# Antioxidant Therapy in Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease

### Ilkay Keskinel \*1, MD, PhD, Nurhayat Yıldırım <sup>2</sup>, MD

<sup>1</sup>Assistant Professor, Chest Diseases Department, Okan University Medical Faculty, Istanbul; Içmeler, Aydınlı Yolu Cd. No:2, 34947 Tuzla/İstanbul, Turkey.

<sup>2</sup>Professor, Istanbul University, Cerrahpasa, Cerrahpasa Medical Faculty, Chest Diseases Department, Tuzla/İstanbul, Turkey.

\*Corresponding author: Ilkay Keskinel; ilkaykeskinel@gmail.com

Received: 11 January 2025; Revised: 20 February 2025; Accepted: 25 February 2025; Published: 28 February 2024

#### Abstract

**Objective:** Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) is associated with oxidative stress. We aimed to evaluate the effect of antioxidant therapy on malondialdehyde (MDA), superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione (GSH), total antioxidant capacity (TAC), and nitric oxide (NO) levels, as well as on pulmonary functions and arterial blood gases in COPD. **Design:** Prospective clinical study. **Subjects/Patients:** Twenty stable COPD patients with no comorbidities. **Methods:** Pulmonary functions, arterial blood gases, MDA, SOD, GSH, TAC, and NO levels were measured at baseline. After 6 weeks of treatment with an antioxidant preparation consisting of vitamins A, C, E, zinc, copper, selenium, and manganese, the tests were repeated. **Results:** Five patients were excluded due to exacerbations and one due to anemia. In the remaining patients, MDA levels decreased, while SOD and TAC levels increased compared to baseline. No significant changes were observed in GSH and NO levels. Pulmonary function tests improved, whereas no significant differences were found in arterial blood gases. No significant correlations were observed between pulmonary function or arterial blood gases and the biomarkers (MDA, SOD, GSH, TAC, and NO). **Conclusion:** Adding antioxidants to the standard treatment for COPD may help restore the oxidant-antioxidant balance, which is disrupted in favor of oxidants in COPD.

<u>Keywords:</u> Antioxidants, Arterial blood gases, COPD, Glutathione, Lung functions, Malondialdehyde, Superoxide dismutase, Total antioxidant capacity.

## Introduction

Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), one of the leading causes of morbidity and mortality worldwide and in our country, is a preventable and treatable disease. It is typically characterized by progressive or persistent airway obstruction and may be accompanied by airway hyperreactivity. Exposure to harmful gases or particles and abnormalities in lung development can also contribute to its pathogenesis <sup>[1]</sup>.

Oxidative stress can be defined as increased exposure to oxidants and/or a decrease in antioxidant capacity <sup>[2-4]</sup>. Numerous studies suggest that increased oxidative stress is associated not only with asthma <sup>[5,6]</sup>, pulmonary fibrosis <sup>[6]</sup>, cystic fibrosis <sup>[7]</sup>, and cancer <sup>[8,9]</sup> but also with COPD <sup>[4,10-14]</sup>.

When endogenous antioxidants are insufficient, dietary antioxidants are needed for support. Therefore, determining the antioxidant capacity of the body is crucial. Studies measuring antioxidants in plasma and other body fluids, identifying changes in target molecules, and detecting end products derived from these molecules will guide the therapeutic use of antioxidants. This study aims to investigate the effect of antioxidant therapy, administered in addition to standard treatment in COPD, on plasma malondialdehyde (MDA) as a marker of oxidative stress; erythrocyte superoxide dismutase (SOD), blood glutathione (GSH), and plasma total antioxidant capacity (TAC) as indicators of antioxidant capacity; nitric oxide (NO) levels; as well as respiratory functions and arterial blood gases.

#### Methods

The study included 20 COPD patients who were being followed at the COPD Outpatient Clinic of the Department of Chest Diseases, Istanbul University Cerrahpaşa Faculty of Medicine. These patients had no known additional metabolic diseases, were willing to participate in the study, and had been in a stable phase for at least three weeks.

At baseline, patients underwent spirometric evaluation (FVC, FEV1, FEV1/FVC, FEF25-75%, PEF), diffusion capacity test (DLco), lung volume measurements (FRC, TLC, RV), maximum inspiratory pressure (MIP), maximum expiratory pressure (MEP), reversibility test, arterial blood gas analysis, and posteroanterior

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

Emerging Medicine and Public Health

chest X-ray. Additionally, blood samples were collected for the determination of eosinophil cationic protein (ECP), total IgE, tryptase, GSH, SOD, TAC, MDA, and NO levels. On the same day, patients were instructed to take one capsule daily of an antioxidant preparation in addition to their standard treatment for six weeks. Table 1 shows the contents of this preparation.

Table I: Composition of the antioxidant preparation
---

Vitamin A	5000 IU
Vitamin C	250 mg
Vitamin E	200 IU
Zinc	7,5 mg
Copper	1 mg
Selenyum	15 mcg
Manganese	1,5 mg

Patients were evaluated for COPD exacerbation if they exhibited any of the following symptoms for at least 24 hours: increased cough and dyspnea, changes in the color, quantity, or viscosity of sputum, onset or worsening of wheezing, chest tightness, fatigue, reduced exercise tolerance, fever, edema, increased respiratory rate (>25/min), increased pulse rate (>110/min), cyanosis, use of accessory respiratory muscles, drowsiness, a decline in FEV1 (<1000 mL), decreased PaO2 (<60 mmHg), or reduced arterial oxygen saturation (SatO2) (<90%).

At follow-up, pulmonary function tests and arterial blood gas analyses were repeated. Blood samples were also collected for the measurement of ECP, total IgE, tryptase, GSH, SOD, TAC, MDA, and NO.

Patients who experienced COPD exacerbation or developed additional illnesses during this 6-week period were excluded from the study.

### **Statistical Analysis**

Data analysis was performed using SPSS (Statistical Package of Social Sciences) for Windows. Results are presented as mean values

 $\pm$  standard deviation. Pre- and post-treatment values were compared using the student's t-test. A p-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

#### Results

All 20 COPD patients included in the study were male. Five patients were excluded due to the development of exacerbations during the study, and one patient was removed after being diagnosed with iron deficiency anemia, for which iron supplementation was initiated.

Fourteen patients who completed the study without exacerbations were included in the evaluation. The mean age of these 14 patients was  $64 \pm 7.97$  years (minimum: 45, maximum: 78), and the average disease duration was  $10.57 \pm 7.36$  years (minimum: 1, maximum: 25).

The patients' smoking history averaged  $61.86 \pm 45.45$  packyears (minimum: 9, maximum: 180). Among them, four patients were still actively smoking. The ten patients who had quit smoking had an average cessation duration of  $7.4 \pm 6.58$  years (minimum: 0.5, maximum: 20).

None of the patients had any abnormalities on their PA chest X-rays taken at the beginning of the study, except for signs of hyperinflation.

It was determined that 1 (7%) of the patients who completed the study had mild, 5 (36%) had moderate, and 8 (57%) had severe COPD.

Among the patients who completed the study, 12 (85.7%) were using theophylline, 11 (78.6%) were using ipratropium bromide, 10 (71.4%) were using long-acting inhaled  $\beta$ 2 agonists, 8 (64.3%) were using short-acting inhaled  $\beta$ 2 agonists, 8 (57.1%) were using inhaled corticosteroids, 4 (28.6%) were using oral  $\beta$ 2 agonists, and 3 (21.4%) were receiving continuous home oxygen therapy.

The respiratory function tests, arterial blood gases, total IgE, ECP, tryptase, MDA, SOD, GSH, TAC and NO levels of the patients who completed the study, before and after the 6-week antioxidant treatment in addition to the standard treatment, are shown in Table 2.

	n	Before treatment	After treatment	р
		(Mean±Standard deviation)	(Mean±Standard deviation)	
FVC (mL)	14	2534.90±668.24	2685.00±681.06	<0,05*
FVC (%)	14	71.43±18.42	76.50±19.15	<0,05*
FEV <sub>1</sub> (mL)	14	1310,71±512,74	1402.86±545.96	<0,05*
FEV <sub>1</sub> (%)	14	46.36±16.18	49.93±16.55	<0,05*
FEV <sub>1</sub> /FVC (%)	14	52.00±12.17	51.36±10.57	>0,05
FEF <sub>%25-75</sub> (L/sec)	14	0.58±0.30	0.60±0.28	>0,05
FEF <sub>%25-75</sub> (%)	14	18.00±8.34	18.86±7.99	>0,05
PEF (L/sec)	9	4,10±1,83	4.23±2.18	>0,05
PEF (%)	9	53.89±20.90	55.22±25.34	>0,05
DLco (mL/mmHg/sec)	13	14.09±4.20	14.40±4.47	>0,05
DLco (%)	13	56.23±13.83	57.85±15.06	>0,05
DLco/VA(mL/mmHg/min/L)	13	3.21±0.96	3.15±0.94	>0,05
DLco/VA (%)	13	61.15±18.05	60.38±17.72	>0,05
MIP (cmH <sub>2</sub> O)	11	72.45±21.86	75.00±25.25	>0,05
MIP (%)	11	66.64±18.85	68.91±21.79	>0,05
MEP (cmH <sub>2</sub> O)	11	86.64±18.33	90.00±23.02	>0,05
MEP (%)	11	42.64±9.05	44.27±11.22	>0,05
FRC (L)	12	4.04±0.93	4.24±1.45	>0,05
FRC (%)	12	120.83±30.26	127.08±45.36	>0,05

https://emergingpub.com/index.php/mph

TLC (L)	12	6.12±0.94	6.39±1.23	>0,05
TLC (%)	12	99.67±18.40	105.17±24.80	>0,05
RV (L)	12	3.43±0.85	3.54±1.26	>0,05
RV (%)	12	149.83±43.45	152.67±56.70	>0,05
Reversibility (%)**	4	6.75±3.30	1.50±2.08	>0,05
pН	14	7.41±0.03	7.41±0.02	>0,05
PaCO <sub>2</sub> (mmHg)	14	38.96±6.15	39.80±4.56	>0,05
PaO <sub>2</sub> (mmHg)	14	72.33±10.45	72.99±9.46	>0,05
SatO <sub>2</sub> (%)	14	93.96±2.69	94.37±2.26	>0,05
Bicarbonate (mEq/L)	11	24.33±2.18	25.01±2.22	>0,05
IgE (IU/mL)	13	74,46±69,52	68,77±48,78	>0,05
ECP (µg/L)	14	16,07±11,11	14,64,80±11,91	>0,05
Triptaz (µg/L)	14	5,25±2,20	5,03±2,25	>0,05
MDA (nmole/mL)	9	4,95±2,33	2,64±1,02	<0,01*
SOD (U/gHb)	11	690,41±169,21	866,41±200,36	<0,05*
GSH (mmole/L/gHb)	10	2,84±1,10	2,87±1,03	>0,05
TAC (mmole/L)	11	1,18±0,23	1,71±0,38	<0,001*
NO (mmole/L)	9	39,44±8,06	38,44±5,08	>0,05

\* Statistically significant

\*\*The difference in FEV1 compared to the baseline value after administering 200 mcg of inhaled Salbutamol, 15-20 minutes later

#### Discussion

Recent studies have focused on the role of oxidants in COPD pathogenesis, recognizing smoking as a significant source of oxidants. Morrow et al. identified increased levels of F2-isoprostanes in smokers, suggesting oxidative stress as a contributor to lung damage <sup>[9]</sup>. Li et al. indicated that smoking elevates airway epithelial permeability through oxidants, while GSH offers protective effects <sup>[15]</sup>. Lapenna et al. observed a positive correlation between smoking intensity (pack-years) and lipid peroxidation products in smokers <sup>[16]</sup>.

Our study did not show a correlation between smoking (pack-years), smoking cessation, disease duration, and oxidative stress markers (MDA, TAC, NO, erythrocyte SOD, blood GSH). Similarly, Schunemann et al. found no correlation between TAC and FEV1 but observed a negative correlation between lipid peroxidation and lung function <sup>[17]</sup>. Rahman's study also found no correlation between TAC and lung function parameters <sup>[18]</sup>. In line with these findings, our study showed no correlation between oxidative stress markers and pulmonary function tests or arterial blood gases.

Regarding MDA, a key oxidative stress indicator, we observed a significant decrease from  $4.95 \pm 2.33$  nmole/mL to  $2.64 \pm 1.02$  nmole/mL after six weeks of antioxidant therapy, in line with Demir et al.'s findings showing higher MDA levels during acute exacerbation compared to stable COPD <sup>[19]</sup>. Our pre-treatment MDA values were higher than both stable and acute exacerbation values from Demir's study.

Superoxide dismutase (SOD), another important antioxidant, showed a significant increase from 690.41  $\pm$  169.21 U/gHb to 866.41  $\pm$  200.36 U/gHb post-treatment (p<0.05). Demir's study reported lower SOD values in both acute exacerbation (896  $\pm$  243 U/gHb) and stable phase COPD (856  $\pm$  203 U/gHb), with our pre-treatment values being lower than these, but the post-treatment values were comparable to stable COPD levels <sup>[19]</sup>.

GSH levels in our study were 2.84  $\pm$  1.10 mmole/L/gHb before treatment and 2.87  $\pm$  1.03 mmole/L/gHb after treatment, showing no significant change. Demir reported much higher GSH levels in both acute exacerbation (10.2  $\pm$  2.15 mmole/L/gHb) and

stable phase COPD (8.72  $\pm$  2.41 mmole/L/gHb) <sup>[19]</sup>. In smokers, GSH levels in epithelial fluid were found to be twice as high as in non-smokers <sup>[20]</sup>.

Chow et al. found that smokers had lower plasma levels of vitamin C and total carotene, with vitamin A negatively correlating with smoking <sup>[21]</sup>. In our study, the plasma TAC level increased significantly from 1.18  $\pm$  0.23 mmole/L to 1.71  $\pm$  0.38 mmole/L post-treatment, reaching the normal range of 1.28-1.83 mmole/L (p<0.001). Rahman et al. also found lower TAC levels in smokers, with a positive correlation between TAC and lung function post-smoking cessation <sup>[22]</sup>.

NO levels in our study were  $39.44 \pm 8.06$  mmole/L before treatment and  $38.44 \pm 5.08$  mmole/L after treatment, showing no significant difference. Both values were lower than normal plasma levels ( $51 \pm 26$  mmole/L)<sup>[23]</sup>. Studies have shown that NO levels do not increase in stable COPD but increase during exacerbations, with eosinophils playing a role in these changes.

The use of antioxidants in COPD treatment has been proposed for years, although there has been little clinical implementation <sup>[24]</sup>. Various antioxidant strategies have been suggested, including reducing leukocyte migration, inhibiting radical release from leukocytes, and antioxidant treatment. Potential therapeutic antioxidants include vitamins C and E, thiol compounds (e.g., N-acetylcysteine), antioxidant enzymes (e.g., recombinant SOD), and pro-oxidant inflammatory cytokine inhibitors <sup>[24,25]</sup>.

Studies have explored the link between dietary antioxidants and lung function. Morabia et al. reported that a vitamin A-rich diet was associated with an increased risk of airway obstruction <sup>[26]</sup>. Britton et al. found that daily vitamin C intake positively correlated with FEV1 and FVC <sup>[27]</sup>. Similarly, in the NHANES II study, higher vitamin C intake was linked to better lung function, and a study by Hu found that higher levels of vitamins C, E, and selenium were associated with better lung function <sup>[28]</sup>. In the general population, increased dietary vitamin C intake was associated with improved FVC and FEV1 <sup>[29]</sup>.

Studies also show that smokers have lower dietary intake of antioxidants such as vitamin C and carotenoids compared to nonsmokers, which affects their lung function. Faruque et al. found smokers had significantly lower plasma vitamin C levels <sup>[30]</sup>. Lothian et al. demonstrated that supplementation with GSH precursors improved lung function in patients with corticosteroid-responsive obstructive lung disease <sup>[31]</sup>.

N-acetylcysteine (NAC) has been widely studied as an antioxidant. It scavenges free radicals and stimulates cellular glutathione synthesis, protecting against oxidative damage in respiratory diseases <sup>[32]</sup>. Studies have shown that NAC reduces exacerbations in COPD and improves pulmonary function in certain patients <sup>[33,34]</sup>. Similarly, Ambroxol, another antioxidant, reduces oxidative stress and enhances surfactant production <sup>[32]</sup>.

In conclusion, the findings suggest that integrating antioxidant therapy into the treatment protocol could offer an adjunctive benefit in managing COPD, potentially enhancing lung function and overall patient outcomes. Future studies with larger sample sizes and longer follow-up periods are needed to validate these results and further explore the therapeutic potential of antioxidants in COPD management. These findings emphasize the importance of personalized treatment strategies to optimize care for COPD patients, particularly those with more advanced disease.

## Declarations

## **Conflict of Interest**

The author(s) declare that there are no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this manuscript. No financial or personal relationships have influenced the work presented in this study.

## Funding/ financial support

We confirm that no financial support was received from any funding agency, organization, or individual for the conduct or publication of this study.

## Contributors

Tuncalp Demir, Istanbul University-Cerrahpasa, Cerrahpasa Medical Faculty, Chest Diseases Department

## **Ethical Clearance**

We strictly adhered to all the necessary ethical standards throughout the course of this study. Prior to its initiation, explicit permission was obtained from the head of the department and the faculty, ensuring full compliance with institutional guidelines. In addition, all participants were thoroughly informed about the study's purpose, procedures, and potential risks. Each patient provided written informed consent, and they were explicitly assured that their participation was voluntary. Furthermore, they were informed that their decision to decline participation or withdraw from the study at any point would not result in any harm or repercussions. We ensured the anonymity of all participants by keeping their personal information confidential, and their records were securely classified and stored in a manner that protected their privacy.

### References

 The Turkish Thoracic Society's View on GOLD 2021 Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease, Optimus Publishing, April 2021. (Türk Toraks Derneği'nin GOLD 2021 Kronik Obstrüktif Akciğer Hastalığına Bakışı, Optimus Yayıncılık, Nisan 2021). ISBN: 978-605-74460-0-8.

- [3] Heffner JE, Repine JE. Pulmonary strategies of antioxidant defense. Am Rev Respir Dis 1989; 140: 531-54. doi: 10.1164/ajrccm/140.2.531.
- [4] Repine JE, Bast A, Lankhorst I. Oxidative stress in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. Oxidative Stress Study Group. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 1997; 156: 341-57. doi: 10.1164/ajrccm.156.2.9611013.
- [5] Albano GD, Gagliardo RP, Montalbano AM, Profita M. Overview of the mechanisms of oxidative stress: impact in inflammation of the airway diseases. Antioxidants 2022; 11: 2237. doi: 10.3390/antiox11112237.
- [6] Ryrfeldt A, Bannenberg G, Moldéus P. Free radicals and lung disease. Br Med Bull 1993; 49: 588-603. doi: 10.1093/oxfordjournals.bmb.a072633.
- [7] van der Vliet A, Cross CE. Phagocyte oxidants and nitric oxide in cystic fibrosis: new therapeutic targets? Curr Opin Pulm Med 2000; 6: 533-9. doi: 10.1097/00063198-200011000-00013.
- [8] Kökoğlu E. Serbest radikal reaksiyonlarının kanserdeki rolü (The role of free radical reactions in cancer). Klinik Gelişim 1998; 11: 358-64.
- [9] Morrow JD, Frei B, Longmire AW, Gaziano JM, Lynch SM, Shyr Y, et al. Increase in circulating products of lipid peroxidation (F2-isoprostanes) in smokers. Smoking as a cause of oxidative damage. N Engl J Med 1995; 332: 1198-203. doi: 10.1056/NEJM199505043321804.
- [10] Hecker L. Mechanisms and consequences of oxidative stress in lung disease: therapeutic implications for an aging populace. Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol 2018; 314: L642-53. doi: 10.1152/ajplung.00275.2017.
- [11] Zuo L, Wijegunawardana D. Redox role of ROS and inflammation in pulmonary diseases. Adv Exp Med Biol 2021; 1304: 187-204. doi: 10.1007/978-3-030-68748-9\_11.
- [12] Ward PA. Oxidative stress: acute and progressive lung injury. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2010; 1203: 53-9. doi: 10.1111/j.1749-6632.2010.05552.x.
- [13] Otoupalova E, Smith S, Cheng G, Thannickal VJ. Oxidative stress in pulmonary fibrosis. Compr Physiol 2020; 10: 509-47. doi: 10.1002/cphy.c190017.
- [14] Roksandic Milenkovic M, Klisic A, Ceriman V, Kotur Stevuljevic J, Savic Vujovic K, Mirkov D, et al. Oxidative stress and inflammation parameters-novel biomarkers for idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. Eur Rev Med Pharmacol Sci 2022; 26: 927-34. doi: 10.26355/eurrev 202202 28002.
- [15] Li XY, Donaldson K, Rahman I, MacNee W. An investigation of the role of glutathione in increased epithelial permeability induced by cigarette smoke in vivo and in vitro. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 1994; 149: 1518-25. doi: 10.1164/ajrccm.149.6.8004308.
- [16] Lapenna D, Mezzetti A, de Gioia S, Pierdomenico SD, Daniele F, Cuccurullo F. Plasma copper and lipid peroxidation in cigarette smokers. Free Radic Biol Med 1995; 19: 849-52. doi: 10.1016/0891-5849(95)00056-4.
- [17] Schünemann HJ, Muti P, Freudenheim JL, Armstrong D, Browne R, Klocke RA, et al. Oxidative stress and lung function. Am J Epidemiol 1997; 146: 939-48. doi: 10.1093/oxfordjournals.aje.a009220.

- [18] Rahman I, Swarska E, Henry M, Stolk J, MacNee W. Is there any relationship between plasma antioxidant capacity and lung function in smokers and in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease? Thorax 2000; 55: 189-93. doi: 10.1136/thorax.55.3.189
- [19] Demir T, Aydemir A, Güler S, Serdaroğlu E, Kurutepe M, Donma O, et al. Oxidative stress in COPD. Eurasian J Pulmonol 1999; 1(2): 43-47.
- [20] MacNee W. Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease from science to the clinic: the role of glutathione in oxidantantioxidant balance. Monaldi Arch Chest Dis 1997; 52: 479-85.
- [21] Chow CK, Thacker RR, Changchit C, Bridges RB, Rehm SR, Humble J, et al. Lower levels of vitamin C and carotenes in plasma of cigarette smokers. J Am Coll Nutr 1986; 5: 305-12. doi: 10.1080/07315724.1986.10720134.
- [22] Rahman I, Morrison D, Donaldson K, MacNee W. Systemic oxidative stress in asthma, COPD, and smokers. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 1996; 154: 1055-60. doi: 10.1164/ajrccm.154.4.8887607.
- [23] Cortas NK, Wakid NW. Determination of inorganic nitrate in serum and urine by a kinetic cadmium-reduction method. Clin Chem 1990; 36: 1440-3.
- [24] Rahman I, MacNee W. Oxidant/antioxidant imbalance in smokers and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. Thorax 1996; 51: 348-50. doi: 10.1136/thx.51.4.348.
- Buhl R, Meyer A, Vogelmeier C. Oxidant-protease interaction in the lung. Prospects for antioxidant therapy. Chest 1996; 110: 267S-72S. doi: 10.1378/chest.110.6\_supplement.267s.
- [26] Morabia A, Sorenson A, Kumanyika SK, Abbey H, Cohen BH, Chee E. Vitamin A, cigarette smoking, and airway obstruction. Am Rev Respir Dis 1989; 140: 1312-6. doi: 10.1164/ajrccm/140.5.1312.
- [27] Britton JR, Pavord ID, Richards KA, Knox AJ, Wisniewski AF, Lewis SA, et al. Dietary antioxidant

vitamin intake and lung function in the general population. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 1995; 151: 1383-7. doi: 10.1164/ajrccm.151.5.7735589.

- [28] Hu G, Cassano PA. Antioxidant nutrients and pulmonary function: the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES III). Am J Epidemiol 2000; 151: 975-81. doi: 10.1093/oxfordjournals.aje.a010141.
- [29] Hu G, Zhang X, Chen J, Peto R, Campbell TC, Cassano PA. Dietary vitamin C intake and lung function in rural China. Am J Epidemiol 1998; 148: 594-9. doi: 10.1093/oxfordjournals.aje.a009685.
- [30] Faruque MO, Khan MR, Rahman MM, Ahmed F. Relationship between smoking and antioxidant nutrient status. Br J Nutr 1995; 73: 625-32. doi: 10.1079/bjn19950064.
- [31] Lothian B, Grey V, Kimoff RJ, Lands LC. Treatment of obstructive airway disease with a cysteine donor protein supplement: a case report. Chest 2000; 117: 914-6. doi: 10.1378/chest.117.3.914.
- [32] Gillissen A, Nowak D. Characterization of Nacetylcysteine and ambroxol in anti-oxidant therapy. Respir Med 1998; 92: 609-23. doi: 10.1016/s0954-6111(98)90506-6.
- [33] Pela R, Calcagni AM, Subiaco S, Isidori P, Tubaldi A, Sanguinetti CM. N-acetylcysteine reduces the exacerbation rate in patients with moderate to severe COPD. Respiration 1999; 66: 495-500. doi: 10.1159/000029447.
- [34] Rubio ML, Sanchez-Cifuentes MV, Ortega M, Peces-Barba G, Escolar JD, Verbanck S, et al. N-acetylcysteine prevents cigarette smoke induced small airways alterations in rats. Eur Respir J 2000; 15: 505-11. doi: 10.1034/j.1399-3003.2000.15.13.x.