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Original Research Article

**Cytokines and Defensins in Tissue Biopsies
Obtained by Bronchoscopy from Patients with
Post-intubation Tracheal Stenosis**

ABSTRACT

Aims: The objective of our study was to perform the routine analysis of bronchoscopically obtained tracheal samples to determine the appearance and relative distribution of cytokines and antimicrobial proteins in patients with post-intubation tracheal stenosis (PITS).
Study design: Retrospective.
Place and Duration of Study: Rīga Stradiņš University, Institute of Anatomy and Anthropology, Pauls Stradiņš Clinical University Hospital, between May 2014 and May 2015.
Methodology: Five patients with PITS were involved in this study. Tissue samples were obtained by bronchoscopy from the upper part of trachea, then proceeded for routine histological staining with hematoxylin and eosin. Interleukine-1 (IL-1), interleukine-10 (IL-10) and tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF α), as well as beta defensin-2 (β def-2) were detected by use of immunohistochemistry (IMH) method. The number of immunoreactive (positive) structures was graded semi-quantitatively.
Results: Squamous metaplasia, inflammatory cell infiltration and formation of granulation tissue were observed in all cases. Significant expression of IL-10 and β def-2 was seen as various number of immunoreactive structures in tracheal tissue. Only few scattered IL-1 and TNF α positive macrophages were found in part of cases.
Conclusions: The leading role in pathogenesis of post-intubation tracheal stenosis is assumed to be the chronic inflammation, fibrous scarring, as well as the remodeling of tracheal wall due to the ischemia. Compensatory expression of antimicrobial peptide β def-2 and anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10 indicates the intense local tissue defense reactions. TNF α and IL-1 are not among the most significant factors in pathogenesis of PITS.

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Keywords: cytokines, defensins, post-intubation tracheal stenosis.

1. INTRODUCTION

The most common reasons for the non-malignant obstruction of central airways (trachea, as well as primary bronchi) are intubation and tracheostomy [1] or combination of both [2], which are considered as iatrogenic causes. The incidence of post-intubation tracheal stenosis diagnosed in patients with prolonged artificial ventilation varies from 1% to 2% of patients requiring treatment, and 10% to 22% due to the presence of clinical signs and symptoms [3], in total estimating 4.9 cases per million per year [4]. On one hand, the incidence of post-intubation tracheal stenosis increases due to the growing number in the use of mechanical ventilation in intensive care departments and for the management of chronic diseases, mainly with the origin of lungs. On the other hand, the incidence of post-intubation tracheal stenosis has decreased because of the recognition of exact etiological factors in pathogenesis of post-intubation tracheal stenosis and design modifications, as well as the precise application of cuffed intubation tubes.

Post-intubation tracheal stenosis is a complication of endotracheal intubation using cuffed intubation tube, which usually occurs at the site of the contiguity of cuff and the tracheal wall

29 in the upper part of the trachea (in the subglottic region) [5]. The following factors could
30 predispose the development of post-intubation tracheal stenosis: prolonged and/or traumatic
31 intubation, history of intubation, previous tracheotomy, use of high dose corticosteroids,
32 advanced age, female gender, severe respiratory failure, severe gastroesophageal reflux
33 disease (GERD), concomitant autoimmune diseases, sleep apnea-hypopnea syndrome,
34 local radiation therapy [5]. The pathogenesis of post-intubation tracheal stenosis have been
35 described with main pathological changes of blood perfusion, due to which the secondary
36 processes take place in all histological layers of tracheal wall. The very first moment of those
37 pathological events is the cuff pressure higher than approximately 30 mmHg exerted on the
38 tracheal mucosa, that exceeds the pressure in mucosal capillaries. This predominance of
39 cuff pressure over the perfusion capabilities in tracheal capillaries leads to the mucosal
40 ischemia [6]. Interestingly, the amount of pathological damage found in morphological
41 analysis of tracheal wall increases as the period of the mechanical ventilation and therefore
42 the presence of cuffed intubation tube was prolonged [7]. Due to the unique segmental blood
43 supply of the trachea, of which the blood vessels perforate the tracheal wall at interannular
44 cartilage spaces and arborize through the submucosa, lesions of transmural nature occur
45 at the site of cuffed tube compressing tracheal wall within all its layers [8]. This is the most
46 significant explanation to all pathological events, that could be partially seen describing both
47 bronchoscopic and morphological findings. Not only the regional ischemia causes the
48 reversible edema, congestion, hemorrhages and traces of fibrinous exudate of the tracheal
49 wall that could heal completely within few days [2][9], but also causes the ulceration of the
50 mucosa initiating the necrosis, therefore typically within 3 to 6 weeks initiating the process of
51 complex healing and scarring [8][9]. Fibrous tissue due to scarring in bronchoscopy were
52 detected as circumferential tight and little tight stenosis of tracheal lumen [10].

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54 The morphopathogenesis of post-intubation tracheal stenosis includes the development of
55 fibrous tissue along with the local ischemia mainly [6,7,8,9,10].

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57 The pseudostratified ciliated epithelium, which normally lines the trachea, is often replaced by
58 stratified squamous epithelium. Sometimes keratinization and flattening of the surface cells
59 is present [11]. Similar findings were observed in animal (rabbit) model [12].

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61 Besides the scarring fibrosis and squamous metaplasia, the mucosa demonstrates the
62 ulceration sites lacking epithelium and layered with granulation tissue containing a moderate
63 number of small capillaries and various infiltrating cells. These ulceration sites are
64 characterised as decubitus sores with extensive proliferation of connective tissue cells, as
65 well as vast production of connective tissue fibers. Also and the wrinkling of mucosal layer
66 and cartilage, as well as atrophic glands becoming atrophic could be present [9,13].

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68 Inflammatory cell infiltrations containing lymphocytes and plasma cells, but mostly
69 neutrophils could be found both in mucosa and submucosa [14,15,16]. although the specific
70 initial processes — the signalling, migration and infiltrating — of these cells have not been only
71 partially described [14]. Animal studies indicate early inflammatory cell infiltration in murine
72 model of subglottic stenosis [16].

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74 Previously listed pathological cell and tissue processes within tracheal wall validated by
75 morphological, clinical and bronchoscopic findings play a significant role in the complex
76 formation of post-intubation tracheal stenosis, however, The crucial player in the
77 pathogenesis of post-intubation tracheal stenosis appears to be also the local inflammatory
78 responses to the injury. Initial inflammatory phase of wound healing includes the release of
79 the inflammatory signals from different cell types, not always derived from the immune
80 system, that further enhances the accumulation of immunological cells (macrophages,
81 granulocytes, lymphocytes) in tissue of exact organ. Inflammatory signals enhance the

82 ingrowth of fibroblasts, depositions of connective tissue components, angiogenesis and the
83 formation of granulation tissue [14,17].

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85 The presence of immune cells accumulated in the tissue occur due to the different cytokine
86 expression, so the cytokine interleukine-1 (IL-1) family have autoinflammatory and
87 autoimmune properties, but IL-1 itself is a proinflammatory cytokine. One of the most
88 important functions is the stimulation of thermoregulation centers in brain, thus the IL-1
89 works as endogenous pyrogen, also IL-1 possesses also the regulatory function on innate
90 immunity and inflammation by amplifying the humoral innate immunity and the resistance to
91 infections, regulating tissue damage, recruiting leukocytes, prolonging the lifespan and
92 stimulating the functions of neutrophils and macrophages [18,19]. Also several changes in
93 immunological responses could be detected due to the release of IL-1 – increased antibody
94 production (adjuvant effect), increased lymphokine synthesis (IL-1 β , IL-2, -3, -4, -5, -6, -7,
95 -10, -12), enhanced development of T cell clones and other, also increased expression of
96 various genes by IL-1 have been described: several cytokines, cytokine receptors,
97 proinflammatory mediators, hepatic acute phase reactants, growth factors, clotting factors,
98 tissue remodeling factors, components of extracellular matrix and other [20].

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100 The main functions of cytokine interleukine-10 (IL-10) are immunoregulatory properties with
101 multiple biologic effects on different cell types. Other interesting cytokine is IL-10. IL-10
102 inhibits cytokines associated with cellular immunity and allergic inflammation while stimulating
103 humoral responses [21] and promotes the growth of the B lymphocytes [18,20]. Primary
104 sources of IL-10 are regulatory T cells, however, the most important IL-10 sources in human
105 organism are monocytes and B lymphocytes. The dual nature of IL-10 have been described,
106 firstly, IL-10 inhibits the synthesis of proinflammatory cytokines, therefore this cytokine has
107 anti-inflammatory potential. Secondly, due to the activated immunogenic cells, IL-10 could
108 promote the inflammation processes. However, IL-10 works as anti-inflammatory cytokine
109 blocking pro-inflammatory and inflammatory signaling [18,20,21].

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111 Tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF α) is a potent cytokine with wide activity of pro-
112 inflammatory properties [18,22]. TNF α have a wide spectrum of activities. It promotes the
113 degranulation of neutrophils, previously of what the chemotaxis of neutrophils could be
114 observed. TNF α also activates macrophages to excrete matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs),
115 as well as promotes the transcription of pro-inflammatory genes. TNF α induces several
116 cytokines, for example, IL-1 and IL-6 [23].

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118 Beta defensin-2 (β def-2), an antimicrobial protein, prevents the skin and mucosa in
119 respiratory, genitourinary, gastrointestinal systems from bacterial infections, therefore works
120 as effectors of innate immunity and enhances the antigen specific humoral and cellular
121 immunity [24]. β def-2 is a great example of defensins being activated by bacterial products
122 and pro-inflammatory cytokines, which is released during the inflammatory response in
123 normal tissue [25]. β def-2 is active against several Gram-negative bacteria and works
124 synergically with antibacterial proteins, for example, lysozyme and lactoferrin. In vertebrates,
125 β def-2 works not only as microbicid agent of innate immunity, but also promotes adaptive
126 immunity, promotes the chemotactic recruitment of monocytes, macrophages, neutrophils
127 and immature dendritic cells. β def-2 also stimulates the migration, proliferation of
128 endothelial cells [26].

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130 Previously described pathological findings – fibrous scarring, development of granulation
131 tissue, squamous metaplasia, immune cell infiltration due to the ischemia at the site of cuffed
132 tube – can not be seen exclusively, therefore exact local mechanisms, intercellular
133 interactions between different cell types must be analyzed for the understanding of complex
134 pathological events found in post-intubation tracheal stenosis. Intercellular signaling in form

135 of cytokine expression must be investigated to find specific pathogenetic stepways or how
136 exactly the cuff pressure could lead to tracheal stenosis.

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138 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

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140 2.1 Patients

141 The tissue was obtained from five patients (age 28 to 70) with post-intubation tracheal
142 stenosis at Pauls Stradiņš Clinical University Hospital within a period of time in year 2013.
143 Diagnosis of post-intubation tracheal stenosis was confirmed during the bronchoscopy,
144 which was indicated for patients due to the clinical status. In all cases material was taken at
145 the upper part of trachea from patients with prolonged intubation. The extension of tracheal
146 stenosis evaluated through bronchoscope varies from 50% to 70% of the tracheal lumen; the
147 length of fibrous tissue varies from 2 to 3 cm. All clinical information about the patients is
148 summarized in Table 1. Patients with severe respiratory failure, severe GERD, concomitant
149 autoimmune diseases, sleep apnea-hypopnea syndrome, local radiation therapy and
150 administration of high-dose corticosteroids were not included in this study.

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152 **Table 1. Clinical data about the patients with post-intubation tracheal stenosis**
153 **involved in study.**

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Patient / Data	Age	Gender	Cause of tracheal stenosis	Length of intubation (days)	Obesity (BMI of 30-39,9 kg/m ²)	Smoking	Cardio-vascular disease	Diabetes
1	66	Female	Prolonged intubation	7	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
2	69	Male	Prolonged intubation	5	No	15 pack years	Yes	Yes
3	70	Male	Prolonged intubation	7	No	20 pack years	Yes	Yes
4	28	Male	Prolonged intubation	6	No	6 pack years	No	No
5	29	Male	Prolonged intubation	5	No	3 pack years	No	No

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156 2.2 Methodology

157 1) Soft tissue specimens of 1-10 mm³ were taken under control of bronchoscope within
158 local anaesthesia (submucosal administration on 1-2 mL of 1% lidocaine solution).

159 2) The mixture of 2% formaldehyde and 0,2% picric acid in 0,1 M phosphate buffer (ph
160 7,2) was used for tissue fixation. Afterwards tissue samples were rinsed in Thyroid
161 solution, containing 10% sucrose for 12 hours, then were embedded into paraffin. Six to
162 seven micrometers (µm) thin tissue sections were cut.

163 3) Routine histological staining with hematoxylin and eosin was used for each case to get
164 review picture of the slide.

165 4) Sections were proceed for detection of cytokines IL-1α, IL-10, TNFα and defensin β def-
166 2 by use of biotin-streptavidin immunohistochemistry (IMH) method [27]. The
167 characteristics of primary antibodies were following:

- 168 • IL-10 (code: P22301, rabbit, work dilution 1:400, BioSite),
- 169 • TNFα (code: sc-52250, mouse, work dilution 1:100, Santa Cruz
170 Biotechnology, INC),
- 171 • IL-1α (code: sc-9983, mouse, work dilution 1:50, Santa Cruz Biotechnology,
172 INC),

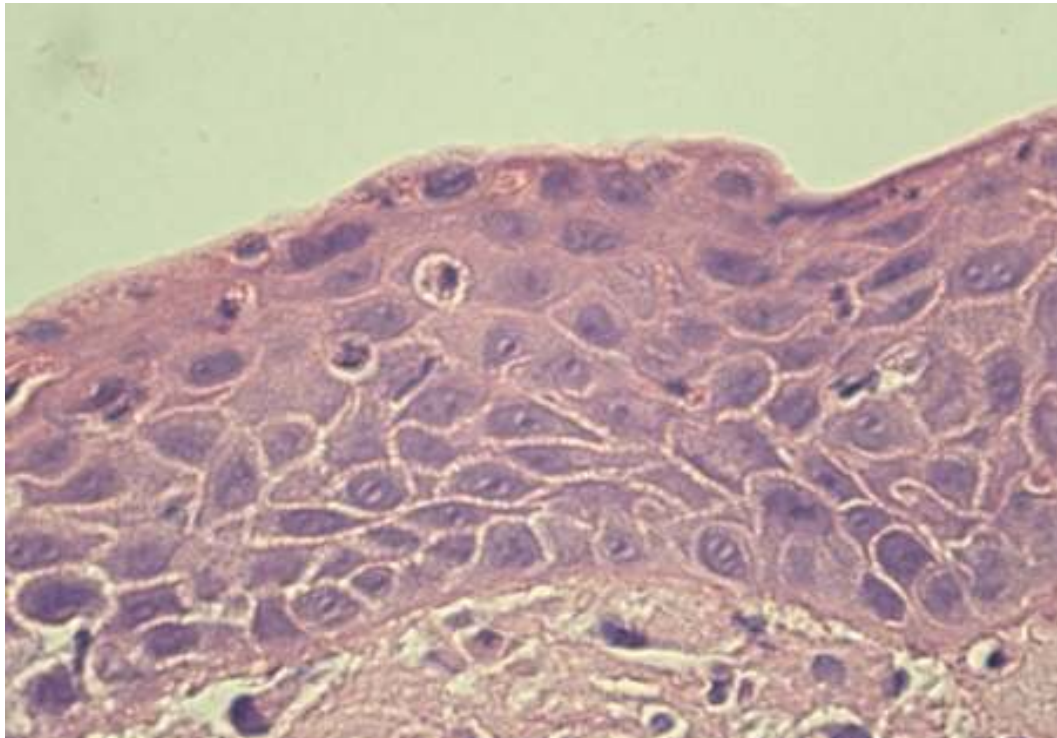
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- β defensin-2 (code: 015263, goat, work dilution 1:100, R&D Systems).
- 5) The samples were examined under *Leica DC 300F camera* microscope for conventional histological picture. The relative number of positive immunohistochemical structures was graded semi-quantitatively [28,29]. The following scale of semi-quantitative method was used, counting the immunoreactive (positive) structures seen in visual field: 0 – no positive structures, 0/+ – occasional positive structures, + – few positive structures, +/++ – few to moderate number of positive structures, ++ – moderate number of positive structures, ++/+++ – moderate number to numerous positive structures, +++ – numerous positive structures, +++/++++ – numerous to abundance of positive structures, ++++ – abundance of positive structures seen in visual field.

3. RESULTS

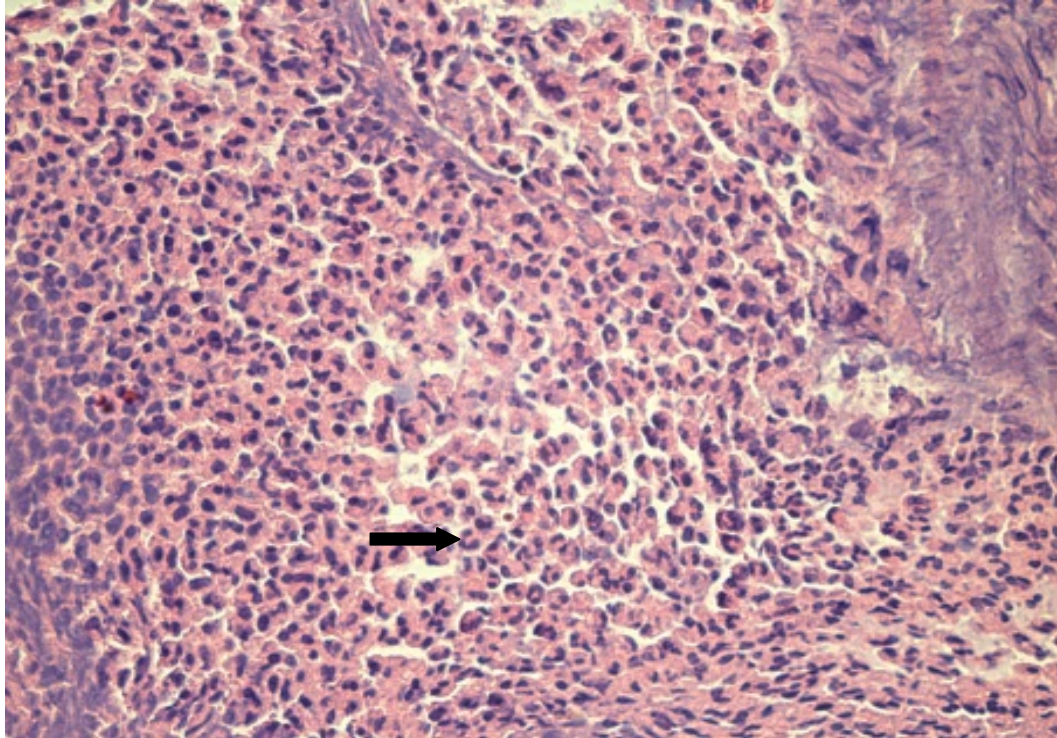
3.1 Routine morphology

The squamous metaplasia of tracheal epithelium (stratified squamous epithelium instead of pseudostratified ciliated epithelium) was found in all tissue specimens (Figure 1). Moreover, the irregular thickening of basal membrane was seen in one case. Also numerous infrequent infiltration regions of inflammatory cells (macrophages, neutrophils, lymphocytes) were found in mucosa and submucosa of all tissue specimens (Figure 2), however, intraepithelial infiltrations were not present. The granulation tissue with various amounts has been found in submucosa of all cases, showing well-formed connective tissue with the presence of numerous blood vessels. Prominent connective tissue fiber bundles with fibroblasts and morphologically modified fibroblasts, as well as sclerotized blood vessels located diffusely were found in part of patients.



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Fig. 1. Note the squamous metaplastic epithelium instead of the normal pseudostratified ciliated epithelium in tracheal mucosa of 28 years old male. Hematoxylin and eosin, X 400.



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Fig. 2. Note the abundance of inflammatory cells (mainly neutrophils (arrow), but also lymphocytes) in the tracheal submucosa of 69 years old male. Hematoxylin and eosin, X400.

3.2 Immunohistochemistry

The tissue demonstrated a moderate number („++”) to abundance („++++”) of IL-10 positive inflammatory cells (macrophages, neutrophils, lymphocytes) both in mucosa and submucosa. Also few to abundance of fibroblasts (including modified fibroblasts), epithelial and endothelial cells for this cytokine were observed in tissue. In summary, the prominent expression of IL-10 was seen as numerous immunoreactive structures in both mucosal and submucosal layers of trachea (Table 2).

Table 2. Semiquantitative distribution of immunoreactive (positive) structures in the tissue of patients with post-intubation tracheal stenosis.

Factors/ Patients	IL-10			β def-2		
	<i>e</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>i c</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>i c</i>
1	++	+	+++	+++	++	+++
2	0	+	++	0	++	+++ /++++
3	++++	+++	+++	+++	0	+++
4	++	+ /++	+++	+++ /++++	+++	+++
5	+++	+++	++	++	0	+++

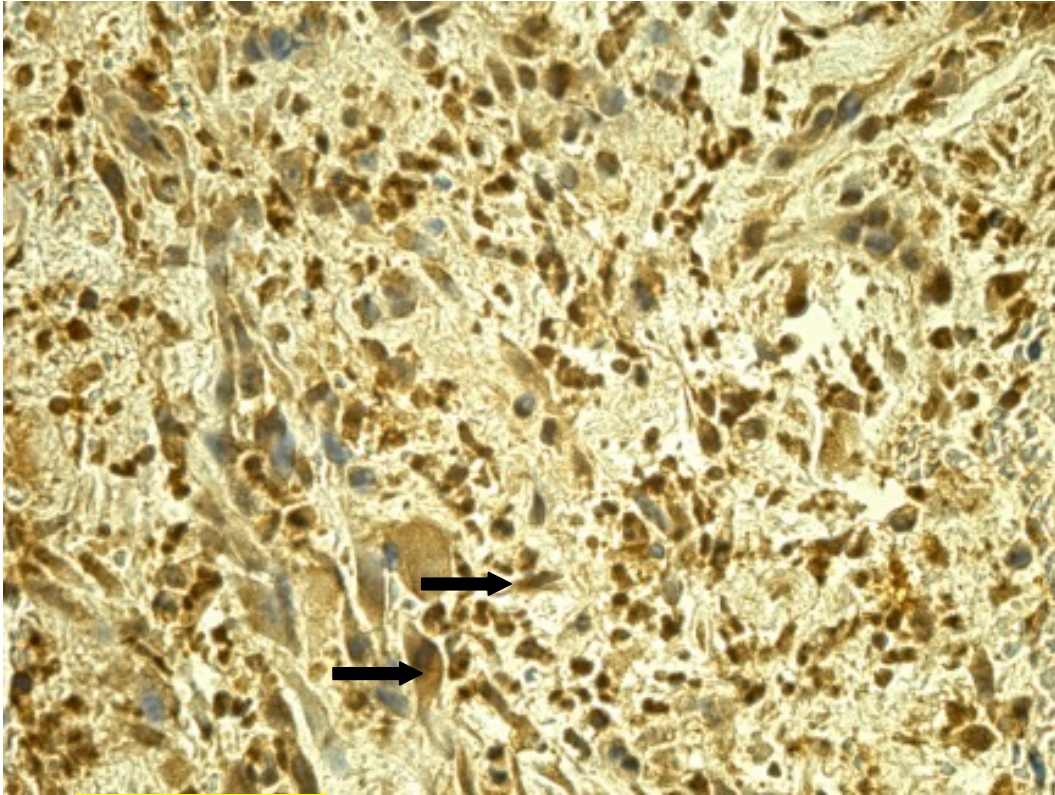
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"0" – no positive structures seen in the visual field, "0/+" – occasional positive structures seen in the visual field, "+" – few positive structures seen in the visual field, "+/++" – few to moderate number of positive structures seen in the visual field, "++" – moderate number of positive structures seen in the visual field, "++/++++" – moderate number to numerous positive structures seen in the visual field, "+++” – numerous positive structures seen in the visual field, "+++ /++++” – numerous to abundance of positive structures seen in visual field, "++++" – abundance of positive

226 structures seen in visual field, "e" – epithelium, "f" – fibroblasts, "i c" – inflammatory
227 cells.

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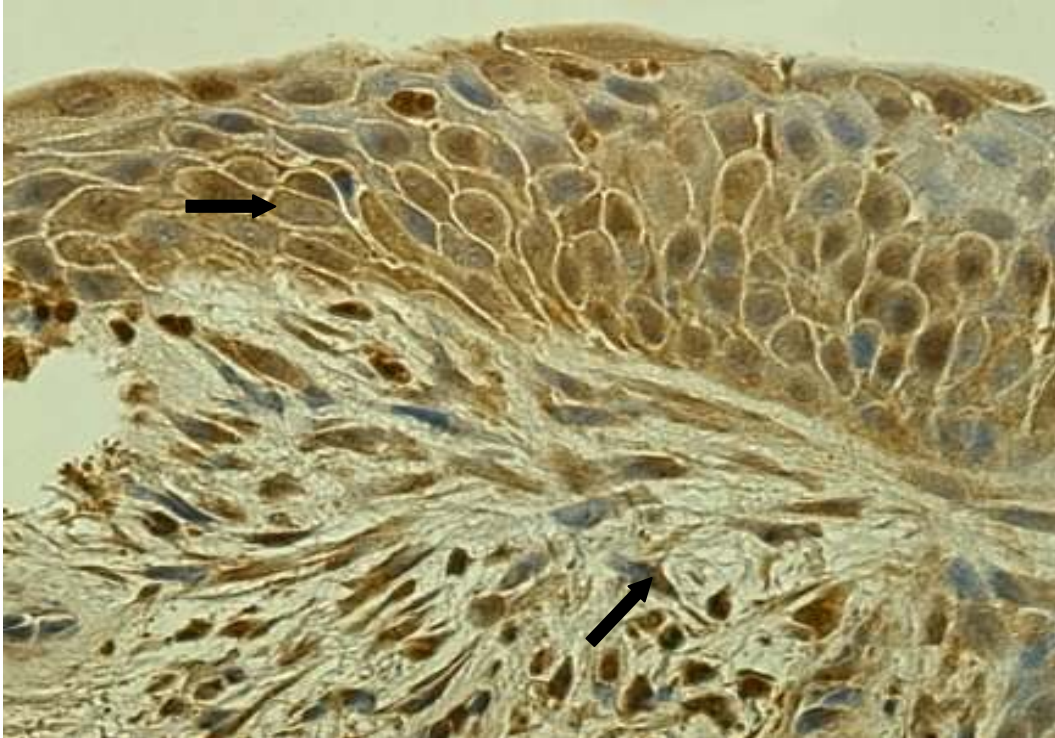
229 Moderate number („++") to abundance („++++") of β def-2 positive structures were found in
230 all cases: inflammatory cells (mostly neutrophils), fibroblasts, epithelial cells (Figures 3 and
231 4). Moderate („++") number of β def-2 positive glandulocytes in submucosal tracheal glands
232 were found in one tissue specimen.
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235 **Fig. 3. Arrows indicate the numerous β defensin-2-containing inflammatory cells and**
236 **moderate number of β def-2-positive fibroblasts in tracheal submucosa of 28 years**
237 **old male. β defensin-2 IMH, X400.**

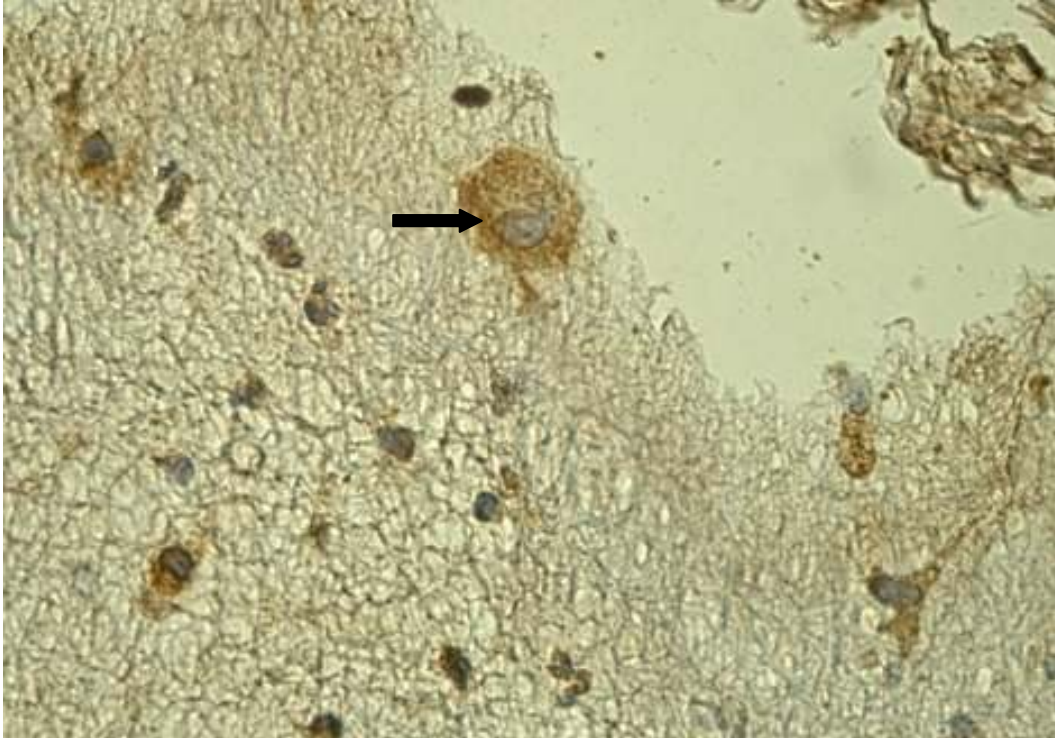
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Fig. 4. Note the abundance of β defensin-2 positive epithelial cells (arrow) and numerous β defensin-2 positive fibroblasts (arrow) in tracheal mucosa of 28 years old male. β defensin-2 IMH, X400.

Only occasional („0/+”) TNF α and IL-1 positive scattered macrophages were found in two cases (Fig.5). In three cases tracheal tissue samples were observed as TNF α and IL-1 negative due to the none of positive structures observed in the visual field.



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Fig. 5. Note occasional IL-1-containing macrophages (arrow) in tracheal submucosa of 70 years old male. IL-1 IMH, X 400.

4. DISCUSSION

From all the factors predisposing the occlusion of tracheal wall capillaries and consecutive ischemia caused by the prolonged intubation with cuffed tube [5], we found smoking, cardiovascular disease and diabetes to be possible coexisting contributory factors in the development of post-intubation tracheal stenosis.

Our results show fibrotic tissue seen as adhesions located mostly in mucosa and submucosa, containing large amount of fibroblasts and components of extracellular matrix, as well as modified fibroblasts in two specimens, assuming this is the most important cause of bronchoscopically detected tracheal stenosis due to the web-like scarring. Secondary pathological events – scarring or cicatrization, web like fibrosis leading to local stricture – take place at previous necrotic site not only within mucosa, but also deeper in submucosa of tracheal wall [8]. Histological research of fibrosis reveal significant changes in in all layers of the tracheal wall [14]. Immunohistochemistry (IMH) investigation also reveals a strong matrix associated subepithelial expression of transforming growth factor beta (TGF- β), which is one of the strongest inducers of myofibroblast differentiation and maturing, and is a mitogen to immature fibroblasts [30], as well as α -smooth muscle actin (α -SMA) for myofibroblast detection and collagen Type I was used to investigate the tissue of tracheal stenosis. Significant increase of collagen Type I deposits and intense web-like network of spindle shaped α -SMA positive cells were found in the subepithelial layer, suggesting that tracheal wall thickening found in post-intubation tracheal stenosis is related to myofibroblast activation which afterwards arranges collagen remodeling processes [6,31]. α -SMA, a marker of myofibroblasts, determines the activity of fibroblasts and probably their number in different phases [32]. Fibroblasts overexpressing the extracellular matrix (ECM) components (such as collagen Type I, collagen Type III, fibronectin) play an important role in the formation

278 of granulations within the tracheal wall, wound contraction and scar formation [7,32]. We can
279 assume the obtained biopsy materials matches proliferation and mature phase, regarding
280 the results of Cai et al. (2013), where authors observed the highest transforming growth
281 factor (TGF)- β , α -smooth muscle actin (α -SMA), type I and III collagen expression in the
282 proliferation phase and mature phase [32].
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284 In our study, biopsy specimens obtained from patients using bronchoscopy can not be
285 analyzed within all layers of tracheal wall, as the tissue specimens using bronchoscopy
286 could be taken only from upper surface of lining mucosa and submucosa. Previous
287 researches confirm the fibrotic changes or cicatrization through all tracheal layers, however,
288 analysis of whole tracheal wall is not relevant to diagnostic observations in everyday clinical
289 practice. We could speculate if fibrosis found only in mucosa and submucosa indicates
290 fibrotic processes deeper in tracheal wall as well.
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292 In the analysis of tissue specimens stained with hematoxylin and eosin, we found squamous
293 metaplasia in all study subjects. Proliferating Ki-67 (nuclear protein, necessary for cellular
294 proliferation) positive cells were investigated and found mainly localized in the basal
295 epithelial layer also with squamous epithelial metaplasia altogether in most of the
296 specimens [30], proposing the squamous metaplasia appears as a result of actively
297 proliferating basal (stem) cells in epithelium, but specific inductor has not been found yet.
298 Since the epithelium is exposed to the cuffed tube first, also the squamous metaplasia could
299 appear first at the site of cuffed tube compressing tracheal wall. We could not prove the
300 sequence of squamos metaplasia occuring before any other pathological events due to the
301 findings of our study, where squamous metaplasia was found together with immune cell
302 infiltration in all cases. Similar findings were found in the morphological analysis of iatrogenic
303 subglottic tracheal stenosis mainly due to the long-term intubation [14]. In rabbit model,
304 significant narrowing of the lumen occured due to the increase in submocasal thickness of
305 tracheal stenosis induced by intubation [12,33]. In murine model, chemically and
306 mechanically injured tracheal specimens showed either attenuated or regenerated
307 epithelium within few pathological findings regarding fibrosis and granulations deeper in
308 mucosa and submucosa [16].
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310 In our results, granulation tissue was present in tissue specimens of all patients involved in
311 this study. Granulation tissue occured within various presentation – from few to moderate
312 number of structural components found in both mucosal and submucosal layers. Besides the
313 fibrosis found in part of tissue examples taken from patients with post-intubation tracheal
314 stenosis, also the granulation tissue plays an important role in pathogenesis of tracheal
315 stenosis and thus is related to the clinical and bronchoscopic findings. Granulation tissue
316 and fibrosis shows complex and yet interacting wound healing seen in tracheal wall. Hypoxic
317 conditions due to the ischemia caused by cuffed tube pressure on mucosa and submucosa
318 in trachea is an important pathogenetic member. The expression of hypoxia-inducible factor
319 (HIF)-1 α (a nuclear transcription factor that facilitates the adaption of cells under hypoxic
320 conditions) is seen highest in the granulation phase of the tracheal healing process,
321 therefore suggesting HIF-1 α may be a potential key regulator in both the initiation and
322 facilitation of post-intubation tracheal stenosis pathogenesis [32]. Newly formed connective
323 tissue, as well as rapid angiogenesis in granulation tissue may show the capabilities of
324 healing and tissue remodelation instead of fibrous scarring (that could be seen as tissue
325 replacement stage in damaged areas without further remodeling possibilities), and the at
326 least partial renewal of previous structures at the wound site. Modified fibroblasts within the
327 ingrowth of newly formated connective tissue are a characteristics of successful tracheal wall
328 remodeling process.
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330 We found numerous immune cell (neutrophils, lymphocytes, macrophages) infiltration sites
331 within mucosal and submucosal layers of tracheal wall. The expression of pro-inflammatory
332 cytokines IL-1 α and TNF α in our study of post-intubation tracheal stenosis affected patients
333 briefly is characterised as weak, therefore we can assume the early inflammation part of
334 wound healing is replaced by further changes.

335
336 Regarding wound healing cascade described by Hirshoren and Eliashar (2009), we can
337 assume our study findings show **mostly** the proliferation and maturation phase of wound-
338 healing modulation processes in trachea, where massive cell proliferation within several cell
339 types (fibroblasts, macrophages, keratinocytes and endothelial cells), **as well as granulation,**
340 **after which the maturation stage of wound healing cascade is followed by remodeling and**
341 **scarring processes.** Therefore, previous early release of inflammatory mediators (the most
342 important, IL-1, TNF α) at the inflammation phase of wound healing cascade, cell migration of
343 polymorphonuclear granulocytes (mostly neutrophils), monocytes, macrophages [15] was
344 not observed in this study **due to negative findings of active inflammation factors (none of IL-**
345 **1 and TNF- α positive cells).**

346
347 The weak expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines within our study suggest that the
348 initiatory part of occurring inflammation occurred some time before the clinical signs (due to
349 which the endoscopy was performed) appeared. TNF α and IL-1 α was detected only in few
350 scattered macrophages within mucosal and submucosal layers of tracheal wall, also fibrotic
351 tissue was present. It is known, that IL-1 could induce the mitosis for smooth muscle cells
352 and fibroblasts, thus it has pro-fibrotic effects in many chronic inflammatory diseases.
353 **Also several changes in immunological responses could be detected due to the release of**
354 **IL-1 – increased antibody production (adjuvant effect), increased lymphokine synthesis (IL-**
355 **1 β , IL-2, -3, -4, -5, -6, -7, -10, -12), enhanced development of T cell clones and other, also**
356 **increased expression of various genes by IL-1 have been described: several cytokines,**
357 **cytokine receptors, proinflammatory mediators, hepatic acute phase reactants, growth**
358 **factors, clotting factors, tissue remodeling factors, components of extracellular matrix and**
359 **other [20].** The IL-1 α , one of the IL-1 family cytokines, within the form of its precursor (pro IL-
360 1 α) is present in all epithelial cell layers of the entire lung, endothelial cells. Upon cell death
361 by necrosis, as occurs in ischemic diseases, the IL-1 α precursor is released. Hypoxia,
362 ischemia along with the reperfusion is known as inducers of IL-1. Furthermore, the IL-1 α
363 precursor rapidly initiates a cascade of inflammatory cytokines and chemokines. Another
364 type – a membrane form of IL-1 α – is seen on activated monocytes and B lymphocytes
365 [19,20]. IL-1 α also induces the release of IL-1 β , which strongly amplifies the inflammation
366 processes by recruiting macrophages [34], as well as induce the proliferation stage of wound
367 healing cascade [15]. In the study by Haft et al., some cytokines were elevated – including
368 IL-1 β , IL-10, TNF α –, suggesting that symptomatic tracheal granulation tissue is mostly seen
369 as the early inflammatory phase of wound healing, also the early fibrotic and angiogenesis
370 remodeling processes could be described within detecting different cytokines [34].

371
372 IL-10 was widely expressed in many cell types – starting from inflammatory cells
373 (neutrophils, macrophages, lymphocytes) and continuing with epithelial cells, fibroblasts and
374 modified fibroblasts (myofibroblasts), endothelial cells. The anti-inflammatory properties of
375 IL-10 persisted as normal response to the inflammation, suggesting the all cell types
376 expressing IL-10 has sufficient sources of controlling the immune response and maintaining
377 the proliferation and maturation phases of wound healing. We hypothesize, the early initiation
378 of inflammatory processes, where IL-1 and TNF α work towards the intensifying the
379 inflammation process, has been replaced by next stage of wound healing with, firstly, the
380 modulating action, and afterwards an inhibiting abilities of anti-inflammatory cytokines,
381 particularly, IL-10. The cytokine IL-10 have several functions regarding inhibition of pro-
382 inflammatory processes – it affects antigen presenting cells, suppressing their ability to

383 activate Th cells, as well as decreases the synthesis of IL-1 β , IL-2, -4, -5, -6, -8, -12,
384 particularly important, also TNF- α , thus working as anti-inflammatory cytokine [18,20,21].
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386 The expression of β def-2 was found as moderate to numerous positive structures located
387 both in mucosa and submucosa – inflammatory cells, fibroblasts, epithelial cells – , also
388 modified fibroblasts and glandulocytes of submucosal glands were found in one tissue
389 specimens. We can hypothesize the wide expression of β def-2 in outer structures, as well as
390 in fibroblasts, inflammatory cells and endothelium of tracheal wall, suggest the tissue itself
391 has activated its defense systems against potential inhaled antigens, also show
392 readiness to initiate immune responses to protect wounded tracheal wall. Due to the
393 antimicrobial properties of β def-2 in the outermost respiratory tract parts (epithelium, glands
394 with the secrete) that serve as natural barriers towards the environment full of different
395 antigens [35], we could suggest our β def-2 expression results show the antibacterial
396 abilities of wounded tracheal wall that has been firstly induced by proinflammatory cytokines
397 at first (mostly IL-1) [36], and after all joined by wide expression throughout the tracheal wall.
398

399 The exact interactions between native cells from different tissue found in tracheal wall and
400 migrating inflammatory cells would be revealed performing the analysis of whole tracheal
401 wall, also the analysis of broader spectrum of pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokines and
402 other proteins.
403

404 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

405
406 The chronic inflammation with the formation of scarring tissue as a result of the previous
407 formation of granulation tissue, as well as the remodeling of tracheal wall with the presence
408 of fibroblasts and modified fibroblasts, also the ingrowth of connective tissue, assumedly,
409 has the leading role in complex pathogenesis of post-intubation tracheal stenosis.
410

411 The intense local tissue defense reactions are presented as compensatory expression of
412 antimicrobial peptide β defensin-2 and anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10 found in different cell
413 types within all tracheal wall layers.
414

415 TNF α and IL-1 are not among the most significant factors in pathogenesis of PITS despite of
416 the presence of numerous inflammatory cells.
417

418 **ETHICAL APPROVAL**

419
420 All authors hereby declare that all experiments have been examined and approved by the
421 appropriate ethics committee and have therefore been performed in accordance with the
422 ethical standards laid down in the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki.
423

424 This study was approved by the Ethical Committee of Pauls Stradiņš Clinical University
425 Hospital dated of 23th January, 2013.
426

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