

1 **Effects of a short-course of pranlukast combined with systemic corticosteroid on**  
2 **acute asthma exacerbation induced by upper respiratory tract infection**

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5 **Short title: Pranlukast for URI-induced acute asthma**

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37 **ABSTRACT**

38 **Background:** Upper respiratory tract infections (URI) represent the most frequent cause  
39 of acute asthma exacerbation. Systemic corticosteroid (CS) is presently recommended  
40 for URI-induced asthma exacerbation, although it might inhibit cellular immunity  
41 against respiratory virus infection.

42 **Objectives:** To determine the effects of adding a short course (two weeks) of a  
43 leukotriene receptor antagonist (LTRA) to systemic CS on URI-induced acute asthma  
44 exacerbation.

45 **Methods:** Twenty-three adult asthmatics (mean age  $42.8 \pm 9.8$  y; M:F, 10:13) with  
46 URI-induced acute asthma exacerbation confirmed by a questionnaire and physical  
47 findings were randomly assigned to receive either oral prednisolone alone (PSL) or oral  
48 PSL plus the LTRA pranlukast (PRL) for two weeks (PSL + PRL). The cumulative  
49 doses of PSL and the amount of time required to clear asthma-related symptoms were  
50 determined. Levels of respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) RNA and influenza viral (IV)  
51 antigen in nasopharyngeal swabs were also determined.

52 **Results:** Adding PRL significantly reduced the cumulative dose of PSL and tended to  
53 reduce the time required to clear asthma-related symptoms. Either RSV or IV was  
54 detected in about one third of the patients.

55 **Conclusions:** The combination of an LTRA and CS might be more useful than CS alone  
56 for treating URI-induced acute exacerbation of asthma and reducing the cumulative CS  
57 dose.

58

59 **Key words:** bronchial asthma, upper respiratory tract infection, leukotriene receptor  
60 antagonist, corticosteroid, respiratory syncytial virus

61

62 **Introduction**

63           Asthma is one of the most prevalent diseases in the world and it has a large  
64 socioeconomic impact. The primary objective of therapy for asthma includes not only  
65 preventing limitations to routine activities but also reducing the risk of death as along  
66 with the economic impact from hospitalization and being absent from work. To date,  
67 inhaled corticosteroids (ICS) represent the most effective treatment for asthma and they  
68 can reduce mortality due to asthma by preventing acute exacerbation. Global asthma  
69 guidelines recommend systemic CS and short-acting  $\beta$ 2 agonists (SABA) as soon as  
70 acute exacerbation occurs [1]. Viral respiratory tract infections represent the most  
71 common trigger of acute exacerbation of asthma in both children and adults [2, 3], and  
72 systemic CS might worsen viral infections by suppressing cellular immunity.  
73 Furthermore, airway obstruction associated with virus-induced acute exacerbation of  
74 asthma is resistant to SABA [4]. Thus, other medications should be added to systemic  
75 CS and SABA to treat virus-induced acute asthma exacerbation.

76           Although the precise underlying mechanism of virus-induced acute  
77 exacerbation of asthma remains unknown, many molecular factors and cells are  
78 critically involved [5]. Among them, cysteinyl leukotrienes (cysLTs) have received  
79 considerable focus because levels increase in the airways of asthmatics during

80 virus-induced acute exacerbation [6-8] and specific cysLT receptor antagonists (LTRA)  
81 are routinely available in clinics. Moreover, systemic CS cannot inhibit cysLT  
82 production in asthmatics [9]. Thus, since respiratory viral infections increase the  
83 amounts of cysLTs in the airways and CS does not reduce cysLT production, we  
84 postulated that LTRA combined with CS might be useful for treating virus-induced  
85 asthma exacerbation. The present study compares the effects of short term LTRA plus  
86 systemic CS on upper respiratory tract infection (URI)-induced asthma exacerbation  
87 with those of CS alone. We defined clinical URI based on symptoms, and determined  
88 the presence of respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) and influenza virus (IV) in respiratory  
89 secretions.

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98 **Materials and methods**

99 **Subjects**

100 This study received ethical approval from the special committee of Nagasaki University  
101 (project registration number 08090566) to proceed between September 2008 and March  
102 2009 and each patient provided written informed consent to participate. Twenty-three  
103 (male:female, 10:13; mean age,  $42.8 \pm 9.8$  y) patients with acute exacerbation of asthma  
104 participated in a four-week, randomized, prospective, multi-center trial at outpatient  
105 clinics at four institutions in Nagasaki Prefecture, Japan. Eligible individuals were  
106 adults with asthma diagnosed according to the GINA guidelines [1] who had received a  
107 daily fixed dose of ICS for at least one year before the study. Atopy was defined by a  
108 positive skin prick test using 10 common aeroallergens and/or IgE (RAST). We defined  
109 clinical URI-induced acute asthma exacerbation as described [10]. We defined URI  
110 based on having at least two of the following symptoms: runny nose, stuffy nose,  
111 sneezing, sore throat, hoarseness, red or watery eyes, face ache or earache, feeling  
112 unwell, muscle aches, chills, cough, painful swollen neck glands or increased use of  
113 handkerchiefs. Asthma exacerbation was defined as an increase in one or more of  
114 wheeze, chest tightness, and breathlessness or wheeze during clinical examinations.  
115 URI-induced acute asthma exacerbation was defined as having symptoms of both URI

116 and asthma exacerbation. All participants were considered to have URI-induced acute  
117 exacerbation of asthma if they attended a hospital within 48 hours of onset. Exclusion  
118 criteria comprised being regularly administered with oral CS, LTRA administration  
119 within one year before entry, pathogenic bacteria, fungi or acid fast bacilli in  
120 expectorated sputum, pulmonary infiltration suggesting pneumonia or requiring  
121 hospitalization.

122

### 123 **Study design**

124 After obtaining a clinical history regarding URI-induced acute asthma exacerbation,  
125 confirming wheezing by a physical examination and their completing a questionnaire,  
126 all patients were randomly assigned to receive oral prednisolone (PSL) either without  
127 (PSL) or with (PSL + PRL) 225 mg b.i.d. of the LTRA, pranlukast (PRL) (ONON<sup>®</sup>,  
128 ONO Pharmaceutical Co. Ltd., Osaka, Japan) for two weeks. During this period,  
129 patients recorded their symptoms and the number of puffs of SABA. All participants  
130 had to be taking a stable dose of ICS and patients who used long-acting  $\beta_2$  agonists  
131 (LABA) before the study were required to use similar doses of these drugs throughout  
132 the study period. Other asthma medications such as xanthines and inhaled  
133 anticholinergics were prohibited during the study period. Since a significant number of



134 patients could not record peak expiratory flow (PEF) within a few days after the first  
135 visit due to instability, the present study does not include PEF findings. All of the  
136 patients received oral PSL (30 mg/day) during the first four days. Thereafter, each  
137 attending physician decided the PSL dose on days 4, 7, 14, 21 and 28 after the first visit  
138 based on the following criteria. The PSL dose was reduced by 10 mg when at least two  
139 among rescue SABA use, chest auscultation or symptoms were improved compared  
140 with the previous assessment. The PSL dose was maintained when one or none of  
141 rescue SABA use, chest auscultation and symptoms was improved compared with the  
142 previous visit. The PSL was stopped when patients returned to baseline status before  
143 exacerbation. Peripheral blood and nasopharyngeal aspirates (NPA) were collected at  
144 the first visit and on day 28. The primary and secondary efficacy endpoints were  
145 cumulative doses of PSL and elapsed time from the first visit to clear all asthma-related  
146 symptoms, respectively. Adverse effects associated with treatment were also monitored  
147 throughout the study period.

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#### 149 **Diagnosis of respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) and influenza viral (IV) infections**

150 We performed RT-PCR to amplify RSV RNA and detected IV antigen from  
151 nasopharyngeal aspirates (NPA). In brief, total RNA was isolated from NPA when the

152 patients were first examined using TRIzol<sup>®</sup> (Life Technologies Inc., Rockville, MD,  
153 USA). Complementary DNA was synthesized using a SuperScript<sup>®</sup> One-Step RT-PCR  
154 system with Platinum<sup>®</sup> Tag DNA Polymerase (Invitrogen Life Technologies Inc.), and  
155 amplified using 200 ng of cDNA, with primers complementary to the sequence of RSV  
156 N protein mRNA (sense: 5-GCG ATG TCT AGG TTA GGA AGA A-3, antisense:  
157 5-GCT ATG TCC TTG GGT AGT AAG CCT-3. Influenza viral antigen was  
158 determined using an immunochromatographic assay (RapidTest<sup>®</sup> Flu II, Sekisui  
159 Medical Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). To exclude infection with atypical pathogens, acute  
160 and convalescent serum samples were tested for antibodies to *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*  
161 and *Chlamydomphila pneumoniae* (SRL Co., Tokyo, Japan). A fourfold rise in antibody  
162 was taken as indicating infection.

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#### 164 **Statistics**

165 The intention-to-treat population was defined as randomized patients. The per-protocol  
166 population was defined as patients with confirmed assessments available by the end of  
167 therapy. Safety was analyzed in the intention-to treat population. Results are expressed  
168 as means  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD). Differences between groups were examined for  
169 statistical significance using Mann-Whitney U test and the  $\chi^2$  test. A *P* value  $< 0.05$

170 denoted the presence of a statistically significant difference.

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188 **Results**

189 Enrollment and characteristics of the patients at baseline

190 The 10 and 13 patients assigned to the PSL and PSL + PRL groups, respectively,  
191 comprised the intention to treat population. One patient in the PSL group did not record  
192 symptoms by day 4, when symptoms and chest wheezes persisted. This patient did not  
193 attend the hospital again. One patient in the PSL group and two in the PSL + PRL group  
194 never returned to the hospital after initial randomization. Thus, these four patients were  
195 not evaluated at the primary and secondary end points, but were recruited for the safety  
196 analysis since we could contact them by telephone. Asthma-related symptoms  
197 disappeared and PSL was terminated by day 28 in the remaining 19 patients (PSL, n =  
198 8; PSL + PRL, n = 11). These 19 patients comprised the per-protocol population. Table  
199 1 summarizes the baseline characteristics of the patients in the intention-to-treat  
200 population. Baseline demographic characteristics closely matched and no parameters  
201 significantly differed between the PSL and PSL + PRL groups. Demographic  
202 characteristics also did not notably differ between the intention-to-treat and per-protocol  
203 populations (data not shown).

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205 **Duration and cumulative doses of PSL required to eliminate asthma-related**  
206 **symptoms**

207 Figure 1 shows that the durations and cumulative doses of PSL were significantly more  
208 decreased in the PSL + PRL, than in the PSL group (Figure 1) ( $7.3 \pm 4.5$  vs.  $14.0 \pm 7.7$   
209 days,  $p = 0.03$  and  $169.1 \pm 62.8$  vs.  $253.8 \pm 86.0$  mg,  $p = 0.03$ , respectively). In contrast,  
210 cumulative doses of SABA were similar between the PSL and PSL + PRL groups ( $14.0$   
211  $\pm 3.2$  vs.  $11.5 \pm 3.4$  puffs,  $p > 0.1$ ).

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213 **Time required to eliminate asthma-related symptoms**

214 Adding PRL tended to shorten exacerbations compared with PSL alone, but the  
215 difference did not reach statistical significance (Figure 2) (PSL vs. PSL + PRL:  $16.4 \pm$   
216  $6.7$  vs.  $10.7 \pm 5.9$  days,  $p = 0.06$ ).

217

218 **Virus detection**

219 Either RSV or IV was detected in 6 (31.6%) patients. Three (PSL,  $n = 2$ ; PSL + PRL,  $n$   
220  $= 1$ ) were positive for RSV according to RT-PCR. Influenza viral antigen was detected  
221 in three patients (PSL,  $n = 1$ ; PSL + PRL,  $n = 2$ ). Asthma-related symptoms disappeared  
222 from the three patients infected with RSV at days 27, 21 and 10 and from the three

223 infected with IV infected on days 14, 7 and 6. Significant differences in serum  
224 antibodies titers of *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* and *Chlamydomphila pneumoniae* were not  
225 identified between acute and convalescent phases, suggesting that atypical pathogens  
226 were absent.

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## 228 **Safety**

229 Safety was evaluated in the intention-to-treat population. Among 23 patients, 4 (17.4%)  
230 experienced at least one adverse event during the study period. One patient in the PSL  
231 group developed headache, epigastralgia and insomnia and another developed  
232 epigastralgia. One patient in the PSL + PRL group developed epigastralgia and another  
233 described having diarrhea. Severe infectious diseases did not occur. All adverse events  
234 were clinically mild and had subsided by the end of the study. Thus the incidence of  
235 adverse events did not significantly differ between the two groups.

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241 **Discussion**

242           Although LTRAs reduce asthma symptoms or exacerbations in children with  
243           colds [11-13], few studies have evaluated their effects on asthma in adults. One study  
244           found that LTRAs do not improve symptoms of mild asthma caused by experimental  
245           rhinovirus infection in adults [14]. Thus the role of LTRA in acute asthma exacerbation  
246           in adults caused by naturally occurring viral respiratory infection remains unknown. The  
247           present study showed that combining the LTRA, pranlukast, with systemic CS for 2  
248           weeks slightly shortened the duration of asthma-related symptoms and significantly  
249           reduced cumulative CS doses in adult patients who developed acute asthma  
250           exacerbation after upper respiratory tract infection.

251           Viral respiratory tract infections often exacerbate asthma, which can be  
252           significantly reduced by the regular administration of inhaled CS [15]. In contrast,  
253           systemic CS significantly increased viral loads in healthy individuals after experimental  
254           RV infection [16] and reactivated chronic metapneumoviral infection in a murine model  
255           [17]. Since systemic CSs are recommended for acute exacerbation of asthma even by  
256           respiratory viral infection [1], the notion that they might suppress immunity against  
257           respiratory virus should be a concern. Thus, an additive therapy that would increase the  
258           beneficial effects and decrease the toxicity of systemic CS would be useful. From this

259 viewpoint, cysLTs are appealing because their concentrations increase during  
260 respiratory virus-induced asthma [6-8] and CSs cannot inhibit their production [9]. In  
261 fact, the LTRA montelukast prevents respiratory virus-induced acute asthma in children  
262 [11-13]. We also reported that pranlukast inhibits RSV-induced allergic airway  
263 inflammation in a murine model of allergic asthma [18]. Currently, LTRAs are used as  
264 controlling, anti-inflammatory medication. Notably, LTRAs have bronchodilator as well  
265 as anti-inflammatory effects and a rapid onset of action. Thus, LTRAs are potentially  
266 useful to relieve acute asthma [19, 20].

267         Respiratory syncytial virus is a representative lower respiratory tract pathogen  
268 in children that has recently become recognized as an adult pathogen [21-23]. One study  
269 in vitro has demonstrated that RSV enhances 5-lipoxygenase expression in the human  
270 airway epithelium and thus increases LT production [24], which potentially exacerbates  
271 allergic airway inflammation. Furthermore, RSV among respiratory viruses causes acute  
272 asthma exacerbation more frequently than influenza virus [25]. Although we identified a  
273 few causative viruses, the present study found that RSV actually causes acute asthma  
274 exacerbation in adults. Although the study cohort was too small to be statistically  
275 meaningful, the results suggested that acutely exacerbated asthma takes longer to  
276 improve when caused by RSV rather than by IV.



277 Besides LTRA, LABA also has anti-viral as well as bronchodilator effects [26].  
278 Probably due to the small number of patients (n = 6), the use of LABA before entry did  
279 not significantly affect the present results (data not shown). A future study should also  
280 examine the effects of adding LABA in URI-induced acute exacerbation of asthma.

281 The present study has several critical limitations. Firstly, we defined URI based  
282 on clinical symptoms and only RSV and IV were detected. Although bacterial and other  
283 infections were excluded by physical and laboratory examinations, non-viral infections  
284 might have been included. Secondly, asthma-related symptoms were also evaluated  
285 based on clinical symptoms and objective measures of pulmonary functions such as  
286 PEF or FEV1.0 were missing because the patients had unstable asthma. Finally, this was  
287 not a placebo-controlled study and the cohort was small.

288

## 289 **Conclusions**

290 The present findings suggest a new therapeutic modality for LTRAs as a means  
291 of controlling chronic asthma. As in intermittent childhood asthma [15], LTRAs could  
292 be combined with CS only to relieve acute asthma induced by URI. Placebo-controlled,  
293 large scale studies including many types of representative respiratory viruses are  
294 warranted.

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296 None of the authors have conflicts of interest to claim other than a grant from ONO

297 Pharmaceutical Co. Ltd. to conduct the study.

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399 **Table 1. Characteristics of the intention-to-treat population.**

400	Characteristics	PSL	PSL + PRL
401	N	10	13
402	Age* (y)	48.2 (12.9)	41.9 (11.7)
403	Gender, M (F)	5 (5)	5 (8)
404	Atopy (%)	40.0	38.5
405	Disease duration* (y)	23 (5.4)	28 (6.7)
406	Maintenance ICS	375.0 (195.6)	368.8 (164.2)
407	FP equivalent* ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{day}$ )		
408	LABA use (%)	20.0	30.8
409	Time from onset of symptoms to first assessment* (days)		
410		4.1 (2.1)	3.7 (1.9)

411 \* Values are shown as means (SD).

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417 **Figure legends**

418 **Figure 1. Time using PSL (upper) and cumulative doses of PSL (lower) to eliminate**  
419 **asthma-related symptoms in the per-protocol population.**

420 Bars represent means  $\pm$  SD of PSL (n = 8) and PSL + PRL (n = 11) groups; \*p < 0.05.

421

422 **Figure 2. Time required to clear asthma-related symptoms in the per-protocol**  
423 **population.**

424 Bars represent means  $\pm$  SD of PSL (n = 8) and PSL + PRL (n = 11) groups. †p < 0.1.

Figure 1

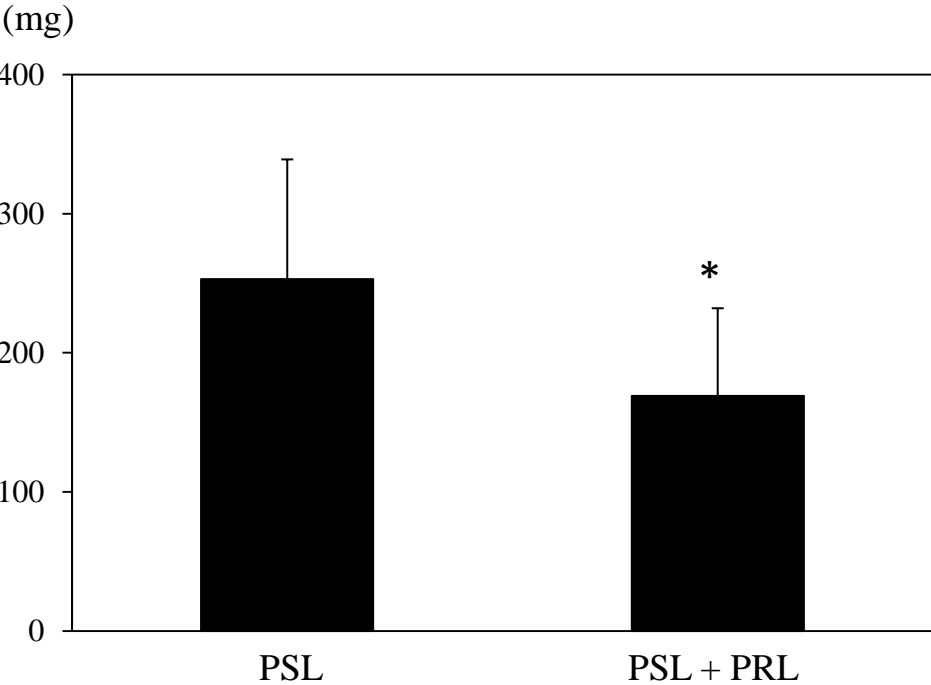
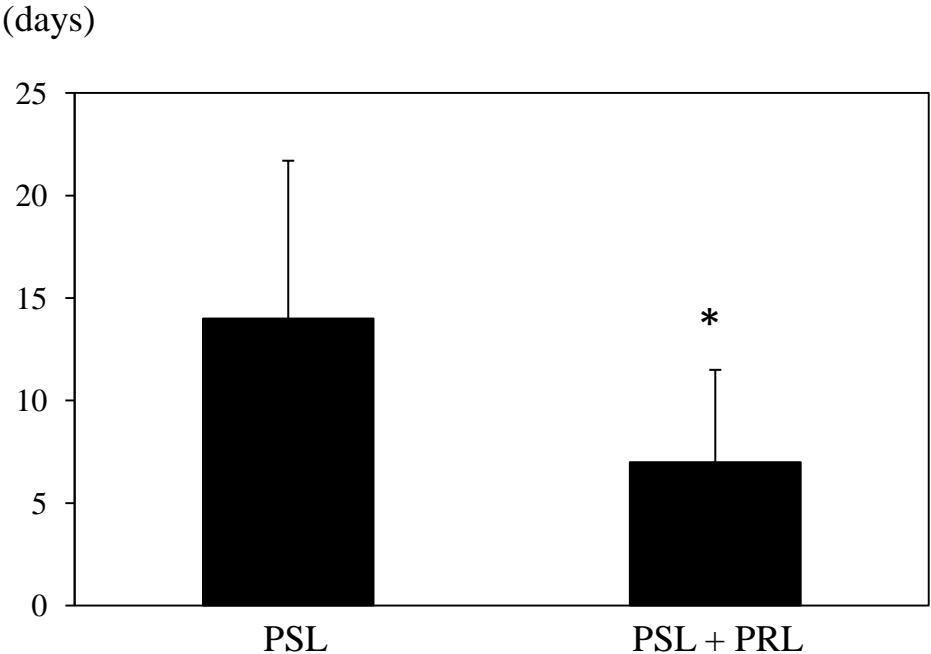


Figure 2

