Bitter Taste Receptors in Innate Immunity: T2R38 and Chronic Rhinosinusitis

Alan D. Workman^{1,2} and Noam A. Cohen^{1,2,3,4,*}

¹Department of Otorhinolaryngology: Head and Neck Surgery, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA

²Perelman School of Medicine at the University of Pennsylvania, USA

³Monell Smell and Taste Center, Philadelphia, PA, USA

⁴Philadelphia Veterans Affairs Medical Center, Philadelphia, PA, USA

Abstract: Bitter taste receptors (T2Rs) serve a purpose far beyond taste sensation in the tongue; they have emerged as significant components of respiratory innate immune defense. T2R38, a specific T2R expressed in the airway, is activated by secreted products from gram-negative bacteria, and triggers nitric oxide (NO) production as a response. NO is directly bactericidal and also acts as a second messenger to increase ciliary beating and mucociliary clearance. T2R38 has common genetic polymorphisms that can render the receptor non-functional, and variations in functionality have demonstrated clinical impacts. Homozygotes for the non-functional form of the receptor have increased gram-negative bacterial proliferation *in vivo*, and these patients also are at a higher risk for chronic rhinosinusitis requiring functional endoscopic sinus surgery. Further studies have shown increased *in vitro* potential for biofilm formation in airway epithelial cells obtained from homozygote "non-taster" patients. Ongoing research into the clinical impact of T2R38 and other bitter taste receptors may yield novel therapeutics that leverage innate immune defense mechanisms and offer alternatives to conventional antibiotic treatment.

Keywords: T2R38, Bitter Taste Receptor, Chronic Rhinosinusitis, Sinonasal Immunity.

INTRODUCTION

Several immune mechanisms function in concert to maintain sterility of the sinonasal tract, a complex task due to its constant exposure to pathogens, debris, and environmental insults. Bitter taste receptors (T2Rs), once thought to be isolated to the tongue, have been identified in the airway and are critical components of innate immune defense [1-5]. These receptors sense the presence of bacterial products on the respiratory mucosal surface and then incite downstream antibacterial effects that can prevent chronic infection. T2R38, a specific bitter taste receptor with common genetic polymorphisms, is expressed in the nose and sinuses and is a key player in immunity, infection, and chronic rhinosinusitis (CRS).

INNATE AIRWAY IMMUNITY AND BITTER TASTE RECEPTORS

The surface of the nose and sinuses is almost entirely made up of ciliated cells, and the cilia beat in a coordinated fashion to constantly clear the mucus layer and disseminate immune products [6]. The cilia are also inducible; upstream mechanical or biological changes can speed up ciliary beating and resulting mucociliary clearance (MCC) [7]. Alterations in viscosity or volume of mucus can result in large compensatory changes of MCC [8]. In addition to physical clearance, release of β -defensins (specifically β -defensin 1 and β -defensin 2) in response to microbial products results in direct bacterial killing, as does release of lactorferrin, lysozyme, reactive oxygen species (ROS), or nitric oxide (NO) [9]. All of these immune responses are subject to failure, and the inability to mount a robust innate immune response in the presence of a pathogenic challenge can result in disease.

CRS is a common sinonasal disease with tremendous morbidity comparable to chronic diseases of other organ systems, such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) or congestive heart failure [10]. It affects 16% of the United States population, and accounts for over 10 million physician visits per year [11]. Conventional treatment is on an outpatient basis with antibiotics [12], but increasing bacterial resistance and an overall effort to reduce antibiotic overuse predicate the need for new therapies that leverage endogenous host defense, such as airway receptors. Toll-like receptors (TLR's) respond to bacterial structural or secreted components called pathogen associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) and upregulate expression of genes that bolster the immune system in

^{*}Address correspondence to this author at the Department of Otorhinolaryngology-Head and Neck Surgery, University of Pennsylvania Medical Center, 5th Floor Ravdin Building, 3400 Spruce Street, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA; Tel: 215-823-5800; Fax: 215-823-4309; E-mail: WorkmanA@mail.med.upenn.edu

a sustained response to the bacterial insult over several hours [13]. However, increases in MCC and release of antimicrobial compounds are observed almost immediately in response to the presence of bacterial products [14], suggesting that there is an additional independent pathway that is responsible for a more rapid response. T2Rs, responding to bitter bacterial products, appear to mediate this faster pathway.

T2R's are G-protein coupled receptors (GPCRs) that were originally identified in taste bud type II cells [15, 16], and later found to be expressed in several tissues beyond the tongue [17-22]. T2R's were initially localized in the airway in 2009, when Shah et al. observed Ca²⁺ responses in bronchial cells that were exposed to bitter compounds [23]. The functions of bitter taste receptors extend far beyond simple taste perception and are still being elucidated, but many of the compounds consciously perceived as bitter on the tongue can be detected in other tissues as well. Compounds detected include denatonium benzoate, sesquiterpene lactones, thujone, absinthin, phenylthiocarbamide (PTC) and many others [2, 5, 14, 23-25]. In the tongue, bitter taste receptors prevent ingestion of poisonous or spoiled foods [21, 26], and they appear to play a similar aversive role in the airway.

Activation of a T2R requires complex coordination of cellular second messengers. First, a bitter ligand will bind the GPCR with enough affinity to trigger phospholipase C ß2 (PLCß2). PLCß2 then causes an increase in inositol trisphosphate (IP₃), which activates an IP_3 receptor on the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), resulting in a stimulated release of calcium (Ca^{2+}) [27]. Separately, the GPCR activation bolsters the ability of phosphodiesterases to reduce cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) and protein kinase A (PKA) activity, augmenting Ca^{2+} release from the ER [26, 28, 29]. All of the released Ca^{2+} activates the transient receptor potential cation channel subfamily M member 5 (TRPM5) channel, which fully depolarizes the cell and triggers ATP release through a separate ion channel, calcium homeostasis modulator 1 (CALHM1) [21, 29-32]. Some bitter taste receptors in the airway have nervous innervation [1, 3, 33] but most act autonomously, transducing local signals and propagating more isolated responses.

T2R38

T2R38, a bitter taste receptor found in both the tongue and airway, has been a focus of innate

immunity research over the past several years. T2R38 is found in motile cilia and responds to the bitter compounds PTC and propylthiouracil (PROP) [34], and it also responds to two distinct acyl-homoserine lactone (AHL) products produced by the gram-negative aeruginosa. bacterium Pseudomonas N-butyrl-Lhomoserine lactone and N-3-oxo-dodecanoyl-Lhomoserine lactone [2]. AHL's are secreted by many gram-negative bacteria and serve as quorum-sensing molecules [2, 35-37]. The compounds serve a signaling purpose in the host, allowing the bacteria to information communicate regarding density of colonization [1, 38]. Once bacterial density reaches a substantial level, the bacteria can secrete biofilm matrix and create a stable, highly immune-resistant mass [39]. Bitter taste receptors in the airway allow mammalian hosts to "spy" on these bacterial communications [37], eliciting immune responses before bacteria can reach these infectious levels.

Activation of T2R38 by AHLs, PTC, or PROP results in nitric oxide (NO) production by an inducible nitric oxide synthase [5] downstream of the Ca^{2+} response (Figure 1) [2]. NO is directly bactericidal, and quickly diffuses out of the ciliated cell to the apical mucus, where it enters the bacterium and and prduces Snitrosothiols and peroxynitrites that destroys bacterial



Figure 1: Activation pathway of T2R38. First, AHL's produced by *P. aeruginosa* bind to the functional receptor, which causes an increase in intracellular Ca^{2+} via PLC β 2 and IP₃. This increase in calcium stimulates nitric oxide synthase (NOS) to make NO, which then increases ciliary beating through PKG and diffuses directly into bacteria, where it has potent bactericidal effects.

DNA, membranes, and enzymes [40-42]. In addition to this potent bacterial killing, NO also activates protein kinase G (PKG) and guanylyl cyclase to directly increase CBF and MCC [43]. A series of experiments performed by Lee *et al.* demonstrated that blockade of TRPM5 or PLC β 2, critical components of the taste receptor pathway, completely inhibited T2R38 signaling and resultant NO responses [4, 21, 44]. Furthermore, strains of *P. aeruginosa* that lack the ability to synthesize AHL's do not activate NO secretion via T2R38 in airway epithelial cells [2].

TAS2R38 POLYMORPHISMS IN CHRONIC RHINOSINUSITIS

The diversity of bitter taste receptors is remarkable; humans have at least 25 T2R subtypes, many of which have genetic polymorphisms that can potentially change receptor function [45, 46]. This variety is illustrated by individuals' tastes in food; certain people find bitter foods such as coffee to be abhorrent, while others have non-aversive responses [47, 48]. This variation in function is borne out in the airway as well, with differing sensitivities to bitter products based on genotype.

TAS2R38 is the genetic locus for T2R38, at which there are three commonly-segregating polymorphisms, resulting in a functional receptor (PAV) and a nonfunctional receptor (AVI). The PAV allele is translated into a receptor protein with a proline, alanine, and valine (PAV) sequence, while the AVI allele results in a receptor protein with an alanine, valine, and isoleucine (AVI). The AVI-containing protein is non-functional and renders the receptor non-responsive to PTC, PROP, or AHLs [48]. Thus, homozygotes at the AVI locus (AVI/AVI patients) cannot taste PTC or PROP on the tongue [49], and AVI/AVI nasal epithelial cells demonstrate significantly reduced NO production in response to AHL's. AVI/AVI patients comprise approximately 30% of the population [48], making the PAV/AVI population proportions roughly equal with Mendelian patterns. Heterozygotes (PAV/AVI patients) maintain at least a partially intact NO response, while cell cultures from PAV/PAV homozygotes exhibit robust stimulation when incubated with AHLs. The lack of NO response from AVI/AVI patients leads to commensurate reductions in bacterial killing and MCC in vitro, when compared with cultures expressing a functional PAV receptor [2]. These differences were borne out in in vivo studies, as PAV/PAV patients have far less culture positivity for P. aeruginosa or other gram-negative bacteria, without significant differences in other T2R genotypes, including T2R19, 30, and 46 [2].

It has long been known that CRS tends to run in families, suggesting a genetic component to the disease [50-52]. Additionally, sinonasal explants from patients with CRS do not show increases in CBF in response to a number of normally ciliostimulatory compounds [53, 54], and NO levels in the airway are significantly different in patients with CRS or other diseases of the airway [55]. This lack of early response, with the resultant presence of chronic infection and unchecked biofilm formation can lead to more serious manifestations of CRS that necessitate surgical treatment [56-58], and the inflammatory conditions found in fulminant CRS can cause augmentation of TNFa and other inflammatory cytokines that further prevent the dynamic response of ciliated cells to mechanical or bacterial stimulation [59, 60]. This vicious cycle can result in full blown collapse of effective clearance mechanisms, resulting in chronic that further harbors mucus stasis pathologic proliferation of bacteria [61], while also allowing ciliotoxic and cytotoxic bacterial secretions to reach dangerous levels [62, 63]. The full pathophysiology behind the differences observed in immune responses in patients with airway diseases has not yet been fully elucidated, but the TAS2R38 genotype appears play a key role.

TAS2R38 polymorphisms have important implications in our understanding of gram-negative infection and CRS, and their clinical impacts have been evaluated in several recent studies. First, a retrospective study of patients who underwent functional endoscopic sinus surgery (FESS) for CRS treatment revealed that 46% of patients having surgery had the AVI/AVI genotype, compared to only 3.6% of patients who were PAV/PAV [64]. This deviated very significantly from the expected genotype distribution, confirming that individuals who can sense AHL's produced by gram-negative bacteria are much less likely to require surgical treatment for CRS symptoms than "non-tasting" patients [49, 64]. This study, by Adappa et al., further demonstrated that the PAV/PAV patients are less prone to gram-negative infection, including infection with P. aeruginosa. A prospective study in 2014, also by Adappa et al., confirmed the significant TAS2R38 genotype skew in CRS patients undergoing FESS for their disease [49].

Testing for TAS2R38 Polymorphisms

T2R38 responds to PTC and PROP in the tongue and sinonasal epithelial cells, and the ability to perceive the taste of PTC on the tongue correlates with expression of functional receptor in the nasal mucosa. Based on initial data, PTC taste testing may be even more specific for the PAV receptor than TAS2R38 genotyping, as it can serve as a proxy for quantity of PAV receptor in the epithelium [65]. Instead of expensive genetic testing of patients, bitter taste testing with PTC or PROP is a cheaper alternative to determine bitter taste phenotype of CRS patients. This information can allow surgeons to potentially stratify surgical candidates most likely to benefit from traditional FESS treatment, while also identifying other patients that need aggressive or alternative management [2].

T2R38 and Biofilm Formation

More recently, the impact that TAS2R38 genotype has on biofilm formation has been studied. Because AHL's function as signaling molecules that aid in density and biofilm communication, patients that lack the ability to detect AHL's before they reach high concentrations would be expected to have a higher propensity towards biofilm development in the airway. A biofilm can serve as a nidus for repeated acute infections [66], and in CRS biofilms are associated with more severe inflammatory disease and poor postoperative outcomes [67-69]. PTC taste sensitivity correlates linearly with in vitro biofilm formation; patients with higher PTC taste intensity have epithelial cells that are less likely to harbor P. aeruginosa biofilms in culture [65]. The differences observed are driven exclusively by nonpolypoid CRS patients. Cultures from polyp patients showed no correlation between biofilm formation and patient PTC sensitivity, lending evidence to the suggestion that CRS with and without polyps are two fundamentally distinct diseases [70]. This study supports the use of PTC as a proxy for the functionality of the T2R38 receptor exclusively in nonpolypoid patients, and its potential use in clinicallyinformed decisions.

CONCLUSIONS

The contribution of the T2R38 receptor to medicallyrecalcitrant CRS is evident, and further investigations of the impact of this receptor on respiratory disease are underway. Patients with a non-functional receptor haplotype (AVI/AVI) have more gram-negative infection, and more often require surgery for CRS. Additionally, sinonasal cultures from AVI/AVI patients are more likely to form biofilms *in vitro*, likely due to the inability to detect AHL's before they reach biofilmforming concentrations. Receptor polymorphisms have more prominent influence in non-polyp disease, opening up the possibility that there is a yet unidentified class of T2R's that contributes to polyp-based disease.

The implications of T2R38's antimicrobial function in the airway are broad. First, patient genotype can be used to inform clinical decision making, identifying at risk patients as well as therapies that specifically target gram-negative infection. Beyond this, bitter agonists of T2R38 or other taste receptors could serve as therapeutic agents in the airway. leveraging endogenous host defenses. Bitter taste agonists can be used to increase MCC and NO production to amplify innate immunity without antibiotics, potentially preventing proliferation of drug-resistant organisms and recalcitrant infections. Understanding the role that bitter taste receptors play in health and disease will further these aims, and allow for better recruitment of innate immune mechanisms.

REFERENCES

- [1] Tizzano M, Gulbransen BD, Vandenbeuch A, et al. Nasal chemosensory cells use bitter taste signaling to detect irritants and bacterial signals. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2010; 107(7): 3210-5. <u>https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0911934107</u>
- Lee RJ, Xiong G, Kofonow JM, et al. T2R38 taste receptor polymorphisms underlie susceptibility to upper respiratory infection. The Journal of Clinical Investigation 2012; 122(11): 4145-59. https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI64240
- Saunders CJ, Christensen M, Finger TE, et al. Cholinergic neurotransmission links solitary chemosensory cells to nasal inflammation. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2014; 111(16): 6075-80. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1402251111
- [4] Lee RJ, Chen B, Redding KM, et al. Mouse nasal epithelial innate immune responses to Pseudomonas aeruginosa quorum-sensing molecules require taste signaling components. Innate immunity 2013; 20(6): 606-17. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/1753425913503386</u>
- [5] Lee RJ, Kofonow JM, Rosen PL, *et al*. Bitter and sweet taste receptors regulate human upper respiratory innate immunity. The Journal of Clinical Investigation 2014; 124(3): 1393-405. <u>https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI72094</u>
- Sleigh MA, Blake JR, Liron N. The propulsion of mucus by cilia. The American Review of Respiratory Disease 1988; 137(3): 726-41. https://doi.org/10.1164/ajrccm/137.3.726
- [7] Shaari J, Palmer JN, Chiu AG, *et al.* Regional analysis of sinonasal ciliary beat frequency. American Journal of Rhinology 2006; 20(2): 150-4.

- [8] Liu L, Shastry S, Byan-Parker S, et al. An autoregulatory mechanism governing mucociliary transport is sensitive to mucus load. American Journal of Respiratory Cell and Molecular Biology 2014; 51(4): 485-93. https://doi.org/10.1165/rcmb.2013-0499MA
- [9] Parker D, Prince A. Innate immunity in the respiratory epithelium. American Journal of Respiratory Cell and Molecular Biology 2011; 45(2): 189-201. https://doi.org/10.1165/rcmb.2011-0011RT
- [10] Luk LJ, Steele TO, Mace JC, et al. Health utility outcomes in patients undergoing medical management for chronic rhinosinusitis: a prospective multiinstitutional study. International Forum of Allergy & Rhinology 2015; 5(11): 1018-27. https://doi.org/10.1002/alr.21588
- [11] Bhattacharyya N, Grebner J, Martinson NG. Recurrent acute rhinosinusitis: epidemiology and health care cost burden. Otolaryngology--Head and Neck Surgery : Official Journal of American Academy of Otolaryngology-Head and Neck Surgery 2012; 146(2): 307-12. https://doi.org/10.1177/0194599811426089
- [12] Manes RP, Batra PS. Bacteriology and antibiotic resistance in chronic rhinosinusitis. Facial Plastic Surgery Clinics of North America 2012; 20(1): 87-91. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fsc.2011.10.010</u>
- [13] Hume DA, Underhill DM, Sweet MJ, et al. Macrophages exposed continuously to lipopolysaccharide and other agonists that act via toll-like receptors exhibit a sustained and additive activation state. BMC Immunology 2001; 2: 11. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2172-2-11
- [14] Barham HP, Cooper SE, Anderson CB, et al. Solitary chemosensory cells and bitter taste receptor signaling in human sinonasal mucosa. International Forum of Allergy & Rhinology 2013; 3(6): 450-7. https://doi.org/10.1002/alr.21149
- [15] Zhang Y, Hoon MA, Chandrashekar J, et al. Coding of sweet, bitter, and umami tastes: different receptor cells sharing similar signaling pathways. Cell 2003; 112(3): 293-301. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0092-8674(03)00071-0</u>
- [16] Iwata S, Yoshida R, Ninomiya Y. Taste transductions in taste receptor cells: basic tastes and moreover. Current Pharmaceutical Design 2014; 20(16): 2684-92. <u>https://doi.org/10.2174/13816128113199990575</u>
- [17] Laffitte A, Neiers F, Briand L. Functional roles of the sweet taste receptor in oral and extraoral tissues. Current Opinion in Clinical Nutrition and Metabolic Care 2014; 17(4): 379-85. https://doi.org/10.1097/MCO.00000000000058
- [18] Clark AA, Liggett SB, Munger SD. Extraoral bitter taste receptors as mediators of off-target drug effects. FASEB journal : official publication of the Federation of American Societies for Experimental Biology 2012; 26(12): 4827-31. <u>https://doi.org/10.1096/fj.12-215087</u>
- [19] Depoortere I. Taste receptors of the gut: emerging roles in health and disease. Gut 2014; 63(1): 179-90. <u>https://doi.org/10.1136/gutinl-2013-305112</u>
- [20] Behrens M, Meyerhof W. Oral and extraoral bitter taste receptors. Results and Problems in Cell Differentiation 2010; 52: 87-99. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-14426-4_8</u>
- [21] Kinnamon SC. Taste receptor signalling from tongues to lungs. Acta Physiologica 2012; 204(2): 158-68. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-1716.2011.02308.x</u>
- [22] Sternini C, Anselmi L, Rozengurt E. Enteroendocrine cells: a site of 'taste' in gastrointestinal chemosensing. Current Opinion in Endocrinology, Diabetes, and Obesity 2008; 15(1): 73-8. <u>https://doi.org/10.1097/MED.0b013e3282f43a73</u>

- [23] Shah AS, Ben-Shahar Y, Moninger TO, et al. Motile cilia of human airway epithelia are chemosensory. Science 2009; 325(5944): 1131-4. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1173869
- [24] Brockhoff A, Behrens M, Massarotti A, et al. Broad tuning of the human bitter taste receptor hTAS2R46 to various sesquiterpene lactones, clerodane and labdane diterpenoids, strychnine, and denatonium. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry 2007; 55(15): 6236-43. https://doi.org/10.1021/jf070503p
- [25] Tizzano M, Cristofoletti M, Sbarbati A, et al. Expression of taste receptors in solitary chemosensory cells of rodent airways. BMC Pulmonary Medicine 2011; 11: 3. <u>https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2466-11-3</u>
- [26] Li F. Taste perception: from the tongue to the testis. Molecular Human Reproduction 2013; 19(6): 349-60. <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/molehr/gat009</u>
- [27] Giovannucci DR, Groblewski GE, Sneyd J, et al. Targeted phosphorylation of inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptors selectively inhibits localized Ca2+ release and shapes oscillatory Ca2+ signals. The Journal of Biological Chemistry 2000; 275(43): 33704-11. https://doi.org/10.1074/ibc.M004278200
- [28] Voigt A, Hubner S, Lossow K, et al. Genetic labeling of Tas1r1 and Tas2r131 taste receptor cells in mice. Chem Senses 2012; 37(9): 897-911. https://doi.org/10.1093/chemse/bis082
- [29] Taruno A, Matsumoto I, Ma Z, et al. How do taste cells lacking synapses mediate neurotransmission? CALHM1, a voltage-gated ATP channel. BioEssays : News and Reviews in Molecular, Cellular and Developmental Biology 2013; 35(12): 1111-8. https://doi.org/10.1002/bies.201300077
- [30] Zhang Z, Zhao Z, Margolskee R, et al. The transduction channel TRPM5 is gated by intracellular calcium in taste cells. The Journal of Neuroscience : the Official Journal of the Society for Neuroscience 2007; 27(21): 5777-86. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4973-06.2007
- [31] Miyoshi MA, Abe K, Emori Y. IP(3) receptor type 3 and PLCbeta2 are co-expressed with taste receptors T1R and T2R in rat taste bud cells. Chem Senses 2001; 26(3): 259-65.

https://doi.org/10.1093/chemse/26.3.259

- [32] Taruno A, Vingtdeux V, Ohmoto M, et al. CALHM1 ion channel mediates purinergic neurotransmission of sweet, bitter and umami tastes. Nature 2013; 495(7440): 223-6. <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/nature11906</u>
- [33] Gulbransen B, Silver W, Finger TE. Solitary chemoreceptor cell survival is independent of intact trigeminal innervation. The Journal of Comparative Neurology 2008; 508(1): 62-71. https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.21657
- [34] Kim UK, Drayna D. Genetics of individual differences in bitter taste perception: lessons from the PTC gene. Clinical Genetics 2005; 67(4): 275-80. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1399-0004.2004.00361.x
- [35] Chadwick M, Trewin H, Gawthrop F, et al. Sesquiterpenoids lactones: benefits to plants and people. International journal of Molecular Sciences 2013; 14(6): 12780-805. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms140612780
- [36] Jimenez PN, Koch G, Thompson JA, et al. The multiple signaling systems regulating virulence in Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews : MMBR 2012; 76(1): 46-65. https://doi.org/10.1128/MMBR.05007-11
- [37] Li Z, Nair SK. Quorum sensing: how bacteria can coordinate activity and synchronize their response to external signals? Protein Science : a Publication of the Protein Society 2012; 21(10): 1403-17. https://doi.org/10.1002/pro.2132

- [38] Parsek MR, Greenberg EP. Acyl-homoserine lactone quorum sensing in gram-negative bacteria: a signaling mechanism involved in associations with higher organisms. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2000; 97(16): 8789-93. <u>https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.97.16.8789</u>
- [39] Gunn JS, Bakaletz LO, Wozniak DJ. What's on the Outside Matters: The Role of the Extracellular Polymeric Substance of Gram-negative Biofilms in Evading Host Immunity and as a Target for Therapeutic Intervention. The Journal of Biological Chemistry 2016; 291(24): 12538-46. <u>https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.R115.707547</u>
- [40] Fang FC. Perspectives series: host/pathogen interactions. Mechanisms of nitric oxide-related antimicrobial activity. The Journal of Clinical Investigation 1997; 99(12): 2818-25. <u>https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI119473</u>
- [41] Marcinkiewicz J. Nitric oxide and antimicrobial activity of reactive oxygen intermediates. Immunopharmacology 1997; 37(1): 35-41. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0162-3109(96)00168-3</u>
- [42] Barraud N, Hassett DJ, Hwang SH, et al. Involvement of nitric oxide in biofilm dispersal of Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Journal of Bacteriology 2006; 188(21): 7344-53. https://doi.org/10.1128/JB.00779-06
- [43] Salathe M. Regulation of mammalian ciliary beating. Annual Review of Physiology 2007; 69: 401-22. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.physiol.69.040705.141253
- [44] Adappa ND, Farquhar D, Palmer JN, et al. TAS2R38 genotype predicts surgical outcome in nonpolypoid chronic rhinosinusitis. International Forum of Allergy & Rhinology 2016; 6(1): 25-33. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/alr.21666</u>
- [45] Chandrashekar J, Mueller KL, Hoon MA, *et al.* T2Rs function as bitter taste receptors. Cell 2000; 100(6): 703-11. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0092-8674(00)80706-0</u>
- [46] Margolskee RF. Molecular mechanisms of bitter and sweet taste transduction. The Journal of Biological Chemistry 2002; 277(1): 1-4. <u>https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.R100054200</u>
- [47] Hayes JE, Wallace MR, Knopik VS, et al. Allelic variation in TAS2R bitter receptor genes associates with variation in sensations from and ingestive behaviors toward common bitter beverages in adults. Chem Senses 2011; 36(3): 311-9. <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/chemse/bjq132</u>
- [48] Bufe B, Breslin PA, Kuhn C, et al. The molecular basis of individual differences in phenylthiocarbamide and propylthiouracil bitterness perception. Current Biology : CB 2005; 15(4): 322-7. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2005.01.047</u>
- [49] Adappa ND, Zhang Z, Palmer JN, et al. The bitter taste receptor T2R38 is an independent risk factor for chronic rhinosinusitis requiring sinus surgery. International Forum of Allergy & Rhinology 2014; 4(1): 3-7. https://doi.org/10.1002/alr.21253
- [50] Greisner WA, 3rd, Settipane GA. Hereditary factor for nasal polyps. Allergy and Asthma Proceedings : the official Journal of Regional and State Allergy Societies 1996; 17(5): 283-6. <u>https://doi.org/10.2500/108854196778662192</u>
- [51] Lockey RF, Rucknagel DL, Vanselow NA. Familial occurrence of asthma, nasal polyps and aspirin intolerance. Annals of Internal Medicine 1973; 78(1): 57-63. <u>https://doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-78-1-57</u>
- [52] Cohen NA, Widelitz JS, Chiu AG, et al. Familial aggregation of sinonasal polyps correlates with severity of disease. Otolaryngology--head and neck surgery : official journal of American Academy of Otolaryngology-Head and Neck Surgery 2006; 134(4): 601-4. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.otohns.2005.11.042</u>

- [53] Chen B, Shaari J, Claire SE, *et al*. Altered sinonasal ciliary dynamics in chronic rhinosinusitis. American Journal of Rhinology 2006; 20(3): 325-9. <u>https://doi.org/10.2500/ajr.2006.20.2870</u>
- [54] Davis SS, Illum L. Absorption enhancers for nasal drug delivery. Clinical Pharmacokinetics 2003; 42(13): 1107-28. <u>https://doi.org/10.2165/00003088-200342130-00003</u>
- [55] Naraghi M, Deroee AF, Ebrahimkhani M, et al. Nitric oxide: a new concept in chronic sinusitis pathogenesis. American Journal of Otolaryngology 2007; 28(5): 334-7. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amjoto.2006.10.014</u>
- [56] Cohen NA. Sinonasal mucociliary clearance in health and disease. The Annals of Otology, Rhinology & Laryngology Supplement 2006; 196: 20-6. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/00034894061150S904</u>
- [57] Antunes MB, Cohen NA. Mucociliary clearance--a critical upper airway host defense mechanism and methods of assessment. Current Opinion in Allergy and Clinical Immunology 2007; 7(1): 5-10. <u>https://doi.org/10.1097/ACI.0b013e3280114eef</u>
- [58] Gudis D, Zhao KQ, Cohen NA. Acquired cilia dysfunction in chronic rhinosinusitis. American Journal of Rhinology & Allergy 2012; 26(1): 1-6. <u>https://doi.org/10.2500/ajra.2012.26.3716</u>
- [59] Mfuna Endam L, Cormier C, Bosse Y, et al. Association of IL1A, IL1B, and TNF gene polymorphisms with chronic rhinosinusitis with and without nasal polyposis: A replication study. Archives of Otolaryngology--Head & Neck Surgery 2010; 136(2): 187-92. https://doi.org/10.1001/archoto.2009.219
- [60] Gonzalez CD, K; Rios, M; Cohen, NA; Villalon, M. TNFa Affects Ciliary Beat Response to Increased Viscosity in Human Pediatric Airway Epithelium. BioMed Research International 2016; Manuscript in Press. https://doi.org/10.1155/2016/3628501
- [61] Antunes MB, Gudis DA, Cohen NA. Epithelium, cilia, and mucus: their importance in chronic rhinosinusitis. Immunology and Allergy Clinics of North America 2009; 29(4): 631-43. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jac.2009.07.004
- [62] Feldman C, Anderson R, Cockeran R, et al. The effects of pneumolysin and hydrogen peroxide, alone and in combination, on human ciliated epithelium in vitro. Respiratory Medicine 2002; 96(8): 580-5. https://doi.org/10.1053/rmed.2002.1316
- [63] Min YG, Oh SJ, Won TB, et al. Effects of staphylococcal enterotoxin on ciliary activity and histology of the sinus mucosa. Acta Oto-Laryngologica 2006; 126(9): 941-7. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/00016480500469016</u>
- [64] Adappa ND, Howland TJ, Palmer JN, et al. Genetics of the taste receptor T2R38 correlates with chronic rhinosinusitis necessitating surgical intervention. International Forum of Allergy & Rhinology 2013; 3(3): 184-7. https://doi.org/10.1002/alr.21140
- [65] Adappa ND, Truesdale CM, Workman AD, et al. Correlation of T2R38 taste phenotype and *in vitro* biofilm formation from nonpolypoid chronic rhinosinusitis patients. International Forum of Allergy & Rhinology 2016; 6(8): 783-91. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/alr.21803</u>
- [66] Cohen M, Kofonow J, Nayak JV, et al. Biofilms in chronic rhinosinusitis: a review. American Journal of Rhinology & Allergy 2009; 23(3): 255-60. <u>https://doi.org/10.2500/ajra.2009.23.3319</u>
- [67] Bendouah Z, Barbeau J, Hamad WA, et al. Biofilm formation by Staphylococcus aureus and Pseudomonas aeruginosa is associated with an unfavorable evolution after surgery for

Psaltis AJ, Weitzel EK, Ha KR, et al. The effect of bacterial

biofilms on post-sinus surgical outcomes. American Journal

Huvenne W, van Bruaene N, Zhang N, et al. Chronic

rhinosinusitis with and without nasal polyps: what is the

difference? Current Allergy and Asthma Reports 2009; 9(3):

of Rhinology 2008; 22(1): 1-6.

https://doi.org/10.2500/ajr.2008.22.3119

https://doi.org/10.1007/s11882-009-0031-4

chronic sinusitis and nasal polyposis. Otolaryngology--Head and Neck Surgery : Official Journal of American Academy of Otolaryngology-Head and Neck Surgery 2006; 134(6): 991-6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.otohns.2006.03.001

[68] Prince AA, Steiger JD, Khalid AN, et al. Prevalence of biofilm-forming bacteria in chronic rhinosinusitis. American Journal of Rhinology 2008; 22(3): 239-45. <u>https://doi.org/10.2500/ajr.2008.22.3180</u>

Received on 19-12-2016

Accepted on 19-03-2017

[69]

[70]

213-20.

Published on 21-04-2017

DOI: https://doi.org/10.12970/2308-7978.2017.05.03

© 2017 Workman and Cohen; Licensee Synergy Publishers.

This is an open access article licensed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (<u>http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0/</u>) which permits unrestricted, non-commercial use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the work is properly cited.