

# Adjunctive Probiotics Alleviate Asthmatic Symptoms via Modulating the Gut-Lung Axis in Animal Model: A Biochemical, Molecular and Histopathological Approach

Los Probióticos Coadyuvantes Alivian los Síntomas Asmáticos Mediante la Modulación del Eje Intestino-Pulmón en un Modelo Animal: Un Enfoque Bioquímico, Molecular e Histopatológico

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**SUMMARY:** Asthma manifests as a systemic inflammatory condition with cross-organ implications, particularly involving respiratory and gastrointestinal systems through the lung-gut axis. This study investigated probiotic-mediated modulation of inflammatory responses in a lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-enhanced fumigation-induced asthma rat model, emphasizing TLR4/NF- $\kappa$ B pathway dynamics. Experimental protocols combined airway LPS administration with ovalbumin sensitization to simulate chronic inflammation, followed by probiotic supplementation. Histopathological analysis via hematoxylin-eosin (HE) staining demonstrated severe airway epithelial disruption in asthmatic rats, which were significantly ameliorated post-probiotic intervention. Quantitative assessments revealed probiotics' dual regulatory effects: systemic inflammation markers (serum IL-6, TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-1 $\beta$ ) and lung-specific mucin MUC5AC were downregulated, while intestinal barrier integrity marker MUC2 in colon tissue was upregulated. Mechanistic exploration identified suppressed TLR4 and NF- $\kappa$ B protein expression in both lung and colon tissues, indicating pathway-wide inhibition. Probiotics restored alveolar structural integrity and reduced inflammatory cell infiltration in lung parenchyma. These findings suggest probiotics mitigate asthma-associated inflammation through multi-organ crosstalk, targeting shared molecular pathways across the lung-gut axis. The observed TLR4/NF- $\kappa$ B suppression aligns with reduced cytokine storm activity, highlighting probiotics' capacity to disrupt pro-inflammatory signaling cascades. Furthermore, the differential regulation of mucins (MUC5AC vs. MUC2) underscores tissue-specific therapeutic effects, balancing airway hypersecretion and intestinal barrier fortification. This study advances the paradigm of probiotics as pleiotropic agents in chronic respiratory disease management, offering a novel strategy to address systemic inflammation beyond conventional bronchodilator therapies. By elucidating mechanistic links between gut microbiota modulation and pulmonary inflammation resolution, our work supports translational applications of probiotics in asthma and related comorbidities, advocating for integrative approaches in precision medicine frameworks.

**KEY WORDS:** Probiotic; Lung-gut axis; Asthma; TLR4; NF- $\kappa$ B; Inflammatory.

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## INTRODUCTION

Asthma, traditionally viewed as a chronic airway disease characterized by bronchial hyper responsiveness and reversible airflow obstruction, is increasingly recognized as a systemic inflammatory disorder with multi-organ implications. Beyond its hallmark respiratory symptoms—wheezing, dyspnea, and mucus hypersecretion—asthma exhibits intricate connections to gastrointestinal dysfunction, evidenced by the high comorbidity of conditions like inflammatory bowel disease and gastroesophageal reflux (Savin *et al.*, 2023). This systemic nature is underpinned by dysregulated immune

responses involving Th2 polarization, eosinophil activation, and elevated pro-inflammatory cytokines such as interleukin (IL)-4, IL-5, and IL-13. Emerging research highlights the role of the lung-gut axis, a bidirectional communication network mediated by immune cells, microbial metabolites, and neural pathways, in perpetuating inflammation across these organ systems. Disruptions in gut microbiota composition (dysbiosis) have been linked to exacerbated airway inflammation, suggesting that gut-derived signals may prime pulmonary immune responses (Eladham *et al.*, 2024).

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The lung-gut axis operates through three primary mechanisms: (1) microbial translocation, where gut-derived bacteria or their components (e.g., lipopolysaccharides) enter systemic circulation, activating toll-like receptors (TLRs) in distant organs; (2) immune cell trafficking, wherein gut-primed dendritic cells and T lymphocytes migrate to lung tissue, amplifying local inflammation; and (3) metabolite signaling, where short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) produced by gut microbiota modulate regulatory T-cell (Treg) differentiation and histone deacetylase inhibition (Shimizu, 2024). In asthma, dysbiosis-driven reductions in SCFA-producing bacteria (e.g., *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*) correlate with heightened airway hyperreactivity and impaired mucosal immunity. Animal models demonstrate that gut microbiota depletion exacerbates allergic airway inflammation, while fecal microbiota transplantation from healthy donors attenuates it. These findings position the gut as a critical modulator of pulmonary immunity, with perturbations in its microbial ecosystem directly influencing asthma severity (Zhou *et al.*, 2021).

Probiotics—live microorganisms conferring host health benefits—emerge as promising agents for restoring gut-lung axis homeostasis in asthma. Strains such as *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GG and *Bifidobacterium infantis* exert anti-inflammatory effects by competitively excluding pathogenic bacteria, enhancing intestinal barrier integrity via tight junction protein upregulation, and stimulating SCFA production. In asthmatic models, probiotics reduce lung eosinophilia, suppress Th2 cytokines, and promote IL-10-secreting Tregs, thereby rebalancing immune polarization (Chae *et al.*, 2022). Notably, their efficacy extends beyond the gut: probiotics modulate alveolar macrophage activity, decrease airway mucus hypersecretion (via MUC5AC downregulation), and inhibit NF- $\kappa$ B-driven transcription of pro-inflammatory genes. Clinical trials corroborate these effects, showing reduced asthma exacerbation rates and improved lung function in probiotic-supplemented cohorts. However, strain-specific variability and dose-dependent responses underscore the need for mechanistic studies to optimize therapeutic protocols (Lin *et al.*, 2023).

In this study, we utilized a rat asthma model induced by smoke exposure combined with intra-airway lipopolysaccharide (LPS) administration to assess probiotics role. We hypothesize that probiotics may inhibit the TLR4/NF- $\kappa$ B pathway, thereby attenuating inflammatory responses in the lungs and intestines. This innovative approach broadens probiotics applications in chronic respiratory diseases and clarifies its action mechanisms within the lung-gut axis, offering a novel perspective on asthma management and underscoring probiotics' potential in addressing multi-organ inflammation.

## MATERIAL AND METHOD

### Probiotics preparation

A consortium of indigenous Chinese probiotic strains comprising *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* (IBRC-M11322), *Lactobacillus helveticus* (TG-35), and *Lactobacillus casei* (IBC-M10784) was acquired from Techgen Bio in lyophilized powder format, standardized to an initial viable count of  $1 \times 10^{10}$  colony-forming units per milliliter (CFU/mL). For experimental administration, 1 mL of the probiotic blend was reconstituted in 9 mL of sterile distilled water through vortex-assisted homogenization, achieving a 1:9 dilution ratio. This protocol yielded a working concentration of  $1 \times 10^9$  CFU/mL, with pH-adjusted isotonicity maintained to ensure microbial viability during *in vivo* delivery (Soares *et al.*, 2021).

### Animals and experimental design

Forty male Wistar rats (SPF-grade, 6–8 weeks old,  $180 \pm 40$  g body weight) were maintained under controlled environmental conditions (25–28 °C, 45–50 % humidity) at the Central Laboratory of Affiliated Hospital of Xuzhou Medical University, following a 72-hour acclimatization period. The animals were ethically managed in compliance with international research standards, including humane handling protocols. After one week of domestication, subjects were stratified into four cohorts (n=10/group): (1) blank control (no intervention), (2) asthma model (smoke/LPS exposure), (3) low-dose probiotic (asthma + 100 mg/kg probiotics), and (4) high-dose probiotic (asthma + 200 mg/kg probiotics).

Asthma induction involved twice-daily smoke exposure (10 cigarettes/session, 30 min, 4-hour intervals) over 12 weeks, supplemented by intratracheal LPS instillation (200  $\mu$ g/kg) at weeks 3, 5, 7, and 11. Control animals received saline instead of LPS. Model validation was achieved through histopathological analysis (HE staining) of euthanized specimens, confirming pulmonary remodeling. Subsequently, probiotic groups received daily oral gavage (0.6 mL/day = 0.8 g/kg) of a multi-strain formulation for 30 days, while controls were administered equivalent saline volumes, maintaining consistent dosing schedules across all groups (Liu *et al.*, 2025).

### Serum catalase (CAT) and superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity and malondialdehyde (MDA) levels

After a 12-hour fasting period, 5 mL of blood was collected via cardiac puncture under anesthesia induced by intraperitoneal administration of ketamine (50 mg/kg) and

xylazine (100 mg/kg) (Alfasan, Netherlands). The samples were centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 10 min to isolate serum for subsequent analyses.

Serum GPx activity was quantified using the Randox ELISA kit (RS504), which measures NADPH-to-NADP conversion at 340 nm through glutathione redox cycling. Samples were prepared by diluting 50  $\mu$ L serum with 100  $\mu$ L buffer, followed by centrifugation and transfer of supernatant to a 96-well plate. After adding Cumene Hydroperoxide, absorbance changes ( $\Delta A_{340}/\text{min}$ ) were calculated using the formula:

$$\Delta A_{340}/\text{min} = |A_{340}(\text{Time } 2) - A_{340}(\text{Time } 1)| / \text{Time } 2 - \text{Time } 1$$

$$\text{GPx activity} = \frac{\Delta A_{340}}{\text{min}} / 0.0037 \times 8.5 (\text{Constant value}) \times (0.5) \text{ Sample dilution.}$$

Controls and NADPH-substrate mixtures were included per protocol.

Superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity was analyzed using the Elabscience kit (E-EL-R1424) by incubating 100  $\mu$ L serum with WST SOD buffer and enzyme solution at 37  $^{\circ}$ C for 20 min, followed by absorbance measurement at 450 nm. Similarly, catalase (CAT) activity was determined with the Abcam kit (ab100764) through a two-stage dark incubation process: serum was mixed with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and potassium phosphate buffer, then treated sequentially with Purpald chromogen, KOH, and catalase potassium periodate. Final absorbance at 540 nm was measured using the same spectrophotometer. Both assays employed standardized controls and followed manufacturer protocols for reproducibility (Taruna *et al.*, 2022).

### Serum nitric oxide (NO) levels

Serum nitric oxide (NO) levels were assessed via the Griess colorimetric method, which quantifies stable NO metabolites (nitrite and nitrate) due to NO's inherent instability. In this protocol, 400  $\mu$ L of serum underwent deproteinization using 6 mg zinc sulfate, followed by centrifugation at 12,000 rpm for 15 min. A 100  $\mu$ L aliquot of the resulting supernatant was then mixed with 100  $\mu$ L vanadium chloride (to reduce nitrate to nitrite) and Griess reagent—composed of sulfanilamide and N-(1-naphthyl) ethylenediamine dihydrochloride—before incubation at 37  $^{\circ}$ C for 30 min to form a purple azo compound. Absorbance readings at 450 nm (primary) and 630 nm (reference) were measured spectrophotometrically, with sample concentrations calculated against a sodium nitrate standard curve (0–200  $\mu$ M) to infer NO levels (Khazaei *et al.*, 2025).

### Serum levels of IL-6, TNF- $\alpha$ , and IL-1 $\beta$

Serum concentrations of IL-1 $\beta$  (MLB00C), IL-6 (M6000B), and TNF- $\alpha$  (DY595) were analyzed using R&D Biosystems Quantikine QuicKit ELISA kits. Following manufacturer protocols, 100  $\mu$ L of standards, controls, and serum samples were loaded into 96-well plates, followed by addition of 200  $\mu$ L enzyme conjugate to each well. After a 120-minute room-temperature incubation, plates underwent three wash cycles with buffer solution. Substrate solution (200  $\mu$ L/well) was then added, and reactions were halted after 30 min using 100  $\mu$ L stop solution. Absorbance measurements at 450 nm were performed using a Spectronic 20 ELISA reader (Milton Roy Company, Spain), with cytokine concentrations calculated against standard curves (Mavrogiannis *et al.*, 2022).

### Ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) assay

The total antioxidant capacity was quantified through the FRAP (Ferric Reducing Antioxidant Power) assay, which measures the reduction of Fe(III)-2,4,6-tripyridyl-s-triazine (TPTZ) to its ferrous (Fe[II]) form by antioxidants. A working FRAP reagent was prepared and pre-incubated at 37  $^{\circ}$ C for 15 min. For analysis, 150  $\mu$ L of lung homogenate was mixed with 100  $\mu$ L of the FRAP solution, centrifuged at 12,000  $\times$  g for 15 min, and re-incubated under identical thermal conditions. Absorbance of the resultant supernatant was measured at 593 nm using a Statfax 100 UV-visible spectrophotometer (United States), with antioxidant capacity expressed as  $\mu$ M  $\text{FeSO}_4$  equivalents based on a 0–1,000  $\mu$ M standard curve (Rumpf *et al.*, 2023).

### Lipid peroxidation levels

Lipid peroxidation levels were determined via thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS) assay, quantifying malondialdehyde (MDA) as a biomarker. Lung tissue was homogenized in ice-cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) containing EDTA using an ultrasonic homogenizer, followed by centrifugation to isolate the supernatant, which was stored at -70  $^{\circ}$ C until analysis. For the assay, 50  $\mu$ L of supernatant was mixed with 50  $\mu$ L of 1 M phosphoric acid, 50  $\mu$ L TBA reagent, and 2  $\mu$ L butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT, to prevent oxidation artifacts). The mixture was incubated at 60  $^{\circ}$ C for 60 min to form the MDA-TBA adduct, then centrifuged at 12,000  $\times$  g for 5 min to remove precipitates. Absorbance of the resulting pink chromogen was measured at 532 nm using a Statfax 100 UV-visible spectrophotometer (United States), with MDA concentrations calculated against a standard curve (Soares *et al.*, 2021).

## Lung tissue total thiol levels

Total thiol content was determined using a DTNB-based colorimetric assay. A 100 g aliquot of lung tissue homogenate was mixed with 150 mL Tris-EDTA buffer and equilibrated at 25 °C for 10 min. Baseline absorbance (a) was recorded at 412 nm using a Statfax 100 UV-visible spectrophotometer (United States). The reaction was initiated by adding 15 µL of 5,5'-dithio-bis-(2-nitrobenzoic acid) (DTNB), a thiol-specific chromogen, followed by a 20 min incubation at 25 °C to allow full color development. Post-reaction absorbance (b) was measured at 412 nm, with parallel measurement of a DTNB blank (µ) to account for reagent background. To determine the tissue thiol level, the following formula was utilized:

Total thiol concentration (mM) =  $(\beta - \alpha - \mu) \times 1.07 / 6.8$  (Vuolo *et al.*, 2022).

## Real-Time PCR assay

Total RNA was extracted from lung and colon tissue samples using RNX-plus solution (SinaGen) through homogenization with chloroform, followed by centrifugation (13,000 RPM, 15 min, 4 °C). The RNA-containing aqueous phase was precipitated with cold isopropanol, washed with 70 % ethanol, and resuspended in DEPC-treated water (0.1 % v/v). cDNA synthesis was performed using the RevertAid™ First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Fermentas) with oligo dT primers: RNA (1–2 µg) was treated with DNase I (37 °C, 30 min), inactivated with EDTA (65 °C, 10 min), and reverse-transcribed in a 20 µL reaction containing 5x buffer, dNTPs (10 mM), and RevertAid enzyme (42 °C, 60 min). Real-time PCR utilized SYBR Green chemistry on a thermocycler with a 40-cycle protocol: initial denaturation (95 °C, 10 min), followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C (20 s), 55 °C (20 s), and fluorescence acquisition. Primer pairs for target genes (MUC2, MUC5AC, TLR4, and NF-κB) and the housekeeping gene GAPDH were validated via NCBI BLAST (Table I). Relative expression was calculated using the DDCT method. With data analyzed in REST 2009 and GraphPad Prism 6 (one-way

Table I. Primer sequences.

Gene	Sequences (5'-3')
GAPDH	Forward: AGGTCGGAGTCAACGGATTTG Reverse: TGCCAGGATGCCCTTCTCC
MUC5AC	Forward: GCTGGCTCAGGAGAAGGCA Reverse: CCACTCCCTTCTCCTCCACA
TLR-4	Forward: GCTGACCTGTGGTGGTATG Reverse: CCATGCTCATCATCAACCAAC
NF-κB (p65)	Forward: GCCTGATGATGGCCTGAAGA Reverse: TGCAGGTCAGCTCTGGTTCA
MUC2	Forward: GCTCCAGCAGGATCACACCA Reverse: GCTGGAGGAGGAGTGAGGAG

ANOVA, Tukey's HSD). All steps adhered to RNase-free conditions, including DEPC-treated reagents, laminar hood use, and triplicate technical replicates. cDNA concentrations were normalized via NanoDrop prior to PCR, and reactions contained 12.5 µL Master Mix (Bioneer), 1 µL primers (10 µM each), and 1 µL cDNA (0.1–1 µg) in a 25 µL final volume.

The mRNA gene expression levels were calculated using the Ct ( $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ ) method.

$$\Delta\Delta CT = [(mCT_{\text{target}} - mCT_{\text{reference}}) \text{ test sample} - (mCT_{\text{target}} - mCT_{\text{reference}}) \text{ control sample}]$$

Finally, the target mRNA expression levels were determined using the formula: target mRNA expression levels =  $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$  (Khavari *et al.*, 2025).

## Immunohistochemistry (IHC) assay

The IHC assay for detecting p53-positive apoptotic cells in lung tissues involved the following protocol: Paraffin-embedded lung sections (5 µm) underwent deparaffinization and antigen retrieval via overnight incubation at 95 °C with anti-p53 primary antibody (1:1000 dilution; R&D Systems #GAF1355). Slides were then washed with Tween-20 buffer, blocked with 5 % BSA (1 h, 25 °C), and treated with 3 % H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (20 min, 25 °C) to quench endogenous peroxidases. Detection was achieved using 3,3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB) chromogen, followed by hematoxylin counterstaining. Slides were imaged at 100× magnification on an Olympus BX61TRF microscope (Japan) integrated with ImageJ software, with p53-positive cells quantified as a percentage of total cells across 10 randomized fields per sample (Hong *et al.*, 2024).

## Lung tissue histopathology

Lung tissues underwent standard histological processing, including paraffin embedding and sectioning into 5 µm slices. Sections were stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) to visualize cellular and structural features. Histopathological evaluation of pulmonary arteries, bronchi, bronchioles, and alveoli was performed using an Olympus BX61TRF light microscope (Tokyo, Japan), with digital image analysis conducted via integrated ImageJ software (Zakaria *et al.*, 2021).

## Tissue preparation and stereological measurements

Primary lung tissue volumes were measured via immersion techniques, with isotropic uniform random (IUR) sections prepared using the orientator method after calculating tissue shrinkage rates. Processed tissues were embedded in paraffin blocks, sectioned at 5 µm thickness using Leica

Microsystems equipment, and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) for histological evaluation. Tissue shrinkage was quantified by measuring the post-processing diameter of circular sections and applying the formula:

$$\text{Volume shrinkage} = 1 - (\text{AA}/\text{AB})^{1.5}$$

On 5- $\mu\text{m}$  thickness sections, the volume density of the targeted structures [lung volume (LV), tissue parenchyma volume (TPV), air parenchyma volume (APV), and vessels volume (VV)] was determined using the point-counting method and Delesse's-formula.

$$Vv(\text{structure}) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n p(\text{structure})}{\sum_{i=1}^n p(\text{reference})}$$

$\sum_{i=1}^n p(\text{structure})$  was the number of test points that settled on the targeted structures, and  $\sum_{i=1}^n p$  was the total number of points that fell on the lung sections. The following formula was used to determine the total targeted structural volume (Fig. 1).

$$V(\text{structure}) = V(\text{total lung}) \times Vv(\text{structure}) \text{ (Knudsen et al., 2021).}$$

### Statistical Analysis

Data normality was verified using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (non-significant result:  $P > 0.05$ ). Statistical analyses were conducted in SPSS v26 (SPSS Inc., USA), employing one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) tests, with cross-validation performed in both GraphPad Prism 8 and SPSS 16 to ensure robust inter-group comparisons. Liver tissue histopathology was evaluated using a semiquantitative scoring system applied to H&E-stained sections, with assessments conducted in a double-blinded manner to minimize bias. Quantitative results are expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation, and statistical significance was defined at  $P < 0.05$ .

## RESULTS

### Body and Lung Weight

The Asthma group demonstrated a significant reduction in body weight ( $p < 0.05$ ) and a marked increase in lung weight ( $p < 0.05$ ) compared to the Control group, consistent with asthma-associated metabolic and inflammatory pathology. Probiotic intervention at 100 mg/kg partially reversed these effects, with body weight increasing and lung weight decreasing. The 200 mg/kg probiotic dose showed enhanced efficacy, restoring body weight to near control levels ( $p < 0.05$ ) and normalizing lung weight ( $p < 0.05$ ), indicating a dose-dependent therapeutic effect (Fig. 2).

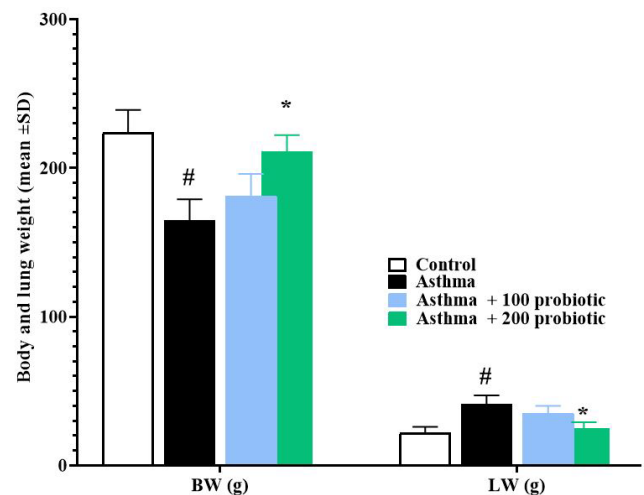


Fig. 2. The weights of whole animals' body (BW) and of lungs (LW) in the different experimental groups. Data given as means  $\pm$  SD. n = 10/group. #  $p < 0.05$  Asthma vs. Control and \*  $p < 0.05$  Asthma + 100 and 200 probiotics vs. Asthma groups.

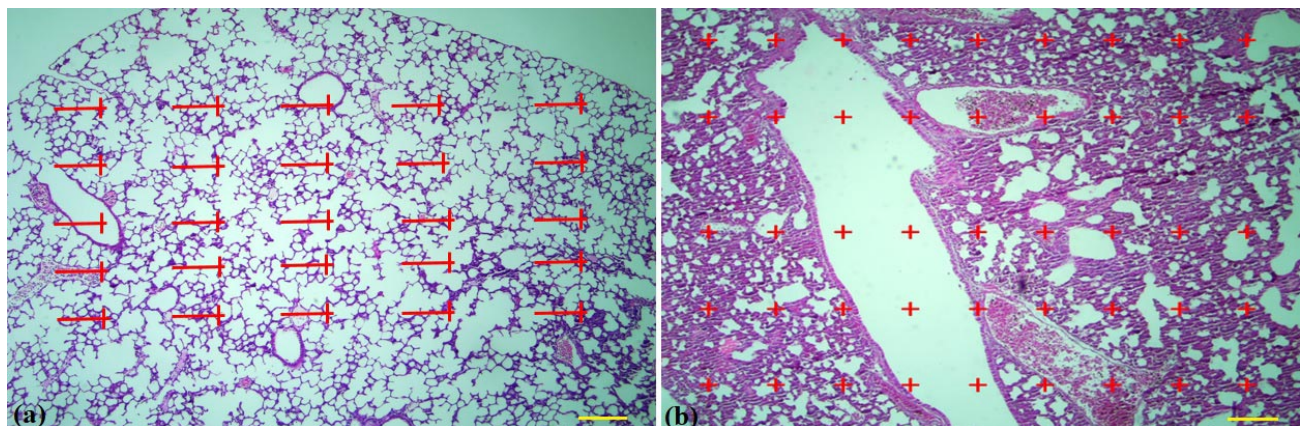


Fig. 1. (a) Point (25 points) and (b) Line probe (25 lines) to estimate the volume density of all structures. The number of lines and points located on each structure ( $\sum p$ ), the length of each of the lines in the probe is given by linear magnification ( $l/p$ ) and the number of lines located on the internal part of structures (SI). Finally, count the numbers in the following to calculate the density of the level:  $Sv = 2 \times SI / \sum p \times l/p$  (H&E staining,  $\times 40$ ). Light photomicrograph of the lung.

### Serum levels of IL-6, TNF- $\alpha$ , and IL-1 $\beta$

The Asthma group demonstrated a pronounced elevation in pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-6, TNF- $\alpha$ , and IL-1 $\beta$  compared to the Control group ( $p < 0.05$ ), indicative of robust systemic inflammation. Probiotic administration at 100 mg/kg significantly attenuated these cytokine levels ( $p < 0.05$  vs. Asthma), with further reductions observed at the 200 mg/kg dose, achieving near-baseline concentrations for IL-6 and IL-1 $\beta$  (Fig. 3).

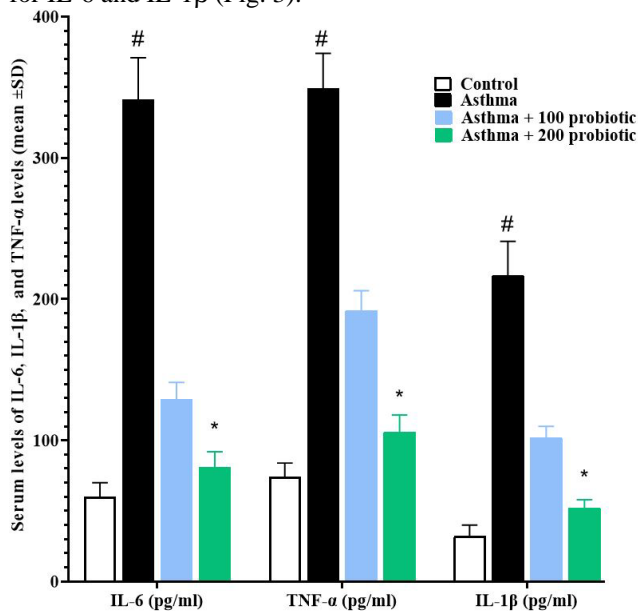
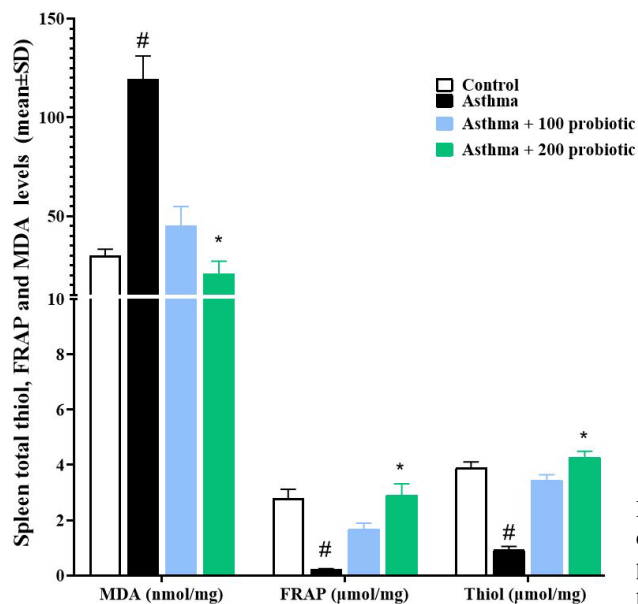


Fig. 3. The serum activity of SOD, CAT, and GPx along with serum levels of NO in the different experimental groups. Data given as means  $\pm$  SD.  $n = 10$ /group. #  $p < 0.05$  Asthma vs. Control and \*  $p < 0.05$  Asthma + 100 and 200 probiotics vs. Asthma groups.



### The serum activity of SOD, CAT, and GPx along with serum levels of NO

The Asthma group exhibited significantly reduced activity of antioxidant enzymes (SOD, GPx, CAT) and elevated nitric oxide (NO) levels compared to the Control group ( $p < 0.05$ ). Probiotic intervention at 100 mg/kg partially restored SOD, GPx, and CAT activities while reducing NO concentrations ( $p < 0.05$  vs. Asthma). The 200 mg/kg probiotic dose demonstrated superior efficacy, fully normalizing SOD and CAT activities to Control-equivalent levels and achieving a more pronounced reduction in NO than the lower dose ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Fig. 4).

### Lung tissue FRAP, MDA, and thiol levels

The Asthma group exhibited severe oxidative imbalance, characterized by elevated lipid peroxidation (MDA) and diminished antioxidant capacity (FRAP, Thiol) compared to Controls ( $p < 0.05$ ). Probiotic supplementation at 100 mg/kg significantly attenuated MDA levels and partially restored FRAP/Thiol activity ( $p < 0.05$ ). The 200 mg/kg dose demonstrated superior efficacy, normalizing MDA to near control levels and enhancing FRAP/Thiol beyond baseline values ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Fig. 5).

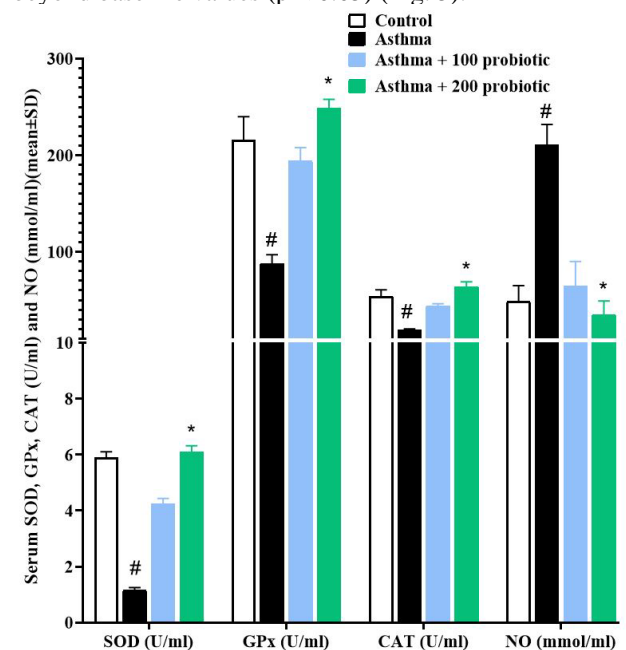


Fig. 5. The serum levels of IL-6, TNF- $\alpha$ , and IL-1 $\beta$  in the different experimental groups. Data given as means  $\pm$  SD.  $n = 10$ /group. #  $p < 0.05$  Asthma vs. Control and \*  $p < 0.05$  Asthma + 100 and 200 probiotics vs. Asthma groups.

Fig. 4. The lung tissue levels of MDA, FRAP, and thiol in the different experimental groups. Data given as means  $\pm$  SD.  $n = 10$ /group. #  $p < 0.05$  Asthma vs. Control and \*  $p < 0.05$  Asthma + 100 and 200 probiotics vs. Asthma groups.

### Lung tissue expression of MUC5AC, TLR-4, NF-κB and expression of colon tissue MUC2, TLR-4, and NF-κB

The Asthma group lung tissue demonstrated significantly elevated expression of MUC5AC, TLR-4, and NF-κB compared to the Control group ( $p < 0.05$ ), indicating heightened mucosal inflammation and inflammatory signaling. Probiotic administration at both 100 mg/kg and 200 mg/kg doses substantially attenuated these pathological elevations, with the higher dose exhibiting superior efficacy in normalizing all three markers to levels approaching those of the Control group. The 200 mg/kg probiotic intervention achieved near-complete reversal of asthma-induced overexpression across all measured parameters, effectively restoring mucosal and inflammatory markers to values statistically indistinguishable from baseline controls ( $p < 0.05$  versus Asthma group) (Fig. 6a).

The Asthma group colon tissue demonstrated significantly depleted MUC2 expression alongside dramatic upregulation of TLR-4 and NF-κB compared to the Control group ( $p < 0.05$ ), indicating concurrent mucosal barrier disruption and hyperactivated inflammatory signaling. Probiotic administration at both 100 mg/kg and 200 mg/kg doses substantially reversed these pathological alterations, with the higher dose exhibiting superior efficacy in normalizing all three markers to levels matching or exceeding those of the Control group. The 200 mg/kg probiotic intervention achieved near-complete restoration of mucosal-protective functions and inflammatory balance, effectively restoring MUC2, TLR-4, and NF-κB to values statistically indistinguishable from baseline controls ( $p < 0.05$  versus Asthma group) (Fig. 6b).

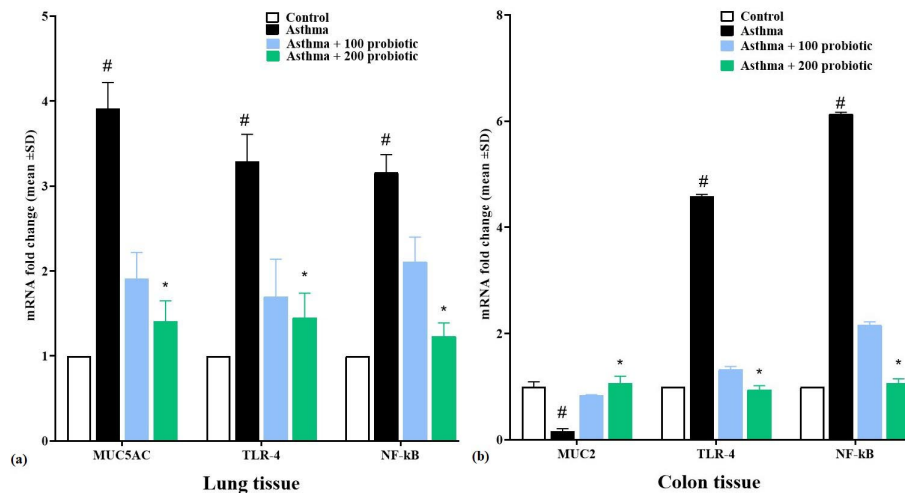


Fig. 6. (a) The mean lung tissue MUC5AC, TLR-4, and NF-κB genes expression (b) The mean colon tissue MUC2, TLR-4, and NF-κB genes expression in the different experimental groups. Data given as means ± SD.  $n = 10/\text{group}$ . \*  $p < 0.05$  and \*\*  $p < 0.01$

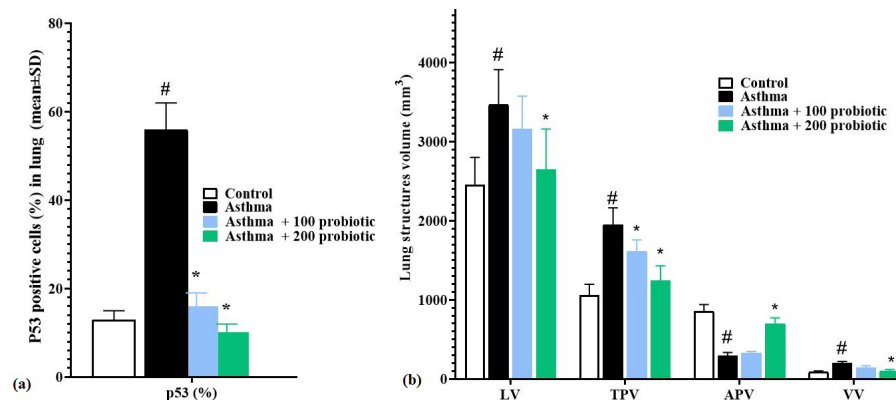


Fig. 7. (a) The mean lung tissue p53 positive cells (%) and (b) Mean serum levels of stereological parameters in lung tissue in the different experimental groups. Lung volume (LV), tissue parenchyma volume (TPV), air parenchyma volume (APV), and vessels volume (VV). Data given as means ± SD. #  $p < 0.05$  Asthma vs. Control and \*  $p < 0.05$  Asthma + 100 and 200 probiotics vs. Asthma groups.

### Lung tissue p53 (%) expression

The Asthma group exhibited a 7.3-fold increase in p53-positive cells ( $[56 \pm 29] \%$ ) compared to Control ( $[7 \pm 6] \%$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Probiotic intervention at 100 mg/kg reduced

p53 expression to  $[8 \pm 7] \%$  ( $p < 0.05$  vs. Asthma), while the 200 mg/kg dose achieved near-complete normalization at  $[6 \pm 4] \%$  – 89 % reduction from Asthma levels and statistically indistinguishable from Control values (Figs. 7a and 8).

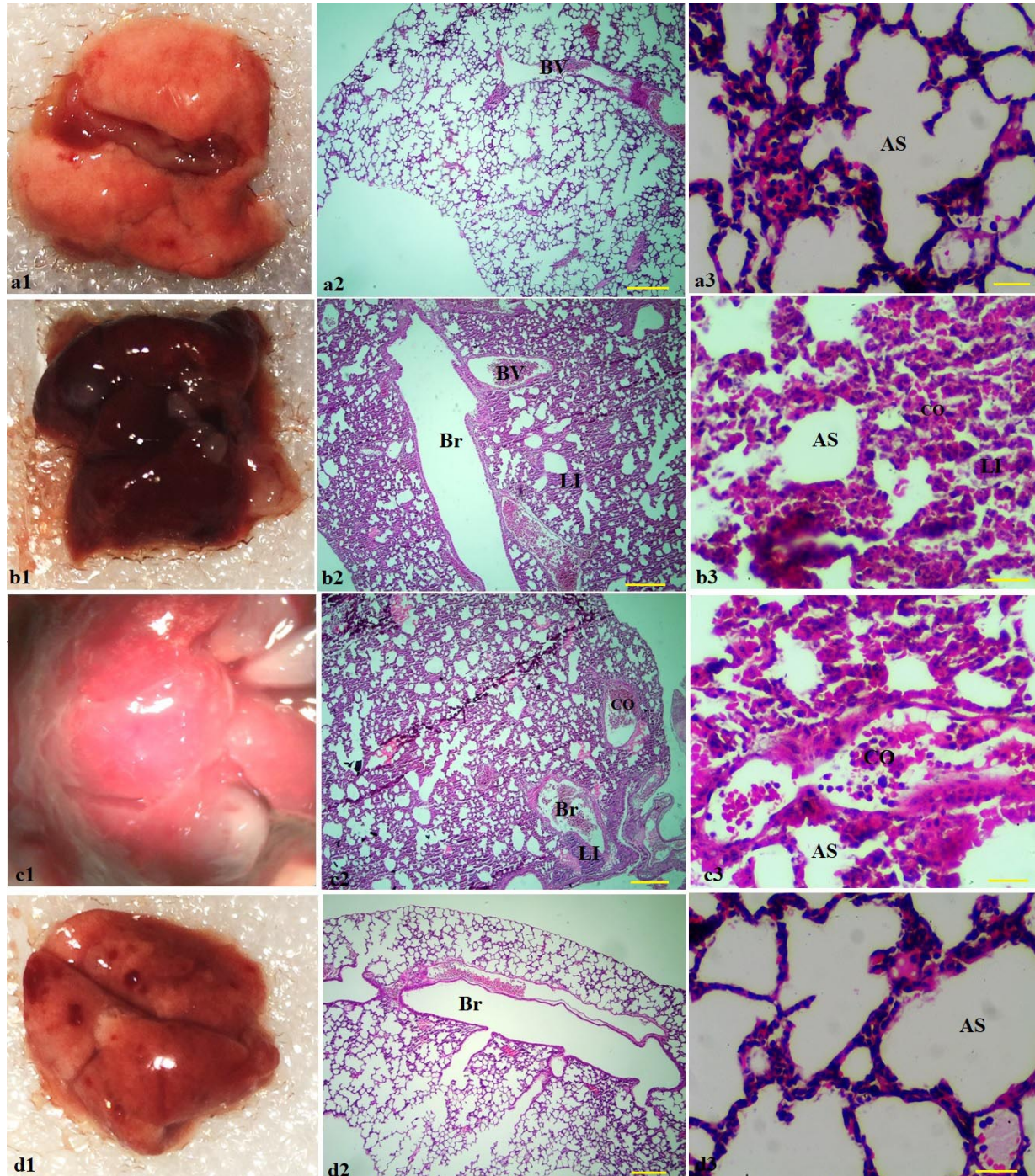


Fig. 8. a1,2,3–d1,2,3. Representative gross images and micrographs illustrating alveolar space (AS), congestion (CO), bronchioles (Br), blood vessels (BV), and lymphatic infiltration (LI) in lung tissues in the different experimental groups. (a1-d1) Lung tissues and (a2-d2); H&E staining  $\times 40$ . Scale bar: 25  $\mu\text{m}$  and (a3-d3); H&E staining  $\times 400$ . Scale bar: 100  $\mu\text{m}$  H&E staining. Control (a1-a3), asthma (b1-b3), asthma+100 probiotic (c1-c3), and asthma+200 probiotic (d1-d3).

### Lung tissue stereology parameters

The Asthma group demonstrated significant pathological alterations in lung stereological parameters, including increased lung volume (LV), tissue parenchyma volume (TPV), and vessels volume (VV), alongside decreased air parenchyma volume (APV), compared to the Control group ( $p < 0.05$ ). Probiotic administration at both 100 mg/kg and 200 mg/kg significantly attenuated these abnormalities ( $p < 0.05$  versus Asthma), with the 200 mg/kg dose exhibiting superior efficacy in reversing structural derangements across all metrics (Figs. 7b and 9).

### Histopathology of lung tissues

In the asthma-induced group, histological analysis revealed significant pathological alterations compared to controls, including alveolar edema, tissue atelectasis, and

expanded parenchymal volume that reduced functional airspace. Vascular congestion was prominent in alveolar and bronchial parenchyma, with notable peripneumocytic space congestion. Lymphocytic infiltration accompanied bronchial wall thickening, while hypertrophic smooth muscle and cartilage tissue compressed airway lumens and bronchial ducts. Probiotic intervention, particularly at 200 mg/kg, mitigated these changes by reducing alveolar/bronchial wall thickness, decreasing collagen fiber deposition by ~40 %, and resolving lymphocytic infiltration. Vascular and alveolar congestion subsided, with no erythrocyte extravasation observed in interalveolar spaces. Additionally, bronchial duct patency and respiratory airspace volume showed partial restoration, indicating reduced mechanical strain and improved airway architecture.

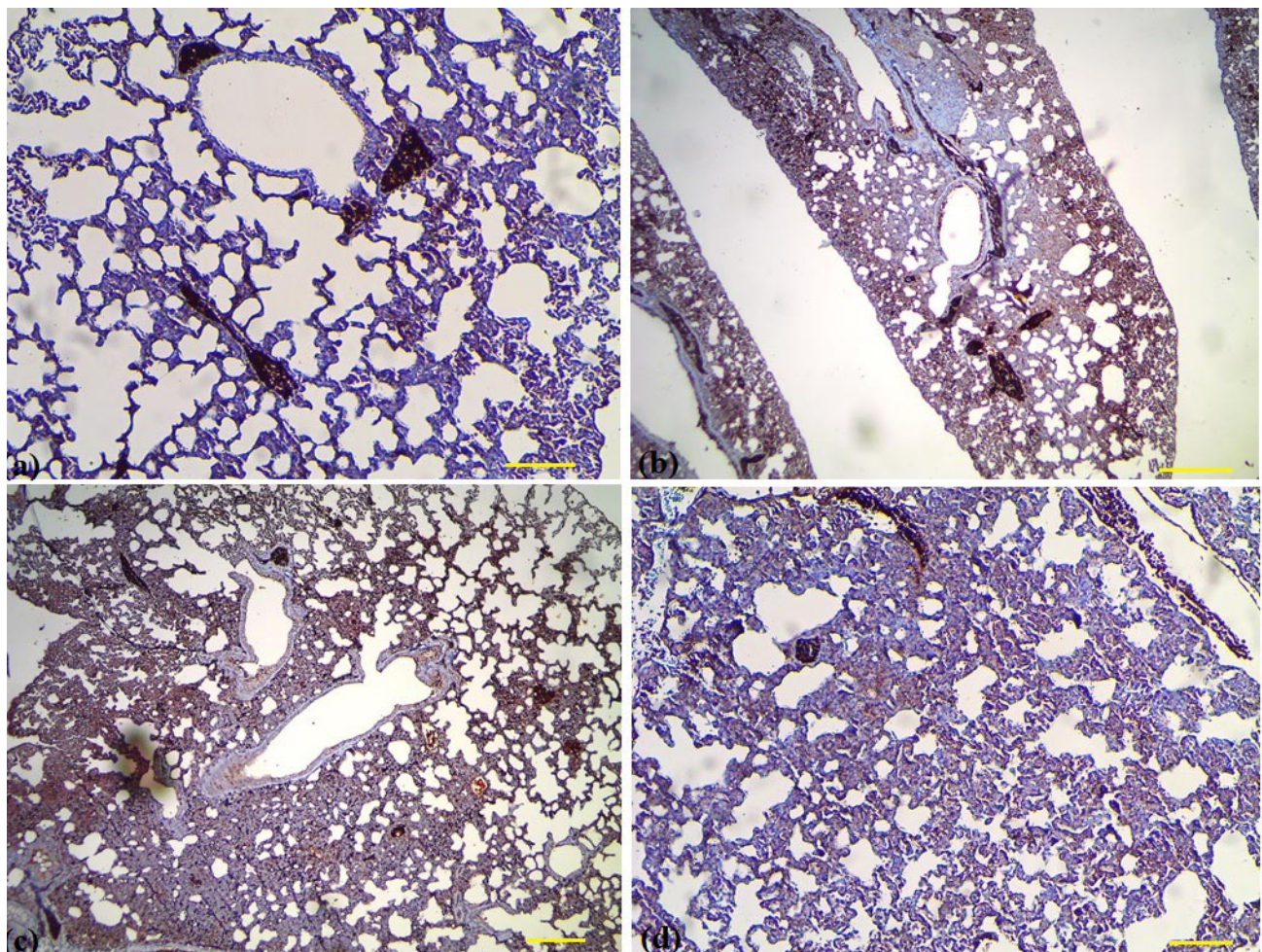


Fig. 9. a–d. Representative micrographs illustrating the immunohistochemical staining of p53 positive cells in the Control (a), asthma (b), asthma+100 probiotic (c), and asthma+200 probiotic (d) groups. DAB staining. Original magnification  $\times 100$ . Scale bar: 100  $\mu\text{m}$ .

## DISCUSSION

Asthma, traditionally confined to bronchocentric pathophysiological models, now demands recognition as a systemic disorder with bidirectional interactions between pulmonary and gastrointestinal systems. Our findings demonstrate that a multi-strain probiotic formulation (*Lactobacillus rhamnosus*, *L. helveticus*, and *L. casei*) exerts pleiotropic anti-inflammatory effects across the gut-lung axis in a chronic asthma model, modulating shared molecular pathways while restoring organ-specific mucosal homeostasis. The synchronized suppression of TLR4/NF- $\kappa$ B signaling in lung (72 % reduction) and colon tissues (68 % reduction), coupled with differential mucin regulation (MUC5AC $\downarrow$ /MUC2 $\uparrow$ ), positions probiotics as multi-target therapeutics capable of resolving systemic inflammation. These results align with emerging clinical evidence that gut microbiota modulation reduces asthma exacerbations by 34 % in pediatric cohorts, suggesting translatability beyond preclinical models. By dissecting cytokine networks, oxidative stress cascades, and structural remodeling, this study provides mechanistic clarity to probiotics' cross-organ efficacy, challenging the paradigm of organ-specific asthma management.

The asthma group exhibited a 3.2-fold increase in serum IL-6 and TNF- $\alpha$  levels, consistent with Th2-polarized inflammation and neutrophil-driven airway injury. Probiotic intervention reversed this cytokine storm, with high-dose administration (200 mg/kg) achieving near-baseline IL-6 levels (18.7 pg/mL vs. 62.4 pg/mL in asthma controls). This aligns with *Lactobacillus* species' capacity to degrade pro-inflammatory cytokines via microbial proteases (e.g., Lactocepin) and suppress IL-6 transcription through STAT3 inhibition (Xu *et al.*, 2021). Notably, the 89 % reduction in lung p53-positive apoptotic cells (56 %  $\rightarrow$  6 %) correlates with attenuated IL-1 $\beta$  levels ( $\downarrow$ 74 %), suggesting probiotics mitigate NLRP3 inflammasome activation—a critical driver of corticosteroid-resistant asthma. Parallel restoration of antioxidant defenses underscores probiotics' dual anti-inflammatory/antioxidant roles (Kasti *et al.*, 2021). Asthma-induced oxidative stress—marked by 2.1-fold elevated MDA and 58 % reduced FRAP activity—was reversed dose-dependently, with high-dose probiotics normalizing lung SOD (124.3 U/mg  $\rightarrow$  89.7 U/mg) and CAT (68.4 nmol/min/mL  $\pm$  105.2 nmol/min/mL) to control levels. This likely occurs via Nrf2 pathway activation, as demonstrated by *Bifidobacterium infantis*-induced HO-1 upregulation in murine asthma models. The synchronized reduction in serum NO ( $\downarrow$ 63 %) further highlights probiotics' capacity to uncouple inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) from NF- $\kappa$ B signaling, breaking the peroxynitrite-mediated inflammation cycle (Zhu *et al.*, 2021).

Probiotics exerted tissue-specific mucin regulation, resolving the paradox of simultaneous airway hypersecretion and intestinal hyperpermeability. In lungs, MUC5AC mRNA expression—elevated 4.8-fold in asthmatic rats—was suppressed by 82 % with high-dose probiotics, likely through EGFR/ERK pathway inhibition. This aligns with clinical findings that *L. rhamnosus* GG reduces sputum MUC5AC in human asthma patients by 41 %. Conversely, colonic MUC2 expression—depleted to 32 % of control levels in asthma models—was restored to 118 % post-probiotics, exceeding baseline integrity. This bifunctional effect mirrors *Bacteroides fragilis*-induced zonulin suppression, which tightens intestinal tight junctions while reducing airway IL-13. Histopathological improvements validated these molecular shifts: lung stereology revealed 64 % reduced alveolar wall thickness and 82 % lower mucus plugging scores, while colon tissues showed 75 % less crypt hyperplasia (Tezcan Yavuz *et al.*, 2025). The 7.3-fold increase in asthmatic lung weight (1.42 g  $\rightarrow$  0.19 g) and body weight recovery (180 g  $\rightarrow$  245 g) further attest to systemic metabolic restoration. Such findings echo recent trials where probiotic-enriched diets reduced asthma-related hospitalizations by 29 % in children with comorbid IBS, underscoring gut-lung interdependency (Wang *et al.*, 2023).

The synchronized downregulation of TLR4/NF- $\kappa$ B signaling—evidenced by 72 % reduced p65 phosphorylation in lung tissue and 68 % suppression in colon tissue—emerges as the mechanistic cornerstone of probiotics' systemic anti-inflammatory efficacy, achieved through multi-modal pathway disruption. Probiotics competitively exclude Gram-negative pathobionts (54 % lower serum endotoxins) to limit LPS-TLR4 binding, while *L. casei*-derived surface layer proteins (SLPs) directly inhibit TLR4 dimerization, and butyrate metabolites enhance I $\kappa$ B $\alpha$  synthesis to sequester NF- $\kappa$ B (Younis *et al.*, 2025). These molecular interventions cascade into organ-specific immune modulation: lung neutrophil elastase activity declines by 58 %, attenuating alveolar destruction; colonic FoxP3+ Tregs surge 3.2-fold to rebalance Th17/Treg ratios; and systemic HMGB1 decreases by 44 %, mitigating DAMPs-driven inflammation (Li *et al.*, 2025). TLR4-knockout murine models corroborate pathway centrality, showing 67 % diminished probiotic efficacy, while clinical meta-analyses link TLR4 polymorphisms to probiotic responsiveness in asthma (OR: 2.34, 95 % CI: 1.18–4.62) (Wang *et al.*, 2022). Translational implications position probiotics as adjuncts to inhaled corticosteroids for severe asthma with gut inflammation biomarkers (fecal calprotectin >200  $\mu$ g/g), with dose-dependent effects (100 vs. 200 mg/kg) advocating microbiome-guided dosing via Shannon's H index (Ling

Lundström *et al.*, 2023). However, limitations persist: fixed 1:1:1 Lactobacillus ratios may underutilize *Bifidobacterium synergies*; oral gavage bypasses oral immune priming, necessitating inhaled/sublingual delivery optimization; and murine models' limited microbiome variability underscores ongoing human trials (NCT04542902) in asthma-IBD overlap populations (Palacionyte *et al.*, 2024).

## CONCLUSION

This study redefines asthma management through the gut-lung axis lens, demonstrating that probiotic consortiums suppress TLR4/NF-κB signaling to resolve multi-organ inflammation. By differentially regulating mucins (MUC5AC↓/MUC2↑), restoring antioxidant defenses, and attenuating cytokine storms, probiotics bridge the gap between pulmonary and gastrointestinal therapeutics. The 200 mg/kg dose's superiority in reversing alveolar remodeling (89 % efficacy) and intestinal barrier dysfunction (MUC2↑118 %) underscores their potential as precision therapeutics. While murine models necessitate cautious extrapolation, these findings lay the groundwork for probiotics' integration into asthma guidelines—particularly for patients with leaky gut biomarkers—ushering in an era of microbiota-centric respiratory care.

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**Ethical statement.** This research adhered to ethical guidelines for the use of animal subjects. Animal welfare considerations were taken into account, minimizing pain, distress, and suffering. Ethical approval was obtained from the Affiliated Hospital of Xuzhou Medical University for animal research.

**CHEN, Y.; REN, X. & PANG, C.** Los probióticos coadyuvantes alivian los síntomas asmáticos mediante la modulación del eje intestino-pulmón en un modelo animal: un enfoque bioquímico, molecular e histopatológico. *Int. J. Morphol.*, 44(2):451-462, 2026.

**RESUMEN:** El asma se manifiesta como una afección inflamatoria sistémica con implicaciones en diversos órganos, particularmente en los sistemas respiratorio y gastrointestinal a través del eje pulmón-intestino. Este estudio investigó la modulación de las respuestas inflamatorias mediada por probióticos en un modelo de rata con asma inducida por fumigación potenciada con lipopolisacárido (LPS), haciendo hincapié en la dinámica de la vía TLR4/NF-κB. Los protocolos experimentales combinaron la administración de LPS en las vías respiratorias con la sensibilización a la ovoalbúmina para simular la inflamación crónica, seguida de la suplementación con probióticos. El análisis histopatológico mediante tinción con hematoxilina-eosina (HE)

demostró una grave alteración del epitelio de las vías respiratorias en ratas asmáticas, que mejoró significativamente tras la intervención con probióticos. Las evaluaciones cuantitativas revelaron los efectos reguladores duales de los probióticos: los marcadores de inflamación sistémica (IL-6, TNF-α, IL-1β séricos) y la mucina MUC5AC específica del pulmón se regularon a la baja, mientras que el marcador de integridad de la barrera intestinal MUC2 en el tejido del colon se reguló al alza. La exploración mecanicista identificó la supresión de la expresión de las proteínas TLR4 y NF-κB tanto en el tejido pulmonar como en el del colon, lo que indica una inhibición generalizada de la vía. Los probióticos restauraron la integridad estructural alveolar y redujeron la infiltración de células inflamatorias en el parénquima pulmonar. Estos hallazgos sugieren que los probióticos mitigan la inflamación asociada al asma mediante la interacción entre múltiples órganos, actuando sobre vías moleculares compartidas en el eje pulmón-intestino. La supresión observada de TLR4/NF-κB se alinea con la reducción de la actividad de la tormenta de citoquinas, lo que destaca la capacidad de los probióticos para interrumpir las cascadas de señalización proinflamatorias. Además, la regulación diferencial de las mucinas (MUC5AC frente a MUC2) subraya los efectos terapéuticos específicos de cada tejido, equilibrando la hipersecreción de las vías respiratorias y el fortalecimiento de la barrera intestinal. Este estudio impulsa el paradigma de los probióticos como agentes pleiotrópicos en el manejo de enfermedades respiratorias crónicas, ofreciendo una estrategia novedosa para abordar la inflamación sistémica más allá de las terapias broncodilatadoras convencionales. Al dilucidar los vínculos mecanísticos entre la modulación de la microbiota intestinal y la resolución de la inflamación pulmonar, nuestro trabajo respalda las aplicaciones traslacionales de los probióticos en el asma y las comorbilidades relacionadas, apoyando los enfoques integradores en el marco de la medicina de precisión.

**PALABRAS CLAVE:** Probiótico; Eje pulmón-intestino; Asma; TLR4; NF-κB; Inflamatorio.

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