



Editorial

Interaction Between Environmental Pollution and Respiratory Infections[☆]



Interacción entre contaminación ambiental e infecciones respiratorias

Pablo Rodríguez-Fernández,^{a,b,c} Cristina Prat-Aymerich,^{a,b,c} José Domínguez^{a,b,c,*}

^a Servei de Microbiologia, Hospital Universitari Germans Trias i Pujol, Badalona, Spain

^b Institut en Ciències de la Salut Germans Trias i Pujol (IGTP), CIBER Enfermedades Respiratorias (CIBERES), Badalona, Spain

^c Departament de Genètica i Microbiologia, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Bellaterra, Cerdanyola del Vallès, Spain

The exposome is defined as the measure of all exposures of an individual during his or her lifetime and how these exposures affect health.¹ Humans are exposed to large quantities of compounds by inhalation, and the change from rural lifestyles to living in overcrowded, industrialized cities, together with the mass use of motor vehicles means that we are exposed to large amounts of contaminants via the respiratory tract. It is estimated that only 1 cubic centimeter of city air contains approximately 100 bacteria and around 10^7 small-diameter particles (less than 300 nm).² In fact, we now know that the outcome of an infection depends not only on host- and pathogen-associated factors, but also on key external factors. For example, environmental changes influence the flyways of migratory birds, which are vectors of the virus influenza A, modifying the spread of new variants of the influenza virus.³

The major environmental pollutants are basically particles in suspension, known as particulate matter (PM), and include metals or silica, volatile organic compounds, and gaseous pollutants, such as ozone, sulfur dioxide, nitrogen monoxide and dioxide, and carbon monoxide. They are generally produced naturally by sand storms or volcanic eruptions, or by humans, in the form of biomass burning, traffic emissions, mining, and farming. In large cities, however, most pollution is caused by the combustion of diesel engines.⁴

It is estimated that 7 million people die every year as a result of environmental pollution.⁵ Poor air quality is a risk factor for the development of numerous respiratory diseases, such as asthma, lung cancer, and respiratory infections, especially in children.⁶ Respiratory infections cause the death of more than 4 million people annually. In Europe, almost half a million people die every year due to high concentrations of PM, 78,000 die from exposure to nitrogen dioxide, and more than 14,000 die from exposure to ozone.⁷ Exposure to high levels of sulfur dioxide has been associated with an increase in sputum production, chronic

cough, and bronchoconstriction, and more frequent bronchiectasis exacerbations.⁸

Environmental pollution particles cause inflammation, airflow changes, and altered defense mechanisms, both in the upper and lower respiratory tract.⁹ Larger PMs can be eliminated by mucociliary transport, but the smaller ones can reach the bronchioles. In addition, PM_{2.5} (with a diameter of less than 2.5 μm) that are not phagocytized by macrophages can spread systemically.

Exposure to PM increases susceptibility to bacterial pneumonias and viral respiratory infections.¹⁰ Exposure to environmental pollution in children affects the proper functioning of the respiratory system, especially in the early years of life, when the respiratory and immune systems are not yet fully developed. There is an association between bronchitis and environmental pollution in children under five years of age.¹¹ In fact, prenatal exposure to PM_{2.5} increases susceptibility to respiratory infections (bronchitis and pneumonia), as many environmental toxins can easily cross the placenta (especially PM_{0.25} and smaller) and accumulate in the fetus in higher concentrations than in the mother.¹² In the elderly, immunosenescence might contribute to an increased propensity to respiratory infections, due, among other factors, to cytokine deregulation.¹²

PM can cause oxidative stress by eliminating antioxidants and producing reactive oxygen species (ROS), which leads to an inflammatory response by producing cytokines IL-6, IL-8 and TNF-α². Moreover, exposure to PM can alter the ability of macrophages to inactivate viruses, lyse bacteria, or inhibit the presentation of antigens.¹⁰

Exposures to different nitrogen oxides can increase the risk of respiratory infections, affecting T cells and NK cells, which play important roles in the defense against viruses.⁴ An accumulation of metals may also be a risk factor for infections, since metal availability is generally a factor promoting the growth of microorganisms. In *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* or *Neisseria meningitidis*, an increase in the availability of iron in the host is related to more serious infections.¹⁰

Tobacco smoke also causes exposure to high concentrations of PM, 15,000–40,000 μg PM per cigarette. In general, tobacco smoke exposure increases the risk of prolonging viral respiratory infections or developing bacterial infection by *Streptococcus*, *Legionella*,

[☆] Please cite this article as: Rodríguez-Fernández P, Prat-Aymerich C, Domínguez J. Interacción entre contaminación ambiental e infecciones respiratorias. Arch Bronconeumol. 2019;55:351–352.

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: jadominguez@igtp.cat (J. Domínguez).

Mycoplasma, or *Haemophilus*.¹⁰ It is also related to an increased susceptibility to infection by *M. tuberculosis*, and progression to active tuberculosis.¹⁰ In cell cultures, we have observed that smoke negatively affects the phagocytic capacity of macrophages.¹³ Exposure to tobacco smoke has also been linked with a delay in the negativization of mycobacterial cultures in treated patients.¹⁴ In fact, exposure to smoke not only alters the immune response of the host, but also has an impact on the microorganism, modifying its phenotype toward other more virulent variants.¹⁵

Environmental pollution increases the rate of respiratory infections, and is associated with increased costs and premature deaths in chronic patients and children. Some of the causes can be acted upon, such as tobacco exposure and some aspects of environmental pollution. An understanding of how pollution affects the immune response to respiratory infections would help us establish effective epidemiological strategies, and improve clinical treatment and patients' quality of life.

Acknowledgements

Funded projects associated with the content of this editorial: Spanish Society of Pneumology and Thoracic Surgery (SEPAR) (Extraordinary call for the Integrated Research Program in Smoking, and research project no.: 16/024); European Respiratory Society Long-Term Research Fellowship (LTRF-2015-5934); Instituto de Salud Carlos III (PI16/1912 and PI17/01139) incorporated into the National Plan for R+D+I, co-funded by the ISCIII-Subdirección General for Evaluation and the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF), and by the CERCA Program of the Government of Catalonia. José Domínguez is a researcher on the Miguel Servet Program of the Instituto de Salud Carlos III, and Pablo Rodríguez-Fernández is a recipient of a FPU program grant from the Spanish Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport.

References

- Wild CP. Complementing the genome with an “exposome”: the outstanding challenge of environmental exposure measurement in molecular epidemiology. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2005;14:1847–50.
- Watts AB, Williams RO III. Nanoparticles for pulmonary drug delivery. In: Smyth HDC, Hickey AJ, editors. *Controlled pulmonary drug delivery. Advances in delivery science and technology*. New York: Springer; 2011. p. 335–66.
- MCMichael AJ. Environmental and social influences on infectious diseases. In: Baquero F, Nombela C, Cassell GH, Gutiérrez JA, editors. *Evolutionary biology of bacterial and fungal pathogens*. Washington, DC: ASM Press; 2008. p. 31–8.
- Jiang XQ, Mei XD, Feng D. Air pollution and chronic airway diseases: what should people know and do? *J Thorac Dis.* 2016;8:E31–40.
- World Health Organization. Burden of disease from the joint effects of household and ambient air pollution for 2016. Geneva: Public Health, Social and Environmental Determinants of Health Department, World Health Organization; 2018. p. 1–5.
- The Global Burden of Disease, Injuries, and Risk Factors study 2013 (GBD 2013) Collaborators. Global, regional, and national comparative risk assessment of 79 behavioural, environmental and occupational, and metabolic risks or clusters of risks in 188 countries, 1990–2013: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2013. *Lancet.* 2015;386(10010): 2287–323.
- European Environmental Agency (EEA). Air quality in Europe – 2017 report. EEA Report; 2017. p. 1–80.
- Garcia-Olivé I, Stojanovic Z, Radua J, Rodriguez-Pons L, Martinez-Rivera C, Ruiz Manzano J. Effect of air pollution on exacerbations of bronchiectasis in Badalona Spain, 2008–2016. *Respiration.* 2018;96:111–6.
- Thurston GD, Kipen H, Annesi-Maesano I, Balmes J, Brook RD, Cromar K, et al. A joint ERS/ATS policy statement: what constitutes an adverse health effect of air pollution? An analytical framework. *Eur Respir J.* 2017;49.
- Ghio AJ. Particle exposures and infections. *Infection.* 2014;42:459–67.
- Mehta S, Shin H, Burnett R, North T, Cohen AJ. Ambient particulate air pollution and acute lower respiratory infections: a systematic review and implications for estimating the global burden of disease. *Air Qual Atmos Health.* 2013;6: 69–83.
- Jedrychowski WA, Perera FP, Spengler JD, Mroz E, Stigter L, Flak E, et al. Intrauterine exposure to fine particulate matter as a risk factor for increased susceptibility to acute broncho-pulmonary infections in early childhood. *Int J Hyg Environ Health.* 2013;216:395–401.
- Gómez AC, Rodríguez-Fernández P, Gibert I, Lacoma A, Prat C, Domínguez J. Impacto del humo del tabaco en la persistencia de *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. 49 Congreso Nacional SEPAR. 2016.
- Altet N, Latorre I, Jiménez-Fuentes MÁ, Maldonado J, Molina I, González-Díaz Y, et al., PII Smoking SEPAR Working Group. Assessment of the influence of direct tobacco smoke on infection and active TB management. *PLoS One.* 2017;12:e0182998.
- Laabe M, Edwards A, Lacoma A, Domínguez J, Prat C. Cigarette smoke redirects *Staphylococcus aureus* to a virulence phenotype associated with persistent infection. *Eur Respir J.* 2017;50:PA3323.