

Biologics in the Treatment of Severe Uncontrolled Asthma in Children

Nightingale Syabbalo

Professor of Physiology and Medicine, Nabanji Medical Centre, Lusaka, ZAMBIA.

Corresponding Author: Nightingale Syabbalo, Professor of Physiology and Medicine, Nabanji Medical Centre, Lusaka, ZAMBIA.

Received Date: June 4, 2021; Accepted Date: June 17, 2021; Published Date: June 30, 2021

Citation: Nightingale Syabbalo (2021). Biologics in the Treatment of Severe Uncontrolled Asthma in Children. *J Thoracic Disease and Cardiothoracic Surgery*, 2(2); DOI:10.31579/2693-2156/024

Copyright: © 2021, Nightingale Syabbalo. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Abstract

Asthma is the most common chronic disease in children, currently affecting about 7 million children. Severe uncontrolled asthma is rare in children with a prevalence of about 2.1% to 5%, but inflicts a disproportionate health burden. Children with severe asthma have increased risk of life threatening exacerbations, frequent hospitalization, worsening health-related quality of life, and impaired physical activity. Severe asthma in childhood is associated with long-term morbidities, such as bronchiolitis obliterans, impaired airway development, and development of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in adulthood. Childhood asthma like adult-onset asthma, is classified into four cellular inflammatory phenotypes using induced sputum cytometry. The four phenotypes of asthma include eosinophilic asthma, neutrophilic asthma, paucigranulocytic asthma, and mixed cellularity asthma. The pathophysiological mechanisms of asthma involve airway inflammation and remodeling. Inflammatory mediators such as cytokines, chemokines, adhesion molecules, and growth factors play a key role in orchestration airway remodeling. During airway inflammation, cytokines secreted by type 2 helper (Th2) lymphocytes, such as interleukin-5 (IL-5), IL-4, IL-13, IL-25, IL-33, and thymic stromal lymphopoietin (TSLP) play a key role in the pathogenesis of eosinophilic asthma. Whereas, the Th17 axis cytokines, including IL-17, IL-23, and IL-8 are responsible for the pathophysiology of neutrophilic asthma. The airway structural changes due to airway remodeling lead to thickening of the airway wall, narrowing of the bronchiolar lumen, airway obstruction, and decline in pulmonary function. Most of the children with asthma respond to low and medium inhaled corticosteroids, however a significant proportion still have severe asthma uncontrolled on the standard of care. The most common asthma phenotype in children is eosinophilic asthma, which responds superbly to biologic therapy. Children with severe asthma require add-on targeted interleukin antagonists (ILA), such as mepolizumab (anti-IL-5), benralizumab (anti-IL-5R α), and dupilumab (anti-4R α). ILAs have been shown to ameliorate asthma symptoms, reduce moderate and severe exacerbations, and improve pulmonary function. Additionally, ILAs have been demonstrated to improve the health-related quality of life, and have steroid sparing effect.

Key words: airway remodeling; biologics; childhood asthma; interleukins; eosinophilic asthma; severe exacerbations; pathophysiology; obesity

Introduction

Asthma is a significant public health problem, affecting more than 358 million people globally [1], and is the most common chronic disease among children [3,4], affecting about 7 million children [4]. Asthma is a heterogeneous chronic airway disease with several distinct phenotypes characterized by different immunopathological pathways, clinical presentation, physiology, co-morbidities, biomarker of allergic inflammation, and response to treatment [5-10]. There are four cellular inflammatory phenotypes of asthma classified using induced sputum cytometry. The four phenotypes of asthma include eosinophilic asthma, neutrophilic asthma, paucigranulocytic asthma, and mixed cellularity asthma [7,11]. Patients with eosinophilic asthma have an eosinophil count

$\geq 3\%$ [12-14], whereas patients with neutrophilic asthma have elevated sputum neutrophil count between $\geq 61\%$ [14,] and $\geq 64\%$ [15], depending on the study. Mixed cellularity phenotype is typified by increase in both eosinophils ($>3\%$), and neutrophils ($>61\%$ or $>64\%$) [15]. Paucigranulocytic phenotype includes patients with very few eosinophils ($<3\%$), and neutrophils ($<61\%$ or $<64\%$) in induced sputum [15]. Non-eosinophilic asthma designates patients with low sputum and/or blood eosinophil counts ($<3\%$), and include neutrophilic asthma, and paucigranulocytic phenotype [16].

Approximately 40-60% of patients with severe asthma have eosinophilic phenotype [17-21], whereas, the remaining patients have the non-eosinophilic phenotype. Eosinophilic asthma is the most common

phenotype in children presenting with severe acute asthma; representing about 50% of the patients [22,23]. Paucigranulocytic asthma is most common in children and adults with stable asthma [23], however, acute severe neutrophilic asthma is most common in adult patients [22,23].

The pathophysiological mechanisms of asthma involve airway inflammation and remodeling. Inflammatory mediators such as cytokines, chemokines, adhesion molecules, enzymes, and growth factors play a key role in propagating airway remodeling. During airway inflammation, cytokines secreted by type 2 helper (Th2) lymphocytes, play a key role in the pathogenesis of Th2-high eosinophilic asthma. On the other hand, the Th17 axis cytokines are responsible for the pathophysiology of Th2-low neutrophilic asthma [24].

Most children with asthma respond to low and moderate doses of inhaled corticosteroids (ICS). However, about 5% of children have severe uncontrolled asthma despite maximal standard of care, including high dose ICS, which are associated with serious side effects. Children with severe uncontrolled asthma require add-on biological treatment, such as omalizumab (anti-IgE), mepolizumab (anti-IL-5), benralizumab (anti-IL-5R α), and dupilumab (anti-4R α). ILAs have been shown to ameliorate asthma symptoms, reduce moderate and severe exacerbations, and improve pulmonary function. Additionally, ILAs have been demonstrated to improve health-related quality of life, and have steroid-sparing effects [25]. This review highlights targeted treatment of severe uncontrolled asthma using the currently approved biologics for the treatment of childhood asthma.

Pathophysiology of Asthma

The pathophysiology and immunological mechanisms in the pathogenesis of childhood asthma and adult-onset asthma are basically similar. Airway inflammation and remodeling plays a key role in the pathogenesis of childhood asthma. During airway inflammation, cytokines secreted by type 2 helper (Th2) lymphocytes (CD4+), and innate lymphoid cells

group 2 (ILC2), such as interleukin-5 (IL-5), IL-4, IL-13, IL-25, IL-33, and thymic stromal lymphopoietin (TSLP) play an important role in the pathogenesis of eosinophilic asthma [26-36]. On the other hand, Th17 cytokines (IL-17, IL-17F), IL-23, and IL-8 play a pivotal role in the pathophysiology of neutrophilic asthma [24, 37-39]. However, there is some cross-talk between the Th2 and the Th17 axes in the pathogenesis of asthma [40]. Several excellent schematic diagrams on the mechanisms and characteristic pathological features of asthma immunopathology are given elsewhere [41].

Inflammation cells, such as eosinophils, mast cells, neutrophils, basophils, and structural cells including epithelial cells, fibroblasts, myofibroblasts, and airway smooth muscle (ASM) cells also secrete inflammatory cytokines, chemokines, adhesion molecules, enzymes, and growth factors which orchestrate airway remodeling. Airway remodeling is an active process which occurs early in childhood asthma [42-45], and correlates with the severity of asthma [46-48], and is associated with fatal pediatric and adolescent asthma [49]. It occurs in both eosinophilic and non-eosinophilic asthma [50].

Airway remodeling is a complex pathophysiological process involving structural changes, such as epithelial cell metaplasia and desquamation [51]; deposition of extracellular matrix proteins by fibroblasts and myofibroblasts [52-55]; thickening of the reticular basement membrane [42,52]; subepithelial fibrosis [56]; ASM cells hyperplasia and hypertrophy [57]. Additionally, airway remodeling is accompanied by submucosal glands and goblet cells hyperplasia, and mucus hypersecretion [58,59]; and angiogenesis [50,60]. The structural changes lead to thickening of the airway wall, airway narrowing, excessive bronchoconstriction, and severe, uncontrolled asthma. Table 1 summarizes the pathophysiological mechanisms of airway remodeling in severe childhood asthma.

Epithelial cell metaplasia and desquamation
Secretion of cytokines, chemokines, adhesion molecules, and growth factors
Submucosal glands and goblet cell hyperplasia, and mucus hypersecretion
Epithelial mesenchymal transition
Activation of fibroblasts, and myofibroblasts
Deposition of extracellular matrix proteins
Reticular basement membrane thickening
Subepithelial fibrosis
Airway smooth muscle hyperplasia, and hypertrophy
Angiogenesis, vascular expansion, and vasodilatation

Table 1. Pathophysiological mechanisms of airway remodeling in severe childhood asthma

Childhood Asthma

Asthma is the most common chronic disease in childhood, affecting about 10-15% of school-age children [61]. It is most common in boys [1,62]. Severe uncontrolled asthma in children only accounts for 2 to 5% of childhood asthma [63-65], but contributes to huge costs, and utilization of health care resources [66,67]. Severe asthma is associated with significant morbidity, such as increased risk of life threatening exacerbations, frequent hospitalization, worsening health-related quality of life, and impaired physical activity [68-70]. Severe asthma in children may impair airway development and reduce maximally attained lung function, and the lung function loss may persist in adult life [62]. It is also associated with long-term morbidities, such as bronchiolitis obliterans [71]; progressive airflow limitation [70]; and development of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in adulthood [72-75]. Furthermore,

children with asthma are more susceptible to medication-related side effects, particularly with the new biologics [75].

Asthma in children is associated with co-morbidities [76,77], such as allergic rhinitis [78,79], chronic rhinosinusitis and nasal polyps [80,81], atopic dermatitis [82,83], gastroesophageal reflux disease [84,85], obstructive sleep apnea [86,87], food allergy [88], and obesity [89,90]. Obesity is associated with decreased response to inhaled corticosteroids in overweight and obese asthmatic children [91]. Co-morbid diseases associated with asthma may make asthma control difficult, they require medical and/or surgical treatment [36].

Children with severe asthma have elevated biomarkers of Th2 eosinophilic inflammation, such as high sputum and blood eosinophil counts, high IgE levels [92-94], high fractional exhaled nitric oxide

(FeNO) [95,96], and elevated serum periostin concentration [92]. Biomarkers of eosinophilic inflammation should be assessed for selection of asthmatic children for add-on treatment with biologics [96,97]. Children with persistent symptoms, and exacerbations despite correct inhaler technique and adherence should be referred to an asthma specialist with expertise in severe asthma [70].

Treatment of Severe Asthma in Children

Childhood asthma is usually controlled with low to moderate doses of inhaled corticosteroids. However, about 5% of children experience severe uncontrolled asthma despite maximal standard of care, including high dose ICS (GINA steps 4 and 5) [1]. High dose ICS have serious side effects in children including impaired growth velocity, decrease bone

mineral density, and pneumonia. Children with severe uncontrolled asthma may require targeted add-on biologic treatment, which has been available for adults since the approval of omalizumab (Xolair®) on June 30, 2003. Although most of the clinical trials on biologics have been conducted in adult patients with asthma [98], biologics are very effective and safe as add-on treatment for severe eosinophilic asthma in children. Currently, there are four biologics which have been approved for add-on treatment of severe childhood asthma [99]. They include omalizumab (anti-IgE) [100,101], mepolizumab (anti-IL-5) [102,103], benralizumab (anti-IL-5R α) [104,105], and dupilumab (anti-IL-4R α) [106,107]. Table 2 shows the list of the current approved biologics for the treatment of childhood asthma, and some ILAs still in development, or phased out of the clinical trials.

Biologic	Target	Stage of Development	Childhood asthma
Omalizumab	IgE	Marketed 2003	Approved
Mepolizumab	IL-5	Marketed 2015	Approved
Reslizumab	IL-5	Marketed 2016	Phase III
Benralizumab	IL-5R	Marketed 2017	Approved
Dupilumab	IL-4 α /IL-13	Marketed 2018	Approved
Tezepelumab	TSLP	Marketed 2018	Not approved
Pitrakinra	IL-4 α /IL-13	II	NA
Lebrikizumab	IL-13	III	NA
Tralokinumab	IL-13	III	NA
Fezakinumab	IL-22	II	NA
Brodalumab	IL-17RA	II	NA
Secukinumab	IL-17A	II	NA
Risankizumab	IL-23	II	NA

Abbreviations: FDA, Food and Drug Administration; IL, interleukin; R, receptor; TSLP, thymic stromal lymphopoietin; NA, not approved for adults and children. Brodalumab, secukinumab, and risankizumab are approved for the treatment of plaque psoriasis.

Table 2. Biologics for the treatment of asthma, their targets, and date of approval by FDA

Add-on biologics have been shown to reduce asthma symptoms, decrease moderate to severe exacerbations, and improve pulmonary function in children with severe asthma [108-114]. Additionally, biologics improve health-related quality of life, and have been used to taper or stop oral

corticosteroids in patients with severe asthma [102,104,115]. The dosages of the currently approved biologics by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) are shown in Table 3.

Biologic	Dosage	Efficacy
Omalizumab	75-375 mg SC Q 2/4 wk	Reduces exacerbations (47-53%)
Mepolizumab	100 mg SC Q 4 wk	Reduces exacerbations (50-60%)
Benralizumab	30 mg SC Q 8 wk	Reduces exacerbations (25-60%)
Dupilumab	300 mg SC Q 2 wk	Reduces exacerbations (60-80%)
Tezepelumab	210 mg SC Q 4 wk	Reduces exacerbations (41-56%)

Abbreviations: IV, intravenous; SC, subcutaneous, Q, every; wk, weeks. Note: pediatric dosages depend on body weight of child or adolescent.

Table 3. Dosages of approved biologics by the Food and Drug Administration for the treatment of severe asthma

Children and adolescent dosages vary with age and weight of the patient, and also vary with authors.

Biologics are safe for add-on treatment of severe asthma in children. They have almost similar manageable side effects because of their

immunological effects on eosinophils, and other systemic effects, such as injection site reaction, respiratory tract infection, nasopharyngitis, sinusitis, conjunctivitis, headache, arthralgia, myalgia, muscle weakness, parasitosis, and rarely anaphylaxis (Table 4) [36].

Injection site reaction	Headache
Upper respiratory tract infection	Myalgia
Nasopharyngitis	Arthralgia
Sinusitis	Muscle weakness
Pneumonia	Fatigue
Pruritus	Helminth infestation
Herpes labialis	Rarely anaphylaxis
Other herpes simplex infections	
Conjunctivitis/blepharitis	
Keratitis	

Table 4. Side-effects of biological treatment in patients with eosinophilic asthma

Eosinophils play an important role in protection against parasitic infection, including helminth infestation. Patients with pre-existing helminth infections should be treated for the infection before initiating biologic therapy. If individuals become infected whilst receiving treatment with biologics and do not respond to anti-helminth treatment, temporary discontinuation of the biologic should be considered [36].

Notably, some of the biologics, such as omalizumab, and dupilumab also ameliorate, and are approved for the treatment other co-morbid conditions associated with childhood asthma, such as allergic rhinitis, chronic rhinosinusitis with nasal polyps, and atopic dermatitis [116-119]. Dupilumab (Dupixent®) has been nicknamed “magic bullet” because it is the only biologic which has been approved by the FDA for the treatment of eosinophilic asthma [117,118]; chronic rhinosinusitis with nasal polyps [117,119]; atopic dermatitis [117,120]; and eosinophilic esophagitis [118,121,122].

The different immunopathological pathways of dupilumab in the treatment of asthma, allergic rhinitis, atopic dermatitis, and chronic rhinosinusitis are explained in detail elsewhere [123]. Dupixent® has been shown to be very effective and safe in the treatment of these conditions, and to improve the quality of life in children and adults [124]. The latest approved biologic for the treatment of severe refractory asthma is tezepelumab [125,126]. Tezepelumab is a fully human monoclonal Ig2 λ antibody that specifically ligates TSLP by binding to its receptor TSLPR, thereby blocking human TSLP-TSLPR interaction [127]. Menziew-Gow et al. [128] have shown that tezepelumab significantly reduces the annualized asthma exacerbation in adolescent and adult asthmatics by 56% in patients with eosinophil count ≥ 300 cells. μ l⁻¹, and by 41% in patients with eosinophil count < 300 cells. μ l⁻¹ [128]. Tezepelumab also resulted in significant improvement in lung function, and health-related quality of life [128]. This study demonstrates the efficacy of blocking the epithelial cell-derived (alarmin) cytokines, such as TSLP in the treatment of severe, uncontrolled asthma [125,128,129]. Although this study was also conducted on adolescents (12-17 years), tezepelumab is currently only approved by the US FDA for the treatment of severe asthma irrespective of the eosinophil count in adults [129]. Severe, uncontrolled childhood asthma may also be treated with Complementary and Integrative Medicine (CIM), including Traditional Chinese Medicine (TCM). In order to treat severe asthma, one must understand the function of the body as a whole, in its energy level [131]. Oriental Medicine theories, such as Yin Yang and Five Elements, aligned with homeopathy may be used to achieve treatment success of severe asthma [132]. Traditional Chinese Medicine using the theory of Five Elements (wood, fire, earth, metal, and water), and Yin and Yang theory may improve the symptoms of asthma, improve whole physical, mental, and emotional picture of children with asthma [131,133,134]. TCM not only addresses the underlying condition of the patient but, also focuses on other body systems, such as the kidney (son) which may worsen lung (Qi, mother) disorders, such as asthma if not treated [131]. Many patients with chronic allergic diseases, such as asthma seek complementary and alternative therapies including Traditional Chinese Medicine. TCM is one

of the oldest practice and has been used for many centuries for the treatment of asthma. There are a number of well-controlled studies on Chinese herbal formulas which have been found to be effective, safe, and have immunomodulatory effects on asthma. They include modified Mai-Men-Dong-Tang (mMMDT, five herbs), Ding-Chuan-Tang (DCT, nine herbs), and anti-asthma herbal medicine intervention (ASMI) [135].

The active ingredients in Chinese herbal medicine have multilevel effects by regulating the immunologic equilibrium mechanisms and signaling pathways, thereby regulating the progression of asthma [136]. The possible signaling pathways regulated by the ingredients of TCM herbal medicine include IL-4-IL-13-JAK-STAT-MAP kinases, adiponectin-iNOS-NF-kB, PGD2-CRTH2, PI3K/AKT, T-bet/gata-3, and Fox3-ROR γ t [137]. All the above signaling pathways are involved in the pathogenesis of asthma [137], and the effects of various ingredients in TCM herbal remedies are illustrated superbly by Wang and coworkers [136].

Conclusions

Asthma is the most common chronic disease in childhood, affecting about 10-15% of school-age children. Severe uncontrolled asthma in children is not common, but contributes to huge costs, and utilization of health care resources. It is associated with significant morbidity, such as increased risk of life threatening exacerbations, frequent hospitalization, and worsening health-related quality of life. Cytokines secreted by Th2 lymphocytes, and Th17 cells, such as IL-5, IL-4, IL-13, IL-25, IL-33, and TSLP; and IL-17, respectively play an important role in the pathogenesis of asthma. Most children with asthma are controlled on low to moderate dose of ICS. However, a significant proportion of children have severe asthma uncontrolled on high dose ICS. Children with severe persistent asthma require add-on treatment with biologics targeting the instigating interleukins. Interleukin antagonists have been shown to reduce asthma symptoms, decrease moderate to severe exacerbations, and improve pulmonary function in children with severe asthma. Additionally, they improve health-related quality of life, and have corticosteroids-sparing effects. Dupilumab is also effective in the treatment of childhood asthma-associated disorders, such as chronic rhinosinusitis with nasal polyps, eczema, and eosinophilic esophagitis.

References

1. Global Initiative for Asthma. Global Strategy for Asthma management and Prevention, [updated 2021].
2. Asher I, Pearce N. (2014). Global burden of asthma among children. *Int J Tuberc Lung Dis* 2014; 18:1269-1278.
3. World Health Organization. Asthma. 2017. Accessed March, 7, 2017.
4. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. National Center for Health Statistics. National Health Interview Survey, 2016. Analysis by the American Lung Association Epidemiology and Statistics Unit using SPSS software.

5. Wenzel SE, Schwartz LB, Langmack EL, Halliday JL, Trudeau JB, Gibbs RL, (1999). Evidence that severe asthma can be divided pathologically into two inflammatory subtypes with distinct physiologic and clinical characteristics. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1999; 160:1001-1008.
6. Simpson JL, Scott R, Boyle MJ, Gibson PG, (2006). Inflammatory subtypes in asthma: assessment and identification using induced sputum. *Respirology* 2006; 11(1):54-61.
7. Anderson GP (2008). Endotyping asthma: new insights into key pathogenic mechanism in a heterogeneous disease. *Lancet* 2008; 372:1107-1119.
8. Wenzel SE (2012). Asthma phenotypes: the evolution from clinical to molecular approach. *Nat Med* 2012; 18:716-725.
9. Chung KF (2016). Asthma phenotyping: A necessity for improved therapeutic precision and new targeted therapies. *J Intern Med* 2016; 279:192-204.
10. Wang F, He XY, Baines KJ, Gunawardhana LP, Simpson JL, Gibson PG, (2011). Different inflammatory phenotypes in adults and children with acute asthma. *Eur Respir J* 2011; 38:567-574.
11. Aleman F, Lim HF, Nair P, (2016). Eosinophilic endotype of asthma. *Immunol Allergy North Am* 2016; 36(3):559-568.
12. Taylor SL, Leong LEX, Choo JM, Wesselingh S, Yang IA, Upham JW, et al. (2018). Inflammatory phenotypes in patients with severe asthma are associated with distinct airway microbiology. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2018; 141(1):94-103.e15.
13. Arron JR, Choy DF, Scheerens H, Mathews JG, (2013). Noninvasive biomarkers that predict treatment benefit from biologic therapies in asthma. *Ann Am Thorac Soc* 2013; 10:S206-S213.
14. Svenningsen S, Nair P (2017). Asthma endotypes and an overview of targeted therapy for asthma. *Front Med (Lausanne)* 2017; 4:158.
15. Thomson N (2016). Novel approaches to the management of noneosinophilic asthma. *Ther Adv Respir Dis* 2016; 10(3):211-234.
16. Pavord ID, Brightling CE, Woltmann G, Wardlaw AJ (1999). Non-eosinophilic corticosteroid unresponsive asthma. *Lancet* 1999; 353:2213-2214.
17. Miranda C, Busacker A, Balzar S, Trudeau J, Wenzel SE, (2004). Distinguishing severe asthma phenotypes: role of onset and eosinophilic inflammation. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2004; 113:101-108.
18. Harder P, Pavord ID, Shaw DE, Barry MA, Thomas M, (2008). Cluster analysis and clinical asthma phenotypes. *Am Rev Respir Crit Care Med* 2008; 178:218-224.
19. JC de Groot, ten Brinke A, Bel EHD, (2015). Management of patients with eosinophilic asthma: a new era begins. *ERJ Open Res* 2015; 1(1):00024-2015.
20. Varsano S, Segev D, Shitrit D. Severe and non-severe asthma in the community: a large electronic database analysis. *Respir Med* 2017; 123:131-139.
21. Carr TF, Zeki AA, Kraft M, (2018). Eosinophilic asthma and noneosinophilic asthma. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2018; 197(1):22-27.
22. Wang F, He XY, Baines KJ, Gunawardhan LP, Simpson JL, Gibson PG, (2011). Different phenotypes in adults and children with acute asthma. *Eur Respir J* 2011; 38:567-574.
23. Ntontsi P, Loukides S, Bakakos P, Kostikas K, Papatheodorou G, Papathanassiou E, Papaporfyrion A, Konstantellou E, et al (2016). Clinical, functional and inflammatory characteristics in patients with paucigranulocytic asthma. *Eur Respir J* 2016; 18:PA4173; congress-2016.PA4173.
24. Zhu L, Ciaccio CE, Casale BT (2018). Potential new targets for drug development in severe asthma. *World Allergy Org J* 2018; 11:30.
25. Holguin F, Cardet JC, Chung KF, Diver S, Ferriera DS, Fitzpatrick A, Gaga M, Kellermeyer L, et al. Management of severe asthma. A European Respiratory Society/American Thoracic Society Guideline. *Eur Respir J* 2019; 26:1000588.
26. Doucet C, Brouty-Boyé D, Pottin-Clémenceau C, Canonica GW, Jasmin C, Azzarone B (1998). Interleukin (IL) 4 and IL-13 act on human lung fibroblasts. Implication in asthma. *J Clin Invest* 1998; 101:2129-2139.
27. Reynaud JC (2001). New insight into the role of cytokines in asthma. *J Clin Pathol* 2001; 54:577-589.
28. Wills-Karp M (2004). Interleukin-13 in asthma pathogenesis. *Immunol Rev* 2004; 202:175-190.
29. Barnes PJ (2008). The cytokine network in asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *J Clin Invest* 2008; 118(11):3546-3556.
30. Bossé Y, Thompson C, Audett K, Stankova J, Rola-Pleszczynski M (2008). Interleukin-4 and interleukin-13 enhance human bronchial muscle cell proliferation. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol*; 146:138-148.
31. Kouro T, Takatsu L (2009). IL-5- and eosinophil-mediated inflammation: from discovery to therapy. *Int Immunol* 2009; 21(12):1303-1309.
32. Bartemes KR, Kita H (2012). Dynamic role of epithelium-derived cytokines in asthma. *Clin Immunol*; 143(3):222-235.
33. Cayrol C, Girard JP (2014). IL-33: an alarmin cytokine with crucial roles in innate immunity, inflammation and allergy; 31:31-37.
34. Watson B, Gauvreau GM (2014). Thymic stromal lymphopoietin: a central regulator of allergic asthma. *Expert Opin Ther Targets*; 18(7):771-785.
35. Angkasekwinai P, Park H, Wang YH, Chang SH, Corry DB, Liu YJ, Zhu Z, Dong C (2007). Interleukin 25 promotes the initiation of proallergic type 2 responses. *J Exp Med*; 204:1509-1517.
36. Syabbalo N (2020). Clinical features and management of eosinophilic asthma. *J Respir Dis Treat* 2020; 1:105.
37. Nakajima H, Hirose K (2010). Role of IL-23 and Th17 cells in airway inflammation in asthma. *Immune Network* 2010; 10.1.
38. Ciprandi G, Cuppari C, Salpeitro AM, Tosca MA, Rigoli L, Grasso L, La Rosa M, et al (2012). Serum IL-23 strongly and inversely correlates with FEV1 in asthmatic children. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol*; 159(2):183-186.
39. Syabbalo N (2020). Role of IL-17 and IL-23 in the pathogenesis of neutrophilic asthma. *Int J Immunol Immunother*; 7:049.
40. Fort MM, Cheung J, Yen D, Li J, Zurawski SM, Lo S, Menon C, Clifford T, et al (2001). IL-25 induces IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13 and Th2-associated pathologies in vivo. *Immunity*; 15:985-995.
41. Busse WW. Biological treatment for severe asthma. A major advance in asthma care. *Allergol Int* 2019; 68:158-166.
42. Payne DNR, Rogers AV, Adelroth E, Bandi V, Guntupalli KK, Bush A, Jeffrey PK (2003). Early thickening of the reticular basement membrane in children with difficult asthma. *Am Rev Respir Crit Care Med*; 167(10):78-82.
43. Baena-Cagnani C, Rossi GA, Walter Canonica G (2007). Airway remodeling in children: when does it start? *Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol*; 7(2):196-200.
44. Bush A (2008). How early do airway inflammation and remodeling occur? *Allergol Int*; 57(1):11-19.

45. Malmström K, Pelkonen AS, Mäkelä MJ. Remodeling inflammation and airway responsiveness in early childhood asthma. *Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol* 2013; 13(2):203-210.
46. James A (2017). Airway remodeling in asthma: Is it fixed or variable. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2017; 195(8).
47. Bousquet J, Jeffery PK, Busse WW, Johnson M, Vignola AM (2000). Asthma. From bronchoconstriction to airway inflammation and remodeling. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2000; 161(5):1720-1745.
48. Tille-Leblond I, de Blic J, Jaubert F, Wallaert B, Scheinmann G, Gosset P. Airway remodeling is correlated with obstruction in children with severe asthma. *Allergy* 2008; 63:533-541.
49. Malmström K, Lohi J, Sajantila A, Jahnsen FL, Kajosaari M, Sarna S, Mäkelä M (2017). Immunohistology and remodeling in fatal pediatric and adolescent asthma. *Respir Res* 2017; 18:94.
50. Baraldos S, Turato G, Bazzan E, Ballarin A, Damin M, Balestro E, Olinari KL, Calabrese F, Maestrelli P, et al (2011). Non-eosinophilic asthma in children: relation with airway remodeling. *Eur Respir J* 2011; 38:575-583.
51. Barbato A, Turato G, Baraldos S, Bazzani E, Calabrese F, Panizzolo C, Zuin R, Maestrelli P, Fabbri LM (2006). Epithelial damage and angiogenesis in the airways of children with asthma. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2006; 174(9):975-981.
52. Castro-Rodriguez JA, Saglani S, Rodriguez-Martinez CE, Oyarzun MA, Fleming L, Bush A (2008). The relationship between inflammation and remodeling in childhood asthma: a systemic review. *Pediatr Pulmonol* 2018; 53(6):824-835.
53. Araujo BB, Dolhnikoff M, Silva LF, Elliot J, Lindeman JH, Ferreira DS, et al. Extracellular matrix components and regulators in the airway smooth muscle in asthma. *Eur Respir J* 2008; 32:61-69.
54. Reeves SR, Kolstad T, Lien TY, Elliot M, Ziegler SF, Wight TN, et al (2014). Asthmatic airway epithelial cells differentially regulate fibroblast expression of extracellular matrix components. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2014; 134:663-570.e1.
55. Mostaco-Guidolin LB, Osei ET, Ullah J, Hajimohammadi S, Fouadi M, Li X, et al (2019). Fibrillar collagen organization by fibroblasts contributes to airway remodeling in asthma. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2019; 200: 431-443.
56. Brewster CE, Howarth PH, Djukanovic R, Wilson J, Holgate ST, Roche WR (1990). Myofibroblasts and subepithelial fibrosis in bronchial asthma. *Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol* 1990; 3(5):507-511.
57. Lezmi G, Gosset P, Deschildre A, Abou-Taam R, Mahut B, Beydon N, de Blic J (2015). Airway remodeling in children with severe recurrent wheeze. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2015.
58. Jenkins HA, Cool C, Szeffler SJ, Covar R, Brugman S, Gelfand EW, Spahn JD (2003). Histopathology of severe childhood asthma: a case series. *Chest* 2003; 124:32-41.
59. Fahy JV. Goblet cell and Puccini gene abnormalities in asthma. *Chest* 2002; 122(6 Suppl):320S-326S.
60. Ribatti D, Puxeddu I, Crivellato E, Nico B, Vacca A, Levi-Schaffer F (2009). Angiogenesis in asthma. *Clin Exp Allergy* 2009.
61. Bush A, Saglani S (2010). Management of severe asthma in children. *Lancet* 2010; 376(9743):814-825.
62. Dharmage SC, Perrel J, Custovic A. Epidemiology of asthma in children and adults. *Front Pediatr* 2019; 7:246.
63. Nordlund B, Melen E, Schultz ES, Gronlund G, Kull I. Prevalence of severe childhood asthma according the WHO. *Respir Med* 2014; 1008:1234-1237.
64. Belgrave DCM, Simpson A, Semic-Jusufagic A, Murray CS, Buchan I, Pickles A, et al (2013). Joint modeling of parentally reported and physician-confirmed wheeze identifies children with persistent troublesome wheezing. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2013; 132:575-583.e12.
65. Chung KF, Wenzel SE, Brozek JL, Bush A, Casto M, Sterk PJ, et al (2014). International ERS/ATS guidelines on definition, evaluation and treatment of severe asthma. *Eur Respir J* 2014; 43:343-373.
66. Lødrup Carlsen KC, Hedlin G, Bush A, Wannergren G, de Benedictis FM, Jongste JC, et al. PSACI (Problematic Severe Asthma in Childhood Initiative) group. Assessment of problematic severe asthma in children. *Eur Respir J* 2011; 37:432-440.
67. Zeiger RS, Schatz M, Dalal AA, Qian L, Chen W, Ngor EW, et al (2016). Utilization and costs of severe uncontrolled asthma in a managed-care setting. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract* 2016; 4:120-129.e3.
68. Fleming L, Wilson N, Bush A (2007). Difficult to control asthma in children. *Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol* 2007; 7:190-195.
69. Fleming L, Murray C, Bansal S, Hashimoto H, Bisgaard A, Bush A, et al (2015). The burden of severe asthma in childhood and adolescence: results from the paediatric U-BIOPRED cohorts. *Eur Respir J* 2015; 46:1322-1333.
70. Abul MH, Phipatanakul W. Severe asthma in children: evaluation and management. *Allergol Int* 2019; 68(2):150-157.
71. Fitzpatrick AM, Teague WG (2011). Progressive airflow limitation is a feature of children with severe asthma. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2011; 127:282-284.
72. Tai A, Tran H, Roberts M, Clarke N, Wilson J, Robertson CF (2014). The association between childhood asthma and adult chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Thorax* 2014; 69:805-810.
73. Tagiyeva N, Devereux G, Fielding S, Turner S, Douglas G (2016). Outcomes of childhood asthma and wheezy bronchitis. A 50-year cohort study. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2016; 193:23-30.
74. Buis DS, Watlers HE, Burgess JA, Perret JL, Buis MQ, Bowatte G, et al (2018). Childhood respiratory risk factor profile and middle-age lung function: a prospective cohort study from the first to the sixth decade. *Ann Thorac Soc* 2018; 15:1057-1066.
75. Barsky EE, Giancola LM, Baxi SN, Gaffin JM. A practical approach to severe asthma in children. *Ann Am Thorac Soc* 2017.
76. Custovic A., Martinez F.D. (2020). *The Epidemiology of Severe Childhood Asthma*. Springer Cham.
77. Forno E., Saglani S (2020). (eds) *Severe Asthma in Children and Adolescents*. Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2020.
78. Arasi S, Porcaro F, Cutrera R, Fiocchi AG (2019). Severe asthma and allergy: A pediatric perspective. *Front Pediatr* 2019; 7:28.
79. Lasmar LM, Carmagos PA, Ordones AB, Gasper GR, Campos EG, Ribiero GA (2007). Prevalence of allergic rhinitis and its impact on the use of emergency care services in a group of children and adolescents with moderate to severe persistent asthma. *J Pediatr* 2007; 83:555-561.
80. Deliu M, Belgrave D, Simpson A, Murray CS, Kerry G, Custovic A (2014). Impact of rhinitis on asthma severity in school-age children. *Allergy* 2014; 69(11):1515-1521.
81. Lin DC, Chandra RK, Tan BK, Zirkle W, Conley DB, Grammer LC, et al. Association between severity of asthma and degree of chronic rhinosinusitis. *Am J Rhinol Allergy* 2011; 25:205-208.
82. Won HK, Kim YC, Kang MG, Park HK, Lee SE, Kim MH, et al (2018). Age-related prevalence of chronic rhinosinusitis and

- nasal polyps and their relationship with asthma onset. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol* 2018; 120:389-394.
83. Spergel JM, Paller AS (2003). Atopic dermatitis and the atopic march. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2003; 112:S118-S127.
 84. Burgess JA, Dharmage SC, Byrnes G, Matheson MC, Gurrin LC, Wharton CL, et al (2008). Childhood eczema and asthma incidence and persistence: A cohort study from childhood to middle age. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2008; 122:280-285.
 85. Gibson PG, Henry R, Coughlon JJ (2003). Gastro-esophageal reflux treatment for asthma in adults and children. Gibson PG, editor. (2003). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
 86. Holbrook JT, Wise RA, Gold BD, Blake K, Brown ED, Castro M, Dozor AJ, Lima JJ, et al (2012). Writing Committee for the American Lung Association Clinical Research Centers. Lansaprazole for children with poorly controlled asthma: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA* 2012; 307:373-381.
 87. Prasad B, Nyenhuis SM, Weaver TE (2014). Obstructive sleep apnea and asthma: association and treatment implication. *Sleep Med Rev* 2014; 18:165-171.
 88. Trivedi M, El Mallah M, Bailey E, Kremer T, Rhein LM (2017). Pediatric obstructive sleep apnoea and asthma: clinical implications. *Pediatr Ann* 2017; 46(9):e332-e335.
 89. Roberts G, Patel N, Levi-Schaffer F, Habibi P, Lack G (2003). Food allergy as a risk factor for life-threatening asthma in childhood: a case-controlled study. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2003; 112:168-174.
 90. Wang R, Custovic A, Simpson A, Belgrave DC, Lowe LA, Murray CS (2013). Different association of BMI and body fat with asthma and lung function in children. *Pediatr Pulmon* 2013.
 91. Lang JE, Bunnell HT, Hossain MJ, Wysocki T, Lima JJ, Finkel TH, et al (2018). Being overweight or obese and the development of asthma. *Pediatrics* 2018; 142(6):e20182119.
 92. Forno E, Lescher R, Strunk R, Weiss S, Fuhlbrigge A, Celedon JC, et al (2011). Decreased response to inhaled steroids in overweight and obese asthmatic children. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2011; 127(3):749.
 93. Teague WG, Phillips BR, Fahy JV, Wenzel SE, Fitzpatrick AM, More WC, et al (2018). Baseline features of Severe Asthma Research Program (SARP III) cohort differences with age. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract* 2018; 6:545-554.e4.
 94. Fitzpatrick AM, Gaston BM, Erzurum SC, Teague WG (2006). National Institutes of Health/National Heart, Lung, Blood Institute Severe Asthma Research Program. Features of severe asthma in school-age children. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2006; 118(6):1218-1225.
 95. Licari A, Castagnoli R, Brambilla I, Marseglia A, Tosca MA, Marseglia GL, Ciprandi G (2018). Asthma endotypes and biomarkers of childhood asthma. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol Pulmon* 2018; 31:2.
 96. Petsky HL, Kew KM, Chang AB (2016). Exhaled nitric oxide levels to guide treatment for school children with asthma. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2016; 112:CD011439.
 97. Moschino L, Zanconato S, Bozzetto S, Baraldi E, Carraro S (2015). Childhood asthma biomarkers: present and future steps. *Pediatr Respir Rev* 2015; 16(4):205-212.
 98. Syabbalo N (2021). Biologics for the treatment of severe uncontrolled asthma. *Asploro J Biomed Clin Case Report* 2021; 4(1):60-69.
 99. Marseglia GL, Licari A, Tosca MA, Ciprandi G. (2020) Biologics to treat severe asthma in children and adolescents: a practical update. *Ped Allergy Immunol Pulmon*; 33:4.
 100. Busse WW, Morgan WJ, Gergen PJ, Mitchell HE, Gern JE, Liu AH, et al. (2011) Randomized trial of omalizumab (anti-IgE) for asthma in an inner-city children. *N Engl J Med*; 364:1005-1015.
 101. Deschildre A, Marguet C, Salleron J, Pin I, Rittié JL, Derette J, et al. (2013) Add-on omalizumab in children with severe allergic asthma. 1-year real life survey. *Eur Respir J*; 42:1224-1233.
 102. Bel EH, Wenzel SE, Thomson PJ, Prazma CM, Keene ON, Yancey SW, et al. (2014) Oral glucocorticoid-sparing effect of mepolizumab in eosinophilic asthma. *N Engl J Med*; 371:1189-1197.
 103. Ortega HG, Liu MC, Pavord ID, Brusselle GG, FitzGerald JM, Chetta A, et al. (2014) Mepolizumab treatment in patients with severe eosinophilic asthma. *N Engl J Med*; 371:1198-1207.
 104. Bleecker ER, FitzGerald JM, Chanez P, Papi A, Weinstein SF, Barker P, et al. (2016) Efficacy and safety of benralizumab for patients with severe asthma uncontrolled with high-dose inhaled corticosteroids and long-acting β_2 -agonists (SIROCCO): a randomized, multicenter, placebo-controlled phase 3 trial. *Lancet*; 388:2115-2127.
 105. FitzGerald JM, Bleecker ER, Nair P, Korn S, Ohta K, Lommatzsch M, et al. (2016) Benralizumab, an anti-interleukin-5 receptor α monoclonal antibody, as add-on treatment for patients with severe, uncontrolled, eosinophilic asthma (CALIMA): a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled phase 3 trial. *Lancet*; 388:2128-2141.
 106. Castro M, Corren J, Pavord IB, Maspero J, Wenzel S, Rabe KF, et al. (2018) Dupilumab efficacy and safety in moderate-to-severe uncontrolled asthma. *N Engl J Med*; 378:2486-2496.
 107. Rabe KF, Nair P, Brusselle G, Maspero JF, Castro M, Sher L, et al. (2018) Efficacy and safety of dupilumab in glucocorticoid-dependent severe asthma. *N Engl J Med*; 378:2475-2485.
 108. Chipps BE, Lanier B, Milgrom H, Deschildre A, Hedin G, Szeffler SJ, Kattan M, et al. (2017) Omalizumab in children with uncontrolled allergic asthma: review of clinical trials and real-world experience. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*; 139(5):1431-1444.
 109. Henriksen DP, Bodtger U, Sidenius K, Maltback N, Pedersen L, et al. (2020) Efficacy of omalizumab in children, adolescents, and adults with severe allergic asthma: a systematic review, meta-analysis, and call for new trials using current guidelines for assessment of severe asthma. *Allergy Asthma Clin Immunol*; 16:49.
 110. Gupta A, Ikeda M, Geng B, Azmi J, Price RG, Bradford ES, Yancey SW, Steinfeld J. (2019) Long-term safety and pharmacodynamics of mepolizumab in children with severe asthma with an eosinophilic phenotype. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*; 144(5):1336-1342.e7.
 111. Agache I, Rocha C, Beltran J, Song Y, Posso M, Sola I, Alonso-Coello P, Akdis C, Akdis M, Canonica GW, Casale T, et al (2020). Efficacy and safety of treatment with biological (benralizumab, dupilumab and omalizumab) for severe allergic asthma. A systematic review for the EAACI Guidelines – recommendations on the use of biological in severe asthma. *Allergy* 2020.
 112. Votto M, De Filippo M, Licari A, Marseglia A, De Amici M, Marseglia GL. Biological therapies in children and adolescents with severe uncontrolled asthma: A practical review. *Biologics Targets Ther* 2012; 2021(15):133-142.
 113. Rathinam KK, Abraham JJ, Vijayakumar TM. Dupilumab in the treatment of moderate to severe asthma: an evidence-based review. *Curr Ther Res Clin Exp* 2019; 91:45-51.
 114. Bacharier LB, Maspero JF, Katalaris CH, Fiocchi AG, Gagnon G, de Mir, Jain N, Sher LD, et al (2012). Dupilumab efficacy and safety in children with uncontrolled, moderate-to-severe

- asthma. The phase 3 VOYAGE study. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*; 203: A1204.
115. Licari A, Castagnoli R, De Filippo M, Foiadelli T, Tosca MA, Marseglia GL, Ciprandi G (2020). Current and emerging biologic therapies for allergic rhinitis and chronic rhinosinusitis. *Expert Opin Bio Ther* 2020; 20(6):609-619.
 116. Pfaar O, Gehrt F, Li H, Rudhart SA, Nastev A, Stuck BA, Hoch S (2021). Anti-IgE: A treatment option in allergic rhinitis? *Allergol Select* ; 5:119-127.
 117. Bachert C, Battacharyya N, Desrosier M, Khan AH (2021). Burden of disease in chronic rhinosinusitis with nasal polyps. *J Asthma Allergy* 2021; 14:127-134.
 118. Casale TB (2017). Biologics and biomarkers for asthma, urticaria, and nasal polyps. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2017.
 119. <http://www.pnewswire.com/news-releases/fda-approves-asthma-indication-for-dupixent-dupilumab-300734600.html>.
 120. U.S. Food & Drug Administration. FDA approves first treatment or chronic rhinosinusitis with nasal polyps, June 26, 2019. Accessed July 24, 2019.
 121. Sanofi. Sanofi and Regeneron announces FDA approval of Dupixent (dupilumab), the first targeted biologic therapy for adults with moderate-to-severe atopic dermatitis (media release). 2017. Accessed 02 May 2017.
 122. FDA grants Dupixent (dupilumab) Breakthrough Therapy designation for eosinophilic esophagitis. Accessed September 14, 2020.
 123. Hirano I, Delton ES, Hamilton JD, et al. Efficacy of dupilumab in a phase 2 randomized trial of adults with active eosinophilic esophagitis. *Gastroenterology* 2020; 158(1):111-122.
 124. Harb H, Chatila TA. Mechanisms of dupilumab. *Clin Exp Allergy* 2019; <https://doi.org/10.1111/cea.13491>.
 125. Satre J, Davila I. (2018). Dupilumab: A new paradigm for the treatment of allergic diseases. *J Investig Allergol Clin Immunol* 2018; 28(3):139-150.
 126. Syabbalo N. Targeting alarmin cytokines in the treatment of asthma. *J Pulm Med* 2020; 4:5. Editorial.
 127. Pelaia C, Pelaia G, Crimi C, Maglio A, Gallelli L, Terraciano R, Vatrella A. (2021). Tezepelumab: A potential new biological therapy for severe refractory asthma. *Int J Mol Sci* 2021; 22(9):4369.
 128. Verstraete K, Peelman F, Braun H, Lopez J, Van Rompaey D, Dansercoer A, Vandenberghe I, Pauwels K, et al. (2017). Structure and antagonism of the receptor complex mediated by human TSLP in allergy and asthma. *Nat Commun* 2017; 8:14937.
 129. Menziew-Gow A, Corren J, Bourdin A, Chupp G, Isreal E, Wechsler ME, Brightling CE, Griffiths T, et al. (2012). Tezepelumab in adults and adolescents with severe, uncontrolled asthma. *N Engl J Med* 2012; 384(19):1800-1809.
 130. Menziew-Gow A, Wechsler M, Brightling CE. Unmet need in severe, uncontrolled asthma: can anti-TSLP therapy with tezepelumab provide a valuable new treatment option? *Respir Res* 2020; 21:268.
 131. AstraZeneca. Tezepelumab granted Breakthrough Therapy Designation by US FDA. Accessed 5 Mar 2020.
 132. Huang WL. (2018). The treatment of asthma based on traditional Chinese medicine and homeopathy. *J Pediat Infants* 2018; 1:1.
 133. Reller, Paul L (2017). Asthma and COPD. 25 03 2018.
 134. OuYang B, Gu Z (1996). *Essentials of Traditional Chinese Medicine*. Shandong Science and Technology Press.
 135. Capra F (2013). *Otao da fisica*. Editora Cultrix.
 136. Li X-M. (2007). Traditional Chinese herbal remedies for asthma and food allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2007; 120(1):25-31.
 137. Wang W, Yao Q, Tang F, Cui J, Dong J, Wei Y. Active ingredients from Chinese plants as therapeutic strategies for asthma: Overview and challenges. *Biomed Pharmacother* 2021; 137:111383.
 138. Athari SS. Targeting cell signaling in allergic asthma. *Signal Transduction and Targeted Therapy* 2019; 4:45.



This work is licensed under Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 License

To Submit Your Article Click Here: [Submit Manuscript](#)

DOI: [10.31579/2693-2156/024](https://doi.org/10.31579/2693-2156/024)

Ready to submit your research? Choose Auctores and benefit from:

- ❖ fast, convenient online submission
- ❖ rigorous peer review by experienced research in your field
- ❖ rapid publication on acceptance
- ❖ authors retain copyrights
- ❖ unique DOI for all articles
- ❖ immediate, unrestricted online access

At Auctores, research is always in progress.

Learn more www.auctoresonline.org/journals/journal-of-thoracic-disease-and-cardiothoracic-surgery-