

Phagocytosis, Mucous Flow, and Ciliary Action

PLAINTIFF'S EXHIBIT

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The following presentation is a discussion of the physiology of the defense of the respiratory tract against inhaled particulate matter, whether living or nonliving. The physics of deposition in the tract has been described by others.^{1,2}

Nose

Anatomy.—This defense begins in the nose which acts to prepare the inspired air for acceptance into the lungs. The nose is about 5 cm. long and 5 cm. high. The entrance at the nares which lie practically horizontally and are very narrow. The exit is at the alar nares, which are larger than the nares each measuring about 2.5 cm. in height by 1.25 cm. in width. The roof is arched; the floor is flat. The nose is narrower anteriorly and wider posteriorly and wider in the middle. In cross section, it is triangular in shape, being wider below and narrower above. Most of the space is filled with the turbinates which, with the septum, form narrow flues through which the air flows. (Fig. 1A). These flues are normally quite narrow and cause the air to flow in flat sheets in such manner that no portion of the airstream is very far from the moist mucous blanket lining the air spaces. The width of the air spaces is adjustable by virtue of swell and shrink in the septum and turbinates. Presumably the size of the air-flow is adjusted to meet varying atmospheric conditions.

Physiology.—Inspired air flows in a jet-like stream through the nostrils, upward and back, passing above the level of the middle

turbinates, then arching back and down into the nasopharynx and larynx. (Fig. 1B and 1C).³ Along the flow way there are a number of eddies and changes of direction where special impact occurs. Among these are the preturbinal areas, the anterior portion of the turbinates, the nasopharynx, the base of the tongue, and the pyriform fossae.

Air-Flow Inspiration.—When gases flow through a tube, at low velocity, the flow is in layers, one layer next to the periphery being almost stationary and the most rapid flow being in the center. If the velocity exceeds a certain maximum, turbulence ensues. In the trachea, this maximum is exceeded in ordinary respiration, so the tracheal flow is turbulent.⁴ In the nose the flow also seems to be turbulent. This is important from the standpoint of deposition.

Deposition.—If air containing particulate matter is passed through a tube in which there is a constriction, deposition is apt to occur just behind the constriction, probably due to inertia rather than to gravity or diffusion. Similar deposition occurs at bends in tubes.⁵ The nose is characterized, not only by constrictions followed by expansions, but also by changes of direction, all of which favor deposition.^{6,7} Areas of deposition occur in the anterior third of the nose, in the pharynx, the pyriform fossae, and in areas around the epiglottis—the areas previously mentioned where there is special impact of air waves.

Respiratory Epithelium.—The lining respiratory epithelium is a highly versatile structure which accommodates to varying circumstances.^{8,9} In general, the respiratory epithelium is a pseudostratified columnar ciliated epithelium. Typically it consists of a basement membrane upon which lie 2, 3, or 4 layers of replacement cells and then the elongated columnar cells which extend to the

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Fig. 1—A, micrograph showing the nasal cavity and breathing characteristics of a living mouse. B, cross-section of the nasal cavity showing air flow. C, cross-section of the nasal cavity showing air flow.

surface. The columnar cells are surmounted by cilia 5 to 7 mm. in length over which lies a thin layer of mucinous secretion—the mucous blanket. However, this typical form is not found everywhere. In the anterior third of the nose, where the impact of in-flowing air is first felt, the epithelium is nonciliated; it is many cells deep and is layered very much like skin. Farther back on the turbinates, septum, and spaces most exposed to air flow, the epithelium becomes columnar and relatively thick. The columnar cells are tall. The cilia are well developed but, where most exposed, are apt to appear moth-eaten. In the more protected areas under the turbinates, the epithelium is not nearly so thick and the columnar cells are tall and thin, more regular and better preserved. In areas exposed to air, the epithelium is usually only 2 to 3 cells deep; 1 layer of replacement cells and 1 layer of columnar cells which have become so that they are described as cuboidal. They are very well ciliated. Respiratory air does not flow through the sinuses. Extending into the mastoid cells, the epithelium changes its character and becomes most like the epithelium and endothelium of the lungs distal to the respiratory bronchioles where there are no cilia.

The air flow of expiration follows a somewhat different pattern and, for our purposes, of less importance.

Ciliary Action—Cleansing Mechanism.—The nose prepares the inspired air for the lung. Much particulate matter is deposited in the nose, especially in the anterior third, whence it is carried down and back into the larynx and eventually into the stomach. The

flow takes place through ciliary action. In the anterior third of the nose, where there are no cilia, secretions seem to be removed through traction by the cilia farther back. The flow is relatively slow, 1 to 2 mm. an hour. In the posterior two-thirds of the nose, the rate of flow is 8 to 10 mm. a minute. The direction of flow from the anterior, non-ciliated areas is into the meatuses under the turbinates. From the medial walls of the turbinates the flow tends to be down and back and is apt to slide under the margin of the turbinates into the meatuses (Fig. 2). From the septum the flow tends to go back and, on the way, to cross the floor laterally, winding up also under the inferior turbinate. At the posterior ends of the turbinates, the streams flow across the lateral pharyngeal wall, divide around the eustachian tube, and are carried by muscular action down into the esophagus.

Temperature Adjustment.—The temperature of the air is adjusted, up or down, according to circumstances. By the time the air reaches the pharynx, it is practically at body temperature, even if the reading at the tip of the nose is -20°F .

Humidification.—The moisture content is also adjusted, so that by the time the air reaches the pharynx, it is practically saturated. Since we breathe at least 10,000 liters each day, this means that a considerable amount of heat must be radiated from the interior surfaces of the nose and a considerable amount of water evaporated through the mucous blanket. At ordinary room temperatures, and at usual humidity, the air is said to evaporate 1,000 ml. each 24 hours.⁴²

Lower Respiratory Tract

Anatomy.—The cross-sectional area of the tracheobronchial tree at different levels is about the same.⁴⁷ In other words, the combined cross-sectional area of the 2 main bronchi is about the same as the cross-sectional area of the trachea, and, if one proceeds to subsequent divisions, the same relationships seem to hold true, at least down to bronchi about 1 mm. in diameter. Distal to those, the

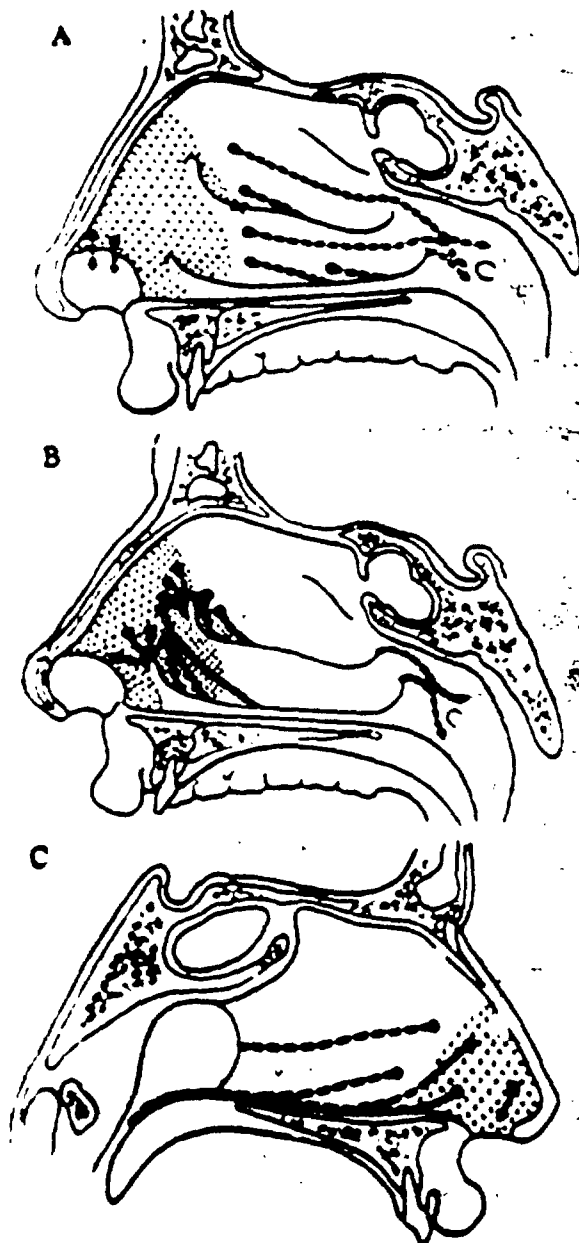


Fig. 2.—Pattern of ciliary streaming in the nose. A, the course of flow of mucus on the lateral nasal wall in the active area; B, the course of flow of mucus on the lateral nasal wall in the inactive area; C, the course of flow of mucus on the lateral nasal wall in the inactive area (stippled). The rate over the inactive area (stippled) is about 1 mm. an hour (from *Journal of Am. Otolaryng.*).

1.—A, a line showing the breathing channels in the nose. The diagram shows the right outline of the passages (from Dr. Sherman and Mallinckrodt and Dr. Arthur W. Tal); B, profile view of inspiration. Note the change in section high in the anterior portion of the nose and again in the pharynx—also the change in the oropharynx and larynx (from Dr. Arthur W. Tal); C, pattern of inspiratory air flow in the pharynx and larynx (from Dr. Arthur W. Tal).

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cells, the epithelium and becomes a single endothelium in the tertiary bronchioles.

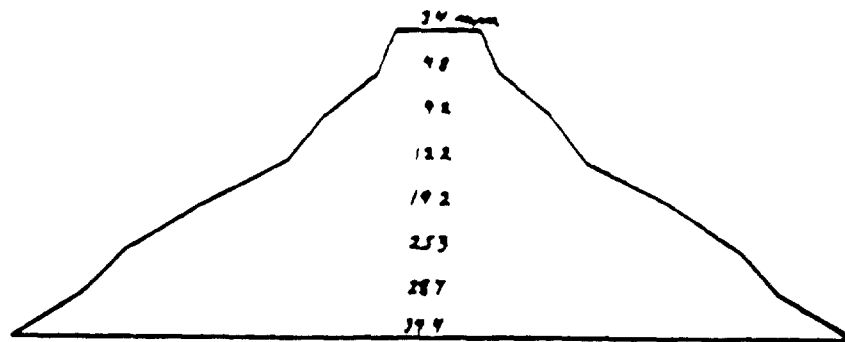


Fig. 3.—Diagram of the 10-fold increase in the diameter of the bronchi through the branchings. The cross sectional area remains about the same at all of these levels. (Courtesy of Trans. Am. Otolaryng.)

cross-sectional area begins to widen rapidly and eventually becomes very large. The area of the lining mucosa, on the other hand, increases with each subsequent division. The trachea is about 5 cm. in circumference. The 2 main bronchi together are about 7.5 cm. in circumference and, with each subsequent division, the combined circumferences increase, as does the area of the lining mucosa. By the time one reaches the respiratory bronchioles, or terminal bronchioles, where the cilia begin, or end, (depending upon the direction), the total combined circumferences of all the tubes at that level is very great; probably meters in extent (Fig. 3).

Lining Epithelium.—The lower tract, like the upper, is lined by ciliated columnar epithelium, surmounted by a mucous blanket. The cilia beat in coordinated, wave-like movements, about 1,000 times a minute and move the blanket, like an endless escalator, upward toward the larynx and pharynx. Here, the blanket turns downward toward the stomach.

Cilia.—The cilia beat with a purposeful stroke, something like that of a swimmer's arm. From a more or less rigid, straight upright position, the cilia sweep forward through an arc of 30° or 35° , and then bend to make a stroke of recovery. The rhythm is about 1:3, i.e., the effective stroke takes only one-third as long as the recovery stroke.

The cilia are not under nervous control. How they are stimulated to beat and how they are coordinated is unknown. When bits of epithelium are torn loose from their position, and kept moist and warm, the cilia continue to beat. The cells may be separated one from another, but the cilia of a single cell will continue to beat. Even a single cilium

will beat if torn away from the cell, provided it has its rootlet and a bit of cytoplasm attached. Some believe that ciliary activity is controlled by acetylcholine and cholinesterase²² others⁷ attribute it to serotonin. The method of stimulation and control has been established. In isolated bits of ciliated epithelium in vitro the ciliary beat can be slowed or stopped by cooling. It is possible actually to freeze respiratory epithelium briefly and have the cilia revive and beat on thawing. Movement of the mucous blanket is very susceptible to drying, i.e., it slows down with excessive dryness, and the cilia eventually stop beating. An increase in pH to above 8 seems to stimulate the rate of ciliary beat; a decrease to below 6 to decrease the rate. However, in vivo it is doubtful that any of these factors alter normal function. Even in the hottest, driest, or coldest weather, it is unlikely that there is any noticeable effect on ciliary streaming in the tracheobronchial tree, since the air-conditioning function of the normal nose is so effective. No matter what the temperature of inspired air at the tip of the nose—whether 100°F or -40°F —by the time the air reaches the pharynx it is practically at body temperature and saturated with moisture. Great extremes of dryness or temperature might conceivably have effect in the middle portion of the nose. I am unaware of any determinations which demonstrate this.

As the mucous blanket flows along, it forms a sort of upside down river. Beginning in the respiratory bronchioles, it moves upward and ever into a progressively narrowing streambed. It begins in a stream perhaps meters in extent and, by the time

z. 3 — Diagram of 10-fold increase in the diameter of the bronchi through things. The sectional area is about the same at these levels. (Curtis of Trans. Am. Acad. Otolaryng.)

the cell, provided a bit of cytoplasm at ciliary action and cholinesterase to serotonin. The control has not bits of ciliated ciliary beat can be ing. It is possible that ciliary epithelium survive and beat after mucous blanket is i.e., it slows from the cilia eventually in pH to about 9 of ciliary beat and decrease the rate. It is probable that any of function. Even in the worst weather, it is not noticeable effect on the tracheobronchial cleaning function of cilia. No matter inspired air at the 100 F or -40 F—the pharynx, it is pure and saturated with moisture and dryness or probably have some in the nose, but irritations which

it flows along, it is a river. Beginning at the nose, it moves ever progressively narrower in a streambed

reaches the trachea, the streambed is only 1 mm. wide—the circumference of the trachea. During its progress, just as a geographic river meets obstructions so does this mucous-flow river. When it encounters the openings of tributary bronchi, these openings become obstructions, like islands, and the flow must pass around them. (Figs. 4, 5A and 5B and 6A and 6B). At the upstream margin of each bronchial opening, there is a



Fig. 4.—Cow trachea split posteriorly and spread open showing the carina and one main bronchus with tributary bronchi entering. Note that the openings constitute obstructions to the ink's flowing upward in the ciliary stream.

4-way split of the mucous blanket.²¹ (In studies with radioactive polonium, Casarett² found that accumulations occur at bronchiolar branch points when the material has been inhaled.) In the area just upstream from this margin, the cilia change their direction of beat from an axial one to an oblique one so that the blanket is steered around the opening.

In otherwise normal bronchial trees, it is not uncommon to find areas of squamous metaplasia where there are no cilia. Such



Fig. 5A.—Dissection of a human main bronchus showing three large branches entering at almost the same level. These openings served to narrow the stream bed of the ciliary stream at this level.



Fig. 5B.—Diagram of the pattern of flow for (Courtesy of Acta Otolaryng.)

areas might be likened to shallow sand bars under a flowing geographic river. The mucous blanket does not necessarily stop upon them but is dragged across by the cilia surrounding the area. From the standpoint of physics, it would seem that there would have to be slowing at such points. Squamous metaplasia in the trachea does not seem to be as common as in the main bronchi, although it does occur. There are, of course, no branches or tributary bronchi acting as obstructions. The next obstruction encountered by the mucous river is at the transversely placed vocal cords, the margins of which are composed of squamous



Fig. 6B.—Four-way split at the central primary carina in a cow. (Courtesy of Otolaryng.)

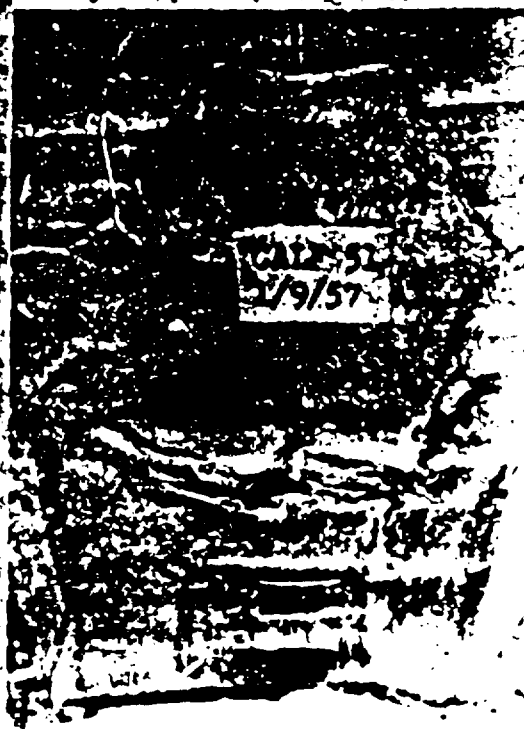


Fig. 6A.—Diagram of pattern of flow found at the upstream margin of a bronchial opening in a cow. (Courtesy of Acta Otolaryng.)

epithelium. The mucus does not flow directly across the cords but ascends the posterior tracheal wall passing between the arytenoids and out into the pharynx. The mucous blanket on the anterior tracheal wall passes straight up to the vocal cords where, at the anterior commissure, it splits into 2 parts, each of which passes posteriorly under the corresponding cord and, thence, past or over the arytenoids and out into the pharynx. The flow on the side walls takes an oblique course when it enters the larynx and passes upward and posteriorly. It is interesting that the ciliary beat in the larynx also seems to change direction inferior to the cords. Instead of being axial and directed upward, the ciliary beat is directed more posteriorly, aiding in moving the blanket in that direction instead

of *Depth of Blanket.*—In such a mucous flow progressing into an ever-flowing streambed, either the depth of mucus must increase or the rate of flow increase. A number of attempts have been made by myself and others to measure comparative depths of the mucous blanket at different levels and the comparative rate

Fig. 7.—Pattern of ciliary flow through the larynx of a calf. The ciliary stream flowing up the anterior wall is dyed with India ink. It flowed upward, until the cords were reached and then in 2 at the anterior commissure to flow back under the vocal cords. The specimen has been carefully and spread open.



flow.²² The data are very unsatisfactory, but, such as they are, they indicate that there is a progressive increase in rate of flow from the small bronchi toward the trachea and that the mucous blanket also increases in depth.

Rate of Flow.—In the trachea it is about 10 mm., possibly as high as 15 mm., per minute, whereas in the smallest tubes measured it is only 1 mm. or less per minute. It seems almost impossible that such a rate of flow as 15 mm. can be attained by 1,000 cycles per minute. Even if the cilia were effective for their full length of 5μ or 6μ , this would account for only 5 or 6 mm. per minute, and the cilia are by no means effective for their full lengths. The effective stroke is probably only 2μ to 3μ in length. The answer seems to lie in the fact that the blanket is moved by the effective stroke only (not the stroke of recovery), which uses only one-fourth of the time of the cycle. Also, during the effective stroke, it is likely that the blanket is in contact only during the peak velocity of the active phase and not so much during the acceleration and deceleration of the cilia. The mucous blanket is tossed from crest to crest of the waves, so to speak, and is in contact with the underlying cilia only at the brief period of peak velocity, when they give the strongest and most rapid "kick." The blanket thus moves continuously and does not stop and start (like a cinema film) with the thrust and recovery of the cilia (Fig. 8.)

Deposition.—Although most inhaled particulate matter is deposited normally in the nose, some of it gets past the nose and into the lower respiratory tract as evidenced by carbon particles in the lungs of all adults.



FIG. 8.—A diagram of my concept of moving cilia and the mucous blanket. The secretion is composed of 2 layers: a deeper, nonviscid layer in which the cilia move and a superficial viscid layer, the mucous blanket. The upper arrow indicates the direction of flow and the lower arrow the direction of the wave progress in the cilia. The mucous blanket is continuously in contact with the cilia during the active phase only, as indicated. (Courtesy Trans.

According to Morrow,²³ the factors controlling deposition of particulates from an air-stream are gravity, inertia, velocity, diffusion, and the viscosity of the medium. The density and the nature of the particles are also involved. A very dense particle is more susceptible to the effects of gravity and inertia. Hatch's work²⁴ indicates that practically 100% of dust particles, 10μ or larger and 80% of particles at 5μ , are deposited in the upper respiratory tract. (Hatch considers the upper tract to extend down to the respiratory bronchioles, stating, "As a minimum, we may distinguish between 2 significantly different zones of deposition: along the upper respiratory tract, down to and including the terminal bronchioles; and within the pulmonary lobule." The latter is, of course, below the ciliary stream.) Then the retention drops off to reach a minimum of 20% to 30% at 0.25μ to 0.50μ , below which it increases again, returning to 60% or better for submicroscopic (less than 0.10μ) particles. The reason for these changes lies in the fact that gravity acts on the larger particles and diffusion on the smaller particles below 0.2μ . The lowest probability for deposition in the respiratory tract occurs at 0.25μ to 0.50μ , where the combined forces of precipitation, gravity, and diffusion are minimal. Below 1μ to 2μ the effect of gravity decreases, and diffusion has not yet taken over. Diffusion increases as the particle size drops below 0.25μ .

Cigarette Smoke.—Cigarette smoke, probably the greatest pollutant of all, bypasses the nose. It is taken undiluted into the mouth and then fed into the next incoming flow of inspired air through the nose, as it passes through the pharynx. Some smokers inhale smoke in concentrated form without diluting it with the next incoming air. They will take concentrated smoke into the mouth, then, opening the mouth, will gulp a deep breath of air through the mouth, driving the concentrated charge right down into the alveoli. There are many variations in the manner of taking the smoke and in the amount of smoke taken.²⁵

In General.—In the lower respiratory tract deposition seems to be a little greater

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in the proximal part of the tract, the larynx, and around the carina,⁶ but the total amount deposited is probably much greater distally where the surface area is greater. Also, the initial deposit is probably more concentrated in the distal portions than it is in the trachea, because the depth of mucus on which it is deposited is so very much less, i.e., the mucous blanket is so very much thinner. For this reason, as the ciliary stream flows upward, carrying the deposited material with it, the concentration of this material, unless it has been absorbed, may become very much greater in the main bronchi and the trachea than the initial deposit there.

Air Pollutants

In discussing air pollutants, it is essential to consider their solubility, toxicity, and other physiochemical characteristics.

Chemical compounds which are promptly absorbed perhaps may not return to the ciliary stream or may return in reduced amounts. Those which do come back may dissolve slowly or act slowly on the underlying cells. This situation is postulated for carcinogenic compounds. A wide spectrum of known materials have a slowing effect on the ciliary action,⁴ so that, in addition to natural obstructions to the mucous flow, the stream itself might be slowed in certain areas or its entire extent by the action of contained chemical compounds. Long ago we demonstrated that blowing a little cigarette smoke over a solution containing ciliated epithelium caused the cilia to cease beating.¹⁰ This observation has been confirmed by other workers who carried the studies even further.^{1,8}

Phagocytosis

Phagocytosis has been studied extensively.*

In General.—It is defined as the engulfing of microorganisms, other cells, or other substances by phagocytes. Phagocytes may be fixed endothelial cells or free, wandering cells. The origin of the wandering cells has not been determined to everyone's satisfaction.² Some believe they are mesodermal in origin,² others that they are ectodermal, and

still others that both sources give no phagocytes.^{21,22-24,41} In the lung, for instance, Macklin believes that the so-called pneumocytes (dust cells, macrophages) originate in the epithelium on the walls of the alveoli, where he describes 3 types of cells. Macklin states that the pneumocytes never leave the passages and are not to be confused with phagocytic histiocytes that originate in alveolar septa and may enter lymphatics.

Be that as it may, the process of engulfment is agreed upon. The surface membrane of a phagocyte is of an undulating nature and forms indentations, folds, and ruffles.²² When contact is made with material to be engulfed—dust particles, for instance—an indentation forms to accommodate the particles, and a fold develops that covers the indentation and fuses with the cell membrane on the far side. The indentation pinches off and becomes a vesicle or vacuole within the cell. The walls surrounding the vacuoles and vesicles show the same structure as the cell walls and are composed of 3 layers, 2 denser ones with a less dense one between.

Phagocytic action may be blocked under certain circumstances. For instance, tubercle bacilli are less readily picked up by phagocytes after other particulate matter has been engulfed. Joyner²⁰ used a number of different substances and found trypan blue, cement, silica, coal dust, and India ink effective in that order, in blocking the uptake of tubercle bacilli.

On the other hand, Heppleston¹⁶ recently reported that single macrophages might contain an intimate mixture of coal and hematite dusts, although these had been inhaled at different times.

Pulmonary Phagocytosis.—When particulate matter is deposited in the lungs, some is eliminated via the air ways and some via interstitial tissue and the lymphatics. Most texts on pathology⁹ maintain that all elimination is carried out by phagocytes. The generally accepted concept seems to be that the phagocytes leave the capillaries or interstitial tissue to enter the air spaces, where they pick up foreign material and reenter the interstitial tissue, and proceed through the lymph

* Ref. Nos. 2, 3, 8, 10, 30, 32, 34, 35, 38, 41, 43, 44.

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ities to the lymph nodes. Macklin and
others take exception to this concept. The
former describes small pores or "sumps"
through which particulate matter may enter
tissues. Gross states that the basis for the
emigration-immigration concept is far from
convincing. He has demonstrated experi-
mentally that dust particles may leave the air
spaces and enter the intercellular spaces with-
out the agency of phagocytes. Macklin
maintains that the "pneumonocytes" origi-
nate from the epithelium and never leave
the air spaces and passages. He thinks
that particulate matter may be carried into the
tissues by phagocytes but that these are histio-
cytes of mesodermal origin and are not to be
confused with pneumonocytes.

There is no doubt that much particulate
matter is removed by phagocytes wandering
up from the alveoli to the respiratory bron-
chioles. LaBelle and Brieger²⁴ developed a
method by which the number of free phago-
cytes in experimental rats could be estimated.
They found that the amount of dust elimi-
nated was proportional to the number of
phagocytes present. They concluded that
transport of particles by phagocytes is the
primary mechanism by which inhaled dust
particles are eliminated from the lungs.

When the phagocytes reach the headwaters
of the ciliary stream, many disintegrate²⁵
depositing their load to be carried away on
the escalator mucous blanket. Many phago-
cytes do not disintegrate but are carried out
intact.

The fate of particulate matter depends
upon its nature and the reaction of the en-
gulfing cells. Particulate matter may be
broken down and destroyed by intracellular
enzymes or, conceivably, be changed to more
toxic compounds.⁴⁸ If relatively insoluble,
particulate matter may be carried unchanged
during the cell's life-time. The situation so
far as the tissues and inhaled materials are
concerned, depends upon the nature of the
latter and the reaction of the former.

The concept that insoluble material in the
tissues lies enclosed either in lymph nodes or
in fibrotic nodules unchanged and static is
not necessarily true. According to Hep-

pleston¹⁸ such inert particles continue to
move in and out of fibrotic nodules via
phagocytes.

Summary

The nose acts as an efficient air-cleaning
and air-conditioning mechanism. Much, per-
haps most, particulate matter is caught in the
nose and escalated back and down on the
mucous blanket by ciliary action to the "in-
cinerator" in the stomach. The character of
the lining epithelium varies with its exposure
to the inflowing air. The mucous blanket is
produced by the epithelium and varies in
viscosity and probably, general chemical
nature according to circumstances. The dense
pollutant cigarette smoke, unlike most other
pollutants, bypasses the nose entirely.

The physiologic drainage of the bronchial
tree is accomplished by the mucous blanket,
which, motivated by underlying cilia, con-
stitutes the ciliary stream. From respiratory
bronchioles to esophagus, the streambed nar-
rows markedly, and probably the velocity of
mucous flow increases as the streambed nar-
rows. The ciliary stream encounters a number
of naturally occurring obstructions in the
form of squamous islands, bronchial open-
ings, and the vocal cords. Retardation of the
ciliary stream may occur at such areas and
may be enhanced by cigarette smoke or other
air pollutants which slow or temporarily stop
ciliary action, facilitating prolonged action
of any carcinogen in the ciliary stream at
these spots.

Probably most of the particulate matter
that gains access to the alveoli and alveolar
ducts is removed by phagocytic action and
carried out the tracheobronchial tree into the
esophagus. Some gains access to the intersti-
tial tissue, lymphatics, and lymph nodes.
Whether this is always accomplished by
phagocytic action is a moot point.

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DISCUSSION

Dr. Pearce: General Industrial Hygiene Foundation, Mellon Institute, 4400 Fifth Avenue, Pittsburgh. Pulmonary clearance is a complex process. As Dr. Morrow has a pretty good idea of what happens in the immediate postexposure period as depicted by Dr. Brieger, we have little factual data on these events; but we may conjecture. The dust which is deposited in the lung is deposited in the alveolar space, but it is cleared in the immediate postexposure period. It is cleared in proportion to the size of the particles. The dust which remains upon the alveolar surface is deposited in the form of deposits of which alveolar macrophages are the primary cells. These macrophages are the particles disappear from the alveolar space. The rate of this disappearance is variable.

In the case of silicosis, the dust is deposited in the alveolar space and is cleared in the immediate postexposure period. It is interesting to note that, according to Nagelschmidt's data, no significant dust transport to lymph nodes occurs prior to this 3-month period. We are therefore forced to conclude that the silicosis which is deposited in the lymph nodes after this time is derived mainly from the sequestered dust within silicotic nodules. This is the major constituent of the delayed phase of alveolar dust clearance.

Direct penetration of dust into the lung interstitium plays only a minor role in alveolar clearance. Glueckling injected colloidal iron intratracheally and was able, with the electron microscope, to demonstrate the rapid penetration of the iron particles into the interstitial space of the alveolar wall between the capillary and the alveolar epithelium. Such penetration by a relatively small portion of a large dust burden probably occurs through alveolar walls

that alight on vessels or bronchi, and it occurs without the aid of phagocytic cells.

Dr. Munn: I would like to ask Dr. Hilding if he can help us out with the situation in the vestibule of the nose which is supposed to be the place of elective localization of *Staphylococcus aureus* in the carrier. Can you tell us a little bit about the histology of the region and whether or not it is reasonable to suppose that any sort of treatment with antibiotics might have access to the staphylococci which seem to be dug in in the vestibule of the nose?

Dr. A. C. HILDING: I have no special information on this. The vestibule of the nose is lined by skin and staphylococci being on the surface and in the surface cells. I think they would not be reached by antibiotics taken internally.

Dr. Munn: What about immunization? The drainage, I take it, is back away from the vestibule.

Dr. HILDING: No, by the vestibule we mean just this little skin-lined area in front that we blow out to clean. Farther posteriorly, of course, all material goes back. When it has been deposited, unless it is absorbed, it is really still outside the body. It is on its way to the stomach, where it gets into the body only if it is absorbed.

Dr. S. MUNN, Chief, Microbiologic Research Program, Veterans Administration Hospital, University and Woodland Avenues, Philadelphia: A serum would have difficulty in gaining access to anything in the vestibule, however.

Dr. HILDING: In the vestibule itself, in this dry, skin-lined area, yes. Farther back, it might, but even there I doubt it.

Dr. R. E. FORSTER, Professor and Chairman, Department of Physiology, The Graduate School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania: I would like to ask Dr. Hilding what he thinks is the normal flow of the mucous sheet up the trachea in a normal man.

Dr. HILDING: The volume of mucous flow is also most difficult to measure. The few available data indicate a total volume in a normal bronchial tree in 24 hours of the order of 10 ml. I did some experiments on chickens which consisted essentially in the creation of a barrier to the ciliary stream without interrupting air flow. At the end of the operation, the skin was closed and the bird breathed normally, but all of the mucous flow collected at the barrier. These chickens were operated on in pairs and, at the end of the operation, one was immediately killed. The experiment was terminated at the end of an hour and the collected mucus recovered and weighed. The live birds produced an average of 23 mg. in an hour, a rate of half a gram in 24 hours. For some reason which is not clear, the dead ones averaged exactly twice as much, 46 mg.

Dr. FORSTER: Have you made any observations on fibrosis?

Dr. HILDING: No, I have only had occasion to make one single measurement in a human in a nurse who had a laryngectomy some time before. One could not know if this is the volume. Over a period, I think, of 12 hours made collections in Kleenex that had been used before and immediately put into plastic bag, she produced at the rate of 10 ml. in 24 hours.

Dr. Munn: Although Dr. Brieger found evidence of any selectivity in phagocytosis by uranium oxide and silica, if you go into the case of bacteria, there is tremendous difference between bacteria which have a film of phagocytosis-promoting antibodies and those that do not. Both polymorphs and macrophages, the same films tremendously increase phagocytosis.

Dr. H. BARON, Jefferson Medical College, Pennsylvania, Philadelphia: This is a more complex problem. I mentioned that there is no evidence that the chemical composition of the investigated materials influences phagocytosis.

Dr. KASS, The Boston City Hospital, 818 Harrison Ave., Boston: There is an aspect that has not received as much consideration in the pulmonary as it has in other work and that is that it has been shown repeatedly that the manner in which particles are taken up by the reticuloendothelium is greatly influenced by a variety of materials that may be on the particles.

Dr. BARON: I agree with you.

Dr. FARMER: I would like to direct a question to either Dr. Brieger or Dr. Gross, and perhaps Dr. Hilding can shed some light on this too. It is the nature of oil film, that is, inhalation of oil particles? We have done a little bit of work on this, and our pathologist has had much difficulty trying to elucidate the possibility of film layering might be made up of this oil. Do either of you know of a work which would show whether actually get a layering effect in the tracheobronchial tree as a result of inhaling oils?

Dr. BARON: I have no personal knowledge of this.

Dr. HILDING: I did just one experiment with oil on excised epithelium. The oil did not penetrate the mucous blanket. If it were manipulated in some way that it were made to penetrate, it damaged the cilia badly. That's all the light I can shed on the question.

Dr. GROSS: From clinical experience, it seems that the following are presumably the facts: (1) that oil placed in the tracheobronchial membrane will gravitate down and flow over the mucous blanket down to the alveoli; (2) once on the alveolar surface it is apt to remain there; and (3) that it is not susceptible to clearance.

particulate matter. The reason why oil is resistant to mucociliary clearance mechanism is not known.

Dr. BIERER: In some personal experimental experience, I have noted that liquid material in particulate form is unable to stimulate phagocytosis, but it may be phagocytized.

Dr. HENSON: All liquids in a particle—in other words, particle-sized liquids, regardless of size?

Dr. BIERER: Liquid particles, yes.

Dr. MERRING: Are they still cleared?

Dr. BIERER: I have no reliable data on clearance, but I know that they do not stimulate phagocytosis. Remarks referred to insoluble or only slightly soluble solid particles. The fate of soluble particles is quite different. Either they dissolve and enter the bloodstream, or they combine with cell fluid, and we have the interesting phenomenon that such material may be identified in the lungs much longer than solid material.

Dr. AUSTIN: I would like to direct the question to both Dr. Brierer and Dr. Gross, and perhaps Dr. Norwald would also say something. About 30 years ago in South Africa, Great Britain, and the United States there were a number of experimental studies on the production of silicosis in which animals were exposed to different fibrosis-producing dusts, and the results were almost uniform in all three countries. They were attempting to answer questions regarding the size of the particles, length of exposure, and the crystal and chemical characteristics of the dust. They came to the conclusion that the size of the dust was important and that the dust did not penetrate tissue but rather that the tissues engulfed the dusts. The dust was inhaled, the alveolar phagocytes reacted and, if the dust particles were small enough, they were absorbed by the alveolar phagocytes after which elimination would occur. If the inhalation was equivalent to the elimination, or the elimination kept pace with the inhalation, nothing would happen. However, if the inhalation of particles was great, and the rate of elimination could not keep up with the rate of inhalation, the excess particles were carried by way of the lymphatics to the lymph nodes. One impression I gained from this was that there was an early invasion of the lymphatics, that lymphatic invasion occurred very early. The difference between a fibrosis-producing dust and an innocuous dust was that the fibrosis-producing dust was capable of preserving the cell. Therefore, as this dust was deposited along the course of the lymphatics, it would, through chemotaxis, produce fibrosis. The impression I gained this morning is that the action seemed to be predominantly lymphatic.

Dr. NORWALD: Of course, the problems that were brought up this morning are problems which many of us have been interested in for a long period of

time, and many of them are not resolved as yet. Let us consider the amount of dust ultimately retained in the lung and its action on the lung. The amount taken out of the lung by the sputum is of interest. Once it is in the sputum, it is of relatively little interest. Retention of dust is determined by a variety of factors which relate not only to the inhaled concentration of the dust particulate but is tremendously related to the size of the particles. This should be kept in mind when speaking of responses to phagocytosis and particulate material. Another parameter to be considered is the inherent biological toxicity of the particle. If a particle has a low level of biological activity, its ability to clear from the lung is much more rapid, perhaps, than that of the particle which has a high level. There are other variable factors such as length of retention in what I call the strategic segment of the respiratory tract. In some of our recent studies, we have observed rather rapid drainage of radioactive particulates of different rarer elements, some 18 of them, out of the lungs into the tracheobronchial lymph nodes and into other tissues of the body. It would appear that many of these very small inorganic particulate agents penetrate vessels to a surprising degree. So, in silicosis, in so-called benign pneumoconiosis, we find relatively early deposition in the tracheobronchial lymph nodes. It is classic, for example, to observe in human pathology that if an individual is subjected to frequent exposure of small particles which gain access to the pulmonary tissues, the lymph nodes relatively early show damage. In my routine experience and practice, I look at the lymph nodes first, because they are often pretty good indicators of what is happening.

With respect to soluble particles, or to organic material, once it is an aerosol, or in a stream, these fluid particles become more or less solid particles, and they gain access to the pulmonary tissue. For example, as Dr. Brierer mentioned, in dealing with certain organic soluble particles, they may produce an insoluble precipitate in the lung. Therefore, there is not a strict correlation between the degree of solubility of a material and what happens in the lung.

As to Dr. McKusick's presentation of asbestos fibers and carcinoma of the lung, there are many cases of that. A word of caution is indicated with respect to carcinoma of the lung and the presence or absence of inorganic material or organic material. Let us be very cautious before we conclude that the substance found in carcinoma of the lung, a substance which has been inhaled, which is uniformly distributed over the entire lung, that this substance observed in carcinomatous tissue is a factor indeed responsible for the carcinoma or that the absence of a substance means that it has never been there to produce the cancer—just a word of caution.