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31 Müllerianosis

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51 Summary. Müllerianosis may be defined as an organoid structure of embryonic origin; a
52 choristoma composed of müllerian rests - normal endometrium, normal endosalpinx, and
53 normal endocervix - singly or in combination, incorporated within other normal organs during
54 organogenesis. A choristoma is a mass of histologically normal tissue that is “not normally
55 found in the organ or structure in which it is located” (Choristoma, 2006). Müllerian
56 choristomas are a subset of non-müllerian choristomas found throughout the body.

57 Histologically, endometrial-Müllerianosis and endometriosis are both composed of endometrial
58 glands and stroma, but there the similarity ends. Their pathogenesis is different. Sampson faced
59 the same difficulty with pathogenesis and nomenclature when he wrote: “The nomenclature of
60 misplaced endometrial or müllerian lesions is a difficult one to decide upon.” “The term
61 müllerian would be inclusive and correct, but unfortunately it suggests an embryonic origin.”
62 Sampson then divided “misplaced endometrial or müllerian tissue” into “four or possibly five
63 groups, according to the manner in which this tissue reached its ectopic location” (Sampson,
64 1925).

65 Sampson’s classification of heterotopic or misplaced endometrial tissue is based on
66 pathogenesis: 1) “direct or primary endometriosis” [adenomyosis]; “a similar condition occurs
67 in the wall of the tube from its invasion by the tubal mucosa” [endosalpingiosis]; 2) “peritoneal
68 or implantation endometriosis;” 3) “transplantation endometriosis;” 4) “metastatic
69 endometriosis;” and 5) “developmentally misplaced endometrial tissue. (I admit the possibility
70 of such a condition, but have never been able to appreciate it.)” (Sampson, 1925). It is precisely
71 this condition “developmentally misplaced endometrial tissue,” [Müllerianosis] that is the
72 subject of this review.

73 Introduction

74 “The surgeon has a wonderful opportunity to study ‘living pathology’ in both the early and
75 advanced stages of disease” (Sampson, 1924). When it is realized that Sampson was the sole
76 author of virtually all his publications, we can conclude that he undoubtedly would have
77 recognized and described Müllerianosis had he had the cold light laparoscope to study the

78 pelvis. Nonetheless, Sampson did publish an illustration of a “shallow” (peritoneal) pocket in
79 the broad ligament (Sampson, 1927).

80 Based on his extensive operative experience with cervical cancer, Sampson fully appreciated
81 the invasiveness of endometriosis. In the last sentence of his paper on heterotopic or misplaced
82 endometrial tissue, he concluded: “It would seem that we are warranted in stating that the
83 invasion and dissemination of benign endometrial tissue employ the same channels as the
84 invasion and dissemination of cancer” (Sampson, 1925). Toward the end of his career,
85 Sampson indicated why he introduced the term endometriosis and alluded to the inflammatory
86 reaction associated with endometriotic adhesions.

87 “The term endometriosis was introduced to indicate the presence of ectopic tissue which
88 possess the histologic structure and function of the uterine mucosa. It also includes the
89 abnormal conditions which may result not only from the invasion of organs and other structures
90 by this tissue, but also from its reaction to menstruation” (Sampson, 1940).

91 In a monograph dedicated to “Dr. John A. Sampson,” the Canadian gynecologist James Robert
92 Goodall described the fourth misplaced or heterotopic tissue – endocervicosis - to complete the
93 benign invasive quartet: adenomyosis, endometriosis, endosalpingiosis, and endocervicosis.
94 “Endocervicosis is a new disease, a recent discovery. It is characterized by a nonmalignant
95 invasion of the deep cervical and paracervical tissues by the mucosa of the cervix uteri”
96 (Goodall, 1943). Goodall also described specific host responses to the endometriotic stimulus
97 that he observed at surgery and in the pathology laboratory. The host responses to
98 endometriosis included: hypertrophy of the invaded organs, relaxation of supporting ligaments
99 of the uterus and ovaries that permitted uterine retroversion, sclerosis of the ovary and
100 peritoneum of the anterior and posterior pelvic pouches, intense inflammatory response during
101 acute phases of the disease, and the ubiquitous and often extensive adhesions found in chronic
102 phases of the disease. Goodall, Sampson, Cullen, and others before them more often observed
103 advanced stages of endometriosis at laparotomy and at autopsy.

104 If we consider worse case scenarios encountered with endometriosis and Müllerianosis, the
105 reader will immediately appreciate the vast differences between the two conditions. Examples
106 of worse case scenarios for Müllerianosis include: two reports of intraspinal choristomas, one
107 an endometrial choristoma (Agrawal et al., 2006), the other a Müllerianosis choristoma (Barresi
108 et al., 2006). Both were successfully treated by surgical intervention without complications. A
109 massive endometrial choristoma of the liver was also treated by surgical excision without
110 complication (Tuech et al., 2003).

111 Every gynecologic and pelvic surgeon has encountered the worse case endometriosis-associated
112 inflammatory scenario – the completely frozen pelvis - with all organs cemented together by
113 dense endometriotic adhesions. For the worse case endometriosis-associated invasive scenario,
114 we refer to the reports of Dr. Thomas S. Cullen. Cullen described a patient who developed
115 postoperative rectovaginal and vesicovaginal fistulas following surgical excision of
116 adenomyomatous growths involving the rectum, vagina and cervix; in effect surgery resulted in
117 a cloaca, a major complication. The surgical specimen is illustrated in Fig. 13, Plate LXXVI
118 (Cullen, 1917). Perhaps there is no more powerful demonstration of the basic phenotypic
119 differences between deeply invasive endometriosis and non-invasive Müllerianosis than the
120 devastatingly invasive adenomyomatous growths reported by Cullen and the placid, non-
121 invasive Müllerianosis of peritoneal pockets in the floor of the RVPD (Batt et al., 1989).

122 In his final contribution Cullen concluded: “The removal of an extensive adenomyoma of the
123 rectovaginal septum is infinitely more difficult than a hysterectomy for carcinoma of the
124 cervix” (Cullen, 1920). Later, referring to a case of adenomyomata of the rectovaginal septum
125 that he had seen in consultation after hysterectomy, Cullen remarked: “In this case we found an
126 extension of the growth - an extension so widespread that removal of the adenomyomatous
127 growth was out of the question” (Cullen, 1925). In sum, invasion is the sine qua non of all
128 endometriotic disease (Koninckx and Martin, 1994; Koninckx et al., 1999). Cullen, Sampson,
129 and Goodall described the pathology and explained the pathogenesis of four phenotypes of
130 benign invasive disease: Cullen, adenomyosis; Sampson, endometriosis and endosalpingiosis;
131 Goodall, endocervicosis. In this review we will describe the pathology and the criteria for
132 diagnosis of Müllerianosis in all of its histologic and phenotypic variety, and explain how we
133 arrived at the developmental pathogenesis of Müllerianosis.

134 Historical evolution of the theory of pathogenesis of Müllerianosis

135 Our interest in the pathogenesis of Müllerianosis was stimulated by two presentations on
136 endometriosis given at the Buffalo Gynecologic and Obstetric Society in 1984, one by Dr.
137 Donald Goldstein from the Adolescent Gynecology Clinic at Boston Children’s Hospital and
138 the second by Dr. Donald Chatman from the University of Chicago. Goldstein referred to a
139 pelvic peritoneal pocket as a “Murphy window” while Chatman called it a “peritoneal defect.”
140 Since the term “peritoneal defect” implied a deficiency when there was none, we proposed
141 instead the descriptive term peritoneal pocket, which described an organoid structure, and also
142 because the floor of this organoid structure could be grasped and turned inside out for excision.

143 Practicing at a highly specialized infertility and endometriosis regional private practice in
144 Buffalo, New York, provided us with many cases of pelvic peritoneal pockets, the common
145 form of Müllerianosis. Many peritoneal pockets had tiny endometriotic brim nodules. We found
146 only one that contained an endosalpingiosis cyst, tethered by a stalk. Though we never saw a
147 case of endocervicosis, we included endocervicosis in the definition of Müllerianosis (Batt et
148 al., 1990), having been strongly influenced by Goodall (1943) and our earlier work (Batt and
149 Naples, 1982). This decision was also based on an insight that Müllerianosis was
150 developmental and that in time we would observe cases of endocervicosis and more cases of
151 endosalpingiosis.

152 The insight that pelvic peritoneal pockets might originate during embryonic development came
153 on April 12, 1985 when we first saw a patient with the ‘bilateral and symmetrical’ pattern of
154 peritoneal pockets in the RVPD. The bilateral and symmetrical pattern suggested rudimentary
155 duplication of the primary müllerian ducts and hence, a developmental pathogenesis (Batt and
156 Smith, 1989). This insight was corroborated by the observation of anomalies in 18/54 (33%) of
157 our patients with peritoneal pockets (Batt et al., 1989). Some patients had more than one
158 anomaly in addition to the peritoneal pocket(s). Specifically, 13/54 (24%) of our patients had
159 medial position of the ureter(s), some associated with a large recess in the broad ligament of
160 sufficient capacity to envelop the ovary and fallopian tube. Anomalies of the primary müllerian
161 system were found in 8/54 (15%) of our patients with pelvic peritoneal pockets, and in addition
162 half of them had medial positioning of the ureter(s). In seven patients the primary müllerian
163 anomaly involved the fallopian tubes; the eighth patient had müllerian agenesis (Mayer-
164 Rokitansky-Küster-Hauser Syndrome) and medullary spongiosis of the upper pole of the right
165 kidney. Also, finding one patient with a central peritoneal pocket surrounded by an extensive
166 plexus of varicose veins and another patient with a splayed-open uterus-like organoid müllerian

167 structure that occupied the RVPD provided us with further clinical evidence for a
168 developmental pathogenesis. In a prospective study we observed pelvic peritoneal pockets in
169 27% of adolescent and adult women undergoing laparoscopy or laparotomy for endometriosis
170 (Batt et al., 1997). This growing body of evidence supported our hypothesis that Müllerianosis
171 was a developmental entity.

172 In 1990, we defined Müllerianosis “as the presence of remnants of müllerian tissue
173 (endometriosis, endosalpingiosis, endocervicosis) associated with peritoneal pockets localized
174 to the rectovaginal pouch, rectovaginal space, posterior broad ligaments, and pararectal space”
175 (Batt et al., 1990). In retrospect, this was not only an unnecessarily restrictive definition
176 necessitating the presence of pelvic peritoneal pockets but also incorrect nomenclature. The
177 terms endocervicosis, endometriosis, and endosalpingiosis imply invasive disease and in our
178 opinion are inappropriate to Müllerianosis.

179 Pathology and pathogenesis of Müllerianosis: Revised developmental theory

180 With publication of the remarkable case report of a huge hepatic endometrioma (Tuech et al.,
181 2003), we recognized a unique resource provided by such ‘virtual referrals’ (Batt et al., 2003).
182 By ‘virtual referrals’ we mean case reports of rare müllerian choristomas. Such ‘virtual
183 referrals’ provide an opportunity to analyze their pathogenesis and pathology. Also, ‘virtual
184 referrals’ provide two crucial advantages: not only have the cases been completely evaluated,
185 they also have satisfied peer reviewers before publication.

186 Since 2003 we have analyzed a critical mass of ‘virtual referral’ cases which has generated a
187 greater appreciation for the phenotypic diversity of müllerian choristomas. The ‘virtual
188 referrals’ included such rare cases as endometrial cysts of the liver (Batt et al., 2003, 2006a),
189 endometrial lesions of the sciatic and obturator nerves (Yeh et al., 2004a,b), precoccygeal
190 endometrial cysts (Batt, et al., 2006b), and a case of spinal intradural Müllerianosis (Barresi et
191 al., 2006). As we encountered more of these rare polymorphic phenotypes, we broadened our
192 inclusion criteria for the developmental theory to address the pathogenesis of müllerian
193 choristomas in diverse locations within the abdominal and pelvic cavities. And we redefined
194 Müllerianosis as a choristoma or an organoid lesion comprising müllerian anlage that has been
195 misplaced during embryologic development. Such müllerian choristomas might contain one,
196 two, or all three müllerian components - endocervix, endometrium, endosalpinx; forms frusta of
197 the cervix, uterus, and fallopian tubes, respectively. In sum, we believe the developmental
198 theory provides a powerful explanation for the pathogenesis of müllerian choristomas wherever
199 they are found.

200 Müllerian choristomas have been identified in non-müllerian tissues, and non-müllerian
201 choristomas have been identified in non-müllerian tissues and possibly in müllerian tissue. As a
202 more complete inventory of müllerian choristomas becomes available for study, a pattern may
203 emerge giving greater insight into their biologic significance and the developmental dynamics
204 responsible for their misplacement.

205 Müllerian choristomas in non-müllerian tissues

206 Endosalpingeal-choristomas have been identified in the urinary bladder (Arai et al., 1999) and
207 the vermiform appendix (Cajigas and Axiotis, 1990). An endocervical-choristoma has been
208 identified in the small intestine (Chen, 2002). Uterus-like choristomas have been found in the
209 small intestine (Peterson et al., 1990) and in the conus medullaris with associated tethered cord

210 (Rougier et al., 1993). A müllerian choristoma has been associated with a case of tethered cord
211 syndrome (Molleston et al., 1991). An endometrial-choristoma has been identified in the lung
212 (Schimizu et al., 1998) and in the pancreas (Lee et al., 2002). Lastly, a patient with
213 symptomatic spinal intradural Müllerianosis at the “L2 – L3” level has been reported (Barresi et
214 al., 2006). Histologic examination revealed a 1.9 cm encapsulated smooth muscle nodule
215 containing an “admixture of endocervicosis, endosalpingiosis, and endometriosis.” This non-
216 invasive organoid lesion “apparently [originated] from terminal phylum...[having] the gross
217 morphology of a terminal phylum ependymoma.” Periodic bleeding from the endometrial
218 component appears to have first given rise to neurologic symptoms and signs of three years
219 duration that ultimately led to the diagnosis of Müllerianosis at age 42 years.

220 Non-müllerian choristomas in non-müllerian tissues

221 A number of non-müllerian choristomas have been observed in various locations. For example,
222 ovarian choristomas have been identified in the kidney (Levy et al., 1997; Hartigan et al.,
223 2006), renal choristomas in the adrenal gland (Barr and Lorig, 1990), lumbosacral area (Alston
224 et al., 1989; Horenstein et al., 2004), and in the heart (Milliser et al., 1972; Lutzen and
225 Lehmann, 1975). Other types include: a liver choristoma in the heart (Brustmann, 2002), a
226 pancreas choristoma in the lung (de Krijger et al., 2004), a spleen choristoma in the pancreas
227 (Ota and Ono, 2004), central nervous system choristomas in the spinal cord (Chung et al.,
228 1998), neck (Tubbs et al., 2003), and a symptomatic neurenteric choristoma with gastric
229 mucosa in the spine (Kantrowitz et al., 1986).

230 Possible non-müllerian choristoma in müllerian tissues. To date, only one case of ectopic
231 thyroid tissue has been reported to have been found in the uterus. The authors advance two
232 explanations for this finding: “metastasis of the thyroid follicular epithelial cells via blood” or
233 “ectopia of the congenital thyroid tissue” (Yilmaz et al., 2005).

234 Discussion

235 Considerable difficulty may be experienced in trying to understand the concept of
236 Müllerianosis and to distinguish it from endometriosis because both require the presence of
237 glands and stroma for definitive histopathologic diagnosis. This is problematic until one
238 remembers they differ profoundly in phenotype, pathophysiology, and pathogenesis. Both
239 conditions must be viewed in clinical context. Differentiation becomes clearer when one
240 realizes that endometriosis is endometrium shed outside the uterine cavity that invades the outer
241 surface of organs, while Müllerianosis is endometrium (and at times also endosalpinx and
242 endocervix) misplaced within other organs during organogenesis and is associated frequently
243 with congenital anomalies, often existing in the absence of pelvic endometriosis.

244 Routinely integrating clinical observations at surgery with histologic examination in the
245 laboratory, we accepted one histologic component - endometrium - as diagnostic of
246 Müllerianosis (Batt et al., 1989). Young and Clement (1996) redefined Müllerianosis in stricter
247 histologic terms to denote lesions “seen at any site” containing “admixtures of endosalpingiosis,
248 endometriosis, and endocervicosis”. This definition required two tissue types, and preferably all
249 three, for the unequivocal pathologic diagnosis of Mullerian is, and to differentiate composite
250 from simple lesions. In effect, Young and Clement questioned our definition of Mullerian is as
251 applied to pelvic peritoneal pockets.

252 We were unprepared to enter into debate with two renowned gynecologic pathologists
253 regarding the definition and diagnostic criteria for Mullerian is because we had no experience
254 with the rarer forms of Mullerian is they had encountered. Moreover, we believed that their
255 reports of endocervicosis of the urinary bladder (Clement and Young, 1992) and three-tissue
256 Mullerian is of the urinary bladder (Young and Clement, 1996) were consistent with our
257 developmental theory of Mullerian is. In retrospect, our decision to define broadly the
258 pathologic criteria for Mullerian is to include all three müllerian tissue types might seem
259 prescient, though it was not (Batt et al., 1990).

260 When consulting pathologists are confronted in their laboratory with a histologic specimen and
261 a clinical note, the diagnostic requirement of Young and Clement for two and preferably all
262 three-tissue types (endosalpinx, endocervix, and endometrium) makes perfect sense. Unlike
263 Clement and Young who examined pathology specimens sent to them from all over North
264 America, our observations were confined to one regional practice located in Western New
265 York, an area shown to have a high ecologic correlation between environmental contaminants
266 and prevalence of endometriosis (Carpenter et al., 2001). The more common form of Mullerian
267 is – peritoneal pockets – was largely seen. We studied them in complete clinical-pathologic
268 context, with frequent pathology consultations in the operating room and clinical consultations
269 in the pathology laboratory. This intense collaboration produced our initial insight.

270 Müllerianosis presents as rare choristomas within most organs in the abdominal and pelvic
271 cavities with the notable exception of the spleen (Batt et al., 2003). In our opinion, müllerian
272 choristomas - whether they contain one, two, or all three-tissue components - can be diagnosed
273 with certainty when three conditions are met: 1) no evidence of pelvic endometriosis; 2) no
274 direct communications with the endocervix, endometrium, or endosalpinx; and 3) when there is
275 no history of surgery on the reproductive organs. When suspected müllerian choristomas
276 contain two or three müllerian tissue components, we agree with Young and Clement that they
277 constitute definitive diagnostic criteria for the diagnosis of Mullerian is. However, when an
278 endometrial choristoma co-exists with pelvic endometriosis, especially deeply infiltrating
279 endometriosis (Cornillie et al., 1990; Leyendecker et al., 2002; Chapron et al., 2006); given our
280 current state of knowledge, diagnosing a müllerian choristoma can be problematic.

281 We agree with Barresi and colleagues that the presence of all three-tissue types (endometrium,
282 endosalpinx, and endocervix) meets the strictest pathologic criteria for the diagnosis of
283 Mullerian is (Young and Clement, 1996), especially when supported by immunohistochemical
284 evidence. We support the authors' speculation regarding pathogenesis, that "embryonic
285 development might give an explanation for Mullerian is occurring in such an unusual site"
286 (Barresi et al., 2006). To be more specific, given the presence of all three histologic
287 components, we postulate that only müllerian tissue from the genital ridge misplaced to the
288 spinal cord during organogenesis fully explains both the pathogenesis and the pathology of this
289 intradural organoid müllerian choristoma.

290 Conclusions

291 We encourage vigorous discussion and debate about the definition, phenotypes, pathology,
292 pathophysiology, and pathogenesis of Müllerianosis. In future research initiatives aimed at the
293 elucidation of the etiology of endometriosis, we encourage the inclusion of Müllerianosis in the
294 research design. We believe that as evidence continues to evolve supporting a multi-factorial
295 etiology for endometriosis, such multi-factorial influences on the embryonic development of

296 Müllerianosis should be investigated. While the exact exposure or its timing remains unknown,
297 research focusing on the effect of xenobiotic agents occurring periconceptually or during early
298 embryonic development may advance our understanding of the biology and clinical
299 significance of Mullerianosis. For example, evidence supports an association between exposure
300 to select persistent organochlorine chemicals and risk of endometriosis (Buck Louis et al.,
301 2004; Porpora et al., 2006), but researchers continue to be challenged in determining the timing
302 of exposures that may confer such risk.

303 At present, “X ray, CT and NMR images cannot differentiate spinal Müllerianosis” (Barresi et
304 al., 2006). As imaging technologies continue to be perfected, they may offer researchers precise
305 diagnoses in adolescent and adult women without reliance on surgical intervention. This would
306 allow choice of comparison groups for carefully designed multi-center studies. Choice of
307 comparison groups continues to challenge investigators and, undoubtedly, impacts
308 interpretations of the research (Bloom et al., 2006).

309 Müllerian choristomas containing endometrium generally bleed causing debilitating health
310 problems (Tuech et al., 2003; Barresi et al., 2006). Müllerianosis must be distinguished from
311 malignancy (Young and Clement, 1996; Arai et al., 1999). Müllerianosis presenting as pelvic
312 peritoneal pockets has been associated with pelvic pain and infertility (Batt et al., 1989). In
313 sum, Müllerianosis-associated pelvic pain, Müllerianosis-associated infertility, and
314 Müllerianosis-associated health problems in adolescent and adult women provide sufficient
315 justification for further research of this disorder. Inclusion of Mullerian is in the intensive
316 investigations into the pathogenesis and pathophysiology of endometriosis and adenomyosis
317 can, in our opinion, provide a more comprehensive understanding of endometriotic diseases and
318 contribute to understanding of developmental disease processes. Thus we believe the diagnosis,
319 pathology, pathogenesis, treatment, and long term management of patients with Müllerianosis
320 are worthy subjects for discussion and debate at the Tenth World Congress on Endometriosis in
321 Australia in 2008.

322 Multidisciplinary approaches to Müllerianosis are needed, in particular review and evaluation
323 of information from a registry of ‘virtual referrals’. Müllerian choristomas need to be identified
324 in clinical populations, including their locations throughout the abdominal and pelvic cavities of
325 individuals identified. Finally, testable hypothesis should underlie research involving women
326 and primates to assess the fundamental molecular processes in the development of müllerian
327 sis. From an etiologic perspective, comparative sociodemographic profiles and tissues from
328 women and adolescents with Müllerianosis should be studied taking into account environmental
329 as well as genetic influences. From a clinical perspective, physicians need training to recognize
330 müllerian as well as non-müllerian choristomas encountered during imaging scans, surgical
331 explorations, and pathologic examinations.

332 In conclusion, we define Müllerianosis as an organoid structure of embryonic origin; a
333 choristoma composed of müllerian rests - normal endometrium, normal endosalpinx, and
334 normal endocervix - singly or in combination, incorporated within other normal organs during
335 organogenesis. Composite müllerian choristomas represent forms frusta of the cervix, uterus,
336 and fallopian tubes, respectively. We postulate further that all müllerian choristomas, including
337 pelvic peritoneal pockets, have a developmental origin. In our opinion, the pathogenesis of
338 Müllerianosis is fundamentally different from the benign invasive quartet: adenomyosis,
339 endometriosis, endosalpingiosis, and endocervicosis.

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