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The efficacy of a novel collagen–gelatin scaffold with basic fibroblast growth factor for the treatment of vocal fold scar

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Abstract

Vocal fold scar remains a therapeutic challenge. Basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) was reported to have regenerative effects for vocal fold scar, although it has the disadvantage of rapid absorption in vivo. A collagen–gelatin sponge (CGS) can compensate for the disadvantage by providing a sustained release system. The current study evaluated the efficacy of CGS combined with bFGF on vocal fold scar, using rat fibroblasts for an in vitro model and a canine in vivo model. We prepared fibroblasts from scarred vocal folds (sVFs) in rats and showed that bFGF accelerated cell proliferation and suppressed expression levels of cleaved caspase 3 and α-smooth muscle actin. Has 1, Has 3, Fgf2, Hgf and Vegfa mRNA levels were significantly upregulated, while Col1a1 and Col3a1 were dose-dependently downregulated, with a maximum effect at 100 ng/ml bFGF. In an in vivo assay, 6 weeks after lamina propria stripping, beagles were divided into three groups: CGS alone (CGS group); CGS with bFGF (7 μg/cm²; CGS + bFGF group); or a sham-treated group. Vibratory examination revealed that the glottal gap was significantly reduced in the bFGF group and the two implanted groups, whereas the CGS + bFGF group showed higher mucosal wave amplitude. Histological examination revealed significantly restored hyaluronic acid and elastin redistribution in the CGS + bFGF group and reductions in dense collagen deposition. These results provide evidence that CGS and bFGF combination therapy may have therapeutic potential and could be a promising tool for treating vocal fold scar. Copyright © 2015 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

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Keywords vocal fold scar; collagen–gelatin sponge; basic fibroblast growth factor; myofibroblast; scaffold; regeneration

1. Introduction

The normal vocal fold is composed of epithelium, the lamina propria (LP) and underlying muscle. Human vocal folds have a unique tri-layered LP, composed of superficial, intermediate and deep layers. Each layer is characterized by major extracellular matrix (ECM) components, various proteoglycans and glycosaminoglycans in the superficial layer, elastin in the intermediate layer and collagen in the deep layer (Hirano, 1974). It is indispensable for producing the normal voice that noncontractile and soft tissue, consisting of the epithelium, superficial and intermediate layers, show pliable oscillation during phonation.

Vocal fold scar occurs after phonotrauma or inflammation as well as clinical treatments such as surgery or radiotherapy. Such scarring causes a loss of vocal fold pliability...
and a marked decrease in vibration of the mucosa (Hirano, 2005) and can subsequently cause a decrease in the quality of life, due to hoarseness or a weak voice. According to previous research, vocal fold scar presents with histological changes, such as excessive collagen deposition, disorganized elastin or decorin and occasional decreases in hyaluronic acid (HA) (Hirano et al., 2009; Rousseau et al., 2003, 2004; Tateya et al., 2005). These changes cause contraction of the vocal fold, leading to increased stiffness and glottal insufficiency. Advancements in phonosurgery have resolved most vocal fold pathologies, whereas vocal fold scar that is resistant to conventional therapies continues to be a therapeutic issue in the management of vocal fold scar.

Fibroblasts play a central role in the wound-healing process that occurs in injured vocal folds. However, during wound healing some fibroblasts are induced to change their phenotype to become α-smooth muscle actin (αSMA)-expressing myofibroblasts (Desmouliere, 1995). These myofibroblasts are reported to be related to tissue contraction and can secrete excessive amounts of type I collagen. Despite the importance of understanding the biological features of myofibroblasts in the management of vocal fold scar, to date few reports have investigated the role of fibroblasts and myofibroblasts in scarred vocal folds. Thus, further insight into the behaviour of scarred vocal fold fibroblasts (sVFs) in vitro is required to better determine their behaviour in vivo.

Basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) was identified in 1974 as a strong inducer of proliferation and fibroblast migration, and was also shown to promote capillary formation and accelerate tissue regeneration (Gospodarowicz, 1974; McGee et al., 1988). Our previous in vivo studies demonstrated that local injection of bFGF could restore scarred vocal folds. Histological examination following bFGF treatment revealed an increase in HA and a reduction in collagen deposition that led to functional vibratory improvement (Suehiro et al., 2010). Despite its effectiveness, bFGF has the disadvantage of having a very short half-life, due to its rapid absorption in vivo. Isoyai et al. (2005) reported that approximately 97% of bFGF disappeared within 1 day after injection into the subcutaneous space of mice. In clinical usage, local injections should be repeated several times in order to maintain appropriate concentrations at the target tissues.

To compensate for this disadvantage, carriers, especially scaffolds, that show sustained release of growth factors are needed for an effective drug-delivery system. As a novel scaffold, collagen–gelatin sponge (CGS) was developed from artificial dermis (Takemoto et al., 2008). This material is synthesized by adding gelatin during the manufacture of the collagen sponge. The collagen sponge acts as a temporary bed whereupon surrounding cells can infiltrate into the sponge pores and begin to synthesize new collagen fibres until they form regenerated connective tissue. bFGF binds to acidic gelatin through ionic interactions, and bFGF is gradually released during the biodegradation of the sponge (Tabata et al., 1999). Previous studies using CGS impregnated with bFGF for skin defects in mice or palatine membrane defects in beagles demonstrated the accelerated formation of dermis-like tissue and new capillaries (Ayvazyan et al., 2011; Kanda et al., 2012) and these studies were followed by a clinical trial for patients with chronic skin ulcers (Morimoto et al., 2013).

The combination of CGS and bFGF is a candidate tool for the treatment of vocal fold scar. The aim of this study was to evaluate the efficacy of the combination of CGS and bFGF for the treatment of vocal fold scar in vivo, with a focus on ECM restoration and functional recovery. Another aim was to analyse cell proliferation, apoptosis, αSMA expression and gene expression of ECM components to clarify the mechanism by which bFGF affects sVF in vitro.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Animals

In this study, six Sprague–Dawley transgenic (CAG–EGFP) rats, aged 13 weeks, and 15 beagles, weight 9–12 kg, were used for in vitro and in vivo assays, respectively. CAG–EGFP rats are chimeric rats that express enhanced green fluorescence protein (EGFP) throughout the body under the control of cytomegalovirus enhancer and the chicken β-actin promoter derived from an expression vector, pCAGGS. The expression of EGFP allowed us to track any progeny of the cultured cells from the chimeric rats, using green fluorescence as a tag (Ito et al., 2001). Animal care was conducted in the Institute of Laboratory Animals of the Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto University. The number of animals used in this study was kept to a minimum. All possible efforts to reduce animal suffering were made and were in compliance with protocols established by the Animal Research Committee of Kyoto University.

2.2. Preparation of collagen–gelatin sponge

Collagen–gelatin sponge was manufactured as previously reported (Takemoto et al., 2008). Briefly, gelatin isolated from pig dermis with an isoelectric point (IEP) of 5.0 and a molecular weight of 99 000 (Nippi Inc., Osaka, Japan) and atelocollagen isolated from pig tendon with an IEP of 8.5 and a molecular weight of 300 000 (Nitta Gelatin Inc., Osaka, Japan) were used. A collagen and gelatin solution with a gelatin concentration of 10 wt% of the total solutes was prepared by mixing 3 wt% gelatin solution with 0.3 wt% collagen solution. The foamy solution was poured into a mould, frozen rapidly and freeze-dried. The collagen–gelatin sheet was crosslinked by immersion in 0.2% glutaraldehyde at 4°C for 24 h and freeze-drying.
2.3. Isolation and cell culture of scarred vocal fold fibroblasts

The rats were anaesthetized with an intraperitoneal injection of ketamine hydrochloride (60 mg/kg) and xylazine hydrochloride (6 mg/kg). Atropine sulphate (0.005 mg/kg) was also injected intraperitoneally to reduce the secretion of saliva and sputum in the laryngeal lumen. After placement of the animal on a custom-made operating platform, the larynges were visualized through an endoscope inserted transorally. The bilateral vocal folds were then stripped with microscissors until the thyroarytenoid muscle was exposed. Two months after the initial surgery, the rats were anaesthetized using the same procedures and the larynges were harvested. This surgical procedure and the time point for scar maturation was described previously (Tateya et al., 2005). Soon afterwards, we proceeded to the resection of the LP and epithelia of the vocal folds, which were minced into small pieces in 10 cm plastic plates under a dissecting microscope. The tissue was then cultured in basic medium consisting of Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and antibiotics, at 37 °C with 5% carbon dioxide. The adherent 80% confluent cells were trypsinized and passed before use at the second passage. These tissue-explant culture methods have been established and the cultured cells were characterized as sVF in line with the previous reports (Jette et al., 2013; Thibeault et al., 2008).

Suspensions of 1.0 × 10^4 cells in 10 μl DMEM were seeded onto 4 × 4 mm² and 3 mm thick collagen–gelatin sponges in 24-well microplates, using a Hamilton syringe with a 26G needle. After cell starvation culture in DMEM–0.1% bovine serum albumin (BSA) for 24 h, the samples were washed with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and gently transferred onto new microplates, then DMEM-containing solutions of bFGF (Fibrast spray; Kaken Pharmaceutical, Tokyo, Japan) were added to paired wells adjusted to various final bFGF concentrations (0, 1, 10 and 100 ng/ml). Samples were used at the specified time points for each assay and the culture medium was not changed, which allowed bFGF levels to diminish naturally.

2.4. Cell proliferation assay

To compare the effects of bFGF on cell proliferation after cultivation for 1, 4, 7, 10 and 14 days, the number of sVFs on each CGS were counted. Cells were released from the CGS with 1% collagenase B (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim, Germany) and counted using a haemocytometer (Bright-Line, Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). We counted the number of sVF from six samples for each bFGF condition at each time point.

2.5. Immunostaining

To evaluate the response of sVFs to bFGF, immunohistochemical analyses were performed using an antibody directed against cleaved caspase-3 (CC3) for an apoptosis assay and α-smooth muscle actin (αSMA) for detecting the myofibroblasts. After 7 days in culture, samples were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 40 min and, after washing, were embedded in optimum cutting temperature (OCT) solution (Tissue-Tek, Kyoto, Japan) before freezing at –80 °C until use. Thereafter, 20 μm thick sections were placed onto microscope slides. The cells were permeabilized and blocked with a PBS solution containing 0.1% Triton-X and 5% normal goat serum. The samples were then incubated at 4 °C overnight with primary rabbit monoclonal antibodies against CC3 (1:50; Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA) and primary mouse monoclonal antibodies against αSMA (1:200; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). The samples were washed and incubated for 1 h at room temperature in AlexaFluor 555 goat anti-rabbit IgG (1:100; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) or anti-mouse IgG (1:500; Invitrogen) secondary antibodies. Cell nuclei were stained with 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole dihydrochloride (DAPI). For negative controls, the primary antibodies were omitted. Digital images were captured every 2 μm with a Leica TCS-SP2 laser-scanning confocal microscope (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany). Section analysis was performed on 10 randomly chosen fields of 0.14 mm² for each bFGF condition (each n = 6), using ×200 magnification.

2.6. Gene expression analysis

Quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (qRT–PCR) was performed to examine the changes in mRNA expression of ECM components and endogenous growth factors induced by exogenous bFGF. 1, 4, 7 and 14 days after seeding and treatment with bFGF, the samples were homogenized with a homogenizer (Asone Co., Tokyo, Japan) and total RNA was extracted from the cells in the CGS with Trizol reagent (Invitrogen), according to the manufacturer’s protocol. The quantity and quality of the extracted RNA were evaluated by measuring the A260:A280 ratio of each sample. Reactions were performed using GeneAmp polymerase chain reaction (PCR) system 9700 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA), using the following cycle parameters: 25 °C for 10 min, 37 °C for 120 min, 85 °C for 5 min and 4 °C for 5 min.

mRNA expression levels of endogenous fibroblast growth factor 2 (basic) (Fg2), hepatocyte growth factor (Hgf), vascular endothelial growth factor (VeGf), hyaluronan synthase 2 (Has2), and α-smooth muscle actin (αSMA) for detecting the myofibroblasts were quantified by the relative expression method. The expression was performed in a 20 μl reaction mixture containing 1 μl cDNA, 10 μl Power SYBR Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems), 0.25 μM (final concentration) of each primer, and ribonuclease-free water under the following conditions: 95 °C for 10 min, 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s, and 60 °C for 1 min. Fluorescence was
detected with StepOne Plus (Applied Biosystems). The specificity of each primer was confirmed by a single-peak melting curve. Standard curves were used and the results are shown as the fold change relative to the baseline value (day 1, bFGF 0 ng/ml) of the target gene mRNA concentration normalized relative to mRNA levels of the housekeeping gene, β2-microglobulin. Each individual sample was tested in triplicate (n = 6).

### 2.7. ELISA

To ascertain the retention of bFGF binding to CGS, the quantitative measurement of bFGF on CGS was performed using the human FGF basic ELISA kit (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN, USA). The paracrine profile of bFGF from the cultivated sVF was also assessed, using the rat FGF basic ELISA kit (R&D Systems). After cultivation for 1, 4, 7 and 14-days at the concentration of bFGF 100 ng/ml, the samples were used for both assays. Scaffolds were extracted from the culture medium and dissolved with 1% collagenase B after rinsing with PBS three times to remove the culture medium totally. The solution was centrifuged and the supernatants were collected to measure the concentrations of bFGF according to the manufacturer’s instructions, then the total quantity of binding bFGF on CGS was calculated. The secreted bFGF from the cultivated cells was investigated by measuring the rat-derived bFGF concentrations in the culture medium. Each individual sample was tested in triplicate (n = 6). Data were normalized by cell numbers.

### 2.8. Surgical procedure and implantation of collagen–gelatin sponge

The surgical procedures that were used for generating vocal fold injuries were established in previous studies (Hirano et al., 2004; Ohno et al., 2011). All beagles were sedated under general anaesthesia with an intramuscular injection of ketamine hydrochloride (15 mg/kg) and xylazine hydrochloride (6 mg/kg). The larynx was visualized using a direct laryngoscope and the right vocal folds were unilaterally scarred by stripping the entire layer of the lamina propria down to the muscle with microscissors and microforceps. The contralateral vocal folds were left intact as normal controls. Six weeks after the initial surgery, the animals were sedated again and implantation of CGS was performed, using a direct laryngoscope as described above.

Before implantation, 5 × 2 mm² and 3 mm thick CGS were prepared and impregnated with 10 μl normal saline solution (Otsuka Pharmaceutical, Tokyo, Japan) or 10 μl bFGF solution (7 μg/cm²) and incubated overnight at 4 °C. A vertical incision along the longitudinal axis of the vocal fold was made on the superior lateral surface of the vocal fold, using microscissors, and the epithelium was gently lifted to form a pocket in the subepithelial layer, into which a CGS could be placed. The beagles underwent implantation of a CGS impregnated with saline only (CGS group; n = 5) or a CGS with bFGF (CGS + bFGF group; n = 5) into the subepithelial pocket of one vocal fold. The animals that had nothing implanted were the sham-treated group (n = 5). The wounds were covered by fibrin glue (Bolheal; Kaketsuken, Kumamoto, Japan) to prevent loss or dislocation of the implanted material (Figure 1). The dose of

![Figure 1. Surgical procedure: right side, scarred vocal fold; CGS was implanted in a subepithelial space after lifting the epithelium; Rt, right vocal fold; Lt, left vocal fold; CGS, collagen–gelatin sponge](image-url)
Regeneration of vocal fold scar with CGS and bFGF

7 μg/cm² bFGF was determined based on previous reports that had demonstrated significantly superior wound closure or neoformed capillaries at the injured skin or palatine membrane with the combination of CGS and 7 μg/cm² bFGF, as opposed to other bFGF concentrations (Kanda et al., 2012). All surgical procedures for stripping and implantation were conducted by one professional laryngologist (S.H.).

All animals were euthanized 5 months after the surgery by intracardiac injection of pentobarbital. The larynges were harvested and used for vibratory examinations and then subjected to histological examination.

2.9. Vibratory examination of excised larynges

Vocal fold vibrations were examined using an excised larynx set-up, as described in previous studies (Kishimoto et al., 2010; Ohno et al., 2011). For better visualization of the vocal fold, supraglottic structures such as the epiglottis, false vocal folds and aryepiglottic folds were removed after resection of the superior portion of the thyroid cartilage. The arytenoid cartilages were sutured together, and an arytenoid adduction procedure was performed bilaterally, using 3-0 Prolene to close the glottis. After the larynx had been mounted on a table, an endotracheal tube was inserted and tightly clamped to prevent air leaks. Air was pumped through the tube to generate vocal fold vibrations. The larynges were irrigated with saline throughout the experiment to keep the vocal folds moist. To record fine details of the vocal fold vibrations, a high-speed digital imaging system (Memrecam Ci; NAC Image Technology, Osaka, Japan) was mounted 50 cm above the larynx and the images were recorded at a frame rate of 4000 frames/s.

In this experiment, we adopted three objective parameters or measurements for functional examination: (a) phonation threshold pressure (PTP); (b) normalized mucosal wave amplitude (NMWA); and (c) normalized glottal gap (NGG). PTP is defined as the minimum amount of subglottal pressure required to initiate vocal fold oscillation, and regulated by factors such as vocal fold thickness, stiffness and glottal width (Titze, 1988, 1992). The amplitude of the mucosal wave was measured to evaluate the mucosal vibration and elasticity of the vocal fold structures, especially the lamina propria, using ImageJ software (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA). The distance (d1) from the midline of the glottis to the free edge of the vocal fold was measured at the anteroposterior middle portion of the vocal fold during the closed phase; the closed phase was determined based on the motion of the upper and lower lips of the vocal folds. The same distance (d2) was measured at the maximum open phase. The mucosal wave amplitude was defined by subtracting d1 from d2 and was normalized by dividing the subtracted digit by the anteroposterior length of the glottis (L), which was measured from the anterior commissure to the vocal process. The following formula was used:

\[ \text{NMWA} = \frac{(d2-d1)}{L} \times 100 \text{ units (U)} \]

The normalized glottal gap (NGG) was calculated to evaluate glottis closure during the closed phase. The glottal gap area (a) was measured using ImageJ software and normalized by dividing this value by \( L^2 \). The following formula was used:

\[ \text{NGG} = \frac{a}{L^2} \times 100 \text{ (U)} \].

All procedures from extraction of the larynx to the vibratory examination were performed in a same operation room under same temperature (24°C) and the vibratory examination was completed in 10 min for each sample.

2.10. Histological examination

Histological analyses were completed to evaluate changes in the ECM or the degree of scar contraction of the scarred vocal folds. Immediately after the vibratory examination, the larynges were fixed in 10% formaldehyde for tissue examination. The larynges were subsequently embedded in paraffin and 5 μm thick serial sections were prepared in the coronal plane from the anteroposterior middle portion of the vocal folds. Elastica van Gieson staining was performed to identify collagen and elastin; Alcian blue staining and a hyaluronidase digestion technique were performed to identify HA. Images were captured with a Biorevo BZ-9000 microscope (Keyence, Osaka, Japan).

The sections were examined at ×4–×40 magnification. The areas of stained HA, dense collagen deposition and elastin of the LP were measured using software that automatically measures an area with a designated colour threshold (Biorevo BZ-H1C and BZ-H1M; Keyence). To evaluate the density of the HA, collagen or elastin area in each LP, we totalled the areas stained for HA, collagen or elastin in the injured vocal folds and they were divided by the total LP areas. The amount of HA in the LP was determined by subtracting the ratio of the blue-stained area of the section with hyaluronidase digestion from that of an adjacent section without digestion.

The thickness of the LP was also assessed to determine the degree of scar contraction. The LP thickness was determined by measuring the distance from the free edge of the vocal fold down to the thyroarytenoid muscle, and normalized by dividing the distance on the treated side (t1) by that of the normal side (t2). The following formula was used:

\[ \text{normalized thickness of lamina propria (NTLP)} = \frac{t1}{t2} \].

These assessments were performed in a blinded fashion, in which the examiners were not informed of the group to which each slide belonged.

2.11. Statistical analysis

Two-way factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA), followed by a Tukey–Kramer post hoc test, was performed to
compare cell proliferation and gene expression for each bFGF condition, to investigate any statistical differences between the conditions at each time point. When interactions were present between the concentration and experimental time point, one-way factorial ANOVA followed by a Tukey–Kramer post hoc test was performed. For comparisons of the in vitro apoptosis assay and dedifferentiation assay, and all in vivo experiments, one-way factorial ANOVA followed by a Tukey–Kramer post hoc test was performed. Statistical significance was defined as $p < 0.01$ or $p < 0.05$, using StatView 5.0 (SAS Institute, Berkeley, CA, USA). All data are expressed as mean ± standard deviation (SD).

3. Results

3.1. Quantification of cell proliferation

To assess cell growth in CGS, sVF proliferation was quantified over a 14 day period. Between days 7 and 14, the number of cells cultured with 100 ng/ml bFGF was significantly higher than the number of cells cultured with 0 or 1 ng/ml bFGF (all $p < 0.01$, except for day 10 vs 1 ng/ml; $p < 0.05$). Cells cultured with 10 ng/ml bFGF also showed a significantly higher amount of growth at day 14 compared with the 0 ng/ml bFGF condition (Figure 2).

3.2. Effect of bFGF on CC3 and αSMA expression

To investigate whether bFGF had a concentration-dependent effect on sVF apoptosis, immunohistochemistry for CC3 staining was performed (Figure 3A). The number of cells that were double-positive for CC3 and GFP in the 100 ng/ml bFGF group was significantly decreased compared with the 0 ng/ml group ($p < 0.05$) (Figure 3B). We also investigated αSMA expression, which indicates the existence of myofibroblasts. The number of double-positive cells for αSMA and GFP appeared to decrease in a dose-dependent manner (Figure 3A), and the ratio of positive cells was significantly lower at the 100 ng/ml bFGF concentration compared to 0 and 10 ng/ml ($p < 0.01$). The 10 ng/ml bFGF group also showed...
significant suppression of αSMA compared with the 0 ng/ml group (p < 0.05) (Figure 3C).

3.3. Effects of bFGF on ECM gene expression

To determine the efficacy of bFGF administration, the mRNA expression levels of endogenous growth factors (Fgf2, Hgf and Vegfa) and ECM components (Has 1, Has 2, Has 3, Col1a1, Col3a1, Mmp1, Mmp8 and Fn) were measured by RT–PCR. Has 1 and Has 3 showed a similar dose-dependent pattern from day 4 and significantly higher levels at the 100 ng/ml bFGF concentration. Meanwhile, Has 2 was expressed to significantly higher levels in the bFGF 10 ng/ml group until day 4 (Figure 4A–C). The expression levels of Col1a1 were significantly lower in the presence of 10 and 100 ng/ml bFGF than with 1 ng/ml on day 4, as well as with 0 and 1 ng/ml on day 7. Col3a1 showed a similar suppression pattern in the 10 and 100 ng/ml groups compared to the 0 or 1 ng/ml groups until day 4, whereas from day 7, for all bFGF conditions, significant suppression was observed compared to the 0 ng/ml group. A noticeable upregulation of Mmp1 and Mmp8 expression emerged on day 14, although all levels showed wide variations (Figure 4D–G).

The expression levels of endogenous growth factors showed significant upregulation in the 100 ng/ml bFGF group as early as day 1 and the levels tapered after reaching the maximum levels on day 4. The upregulation of Hgf expression showed a slightly slow start compared to Fgf2 or Vegfa, but reached markedly high levels with 100 ng/ml bFGF (Figure 4I–K).

Figure 4. Gene expression (mRNA) ratios of scar fibroblasts, normalized relative to the housekeeping gene β2-microglobulin: the expression level with 0 ng/ml bFGF on day 1 was used as the baseline value and defined as 1.0; data are presented as mean ± SD of assays run in triplicate (n = 6); *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01 compared with 0 ng/ml bFGF; ††p < 0.01, †p < 0.05 compared with 1 ng/ml bFGF; and ##p < 0.01, #p < 0.05 compared with 10 ng/ml bFGF.
3.4. Retention of exogenous bFGF and the production of endogenous bFGF

Analysis of the quantity of initially loaded human bFGF revealed that CGS bound and immobilized bFGF through 14 days, gradually releasing the initially binding bFGF (see supporting information, Table S1). The paracrine secretion of bFGF from sVF s was gradually decreasing but sustained release under the condition of bFGF 100 ng/ml (see supporting information, Table S2).

3.5. Vibratory examination of excised larynges

Digital high-speed images revealed a limited mucosal wave of the injured vocal fold (right side) compared to the contralateral intact (left) side and a severe glottal gap in the sham-treated group (Figure 5A). The CGS + bFGF group showed better vibration in the injured side and the glottal gap had almost disappeared in the closed phase (Figure 5C), while the CGS group retained limited vibration, even though this group achieved a reduction in the glottis gap (Figure 5B).

The CGS + bFGF group showed significantly lower PTP compared to the sham-treated group (p < 0.05) (Figure 6A) and a higher ratio of NMWA compared to the CGS group and the sham-treated group (p < 0.05) (Figure 6B). Both the CGS and CGS + bFGF groups showed significantly smaller NGG than the sham-treated group (CGS group, p < 0.05; CGS + bFGF group, p < 0.01). No significant differences were observed in the PTP and NGG parameters between the CGS and CGS + bFGF groups.

3.6. Histological examination

Alcian blue staining revealed better restoration in the CGS + bFGF-treated vocal folds compared to the sham-treated group (Figure 7A). The density of HA in the CGS + bFGF group was significantly greater than in the sham-treated group (p < 0.01) and the CGS group (p < 0.05) (Figure 7B). Elastica van Gieson staining revealed the suppression of dense collagen deposition and reorganization of elastin in the injured vocal folds of the CGS and CGS + bFGF groups compared to the sham-treated group (Figure 7A). The densities of collagen deposition were significantly lower in the two implantation groups compared to the sham-treated group (p < 0.01), while this suppression was significantly greater in the CGS + bFGF group compared to the CGS group (p < 0.01) (Figure 7C). The densities of elastin were also significantly higher only in the CGS + bFGF group than the sham-treated group (p < 0.01) (Figure 7D). NTLP was higher in both of the implanted vocal folds relative to the sham-treated group (CGS, p < 0.05; CGS + bFGF, p < 0.01) but no significant differences were observed between the two implanted groups (Figure 7E). No residual CGS was found in any specimen.

4. Discussion

Vocal fold scar continues to present a therapeutic challenge. Various surgical injections or implantation therapies have been tried, including fat implants (Sataloff et al., 1997), collagen injection (Remacle et al., 2000) and fascia implants (Tsunoda et al., 1999), with each approach showing certain capacities to alleviate issues such as glottal incompetence. However, these effects were shown to be temporary. The main obstacle to effective vocal fold scar treatment lies in the difficulty of addressing disorganized ECM components, such as lost HA or
excessive collagen accumulation. A combination therapy of CGS and bFGF could be undertaken as a tissue-engineering concept because other than scaffold (CGS) and growth factor (bFGF), cells encountering around CGS or infiltrating into CGS are involved. In the current study, we evaluated the therapeutic efficacy of the combination of CGS and bFGF to treat vocal fold scar in beagle models, and analysed the potential mechanisms of its restorative effects using rat sVFs.

4.1. In vitro findings

Previously, we assessed the biocompatibility of CGS for non-scarred, normal vocal fold fibroblasts cultivated in a three-dimensional (3D) manner for short periods of time (Hiwatashi et al., 2014). In this study, we used longer time points in order to integrate the results in vivo, because Takemoto et al. (2008) reported that around 60% of impregnated bFGF remained in the CGS 7 days after

Figure 7. (A) Representative images of histological examinations: Alcian blue staining (a, d, g, j) and elastica van Gieson staining (b, e, h, k, ×4 magnification; c, f, i, l, ×40 magnification) of the sham-treated group (a–c), the CGS group (d–f), the CGS + bFGF group (g–i) and the normal vocal fold (j–l); the CGS + bFGF group showed better hyaluronic acid restoration (blue-stained area); tissue contraction and dense collagen deposition was reduced and reorganization of elastin were observed in both implanted groups. (B–E) Data for histological examination from all beagles in each group are plotted (each n = 5): (B) density of hyaluronic acid; (C) density of dense collagen deposition; (D) density of elastin; (E) normalized thickness of the lamina propria (NTLP); **p < 0.01, *p < 0.05
implantation in the backs of mice, with 30% remaining on post-implantation day 10.

We observed significantly lower numbers of apoptotic cells with bFGF at 100 ng/ml, and dose-dependent decreases in the number of αSMA-expressing cells, myofibroblasts. Previous studies revealed that bFGF has the potential to protect many types of cells against apoptosis, and that bFGF is a possible inducer of apoptosis in myofibroblasts during scar formation (Funato et al., 1997; Shi et al., 2013). bFGF was also reported to prevent fibroblasts in scar tissue from changing their phenotype into myofibroblasts (Spyrou and Naylor, 2002). In the context of these reports and our results at day 7 of sVF cultivation, it is possible that bFGF promoted the apoptosis of myofibroblasts, while bFGF accelerated the growth of fibroblasts, leading to the dominance of the fibroblasts and a reduction of the apoptotic cells in a dose-dependent manner. This assumption is in agreement with our results for the cell proliferation assay that showed a growth spurt after day 4. However, there is a limitation in these assays, in that we did not separate the fibroblasts and myofibroblasts and did not conduct discrete experiments to compare their cell behaviour. Nonetheless, the use of excised injured vocal fold tissue is preferable, because these cells likely more accurately reflect the biological reactions to bFGF in vivo. In each condition, cell growth persisted for 7 days, followed by linear growth after day 7. Earlier studies investigating the proliferation of vocal fold fibroblasts in 3D scaffolds only demonstrated two phases of growth until day 7, lag and log (Chen and Thibeault, 2010). Grayson et al. (2004) displayed the two phases followed by a plateau phase with longer cell cultivation in 3D, and concluded that the ECM network produced by the cells influenced the cell proliferation potential. Among various ECM components, fibronectin contributes to cell–matrix adhesion of fibroblasts and the gene expression of fn showed that the highest level on day 7, followed by downregulation until day 14, may support the transition of cell growth in this study.

Has 1 and Has 3 gene expression showed upregulation from day 4 that persisted until day 14 with 10 ng/ml and 100 ng/ml bFGF. Has is a progenitor of HA, which is thought to be a key molecule in maintaining the viscoelasticity of vocal folds (Gray et al., 1999), and reduction of HA levels in human vocal folds has been correlated with changes in their viscoelastic properties (Chan et al., 2001). Our finding that Has is upregulated in response to bFGF treatment could suggest that sVFs infiltrating into the CGS reorganize and restore greater amounts of HA following bFGF stimulation in vivo. Exogenous bFGF down-regulated the expression of Col1a1 and Col3a1 during days 4–7 and these significant changes were retained until day 14. These two genes are related to type I and type III collagen, respectively. Type III collagen is rapidly synthesized as a wound matrix and is in turn gradually replaced by type I collagen. Excessive deposition of type I collagen is a main feature of scar tissue, because it provides long-term tensile strength and increases stiffness (Stephens and Thomas, 2002). MMP induces ECM turnover through the degradation and production of collagen, and our results showed that Mmp1 and Mmp8 were indeed upregulated in the presence of 100 ng/ml bFGF. Taken together, infiltrating sVFs into the CGS may suppress excessive collagen production and alleviate collagen deposition.

With regard to endogenous growth factors, all examined growth factors showed significant upregulation in the bFGF 100 ng/ml group, especially for Fgf2 and Hgf, which showed markedly increases from day 4 that continued until day 14. HGF has a strong anti-fibrotic effect that is attributed to the resolution of fibrosis. In canine vocal scar models, HGF administration was revealed to have potential for restoring HA and decreasing collagen deposition (Hirano et al., 2003). Our results showing an upregulation of Fgf2 suggest that exogenous bFGF stimulates the sVF in the CGS and increases endogenous bFGF. Moreover, this autocrine bFGF loop may not only stimulate HGF production, resulting in a better antifibrotic effect, but could also strengthen HA production and enhance the suppression of excessive collagen.

### 4.2. In vivo findings

Scaffolds should provide a space that is suitable for the induction of tissue regeneration in which self-derived cells surrounding the scaffold, or preseeded cells, infiltrate the scaffold and proliferate (Tabata et al., 1999). In our study, the NTLP of the two CGS implanted groups was significantly larger than in the sham-treated group, and a reduced NGG was subsequently shown for both groups. As the preferable collagen sponge pore size for adhesive interaction of fibroblasts is considered to be 50–200 μm (Geiger et al., 2009), the length of CGS pore used here, which was > 80 μm (Takemoto et al., 2008), is compatible. Based on previous reports using collagen sponges (Suzuki et al., 1990), within 2 or 3 weeks the CGS would likely also be biodegraded and replaced by a natural ECM that is produced by the cells recruited into the scaffold. Considering the CGS biomaterial features, our results indicate that sVFs around the CGS infiltrated into the CGS, whereupon the CGS was degraded and replaced by the regenerated tissue during the wound-healing process. A functional examination revealed significant amelioration of the NMWA in the CGS + bFGF group compared to the CGS implanted group. This result could be due to differences in ECM reorganization, including significant improvement of HA and reduction of collagen. As mentioned above, HA is indispensable for retaining the viscoelasticity of vocal folds, while excessive collagen accumulation stiffens vocal folds. Thus, it is possible that sustained release of bFGF stimulated the sVF to colonize in and around the CGS to promote the restoration of typical ECM distributions.

In the current study, we set only the CGS group as controls in vivo, and another control treated by bFGF only was not prepared, because administration of bFGF only is usually performed by injection, and the procedure is quite
different from the current implant operation of CGS. The wound-healing process should be different, because of different tissue damage caused by each procedure. Instead, our group has previously obtained functional and histological data of beagles treated with bFGF injection therapy under the same setting as the current study (Suehiro et al., 2010), and the comparative analysis with the current data was completed (see supporting information, Figures S1, S2). Although this is not a rigid comparison, the data show that the combination therapy of CGS and bFGF is superior to the bFGF injection therapy in both the functional and histological examinations.

Taking the in vitro and in vivo results together, the current study demonstrates that the combination therapy of CGS and bFGF shows better efficacy for vocal fold scar in terms of histological and functional regeneration compared to the group with CGS implanted alone or the sham-treated group. The mechanisms of the favourable effects are thought to be derived from the sustained release system of bFGF, which activates sVF to control ECM redistribution. However, there may be a limitation, that the extent of improvement varies among individuals, and extended observation may be needed to evaluate the therapeutic endpoint.

5. Conclusions

The current study demonstrated that the combination therapy of CGS and bFGF has significant potential to improve vibratory properties and promote histological changes, including better restoration of HA and elastin, with reduced collagen deposition and tissue contraction. Sustained release of bFGF regulates ECM synthesis, leading to ECM redistribution. Together, these results suggest that CGS with bFGF may have therapeutic efficacy for the treatment of vocal fold scar.

Conflict of interest

The authors have declared that there is no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements

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Supporting information

The following supporting information may be found in the online version of this article:

Figure S1. Results of vibratory examinations
Figure S2. Results of histological examinations
Table S1. Time course of bFGF retention on collagen-gelatin sponge
Table S2. Time course of endogenous bFGF levels
**Supporting information**

**TABLE 2 Supporting Information**

**TABLE 2 : Retention of bFGF on collagen/gelatin sponge**

<table>
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<th>Day 14</th>
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**TABLE 3 Supporting Information**

**TABLE 3 : Endogenous bFGF upon addition of exogenous human bFGF**

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<td>2.7</td>
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</table>

**Figure 8 Supporting information**

![Graphs A, B, C](image-url)
**Figure Legends of Supporting Information**

Table 2 SuppInfo.

Time course of bFGF retention on collagen/gelatin sponge under the condition of bFGF 100 ng/mL.

Residual bFGF was analysed by ELISA. Data are expressed mean ± SD (n = 6).

Table 3 SuppInfo.

Time course of endogenous bFGF levels under the condition of bFGF 100 ng/mL. The culture media was harvested over time and analysed by ELISA. Data are expressed mean ± SD (n = 6).

Figure 8 SuppInfo.

Results of vibratory examinations. Data for all beagles in each group are plotted (each n=5). A) Phonation threshold pressure (PTP). B) Normalized mucosal wave amplitude (NMWA). C) Normalized glottal gap (NGG). **p < 0.01, *p < 0.05.

Figure 9 SuppInfo.

A) Representative images of histological examinations. Alcian blue staining (a, d, g, j, m) and elastica van Gieson staining (4x magnification: b, e, h, k, n; 40x magnification: c, f, i, l, o) of the sham-treated group (a, b, c), the bFGF group (d, e, f), the CGS group (g, h, i), the CGS + bFGF group (j, k, l) and the normal vocal fold (m, n, o). The CGS + bFGF group showed better hyaluronic acid restoration (blue stained area). Tissue contraction and dense collagen deposition was reduced in both implanted groups and reorganization of elastin were observed in the bFGF group and the CGS + bFGF group. B-E) Data for histological examination from all beagles in each group are plotted (each n=5). B) Density of hyaluronic acid. C) Density of dense collagen deposition. D) Density of elastin. E) Normalized thickness of the lamina propria (NTLP). **p < 0.01, *p < 0.05.