between the alveoli and the mouth. Therefore, in EBC samples, not only volatiles, but also several other mediators with no volatile characteristics can be found and have been reported, including adenosine, different interleukins (-4, -5, -8), interferon-γ, etc. [3–5]. Regarding markers of lipid peroxidation, EBC contains isoprostanes and thiobarbituric acid-reactive substances [2].

The authors are right in saying that there are methodological limitations to this type of sampling. However, this is mainly due to the limited understanding of solute formation and dilution of samples, and the accuracy of some of the currently available methods for measuring mediators in EBC. I agree that ambient air may influence the levels of exhaled biomarkers in EBC and this is shown for hydrogen peroxide [6]. Volatility may be a problem when measuring mediators from EBC, not because the sampling relies on this characteristic, but because if a molecule is volatile it is very hard to figure out the result of its equilibration between the gas and the fluid phase while breath condensation is ongoing. A good example is the ammonia measurement [7, 8].

Despite the misinterpretation of exhaled breath condensate, I believe that this review is a valuable source of knowledge and references on lipid peroxidation, with detailed information on the limitations and advantages of the current measuring methods.

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References

From the authors:

We thank I. Horváth for his kind comments on our review "Biomarkers of lipid peroxidation, airway inflammation and asthma" [1], and agree that we have been imprecise with the use of the term "breath condensate". The paper would be improved by replacing this term with "exhaled breath" in relation to ethane, pentane and nitric oxide measurements.

While there is an intuitive explanation for the presence of volatile substances in exhaled breath, the mechanisms by which nonvolatile substances enter expired breath are poorly understood and need to be further investigated. 8-iso-prostaglandin F2α and malondialdehyde have been measured in breath condensate as markers of lipid peroxidation [2]; however, it is, as yet, unknown whether this medium can be used for reliable measurement of antioxidant defences. Analysis of total and oxidised glutathione concentrations in induced sputum indicates that sputum supernatant is suitable for this purpose [3]. Hence, we stand by our conclusions in this area.

At the moment both sputum induction and breath condensate collection are promising techniques. The most useful sampling technique remains to be determined and this is an important area of future research. Comparison of both sampling methods in a head-to-head study is needed to resolve this issue.

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References

Noneosinophilic asthma

To the Editors:

We read with interest the article by Buist [1] on similarities and differences between asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. We would like to make some comments on the nature of inflammation in asthma, which the author has mentioned to be predominantly eosinophilic. Patients have been noted to have severe asthma or suffer an exacerbation without an increase in the eosinophil population in the airways [2]. Based on several studies from 1995 onwards with data on eosinophil levels (cut-off values 2.4%) on bronchial biopsy specimens, bronchoalveolar lavage fluid and sputum of asthmatic
patients, the weighted mean proportion of subjects with eosinophilic inflammation was 51%, the rest being noneosinophilic asthma [3]. In most of the studies with noneosinophilic asthma, the predominant cells were neutrophils associated with increased levels of interleukin-8 [4–6] and similar cellular and inflammatory profiles as in occupational asthma [2]. Asthma of all grades of severity can have neutrophil dominance in the airways [3], thus establishing it as a variant of asthma, not just a marker of severity. This is unlikely to be the effect of inhaled corticosteroids as shown by two studies [2, 6].

Eosinophilic asthma is CD4/interleukin-5 driven in response to an allergen, whereas neutrophilic asthma is usually mediated by interleukin-8 triggered by viral infection, pollution or bacterial endotoxin [3]. It is important to try to differentiate between these two groups, which may have implications on treatment, and it is tempting to postulate that inhaled corticosteroids will not be as effective in patients with noneosinophilic asthma. Future studies should be directed to prospectively evaluate any prognostic difference between these two groups of asthma.

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References


From the author:

I appreciate the comments made by S. Mukherjee and S. Basaki about my article on similarities and differences between asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) [1]. As they rightly point out, an increase in eosinophils is not necessarily characteristic of severe asthma or of an exacerbation of asthma. They stress the importance of trying to differentiate between eosinophilic and noneosinophilic asthma.

My article was dealing with the major characteristics that help to differentiate between asthma and COPD and how these affect the response to pharmacological agents. The teaching point here was that the different responses to inhaled anti-inflammatories seen in asthma and COPD may have their basis in differences in the cell populations in the two diseases. I emphasised that COPD is not one disease but rather a spectrum of diseases. The same can be said for asthma, which is remarkably heterogeneous.

Clearly, we need more information about the heterogeneity of the inflammatory response in asthma. The prevalence of noneosinophilic asthma varies from study to study, and the reason for this variability has been attributed to patient or disease characteristics, such as severity or control of asthma, smoking, age, medication use, stage of exacerbation and recent exposure to allergens or environmental pollutants [2]. Understanding the pathology better will require much more information based on biopsies obtained in these different circumstances.

The practical clinical question is whether we can differentiate between eosinophilic and noneosinophilic asthma (or between those who respond to anti-inflammatories and those who do not) using clinical criteria or simple clinical tests. Although not yet a simple clinical test, analysis of broncho-alveolar lavage fluid or induced sputum has received a lot of scrutiny recently in the hope that this can be used to distinguish responders from nonresponders. To date, the answer is not clear. One recent study that supports the use of sputum eosinophils to adjust treatment was reported by Green et al. [3]. These investigators followed 74 asthmatic patients for 12 months to see if the number of exacerbations was higher in patients randomised to a treatment algorithm based on normalising the sputum eosinophil count versus those randomised to management by British Thoracic Society Guidelines. They reported that treatment directed at normalising the induced sputum eosinophil count reduced the frequency of exacerbations without the need for additional anti-inflammatory therapy. In another study, Godon et al. [4] measured sputum eosinophilia before and after treatment with inhaled corticosteroids in 51 mild, uncontrolled, steroid-naive asthmatics. Of these, 29% had an eosinophil count ≤1%. Baseline characteristics of this group and the group that had an eosinophil count of >1% were not different and neither was the response to 1 month of inhaled corticosteroid treatment, as judged by symptoms, quality of life, forced expiratory volume in one second and methacholine responsiveness. Studies like these are helping to answer the important question of whether sputum eosinophils can be used as a clinical tool to predict the response to treatment or titrate treatment.

The important point is that we recognise the heterogeneity of asthma (and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease) and continue to look for simple clinical tools that can help to differentiate groups that respond to different pharmacological agents. This will require well-designed and adequately powered clinical trials.

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References