes and are usually markedly flattened and one to two centimeters in length ("fetus papyraceus").

Abnormal Lobation. The placenta usually forms a single disc-shaped structure. Some placentas will be comprised of two or more lobes. A smaller accessory (succenturiate) lobe may be present. These variants are associated with velamentous/intramembranous vessels and may increase the risk of fetal bleeding.

Amnion Nodosum. Multiple small (<0.1 cm) white or gray irregular nodules on the fetal surface. These can easily be rubbed off the surface. These are formed by aggregates of fetal cells (squames, vernix, hair) on the surface, associated with oligohydramnios.

Infarction. Infarcts are discrete solid lesions usually connected to the basal plate. Recent infarcts will be dark red, and older infarcts will be orange to white. Small marginal infarcts are commonly found. Centrally located infarcts may be of clinical importance.

Intervillous Thrombus. Homogeneous red (recent) to white (old) aggregates of blood found within the placental disc.

Retroplacental Hematoma. An aggregate of blood adherent to the basal plate. The age of the hematoma can be estimated by the degree of organization seen microscopically. The hematoma may compress the placental disc and be associated with infarctions. May be associated with fetal hypoxia.

Subchorionic Fibrin Deposition. Small firm white nodules are seen below the fetal surface. Fibrin deposition can be extensive and involve the entire subchorionic area.

Chorangioma. Rare hamartoma (hemangioma) presenting as a circumscribed fleshy mass that is usually subchorionic. It may resemble an infarct or an intervillous thrombus.

Placenta Accreta. Areas of disruption and/or attached smooth muscle (myometrium) may be attached to the maternal surface. These areas should be sampled with four additional sections of the disrupted maternal surface.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Umbilical cord:** Two cross sections
- **Membranes:** One membrane roll
  In cases of intrauterine growth retardation, pre-eclampsia (hypertension), diabetes, or lupus erythematosus, submit one additional membrane roll.
- **Placenta:** Three full thickness sections (make sure the fetal surface/chorionic plate vessels are represented). If there is a suspicion of placenta accreta, submit an additional four sections of the disrupted maternal surface.
- **Lesions:** Submit additional sections of any gross lesions
- **Multiple gestations:** Submit separate sections as above for each placenta. In addition, submit one membrane roll of the dividing membranes.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Placentas are most easily dictating using a standard template (Fig. 22-10).

Examples of gross summaries:

- A 160 gram singleton placenta with diffuse infarctions
- A 410 gram singleton placenta with a succenturiate lobe and a 3 cm area of intramembranous vessels
- An 800 gram diamnionic monochorionic fused twin placenta without superficial or deep vascular anastomoses
- A 500 gram green singleton placenta

Graphs relating umbilical cord length to gestational age and placental weight to gestational age and crown-rump length are available in Langston, et al.[2] Placental weight standards are given in Table 22-17.

Placenta type

1. Singleton
2. Diamniotic, dichorionic separated twin placenta
3. Diamniotic, dichorionic fused twin placenta
4. Diamniotic, monochorionic twin placenta
5. Monoamniotic, monochorionic twin placenta
6. Triplet placenta (describe)
7. Other (describe)

If a multiple gestation placenta is examined, give each placenta a designation (e.g., one or two clamps or arbitrarily "A" and "B") and dictate each placenta separately.

Cord

Length: _____ cm.
Insertion: central/eccentric/marginal/membranous/unknown
Number of vessels: two arteries and a vein/other (describe)
Cord twist: left (most common)/right/none; # of twists per 10 cm
Other findings:

Membranes

Insertion: _____ % marginal/ _____ % circummarginate/ _____% circumvallate
Color: normal/green/opaque/other
Point of rupture: _____ cm from edge of disc
Other findings:

Disc

Weight: _____ gm _____ (Combined weight if a multigestation placenta)
Size: _____ × _____ × _____ cm
Subchorionic fibrin: normal/patchy (1–2 nodules)/extensive (3 or more nodules)
Retroplacental hemorrhage: absent/present (describe size, old or recent, location)
Infarcts: absent/present (describe size, central or marginal, % of parenchyma infarcted)
Intervillous thrombi: absent/present (describe size, location, laminated or nonlaminated)
Other findings:

Special studies

Evaluation of vascular anastomoses
Tissue saved for cytogenetic analysis, cultures, or metabolic analysis

Gross summary

A single sentence summarizing the above findings.

Figure 22–10. Placental template for dictation.

TABLE 22–17. PLACENTAL WEIGHT STANDARDS

GESTATIONAL AGE (WEEKS)	SINGLETONS PERCENTILES					TWINS (COMBINED WEIGHT) PERCENTILES				
	10	25	50	75	90	10	25	50	75	90
12			**56**							
14			**83**							
16			**110**							
18			**137.8**							
20			**145**			166	190	**218**	245	270
22	122	138	**157**	176	191	191	219	**251**	282	310
24	145	166	**189**	212	233	232	267	**307**	346	382
26	175	200	**227**	255	280	284	330	**380**	430	475
28	210	238	**270**	302	331	345	401	**464**	527	584
30	249	281	**316**	352	384	409	478	**554**	631	700
32	290	325	**364**	403	438	472	554	**644**	734	815
34	331	369	**411**	453	491	531	624	**727**	830	923
36	372	412	**457**	501	542	582	684	**798**	912	1014
38	409	452	**499**	547	589	619	728	**850**	972	1082
40	442	487	**537**	587	632	638	753	**879**	1005	1118

PRODUCTS OF CONCEPTION

Products of conception (POC) are not considered routine surgical specimens by the woman, the family, or the law. These tissues represent the death of a potentially separate individual. Clinicians should be informed about the routine procedure of specimen evaluation and disposal in order that this information can be conveyed to the parents.

State law will vary and must be consulted for specific requirements. In Massachusetts, fetal deaths that require a birth certificate and death certificate include any fetus of 20 weeks gestation or more, any fetus weighing 350 grams or more, or any fetus showing signs of life at birth. If the fetal death is the result of an induced abortion, the death need not be reported. However, if the fetus shows signs of life (at any gestational age or weight), the death must be reported.

If the POC is considered a fetal death, permission must be obtained before an autopsy can be performed. It is preferable to obtain permission from both parents. The parents may wish to view the fetus. This should be done prior to the performance of the autopsy. A death certificate is required.

Types of POCs and Reasons for Examination

Spontaneous abortions (SABs)

- First trimester "losses" (missed abortion, empty sac, blighted ovum). The most common cause is a chromosomal abnormality. Fetal tissues are often not present.
- Second trimester miscarriages. Potential causes include incompetent cervix, preterm labor, intrauterine fetal demise, structural malformations, and infections.
- Recurrent pregnancy loss (>2 losses at any gestational age).

These tissues are usually passed per vagina or removed by endometrial curettings. Examination of the tissues can document the site of the pregnancy, determine the etiology of the loss, and can obtain tissue for special studies.

Therapeutic abortions (TABs)

These abortions may be performed for several reasons:

- Social (maternal request for legal termination of pregnancy)
- Maternal indications (severe diseases exacerbated by pregnancy)
- Fetal indications (structural or chromosomal anomalies)

Examination can verify the involvement of maternal disease in the gestational tissue and verify fetal anomalies.

Ectopic pregnancies

Women present with a first trimester pregnancy with pain and bleeding and an abnormal rise or fall in serum β-HCG levels. Endometrial curettings will be performed to identify chorionic villi or placental implantation to document an in utero pregnancy (see also Chapter 6). If such a pregnancy cannot be documented, an ectopic pregnancy is likely and pelviscopy may be indicated.

Molar pregnancies

Women present with an abnormally enlarged uterus and elevated β-HCG for gestational age. Ultrasound reveals a cystic intrauterine mass. Examination can determine if the mole is partial or complete.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

These specimens should always be submitted fresh. This will allow possible special studies to be performed including karyotype analysis and microbiologic culture. It is also much easier to identify villi in fresh tissue.

Specimens are of three types:

1. POCs without recognizable fetal parts
2. POCs with a fetus <12 weeks of age
3. POCs with a fetus >12 weeks of age

TABLE 22–18. TIMETABLE OF FETAL MORPHOGENESIS

GESTATIONAL AGE (WEEKS)	FOOT LENGTH	CHARACTERISTICS
6		Digital rays in hand plate, paddle limbs
7		Retinal pigment, foot plates
8		Digital rays in feet, elbow
9		Fingers
10		Toes, gut herniation (physiologic omphalocele)
11	7 mm	Eyes closing/closed
12	9 mm	Intestines in abdomen, fingernails
14	14 mm	Gender identifiable by external examination
16	20 mm	Toenails

PROCESSING POCS WITHOUT RECOGNIZABLE FETAL PARTS

1. Decant the tissue into a container that will allow fluid to drain. If fetal tissues are identified, follow one of the subsequent protocols according to fetal age.
2. If villous tissue is clearly identified, process one cassette of villous tissue and save the remaining tissue in formalin.

   Villi can be identified by floating the specimen in saline in a petri dish and observing the tissue using a dissecting microscope. Blood may need to be rinsed away. Villi are usually white (but may be pink) and have acute angle branching. When gently squeezed with a forceps, villi will rapidly re-expand when released. Decidualized endometrium is usually pink (but may be white) and more opaque than villi. Endometrial tissue can have glandular and vascular structures that can be mistaken for villi. These structures run in parallel (i.e., are not branched) and do not have the springy quality of villi.

   If an **ectopic pregnancy** is suspected clinically, all tissue should be processed including the blood. These specimens will often be evaluated as an OR consultation (see Chapter 6).

   If **hydropic villi** are present (any villous structures of 1 cm or more), whether or not fetal tissue is present, the specimen should be evaluated as a possible molar pregnancy. Tissue may be sent for ploidy studies (analytical cytometry; complete = diploid or tetraploid; partial = triploid) or may be cultured for karyotype analysis. Villi and fetal tissues must be sent separately for analysis. Photographs may be useful. Five to ten cassettes of tissue should be processed.

   Complete moles are recognizable by multiple tiny thin-walled fluid filled vesicles. Look for them carefully, as they are often not suspected clinically. Fetal parts are not present (unless there is a non-molar twin). Partial moles may have fetal tissues and scattered vesicles as well, but may not be recognized until examined microscopically. If suspected, look for syndactyly of fingers or toes which is associated with triploidy.

PROCESSING POCS WITH EMBRYONIC OR FETAL TISSUE IDENTIFIED, <12 WEEKS

1. Obtain standard measurements (crown-rump, foot length, or hand length).
2. Evaluate for developmental stage (Table 22-18).
3. Evaluate for anomalies. A complete dissection is not necessary. Gross anomalies will usually be easily identified with careful visual inspection. A single incision can be performed to check for normal situs. If warranted or requested (e.g., anomalies known or suspected by prenatal ultrasound), dissection can be performed with the aid of a dissecting microscope.
4. Sterile tissue may be saved for karyotype analysis if a chromosomal abnormality is suspected (see Special Studies).
5. Submit the embryonic tissue (longitudinal section or coronal sections of calvarium, thorax, abdomen, pelvis) and villous tissue.

If the procedure was a therapeutic abortion without known or suspected fetal anomalies, and the gross examination does not reveal any abnormalities, then tissue need not be examined histologically.

PROCESSING POCS WITH EMBRYONIC OR FETAL TISSUE IDENTIFIED, >12 WEEKS

Fragmented POCs. A thorough examination of the tissues is required.

1. Separate the solid tissues from blood. Use a sieve or separate by hand. Do not add tap water as it will damage the tissues.
2. Examine all solid tissues.
3. Identify the major skeletal parts:
   - Four extremities
   - Spinal column
   - Skull/base

   Examine for number of digits, nail development, palmar creases, edema, etc. Measure foot and/or hand length (heel to great toe/wrist to middle finger).
4. Examine all organs or possible organs including placental tissues, umbilical cord (check number of vessels). Weigh organs if they are reasonable complete. Dissect the heart if possible.
5. Describe normal and abnormal findings.
6. Consider karyotypic analysis if anomalies are present or cultures if infection is suspected.
7. Submit representative sections of organs and skeleton.

Sample Dictation. The specimen is received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "POC," and consists of multiple fragments of fetal and placental tissues and blood in a stockinette (in aggregate 10 × 5 × 1 cm). All four extremities are present and include a right foot length of 12 mm and a right hand length of 10 mm. There is no syndactyly, polydactyly, or abnormal palmar creases. The nail development is normal. A portion of the vertebral column and a fragment of calvarium are intact. The right ear is present and is formed normally. Both eye globes are present. The fragmented calvarium reveals an intact hard palate. Fetal organs and tissues are present and include a relatively intact heart (1.3 grams), fragments of gastrointestinal tract, two fragmented kidneys, and skin.

Dissection of the heart under a dissecting microscope reveals a small membranous ventricular septal defect and an otherwise structurally normal heart, appropriate for gestational age. The great vessels are avulsed and, therefore, the ductus arteriosus cannot be evaluated. The placental tissues include a 10 cm in length trivascular umbilical cord and fragmented villous and membranous tissues. Representative sections of fetal and placental tissues are submitted in five cassettes.

POCs with an Intact Fetus and Placenta. Intact fetuses should be examined with the placenta. The placenta is examined as described in the section on placentas.

1. Photograph the fetus with anterior, posterior, lateral views. Photograph the face. This photograph should be appropriate to provide to the family if requested.
2. Photograph any anomalies or dysmorphism.
3. Radiograph the fetus.
4. Freeze tissue (liver, skin).
5. Save tissue fresh if karyotype analysis is indicated. Usually karyotypic analysis is not indicated if the anomaly is hydrocephalus, renal agenesis/dysgenesis, or an isolated neural tube defect.

   If the fetus is hydropic (ascites, pleural fluid, pericardial fluid) save fluid and tissues for bacterial and viral (HSV, parvovirus, CMV) culture.
6. Obtain the following measurements:
   - Weight
   - Crown-rump length (crown to ischial tuberosities, "sitting height")
   - Crown-heel length (crown to heal of extended leg)
   - Foot length
   - Hand length
   - Head circumference (above ears - as if wearing glasses)

- Chest circumference (around nipples)
- Abdominal circumference (at umbilical insertion)
- Inner canthal distance
- Outer canthal distance
- Any other potentially anomalous measurement (e.g., finger, lip, ear)

7. Make a generous Y-shaped incision.
   Examine the organs in situ. Photograph any anomalies.
   Remove the thymus and gonads before evisceration. They are small and often difficult to identify after dissection.
8. Take the block from the tongue (above the larynx at a minimum) to anus. Remove and save the vertebral column. Remove the brain (see below) and spinal cord, eyes, and pituitary. CNS tissues are fixed overnight. The organ block can be dissected prior to fixation, or fixed overnight if the tissues are autolyzed. Before tissues are fixed, ensure that fresh tissue is available for special studies, if needed. It is exceptional for fetuses to be embalmed. The body should be maintained in a presentable condition. Proper respect for the fetus must be maintained during the examination.
9. Remove the brain into a large vessel filled with 4% paraformaldehyde that has been weighed previously. The brain can be weighed in the container with the fixative. Dissection can be carried out once the brain is well fixed overnight. Identify each cranial nerve.
10. Submit the following tissues. More than one tissue can be placed in one cassette.
    - Thymus
    - Lung – portion of each lobe
    - GI tract – take cross sections from each region with contents in place - do not open
    - Pancreas
    - Gonads
    - Bivalved kidneys and adrenals (right and left)
    - Cross section of neck at thyroid with trachea and esophagus
    - Skin
    - Skeletal muscle
    - Vertebral column (after fixation and decalcification)
    - Pituitary (fixed in situ and decalcified)
    - Eye – cross section (right and left)
    - Brain – include lateral ventricles, cerebellum, and brain stem

The following sections are optional:

- Longitudinal section of long bone (if skeletal dysplasia is suspected)
- Rib or sternum
- Nuchal region (if thickened or cystic hygroma)
- Bladder
- Prostate

Sample Dictation. Received fresh and intact is a phenotypically female fetus with a fresh weight of 258 grams. There is mild skin maceration with slippage over approximately 10% of the surface. The calvarial bones are not disarticulated. External examination reveals a well-developed female fetus with:

- Two eyes with fused lids
- Small, anteverted nose with patent nares
- Intact lip and palate
- Slightly recessed chin
- Normally formed ears
- No nuchal thickening
- Two nipple buds
- Sternum ends approximately half the distance from nipple line to umbilicus
- No hip disarticulation
- Intact vertebral column
- Five digits on all extremities with no syndactyly or abnormal creases
- Patent vagina and anus
- No abnormal joint contractures

Gross measurements:

- Weight
- Crown-rump length
- Crown-heel length
- Foot length
- Hand length
- Head circumference
- Chest circumference
- Abdominal circumference
- Inner canthal distance
- Outer canthal distance

Gross photographs are taken of the face, anterior, posterior, and lateral views.

A standard Y incision is made. There is approximately 3 cc of serous fluid in the abdomen. No thoracic or pericardial fluid is present. The in situ examination reveals the heart pointing to the left, the stomach and one spleen in the upper left abdomen, liver and gall bladder in right upper abdomen, and the appendix in the right sidewall. The thymus is mediastinal. The diaphragms are intact.

Evisceration is performed from the tongue to anus without difficulty. The trachea and esophagus are probed to reveal no atresias or fistulas. Both kidneys are present with normal fetal lobulations. Both adrenal glands are present and normally placed. The internal genitalia are female and appear grossly normal.

Dissection reveals three lobes of the right lung and two lobes of the left lung. The heart receives the pulmonary veins in the left atria and superior and inferior vena cava in the right atrium. The great vessels are normally related. Opening the heart reveals an intact atrial septum with a patent and competent valve of the foramen ovale. There is a persistence of the left superior vena cava draining into an enlarged coronary sinus. The inflow into the right ventricle is normal with a normal tricuspid valve. The right ventricular chamber is normal. The pulmonary valve is tricuspid. The left and right pulmonary arteries are patent and appear normal. The ductus arteriosis is patent into the descending aorta. The left atria, left ventricular inflow, and mitral valves are normal. There is a ventricular septal defect in the membranous septum with extension anteriorly into the conal septum. The aortic valve is tricuspid with normally placed coronary ostia. The aortic arch and branches are normal.

The esophagus empties into a stomach with scant mucous contents. The small and large bowel are normal with no atresias, volvuli, or diverticula. The large bowel contains meconium.

Both kidneys have normal fetal lobulations and their pelvises are not dilated. The ureters connect to an empty bladder. The adrenal glands are normal and without hemorrhage. The liver has many subcapsular petechial hemorrhages. The spleen and pancreas are normal in appearance.

Organ weights:

- Thymus
- Lungs (combined)
- Heart
- Liver
- Spleen
- Adrenals (combined)
- Kidneys (combined)

The vertebral column is removed. The spinal cord appears normal. The calvarium is opened. The brain in situ reveals scant subdural hemorrhage over the convexities. The corpus callosum is present. The brain and spinal cord are removed intact and fixed. The brain appears normal for gestational age. The pituitary gland is removed with the sella and is fixed and decalcified. Both orbits are removed using an interior approach.

- Brain weight

Tissue from the placenta and skeletal muscle were sent for cytogenetic analysis. A portion of the right lung was sent for microbiological culture. A portion of the skin and liver were frozen in liquid nitrogen.

The fetus is fixed and returned to the specimen cabinet.

SPECIAL STUDIES

Examination of Fetuses with Known or Suspected Anomalies.

Examine the fetus for the following **external** features:

- Nuchal thickening: associated with trisomy 21 or monosomy X. Take a section through neck skin and send for chromosome analysis.
- Cleft palate/lip: associated with trisomy 13. Send for chromosome analysis.
- Skin edema, dorsal pedal edema: associated with hydrops, monosomy X. Cultures may be taken to evaluate possible infection.
- Syndactyly: associated with triploidy and partial mole. Examine placenta carefully.
- Polydactyly: associated with trisomy 13.
- Short sternum: normally the sternum reaches halfway between the internipple distance and the umbilicus. A short sternum is associated with trisomy 18.
- Ambiguous genitalia: most female fetuses have a large clitoris which can easily be confused with a phallus. Look carefully to see if the labia/scrotum are fused, indicating a male fetus. Describe the external genitalia as being "male," "female," or "ambiguous," but don't assign a sex to the fetus without first identifying the gonads.
- Skeletal anomalies: short limbs or fractures. Make sure to get the history and radiographs. Submit bone sections (long bones, ribs, and vertebrae). All bony parts should be x-rayed. Arrange the bony structures on the film in their anatomic positions.
- Other features: Number of hair whorls (there should be one, more than one suggests problems in brain genesis), dimples over the lumbosacral regions (spina bifida), abnormal hand/feet position (clenching = arthrogryposes and neural problems; short dorsiflexed great toe or thumb/little finger overlap = trisomy 18; valgus deformities of lower limbs = Potter's syndrome), protuberant tongue (Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome).

Examine the fetus for the following **internal** features:

- Shape of liver: the gallbladder should be to the right of the umbilical vein and the slope should be up to the left.
- Heart: anomalies
- Spleen: polysplenia or asplenia suggest visceral heterotaxy and associated cardiac abnormalities.
- Kidneys: Shape (horseshoe), bifid, cystic, absent.
- Adrenals: medullary hemorrhage (associated with infection, take cultures).
- Lobation of the lungs.
- Presence of thymus.
- Gonads and uterus.
- Diaphragm: make sure it is intact without herniations.
- Appendix: should be in the right lower quadrant.
- Tracheoesophageal fistula; anal atresia (check for patency with a probe)
- Meckel diverticulum

Chromosomal Analysis.

Karyotype analysis may be helpful in the following cases:

- Two or more consecutive spontaneous abortions.
- Developmental stage is significantly discrepant from the clinical estimate of gestational age (severe intrauterine growth retardation).
- One or more malformations (isolated neural tube defects and renal agenesis/dysgenesis are possible exceptions).
- Ambiguous genitalia after 13 weeks.

Using sterile technique, remove a small sample of skin and one other tissue (e.g., lung or placenta). If the embryonic tissue is macerated, portions of placental tissue may be used.

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR PRODUCTS OF CONCEPTION

- **State:** Intact or fragmented, macerated or well preserved
- **Gender:** Male, female, intersex, or not determined

- **Estimated gestational age:** Crown-rump length, foot length, estimated age
- **Organs examined:** List all organs examined and if normal or abnormal for gestational age
- **Congenital anomalies:** Present or absent, describe
- **Placenta :** List relevant features (e.g., mature or immature, umbilical cord normal or abnormal, infection present or absent)
- **Karyotype:** Indicate if tissue was sent for analysis

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1. Kurman RJ, Norris HJ. Evaluation of criteria for distinguishing atypical endometrial hyperplasia from well-differentiated carcinoma. Cancer 49:2547-2559, 1982.
2. Roberts DJ. Placental pathology, a survival guide. Arch Path Lab Med 132(4):641-651, 2008.
3. Bajoria R, Wigglesworth J, Fisk NM. Angioarchitecture of monochorionic placentas in relation to the twin-twin transfusion syndrome. Am J Obstet Gynecol 172:856-863, 1995.

Head and Neck 23

SINUS CONTENTS

Functional endoscopic sinus surgery (FESS) is used as a treatment for patients with chronic sinusitis who have not responded to medical therapy. The contents of the sinuses are examined and obstructing areas and polyps are removed. A subset of these patients may have allergic sinusitis. If allergic mucin consisting predominantly of eosinophils and Charcot-Leyden crystals is seen histologically, special stains for fungi should be performed to look for the hyphae of *Aspergillus*. Allergic sinusitis must be distinguished from obstructive aspergillosis ("fungal ball") and invasive fungal disease.[1-4]

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. The specimen consists of multiple minute fragments of bone and soft tissue. Describe color and aggregate size. If polyps are present, see following section.
2. The specimen will generally need to be decalcified.
3. Submit a representative section of the tissue in one cassette including mucin if present. If a portion of grossly normal nasal septum is submitted, it can be described but not examined histologically.

NASAL POLYPS

The most common specimen consists of inflammatory nasal polyps. These polyps look like translucent, gelatinous, rounded masses ranging from 0.5 to 3 cm in diameter. The cut surface is homogeneous grey or pink. Small cystic areas may be present and areas of chronic inflammation appear as white patches. Calcification or bone may be found and if present must be decalcified before submission. If large, the polyps may be bisected and half of each one submitted.

Polyps consisting of firm dense white tissue may be neoplastic. Benign (but locally aggressive) papillomas or squamous cell carcinomas can occur in the nasal passages. Attempt to identify the base of firm polyps and submit as a separate section, if possible, as well as thoroughly sample the lesion.

ORAL CAVITY/TONGUE RESECTIONS

These are often large resections that may include a portion of the mandible and teeth. Such resections are almost always performed for invasive squamous cell carcinomas. These specimens are often accompanied by a radical neck dissection (see below). Lip resections are discussed under Dermatopathology.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Identify structures present including bone, teeth, mucosal surfaces, palate, tongue, muscle. Anatomically complex specimens should be reviewed with the surgeon before processing. Record measurements for each component. Major nerves or vessels should be identified by the surgeon.
   If there is any clinical or gross suspicion of bone invasion, the specimen is radiographed.
2. Describe the lesion including location, size, invasion into adjacent structures, and distance from margins. Squamous cell carcinomas are usually raised irregular lesions with central ulceration. If the patient has received prior irradiation, the lesion may be difficult to define and persist predominantly as a firm ulcerated area.
3. Take sections of the lesion demonstrating relationship to mucosal and soft tissue margins and deepest extent of invasion. Margins are taken as perpendicular sections.
   Sample all margins not included in above.

4. After all soft tissue sections have been removed, the bone can be decalcified.
   If there is possible bone invasion take sections demonstrating closest approach of tumor to bone. Also take the bone margins.
   If there is no gross, radiologic, or clinical suspicion of bone invasion, the only bone submitted may be the margins.

SPECIAL STUDIES

Squamous cell carcinomas. Some head and neck squamous cell carcinomas (especially tonsillar carcinomas in young patients (<40) with nonkeratinizing basal cell morphology) are associated with HPV. These carcinomas are strongly positive for p16. HPV can be identified by PCR on formalin-fixed tissue.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Lesion:** One to five sections demonstrating relationship to margins.
- **Margins:** Mucosal and soft tissue margins not included in the prior specimens.
- **Bone:** Margins and any areas with suspicion of invasion by tumor. Teeth are described grossly unless abnormal or thought to be involved by tumor.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "Composite resection," is a resection specimen (12.5 × 10. 5 × 6.2 cm) consisting of left mandibular ramus (7 × 6 × 0.6 cm) containing three molars, base of tongue (3.9 × 3.4 × 1.9 cm), floor of mouth (5.5 × 3.5 × 0.6 cm), soft tissue on the external portion of the ramus (6.5 × 2.6 × 1.2 cm), and soft tissue posterior and lateral to the base of the tongue (3.5 × 3.8 × 1.6 cm). A raised irregular white/tan tumor mass (4.8 × 3.5 × 1.9 cm in depth) is present involving the soft tissue at the base of the tongue, extends into and through the bone, and is present in the soft tissue external to the bone. The tumor invades into the muscle of the tongue. The margins of resection are grossly free of tumor. The tumor is 0.3 cm from the lateral mucosal margin, 0.8 cm from the posterior mucosal margin, 0.8 cm from the medial mucosal margin, and 0.5 cm from the anterior mucosal margin. The tumor is 0.5 from the inferior soft tissue margin at the base of the tongue and 0.4 cm from the soft tissue margin in the external soft tissue to the ramus.

The specimen is radiographed and an irregular trabecular pattern is seen in the area of gross tumor involvement. The bone is fixed and decalcified prior to histologic sectioning.

Cassette #1: Anterior mucosa and tumor, perpendicular margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #2: Medial mucosa and tumor, perpendicular margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #3: Lateral mucosa and tumor, perpendicular margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #4: Posterior mucosa and tumor, perpendicular margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #5: Deepest extent of tumor at base of tongue, perpendicular margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #6: Tumor and bone, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #7: Tumor and soft tissue external to ramus, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #8: Bone, proximal margin, en face, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassette #9: Bone, distal margin, en face, 1 frag, ESS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR ORAL CAVITY AND TONGUE TUMORS

- **Specimen**: Lip (vermilion border, mucosa, commissure, upper or lower), tongue (lateral, ventral, dorsal, anterior two thirds), gingiva (upper, lower), anterior floor of mouth, floor of mouth, hard palate, buccal mucosa, vestibule of mouth (upper, lower), alveolar process (upper, lower), mandible, maxilla
- **Procedure**: Excisional biopsy, glossectomy, mandibulectomy, maxillectomy, palatectomy, lymph node dissection,
- **Specimen Integrity**: Intact, fragmented
- **Specimen Size**: Greatest dimension (other dimensions optional)
- **Specimen Laterality**: Right, left, bilateral, midline
- **Tumor Site**: Lip (vermilion border, mucosa, commissure, upper or lower), tongue (lateral, ventral, dorsal, anterior two thirds), gingiva (upper, lower), anterior floor of mouth, floor of mouth, hard

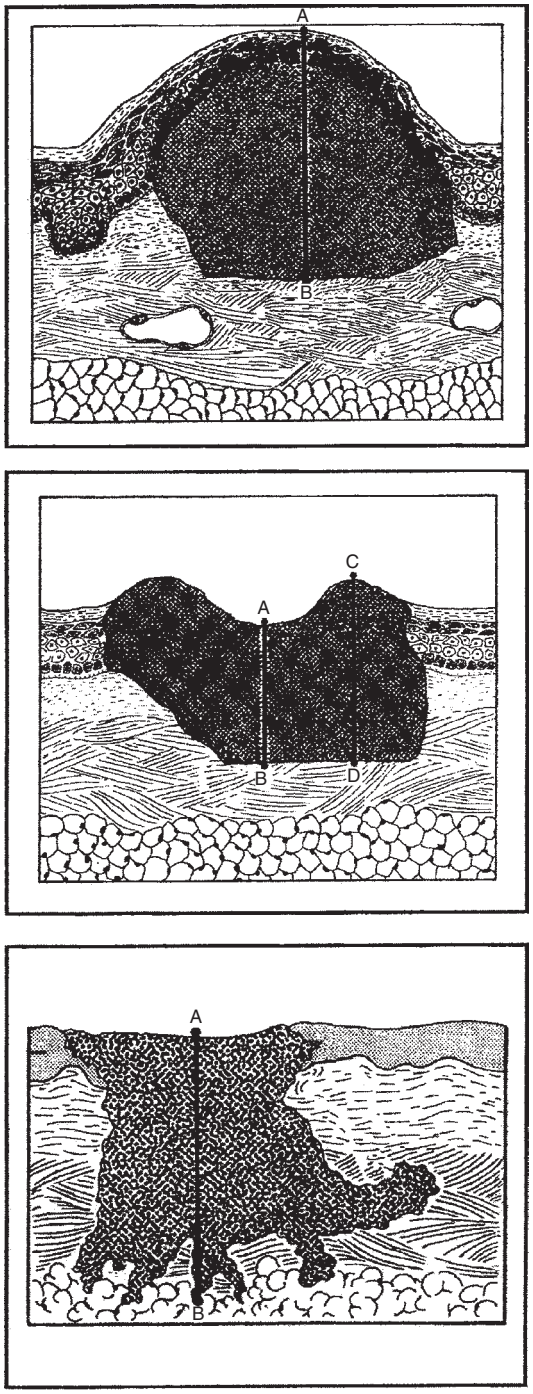
palate, buccal mucosa, vestibule of mouth (upper, lower), alveolar process (upper, lower), mandible, maxilla
- **Tumor Focality**: Single focus, multifocal (specify number)
- **Tumor Size**: Greatest dimension (other dimensions optional)
- **Tumor Thickness**: Give thickness in mm. This is important for small (T1 or T2) oral squamous cell carcinomas.
- Surface ulcerated, or not ulcerated
- **Tumor Description**: Polypoid, exophytic, endophytic, ulcerated, sessile
- **Histologic Type**: Squamous cell carcinoma, minor salivary gland carcinoma, other rare types
- **Histologic Grade**: Well, moderate, poor
- **Tumor Extension**: Depth of invasion (see below), invasion into adjacent structures (bone, skin, muscle)
- **Margins**: Not involved, involved by invasive carcinoma or carcinoma in situ (includes moderate and severe dysplasia). Give distance from closest margin.
- Mucosal, soft tissue, bone
- **Treatment Effect**: Not identified, present
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion**: Not identified, present
- **Perineural Invasion**: Not identified, present
- **Lymph Nodes**: Number and location of involved lymph nodes, size of metastatic deposits, extracapsular invasion
- **Tumor Necrosis**: Present or absent, extent
- **Additional Pathologic Findings**: Carcinoma in situ, dysplasia (mild, moderate, severe; keratinizing or non-keratinizing), chronic inflammation, radiation atypia, colonization (fungal, bacterial)
- **Ancillary Studies**: EBV or HPV may be requested by clinicians. HPV-associated oropharyngeal carcinomas are more frequent in younger patients without a history of tobacco or alcohol use and may have a better prognosis.
- **Depth of Invasion**: These measurements should be recorded to the nearest millimeter. Depth is not used for T classification.
  - **Exophytic tumors:** Measure the "tumor thickness" from the surface (A) to the deepest area of invasion (B).
  - **Ulcerated tumors:** Measure from the ulcer base (A) to the deepest area of invasion (B), as well as from the surface of the most lateral extent of the invasive carcinoma (C) to the deepest area (D).
  - **Endophytic tumors:** Measure from the perpendicular surface of the invasive squamous cell carcinoma (A) to the deepest area of invasion (B). The measurement should not be done on tangential sections or in lesions without a clearly recognizable surface component.
  - **Depth of invasion of lip and oral cavity tumors**: see Figure 23-1.
- **Distant Metastasis**: Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification**: T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 23-1). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/)and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

RADICAL NECK DISSECTION

Radical neck dissections are uncommon specimens and are usually performed for squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck. Poor prognosis is associated with multiple affected nodes, bilateral vs. unilateral involvement, extranodal extension, and positive nodes distal from the primary site.

- The **standard** radical neck dissection includes cervical lymph nodes, sternomastoid muscle, internal jugular vein, spinal accessory nerve, and submaxillary gland; the tail of the parotid may be included.
- The **modified** radical neck dissection (functional or Bocca neck dissection) does not include the sternomastoid muscle, the spinal accessory nerve, or the internal jugular vein.



Exophytic tumors: Measure the "tumor thickness" from the surface (A) to the deepest area of invasion (B).

Ulcerated tumors: Measure from the ulcer base (A) to the deepest area of invasion (B), as well as from the surface of the most lateral extent of the invasive carcinoma (C) to the deepest area (D).

Endophytic tumors: Measure from the perpendicular surface of the invasive squamous cell carcinoma (A) to the deepest area of invasion (B). The measurement should not be done on tangential sections or in lesions without a clearly recognizable surface component.

Figure 23–1. Depth of invasion of lip and oral cavity tumors *(From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Sixth Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2002, p 26. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.)*

- The **extended** radical neck dissection includes retropharyngeal, paratracheal, parotid, suboccipital, and/or upper mediastinal nodes.
- The **regional** (partial or selective) neck dissection includes only the nodes of the first metastatic station.

The specific lymph node groups can only be identified without orientation by the surgeon in the standard and extended dissections. Many specimens lack the necessary anatomic landmarks. It is the recommendation of American Head and Neck Society that specimens be divided into levels and sublevels by the surgeon and submitted as separate designated specimens.[5]

TABLE 23-1. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF TUMORS OF THE LIP AND ORAL CAVITY

Tumor	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	Carcinoma in situ
T1	Tumor 2 cm or less in greatest dimension
T2	Tumor >2 cm but ≤4 cm in greatest dimension
T3	Tumor more than 4 cm in greatest dimension
T4a	Moderately advanced local disease* Lip: Tumor invades through cortical bone, inferior alveolar nerve, floor of mouth, or skin of face, that is, chin or nose Oral Cavity: Tumor invades adjacent structures (e.g., through cortical bone [mandible or maxilla], into deep [extrinsic] muscle of tongue [genioglossus, hyoglossus, palatoglossus, and styloglossus], maxillary sinus, skin of face).
T4b	Very advanced local disease
	Tumor invades masticator space, pterygoid plates, or skull base and/or encases internal carotid artery
Note: Superficial erosion alone of bone/tooth socket by gingival primary is not sufficient to classify a tumor as T4.	
Regional Lymph Nodes	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node, ≤3 cm
N2	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node, ≤3 cm but not more than 6 cm in greatest dimension; or in multiple ipsilateral lymph nodes, none more than 6 cm in greatest dimension; or in bilateral or contralateral lymph nodes, nnone more than 6 cm in greatest dimension
N2a	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node >3 cm but ≤6 cm
N2b	Metastasis in multiple ipsilateral lymph nodes, none >6 cm
N2c	Metastasis in bilateral or contralateral lymph nodes, none >6 cm
N3	Metastasis in a lymph node >6 cm
Metastasis	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
Note: This classification does not include nonepithelial tumors. From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.	

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Identify the type of dissection and record the overall dimensions. If muscle is present, orient the specimen and divide the lymph nodes into groups (Fig. 23-2). Call the surgeon if the specimen cannot be oriented and there are features present that might allow orientation with additional information (e.g., sutures, salivary gland, fragments of muscle).
   If not oriented by the surgeon, the specimen can be thought of as a letter Z. The upper horizontal line contains level I and can be identified by the presence of the submandicular gland, the lower horizontal

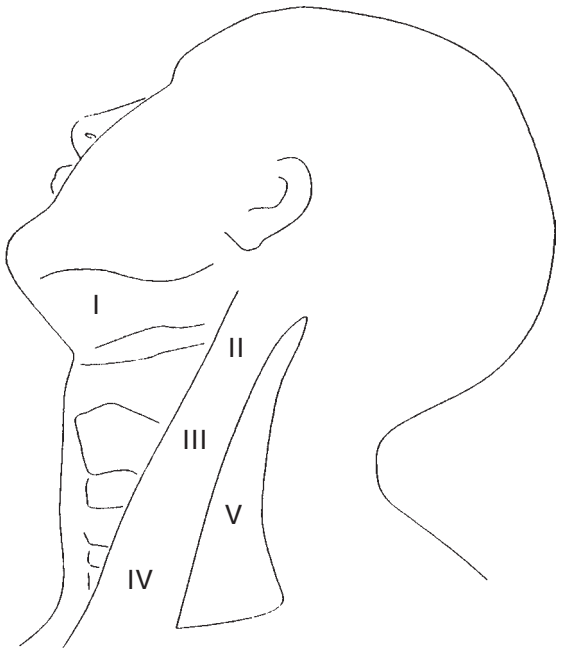


Figure 23–2. Radical neck dissection. *(From Noble J [ed]: Textbook of Primary Care Medicine, 3rd ed., St. Louis, Mosby, 2001.)*

line level V, and levels II, III, and IV comprise the upper, mid, and lower thirds of the oblique line defined by the sternocleidomastoid muscle.

2. Record the dimensions and appearance of the sternocleidomastoid muscle including color and any irregular firm areas (possibly representing involvement by tumor). The jugular vein lies deep to this muscle. Record the length, diameter and appearance (color, patency). Open the vein along its length and examine for thrombus or tumor involvement. Tumor invasion into the vein is usually found only with extensive nodal disease. The soft tissue deep to the muscle is divided into three groups, high (level II), mid (level III), and low (level IV) jugular nodes, and placed in three separate labeled containers.
3. The submandibular region is the area superior to the muscle and contains the submandibular gland. Record its size, consistency, color, and the presence of any lesions. Separate the nonmuscle tissue and save in a separate container (level I).
4. The posterior triangle (level V) is the soft tissue inferior to the muscle. Record its dimensions and place all soft tissue in a separate container.
5. If gross tumor is present, evaluate the surgical margins around the tumor.

Lymph node groups should be separated and reported using standard terminology as follows:

- **Level I**: Submental and submandibular lymph nodes
- **Level II**: Upper jugular lymph nodes
- **Level III**: Mid jugular lymph nodes
- **Level IV**: Lower jugular lymph nodes
- **Level V**: Posterior triangle lymph nodes

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Lymph nodes:** Submit representative sections of each lymph node, separated into the five separate groups described above. A typical specimen contains a total of 30 to 40 lymph nodes.
- **Submandibular gland:** One representative section.
- **Muscle and vein:** One representative section. If these structures are grossly involved by tumor, submit one to two sections and specimen margins.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR RADICAL NECK DISSECTIONS

- **Lymph nodes:** Number nodes examined, number of involved nodes, location of involved nodes, size of metastatic deposits, extracapsular invasion
- **Salivary gland:** Normal, involvement by tumor, inflammation
- **Muscle and vein:** Normal, involvement by tumor

MUCOSAL BIOPSIES

Small biopsies are often obtained from the oral cavity, pharynx, or larynx to rule out carcinoma or premalignant conditions. These biopsies are usually small unorientable fragments. Diagnostic problems often include distinguishing reactive atypia from dysplasia and carcinoma in situ in tangential sections from invasive squamous cell carcinoma. Obtain three levels.

SALIVARY GLAND

Minor Salivary Gland Biopsy of the Lip

Patients with Sjögren syndrome will often have a labial biopsy of normal-appearing mucosa for diagnosis. It will be a small fragment of tissue that is processed in its entirety. Obtain three levels.

The inflammation is scored to determine the likelihood of an autoimmune disease. A "focus" is defined as a lymphoid aggregate containing at least 50 lymphocytes adjacent to normal-appearing mucous acini. Germinal centers may be present. Foci are counted per 4 mm^2 area of glandular tissue (close to the size of the biopsy).

- Scores >1 focus per 4mm^2 are diagnostic of autoimmune sialadenitis
- Score = 1 focus per 4mm^2 are suggestive
- Scores <1 focus per 4mm^2 are nondiagnostic

Usually the lymphocytes are associated with acinar atrophy and fibrosis; this correlates with the clinical loss of salivary gland function. About 5% of patients with Sjogren's syndrome will have nondiagnostic biopsies. However, re-biopsy at a later time often does reveal diagnostic changes.[6]

Salivary Gland Resections

The most common specimen is a parotid gland resected for a pleomorphic adenoma (mixed tumor) or, less commonly, a Warthin tumor. Other tumors are very rare. A prior fine needle aspiration may have been performed.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh the specimen and record the outer dimensions. Note whether any lesional tissue can be seen at the margin.
   Identify any nerves that may have been resected.
2. Ink the outer surface. Serially section through the specimen looking for any lesions. Describe lesions including size, number (some tumors can be multifocal), color, consistency, involvement of nerve trunks, relationship to remainder of gland and capsule, relationship to resection margin.
   Describe uninvolved parenchyma including color, fibrosis, calculi in ducts, dilated ducts, hemorrhage, and cysts. Intraparenchymal lymph nodes may be present.
3. Examine the parotid gland and surrounding soft tissue for the presence of any lymph nodes.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Pleomorphic Adenomas (Mixed Tumors) are the most common type of salivary gland tumor; they are typically well-circumscribed but may have small satellite nodules. They are usually white, very rubbery to firm, and translucent or cartilaginous. If diffuse infiltration or cystic degeneration is present, suspect an acinic cell or mucoepidermoid carcinoma (both can also be partially or completely circumscribed). Rarely, carcinomas

arise in pleomorphic adenomas and may be recognizable grossly as areas of hemorrhage, necrosis, or frank invasion of adjacent tissue. A pleomorphic adenoma that is not completely excised at the initial operation can recur as multiple nodules. Such a recurrence may be difficult to resect without also removing nerve trunks.

Warthin Tumors are circumscribed, orange/tan and often cystic. There is usually thick brown/black fluid (like "crank case oil," but may be clear) within the cyst spaces, which are lined by papillary nodules. Multiple tumors occur more frequently with Warthin tumor more than any other salivary gland tumor. Approximately 12% of patients develop more than one tumor and 5% to 10% of patients have bilateral tumors.

Mucoepidermoid Carcinoma may be well circumscribed if low grade. These carcinomas may have cystic areas containing mucin. Higher grade tumors are usually infiltrative (with an appearance similar to invasive breast cancer) and solid in appearance. This is the most common malignant tumor in adults and children.

Acinic Cell Carcinoma is usually well circumscribed and may be grossly encapsulated. These tumors are grey/white to red/gray and lack the shiny surface of pleomorphic adenomas. Multiple cysts may be present. This is the second most common malignant tumor.

Adenoid Cystic Carcinoma may appear deceptively well delimited but infiltrative areas are usually present beyond the grossly apparent lesion. The tumors may show subtle effacement or blurring of normal lobular architecture. They are usually solid and grey/white. Cystic areas and hemorrhage are uncommon.

Salivary Duct Carcinoma is rare, and presents as a poorly demarcated scirrhous mass; it may invade outside the gland. This carcinoma closely resembles breast carcinoma in appearance.

Some of these tumors may have or may mimic an intraductal growth pattern. Since pure intraductal growth is associated with a favorable prognosis, such tumors should be evaluated for myoepithelial cells with immunohistochemical markers (e.g., p63, myosin heavy chain).

Lymphomas or Benign Lymphoepithelial Lesions are very fleshy and soft to firm. These specimens should be processed like lymphomas, with tissue taken for special studies. Many patients with lymphoepithelial lesions will be HIV-positive. These patients may develop bilateral (or, less commonly, unilateral) swelling of the parotid glands with multiple cysts.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Lesions:** Up to six cassettes including relationship to uninvolved gland, capsule. Routine pleomorphic adenomas or Warthin tumors only require three cassettes. All areas of hemorrhage, necrosis, and gross invasion of adjacent tissue should be extensively sampled.
- **Uninvolved gland:** One to two cassettes
- **Lymph nodes:** All lymph nodes

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "parotid," is a 6 × 5 × 3 cm parotid gland surrounded by adipose tissue measuring in thickness from 0.1 to 0.5 cm. There is a 4 × 3 × 3 cm firm tan white homogeneous well circumscribed lesion within the gland that is completely surrounded by salivary gland tissue but approaches to within 0.2 cm of one margin. The remainder of the gland is tan/yellow and unremarkable. No lymph nodes are identified in the surrounding soft tissue.

Cassettes #1-3: Lesion including closest margin, 4 frags, RSS.
Cassette #4: Uninvolved gland, 1 frag, RSS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR SALIVARY GLAND CARCINOMAS

- **Specimen**: Parotid gland (superficial lobe, deep lobe), submandibular gland, sublingual gland
- **Procedure**: Excisional biopsy, resection of submandibular gland, resection of sublingual gland, superficial parotidectomy, total parotidectomy, lymph node dissection
- **Specimen Integrity**: Intact, fragmented

- **Specimen Size**: Greatest dimension (other dimensions optional)
- **Specimen Laterality**: Right, left, bilateral
- **Tumor Site**: Parotid gland (superficial lobe, deep lobe), submandibular gland, sublingual gland
- **Tumor Focality**: Single focus, multifocal
- **Tumor Size**: Greatest dimension (additional dimensions optional) ≤2 cm, ≥2cm to ≤4 cm, >4 cm but ≤6 cm, >6 cm
- **Tumor Description**: Encapsulated/circumscribed, invasive, solid, cystic
- **Histologic Type**: Adenoid cystic, mucoepidermoid, acinic cell, salivary duct carcinoma, carcinoma ex pleomorphic adenoma, adenocarcinoma, polymorphous low-grade adenocarcinoma (PLGA), other rare tumor types. The WHO Classification is recommended.
- **Histologic Grade**: See Table 23-2.
  - Mucoepidermoid carcinomas may be graded (Tables 23-3 and 23-4).
  - Grading systems have been developed for acinic cell and adenoid cystic carcinomas but are not universally accepted. Solid areas (>30% of tumor) in adenoid cystic carcinomas are associated with a worse prognosis.
- **Tumor Extension**: No extraparenchymal invasion and ≤2 cm (pT1), >2 but ≤4 cm without extraparenchymal invasion (pT2), extraparenchymal invasion and/or >4 cm, without involvement of seventh nerve (pT3), invasion of skin, mandible, ear canal, or facial nerve (pT4a), invasion of skull, pterygoid plates, or carotid artery (pT4b).
- **Margins**: Uninvolved, involved (distance from closest margin); specify location if possible
- **Treatment Effect**: If there has been neoadjuvant therapy: not identified, present
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion**: Not identified, present
- **Perineural Invasion**: Not identified, present
- **Additional Pathologic Findings**: Sialadenitis, tumor-associated lymphoid proliferation
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Not present (pN0), present in 1 ipsilateral lymph node, ≤3 cm (pN1), present in 1 ipsilateral lymph node, >3 but ≤6 cm (pN2a), present in multiple ipsilateral lymph nodes, none >6 cm (pN2b), present in bilateral or contralateral lymph nodes, none >6 cm (pN2c), metastasis in a lymph node >6 cm (pN3)
  - Number of lymph nodes examined, number with metastases, size of largest metastasis
  - Extranodal extension: not identified, present

TABLE 23–2. GRADING OF SALIVARY GLAND CARCINOMAS

LOW GRADE	
Acinic cell carcinoma	
Basal cell adenocarcinoma	
Polymorphous low grade adenocarcinoma	
HIGH GRADE	
Primary squamous cell carcinoma	
Undifferentiated carcinoma	
TUMORS OF VARIABLE GRADE	
Adenocarcinoma, NOS	Grade according to histologic features
Adenoid cystic carcinoma	Cribriform/tubular pattern versus solid (>30% of carcinoma)
Mucoepidermoid carcinoma	See Tables 23-3 and 23-4
Salivary duct carcinoma	Grade according to histologic features. Most are high grade.

TABLE 23–3. AFIP GRADING SYSTEM FOR MUCOEPIDERMOID CARCINOMAS

PARAMETER	POINT VALUE
Intracystic component <20%	+2
Neural invasion present	+2
Necrosis present	+3
Four or more mitoses per 10 HPF	+3
Anaplasia (nuclear pleomorphism, increased N/C ratio, large nucleoli, anisochromia, and hyperchromasia)	+4
GRADE	**TOTAL POINT SCORE**
Low grade	0–4
Intermediate grade	5–6
High grade	7 or more

From Auclair PL, Goode RK, Ellis GL, Mucoepidermoid carcinomas of intraoral salivary glands. Evaluation and application of grading criteria in 143 cases, Cancer 69:2021-2030, 1992 and Goode, RK, Auclair, PL, Ellis, GL, Mucoepidermoid carcinoma of the major salivary glands; clinical and histopathologic analysis of 234 cases with evaluation of grading criteria, Cancer 82:1217-1224, 1998.
This grading system was not predictive of outcome in submandibular tumors.

TABLE 23–4. MODIFICATION OF AFIP GRADING SYSTEM FOR MUCOEPIDERMOID CARCINOMAS

FEATURE	POINTS
Intracystic component <20%	2
Tumor front invades in small nests and islands	2
Pronounced nuclear atypia	2
Lymphatic or vascular invasion	3
Bony invasion	3
Four or more mitoses per 10 HPF	3
Perineural spread	3
Necrosis	3

	SCORE (POINTS)	CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES	DEFINING FEATURES
Grade I	0	Prominent goblet cell component, cyst formation, intermediate cells may be prominent, circumscribed growth pattern	Lack of grade III defining features, lack of aggressive invasion pattern

TABLE 23–4. MODIFICATION OF AFIP GRADING SYSTEM FOR MUCOEPIDERMOID CARCINOMAS—cont'd

	SCORE (POINTS)	CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES	DEFINING FEATURES
Grade II	2 to 3	Intermediate cells predominate over mucinous cells, mostly solid tumor, squamous cells may be seen	Aggressive invasion pattern, lack of grade III defining features
Grade III	4 or more	Squamous cells predominate, intermediate and mucinous cells must also be present, mostly solid	Necrosis, perineural spread, vascular invasion, bony invasion, >4 mitoses/10 HPF, high grade nuclear pleomorphism

Modified from Brandwein, MS, Ivanov, KI, Wallace, DI, et al, Mucoepidermoid carcinoma. A clinicopathologic study of 80 patients with special reference to histological grading, Am J Surg Pathol 25:835-845, 2001.

TABLE 23-5. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF TUMORS OF MAJOR SALIVARY GLANDS

Tumor	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
T1	Tumor ≤2 cm without extraparenchymal extension*
T2	Tumor >2 cm but ≤4 cm without extraparenchymal extension*
T3	Tumor more than 4 cm and/or tumor having extraparenchymal extension*
T4a	Moderately advanced disease
	Tumor invades skin, mandible, ear canal, and/or facial nerve
T4b	Very advanced disease
	Tumor invades skull base and/or pterygoid plates and/or encases carotid artery
Regional Lymph Nodes	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node, ≤3 cm
N2	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node, more than 3 cm but not more than 6 cm in greatest dimension, or in multiple ipsilateral lymph nodes, none more than 6 cm in greatest dimension, or in bilateral or contralateral lymph nodes, none more than 6 cm in greatest dimension
N2a	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node >3 cm but ≤6 cm
N2b	Metastasis in multiple ipsilateral lymph nodes, none >6 cm
N2c	Metastasis in bilateral or contralateral lymph nodes, none >6 cm
N3	Metastasis in a lymph node >6 cm
Metastasis	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis

*Note: Extraparenchymal extension is clinical or macroscopic evidence of invasion of soft tissues. Microscopic evidence alone does not constitute extraparenchymal extension for classification purposes.
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.

- **Distant Metastasis**: Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification**: T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 23-5). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information form the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

STAPES

The stapes is sometimes removed due to "otosclerosis" or "otospongiosis." The footplate of the stapes attaches to the oval window leading to the inner ear. In this disease of unknown etiology, immature bone is produced in this area resulting in fixation of the stapes to the oval window. This process is a relatively frequent cause of conductive deafness in young persons. Surgical repair involves reimplantment of the stapes.

Early lesions show collagen disarray with increased osteoclastic and osteoblastic activity. Older lesions look like woven bone.

However, this being said, the modern surgical procedure resects a portion of the stapes but does not remove the focus of sclerotic bone. The specimen usually consists of a minute fragment of bone, usually not identifiable as the stapes footplate. The specimen is described grossly, but usually not submitted for histologic sections.

TEETH

Teeth are generally removed because of caries or as part of a larger resection (e.g. mandible), and only require gross documentation.

Rarely, tumors of teeth or teeth from patients with systemic diseases involving teeth (e.g., some types of osteogenesis imperfecta) are removed. Teeth, as any other surgical specimen, need to be fixed well and not allowed to dry out if of diagnostic importance.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN (DOCUMENTATION)

1. Count the number of intact teeth and measure in aggregate. Measure the remaining fragments in aggregate. Note the presence of caries and dental fillings.
   Dentists and oral surgeons designate teeth using the Universal Numbering System. #1 is the right maxillary third molar, proceeding on the maxilla to #16 (the left maxillary third molar). #17 is the left mandibular third molar, proceeding to #32 (the right mandibular third molar).
2. Describe, if possible the identity of the teeth, (molars, premolars or canine, and incisors).
3. In some cases, teeth will be removed with attached (pericoronal) cysts, including wisdom tooth extractions. If so, describe the location and size of attached soft tissue and submit in a separate cassette.
4. Sections of the teeth should be not be submitted except in unusual cases in which examination can be helpful for diagnosis.

TONSILS AND ADENOIDS

Tonsils and/or adenoids are commonly removed for the treatment of recurrent tonsillitis, middle ear disease, or sleep apnea. Rarely, tonsils will be involved by lymphomas or leukemias, infections (e.g., CMV, fungi, EBV), carcinomas, or granulomatous diseases.

In rare instances, one or both tonsils will be removed from a patient with a squamous cell carcinoma metastatic to a cervical lymph node with no known primary. In such cases, the tonsil from the ipsilateral side should be examined completely microscopically to evaluate the possibility of a clinically occult primary arising in the tonsil. The presence of a basaloid morphology, p16 positivity, and HPV are highly suggestive of a tonsil primary (see "Special Studies").

Examination of "routine" specimens from patients with a routine clinical history is controversial. A large study found that only 1% of such cases resulted in a diagnosis other than benign tonsillitis, or

hyperplasia and that in none of these cases was patient care changed. However, the decision to not examine these specimens can only be made if an adequate clinical history is available and there are no unusual findings at surgery. Significant pathologic findings were found in 87% of specimens if there was a significant clinical history (history of malignancy, immunocompromise, asymmetric enlargement, etc.).[7]

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

See Table 23-6.

TABLE 23–6. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY – TONSILS

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR TONSILLAR SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Recurrent tonsillitis
Purpose of the procedure	Obstructive sleep apnea
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	Sleep apnea ("Pickwickian syndrome" or sleep apnea due to pharyngeal obstruction): usually both palatine tonsils as well as uvula and possibly additional tissue from Waldeyer's ring are resected
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	Infections (e.g., CMV, fungi, EBV)
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	Granulomatous disease (e.g., sarcoid)
Compromised immune system	

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record the dimensions. Describe the outer surface which is usually a convoluted squamous mucosa overlying a broad base of tan/pink soft tissue.
2. Serially section through the specimen. The convolutions can be appreciated better on cross section. Friable yellow/green "sulfur" granules (sometimes mistaken for necrosis) are large colonies of Actinomycetes that colonize the crypts.
3. Submit one representative section of each tonsil.

SPECIAL STUDIES

Squamous cell carcinomas. Tonsillar carcinomas in young patients (<40) with nonkeratinizing basal cell morphology are usually associated with HPV16 (rarely HPV31).[8] These carcinomas are strongly positive for p16. HPV can be identified by PCR on formalin fixed tissue. These carcinomas may have a better prognosis than non-HPV associated cancers. Metastatic squamous cell carcinomas to head and neck nodes are more likely to originate in the tonsil if they are HPV positive.

SAMPLE DICTATION

The specimen is received fresh in two parts, each labeled with the patient's name and unit number.

The first part, labeled "right tonsil," consists of a 4 × 3 × 3 cm tonsil covered by tan/white convoluted squamous mucosa overlying tan/pink unremarkable soft tissue. Small focal friable yellow/green nodules are present in the tonsillar crypts.

Cassette #1: 1 frag, RSS.

The second part, labeled "left tonsil," consists of a 4.5 × 3.5 × 3 cm tonsil covered by tan/white convoluted squamous mucosa overlying tan/pink unremarkable soft tissue.

Cassette #2: 1 frag, RSS.

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2. Hartwick RW, Batsakis JG. Sinus aspergillosis and allergic fungal sinusitis. Ann Otol Rhinol Laryngol 100: 427-430, 1991.
3. Panda NK, Balaji P, Chakrabarti A, et al. Paranasal sinus aspergillosis: its categorization to develop a treatment protocol. Mycoses 47:277-283, 2004.
4. Waxman JE, Spector JG, Sale SR, Katzenstein AL. Allergic Aspergillus sinusitis: concepts in diagnosis and treatment of a new clinical entity. Laryngoscope 97(3 Pt 1):261-266, 1987.
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7. Netser JC, et al: Value-based pathology; a cost-benefit analysis of the examination of routine and nonroutine tonsil and adenoid specimens. Am J Clin Pathol 108:158-165, 1997.
8. El-Mofty SK, Lu DW. Prevalence of Human Papillomavirus Type 16 DNA in squamous cell carcinoma of the palatine tonsil, and not the oral cavity, in young patients: a distinct clinicopathologic and molecular disease entity. Am J Surg Pathol 27:1463-1470, 2004.

Hernia Sac

24

Hernia sacs are common surgical specimens derived from the frequent repair of inguinal, femoral, and umbilical hernias. The sacs usually consist of a small portion of fibroconnective tissue lined by mesothelial tissue.

Approximately 22% of men undergoing hernia repair will also have a cord lipoma. Only 0.1% of hernia sac operations yielded an incidental liposarcoma in one study.[1] The two patients with liposarcoma were older than the average patient with cord lipoma (56 and 64 years versus 35 years) and the tumors were larger (13 and 10 cm versus 5.5 cm). A grossly evident fatty tumor of the cord is more likely to be malignant than fatty tumors at other sites. Tissue should be sent for cytogenetics. Other rare soft tissue sarcomas have been reported from this region.

Occasionally a groin mass (often an enlarged lymph node) is mistaken clinically for an inguinal hernia. If a lymph node is found, it should be processed as a lymph node biopsy as the node may be involved by metastatic tumor or infection.

Not infrequently, there will be other findings in hernia sac specimens that may be of clinical significance.[2-5] Some of the more common ones are listed here:

OCCASIONAL FINDINGS IN HERNIA SACS

- Endometriosis (may be present in a true hernia or can simulate a hernia)
- Incarcerated bowel
- Vas deferens or epididymis (usually an inadvertent transection) is found in 0.53% of pediatric patients. These structures must be distinguished from glandular inclusions, as there are medical and legal issues in such cases. A vas deferens should have a well defined muscular coat.
- Glandular inclusions from Mullerian remnants in prepubertal males
- Lymph nodes or metastatic tumor in inguinal nodes simulating a hernia
- Mesothelial hyperplasia, which may closely mimic a neoplastic process
- Tumors: a hernia may sometimes be the initial presentation of malignant mesothelioma, pseudomyxoma peritonei, or an intra-abdominal tumor (most frequently colon or ovarian carcinoma).

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. The specimen is a portion of thin tan/pink fibroconnective tissue with one shiny surface (the peritoneum) and one dull surface. Examine the specimen carefully to make sure that other structures are not present (see above).
2. Submit one cassette containing three representative cross sections. Submit any focal lesions or additional structures.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "hernia" is a 4 × 3 × 0.4 cm fragment of pink/tan connective tissue. One side has a glistening surface.

Cassette: 3 frags, RSS.

REFERENCES

1. Montgomery E, Buras R. Incidental liposarcomas indentified during hernia repair operations. J Surg Oncol 71:50-53, 1999.
2. Gomez-Ramon JJ, Mayorga M, Mira C, et al. Glandular inclusions in inguinal hernia sacs: a clinicopathologic study of six cases. Pediatr Pathol 14:1043-1049, 1994.
3. Popek EJ. Embryonal remnants in inguinal hernia sacs. Hum Pathol 21:339-349, 1990.
4. Steigman CK Sotelo-Avila C, Weber TR. The incidence of spermatic cord structures in inguinal hernia sacs from male children,. Am J Surg Pathol 23:880-885, 1999.
5. Walker AN, Mills SE. Glandular inclusions in inguinal hernia sacs and spermatic cords. Am J Clin Pathol 82: 85-89, 1984.

Larynx 25

The larynx is virtually always removed for squamous cell carcinomas occurring near the true and false vocal cords. See the general section on "Biopsies" for biopsy specimens.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

See Table 25-1.

TABLE 25–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR LARYNGEAL SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Results of prior biopsies
Purpose of the procedure	Prior treatment (e.g., radiation)
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	History of HPV infection
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Compromised immune system	

LARYNGECTOMY

These are difficult specimens, not only because of the complicated anatomy but because of the calcification of cartilage in older individuals, which necessitates decalcification of parts of the specimen. Most specimens are total laryngectomies performed to resect invasive squamous cell carcinoma (i.e., thyroid, cricoid, and arytenoid cartilages with all attached soft tissue and mucosa; hyoid bone either totally or partially excised; strap muscles; thyroid gland partially or totally excised; several tracheal rings; base of tongue not usually included). Refer to the Figure 25-1 for orientation and terminology. There is often an accompanying radical neck dissection.

Laryngectomies may also be performed to control chronic aspiration in mentally retarded patients. In these cases, grossly normal specimens can be examined in three sections from the epiglottis, vocal cords, and trachea.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Carefully examine the outer surface of the specimen and record any evidence of tumor extension to a surgical resection margin. Although the anterior strap muscles form the anterior margin of the specimen, these muscles retract after they are cut and may not completely cover this area. It may be

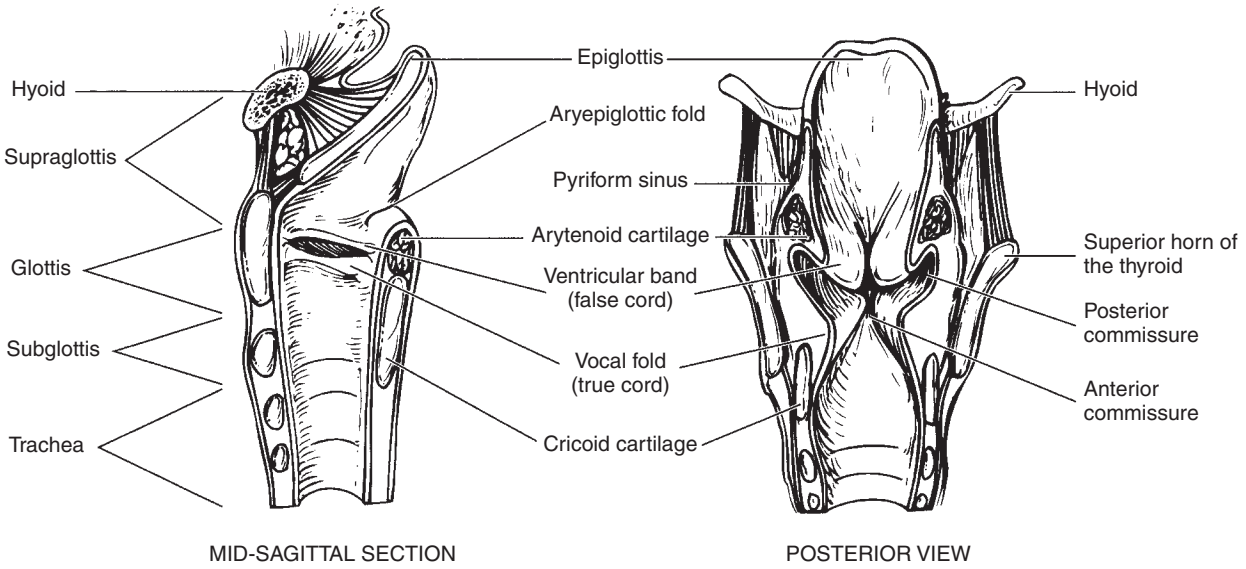

Figure 25-1. Anatomy of the larynx.

necessary to contact the surgeon to determine the true surgical margins if areas suspicious for tumor are present at an apparent margin.
Record overall dimensions and all identifiable attached structures, including the hyoid bone.

2. Ink the outer portion of the specimen, including all mucosal margins.
3. Open the specimen longitudinally along the posterior surface. The larynx can be opened to reveal the true and false vocal folds and the ventricle. Describe any lesions including color, size, quality (exophytic, flat, verrucous, ulcerated, necrotic), location, and extent of involvement of anatomical landmarks (e.g., vocal folds, ventricle, epiglottis, commissures, across midline). See the accompanying diagrams for the relevant anatomical structures. Include the number of tracheal rings present.
4. Document the location of lesions by photography or diagrams. It is usually necessary to prop the posterior incision open (the cut ends of cotton swabs work well) or to hold the larynx open with hemostats. If the cartilage is not extensively calcified, the specimen can be cut in half and each cross section photographed.
   Often a diagram is necessary to adequately record the location of the tumor and the location of microscopic sections.
5. Fix the specimen overnight in formalin.
6. If the cartilages are calcified, submit as many soft tissue sections as possible and then decalcify the remainder of the specimen before submitting the sections with cartilage. Document the point of maximum tumor invasion through cartilage (if any). If there is soft tissue around the specimen (often there is not), identify all lymph nodes.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** Up to four cassettes of tumor including relationship to anatomical landmarks (See "Pathologic Diagnostic/Prognostic Features" and Fig. 25-1) and deepest extent of tumor into, around, or through the surrounding cartilage.
- **Margins:** Lowest tracheal ring, all mucosal edges, strap muscles (anterior), base of tongue, soft tissue of lateral and posterior larynx. Mucosal margins not close to the gross tumor can be taken en face.
- **Normal structures:** True and false cords (vertical sections) bilaterally if uninvolved, anterior commissure, bilateral arytenoids and aryepiglottic folds, epiglottis.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "larynx," is a total laryngectomy specimen (11 × 5 × 3.5 cm) including hyoid bone (8 × 0.3 × 0.3 cm), larynx from epiglottis to subglottis, and six tracheal rings. There is an irregular tan/white mass with central ulceration (2.5 × 1.5 × 0.9 cm) located in

the glottis completely involving the left true vocal cord. The mass crosses the midline and involves the medial aspect of the right true vocal cord. The false vocal cords are not involved. The mass is 2.8 cm from the closest proximal mucosal margin (left aryepiglottic fold) and 5 cm from the distal tracheal margin. The mass invades into the lamina propria and focally appears to invade into, but not through, the thyroid cartilage. The anterior surface is covered by red/brown strap muscles which are grossly unremarkable. 0.5 cm from the distal margin there is a 1.5 × 1 cm tracheal stoma. The cartilage is calcified and is fixed and decalcified prior to histologic sectioning.

Cassette #1: Left aryepiglottic fold, en face margin, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassette #2: Right aryepiglottic fold, en face margin, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassette #3: Epiglottis, margin, en face margin, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassette #4: Right arytenoid mucosa, en face margin, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassette #5: Left arytenoid mucosa, en face margin, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassette #6: Right anterior strap muscle, perpendicular margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #7: Left anterior strap muscle, perpendicular margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #8: Right lateral soft tissue, perpendicular margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #9: Left lateral soft tissue, perpendicular margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #10: Posterior soft tissue, perpendicular margin, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #11: Distal tracheal margin, en face, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassette #12: Mass including left true cord, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #13: Mass including right true cord, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #14: Mass including left false cord, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #15: Right false cord, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #16: Mass and deepest involvement of cartilage, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #17: Hyoid bone, 3 frags, RSS.
Cassette #18: Tracheal stoma site, 1 frag, RSS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR LARYNGEAL CARCINOMAS

- **Specimen:** Larynx (supraglottis, glottis, subglottis)
- **Procedure(s):** Excisional biopsy, laryngectomy (supraglottic, supracricoid, total), vertical hemilaryngectomy, lymph node dissection
- **Specimen Integrity**: Intact, fragmented
- **Laryngectomy:** Open, unopened
- **Specimen Size:** Greatest dimensions
- **Tumor Laterality:** Right, left, bilateral, midline
- **Tumor Site:** Larynx—supraglottis (epiglottis [lingual or laryngeal aspect], aryepiglottic folds, arytenoids, false vocal cord, ventricle), larynx—glottis (ture vocal cord, anterior commissure, posterior commissure), larynx—subglottis
- **Tumor Focality:** Single, multifocal
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (other dimensions optional)
- **Tumor Description**: Polypoid, exophytic, endophytic, ulcerated, sessile
- **Histologic Type:** Squamous cell carcinoma, all other types rare. The WHO Classification is recommended.
- **Histologic Grade:** Well, moderate, poor
- **Tumor Extension**: Supraglottis (ventricular bands [false cords], arytenoids, epiglottis, aryepiglottic folds; the inferior boundary is a horizontal plane through the apex of the ventricle)
  - Glottis (true vocal cords, anterior and posterior commissures; the lower boundary is a plane passing 1 cm below the apex of the ventricle)
  - Subglottis (area from the lower boundary of the glottis to the lower margin of the cricoid cartilage), thyroid and cricoid cartilages, postcricoid area, medial wall of pyriform sinus, pre-epiglottic tissue (base of tongue)
- **Margins:** Involved or not involved, location, distance from closest margin
  - Invasive carcinoma, carcinoma in situ (including moderate and severe dysplasia)
- **Treatment Effect**: If there has been neoadjuvant chemotherapy: not identified, present
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Perineural Invasion:** Not identified, present

- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Size (≤3, ≤6, >6 cm), ipsilateral vs. contralateral, extranodal extension. Keratin debris may be evidence of previous tumor.
- **Additional Pathologic Findings**: Keratinizing dysplasia, nonkeratinizing dysplasia, inflammation, squamous metaplasia, epithelial hyperplasia, colonization (fungal, bacterial)
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 25-2). M0 is conferred after clinlcal assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

TABLE 25-2. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF LARYNGEAL TUMORS

Tumor	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	Carcinoma in situ
Supraglottis	
T1	Tumor limited to one subsite of the supraglottis with normal vocal cord mobility
T2	Tumor invades mucosa of more than one adjacent subsite of supraglottis or glottis or region outside the supraglottis (e.g., mucosa of base of tongue, vallecula, medial wall of pyriform sinus) without fixation of the larynx
T3	Tumor limited to larynx with vocal cord fixation and/or invades any of the following: postcricoid area, preepiglottic space, paraglottic space, and/or inner cortex of thyroid cartilage
T4a	Moderately advanced local disease Tumor invades through the thyroid cartilage, and/or invades tissues beyond the larynx (e.g., trachea, soft tissues of neck including deep extrinsic muscle of the tongue, strap muscles, thyroid, or esophagus)
T4b	Very advanced local disease Tumor invades prevertebral space, encases carotid artery, or invades mediastinal structures
Glottis	
T1	Tumor limited to the vocal cord(s) (may involve anterior or posterior commissures) with normal mobility
T1a	Tumor limited to one vocal cord
T1b	Tumor involves both vocal cords
T2	Tumor extends to supraglottis and/or subglottis, and/or with impaired vocal cord mobility
T3	Tumor limited to the larynx with vocal cord fixation and/or invasion of paraglottic space, and/or inner cortex of the thyroid cartilage
T4a	Moderately advanced local disease Tumor invades through the outer cortex of the thyroid cartilage and/or invades tissues beyond the larynx (e.g., trachea, soft tissues of neck including deep extrinsic muscle of the tongue, strap muscles, thyroid, or esophagus)
T4b	Very advanced local disease Tumor invades prevertebral space, encases carotid artery, or invades mediastinal structures

TABLE 25–2. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF LARYNGEAL TUMORS—cont'd

Subglottis	
T1	Tumor limited to the subglottis
T2	Tumor extends to the vocal cord(s) with normal or impaired mobility
T3	Tumor limited to the larynx with vocal cord fixation
T4a	Moderately advanced local disease Tumor invades cricoid or thyroid cartilage and/or invades tissues beyond the larynx (e.g., trachea, soft tissues of neck including deep extrinsic muscles of the tongue, strap muscles, thyroid, esophagus)
T4b	Very advanced local disease Tumor invades prevertebral space, encases carotid artery, or invades mediastinal structures
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES*	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node, ≤3 cm
N2	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node, more than 3 cm but not more than 6 cm in greatest dimension, or in multiple ipsilateral lymph nodes, none more than 6 cm in greatest dimension, or in bilateral or contralateral lymph nodes, none more than 6 cm in greatest dimension
N2a	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node >3 cm but ≤6 cm
N2b	Metastasis in multiple ipsilateral lymph nodes, none >6 cm
N2c	Metastasis in bilateral or contralateral lymph nodes, none >6 cm
N3	Metastasis in a lymph node >6 cm
Note: Metastases at level VII are considered regional lymph node metastases.	
METASTASIS	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis

Note: This classification system does not apply to nonepithelial tumors.
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.

26 Lung and Pleura

LUNG

Non-neoplastic diseases of the lung are usually diagnosed by bronchoalveolar lavage, transbronchial biopsies, and open lung biopsies. In locations with lung transplant programs, chronically-diseased recipient lungs are also submitted for examination and these patients are monitored by serial biopsies to exclude rejection or infection.

Lung tumors may be sampled by fine needle aspiration or endo/transbronchial biopsy, but often the patient proceeds directly to mediastinal staging, video-assisted closed chest lung biopsy, or open lung surgery.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

See Table 26-1.

TABLE 26–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY–LUNG

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR LUNG SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Organ transplantation
Purpose of the procedure	Occupational lung disease
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	Asbestos exposure
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	Tobacco use
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	→ Single mass, multiple masses, diffuse lung disease
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	Infection (known or suspected)
Prior malignancy	Systemic disease that affect the lungs (e.g., rheumatoid arthritis, sarcoidosis)
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Compromised immune system	

Biopsy, Endobronchial, Transbronchial

These biopsies are processed as described in Chapter 13. Special stains for organisms (Gram, AFB, MSS) are ordered if the patient is immunocompromised or if infection is suspected clinically.

During these procedures cytology specimens are often obtained as well (e.g., bronchial brushings and/or bronchial lavage).

Transplant Lung Biopsies

Transbronchial biopsies of transplant lungs may be performed on an emergency basis for symptomatic patients, or as routine follow-up biopsies after transplantation. An adequate specimen should consist of at least five pieces of well-expanded alveolated lung parenchyma. Gentle agitation of the specimen in formalin will help to inflate the fragments.

The revision of the 1996 working formulation for standardization of nomenclature in the diagnosis of lung rejection is summarized in Tables 26-2 to 26-4 and Box 26-1.[1]

TABLE 26–2. ACUTE REJECTION

GRADE	HISTOPATHOLOGIC FINDINGS
A0 (none)	Normal pulmonary parenchyma is present without evidence of mononuclear inflammation, hemorrhage, or necrosis.
A1 (minimal)	Scattered infrequent perivascular mononuclear infiltrates in alveolated lung parenchyma. Blood vessels, particularly venules, are cuffed by small round, plasmacytoid, and transformed lymphocytes forming a ring of two to three cells in thickness within the perivascular adventitia. The cuffing may be loose or compact and is generally circumferential. Eosinophils and endothelialitis are not present.
A2 (mild)	More frequent perivascular mononuclear infiltrates are seen surrounding venules and arterioles, readily recognizable at low magnification. They may be densely compacted or loose. These infiltrates usually consist of a mixture of small round lymphocytes, activated lymphocytes, plasmacytoid lymphocytes, macrophages, and eosinophils. Frequent subendothelial infiltration by the mononuclear cells with hyperplastic or regenerative changes in the endothelium (endotheliitis); although there is expansion of the perivascular interstitium by inflammatory cells, there is no obvious infiltration by mononuclear cells into the adjacent alveolar septae or air spaces. Concurrent lymphocytic bronchiolitis may be seen with mild rejection and is less common in minimal rejection. Mild rejection is distinguished from minimal rejection by the presence of unequivocal mononuclear infiltrates, which are more easily identified at scanning magnification. Endothelialitis, the presence of eosinophils, and co-existent airway inflammation favor mild over minimal acute rejection.
A3 (moderate)	Easily recognizable cuffing of venules and arterioles by dense perivascular mononuclear cell infiltrates, which are commonly associated with endothelialitis; eosinophils and occasional neutrophils are common. The grade is defined by extension of the inflammatory cell infiltrate into perivascular and peribronchiolar alveolar septae and air spaces, which may be associated with collections of intra-alveolar macrophages in the zones of septal infiltration and Type 2 alveolar cell hyperplasia. The interstitial infiltration can take the form of cells percolating singly into alveolar walls or more sheet-like infiltration with corresponding expansion of the septa. There is continuity with the perivascular infiltrates. True interstitial infiltration characterizing moderate rejection should be distinguished from the expansion of the potential space of the perivascular adventia in mild rejection.
A4 (severe)	Diffuse perivascular, interstitial, and air space infiltrates of mononuclear cells with prominent alveolar pneumocyte damage and endothelialitis. These may be associated with intra-alveolar necrotic epithelial cells, macrophages, hyaline membranes, hemorrhage, and neutrophils. There may be associated parenchymal necrosis, infarction, or necrotizing vasculitis, although these features are more evident on surgical rather than on transbronchial biopsies. There may be a paradoxical diminution of perivascular infiltrates as cells extend into alveolar septa and spaces where they are admixed with macrophages. Severe rejection must be distinguished from post-transplantation acute lung injury by the presence of numerous perivascular and interstitial mononuclear cells, which are not a feature of reperfusion-related damage.

Modified from Stewart, S, Fishbein, MC, Snell, GI, et al, Revision of the 1996 working formulation for the standardization of nomenclature in the diagnosis of lung rejection, J Heart Lung Transplant 26:1229-42, 2007.

TABLE 26–3. CHRONIC AIRWAYS REJECTION: OBLITERATIVE BRONCHIOLITIS	
CLASSIFICATION	**HISTOPATHOLOGICAL FINDINGS**
C0	No evidence of obliterative bronchiolitis.
C1	Dense eosinophilic hyaline fibrosis in the submucosa of membranous and respiratory bronchioles, resulting in partial or complete luminal occlusion. This tissue can be concentric or eccentric and may be associated with fragmentation and destruction of the smooth muscle and elastica of the airway wall. It may extend into the peribronchiolar interstitium. Mucostasis and/or foamy histiocytes in the distal air spaces are commonly associated with obliterative bronchiolitis and may be observed in transbronchial biopsies in the absence of bronchiolar occlusion or any bronchiolar tissue.

TABLE 26–4. AIRWAY INFLAMMATION	
GRADE	**HISTOPATHOLOGICAL FINDINGS IN SMALL AIRWAYS (BRONCHIOLES)**
B0 (no airway inflammation)	No evidence of bronchiolar inflammation.
B1R (low-grade small airway inflammation)	There are mononuclear cells within the submucosa of the bronchioles, which can be infrequent and scattered or forming a circumferential band. Occasional eosinophils may be seen within the submucosa. There is no evidence, however, of epithelial damage or intra-epithelial lymphocytic infiltration. This grade replaces the previous B1 and B2 grades.
B2R (high-grade small airway inflammation)	The mononuclear cells in the submucosa appear larger and activated, with greater numbers of eosinophils and plasmacytoid cells. In addition, there is evidence of epithelial damage in the form of necrosis and metaplasia and marked intraepithelial lymphocytic infiltration. In its most severe form, there is epithelial ulceration, fibrinopurulent exudate, cellular debris and neutrophils. The presence of a disproportionate number of neutrophils within the epithelium and submucosa in relation to the numbers of submucosal mononuclear cells is highly suggestive of infection rather than rejection. Any accompanying lavage or aspirate may also be purulent and/or show evidence of organisms.
BX (ungradeable small airways inflammation)	Ungradeable because of sampling problems, infection, tangential cutting, artifact, etc.

Modified from Stewart, S, Fishbein, MC, Snell, GI, et al, Revision of the 1996 working formulation for the standardization of nomenclature in the diagnosis of lung rejection, J Heart Lung Transplant 26:1229-42, 2007.

BOX 26-1. Chronic vascular rejection

Chronic vascular rejection/accelerated graft vascular sclerosis refers to fibrointimal thickening of arteries and veins. In veins, the appearance is usually of poorly cellular hyaline sclerosis. Evaluation of this process is not applicable to transbronchial biopsies, but can be evaluated in open biopsies.

Open Biopsies

Open lung biopsies are usually performed on critically ill patients with a wide differential diagnosis, usually for diffuse pulmonary disease. These specimens are usually processed during an OR consultation (see Chapter 6).

Wedge Resection

Wedge resections are open lung or video-assisted closed chest biopsies performed to sample focal suspicious areas (e.g., pleural-based nodules) or to resect tumors if the patient cannot tolerate a more extensive procedure. Bullectomies may be performed on patients with severe emphysema to improve pulmonary function.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. The specimen is usually a triangular segment of lung and pleura with two intersecting staple lines at the margin. Record the dimensions of the specimen. Examine the pleura for any evidence of disease:
   - **Smooth and glistening, freely mobile over an underlying mass:** normal pleura not invaded by tumor. There is no need to ink normal pleura. The absence of pleural involvement is important to document for staging lung carcinomas and can usually be determined by a good gross examination.
   - **Retracted pleura over a tumor:** invasion by tumor into the pleura. The pleura will be fixed to the underlying mass. If the pleura is smooth, it will be recognizable microscopically and there is no need to ink it. If there is adhesed tissue (fat or muscle) this may be an indication of chest wall invasion. Use a different color of ink to distinguish this area from the lung parenchymal margin.
   - **Tumor implants**: usually gray/white nodules within the pleura
   - **Lymphangitic spread of tumor**: white anastomising lines running through the pleura
   - **Pleural lymph nodes**: small black firm nodules in the pleura
   - **Adhesions**: roughened dull areas of pleura with attached tissue - usually adipose tissue
2. Record the length of the margin, which is usually a staple line. It is a worthless effort to try to remove all the staples as the tissue will be shredded and uninterpretable. Cut the staple line off the specimen with a pair of scissors, staying as close to the staples as possible. The cut surface of the lung now visible is the margin, which can be taken en face or, if the tumor is close, taken perpendicularly after inking the open surface. Blot the lung free of any fluid before inking to prevent the ink from smearing.
3. Serially section through the remainder of the specimen looking for any focal lesions. Describe all lesions including size, color, involvement of pleura, and distance from margin.
4. Describe remainder of lung parenchyma (emphysematous changes, consolidation, fibrosis).
5. The histologic appearance of even small specimens can be improved by inflating the fragment with a syringe filled with formalin. However, great care must be taken not to injure unprotected fingers!
6. Submit representative sections of any lesion including relationship to the pleura and uninvolved lung. Submit the closest margin. Submit one cassette of uninvolved lung parenchyma.
7. If the margin is close, an additional section of lung with two staple lines may be submitted as the new margin. If no gross lesions are present, submit two representative sections perpendicular to the margin.

Pneumonectomy or Lobectomy

Pneumonectomies and lobectomies are almost always performed to resect tumors. An exception is the recipient pneumonectomy prior to lung transplant. These are described in a separate section below. Extrapleural pneumonectomies are used to resect mesotheliomas and are also described separately.

Lung Tumors

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh the specimen and record the dimensions of the bronchial margin (length and circumference). Identify the lung (right or left) or lobe(s) (upper, lower, or middle) resected. Carefully examine the pleural surface for any evidence of disease (smooth and glistening = normal; dull and irregular = tumor

implants or adhesions; retraction = invasion by tumor; delicate white reticular pattern on pleural surface = lymphangitic spread of tumor).

Normal weights:

- Right lung 680 gm (male); 480 gm (female)
- Left lung 600 gm (male); 420 gm (female)

2. Inflate intact specimens through the remaining bronchus. If the bronchial resection margin has not already been removed as an OR consultation, do so before inflating. Cut an en face section and place in a labeled cassette. After the lung is inflated, clamp off the bronchus with a hemostat. **Note:** This should **not** be done if there is any gross abnormality of the bronchus (e.g., invasion by tumor, dysplasia suggested by frozen section) that will be evaluated histologically. The appropriate sections are taken and a cotton swab can be used to plug the remaining bronchial stump.

   If the specimen is not intact (e.g., several sections have been cut into it), the specimen can be inflated using a syringe. Some of the formalin will leak out, but the microscopic appearance will still be much improved over no inflation at all. Many sites will need to be injected. Great care is needed to avoid hand injuries!

   The overall dimensions are measured after inflation.
3. Fix the specimen overnight. Previously uncut specimens are cut with a long knife in a parasagittal plane (lateral to medial). However, other methods of sectioning may be appropriate (see special studies below). Photograph all lesions.
4. Describe lesions including size, color, consistency (e.g., firm = squamous or adenocarcinoma, soft = lymphoma or bronchioloalveolar carcinoma), location (bronchopulmonary segment), relationship to major bronchi (document tumor arising from a bronchus and/or obstruction of bronchi), vascular invasion, relationship to (invading through, retracting) or distance from pleura, distance from bronchial resection margin, presence of post-obstructive pneumonia.
5. Describe remainder of lung parenchyma including emphysematous changes (almost always centriacinar with sparing of the peripheral alveoli), fibrosis, consolidation, bullae, etc. Describe any abnormalities of the bronchi (bronchiectasis, mucous plugging).
6. Remove the soft tissue around the hilum and look for lymph nodes. Describe number, range in size, color, and consistency (anthracotic and firm or white and hard).
7. Incidental ribs removed during thoracotomies can be processed as described under the section on bones.

If a portion of the chest wall is attached, see section below for processing.

SPECIAL STUDIES

There are alternative methods for sectioning lungs to best demonstrate the pathologic lesions present.

- **Coronal sections** (anterior to posterior): These sections are better for demonstrating hilar lesions, as the bronchi and major vessels are seen in longitudinal section.
- **Superior to inferior** (CT plane): These sections are useful for showing the relationship of mediastinal lesions to the adjacent lung and for correlation with CT images. However, surgical specimens rarely involve such extensive resections.
- **Dissection of blood vessels**: This type of dissection is useful for demonstrating vascular lesions (usually pulmonary emboli). Such lesions would be unusual in surgical specimens. The lung is approached from the lateral aspect within the fissure(s). A pair of scissors is used to cut towards the hilum until the pulmonary artery is entered. The major vessels can then be opened with the scissors. The vessels will not cross airways in this type of dissection.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

See Fig. 26-1.

Squamous Cell Carcinomas are usually central and arise from bronchi. The tumors often obstruct the airway leading to atelectasis of the distal lung. They are usually gray/white, firm, and commonly demonstrate necrosis or central cavitation.

Adenocarcinomas are more often peripheral and frequently involve the pleura. The tumors are grey/yellow and rarely cavitate.

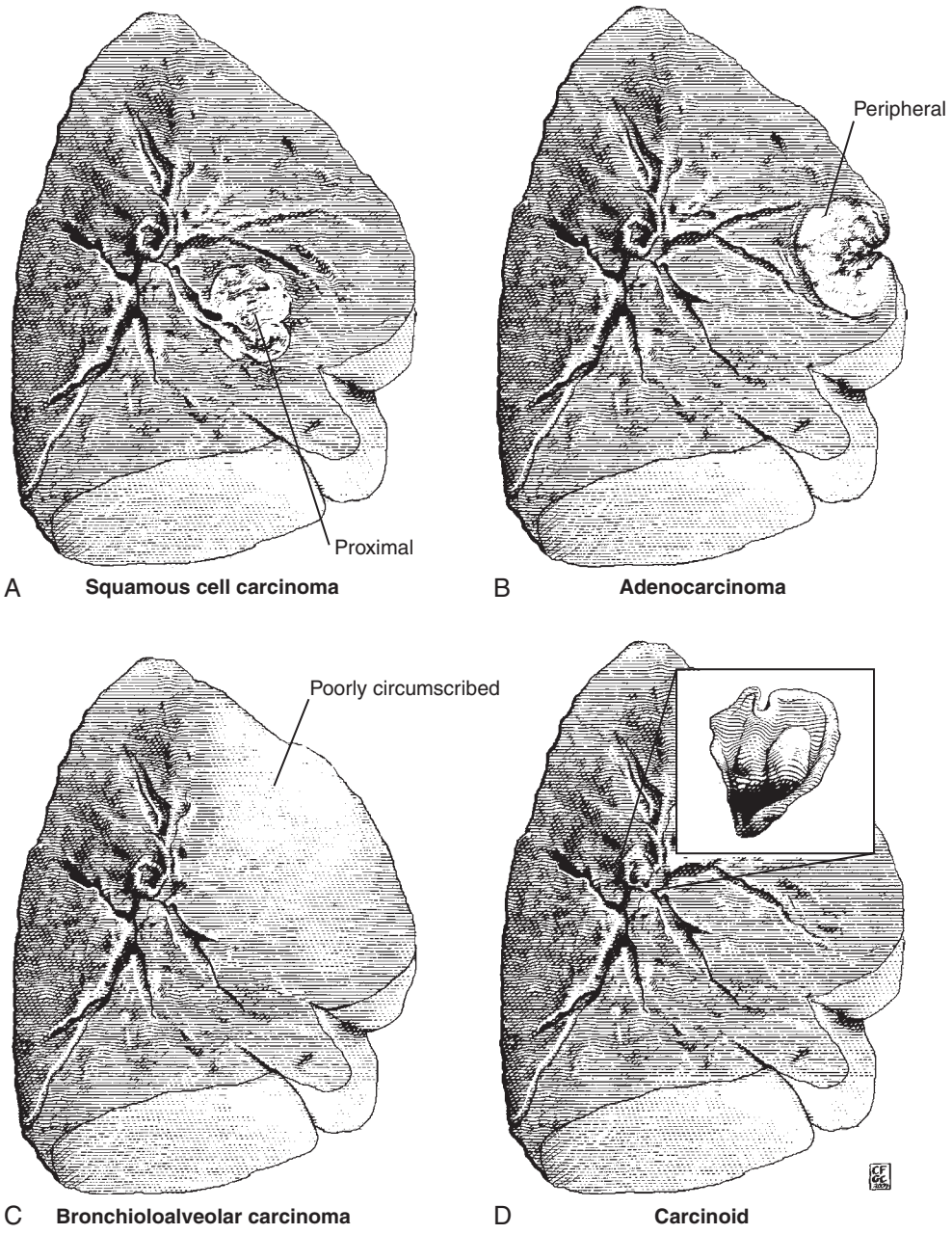

Figure 26-1. Gross anatomy of lung tumors.

Undifferentiated Large Cell Carcinomas are more often peripheral and do not have a distinctive gross appearance.

Bronchioloalveolar Carcinomas (BACs) form indistinct soft (because there is no desmoplastic response) gray nodules. Lymphomas and focal areas of inflammation can also have this gross appearance. BACs are commonly multifocal and may be associated with copious extracellular mucin.

Small Cell Carcinomas are rarely seen as surgical resections due to their propensity to metastasize early. These carcinomas are most commonly seen centrally.

Carcinoid Tumors may be central or peripheral. Central carcinoids form polypoid endobronchial masses covered by nonulcerated bronchial mucosa. They often extend into adjacent soft tissue to form a "dumbbell" shape. Peripheral carcinoids are seen as one or more discrete gray/yellow nodules near the pleura. Carcinoids are usually fleshy and homogenous in appearance and have circumscribed borders.

Pulmonary Chondroid Hamartomas are occasional incidental findings on chest x-rays. The lesions are very well circumscribed, glistening white to gray, and may "pop out" of the adjacent lung parenchyma.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** Up to five cassettes including relationship to uninvolved lung, pleura, and adjacent vessels and bronchi.
- **Margins:** Bronchial resection margin. Chest wall margins if attached chest wall is present (inferior, superior, anterior, posterior, and external). Pulmonary staple margin if the specimen is a lobectomy.
- **Lymph nodes:** All hilar lymph nodes.
- **Pleura:** Pleura closest to tumor if not previously submitted.
- **Uninvolved lung:** One representative section of each lobe in the specimen.
- **Rib:** If unattached to lung, a marrow squeeze may be performed. If attached to the lung, submit both margins and a section showing deepest point of invasion of tumor in relation to the bone.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "lung," is a 150 gram upper lobe of the right lung (12 × 10 × 6 cm) and bronchial remnant (1.1 cm in length × 0.6 cm in diameter). In the anterior segment, there is a poorly circumscribed firm gray/white tumor (3 × 2.5 × 2.2 cm) with central necrosis, which is 5 cm from the uninvolved bronchial margin. The tumor causes retraction of the overlying pleura, but does not grossly invade through the pleura, which has a smooth glistening surface. The tumor grossly invades an adjacent bronchus. There are mild emphysematous changes in the remainder of the lung parenchyma and a fibrous pleural scar (1.3 × 1.0 × 0.5 cm) at the apex of the lung. There are three anthracotic hilar lymph nodes, the largest measuring 1.4 cm in greatest dimension. The bronchial resection margin was frozen for intraoperative diagnosis. Tumor (0.5 × 0.5 × 0.5) and normal tissue (1 × 1 × 1) were given to Dr. Smith for special studies.

Cassette #1: Bronchial resection margin, en face, Frozen section remnant, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassettes #2-3: Tumor and pleura, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #4-5: Tumor and adjacent lung, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #6: Tumor invading bronchus, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #7: Apical scar, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #8: Representative lung parenchyma, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #9: Three hilar lymph nodes, 3 frags, ESS.

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR LUNG TUMORS

- **Specimen:** Lung, lobe of lung, bronchus
- **Procedure:** Major airway resection, wedge resection, segmentectomy, lobectomy, pneumonectomy
- **Specimen Integrity:** Intact, disrupted
- **Specimen Laterality:** Right, left
- **Tumor Site:** Upper lobe, middle lobe, lower lobe
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (additional dimensions optional)
- **Tumor Focality:** Unifocal, separate tumor nodules in the same lobe, separate tumor nodules in different lobes, synchronous carcinomas

  Histologically distinct tumors may be separate synchronous primary carcinomas and may be staged separately. Histologically similar tumors that are associated with carcinoma in situ, not associated with lymph-vascular invasion, and/or with differences in immunohistochemical or molecular studies, also may be synchronous primary carcinomas. These carcinomas may also be staged separately.
- **Histologic Type:** Squamous cell carcinoma, adenocarcinoma, large cell carcinoma, bronchioloalveolar carcinoma, large cell neuroendocrine carcinoma, carcinoid tumor, atypical carcinoid tumor (well differentiated neuroendocrine carcinoma), small cell carcinoma (rarely resected), other rare types. The WHO classification is recommended (Table 26-5).
- **Histologic Grade:** Well, moderate, poor, undifferentiated (squamous cell and adenocarcinoma) (Table 26-6).

TABLE 26–5. WHO CLASSIFICATION OF PULMONARY NEUROENDOCRINE TUMORS

FEATURE	TYPICAL CARCINOID	ATYPICAL CARCINOID	LARGE-CELL NE CARCINOMA	SMALL-CELL LUNG CARCINOMA
Organoid pattern	Characteristic	Characteristic	Present, less extensive	Absent
Necrosis	Absent	Usually focal	Extensive	Extensive
Mitoses/10 HPF	<2	2-10	>10 (mean 70)	Mean 70
Prominent nucleoli	No	No	Yes	No
Nuclear pleomorphism	Usually absent	Occasionally present	Present	Present
Cell size	Large	Large	Large	Small
Cytoplasm	Abundant	Abundant	Abundant	Scanty
Approximate 5-year survival	100%	70%	25%	<10%

From Travis WD, Brambilla E, Muller-Hermelink HK, Harris CC (eds): World Health Organization classification of tumors. Pathology and genetics of tumors of the lung, pleura, thymus, and heart. IARC, Lyon, France, 2004.

TABLE 26–6. GRADING SYSTEM FOR LUNG CARCINOMAS

Grade 1	Well differentiated
Grade 2	Moderately differentiated
Grade 3	Poorly differentiated
Grade 4	Undifferentiated

The least differentiated portion of the carcinoma is used for grading. Undifferentiated carcinomas do not exhibit either squamous or glandular differentiation. Small cell and large cell carcinomas are given a grade 4.

TABLE 26–7. VISCERAL PLEURAL INVASION (VPI)

PL0	Carcinoma does not invade beyond the thick elastic layer of the pleura. Tumor cells may intermingle with elastic fibers, as long as they do not penetrate beyond the layer.
PL1	Carcinoma invades beyond the thick elastic layer, but is not present on the surface of the pleura.
PL2	Carcinoma invades beyond the elastic layer and is present on the surface of the pleura.
PL3	Carcinoma invades through the pleura and involves parietal pleura.

Note: An elastic stain can be helpful to identify the elastic fibers of the pleura to distinguish PL1 from PL1.
Data from Shim HS, Park IK, Lee CY, Chung KY, Prognostic significance of visceral pleural invasion in the forthcoming (seventh) edition of TNM classification for lung cancer, Lung Cancer, 2009 (in press) and Travis WD, Brambilla E, Rami-Porta R, Valliers E, Tsuboi M, Rusch V, Goldstraw P, on behalf of the International staging commitee, Visceral pleura invasion: pathologic criteria and use of elastic stains. Proposal for the 7th edition of the TNM classification for lung cancer, J Thorac Oncol 3:1384-1390, 2008.

- **Visceral Pleura Invasion**: Ntified, present (Table 26-7, Fig. 26-2)
- **Tumor Extension**: Lobar bronchus, main bronchus, carina
  - Pleura: Not involved, into but not through visceral pleura, through visceral pleura into parietal pleura. Elastic stains may be used to define the elastica of the visceral pleura (see below).
  - Chest wall, diaphragm, mediastinal pleura, phrenic nerve, parietal pericardium, heart, great vessels, esophagus, trachea, vertebral body.

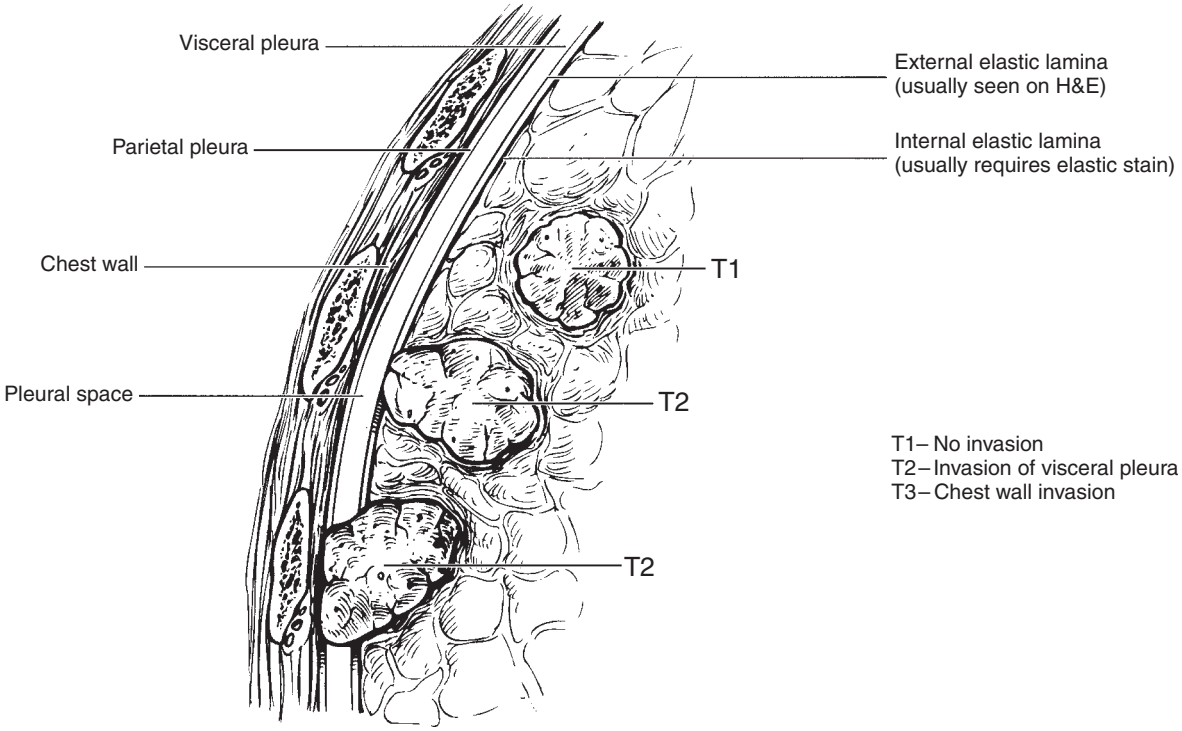

Figure 26-2. Pleural involvement by carcinomas. The inner pleural elastic lamina is best seen using special elastic stains. Invasion has been shown to have prognostic significance.

- **Margins:** Uninvolved, involved (distance from closest margin)
  - Note if squamous cell carcinoma is present at the bronchial margin.
  - Specify margin (bronchial, vascular, parenchymal, parietal pleural, chest well, other attached tissue)
- **Treatment Effect:** If there has been prior neoadjuvant therapy: not identified, >10% residual viable tumor, <10% residual viable tumor
- **Tumor Associated Atelectasis or Obstructive Pneumonitis:** Extends to the hilar region (but not entire lung), involves entire lung
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Absent, present (number involved, number examined). Includes nodes involved by direct extension of the primary tumor (but include description in report).
  - Location of lymph nodes. Locations designated by the surgeon must be faithfully transcribed to the final report.
  - Extranodal extension should be reported if present.
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Atypical adenomatous hyperplasia, squamous dysplasia, metaplasia, diffuse neuroendocrine hyperplasia, inflammation, granulomas, atelectasis, emphysema, fibrosis
- **Ancillary Studies:** Epidermal growth factor receptor *(EGFR)* analysis, *KRAS* mutational analysis
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classfication.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 26-8). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

Pneumonectomies with Partial Chest Wall Resection

Lung tumors that focally invade into the chest wall, but do not show evidence of metastatic spread, may be resected in continuity with portions of several ribs. Usually the patients will have been treated with radiation and/or chemotherapy.

TABLE 26-8. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF LUNG TUMORS	
TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed, or tumor proven by the presence of malignant cells in sputum or bronchial washings but not visualized by imaging or bronchoscopy
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	Carcinoma in situ
T1	Tumor ≤3 cm in greatest dimension, surrounded by lung or visceral pleura without bronchoscopic evidence of invasion more proximal than the lobar bronchus (i.e., not in the main bronchus)*
T2	Tumor more than 3 cm but 7 cm or less or tumor with any of the following features (T2 tumors with these features are classified T2a if 5 cm or less); Involves main bronchus, 2 cm or more distal to the carina Invades visceral pleural (PL1 or PL2) Associated with atelectasis or obstructive pneumonitis that extends to the hilar region but does not involve the entire lung
T2a	Tumor more than 3 cm but 5 cm or less in greatest dimension
T2b	Tumor more than 5 cm but 7 cm or less in greatest dimension
T3	Tumor more than 7 cm or one that directly invades any of the following: Parietal pleura (PL3) Chest wall (including superior sulcus tumors) Diaphragm Phrenic nerve Mediastinal pleura Parietal pericardium Tumor in the main bronchus less than 2 cm distal to the carina,* but without involvement of the carina Associated atelectasis or obstructive pneumonitis of the entire lung Separate tumor nodule(s) in the same lobe
T4	Tumor of any size that invades any of the following: mediastinum, heart, great vessels, trachea, recurrent laryngeal nerve, esophagus, vertebral body, carina, or separate tumor nodule(s) in a different ipsilateral lobe
*The uncommon superficial tumor of any size with its invasive component limited to the bronchial wall, which may extend proximally to the main bronchus, is also classified as T1a.	
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Metastasis in ipsilateral peribronchial and/or ipsilateral hilar lymph nodes, and intrapulmonary nodes including involvement by direct extension
N2	Metastasis in ipsilateral mediastinal and/or subcarinal lymph node(s)
N3	Metastasis in contralateral mediastinal, contralateral hilar, ipsilateral or contralateral scalene, or supraclavicular lymph node(s)
DISTANT LYMPH NODES	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis

continued

TABLE 26–8. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF LUNG TUMORS—cont'd	
DISTANT LYMPH NODES	
M1a	Separate tumor nodule(s) in a contralateral lobe, tumor with pleural nodules, or malignant pleural (or pericardial) effusion*
M1b	Distant metastasis

*Most pleural (and pericardial) effusions with lung cancer are due to tumor. In a few patients, however, multiple cytopathologic examinations of pleural (pericardial) fluid are negative for tumor, and the fluid is nonbloody and is not an exudate. Where these elements and clinical judgment dictate that the effusion is not related to the tumor, the effusion should be excluded as a staging element and the patient should be classified as M0.
Note: This classification includes carcinomas and carcinoid tumors.
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition, New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.

The portion of chest wall should be oriented including identification of the ribs present. Posterior resections may include portions of the vertebral bodies. Anterior resections may include costal cartilage.

Specimens should be radiographed to identify all bones present and to evaluate possible bone destruction by tumor. The entire specimen should be fixed.

Soft tissue margins on the chest wall will include the superficial soft tissue (lying beneath the subcutaneous tissue of the chest wall) as well as superior, inferior, medial, and lateral soft tissue around the ribs. Parietal pleura in these areas should also be sampled. These margins as well as sections of the tumor and lung are taken first.

After soft tissue sections are removed, the lung may be removed from the chest wall portion. The bones are then decalcified. Rib margins are taken from the anterior and posterior portion of each rib. Additional sections are taken demonstrating the relationship of the tumor to the adjacent ribs, including any areas suspicious for bone destruction on the specimen radiograph.

Transplant Pneumonectomies

The common indications for lung transplantation are idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis, emphysema, cystic fibrosis, and pulmonary hypertension. The pathologist's role is to document the underlying disease in the recipient lung and to identify any clinically unsuspected disease processes. Occasionally unused donor lungs will be submitted. If the contralateral lung has been transplanted, it is important to look for unsuspected disease processes that may affect the recipient (e.g., infection, malignancies). Both recipient and donor lungs may be processed in the same manner.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh and measure the lung. Examine the pleura for any evidence of disease (smooth and glistening, dull and irregular, adhesions). Sterile tissue is submitted for cultures (bacterial, fungal, and viral) from an unused donor lung if the contralateral lung has been transplanted.
2. Inflate the lung with formalin, either through the bronchus or by using a syringe, and fix overnight.
3. Cut the lung into sagittal sections.
4. Examine the parenchyma carefully looking for any focal lesions or evidence of infection, ischemia (variations in color or texture), or trauma.
5. Submit from six to ten cassettes including central and peripheral lung parenchyma, bronchial resection margin, smaller airways, pulmonary vessels (both large and small), hilar lymph nodes, and any focal lesions. If infection is suspected, order AFB, gram, and MSS stains on a representative cassette.

SPECIAL STUDIES

Pulmonary hypertension. Angiograms may be performed on surgical specimens by filling the vessels with contrast agent using the pressures observed clinically. Although unlikely to be necessary for clinical management of the patient, the demonstration of markedly diminished pulmonary vasculature can provide an excellent teaching example. The tissue slices can also be radiographed.

Extrapleural Pneumonectomies

This procedure is a commando resection of malignant mesothelioma and, on rare occasions, of carcinoma of the lung that has not spread beyond the lung, pleura, and local lymph nodes. The lung with attached hemidiaphragm is resected together with the surrounding parietal and mediastinal pleura and a portion of the pericardium.

Extrapleural pneumonectomy is associated with a better prognosis in mesothelioma. However, whether this is because this population tends to be younger, healthier, and with more limited disease, or whether the procedure itself is beneficial, is still unclear.

Relevant clinical history includes prior exposure to asbestos (e.g., by occupation), radiation exposure, extent of disease by radiologic studies, prior procedures and diagnoses, and prior treatment (e.g., talc poudrage).

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh the specimen and record the outer dimensions (total dimensions, dimensions of lung, dimensions of diaphragm, size of pericardium, bronchial margin).
2. Identify areas of tumor involvement in the pleura. Distinguish tumor from pleural plaque and talc reaction site (see below). The bases tend to be involved more extensively than the apex.
   It may be helpful to save tissue for EM and cytogenetics. Adjacent tissue for permanent sections should be matched with this tissue.
3. Inflate the lung through the bronchus and fix overnight.
4. Examine and describe the outer surface of the pleura (i.e., the parietal pleura).
   - Rents in the parietal pleura: Location and size.
   - Percent involvement of pleura by tumor: Occasionally the full extent of parietal pleural involvement is evident only after examining its inner aspect either via rents in the pleura or after coronal sectioning. Describe the range of size of the nodules (three dimensions), and the range in thickness of the unfused pleura (defer to after sectioning in areas fused with visceral pleura).
   - Chest wall tissue: Look for any areas of adherent muscle or soft tissue to the parietal pleura that may indicate invasion into the chest wall.
   - Pericardium: Involvement by tumor, penetration through to pericardial surface (present or absent)
   - Pleural plaques
   - Talc reaction sites
   - Mesothelioma: Usually less dense than plaque, firm (not as hard as plaque), gray/white, frequently nodular, and occasionally myxoid in appearance.
5. Serially section the specimen at 1 cm intervals in the coronal (frontal) plane. These sections are easy to cut, easy to orient, and demonstrate the pleural involvement well.
6. Describe the tumor involvement of the diaphragm including distance from margins (anterior, posterior, medial, and lateral), depth of invasion into the diaphragm (noting any invasion of skeletal muscle), involvement of the peritoneal surface of the diaphragm (this is rare).
7. Describe visceral pleural involvement including the percentage of visceral pleura fused to parietal pleura, the range in thickness of fused and unfused pleura, the percentage of unfused visceral pleura involved by tumor, the range of size of the nodules (unfused visceral pleura in three dimensions), and the site and size of any loculated effusions.

   Describe the lung parenchyma including any tumor involvement. Usually mesothelioma does not directly invade into lung parenchyma but pushes pleura ahead of it as it bulges into the lung. However, tumor often invades into and thickens interlobar fissures (note site and extent). Describe parenchymal fibrosis, emphysematous changes, and consolidation.

   Rarely, a second malignancy may be detected within the lung parenchyma.
8. Describe (number and size) any hilar lymph nodes (anthracotic and soft = normal; white and hard = tumor). Mesothelioma may metastasize to lymph nodes; this is an adverse prognostic feature.
9. Selectively ink (before taking sections) areas of the resection margins that demonstrate the closest extension of tumor involvement to the pleural surface (tumor involvement of margins is an adverse prognostic factor) and diaphragmatic margins. Take sections (perpendicular to the pleura, two to three per cassette if the pleura is less than 0.5 cm thick) from the apex of the lung, from the anterior, posterior, medial, and lateral pleura at one level and perpendicular sections from the anterior, lateral, medial, posterior, and deep (= inferior) margins of the diaphragm.

10. A small segment of rib is usually resected. Describe dimensions, color of bone, color of marrow cavity. A marrow squeeze can be submitted (see Chapter 14) unless gross lesions are identified or the bone is attached to the chest wall. In the latter cases, the bone should be radiographed and all sections suspicious for bony involvement submitted. If a portion of chest wall is received attached to the specimen, the margins of the chest wall are submitted.

SPECIAL STUDIES

- **Mesotheliomas:** Usually the diagnosis will have been well established prior to resection. Mesotheliomas can be distinguished from other tumors by characteristic findings by immunohistochemistry, EM, and cytogenetics (see specific tables in Chapter 7). It may be helpful to save tissue for these studies.
- **Asbestos body counts and asbestos fiber analysis:** Formalin-fixed lung tissue (not tumor or plaque) is used for these studies, which have an important role in the determination of the causation of mesothelioma. Asbestos bodies (asbestos fibers with an iron-protein coat and visible in by light microscopy), are quantified after digestion and millipore filtration. Asbestos fibers (invisible by light microscopy) are identified and quantified by energy dispersive x-ray analysis that affords separation of chrysotile, amosite, tremolite, and crocidolite asbestos fibers derived from various asbestos-containing materials. The periphery of the lung is preferred.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Mesotheliomas. Mesothelioma is usually white to gray, firm, and homogeneous. The tumors are only rarely hemorrhagic or necrotic.

Mesotheliomas grow in a very characteristic pattern within the pleura. Early in the development of the tumor, macules, polyps, and/or nodules form, probably first in the parietal pleura. In cases diagnosed prior to fusion of the parietal and visceral pleura, the parietal pleura is often more extensively involved. With time, the involved areas enlarge, coalesce and thicken the pleura and the parietal and visceral pleura fuse to form a thick rind about the lung and extend into the interlobar fissure(s). Tumor is often more extensive in basal portions of the lung than in apical areas. It will be helpful to identify cases with limited early involvement that would refute or support the limited evidence that mesotheliomas originate in the parietal pleura.

The tumor is usually sharply demarcated from the lung parenchyma. However, sampling of areas in which the tumor bulges into peripheral parenchyma may reveal microscopic areas of invasion. Separate tumor nodules within lung parenchyma are exceedingly uncommon and may represent a second primary tumor.

Invasive areas into the soft tissue of the chest wall (adipose tissue, muscle, fascia, or bone) are usually small and focal in extrapleural pneumonectomy specimens, as invasion of the chest wall is generally a contraindication to surgery. Tumor is sometimes seen in soft tissue at the site of prior surgical interventions (e.g., prior chest tube sites). Lymph node metastasis may occur, but involvement is not usually seen on gross examination.

Carcinoma. Extrapleural pneumonectomy is rarely performed for carcinomas with pleural involvement. The carcinoma is usually present within the lung and often has central cavitation or necrosis. The involvement of the pleura may be diffuse, closely mimicking mesothelioma, but patchy involvement with focal nodule formation and sparing of large areas of the pleura are clues suggesting carcinomatous involvement, especially when the parenchymal tumor is large. Invasion into soft tissue or bone may be present. Lymph node metastases are frequent.

Talc Pleurodesis. Some patients will have undergone talc pleurodesis to control symptoms from pleural effusions. The talc will be between the parietal and the visceral pleuras and will have caused them to fuse. The talc looks pale yellow grossly and is associated with a fibrotic reaction that can make it difficult to distinguish it from tumor. The tissue is softer than a pleural plaque, and is usually a thin well-demarcated area measuring 1 to 3 cm × 0.2 to 0.3 cm. These areas can be distinguished from tumor by making scrape preparations to look for talc (polarizable).

Pleural Plaques. Discrete patches of flat, thickened, hard white pleura, often with a shelf-like margin, and sometimes with calcification. The surface is relatively smooth with characteristic small pits. The thickness is usually about 0.3 to 0.5 cm. These plaques are strongly related to prior asbestos exposure.[2]

Documenting their presence may be helpful in determining the likelihood of occupational exposure to asbestos.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor and pleural margins:** Take sections of resection margins (after selective inking) with underlying tumor and superficial lung parenchyma perpendicular to the pleural surface.

  In the usual case with extensive fusion of parietal and visceral pleura, nine to ten cassettes including margins of parietal pleura chosen to demonstrate the closest approach of the tumor to the resection margin (apex, and anterior, lateral, posterior, and medial pleura), and tumor and diaphragm, tumor and lung (demonstrating any invasion into lung), small and large nodules, any areas of variable appearance.

  In the unusual case with limited or no areas of fusion of parietal and visceral pleura, take sections as above and also sample the unfused visceral pleura (apex, anterior, lateral, posterior, medial, and diaphragmatic) to reflect areas of minimal (gray macules, nodules, or polyps) and maximal involvement (solitary or coalesced nodules).
- **Pericardium:** One to two sections to demonstrate tumor, deepest penetration of pericardium by tumor, closest margin.
- **Diaphragmatic margins:** Sections (inked, perpendicular) from anterior, lateral, posterior, and medial margins. Take sections to demonstrate the site of deepest penetration of tumor into the diaphragmatic muscle.
- **Lung:** Two generous sections (in separate cassettes) of representative lung from periphery of both upper and lower lobes (these may be essential in determining exposure to asbestos) and any focal lesions.
- **Bronchial resection margin:** One section, en face. This will usually have been taken as a frozen section.
- **Hilar lymph nodes:** Submit each lymph node.
- **Separate rib:** A bone marrow squeeze may be performed if the rib is not attached to the specimen and is grossly normal. If the bone is attached or grossly abnormal the bone must be decalcified and cross sections submitted. See Chapter 14 for instructions.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number, are two specimens.

The first specimen is labeled "rib" and consists of a 5 × 2 × 0.8 cm segment of grossly unremarkable rib. A marrow squeeze is performed.

Cassette #1: Rib, marrow squeeze, 1 frag, RSS.

The second specimen is labeled "lung" and consists of a 750 gram right extrapleural pneumonectomy specimen (26 × 20 × 15 cm) consisting of lung (24 × 18 × 14 cm), parietal pleura, pericardium (10 × 7 × 0.2 cm), and hemidiaphragm (21 × 14 × 0.3 to 1.4 cm). The parietal pleura is thickened, white, and intact except for a 6 × 0.5 cm linear rent over the lateral aspect of the mid portion of the lung. A few tags of fibrous tissue are adherent to the surface. Approximately 75% of the parietal pleura is occupied by nodules of firm gray tumor, ranging in size from 0.2 cm in diameter to 1.5 × 1.2 × 1.0 cm. Tumor is grossly present at the lateral pleural resection margin at the junction of upper and middle thirds of the lung. Apical and adjacent upper lobe pleura is relatively spared by tumor. The visceral and parietal pleura are thickened (to 1.2 cm maximum thickness, greatest basally) and are fused (75% of surface), except posteriorly and inferiorly where there is a loculated area of effusion (9 × 5 × 2 cm) filled with red cloudy fluid. Unfused visceral pleura (adjacent to the effusion) is thickened (0.2 cm) and contains scattered tumor nodules ranging from 0.2 to 0.5 cm in greatest dimension. The tumor bulges (0.5 cm) into lung parenchyma in several foci (lower lobe) and thickens (to 0.5 cm) an interlobar septum for a distance of approximately 4 cm. The diaphragmatic parietal and visceral pleura are thickened (1.2 cm) and fused. The diaphragmatic margins are grossly free of tumor with the closest approach of tumor being 0.2 cm at the lateral margin. Tumor invades to a depth of 0.3 cm into the muscle of the diaphragm, but the inferior surface is free of tumor. A flattened hard white pleural plaque (5 × 4 × 0.5 cm) is present in the lateral aspect of the parietal pleura. There are mild emphysematous changes in the peripheral lung parenchyma. The bronchial margin is free of lesions and was examined by frozen section with an en face section. There are three firm anthracotic

lymph nodes in the perihilar soft tissue, the largest measuring 1.5 cm in greatest dimension. Tumor is saved for snap freezing, electron microscopy, and cytogenetics. Fixed tissue (5 × 5 × 5 cm) from the periphery of the lower lobe is given to Dr. J. Godleski for asbestos fiber analysis. Photographs are taken.

Cassette #2: Tumor, quick fix in formalin, 2 frags, area taken for special studies, RSS.
Cassette #3: Apical pleural margin, perpendicular, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #4: Medial pleural margin, perpendicular., 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #5: Lateral pleural margin, site of gross extension to inked margin, perpendicular., 2 frag, RSS.
Cassette #6: Anterior pleural margin, perpendicular., 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #7: Posterior pleural margin, perpendicular., 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #8: Medial diaphragm margin, perpendicular., 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #9: Lateral diaphragm margin, perpendicular., 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #10: Anterior diaphragm margin, perpendicular, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #11: Posterior diaphragm margin, perpendicular, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassette #12: Tumor and diaphragm, central portion, deepest extent of tumor, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassettes #13-14: Tumor and interlobar fissure, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #15: Largest tumor nodule, parietal pleura, 2 frags, RSS
Cassette #16: Smallest and larger tumor nodules, visceral pleura, 3 frag, RSS
Cassette #17: Pleural plaque, 3 frags, RSS.
Cassette #18: Bronchial resection margin, frozen section remnant, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassettes #19-20: Upper lobe parenchyma, 1 frag each, RSS.
Cassettes #21-22: Lower lobe parenchyma, 1 frag each, RSS.
Cassette #23: Perihilar lymph nodes, 3 frags, ESS.
Cassettes #24-25: Pericardium, closest approach of tumor, 4 frags, RSS.

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR MESOTHELIOMAS

- **Specimen:** Pleura, lung (right, left), diaphragm, chest wall
- **Procedure:** Pleural decortication, pleurectomy, pericardial resection, extrapleural pneumonectomy
- **Specimen Integrity:** Intact, disrupted
- **Specimen Laterality:** Right, left
- **Tumor Site:** Parietal pleura, visceral pleura, diaphragm, pericardium
- **Tumor Size:** For localized tumors – greatest dimension (additional dimensions optional)
- **Tumor Focality:** Localized, diffuse
- **Histologic Type:** Mesothelioma, epithelial type (best prognosis), sarcomatoid type, mixed epithelial and sarcomatoid type, mesothelioma (usually sarcomatoid) with extensive desmoplasia (desmoplastic mesothelioma), undifferentiated, other rare types
- **Tumor Extension:** Parietal pleura, visceral pleura, invasion of lung parenchyma, invasion of diaphragmatic muscle, invasion of endothoracic fascia, invasion of mediastinal fat, invasion of pericardium (partial or transmural), invasion of bone (rib or spine), invasion of contralateral pleura, invasion of myocardium, invasion of brachial plexus
- **Margins:** Parietal pleura (anterior, posterior, medial, lateral), chest wall, diaphragm (anterior, posterior, medial lateral, inferior or caudal), bronchus
- **Treatment Effect:** If there has been neoadjuvant treatment: not identified, greater than 50% residual viable tumor, less than 50% residual viable tumor
- **Involvement of anatomic structures:** % of parietal and of visceral pleura involved by tumor
  Thickening of pleura by tumor (range/minimum and maximum)
  Involvement of diaphragmatic muscle/pericardium/rib involvement of adipose tissue/endothoracic fascia/skeletal muscle of chest wall
  Lung parenchyma or tissues in the contralateral chest
- **Pleura:** Plaque (present/absent), asbestos bodies, talc pleurodesis
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Fibrosis, pneumonia, emphysema, atelectasis, granulomas, ferruginous bodies, talc, etc.
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Involved or not involved, number, location, extracapsular invasion if present
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.

TABLE 26-9. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF PLEURAL MESOTHELIOMA	
Tumor	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
T1	Tumor limited to the ipsilateral parietal pleura with or without mediastinal pleura and with or without diaphragmatic pleural involvement
T1a	No involvement of visceral pleura
T1b	Tumor also involving the visceral pleura
T2	Tumor involving each of the ipsilateral pleural surfaces (parietal, mediastinal, diaphragmatic, and visceral pleura), with at least one of the following: Involvement of diaphragmatic muscle Extension of tumor from visceral pleura into the underlying pulmonary parenchyma
T3	Locally advanced but potentially resectable tumor Tumor involving all of the ipsilateral pleural surfaces (parietal, mediastinal, diaphragmatic, and visceral pleura), with at least one of the following: Involvement of the endothoracic fascia Extension into mediastinal fat Solitary, completely resectable focus of tumor extending into the soft tissues of chest wall Non-transmural involvement of the pericardium
T4	Locally advanced but potentially resectable tumor Tumor involving all of the ipsilateral pleural surfaces (parietal, mediastinal, diaphragmatic, and visceral pleura), with at least one of the following: Diffuse extension or multifocal masses of tumor in the chest wall, with or without associated rib destruction Direct transdiaphragmatic extension of tumor to the peritoneum Direct extension of tumor to mediastinal organs Direct extension of tumor to the contralateral pleura Direct extension of tumor into the spine Tumor extending through to the internal surface of the pericardium with or without a pericardial effusion or tumor involving the myocardium
Regional Lymph Nodes	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Metastasis in the ipsilateral bronchopulmonary or hilar lymph nodes
N2	Metastasis in the subcarinal or the ipsilateral mediastinal lymph nodes including the ipsilateral internal mammary and peridiaphragmatic nodes
N3	Metastasis in the contralateral mediastinal, contralateral internal mammary, ipsilateral or contralateral supraclavicular lymph nodes
Distant Metastasis	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis present

From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.

- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 26-9). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.
  - Other staging systems (such as the Revised Sugarbaker Staging System or the International Mesothelioma Interest Group System) may also be used (Tables 26-10 and 26-11)

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

TABLE 26–10. REVISED SUGARBAKER STAGING SYSTEM FOR MALIGNANT PLEURAL MESOTHELIOMA

STAGE	DESCRIPTION
I	Disease completely resected within the capsule of the parietal pleura without lymph node involvement (originally designated "adenopathy" in the published system), ipsilateral pleura, lung, pericardium, diaphragm, or chest wall disease limited to previous biopsy sites
II	All of stage I with positive resection margins and/or intrapleural lymph node involvement
III	Local extension of disease into the chest wall or mediastinum; to heart, or through diaphragm, peritoneum; or with extrapleural lymph node involvement (mediastinal and peridiaphragmatic lymph nodes not located within the pleural reflection)
IV	Distant metastatic disease

From Sugarbaker DJ, Flores RM, Jaklitsch MT, Richards WG, Strauss GM, Corson JM, DeCamp Jr, MM, Swanson SJ, Bueno R, Lukanich JM, Healey Baldini E, Mentzer SJ, Resection margins, extrapleural nodal status, and cell type determine postoperative long-term survival in trimodality therapy of malignant pleural mesothelioma: results in 183 patients, J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg 117:54-65,1999.

PLEURA

The pleura is usually biopsied when there is a question of mesothelioma (e.g., a typical radiologic appearance or effusion). This diagnosis may be very difficult to make on small specimens.

Biopsy

If mesothelioma is in the clinical differential diagnosis, and there is sufficient lesional tissue, tissue should be taken for special studies. In the OR consultation room, pathologists must be aggressive and timely about requesting additional tissue, especially if most or all of the lesional tissue has been taken for a frozen section. Freezing the tissue may alter the immunogenicity and may prevent a definitive diagnosis on permanent sections. For example, calretinin may only be weakly positive in previously frozen tissue from mesotheliomas. The most important studies, after adequate tissue is available for light microscopy, are EM followed by cytogenetics.

Pleurectomy

Pleurectomies are occasionally performed for debulking of mesotheliomas if the tumor is unresectable. The specimen consists of multiple fragments of pleura with tumor implants. Pleurectomy may also be performed for diagnosis in cases of chronic fibrosing pleuritis, to rule out the presence of a desmoplastic mesothelioma.

TABLE 26–11. INTERNATIONAL MESOTHELIOMA INTEREST GROUP STAGING SYSTEM

PRIMARY TUMOR T	T1	
	T1a	Tumor limited to the ipsilateral parietal pleura, including mediastinal and diaphragmatic pleura. No involvement of the visceral pleura.
	T1b	Tumor involving the ipsilateral parietal pleura, including mediastinal and diaphragmatic pleura. Scattered foci of tumor also involving the visceral pleura.
	T2	Tumor involving each of the ipsilateral pleural surfaces (parietal, mediastinal, diaphragmatic, and visceral pleura) with at least one of the following features: Involvement of diaphragmatic muscle Confluent visceral pleural tumor (including the fissures) or extension of tumor from visceral pleura into the underlying pulmonary parenchyma
	T3	Tumor involving all of the ipsilateral pleural surfaces (parietal, mediastinal, diaphragmatic, and visceral pleura) with at least one of the following features: Involvement of the endothoracic fascia Extension into the mediastinal fat Solitary, completely resectable focus of tumor extending into the soft tissues of the chest wall Nontransmural involvement of the pericardium
	T4	Tumor involving all of the ipsilateral pleural surfaces (parietal, mediastinal, diaphragmatic, and visceral pleura) with at least one of the following features: Diffuse extension or multifocal masses of tumor in the chest wall with or without associated rib destruction Direct transdiaphragmatic extension of tumor to the peritoneum Direct extension to the contralateral pleura Direct extension of tumor to one or more mediastinal organs Direct extension of tumor into the spine Tumor extending through to the internal surface of the pericardium with or without a pericardial effusion; or tumor involving the myocardium
Regional Lymph Nodes	NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed
	N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
	N1	Metastasis to ipsilateral bronchopulmonary or hilar lymph nodes
	N2	Metastasis to the subcarinal or the ipsilateral mediastinal lymph nodes, including the ipsilateral internal mammary nodes
	N3	Metastasis to contralateral mediastinal, contralateral internal mammary, ipsilateral or contralateral supraclavicular lymph node(s)
Distant Metastasis	MX	Distant metastasis cannot be assessed
	M0	No distant metastasis
	M1	Distant metastasis present

From Rusch VW, A proposed new international TNM staging system for malignant pleural mesothelioma from the International Mesothelioma Interest Group, Chest 108:1122-1128, 1995.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Describe each fragment of pleura separately, including size and thickness. However, if three or more fragments are present, describe the number of fragments, overall dimensions, dimensions of smallest and largest fragment. Describe any lesions including color, consistency, size, percent of pleural involvement, any variability in appearance, distance from margins (if received as a single fragment). Record the presence, size, and tumor involvement of any other structures (e.g., lung, skeletal muscle, adipose tissue, pericardium).
   Note the presence or absence of pleural plaques and give dimensions.
2. Consider taking lesional tissue for EM, cytogenetics, and snap freezing – especially if a diagnosis has not been established.
3. Selectively ink margins that appear involved by tumor if a single fragment is received.
4. Submit approximately one cassette for every cm of greatest dimension of tumor, generally to a maximum of 12 to 15 cassettes. Document representative involved margins if a single fragment is received (ink selectively or submit en face if grossly involved).
   Search carefully for lung tissue, usually adherent to tumor as a thin rim. Take multiple sections (up to five) of lung and adjacent tissue, to facilitate possible asbestos fiber analysis.
5. If the differential diagnosis is fibrosing pleuritis vs. desmoplastic mesothelioma, search carefully for all areas suspicious for tumor nodules. Extensive sampling is often necessary in such cases to confirm, or exclude, a desmoplastic mesothelioma.

REFERENCES

1. Stewart S, Fishbein MC, Snell GI, et al: Revision of the 1996 working formulation for the standardization of nomenclature in the diagnosis of lung rejection. J Heart Lung Transplant 26:1229-1242, 2007.
2. Bianchi C, Brollo A, Ramani L, Zuch C. Pleural plaques as risk indicators for malignant pleural mesothelioma: a necroscopy-based study. Am J Industrial Med 32:445-449, 1997.

27 Lymph Nodes, Spleen, and Bone Marrow

The lymph nodes, spleen, and bone marrow are affected by a wide variety of neoplastic, infectious, and systemic diseases.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

See Table 27-1.

TABLE 27–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR LYMPH NODE, SPLEEN, AND BONE MARROW SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Lymphadenopathy
Purpose of the procedure	Organomegaly (liver or spleen)
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	Hematologic findings (e.g., pancytopenia or lymphocytosis)
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	*Helicobacter pylori* infection
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	LDH level (a poor prognostic factor that correlates with tumor burden)
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	Constitutional symptoms (e.g., night sweats, fever)
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	Congenital immune disorders
	Organ transplantation (solid organ or bone marrow)
	Serology (e.g., HTLV-1, Epstein-Barr virus)
Compromised immune system	Autoimmune disease

BONE MARROW

Bone marrow biopsies are performed to evaluate suspected hematologic disorders, or for the staging of carcinomas and lymphomas.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Biopsies are optimally fixed in Zenker's fixative, which provides excellent histologic detail as well as decalcification of the specimen.
2. Specimens should, ideally, remain in Zenker's for a minimum of 12 hours and no more than 30 hours. If the specimen is easily bent, decalcification is adequate. Always check the date on the requisition form (i.e., specimens may arrive the same day or the day after the biopsy) to make sure that specimens are not left in Zenker's too long.

3. Describe the number of fragments, shape (tubular, irregular), and dimensions (length and diameter). Wrap in lens paper and submit the entire specimen. The cassette is rinsed in one or more water baths with stirring (use a magnetic stirrer) for 20 to 30 minutes. Mercury waste, including the initial water baths, must be disposed of into a special waste container.
4. Describe any blood smears received with the biopsy. Unstained smears should be stained with Wright Giemsa.
5. Order one H&E and two Giemsa stains for routine cases.

SPECIAL STUDIES ON BONE MARROW BIOPSIES

- **Suspected infectious disease (e.g., in immunocompromised patients):** Special stains for organisms can be ordered on fixed sections (e.g., AFB and silver stains).
- **Myelodysplastic or myeloproliferative syndromes:** Reticulin stains may be ordered to evaluate marrow fibrosis. Iron stains are examined to evaluate ring sideroblasts.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received in Zenker's fixative, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "right iliac," is a 1.5 cm in length by 0.4 cm in diameter bone marrow biopsy stained yellow by the fixative. Accompanying the specimen are two unstained coverslips that are submitted for Wright Giemsa staining. The specimen is decalcified in Zenker's fixative prior to submission.

Cassette #1: 1 frag, ESS.

LYMPH NODES

Lymph Nodes: Suspected Lymphoproliferative Disease

A single enlarged lymph node is often biopsied. Common diagnoses are reactive hyperplasia, lymphoma, and occasionally metastatic carcinoma. Appropriate processing of fresh tissue is necessary in order to use the special techniques available for analyzing lymphoproliferative disorders (immunoperoxidase studies on frozen sections, flow cytometry, cytogenetics, and DNA analysis). In general, if there is enough lesional tissue, some tissue is fixed in formalin, as non-lymphoid antigens may not be optimally preserved in B5 (e.g., keratin), and the lacunar variants of Reed-Sternberg cells in nodular sclerosing Hodgkin lymphoma are seen best in formalin-fixed tissue.

If infectious disease is suspected, appropriate precautions are taken (see Part One) and cultures sent, if not already sent by the surgeon.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record the outer dimensions of the lymph node. Make very thin (2 to 3 mm) serial sections perpendicular to the long axis, looking for focal lesions. Describe the node, including color (uniform or irregular, pigmentation), nodularity, consistency (rubbery, hard), cystic areas, necrosis or hemorrhage. If there is a suspicion of infectious disease, save a small amount of sterile tissue for cultures (viral and bacterial). A touch prep can be useful to make a preliminary diagnosis to guide the distribution of tissue.
2. Fresh tissue is submitted for special studies if indicated (see below).
3. Fix most of the tissue (after slicing thinly) in B5 for 3 to 5 hours and representative sections in formalin. After fixation in B5, the tissue can be placed in formalin. Overfixation in B5 will make the tissue brittle.
4. All tissue is allowed to fix for at least 24 hours before submitting for processing. B5-fixed tissues must be washed in one or more water baths with a magnetic stirrer for 20 to 30 minutes. The water must be discarded in a mercury waste container. The tissue is then washed for an additional hour in cool running water. If there is sufficient tissue, one cassette may be processed the same day.

SPECIAL STUDIES

- **Frozen tissue:** Some immunohistochemical markers in hematopathology are most sensitive on frozen tissue, and frozen tissue can also be used for mRNA and DNA analysis. Frozen tissue is saved on

all lymph nodes with a suspicion of a lymphoproliferative disorder or without a prior diagnosis. Save approximately 5 to 10 fragments (0.4 to 0.5 cm in greatest dimension) for snap freezing.

- **Flow cytometry:** Flow cytometry may be useful for suspected lymphoproliferative disorders, difficult to classify processes, or typing of tissues from HIV+ patients. Tissue is not submitted for flow cytometry in cases of Hodgkin lymphoma or small fragmented specimens as the only diagnostic lesion might be in the fragment submitted for flow cytometry.
- **DNA analysis:** May be useful for some difficult-to-classify lymphoproliferative disorders, processes with a suspected diagnostic rearrangement, EBV analysis, or leukemias. Fresh or frozen tissue may be used.
- **Cytogenetics:** May be useful for processes with suspected diagnostic chromosomal abnormalities. The cells must be viable for karyotype analysis. In some cases, FISH on fixed tissue may be useful.
- **EM:** May be useful for unusual tumors or metastatic tumors.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Lymphoma. Lymphomas often cause diffuse expansion of the node, so that it appears rounded and loses the normal bean-shaped contour. Lymphomas have a homogeneous tan/white fleshy appearance.

Hodgkin Lymphoma. The node looks very similar to non-Hodgkin lymphomas. The nodular sclerosing variant may have gross areas of nodularity with sclerotic bands and a thick capsule.

Reactive Nodes. The nodes can be quite large but are usually softer than lymphomas and tan-brown in color. Focal necrosis can be seen in cases of Kikuchi's disease.

Carcinoma. The nodes are often white and hard with necrotic areas. Cystic spaces may be present (especially if papillary thyroid carcinoma or teratoma). Focal involvement of the node is common.

Tuberculosis. There are usually areas of geographic (caseating) necrosis. Tissue should be sent for culture and handled as little as possible prior to fixation. Avoid performing frozen sections, as this may aerosolize infectious organisms. A presumptive diagnosis can usually be made using touch preparations, if necessary.

Sarcoidosis. Lymph nodes are diffusely firm and white.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Lymph node:** Usually the entire lymph node can be submitted. If very large, one cassette per cm is sufficient. Order H&E on all sections and one Giemsa (on the second level) on the best B5-fixed tissue, in cases of suspected lymphoma. Six to eight unstained sections for immunohistochemistry on one block (B5 if there is a suspected lymphoid proliferation; formalin for nonlymphoid tumors) should only be ordered for special cases. Order levels if the specimen is small (e.g., in one cassette).

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC FEATURES CHECKLIST FOR SIGN-OUT FOR LYMPHOMAS

- **Specimen:** Lymph node, extranodal site
- **Procedure:** Excisional biopsy, incisional biopsy, core needle biopsy, resection
- **Tumor Site:** Involvement of specific lymph node regions, spleen, bone marrow, other sites
- **Histologic Type:** Hodgkin lymphoma, non-Hodgkin lymphomas. The WHO Classification is recommended.
- **Extent of Tumor:** Single lymph node region, two or more regions on the same side of the diaphragm, lymph node regions on both sides of the diaphragm, spleen, liver, bone marrow, other organs
- **Histologic Grade:** Follicular lymphoma and nodular sclerosing Hodgkin lymphoma (Tables 27-2 and 27-3)
- **Immunophenotyping Studies:** Often used to classify lymphomas into B and T cell types and for further subclassification. The method used should be included (flow cytometry vs IHC, paraffin sections vs frozen tissue). Use CD nomenclature and specific antibody designations when relevant.

TABLE 27–2. GRADING OF FOLLICULAR LYMPHOMA	
Grade 1	0 to 5 centroblasts per HPF
Grade 2	6 to 15 centroblasts per HPF
Grade 3	>15 centroblasts per HPF
Grade 3a	Centrocytes are still present
Grade 3b	Centroblasts form solid sheets with no residual centrocytes
Reporting of Pattern	
Follicular	>75% follicular
Follicular and diffuse	25% to 75% follicular
Focally follicular	<25% follicular
Counts are for a 0.159 mm^2 HPF. Count 10 HPFs and divide by 10. See in Chapter 9, "Measuring with the Microscope," for methods to determine field size.	

TABLE 27–3. GRADING OF NODULAR SCLEROSIS HODGKIN LYMPHOMA	
GRADE I (NSI)	
1	<25% of nodules show lymphocyte depletion, or
2	<25% of nodules show numerous anaplastic Hodgkin cells without depletion of lymphocytes
Grade II (NSII)	
1	25% or more of nodules show lymphocyte depletion, or
2	25% or more of nodules show numerous anaplastic Hodgkin cells without depletion of lymphocytes
See reference 1.	

- **Ancillary Studies:** Cytogenetics, molecular genectics, FISH, flow cytometry, viral identification
- **Clinical Prognostic Factors and Indices:** International Prognostic Index, International Prognostic Score, (IPS), Follicular Lymphoma International Prognostic Index (FLIPI), B symptoms
- **AJCC Classification:** Stage classification should be provided, when possible (Table 27-4).

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

Lymph Nodes for Tumor Staging

Lymph nodes are the most important part of any major tumor resection. The status of lymph nodes determines whether disease is localized, and potentially cured by surgery, or disseminated - not curable by surgery but possibly treatable systemically.

TABLE 27-4. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF HODGKIN AND NON-HODGKIN LYMPHOMAS

Stage I	Involvement of a single lymphatic site (i.e., nodal region, Waldeyer's ring, thymus or spleen) (I); or localized involvement of a single extralymphatic organ or site in the absence of any lymph node involvement (I_E) (rare in Hodgkin lymphoma)
Stage II	Involvement of two or more lymph node regions on the same side of the diaphragm (II); or localized involvement of single extralymphatic organ or site in association with regional lymph node involvement with or without other lymph node regions on the same side of the diaphragm (II_E). The number of lymph node regions involved may be indicated by a subscript (e.g., II_3).
Stage III	Involvement of lymph node regions on both sides of the diaphragm (III) which also may be accompanied by extralymphatic extension in association with adjacent lymph node involvement (III_E), or by involvement of the spleen (III_S), or both ($III_{E,S}$). Splenic involvement is designated by the letter S.
Stage IV	Diffuse or disseminated involvement of one or more extralymphatic organs with or without associated lymph node involvement, or isolated extralymphatic organ involvement in the absence of adjacent regional lymph node involvement, but in conjunction with disease in distant site(s). Stage IV includes any involvement of the liver or bone marrow, lungs (other than by direct extension from another site), or cerebrospinal fluid.
Modifiers	E Extranodal S Spleen

Note: There are separate staging systems for primary cutaneous lymphoma, multiple myeloma and plasma cell disorders, and pediatric lymphoid malignancy. This system does not include ocular adnexal lymphoma. The St. Jude Staging system may be used for children with NHL (usually Burkitt lymphoma, lymphoblastic lymphoma, or diffuse large cell lymphoma).
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.

The number of lymph nodes present and evaluated in a specimen is dependent upon many factors:

- Patient factors:
  - Age: older patients tend to have fewer lymph nodes and may undergo less extensive surgery
  - Prior treatment: treatment with radiation or chemotherapy can reduce the size and number of nodes
  - Prior surgery: surgery to remove lymph nodes will reduce the number present at that site
  - Host immune response: some systemic diseases can result in either increased size of lymph nodes (e.g., chronic inflammation or infection) or decreased size; is an indicator of the immunocompetency of the patient
- Surgical factors
  - Size (length) of specimen
  - Removal of the tissue likely to contain lymph nodes
- Cancer factors
  - Some cancer types are associated with an increased size of lymph nodes not involved by cancer (e.g., medullary carcinomas)
  - Right-sided colon cancers are associated with more lymph nodes than left-sided cancers
  - Lymph node metastases: metastatic carcinoma in lymph nodes often increases the size of the involved node and makes involved nodes easier to find due to their firmness. Therefore, more nodes will typically be found in patients with many lymph node metastases.
- Pathology factors
  - Experience and technique of the person looking for the lymph nodes
  - Methods of retrieving lymph nodes: special fixatives or clearing solutions can be used to find very small nodes; however, the additional nodes found compared to a good routine examination are very small and rarely change tumor staging. The significance of increased numbers of negative nodes found by the use of extensive labor-intensive (and often toxic) procedures is unclear.

An increased number of lymph nodes examined is a favorable prognostic factor for patients with colon carcinoma. It has been suggested that the number of nodes reported should be used as a quality assurance measure, based on the assumption that patients with small numbers of nodes had positive nodes missed,

either by the surgeon or by the pathologist. Such patients would be understaged and would not receive chemotherapy that could have improved their outcome. However, node-negative patients with greater numbers of nodes reported also have a better prognosis. This indicates that the underlying reasons for this phenomenon are complex and are not just due to the failure to find positive nodes. Factors related to the type of cancer and the characteristics of patients undoubtedly also play an important role.

Pathologists can play an important role in patient care by striving to find all the nodes in specimens, using good standard grossing techniques. A goal of finding at least 12 nodes in all colon specimens should be attempted, although it will not be possible in every specimen. In any specimen where fewer than expected nodes are found, the specimen should be re-examined and any additional tissue that might contain nodes submitted. For optimal patient care, the report should document the extent of pathologic examination (e.g., the reexamination of the specimen by a second person and/or the submission of additional blocks of tissue) in order to minimize the possibility of a positive lymph node being missed.[2-7]

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Often nodes will be submitted surrounded by a large amount of adipose tissue.

Palpation: This method is useful for OR consultations and is best performed when the tissue is unfixed. If there is any question of a lymphoproliferative disorder, the lymph nodes **must** be examined prior to fixation in order to apportion tissue for appropriate special studies. This is the recommended method.

Lymph nodes are firmer than fat and can be found by gently "squashing" the fat with one finger. The nodes will be discrete ovoid areas that cannot be completely compressed. When bisected, they are well circumscribed and tan compared to the surrounding yellow adipose tissue. Some lymph nodes may have the central portion extensively replaced by fat, leaving only a thin rim of lymphoid tissue that can be difficult to see grossly.

If only a few lymph nodes are found using this method, the remainder of the specimen can be fixed in Bouin's and processed as described below to look for small lymph nodes. Small nodes can sometimes be found adjacent to blood vessels.

Serial sectioning: Fix the entire specimen for several hours or overnight. Serially section through the specimen. When a lymph node is encountered, bluntly dissect it free. This is necessary to ensure that multiple slices of the same node are not mistaken for multiple nodes.

Lymph nodes can be difficult to see in routinely fixed adipose tissue. In Bouin's fixative (and others[8]), the lymph nodes will be white and the adipose tissue yellow. Specimens fixed in formalin can be postfixed in Bouin's. This can be a good method for finding very small (<0.5 cm) nodes. However, Bouin's is suboptimal for immunoperoxidase studies (especially hormone receptors) and DNA studies and should be avoided if additional studies may be necessary.

Soft tissue attached to an organ (e.g., stomach, colon, kidney) can be stripped and placed in Bouin's after all the margins have been identified. Most nodes will be located in the tissue close to the organ. Leave the soft tissue directly beneath the tumor in place in order to distinguish direct extension of the tumor into fat from nodes completely replaced by tumor.

2. Record the total dimensions of the specimen, number of lymph nodes, and size of the largest node.

Describe the nodes:

- Tan, homogeneous, firm: normal nodes
- Black: anthracotic pigment in mediastinal or bronchial lymph nodes, some metastatic melanomas
- White, firm to hard: metastatic carcinoma, sarcoid
- White/fleshy: lymphoma
- Cystic: metastatic teratoma, metastatic papillary thyroid carcinoma
- Necrosis: metastatic carcinoma, infection (e.g., TB)

Normal lymph nodes will have a smooth outer surface. Describe if the capsule is irregular or effaced.

If there is extensive extracapsular extension and the nodes are attached to each other by firm tissue (corresponding to "fixed" or "matted" nodes on physical examination), estimate the number of nodes present and take a representative section of each separately identifiable involved node.

3. Each node is serially sectioned into 0.2 to 0.3 cm slices.

Metastases first enter along the midline of the node. Although the node may be sectioned through the hilum and submitted so that this portion of the node is sectioned first in order to find small metastases, in practice this is difficult to do. Slicing the node into thin sections is more important than the exact plane of section.

CAP and ADASP have recommended that all grossly negative nodes be serially sectioned and completely submitted if removed for the evaluation of metastatic disease.

The total number of involved nodes must be determined. Small (<0.3 cm) unsliced lymph nodes can be grouped into one cassette. Slices of larger lymph nodes can be combined in a cassette if the nodes are inked different colors. Nodes can also be combined with other types of tissue (e.g., a cassette could contain a nipple section and a bisected lymph node). Dictate how many nodes are in each cassette in order to accurately count the number of involved nodes.

If there is a gross metastasis present, submit **one** representative section of the area most suspicious for extracapsular invasion. Record the gross size of the metastatic deposit.

Retroperitoneal lymph node dissections for testicular cancer often require extra sections (see Chapter 20).

This method will detect all macrometastases (>0.2 cm). The clinical signficance of smaller metastases (micrometastases and isolated tumor cells) has not been definitely established and is under investigation. There is no practical routine method that will detect all tumor cells in lymph nodes – this would require IHC studies on the entire node (>300 slides).

SPECIAL STUDIES[9-16]

Frozen Sections. Intraoperative consultation may be helpful to determine the need to remove additional nodes or to determine the need to complete a cancer operation. If a node is to be examined by frozen section, the entire node should be thinly sectioned and all slices frozen. A major reason for false negative results is failure to examine the entire node.

Cytology preparations can also be used to examine lymph nodes intraoperatively.

If findings suggestive of infection or sarcoid are found, additional tissue should be requested to send for culture.

Levels. In order to consistently find metastastic deposits smaller than 0.2 cm, additional levels need to be performed through the thickness of the tissue (Table 27-5).[17]

In order to examine the entire tissue slice, the levels need to be cut deeply into the block. Typical "levels" ordered from a histopathology laboratory are usually cut at a spacing of 10 to 20 microns. Thus three "typical" levels might examine <10% of the thickness of the tissue. To completely examine a 0.2 to 0.3 cm thick slice (or 2,000 to 3,000 microns), the levels need to be 500 to 1,000 microns apart. These very deep levels need to be specifically requested from the histotechnologist. In some protocols, intervening unstained slides are saved for possible later studies.

If multiple fragments of tissue are present in the block, levels may also ensure that all fragments are adequately sampled. Levels can also be helpful in determining the largest size of a small metastasis.

Immunoperoxidase Studies. Immunoperoxidase studies are used to further evaluate cells seen by H&E or to find very small metastases not seen by H&E.

IHC for the Evaluation of Cells Seen by H&E. There are many types of benign cells present in lymph nodes that can resemble tumor cells (e.g., nevus cell nests, histiocytes, megakaryocytes). Alternatively, tumor cells can closely resemble benign cells (e.g., lobular breast cancer can mimic lymphocytes or histiocytes).

TABLE 27–5. EXTENT OF SAMPLING NECESSARY TO FIND ALL METASTASES OF A GIVEN SIZE IN A 0.2 CM TISSUE SLICE

SIZE OF METASTATIC DEPOSIT TO BE DETECTED	NUMBER OF EQUALLY SPACED LEVELS THAT NEED TO BE EXAMINED TO FIND ALL METASTASES
>0.2 cm (a macrometastasis)	1
0.1 cm	3
0.05 cm	6
0.02 cm	20
Single cell	500

IHC can help identify the type of cell present. Keratin is often used to identify metastastic carcinoma. However, other types of benign keratin positive cells must be excluded:

- Mullerian inclusions (usually pelvic or peritoneal lymph nodes)
- Breast lobules (axillary lymph nodes; rare)
- Mesothelial cells (mediastinal lymph nodes)
- Thyroid follicles (lymph nodes of the anterior neck)
- Interstitial reticulum cells (particularly with CAM5.2 [Xu])
- Plasma cells

IHC is also used to distinguish melanoma metastases from other benign S100 cells in lymph nodes (see below).

IHC Used to Find Small Metastases Not Seen by H&E. Individual tumor cells or very small clusters of tumor can be detected by using IHC. The slide used for IHC is also a deeper level. Thus in some cases the new finding of metastastic tumor may be due to the deeper level, rather than to the use of IHC. Metastases should be classified by size or the number of cells present and not by the method of detection.

IHC detects metastases not detected by H&E, depending on how many IHC studies are performed and how deeply the tissue is leveled. In general, the number of metastases found increases with the number of IHC levels examined. No study has attempted to examine every cell in a lymph node with IHC by performing >300 IHC studies per node.

False positive results can occur when benign cells are immunoreactive for the markers used (see above for keratin and the melanoma section in Chapter 18). False negative results are less common, but can occur when the tumor is not immunoreactive for the marker used. Because the entire node is not examined by IHC, one or a few IHC studies do not exclude tumor cells in the portions of the node not studied.

The clinical significance of micrometastases (i.e., <0.2 cm) to lymph nodes in untreated patients is currently unknown but is under investigation. "Isolated tumor cell clusters" measuring <0.02 cm are currently classified as N0 for breast carcinomas. This size is approximately equivalent to a linear array of 20 cells. If a breast cancer patient has received prior therapy (i.e., "neoadjuvant" therapy), residual small metastases have the same prognostic importance as larger metastases, as this is an indication of an incomplete response of a previously larger metastasis.

Small foci of metastatic melanoma are often more difficult to diagnose by H&E than small foci of metastastic carcinoma. S100 is a sensitive marker, but is also positive in nevus cells, dendritic cells, as well as nerves and ganglion cells. HMB45 and MART-1 can be used to more specifically identify tumor cells, but these markers are negative in 5% to 20% of metastatic melanomas.

It has been recommended by CAP and ADASP that IHC be used for the evaluation of sentinel lymph nodes in breast carcinoma only in the context of clinical protocols to determine the significance of these small metastases.

RT-PCR. This technique can potentially detect one tumor cell among 10^6 to 10^7 cells by amplifying mRNA transcripts only produced by tumor cells. However, there are limitations to this method:

- False positive results are possible as non-tumor cells may transcribe "tumor specific" genes (e.g., nevus cells produce tyrosinase), benign epithelial lymph node inclusions may be present, or the specimen may be contaminated during processing (e.g., with skin cells).
- False negative results are possible as some tumors may not produce the transcript used for the assay.
- There is no histologic correlation for the RT-PCR findings (e.g., to rule out benign cells or artifacts).
- The size of the metastatic deposit cannot be determined with certainty.
- The significance of very rare tumor cells undetectable by other methods is unknown.
- Results are highly dependent on the experience of the person performing the assay.

Comparisons of RT-PCR to conventional techniques require dividing the nodal tissue for these two assays. Since small metastases are not evenly distributed in a node, how the tissue is divided will affect the relative sensitivity of the methods. The significance of a positive RT-PCR result if the remainder of the node is free of carcinoma is unclear. RT-PCR remains experimental and requires clinical validation.

Sentinel Lymph Nodes

The sentinel lymph node is the first lymph node in the line of drainage from a tumor. If the sentinel node is free of tumor, it is highly unlikely that other nodes are involved and patients can be spared full lymph node dissections.

Methods to detect the sentinel node use either a dye (usually methylene blue) or radioactive isotopes. If a radioactive isotope is used, the radiation safety department should be contacted to determine the best method of handling the node and the potential risks to pathology personnel. The type of isotope, the dose, and the method of injection will vary among institutions. The half-lives of the isotopes used are generally short, and often hours or a day will markedly decrease the amount of radioactivity remaining in the specimen. In most cases, the specimens can be handled safely by pathology personnel and do not require any special procedures or disposal.

The best method for processing sentinel nodes has not been determined. Typically, additional levels and/or IHC are performed (see above). At a minimum, the node or nodes are thinly sectioned and completely submitted in order to detect all macrometastases. Many protocols involve multiple H&E levels with intervening unstained slides. If the H&E slides show cells that cannot be classified with certainty, the unstained slides may be used for additional studies.

Protocols for examining sentinel nodes from different sites must be developed at each institution. It is preferable that additional studies beyond H&E examination are performed in the context of protocols designed to determine the clinical significance of the small tumor deposits detected by these methods.

The reporting of sentinel nodes should include their appearance (blue or not blue), the presence of radioactivity as provided by the surgeon (hot or not hot or specific counts), and the methods used to examine the nodes.[18-21]

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Grossly identify each node. On average, there will be two sentinel nodes for breast carcinomas.
Describe each node:
- Size
- Color (may be blue if dye is used)
- Capsule – smooth or irregular

2. Ink each node a different color if they are to be submitted in the same cassette.
Slice each node thinly at 0.2 to 0.3 cm intervals.
If a frozen section is requested, freeze all the slices.

3. Submit all slices for histologic examination.

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC FEATURES CHECKLIST FOR SIGN-OUT FOR LYMPH NODE STAGING FOR CARCINOMAS

- **Number:** Number of lymph nodes examined. Some protocols require that a minimum number of lymph nodes be examined for adequate staging. If this number is not found, a re-examination of the specimen and additional tissue sampling is warranted.
- **Location:** Location in relation to the primary tumor in large resections or location as defined by the surgeon
- **Number of metastatic deposits:** Number of lymph nodes with metastatic deposits. Most staging systems require this information. In some cases, only metastases of a certain size are used in the final node count for N classification (e.g., in breast cancer, nodes with isolated tumor cells are not included in the number of positive lymph nodes)
- **Size of metastasis:** Size of the largest metastatic deposit. Macrometastases are defined as being >0.2 cm in size. For some carcinomas, the size of the largest metastatic deposit is used for staging.
  - Isolated tumor cell clusters ≤0.02 cm (approximately the size of a linear array of 20 tumor cells) are staged as N0 (i+) for breast cancers.
- **Method of detection:** If metastatic cells are only found by immunohistochemistry or RT-PCR, this should be stated, as very small tumor deposits detected by these methods may not be equivalent to finding metastases by H&E. However, the size of the metastasis is more important than the method of detection.

- **Extracapsular invasion:** Present or absent, invasion extending to other structures (e.g., adjacent lymph nodes, muscle). In some cases, the extranodal invasion is so extensive that individual lymph nodes cannot be counted. The number of involved lymph nodes may need to be estimated. The clinical impression may be of "fixed" or "matted" lymph nodes.
- **Treatment effect:** If the patient has received neoadjuvant therapy, the presence of possible treatment effect on the tumor should be reported (e.g., change in histologic appearance, decreased cellularity, association with fibrosis). Evidence of prior tumor involvement in nodes without viable tumor should also be reported (e.g., fibrosis, histiocytic infiltrate, hemosiderin). Small fibrous scars can be present in lymph nodes without prior tumor involvement. Conversely, previously involved lymph nodes may not show any histologic changes after a complete response to treatment. The prognostic significance of micrometastases in this setting in breast cancer patients is equivalent to macrometastases.

EXTRANODAL LYMPHOMAS

Lymphomas are most commonly diagnosed in lymph node specimens. Occasionally lymphomas will present in extranodal sites in stomach, lung, breast, colon, or other unusual sites. Tissue is taken for special studies as described under "Lymph Nodes."

STAGING LAPAROTOMIES FOR HODGKIN DISEASE

Staging laparotomies should only be performed after a diagnosis of Hodgkin disease (HD) has been made. However, if the diagnosis is uncertain, consider saving tissue (formalin, B5, snap frozen, etc.) to exclude a non-Hodgkin lymphoma. If the diagnosis is well established, special studies are not required. If during the gross examination of the specimens unusual lesions are encountered, proceed as if the tissue were a diagnostic specimen (see sections above).

PROCESSING THE SPLEEN

1. Weigh the spleen (normal is 125 to 195 gm) and record the outer dimensions. Cut away the fatty tissue at the hilum and process this tissue for lymph nodes (see below). Describe the capsule including texture (smooth, irregular, nodular, plaques) and intactness.
2. Slice the spleen VERY thinly (2 to 3 mm) noting any small white lesions. These lesions may represent prominent white pulp, HD, or granulomata associated with HD. The number of lesions is important for clinical decision making. Each lesion is described including color, size, location (subcapsular, parenchymal), and consistency. Estimate the percentage of total splenic tissue occupied by the nodules. The sections are re-examined and recut into thinner sections the following day after fixation to look for additional lesions.

   Describe the uninvolved splenic tissue including color, consistency, congestion, hemorrhage, and prominence of white pulp.
3. Cut cassette-sized sections of all nodules and five additional noninvolved representative sections. Fix in small container(s) of B5. Fix the remainder of the spleen in a LARGE container of formalin.
4. Wash the spleen briefly in water the following day and section further to identify any additional small nodules. Submit sections for processing. Do not submit more than one lesion per cassette in order to count accurately the total number of involved nodules. Submit all lesions up to a maximum of ten. If no lesions are encountered, submit a total of five cassettes. Order one level (H&E) on each cassette. If a lesion is very small, order two to three levels on that block.

PROCESSING THE LYMPH NODES

1. Thinly section each specimen and describe the number of lymph nodes, and their size and appearance. Fix in B5 for 3 to 5 hours and then transfer to formalin. Dispose all B5 into a mercury waste container, as well as the formalin, which may contain mercury salts.
2. Submit sections the following day. Order two levels (H&E).

PROCESSING THE LIVER BIOPSIES

Note the type of biopsy (needle or wedge), the size, the color, and the presence of any focal lesions. Slice wedge biopsies thinly and fix in B5 (see earlier).

Sections may be submitted after fixation for at least 3 hours or the following day. Order three levels (H&E).

SPLEEN: HEMATOLOGIC DISEASE

Occasionally, spleens will be removed for idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura (ITP), chronic myeloproliferative disorders, lymphomas, or other cases of splenomegaly. The spleen can be processed as described above for a staging laparotomy. For all cases submit one section of formalin-fixed tissue and five sections of B5-fixed tissue (make sure B5 is disposed of properly). A PAS stain is ordered on the best B5 block.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

ITP. The spleen is usually normal in size and appearance or only mildly enlarged.

CML and Hairy Cell Leukemia. The spleen may be massively enlarged (over 5000 grams). Splenic infarctions may be present. The spleen of hairy cell leukemia is usually dark red in color. In both conditions the lymph nodes are also enlarged.

CLL. There may be mild splenic enlargement (300 to 400 grams), with prominent malpighian corpuscles.

Lymphomas. Low-grade lymphomas usually show miliary (innumerable minute white nodules) or diffuse involvement of the spleen. High-grade lymphomas may form a single or multiple large nodules. The lymph nodes are often involved.

SPLEEN: NON-HEMATOLOGIC DISEASE

Spleens are occasionally removed after trauma, or as part of a larger resection for nonhematologic malignancies (e.g., distal pancreatectomy).

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN: SIMPLE SPLENECTOMY

1. Weigh the spleen (normal 125 to 195 gm), and record the outer dimensions. If the splenectomy has been performed due to trauma, photograph the specimen. Cut away the fatty tissue at the hilum and process like lymph nodes (see below). Describe the capsule including texture (smooth, irregular, nodular, plaques), and the presence of lacerations. It is generally not possible to distinguish preoperative lacerations from those occurring after removal of the spleen.
2. Slice the spleen thinly, noting any lesions. If lesions are present, the case is processed as a possible lymphoproliferative order (B5, snap freezing, possible other studies). Each lesion is described including color, size, location (subcapsular, parenchymal), and consistency.

   Describe the uninvolved splenic tissue including color, consistency, congestion, hemorrhage, and prominence of white pulp.
3. Submit two representative sections including capsule (if no lesions are present).

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28 Medical Devices and Foreign Material

All foreign material removed from humans, whether of medical origin or not, is generally sent to pathology for documentation (with the exception of temporary medical devices such as IV catheters). Some of these specimens will be of legal significance (e.g., silicone implants, bullets) and others will be subject to legislation that requires the tracing of certain medical devices.

THE SAFE MEDICAL DEVICES ACT OF 1990

The Federal Safe Medical Devices Act of 1990 (PL 101-629) went into effect in August of 1993. This act requires manufacturers of medical devices, healthcare personnel who use or install them, and hospitals to keep records of patients and the history of specific medical device ("tracking"). This will allow manufacturers to remove devices from the market and/or notify patients should problems arise. The subsequent Food and Drug Administration Modernization Act (FDAMA) in 1997 eliminated automatic mandatory tracking for certain devices. Additional information can be found at www.fda.gov/medwatch.

The types of devices tracked include those with the following features (Box 28-1):

- If the device failed it would be reasonably likely to have serious adverse health consequences.
- The device is intended to be implanted in the human body for more than one year.
- The device is intended to be life-sustaining or life-supporting.

BOX 28–1. Current devices subject to tracking under the Safe Medical Devices Act

Permanently implantable devices:
- Vascular graft prostheses (see Chapter 16)
- Vascular bypass (assist) devices (see Chapter 16)
- Implantable pacemaker pulse generator
- Cardiovascular permanent pacemaker electrode
- Annuloplasty ring
- Replacement heart valve (see Chapter 16)
- Automatic implantable cardioverter/defibrillator
- Tracheal prosthesis
- Implanted cerebellar stimulator
- Implanted diaphragmatic/phrenic nerve stimulator
- Implantable infusion devices

Life-sustaining or life-supporting devices:
- Breathing frequency monitors (apnea monitors)
- Continuous ventilator
- CD-defibrillator and paddles

FDA-designated devices:
- Silicone inflatable breast prosthesis
- Silicone gel-filled breast prosthesis
- Silicone gel-filled testicular prosthesis
- Silicone gel-filled chin prosthesis
- Silicone gel-filled Angelchik reflux valve
- Electromechanical infusion pumps

The patient with a tracked device is allowed to refuse to release personal information for the purpose of tracking.

Pathologists play an important role in recognizing medical device-associated complications. Reports of problems with medical devices can be made on forms available at the MEDWATCH home page at www.fda.gov/medwatch. The medical device should be saved.

ORTHOPEDIC HARDWARE

All orthopedic hardware (joint prosthesis, screws, plates, etc.) is usually sent to the pathology department for documentation. The gross description includes the number, color, composition (plastic, metal), and any identifying numbers on the hardware. Any obvious cracks or worn areas should be noted. There is no need to photograph these specimens unless there is a history of trauma or there is obvious damage to the hardware. Some patients will request the return of their orthopedic hardware. The specimen will, preferably, be washed clean of blood and placed in a leakproof permanently-sealed bag before return.

FOREIGN BODIES

Foreign bodies are defined as nonmedical objects within the human body. Photographs are frequently useful because of the potential for lawsuits in some cases.

Information about illegal substances taken from a patient and submitted as pathology specimens (e.g., a bag of heroin extracted from a smuggler's GI tract) may be protected by medical confidentiality. This information should not be released to outside parties without consultation with the hospital's legal department. The legal department should also be consulted before disposal or return of such objects to patients.

BULLETS

The most important principle of handling bullets (or other specimens likely to be used as evidence in a legal case) is to establish an "unbroken chain of evidence" identifying the bullet from the time it is removed by the surgeon to the time that the bullet is released to the police. Any lapse in this procedure could be legal grounds to have the bullet removed as evidence in a trial.

DOCUMENTING THE SPECIMEN

A doctor or nurse should transfer the bullet from the operating room directly to a pathologist. The name of the people delivering and receiving the bullet and the time of transfer is documented in the report.

Do **not** touch bullets or bullet fragments with metal tools (e.g., forceps) because scratches will obscure rifling marks used to identify the gun of origin. The gross description should be detailed enough (including accurate measurements, color, size, and shape) to allow identification of the bullet at a future date, including numbers and letters if present. Descriptive terms (e.g., "conical silver metallic fragment") are preferred unless the prosector is a ballistics expert and can positively identify the specimen as a bullet (e.g., "bullet from a .32 automatic pistol"). The description could potentially become evidence in a trial.

Three photographs including the surgical number and ruler are useful for documentation. Multiple pictures may be useful if there is more information to be gained by different angles. Include any tissue submitted with the bullet. If there is soft tissue or bone present, it is submitted as a surgical specimen, up to one cassette for soft tissue and one cassette for bone.

The bullet should be kept in a locked secure storage compartment until requested by the police.

The name of the policeman or policewoman, his or her badge number, and the name of the person releasing the bullet should be documented as well as the day and time of transfer. Bullets should not otherwise be released. If a question about releasing a bullet arises, legal advice should be sought.

Neuropathology Specimens

29

Neuropathology cases include all brain and spinal cord specimens, pituitary glands, muscle and nerve biopsies, and eyes.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

See Table 29-1.

TABLE 29–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR NEUROPATHOLOGY SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Results of previous CNS biopsies
Purpose of the procedure	Duration of symptoms (e.g., rapidly progressive dementia and myoclonus is suggestive of Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease)
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	Family history (present in 16% of patients with brain tumors: neurofibromatosis type 1 [optic system gliomas], neurofibromatosis type 2 [acoustic neuroma, multiple meningiomas, spinal cord ependymoma], tuberous sclerosis [subependymal giant cell astrocytoma], von Hippel-Lindau [hemangioblastomas of the cerebellum), Turcot syndrome (medulloblastomas and glioblastomas], Cowden, Li-Fraumeni, Gorlin syndrome)
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Compromised immune system	Imaging features

BRAIN BIOPSIES

Biopsies and resections are often small. Most will be evaluated intraoperatively to ensure that diagnostic tissue is present and to provide a specific diagnosis. Cytologic smear preparations in addition to frozen sections are often needed for rapid diagnosis (see in Chapter 6, "Neuropathology"). Biopsies may be performed for focal lesions (primary tumors, metastases, infectious disease) or to evaluate nonsurgical diseases (e.g., dementia).

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

The specimen will often consist of small fragments of tissue or a stereotactic core needle biopsy measuring approximately 1 × 0.2 × 0.2 cm. It is sometimes possible to distinguish grey and white matter. If tissue is to be taken for intraoperative diagnosis or for special studies, a careful gross examination is necessary to select the areas most likely to be diagnostic (see below). A magnifying lens or dissecting microscope may be helpful.

All small fragments of brain for permanent sections are wrapped in saline-moistened lens paper and submitted in entirety. The fragments must be handled gently as there is little supporting tissue and specimens are easily distorted. If possible, fix the tissue before processing it.

Do not use sponges or toothed forceps with brain biopsies as artifacts are introduced when the soft tissue is pressed into the interstices of the sponge or the forceps teeth.

SPECIAL STUDIES

Gliomas (Oligodendrogliomas). A portion of tissue should be submitted for FISH to evaluate 1p/19q deletions. If tumor tissue is limited, air-dried touch preps can also be used for FISH.

Medulloblastoma. DNA ploidy studies are useful for prognosis. This determination can be made using touch preps and image analysis or by flow cytometric analysis on fresh (preferred) or fixed tissue.

Pineal Region Tumors. Tissue for EM may be helpful to classify neoplasms in this region. Germ cell tumors can be subclassified using immunoperoxidase studies (PLAP, β-HCG, AFP).

Creutzfeldt-Jakob Disease. Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease must be suspected in any patient with a rapidly progressive dementia. Most patients will die within 10 months. Immunoperoxidase studies and Western blotting for protease K resistant PrP^{sc} are useful for diagnosis.

Specimens may be sent to the National Prion Disease Pathology Surveilance Center (www.cjdsurveillance.com) for confirmation of the diagnosis.

Dr. Pierluigi Gambetti, Director
National Prion Disease Pathology Surveillance Center
Institute of Pathology
Case Western Reserve University
2085 Adelbert Road, Room 418
Cleveland, OH 44106
Telephone: 216-368-0587 or 216-368-0822
Fax: 216-368-4090
e-mail: cjdsurv@cwru.edu

The Center can be contacted for questions related to shipping specimens

Prion proteins are highly resistant to normal decontamination procedures and every effort must be made to prevent exposure of pathology personnel. Fixed and stained tissue on glass slides can transfer the disease!!

All tissue (neural and nonneural) for histology must be fixed in formalin for 24 hours. The tissue is then placed in formic acid for 1 hour and then placed again in formalin. The specimen must be clearly labeled as coming from a patient with **known or suspected Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease.** The fixation is followed by a 1-hour treatment with formic acid followed by an additional 24-hour fixation in formalin.

If the biopsy is of adequate size, it is useful to freeze a sample at -80°C for potential Western blotting.

Everything that touches the tissue (both disposable and non-disposable) must be soaked in bleach for one hour prior to discarding or washing.[1-3]

Lymphoma. Frozen tissue is useful for typing by immunoperoxidase studies. However, many antibodies are now available for use on formalin- or B5-fixed tissues.

Infections. Immunoperoxidase studies for viral antigens (e.g., herpes) or *Toxoplasma* may be performed on formalin-fixed tissue. It may be helpful to save tissue for EM for patients with suspected encephalitis to look for viral particles. Parasites are usually evident by light microscopy. PML (JC virus) is usually diagnosable from light microscopy, although antibodies are available to detect the virus in tissues. Coordination with the surgeon at the time of OR consultation should be done in order that microbiologic cultures can be performed as appropriate.

Metabolic Diseases/Storage Disorders. Brain biopsies for these diseases are more often performed in children, but may be performed in adults as well. It is important to sample grey and white matter (ideally separately) for standard histology, frozen sections, EM, and biochemical studies.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Normal Tissue. Grey matter and white matter can often be identified, even in small core biopsies. The tissue is slightly firm and will maintain its shape. Inflammatory lesions may have a similar appearance, but may be congested or softened.

Tumors. The color is usually abnormally yellow/gray and necrosis may be grossly apparent. The tissue is soft and gelatinous and does not maintain the shape of the biopsy.

Meningiomas. Usually firmer than normal tissue, but can be soft, or gelatinous, or whorled. Calcifications are commonly present. If attached dura and brain tissue can be identified, take sections to demonstrate the relationship of the meningioma to these structures. If the specimen is large, submit at least one section per centimeter of tumor.

Metastatic Tumors. The tissue is often gray in color and necrosis may be present. The boundary with the normal brain, if present, is usually sharp. The most common primary tumors are lung carcinoma, breast carcinoma, melanoma, renal cell carcinoma, and colon carcinoma. If the primary site is unknown, immunohistochemistry on formalin-fixed tissue may be useful to determine the most likely site of origin.

Vascular Malformations. These lesions in general are not biopsied but removed in one piece and are, therefore, usually larger than other lesional biopsies. The tissue usually appears hemorrhagic and small vascular structures may be apparent. Elastic stains may be helpful to classify the types of vessels present.

Acoustic Neuromas. The tissue is usually firm and fibrotic.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "parietal," are five fragments of gelatinous soft yellow/gray tissue, each measuring 0.5 × 0.3 × 0.2 cm. Normal gray and white matter is not apparent. One fragment was used for cytologic preparations for intraoperative consultation and a second fragment was used for frozen section.

Cassette #1: frozen section remnant, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassette #2: remainder of specimen, 3 frags, ESS.

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC FEATURES CHECKLIST FOR SIGN-OUT FOR BRAIN TUMORS

- **Specimen Type:** Core needle biopsy, open biopsy, subtotal/partial resection, total resection
- **Specimen Size**: Greatest dimension
- **Specimen Handling:** Squash/smear/touch preparation, frozen section, EM, permanent paraffin sections
- **Laterality:** Right, left, bilateral, not applicable
- **Tumor Site:** Brain/cerebrum (frontal, temporal, parietal, occipital), basal ganglia, thalamus, hypothalamus, suprasellar, pineal, cerebellum, cerebellopontine angle, ventricle, brain stem, spinal cord, nerve root, skull (frontal, parietal, temporal, occipital), dura, leptomeninges
- **Histologic Type:** Astrocytomas, oligodendrogliomas, medulloblastomas, ependymal and choroid plexus tumors, others (use WHO classification)
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension
- **Grade:** WHO grade is recommended[4]
- **Margins:** Involved, uninvolved, cannot be assessed, not applicable
  - Margins are often not applicable except for completely resected gliomas of the temporal or frontal tip. Meningeal or dural margin assessment may be important for meningiomas. Cranial or spinal nerve sheath tumor resection margins should be evaluated.
  - Invasion into the brain is prognostically important for meningiomas.
- **Change Over Time:** If the tumor is a recurrence, compare to previous biopsies to determine if there has been a change in grade.

- **Treatment Affect:** Evaluate treatment effects (usually radiation) on tumor and adjacent brain (extent of necrosis, viability).
- **Ancillary Studies:** IHC, EM, cytogenetic

This checklist incorporates information from the ADASP (see www.adasp.org) and the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

BIOPSIES OF THE DURA

Rarely, dural biopsies are performed for the evaluation of pachymeningitis or vasculitis. The specimen is small and can be entirely submitted and examined in fixed permanent sections.

CAVITRON ULTRASONIC SURGICAL ASPIRATOR SPECIMENS

The Cavitron Ultrasonic Surgical Aspirator (CUSA) causes localized ultrasonic fragmentation of tissue that can then be removed by irrigation and suction. This technique minimizes the effects of surgery on adjacent normal tissues. It is used to remove some intracranial tumors. The procedure may be performed without a prior histologic diagnosis.

The specimen will consist of small fragments of tissue in a volume of fluid. The fragments can be collected by straining the fluid through gauze pads. The tissue is gently placed in mesh bags or wrapped in paper. Tissue sufficient to fill two to three cassettes is usually adequate for diagnosis. If the tissue fragments are quite small, cytologic smears and cell blocks prepared from the fluid are often diagnostic and can be used for immunohistochemical studies, if necessary.

SUBDURAL AND SUBARACHNOID HEMATOMA EVACUATIONS

Blood removed for therapeutic reasons after intracranial bleeds may be submitted for histologic examination. Any tissue fragments within the blood are identified grossly and submitted for histologic examination.

Occasionally, Congophilic (amyloid) angiopathy will be diagnosed in such specimens. Amyloid can be detected in meningeal or cortical vessel walls using a Congo red stain or immunoperoxidase studies on fixed tissue for ß amyloid.

Metastatic carcinoma can also be the cause of a hematoma and must be excluded by careful sampling and microscopic analysis.

BRAIN RESECTIONS

Large areas of the brain are sometimes resected to remove an epileptic focus, and rarely, for other lesions. The failure to find an abnormality may correlate with recurrence of seizures after surgery.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Determine the location of the resection and orient the specimen. A photograph of the intact specimen is helpful. Describe each component present:
   - Meninges: Describe any areas of fibrosis or hemorrhage.
   - Brain surface: Describe the gyral pattern including normal, distorted, tubers (tuberous sclerosis), or polymicrogyria.
   - Identify white matter and gray matter. Measure the width of the gray matter and the range of widths. Describe the gray/white junction (distinct or blurred).
   - Describe any other abnormalities present (e.g., alteration in color or consistency, focal masses).

In general, it is not necessary to ink margins. However, colored inks are sometimes useful to indicate orientation.

2. The specimen is sliced (perpendicular to the pial surface) at thicker intervals than the final sections to be submitted for processing (about 1.0 to 1.5 cm). Examine the gray and white matter for abnormal appearance or consistency. Samples of gray and white matter should be frozen for histology (in embedding medium), taken for EM, and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen.

   After sectioning, the slices should be photographed as a composite in an oriented manner. Individual slices containing lesions should be photographed separately as well.

   Prior to placing the slices in formalin (in a manner that will preserve orientation), small pieces of paper towel are placed against each face of the slice to minimize retraction.
3. Fix the slices in 20× volume of formalin overnight.
4. Serially submit sections from the slices, but maintain orientation. The photograph will help document the areas used for histologic examination. One section per 1 to 1.5 cm of greatest dimension is submitted for the initial evaluation.

   Orientation of the specimen can be maintained by separating each piece of tissue in a specimen container with a paper towel and stacking in order. If diagnostic abnormalities are found in one of the initial sections, it is possible to find the same area and submit more sections at a later time.

EYES

Eyes may be removed due to primary tumors (most commonly melanomas), nonfunctioning painful eyes, or as part of a large face resection for deeply invasive tumors.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. If part of a larger face resection, the eye is removed by cutting around the extraocular muscles.

   The eye is fixed intact for at least 24 hours. Slicing the unfixed globe or injecting fixative into the vitreous will disrupt the intraocular structures.

   Wash in tap water for at least one hour.
2. Orient the globe by observing the posterior surface. The posterior ciliary vessels will be on the medial aspect of the optic nerve. The superior and inferior oblique muscles will be lateral to the optic nerve (Fig. 29-1).

   Take the following measurements:

- Globe:
  - Anterior/posterior
  - Horizontal
  - Vertical
- Optic nerve: Length
- Cornea: Vertical (normal 11 mm) and horizontal (normal 11.5 mm).

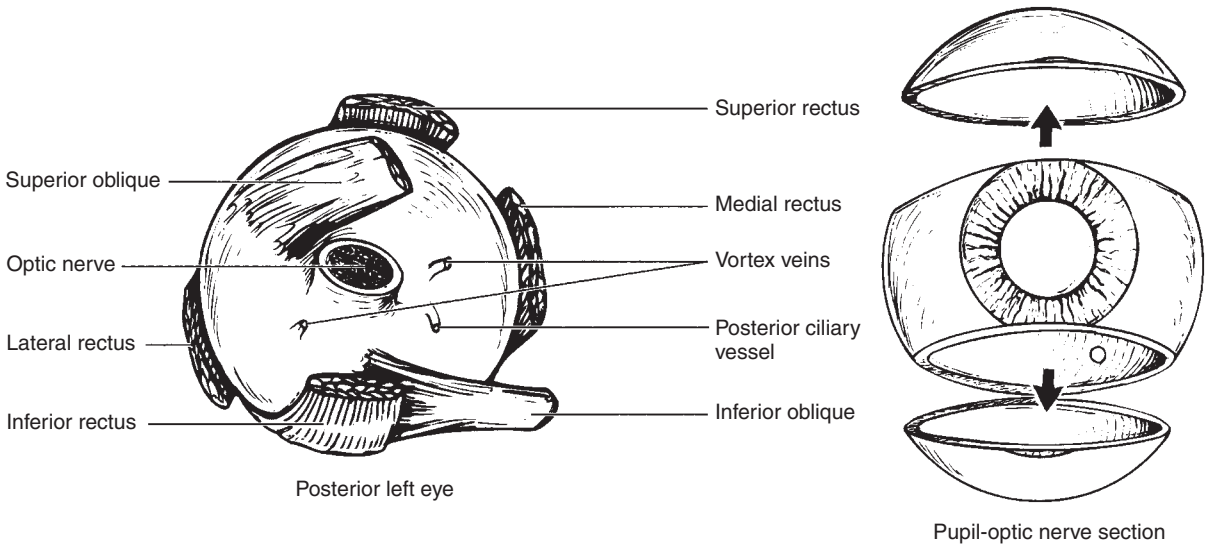

Figure 29-1. Eye anatomy and dissection.

Describe corneal clarity or opacities, size and shape of pupil, iris color and abnormalities (e.g., arcus senilus), scars of the superior limbus (present after surgery for glaucoma or cataracts), or a silicone band or sponge (present after surgery for retinal detachment).

Tumors: If melanoma is present, examine the outer surface for tumor including the vortex veins. If retinoblastoma is present, examine the optic nerve for involvement (this is an important margin).

3. Transilluminate the globe in a darkened room, using a bright light source. Increased light transmission can be seen in defects of the iris. Decreased light transmission may be due to hemorrhage or tumor. Mark any abnormal shadows on the sclera with a marking pencil. The cornea and sclera are best examined under a dissecting microscope. Radiography is indicated if intraocular foreign bodies or retinoblastoma is suspected.
4. Cut off the distal segment of the optic nerve and submit en face.
5. The globe is sectioned to best demonstrate any lesions present. A razor blade is adequate for sectioning.

   If no lesions are apparent, section the globe in a plane to include the optic nerve, macula, and pupil. Make a horizontal section 0.5 cm superior to the optic nerve and 0.5 cm central to the superior limbus. After this section is removed, examine the eye contents (lens, iris, ciliary body, vitreous, choroid, retina, and optic nerve) under a dissecting microscope. Note the size and location of any lesions. If a lesion is present, note its location with respect to the ora serrata, optic disc, and macula. Finish sectioning the eye by making a parallel section just below, through the inferior limbus.

   If a focal lesion is present, the globe is sectioned vertically or obliquely to include the lesion in the plane with the optic nerve and pupil.
6. Usually only the tissue in the central section is submitted for histologic examination. Portions of the other sections can be submitted if additional lesions are present. Include sections of optic nerve (transverse), retina, choroid, ciliary body, pupil, lens, and cornea. A PAS stain should be obtained.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Malignant Melanoma. Lobulated pigmented masses that arise in the choroid or ciliary body. Choroid tumors may extend into the subretinal space and form a mushroom shaped tumor. The size, presence at ciliary body, and location over the optic nerve are poor prognostic factors. Some may extend beyond the sclera into scleral canals with vortex veins or into the subconjunctival space.

Retinoblastoma. The majority present before the age of 3 years, and about one third are due to a germline mutation. These latter tumors are more likely to be multifocal or bilateral. The tumors are chalky white and arise from the retina. The tumor may grow into the vitreous, the subretinal space, or both.

AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF TUMORS OF THE EYE

There are separate classification systems for carcinoma of the eyelid, carcinoma of the conjunctiva, malignant melanoma of the conjunctiva, malignant melanoma of the uvea, retinoblastoma, carcinoma of the lacrimal gland, and sarcoma of the orbit. The seventh edition of the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual should be consulted for the specifics of these systems.

Lens

Lenses are removed when they are involved by cataracts.

Describe the specimen grossly including diameter, thickness, shape (lentiform, ovoid), color, and the presence of opacities (central or peripheral).

These specimens are usually not examined histologically but may be examined if requested. A PAS stain should be obtained.

Cornea

The central portion of the cornea may be removed during transplantation and can be involved by endothelial decompensation, post-inflammatory scarring, and traumatic changes, or keratoconus, or the specimen may be a failed graft. The specimen is embedded and cut on edge, perpendicular to the epithelial surfaces. A PAS stain should be obtained.

NERVE BIOPSIES

Peripheral nerve biopsies are usually performed to evaluate peripheral neuropathy; the final diagnosis should be correlated with clinical and neurophysiologic data (e.g., a history of an inherited metabolic disease or toxic insult, biopsy of other tissues, etc.).

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

Nerve biopsies are processed routinely for light microscopy and EM and a small portion is saved frozen.

- **EM:** Submit a 5 to 6 mm length of nerve - preferably from the center of a larger segment so that crush artifact from the ends can be avoided. Semithin sections can be examined to determine if EM is necessary.
- **Light microscopy:** After specimens have been taken for special studies, the remainder of the specimen is kept intact. Wrap the specimen in lens paper. Longitudinal and cross-sections may be prepared by the histology laboratory. Routine stains are H&E (two levels) and a trichrome stain.
- **Frozen tissue:** A small cross-section should be frozen in embedding medium.

SPECIAL STUDIES

- **Vasculitis or history of collagen vascular disease:** Immunofluorescence studies may be indicated. Either fresh or frozen tissue can be used.
- **Demyelinating disease:** Evaluation of these diseases requires an extra portion of nerve for "teasing." A 5 mm length of nerve is saved in formalin. The nerve must be flat, but not stretched, during fixation. Individual nerve fibers are gently separated under a dissecting microscope. The fibers can then be embedded and sectioned longitudinally and stained with osmium to look for segmental loss of myelin, or "onion balls" seen in remyelination.

MUSCLE BIOPSIES

Muscle biopsies are used to evaluate myopathies or neurogenic atrophy. Specimens are often processed for electron microscopy and saved as frozen sections for enzyme studies.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Two unfixed specimens wrapped in saline-moistened gauze may be submitted. #1 is submitted on a clamp and #2 is unclamped.
2. Specimen #1 (clamped):
   EM: submit a specimen large enough to be oriented for cross sections. Place in glutaraldehyde.
   Histochemistry: A cross section is frozen in isopentane (see below).
3. Specimen #2 (unclamped):
   Paraffin sections: Submit both a cross section and longitudinal section.
   An additional section is frozen for special studies if needed.

FREEZING MUSCLE BIOPSIES

1. Label a scintillation vial with the surgical pathology number and place in the cryostat to cool. A second vial will be needed if biochemistry studies are required.
2. Pour liquid nitrogen into a large Dewar flask kept cold in a freezer.
3. Pour cold isopentane (only enough to cover the specimen) into a precooled small metal cup, and immerse the base of the clamp in liquid nitrogen.
4. The isopentane bath is ready to use when white drops form on the bottom of the cup.
5. Cut one section from the middle of the specimen, approximately 5 to 7 mm in length.

6. Lightly powder the muscle with baby powder to prevent the outer fibers from detaching. This step is optional.
7. Take a small piece of stiff paper (e.g., a piece of an index card small enough to fit in a vial) and write the surgical number on one end. Fold the other end to form an "L" shape. The bottom of the "L" is where the tissue will be placed for freezing.
8. Place a drop of the freezing medium on the short arm of the paper. Orient the muscle cross section and place on this end. DO NOT cover the muscle with the freezing medium as this interferes with the freezing process.
9. Immerse the paper and specimen in the isopentane for about 10 seconds. Place the frozen specimen on the paper in the precooled vial and store in the –70°C freezer.
10. Tissue for biochemical studies can be frozen en bloc in liquid nitrogen and placed into another precooled vial.

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Paraganglioma

30

The adrenal medullary paraganglioma, pheochromocytoma, is discussed in Chapter 11. The extra-adrenal paragangliomas are classified according to their location and site of origin, which correspond to the paravertebral sympathetic chain:

- Abdominal extra-adrenal paragangliomas
  - Organ of Zuckerkandl
  - Urinary bladder
- Paragangliomas of the head and neck
- Carotid body paraganglioma
- Jugulotympanic paragangioma
- Vagal paraganglioma
- Laryngeal paraganglioma
- Aortic pulmonary paraganglioma

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

See Table 30-1.

TABLE 30–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR PARAGANGLIOMA SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Signs and symptoms due to excess catecholamine production.
Purpose of the procedure	Family history (see Table 7-47)
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Compromised immune system	

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Examine the specimen to identify any attached structures. Usually the tumor is surrounded by a small amount of soft tissue. Record the overall specimen dimensions. Ink the outer surface.

2. Serially section through the specimen. Describe the tumor, including size, color, consistency, borders (well-circumscribed, infiltrating, multinodular), capsule, necrosis or hemorrhage.
3. Carefully examine the surrounding soft tissue for adjacent lymph nodes.
4. Submit one cassette per 1 cm of greatest dimension of tumor. Submit sections of all lymph nodes present.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Paraganglioma:** One section per 1 cm of greatest dimension
- **Lymph nodes:** Submit any lymph nodes present

SPECIAL STUDIES

Paraganglioma. The gross and microscopic appearance is similar to a pheochromocytoma. These tumors are usually well-circumscribed with a thin capsule and have a homogeneous fleshy yellow surface. They are often adherent to the carotid artery (if present), but this is not a sign of malignancy. Special studies are not required for the diagnosis of paragangliomas and should only be considered if the diagnosis is uncertain or the gross appearance is atypical. The diagnosis can be confirmed on formalin fixed tissue by immunoperoxidase staining ("zellballen" are positive for chromogranin and the surrounding sustentacular cells are positive for S100).

PATHOLOGIC PROGNOSTIC/DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR PARAGANGLIOMAS

- **Tumor size:** Greatest dimension
- **Tumor configuration:** Single or multiple nodules
- **Invasion:** Encapsulated or with invasion into surrounding tissue
- **Necrosis:** Present or absent

CRITERIA FOR MALIGNANCY IN PARAGANGLIOMAS

About 10% of paragangliomas are malignant based on either extensive local invasion or metastasis. Histologic features may be suggestive of, but cannot accurately predict malignant behavior. The likelihood of such behavior can be determined using these four features. 71% of malignant paragangliomas have two or three of these features whereas 89% of benign tumors have none or one of the features:

- Extra-adrenal location
- Coarse nodularity or multiple nodules on gross examination
- Confluent tumor necrosis
- Absence of hyaline globules

31 Penis

Amputations of the penis are almost always for the resection of invasive squamous cell carcinomas. Foreskin evaluation is discussed in Chapter 18.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record the dimensions of the total specimen (length, circumference) and foreskin (length, width, thickness) (Fig. 31-1).

Tumors usually affect the glans and coronal sulcus. Describe the lesion including size, color, growth pattern (fungating, papillary, verrucous, ulcerated), consistency (friable, soft, rubbery, hard), contour (well-defined, infiltrating, pushing margins), location, and distance from the proximal resection margin.

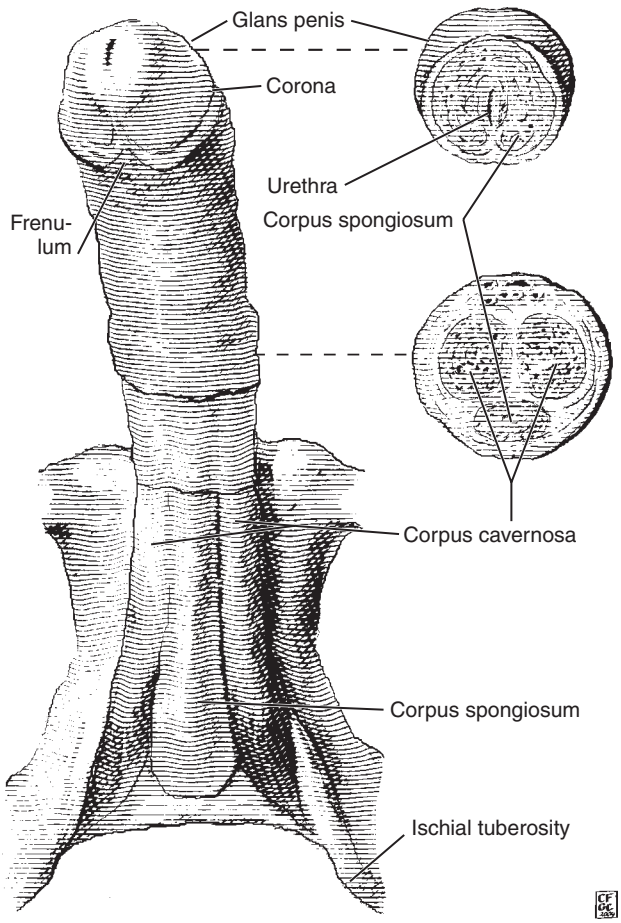

Figure 31-1. Penis anatomy.

2. Open the urethra along the ventral aspect where it is closest to the surface. Extend this cut deeper to bisect the penis. Record the depth of invasion, and involvement of foreskin, frenulum, glans, meatus, corpora cavernosa, urethra, and corpus spongiosum.
3. Fix the specimen overnight in formalin.
4. Microscopic sections may be taken the following day. Additional cuts can be taken at right angles to further evaluate the tumor.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** Up to four cassettes demonstrating deepest extent of invasion, relationship to adjacent structures.
- **Margin:** Up to two cassettes of proximal resection margin, including skin, corpora, and urethra. Submit more if there is grossly suspicious involvement.
- **Other structures:** Any structure not included above.

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR TUMORS OF THE PENIS

- **Type of Procedure:** Penectomy, partial penectomy
- **Type of Tumor:** Squamous cell carcinoma (and subtypes), others rare
- **Grade:** Well, moderate, or poor
- **Size:** In centimeters
- **Extent of Invasion:** In situ, subepithelial connective tissue (depth in cm), corpus spongiosum (depth in cm), cavernosum (depth in cm), urethra, prostate, other adjacent structures
  - Lymphovascular invasion: Present or absent
  - Blood vascular invasion: Present or absent
  - Perineural invasion: Present or absent
- **Nodal status:** Regional lymph nodes are inguinal. Single vs. multiple, unilateral vs. bilateral.
- **Margins:** Involved or not involved – urethral, corpus spongiosum, corpus cavernosum, cutaneous
- **Associated lesions:** Squamous hyperplasia, balanitis xerotica obliterans, condyloma acuminatum, bowenoid papulosis, Paget disease, basal cell carcinoma

This checklist includes recommendations from the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). Underlined elements and AJCC staging are considered to be required elements (Table 31-1).

TABLE 31–1. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF TUMORS OF THE PENIS

Tumor	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
Tis	Carcinoma in situ
T1	Non-invasive verrucous carcinoma*
T1a	Tumor invades subepithelial connective tissue without LVI** and is not poorly differentiated (i.e., not grade 3-4)
T1b	Tumor invades subepithelial connective tissue with LVI or is poorly differentiated
T2	Tumor invades corpus spongiosum or cavernosum
T3	Tumor invades urethra
T4	Tumor invades other adjacent structures
*Broad pushing penetration (invasion) is permitted – destructive invasion is against this diagnosis. **LVI: lymph vascular invasion	
Regional Lymph Nodes*	
pNX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed
pN0	No regional lymph node metastasis
pN1	Metastasis in a single inguinal lymph node
pN2	Metastasis in multiple or bilateral inguinal lymph nodes
pN3	Extranodal extension of lymph node metastasis or pelvic lymph node(s) unilateral or bilateral
*Based upon biopsy or surgical excision Note: Regional lymph nodes include superficial inguinal (femoral), deep inguinal (Rosenmuller's or Cloquet's node), external iliac, internal iliac (hypogastric), and pelvic nodes.	
Distant Metastases	
M0	No distant metastases
M1	Distant metastases*
*Lymph node metastasis outside the true pelvis in addition to visceral or bone sites. Note: Primary urethral carcinomas and melanomas are not included in this classification. From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.	

32 Soft Tissue Tumors (Sarcomas)

Soft tissue tumors are among the most difficult neoplasms to diagnose. Often special studies (immunoperoxidase studies, EM, cytogenetics) are required for the appropriate classification of these tumors and for reliable separation from carcinomas, melanomas, and lymphomas.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

See Table 32-1.

TABLE 32–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR SARCOMA SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Location and depth of mass
Purpose of the procedure	Involvement of soft tissue or bone
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	Rate of growth (duration of lesion)
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	Presenting symptoms and signs.
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	Preoperative therapy
Prior surgery/biopsies – results	Family history (e.g., Li-Fraumeni syndrome, familial retinoblastoma syndrome)
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Compromised immune system	

BIOPSIES

Biopsies are usually performed to make decisions about the use of preoperative therapy and the extent of definitive surgery to obtain adequate margins. Either incisional or needle biopsies are used. It may not be possible to provide a specific diagnosis or grade based on very small specimens.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Relevant clinical history should be provided or obtained to establish a preoperative differential diagnosis (i.e., patient gender, age, location and depth of mass, involvement of soft tissue and/or bone, prior history of malignancies). The likely diagnosis will aid in deciding how to apportion limited amounts of lesional tissue.
2. Describe the specimen, including type (needle, incisional), size, color, necrosis or hemorrhage. Indicate what proportion of the specimen appears to be lesional and nonlesional (fibrous, fatty, etc.).
3. Very small or very heterogeneous (i.e., little tissue is available and viable tumor is difficult to identify grossly) specimens are fixed in formalin and submitted in entirety.

Larger specimens should be apportioned for special studies if lesional tissue can be identified. Also see Chapters 6 and 7.

In selected cases, a frozen section or cytologic preparation may be helpful to narrow the differential diagnosis to guide apportionment of limited tissue.

SPECIAL STUDIES

- **Formalin:** Formalin-fixed tissue remains the cornerstone of diagnosis. Make sure there are sufficient representative samples in formalin before submitting for special studies, which are listed below in order of importance.
- **EM:** Requires a small amount of tissue that can be examined by light microscopy as well as by EM. If the tumor is heterogeneous, submit multiple specimens paired with formalin sections. EM is useful for distinguishing carcinoma from sarcoma (intercellular junctions), melanoma (premelanosomes), and subtyping round cell sarcomas (e.g., rhabdomyosarcoma) and some spindle cell sarcomas (e.g., malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumors) (see in Chapter 7, "Electron Microscopy").
- **Frozen tissue:** One or more 1 cm^3 fragments are optimal. Smaller samples are acceptable if the specimen is limited. The tissue is cut into 0.2 cm fragments and stored at -70°C.The tissue can be used for molecular analysis (DNA, RNA, FISH, Southern blotting, PCR, RT-PCR). Frozen tissue may be required for some treatment protocols.
- **Cytogenetics:** It is helpful to save tissue for cytogenetics if sarcoma is suspected clinically and there is a sufficient sample. Cytogenetics is a very useful technique for classifying some tumors (see in Chapter 7, "Cytogenetics") but may require a large volume of tissue that cannot be examined histologically. The equivalent amount of two needle biopsies may be sufficient for highly cellular tumors, but 1 to 2 cm^3 of tumor is preferred.

LIPOMAS

Lipomas are common benign soft tissue tumors that are often removed for cosmetic reasons. However, malignancy must always be excluded. The likelihood of malignancy is increased if any of the following features are present:

- Large size (over 5 cm).
- Infiltration into surrounding tissues.
- Location in deep tissues or near the spermatic cord.
- History of recurrence.
- Unusual gross appearance – any appearance other than apparently normal fat (e.g., white or cream-colored, homogeneous, firm, fibrotic areas, attached tissues).

Approximately 22% of patients undergoing hernia repair will also have an incidental cord lipoma. In the cited study by Montgomery and Buras[1], only 0.1% of hernia sac operations yielded an incidental liposarcoma. The two patients with liposarcoma were older than the average patient with cord lipoma (56 and 64 years versus 35 years) and the tumors were larger (13 and 10 cm versus 5.5 cm). Palpable cord tumors are more likely to be malignant.

Lipomas are usually enucleated without removal of the adjacent tissue. Thus, the lesion is often fragmented. There is no reason to ink these specimens, as the lesion is present at the margin and margins are irrelevant for the vast majority of benign lesions.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record overall or aggregate measurements if fragmented. Thinly section through the specimen. Evaluate the specimen for tissues present (usually adipose tissue, occasionally muscle, all other tissues are rare).
2. Sample the lesion with one section per centimeter of greatest dimension, including all areas of varying appearance. Two fragments can be placed in one cassette.
3. It is helpful to send tissue for cytogenetics if any of the following features are present:
   - Subcutaneous lipomas >10 cm in size

- Lipomas in deep-seated locations (i.e., subfascial, intramuscular, intra-abdominal, retroperitoneal; including all clinically-evident cord lipomas)
- Lipomas with unusual gross appearance (e.g., creamy color, firm consistency)
- Request by surgeon.

RESECTIONS

Resections are often large and may include organs and limbs. It is usually advisable to discuss and orient large complicated resections with the surgeon at the time of resection and to identify all anatomic landmarks.

Types of resections:

- **Intralesional:** Gross tumor is left in the patient. These may be debulking procedures for palliation when complete resection is not possible (e.g., for sarcomas involving the abdominal cavity at multiple sites).
- **Marginal:** The tumor with its pseudocapsule is removed with a small amount of surrounding tissue. Tumor is generally microscopically present at the margin.
- **Wide:** This is an intracompartmental resection. The tumor is removed with a rim of at least 2 cm of normal tissue, but an entire compartment is not removed. The margin width may be less if there is a fascial plane.
- **Segmental/en bloc resection for bone:** The portion of involved bone is removed with a cuff of normal bone.
- **Radical:** An entire soft tissue compartment or bone is removed. This type of procedure includes amputations and disarticulations.

Margins are extremely important! Complete resection of the tumor with adequate width of margins or an uninvolved fascial plane, are important determinants of long-term outcome. Distance from the margin may determine the need for further surgery or postoperative radiation therapy.

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Evaluate the outer surface of the specimen for structures present (muscle, bone, nerve, vessels, organs) and gross tumor involvement. Record measurements (outer dimensions, structures present). For very large retroperitoneal lesions, the weight may be requested by clinicians.
2. Selectively ink the outer margins if they appear closer than 2 cm, excluding skin if present. Avoid inking any nonmarginal tissue (e.g., soft tissue exposed by overlying retracted muscle). In general, margins more than 2 cm from the tumor need not be inked and those more than 5 cm from the tumor need not be sampled.
3. Serially section, leaving the sections attached at one side. Describe the lesion, including size in three dimensions (very important!), color, borders (infiltrating, pushing, satellite nodules), necrosis (percent of tumor involved) or hemorrhage, variation in gross appearance, involvement of adjacent structures (arising from a structure such as nerve, vessel, or muscularis propria), and location (skin, subcutaneous tissue, fascia, muscle, visceral).

   The closest gross distance from all margins and the type of tissue at each margin (e.g., fascial plane, periosteum, muscle, strands of soft tissue) are documented. Most specimens should have at least six margins evaluated (visualize the specimen as if it were a box with six sides).

   Complicated specimens will require a diagram documenting the location of the tumor and adjacent structures and the site of microscopic sections.

   If bone is included in the specimen, a specimen radiograph is performed to document the location of the bone(s) and areas of possible tumor involvement. See also Chapter 12.

   Lymph nodes are not usually resected along with soft tissue sarcomas and are rarely involved (other than in certain uncommon tumor types). However, any lymph nodes present in a resection specimen should be examined.
4. Pin the oriented specimen on wax and fix in an adequate volume of formalin for at least 10 to 12 hours to facilitate taking sections from the margins and the interface between normal and tumor tissue.

5. Submit tumor for special studies as indicated above. It is helpful to take tissue from all areas that have a different gross appearance (e.g., different consistencies or colors) and to match adjacent sections submitted for light microscopy and special studies. **Avoid necrotic areas when taking tissue for special studies.** If the specimen is a re-excision and gross tumor is not apparent, do not submit tissue for special studies.

   As a general rule, at least one section per centimeter of the tumor's greatest dimension should be examined including all areas of different gross appearance.

   Take sections to document the extent of necrosis in the absence of prior treatment.

   Perpendicular margins are taken to assess the distance of the tumor from each margin. If the margin is greater than 5 cm from the tumor, it need not be sampled except in cases of epithelioid sarcoma and angiosarcoma. Margin involvement by these two types of sarcoma may be difficult to evaluate grossly. En face blocks of margins are not recommended. If gross tumor is not apparent, the distance of the scar tissue/biopsy site to each margin is documented.

   If the patient has received neoadjuvant therapy, it is important to document the extent of response. An entire representative slice of the tumor should be sampled with the location of the blocks of tissue indicated on a diagram, photograph, or radiograph. This will allow an estimation of the percent of tumor that is necrotic or replaced by fibrous tissue or granulation tissue.

SPECIAL STUDIES

Tissue may be taken for special studies as described in Chapter 13. Frozen tissue may be required for some treatment protocols.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Sarcomas. In general, sarcomas grow as circumscribed white/tan fleshy masses, often with a pseudocapsule. The invasion into adjacent tissues may be subtle and not appreciated grossly. Some sarcomas have distinctive appearances (see below).

Lipomas. These tumors are well circumscribed or lobulated and have a thin delicate capsule. The tumor usually resembles normal adipose tissue. Lipomas are often enucleated and, thus, are often fragmented and the capsule cannot be appreciated.

Liposarcomas. Low-grade lipoma-like liposarcomas may be soft and resemble normal fat. However, these tumors are usually paler and have a more coarsely lobulated appearance. Higher grade liposarcomas are more likely to have firm solid areas as well as areas of necrosis.

Schwannoma. Circumscribed encapsulated mass consisting of tan/white to yellow firm tissue. It may be possible to identify an associated nerve.

Neurofibroma. Circumscribed mass with a thin capsule consisting of soft tan/white tissue. The nerve is incorporated into the lesion and may not be separately identified. In patients with neurofibromatosis, the lesions may be plexiform (multiple lesions along a nerve – "bag of worms").

Malignant Peripheral Nerve Sheath Tumor. Often infiltrative, and hemorrhage and necrosis may be present. These tumors sometimes arise from a nerve that may be identifiable entering one side of the tumor. Tumors arising in patients with neurofibromatosis may be plexiform (i.e., multiple finger-like projections of tumor in the surrounding tissue - "bag of worms" appearance).

Leiomyosarcomas. These tumors are often found in association with the smooth muscle from which they arise (e.g., a large vein or the myometrium). They often have a whorled appearance.

Gastrointestinal Stromal Tumors (GIST). These tumors are found throughout the gastrointestinal tract. They are composed of cells similar to Cajal cells of the smooth muscle lining, and are therefore found associated with smooth muscle. The gross appearance is similar to leiomyomas. 80% of GISTs have a mutation in the KIT tyrosine kinase gene. A smaller group (5% to 7%) have mutations in the KIT-homologous tyrosine kinase PDGFRA. About 10% to 15% of GISTs are negative

for KIT and PDGFRA mutations (termed "wild-type GISTs"). The type of mutation can be of prognostic importance and can correlate with response to different drugs. Sequence analysis may be requested at the time of diagnosis or for tumors negative for KIT by immunohistochemistry or tumors resistant to treatment. Resistance may be due to additional mutations in KIT or PDGFRA. Fixed tissue can be used.

Angiosarcomas. The tumor may subtly infiltrate the tissue, producing a grossly indistinct mass. Extensively involved areas are often very hemorrhagic.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Tumor:** The general rule of thumb is one cassette per cm of greatest dimension. Document all areas with different appearances, edges (e.g., capsule, infiltration), and involvement of any adjacent structures or organs.
  More extensive sampling is indicated for low-grade lesions, as the finding of a high-grade area would change stage and prognosis.
  If the tumor has not been treated, one section to document necrosis including an adjacent area of viable tumor is sufficient.
  If prior neoadjuvant therapy has been given, a complete representative cross section of tumor should be submitted with the location of the blocks of tissue recorded, in order to determine the extent of tumor response.
- **Margins:** Document all close margins with at least one cassette. If the tumor is very close to a margin (i.e., within 2 cm), multiple sections may be submitted. Take only perpendicular margins. If a margin is >5 cm from the tumor, and the tumor is not an angiosarcoma or an epithelioid sarcoma, the margin need not be submitted.
  Margins should be 1 to 2 cm or an uninvolved fascial plane for sarcomas.
- **Other structures:** Document any other anatomical structures present. Document any prior biopsy scars/sites.

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR SOFT TISSUE TUMORS

- **Procedure:** Needle core biopsy, intralesional resection, marginal resection, wide resection, radical resection, amputation
- **Tumor Site:** Location of tumor
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (other dimensions optional)
- **Extent of Tumor:** Superficial (dermal, subcutaneous/suprafascial), deep (fascial, subfascial, intramuscular, mediastinal, intra-abdominal, retroperitoneal, head and neck)
- **Histologic Type:** Liposarcoma, rhabdomyosarcoma, leiomyosarcoma, malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumor, numerous other types. The WHO Classification system is recommended.
- **Mitotic Rate:** Number of mitoses per 10 HPF (1 HPF = 0.1734 mm^2) in the most mitotically active area of the tumor. Count at least 50 HPF. If specific grading systems are used (see below) the mitotic count should be adjusted for the size of the HPF.
- **Necrosis:** Present or absent and extent (% of tumor)
- **Histologic Grade:** Some tumors are by definition high grade or low grade, and some cannot be graded. Other types can be divided into grades and this provides prognostic information (see below for the FNCLCC systems). Grading of malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumor, embryonal and alveolar rhabdomyosarcoma, angiosarcoma, extraskeletal myxoid chondrosarcoma, alveolar soft part sarcoma, clear cell sarcoma, and epithelioid sarcoma is not recommended.
- **Margins:** The distance to each margin should be recorded. Margins less than 2 cm should be specified as to location and distance. In re-excision specimens, the distance of scarring or granulation tissue from margins should also be measured. Margins bounded by a fascial plane or periosteum should be identified as a smaller distance may be adequate.
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present. Rarely observed in sarcomas.
- **Tumor Margin Characteristics:** Circumscribed, focally infiltrative, diffusely infiltrative
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Rarely involved. Most common in alveolar rhabdomyosarcomas, angiosarcomas, epithelioid sarcomas, and clear cell sarcomas

TABLE 32-2. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF SOFT TISSUE SARCOMAS

Tumor	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
T1	Tumor ≤5 cm in greatest dimension*
T1a	Superficial tumor
T1b	Deep tumor
T2	Tumor >5 cm in greatest dimension*
T2a	Superficial tumor
T2b	Deep tumor
*Superficial tumor is located exclusively above the superficial fascia without invasion of the fascia; deep tumor is located either exclusively beneath the superficial fascia, superficial to the fascia with invasion of or through the fascia, or both superficial yet beneath the fascia.	
Regional Lymph Nodes	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1*	Regional lymph node metastasis
*Presence of positive nodes (N1) in M0 tumors is considered stage III.	
Distant Metastases	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
Note: This classification system does not apply to inflammatory myofibroblastic tumor, infantile fibrosarcoma, Kaposi sarcoma, fibromatosis (desmoid tumor), mesothelioma, or sarcomas arising in tissues apart from soft tissue (e.g., parenchymal organs). There is a separate AJCC staging system for gastrointestinal stromal tumor. There is an alternative staging system for rhabdomyosarcoma of children and young adults (see CAP Protocol for the Examination of Specimens from Patients with Rhabdomyosarcoma, www.cap.org). From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.	

- **Preexisting Lesion:** If the tumor is a nerve-sheath neoplasm, state whether there is evidence of a preexisting benign lesion
- **Inflammatory Response:** Optional (no known relevance) – present or absent, extent, type
- **Treatment Effect:** If patient has received prior treatment: extent of tumor necrosis, percentage of viable tumor
- **Ancillary Studies:** Cytogenetics, molecular pathology, if appropriate
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 32-2). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pM0 category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR PEDIATRIC RHABDOMYOSARCOMA AND RELATED NEOPLASMS

- **Procedure:** Excision (local, wide, or radical), compartectomy, amputation (type, neural, vascular, soft tissue margins), other (e.g., piecemeal, needle core biopsy, incisional biopsy)
- **Specimen Laterality:** Right, left, midline
- **Tumor Site:** Bladder/prostate, cranial parameningeal, extremity, genitourinary, head and neck (excluding parameningeal), orbit, other
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (other dimensions optional)
- **Tumor Depth:** Dermal, subcutaneous, subfascial, intramuscular, intra-abdominal, retroperitoneal, intracranial, organ based
- **Histologic Type:** Embryonal (botryoid, spindle cell, or not otherwise specified), alveolar (solid or not otherwise specified), mixed (give percentage of each type), undifferentiated
- **Anaplasia:** Not identified, focal (single or few scattered anaplastic cells), diffuse (clusters or sheets of anaplastic cells)
  - May be associated with any histologic type
  - Defined as large, lobate hyperchromatic nuclei (at least 3 times the size of neighboring nuclei) and atypical (obvious, multipolar) mitotic figures.
    Focal anaplasia (group I): A single or a few cells scattered amongst non-anaplastic cells
    Diffuse anaplasia (group II): Clusters or sheets of anaplastic cells present
- **Margins:** Cannot be assessed, uninvolved, distance from closest margin, involved margin (specify)
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Cannot be assessed, negative, metastases present (specify number of nodes examined and number with metastases)
- **Mitotic Rate:** Give number of mitoses per 10 HPF using a 40× objective in the most proliferative area.
- **Necrosis:** Absent, present (extent in %)
- **Distant Metastases:** Cannot be assessed, present (specify sites, if known)
- **Stage:** The Intergroup Rhabdomyosarcoma Study Postsurgical Clinical Grouping System or the Modified Site, Size, Metastasis Staging for Rhabdomyosarcoma may be used if sufficient information is available (Table 32.3).

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

GRADING OF SOFT TISSUE SARCOMAS

- **The Intergroup Rhabdomyosarcoma Study (IRS) post-surgical clinical grouping system:** If applicable, the appropriate stage group may be assigned by the pathologist (Table 32-3).
- **The Fédération Nationale des Centres de Lutte Contre le Cancer (FNCLCC) grading system for soft tissue sarcomas of adults (updated version):** Tables 32-4 and 32-5. Do not grade:
  - Treated tumors
  - Benign lesions
  - Bone sarcomas
  - Visceral sarcomas (uterine and gastrointestinal sarcomas)
  - Pediatric sarcomas
  - Dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans
  - Atypical fibroxanthoma
  - Fine needle or core biopsies (sampling error is likely to be high)

However, recurrent tumors should be graded.[3-5]

- **Gastrointestinal stromal tumor (GIST):** There are several suggested methods of dividing GIST into groups according to the risk of progression or metastasis. Most are based on the number of metastases and size (Tables 32-6 and 32-7).[6,7]

TABLE 32–3. THE INTERGROUP RHABDOMYOSARCOMA STUDY (IRS) POST-SURGICAL CLINICAL GROUPING SYSTEM

GROUP I	
A	Localized tumor, confined to site of origin, completely resected
B	Localized tumor, infiltrating beyond site of origin, completely resected
GROUP II	
A	Localized tumor, gross total resection, but with microscopic residual disease
B	Locally extensive tumor (spread to regional lymph nodes), completely resected
C	Locally extensive tumor (spread to regional lymph nodes), gross total resection, but with microscopic residual disease
GROUP III	
A	Localized or locally extensive tumor, gross residual disease after biopsy only
B	Localized or locally extensive tumor, gross residual disease after major resection (>50% debulking)
GROUP IV	
Any size primary tumor, with or without regional lymph node involvement, with distant metastases, without respect to surgical approach to primary tumor	

From CAP Protocol for the Examination of Specimens from Patients (Children and Young Adults) with Rhabdomyosarcoma (available at www.cap.org, Cancer Protocols and Checklists).

TABLE 32–4. THE FÉDÉRATION NATIONALE DES CENTRES DE LUTTE CONTRE LE CANCER (FNCLCC) GRADING SYSTEM FOR SOFT-TISSUE SARCOMAS OF ADULTS (UPDATED VERSION)

TUMOR DIFFERENTIATION[a]	FEATURES
Score 1	Sarcomas closely resembling normal, adult, mesenchymal tissue (e.g., well-differentiated liposarcoma)
Score 2	Sarcomas of certain histologic types (see Table 32-5)
Score 3	Synovial sarcomas, embryonal sarcomas, undifferentiated sarcomas, and sarcomas of doubtful tumor type (see Table 32-5)
MITOTIC COUNT[b]	
Score 1	0 to 9 mitoses per 10 HPF
Score 2	10 to 19 mitoses per 10 HPF
Score 3	20 or more mitoses per 10 HPF

Continued

TABLE 32–4. THE FÉDÉRATION NATIONALE DES CENTRES DE LUTTE CONTRE LE CANCER (FNCLCC) GRADING SYSTEM FOR SOFT-TISSUE SARCOMAS OF ADULTS (UPDATED VERSION)—cont'd	
TUMOR NECROSIS[c]	
Score 0	No tumor necrosis on any examined slides
Score 1	≤50% tumor necrosis over all the examined tumor surface
Score 2	>50% tumor necrosis over all the examined tumor surface

[a]The three scores are added together to determine the histologic grade:
Grade I: Total score = 2 or 3
Grade II: Total score = 4 or 5
Grade III: Total score = 6, 7, or 8
[b]**Mitotic count**: The count is made in most mitotically active areas in ten successive high power fields (defined as × 400 measuring 0.174 mm^2). This count is taken to establish the score. Ulcerated, necrotic, and hypocellular areas should not be counted. Only definitive mitotic figures (not pyknotic or apoptotic cells) should be counted.
[c]**Tumor necrosis:** The necrosis should appear spontaneous and not related to prior surgery or ulceration. Areas of hyalinization or hemorrhage are not scored.

TABLE 32–5. TUMOR DIFFERENTIATION SCORE – FNCLCC SYSTEM	
HISTOLOGIC TYPE	**SCORE**
Liposarcoma	
Well differentiated	1 (always Grade I)
Myxoid	2
Round cell	3
Pleomorphic	3 (always Grade III)
Dedifferentiated	3
Fibrosarcoma	2
Malignant triton tumor	3
Leiomyosarcoma	
Well differentiated	1
Conventional	2
Poorly differentiated/pleomorphic/epithelioid	3
Pleomorphic rhabdomyosarcoma	3
Chondrosarcoma	
Well differentiated	1
Myxoid	2
Mesenchymal	3 (always Grade III)

TABLE 32–5. TUMOR DIFFERENTIATION SCORE – FNCLCC SYSTEM—cont'd

HISTOLOGIC TYPE	SCORE
Extraskeletal osteosarcoma	3 (always Grade III)
Hemangiopericytoma	
Well differentiated malignant	2
Conventional malignant	3
Malignant fibrous histiocytoma (MFH)	
Myxofibrosarcoma (myxoid MFH)	2
Typical storiform MFH (sarcoma, not otherwise specified)	2
Pleomorphic type (patternless pleomorphic sarcoma)	3
Giant-cell and inflammatory MFH (pleomorphic sarcoma, not otherwise specified with giant cells or inflammatory cells)	3
Ewing sarcoma/PNET	3 (always Grade III)
Malignant rhabdoid tumor	3
Synovial sarcoma	
Biphasic or monophasic synovial sarcoma	3
Poorly differentiated synovial sarcoma	3
Undifferentiated sarcoma	3

TABLE 32–6. RISK STRATIFICATION OF PRIMARY GIST BY MITOTIC INDEX, SIZE, AND SITE

TUMOR PARAMETERS		RISK OF PROGRESSIVE DISEASE (%)[a]			
MITOTIC INDEX	SIZE	GASTRIC	DUODENUM	JEJUNUM/ILEUM	RECTUM
≤5 per 50 HPF	≤2 cm	None (0%)	None (0%)	None (0%)	None (0%)
	>2 but ≤5 cm	Very low (1.9%)	Low (4.3%)	Low (8.3%)	Low (8.5%)
	>5 but ≤10 cm	Low (3.6%)	Moderate (24%)	Insufficient data	Insufficient data
	>10 cm	Moderate (10%)	High (52%)	High (34%)	High (57%)
>5 per 50 HPF	≤2 cm	None[b]	High[b]	Insufficient data	High (54%)
	>2 but ≤5 cm	Moderate (16%)	High (73%)	High (50%)	High (52%)
	>5 but ≤10 cm	High (55%)	High (85%)	Insufficient data	Insufficient data
	>10 cm	High (86%)	High (90%)	High (86%)	High (71%)

[a]Defined as metastasis or tumor-related death.
[b]Risk assessment based on small numbers of cases.
Adapted from Miettinen M, Lasota J, Gastrointestinal stromal tumors: pathology and prognosis at different sites, Semin Diagn Pathol 23:70-83, 2006.

TABLE 32-7. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF GASTROINTESTINAL STROMAL TUMORS

Tumor	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed.
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
T1	Tumor 2 cm or less
T2	Tumor more than 2 cm but not more than 5 cm
T3	Tumor more than 5 cm but not more than 10 cm
T4	Tumor more than 10 cm in greatest dimension
Regional Lymph Nodes	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed.
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Regional lymph node metastasis
Distant Metastases	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis

From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.

ABDOMINAL FAT PAD BIOPSY FOR THE DIAGNOSIS OF AMYLOIDOSIS

There are several methods of sampling tissues to establish the diagnosis of systemic amyloidosis. Rectal biopsies are reported to be the most sensitive (97%) followed by fine needle aspiration of the abdominal fat pad (75%), oral biopsy (64%), and biopsy of the abdominal fat pad (50%). These latter biopsies can be either excisional or by core biopsy.

The tissue can be fixed in formalin and stained with Congo Red. Both false positive and false negative results have been reported. If there is sufficient tissue, some can be saved for EM, which may be helpful in confirming a diagnosis. Immunohistochemical studies can be used to identify subtypes of amyloid.

The abdominal fat pad biopsy technique is not helpful in the evaluation of dialysis patients with β-2 microglobulin amyloidosis as this type of amyloid is preferentially found near joints.

REFERENCES

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Thymus 33

The thymus may be removed due to disease (both benign and malignant tumors), for the treatment of myasthenia gravis, or, rarely, incidentally during thoracic surgery (e.g., open heart surgery). If the specimen is of an anterior mediastinal mass, one must consider lymphoma and teratoma as well as thymoma.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

See Table 33-1.

TABLE 33–1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR THYMUS SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Myasthenia gravis
Purpose of the procedure	Findings at surgery (infiltration of adjacent structures)
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	
Compromised immune system	

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record outer dimensions and weight of the specimen (normal 15 to 30 gm).

   Examine the outer portion of the specimen, looking for adherent structures such as pleura or pericardium. Capsular and soft tissue invasion is one of the criteria separating benign from malignant neoplasms; therefore,these areas should be well sampled.

   Ink the outer surface if the specimen is intact.
2. Serially section the specimen. Describe any lesions including size, color, external appearance (lobulated or smooth), relationship to capsule and surrounding structures, edges (encapsulated, infiltrating), fibrous bands, calcification, necrosis or hemorrhage, relationship to uninvolved thymus.

   Describe uninvolved thymus including color, consistency (cystic, nodular, gritty, uniform), relative proportions of fat and thymic parenchyma.
3. Carefully look for lymph nodes in any attached soft tissue.
4. If a lymphoma is suspected, tissue is saved in B5, and submitted for snap freezing and possibly for flow cytometry. The remainder of the specimen can be fixed in formalin.

SPECIAL STUDIES

- **Suspected lymphoma:** Save tissue for hematopathologic workup (see above).
- **Thymic carcinomas versus carcinomas originating from other sites:** The epithelial cells of most thymic carcinomas (but not thymomas or invasive thymomas) will be immunoreactive for CD5, whereas carcinomas from other sites will be CD5 negative.
- **Thymomas and invasive thymomas versus other tumors:** Thymomas and invasive thymomas (but not thymic carcinomas or non-thymic neoplasms) retain a complement of immature cortical thymocytes. These cells can be detected by immunohistochemistry for CD99 (=HBA-17 or O13 or MIC-2), TdT, or CD19.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Normal Thymus. The thymus is usually atrophic in the adult, with tan lobules of thymic parenchyma separated by fibrous septae and abundant adipose tissue. Hassell's corpuscles may be prominent and must be distinguished from metastatic squamous cell carcinoma in a lymph node.

Myasthenia Gravis. Thymectomy is a treatment for myasthenia gravis. The thymus may be normal in size or slightly enlarged, but has a grossly normal appearance.

Thymomas are solid, yellow/gray, and divided into lobules by fibrous septae. Most are surrounded by a distinct capsule. Invasion into adjacent soft tissue is an important prognostic factor. Cystic degeneration is common. Several staging systems are in use.[1]

Thymic Carcinomas may be hard and white with areas of necrosis and hemorrhage. The broad fibrous septae characteristic of thymomas are absent. Invasion into adjacent soft tissue is usually grossly evident.

Germ Cell Tumors. Any type of germ cell tumor can occur in the anterior mediastinum. The gross appearance is similar to that seen in tumors arising in the testes.

Lymphomas. Hodgkin disease and non-Hodgkin lymphomas can occur at this site. They usually present as lobulated fleshy masses.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Lesions:** Four to six cassettes (depending on the size of the specimen) including relationship to capsule, remainder of thymus.
- **Margins:** If the specimen is intact and there is a focal lesion, submit sections of the margin.
- **Thymus:** Submit two cassettes of uninvolved thymic parenchyma.
- **Other structures:** Submit representative sections of lymph nodes, pleura, and pericardium if present.

SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number and "mediastinal mass," is a 7.5 × 4 × 4 cm fragment of tissue, composed of a mass with a smoothly lobulated surface on one side and a 5 × 3 cm portion of glistening smooth pericardium on the opposite side. The mass has two major lobes separated by a fibrous septum. The mass is pink and gelatinous with fine trabeculae throughout. There are small cystic areas filled with pink fluid (largest 0.4 cm). There are small areas of necrosis. The mass is encapsulated, except for a 1 × 1 cm area where it appears to invade into the pericardium and is present at the inked margin. Tissue is taken for snap freezing, cytogenetics, and EM. The majority of the lesion is fixed in B5 and quick fixed in formalin.

Cassettes #1-2: B5 fixed tumor with adjacent pericardium, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #3-4: B5 fixed tumor with areas of necrosis and cysts, 3 frags, RSS.
Cassettes #5-6: Formalin fixed tumor and capsule, 2 frags, RSS.

TABLE 33–2. MASAOKA'S CLINICAL STAGE AS MODIFIED BY KOGA et al.	
Stage I	Grossly and microscopically completely encapsulated (including microscopic invasion into the capsule)
Stage IIa	Microscopic transcapsular invasion
Stage IIb	Macroscopic capsular invasion into thymic or surrounding fat, or grossly adherent but not breaking through mediastinal pleura or pericardium
Stage III	Macroscopic invasion into neighboring organs (e.g., pericardium, great vessels, or lung)
Stage IVa	Pleural or pericardial dissemination
Stage IVb	Lymphogenous or hematogenous metastasis
From Masaoka A, MondenY, Nakahara K, Tanioka T, Follow-up study of thymomas with special reference to their clinical stages, Cancer 48:2485-2495, 1981 and Koga K, Matsuno Y, Noguchi M, et al, A review of 79 thymomas: modification of staging system and reappraisal of conventional division into invasive and non-invasive thymoma, Pathol Int 44:359-367, 1994.	

TABLE 33–3. YAMAKAWA-MASAOKA TNM CLASSIFICATION AND STAGING		
T	T1	Macroscopically completely encapsulated and microscopically no capsular invasion
	T2	Macroscopically adhesion or invasion into surrounding fatty tissue or mediastinal pleura, or microscopic invasion into capsule
	T3	Invasion into neighboring organs, such as pericardium, great vessels, and lung
	T4	Pleural or pericardial dissemination
N	N0	No lymph node metastasis
	N1	Metastasis to anterior mediastinal lymph nodes
	N2	Metastasis to intrathoracic lymph nodes except anterior mediastinal lymph nodes
	N3	Metastasis to extrathoracic lymph nodes
M	M0	No hematogenous metastasis
	M1	Hematogenous metastasis
From Yamakawa Y, Masaoka A, Hashimoto T, et al, A tentative tumor-node-metastasis classification of thymoma, Cancer 68:1984-1987, 1991.		

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR THYMIC LESIONS

- **Specimen:** Thymus, other
- **Procedure:** Thymectomy, partial thymectomy
- **Specimen Integrity:** Intact, disrupted
- **Specimen Weight:** In grams
- **Tumor Size:** Greatest dimension (additional dimensions optional)
  - Tumors >15cm have a worse prognosis.
- **Histologic Type:** Thymoma, thymic carcinoma (several classification schemes are used; Tables 33-2, 33-3, and 33-4)
- **Tumor Extension:**
  - Grossly and microscopically encapsulated
  - Microscopic capsular invasion
  - Macroscopic capsular invasion
  - Macroscopic invasion into adjacent adipose tissue and/or pleura.
  - Macroscopic invasion into adjacent structures of mediastinum including pericardium, great vessels and lung.
  - Hematogenous or lymphatic dissemination
- **Margins:** Uninvolved, distance from closest margin, involved (specify margin)

TABLE 33–4. PROPOSED PATHOLOGICAL TNM AND STAGING OF THYMIC EPITHELIAL TUMOR (THYMOMAS AND THYMIC CARCINOMAS)

pT	pT1	Completely encapsulated tumor
	pT2	Tumor breaking through capsule, invading thymus or fatty tissue (may be adherent to mediastinal pleura but not invading adjacent organs)
	pT3	Tumor breaking through the mediastinal pleura or pericardium, or invading neighboring organs, such as great vessels or lung
	pT4	Tumor with pleural or pericardial implantation
pN	pN0	No lymph node metastasis
	pN1	Metastasis in anterior mediastinal lymph nodes
	pN2	Metastasis in intrathoracic lymph nodes excluding anterior mediastinal lymph nodes
	pN3	Metastasis in extrathoracic lymph nodes
pM	M0	No distant organ metastasis
	M1	With distant organ metastasis

From Tsuchiya R, Koga K, Matsuno Y, Mukai K, Shimosato Y, Thymic carcinoma: proposal for pathological TNM and staging, Pathol Int 44:505-512, 1994.

- **Treatment Effect**: If there has been neoadjuvant therapy: not identified, present (% residual viable tumor)
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Absent, present (number of nodes involved, number of nodes examined)
- **Implants/Distant Metastasis:** Not identified, present (specify site if known)
- **Stage:** The Modified Masaoka Stage or the proposed TNM system may be used
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Age-appropriate involution changes, fibrosis, cortical hyperplasia, cystic changes in tumor, cystic changes in adjacent thymus

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

REFERENCE

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34 Thyroid and Parathyroid Glands

THYROID

Thyroidectomies are usually performed to remove solitary nodules, either benign or malignant, multinodular goiters, or rarely for the treatment of Graves' disease. Most thyroidectomies are total, but some may be unilateral. Many nodules will have been evaluated by fine needle aspiration prior to excision.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY INCLUDES THE FOLLOWING (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

See Table 34-1.

TABLE 34-1. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY – THYROID GLAND

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR THYROID SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Thyroid function test results
Purpose of the procedure	Autoantibodies
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	History of radiation exposure
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	Results of prior FNA
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	Single or multiple nodules
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	Family history of thyroid disease or MEN syndromes
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	Drug use (amiodarone or minocycline)
Compromised immune system	

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Weigh and record the dimensions of the right and left lobes and isthmus. Glands can usually be easily oriented, because the posterior surface is concave or flat, the lobes taper superiorly, and the isthmus is inferior. The posterior surface should be examined carefully for parathyroid glands (brown or yellow/brown ovoid bodies, 2 to 3 mm in size). Save in a separate cassette if found.
2. Ink the entire outer surface. Due to the highly proteinaceous colloid material, the thyroid fixes more slowly than other organs.
3. Serially section through the entire gland from superior to inferior. Describe each lesion including size, color, consistency (papillary, rubbery, firm, gelatinous, or friable), cysts, necrosis or hemorrhage, location (upper, lower, right, left), encapsulation or infiltration, relationship to capsule (intact or with invasion of capsule).

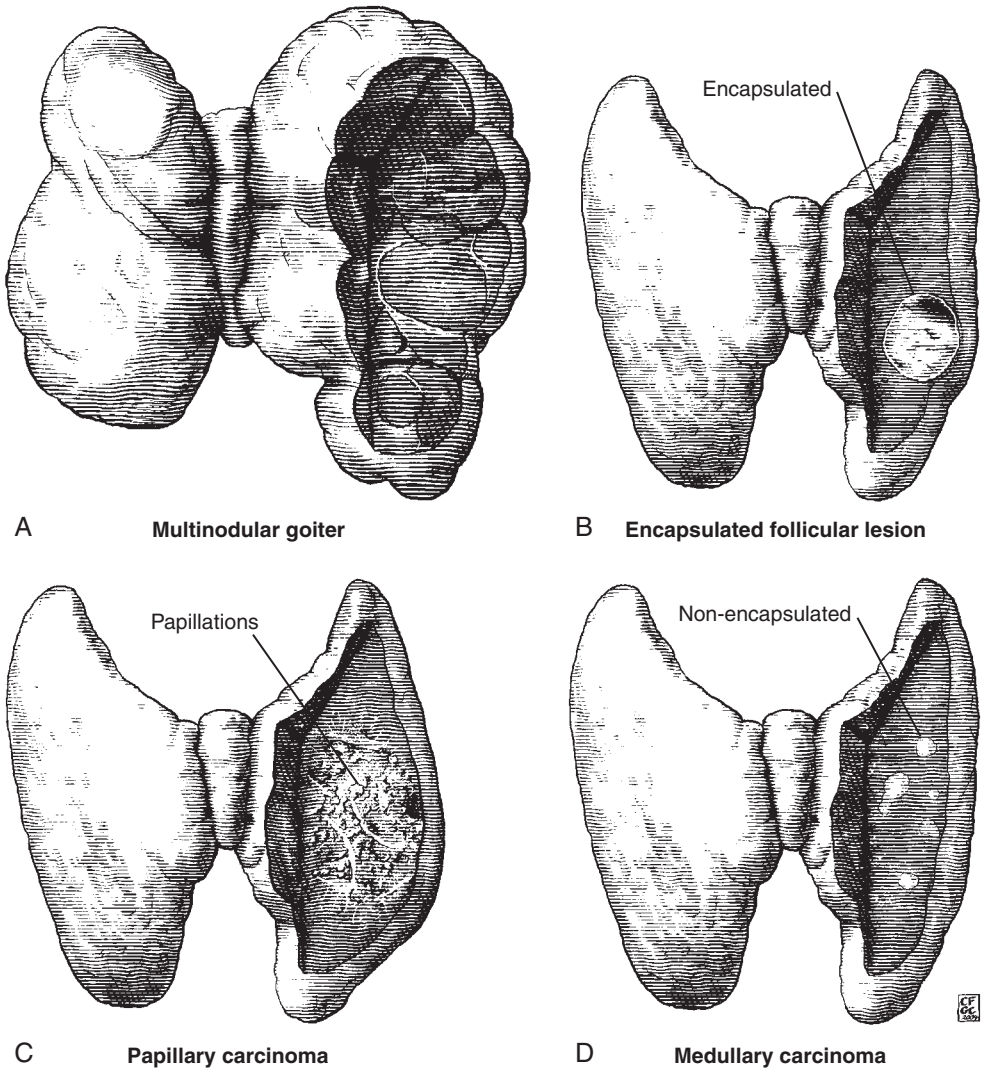


Figure 34-1. Thyroid lesions.

- **Normal**: beefy red/brown
- **Pale**: lymphocytic thyroiditis or Hashimoto thyroiditis
- **Amber colored with a plastic-like consistency**: amiodarone thyroid disease
- **Black**: side effect of minocycline therapy

Whenever possible, nodules that have been previously sampled by FNA should be identified and specifically designated in the cassette code to facilitate correlation between the cytologic and histologic findings.

4. Describe the remainder of the parenchyma, including color (dark red/brown), consistency (fibrotic, hard, friable, soft), contour (lobulated, multinodular, uniform), and calcifications.

Evaluate any adjacent soft tissue for composition (adipose tissue, skeletal muscle, nerves (!), parathyroid glands), presence of lymph nodes, or extension of tumor into soft tissue.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

See Figure 34-1.

Adenoma. This is the most common thyroid neoplasm. An adenoma is usually a solitary, completely encapsulated, pale tan to gray mass, soft, gelatinous, or fleshy, and rarely larger than 3 cm. There may be areas of hemorrhage, fibrosis, or calcification. The capsule is usually thin.

Papillary Carcinoma. This is the most common type of thyroid malignancy. The tumor is usually white/tan and may have a granular or finely nodular texture due to the papillae. Tumors are often firm due to fibrosis, but may be soft. Calcification is common. The tumor may have a poorly developed capsule but rarely has a complete capsule, which may be thick or thin. The tumor may grossly invade the capsule. Cysts may be present. Size ranges from microscopic to huge (average 2 to 3 cm). 20% to 60% are multicentric. An occult papillary carcinoma may appear as a tiny pale gray depressed scar.

Follicular Carcinoma. Less common than papillary carcinomas or adenomas; fewer than 20% of follicular lesions are carcinomas. The tumor may be a small encapsulated mass that can only be distinguished from adenoma by histologic examination (i.e., microscopic evidence of capsular or vascular invasion). Larger tumors may have areas of hemorrhage and necrosis and have infiltrative borders. The capsule may be thick. These tumors are usually solitary.

Medullary Carcinoma. These tumors are less common than papillary and follicular carcinomas. The diagnosis may be known clinically due to family history (familial medullary thyroid carcinoma syndrome, MEN 2, and variants), other tumors, and/or an elevated serum calcitonin level. C-cells are present at the junction of the middle and upper third of the central portion of each lobe, and medullary carcinomas usually arise in this location. The tumors are often multicentric and non-encapsulated but are well-circumscribed, with a soft and fleshy or firm and gritty consistency. The color ranges from gray/white to yellow/brown. Areas of necrosis and hemorrhage may be present. Their size ranges from <1 cm to replacement of the entire thyroid.

About 25% are associated with germline mutations (see in Chapter 7, "Tumors and Diseases Associated with Germline Mutations"). An intraoperative diagnosis may be important in order to evaluate the gland for multiple tumors and to evaluate the parathyroid glands for hyperplasia.

Patients at risk for familial medullary carcinoma may undergo prophylactic thyroidectomies. Because C-cells are located within the middle and upper thirds of the lateral lobes, the entire central-to-superior portion of each lobe should be examined microscopically to assess for C-cell hyperplasia and incipient medullary carcinoma. In such cases, immunoperoxidase studies for calcitonin and CEA may be helpful to evaluate C-cell hyperplasia.

Anaplastic Carcinoma. This is a very rare tumor. It is often pale gray, and firm to hard in consistency. Necrosis and hemorrhage are often present. Because of its tendency to invade locally and widely, a recognizable thyroid may not be present. Skeletal muscle may be resected with infiltrating tumor.

Nodular Hyperplasia (Multinodular Goiter). The gland is enlarged and distorted (one lobe is usually larger than the other lobe). There is a diffuse heterogeneous nodularity, and some of the nodules may appear to be encapsulated. There may be random irregular scarring, hemorrhage, calcifications, and cysts. It is often difficult to distinguish a dominant nodule in hyperplasia from an adenoma. Therefore, the surrounding parenchyma must be carefully evaluated grossly (for multiple nodules) and microscopically.

Graves Disease. The gland is diffusely enlarged, but with a very homogeneous texture without nodularity. It is usually a beefy red color.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Lesions:** Follicular lesions: It is very important to submit the entire tumor capsule, as invasion of the capsule distinguishes carcinomas from adenomas. In general, the invasion is only apparent on microscopic examination.

  Papillary carcinoma: At least one section per 1 cm including relationship to any perithyroidal tissue.

  Nodular hyperplasia: Submit one representative section of each nodule, up to five nodules, if homogeneous in appearance. Additional sections should be submitted from all nodules with different gross appearances (e.g., with hemorrhage, fibrosis, or calcifications).
- **Thyroid (nonlesional):** Two representative uninvolved sections from each lobe. Submit all areas that show discoloration or increased consistency.
- **Lymph node/parathyroid:** Submit representative sections of all lymph nodes and entirely submit parathyroids.

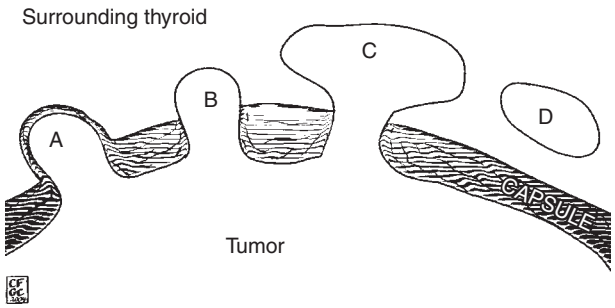
SAMPLE DICTATION

Received fresh, labeled with the patient's name, unit number, and "thyroid," is a 75 gram total thyroidectomy specimen consisting of right lobe (6 × 3.5 × 3 cm), left lobe (8 × 5 × 4 cm), and isthmus (2 × 2 × 1 cm). There is a 4 × 3 × 3 cm ovoid white/tan firm tumor mass with a finely granular appearance present in the left lobe. The central portion is densely white and firm and depressed. The tumor is poorly circumscribed and grossly invades into the adjacent capsule but is 0.1 cm from the inked resection margin. The remainder of the parenchyma is red/brown and homogeneous without other lesions noted. There is a small (0.5 × 0.5 × 0.3 cm) soft tan/brown ovoid nodule adherent to the capsule of the right lobe that is grossly consistent with a parathyroid gland.

Cassettes #1-2: Tumor to inked thyroid excision margin, 2 frags, ESS.
Cassettes #3-7: Remainder of tumor including the entire tumor capsule, 1 to 3 frags each, ESS.
Cassettes #8-9: Left lobe, away from tumor, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #10: Isthmus, 1 frag, RSS.
Cassettes #11-12: Representative section of right lobe, 2 frags, RSS.
Cassette #13: Small brown nodule, possible parathyroid tissue, 2 frags, ESS.

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR THYROID TUMORS

- **Specimen:** Thyroid (right lobe, left lobe, isthmus), lymph nodes
- **Procedure:** Nodulectomy, lobectomy, subtotal thyroidectomy (right or left lobe), total thyroidectomy, lymph nodes (biopsy, central compartment dissection, right neck dissection, left neck dissection, bilateral neck dissection)
- **Specimen Integrity:** Intact, fragmented
- **Specimen Size:** Give size of each lobe and isthmus in three dimensions and size of any lymph node dissection
- **Specimen Weight:** In grams
- **Tumor Focality:** Unifocal, multifocal (ipsilateral, bilateral, midline). If more than one carcinoma is present, the characteristics of each carcinoma should be reported.
- **Tumor Laterality:** Right or left lobe (superior/central/inferior pole), isthmus
- **Tumor Size:** Largest nodule: greatest dimension (additional dimensions optional)
  If there are multiple nodules, give the range in sizes.
  - Papillary carcinomas <1 cm have an excellent prognosis, and carcinomas >4 cm have a worse prognosis. Follicular carcinomas >3.5 cm have a worse prognosis than smaller follicular carcinomas. Small medullary carcinomas detected by screening have an excellent prognosis. Medullary carcinomas detected as palpable nodules and >1 cm have a worse prognosis.
- **Histologic Type:** Papillary carcinoma (variant type, architecture, and cytomorphology), follicular carcinoma (variant type), medullary carcinoma, undifferentiated (anaplastic) carcinoma, other rare types. The WHO classification is recommended.
- **Histologic Grade:** Well, moderately, poorly, or undifferentiated. The majority of thyroid carcinomas are well differentiated. Grade is not as helpful as other features for predicting prognosis.
- **Margins:** Uninvolved (distance of carcinoma from nearest margin optional), involved (site of involvement)
- **Tumor Capsule:** Totally encapsulated, partially encapsulated, capsule not present
- **Tumor Capsular Invasion:** Invasion of the tumor capsule: not identified, present (minimal, widely invasive) (most important for follicular and Hürthle cell carcinomas) (Fig. 34-2)
  - There is not complete consensus on the definition of capsular invasion. All pathologists can agree that invasion has occurred when carcinoma is present at the outer surface of the capsule. It is not yet clear how to classify carcinomas that invade into, but not through, the capsule.
- **Lymph-Vascular Invasion:** Not identified, present (focal, <4 vessels; extensive, ≥4 vessels)
  - Blood vessels should be the size of veins and located outside the tumor but within or immediately outside the capsule. Tumor cells are attached to the vessel wall and protrude into the lumen and are usually covered by endothelial cells (see criteria later).
- **Perineural Invasion:** Not identified, present
- **Extrathyroidal Extension:** Not identified, present (minimal, extensive)
  - Note: In some cases adipose tissue or skeletal muscle may be present within the thyroid gland. Careful correlation with gross findings and targeted sampling is helpful to determine if the carcinoma has invaded beyond the thyroid.



Criteria for Capsular Invasion

A. A tumor bud has invaded beyond the contour of the capsule, but is still covered by a thin new fibrous capsule.

B. A tumor bud has extended through the outer capsular surface.

C. The classic mushroom-shaped bud has completely transgressed the fibrous capsule and grown out into the surrounding thyroid.

D. A satellite nodule with cytoarchitectural and cellular features identical to the cell is present outside of the capsule. The point of capsular rupture is not seen in the sections.

Figure 34-2. Thyroid capsular invasion.

- **Extent of Invasion:** Tumors except for anaplastic carcinoma: Tumor size ≤ 2 cm, limited to thyroid (T1), tumor > 2 cm but ≤ 4 cm, limited to the thyroid (T2), tumor > 4 cm, limited to the thyroid, or with minimal extrathyroid extension (e.g., extension to sternothyroid muscle or perithyroid soft tissues (T3), extension beyond the thyroid capsule to invade subcutaneous soft tissues, larynx, trachea, esophagus, or recurrent laryngeal nerve (T4a), invasion of perivertebral fascia or encases carotid artery or mediastinal vessels (T4b)
  - Anaplastic carcinoma: carcinoma within the thyroid (T4a), carcinoma with gross extrathyroid extension (T4b)
- **Regional Lymph Nodes:** Absent (N0), nodal metastases to Level IV (N1a), nodal metastases to cervical or superior mediastinal lymph nodes (ipsilateral or contralateral) (N1b)
  - Number of nodes examined, number with metastases, size of largest metastasis
  - Extranodal invasion: present or not identified
- **Additional Pathologic Findings:** Thyroiditis (advanced, focal [nonspecific], palpation), diffuse hyperplasia (Graves'disease), nodular hyperplasia (adenomatoid nodules, nodular follicular disease, goitrous thyroid), adenoma, C-cell hyperplasia (associated with familial cases of medullary carcinoma)
  - Diffuse: involves both lobes with ≥ 50 C cells per LPF
  - Nodular: extensive, bilateral, multifocal
- **Parathyroid Glands:** Number, location (if possible, indicate intrathyroidal vs. extrathyroidal, right vs. left, upper vs. lower), size, cellularity (normal, hypercellular)
- **Distant Metastasis:** Present. If distant metastasis is not present on pathologic examination, the M category is a clinical classification.
- **AJCC Classification:** T, N, and M classifications should be provided, when possible (Table 34-2). M0 is conferred after clinical assessment; there is no pMO category.

This checklist incorporates information from the CAP Cancer Committee protocols for reporting on cancer specimens (see www.cap.org/) and the ADASP (see www.adasp.org). The underlined elements are considered to be scientifically validated or regularly used data elements that must be present in reports of cancer-directed surgical resection specimens from ACS CoC-approved cancer programs. The specific details of reporting the elements may vary among institutions.

PROPHYLACTIC THYROIDECTOMY

Prophylactic thyroidectomy may be performed for patients with a history of familial medullary carcinoma (familial MTC, MEN2, or variants) if a germline mutation in the RET proto-oncogene has been detected.

The thyroid should be examined to document the extent of C-cell hyperplasia and to determine whether a small medullary carcinoma is present. Normal C-cells are restricted to a zone within the middle to upper third of the lateral lobes and are normally absent from the extreme upper and lower poles of each lobe and the isthmus. Serial sections of the entire central and upper thirds of each lobe should be examined microscopically. Additional representative sections of the lower poles, isthmus, and any gross lesions are also examined.

TABLE 34-2. AJCC (7TH EDITION) CLASSIFICATION OF THYROID TUMORS

TUMOR	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
T1	Tumor ≤ 2 cm in greatest dimension limited to the thyroid
T1a	Tumor 1 cm or less, limited to the thyroid
T1b	Tumor more than 1 cm but not more than 2 cm in greatest dimension, limited to the thyroid
T2	Tumor > 2 cm but ≤ 4 cm in greatest dimension, limited to the thyroid
T3	Tumor > 4 cm in greatest dimension limited to the thyroid or any tumor with minimal extrathyroid extension (e.g., extension to sternothyroid muscle or perithyroid soft tissue)
T4a	Moderately advanced disease Tumor of any size extending beyond the thyroid capsule to invade subcutaneous soft tissues, larynx, trachea, esophagus, or recurrent laryngeal nerve
T4b	Very advanced disease Tumor invades prevertebral fascia or encases carotid artery or mediastinal vessels
T4a	Intrathyroidal anaplastic carcinoma
T4b	Anaplastic carcinoma with gross extrathyroid extension
Note: All categories may be subdivided: (s) solitary tumor and (m) multifocal tumor (the largest determines the classification). All anaplastic carcinomas are considered T4 tumors	
REGIONAL LYMPH NODES	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Regional lymph node metastasis
N1a	Metastasis to Level VI (pretracheal, paratracheal, and prelaryngeal/delphian lymph nodes)
N1b	Metastasis to unilateral, bilateral, or contralateral cervical (Levels I, II, III, IV, or V) or retropharyngeal or superior mediastinal lymph nodes (Level VII)
Note: Regional lymph nodes are the central compartment, lateral cervical, and upper mediastinal lymph nodes.	
DISTANT METASTASIS	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis
From the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition. New York, Springer-Verlag, 2009. Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois.	

PARATHYROID GLAND

Parathyroidectomy is performed for hyperparathyroidism due to either adenoma or hyperplasia (most commonly secondary to chronic renal failure). Malignancies are vanishingly rare.

The specimens are usually evaluated intraoperatively (see Chapter 6 for further information). However, intraoperative PTH assays may replace frozen section evaluation.

RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY (IN ADDITION TO AGE AND GENDER)

See Table 34-3.

TABLE 34-3. RELEVANT CLINICAL HISTORY – PARATHYROID GLAND

HISTORY RELEVANT TO ALL SPECIMENS	HISTORY RELEVANT FOR PARATHYROID SPECIMENS
Organ/tissue resected or biopsied	Primary hyperparathyroidism (elevated serum calcium) – usually due to one adenoma, rarely due to multiple adenomas or primary hyperplasia.
Purpose of the procedure	
Gross appearance of the organ/tissue/lesion sampled	
Any unusual features of the clinical presentation	Secondary hyperparathyroidism (decreased serum calcium) - usually due to chronic renal failure – all four glands enlarged
Any unusual features of the gross appearance	
Prior surgery/biopsies - results	Intraoperative PTH assays – if PTH did not decrease, the adenoma may not have been removed.
Prior malignancy	
Prior treatment (radiation therapy, chemotherapy, drug use that can change the histologic appearance of tissues)	Personal or family history of MEN syndrome
	Gross appearance of gland at surgery – adherence to adjacent tissue could suggest carcinoma
Compromised immune system	

PROCESSING THE SPECIMEN

1. Record the weight and dimensions of each specimen. Describe, including color (brown to brown/yellow), and any lesions (an adenoma may compress normal adjacent parenchyma). It should be evident from the description if the specimen is the entire gland (smoothly contoured surface) or a biopsy (small irregular fragment of tissue).
   - Average normal weight:
     - 30 +/– 3.5 mg for men
     - 35 +/– 5.2 mg for women
     - Any gland >50 mg is enlarged
   - Normal size: 2-7 mm × 2-4 mm × 0.5-2 mm
2. Submit small specimens in entirety. Larger glands have representative sections submitted in a single cassette.

GROSS DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Adenomas (85% of Surgical Cases). Are almost always solitary lesions (96%) and usually weigh from 300 mg to several grams (size 1 - 3 cm). There is loss of stromal fat, and the adjacent normal gland may be compressed. Rarely, a parathyroid gland may be located completely within the thyroid gland.

Hyperplasia (15% of Surgical Cases, Almost All Secondary). Usually involves multiple glands, but each gland may not be involved to the same degree. Fat may be decreased or absent.

- **Secondary:** Usually due to renal disease. All four glands are markedly increased in size but may vary in size. Three may be removed and the fourth biopsied.
- **Primary:** All four glands may be increased in size. However, only one or two glands may be enlarged or all glands may be minimally enlarged. 20% of patients will have an MEN syndrome (usually MEN I or 2A). Very rare.

Carcinoma (Rare, 2% of Cases). More common in older adults (4th to 6th decade). The carcinoma is usually a firm lobulated tan/gray mass often adherent to adjacent soft tissue. The tumors are often large (2 - 6 cm; over 40 gms). Histologically there may be capsular or vascular invasion, mitoses, and necrosis.

TABLE 34-4. PARATHYROID ADENOMA VS ATYPICAL ADENOMA VS CARCINOMA

HISTOLOGIC FEATURE	ADENOMA	ATYPICAL ADENOMA	CARCINOMA
Relationship to surrounding tissue	Confined within capsule	Adherence of tumor to adjacent structures	Invasion through the capsule into adjacent soft tissues or thyroid in about one half
Thick fibrous bands	Usually absent	Usually present	Usually present
Mitotic activity	May be present	Present (<5 per 50 HPFs or Ki-67 <3%)	Present (>5 per 50 HPFs or Ki-67; >6% is more common in carcinomas)
Perineural invasion	Absent	Absent	May be present
Vascular invasion	Absent	Absent	May be present
Necrosis	May be present	May be present	Present in about one third
Nuclear atypia	Scattered cells with markedly atypical nuclei may be present.	Scattered cells with markedly atypical nuclei may be present.	Marked nuclear pleomorphism with macronuclei may be present in about half of tumors.

MICROSCOPIC SECTIONS

- **Enlarged glands:** Representative sections (one cassette). If there is attached soft tissue and a possibility of carcinoma (i.e., potential invasion into soft tissue), more sections should be taken.
- **Small glands or biopsies:** Entire specimen (one cassette)

SAMPLE DICTATION

The specimen is received fresh, labeled with the patient's name and unit number, in three parts.

The first part labeled "right upper adenoma" consists of a 100 mg ovoid smoothly surfaced gland (2 × 2 × 1 cm) with a homogenous tan/brown parenchyma. A representative portion was used for a frozen section A.

Cassette #1: FSR A, 1 frag, ESS.
Cassette #2: Representative sections, 2 frags, RSS.

The second part, labeled "right lower," consists of an irregular fragment of tan/brown soft tissue measuring 0.5 × 0.5 × 0.4 cm, which was entirely frozen for FSB.

Cassette #3: FSR B, 1 frag, ESS.

The third part, labeled "left upper," consists of an irregular fragment of tan/brown soft tissue measuring 0.6 × 0.3 × 0.2 cm, which was entirely frozen for FSC.

Cassette #4: FSR C, 1 frag, ESS.

PATHOLOGIC DIAGNOSTIC/PROGNOSTIC FEATURES SIGN-OUT CHECKLIST FOR PARATHYROIDS

- **Type of lesion:** Adenoma, atypical adenoma, carcinoma, hyperplasia, cysts, parathyromatosis, normal gland, or secondary tumors
- **Size and weight:** Specify for glands completely excised
- **Prognostic factors:** For carcinomas, some histologic features may be associated with malignant behavior (Table 34-4).
- **Percent adipose tissue:** Usually 15% to 20% in normal glands, reduced in young individuals, adenomas, and hyperplasia

PARATHYROID ADENOMA VERSUS ATYPICAL ADENOMA VERSUS CARCINOMA

Parathyroid carcinomas are very rare, accounting for less than 5% of cases of primary hyperparathyroidism. In the absence of metastasis, a definitive diagnosis of malignancy is difficult to make. Some cases differ minimally from chief cell adenomas, while others are obviously anaplastic. The histologic features in Table 34-4 can be used to help predict malignant behavior.

Index

Note: Page numbers followed by f, t, or b indicate figures, tables, or boxes, respectively.

1D5 *see* Estrogen receptors
6F/3D *see* Beta-amyloid
6F11 *see* Estrogen receptors
12E7 *see* CD antigens, CD99
34βE12 (keratin), 109t–150t

A

A32 antigen *see* CD antigens, CD146
A60 *see* NeuN
A103 *see* Melan-A
A0485 *see* HER-2/neu
AAT *see* Alpha 1-antitrypsin
Abdomen, metastatic adenocarcinomas in, 94t
Abdominal aortic aneurysm, 305
Abdominal fat pad biopsy, amyloidosis, 550
Abdominoperineal (A-P) resection, 340, 341f
ABH blood group antigens, tissue identification, 33
Abiomed ventricular assist device, 303
Abortion
  spontaneous (SAB), 466
  therapeutic, 466
Absence of lesions, 10
Acalculous cholecystitis, acute, 367, 369
Accessory pancreatic ducts, 56
Accuracy, operating room consultations, 50–51
Acetylcholinesterase studies, Hirschsprung disease, 338
ACH *see* Alpha 1-antichymotrypsin
Acid alcohol, hematoxylin and eosin technique, frozen sections, 48
Acid fuchsin orange G (AFOG), 67t–70t
Acid-fast bacilli, stains, 67t–70t
Acinar (acinic) cell carcinoma
  immunohistochemistry panel, 75t–76t
  pancreas, 377
  salivary glands, 480
ACKD *see* Acquired cystic kidney disease
Acoustic neuroma
  brain biopsy, 529
  germline mutations, 179t–180t
Acquired cystic kidney disease (ACKD), 386, 391t
  renal cell carcinomas, 389
Acrochordon, 313
ACS CoC *see* American College of Surgeons Commission on Cancer
Actinomycetes, tonsils, 485
Acute airway rejection, 495t
Acute cholecystitis
  acalculous, 367, 369
  calculous, 369
Acute lymphoblastic lymphoma (ALL), genetics, 172t–178t
Acute myeloblastic leukemia (AML), 79t, 172t–178t
Acute promyelocytic leukemia, genetics, 172t–178t
Adamantinoma, 74t, 254f
ADASP *see* Association of Directors of Anatomic and Surgical Pathology
Addenda, reports, 37, 220, 223
Adenocarcinomas
  anal, grading, 355t
  appendix, 357
  bladder, 98t
  cervix, 450
    grading, 451t
  colon, immunohistochemistry panel, 74t
  electron microscopy, 158t
  esophagus, 324, 325f
    grading system, 327t
    immunohistochemistry panel, 74t
  gallbladder, 368–369
    grading, 370t
  gynecology, grading, 435–436
  lung, 75t–76t, 101, 101t–102t, 163t–171t, 498, 499f
    bronchial extension, 60
    epithelial mesothelioma vs, 101, 101t
  pancreas, 372, 375–376
    ductal, 376f
  prostate, 407–408, 411–412
  rectum, 98t
  squamous cell carcinoma v., 102t
  stomach
    grading systems, 333t
    immunohistochemistry panel, 74t
    intestinal type, 330, 331f
Adenoids, 484–486
Adenoid cystic carcinoma
  genetics, 163t–171t
  immunohistochemistry panel, 75t–76t
  salivary gland, 480
Adenomas
  adrenal gland, 228–229, 229f
  bile ducts, 364
  liver, 362–363, 363f
  parathyroid, 63–64, 64t, 560–563, 562t
    atypical, 562t, 563
Adenomas *(Continued)*
  pituitary, myeloma vs, 223
  thyroid *see* Thyroid gland, adenoma
Adenomatoid tumor
  immunohistochemistry panel, 80t–83t
  uterus, 432
Adenomyosis, 58
  uterus, 432
Adenovirus, histological appearance, 190t–194t
ADH *see* Atypical ductal hyperplasia
Adhesions, pleura, 497
Adipose tissue
  bladder, 396
  lymph nodes in, 518
  thyroid tissue mistaken for, 64
  see also Fatty tissues
Adnexal carcinoma, histologic grade, 314t–315t
Adrenal cortex
  carcinoma
    genetics, 163t–171t
    germline mutations, 179t–180t
  tumors, immunohistochemistry panels, 75t–76t, 97t
Adrenal gland, 227
  color, 17t, 228
  cysts, 230
  normal, 228, 229f
  tumors, 227
    adenoma,, 228–229, 229f
    AJCC classification, 231t
    carcinoma, 229, 231t
    criteria for malignancy, 232–233, 233t
    immunohistochemistry, 97t
    metastatic, 229–230
    myelolipoma, 230
    neuroblastoma, 229, 232f
    pheochromocytoma, 228–229, 229f, 233, 234t–235t
Adrenocorticotropic hormone, secreting tumor, pancreas, 379t
Adriamycin, cardiotoxicity, 289
Adult polycystic kidney disease, 391t
Adult T-cell, lymphoma/leukemia, 105t–106t, 172t–178t
  genetics, 172t–178t
AE1, AE3 (monoclonal antibodies), 101t
Aerosol sprays, frozen sections, 47
AFIP grading, mucoepidermoid carcinoma, 482t–483t

AFOG *see* Acid fuchsin orange G
AFP *see* Alpha-fetoprotein
AIDS, gallbladder, 369
Air bubbles, microscope slides, 215
Air dried smears
  fine needle aspirations, 309
  hazard, 196, 201
Airway inflammation, 496t
Airway rejection
  acute, 495t
  chronic, 496t
AJCC classifications
  adrenal gland tumors, 233t
  ampulla of Vater tumors, 337t
  bone tumors, 256t
  carcinomas
    anal, 356t
    appendix, 359t
    bladder, 401t
    breast, 262t, 279t
    cervix, 434t
    endometrium, 434t–445t
    esophagus, 327, 328t
    gallbladder, 367t
    larynx, 492t–493t
    lip and oral cavity, 477t
    lung, 503t
    ovary, 445t
    pancreatic, 381, 381t
    prostate, 410t
    renal cell, 393t–417t
    renal pelvis and ureter, 394t
    salivary duct, 483t
    small intestine, 336, 337t
    stomach, 333, 334t
    vagina, 434t
    vulva, 459t
  colon carcinoma, 351, 353t–354t
  eye tumors, 532
  Fallopian tube tumors, 462f
  for GIST, 550t
  Hodgkin and non-Hodgkin lymphomas, 517t
  liver tumors, 361t, 366
  melanoma, 311, 318t
  Merkel cell carcinoma, 320t
  mesothelioma, 510t
  penis tumors, 539t
  reporting, 36–37, 225
  skin carcinoma, 314t–319t
  soft tissue tumors, 545t
  testicular tumors, 417t
  thyroid tumors, 560t
Alcian blue, 67t–70t, 101t
  with hyaluronidase, 101t
  sulfated, amyloidosis, 289–290
Alcian blue-PAS, 67t–70t
Alcian yellow, 67t–70t
Alcohol-based fixatives, 23
Alizarin red S, 67t–70t
ALK protein, 109t–150t
  fusions, 163t–178t
  immunoreactivity, 72
Allergic sinusitis, 473
Allred score (H-score), hormone receptors, breast carcinoma, 86, 86t
Alpha 1-antichymotrypsin (ACH), 109t–150t
Alpha 1-antitrypsin (AAT), 109t–150t
  deficiency, 362
Alpha smooth muscle actin *see* Smooth muscle alpha-actin
Alpha-fetoprotein, 109t–150t
  testis tumors, 415
Alpha-methylacyl-CoA racemase (AMACR), 109t–150t
Alveolar rhabdomyosarcoma, genetics, 163t–171t
Alveolar soft part sarcoma, 80t–83t, 158t–160t, 163t–171t
Alzheimer's, 107t
AMACR *see* Alpha-methylacyl-CoA racemase
Ambiguous genitalia, fetus, 471
Ameloblastoma, 74t
Amended reports, 36–38, 220, 223
American College of Surgeons Commission on Cancer (ACS CoC), standards for reporting, 220, 225
Amiodarone thyroid disease, specimen appearance, 556
AML *see* Acute myeloblastic leukemia
AML1-ETO fusion, 172t–178t
Ammonia water, hematoxylin and eosin technique, frozen sections, 48
Amnion nodosum, 463
Ampulla of Vater
  tumors affecting, 379, 382
    AJCC classification, 326
    grading, 382t
    sign-out checklists, 326
  Whipple procedure, 374–382, 374f
Amputation specimens, 237
  digits, 238
  lower extremity, 239–241, 240f
  trauma, 238
  for tumors, 241–242
Amyloid, 107–108, 107t, 158t–160t, 206t–212t
  Congo red, 67t–70t
  see also Beta-amyloid
Amyloidosis, 107–108, 107t
  biopsy, 550
    abdominal fat pad, 550
    endomyocardial, 289–290
  dialysis-related, 260
  synovium, 260
  see also Beta-2 microglobulin amyloidosis
Anal canal, 340
  see also Anus
Anal carcinoma
  AJCC classifications, 356t
  grading, 355t
  sign-out checklist, 352–355
Anal papillae, 340
Analytical cytology *see* Flow cytometry
Analyzers (microscopy), 205b
Anaplasia, rhabdomyosarcoma, 546
Anaplastic carcinoma, thyroid, 557
Anaplastic large cell lymphoma, 105t–106t, 172t–178t
Anaplastic lymphoma, missed diagnosis, 223
Anaplastic lymphoma kinase *see* ALK protein
Anatomic position, 7f
Androgen receptor, 109t–150t
Aneurysmal bone cyst, 254
  genetics, 163t–171t
Aneurysms, abdominal aortic, 305
Angell-Shiley heart valve, 300f
Angiodysplasia, colon, 345
Angiography, lung specimens, 504
Angioimmunoblastic lymphoma
  genetics, 172t–178t
  immunohistochemistry, 105t–106t
Angiomatous fibrous histiocytoma, genetics, 163t–171t
Angiomyolipoma, kidney, 391
  germline mutations, 179t–180t
Angiomyxoma, genetics, 163t–171t
Angiosarcoma, 544
  breast, grading, 285t
  immunohistochemistry panel, 80t–83t
  papillary endothelial hyperplasia vs, 223
Annular calcium, mitral valve, 292, 293f
Anterior aspect, 7f
Anterior tibial neurovascular bundle, dissection, 239
Anthracotic pigment, 17t, 206t–212t
Anthracycline cardiotoxicity, 289
Anthrax, 198, 199t–200t
Antibodies, for immunohistochemistry, 108, 109t–150t
Antigenicity of specimens
  breast carcinoma, 265
  factors affecting, 70–71
Antigens
  alternative names for, 151t–157t
  decalcification and, 24, 33
  fixation and, 21
  formalin and, 12
  for immunohistochemistry, 70, 109t–150t
  retrieval procedures, 71
Antiviral agents, postexposure HIV prophylaxis, 197
Anus, 340, 342t
  perianal Paget disease, 89t
Aorta, 305
  aneurysm, 305
Aortic valve, 291–295, 293f–294f
  function, 296t
  gross morphologic assessment, 295t
  postinflammatory scarring, rheumatic valve disease, 292
A-P resection *see* Abdominoperineal resection
APC gene, mutations, 163t–171t
Aperture iris diaphragms, microscopes, 204b
Apex, radical prostatectomy specimen, 406
Aphthous ulcers, Crohn disease, 345
Apical cores, heart, 304
ApoJ *see* Clusterin
Apolipoprotein J *see* Clusterin
Appendicitis, 357
Appendix, 340f, 342t, 355–359, 356f
  carcinoma, 357
    adenocarcinoma, 94t
    AJCC classification, 359t
    sign-out checklist, 358–359
  metastasis to ovary, immunohistochemistry, 92t
Apple-core lesion, 18t

Aprons, 201
infection precautions, 65
AR *see* Androgen receptor
Architectural grades, of uterine tumors, 436
Arenaviruses, 199t–200t
Armed Forces DNA Identification Laboratory, 33
Arrows, specimen photography, 216
Artery-to-vein anastomoses, twin placentas, 463
Arthrogryposis, 471
Arthroplasty
revision, 250–251
operating room consultations, 52, 52t
total joint, 246–251
see also Prosthetic joints; Total joint arthroplasty
Articular surfaces, 247
Asbestos fibers, 206t–212t, 506
Ascending colon, 340f, 342t
Aseptic necrosis *see* Osteonecrosis
Aspergillus spp., 186t–189t
allergic sinusitis, 473
intervertebral discs, 261
ASPL-TFE3 fusion, 163t–171t
Association of Directors of Anatomic and Surgical Pathology (ADASP), standards for reporting, 220, 225
breast carcinoma, 268
for cervix, 448
Astrocytoma, immunohistochemistry, 95t
Atherectomy specimens, 305
Atherosclerosis
coronary arteries, 301–303
lung transplants, chronic vascular rejection, 496b
'Atlantis phenomenon,', 31
Atria (heart), 301, 301f
myocardium, 304
Atypical adenoma, parathyroid, 562t, 563
Atypical carcinoid, lung, 501t
Atypical ductal hyperplasia (ADH), breast, excisional biopsy, 269
Atypical fibroxanthoma, 80t–83t
Atypical teratoid, immunohistochemistry, 95t
Atypical teratoid/rhabdoid tumor, genetics, 163t–171t
Autopsy, TB infection risk, 197
Avascular necrosis *see* Osteonecrosis
Axillary dissections, 276–279
AJCC classification, 279t
Axillary tail, mastectomy, 274

B

B1 *see* CD antigens, CD20
B2 *see* CD antigens, CD21
B4 *see* CD antigens, CD19
B5 (fixative)
liver biopsy, 362
lymph nodes, 514–516
Hodgkin disease, staging laparotomy, 522
B72.3 (tumor-associated glycoprotein), 109t–150t
BAC *see* Bronchioloalveolar carcinoma
Bacillus anthracis, 198, 199t–200t
Background positivity, immunoperoxidase studies, 72–73
Backgrounds, photography, 216
Bacteria, cultures, 185–186
BAF47/Snf5 *see* INI-1
'Bag of worms' appearance, nerve tumors, 543
Bags (specimen bags), 245
Bannayan-Riley-Ruvalcaba syndrome, 181t–183t
Barium sulfate, microscopy, 206t–212t
Barrett's esophagus, 55, 323–324, 325f
Basal cell carcinoma, 313
germline mutations, 179t–180t
Basal cell hyperplasia, diagnostic pitfalls, 222
Basaloid carcinoma, tonsil, 484
Basaloid squamous cell carcinoma, small cell carcinoma v., 102t
B-cell lymphoma 2 *see* bcl-2
B-cell neoplasms, 103t–104t, 172t–178t
B-cell Oct-binding protein 1 *see* BOB.1
B-cell specific activator protein *see* BSAP
BcI-6, 109t–150t
bcl-1 *see* Cyclin D1
bcl-2, 109t–150t
BCR-ABL fusion, 172t–178t
Beall 104 heart valve, 298f
Beall-Surgitool heart valves, 298f
Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome, 181t–183t, 471
Benign lymphoepithelial lesions, salivary glands, 480
Benign prostatic hyperplasia, 408
Ber-EP4, 109t–150t
BERH2 *see* CD antigens, CD30
Beta-2 microglobulin, 109t–150t
Beta-2 microglobulin amyloidosis
biopsy and, 550
color, 247, 260
Beta-amyloid, 109t–150t
Beta-catenin, 109t–150t
nuclear immunoreactivity, 72
Beta-HCG *see* Human chorionic gonadotropin
BG8, 109t–150t
Bicuspid heart valves, 293f
Bieer-Val heart valve, 298f
Bile, 206t–212t
stain, 67t–70t
Bile ducts
adenomas, 364
hamartomas, 364
Whipple procedure *see* Whipple procedure
Billing documentation, consultations, 40, 43
Biologic terrorism, 198
Bioprosthetic heart valves, 295, 297, 297f, 300f
pathologic analysis, 300t
Biopsy
abdominal fat pad, amyloidosis, 550
bladder, 32t–33t, 395–396
bone, 251–252
operating room consultations, 51–52
reasons, 246t
bone marrow *see* Bone marrow, biopsy
brain, 61–62, 527–530
breast *see* Breast, biopsy
cervix, 449, 449f
colon, 338, 339f *see* Colon, biopsy
dura, 530
Biopsy *(Continued)*
endometrium, 423, 424t
endomyocardial, 289–290
esophagus, 323
heart, 32t–33t
joints, reasons, 246t
kidney *see* Kidney, biopsy
liver, 360–362
Hodgkin disease staging, 522–523
pre-transplant operating room consultations, 56 *see* Liver, biopsy
lung, 60–61, 494–495, 497 *see* Lung, biopsy
mucosa, 479
muscle, 4t, 533–534
nipple, 285
oral cavity, 550
ovarian tumors, 440–444
pancreas, 372
peripheral nerve, 533
pleura, 510
prostate *see* Prostate, biopsy
rectum, 550
sarcomas, 540–541
skin *see* Skin, biopsy
small, 243, 244f
small intestine, 335 *see* Small intestine, biopsy
soft tissue tumors, operating room consultations, 62
stains and levels for, 32t–33t
stomach, 329
subungual melanoma, 322
temporal artery, 306, 306t
testis, 412, 413b *see* Testis, biopsy
see also Core biopsy
Birbeck granules, 158t–160t
Birefringence (polarizability), 205–213
crystals, 247–248
Björk-Shiley tilting disk valve, 297f–298f
BK virus, histological appearance, 190t–194t
BLA.36 *see* CD antigens, CD77
Bladder, 395–400
biopsy, 32t–33t
carcinoma, 395–400, 399t, 401t
adenocarcinoma, immunohistochemistry panel, 98t
urothelial, grading, 399t
clinical history, 384t–385t
fungal infection of, 186t–189t
inflation, 396
see also Cystectomy
Bladder neck base margin, radical prostatectomy, 406, 407f
Blastic NK-cell lymphoma, 105t–106t, 172t–178t
Blastomyces dermatitidis, 186t–189t
BL-CAM *see* CD antigens, CD22
Blocks, 29f
extraneous tissue, 33–34
frozen sections, 46–48
removal from chuck, 47–48
institutional consultations, 42
release for research, 43
see also Cell blocks
Blood, HIV infection risk, 197

Blood group antigens, immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
Blood vessels, 305–306
  invasion
    thyroid tumor, 560t
    see also Lymphovascular invasion
  lung, 498
Blood-borne viruses
  as hazards, 196–198
  postexposure prophylaxis, 197
Blue cells, crushed, lung, diagnostic pitfalls, 222
Blue dome cyst, breast, color, 17t
BOB.1, immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
Bocca neck dissection, 475
Bodian's, 67t–70t
Bone, 206t–212t, 246
  frozen sections and, 51
  fungal infection, 186t–189t
  large resections, 241–242
  operating room consultations, 51–52
  tumors
    AJCC classifications, 256t
    biopsy, 251–252
    grading, 257t
    resections, 252–258
    see also Skeletal anomalies
Bone cement, 251
Bone cyst, 254f
  see also Aneurysmal bone cyst
Bone dust artifacts, avoidance, 241, 253
Bone marrow, 513–514
  biopsy, 513–514
    stains and levels, 32t–33t
    submission, 4t
    Zenker's acetic fixative, 23
  clinical history, 513t
  lower limb dissection, 239
  rib squeeze method, 259
Borderline tumors, ovary, 442
  omental biopsy, 440
  operating room consultations, 57
  serous, 441f
Borders, in gross description, 18t
Bosselated, for gross description, 18t
Botulinum toxin, 198
  terrorism, 199t–200t
Bouin's solution, 23
  lymph nodes, 10, 518
  mordant for inks, 12
Bovine bioprosthetic heart valves, 297f
Bowel rings, 340
B-Plus (fixative), 23
  lymphoproliferative disorders, 61
  soft tissue tumors, 62
BR-2
see also Gross cystic disease fluid protein-15
Brain
  biopsy, 61–62, 527–530
  clinical history, 527t
  fetus, dissection, 469–471
  resections, 530–531
Braunwald-Cutter heart valve, 299f
BRAx mutations, breast carcinoma, 163t–171t
BRCA1, mutations, 179t–183t
BRCA2, mutations, 181t–183t
BRD4-NUT fusion, upper aerodigestive carcinoma, 163t–171t
Breast, 262
  angiosarcoma, grading, 285t
  biopsy
    operating room consultations, 53–54
    site, 267
    stains and levels, 32t–33t
    see also Core needle biopsy; Excisional biopsy, breast
  blue dome cyst, color, 17t
  calcification
  see also Calcification, breast
  carcinoma
  see also Breast carcinoma
  diagnostic pitfalls, 222
  errors, 219
  estrogen receptor evaluation, 86–87, 86t
  excisional biopsy, 263–267
  fibroblastic/myofibroblastic lesions of, 91t
  implants, 286–287
  incisional biopsy, 263
  large core needle biopsy, 262–263
  mastectomy, 272–276, 275f
  metastases, lung, 102t
  reexcisions, 270–272
  reports, example headings, 36t
  shave margins, 272
  signet ring cell carcinomas of, 90f, 90t
  tumor, marker, 84t–85t
Breast carcinoma, 265–266, 266f, 275
  adenocarcinoma, 94t
  AJCC classifications, 262t, 279t
  axillary dissections, 276–279
  ductal, 75t–76t
  genetics, 163t–171t
  germline mutations, 179t–180t
  grading, 278b, 281t–285t
  hormone receptors and HER-2/neu, 263, 265
  immunohistochemistry panel, 75t–76t
  incisional biopsy, 263
  lobular
    immunohistochemistry panel, 75t–76t
    metastases, diagnostic pitfalls, 222
  lymph nodes
    immunohistochemistry, 519–520
    sentinel, 521–522
    see also Axillary dissections
  in males, 89t
  mastectomy, 272
  measurement, 213
  myoepithelial markers, 88t
  sign-out checklists, 276–279
Brenner tumor, 75t–76t, 441
Breslow depth of invasion, melanoma, 316t
Brevity, gross descriptions, 19
Bronchi
  lung lobectomies, operating room consultations, 60
  see also Endobronchial biopsy; Transbronchial biopsy
Bronchiolitis obliterans, chronic airway rejection, 496t
Bronchioloalveolar carcinoma (BAC), 75t–76t, 102t, 158t–160t, 499, 499f
Bronchoalveolar lavage, 308–309
Bronchocentric granulomatosis, fungal infection of, 186t–189t
Brown-Brenn stain, 67t–70t
Brown-Hopps stain, 67t–70t
BRST-2 *see* Gross cystic disease fluid protein-15
BSAP, immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
Bullectomy, 497
Bullets, 526
  release from laboratory, 25
  submission, 4t
Burial, specimens, 25
Burkitt lymphoma, 103t–104t
  genetics, 172t–178t
Burkitt-like lymphoma, 103t–104t
  genetics, 172t–178t
Bypass grafts, coronary arteries, 301–303, 306

C

C cells, medullary thyroid carcinoma, 557
C3b/C4b R *see* CD antigens, CD35
CA 15-3 *see* Epithelial membrane antigen
CA 19-9, 109t–150t
CA 27.29 *see* Epithelial membrane antigen
CA 72-4 *see* B72.3
CA125, 109t–150t
Cadavers
  bioterrorism and, 198
  human immunodeficiency virus, 197
Caged ball valves, 297f, 299f
Caged disk valves, 298f
Calcification
  breast, 263
    mammographic lesions, 269
    after treatment, 273
  heart valves, 292, 293f
    prosthetic, 296
Calcified substances
  cutting, 28 *see* Decalcification
Calcitonin, 109t–150t
Calcium
  serum, hyperparathyroidism, 561t
  von Kossa stain, 67t–70t
Calcium oxalate, 206t–212t, 248
  breast calcifications, 263
Calcium phosphate, 206t–212t
  breast calcifications, 263
Calcium pyrophosphate dihydrate crystals (CPPD crystals), 206t–212t, 247–248
  arthroplasty specimens, 248
  synovium, 259–260
Calculi, gallbladder, 368
  chemical analysis, 370
Calculi (biliary) *see* Gallstones
Calculi (urinary), 403
Calculous cholecystitis, acute, 369
Caldesmon, 109t–150t
Calgranulin *see* MAC 387
Calibration, for microscopic measurement, 214, 214b
CALLA *see* CD antigens, CD10
CALP *see* Calponin
Calponin, 109t–150t
  breast carcinoma, 88t
Calprotectin *see* MAC 387
Calretinin, 101t, 109t–150t
  pleural biopsy, frozen section, 510
CAM 5.2, 109t–150t
Candida spp., 186t–189t
CAP *see* College of American Pathologists

Capsular invasion, thyroid tumors, 559, 559f
Carbohydrate antigen 19-9 *see* CA 19-9
Carbohydrates, fixation and, 21
CarboMedics (CPHV) bileaflet tilting disk valve, 297f
Carcinoembryonic antigen (CEA), 109t–150t
Carcinoid
  appendix, 357
  dense core granules, 158t–160t
  immunohistochemistry, 77t–78t
    metastases, 99t
  large cell neuroendocrine carcinoma v., 102t
  lung, 60, 102t, 499, 499f, 501t
  marker, 84t–85t
  pancreas, 379t
  small cell carcinoma v., 102t
  small intestine, 335
Carcinoma in situ *see* Ductal carcinoma in situ
Carcinomas
  adrenal gland, 229, 233t
  anal
    AJCC classifications, 356t
    grading, 355t
    sign-out checklist, 352–355
  appendix, 357
    AJCC classification, 359t
    sign-out checklist, 358–359
  breast, 263, 265–266, 266f, 275
    AJCC classifications, 279, 279t
    axillary dissections, 276–279
    grading, 278b, 281t–285t
    incisional biopsy, 263
    sign-out checklists, 276–279
  colon, 342–343, 347–349, 348f
    AJCC classification, 351, 353t–354t
    HNPCC, 343–344, 344t
    infiltrative border, 352b
    inflammatory bowel disease, 345–346, 346t, 347f
    margins, 324, 348–349
    metastases to liver, 363f
    recurrent, 348
    sign-out checklist, 350–352
  electron microscopy, 158t, 541
  esophagus
    adenocarcinoma, 324, 325f, 327t
    AJCC classification, 327, 328t
    gastrectomy specimens, 326
    after radiotherapy, 325
    sign-out checklist, 326–328
    squamous cell carcinoma, 324–325, 325f, 327t
  gallbladder, 367–369
    AJCC classifications, 334t
    grading, 370t
    sign-out checklist, 326
  hepatocellular, 362–363, 363f
    Edmondson and Steiner grading, 365t
  immunohistochemistry and, 70
  lip, 321, 321f
  lymph node staging, sign-out checklist, 521–522
  markers, 85t
  Merkel cell, AJCC classification, 320t
Carcinomas *(Continued)*
  operating room consultations
    breast, 53–54
    colon, 55
    endometrium, 57–58
    lung, 59
    pancreas, 56
    skin, 52–53
    thyroid, 62–63
  pancreas, 343, 372, 375–377
    AJCC classifications, 334t, 381
    ductal, 376f, 380t
    sign-out checklists, 332
  rectum, 347–348, 348f
    AJCC classification, 351, 353t–354t
    infiltrative border, 352b
    sign-out checklist, 350–352
  sarcomas vs, electron microscopy, 541
  skin, 313
    AJCC classifications, 315, 315t–319t
    histologic grade, 314t–315t
    sign-out checklist, 314
  small intestine, 335–336
    AJCC classification, 336, 337t
    grading, 336t
  stomach
    adenocarcinoma, 333t
    AJCC classification, 333, 334t
    diffuse type, 330, 331f
    esophagectomy specimens, 324
    intestinal type, 330, 331f
    sign-out checklist, 332–333
  thyroid, parathyroid, 561
  see also specific sites
Carcinosarcoma, uterus, 432
Cardiomyopathy, 301–302
  endomyocardial biopsy, 289–290
Cardiovascular specimen *see* Heart
Carney complex, 181t–183t
  type 2, adrenal cortex carcinoma genetics and, 163t–171t
Carney triad, 181t–183t
Carnoy's fixative, acid-fast bacilli and, 67t–70t
Carpal tunnel syndrome, release specimens, 260
Carpentier-Edwards bovine bioprosthetic heart valve, 297f, 300f
Cartilage, rib, 258
Caseous necrosis, 18t
Cassettes, 29f
  gross descriptions, 15
  identification of tissue, 31–33
  lost specimens, 12–13
Catheters, 2
Caudal aspect, 7f
Caudal-related homeobox transcription factor *see* CDX2
Cavitron Ultrasonic Surgical Aspirator (CUSA), specimens, 530
C-cell hyperplasia, thyroid gland, 559
CD antigens
  CD1a, 109t–150t
  CD2, 109t–150t
  CD3, 109t–150t
  CD4, 109t–150t
  CD5, 84t–85t, 109t–150t
  CD7, 109t–150t
  CD8, 109t–150t
CD antigens *(Continued)*
  CD10, 109t–150t
    breast carcinoma, 88t
  CD11b, 109t–150t
  CD11c, 109t–150t
  CD13, 109t–150t
  CD15 (LeuM1), 109t–150t
    internal control, 71
  CD16, 109t–150t
  CD19, 109t–150t
  CD20, 109t–150t
  CD21, 109t–150t
  CD22, 109t–150t
  CD23, 109t–150t
  CD25, 109t–150t
  CD30, 109t–150t
  CD31, 109t–150t
    internal control, 71
  CD33, 109t–150t
  CD34, 109t–150t
    liver tumors, 99t
  CD35, 109t–150t
  CD38, 109t–150t
  CD43, 109t–150t
  CD44v3 (variant 3), 109t–150t
  CD45 (leukocyte common antigen or LCA), 109t–150t
    as lymphoma marker, 85t
  CD45RA, 109t–150t
  CD45RO, 109t–150t
  CD56, 109t–150t
    T-cell neoplasms, 105t-106t
  CD57, 109t–150t
  CD61, 109t–150t
  CD63, 109t–150t
  CD66e *see* Carcinoembryonic antigen
  CD68, 109t–150t
  CD74, 109t–150t
  CD77, 109t–150t
  CD79a, 109t–150t
  CD79b, 109t–150t
  CD95, 109t–150t
  CD99, 109t–150t
  CD103, 109t–150t
  CD117 (c-kit), 97t, 109t–150t
    internal control, 71
    as marker, 84t–85t
    mastocytosis, 172t–178t
    renal carcinomas, genetics, 163t–171t
  CD123, 109t–150t
  CD138, 109t–150t
  CD141, 109t–150t
  CD146, 109t–150t
  CD147, chaperoning monocarboxylase transporter 1, 158t–160t
  CD163, 109t–150t
  CD207, 109t–150t
  CD246 *see* ALK protein
CDK4, 109t–150t
CDKN2 *see* p16
CDKN2A deletion, 163t–171t
CDP *see* Gross cystic disease fluid protein-15
CDw75, 109t–150t
CDX2 (CDX-88), 109t–150t
CDX-88 *see* CDX2
CEA *see* Carcinoembryonic antigen
Cecum, 342t
  solitary diverticulum, 345, 357

Cell blocks, 308–309
Cell surface marker analysis, indications, 184
Cellular mesoblastic nephroma, 390
  cytogenetics, 390
Cellulitis, necrotizing fasciitis vs, operating room consultations, 53
Centers for Disease Control (CDC), biologic terrorism and, 198, 199t–200t
Central insertion, placental membranes, 461f
Central neurocytoma, immunohistochemistry, 95t
Centrifugation, cell blocks, 308
Cephalic aspect, 7f
c-erb B2 *see* HER-2/neu
Cerebrospinal fluid, storage for cytology, 309
Cervical lymph nodes, thyroid inclusions, 63
Cervix, 448–453
  carcinoma
    endometrial carcinoma vs, 92t
    grading, 451t
    radical hysterectomy, 429–431
    reporting, 435–436
    sign-out checklist, 450–453
    squamous cell carcinoma, 75t–76t, 450
  clinical history, 448t
  microscopy, 426, 428
Cetuximab, 163t–171t
  colorectal carcinoma, 163t–171t
Charcot-Leyden crystals, 206t–212t
Checklists
  malignant tumors, 36
  sign-out, 37, 225
    see also under specific conditions
Chemicals, disposal, 24
Chemotherapy
  bone resection, 242, 253–255, 258t
  clinical history of, 3
  Miller-Payne grading system, 283t
  RCB grading system, 284t
Chest wall
  mesothelioma invasion, 506
  see also Ribs
Chicken fat (food analogy), 18t
Chloroacetate esterase, 67t–70t
Chloroma, color, 17t
Chocolate cyst, 18t
see also Endometriotic cyst
Cholangiocarcinoma, 363–364
  grading, 365t
  immunohistochemistry, 74t, 99t
Cholecystectomy, laparoscopic, 366
Cholecystitis, 367, 369
Cholesterol, microscopy, 206t–212t
Cholesterolosis, gallbladder, 18t, 367
Chondroblastoma, 80t–83t, 254f
Chondrocalcinosis
  arthroplasty specimens, 248
  color, 17t, 247
  CPPD crystals, 206t–212t, 247–248
  synovium, 259–260
Chondroid hamartoma, pulmonary, 500
Chondromyxoid fibroma, 254f
  genetics, 163t–171t
Chondrosarcoma, 254, 254f
  differentiation score, 548t–549t
  grading, 257t
Chorangioma, 464
Chordae tendineae, 291
Chordoma, 75t–76t, 158t–160t
Chorioamnionitis, 463
Choriocarcinoma, 433
  immunohistochemistry, 93t, 96t
  testis, 414
  see also Gestational trophoblastic tumors
Choroid, melanoma, 532
Choroid plexus
  carcinoma, genetics, 163t–171t
  immunohistochemistry, 95t
  immunohistochemistry panel, 75t–76t
Chromaffin reaction, adrenal masses, 228
Chromoblastomycosis, fungal infection, 186t–189t
Chromogranin(s), 158t–160t
  carcinoid, 84t–85t
  paraganglioma, 536
Chromogranin A, 109t–150t
Chromophobe renal cell carcinoma, 388
  genetics, 163t–171t
Chronic airway rejection, 496t
Chronic cholecystitis, 369
Chronic eosinophilic leukemia, genetics, 172t–178t
Chronic eosinophilic leukemia/hypereosinophilic syndrome, genetics, 172t–178t
Chronic lymphocytic leukemia, ribs, 258
  diagnostic pitfalls, 223
Chronic lymphocytic lymphoma, genetics, 172t–178t
Chronic myelocytic leukemia (CML), 172t–178t
  genetics, 172t–178t
  spleen, 523
Chronic myelomonocytic leukemia with eosinophilia, genetics, 172t–178t
Chronic pancreatitis, 377
Chronic vascular rejection, lung transplants, 496b
Chronic viral hepatitis, grading and staging, 361t
Circumcision, 321–322
Circummarginate insertion, placental membranes, 460, 461f
Circumvallate insertion, placental membranes, 460, 461f
Cirrhosis
  color, 17t
  micronodular, 363f
c-kit *see* CD antigens, CD117
Clark level, melanoma, 317t
Claudin-1 (CLDN1), 80t–83t, 109t–150t
CLDN1 *see* Claudin-1
Cleaning
  infection precautions, 65
  microscopes and slides, 214–215
Clear cell adenocarcinoma, gynecology, grading, 435–436
Clear cell carcinoma
  diethylstilbestrol and, 448t
  kidney, 98t, 388, 388f
    adrenal metastases, 97t
    genetics, 163t–171t
Clear cell carcinoma *(Continued)*
  ovary, 92t, 442
    sign-out checklist, 443–444
Clear cell sarcoma, 158t–160t
  genetics, 163t–171t
  immunohistochemistry panel, 80t–83t
  kidney, 390
Clearing, 28
Cleft palate/lip, 471
Clinical history, 3–5, 225
  bladder, 395t
  brain, 527t
  cervix, 448t
  chemotherapy, 3
  drugs, 3–5
  errors and, 221
  immunocompromise, 3
  kidney, 384t–385t
  larynx, 489t
  lung, 494t
  mastectomy, 272
  operating room consultations, 46, 51
  ovary, 437t
  paraganglioma, 535t
  parathyroid glands, 561t
  placenta, 458–460
  pregnancy, 3
  prostate, 403t
  radiotherapy, 3
  sarcomas, 540t
  skin, 310t
  testis, 412t
  thymus, 551t
  tonsils, 485t
  treatment, 3
  uterus, 423t
  vagina, 453t
Clinical trials, reporting and, 35
Clinicians
  errors and, 219–221
  identification of, 2–3
Clippings, nails, 322
Clitoris, fetus, 471
Clostridium botulinum, 199t–200t
Clusterin, 109t–150t
CML *see* Chronic myelocytic leukemia
CMV *see* Cytomegalovirus
Coatings, slides, immunohistochemistry, 71
Coccidioides spp., 186t–189t
Coccidioides immitis, as hazard, 196b
COL1A1-PDGFB fusion, 163t–171t
Collagen, 206t–212t
Collagen IV, 109t–150t
Collecting duct carcinoma, 389
College of American Pathologists (CAP)
  gastric adenocarcinoma grading, 333t
  guidelines for retention of tissues, 24
  retention of gross specimens, 5t
  specimens not needing histology, 420
  standards for reporting, 220, 225
    for cervix, 448
    skin carcinoma, 314
Colloidal iron, 67t–70t
Colon, 337–355
  biopsy, 338, 339f
    stains and levels, 32t–33t
  carcinoma, 342–343, 347–349, 348f
    adenocarcinoma, 74t, 94t
    AJCC classification, 351, 353t–354t

Colon *(Continued)*
beta-catenin, 72
genetics, 163t–171t
germline mutations, 179t–180t
hereditary nonpolyposis syndrome, 181t–183t
HNPCC, 343–344, 344t
infiltrative border, 352b
inflammatory bowel disease, 345–346, 346t, 347f, 350
margins, 326, 348–349
metastases
to liver, 363f
lung, 102t
ovary, 92t
photography, 216
recurrent, 348
diverticulosis, 344–345, 344f, 349–350
identifying segments, 338–355, 340f–341f, 342t
inflammatory bowel disease, 345–346, 346t, 347f, 350
measurement of specimen, 16
operating room consultations, 55
polyposis syndromes, 346
reports, example headings, 36t
rupture, plant material microscopy, 206t–212t
Colors
bone and joint specimens, 247
prostate carcinoma, 405
small biopsies, 244
adrenal gland, 228
of specimens, 17, 17t
Commissures, heart valves, 291
Common acute leukemia antigen *see* CD antigens, CD10
Common bile duct, Whipple procedure, 374–382, 374f
Communication, of urgent results, 38–39
Complement lysis inhibitor *see* Clusterin
Complete mole, 93t
Complex cysts, ovary, 437, 439
Condensers, microscopes, 204
Cone biopsy, cervix, 449, 449f
Confidentiality, research and, 43
Congestion, color, 17
Congo red, 67t–70t, 206t–212t
amyloidosis, 289–290
Conn syndrome, 228–229
spironolactone bodies, 206t–212t
Consistency, specimens, 17
Consultations
billing documentation, 40, 43
frozen sections and, 40
institutional, 41–42
minimizing errors, 220
reporting, 35–38, 40
for special studies, 41
see also Operating room consultations
Containers
disposal, 24
infection precautions, 65
specimen transport, 5
empty, 12
Contamination, cryostats, 65
Contrast (optical), microscopy, 204
Contrast media (radiographic), thorotrast, microscopy, 206t–212t
Controls, immunohistochemistry, 71
Cooley-Cutter heart valve, 298f
Copper metabolism disease, liver special studies, 362
submission of specimens, 4t
Cord lipomas, 487, 541–542
Core biopsy
osteonecrosis, 251
see also Prostate, biopsy
Core needle biopsy, breast
histological processing, 32t–33t
large, 262–263
mastectomy after, 273
Cornea, 531–532
Cornstarch, microscopy, 206t–212t
Coronal section, 7f
Coronary arteries, 301–303, 301f
Coronary artery bypass grafts, 301–303, 306
Corpora albicantia, 440
Corpora amylacea, 206t–212t
Corpus luteum, 440
Cost, microscopy, 20
Cost-benefit analysis, specimens not needing histology and, 421
Cotton fibers, microscopy, 206t–212t
Coverslips, 215
Cowden syndrome, 181t–183t
CPPD crystals *see* Calcium pyrophosphate dihydrate crystals
CR1 *see* CD antigens, CD35
Cranial arteritis (temporal arteritis), scoring system, 306t
Craniopharyngioma, 75t–76t
Creeping substitution, Crohn disease, 345, 346t
Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease, 527t
as hazard, 196b, 198, 528
return of specimens to patients and, 21
special studies, 528
specimen fixation and, 198, 528
"Critical values," communication of, 38–39
Crohn disease, 345–346, 346t, 347f
operating room consultations, 55
Cross-Jones heart valve, 298f
Crown-rump length, placental weight vs, 464, 465t
Crushed blue cells, lung, diagnostic pitfalls, 222
Cryostats
contamination, 65
infection hazard and, 201
Cryptococcus neoformans, 186t–189t
Cryptosporidium, as hazard, 196b
Crystals, 206t–212t, 247–249
breast calcifications, 263
calcium oxalate, 248
CPPD, 247–248
dihydrate (CPPD), 206t–212t
synovium, 259–260
uric acid, 206t–212t, 247–248
Culture, infectious organisms, 185–186, 185t
Culture of safety (Sirota), 218, 218t
Curettings
bone lesions, 52
bone tumor, 251–252
endometrium, 423, 424t
skin, 312
Currant jelly (food analogy), 18t
CUSA *see* Cavitron Ultrasonic Surgical Aspirator
Cushing syndrome, 228–229
Cusps, heart valves, 291
Cyclin D1, 109t–150t
Cyclin-dependent kinase 4 *see* CDK4
Cyst(s)
adrenal, 230
breast, 267
endometriotic, 441
color, 17t
epidermal inclusion, 313
ovary, 436
follicular, 440
operating room consultations, 57
see also Dermoid cyst
pericoronal, 484
safety precautions, 201–202, 438
tubal, 446
see also specific types
Cystadenocarcinoma *see* Mucinous cystic tumors
Cystadenomas
ovary, 441f
see also Mucinous cystic tumors
Cystectomy, 396–400, 397f
operating room consultations, 57
Cystic fibrosis antigen *see* MAC 387
Cystic kidney disease, 390
acquired, 386, 391t
Cystic lesions, pancreas, 373, 376f, 377
pseudocyst, 377
Cystine, calculi, 403
Cytogenetics, 162–184
adrenal tumors, 228
bone biopsy, 252
carcinoma, 101t
fixation and, 22
lipomas, 541–542
lymphoproliferative disorders, 515
pediatric renal tumors, 389b
placenta, 463
sarcoma biopsy, 541
soft tissue tumors, specimen preparation, 62
submission of specimens, 4t, 184
Cytokeratin(s) (keratins)
immunohistochemistry, 71, 109t–150t
malignant cells, 519–520
melanoma markers, 85t
sarcoma, 158t
Cytokeratin 5/6, 109t–150t
Cytokeratin 7
with cytokeratin 20, 73, 74t–78t, 84
immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
Cytokeratin 14, immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
Cytokeratin 20
with cytokeratin 7, 73, 74t–78t, 84
immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
Cytology, 308
analytical *see* Flow cytometry
intraoperative, 48–49
laparoscopic nephrectomy, retrieval bag washings, 387
lymph nodes, operating room consultations, 61
thyroid carcinoma, 63

Cytomegalovirus (CMV), histological appearance, 109t–150t
Cytoplasmic immunoreactivity, 71, 72f

D

D2-40, 109t–150t
D5 *see* MITF
Dacron
  graft material, 306
  microscopy, 206t–212t
DALM *see* Dysplasia-associated lesion or mass
Dates, of procedures producing specimens, 3
Dating, endometrium, Noyes Criteria, 424t
DBA.44, immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
DCIS *see* Ductal carcinoma in situ
Debakey-Surgitool, 299f
Decalcification, 23–24
  amputations, 238
  antigens and, 33
  bone biopsy, 252–253
  bone marrow biopsy, 513–514
  immunogenicity and, 70–71
  large resections, 241
  ribs, 258–259
Decidualized endometrium, placental villi vs, 59t
Decompression, osteonecrosis, 251
Deep aspect, 7f
Deferred diagnoses, operating room consultations, 49, 51
Degeneration, heart valves, 292, 293f, 296t
Degenerative joint disease, 249
  arthroplasty specimens, 248
Dehydration
  hematoxylin and eosin technique, frozen sections, 48
  histologic processing, 28
Demyelinating diseases, peripheral nerves, 533
Dendritic cells, immunohistochemistry of melanoma, 317t
Dense core granules, 158t–160t
Dentate line, anus, 340
Dermatiaceous fungi, 186t–189t
Dermatitis herpetiformis, immunofluorescence, 161
Dermatofibroma, 80t–83t
Dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans (DFSP), 80t–83t, 163t–171t
Dermatopathology *see* Skin
Dermatophytes, 186t–189t
Dermoid cyst
  ovary, 441
    operating room consultations, 57
  testis tumors, 414
  see also Teratomas
Descending colon, 340f, 342t
Desmin, 109t–150t
Desmoplastic melanoma, diagnostic pitfalls, 222
Desmoplastic mesothelioma
  diagnostic pitfalls, 222
  fibrosing pleuritis vs, 510
Desmoplastic response, 17
Desmoplastic small round cell tumor, 79t, 158t–160t, 163t–171t
Detritic synovitis, 250–251, 260
DF3 *see* Epithelial membrane antigen
DFSP *see* Dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans
DFSP (dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans), 163t–171t
Diagnosis
  vs description, 19, 19t
  errors and pitfalls, 219–221
    lung lesions, 60, 222
  gross descriptions and, 13
  infections, 185–186
  institutional consultations, 41–42
  operating room consultations, 49–50
    deferred, 57, 62
  prior to pathology request, 3
  reporting, 36–37, 36t
  revision, 37–38
  rush, 4–5
Diagrams, with gross descriptions, 13
Dialysis-associated amyloidosis, 107t
Dialysis-related amyloidosis, 260
  see also Beta-2 microglobulin amyloidosis
Diamniotic twin placentas, 460–464, 462f
Diaphragm, margins, 507
Dichorionic twin placentas, 460–464, 462f
Dieterle, 67t–70t
Diethylstilbestrol
  clear cell carcinoma and, 448t
  Fallopian tubes and, 446
Differential diagnosis, gross, 225
Diff-Quik stain, 67t–70t
  intraoperative cytology, 49
Diffuse type gastric carcinoma, 330, 331f
Diffuse type giant cell tumor, 247, 260
  diagnostic pitfalls, 223
Digital images, processing, 215
Digits, amputations, 238
Dilaminar multiple gestation placentas, 460–464
Dilated cardiomyopathy, 302
Direct immunofluorescence, 161
Discovered on GIST-1 *see* DOG1
Discrepancies
  breast pathology, 219
  gross descriptions, 13
  operating room consultations, 50–51
  second reviews, 41–42
  see also Errors
Discs, intervertebral, 260–261
Disposal
  biological materials, 201–202
    gross specimens, 5, 24
  chemicals, 24
  sharps, 24
Dissection, 10, 13
  aortic, 305
  axillary, 276–279
    AJCC classification, 279t
  breast ducts, 285
  fetus, 468–469
  lower extremity, 239–241, 240f
  neck, 475–479
  for photography, 215
  retroperitoneal lymph nodes, 416
Distal aspect, 7f
Distal pancreatectomy, 372–374, 372f
Distal urethral margin, radical prostatectomy specimen, 406
Distant metastases
  anal adenocarcinoma, 356t
  breast carcinoma, 262t, 279t
  colon carcinoma, 350, 353t–354t
  esophagus carcinoma, 323t, 328t
  melanoma, 311, 318t
  pancreatic carcinoma, 381
  skin carcinoma, 314, 315t–319t
  small intestine carcinoma, 337t
  stomach carcinoma, 334t
Diverticula
  Meckel's, 336–337
  solitary cecal, 345, 357
  Zenker's, 336–337
Diverticulosis, 344–345, 344f, 349–350
DNA
  fixation and, 21–22
  lymphoproliferative disorders, 515
  see also Ploidy analysis
Documentation, gross descriptions and, 13
DOG1, 109t–150t
Dorsal aspect, 7f
Dorsalis pedis artery, 239
DPB *see* CD antigens, CD45RA
DPC4
  gene mutations, 163t–171t
  immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
Drugs
  of abuse, 526
  clinical history, 3–5
Duct dissection, nipple, 285
Ductal adenocarcinoma, pancreas, 376f
Ductal carcinoma, breast, immunohistochemistry panel, 75t–76t
Ductal carcinoma in situ (DCIS), breast, 266, 266f, 269
  diagnostic pitfalls, 222
  estrogen receptors, 86
  excisional biopsy, 269
  HER-2/neu, 87
  myoepithelial markers, 88t
  nuclear grades, 283t
  operating room consultations, 53–54
  reexcisions, 270
  sign-out checklists, 276–279
Duodenectomy *see* Whipple procedure
Duodenum *see* Whipple procedure
Dura, biopsy of, 530
Dysplasia-associated lesion or mass (DALM), inflammatory bowel disease, 345

E

E2 antigen *see* CD antigens, CD99
Ear, stapes, 484
EBERS *see* EBV-encoded nonpolyadenylated early RNAs
EBNA 2, immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
Eburnation, 247–248
  for gross description, 18t
EBV *see* Epstein-Barr virus
EBV-encoded nonpolyadenylated early RNAs, 109t–150t
E-cadherin, 109t–150t
Ectopic pregnancy, 466
  tubal, 446
Edema, fetus, 471
Edge artifact, immunoperoxidase studies, 71

Edmondson and Steiner grading, hepatocellular carcinoma, 365t
EDTA, antigenicity and, 70–71
Edwards-Duromedics heart valve, 298f
EGFR *see* Epidermal growth factor receptor
EIC *see* Extensive intraductal component
Elastic laminae, pleura, 502f
Elastic stains, 67t–70t
Electron microscopy (EM), 157
  cells, tumors, and structures, 158t–160t
  endomyocardial biopsy, 289
  mesothelioma vs lung carcinoma, 101t
  peripheral nerves, 533
  poorly differentiated tumors, 158t
  sarcomas, 541
  soft tissue tumors, specimen preparation, 62
Ellipse biopsy, stains and levels for, 32t–33t
Ellipses, skin, 53, 312–319
Elston-Ellis modification, Scarff-Bloom-Richardson grading system, breast carcinoma, 281t, 326
EM *see* Electron microscopy
EM ACT (HHF-35), 109t–150t
EMA *see* Epithelial membrane antigen
Embedding of tissues, 30
  frozen sections, 47
  orientation, 30–31
Emboli, breast carcinoma, 278b
Embryonal carcinoma
  immunohistochemistry panel, 75t–76t, 96t
  testis, 414
Embryonal rhabdomyosarcoma, genetics, 163t–171t
Embryonal sarcoma, 364
Embryos, 467–468
E-MEL *see* HMB-45
Emergencies, peritonitis, diverticular disease, 345
Emphysema, 498
En face margins, 11–12, 11f
Encapsulated follicular lesion, thyroid gland, 556f
Encephalitis, brain biopsy, 528
Enchondroma, 254, 254f
Endarterectomy specimens, 305
Endobronchial biopsy, 494
  stains and levels, 32t–33t
Endocarditis, 292, 293f, 296t
Endocrine tumors
  pancreas, 376, 376f, 379t–380t
    WHO classification, 380t
  see also Neuroendocrine tumors
Endodermal sinus tumor, testis, 414
Endometrial carcinoma, 432
  cervix carcinoma vs, 92t
  immunohistochemistry panel, 75t–76t
  operating room consultations, 57–58
  reporting, 436
  sign-out checklist, 433
  staging classifications, 434t–445t
Endometrial stromal sarcoma, 80t–83t, 163t–171t, 432, 436
  leiomyosarcoma vs, 92t
Endometrioid carcinoma
  grading, 436
  ovary
    immunohistochemistry, 92t
    sign-out checklist, 443–444
Endometrioid neoplasms, ovary, 442
Endometrioma *see* Endometriotic cyst
Endometriosis
  appendix, 357
  Fallopian tube, 426
  hernia sacs, 487
Endometriotic cyst, 441
  color, 17t
Endometrium
  biopsy, 423, 424t
  dating, Noyes Criteria, 424t
  decidualized, placental villi vs, 59t
  gross differential diagnosis, 432–433
  microscopy, 426, 430
  specimens, 466
  tumors
    hysterectomy, 427–429
    see also Endometrial carcinoma; Endometrial stromal sarcoma
Endomyocardial biopsy, 289–290
Endophytic
  for gross description, 18t
  tongue and oral tumors, 476f
Endosalpingiosis, 444
Endoscopic sinus surgery, functional, 473
Endothelial cells, 158t–160t
Endothelial cell antigen *see* HECA-452
Endotracheal tubes, 2
Enteropathy-type T-cell lymphoma, 105t–106t, 172t–178t
Entire specimen submitted (ESS), 15
Environmental exposure, infectious agents, 197t
Eosin, hematoxylin and eosin technique, frozen sections, 48
Ependymoma, immunohistochemistry, 95t
Epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR)
  colon carcinoma, 163t–171t
  immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
  mutations, lung adenocarcinoma, 84t–85t, 163t–171t
Epidermal inclusion cyst, 313
Epidermoid cysts, testis tumors, 414
Epididymis, 413–416
  in hernia sac, 487
Epiploic appendages, colon segments, 340f, 342t
Epithelial membrane antigen (EMA)
  carcinomas, 158t
  immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
Epithelial mesothelioma, lung adenocarcinoma vs, 101, 101t
Epithelial specific antigen *see* Ber-EP4
Epithelioid hemangioendothelioma, 80t–83t, 163t–171t
Epithelioid sarcoma
  genetics, 163t–171t
  immunohistochemistry panel, 77t–78t, 80t–83t
Epithelioid trophoblastic tumor, 93t
Epstein-Barr virus (EBV)
  histological appearance, 184
  see also EBNA 2; EBV-encoded nonpolyadenylated early RNAs; LMP-1 (latent membrane protein)
ER *see* Estrogen receptors
Errors, 219–221
Erysipelas, necrotizing fasciitis vs, operating room consultations, 53
ESA *see* Ber-EP4
Esophagectomy, 324–328, 325f
  operating room consultations, 54–55
Esophagus, 323–328
  biopsy, 323
  carcinoma, 15
    adenocarcinoma, 74t, 324, 325f, 327t
    AJCC classification, 327, 328t
    gastrectomy specimens, 326
    after radiotherapy, 325
    sign-out checklist, 326–328
    squamous cell carcinoma, 77t–78t, 324–325, 325f, 327t
  esophagectomy, 324–328, 325f
  fungal infection of, 186t–189t
ESS *see* Entire specimen submitted
Essential thrombocythemia, genetics, 172t–178t
Esthesioneuroblastoma, 79t
Estrogen receptors (ER)
  breast carcinoma, 84t–85t, 86–87, 265
  evaluation of, 86–87, 86t
  immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
    internal control for, 71
Ethanol (laboratory chemical)
  disposal, 24
  specimen preparation for photography, 215
Ethics, research, 43
ETV6-NTRK3 fusion, 163t–171t
Ewing's sarcoma, 158t–160t
  differentiation score, 548t–549t
  genetics, 163t–171t
  immunohistochemistry panel, 79t
  resection, 253–255, 254f
  treatment response grades, 258t
Ewing's sarcoma marker *see* CD antigens, CD99
Excisional biopsy, breast, 263–267
  mammographic lesions with wire localization, 268–270
  palpable masses, 264–267
Excisions
  lip, 321, 321f
  skin (large), 319–320
Excrescence, for gross description, 18t
Exfoliation, skin, frozen sections, 53
Exophytic
  for gross description, 18t
  tongue and oral tumors, 476f
Expert consultants, legal cases, 42
Extensive intraductal component (EIC), breast carcinoma, 262t
Extracapsular invasion, lymph node metastases, 522
Extracellular immunoreactivity, 72f
Extraneous tissue, 33–34
Extranodal lymphoma, 522
Extranodal NK/T-cell lymphoma, nasal type, 106t, 172t–178t
Extrapleural pneumonectomy, 505–510
  operating room consultations, 62
Extraprostatic extension, prostate carcinoma, 186t–189t
Extraskeletal myxoid chondrosarcoma, 80t–83t, 163t–171t

Extraskeletal osteosarcoma, differentiation score, 548t–549t
Eye protection, infection precautions, 65
Eyepieces, 204
  reticles, 214
Eyes, 531–532

F

Face masks, infection precautions, 65
Factor VIII, internal control for immunohistochemistry, 71
Factor VIII-related antigen, 109t–150t
Factor XIIIa, 109t–150t
Fading, chromogens, 73
Falcon tubes, fine needle aspirations, 309
Fallopian tubes, 444–448
  microscopy
    cervical carcinoma, 430–431
    microscopy, 426, 428
  ovarian specimens, 443
  secondary carcinoma, 446
  tumor staging classifications, 462f
False knots, umbilical cord, 460
Familial adenomatous polyposis, 181t–183t
Familial medullary thyroid carcinoma, 181t–183t
  prophylactic thyroidectomy, 557, 559
Familial nephrolithiasis, 391t
Family history, neuropathology, 527t
Fasciitis, operating room consultations, 53
Fascin, 109t–150t
Fast myosin, 109t–150t
Fat
  microvesicular, liver biopsy, 362
  see also Lipids
Fatty change, liver, pregnancy, 362
Fatty tissues
  frozen sections, 46
  histologic processing, 28–30
Fédération Nationale des Centres de Lutte Contre le Cancer (FNCLCC)
  sarcoma grading, 546, 547t–548t
  tumor differentiation score, 548t–549t
Feminization, adrenal adenomas, 228–229
Femoral head, 249–250
  decalcification, 23–24
Ferruginous bodies, 206t–212t
FESS *see* Functional endoscopic sinus surgery
Fetal death, Massachusetts law, 466
Fetus, 467t, 468–470, 488
  hydrops fetalis, 93t
  sign-out checklist, 471–472
Fetus papyraceus, 460, 463
Fibrin stains, 67t–70t
Fibroadenoma, breast, 266, 266f, 284t
Fibrocystic changes, breast, 267
Fibroepithelial polyp, 313
Fibrolamellar hepatocellular carcinoma, 99t, 363, 363f
Fibroma, ovary, 442
Fibromatosis, 91t
  desmoid, genetics, 163t–171t
  immunohistochemistry panel, 80t–83t
Fibromyxoid sarcoma, low grade, genetics, 163t–171t
Fibronectin, 109t–150t
Fibrosarcoma
  differentiation score, 548t–549t
  immunohistochemistry panel, 80t–83t
  infantile, genetics, 163t–171t
  ovary, 442
Fibrosing pleuritis, desmoplastic mesothelioma vs, 510
Fibrous dysplasia, 253–254, 254f
Fibroxanthoma, atypical, immunohistochemistry panel, 80t–83t
Field diameters, microscopy, 213
Field diaphragms, microscopes, 204b
FIGO classifications
  carcinomas
    cervix, 434t
    endometrium, 434t–445t, 436
    ovary, 445t
    vagina, 434t
  Fallopian tube tumors, 462f
Filoviruses, 199t–200t
Fimbriated, for gross description, 18t
Fine needle aspiration (FNA), 309
  institutional consultations, 42
  intraoperative cytology specimens, 49
  thyroid carcinoma, operating room consultations, 63
Fingernails, 322
Fingers, amputations, 238
FIP1L1-PDGFRalpha fusion, 172t–178t
Fish-mouth stenosis, 18t
Fite-Faraco stain, 67t–70t
Fixation, 21–24
  bone biopsy, 252–253
  on breast carcinoma antigenicity, 265
  calcification and, 263
  by clinicians, 5
  disposal of chemicals, 24
  for electron microscopy, 157
  fine needle aspirations, 309
  frozen sections after, 48
  gout and, 4t
  histological processing and, 30
  immunogenicity and, 70–71
  infection hazard and, 201
    Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease, 21, 198, 528
  lymph nodes, 514–516, 518
  molecular genetics and, 161–162
  return of specimens to patient, 24–25
  studies, 541
  time recorded, 3
  urinary calculi and, 403
  see also specific fixatives
FLI-1 (Friend leukemia integrin site 1), 109t–150t
Floaters (extraneous tissue), 33–34
Flow cytometry, 184
  bladder carcinoma, 400
  breast carcinoma, 265
  breast masses, 265
  fixation and, 22
  lymph nodes, operating room consultations, 61
  lymphoproliferative disorders, 514–515
  pediatric renal tumors, 389b
  submission of specimens, 4t
Fluids, consistency descriptions, 18t
Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH), HER-2/neu, breast carcinoma, 87, 87t, 263, 265
FMC 29 *see* CD antigens, CD99
FMC7, immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
FNA *see* Fine needle aspiration
FNCLCC *see* Fédération Nationale des Centres de Lutte Contre le Cancer
FNH *see* Focal nodular hyperplasia
Focal glandular atypia, prostate biopsy, 404
Focal nodular hyperplasia (FNH), liver, 362, 363f
Foci (lymphoid aggregates), lip biopsy, 479
Follicular adenoma, thyroid, immunohistochemistry panels, 100t
Follicular carcinoma, thyroid, 557, 558
  encapsulated, 556f
  genetics, 163t–171t
  immunohistochemistry, 75t–76t, 84t–85t, 100t
  operating room consultations, 63
Follicular cyst, ovary, 440
Follicular lymphoma
  B-cell, 103t–104t
  genetics, 172t–178t
  grading, 516t
Fontana-Masson stain, 67t–70t
Food analogies, gross descriptions, 18t
Food consumption, laboratory hazard, 65, 201–202
Foot length, gestational age vs, fetus, 467t
Footplates, microscope slides, 215
Foreign bodies, 2, 526
Foreign materials, 525
  joint prostheses, 251
  microscopy, 206t–212t
Foreskin, 321–322
Formalin, 22, 206t–212t
  calcification and, 263
  Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease, 198, 528
  disposal, 24
  frozen sections of fixed specimens, 48
  immunogenicity and, 70
  infection hazard and, 201
  lymphoproliferative disorders, 61
  return of specimens to patient, 25
  studies, 541
  see also Quick-fix formalin
Formalin pigment, malaria pigment vs, 206t–212t
Formats, gross descriptions, 13–15
Formic acid, Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease, 198, 528
Fractures, hip, 250
Fragmented specimens
  biopsies, 243, 244f
  frozen sections, 46–48, 50
  histologic processing, 30, 33
  measurement, 16
Francisella tularensis, 199t–200t
Freezing
  muscle biopsy, 533–534
  sarcoma biopsy, 541
  see also Frozen sections; Snap freezing
Freezing artifact
  diagnostic pitfalls, 222
  see also Ice crystal artifact
Friable, for gross description, 18t
Friend leukemia integrin site 1 *see* FLI-1

Frozen sections, 45
accuracy, 50–51
breast biopsy, 54
colon, 55
inappropriate, 45–46
infection hazard, 47, 65, 201
lymphoproliferative disorders, 514–515
peripheral nerves, 533
pleural biopsy, 510
products of conception, 58
radial sclerosing lesions of breast and, 267
report headings, 37
sentinel lymph nodes, 54
skin lesions, 52, 310
soft tissue tumors, 62
specimen processing, 46–49
submission of specimens, 4t
thyroid carcinoma, 63
Fuhrman nuclear grading system, renal cell carcinoma, 393t
Functional endoscopic sinus surgery (FESS), 473
Functional neck dissection, 475
Fungi, histological appearance, 67t–70t
Furcate insertion, umbilical cord, 460
Fused twin placentas, 460–464, 462f
FVIII:RAg *see* Factor VIII-related antigen

G

Gal-3 *see* Galectin-3
Galectin-3, 109t–150t
Gallbladder, 366–370
carcinoma, 367–369
AJCC classifications, 334t
grading, 370t
sign-out checklist, 326
strawberry, 18t, 367
Gallstones, 368
case of ingestion, 25
chemical analysis, 370
return to patient, 25, 368
Gamna-Gandy nodules, 206t–212t
Ganglioglioma, immunohistochemistry, 95t
Ganglion cells, immunohistochemistry of melanoma, 317t
Ganglioneuroblastoma, adrenal, 229
Shimada classification, 232, 232f
Ganglioneuroma, adrenal, 229
Gangrene, gallbladder, 367, 369
Gardner syndrome, 181t–183t
Gastrectomy, 329–333
operating room consultations, 54–55
partial *see* Whipple procedure
Gastric, adenocarcinoma, 74t
Gastric lymph nodes, pancreatic carcinoma, 380
Gastrinoma, 379t
Gastroesophageal junction, 326
carcinoma, 326
gastrectomy specimens, 326
Gastrointestinal stromal tumor (GIST), 84t–85t, 163t–171t, 331, 543–544
AJCC classification for, 550t
risk stratification of, 549t
Gastrointestinal tract, 323
appendix, 340f, 342t, 355–359, 356f
carcinoma, 357–359, 359t
Gastrointestinal tract *(Continued)*
colon, 337–355
biopsy, 338, 339f
carcinoma, 326, 342–351, 344t–346t, 347f–348f, 352b, 353t–354t
diverticulosis, 344–345, 344f, 349–350
identifying segments, 338–355, 340f–341f, 342t
inflammatory bowel disease, 345–346, 346t, 347f, 350
polyposis syndromes, 346
diagnostic pitfalls, 222
esophagus, 323–328
biopsy, 323
carcinoma, 324–328, 325f, 327t–328t
esophagectomy, 324–328, 325f
fungal infection of, 186t–189t
gallbladder, 366–370
carcinoma, 324, 367–369, 327t, 370t
strawberry, 367
hemorrhoids, 359–360
liver, 360–366
biopsy, 360–362
copper metabolism disease, 362
hepatocellular carcinoma, 362–363, 363f, 365t
lobectomy, 362–366
tumors, 36, 328t
Meckel's diverticulum, 336–337
neuroendocrine tumors, germline mutations, 179t–180t
operating room consultations, 54–56
small intestine, 334–336
biopsy, 335
carcinoid tumor, 335
carcinoma, 335–336, 336t–337t
resection, 335–336
stomach, 329–333
biopsy, 329
carcinoma, 330, 331f, 332–333, 333t–334t
esophagectomy specimens, 324, 326
gastrectomy, 329–333
stromal tumors, 80t–83t
Gauze, artifacts from, 244
GCDFP15 *see* Gross cystic disease fluid protein-15
Gefitinib (Iressa), 84t–85t, 163t–171t
lung carcinomas responding, genetics, 163t–171t
Gel bleed, breast implants, 286
Gelfoam, microscopy, 206t–212t
Genitourinary tract, 384
ambiguous genitalia, 471
diagnostic pitfalls, 222
operating room consultations, 56–57
Germ cell tumors
genetics, 163t–171t
immunohistochemistry, 96t
markers, 84t–85t
testis, 414
thymus, 552
Germline mutations
adrenal tumors, 228
lesions, 178–184, 181t–183t
Gerota's fascia, 387
Gestational age
fetus, 467t
placental weight vs, 465t
umbilical cord length vs, 464
Gestational trophoblastic tumors, 433
classification, 435t–452t
prognostic score, 436t
sign-out checklist, 326
see also Choriocarcinoma
GFAP *see* Glial fibrillary acidic protein
Giant cell tumors, 254, 254f, 260
diffuse type, 247
diagnostic pitfalls, 223
genetics, 163t–171t
Giemsa stain, 67t–70t
see also Diff-Quik stain
GIST *see* Gastrointestinal stromal tumor
Gleason grading, prostate carcinoma, 411–412, 411t
Gleevec (imatinib mesylate), 84t–85t, 163t–178t
Glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP), 109t–150t
Glioblastoma multiforme, genetics, 163t–171t
Glioma, brain biopsy, 61–62, 528
Globe, eye, 531, 531f
Glomus tumor, 80t–83t
Glottis, 489–490, 490f
Gloves, 201
handling fixatives, 22
infection precautions, 65
Glucagonoma, 379t
Glucose transporter 1 *see* GLUT-1
GLUT-1 (glucose transporter 1), 109t–150t
Glutaraldehyde (fixative), 23
Glycogenated tumors, vagina, staining, 453
Glycophorin A (GPA), 109t–150t
Gold, microscopy, 206t–212t
Gomori stains, 67t–70t
trichrome, 67t–70t
Gordon and Sweets stain, 67t–70t
Gore-Tex (graft material), 206t–212t, 306
Gorlin syndrome, 181t–183t
Gout, 247–248
arthroplasty specimens, 248
color of tophi, 17t
fixation of specimens, 23
submission of specimens, 4t
synovium, 259–260
see also Uric acid
Gowns, infection precautions, 65
gp80 *see* Clusterin
gp200 *see* RCC
GPA *see* Glycophorin A
GPIIIa *see* CD antigens, CD61
Grading, anal adenocarcinoma, 355t
Grading systems, 326
ampulla of Vater tumors, 382t
breast carcinoma, 278b, 281t–285t
cardiac transplantation rejection, ISHLT, 291t
cholangiocarcinoma, 365t
colon carcinoma, AJCC, 354t
esophagus carcinoma, 327t
gallbladder adenocarcinoma, 370t
hepatocellular carcinoma, Edmondson and Steiner, 365t

Grading systems *(Continued)*
infiltrating ductal carcinomas, pancreas, 380t
small intestine carcinoma, 336t
squamous cell carcinoma, 314t–315t
stomach adenocarcinomas, 333t
Grafts (vascular), 306
coronary artery bypass grafts, 301–303, 306
materials, microscopy, 206t–212t
Gram stain, 67t–70t
Granular cell tumors, 80t–83t, 158t–160t
neural, 80t–83t
Granulomas, silicone, 286
Granulomata, Gamna-Gandy nodules, 206t–212t
Granulosa cell tumors, 96t, 442
Granzyme B, 109t–150t
Grape vesicle (food analogy), 18t
Graves' disease, 557
Greater omentum, tumor invasion, 330
Greek derivations
color, 17t
medical terms, 19–20
Grimelius stain, 67t–70t
Grocott methenamine-silver nitrate, 67t–70t
Gross appearance, before removal from patient, 3
Gross cystic disease fluid protein-15 (GCDFP15), 109t–150t
as breast carcinoma marker, 84t–85t
Gross descriptions, 13–19, 35
breast masses, 264
consult cases, 43–44
error avoidance, 220–221
example of, 16
formatting of, 13–15
operating room consultations, 46
for specialist consultations, 40
style of, 19
Gross differential diagnosis, 225
Gross examination, 9–10, 420
errors, 219
photography, 215–216
repeat after microscopy, 222
Gross sectioning, 10
Gynecology, 423
carcinoma grading, 435–436
operating room consultations, 57–58
Gynecomastia, 287, 412t

H

H222 *see* Estrogen receptors
Haemozoin, 206t–212t
Hair, 2, 28
Hair whorls, fetus, 471
Hairy cell leukemia
genetics and, 172t–178t
immunohistochemistry, 103t–104t
spleen, 523
Hamartomas
bile ducts, 364
chondroid, pulmonary, 500
mesenchymal, liver, 364
see also PTEN hamartoma syndrome
Hamartomatous polyps
juvenile, germline mutations, 179t–180t
see also Peutz-Jeghers syndrome
Hamazaki-Wesenberg bodies, 206t–212t
Hancock porcine aortic valve bioprosthesis, 297f, 300f
Hand washing, 201–202
Harken heart valves, 298f–299f
Hashimoto's thyroiditis, specimen appearance, 556
Hassell's corpuscles, 552
HAV *see* Hepatitis A virus
Hazards *see* Safety aspects
Hb *see* Hemoglobin
HBME-1, 109t–150t
HBV *see* Hepatitis B virus
H-caldesmon *see* Caldesmon
H-CAM *see* CD antigens, CD44v3 (variant 3)
hCG *see* Human chorionic gonadotropin
HCL *see* DBA.44
HCV *see* Hepatitis C virus
Head and neck, 473
diagnostic pitfalls, 223
resections, operating room consultations, 58–59
squamous cell carcinoma
diagnostic pitfalls, 223
immunohistochemistry panel, 77t–78t
Headings, reports, 35–37, 36t
Heart, 289
anatomy, 301f
biopsy, stains and levels, 32t–33t
endomyocardial biopsy, 289–290
fetus, 468
fungal infection of, 186t–189t
myocardium, 304
myxoma, germline mutations, 179t–180t
rhabdomyoma, germline mutations, 179t–180t
rhabdomyosarcoma, spider cells, 158t–160t
transplantation
endomyocardial biopsy, 289–290
rejection grading, 291t
specimens (recipient's heart), 299–303
valves, 291–295, 293f–294f
etiologic assessment, 296t
gross morphologic assessment, 295t
prosthetic, 295–299, 297f, 300t
ventricular assist devices, 303–304, 304f
HeartMate ventricular assist device, 303, 304f
Heavy immunoglobulin chains, 109t–150t
HECA-452, 109t–150t
Helicobacter pylori
Alcian yellow, 67t–70t
as hazard, 196b
see also Diff-Quik stain
Hemangioblastoma, immunohistochemistry, 95t
Hemangiopericytoma
differentiation score, 548t–549t
immunohistochemistry, 95t
Hematin, 206t–212t
Hematolymphoid proliferations, molecular genetics, 161–162
Hematopoietic progenitor cell, class 1 *see* CD antigens, CD34
Hematoxylin and eosin, 67t–70t
frozen sections, technique, 48
intraoperative cytology, 49
Hemochromatosis
endomyocardial biopsy, 290
color, 247
synovium, 260
liver biopsy, 361
Hemoglobin (Hb), immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
Hemorrhage
color, 17t
microscopy, 206t–212t
Hemorrhoids, 359–360
Hemosiderin, microscopy, 206t–212t
Hemosiderosis, endomyocardial biopsy, 290
Hepatitis, chronic viral, grading and staging, 361t
Hepatitis A virus (HAV), as hazard, 196b
Hepatitis B virus (HBV)
as hazard, 196, 196b
exposure risk, 197t
histological appearance, 184
Hepatitis C virus (HCV)
as hazard, 196–197, 196b
exposure risk, 197t
histological appearance, 184
Hepatoblastoma, 99t, 163t–171t, 364
Hepatocellular carcinoma, 362–363, 363f
grading, Edmondson and Steiner, 365t
immunohistochemistry, 77t–78t, 99t
TTF-1, 71
Hepatocyte paraffin-1 *see* HepPar-1
Hepatosplenic T-cell lymphoma, 105t–106t, 172t–178t
HepPar-1 (hepatocyte paraffin-1), 109t–150t
HER1 *see* Epidermal growth factor receptor
HER-2/neu, 265
HER-2/neu amplification, breast carcinoma, 163t–171t, 263, 265
as breast carcinoma marker, 84t–85t
immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
score, 87–88
Herceptin *see* Trastuzumab
Hereditary cancer susceptibility, 178, 181t–183t
Hereditary diffuse gastric cancer syndrome, 181t–183t
Hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal carcinoma (HNPCC), 163t–171t, 179t–180t, 343–344, 344t
Hereditary nonpolyposis syndrome, 181t–183t
Hernia sacs, 487
lipomas, 541–542
Herpes gestationis, immunofluorescence, 161
Herpes simplex virus (HSV), histological appearance, 190t–194t
HHF-35 (actin antibody), 109t–150t
HHV-8 *see* Human herpes virus 8
HHV-8 antibody, 109t–150t
Hibernoma, genetics, 163t–171t
High power fields, microscopic measurement, 213
High-grade papillary carcinoma, bladder, 399t
Hilar cholangiocarcinoma, 363–364

Hilar lymph nodes, 507
Hip *see* Total joint arthroplasty
Hirschsprung disease, 338
  germline mutations, 179t–180t
Histochemistry, 67, 67t–70t
  sectioning for, 31
  stains, 67t–70t
Histologic sectioning, 10
Histology, 28
  processing, 28–30
  reporting, 15
  sectioning *see* Sectioning, histologic
  specimens not needing, 420
  tissue selection, 20
    reporting of, 35
  see also Microscopy
Histoplasma capsulatum, 186t–189t
History *see* Clinical history
HIV *see* Human immunodeficiency virus
HLA typing, for tissue identification, 33
HLA-DR, immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
HMB-45
  immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
  lymph node metastases, 520
  melanoma marker, 85t, 317t
  melanosomes, 158t
HMFG *see* Epithelial membrane antigen
hMLH1 (Human mutL homologue 1), 109t–150t
  mutation, colon carcinoma, 163t–171t
hMSH2 (Human mutS homologue 2), 109t–150t
  mutation, colon carcinoma, 163t–171t
HNK-l *see* CD antigens, CD57
HNPCC *see* Hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal carcinoma
Hodgkin disease
  AJCC classification, 516
  immunohistochemistry, 106t
  lymph nodes, 515, 522
  nodular sclerosing, formalin for, 22
  staging laparotomy, 522–523
  see also Nodular sclerosing
Hollende's solution, small intestine biopsy, 335
Hollow structures, gross dissection, 10
Homozygously deleted in pancreatic carcinoma, locus 4 *see* DPC4
Hormone receptors, breast carcinoma, 263, 265
HP1 *see* HepPar-1
HPCA-1 *see* CD antigens, CD34
HPL *see* Human placental lactogen
HPV *see* Human papilloma virus
H-score *see* Allred score
HSV *see* Herpes simplex virus
HTLV-1 *see* Human T-cell leukemia virus
HuLy-m6 *see* CD antigens, CD99
Human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG)
  immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
  seminomas, 414
  testis tumors, 415
Human herpes virus 8 (HHV-8), histological appearance, 109t–150t
Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)
  as hazard, 196b, 197
    exposure risk, 197t
    undiagnosed, 64–65
  histological appearance, 184
Human mutL homologue 1 *see* hMLH1
Human mutS homologue 2 *see* hMSH2
Human papilloma virus (HPV)
  cervix, testing, 450
  histological appearance, 184
  tumors, 84t–85t
Human placental lactogen (HPL), 109t–150t
Human T-cell leukemia virus (HTLV-1), histological appearance, 109t–150t
Hurthle cell nodules, parathyroid tissue resembling, 64
Hydatidiform moles, 93t, 433, 467
  see also Molar pregnancy
Hydrochloric acid, on antigenicity, 70–71
Hydropic fetus, 93t
Hydropic villi, products of conception, 467
Hyperparathyroidism, 560, 561t
  operating room consultations, 63–64, 64t
Hyperplasia
  adrenal gland, 228, 229f
  mesothelial, hernia sacs, 487
  papillary endothelial, angiosarcoma vs, 222
  parathyroid, 561
  prostate, 408
  thyroid gland, C-cells, 559
Hyperplastic nodule, thyroid, 100t
Hypertension, heart valves, 293f
Hypertrophic cardiomyopathy, endomyocardial biopsy, 290
Hysterectomy, 424–436
  benign conditions, 425–427
  endometrial tumors, 427–429
  morcellated laparoscopic, 431–436

I

Iatrogenic materials
  breast calcifications vs, 263
  microscopy, 206t–212t
IBD *see* Inflammatory bowel disease
Ice crystal artifact, 45
  see also Freezing artifact
Identification
  clinicians, 2–3
  patients, 2
  specimens and materials, 2, 9
    for consultations, 43–44
    errors, 219
    histology, 32t–33t
    reporting and, 35
    research and, 43
Identification numbers, 9
Idiopathic dilated cardiomyopathy, 302
Idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura, spleen, 523
IL-2 receptor *see* CD antigens, CD25
Ileoanal pull-through reconstruction, total colectomy with, 340–341
Ileum, 340f, 342t
Imatinib mesylate, 84t–85t, 163t–178t
Immature teratoma, 440–441, 443t
  omental biopsy, 440
Immunocompromise, clinical history, 3
Immunofluorescence, 161
  of skin lesions, 161
Immunogenicity, factors affecting, 70–71
Immunohistochemical markers, melanoma, 317t
Immunohistochemistry
  alternative names for antigens, 151t–157t
  antibodies for, 108, 109t–150t
  B-cell neoplasms, 103t–104t
  breast carcinoma, 84t–85t, 86–88
  controls for, 28
  Hodgkin lymphoma, 106t
  immunofluorescence, 161
  liver tumors, 99t
  lymph nodes, 519–520
  parathyroid lesions, 100t
  slides, 30, 70
  T-cell neoplasms, 109t–150t
  thymus tumors, 552
  thyroid lesions, 100t
  use of, 70
  see also specific tumors
Immunoperoxidase studies, 70–108
  ABH blood group antigens, for tissue identification, 33
  evaluation, 71–73, 73t
  lymph nodes, 519–520
  lymphoproliferative disorders, 514–515
  paraganglioma, 536
  results of, 108
  sectioning for, 31
  see also specific lesions
Immunoreactive cells
  identification of, 72
  location of, 71–73, 72f
  number of, 72
Implants (pathological), ovarian tumors, 440
Implants (prosthetic), breast, 286–287
Incidental ovaries *see* Prophylactic oophorectomy
Incidental ribs, 258–259
Incidental tube, 446
'Incidentalomas,' adrenal adenomas, 228–229
Incisional biopsy, breast carcinoma, 263
Inclusion cyst, epidermal, 313
India ink, microscopy, 206t–212t
Indirect immunofluorescence, 161
Infantile polycystic kidney disease, 391t
Infarction, placenta, 463
Infections, 49, 184, 196
  aerosol sprays for freezing tissues, 47, 196
  air-dried smears (hazard), 201
  appendix, 357
  bone marrow, 514
  brain biopsy, 528
  bronchoalveolar lavage, 308–309
  critical values of, 39
  diagnosis of, 185–186
  fine needle aspirations, 309
  identification of, 185t
  immunohistochemistry and, 70
  intervertebral discs, 261
  open lung biopsy, 60–61
  operating room consultations and, 64–65
  placentas (hazard), 201, 463
  revision arthroplasty, 250–251
    operating room consultations, 52
  specimen fixation and, 25
  submission of specimens, 4t
  synovium, 260
  see also Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease

Infective endocarditis, 292, 293f, 296t
Inferior aspect, 7f
Inferior oblique muscles (ocular), 531, 531f
Infertility, testis biopsy, 412, 413b
Infiltrating carcinoma, vulva, 457
Infiltrating ductal carcinoma, pancreas, grading, 380t
Infiltration
  colorectal carcinoma, 352b
  histologic processing, 28
Inflammation, airway, 496t
Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), 345–346, 346t, 347f, 350
  operating room consultations, 55–56
Inflammatory carcinoma, breast, 265
  skin biopsy, 285
Inflammatory myofibroblastic tumor, genetics, 163t–171t
Inflation
  bladder, 396
  lung resections, 498
Information for histology laboratory, 30–31
Inhibin, 84t–85t
  alpha subunit, 109t–150t
INI-1, 109t–150t
INII, mutations, 163t–171t
Injuries to health care staff, prevention, 201–202
  see also Safety aspects
Ink marking
  mordants for, 12
  slides for measurement, 213
  specimens, 3, 10–12, 541
    breast biopsy, 264
    breast mastectomy, 274
    embedding and, 30
    hysterectomy, 427–429
    lung resections, 497
    prior to morcellation, 386
    skin ellipses, 312
    stomach, 329
Institute of Medicine, report on errors, 218
Institutional consultations, 41–42
  as legal consultations, 42
Insulinoma, 379t
Insurance
  institutional consultations, 42
  legal consultations, 42
Interest Group staging system, 511t
Intergroup Rhabdomyosarcoma Study (IRS), postsurgical clinical grouping system, 546, 547t
Interinstitutional consultations *see* Institutional consultations
Interleukin-3 receptor alpha chain *see* CD antigens, CD123
Internal controls, immunohistochemistry, 71
International Mesothelioma Interest Group staging system, 511t
International Society for Heart and Lung Transplantation (ISHLT), grading of cardiac rejection, 291t
Interpretative errors, operating room consultations, 50–51
Intervertebral discs, 260–261
Intervillous thrombus, placenta, 464
Intestinal type gastric carcinoma, 330, 331f
Intracranial hemorrhage, 530
Intradepartmental consultations, reporting, 35–36
Intraductal papillary mucinous neoplasms, pancreas, grading, 377
Intrainstitutional consultations, 40
In-transit metastases, melanoma, definition, 318t
Intraoperative consultations *see* Operating room consultations
Intraoperative cytology, 48–49
Intratubular germ cell neoplasms, 96t
Invasion depth, melanoma, 315t–317t
Invasive carcinoma, breast, 265, 275
  axillary dissections, 276–279
  grading, 281t
  sign-out checklists, 276–279
Inverted papilloma, ureter, 395
Ionescu-Shiley bovine pericardial bioprosthesis, 297f, 300f
Iressa *see* Gefitinib
Iris diaphragms, microscopes, 204b
Iron compounds, microscopy, 206t–212t
Iron stain, 67t–70t
Irregular borders, for gross description, 18t
IRS *see* Intergroup Rhabdomyosarcoma Study
Ischemic heart disease, 301–303
ISHLT *see* International Society for Heart and Lung Transplantation
Isotopes, radioactive *see* Radiopharmaceuticals

J

J5 *see* CD antigens, CD10
Jagged borders, for gross description, 18t
Jatene-Macchi heart valve, 298f
JC virus
  brain biopsy, 528
  histological appearance, 184
JCAHO *see* Joint Commission on Accreditation of Healthcare Organizations
Jewett and Strong staging, Marshall modification, bladder carcinoma, 395t
Joint Commission on Accreditation of Healthcare Organizations (JCAHO)
  guidelines for submitting specimens, 2
  retention of gross specimens, 5t, 24
  specimens not needing histology, 420
Joint mice, knee, 259
Joints
  fungal infection, 186t–189t
  menisci, 259
  total arthroplasty, 246–251
    revision, 52, 52t, 250–251
    see also Prosthetic joints
    see also Synovium
Jone's silver methenamine, 67t–70t
JOVI 1 *see* TCR
Jugular vein, radical neck dissections, 478
Junctional nests, melanocytes, 316t
Juvenile hamartomatous polyps, germline mutations, 179t–180t
Juvenile myelomonocytic leukemia, genetics, 172t–178t
Juvenile polyposis syndrome, 181t–183t
Juxtaoral organ of Chievitz, 59

K

Kaposi sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV), histological appearance, 109t–150t
Kaposi's sarcoma, 80t–83t
Karyotyping *see* Cytogenetics
Katskin tumor, 363–364
Kayexalate (sodium polystyrene sulfonate), 206t–212t
Kay-Shiley heart valve, 298f
Kay-Suzuki heart valve, 298f
Keratins *see* Cytokeratin(s)
Ki-1 *see* CD antigens, CD30
Ki-1 lymphoma (anaplastic large cell lymphoma), 105t–106t, 172t–178t
Ki-67 (MIB-1), 109t–150t
  cytoplasmic and membranous immunoreactivity, 71
Kidney, 384–395
  angiomyolipoma, 391
    germline mutations, 179t–180t
  biopsy, 384–385
    operating room consultations, 57
    stains and levels, 32t–33t
    submission of specimens, 4t
  clinical history, 384t–385t
  fungal infection of, 186t–189t
  tumors
    immunohistochemistry, 97t
    sign-out checklist, 392
      see also specific tumors
    see also Nephrectomy
Kikuchi disease, lymph nodes, 515
Kimura scoring system, pheochromocytoma, 233, 235t
Kinyoun stain, 67t–70t
Kip 2 *see* p57
KIT protein, 84t–85t, 163t–178t
see also CD antigens, CD117 (c-Kit)
Knee
  menisci, 259
  total joint arthroplasty, 246–251
  see also Total joint arthroplasty
Knots, umbilical cord, 460
Koehler illumination, 204, 204b
KP1 *see* CD antigens, CD68
Krukenberg tumor, 442
KSHV *see* Kaposi sarcoma-associated herpesvirus

L

L1 antigen *see* MAC 387
L26 *see* CD antigens, CD20
Labeling
  confusion with diagnoses, 221
  photography, 216
  see also Paperwork
Labia
  fetus, 471
  linguistics, 455, 455t
Laboratory Response Network (LRN), 198
Lacerations, spleen, 523
Laminin, 109t–150t
Landmarks *see* Orientating specimens
Langerhans cell histiocytosis, 158t–160t
Langerin *see* CD antigens, CD207
Laparoscopic cholecystectomy, 366

Laparoscopic nephrectomy with morcellation, 386–387
Laparotomy, staging Hodgkin disease, 522–523
Laplace's law, 345
Lardaceous spleen, 18t
Large B-cell lymphoma, 103t–104t
  anaplastic large cell lymphoma, 106t, 172t–178t
Large cell calcifying Sertoli cell tumors, germline mutations, 179t–180t
Large cell carcinoma, lung, 102t, 499
  grade, 501t
Large cell neuroendocrine carcinoma
  carcinoid tumor v., 102t
  lung, 501t
Large core needle biopsy, breast, 262–263
Large excisions, skin, 319–320
Large resections, 241–242
Laryngectomy, 489–492
Larynx, 489
  anatomy, 490f
  biopsy, stains and levels, 32t–33t
  carcinoma, 489–492
  clinical history, 489t
  tumor classification, 492t–493t
Latent membrane protein *see* LMP-1
Lateral aspect, 7f
Latex gloves, 201–202
Latin derivations, medical terms, 19–20, 20t
LCA (leukocyte common antigen) *see* CD antigens, CD45
Leaflets, heart valves, 291
Leaf-like protuberances, phyllodes tumor, 267
LEEP *see* Loop electrocautery excision procedure
Legal aspects
  amputations, 238
  breast implants, 286–287
  consultations, 40–41
  disposal and release of specimens, 5, 25
  foreign bodies, 526
  modified reports, 37–38
  products of conception, 466
Legal consultations, 42
Leiomyomas
  breast lesions v., 91t
  esophagus, 326
  immunohistochemistry panel, 80t–83t
  operating room consultations, 58
  uterus, 425–426, 432
    genetics, 163t–171t
Leiomyosarcomas, 432, 543
  differentiation score, 548t–549t
  endometrial stromal sarcoma vs, 92t
  immunohistochemistry panel, 80t–83t
Lens (eye), 532
Lens paper
  cleaning of microscopes, 214
  small biopsies, 244
Lesions
  gross descriptions, 14
  immunohistochemistry and, 70
Letters
  institutional consultations, 42–43
  specialist consultations, 40
Leu 1 *see* CD antigens, CD5
Leu 2 *see* CD antigens, CD8
Leu 3 *see* CD antigens, CD4
Leu 5a+b *see* CD antigens, CD2
Leu 7 *see* CD antigens, CD57
Leu 9 *see* CD antigens, CD7
Leu 16 *see* CD antigens, CD20
Leu 22 *see* CD antigens, CD43
Leukemias
  genetics, 172t–178t
  spleen, 523
  testis, 414
  see also specific types
Leukocyte common antigen *see* CD antigens, CD45
Leukocytoclastic vasculitis, 44
LeuM1 *see* CD antigens, CD15
Levels
  Clark, melanoma, 317t
  lymph nodes, 519
    axillary, 276
  radical neck dissections, 478
  in sections, 28
  see also Sectioning
Lewis blood group y antigen, 109t–150t
Leydig cell tumors, 96t, 414
LFA-2 *see* CD antigens, CD2
Libman-Sacks endocarditis, 292, 293f
Lichen sclerosus, vulva, 456
Liesegang rings, 206t–212t
Li-Fraumeni syndrome, 181t–183t
Light, microscopes, 204
Light immunoglobulin chains, 109t–150t
Lillehei-Kaster heart valve, 298f
Linitis plastica, 330, 331f
Lip
  excisions, 321, 321f
  salivary gland biopsy, 479
Lipids
  fixation and, 21
  microscopy, 206t–212t
Lipoblastoma, genetics, 163t–171t
Lipofuscin, microscopy, 206t–212t
Lipomas, 541–543
  genetics, 163t–171t
  see also Cord lipomas
Liposarcomas, 543
  differentiation score, 548t–549t
  genetics, 163t–171t
  hernia sacs, 487, 541–542
Liver, 360–366
  acute fatty, submission of specimens, 4t
  biopsy, 360–362
    Hodgkin disease staging, 522–523
    pre-transplant operating room consultations, 56
    stains and levels, 32t–33t
  copper metabolism disease
    special studies, 362
    submission of specimens, 4t
  fungal infection of, 186t–189t
  hepatocellular carcinoma, 362–363, 363f, 365t
  lobectomy, 362–366
  nutmeg, 18t
  tumors
    AJCC classification, 328, 366
    hepatoblastoma, 99t, 163t–171t
    immunohistochemistry, 99t
    sign-out checklist, 326
    see also Hepatocellular carcinoma
LKB1/STK11, loss of heterozygosity, 163t–171t
LMP-1 (latent membrane protein), 109t–150t
LN1 *see* CDw75
LN2 *see* CD antigens, CD74
Lobation, placentas, 463
Lobectomies
  liver, 362–366
  lung, 497
    operating room consultations, 60
Lobular carcinoma, breast, 90f, 90t
  immunohistochemistry panel, 75t–76t
  metastases, diagnostic pitfalls, 222
Lobular carcinoma in situ (LCIS), breast, sign-out checklists, 276–279
Loop electrocautery excision procedure (LEEP), cervix, 450–453
Loose bodies, knee, 259
Lost specimens, 12–13
Lower extremity, amputations, 239–241, 240f
Lower uterine segment, microscopy, 426, 428
  cervical carcinoma, 430
Low-grade papillary carcinoma, bladder, 399t
LRN *see* Laboratory Response Network
Lugol's solution, vagina, 453
Lumpectomy *see* Reexcisions
Lung, 494
  adenocarcinoma, 75t–76t, 84t–85t, 101, 101t–102t, 163t–171t, 498, 499f
    bronchial extension, 60
    epithelial mesothelioma vs, 101, 101t
  biopsy, 60–61, 494–495, 497
    stains and levels, 32t–33t
  carcinoma, 102t
    bronchioloalveolar, 75t–76t, 102t, 158t–160t, 499f
    classification, 501t, 503t
    grading system, 77t
    pleural involvement, 497, 502f, 506
    sign-out checklist, 500
    squamous cell carcinoma, 77t–78t, 102t, 498, 499f
    see also Small cell carcinoma
  clinical history, 494t
  diagnostic pitfalls, 222
  fungal infection of, 186t–189t
  neuroendocrine tumors, 501t
  operating room consultations, 59–61
  reports, example headings, 36t
  sclerosing hemangioma, Ki-67, 71
Lupus band test, 161
LVI *see* Venous/lymphatic Invasion (lymphovascular invasion)
Lymph nodes, 10–11, 514–522
  anal adenocarcinoma, 354, 356t
  axillary dissections, 276–279
    AJCC classification, 279t
  bladder carcinoma, 396
  Bouin's solution, 10, 518
  breast carcinoma, 262t, 266, 279t
    AJCC classification, 279t
    immunohistochemistry, 519–520
    sentinel, 521–522
    see also Axillary dissections

Lymph nodes *(Continued)*
clinical history, 513t
colon carcinoma, 342–343, 350, 353t–354t
cystic duct, 367–368
esophagectomy, 324, 326, 426
Fallopian tube specimens, 426
hernia operations, 487
Hodgkin disease, 515, 522
staging laparotomy, 522
lymphoproliferative disorders, 514–516
operating room consultations, 61
mastectomy, 274, 276
mediastinum, operating room consultations, 59
melanoma, 311, 318t, 520
microscopy, 515
neck, radical dissections, 476
pancreatic carcinoma, 372, 373, 375, 377–379
paraganglioma, 536
parathyroid tissue vs, 64
pleura, 497
retroperitoneal dissection, testis carcinoma, 326
second reviews, 41
sentinel
breast carcinoma, 521–522
histological processing, 31
immunohistochemistry, 520
operating room consultations, 54
stains and levels, 32t–33t
skin carcinoma, 314, 315t–319t
small intestine carcinoma, 336, 337t
soft tissue tumors, 542
stomach carcinoma, 332, 334t
thyroid carcinoma, operating room consultations, 63
tonsillectomy, squamous cell carcinoma, 484–485
tumor staging, 516–520
ureteric tumors, 392
Lymphangitic spread, lung carcinoma, pleural involvement, 497
Lymphocyte-depleted Hodgkin disease, 106t
Lymphocyte-rich Hodgkin disease, 106t
Lymphocytic thyroiditis, specimen appearance, 556
Lymphoepithelial carcinoma, 74t
Lymphoid aggregates (foci), lip biopsy, 479
Lymphomas
bone, 254f
brain biopsy, 528
electron microscopy, 158t
extranodal, 522
fine needle aspirations, 309
genetics, 172t–178t
immunohistochemistry, 79t, 95t, 103t–104t, 106t
kidney, 390
liver biopsy, 362
lymph nodes, 515
markers, 84t–85t
missed diagnosis, 223
ribs, 258–259
salivary glands, 480
sign-out checklist, 515–516
spleen, 523
Lymphomas *(Continued)*
staging, 517t
stomach, 330
submission of specimens, 4t
testis, 414
thymus, 552
specimen processing, 551–552
Lymphoplasmacytic lymphoma, 103t–104t
genetics, 172t–178t
Lymphoproliferative disorders, lymph nodes, 514–516
operating room consultations, 61
Lymphovascular invasion (venous/lymphatic invasion)
breast carcinoma, 262t
Rosen criteria, 278b
stromal sarcoma, uterus, 432
Lynch syndrome *see* Hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal carcinoma
Lysozyme, 109t–150t

M

M2-7C10 *see* Melan-A
M2A *see* D2-40
M130 *see* CD antigens, CD163
M3558 *see* Smooth muscle myosin heavy chain
M4276 *see* Fast myosin
MAC 387 (antibody), 109t–150t
Mac-1 *see* CD antigens, CD11b
Mac-M *see* CD antigens, CD68
Macule, for gross description, 18t
Magnification, photomicroscopy, 215
Malaria pigment, 206t–212t
Malignant fibrous histiocytoma (MFH), differentiation score, 548t–549t
Malignant mixed mesodermal tumor, uterus, 432
Malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumor (MPNST), 543
immunohistochemistry panel, 80t–83t
Malignant rhabdoid tumor, differentiation score, 548t–549t
Malignant triton tumor, differentiation score, 548t–549t
Malignant tumors
differentiation score, 548t–549t
reporting, 36
Mallory's PTAH (phosphotungstic acid-hematoxylin), 67t–70t
MALT lymphoma *see* Marginal zone lymphoma
Mammaglobin, 109t–150t
Mammographic lesions with wire localization, excisional biopsy, breast, 268–270
Mammoplasty, reduction, 281–285
Mandible, frozen sections, 52
Mantle cell lymphoma, 103t–104t
genetics, 172t–178t
Marginal insertion, placental membranes, 460
Marginal zone lymphoma (MALT), 103t–104t
genetics, 172t–178t
Margins
breast carcinoma, 266
excisional biopsy, 263–264, 270
mastectomy, 274–276
Margins *(Continued)*
operating room consultations, 54
reexcisions, 271
colon carcinoma, 343, 348–349
en face, 11–12, 11f
esophagectomy, 326
gastrectomy, 332
head and neck resections, 58–59
melanoma, 311
operating room consultations
breast carcinoma, 54
breast DCIS, 54
pancreatic carcinoma, 377, 379
perpendicular, 11f, 12
skin carcinoma, 314t
small intestine resection, 336
soft tissue tumors, 542
Marshall modification, Jewett and Strong staging, bladder carcinoma, 395t
MART-1
lymph node metastases, 520
melanoma marker, 85t, 317t
see also Melan-A
Masaoka's staging, thymic tumors, 553t
Massachusetts, law on products of conception, 466
Masson's lesion, angiosarcoma vs, 223
Masson's trichrome, 67t–70t
modified, 67t–70t
Mast cells, 158t–160t
Mast cell tryptase, 109t–150t
Mastectomy, 272–276, 275f
for gynecomastia, 287
prophylactic, 280–281
Mastocytosis, genetics, 172t–178t
Mature teratoma *see* Dermoid cyst
Maude cell lymphoma, 172t–178t
Mayer stain (mucicarmine), 67t–70t, 101t
mb-1 protein *see* CD antigens, CD79a
MCAM *see* CD antigens, CD146
McGovern-Cromie heart valve, 299f
MCV *see* Merkel cell polyoma virus
MDM2, 109t–150t
ME491 *see* CD antigens, CD63
Measles virus, histological appearance, 190t–194t
Measurement, 10
breast lesions, operating room consultations, 53
in gross descriptions, 14, 16
microscopy, 213–214, 213t
Meckel's diverticulum, 336–337
Mediastinal large B-cell lymphoma, 103t–104t
Mediastinal staging, lung carcinoma, operating room consultations, 59
Medical devices, 2, 525
Medical records, pathology reports as, 38
Medtronic Freestyle stentless porcine aortic valve prosthesis, 297f
Medtronic-Hall tilting disk valve, 297f–298f
Medullary carcinoma
breast, 265, 266f
thyroid, 158t–160t, 556f, 557
familial, 181t–183t
familial prophylactic thyroidectomy, 557, 559
genetics, 163t–171t

Medullary carcinoma *(Continued)*
germline mutations, 179t–180t
immunohistochemistry, 75t–76t, 84t–85t, 100t
operating room consultations, 63
Medullary carcinoma-associated amyloidosis, 107t
Medullary cystic kidney disease, 391t
Medullary sponge kidney, 391t
Medulloblastoma
brain biopsy, special studies, 528
genetics, 163t–171t
germline mutations, 179t–180t
immunohistochemistry, 95t
immunohistochemistry panel, 79t
MEDWATCH home page (website), 525–526
Melan-A, immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
Melanin, microscopy, 206t–212t
Melanin bleach, 67t–70t
Melanocytes, junctional nests, 316t
Melanocytic lesions, frozen sections and, 52
Melanoma, 313
AJCC classification, 315, 318t
biopsy, stains and levels, 32t–33t
color, 17t
diagnostic pitfalls, 222
electron microscopy, 158t
eye, 532
immunohistochemical markers, 317t
immunohistochemistry, 95t
immunohistochemistry panels, 79t–83t
invasion depth, 315t–317t
lymph nodes, 520
markers, 85t
metastases, 317, 318t
definition, 318t
diagnostic pitfalls, 222
nipple, 89t
shave biopsy, 311–312
sign-out checklist, 314
subungual, 322
Melanoma antigen recognized by T cells *see* Melan-A
Melanoma cell adhesion molecule *see* CD antigens, CD146
Melanoma-associated antigen *see* CD antigens, CD63
Melanoma-specific antigen *see* HMB-45
Melanosis coli, 206t–212t, 349
Melanosomes, 158t
MELCAM *see* CD antigens, CD146
Membranes, placenta, 458–460, 464
Membranous immunoreactivity, 71, 72f
MEN1 gene, mutations, 179t–183t
MEN2A gene, mutations, 181t–183t
MEN2B gene, mutations, 181t–183t
Meningioma
brain biopsy, 529
genetics, 163t–171t
immunohistochemistry, 75t–76t, 80t–83t, 95t
Meningoencephalitis, fungal infection, 186t–189t
Menisci (knees), 259
Mercuric chloride, microscopy, 206t–212t
Mercury, in fixatives, 23–24
Merkel cell carcinoma, 77t, 79t, 158t–160t
AJCC classification, 320t
Merkel cell polyoma virus (MCV), histological appearance, 190t–194t
Mesenchymal chondrosarcoma, 80t–83t
Mesenchymal hamartoma, liver, 364
Mesentery, colon segments, 340f, 342t
Mesh, small intestine biopsy specimens, 30
Mesoblastic nephroma
cellular, 390
cytogenetics, 390
congenital, 390
genetics, 163t–171t
Mesodermal tumor, malignant mixed, uterus, 432
Mesorectal envelope, 351b
Mesothelial hyperplasia, hernia sacs, 487
Mesothelioma, 158t–160t, 505–510
AJCC classification, 510t
desmoplastic
diagnostic pitfalls, 222
fibrosing pleuritis vs, 510
epithelial, lung adenocarcinoma vs, immunohistochemistry, 101, 101t
genetics, 163t–171t
hernia sacs, 487
immunohistochemistry panels, 75t–76t, 80t–83t
International Mesothelioma Interest Group staging system, 511t
operating room consultations, 62
ovarian carcinoma v., 91t
peritoneum, 91t
pleura specimens, 510–512
revised Sugarbaker staging system, 509t–510t
sign-out checklist, 500
Metabolic bone disease, biopsy, 251
Metabolic diseases
brain biopsy, 528
endomyocardial biopsy, 290
placental, 463
Metal, microscopy, 206t–212t
Metanephric adenoma, 389
Metastases
adenocarcinomas, 101t
in abdomen, 94t
adrenal, clear cell renal cell carcinoma, 97t
adrenal gland, 229–230
arthroplasty specimens, 248
bone and joint specimens, 248
brain biopsy, 529
breast carcinoma, 266
AJCC classification, 279t
carcinoid, 99t
colon, 348
liver, 363f
colon carcinoma
lung, 102t
ovary, 92t
distant
anal adenocarcinoma, 356t
breast carcinoma, 262t, 279t
colon carcinoma, 350, 353t–354t
esophagus carcinoma, 262t, 328t
melanoma, 311, 318t
pancreatic carcinoma, 378t, 381
skin carcinoma, 314t–319t
small intestine carcinoma, 337t
stomach carcinoma, 334t
Metastases *(Continued)*
gallbladder, 369
immunohistochemistry, 84t–85t, 95t
intervertebral discs, 261
intracranial hemorrhage, 530
liver, 362, 363f, 364
colon carcinoma, 363f
immunohistochemistry, 99t
lobular breast carcinoma, diagnostic pitfalls, 222
lung, 102t
colon, 102t
lymph nodes, 515
anal adenocarcinoma, 354, 356t
breast carcinoma, 266, 262t, 279t
see also Axillary dissections
colon carcinoma, 342–343, 350, 353t–354t
esophagus carcinoma, 262t, 328t
melanoma, 311, 318t
pancreatic carcinoma, 378t, 379
second reviews, 41
skin carcinoma, 314, 315t–319t
small intestine carcinoma, 336, 337t
squamous cell carcinoma, tonsillectomy, 484–485
stomach carcinoma, 332, 334t
tumor staging, 516–520
melanoma
definition, 318t
diagnostic pitfalls, 222
ovary, 442
diagnostic pitfalls, 223
renal cell carcinoma, diagnostic pitfalls, 222
ribs, 258–259
thrombus, abdominal aortic aneurysms, 305
thyroid gland, immunohistochemistry, 100t
tonsillectomy, lymph nodes, squamous cell carcinoma, 484–485
of unknown origin, 84, 84t–85t
see also Lymph nodes; Micrometastases
Metatarsophalangeal joint, great toe, lower limb dissection, 239
Methacarn, 23
Methanol
disposal, 24
frozen sections, 47
intraoperative cytology, 49
mordant for inks, 12
Methyl green-pyronin Y, 67t–70t
Meyenburg complexes, 364
MFH *see* Malignant fibrous histiocytoma
MGB1 *see* Mammaglobin
MIB-1 *see* Ki-67
MIC-2 *see* CD antigens, CD99
Michaelis-Gutmann body macrophages, 206t–212t
Microbiology, 185–186
open lung biopsy, 61
Micrometastases
breast carcinoma, frozen sections, 54
lymph nodes, 519–520, 522
stage significance, 522
melanoma, definition, 318t
Micrometers, 214
Micronodular cirrhosis, 363f

Microphthalmia transcription factor *see* MITF
Microsatellite markers, for tissue identification, 33
Microscopes, 204
Microscopic descriptions, 35
Microscopic sections, 225
Microscopy, 204
  errors, 219–220
  peripheral nerves, 533
  tissue selection for, 20
  see also Histology
Microtomes, 29f, 30
Microvesicular fat, liver biopsy, 362
Microvilli, mesothelioma vs lung carcinoma, 101t
Miliary nodules, spleen, 523
'Milk of calcium,' 263
Miller-Payne grading system, response to chemotherapy, 283t
Minocycline
  microscopy, 206t–212t
  thyroid specimen appearance, 556
Miscarriage (spontaneous abortion), 466
Missing specimens, 12–13
MITF, 109t–150t
Mit-f *see* MITF
Mitochondrial myopathies, endomyocardial biopsy, 290
Mitosis scores, measurement, 213
Mitotic count scoring, breast carcinoma, 282t
Mitral valve, 291–295, 293f–294f
  function, 296t
  gross morphologic assessment, 295t
  myxomatous degeneration, 292, 296t
  postinflammatory scarring, rheumatic valve disease, 292
  prolapse, 293f
Mixed mesodermal tumor, malignant, uterus, 432
Mixed tumor (pleomorphic adenoma), 75t–76t, 163t–171t, 479–480
Mixed-cellularity Hodgkin disease, 106t
MN-4 *see* CD antigens, CD146
MNF-116 *see* PAN-K
Modernization Act (FDAMA), 525
Modified radical mastectomy, 272, 273f
Modified reports, 37–38, 220, 223
Molar pregnancy, 466–472
Molecular genetics, 161–162
Molluscum contagiosum, histological appearance, 190t–194t
Monoamniotic twin placentas, 460–464, 462f
Monocarboxylase transporter 1, 158t–160t
Monochorionic twin placentas, 460–464, 462f
  vascular anastomoses, 463
Monozygous twin placentas, 460–464
Morcellation
  laparoscopic hysterectomy with, 431–436
  laparoscopic nephrectomy with, 386–387
Mordants, for inks, 12
Mounting medium, 215
Mouse double minute 2 homolog *see* MDM2
MPO *see* Myeloperoxidase
MRF-4 *see* Myf-4
MSA (HHF-35), actin antibody, 109t–150t
MSH6, 109t–150t
MSI-H colon carcinoma, MSS colon carcinoma v., 344t
MSS colon carcinoma, MSI-H colon carcinoma v., 344t
MTS1 *see* p16
MUC1 *see* Epithelial membrane antigen
MUC2, 109t–150t
MUC18 *see* CD antigens, CD146
Mucicarmine *see* Mayer stain
Mucin, appendix, 327, 357
Mucinous, for fluid consistency descriptions, 18t
Mucinous bronchioloalveolar carcinoma, 158t–160t
Mucinous carcinomas
  breast, 92t, 94t
  bronchioloalveolar, 102t
  colon, metastasis to ovary, 92t
  gynecology, grading, 435–436
  lung, metastatic colon cancer v., 102t
  ovary
    immunohistochemistry, 91t–92t, 94t
    operating room consultations, 57
    sign-out checklist, 443–444
Mucinous cystadenocarcinoma, ovary, 441f
Mucinous cystadenoma, ovary, 441f
Mucinous cystic tumors, pancreas, 376f, 377
Mucinous neoplasms
  ovary, 74t, 442
  pancreas, intraductal papillary, 377
Muciphages, gallbladder, 369
Mucoceles
  appendix, 357
  gallbladder, 369
Mucocutaneous exposure, infectious agents, 197
Mucoepidermoid carcinoma
  genetics, 163t–171t
  grading systems, 482t–483t
Mucoepidermoid tumor, salivary gland, 480
Mucosa
  gallbladder, 367–368
  upper respiratory tract, biopsy, 479
Mullerian inclusions, lymph nodes, 447
Mullerian remnants, hernia sacs, 487
Multilocular cysts, operating room consultations, 57
Multinodular thyroid gland, 63, 556f
Multiple endocrine neoplasia, 179t–183t
  parathyroid hyperplasia, 561
Multiple gestation placentas, 460–464, 462f
  microscopy, 464
  special studies, 463
Multiple lesions, specimen processing, 12
Multiple myeloma *see* Myeloma
Muscle
  biopsy, 4t, 533–534
  differentiation, Zenker's acetic fixative, 23
  tumors, immunohistochemistry panels, 80t–83t
Muscle common actin antibody, 109t–150t
Muscularis mucosae, bladder, 395
Muscularis propria, streaming dissection, colon carcinoma, 352b
My 7 *see* CD antigens, CD13
My 9 *see* CD antigens, CD33
MY-32 *see* Fast myosin
Myasthenia gravis, 552
Mycetoma, fungal infection, 186t–189t
Mycoplasma, cultures, 185–186
Mycosis fungoides, 105t–106t, 172t–178t
Mycotic aneurysm, 305
Myelodysplastic syndromes, bone marrow, 514
Myelolipoma, adrenal, 230
Myeloma
  bone, 254f
  genetics, 172t–178t
  immunohistochemistry, 103t–104t
  pituitary adenoma vs, 223
  ribs, 258
    diagnostic pitfalls, 223
Myeloperoxidase (MPO), 109t–150t
Myeloproliferative syndromes, bone marrow, 514
Myf-4, immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
Myocardium, 304
see also Endomyocardial biopsy
MyoD1, immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
Myoepithelial markers, breast carcinoma, 88, 88t
Myofibroblastic tumors, immunohistochemistry panel, breast, 80t–83t, 91t
Myogenin *see* Myf-4
Myoglobin, 109t–150t
Myomectomy, operating room consultations, 58
Myometrium
  endometrial carcinoma invasion, 57–58, 443
  gross differential diagnosis, 432–433
  microscopy, 426
Myospherulosis, 206t–212t
Myxoid chondrosarcoma, extraskeletal, 80t–83t, 163t–171t
Myxoma, heart, germline mutations, 179t–180t
Myxomatous degeneration, mitral valve, 292, 296t

N

Nails, 2, 322
NANOG, 109t–150t
Nasal polyps, 473
Nasal type extranodal NKIT-cell lymphoma, 105t–106t, 172t–178t
National Prion Disease Pathology Surveillance Center, 528
NCAM *see* CD antigens, CD56
Neck, radical dissections, 475–479
Necrosis, on immunoperoxidase studies, 71
Necrotizing fasciitis, operating room consultations, 53
Needle biopsy, 243, 244f
  bone tumor, 251–252
  breast, histological processing, 32t–33t
  liver, 360–362
  see also Core needle biopsy; Liver, biopsy; Prostate, biopsy
Needlestick injury
  hepatitis B virus, 196
  infectious agent exposure risk, 197t

Neoplasms
Nephrectomy, 385–395
  partial, 57
  transitional cell carcinoma, 57
Nephroblastoma, 389–390
  cytogenetics, 389–390
  genetics, 163t–171t
  immunohistochemistry panel, 79t
  see also Wilms tumor
Nephrogenic rests, 390t
  Wilms tumor, 389b
Nephrolithiasis, familial, 391t
Neprilysin *see* CD antigens, CD10
Nerve biopsy, peripheral, 533
Nerve sheath tumor *see* Malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumor
Nestin, 109t–150t
NeuN, 109t–150t
Neural tumors, immunohistochemistry panels, 80t–83t
Neuroblastoma, 158t–160t
  adrenal gland, 229
    Shimada classification, 232, 232f
Neuroendocrine tumors
  appendix, 357
  gastrointestinal tract, germline mutations, 179t–180t
  lung, 501t
  pulmonary, classification, 501t
  radiography for, 185
Neurofibromas, 80t–83t, 527t, 543
  germline mutations, 179t–180t
  immunohistochemistry panel, 80t–83t
Neurofibromatosis type 1, 181t–183t
Neuro-filaments (NFP), 109t–150t
Neuronal nuclei *see* NeuN
Neurons, immunohistochemistry of melanoma, 317t
Neuron-specific enolase (NSE), 109t–150t
Neuropathology specimens, 527
Nevi, 313
Nevoid basal cell carcinoma syndrome, 181t–183t
Nevus cells, 317t, 520
NF2, inactivation, 163t–171t
NFP *see* Neuro-filaments
Nipple
  biopsy/duct dissection, 285
  mastectomy, 274, 275f, 276
  Paget's disease, 89t, 266
Nitrile gloves, 201–202
NK1-betab *see* HMB-45
NK1/C3 *see* CD antigens, CD63
NK-cell lymphoma, blastic, 105t–106t, 172t–178t
NK/T-cell lymphoma, nasal type extranodal, 105t-106t, 172t–178t
Nodular fasciitis, 91t
  diagnostic pitfalls, 223
Nodular hyperplasia
  prostate, 408
  thyroid, 557
Nodular lymphocytic predominant Hodgkin disease, 106t
Nodular sclerosing Hodgkin disease, 206t–212t
  formalin, 22, 61
  grading, 516t
  immunohistochemistry, 106t
  lymph nodes, 515
Nodular thyroid gland, 63
Nodule within a nodule, hepatocellular carcinoma, 363
Nonbacterial thrombotic endocarditis, 292, 293f
Non-Hodgkin lymphomas, staging, 85t
Noninvasive papillary urothelial carcinomas, high grade and low grade, 399t
Nonossifying fibroma, 254f
Nonspecific positivity, immunoperoxidase studies, 72
Normal structures, gross descriptions, 15
Nose, fungal infection of, 186t–189t
Notched borders, for gross description, 18t
Nottingham Histologic Score, breast carcinoma, 277, 281t
Noyes Criteria, endometrial dating, 424t
NPM *see* Nucleophosmin
NSE *see* Neuron-specific enolase
Nuchal thickening, fetus, 471
Nuclear antigen 2 *see* EBNA 2
Nuclear grades
  DCIS of breast, 283t
  of uterine tumors, 436
Nuclear immunoreactivity, 72, 72f
Nuclear medicine *see* Radiopharmaceuticals
Nucleic acids, fixation and, 21–22
Nucleophosmin (NPM), immunoreactivity, 72
Numbers, identification of specimens, 9, 31–33, 35
Numbers (counts), gross descriptions, 16
Nutmeg liver, 18t
Nylon specimen bags, 245

O

O13 *see* CD antigens, CD99
Objectives (lens assemblies), microscopy, 204
OC125 *see* CA125
Ochronosis, color, 17t
OCT blocks, safety precautions, 201–202
Oct2 (octomer transcription factor), 109t–150t
OCT-4, 84t–85t, 109t–150t
Octomer transcription factor *see* Oct2
Octreotide nodes, radiography for, 185
Ocular reticles, microscopic measurement, 214
Oil immersion microscopy, 204–205, 205b
Oil red O, 67t–70t
OLIG2, 109t–150t
Oligodendroglioma
  genetics, 163t–171t
  immunohistochemistry, 95t
Omentum
  colon segments, 340f, 342t
  ovarian malignancy staging, 440–444
Omnicarbon heart valve, 298f
Omniscience heart valve, 298f
On Line Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM), 163t–171t
Oncocytoma, 158t–160t
  genetics, 163t–171t
  immunohistochemistry panel, 97t
  kidney, 388f, 389
Open lung biopsy, 60–61, 497
Operating room consultations, 45
  accuracy of, 50–51
  bone, 51–52
  common, 51–64
  cytology, 48–49, 184
  infection in, 64–65
  performing, 46
  pleural biopsy, 510
  purpose of, 45
  quality control of, 51
  reporting, 35, 49–50
  skin, 52–53
Optic nerve, 531, 531f
Optical properties of microscopic objects, 205–213
Optics, microscopes, 204
Oral cavity, 473–475
  biopsy, amyloidosis, 550
  sign-out for, 474
  tumor classification, 477t
Orchiectomy
  bilateral simple, 418
  unilateral for tumor, 412–416
Organ transplantation
  heart
    endomyocardial biopsy, 289–290
    heart specimens (recipient's heart), 299–303
    rejection grading, 291t
  kidney, resection, 385–386
  lung
    biopsy, 494–495
    rejection, 494–495
    resections, 502–504
Orientating specimens, 6f–7f, 7–10
  excisional biopsy, breast carcinoma, 264
  histology, 30–31
  hysterectomy, 424, 425f
  large skin excisions, 319–320
  partial nephrectomy, 392
  radical neck dissections, 477–478, 478f
Oropharynx, biopsy, stains and levels, 32t–33t
Orthopedic hardware, 526
Osseofibrous dysplasia, 254f
Osteoarthritis *see* Degenerative joint disease
Osteoblastoma, 254f
Osteochondroma, 254, 254f
  genetics, 163t–171t
Osteoid osteoma, 253, 254f
Osteomyelitis, lower limb dissection, 239
Osteonecrosis (aseptic necrosis, avascular necrosis), 247, 249
  arthroplasty specimens, 248, 250
  core biopsy, 251
Osteosarcomas, 253–255, 254f
  differentiation score, 548t–549t
  genetics, 163t–171t
  immunohistochemistry panels, 80t–83t
  treatment response grades, 258t
Otosclerosis, 484
Ovary, 436–444, 437f
  carcinoma
    adenocarcinoma, 94t
    classification of, 445t
    diagnostic pitfalls, 223
    germline mutations, 179t–183t
    mesothelioma v., 91t
    omental staging biopsy, 440

Ovary *(Continued)*
primary v. metastatic, 92t
reporting, 436
serous, 75t–76t, 91t
sign-out checklist, 443–444
special studies, 440
cervical carcinoma, 431
clinical history, 437t
endometrioid tumors, 75t–76t, 91t–92t
immunohistochemistry, 92t
microscopy, 426, 428
mucinous tumors, 74t, 91t–92t
operating room consultations, 57
solid tumors, 437, 439–440
Oversampling, 20
Owl-eye bodies, 206t–212t
Ownership of specimens, 24–25
Oxalate
calculi, 403
thyroid tissue vs parathyroid tissue, 64
see also Calcium oxalate

P

p16 (protein), 109t–150t
p53 (protein), 109t–150t
p55 *see* Fascin
p57 (protein), 109t–150t
p63 (protein), 109t–150t
breast carcinoma, 88t
p80 (protein) *see* ALK protein
P504S, 109t–150t
Packaging, sending slides for consultations, 43–44
Paget's disease
of nipple, 89t, 266
perianal, 89t
vulvar, 89t
Pancreas, 370–382
beta cells, dense core granules, 158t–160t
biopsy, 372
carcinoma, 326, 372, 375–377
adenocarcinoma, 94t
AJCC classifications, 334t, 381
ductal, 376f, 380t
metastasis to ovary, 92t
operating room consultations, 56
sign-out checklists, 332
diagnostic pitfalls, 222
distal pancreatectomy, 372–374, 372f
resection, 372
tumors
beta-catenin, 72
immunohistochemistry panel, 74t
Whipple procedure, 374–382, 374f
Pancreatectomy
distal, 372–374, 372f
partial *see* Whipple procedure
Pancreatic duct, 373
Whipple procedure, 374–382, 374f
Pancreatic polypeptide, tumor producing, 379t
Pancreatitis, chronic, 377
Pancreatoblastoma, 377
Panels, immunohistochemistry markers, 70, 73–108
PAN-K, 109t–150t
Panniculitis-like T-cell lymphoma, 105t–106t, 172t–178t
PAP *see* Prostate acid phosphatase
Paperwork, 2, 9
Papillary, for gross description, 18t
Papillary carcinomas
bladder, 399t
kidney, genetics, 163t–171t
pitfalls, 223
thyroid, 556, 557, 556f
cytology, 63
genetics, 163t–171t
immunohistochemistry, 75t–76t, 84t–85t, 100t
operating room consultations, 63
Papillary endothelial hyperplasia, angiosarcoma vs, 223
Papillary muscles, heart valves, 291
Papillary renal cell carcinoma, 388
Papillary transitional cell carcinoma, 388f
Papillary urothelial neoplasm of low malignant potential (PUNLMP), 395, 399t
Papillary-like carcinoma, kidney, genetics, 163t–171t
Papillomas
bladder, 399t
breast duct dissection, 285
ureter, 392
Papule, for gross description, 18t
Papyraceous, for gross description, 18t
Paracoccidioides brasiliensis, 186t–189t
Paraffin, histology, 28
Paraganglioma, 77t–78t, 97t, 535
clinical history, 535t
Parametrium, microscopy, 428, 431
Paranasal sinuses, contents, 473
Parathyroid glands, 560–563
adenoma, 561, 562t, 563
carcinoma, 561, 562t
clinical history, 561t
immunohistochemistry panels, 100t
operating room consultations, 63–64, 64t
in thyroid specimens, 555, 585
thyroid tissue vs, 64
Parathyroid hormone
hyperparathyroidism, 561t
operating room consultations, 64
Partial chest wall resection, pneumonectomy with, 502–504
Partial cystectomy, 396–400, 397f
Partial gastrectomy *see* Whipple procedure
Partial mole, 93t
Partial neck dissections, 476
Partial nephrectomy, 392–395
Partial pancreatectomy *see* Whipple procedure
Parvovirus, as hazard, 196b
Parvovirus B19, histological appearance, 190t–194t
PAS *see* Periodic acid Schiff
PAS-D *see* Periodic acid Schiff with diastase digestion
PASS scoring system, pheochromocytoma, 233, 234t
Pathologic evaluation, requests for, 2
Pathology errors, 219–220
Patients
identification, 2–3
change in, 38
institutional consultations, 43
research and, 43
Patients *(Continued)*
initiating second reviews, 41–42
returning specimens to, 24–25
gallstones, 367
orthopedic hardware, 526
PBX1-E2A fusion, 172t–178t
Pear, unripe (food analogy), 18t
PECAM-1 *see* CD antigens, CD31
PEComa, immunohistochemistry panel, 80t–83t
Pectoralis minor, axillary lymph node levels and, 276
Pediatrics
adrenal tumors, 228, 232
Shimada classification, 232, 232f
germ cell tumor, testis, 414
liver tumors, 364
non-Hodgkin lymphomas, staging, 517t
renal tumors, 389–390, 389b
rhabdomyosarcoma, sign-out checklist, 546
vas deferens in hernia sac, 487
see also Retinoblastoma
Pedunculated, for gross description, 18t
Pelviscopy, operating room consultations, 58
PEM *see* Epithelial membrane antigen
Pemphigoid, immunofluorescence, 161
Pemphigus, immunofluorescence, 161
Penis, 537, 537f
dorsal aspect, 7f
Percutaneous injury, infectious agent exposure risk, 197t
Perforation, diverticular disease, 345
Perforin, 109t–150t
Perianal Paget disease, 89t
Pericardium, 507
Pericoronal cysts, 484
Perineural invasion
breast carcinoma, 262
head and neck tumors, operating room consultations, 59
prostate carcinoma, 396
Perineurioma, 80t–83t, 158t–160t, 163t–171t
Periodic acid Schiff (PAS), 67t–70t
Periodic acid Schiff with diastase digestion (PAS-D), 67t–70t, 101t
Peripancreatic lymph nodes, pancreatic carcinoma, 381
Peripheral nerve biopsy, 533
Peripheral nerve sheath tumor *see* Malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumor
Peripheral T-cell lymphoma, NOS, 105t–106t
Peritoneum
carcinoma, classification of, 445t
colon carcinoma, 343, 350
laparoscopic cholecystectomy, 366
mesothelioma, 91t
tumor invasion, 330
see also Pseudomyxoma peritonei
Peritonitis, diverticular disease, 345
Permanent implants, breast, 286
Perpendicular margins, 11f, 12
Pertussis, as hazard, 196b
Peutz-Jeghers syndrome, 181t–183t
PgR *see* Progesterone receptors

Phaeohyphomycosis, fungal infection, 186t–189t
Pheochromocytoma, 229, 229f
chromaffin reaction, 228
color, 17t
dense core granules, 158t–160t
germline mutations, 179t–180t
immunohistochemistry panels, 77t–78t, 97t
Kimura scoring system, 233, 235t
malignancy features, 233
medullary carcinoma of thyroid and, 63
PASS scoring system, 233, 234t
Zenker's acetic fixative, 23
Philadelphia chromosome, 172t–178t
Phimosis, 321
Phosphate, calculi, 403
Phosphotungstic acid hematoxylin (PTAH), 67t–70t
Photography, 9, 215–216, 215b
bullets, 526
infection hazard and, 201
Photomicroscopy, 215
Phyllodes tumor
breast, 266f, 267
grades, 284t
immunohistochemistry, 91t
Physaliphorous appearance, chordoma, 158t–160t
'Piano keys,' endometrium, 424t
Pickwickian syndrome, tonsils, 485t
Pigmented villonodular synovitis *see* Diffuse type giant cell tumor
Pilocytic astrocytoma, immunohistochemistry, 95t
PIN *see* Prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia
Pineal region tumors, 528
Pitfalls, diagnosis, 222–223
Pituitary tumors, 529
myeloma vs, 223
Placenta, 458–464
clinical history, 458–460
disposal of, 25
infection hazard and, 201, 463
villi vs decidualized endometrium, 59t
weight, 464, 465t
Placenta accreta, 464
Placental alkaline phosphatase (PLAP), 84t–85t, 109t–150t
Placental site
nodule, 93t
trophoblastic tumor, 93t
Plague, 199t–200t
Plant material, microscopy, 206t–212t
PLAP *see* Placental alkaline phosphatase
Plaques, pleura, 506–507
mesothelioma vs, 505
Plasmacytoma, 103t–104t, 172t–178t
genetics, 172t–178t
Platelet glycoprotein IIIa *see* CD antigens, CD61
Platelet-endothelial cell adhesion molecule *see* CD antigens, CD31
Pleomorphic adenoma (mixed tumor), 75t–76t, 163t–171t, 479–480
Pleomorphic rhabdomyosarcoma, differentiation score, 548t–549t
Pleura, 510–512
involvement in lung carcinoma, 497, 502f, 506–507
lymphangitic spread, 497
operating room consultations, 59–61
plaques, 506–507
mesothelioma vs, 505
wedge resections of lung, 497
see also Extrapleural pneumonectomy
Pleural fluid, storage for cytology, 309
Pleurectomy, 510–512
Pleuritis, 222
fibrosing, desmoplastic mesothelioma vs, 510
Plexiform neurofibroma, 543
Ploidy analysis, molar pregnancy, 467
PMS2, 109t–150t
PNET *see* Ewing's sarcoma
Pneumonectomy, 497
extrapleural, 505–510
operating room consultations, 62
with partial chest wall resection, 502–504
transplant, 504
POC *see* Products of conception
Podoplanin *see* D2-40
Polarizability (optical), 205–213
crystals, 247–248
Polarization, thyroid tissue vs parathyroid tissue, 64
Polarizers, 205–213, 205b
Polycystic kidney disease, 391t
Polycystic ovaries, 441
Polycythemia, genetics, 172t–178t
Polydactyly, fetus, 471
Polyethylene, in tissues, 206t–212t
Polymerase chain reaction (PCR)
specimens for, 161–162
see also Reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction
Polymethylmethacrylate, in tissues, 206t–212t
Polymorphic microsatellite markers, for tissue identification, 33
Polymorphonuclear leukocytes, revision arthroplasty, operating room consultations, 52
Polyomavirus, histological appearance, 190t–194t
Polyps
biopsy, stains and levels, 32t–33t
colon, 338, 339f
operating room consultations, 55
endometrium, 432
fibroepithelial, 313
gastrointestinal, diagnostic pitfalls, 222
germline mutations, 179t–180t
nasal, 473
Polyposis syndromes
colon, 346
juvenile, 181t–183t
Polyurethane, breast implant shells, 286
Popcorn calcification breast, 269
Porcelain gallbladder, 367
Porcine bioprosthetic heart valves, 297f
Posterior aspect, 7f
Posterior ciliary vessels, 531, 531f
Posterior tibial neurovascular bundle, dissection, 239
Posterior triangle, radical neck dissections, 478
Postexposure prophylaxis, blood-borne viruses, 197, 197t
Postinflammatory scarring, rheumatic valve disease, 292, 293f, 296t
Postoperative spindle cell nodule, 80t–83t
Post-pathology errors, 220–221
Post-treatment changes, carcinomas, esophagus, 325–326
Potassium dichromate chromaffin reaction, 228
Potassium iodide, chromaffin reaction, 228
Potter's syndrome, 471
POU5F1 *see* OCT-4
'Powder burn,' endometriotic cyst, 441
PPNAD *see* Primary pigmented nodular adrenocortical disease
PP-oma, 379t
PR *see* Progesterone receptors
PRAD1 *see* Cyclin D1
PrAP *see* Prostate acid phosphatase
Prealbumin, 109t–150t
Precursor lymphoblastic lymphoma/leukemia
B-cell, 103t–104t
genetics, 172t–178t
T-cell, 105t–106t
Pregnancy
clinical history, 3
fatty change of liver, 362
operating room consultations, 58
see also Ectopic pregnancy; Tubal pregnancy
Preoperative therapy
breast carcinoma, 262t
mastectomy after, 273
Pre-pathology errors, 219
Preservation
of antigenicity, 70–71
see also Fixation
Primary AL, 107t
Primary effusion lymphoma, genetics, 103t–104t, 172t–178t
Primary myelofibrosis, genetics, 172t–178t
Primary pigmented nodular adrenocortical disease (PPNAD), 228
germline mutations, 179t–180t
Prion diseases *see* Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease
Prior, specimens, reports, 36
Probes, specimen photography, 216
Products of conception (POC), 466–472
infection hazard and, 201
operating room consultations, 58
sign-out checklist, 471–472
see also Hydatidiform moles
Progesterone receptors (PR)
breast carcinoma, 84t–85t, 86–87, 265
evaluation of, 86–87, 86t
immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
internal control, 71
Prolymphocytic leukemia T-cell, 105t–106t, 172t–178t
Prophylactic mastectomy, 280–281
Prophylactic oophorectomy, 437–438
Prophylactic thyroidectomy, familial medullary, thyroid carcinoma, 557, 559

Prostate, 403–412
biopsy, 404
carcinoma, 326, 404
Gleason grading, 411–412, 411t
institutional consultations, 42
stains and levels, 32t–33t
clinical history, 403t
cystectomy specimens, 396, 397f
intraepithelial neoplasia, 404
reports, example headings, 36t
Prostate acid phosphatase (PrAP), 109t–150t
Prostate carcinoma, 407–408
AJCC classification, 410t
biopsy, 395, 404
breast cancer in males v., 89t
chromogranin, 158t–160t
crystalloids, 206t–212t
cystectomy, 396–400, 397f
diagnostic pitfalls, 222
extraprostatic extension, 409
genetics, 163t–171t
Gleason grading, 411–412, 411t
immunohistochemistry, 77t–78t, 98t
markers, 84t–85t
radical prostatectomy, 406–412, 407f
sign-out checklist, 392
transurethral resection of prostate, 404, 408
Prostatectomy
radical, 406–412, 407f
suprapubic, 405–406
see also Transurethral resection of prostate
Prostate-specific antigen (PSA)
immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
prostate carcinoma incidence, 404–405
Prostatic crystalloids, 206t–212t
Prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia (PIN), 404
Prosthetic heart valves, 295–299, 297f
pathologic analysis, 300t
Prosthetic implants (breast implants), 286–287
Prosthetic joints, 250–251, 526
material fragments, microscopy, 206t–212t
see also Total joint arthroplasty
Protective clothing, 201–202
Protein, fixation and, 21
Proximal aspect, 7f
Proximal urethral margin radical prostatectomy, 406, 407f
PSA *see* Prostate-specific antigen
Psammoma bodies, microscopy, 206t–212t
Psammomatous melanotic schwannoma, germline mutations, 179t–180t
Pseudocyst, pancreas, 377
'Pseudogout,' crystals, 206t–212t, 247–248
arthroplasty specimens, 248
synovium, 259–260
Pseudomyxoma peritonei, 442
hernia sacs, 487
Pseudopapillary tumor, pancreas, 376, 376f
Pseudopolyps, inflammatory bowel disease, 346t
PTAH *see* Phosphotungstic acid hematoxylin
PTEN hamartoma syndrome, 181t–183t
Publication, consultation cases, 40
Pull-through reconstruction, ileoanal, total colectomy with, 340–341
Pulmonary chondroid hamartoma, 500
Pulmonary hypertension, 504
Punch biopsy
skin, 311, 311f
specimen embedding, 30–31
stains and levels for, 32t–33t
subungual melanoma, 322
PUNLMP *see* Papillary urothelial neoplasm of low malignant potential
Pushing borders, for gross description, 18t
Pyloric lymph nodes, pancreatic carcinoma, 380

Q

QBEnd10 *see* CD antigens, CD34
Q-probes study
pre-pathology errors, 219
specimens not needing histology, 420
Quadrantectomy *see* Reexcisions
Quality control, operating room consultations, 51
Quick-fix formalin, 21
soft tissue tumors, 62

R

Rabies virus, histological appearance, 190t–194t
Radial growth phase, melanoma, 317
Radial scars, breast, 267
Radial sclerosing lesions, breast, 267
Radical cystectomy, 396–400, 397f
Radical hysterectomy, carcinoma of cervix, 429–431
Radical mastectomy, 272
Radical neck dissections, 475–479
Radical nephrectomy, 387–392
Radical vulvectomy, 455
Radioactive isotopes *see* Radiopharmaceuticals
Radiography
breast calcifications, 263
chest wall, 506
eye globe, 532
mammographic lesions, 268, 275
osteoid osteoma, 253
samples v. patient, 184–185
specimens, 504
Radiopharmaceuticals
safety precautions, 202
sentinel lymph nodes, 521
Radiotherapy
bone resection, 242, 253–255, 258t
clinical history of, 3
esophagus carcinoma after, 325
head and neck resections, operating room consultations, 59
RCB grading system *see* Residual cancer burden grading system
RCC (renal cell carcinoma marker), 109t–150t
Reactive lymph nodes, 515
Reactive pleuritis, diagnostic pitfalls, 222
Receiving materials for consultations, 43
Rectal examination, prostate carcinoma incidence, 404–405
Rectosigmoid colon, 339, 340f–341f
Rectosigmoid junction, 339, 341f
Rectum, 339, 340f–341f, 342t
biopsy, amyloidosis, 550
carcinoma, 347–348, 348f
AJCC classification, 351, 353t–354t
immunohistochemistry panel, 98t
infiltrative border, 352b
sign-out checklist, 350–352
see also Colon, carcinoma
resections, 341–342
Recurrent, colon carcinoma, 348
Recurrent pregnancy loss, 466
Reduction mammoplasty, 281–285
Redundant systems, 221
Reexcisions
breast, 270–272
skin, 312
Refractility (optical), 205
Regional neck dissections, 476
Regional nodal metastases, melanoma, definition, 318t
Regressed germ cell tumor, testis, 414
Regression, melanoma, 317
Reimbursement
legal consultations, 42
see also Billing documentation
Reinke crystals, 206t–212t
Rejection
cardiac transplantation, ISHLT grading, 291t
lung transplantation, 494–495
Release of specimens from laboratory, 24–25
forms, 26f
Relevant clinical history, 225
Renal cell carcinomas, 385–395
acquired cystic disease, 389
AJCC classifications, 393t–417t
clear cell, 98t
adrenal metastases, 97t
color, 17t
Fuhrman nuclear grading system, 393t
genetics, 163t–171t
immunohistochemistry panels, 75t–78t, 97t–98t
marker *see* RCC
metastases
diagnostic pitfalls, 222
immunohistochemistry, 95t
oncocytoma vs, 158t–160t
sign-out checklist, 392
Renal cortical adenoma, 389
Renal fascia, 387
Renal sinus, pediatric tumors, 389–390
Renal vein, renal tumors, 387
pediatric, 389–390
Reporting, 35
consultations, 35–38, 40
diagnosis, 36–37, 36t
electron microscopy, 157
errors, 220
histology, 15
hormone receptors, breast carcinoma, 86t
hysterectomy, 435–436
immunoperoxidase studies, 108
operating room consultations, 35, 49–50
ovary carcinoma, 436
special studies, 35, 15
standards, 220
urgent results, 38–39

Representative sections submitted (RSS), 15
Requests for pathologic evaluation (requisition forms), 2
specimens not needing histology, 422, 422f
Research
breast biopsy, 265
materials requested for, 43, 185–186
Resections
bone tumors, 252–258
brain, 530–531
colon, identifying segments, 338–355, 340f–341f, 342t
large, 241–242
pancreas, 372
rectal, 341–342
small intestine, 335–336
soft tissue tumors, 542–546
vaginal, 453–455
see also specific structures
Residents, standardized reports and, 37
Residual cancer burden (RCB) grading system, 284t
Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), histological appearance, 190t–194t
Respiratory tract, fungal infection, 186t–189t
Response to treatment, tumor reporting, 278 283t–284t
RET (proto-oncogene), immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
Rete testis, tumor involvement, 415
Retention, gross specimens, 5, 25
Reticles, microscopic measurement, 214, 214b
Reticular fibers, stains, 67t–70t
Reticulin stains, hepatocellular carcinoma, 99t
Retinoblastoma, 532
genetics, 163t–171t
germline mutations, 179t–180t
'Retrognosis,' legal cases, 42
Retroplacental hematoma, 464
Returning specimens to patients, 24–25
gallstones, 367
orthopedic hardware, 526
Reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RTPCR)
lymph node metastases, 520
specimens for, 161–162
Revision, diagnosis, 37–38
Revision arthroplasty, 250–251
operating room consultations, 52, 52t
Reye's syndrome, liver biopsy, 362
Rhabdoid predisposition syndrome, 163t–171t
Rhabdoid tumors
genetics, 163t–171t
immunohistochemistry, 95t
kidney, 158t–160t, 390
cytogenetics, 390
Rhabdomyoma, heart, germline mutations, 179t–180t
Rhabdomyosarcoma, 158t–160t
differentiation score, 548t–549t
genetics, 163t–171t
grouping system, 546, 547t
immunohistochemistry panel, 79t–83t
pediatric, sign-out checklist, 546
Rheumatic valve disease, 292, 293f, 296t
Rheumatoid arthritis, arthroplasty specimens, 248
Rib squeeze method, 259
Ribs, 258–259
diagnostic pitfalls, 223
extrapleural pneumonectomy, 506
Rice bodies, 18t
Right colectomy, 339, 341f
RNA, fixation and, 21–22
Rokitansky's protuberance, 441
Rosen criteria, lymphovascular invasion, breast carcinoma, 278b
'Routine' specimens
histology not required, 420
tonsils, 484–485
RSS *see* Representative sections submitted
RSV *see* Respiratory syncytial virus
rT3 *see* CD antigens, CD2
Rule scales, 213–214, 213t, 214b
Rulers, photography, 216
Rush diagnosis, 4–5

S

S100 protein
immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
internal control, 71
lymph node metastases, 520
melanoma marker, 85t, 317t
paraganglioma, 536
Safe Medical Devices Act (SMDA), 525
breast implants, 286
Safety aspects, 24, 196
air dried smears, 201
biologic terrorism, 198
Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease, 21, 198, 528
culture of safety (Sirota), 218, 218t
cyst(s), 201–202, 438
frozen sections, infection hazard, 47, 201
infected placentas, 201, 463
infectious disease, 196–198
lung inflation, 498
mercury, 23–24
operating room consultations and infections, 64–65
radiopharmaceuticals, 202
return of specimens to patients, 25
sharps, 24, 201–202
specimen transport, 5
Sagittal section, 7f
Sago spleen (food analogy), 18t
Saline
breast implants, 286–287
specimen photography, 216
Salivary duct carcinoma, 480
AJCC classification for, 483t
Salivary glands, 479–484
carcinomas, 480
morphology, lung carcinoma, 60
Salpingitis, 447
Salpingo-oophorectomy, hysterectomy and, 424–436
Sample dictations, 225
Sampling
errors, operating room consultations, 50
frozen sections, 45
Saphenous vein grafts, 306
Sarcoidosis
inclusions, 206t–212t
lymph nodes, 515
Sarcomas, 543
biopsy, 540–541
clinical history, 540t
diagnostic pitfalls, 222
electron microscopy, 158t, 541
embryonal, liver, 364
germline mutations, 179t–180t
grading, 546, 547t–548t
immunohistochemistry panels, 80t–83t
microscopy, 544
operating room consultations, 62
sign-out checklist, 544
transmission to health care personnel, 201–202
see also Soft tissue tumors
Sarcomatoid features, renal tumors with, 389
Sarcomatoid mesothelioma, 80t–83t
SARS *see* Severe acute respiratory syndrome
Satellite metastases, melanoma, 318t–319t
Scabies, as hazard, 196b
Scabrous, for gross description, 18t
Scalded skin syndrome, operating room consultations, 53
Scalpel blades
handling, 24
infection precautions, 65
management, 201–202
Scarff-Bloom-Richardson grading system, Elston-Ellis modification, breast carcinoma, 326, 281t
Scars, mastectomy, 274
Schaumann bodies, 206t–212t
Schiller's solution, vagina, 453
Schwannoma, 80t–83t, 543
genetics, 163t–171t
immunohistochemistry, 95t
immunohistochemistry panel, 80t–83t
psammomatous melanotic, germline mutations, 179t–180t
vestibular
brain biopsy, 529
germline mutations, 179t–180t
see also Acoustic neuroma
Sclerosing adenosis, breast carcinoma vs, diagnostic pitfalls, 222
Sclerosing hemangioma, lung, Ki-67, 71
Scrotum, fetus, 471
Sebaceous carcinoma, germline mutations, 179t–180t
Seborrheic keratosis, 313
Second reviews
consultation cases, 41
sending slides for consultations, 43–44
Secondary AA, 107t
Sectioning
gross, 10
lung, 498
spleen, Hodgkin disease, 522
histologic, 10, 28, 29f, 31
bone, 247, 253
frozen sections, 47
reporting, 15
Selective neck dissections, 476
Selective reduction, multiple gestations, placentas, 463
Semilunar valves, anus, 340

Seminal vesicles
carcinoma
diagnostic pitfalls, 222
immunohistochemistry panel, 98t
cystectomy specimens, 397
prostate carcinoma, 396, 406–407, 407f
Seminiferous tubules, 414
Seminomas
immunohistochemistry panels, 77t–78t, 96t
local spread, 412, 414
testis, 414
Sending slides for consultations, 43–44
S-Endo-1 *see* CD antigens, CD146
Senile degeneration, heart valves, 296t
Sentinel lymph nodes, 521–522
biopsy, stains and levels, 32t–33t
histological processing, 10–11
immunohistochemistry, 520
operating room consultations, 54
radiography for, 185
Separated twin placentas, 460–464, 462f
Serosa
cervical carcinoma, 431
colon segments, 342t
endometrial carcinoma, 57–58
hysterectomy, 428
Serosanguinous, for fluid consistency descriptions, 18t
Serous, for fluid consistency descriptions, 18t
Serous cystic neoplasms, pancreas, 377
Serous ovarian neoplasms, 442
adenocarcinoma, 94t
borderline tumor, 441f
carcinoma, 75t–76t, 91t
cystadenoma, 441f
sign-out checklist, 443–444
Serous uterine adenocarcinoma, grading, 435–436
Serpiginous borders, for gross description, 18t
Sertoli cell tumors, 414
immunohistochemistry panel, 96t
large cell calcifying, germline mutations, 179t–180t
Sessile, for gross description, 18t
Severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS), hazard, 197–198
Sex-cord stromal tumors, 96t
Sezary syndrome, 105t–106t, 172t–178t
SGP-2 *see* Clusterin
Shape, gross descriptions, 17, 18t
Sharps, 24, 201–202
Shave biopsy, skin, 311–312
specimen embedding, 30
stains and levels for, 31, 32t–33t
Shave margins, breast, 272
Shimada classification, pediatrics, adrenal tumors, 232, 232f
Shrinkage, fixation and, 21
Siderotic granulomata, 206t–212t
Sigmoid colon, 338–355, 340f–341f, 342t
Signet ring cell carcinoma
diagnostic pitfalls, 222
gastric, 330, 331f
stomach and breast, 90f, 90t
Sign-out
checklists, 225, 37
see also under specific conditions
consult cases, 43–44
error avoidance, 220–221
Silica, microscopy, 206t–212t
Silicone
breast implants, 286–287
granulomas, 286
microscopy, 206t–212t
Silver stain, 67t–70t
Simple cysts, ovary, 436, 438–439
Simplex chronicus, vulva, 456
Sinus
contents, head and neck, 473
fungal infection of, 186t–189t
Sirota, Ronald, culture of safety, 218, 218t
Sjögren syndrome, lip biopsy, 479
Skeletal anomalies, fetus, 471
Skin, 310
biopsy
curettings, 312
ellipses, 312–319
inflammatory carcinoma of breast, 285
punch, 311, 311f
shave, 311–312
specimen embedding, 30
stains and levels, 31, 32t–33t
submission of specimens, 4t
carcinoma, 313
AJCC classifications, 315, 315t–319t
histologic grade, 314t–315t
sign-out checklist, 314
see also Basal cell carcinoma; Squamous cell carcinoma
diagnostic pitfalls, 222
fungal infection of, 186t–189t
immunofluorescence of lesions, 161
large excisions, 319–320
mastectomy, 273–275
operating room consultations, 52–53
reports, example headings, 36t
Sleep apnea, tonsils, 485t
Slides
cleaning, 215
immunohistochemistry, 30, 70
institutional consultations, 42
measurement on, 213
photomicroscopy, 215
preparation, 30
release for research, 43
sending for consultations, 43–44
for specialist consultations, 40
SMA (marker)
breast carcinoma, 88t
see also Smooth muscle alpha-actin
SM-ACT (marker) *see* Smooth muscle alpha-actin
Smad4 *see* DPC4
Small biopsy, 243, 244f
Small blue cell tumors, 79t
Small cell carcinoma, 84t–85t
basaloid squamous cell carcinoma v., 102t
carcinoid tumor v., 102t
immunohistochemistry panel, 79t
lung, 102t, 499, 501t
Small cell carcinoma *(Continued)*
diagnostic pitfalls, 60, 222
grade, 501t
immunohistochemistry panel, 77t–78t
Small intestine, 334–336
biopsy, 30, 335
histological processing, 31
stains and levels for, 32t–33t
carcinoid tumor, 335
carcinoma, 335–336
AJCC classification, 336, 337t
grading, 336t
resection, 335–336
Small lymphocytic lymphoma, 103t–104t
genetics, 172t–178t
Small vascular segments, 305
Smallpox virus, 199t–200t
bioterrorism, 198
histological appearance, 184
SMDA *see* Safe Medical Devices Act
Smears
fine needle aspirations, 309
infection hazard and, 201
intraoperative cytology, 49, 184
open lung biopsy, 61
stereotactic brain biopsy, 61
Smell, specimens, 17–19
Smeloff-Sutter heart valve, 299f
SM-MHC *see* Smooth muscle myosin heavy chain
SMM-HC (marker), breast carcinoma, 88t
SMMS-1 *see* Smooth muscle myosin heavy chain
Smooth muscle alpha-actin
immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
immunohistochemistry control, 71
Smooth muscle myosin heavy chain (SM-MHC), 109t–150t
Smoothelin, 109t–150t
Smoothly lobulated, for gross description, 18t
Snap freezing, 161
lymphoproliferative disorders, 61, 514–515
pediatric renal tumors, 389b
soft tissue tumors, 62
Snook stain, 67t–70t
Sodium borate, hematoxylin and eosin technique, frozen sections, 48
Sodium polystyrene sulfonate, 206t–212t
Soft tissue tumors
AJCC classifications, 545t
diagnostic pitfalls, 222–223
immunohistochemistry panels, 80t–83t
operating room consultations, 62
resections, 542–546
Solid pseudopapillary tumor, pancreas, 376, 376f
Solitary cecal diverticulum, 345, 357
Solitary fibrous tumor, 80t–83t, 91t
immunohistochemistry, 95t
Somatostatinoma, 379t
Southern blot, specimens for, 161–162
SOX2, 109t–150t
SP1 *see* Estrogen receptors
SP3 *see* HER-2/neu
SP40 *see* Clusterin

Special studies, 225, 67
brain biopsy, 528
consultations for, 41
fetus, 471
frozen sections and, 40
human papilloma virus testing, 450
liver biopsy, 361–362
lymph nodes, 519–520
lymphoproliferative disorders, 514–515
mesothelioma, 506
ovarian tumors, 440
pediatric renal tumors, 389b
placentas, 463–464
reporting, 36, 15
request, 4
sarcoma biopsy fixation for, 541
soft tissue tumors, 543
Specialist consultations, 40–41
Specimens
antigenicity, factors affecting, 70–71
breast carcinoma antigenicity, factors affecting, 265
cytology, storage, 309
disposal, 24
fine needle aspiration, intraoperative cytology, 49
flow cytometry, 184
fungi appearance in, 186t–189t
histology, 28–30
infection hazard, 201
missing, 12–13
molecular genetics, 162
not needing histology, 420
photography, 215–216, 215b
prior, reports, 36
processing, 225, 9
frozen sections, 46–49
returning to patients, 24–25
gallstones, 367
orthopedic hardware, 526
sterility, 186
submitting, 2–5
pre-pathology errors, 219
terrorism and, 198
see also Fragmented specimens; Identification, specimens and materials; Ink marking; Orientating specimens; Radiography
Specimen bags, nylon, 245
Specimen heading, 35
Sperm counts, spermatid counts vs, 413f
Sperm identification, operating room consultations, 56
Spermatid counts
sperm counts vs, 413f
testicular biopsy, 412
Spermatocytic seminoma, 96t
S-phase fraction, 184
Spiculated borders, for gross description, 18t
Spider cells, cardiac rhabdomyosarcoma, 158t–160t
Spindle cell carcinoma, 80t–83t
breast lesions v., 91t
Spindle cell lesions, 80t–83t
Spindle cell lipoma, 91t
Spindle cell nodule, postoperative, 80t–83t
Spironolactone bodies, 206t–212t
Spleen, 523
clinical history, 513t
gross descriptions, food analogies, 18t
Hodgkin disease, staging laparotomy, 522
tumor, genetics, 172t–178t
Splenectomy, 523
Splenic lymph nodes, pancreatic carcinoma, 381
Sponges
artifacts, 245
small biopsies, 245
Spontaneous abortion (SAB), 466
Sporothrix schenckii, 186t–189t
Squamo-columnar junction (Z line), 324
Squamous cell carcinoma, 313
adenocarcinoma v., 102t
bronchial extension, 60
cervix, 75t–76t, 450
electron microscopy, 158t
esophagus, 324–325, 325f
grading system, 327t
immunohistochemistry panel, 77t–78t
gynecology, grading, 435–436
head and neck
diagnostic pitfalls, 223
immunohistochemistry panel, 77t–78t
histologic grade, 314t–315t
immunohistochemistry panels, 77t–78t, 80t–83t
larynx, 489–492
lip excisions, 321, 321f
lung, 77t–78t, 102t, 498, 499f
lymph node metastases, tonsillectomy, 484–485
markers, 84t–85t
nipple, 89t
oral, 474
vulva, 455, 456
Squamous intraepithelial lesions, cervix, 450
Squamous metaplasia, lung, diagnostic errors, 60
Squeeze method, rib, 259
St. Jude Medical tilting disk valve, 297f–298f
St. Jude staging system, 517t
Stage micrometers, 214
Staging laparotomy, Hodgkin disease, 522–523
Stains
fine needle aspirations, 309
frozen sections, 48
histochemistry, 67t–70t
prion protein infectivity resistant to, 528
special, 31
for copper, 362
vagina, 453
Standardization, gross descriptions, 13
Standardized diagnosis forms, 37
Standards, for reporting, 225, 220
Stapes, 484
Staphylococcal scalded skin syndrome, operating room consultations, 53
Staples, 12
bowel rings, 340
lung resections, 494
Starr-Edwards heart valves, 297f–299f
Steiner stain, 67t–70t
Stein-Leventhal syndrome, 441
Stem cell factor receptor *see* CD antigens, CD117
Stem cell leukemialymphoma syndrome, genetics, 172t–178t
Stereotactic brain biopsy, 61–62
Sterility
microbiology specimens, 186
open lung biopsy, 61
Sternocleidomastoid muscle, radical neck dissections, 477–478
Sternum, short, fetus, 471
Steroids
osteonecrosis, 248
tumors producing
color, 17t
special studies, 440
Stomach, 329–333
biopsy, 329
stains and levels for, 32t–33t
carcinoma
adenocarcinoma, 74t, 94t, 333t
AJCC classification, 333, 334t
diffuse type, 330, 331f
esophagectomy specimens, 324, 326
hereditary diffuse gastric cancer syndrome, 181t–183t
intestinal type, 330, 331f
sign-out checklist, 332–333
gastrectomy, 329–333
signet ring cell carcinomas of, 90f, 90t
see also Whipple procedure
Storage, cytology specimens, 309
Strawberry gallbladder, 18t, 367
Streaming dissection, muscularis propria, colon carcinoma, 352b
Stroma, invasion by endometrial carcinoma, 326, 436
Stromal sarcoma, uterus, 80t–83t, 92t, 163t–171t, 432
Struma ovarii, 441
Subarachnoid hematoma, evacuations, 530
Subchorionic fibrin deposition, 464
Subdivision, specimens, 8
Subdural hematoma, evacuations, 530
Subendocardial myocyte vacuolization, 290
Subglottis, 489–490, 490f
Submandibular region, radical neck dissections, 478
Subpoenas, 42
Substage condensers, microscopes, 204b
Subungual melanoma, 322
Succenturiate lobe, placenta, 463
Sugarbaker staging system (revised), mesothelioma, 509t–510t
Sugar-coated spleen (food analogy), 18t
Sulfated Alcian blue, 67t–70t
amyloidosis, 289–290
'Sulfur' granules, tonsils, 485
Superficial aspect, 7f
Superior aspect, 7f
Superior limbus, cornea, 532
Superior oblique muscles, ocular, 531, 531f
Suppurative, for fluid consistency descriptions, 18t
Supraglottis, 489–490, 490f
Suprapubic prostatectomy, 405–406
Surgeons, communication with, 46

Surgical drapes, submission of specimens, 8
Surgitool heart valve, 299f
Sutures
  microscopic appearances, 206t–212t
  orientating specimens, 6f, 7–8
Synaptophysin, 109t–150t
Syndactyly, fetus, 471
Syndecan-1 *see* CD antigens, CD138
Synoptic reports, 37, 220
Synovitis, detritic, 250–251, 260
Synovium, 259–260
  crystal disease, 248
  normal, 260
  sarcoma of
    differentiation score, 548t–549t
    genetics, 163t–171t
    immunohistochemistry panel, 80t–83t
Synuclein-1, 109t–150t
Syphilis, as hazard, 196b
Systemic lupus erythematosus
    immunofluorescence, 161
  skin biopsy, submission of specimens, 4t
Systemic mastocytosis, genetics, 172t–178t

T

T3 *see* CD antigens, CD3
T4 *see* CD antigens, CD4
T6 *see* CD antigens, CD1a
T8 *see* CD antigens, CD8
T11 *see* CD antigens, CD2
T64 *see* Clusterin
Tacky, for fluid consistency descriptions, 18t
Taenia coli, colon segments, 340f, 342t
TAG-72 *see* B72.3
Talc, microscopy, 206t–212t
Talc pleurodesis, 506
Tamoxifen, breast carcinoma response, 86, 86t
Targetoid bodies, 206t–212t
Tau (protein), 109t–150t
T-cell antigen receptor *see* TCR
T-cell intracellular antigen *see* TIA-1
T-cell neoplasms, 105t–106t, 172t–178t
T-cell prolymphocytic leukemia, 105t–106t, 172t–178t
  genetics, 172t–178t
TCR (T-cell antigen receptor), 109t–150t
TdT *see* Terminal deoxytransferase
TE *see* CD antigens, CD2
Technical problems, operating room consultations, 51
Teeth, 484
  numbering, 484
TEL-AML1 fusion, 172t–178t
Temperature
  fixation, 21
  frozen sections, 47
  immunogenicity and, 71
Temporal arteritis, scoring system, 306t
Temporal artery, biopsy, stains and levels, 31, 32t–33t
Temporal artery biopsy, 306, 306t
10% rule, pheochromocytoma, 229
Tenosynovium (carpal tunnel syndrome), release specimens, 260
Teratomas
  mature *see* Dermoid cyst
  operating room consultations, 57
  testis, 414
  see also Immature teratoma
Terminal deoxytransferase (TdT), 109t–150t
Terminal ileum, 340f
Terrorism, biologic, 198
Testis, 412–418
  biopsy, 412, 413b
    stains and levels, 32t–33t
  carcinoma, retroperitoneal lymph node dissection, 416
  clinical history, 412t
Texture, gross descriptions, 17, 18t
TFE3, 109t–150t
  alveolar soft part sarcoma, 163t–171t
TFE3 (marker), renal carcinomas, genetics, 163t–171t
TFEB (marker), renal carcinomas, genetics, 163t–171t
TH *see* CD antigens, CD4
Thecoma, ovary, 442
Therapeutic abortion, 466
Therapy related acute lymphoblastic leukemia, genetics, 172t–178t
Therapy related acute myeloblastic leukemia, genetics, 172t–178t
Thoratec ventricular assist device, 303, 304f
Thorotrast, microscopy, 206t–212t
Thrombomodulin *see* CD antigens, CD141
Thrombotic endocarditis, nonbacterial, 292, 293f
Thrombus
  abdominal aortic aneurysms, 305
  intervillous, placenta, 464
Thymoma, 552
  immunohistochemistry panel, 77t–78t
  staging, 553t
Thymus, 551
  carcinoma, 552
    immunohistochemistry panel, 77t–78t
    staging, 553t
  clinical history, 551t
  sign-out checklist, 553
  tumor staging and classification, 554t
Thyroglobulin, 109t–150t
Thyroid gland, 100t, 555
  adenoma, 556
    follicular, 100t
    Ki-67, 71
    renal cortical, 389
  carcinomas, 75t–76t, 84t–85t, 100t, 163t–171t, 557
  see also Medullary carcinoma, thyroid
  clinical history, 555t
  immunohistochemistry, 75t–76t
  metastases, immunohistochemistry, 100t
  nodules, operating room consultations, 62–63
  tumor sign-out checklist, 558
Thyroid inclusions, cervical lymph nodes, 63
Thyroid tissue, parathyroid tissue vs, 64
Thyroid transcription factor 1 *see* TTF-1
TIA-1, immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
Tilting disk valves, 297f–298f
Time
  on antigenicity, 70
  chromogen fading, 73
  fixation, 21
Tissue, processing for histology, 28
  problems with, 28–30
  types of, 30
Tissue arrays, material for, 43
Tissue expanders, breast implants, 286
Tissue typing, patient identification, 2–3
TM *see* CD antigens, CD141
Toenails, 322
Toes, amputations, 238
Toker cells, nipple epidermis, 89t
Toluidine blue, 67t–70t
Tombstone appearance, pemphigus, 161
Tongue, 473–475
  sign-out for, 474
  tumor classification, 477t
Tonsils, 484–486
  carcinoma, 84t–85t, 484
  clinical history, 485t
Total colectomy with ileoanal pull-through reconstruction, 340–341
Total joint arthroplasty, 246–251
  revision, 52, 52t, 250–251
Touch preparations
  intraoperative cytology, 49, 184
  pediatric renal tumors, 389b
Toxic epidermal necrolysis, operating room consultations, 53
Tracking, medical devices, 525, 525b
Traf-1, immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
Transbronchial biopsy, 494
  stains and levels, 32t–33t
Transillumination, eye globe, 532
Transitional cell carcinoma
  immunohistochemistry panels, 74t, 97t–98t
  operating room consultations, 57
  papillary, 388f
  sign-out checklist, 392
  see also Urothelial carcinoma
Transplant pneumonectomy, 504
Transplant rejection, 44
Transplantation *see* Organ transplantation
Transport of specimens, 5
Transthyretin *see* Prealbumin
Transurethral resection of bladder tumors (TURBT), 395
Transurethral resection of prostate (TURP), 404–405
  prostate carcinoma, 404, 408
Transverse colectomy, 339, 341f, 342t
Transverse section, 7f
Trastuzumab (Herceptin), 84t–85t, 163t–171t
  breast carcinoma response, 87t
Trauma, amputations, 238
Treatment
  brain tumors, 530
  clinical history of, 3
Trichilemmoma, multiple facial, germline mutations, 179t–180t
Trichrome stains, 67t–70t
Trilaminar multiple gestation placentas, 460–464
Triplet placentas, 463
Triploidy, partial mole, 467

Trophoblastic lesions endometrial biopsy, 423
Trophoblastic tumors gestational, 433
classification, 435t–452t
prognostic score, 436t
sign-out checklist, 326
see also Choriocarcinoma
TRPM2 *see* Clusterin
TTF-1
cytoplasmic immunoreactivity, 71
immunohistochemistry, 84t–85t, 109t–150t
as lung tumor marker, 84t–85t, 101t
TTR *see* Prealbumin
Tubal carcinoma, 446
sign-out checklist, 446–448
Tubal cysts, 446
Tubal ligation, 444
Tubal pregnancy, 446
Tuberculosis
infection hazard, 196b, 197
aerosol sprays for frozen sections, 65, 196
exposure risk, 197t
lymph nodes, 515
Tuberous sclerosis, 181t–183t
angiomyolipoma of kidney, 391
Tubular structures, histologic processing, 30
Tularemia, 198, 199t–200t
Tumor(s)
amputations and large resections, 241–242
bone
AJCC classifications, 256t
biopsy, 251–252
grading, 257t
resections, 252–258
brain biopsy, 529
differentiation score, 548t–549t
grading, 451t
gross dissection, 10
hernia sacs, 487
immunohistochemistry and, 70
lymph nodes, staging, 516–520
malignant, reporting, 36
muscle differentiation, Zenker's acetic fixative, 23
reporting standards, 221
solid, ovary, 437, 439–440
steroid-producing, color, 17t
submission of specimens, 4t
transmission to health care personnel, 198–201
Tumor bank, 185
Tumor emboli, breast carcinoma, 278b
Tumor necrosis factor receptor associated factor *see* Traf-1
Tumor-associated amyloidosis, 107t
Tumor-associated glycoprotein (TAG-72) *see* B72.3
Tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes, melanoma, 311
Tunica vaginalis, 413–414
TURBT *see* Transurethral resection of bladder tumors
Turcot syndrome, 181t–183t, 527t
Turnaround time, 37
frozen sections, 46
Twin placentas, 460–464, 462f
special studies, 463
Twin-twin transfusion syndrome, 463
Typical carcinoid, lung, 501t
Typographical errors, 220
Tyrosinase, 109t–150t

U

UCHL-1 *see* CD antigens, CD45RO
Ulceration
melanoma, 311
stomach, 330, 331f
tongue and oral tumors, 476f
Ulcerative colitis, 345–346, 346t, 347f
operating room consultations, 55
Ulex, 109t–150t
Ultracor heart valve, 298f
Umbilical cord, 460
length vs gestational age, 464, 465t
microscopy, 464
Uncinate process, pancreas, 377
Undersampling, 20
Understanding, failures of, 220–221
Unilocular cysts, operating room consultations, 57
Unsuspected findings, 36
Upper aerodigestive tract, carcinoma, genetics, 163t–171t
Upper respiratory tract, mucosa, biopsy, 479
Ureter, 400–402
carcinomas, AJCC classifications, 394t
cystectomy specimens, 396–397
Ureterectomy, transitional cell carcinoma, operating room consultations, 57
Ureteropelvic junction, 402–403
Urethra, cystectomy specimens, 397
Urgent results, communication of, 38–39
Uric acid
calculi, 387
crystals, 206t–212t, 247–248
arthroplasty specimens, 248
synovium, 259–260
Urine, storage for cytology, 309
Urothelial carcinoma, 387–391
bladder, grading, 399t
gynecology, grading, 435–436
immunohistochemistry, 97t–98t
nephrectomy, 386
operating room consultations, 57
papillary, 388f
sign-out checklist, 392
ureter, 392
Urothelial papilloma, ureter, 399t
Uterus, 423–436
carcinoma, adenocarcinoma, 94t
clinical history, 423t
leiomyomas, 425–426, 432
genetics, 163t–171t
operating room consultations, 57–58, 59t

V

Vaccination
hepatitis B virus, 196
smallpox, 199t–200t
VADs *see* Ventricular assist devices
Vagina, 453–455
carcinoma
grading, 455
sign-out checklist, 454–455
clinical history, 453t
Valves, cardiac, 291–295, 293f–294f
etiologic assessment, 296t
gross morphologic assessment, 295t
prosthetic, 295–299, 297f
pathologic analysis, 300t
Varicella zoster (VZ), histological appearance, 190t–194t
Varicose veins, 306
Vas deferens, 413
biopsy, stains and levels, 31, 32t–33t
hernia sac, 487
Vascular anastomoses, monochorionic twin placentas, 463
Vascular ectasia, colon, 345
Vascular grafts, 306
coronary artery bypass grafts, 301–303, 306
materials, microscopy, 206t–212t
Vascular insufficiency, lower extremity amputations, 239
Vascular invasion *see* Lymphovascular invasion; Venous invasion
Vascular malformations, brain, 529
Vascular rejection, chronic, lung transplants, 496b
Vascular tumors, immunohistochemistry panels, 80t–83t
Vasculitis, peripheral nerves, 533
Vasoactive intestinal peptide, tumor producing, 379t
Vegetation (food analogy), 18t
Vegetations, heart valves, 292
Velamentous cord, 460, 461f
Velvety, for gross description, 18t
Venous invasion
liver tumors, 366
renal tumors, 387, 389–390
Venous/lymphatic invasion (lymphovascular invasion)
breast carcinoma, 262t
Rosen criteria, 278b
stromal sarcoma, uterus, 432
Ventricles (heart), myocardium, 301, 301f, 304
Ventricular assist devices (VADs), 303–304, 304f
Verbal reports, operating room consultations, 50
Verhoeff-van Gieson stain, 67t–70t
Verner-Morrison tumor, 379t
Vernier scales, 213–214, 213t, 214b
Verrucous, for gross description, 18t
Verrucous carcinoma, vulva, 457
Vertical growth phase, melanoma, 317
Vesicles, skin, 310
Vessels, lower extremity, dissection, 239–241
Vestibular schwannoma
brain biopsy, 529
germline mutations, 179t–180t
Villi, products of conception, 466
hydropic, 467
Villous, for gross description, 18t

Vimentin, immunohistochemistry, 109t–150t
  control, 71
VIPoma, 379t
Viral hepatitis, chronic, grading and staging, 361t
Virilization, adrenal adenomas, 228–229
Viruses
  brain biopsy, 528
  cultures, 185–186
  histological appearance, 190t–194t
  see also Blood-borne viruses
Viscous, for fluid consistency descriptions, 18t
Von Hippel-Lindau syndrome, 181t–183t, 527t
Von Kossa stain, 67t–70t
Von Willebrand factor *see* Factor VIII-related antigen
Vulva, 455–458
  carcinoma, sign-out checklist, 433
  fetus, 471
  intraepithelial neoplasia, 456
  Paget disease, 89t
Vulvar Paget disease, 89t
Vulvectomy, 455–458, 456f
  operating room consultations, 58
VWF *see* Factor VIII-related antigen
VZ *see* Varicella zoster

W

Wada-Cutter heart valve, 298f
WAGR syndrome, 179t–180t
Waldenstrom macroglobulinemia, genetics, 172t–178t
Warthin Starry, 67t–70t
Warthin's tumor, salivary glands, 480
Wash, infection precautions, 65
Waste containers, lost specimens, 12–13
Waterchestnut, unripe (food analogy), 18t
Websites, MEDWATCH home page, 525–526
Wedge resections, lung, 497
  operating room consultations, 59–60
Weibel-Palade bodies, 158t–160t
Weight
  kidney, 386
  lungs, 497–498
  placenta, 464, 465t
  reduction mammoplasty, 281–285
  specimens, 16–17
  transurethral resection of prostate specimens, 404–405
Weiss criteria, adrenal cortex tumors, 232, 233t
Well-circumscribed borders, for gross description, 18t
Whipple procedure, 374–382, 374f
  specimen photography, 216
WHO classifications
  brain tumors, 529
  carcinomas, bladder, 399t
  endocrine tumors of pancreas, 380t
  pulmonary neuroendocrine tumors, 501t
  urothelial carcinoma of bladder, 399t
WHO grading, urothelial carcinoma of bladder, 399t
Wilms tumor, 389–390
  genetics, 163t–171t
  germline mutations, 179t–180t
  website for checklist
Wilms tumor 1 protein (WT1) (protein), immunohistochemistry, 101t, 109t–150t
Wilson's disease, liver biopsy, 362
Wire localization, mammographic lesions with, excisional biopsy, breast, 268–270
Wright's stain, 67t–70t
Written reports, operating room consultations, 49
WT1 *see* Wilms tumor 1 protein
WT1 gene, mutations, 163t–171t

X

Xanthogranulomatous inflammation, color, 17t
Xanthogranulomatous pyelonephritis, 390
Xylene, 24
  cleaning of microscopes, 214
  clearing, 28
  hematoxylin and eosin technique, frozen sections, 48

Y

Yamakawa-Masaoka staging, thymic tumors, 553t
Yersinia pestis, 198, 199t–200t
Yolk sac tumors
  immunohistochemistry panel, 96t
  testis, 414

Z

Z line, 324
'Zellballen,' immunoperoxidase studies, 536
Zenker's acetic fixative, 23
  bone marrow, 513–514
  chloroacetate esterase and, 67t–70t
  chromaffin reaction, 228
Zenker's diverticulum, Meckel's diverticulum vs, 336–337
Ziehl-Neelsen stain, 67t–70t
Zinc, formalin fixation, 22
Zygomycetes, 186t–189t