

Effect Of Particulate Matter On Allergic Response

Shiv Narayan ^{*1} and Dr. Jeetendra Kumar Gupta²

^{1*}Research Scholar, Institute of Pharmaceutical Research, GLA University, Mathura - 281406, Uttar Pradesh, India. Email: Shiv.dydx@gmail.com

²Assistant Professor (Pharmacology),Institute of Pharmaceutical Research, GLA University, Mathura - 281406, Uttar Pradesh, India.

ABSTRACT:

Exacerbation of asthma is linked to PM2.5 pollution ("particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter of less than 2.5 m"). The purpose of this review is to compile the most recent research on the association between PM exposure, asthama and allergic disorders. Inflammatory and immunological responses, as well as epigenetics, might all play a role in the development of these conditions. In order to give a comprehensive study of the epidemiology of respiratory-related allergic illnesses (including rhinitis and asthma), as well as the influence of air pollution on respiratory allergy-related health, we set out to conduct extensive research (with a focus on particle matter). Long-term exposure to PM2.5, according to our findings, may raise the incidence of asthmatic and allergic disorders or symptoms. Identifying the mechanisms by which PM causes allergic disorders, as well as the factors that increase a person's sensitivity to PM and allergic diseases, such as genetic polymorphisms and crucial exposure windows, is a top focus for researchers.

Keywords: Pollution, Chronic, Allergic, Disease, Respiratory.

INTRODUCTION:

Asthma exacerbation has been associated with PM2.5 particles with an aerodynamic diameter of less than 2.5 m in various studies. Toxic traffic (engine vehicle and street dust source-distributed particles) as well as unstable natural mixes have been linked to asthmatic children's wheezing, coughing, and shortness of breath. Be that as it may, most of these examinations utilized focal site observing information as an intermediary of individual openness. This presents traditional and Berkson-type openness estimation blunder prompting weakened and more factor portion reaction gauges, individually. As people invest most of their energy inside, assessing the negligible part of indoor PM2.5 that is of open-air beginning in wellbeing impact investigations can lessen openness estimation blunder and feature contrasts in the poisonousness of PM2.5 and its parts of indoor versus open-air beginning.

Cough and wheeze symptoms in asthmatic children have apparently not been studied in relation to indoor PM2.5 from open-air beginnings and its components. We initially planned to determine the penetration factor in order to reach this goal (Finf). There are few or no indoor sulphur sources and hence, we used the sulphur tracer approach to determine Finf's location. More and more people are suffering from asthma and allergies, especially those living in Westernized countries. Since the 1960s, there has been a dramatic increase in the occurrence of many disorders that cannot be explained just by genetic causes. As a result of rising air pollution and population exposures as a result of rapid urbanisation and industrialization, most epidemiologic research focus on probable correlations between air pollution and respiratory disorders[1]. Lower airway inflammation, upper airway irritation, asthma hospitalizations, asthma incidences, and the usage of bronchodilators have all been associated to exposure to particulate matter (PM) pollution. Respiratory infections, sensitisation, respiratory allergic disorders, and wheezing can all result from exposure to biological allergens. There is emerging evidence that chemical pollutants in the air might interact with allergens in the air, increasing the risk of atopic sensitization and exacerbating symptoms in persons who are already sensitised. Recent in vitro and animal research has demonstrated that asthma and allergies may be worsened by exposure to both air pollution and allergens at the same time, even if this link is still little understood by the general public **[2**].

When the airways get inflamed and the mucus production increases, it becomes difficult to inhale and exhale from the lungs. Children between the ages of 0 and 17 are more likely to suffer from asthma than adults between the ages of 18 and 65. It is common for children to be diagnosed with asthma when they are five years old, but symptoms can begin at any age. Wheezing without a cold, being allergic to airborne allergens, and having asthmatic parents are all risk factors for developing asthma in children under the age of five. A virus typically seen in babies with viral bronchiolitis, respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), is associated with an increased risk of wheezing and asthma throughout childhood and adulthood **[3].**

Several environmental factors, including both indoor and outdoor air quality, have been linked to asthma exacerbationAsthmatic children's respiratory outcomes have been linked to elevated levels of ambient fine particulate matter (PM2.5) **[4]**. Vehicles, coal and wood burning, and industrial operation all contribute to the formation of PM2.5, which is a complex combination of tiny particles and liquid droplets.

We have relied on indirect methods for estimating traffic-related air pollutants since it is difficult to assess the complex combination of pollutants generated by automobiles. Exposure to high-traffic areas

or areas near major highways has also been linked to negative respiratory outcomes **[5]**. Asthma incidence is greater among children who live near major highways, and vehicle pollution concentrations diminish to background levels after 150–300 metres (m). Asthma episodes in children have been linked to both hot and cold season air pollution. It has long been known to have negative health consequences on all populations, but newborns and young children are especially sensitive. When inhaled, PM2.5 particles can penetrate deep into the lungs because they are so minute **[6]**.

I. PARTICULATE MATTER

Particulate matter (PM) is a combination of droplets of water and solid particles, such as dust, soot, or smoke, that are transported by the air. If, where, and to what extent airborne PM can be deposited in the respiratory system, it is determined by its median aerodynamic diameter.

Organic and inorganic compounds, as well as various elements and ionic species, are found in PM (such as sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium ions). Local combinations of gaseous pollutants, geography, and seasonal weather and industry trends all influence ambient PM in any given geographic location. In addition to seasonal changes in emission sources and meteorological influences such as temperature, wind speed and humidity, mixing height, and rainfall, all of these factors can influence PM levels. 10 PM's composition, as expected, has an impact on its negative health impacts. To put it simply: primary PM (man-made or naturally occurring) is released into the environment, whereas secondary PM (airborne chemicals that have experienced photochemical reactions) is made up of airborne compounds (e.g. organic carbon and sulphates) **[7]**.

As a result of urbanisation and economic growth in many Asian countries, industrial activities and motor vehicle emissions have increased, causing air pollution to skyrocket. International attention has been drawn to Southeast Asia's seasonal haze from biomass burning because of its detrimental impact on air quality and human health. Huge volumes of particulate matter (PM) are dispersed into the atmosphere by the prevailing winds and may travel great distances, causing problems in countries like "Indonesia, Malaysia, Brunei, Thailand, Singapore, and the Philippines"**[8].**

According on where it comes from, PM2.5 is a mixture of inorganic and organic chemicals with different compositions, distributions, and health effects. Children with asthma have been shown to experience wheezing, coughing, and shortness of breath when exposed to fine particulate matter 2.5 (PM2.5). This is due to the presence of nickel and vanadium, as well as components of carbon, organic carbon, and

pollutants originating from traffic congestion. It was used as a proxy for personal exposure in the majority of these studies, however. This introduces exposure measurement error of the classical and Berkson types, resulting in dose–response estimates that are attenuated and more variable, respectively[9].

To reduce exposure measurement error and emphasise the differences in toxicity of PM2.5 and its components originating from indoor and outside sources during health impact assessments, it is critical to know how much of the PM2.5 originates from the outside. Understanding how much of the PM2.5 originates from the outside is critical**[10**].

PM as a public health risk factor

PM has become a public health hazard, with 4.24 million fatalities attributed to it in 2015, up 7.8% from 2005.PM was ranked sixth among the top ten most dangerous factors leading to worldwide disability-adjusted life-years in 2015. A large number of epidemiological studies have investigated the relationship between PM concentrations and hospitalizations for respiratory illnesses all around the world[11].

The human body is in close touch with PM. While the lungs, liver, kidneys, heart, and brain can all be discovered to have a significant amount of particles in their tissues and fluids, the lungs are by far the most common location of deposition[12]. There is no defined hazardous dose for PM due to the variability of their chemical and physical properties. Even exposure to PM at concentrations below the US regulatory regulations, according to Fann et al., [13], poses a considerable health risk.

Since it has such a major impact on human health, WHOAQG (World Health Organization Air Quality Guidelines) chose PM2.5 as the particle pollution indicator in 2006.

I. MECHANISM OF ASTHAMA

There's a growing body of evidence suggesting asthma isn't only a pulmonary issue, but rather an airway disease that affects the entire respiratory tract, which is why it regularly coexists with other atopic conditions, such as allergic conjunctivitis**[14].**

Though significant advances in asthma diagnosis and therapy have occurred over the past decade, as well as widespread acceptance of national and international clinical practise standards, asthma control in Canada remains inadequate. More than half of all Canadians with asthma have uncontrolled symptoms, according to the results of the Reality of Asthma Control in Canada research [15]. All of these

repercussions of inadequate asthma management include unnecessary morbidity, restrictions on everyday activities, and a lower quality of life.

Asthma is an inflammatory condition of the airways that lasts for a long time. Aerobic hyperresponsiveness (an exaggerated narrowing of the airways due to specific triggers such as viruses, allergies and exercise) is associated with chronic inflammation. Because of this, the patient has a range of symptoms, including wheezing, dyspnea, chest tightness, and coughing, among others. A wide-spread, though varied, airflow obstruction in the lungs is often associated with symptoms episodes, and this can be resolved either naturally or with proper asthma medication, such as a fast-acting bronchodilator [16].

Asthma is linked to immunological responses that are similar to those seen in other atopic diseases, such as T helper cell type-2 (Th2). "House dust mites, animal dander, mould, and pollens" are just some of the triggers that can kick off a chain reaction that leads to chronic airway inflammation in people who are both allergic and nonallergic. Cytokines induce eosinophilic inflammation and the formation of IgE. (IgE). Histamine and cysteinyl leukotrienes, two inflammatory mediators, promote bronchospasm (contraction of the airways' smooth muscles), edoema, and an increase in mucus secretion, all of which contribute to the symptoms of asthma [**17**].

There is an increase in airway inflammation and bronchial hyperreactivity (late-phase asthmatic response) due to the inflammatory mediators and cytokines that are created in the early phases of the immunological response. Asthma exacerbations cause the airways to reshape, resulting in poor lung function and airway obstruction. On the other hand, this shows the importance of keeping an eye on the condition of your asthma and making sure it doesn't flare up again.

II. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PM 2.5 AND ASTHMA OR ALLERGIC DISEASES

Variables affecting an individual's chance of having asthma may be influenced by both inherited and environmental influences. In 2016, 339.4 million people throughout the world were affected by asthma. With a 95% confidence range of 2.97–3.06 percentage points, China has an asthma prevalence rate of 3.02 percent for children under 14 years old [**18**]. Even though corticosteroids can help alleviate asthma symptoms, the number of people who suffer from it is on the rise. Children's asthma is mostly caused by exposure to airborne allergens in pollution[**19**].Environmental variables, including allergens, airborne irritants and unfavourable weather, have been associated to the onset and progression of asthma in

children. Human health is adversely affected by PM2.5 and PM10. High PM2.5 and PM10 concentrations have been linked to an increased mortality rate and the occurrence of a variety of diseases, including "respiratory diseases, cardiovascular diseases, central nervous system diseases, and inflammation". PM has been a major source of air pollution in China in recent years as a result of growing industrialization and urbanisation [**20**]. As a result of this reality, hospitals, the government, and the general public are becoming increasingly concerned about the health hazards linked with PM. Health care providers must have early and efficient protocols in place to cope with an increase in outpatients resulting from harmful environmental conditions, such as PM.

The majority of research undertaken around the world looked at the long-term effects of PM exposure on asthma, while just a few looked at the influence of PM exposure on asthma control rate.

Several studies have looked at indoor and ambient pollution and allergies, but there is little information concerning particulate matter **[21]**. Aside from cell lines and mouse models, contemporary empirical research has focused on the detrimental impacts of PM exposure. It is more likely to be practical and reliable to evaluate PM exposure effects using data from electronic health records (EHR).

The airways have been demonstrated to respond to PM exposure in a unique way. Damage to DNA is produced by PM in the same way that it causes inflammation and apoptosis. Asthmatic symptoms have been reported in 14% of children over the world [22]. Given the fact that their lungs are still growing and that their breathing rates and airway lengths are shorter than those of adults, children's lungs are more sensitive to the health impacts of particle pollution (PM) than those of adults, according to the World Health Organization [23].

Although some data suggests that PM plays a role in the development of asthma, the results are mixed. The dominant cause of air pollution in the majority of groups was traffic (TRAP). Long-term exposure to PM2.5 during infancy has been associated with an increased risk of developing asthma [OR 1.14 (95% CI 1.0-1.3)]; however, a recent meta-analysis of birth cohort studies found no evidence of a link between PM2.5 exposure and asthma. Other cohort studies have shown a relationship between TRAP exposure and asthma incidence and wheeze; however, these studies included both children and adults, neglecting the potentially significant differences in effects associated with TRAP exposure in children and adolescents [24].

A wide range of approaches may be found when it comes to Asian studies. Despite the fact that just a few prospective birth cohort studies from Asia were available, several ongoing studies were being done to study this topic. A new research of 184,604 Taiwanese newborns identified a link between prenatal (gestational weeks 6-22 weeks) and postnatal (post-partum weeks 9-46 weeks) exposure to PM2.5 and a higher risk of developing asthma. Pregnant women who were exposed to more than 93 g/m3 of PM2.5 had an elevated chance of developing asthma.

The findings of studies aimed at determining the relationship between asthma prevalence and residential proximity to major roadways have been mixed. The evidence for a link between asthma and living near highways with heavy truck traffic is stronger. Wheezing was shown to be 1.18 times more likely in primary school students (95 percent confidence interval: 1.00-1.16) and secondary school children (95 percent confidence interval: 1.01-1.32) who lived within 150 metres of a major road in the United Kingdom (95 percent confidence interval: 1.02-1.16). Within 90 yards of the roadway, the bulk of the higher risk occurred. There was no correlation between roadside exposure and the prevalence of asthma in Japan's study.

It is possible that air pollution might cause asthma, and ideas have been put out to explain this connection. A variety of genetic variables, as well as exposure to PM and aeroallergens, are believed to have a role in asthma pathogenesis. [25. Ambient PM may play a role in the development of asthma in vulnerable people, according to evidence from meta-analyses and mechanistic research. Asthma may be exacerbated if you live near busy roadways. An increasing amount of research implies that TRAP exposure causes many cases of asthma, while other mechanisms are likely to be implicated given asthma's complicated pathophysiology. Longer-term prospective cohort studies with a well-designed design may provide conclusive data.

Asthma exacerbation caused by particulate matter

Air pollution is widely believed to be linked to asthma flare-ups.

PM2.5 may have been responsible for 5-10 million emergency room visits in 2015. 73 percent of PM2.5 was due to human-caused emissions. It's uncertain whether a short-term, peak exposure to PM (for example, in 1 hour) is more strongly connected with asthmatic exacerbation than a longer average exposure (for example, over a few days). Peak exposure may be more essential than normal long-term

exposure, according to some data. [26] It is necessary to investigate whether there is a time lag between PM exposure and asthmatic exacerbation.

A small number of asthmatic children and adults were studied in prospective cohort studies that exposed them to ambient PM2.5 and PM2.5-10 for a short length of time. It has been associated to asthma and lung function deterioration in both children and adults who have been exposed to particulate matter for an extended period of time (PM). People with asthma who are subjected to short-term exposure to high levels of PM10 and PM2.5 are at an increased risk of visiting the emergency department and being admitted to the hospital.

According to a meta-analysis of data from Asia, where short-term exposure to air pollution is frequent, the incidence of asthma and COPD hospitalizations are higher in the general population [27]. Many experimental research have also confirmed the link between PM and asthma exacerbations. In animal studies, PM induced allergic inflammation with differentiation of Th2 and Th17 cells. Asthma and airway inflammation can be worsened by DEP exposure, which has an impact on IL-17A. According to human challenge experiments, the instillation of 100 g of PM2.5 suspension into the lungs of healthy volunteers resulted in minimal airway irritation.

Studies have shown that exposure to PM can cause inflammation and oxidative stress in the lower respiratory tract of people. By activating afferent, airway, chemo-sensitive C-fibers, DEP can trigger respiratory reflexes. The transient receptor potential ankyrin-1 (TRPA1) ion channel, which mediates interactions between DEP and these afferents, is activated by oxidative stress. 76 PM exacerbations may be reduced in frequency or severity if personal monitoring and an early action plan are implemented.

PM's effects on allergic and respiratory illnesses

Allergy-related respiratory diseases such as asthma and rhinitis (AR) have comparable pathophysiological changes and inflammatory responses.

Genetic (germline risk loci) and environmental variables are key risk factors for allergic respiratory disorders (including PM). There is still no clear understanding of how particulate matter (PM) contributes to the development of asthma and rhinitis, despite several research showing that it does. There are several new results that have contributed to shed light on the pathogenicity of different subtypes of PM.

Oxidative stress in asthma is induced by PM2.5

Exposure to PM2.5 has been shown to cause oxidative stress and loss of pulmonary function, which are both connected. The neutrophils of asthmatic patients were shown to have a burst of reactive oxygen species caused by PM2.5. Phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3 (PIP3) was observed to increase the expression of GCLC, HO-1, and NQO-1 and activate Nrf2 in the phosphatidylinositol-4-bisphosphate 3 (PIP3) of human lung epithelial cells (A549) exposed to PM2.5 [**28**].

PM2.5 promotes apoptosis and autophagy in asthma, which is why it is so dangerous

PM2.5 exposure can lead to apoptosis and autophagy. Wspe was capable to inducing apoptosis in lung epithelial cells by activating three different signalling pathways (P53, c-Myc, and P21). [29] Particles inhaled by asthmatic mice increased LC3A/B, a sign for autophagy (autophagy biomarkers). Human lung epithelial cells are affected by PM2.5 through caspase-8 and caspase-3 signalling; the TNF-signaling route; and the intrinsic apoptosis pathway via caspase-3 signalling, all of which contribute to apoptosis (BCL2).

I. PM2.5 DAMAGES ON HUMAN RESPIRATORY SYSTEM

Researchers in Canada and the United States discovered that prolonged exposure to PM2.5 increased the risk of cardiovascular problems and cellular breakdowns in the lungs. From 2000 to 2007, an extensive investigation in the United States found that for every 10 g/m3 drop in PM2.5, the average life expectancy increased by 0.35 years.

According to Pope and colleagues, the American Cancer Society provided a wealth of data on 500,000 adults residing in large urban regions. For every 10 g/m3 increase in PM2.5, they concluded that death from all causes and mortality from heart and lung diseases increased by 4%, 6%, and 8%, respectively. This was after excluding the risk variables of smoking, food, drinking, and profession. a related research by the American Cancer Society tracked the mortality of cell breakdown in the lungs by 15–27 percent as PM2.5 air concentration increased by 10 g/m3 for more than a decade [1982–2008]. In individuals who had recurring lung infections, this threat was much greater. According to the findings of 11 European studies, the population risk of lung adenocarcinoma increased by 1.55 (95 percent Cl: 1.05–2.29) for every 5 micrograms per cubic metre increase in PM2.5. Respiratory disorders, including pneumonia in particular, were shown to be linked to long-term exposure to visible particles in Japan's six districts and three states in 2011, after correcting for smoking and other characteristics. Yadav et al. discovered that outbreaks of cloud increased the severity of asthma, flu, and severe respiratory plot pollution.

II. ESTABLISHED TRETAMENT FOR ASTHAMA

SABAs and LABAs (corticosteroids) are presently the mainstay of asthma therapy, according to diseasemanagement guidelines. For rhinitis, well-established treatment options include non-sedating H1antihistamine, topical corticoids, and adrenaline receptor agonists. Since allergic conditions are often treated with a mix of drugs to alleviate symptoms as well as to control them, treatment recommendations often include both. Asthma is an excellent illustration of how a thorough understanding of the disease's pathophysiology has influenced current treatment techniques.

Corticosteroids

By inhibiting transcription factors like nuclear factor-B (NF-B) and activator protein 1 (AP-1), which control the expression of genes for cytokines and adhesion molecules, it is possible to diminish airway Th2-cell-mediated inflammation (AP1). Cell membrane-bound corticosteroids enter the cytoplasm, where they bind to glucocorticoid receptors in the nucleus. When these receptors are active, they are translocated to the nucleus, where a number of mechanisms, including gene transactivation and transrepression, influence the activity of target genes. [**30**]

Cellular corticosteroids enter the nucleus, where they initiate transcription of their target genes by binding the glucocorticoid receptor (GR), which is located in the cytoplasm. In the promoters of many genes, you'll find GREs (glucocorticosteroid response elements). Some of these transcription factors (such as CBP) interact with large co-activators that have intrinsic HAT activity and are activated by the glucocorticoid receptor–corticosteroid complex, which results in a decrease in the expression of genes that have been induced by these transcription factors.

Second-generation RNA polymerase (RNA pol II)

When used early in children, inhaled corticosteroids are quite efficient at reducing airway inflammation**[40,41]**. However, they have little influence on the disease's normal course. There is no evidence that inhaled corticosteroids are useful in the treatment of asthma exacerbations induced by viruses or in asthmatics who smoke. These are 2-adrenoceptor agonists to quickly relieve asthma symptoms, the most effective bronchodilators at the moment are SABAs like salbutamol and turbutaline. Adrenoceptor 2-agonist binds to Gs protein and activates Adenylate Cyclase, which in turn activates protein kinase A and enhances cyclic adenine 3'5'-monophosphate synthesis. For patients with asthma, phosphorylating and opening Ca2+-dependent K+ channels relieves bronchoconstriction.

To treat asthma that is not managed by inhaled steroids, inhalation LABAs formoterol and salmeterol, two LABAs, produce bronchodilation for at least 12 h. LABAs have also been proposed to enhance the effectiveness of inhaled corticosteroids. LABA monotherapy is not suggested since it may disguise growing inflammation, which could have catastrophic consequences. Combination inhalers combining inhaled corticosteroids and LABAs are now widely used due to increased patient adherence and convenience.

Antagonizers of mediators and synthesis inhibitors

In the early days of allergy treatment, H1-antihistamines like chlorpheniramine were employed. They were effective in controlling allergy symptoms, although they have anti-cholinergic and sedative adverse effects. For example, loratadine and desloratadine have been developed to address these concerns since they have reduced penetration of the blood–brain barrier, better effectiveness and selectivity, and lower cardiac toxicities. Allosteric modulators of airway smooth muscle contraction are among the most effective contractile agonists of airway smooth muscle, and they also have effects on microvessel, mucous, mucolytic, eosinophil, and neuronal systems (CysLTR1) **[32]**. Active asthma and rhinitis have been shown to increase the levels of CysLTC4, CysLTD4, and CysTE4. CysLTs are not affected by corticosteroids in any way. Leukotriene modulators that are commercially available include montelukast, zafirlukast, and pranlukast; however, the only 5-lipoxygenase inhibitor that has completed clinical studies is zileuton. Even while CysLTR antagonists may be used as a stand-alone treatment for mild to moderate asthma (particularly in children), they are most usually used in combination with inhaled corticosteroids. For those who suffer from atopic dermatitis, leukotriene blockers are particularly helpful in the treatment of allergic rhinoconjunctivitis (which commonly coexists with asthma) **[33]**.

Inhibitors of phosphodiesterase

Adenosine receptor antagonist and a PDE inhibitor for CAMP Xanthine drugs, such as theophylline, are what they're called. For this reason, the use of theophylline in the treatment of asthma has decreased dramatically due to its cardiac and central nervous system adverse effects (poor therapeutic index). Theophylline has been proposed to have anti-inflammatory effects, although the data is inconsistent. Non-xanthine drugs like rofumulast have been shown to be more effective in inhibiting PDE4 than xanthine medicines.

Refractory illness therapy drugs. Standard treatments may not be effective for some asthma patients. Low-dose methotrexate or azathioprine can sometimes help refractory asthma, but it is important to

stick to the prescribed treatment regimen. Although these immunomodulators have been found to be ineffective in randomised, controlled trials, side effects are not uncommon. Atopic dermatitis that has become resistant to corticosteroid treatment may be treated with cyclosporine A, tacrolimus, and pimecrolimus, among other medications [**34**].

TNF and TH1-cell-associated cytokines are not reduced by corticosteroids in the airways of asthmatics, which may explain why they have little effect in severe cases of the condition. Efficacy in severe asthma has been demonstrated by increased TNF expression in the airways and blood mononuclear cells58 in two short studies. Multi-center studies are now evaluating the effectiveness of etanercept and monoclonal antibodies that target tumour necrosis factor (TNF). The anti-TNF and anti-IL-1 cytokine inhibitors SB 220025 (Ref. 60) and TPCA-1 (Ref. 61), which inhibit p-mitogen-activated protein kinase and IKK (IKK), are also promising novel therapy alternatives for refractory asthma [**35**].

Burden of asthma and allergic diseases

Allergic disorders are caused by a variety of mechanisms, but the most common underlying trigger is an IgE-mediated reaction [**36**]. IgE-related allergic disorders already affect more than a quarter of the European population. Late adolescence/early adulthood has the highest occurrence.

Rhinoconjunctivitis (rhinitis), asthma (aspiration), and the skin (eczema) are all examples of systemic conditions (food allergy and eosinophilic gastroenteritis) are all affected by allergic disorders, which can also have systemic signs (anaphylactic shock).

The "allergy march" is a term used to describe the progression of allergic illness symptoms in early childhood. The impact of environmental variables and genetic predisposition on the "allergy march" have begun to be elucidated through epidemiological and birth-cohort research. Inhalant allergen sensitivity frequently precedes food allergy. Allergy rhinitis is a risk factor for asthma, although atopic dermatitis does not usually precede it, as is the case with the "allergy march [**37**].

One of the most prevalent allergies is rhinitis (hay fever) and asthma (asthma), which have a significant influence on the patient's well-being (QoL).

II. STUDY OF MECHNISM OF PM2.5 EFFECTS ON RESPIRATORY SYSTEM

Recently, researchers have looked at the processes through which PM2.5 harms the human respiratory system.

- I. Intracellular calcium levels are one of the most important second couriers that influence cell capacity both physiologically and neurotically. I. Imbalanced intracellular calcium homeostasis When calcium concentrations are abnormally high, a cascade of provocative reactions is set in motion, resulting in irritation and cell damage. Expansions in intracellular Ca2+ concentrations can also increase ROS production. Particulate matter 2.5-induced cell damages may be facilitated by a ROS-interrupted guideline of intracellular Ca2+ concentrations, according to Brown and colleagues. Additionally, Xing found an association between the overexpression of Ca2+-sensitive receptors and cell death and corruption.
- II. When it comes to inflammatory harm, it's been excessively described in the literature that PM2.5 has been linked to the overexpression of numerous record factor characteristics and irritation-related aspects of the human body's immune system. For example, IL-4 and IL-13 have been shown to be associated with the second macrophage, the M2 spellbound alveolar macrophage, which is associated with the Th2 class of cytokines, which essentially suppress inflammation. Cytokines may both stimulate neutrophil, T cell, and eosinophil travel to the lungs and diverse tissues, as well as go to the lung alone, displaying increased cell activity, providing more inflammatory cytokines and necrosis factor-alpha. Inflammatory cells and cytokines working together can injure lung cells in a synergistic way. In this way, the role of PM2.5 in the harm to human health remains a major focus of contemporary research. There are a few studies that have proven how only one portion of PM2.5 can have an effect on human health, while others have looked into how certain inflammatory cytokines might cause specific lung diseases.
- III. Free radical peroxidation, which may be the primary cause of significant harm, has previously been shown to occur as a result of the free radicals, metal, and natural components of PM2.5. In 1996, Donaldson and Beswick and others detailed that free radicals can be delivered via the surface of natural particles. PM2.5 had a high concentration of a wide range of growth-related components such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH), lipopolysaccharide, and so on. An increase in free radicals in the lungs can lead to an increase in oxidative stress, as well as the destruction of cancer-prevention agent anchoring. The reactive oxygen species (ROS) generated by particles, particularly water-soluble particles, form hydroxyl radicals (• OH) by interacting with metals, according to several studies. DNA oxidative damage is caused by hydroxyl radicals. Teratogenesis, cancer, mutation, and other permanent damages can occur if damaged DNA isn't

effectively repaired in a timely manner. As Mehta et al. discovered, particles can not just damage DNA and suffocate DNA repair, but they can moreover speed up the reproduction of damaged strands of DNA and hence shorten the onset of cancer.

III. MEASURES FOR THE PREVENTION OF PM2.5 DAMAGE

It is important to understand how PM2.5 causes respiratory diseases in order to avoid and cure the ensuing health issues and to create more effective ways and technologies for treating PM2.5-related maladies. As China moves from an industrial to an urbanised state, the country's air pollution is soaring. Fewer than 1% of China's 500 largest cities fulfil WHO guidelines for air quality. They've been ranked as one of the world's dirtiest cities[**38**]. As a result of high levels of air pollution, the Chinese government and the general population have become more concerned about the long-term consequences. It was shown that pollution has a direct impact on the linearity of the health effects [**39**].

Air pollution reduction is an extremely tough and long-term endeavour, as a result. Consequently, it is recommended that the following policies be enforced to reduce growing PM2.5 concentrations or smog levels:

- Limit time and intensity of outside activities. Remain home, close all windows and doors, and use an approved mask if you must go outside.
- Avoiding outdoor exposure to PM2.5 pollution is particularly important for the elderly and people with preexisting cardiovascular diseases.
- To prevent the worsening of their symptoms during an increase in pollution, patients with chronic cardiopulmonary conditions should raise their prescription dosage and keep an eye on their health.
- Take antioxidant supplements or nutritional supplements (for example, w-3 fatty acids in fish oil) to counteract the oxidative stress caused by PM2.5.
- Public health officials may provide warnings to those who are at danger of being affected by air pollution if an index like this is released.

IV. CONCLUSION

Young people in both developed and developing nations suffer from asthma and allergic rhinitis despite the fact that they are usually avoidable. Pollen allergen exposure appears to promote an increase in allergy sensitivity, but environmental and lifestyle factors appear to be driving these changes. According to a growing body of evidence, air pollution and airborne allergens combine to increase the prevalence of atopic sensitization and exacerbate symptoms in sensitised patients.

Air pollution is a major public health problem. PM exposure has been linked to an increase in allergy respiratory disease exacerbations, while long-term exposure to PM has been linked to an increase in allergic respiratory disease development. The Asia-Pacific region, with its rapidly expanding urban populations and high levels of ambient air pollution, needs further, well-designed study. Individuals' lives will be improved, but the risk of an allergic respiratory disease epidemic will be reduced as a result of government efforts to enhance air quality.

REFERENCES:

- R. Pawankar, G.W. Canonica, S.T. Holgate, R.F. Lockey, M.S. Blaiss (Eds.), White Book on Allergy: Update, World Allergy Organization (WAO) (2013), pp. 91-98.
- [2] World Health Organization WHO Review of Evidence on Health Aspects of Air Pollution REVIHAAP Project: final technical report (2013).
- [3] Sigurs N, Aljassim F, Kjellman B, Robinson PD, Sigurbergsson F, Bjarnason R, Gustafsson PM.
 Asthma and allergy patterns over 18 years after severe RSV bronchiolitis in the first year of life.
 Thorax. 2010;65(12):1045–52.
- [4] Trasande L, Thurston GD. The role of air pollution in asthma and other pediatric morbidities. J
 Allergy Clin Immunol. 2005;115(4):689–99
- [5] Brauer M, Hoek G, Smit HA, de Jongste JC, Gerritsen J, Postma DS, Kerkhof M, Brunekreef B. Air pollution and development of asthma, allergy and infections in a birth cohort. Eur Respir J. 2007;29(5):879–88
- [6] Fan J, Li S, Fan C, Bai Z, Yang K. The impact of PM2.5 on asthma emergency department visits: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Environ Sci Pollut Res Int. 2015;23(1):843–50.

- [7] Feng JL, Guo ZG, Zhang TR, Yao XH, Chan CK, Fang M. Source and formation of secondary particulate matter in PM2.5 in Asian continental outflow. J Geophys Res Atmos. 2012;117.
- [8] Ho RC, Zhang MW, Ho CS, Pan F, Lu Y, Sharma VK. Impact of 2013 south Asian haze crisis: study of physical and psychological symptoms and perceived dangerousness of pollution level. BMC Psychiatry. 2014;14:81.
- [9] Schwartz J, Sarnat JA, Coull BA, Wilson WE: Effects of exposure measurement error on particle matter epidemiology: a simulation using data from a panel study in Baltimore, MD. J Expo Sci Environ Epidemiol 2007; 17: S2–S10.
- [10] Delfino R, Gong H, Linn W, Hu Y, PellizzariE: Respiratory symptoms and peak expiratory flow in children with asthma in relation to volatile organic compounds in exhaled breath and ambient air. J Expo Anal Environ Epidemiol 2003; 13: 348–363.
- [11] GBD 2015 risk factors collaboratorsglobal, regional, and national comparative risk assessment of 79 behavioural, environmental and occupational, and metabolic risks or clusters of risks, 1990-2015: a systematic analysis for the global burden of disease study 2015. Lancet. 2016;388:1659– 1724.
- [12] Aalapati S., Ganapathy S., Manapuram S., Anumolu G., Prakya B.M: Toxicity and bioaccumulation of inhaled cerium oxide nanoparticles in CD1 mice. Nanotoxicology. 2014;8:786– 798.
- [13] Fann N., Lamson A.D., Anenberg S.C., Wesson K., Risley D., Hubbell B.J. Estimating the national public health burden associated with exposure to ambient PM2.5 and ozone. Risk Anal. 2012;32:81–95.
- [14] Bourdin A, Gras D, Vachier I, Chanez P. Upper airway 1: allergic rhinitis and asthma: united disease through epithelial cells. Thorax. 2009;64(11):999–1004.
- [15] FitzGerald JM, Boulet LP, McIvor RA, Zimmerman S, Chapman KR. Asthma control in Canada remains suboptimal: the Reality of Asthma Control (TRAC) study. Can Respir J. 2006;13(5):253–9.

- [16] Global Initiative for Asthma (GINA). Global strategy for asthma management and prevention. Updated 2017. http://www.ginasthma.org.
- [17] Lemanske RF, Busse WW. Asthma: clinical expression and molecular mechanisms. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2010;125:S95–102.
- [18] The National Cooperative Group on Childhood Asthma. The third nationwide survy of childhood asthma in urban areas of China. China JPediatr. 2013;51:729–36.
- [19] Ahmadizar F, Vijverberg SJH, Arets HGM, Boer A, Lang JE, Garssen J, Kraneveld A: Maitland-van Der zee AH early-life antibiotic exposure increases the risk of developing allergic symptoms later in life: a meta-analysis. Allergy. 2018;73:971–86.
- [20] Pablo-Romero MP, Roman R, Gonzalez Limon JM, Praena-Crespo M: Effects of fine particles on children's hospital admissions for respiratory health in Seville, Spain. J Air Waste Manage Assoc. 2015;65:436–44.
- [21] Ali Abdalla A, Mohammed O, Ghmaird A, Albalawi S, Jad N, Mirghani H, Mursal A, Amirthalingam
 P. Association of triggering factors with asthma exacerbations among the pediatric population in
 Tabuk. Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. 2016;5.
- [22] Mallol J, Crane J, Von Mutius E, Odhiambo J, Keil U, Stewart A: The international study of asthma and allergies in childhood (ISAAC) phase three: a global synthesis. AllergolImmunopathol. 2013;41:73–85.
- Shannon MW, Best D, Binns HJ, Johnson CL, Kim JJ, Mazur LJ, Reynolds DW, Roberts JR, Weil WB,
 Balk SJ: Ambient air pollution: health hazards to children. Pediatrics. 2004;114:1699–707.
- [24] Anderson HR, Favarato G, Atkinson RW. Long-term exposure to air pollution and the incidence of asthma: Meta-analysis of cohort studies. Air Qual Atmos Health. 2011;6:1-10.
- [25] Gowers AM, Cullinan P, Ayres JG, Anderson HR, Strachan DP, Holgate ST: Does outdoor air pollution induce new cases of asthma? Biological plausibility and evidence; a review. Respirology. 2012;17:887-98.

- [26] Delfino RJ, Staimer N, Tjoa T, Gillen D, Kleinman MT, Sioutas C: Personal and ambient air pollution exposures and lung function decrements in children with asthma. Environ Health Perspect. 2008;116: 550-8.
- [27] Zhang S, Li G, Tian L, Guo Q, Pan X. Short-term exposure to air pollution and morbidity of COPD and asthma in East Asian area: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Environ Res. 2016;148:15-23.
- [28] Cachon BF, Firmin S, Verdin A, Ayi-Fanou L, Billet S, Cazier F: Proinflammatory effects and oxidative stress within human bronchial epithelial cells exposed to atmospheric particulate matter (PM(2.5) and PM(>2.5)) collected from Cotonou, Benin. Environ Pollut. 2014;185: 340-51.
- [29] Carlsten C, Dybuncio A, Becker A, Chan-Yeung M, Brauer M. Traffic-related air pollution and incident asthma in a high-risk birth cohort. Occup Environ Med. 2011;68:291-5.
- [30] Barnes, P. J. & Adcock, I. M. How do corticosteroids work in asthma? Ann. Intern. Med. 139, 359–370 (2003).
- [31] Guilbert, T. W: Long-term inhaled corticosteroids in preschool children at high risk for asthma. N. Engl. J. Med. 354, 1985–1997 (2006).
- [32] Del, C. A. et al. Comparative pharmacology of the H1 antihistamines. J. Invest. Allergol. Clin. Immunol. 16 (Suppl 1), 3–12 (2006).
- [33] Friedmann, P. S. et al. A double-blind, placebo-controlled trial of montelukast in adult atopic eczema. Clin. Exp. Allergy 37, 1536–1540 (2007).
- [34] Hijnen, D. J., Knol, E., Bruijnzeel-Koomen, C. & de Bruin-Weller, M. Cyclosporin A treatment is associated with increased serum immunoglobulin E levels in a subgroup of atopic dermatitis patients. Dermatitis 18, 163–165 (2007).
- [35] Duan, W. et al. Inhaled p38α mitogen-activated protein kinase antisense oligonucleotide attenuates asthma in mice. Am. J. Respir. Crit. Care Med. 171, 571–578 (2005).

- [36] J. Bousquet, J. Anto, C. Auffra, M. Akdis, A. Cambon-Thomsen, T. Keil, et al. MeDALL (Mechanisms of the development of ALLergy): an integrated approach from phenotypes to systems medicin Allergy, 66 (2011), pp. 596-604.
- [37] T. Zhen, J. Yu, M.H. Oh, Z. Zhu The atopic march: progression from atopic dermatitis to allergic rhinitis and asthma Allergy Asthma Immunol. Res., 3 (2011), pp. 67-73.
- [38] Asian-Development-Bank, 2013. Toward an Environmentally Sustainable Future: Country Environmental Analysis of the People's Republic of China.
- [39] Aunan K, Pan XC. Exposure-response functions for health effects of ambient air pollution applicable for China -- a meta-analysis. Sci Total Environ 2004;329:3-16.
- [40] Chalmers G.W., Macleod K.J., Thomson L., Little S.A., Mcsharry C., Thomson N.C:Smoking and airway inflammation in patients with mild asthma. Chest. 2001;120:1917–1922.
- [41] A. Mukherjee, M. Agrawal A global perspective of fine particulate matter pollution and its health effects Rev Environ Contam Toxicol, 244 (2018), 5-51.
- [42] Keatings V.M., Jatakanon A., Worsdell Y.M., Barnes P.J:Effects of inhaled and oral glucocorticoids on inflammatory indices in asthma and COPD. Am. J. Respir. Crit. Care Med. 1997;155:542–548.