

Minireview

Asthma, atopy, and exercise: Sex differences in exercise-induced bronchoconstriction

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Impact statement

Exercise-induced bronchoconstriction (EIB) occurs in individuals with and without asthma and is commonly associated with both a physical and an emotional burden in athletes. It is estimated that EIB affects 90% of patients with asthma, a disease known to differentially affect adult men and women. Despite the well-described sexual dimorphism in pediatric atopic asthma and adult non-atopic asthma, very little is known about sex differences in EIB, and in the relationship among sex, atopy, and EIB. This study summarizes research conducted on these topics, and in studies aimed to identify sex and atopic status as factors associated with EIB prevalence. Understanding the mechanisms underlying EIB in men and women may help in the development of better-personalized training and management plans for male and female athletes with underlying asthma and/or atopy.

Abstract

Asthma is a chronic inflammatory lung disease affecting approximately 7.7% of the US population. Sex differences in the prevalence, incidence, and severity of asthma have been widely described throughout the lifespan, showing higher rates in boys than girls before puberty, but a reversed pattern in adults. Asthma is often associated with atopy, i.e. the tendency to develop allergic diseases, and can be worsened by environmental stimuli and/or exercise. While not exclusive to patients with asthma, exercise-induced bronchoconstriction (EIB) is a common complication of athletes and individuals who exercise regularly. Currently, there is limited research on sex differences in EIB and its relationship with atopy and asthma in men and women. In this minireview, we summarize the available literature on this topic. Overall, the collective knowledge supports the notion that physiological changes triggered during exercise affect males and females differently, suggesting an interaction among sex, exercise, sex hormones, and atopic status in the course of EIB pathophysiology. Understanding these differences is important to provide personalized management plans to men and women who exercise regularly and suffer from underlying asthma and/or atopy.

Keywords: Inflammation, atopy, exercise-induced asthma, exercise-induced bronchoconstriction, sex differences, hormones

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Introduction

According to data from national and state surveillance systems of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, the national prevalence of asthma is about 7.7% in the US general population, with higher estimates for female adults (9.1%) than male adults (6.2%).¹ Sex differences in asthma prevalence, but also incidence, severity, and response to treatment, have been widely described, and shown to display a reversed pattern in pre- and post-pubertal patients.^{2,3} Prior to puberty, asthma is more frequently found in boys than girls, but in adults of reproductive age, asthma is more commonly found in women than men.^{4–7} These sex differences have been attributed to

anatomical, physiological, and hormonal factors, as well as occupational and environmental exposures.^{8–10}

A condition often associated with asthma is atopy.¹¹ Defined as the tendency to develop an enhanced immune response to allergens, atopy is found in 80% of US childhood asthma cases and over 50% of adult asthma cases.¹² Interestingly, this percentage that is greater among male than female patients with asthma and athletes, and is also higher in athletes and individuals who exercise regularly than in sedentary people.^{13–15} In addition, athletes with atopy often experience exercise-induced bronchoconstriction (EIB). EIB, also known as exercise-induced bronchospasm, is defined as the transient narrowing of the lower airways that occurs during or after exercise in the presence

or absence of clinically recognized asthma. While an episodic bronchospasm following exercise is sometimes defined as “exercise-induced asthma”, this wording is potentially misleading since exercise is not an independent risk factor for asthma, but rather a trigger of bronchoconstriction in patients with underlying asthma.^{16–18} Although EIB has been estimated to occur in up to 90% of patients with underlying asthma, it also occurs in individuals with no prior history of asthma and no symptoms outside exercise.¹⁹ EIB is also a relatively common condition that is frequently unrecognized, especially in schoolchildren and competitive athletes, because its symptoms are easily confused with “lack of fitness” or “being out of shape”. Current guidelines recommend that health care providers consider the patient’s history regarding respiratory symptoms associated with exercise and asthma when evaluating patients with bronchospasm.¹⁶

Despite the well-established sex differences in asthma prevalence mentioned above, very few studies have addressed sex differences in EIB in athletes and individuals who exercise regularly. The limited evidence available to date suggests that a relationship exists between sex and atopic status in the course of EIB in these populations, and that sex hormones may influence severe symptoms of EIB in female athletes.^{20,21} In the sections below, we summarize the current knowledge on the topic, focusing on sex differences in EIB epidemiology, diagnosis, pathophysiology, and physiological and environmental influences.

EIB epidemiology

Because most studies on this topic have focused on asthma in general, and not specifically on EIB, the epidemiology of EIB has not been very well described. As a result, the reported prevalence for EIB varies across studies, and is estimated to range between 5% and 20% in the general population (Figure 1).^{19,22–26} Among elite or Olympic-level athletes, however, the reported prevalence is much higher, ranging from 30% to 70% (Figure 1).^{19,27} Importantly, because only a few studies have differentiated individuals with and without asthma, the true prevalence of EIB within the non-asthmatic general population is currently unknown.²⁸ Regarding sex differences in EIB epidemiology, only a fraction of published studies has included male and female participants, and an even smaller fraction has assessed differences between males and females (athletes or not). We have recently systematically reviewed these studies and found that the average prevalence of EIB in athletes is around 23% (Figure 1).¹⁵ We also found that the prevalence of atopy was reportedly higher in male vs. female athletes, and in athletes with EIB vs. those without EIB. Collectively, the reviewed studies indicate that the prevalence of atopic EIB is higher in male athletes and regular exercisers than in females on these groups.¹⁵ Identifying such differences has clear implications for understanding sex and gender specific adaptations to exercise for athletic performance and overall health.²⁹

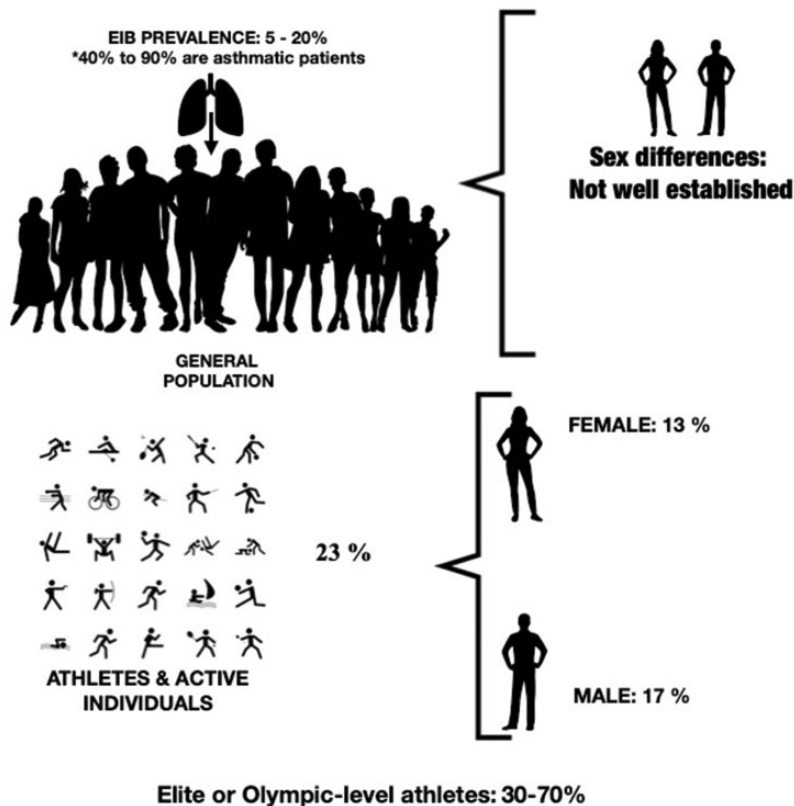


Figure 1. EIB prevalence in general and athletic/active individual populations and known sex differences.^{19–27}

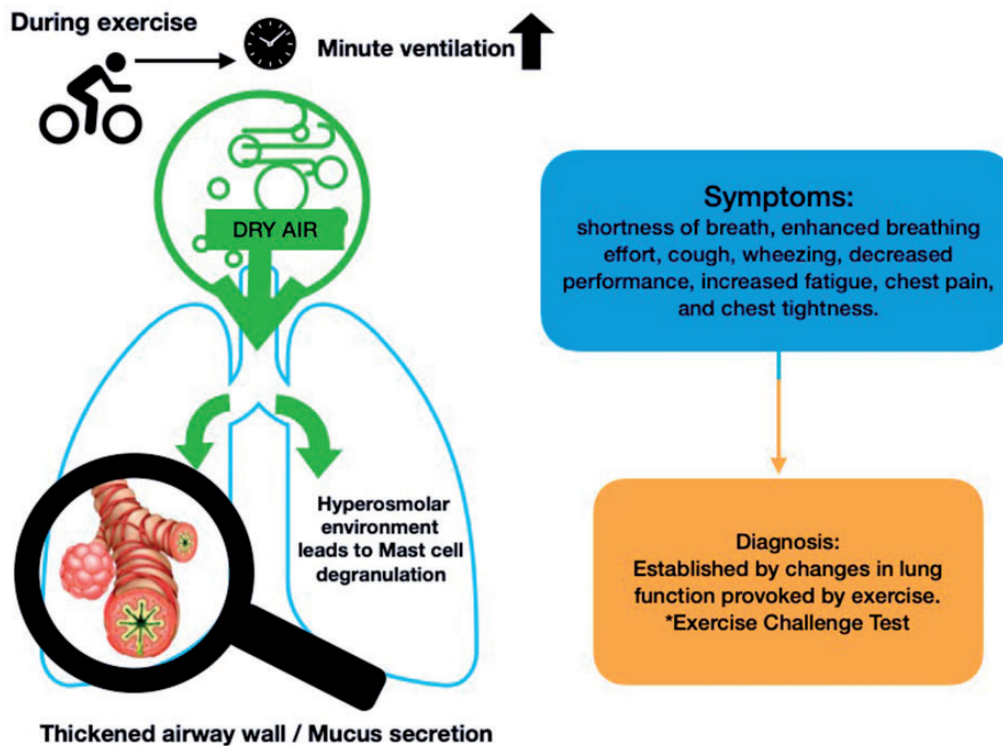


Figure 2. Pathogenesis of EIB (left), clinical presentation and objective diagnostic test (right).^{25,28–34,45} (A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

EIB diagnosis

The clinical presentation of EIB includes cough, wheezing, shortness of breath, and/or chest tightness (Figure 2), generally occurring within 5 to 30 min after intense physical activity. Patients with symptoms of suspected EIB are evaluated with a detailed history and physical examination (including examination of the ears, nose, and throat, and cardiac and chest assessments), and/or spirometry in conditions that mimic prolonged exercise (eucapnic voluntary hyperventilation), in which lung function measurements are performed before and after a short-acting beta agonist is given (Figure 2). In many patients, bronchial hyperresponsiveness is also evaluated in the laboratory with an exercise challenge or a surrogate bronchoprovocation challenge (e.g. with cold air hyperventilation, methacholine, adenosine monophosphate, or mannitol) to exclude asthma.^{30–34} The objective documentation of EIB via questionnaires permits the identification of individuals who may be at risk during a recreational sporting activity, or when exercising as an occupational duty. In general, it is recommended that the diagnosis of EIB is confirmed by demonstration of airways reversibility or challenge in association with a history consistent with EIB, because the use of self-reported measures or symptoms to diagnose EIB is not predictive of whether athletes have objectively documented EIB.^{27,35} In our prior review of the literature,¹⁵ we found that in studies including both males and females, 43% used exercise challenge alone as a diagnostic measure, whereas 14.2% used it in combination with a bronchial provocation test such as mannitol or methacholine, and 9% used self-reporting data via questionnaires. While we

do not know whether a sex bias exists in the ability of these tests to accurately diagnose EIB, sex differences in self-reported measures of airway hyperresponsiveness and other symptoms during exercise have been documented. In a study including 798 athletes (698 taking a survey), females were 1.6 times more likely to report respiratory symptoms during exercise than males, despite no differences in physician-diagnosed asthma between the genders.³⁶

EIB pathophysiology

To date, the pathogenesis of EIB has not been fully elucidated, although it is likely the result of physiological changes occurring in the lung during exercise.^{37,38} Minute ventilation, the volume of air inhaled or exhaled from a person's lungs per minute, rises with exercise (Figure 2).³⁹ A major trigger for bronchoconstriction is water loss during periods of high ventilation. Thus, the water content of the inspired air during exercise is also a major determinant of EIB.³⁵ Strenuous exercise creates a hyperosmolar environment by introducing dry air into the airway, and the resulting compensatory water loss triggers a transient osmotic change on the airway surface.⁴⁰ This hyperosmolar environment leads to mast cell degranulation with release of mediators, predominately leukotrienes, but also including histamine, tryptase, and prostaglandins.⁴¹ This is supported by evidence showing that mannitol challenge can trigger mast cell activation and release of mediators of bronchoconstriction in patients with and without asthma, indicating that increased osmolarity of the airway fluid lining is a general stimulus for activation of mast cells.⁴² In addition, eosinophils are also activated,

producing further mediators including leukotrienes.⁴³ In turn, this can lead to bronchoconstriction and inflammation of the airway, as well as stimulation of sensory nerves with neurokinin release, stimulating the release of the gel-forming mucin MUC5AC.^{35,44} These findings are sustained by experimental evidence showing that it is not the type of exercise, but the ventilation demand and humidity of the inspired air, that are the main determinants of the occurrence and degree of bronchoconstriction.^{45,46} Thus, the major trigger for bronchoconstriction in a vulnerable subject is either water loss during periods of high ventilation, or the addition of an osmotically active agent. Importantly, alterations in airway temperature developed during exercise, or other thermal factors, are thought to have only a minor effect on the amount of bronchoconstriction that occurs.⁴⁷

Environmental factors and EIB

The environment, including exposure to temperature, humidity, aeroallergens, irritants, and pollution, can also influence EIB pathophysiology.⁴⁸ Depending on the sport practiced by the individual, the hyperosmolarity of their upper and lower airways can be caused by hyperpnea (i.e. runners) leading to bronchoconstriction, nasal congestion, rhinorrhea and impaired mucociliary function, as well as exposure to irritants, indoor and outdoor allergens, and environmental air pollutants.⁴⁹ Similarly, swimmers can experience nasal congestion, rhinorrhea, and bronchospasm secondary to inhaled chloramines derived from hypochlorite in pool water disinfectants. Divers may also develop congestion and rhinosinusitis secondary to

barotrauma. On the other hand, boxers can develop increased nasal resistance, impaired secretion clearance, anosmia, and hyposmia as a result of repetitive nasal trauma. Finally, skiers and figure skaters may develop bronchospasm and rhinitis secondary to irritant effects of cold dry air or ultrafine particulates and NO₂ created by ice grooming equipment.⁴⁸ While no sex differences in the effects of these environmental exposures and effects have been studied, there are reported gender differences in sports preferences that may be linked to cultural norms.^{50–52} Overall, more studies are needed to determine the contributions of the environment to the effects of exercise in the male and female lung.

Sex differences in EIB

Sex differences in response to exercise have clear implications for understanding specific adaptations to exercise for athletic performance and overall health. Unfortunately, there is still no clear consensus about whether EIB is more predominant and/or severe in males or females, because the majority of studies conducted to date have either not enrolled athletes of both sexes or failed to assess or report sex differences. We have summarized the outcomes of 23 studies reporting prevalence of EIB in different types of athletes when enrolling males and females and diagnosing EIB with the methods described in Figure 2 (Table 1). While only 1 study reported no significant differences between males and females,⁵³ 5 studies reported a male predominance,^{54–58} 4 studies showed a female predominance,^{36,59–61} and 13 studies did not assess or not reported sex differences.^{62–74} As mentioned earlier, we

Table 1. Sex differences in EIB prevalence in studies involving male and female athletes.

Study population	Number of subjects enrolled	Diagnostic method(s)	Male/Female predominance	References
Elite athletes	329	Questionnaire	No difference	Lund <i>et al.</i> ⁵³
Elite cross-country skiers	18	EC	Male	Rundell <i>et al.</i> ⁵⁴
Boxers and swimmers	82	EVH	Male	Levai <i>et al.</i> ⁵⁵
High school student athletes	256	EC	Male	Hallstrand <i>et al.</i> ⁵⁶
High-competitive athletes	324	BT (dry powder mannitol or methacholine)	Male	Couto <i>et al.</i> ⁵⁷
Summer sports (high school and college athletes)	208	EC	Male	Becerril <i>et al.</i> ⁵⁸
Swimmers, winter athletes, endurance sports athletes	130	Questionnaire, EVH & BT	Female	Couillard <i>et al.</i> ⁵⁹
Athletes	798	BT and questionnaire	Female	Langdeau <i>et al.</i> ³⁶
Elite skiers and orienteers	402	Questionnaire	Female	Norqvist <i>et al.</i> ⁶⁰
Varsity sports collegiate athletes	144	EVH	Female	Parsons <i>et al.</i> ⁶¹
Recreational athletes	180	EVH	Unknown/Not reported	Allen <i>et al.</i> ⁶²
Italian Olympic Delegation	659	EC & BT	Unknown/Not reported	Bonini <i>et al.</i> ⁶³
Swimmers and winter sport athletes	90	EVH & BT	Unknown/Not reported	Bougault <i>et al.</i> ⁶⁴
College athletes	80	EC	Unknown/Not reported	Burnett <i>et al.</i> ⁶⁵
College athletes	196	Questionnaire	Unknown/Not reported	Burnett <i>et al.</i> ⁶⁶
Ski-mountaineering athletes	31	EC	Unknown/Not reported	Durand <i>et al.</i> ⁶⁷
Paralympic athletes	44	EVH & BT	Unknown/Not reported	Osthoff <i>et al.</i> ⁶⁸
Cross-country skiers	36	EC	Unknown/Not reported	Pohjantähti <i>et al.</i> ⁶⁹
Elite athletes	107	EC	Unknown/Not reported	Sallaoui <i>et al.</i> ⁷⁰
Athletes	326	EC	Unknown/Not reported	Sallaoui <i>et al.</i> ⁷¹
Elite athletes	107	EC	Unknown/Not reported	Sallaoui <i>et al.</i> ⁷²
Competitive swimmers and indoor athletes	54	EVH	Unknown/Not reported	Seys <i>et al.</i> ⁷³
Elite cross-country skiers	46	EVH and BT	Unknown/Not reported	Stenfors ⁷⁴

EC: exercise challenge; EVH: eucapnic voluntary hyperventilation; BT: bronchoprovocation test.

previously conducted a meta-analysis on this topic and found that atopic EIB is significantly more prevalent in male athletes than female athletes.¹⁵ Thus, studies assessing sex differences in EIB should also consider additional intrinsic factors, such as atopy, allergic rhinitis, asthma, and lung anatomy, that can also influence EIB and athletic performance.^{48,75,76}

Male and female intrinsic factors and EIB

There are well-characterized sex differences in the structure and function of the respiratory system that can impact responses during exercise.⁷⁷ Such differences can impact airway flow, lung volume and pressure, and the consequent higher work of breathing observed in women across a range of ventilations.⁷⁸ Women also have smaller airway diameter and lung volume, which results in lower peak expiratory flow and vital capacity.⁷⁹ This can predispose women, and particularly athletes, to develop expiratory flow limitation during exercise.^{80,81}

Another factor to consider is that exercise can lower circulating hormone levels, specifically estrogen, in women of reproductive age.⁸² While not studied in detail, this reduction in estrogen could potentially be associated with EIB in females, as it could mimic the physiological estrogen decline occurring around menses. In this regard, an estimated 33–52% of women with asthma have previously reported a premenstrual worsening of asthma symptoms, and an additional 22% have reported asthma that is worse during menses.⁸³ This phenomenon is known as perimenstrual or catamenial asthma, and it is characterized by an increased airway inflammation in the premenstrual period in some women with asthma.^{83–88} Similarly, asthma symptoms can also present more frequently in the periovulatory phase in some women.^{89,90} In female athletes with asthma, it has been found that the menstrual cycle phase can also determine the severity of EIB.^{91–93} Specifically, females in the mid-luteal phase present with increased EIB severity and worsening of asthma symptoms and increased bronchodilator use than females in the follicular and menstrual phases.⁹¹ This is consistent with reports indicating that lung function is generally worse during the late follicular phase, when estrogen levels are highest,⁹⁴ and stabilization of asthma symptoms in women using oral contraceptives that alleviate estrogen spikes.⁹⁵ Moreover, because mast cells, but not lymphocytes, macrophages, or other immune cells, express estrogen and progesterone receptors in human upper airways and nasal polyps, it has been hypothesized this region may be a major route for the involvement of sex hormones in airway inflammation.⁹⁶

Although the mechanisms underlying the effects of the menstrual cycle on EIB and asthma have not been yet fully elucidated, several animal models of allergen sensitization and asthma have previously suggested a role of ovarian hormones in mediating lung inflammatory processes.^{90,91,94,95,97–102} In an ovalbumin (OVA)-sensitized and OVA-challenged (OVA/OVA) mouse asthma model, eosinophils, lymphocytes, T-helper type 2 cytokines, and growth factors in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF) are

higher in female than in male mice.¹⁰³ Accordingly, removal of ovaries prior to OVA sensitization significantly inhibits lung eosinophilia and BALF IL-5 levels. Moreover, removal of ovaries 8 days after the sensitization period induces a significant increase in BALF IL-5 levels.¹⁰⁴ When compared with females, males show less severe bronchial-bronchiolar inflammation and lower IL-4 levels in splenic cells, an effect that is reversed when males are castrated.¹⁰⁵ Overall, data from animal studies indicate that sex hormones can contribute to disease pathogenesis or serve as protective factors, depending on the disease involved.¹⁰

Regarding EIB, there are a variety of animal models that have helped elucidate the mechanisms by which hyperventilation results in airway obstruction and EIB.¹⁰⁶ These studies have helped elucidate contributions of airflow-induced bronchoconstriction, its stimulation by airway drying and inhibition by cooling stimuli, the resulting damage to the bronchial mucosa by hyperpnea with dry air, the role of the airway smooth muscle and airway epithelium, the biochemical mediators participating (including cysteinyl-leukotrienes and pro-inflammatory cytokines), as well as the airway and vascular responses to dehydration during EIB.^{106–108} However, to our discernment, no studies have specifically addressed sex differences in EIB in animal models, nor assessed the roles of sex hormones EIB mechanisms.

Influence of atopy in asthma and EIB

As mentioned earlier, atopy is a personal and/or familial genetic predisposition, to become sensitized and produce IgE antibodies in response to ordinary allergen exposures, usually in childhood or adolescence.¹⁰⁹ Atopy is diagnosed by an IgE sensitization test, where IgE antibodies are determined in serum or by a skin prick test. Subjects with atopy can develop typical symptoms of asthma, eczema, or rhinoconjunctivitis, as well as EIB.^{48,110} Epidemiological data show that in the United States, 56.3% of asthma cases can be attributable to atopy, and this percentage is greater among men than women.¹² In athletes, we previously found that atopy is also significantly more prevalent in males than females (19% vs. 14%, respectively, $P < 0.01$), as well as in athletes with EIB versus without EIB (53% vs. 41%, respectively, $P < 0.01$), when sex is not considered.¹⁵ Regarding differences in male and female athletes, we found that the relationship between sex and atopy in EIB athletes was also statistically significant. In a combined sample of 374 healthy and atopic athletes and regular exercisers, atopic athletes were 2.36 times more likely to be male than female ($P < 0.0001$), whereas non-atopic athletes showed a 1:1 male to female ratio. We concluded that sex specific mechanisms, potentially mediated by sex hormones, contribute to the inflammatory and physiological changes triggered by exercise in athletes.¹⁵

Sex steroid hormones and EIB

Multiple studies, including work from us, have provided evidence indicating that estrogen (and progesterone)

signaling affects virtually every cell of the immune system, and plays an important role in lung inflammation, airway mechanics, and asthma.¹¹¹⁻¹¹⁵ The influences of estrogen on immune cells favor allergic responses, promoting Th2 polarization, encouraging class switching of B cells to IgE production, and prompting mast cell and basophil degranulation.¹¹⁶⁻¹²³ Estrogens also play an important role in immune modulation, and contribute to the significantly higher incidence of autoimmune and inflammatory disease in women than men, as well as variations in chronic inflammatory disease symptoms during the menstrual cycle, pregnancy, and menopause.^{124,125} Interestingly, progesterone favors the switch from Th0 to a Th2 cytokine profile in lymphocytes.⁹⁸ In the context of exercise, both female hormones also have potential effects on exercise capacity and performance by affecting substrate metabolism, cardiorespiratory function, thermoregulation, and the central and peripheral components of the respiratory control system.^{20,21} However, because exercise can alter hormonal and ovulation profiles in women, the relationship between female sex hormones and EIB remains inconclusive. While it is estimated that approximately half of exercising women experience subtle menstrual disturbances, such as luteal phase deficiency and anovulation, and that one-third of exercising women may be amenorrheic,¹²⁶ many of these women go undiagnosed due to the asymptomatic nature of these disturbances.¹²⁷ The hormonal patterns observed in these amenorrheic athletes also display a decrease in GnRH pulses from the hypothalamus, which results in decreased pulsatile secretion of luteinizing hormone and follicle-stimulating hormone, resulting in lack of ovarian stimulation.¹²⁸ The available evidence also indicates that women

who exercise frequently also have longer follicular phase which is characterized by low levels of estrogen. Thus, while the exact mechanisms linking hormones and EIB development in different groups of patients remain elusive, it is clear that the menstrual cycle phase is an important determinant of the severity of EIB in female athletes with mild atopic asthma.⁹¹

Regarding male hormones, the low predominance of men with asthma after puberty have led researchers to suggest anti-inflammatory roles for androgens, including testosterone.^{129,130} Given its widespread expression in many cells and tissues, the androgen receptor has been implicated in a diverse range of biological actions, including inhibitory effects in T lymphocytes and other inflammatory cells.¹³¹⁻¹³³ Collectively, the available literature suggests that androgens exert anti-inflammatory actions in the lung, although the severity of asthma in men increases later in life when androgens levels decrease.¹³⁴⁻¹³⁶ Overall, more research is needed to elucidate the roles of male sex hormones in lung inflammation, asthma, atopy, and potentially EIB.

Conclusions

The collective clinical, epidemiological, and experimental evidence indicates that asthma, atopy, and EIB are conditions that differentially affect men and women across the lifespan, and often present simultaneously in athletes and non-athletes. Although studies involving both sexes are limited, the current available knowledge suggests that a combination of anatomical, physiological, environmental, and hormonal factors can contribute to EIB and exercise-induced asthma in men and women (Figure 3). While atopic status has been linked to EIB in athletes of both

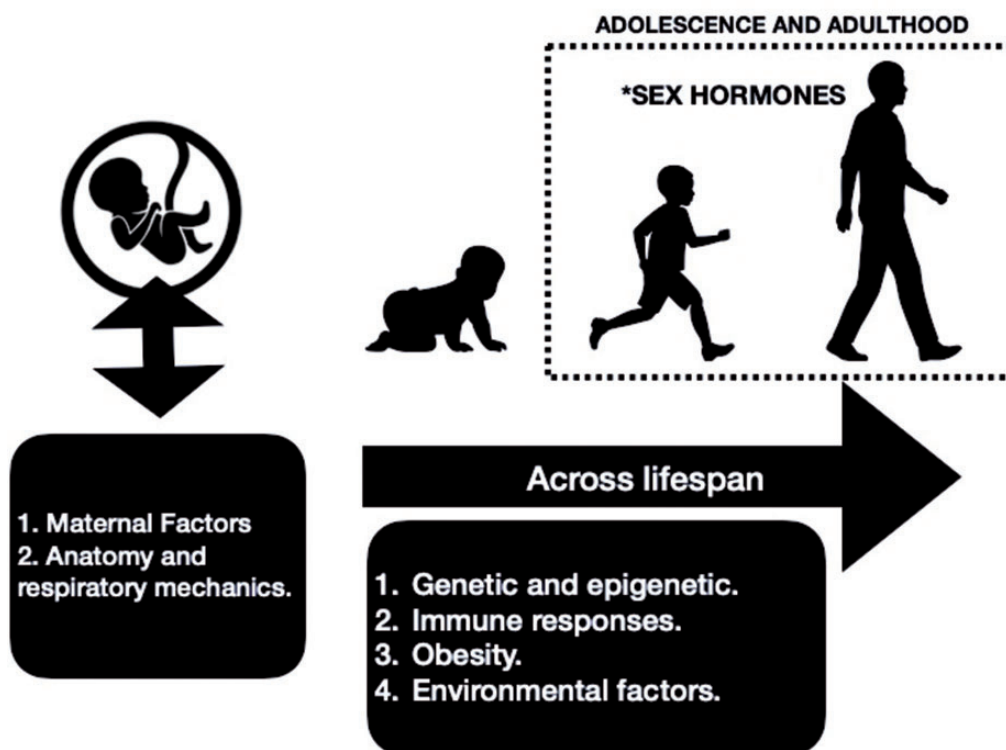


Figure 3. Factors affecting sex differences in asthma/EIB across the lifespan.²⁻¹⁰

sexes, a significantly higher rate of atopic EIB has been found in male athletes than females. In females, hormonal fluctuations and environmental exposures appear to influence EIB symptoms, although the mechanisms underlying these events remain unknown. Thus, it is imperative that more research incorporating sex as a biological variable is conducted to better understand sex-specific mechanisms of EIB in the context of asthma and atopy. Understanding these mechanisms will aid in the future development of sex-specific therapeutics for athletes and individuals who exercise regularly.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

DRB and PS conceptualized the review. DRB reviewed the literature, extracted, and analyzed the data. DRB and PS wrote and revised the manuscript.

DECLARATION OF CONFLICTING INTERESTS


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