



OBSTRUCTIVE LUNG DISEASES

The four prototypical disorders:

- Emphysema
- Chronic Bronchitis
- Asthma
- Bronchiectasis

⚠ Emphysema + Chronic Bronchitis frequently coexist → called COPD



CHRONIC OBSTRUCTIVE PULMONARY DISEASE (COPD)

◆ Definition

Defined by the World Health Organization (WHO) as:

“A common, preventable and treatable disease characterized by persistent respiratory symptoms and airflow limitation due to airway and/or alveolar abnormalities caused by exposure to noxious particles or gases.”

◆ Epidemiology

- Affects >10% of adults >40 years
 - 4th leading cause of death in USA
 - 3rd leading cause of death worldwide
 - Increasing due to rising smoking in Africa & Asia
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◆ Risk Factors

Primary:

-  Cigarette smoking (MOST IMPORTANT)

- 35-50% of heavy smokers develop COPD
- ~80% of COPD attributable to smoking

Additional:

- Poor lung development early in life
 - Environmental & occupational pollutants
 - Airway hyperresponsiveness
 - Genetic polymorphisms
 - Women appear more susceptible
-

◆ Pathogenesis of COPD

Chronic exposure to noxious particles (smoke) →

Persistent airway inflammation → Mucus hypersecretion

→ Small airway narrowing → Alveolar wall destruction

→ Loss of elastic recoil → Air trapping → Progressive airflow limitation

◆ Why Emphysema and Chronic Bronchitis Coexist?

Smoking → Chronic bronchial irritation → Mucus gland hyperplasia (bronchitis) → Inflammatory destruction of alveoli (emphysema)

Same risk factor → overlapping pathology → combined airflow obstruction.

Viva Pearls

- ✓ $FEV_1/FVC < 0.7$ = Obstructive disease
 - ✓ Restrictive diseases have normal FEV_1/FVC ratio
 - ✓ Smoking causes both emphysema & chronic bronchitis
 - ✓ ARDS is acute restrictive disease
 - ✓ COPD is preventable and treatable
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One-Line Summary

Obstructive diseases impair expiration with \downarrow FEV1/FVC ratio, whereas restrictive diseases impair lung expansion with reduced FVC but normal FEV1/FVC ratio; COPD (emphysema + chronic bronchitis) is the most important chronic obstructive disorder. 🫁✨

🫁 EMPHYSEMA

◆ Definition

Emphysema is characterized by:

- ✓ Permanent enlargement of air spaces distal to terminal bronchioles
- ✓ Destruction of alveolar walls
- ✓ ✗ No significant fibrosis

🎯 Key phrase for exams:

“Permanent enlargement + wall destruction without fibrosis.”

◆ Basic Anatomy Refresher

Terminal bronchiole → Respiratory bronchiole → Alveolar ducts → Alveolar sacs → Alveoli

This entire structure distal to terminal bronchiole = Acinus

Cluster of 3-5 acini = Lobule

🔥 Classification of Emphysema (Based on Anatomic Distribution)

1 Centriacinar (Centrilobular)

2 Panacinar (Panlobular)

③ Distal Acinar (Paraseptal)

④ Irregular

⚠ Only Centriacinar and Panacinar are associated with COPD.

Centriacinar is ~20 times more common than panacinar.

☐ CENTRIACINAR (CENTRILOBULAR) EMPHYSEMA

◆ Definition

Involves the central/proximal part of acinus

Distal alveoli are initially spared.

So within one acinus:

Normal alveoli + emphysematous alveoli coexist.

◆ Distribution

- More common in upper lobes

- Especially apical segments
 - Strongly associated with cigarette smoking
-

- ◆ Pathogenesis (Simplified Mechanism)

Cigarette smoke → Chronic airway inflammation →
Neutrophil recruitment → Protease release (elastase) →
Destruction of central acinar walls → Airspace
enlargement

- ◆ Clinical Association

- ✓ Smokers
 - ✓ Often accompanied by chronic bronchitis
 - ✓ Most common type in COPD
-

- ◆ Advanced Disease

Progression → Distal acinus also involved → Difficult to differentiate from panacinar type

② PANACINAR (PANLOBULAR) EMPHYSEMA

◆ Definition

Entire acinus uniformly enlarged

From respiratory bronchiole → terminal alveoli

No normal alveoli within affected acinus.

◆ Distribution

- More common in lower lung zones
 - Associated with α 1-antitrypsin deficiency
-

◆ Pathogenesis

α 1-antitrypsin deficiency \rightarrow Reduced antiprotease activity \rightarrow Unopposed elastase action \rightarrow Diffuse alveolar wall destruction \rightarrow Uniform acinar enlargement

◆ Key Differences from Centriacinar

Feature	Centriacinar	Panacinar
Part involved	Central acinus	Entire acinus
Distribution	Upper lobes	Lower lobes
Cause	Smoking	α 1-antitrypsin deficiency
COPD association	Very common	Less common

③ DISTAL ACINAR (PARASEPTAL) EMPHYSEMA

◆ Definition

Primarily involves distal acinus

(Area distal to respiratory bronchiole)

◆ Location

- Near pleura
 - Along lobular connective tissue septa
 - Adjacent to fibrosis or scarring
 - More severe in upper lungs
-

◆ Characteristic Morphology

Multiple enlarged air spaces

Size range:

< 0.5 mm → > 2 cm

With progression: → Coalesce → Form bullae

- ◆ Clinical Significance

Most common in young adults

Often presents as:

Distal emphysema → Subpleural bullae → Rupture →
Air enters pleural cavity → Spontaneous pneumothorax

4 IRREGULAR EMPHYSEMA

- ◆ Definition

Irregular involvement of acinus.

- ◆ Key Feature

Almost always associated with scarring

Often seen in:

- Healed infections
- Old tuberculosis

- Fibrotic areas
-

- ◆ Clinical Significance

- ✓ Usually small foci
 - ✓ Clinically insignificant
-

🔥 Morphologic Changes in Emphysema

Alveolar wall destruction → Loss of elastic fibers →
Decreased elastic recoil → Air trapping → Hyperinflation

🔥 Pathophysiologic Flowchart

Smoking / α 1-antitrypsin deficiency → Imbalance
between proteases and antiproteases → Excess elastase
activity → Destruction of alveolar septa → Loss of
elastic recoil → Air trapping → Hyperinflated lungs →
Expiratory airflow limitation

🔥 Gross Appearance

- Overdistended lungs
- Increased lung volume
- Pale lungs
- Large air spaces
- Bullae in advanced cases

🔥 Why No Significant Fibrosis?

Because primary pathology is:

Alveolar wall destruction

NOT collagen deposition

That's why definition specifically mentions:

"Without significant fibrosis" 🎯

🔥 Comparison of All Types

Type	Acinar Involvement	Common Location	Cause	Clinical Relevance
Centriacinar	Central part	Upper lobes	Smoking	Most common
Panacinar	Entire acinus	Lower lobes	α 1-AT deficiency	Severe
Distal acinar	Distal part	Subpleural	Unknown	Pneumothorax
Irregular	Irregular	Fibrotic areas	Scarring	Insignificant

Viva Pearls

- ✓ Most common type → Centriacinar
- ✓ Smoking → Centriacinar
- ✓ α 1-antitrypsin deficiency → Panacinar
- ✓ Young adult with spontaneous pneumothorax → Think distal acinar

- ✓ No fibrosis in emphysema
 - ✓ Only centriacinar & panacinar are true COPD patterns
-

Summary

Emphysema is permanent enlargement of distal air spaces with alveolar wall destruction and no fibrosis, most commonly centriacinar type due to smoking, while panacinar type is associated with α 1-antitrypsin deficiency.  

PATHOGENESIS OF EMPHYSEMA

Emphysema develops due to chronic exposure to cigarette smoke or noxious particles, especially in genetically susceptible individuals.

Core Concept 🎯:

Protease-Antiprotease Imbalance + Oxidative Stress →
Alveolar Wall Destruction

📌 Inflammatory Cells & Mediators

Cigarette smoke → Activation of airway epithelial cells & macrophages → Release of inflammatory mediators:

- Leukotriene B₄
 - IL-8 (chemotactic for neutrophils)
 - TNF- α
 - Other cytokines & growth factors
-

🔥 What Do These Mediators Do?

Release of cytokines → Recruitment of inflammatory cells (chemotaxis) → Neutrophils/Macrophages → CD4+ and CD8+ T cells → Amplification of inflammation → Structural lung damage

⚠ Note: Specific antigen triggering T cells is unknown.

② Protease-Antiprotease Imbalance ★ (Most Important Mechanism)

◆ Normal Situation

Neutrophils release proteases (e.g., elastase) →
 α 1-antitrypsin (antiprotease) neutralizes them → Lung tissue protected

🔥 In Emphysema

Inflammation → Excess protease release (especially elastase) → Breakdown of elastin & connective tissue → Alveolar septal destruction

Simultaneously:

↓ Antiprotease activity → Proteases act unchecked → Progressive parenchymal destruction

③ Oxidative Stress

Cigarette smoke contains:

- Reactive oxygen species (ROS)
- Free radicals
- Oxidative particles

These cause:

Direct epithelial damage

AND

Stimulate macrophages & neutrophils → Release additional ROS

Effects of ROS

ROS → Direct tissue injury → Inactivation of α 1-antitrypsin → Worsening protease activity → Accelerated alveolar destruction

🎯 Smoking worsens both inflammation AND antiprotease deficiency.

4 Airway Infection

Infections:

- Do NOT initiate emphysema
- BUT cause acute exacerbations

They increase inflammation temporarily.

α 1-Antitrypsin Deficiency

- ◆ What is α 1-Antitrypsin?
 - Major inhibitor of neutrophil elastase
 - Present in serum, tissue fluids, macrophages
 - Encoded by Pi locus on chromosome 14
-

◆ Genetics

Pi locus is polymorphic.

ZZ genotype → Markedly decreased α 1-antitrypsin levels

- ~0.01% of U.S. population homozygous
 - 80% develop symptomatic emphysema
 - Occurs earlier & more severe if smoker
-

🔥 Pathogenesis Flowchart in α 1-AT Deficiency

Genetic mutation (ZZ genotype) → ↓ α 1-antitrypsin levels → Unopposed neutrophil elastase → Diffuse alveolar destruction → Panacinar emphysema (lower lobes)

🔥 Complete Pathogenesis Flow

Cigarette smoke / α 1-AT deficiency → Chronic inflammation → Neutrophil & macrophage activation →

Protease release (elastase) → ROS production →
Antiprotease inactivation → Elastin breakdown → Loss
of alveolar septa → Loss of elastic recoil → Air trapping
→ Expiratory airway collapse → Airflow obstruction

Why Airflow Obstruction Occurs in Emphysema

Small airways are normally kept open by radial traction
from surrounding alveoli.

Alveolar wall destruction → Loss of elastic tissue →
Reduced radial traction → Bronchiolar collapse during
expiration → Functional airflow obstruction

⚠ No mechanical blockage — purely functional collapse.



MORPHOLOGY OF EMPHYSEMA

Diagnosis & classification depend largely on gross appearance.

◆ Gross Morphology

Panacinar Emphysema

- Pale lungs
 - Very voluminous
 - Overdistended
 - May obscure heart during autopsy
-

Centriacinar Emphysema

- Less dramatic gross appearance
 - Upper lobes more affected
 - Lungs deeper pink than panacinar type
 - Lower lobes relatively spared
-

◆ Microscopic Features

- ✓ Destruction of alveolar walls
 - ✓ Enlarged air spaces
 - ✓ No significant fibrosis
 - ✓ Reduced alveolar capillaries
 - ✓ Deformed terminal & respiratory bronchioles
 - ✓ Bronchiolar inflammation in advanced disease
 - ✓ Submucosal fibrosis in late stages
-

Why Capillaries Decrease?

Alveolar septal destruction → Capillary bed loss →
Reduced surface area for gas exchange → Dyspnea

 Morphology Summary Table

Feature	Panacinar	Centriacinar
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Gross size	Very large	Mildly enlarged
Color	Pale	Deeper pink
Lobe involvement	Lower lobes	Upper lobes
Capillary loss	Marked	Present
Fibrosis	Absent	Absent

Exam Pearls

- ✓ Central mechanism → Protease-antiprotease imbalance
- ✓ Smoking inactivates $\alpha 1$ -antitrypsin
- ✓ ZZ genotype → severe early panacinar emphysema
- ✓ Loss of elastic recoil → airway collapse during expiration
- ✓ No fibrosis (distinguishes from interstitial lung)

disease)

✓ Capillary loss → contributes to hypoxemia

Summary

Emphysema results from chronic inflammation and protease-antiprotease imbalance leading to alveolar wall destruction, loss of elastic recoil, air trapping, and expiratory airflow limitation without significant fibrosis.

Chronic Bronchitis (COPD Component)

Definition

Chronic bronchitis is defined clinically as:

Productive cough for ≥ 3 months per year for at least 2 consecutive years

⚠ Unlike emphysema (anatomic definition), chronic bronchitis is defined clinically.

Epidemiology

Common in:

- Cigarette smokers
- Urban dwellers exposed to air pollution
- Smog-exposed industrial populations

Smoking = most important risk factor.

PATHOGENESIS

 Core Mechanism:

Mucus hypersecretion + Small airway disease → Airflow obstruction

1] Environmental Irritants

Major causes:

- Cigarette smoke (most important)
- Sulfur dioxide
- Nitrogen dioxide
- Other air pollutants

These irritants cause epithelial injury and chronic inflammation.

2] Mucus Hypersecretion (Hallmark)

Starts in large airways (trachea and bronchi).

Mechanisms:

Environmental irritants → Cytokine release (e.g., IL-13 from T cells) →

1. Hypertrophy of mucous glands (submucosal glands enlarge)

2. Increased goblet cells in bronchi & bronchioles
3. Increased mucin production

Result → Excess mucus production → Persistent productive cough

③ Inflammation

Inflammatory infiltrate includes:

- Macrophages
- Neutrophils
- Lymphocytes

⚠ Important Difference from Asthma:

No prominent eosinophils in chronic bronchitis.

Smoking also increases:

- Neutrophil elastase
 - Mucin gene expression
-

④ Small Airway Disease (Chronic Bronchiolitis) ★

Although mucus hypersecretion occurs in large airways, airflow obstruction results mainly from small airway disease.

Mechanisms:

- Mucus plugging of bronchioles
- Chronic inflammation
- Submucosal fibrosis
- Goblet cell metaplasia

Submucosal fibrosis → Luminal narrowing → Airflow limitation

In severe cases → Bronchiolitis obliterans (complete luminal obliteration)

⑤ Role of Infection

- Not primary cause
- Secondary role

- Maintains inflammation
 - Causes acute exacerbations
-

MORPHOLOGY

Gross Appearance

- Hyperemic (red) bronchial mucosa
 - Edematous swelling
 - Thick mucinous or mucopurulent secretions
 - Smaller bronchioles may also be plugged
-

Microscopic Features

Enlarged Mucus-Secreting Glands (Diagnostic Feature)

Seen in trachea & large bronchi.

Measured using:

Reid Index

Reid Index =

Thickness of submucosal gland layer

Thickness of bronchial wall (excluding cartilage)

Normal: ≤ 0.4 (40%)

Chronic bronchitis: > 0.5 (50%)

- ✓ Reflects gland hypertrophy
 - ✓ Correlates with mucus hypersecretion
-

② Inflammatory Infiltrate

- Lymphocytes
 - Macrophages
 - Sometimes neutrophils
-

③ Small Airway Changes

- Goblet cell metaplasia
- Mucus plugging
- Inflammation
- Submucosal fibrosis

Severe fibrosis → Bronchiolitis obliterans

4 Coexisting Emphysema

Common in heavy smokers → Many patients have mixed COPD

Pathogenesis Flowchart (Integrated)

Smoking / Air pollution → Chronic epithelial irritation →
Cytokine release (IL-13) → Mucous gland hypertrophy →
Goblet cell hyperplasia → Excess mucus

AND

→ Chronic bronchiolitis → Inflammation + fibrosis →
Small airway narrowing → Airflow obstruction

⚠ Functional Consequences

Mucus plugging + Small airway fibrosis → Increased
airway resistance → Air trapping → V/Q mismatch →
Hypoxemia

Chronic hypoxemia →

- Secondary polycythemia
 - Pulmonary hypertension
 - Cor pulmonale
-

vs Chronic Bronchitis vs Emphysema

Feature	Chronic Bronchitis	Emphysema
Definition	Clinical	Anatomical

Main problem	Mucus hypersecretion	Alveolar destruction
Reid index	Increased (>0.5)	Normal
Elastic recoil	Normal initially	Decreased
Fibrosis	Present (small airways)	Absent
Hypoxemia	Early & severe	Late

Exam Pearls

- ✓ Chronic bronchitis is defined clinically, not morphologically
- ✓ Smoking is the main cause
- ✓ Hallmark = mucus gland enlargement
- ✓ Reid index > 0.5
- ✓ Airflow obstruction due to small airway fibrosis

- ✓ Eosinophils absent (unlike asthma)
 - ✓ Infection causes exacerbations, not primary disease
-

Summary

Chronic bronchitis is a smoking-related disease characterized by mucus gland enlargement, goblet cell hyperplasia, and small airway fibrosis leading to persistent productive cough and airflow obstruction.



Clinical Features of COPD

COPD includes:

- Chronic bronchitis
 - Emphysema
 - Or mixed disease (most common)
-

GENERAL CLINICAL FEATURES

1] Dyspnea (Most Important Symptom)

- Usually first symptom
 - Insidious onset
 - Slowly progressive
 - Worsens with exertion
-

2] Cough

- Prominent in chronic bronchitis
 - Productive (muroid or mucopurulent sputum)
 - May precede dyspnea
-

3] Wheezing

- Especially in chronic asthmatic bronchitis
 - Due to airway narrowing
-

4) Weight Loss

- Common
- Can be severe
- May mimic occult malignancy

Cause:

- Increased work of breathing
- Systemic inflammation
- Poor appetite

Pulmonary Function Tests (PFTs)

Parameter	Change in COPD
FEV ₁	↓ ↓ ↓
FVC	Normal or mildly ↓
FEV ₁ /FVC ratio	↓ (<70%)

👉 Obstructive pattern = reduced FEV₁ /FVC ratio

CLINICAL SPECTRUM

COPD exists on a spectrum:

● "Pink Puffer" – Predominant Emphysema

Classic Features:

- Barrel chest
- Severe dyspnea
- Prolonged expiration
- Sitting forward (tripod position)
- Hyperventilation

Imaging:

- Hyperinflated lungs
- Flattened diaphragm

Pathophysiology:

- Severe airspace enlargement
- ↓ Diffusion capacity (↓ DLCO)
- Loss of capillary bed

Despite severe dyspnea:

- Blood gases relatively normal until late
- Minimal early hypoxia
- No significant CO₂ retention initially

Late Complications:

Loss of capillary surface area

- Hypoxia-induced vasoconstriction → Pulmonary hypertension → Cor pulmonale (right heart failure)

Occurs in ~20-30% of cases.

● "Blue Bloater" – Predominant Chronic Bronchitis

Classic Features:

- Chronic productive cough
 - Recurrent infections
 - Less severe dyspnea initially
 - Overweight/obese common
 - Cyanosis
-

Pathophysiology:

- Poor ventilation
- CO₂ retention
- Hypoxemia

Because respiratory drive is not markedly increased: →
Hypercapnia develops early → Hypoxia → Cyanosis

Complications:

- Frequent exacerbations
 - Faster disease progression
 - Pulmonary hypertension
 - Cor pulmonale
 - Respiratory failure
-

⚠ Important Note

10-30% of COPD patients have obstructive sleep apnea.

📍 Major Complications of Progressive COPD

1. Pulmonary hypertension
 2. Cor pulmonale (right-sided heart failure)
 3. Recurrent infections
 4. Respiratory failure
-



EMPHYSEMATOUS CONDITIONS OTHER THAN COPD

These involve abnormal air accumulation but are distinct from classic COPD.

1) Compensatory Emphysema

Definition:

Dilation of remaining alveoli after lung tissue loss.

Example:

After lobectomy or pneumonectomy.

- ✓ Not destructive
 - ✓ Not true COPD
-

2) Obstructive Overinflation

Cause:

Partial airway obstruction by:

- Tumor
- Foreign body

Mechanism:

Air enters during inspiration

Cannot exit during expiration → Air trapping →

Overexpansion

⚠ Can compress normal lung

⚠ Potentially life-threatening

3 Bullous Emphysema

Definition:

Large air-filled spaces (>1 cm) called bullae

Most often:

- Subpleural
- Due to localized emphysema

Risk:

Bullae rupture → Pneumothorax

④ Mediastinal (Interstitial) Emphysema

Cause:

Alveolar rupture → Air dissects into interstitium

Triggers:

- Violent coughing
- Vomiting
- Positive pressure ventilation
- Rib fracture

Air may track to:

- Mediastinum
- Subcutaneous tissue

If subcutaneous: → Swelling of head & neck → Crepitus
(crackling sensation)

Usually resolves spontaneously.

Quick Exam-Oriented Comparison

Feature	Emphysema	Chronic Bronchitis
Body type	Thin	Overweight
Dyspnea	Severe early	Mild initially
Cyanosis	Late	Early
CO ₂ retention	Late	Early
Infections	Less frequent	Frequent
DLCO	Decreased	Normal
Cor pulmonale	Late	Early

- ✓ COPD = irreversible airflow obstruction
 - ✓ $FEV_1 / FVC < 70\%$
 - ✓ Pink puffers maintain oxygenation until late
 - ✓ Blue bloaters develop early hypoxia & hypercapnia
 - ✓ Cor pulmonale is a major cause of death
 - ✓ Bullae rupture → pneumothorax
 - ✓ Subcutaneous emphysema → crepitus
-

Summary

COPD presents with progressive dyspnea and airflow obstruction, ranging from hyperventilating “pink puffers” (emphysema) to hypoxic “blue bloaters” (chronic bronchitis), ultimately leading to pulmonary hypertension, cor pulmonale, and respiratory failure.  

ASTHMA

Definition

Asthma is a chronic inflammatory disorder of the airways characterized by:

- Recurrent bronchospasm
 - Wheezing
 - Breathlessness
 - Chest tightness
 - Cough (especially at night or early morning)
-

Hallmarks of Asthma

- 1] Intermittent, reversible airway obstruction
 - 2] Chronic airway inflammation (eosinophils prominent)
 - 3] Bronchial smooth muscle hypertrophy & hyperreactivity
 - 4] Increased mucus secretion
-

 Epidemiology

- Increasing incidence in affluent countries
- Often begins in childhood
- Strong association with atopy

Hygiene Hypothesis

Reduced early-life microbial exposure → Immune system skewed toward Th2 response → Increased allergic disease

(Attractive theory, but not fully proven mechanistically.)



PATHOGENESIS

Asthma results from interaction of:

1. Genetic predisposition (atopy)
 2. Chronic airway inflammation
 3. Bronchial hyperresponsiveness
-

◆ Types of Asthma

Type	Mechanism
Atopic (Extrinsic)	IgE-mediated Type I hypersensitivity
Nonatopic (Intrinsic)	Triggered by infections, irritants
Drug-induced	e.g, Aspirin
Occupational	Fumes, dust, chemicals

Genetic Factors

- Familial clustering common
- GWAS identified multiple susceptibility genes
- Important genes: IL-4 receptor pathway
- Genetics complex and multifactorial

CORE IMMUNOLOGIC MECHANISM

Both atopic and nonatopic asthma involve:

-  Mast cell activation
-  Eosinophil recruitment
-  Release of mediators

→ Bronchoconstriction → Inflammation → Mucus hypersecretion

Difference lies in the trigger mechanism.

ATOPIC ASTHMA (Most Common)

Classic example of Type I IgE-mediated hypersensitivity.

Clinical Clues

- Begins in childhood
- Family history of atopy

- Allergic rhinitis, eczema, urticaria common
 - Triggered by:
 - Dust
 - Pollen
 - Animal dander
 - Food
 - Viral infections
-

Diagnosis

- Episodic symptoms
 - Airflow obstruction reversible with bronchodilator
 - Positive skin test (wheal & flare reaction)
 - Elevated serum IgE
-

Immunologic Mechanism (Stepwise)

- ◆ Step 1: Allergen Sensitization

Allergen exposure → Activation of Th2 cells → Cytokine release:

Cytokine	Function
IL-4	IgE production
IL-13	IgE production + mucus secretion
IL-5	Eosinophil recruitment & activation

- ◆ Step 2: IgE Production

IL-4 & IL-13 → B cells produce IgE → IgE binds Fc receptors on mast cells

Mast cells become sensitized.

- ◆ Step 3: Re-exposure to Allergen

Allergen cross-links IgE on mast cells → Mast cell degranulation → Release of mediators

TWO PHASES OF ASTHMATIC REACTION

I Early (Immediate) Phase

Occurs within minutes.

Mediators Released:

- Histamine
- Prostaglandin D₂
- Leukotrienes C₄, D₄, E₄

Effects:

- Bronchoconstriction
- Vasodilation
- Increased mucus secretion

Result → Acute wheezing attack

② Late Phase (4-8 Hours Later)

Inflammatory phase.

Mediators stimulate epithelial cells → Release chemokines (e.g., eotaxin) → Recruit:

- Th2 cells
- Eosinophils
- Neutrophils

Result:

Persistent airway inflammation

Prolonged bronchospasm

Role of Eosinophils

Eosinophils release:

- Major basic protein

- Leukotrienes
- Cytokines

These:

- Damage epithelium
 - Sustain inflammation
 - Increase airway hyperreactivity
-

Airway Remodeling (Chronic Change)

Repeated inflammation → Structural changes in bronchial wall:

1. Smooth muscle hypertrophy
2. Mucus gland enlargement
3. Goblet cell hyperplasia
4. Increased vascularity
5. Subepithelial fibrosis (collagen deposition)

⚠ May begin years before symptoms.

Charcot-Leyden Crystals

Seen in asthmatic mucus.

Derived from:

Galectin-10 protein from eosinophils

They may act as pro-inflammatory factors.

Spirometry in Asthma

Parameter	Finding
FEV1	↓
FEV1/FVC	↓
Reversibility	Improves after bronchodilator

Reversibility distinguishes asthma from COPD.

Asthma vs COPD

Feature	Asthma	COPD
Age	Childhood	>40 yrs
Reversibility	Yes	No
Eosinophils	Present	Absent (usually)
IgE	Elevated	Normal
Smoking link	Not required	Strong
DLCO	Normal	↓ in emphysema

Summary

Asthma is a chronic inflammatory airway disease characterized by IgE-mediated mast cell activation, eosinophilic inflammation, reversible bronchospasm, and progressive airway remodeling. 🫁 ✨

● NONATOPIC (INTRINSIC) ASTHMA

📌 Definition

Asthma without allergen sensitization.

- Skin tests → Negative
 - Serum IgE → Usually normal
 - Family history → Less common
-

🔥 Common Triggers

- Viral respiratory infections
 - Rhinovirus
 - Parainfluenza virus

- Air pollutants
 - Sulfur dioxide
 - Ozone
 - Nitrogen dioxide
 - Cold air
 - Exercise
 - Emotional stress
-

Pathogenesis

Viral infection → Inflammation of respiratory mucosa →
Lowers threshold of subepithelial vagal receptors →
Hyperreactive airway response to irritants

Although the trigger is non-allergic:

 Final mediators are similar to atopic asthma:

- Mast cells
- Eosinophils
- Cytokines

Thus:

Inflammation + Bronchoconstriction + Mucus production

✓ Treatment is similar to atopic asthma.

Drug-Induced Asthma

 Most Important Example: Aspirin

Classic Triad:

1. Recurrent rhinitis
2. Nasal polyps
3. Bronchospasm

Often associated with:

- Urticaria
-

 Mechanism

Aspirin inhibits cyclooxygenase (COX) → ↓ Prostaglandin synthesis → Shunting toward leukotriene pathway → ↑ Leukotrienes (potent bronchoconstrictors)

Result:

Severe bronchospasm



Occupational Asthma

Triggered by workplace exposures:

- Fumes (epoxy resins, plastics)
- Organic dust (wood, cotton)
- Chemical dust (platinum salts)
- Gases (toluene)

Key feature:

Symptoms develop after repeated exposure.

Mechanism may be:

- IgE-mediated

- Or direct irritant effect
-



MORPHOLOGY OF ASTHMA

Seen in:

- Fatal asthma
 - Bronchial biopsies after allergen challenge
-



Gross Findings (Fatal Asthma)

- Lungs overinflated (air trapping)
 - Hyperinflation
 - Small areas of atelectasis
-



Most Striking Finding

Bronchi & bronchioles occluded by:

Thick, tenacious mucus plugs

Containing:

Curschmann Spirals

- Whorled, shed epithelial cells in mucus

Charcot-Leyden Crystals

- Derived from eosinophil protein (galectin-10)
 - Marker of eosinophilic inflammation
-

Airway Remodeling (Chronic Changes)

Repeated inflammation → Structural alterations:

- 1] Thickened airway wall
- 2] Sub-basement membrane fibrosis
- 3] Increased vascularity
- 4] Mucus gland enlargement
- 5] Goblet cell metaplasia
- 6] Smooth muscle hypertrophy & hyperplasia

⚠ These changes may precede symptoms by years.

Clinical Features of Asthma

Typical Attack

- Severe dyspnea
- Episodic wheezing
- Chest tightness
- Prolonged expiration
- Nighttime cough
- Air trapping → Hyperinflation

Attacks usually:

- Last 1-several hours
- Resolve spontaneously or with therapy

Between attacks:

- Often asymptomatic
- Subtle abnormalities detectable on PFTs

Severe attack:

- Use of accessory muscles
 - Pulsus paradoxus
 - Silent chest (life-threatening)
-

Status Asthmaticus (Life-Threatening)

Severe attack:

- Does NOT respond to therapy
- Persists for days or weeks

Complications:

- Hypercapnia (CO_2 retention)
- Respiratory acidosis
- Severe hypoxia

Can be fatal if untreated.



Pulmonary Function in Asthma

Parameter	Finding
FEV1	↓
FEV1/FVC	↓
Reversibility	Improves after bronchodilator

Key distinguishing feature from COPD:

- ✓ Reversible airflow obstruction.
-



Treatment Overview

- ◆ Mild Disease
 - Short-acting β_2 -agonists (bronchodilators)
 - Inhaled glucocorticoids
 - Leukotriene inhibitors

◆ Severe Th2-Mediated Asthma

If high:

- Eosinophils
- IgE
- IL-4 / IL-5 activity

Biologic therapies:

- Anti-IgE antibodies
- Anti-IL-5 antibodies
- Anti-IL-4 receptor blockers

These target immune mediators directly.

Quick Comparison: Atopic vs Nonatopic Asthma

Feature	Atopic	Nonatopic
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IgE	Elevated	Normal
Skin test	Positive	Negative
Family history	Common	Less common
Trigger	Allergen	Infection, irritants
Mechanism	Th2-mediated	Non-immune trigger
Final mediators	Same	Same

Exam Pearls

- ✓ Asthma = reversible airway obstruction
- ✓ Eosinophils are hallmark inflammatory cells
- ✓ Curschmann spirals = mucus plugs with epithelial whorls
- ✓ Charcot-Leyden crystals = eosinophil protein crystals

- ✓ Aspirin asthma → leukotriene excess
 - ✓ Status asthmaticus → medical emergency
-

Summary

Asthma is a chronic inflammatory airway disease characterized by reversible bronchospasm, eosinophilic inflammation, mucus plugging, and progressive airway remodeling, triggered by allergic or non-allergic stimuli.



Bronchiectasis

Definition

Bronchiectasis is permanent dilation of bronchi and bronchioles due to:

- Destruction of smooth muscle
- Loss of elastic tissue

It occurs secondary to chronic infection or obstruction

👉 It is never a primary disease.

🎯 Core Clinical Feature

- ✓ Persistent cough
- ✓ Copious purulent sputum
- ✓ Recurrent infections

Diagnosis requires:

- Suggestive history
 - Radiologic evidence of bronchial dilation (HRCT best)
-

🔥 Predisposing Conditions

☐ Bronchial Obstruction

Localized bronchiectasis occurs when obstruction affects a segment.

Causes:

- Tumors
 - Foreign bodies
 - Mucus impaction
 - Complication of asthma
 - Chronic bronchitis
-

2] Congenital / Hereditary Disorders

Cystic Fibrosis

- Thick, viscid mucus
 - Airway obstruction
 - Recurrent infection → Severe, diffuse bronchiectasis
-

Immunodeficiency (especially Ig deficiency)

- Recurrent bacterial infections
 - Localized or diffuse bronchiectasis
-

Primary Ciliary Dyskinesia (Immotile Cilia Syndrome)

Autosomal recessive disorder

Defective cilia → Impaired mucociliary clearance →

Persistent infection → Bronchiectasis

Associated with:

- Male infertility
 - Sinusitis
-

③ Necrotizing (Suppurative) Pneumonia

Virulent organisms:

- Staphylococcus aureus
- Klebsiella species

Post-tuberculosis bronchiectasis is common in endemic areas.

Advanced bronchiectasis has also been reported after severe viral pneumonia (e.g., SARS-CoV-2).



PATHOGENESIS

Two key intertwined mechanisms:

1] Obstruction

2] Chronic infection

Either can initiate the process.

Pathogenic Cycle

Obstruction → Impaired clearance of secretions →

Secondary infection → Inflammatory damage to bronchial

wall → Weakening of smooth muscle & elastic tissue → Irreversible dilation

OR

Necrotizing infection → Bronchial wall destruction → Poor secretion clearance → Peribronchial fibrosis → Traction and dilation

Result: Permanent structural damage



MORPHOLOGY

Gross Findings

- Usually affects bilateral lower lobes
- Most vertical airways most affected
- In obstruction → localized to one segment

Bronchi:

- Dilated up to 4x normal diameter
- Visible almost to pleural surface

(Normal bronchioles are not visible beyond 2-3 cm from pleura.)

Microscopic Findings

Depends on activity:

Active Disease

- Acute + chronic inflammatory infiltrate
- Epithelial desquamation
- Ulceration
- Mucopurulent exudate

Common organisms:

- Staphylococci
- Streptococci
- Pneumococci
- Enteric bacteria

- Anaerobes
 - Haemophilus influenzae (children)
 - Pseudomonas aeruginosa
-

Chronic Disease

- Fibrosis of bronchial walls
- Peribronchiolar fibrosis
- Persistent abnormal dilation

Severe necrosis may form: → Lung abscess cavity

Clinical Features

Classic Symptoms

- ✓ Persistent cough
- ✓ Copious mucopurulent sputum
- ✓ Foul-smelling sputum
- ✓ Hemoptysis

- ✓ Dyspnea
 - ✓ Rhinosinusitis
-

Episodic Exacerbations

Triggered by:

- Upper respiratory infections
 - New pathogens
-

Severe Complications

Widespread disease may lead to:

- Obstructive ventilatory defect
- Hypoxemia
- Hypercapnia
- Pulmonary hypertension
- Cor pulmonale

Less common now (due to treatment):

- Brain abscess
 - Secondary amyloidosis
 - Cor pulmonale
-

Pulmonary Function

Usually obstructive pattern:

- ↓ FEV₁
 - ↓ FEV₁ /FVC
 - Air trapping
-

Management Overview

- Antibiotics (target infection)
 - Airway clearance techniques
 - Bronchodilators
 - Surgical resection (localized severe disease)
-

Quick Comparison: Bronchiectasis vs Asthma vs COPD

Feature	Bronchiectasis	Asthma	COPD
Reversibility	No	Yes	No
Sputum	Copious purulent	Minimal	Mucoid
Cause	Infection/obstruction	Hypersensitivity	Smoking
Airway dilation	Permanent	No	No
Hemoptysis	Common	Rare	Rare

- ✓ Always secondary to infection or obstruction
 - ✓ Permanent bronchial dilation
 - ✓ Lower lobes commonly affected
 - ✓ Copious foul-smelling sputum
 - ✓ HRCT is diagnostic
 - ✓ Common in cystic fibrosis
 - ✓ Complications: cor pulmonale, brain abscess
-

Summary

Bronchiectasis is an irreversible dilation of bronchi caused by chronic infection and obstruction, presenting with persistent cough and copious purulent sputum, often leading to recurrent infections and obstructive lung disease.  

-> The End <-