Nasal Polyps in Cystic Fibrosis

17

Patrick O. Sheahan, Richard J. Harvey, and Rodney J. Schlosser

Core Messages

- Nasal polyps are common in cystic fibrosis (CF).
- Nasal polyps in children should prompt appropriate investigations for the potential diagnosis of CF.
- Possible etiologies for nasal polyp formation in CF include direct consequence of ΔF508 affecting chromosome 7, colonization with microorganisms including *Pseudomonas aeroginosa* and fungi, and IgE-mediated inflammation.
- Neutrophils are more common in polyps from CF patients compared with non-CF nasal polyposis.
- Conservative management with nasal irrigations and nasal steroids constitute first-line treatment.
- Surgical management of persistent and symptomatic polyps may also improve lung function, and consequently, quality of life.
- Simple polypectomy has a high rate of early recurrence, and thus, surgery should include at a minimum uncinectomy, middle meatal antrostomy, and anterior ethmoidectomy.
- Topical delivery of novel medications may reduce the need for surgery.

17.1 Introduction

Cystic fibrosis (CF) is an autosomal recessive inherited disorder affecting the exocrine glands and is characterized by thick, viscous secretions in multiple organ systems, including the sinuses, upper and lower airways, gastrointestinal system, skin, and reproductive system. It has a high incidence in the Caucasian population, affecting 1 per 2,500 live births in the United States [14]. Chronic rhinosinusitis (CRS) and nasal polyps are not uncommon in CF patients. In addition to the morbidity due to the polypoid CRS, it is suggested that the extent of sinus disease may influence the severity of pulmonary disease [16]. The purpose of this chapter is to review the clinical spectrum of sinonasal disease in CF and management issues, especially in those undergoing pulmonary transplantation.

17.2 Epidemiology of Sinonasal Disease in Cystic Fibrosis

The frequency of nasal polyposis in CF ranges from 31 to 56% [6, 12, 22, 26, 39]. Polyps are most commonly reported in children aged 5–14 years; however, they can also develop in older patients [2, 22]. Males and females are equally affected [6, 12, 26, 39]. Polyps usually occur bilaterally [44], but have been reported unilaterally in up to 38% [6] (Fig. 17.1).

17.3 Etiology

17.3.1 Genetics

CF is caused by mutations in the cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) gene

R.J. Schlosser (✉)
P.O. Sheahan
R.J. Harvey
Department of Otolaryngology, Medical University of South Carolina, 135 Rutledge Avenue, Charleston, SC 29425, USA
e-mail: schlossr@musc.edu

T.M. Önerci and B.J. Ferguson (eds.), *Nasal Polyposis*,
DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-11412-0_17, © Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2010

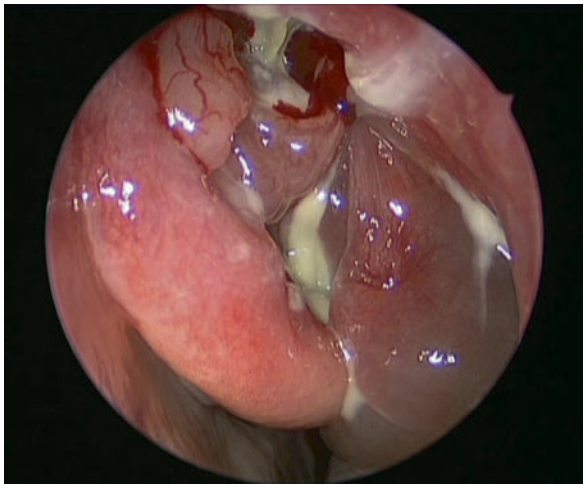

Fig. 17.1 Intraoperative view of left nasal cavity in child with CF showing polyps and mucopurulence in middle meatus

situated in region 31 on the long arm of chromosome 7 (7q31). This gene codes for a protein that functions as a cAMP-regulated chloride channel. Abnormal function of this channel results in abnormal sodium and chloride transport across the apical membrane of epithelial cells [45]. More than 1,000 mutations have been identified in the CFTR gene; however, the most common mutation, present in 70% of patients, is a deletion, designated ΔF508 mutation, which results in the loss of the amino acid phenylalanine at the 508th position. The most frequent genotype in CF is ΔF508/ΔF508 (i.e., ΔF508 homozygosity), followed by ΔF508 heterozygosity [28].

The genotype may influence the incidence of nasal polyposis in CF. Kingdom reported that CF patients with nasal polyposis undergoing surgery had a higher incidence of ΔF508/ΔF508 or ΔF508/G551D genotypes than those with CF and no nasal polyps [29]. Some found that ΔF508 homozygosity correlates with the presence of nasal polyps [26, 39]; however, others have not found otherwise [2, 6, 12, 22]. Interestingly, Kostuch reported a significantly higher incidence of ΔF508 heterozygosity in non-CF patients with nasal polyps (11.4%), compared to control subjects without polyps (1.4%) [31]. Thus, while the specific CFTR mutation may be connected with the development of nasal polyposis, it is likely that other factors also play an important role [6].

17.3.2 Pseudomonas Colonization

A significantly higher incidence of colonization with *Pseudomonas aeroginosa* is reported in CF patients with nasal polyps compared to CF patients without polyps [6, 22, 29]. *Pseudomonas* species produce several toxins, including hemolyzin and pyocyanin, a phenazine derivative. Pyocyanin has been shown to slow ciliary beat frequency and cause ciliostasis and epithelial disruption in vitro and, thus, may play a role in the pathophysiological events leading to the formation of nasal polyps [46].

17.3.3 Allergy

The role of allergy in the pathophysiology of nasal polyps in CF is unclear. The overall prevalence of atopy in CF does not appear to be different between polyp and nonpolyp patients [19, 22]. However, studies have shown that patients with positive skin prick tests are more likely to be colonized by *Pseudomonas species*, and this may be in fact responsible for the formation of polyps. Interestingly, a higher incidence of allergy to *Aspergillus fumigatus* in CF nasal polyps has been reported and allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis is known to affect 2–15% of patients with CF [42]. Thus, it is interesting to speculate whether fungi and allergy to fungi may have a role in causing nasal polyposis in these patients. Wise reported one third of fungal cultures to be positive among a series of 30 patients with CF, with two patients in their series being newly diagnosed with allergic fungal sinusitis [47]. Thus, allergic fungal sinusitis may be associated with nasal polyps in a subset of patients with CF; however, further studies are required.

17.4 Pathology

There are several important differences in histological characteristics of polyps from CF and non-CF patients. Polyps in non-CF patients are characterized by eosinophil infiltration, while those in CF are characterized by predominantly neutrophil infiltration [24, 38]. Eosinophils are seen in CF polyps; however, the numbers of these are significantly fewer than seen in non-CF polyps [24, 38]. The basement membrane of polyps is thinner and more delicate, the mucous glands mainly contain acid mucin, and submucosal hyalinization is absent. In contrast, non-CF polyps typically

have a thick basement membrane and contain mucous glands with neutral mucin [17].

CF polyps typically contain cytokines associated with a T helper 1 (T_H1) inflammatory response [43]. Neutrophil populations, levels of IL-8, and myeloperoxidase (MPO) are significantly higher, whereas levels of IL-5, eotaxin, ECP, and IgE are significantly lower in CF polyps compared with non-CF polyps. Proteins such as human β-defensins 2 (HBD 2) and toll-like receptor 2 (TLR-2) [8] and surfactant proteins A and D [43] are also increased. These may be a consequence of predisposition to recurrent infections due to dysfunctional CFTR in the nasal epithelium that causes impaired chloride transport, which changes the physiochemical properties of nasal mucus, resulting in thick and viscous mucus. Increased levels of interleukin-9 and upregulation of the calcium-activated chloride channel, hCLCA1, may contribute to mucus overproduction by upregulating the expression of soluble gel-forming mucins [21]. The viscosity of the mucus blanket is further increased by DNA macromolecules from degenerating neutrophils [7]. The increased viscosity of nasal mucus contributes to decreased effectiveness of the mucociliary transport, and consequently, increased the risk of infection and inflammation. The increased viscoelastic properties of mucus may also contribute to mechanical obstruction of sinus ostia and air spaces causing impaired gas exchange and mucosal edema that further decreases ciliary function and enhances bacterial colonization. Bacterial products such as pyocyanin and hemolysin from *P. aeruginosa* may further impair mucociliary function. Thus, a vicious cycle of impaired mucociliary function, sinus ostial obstruction, and bacterial infection is created. Furthermore, it is also postulated that chronic infection with *P. aeruginosa* and *Staphylococcus aureus* may cause upregulation of innate defensive proteins TLR-2 and HBD 2, leading to a dysregulated neutrophilic inflammation [8]. Neutrophil elastase is known to cause mucosal damage and may thus prolong mucosal inflammation and contribute to edema and polyp formation [38].

In postlung-transplant patients with nasal polyposis, consideration should be given to the possibility of posttransplant lymphoproliferative disorder (PTLD). PTLD is an uncontrolled lymphoproliferation in the setting of pharmacological immunosuppression, usually caused by unrestrained stimulation of B-lymphocytes by Epstein–Barr virus (EBV). Although PTLD affecting the head and neck usually occurs in the setting of disseminated disease, isolated sinonasal PTLD is not uncommon, and in many cases, is only diagnosed after "incidental" nasal polypectomy [23].

17.5 Clinical Presentation

Nasal obstruction is the most common presenting symptom of nasal polyposis in CF; however, not all patients with polyps complain of nasal obstruction. It is likely that nasal obstruction in these patients is so long-standing that most patients have adapted to it. Rhinorrhea is also common, particularly among younger children, while older children may also complain of headache.

Whenever possible, children with CF should undergo nasal endoscopy to definitively ascertain whether or not polyps are present. This may be difficult in younger children owing to the lack of cooperation. Nasal endoscopy will commonly reveal polyps arising in the middle meatus, with the middle turbinate thinned and pushed medially against the nasal septum. Nasal polyps are rare in children who do not have CF. Thus, children with nasal polyps should initially undergo a sweat test. A sweat chloride level of greater than 60 mEq/L is considered diagnostic of CF, and this should be followed up with genetic testing and counseling.

17.6 Investigations

17.6.1 Radiology

Sinus radiographs are of limited application and computed tomography (CT) of the sinuses is now the investigation of choice. Common sinus CT scan findings include frontal sinus hypoplasia, maxillary sinus expansion with medialization, or even loss of the medial maxillary wall and mucocele or pseudomucocele of the maxillary sinuses (Fig. 17.2). Frontal sinus hypoplasia is thought to result from diminished postnatal growth as a result of chronic inflammatory disease

Fig. 17.2 Computed tomography scan of patient with CF showing hypoplastic frontal sinuses

and decreased sinus ventilation. A similar phenomenon may also be observed in the sphenoid sinuses. Of note, a significantly higher incidence of sinus hypoplasia has been reported in patients who are homozygous for the ΔF508 mutation [48]. The maxillary sinus findings are thought to result from the entrapment of thick inspissated mucus and polyp formation in the middle meatus. Like polyps, mucoceles are extremely rare in children and should suggest a diagnosis of CF. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) can differentiate between infectious material and thickened mucosa and thus complement CT scan findings [15].

17.6.2 Microbiology

Ideally, endoscopically guided bacteriological cultures should be obtained to guide antibiotic therapy, especially given the high levels of antibiotic resistance in CF; however, this may not be always possible in children. The most common bacteria found in CF sinusitis are *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus*. Of note, CF patients with polyps have been reported to show a significantly higher incidence of sinonasal *Pseudomonas* sp. infection compared to those without polyps [6, 22, 29]. Consequently, biofilm formation may be increased in CF compared to non-CF CRS patients [20].

17.7 Management

17.7.1 Medical

Medical treatment is the initial treatment step in the management of CF with CRS with and without polyps. Saline irrigation helps with clearing thick inspissated secretions, crusts, and proinflammatory mediators. Intranasal corticosteroids may also be effective in reducing CF polyp size [18]. Of note, children with CF who are commenced on systemic corticosteroids for pulmonary disease may also report improvement of their nasal symptoms. Systemic antibiotics are indicated where purulent secretions are present in the symptomatic patient and were possible, should be culture-directed, and where possible, should be culture-directed. The major target of antibiotic therapy is typically *P. aeruginosa*. Topical antibiotics have also been used and are being investigated. Nebulized tobramycin is used to treat endobronchial *Pseudomonas* where delivery of a high concentration enhances bactericidal activity while minimizing the risk of ototoxicity and nephrotoxicity. Moss and King found that the requirement for sinus surgery was reduced in CF patients who underwent serial sinus antimicrobial lavage in the postoperative period [35]. However, there are little data on the use of topical antibiotics beyond the perioperative period and on the long-term beneficial effects. Tobramycin may be administered as a 20 mg/mL solution and adverse effects at this concentration are not reported [13]. While topical tobramycin lavage is shown to reduce local bacterial counts in experimental animals, there is little evidence for eliminating biofilms [1, 4]. Recently, topical baby shampoo lavage has shown to be effective in removing bacterial biofilms in postsurgical patients and may have a role in select patients[5] (see below).

17.7.2 Surgery

Generally, surgery is indicated where medical measures fail to achieve adequate control of sinonasal disease. Following are the main issues of surgery in CF patients: (1) safety of the surgery; (2) impact of the surgery on nasal symptoms and quality of life; and (3) impact of surgery on pulmonary function. Major concerns relating to safety involve the risk of bleeding,

particularly where coagulation is abnormal due to vitamin K malabsorption and in the posttransplant patients, due to immune-suppressive therapy. Thus, consideration should be given to optimizing preoperative coagulation status in order to minimize bleeding and risk of complications [10]. Measures to reduce bleeding include preoperative oral corticosteroids and antibiotics. Surgery when performed by experienced surgeons, in close cooperation with experienced anesthesiologists and pulmonologists, there is good evidence that it may be performed safely [27, 40].

The second issue relates to whether or not surgery improves symptoms and quality of life in CF patients. Although there are little data regarding validated quality of life measures, many authors have reported significant improvement in sinonasal symptoms after surgery. Nasal obstruction is the most commonly improved symptom. Significant improvements in rhinorrhea and total rhinosinusitis symptom scores are also reported. Although headache is least likely to improve following surgery, its presence postoperatively may indicate recurrence of frontoethmoidal mucoceles [27, 44]. The third issue relates to the effect of surgery on pulmonary function and is controversial. There are conflicting reports on postoperative lung function, with temporary improvement shown by some [25, 41, 44] and no significant change by others [34, 37]. A significant decrease in the number of hospitalizations and mean number of intravenous antibiotic courses is also shown [41, 44].

17.7.2.1 Extent of Surgery

Surgical treatment includes simple nasal polypectomy and completely opening up the involved sinuses including maxillary, ethmoid, frontal, and sphenoid sinuses. The major drawback of simple polypectomy is shorter time to polyp recurrence [3, 44]. Although previous studies showed better long-term results in patients who underwent a "combined approach," including a Caldwell–Luc operation [3, 9], recent endoscopic studies have not shown a significant long-term beneficial outcome regardless of the extent of surgery [2]. We recommend that surgery in CF patients should include at least an uncinectomy, middle meatal antrostomy, and anterior ethmoidectomy. In most cases, the uncinate process will already be thinned and medially displaced, and in many cases, a pseudomucocele may be present within the maxillary sinus. Uncinectomy and removal of polyps will allow this pseudomucocele to drain and a large middle meatal antrostomy can be achieved endoscopically without the need for a Caldwell–Luc operation [41]. Anterior ethmoidectomy is also often required, whereas posterior ethmoidectomy and sphenoidotomy need only be performed when there is radiologic or endoscopic evidence of disease in these sinuses. As the frontal sinuses are generally underdeveloped, routine exploration of the frontal recess is unnecessary, but should be performed when disease is present in that location. We do not routinely resect the caudal middle turbinate; however, this may be performed as advocated by others [44].

Nasal polyp recurrence after surgery is common and reported in 13–89% of patients [2, 3, 49], depending on the length of follow-up and definition of recurrence. The extent of disease as indicated by Lund–Mackay scores from the preoperative CT scan has been reported to be a predictor of the risk of requiring further surgery in CF [2]. Importantly, even though polyps may recur in up to 32% of patients, the extent of polyps may be significantly better in the preoperative state [27, 44]. The median time interval to repeat surgery is approximately 4 years [49], thus studies with follow-up periods of less than this may not accurately report recurrence rates.

17.7.3 Novel Treatments

17.7.3.1 Dornase Alfa

Large amounts of DNA from degenerating neutrophils in CF are important contributors to the high viscosity of nasal secretions. Dornase alfa (recombinant human deoxyribonuclease) cleaves extracellular DNA and is shown to reduce sputum viscosity and improve lung function in CF (36). Intranasal use of dornase alfa postoperatively is shown in a randomized double blind trial to improve symptoms and endoscopic scores in CF patients compared to placebo treatment [7].

17.7.3.2 Ibuprofen

Upregulation of cyclooxygenase (COX) enzymes 1 (COX-1) and 2 (COX-2) has been reported in the nasal

polyps of patients with CF [36]. High-dose ibuprofen therapy can slow the decline in lung function in children with CF [30]. Recently, high-dose ibuprofen therapy has also been found to reduce the size of polyps in CF children [33]. Further data are awaited from controlled studies.

17.7.3.3 Antibiofilm Therapies

Pseudomonas biofilm formation in CF patients may be a significant contributor to sinonasal inflammation. Novel medications such as quorum sensing blockers and other antibiofilm therapies may contribute to our future management. Detergents, such as baby shampoo, have been reported to possess antibiofilm forming properties when used in irrigations at 1% [5].

17.7.4 Management of Nasal Polyps Prior to Lung Transplantation

Management of sinonasal disease is an important consideration in CF patients before and after lung transplant. *P. aeruginosa* infections are a serious consideration in postlung transplant patients, and the nose and paranasal sinuses are considered to be the reservoir for these infections [17]. Thus, several authors have described protocols that involve endoscopic sinus surgery, followed by various regimes of intrasinus tobramycin prior to transplant [11, 32]. It is unclear if such regimes improve outcomes or not.

17.8 Conclusion

Nasal polyps are common in children and adults with CF. Initial treatment in most patients consists of management with nasal irrigations and topical steroids; however, the treatment of large or persistent polyps may eventually require surgery to improve nasal airway and quality of life. When performed by an experienced endoscopic surgeon in conjunction with anesthesiologists and pulmonologists familiar with CF patients, surgery should be a safe undertaking. Further advances in our understanding of the pathophysiology of polyps in CF may allow the development of newer medical treatments, which may further improve patient outcomes.

Take Home Pearls

- Conservative management with nasal irrigations and topical steroids constitutes the first-line management of nasal polyposis in CF.
- When surgery is performed, at a minimum this should entail nasal polypectomy, uncinectomy, middle meatal antrostomy, and anterior ethmoidectomy. There is no known benefit to performing more extensive surgery in the absence of radiological evidence of inflammation in the posterior ethmoids, sphenoid, or frontal sinuses; however, if these areas are diseased, they should also be addressed at the time of surgery.
- Adequate postoperative medical therapy is essential to prevent early recurrence of nasal polyps or rhinosinusitis. In the future, improvements in our understanding of the pathophysiology of polyps in CF may allow for the development of new treatments, which may improve patient outcomes.

References

1. Antunes MB, Feldman MD, Cohen NA, Chiu AG (2007) Dose-dependent effects of topical tobramycin in an animal model of *Pseudomonas* sinusitis. Am J Rhinol 21: 423–427
2. Becker SS, de Alarcon A, Bomeli SR, Han JK, Gross CW (2007) Risk factors for recurrent sinus surgery in cystic fibrosis: review of a decade of experience. Am J Rhinol 21:478–482
3. Cepero R, Smith R, Catlin F, Bressler K, Furuta G, Shanders K (1987) Cystic fibrosis – an otolaryngologic perspective. Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg 97:356–360
4. Chiu AG, Antunes MB, Palmer JN, Cohen NA (2007) Evaluation of the in vivo efficacy of topical tobramycin against Pseudomonas sinonasal biofilms. J Antimicrob Chemother 59:1130–1134
5. Chiu SG, Palmer JN, Woodworth BA, Doghramji L, Cohen MB, Prince A, Cohen MA (2008) Baby shampoo nasal irrigations for the symptomatic post-functional endoscopic sinus surgery patient. Am J Rhinol 22:34–37
6. Cimmino M, Cavaliere M, Nardone M, Plantulli A, Orefice A, Esposito V, Raia V (2003) Clinical characteristics and

genotype analysis of patients with cystic fibrosis and nasal polyposis. Clin Otolaryngol 28:125–132
7. Cimmino M, Nardone M, Cavaliere M, Plantulli A, Sepe A, Esposito V, Mazzarella G, Raia V (2005) Dornase alfa as postoperative therapy in cystic fibrosis sinonasal disease. Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg 131:1097–1101
8. Claeys S, van Hoecke H, Holtappels G, Geveart P, De Belder T, Verhasselt B, Van Cauwenberge P, Bachert C (2005) Nasal polyps in patients with and without cystic fibrosis: a differentiation by innate markers and inflammatory mediators. Clin Exp Allergy 35:467–472
9. Crockett D, McGill T, Healy G, Friedman E, Salkeld L (1987) Nasal and paranasal sinus surgery in children with cystic fibrosis. Ann Otol Rhinol Laryngol 96:367–372
10. Daniel S (2006) Infection and inflammation CF: management of the basics upper airway diseases. Pediatr Respir Rev 7S:S154–S155
11. Davidson TM, Murphy C, Mitchell M, Smith C, Light M (1995) Management of chronic sinusitis in cystic fibrosis. Laryngoscope 105:354–358
12. De Gaudemar I, Contencin P, van den Abbeele T, Munck A, Navarro J, Narcy P (1996) Is nasal polyposis in cystic fibrosis a direct manifestation of genetic mutation or a complication of chronic infection? Rhinology 34:194–197
13. Desrosiers MY, Salas-Prato M (2001) Treatment of chronic rhinosinusitis refractory to other treatments with topical antibiotic therapy delivered by means of a large particle nebulizer: results of a controlled trial. Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg 125:265–269
14. Dodge JA, Lewis PA, Stanton M, Wilsher J (2007) Cystic fibrosis mortality and survival in the UK: 1947–2003. Eur Respir J 29:522–526
15. Eggesbo HB, Dolvik S, Stiris M, Sovik S, Storrosten OT, Kolmannskog F (2001) Complementary role of MR imaging of ethmomaxillary sinus disease depicted at CT in cystic fibrosis. Acta Radiologica 42:144–150
16. Friedman EM, Stewart M (2006) An assessment of sinus quality of life and pulmonary function in children with cystic fibrosis. Am J Rhinol 20:568–572
17. Gysin C, Alothman GA, Papsin BC (2000) Sinonasal disease in cystic fibrosis: clinical characteristics, diagnosis, and management. Pediatr Pulmonol 30:481–489
18. Hadfield PJ, Rowe-Jones JM, Mackay IS (2000) A prospective treatment trial of nasal polyps in adults with cystic fibrosis. Rhinology 38:63–65
19. Hadfield PJ, Rowe-Jones JM, Mackay IS (2000) The prevalence of nasal polyps in adults with cystic fibrosis. Clin Otolaryngol Allied Sci 25:19–22
20. Harvey RJ, Lund VJ (2007) Biofilms and chronic rhinosinusitis: systematic review of evidence, current concepts and directions for research. Rhinology 45:3–13
21. Hauber HP, Manoukian JJ, Nguyen LH, Sobol SE, Levitt RC, Holroyd KJ, McElvaney NG, Griffin S, Hamid Q (2003) Increased expression of interleukin-9, interleukin-9 receptor, and calcium activated chloride channel hClCA1 in the upper airways of patients with cystic fibrosis. Laryngoscope 113:1037–1042
22. Henriksson G, Westrin KM, Karpati F, Wikstrom AC, Stierna P, Hjelte L (2002) Nasal polyps in cystic fibrosis. Clinical endoscopic study with nasal lavage fluid analysis. Chest 121:40–47
23. Herrmann BW, Sweet SC, Molter DW (2005) Sinonasal posttransplant lymphoproliferative disorder in pediatric lung transplant patients. Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg 133: 38–41
24. Jankowski R, Bouchoua F, Coffinet L, Vignaud JM (2002) Clinical factors influencing the eosinophil infiltration of nasal polyps. Rhinology 40:173–178
25. Jarrett WA, Militsakh O, Anstad M, Manaligod J (2004) Endoscopic sinus surgery in cystic fibrosis: effects on pulmonary function and ideal body weight. Ear Nose Throat J 83:118–121
26. Jorissen MB, De Boeck K, Cuppens H (1999) Genotype-phenotype correlations for the paranasal sinuses in cystic fibrosis. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 159:1412–1416
27. Keck T, Rozsasi A (2007) Medium-term symptom outcomes after paranasal sinus surgery in children and young adults with cystic fibrosis. Laryngoscope 117:475–479
28. Kerem BS, Rommers JM, Buchanan JA, Markiewicz D, Cox TK, Chakravarti A, Buchwald M, Tsui LC (1989) Identification of the cystic fibrosis gene: genetic analysis. Science 245: 1073–1080
29. Kingdom TT, Lee KC, Fitzsimons SC, Cropp GJ (1996) Clinical characteristics and genotype analysis of patients with cystic fibrosis and nasal polyposis requiring surgery. Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg 122:1209–1213
30. Konstan MW, Byard PJ, Hoppel CL, Davis PB (1995) Effect of high dose ibuprofen in patients with cystic fibrosis. N Engl J Med 332:848–854
31. Kostuch M, Klatka J, Semczuk A, Wojcierowski J, Kulczycki L, Oleszczuk J (2005) Analysis of most common CFTR mutations in patients affected by nasal polyps. Eur Arch Otorhinolaryngol 262:982–986
32. Lewiston N, King V, Umetsu D, Starnes V, Marshall S, Kramer M, Theodore J (1991) Cystic fibrosis patients who have undergone heart-lung transplantation benefit from maxillary sinus antrostomy and repeated sinus lavage. Transplant Proc 23:1207–1208
33. Lindstrom DR, Conley SF, Splaingard ML, Gershan WM (2007) Ibuprofen therapy and nasal polyposis in cystic fibrosis patients. J Otolaryngol 36:309–314
34. Madonna D, Isaacson G, Rosenfeld RM, Panitch H (1997) Effects of sinus surgery on pulmonary function in patients with cystic fibrosis. Laryngoscope 107:328–331
35. Moss R, King V (1995) Management of sinusitis in cystic fibrosis by endoscopic surgery and serial antimicrobial lavage. Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg 121:566–572
36. Roca-Ferrer J, Pujols L, Gartner S, Moreno A, Pumarola F, Mullol J, Cobos N, Picado C (2006) Upregulation of COX-1 and COX-2 in nasal polyps in cystic fibrosis. Thorax 61:592–596
37. Rosbe KW, Jones DT, Rahbar R, Lahiri T, Auerbach AD (2001) Endoscopic sinus surgery in cystic fibrosis: do patients benefit from surgery? Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol 61:113–119
38. Rowe-Jones JM, Shembekar M, Trendell-Smith N, Mackay IS (1997) Polypoidal rhinosinusitis in cystic fibrosis: a clinical and histopathological study. Clin Otolaryngol 22:167–171
39. Sakano E, Ribeiro AF, Barth L, Neto AC, Ribeiro JD (2007) Nasal and paranasal sinus endoscopy, computed tomography, and microbiology of upper airways and correlations with genotype and severity of cystic fibrosis. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol 71:41–50

40. Schulte DL, Kasperbauer JL (1998) Safety of paranasal sinus surgery in patients with cystic fibrosis. Laryngoscope 108:1813–1815
41. Shatz A (2006) Management of recurrent sinus disease in children with cystic fibrosis: a combined approach. Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg 135:248–252
42. Shoseyov D, Brownlee KG, Conway SP, Kerem E (2006) Aspergillus bronchitis in cystic fibrosis. Chest 130:222–226
43. Skinner ML, Schlosser RJ, Lathers D, Neal JG, Woodworth BA, Hall J, Newton DA, Baatz JE (2007) Innate and adaptive mediators in cystic fibrosis and allergic fungal rhinosinusitis. Am J Rhinol 21:538–541
44. Triglia JM, Nicollas R (1997) Nasal and sinus polyposis in children. Laryngoscope 107:963–966
45. Wilschanski M, Zielenski J, Markiewicz D, Tsui LC, Corey M, Levison H, Durie PR (1995) Correlation of sweat chloride concentration with classes of cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator gene mutations. J Pediatr 127:705–710
46. Wilson R, Pitt T, Taylor G, Watson D, MacDermot J, Sykes D, Roberts D (1987) Cole inhibit the beating of human respiratory cilia in vitro. J Clin Invest 79:221–229
47. Wise SK, Kingdom TT, McKean L, DelGaudio JM, Venkatraman G (2005) Presence of fungus in sinus cultures of cystic fibrosis patients. Am J Rhinol 19:47–51
48. Woodworth BA, Ahn C, Flume PA, Schlosser RJ (2007) The delta F508 mutation in cystic fibrosis and impact on sinus development. Am J Rhinol 21:122–127
49. Yung MW, Gould J, Upton GJ (2002) Nasal polyposis in children with cystic fibrosis: a long-term follow up study. Ann Otol Rhinol Laryngol 111:1081–1086