

# Translational Research in Pediatrics III: Bronchoalveolar Lavage

**AUTHORS:** Dhenuka Radhakrishnan, MD, MSc,<sup>a,b</sup> Cory Yamashita, MD,<sup>c,d,e</sup> Carolina Gillio-Meina, PhD,<sup>f</sup> and Douglas D. Fraser, MD, PhD<sup>a,b,d,e,f,g</sup>

Departments of <sup>a</sup>Pediatrics, <sup>c</sup>Medicine, <sup>e</sup>Physiology and Pharmacology, and <sup>f</sup>Clinical Neurologic Sciences, Western University, London, Ontario, Canada; <sup>b</sup>Children's Health Research Institute, London, Ontario, Canada; <sup>d</sup>Centre for Critical Illness Research, Western University, London, Ontario, Canada; and <sup>g</sup>Translational Research Centre, London, Ontario, Canada

## KEY WORDS

translational research, pediatrics, repository, BAL, proteins, surfactant, DNA, RNA

## ABBREVIATIONS

BAL—bronchoalveolar lavage  
ELF—epithelial lining fluid  
FB—flexible bronchoscopy

Drs Radhakrishnan, Yamashita, and Gillio-Meina contributed to drafting the review and revised the manuscript; Dr Fraser conceptualized and initiated the review, contributed to drafting the review, and revised the manuscript; and all authors approved the final manuscript as submitted.

[www.pediatrics.org/cgi/doi/10.1542/peds.2013-1911](http://www.pediatrics.org/cgi/doi/10.1542/peds.2013-1911)

doi:10.1542/peds.2013-1911

Accepted for publication Feb 7, 2014

Address correspondence to Douglas D. Fraser, MD, PhD, Paediatric Critical Care Medicine, Room C2-843, Children's Hospital, London Health Sciences Centre, 800 Commissioners Rd East, London, ON, Canada, N6A 5W9. E-mail: douglas.fraser@lhsc.on.ca

PEDIATRICS (ISSN Numbers: Print, 0031-4005; Online, 1098-4275).

Copyright © 2014 by the American Academy of Pediatrics

**FINANCIAL DISCLOSURE:** The authors have indicated they have no financial relationships relevant to this article to disclose.

**FUNDING:** Drs Radhakrishnan, Yamashita, Gillio-Meina, and Fraser are supported by the Children's Health Foundation (<http://www.childhealth.ca>, London, ON, Canada) and the Lawson Health Research Institute (<http://www.lawsonresearch.com>, London, ON, Canada).

**POTENTIAL CONFLICT OF INTEREST:** The authors have indicated they have no potential conflicts of interest to disclose.

## abstract

The role of flexible bronchoscopy and bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) for the care of children with airway and pulmonary diseases is well established, with collected BAL fluid most often used clinically for microbiologic pathogen identification and cellular analyses. More recently, powerful analytic research methods have been used to investigate BAL samples to better understand the pathophysiological basis of pediatric respiratory disease. Investigations have focused on the cellular components contained in BAL fluid, such as macrophages, lymphocytes, neutrophils, eosinophils, and mast cells, as well as the noncellular components such as serum molecules, inflammatory proteins, and surfactant. Molecular techniques are frequently used to investigate BAL fluid for the presence of infectious pathologies and for cellular gene expression. Recent advances in proteomics allow identification of multiple protein expression patterns linked to specific respiratory diseases, whereas newer analytic techniques allow for investigations on surfactant quantification and function. These translational research studies on BAL fluid have aided our understanding of pulmonary inflammation and the injury/repair responses in children. We review the ethics and practices for the execution of BAL in children for translational research purposes, with an emphasis on the optimal handling and processing of BAL samples. *Pediatrics* 2014;134:135–154

There is a lack of literature addressing the performance of bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) in children for research purposes. Published reviews focus on adult populations<sup>1,2</sup> or on the technical and procedural aspects of performing clinically indicated BAL.<sup>3–5</sup> In this review, our third in a series on tissue sampling and biobanking for child health studies,<sup>6,7</sup> we aim to expand on the 2000 European Respiratory Society Task Force for BAL in children,<sup>8</sup> with a particular emphasis on BAL for pediatric translational research. We present the ethical considerations and methodologic issues for obtaining BAL samples for research purposes and review the processing and storage of BAL samples to allow for reliable and reproducible measurements. We also highlight studies that isolated specific cellular and noncellular components from BAL, including newer reports using sophisticated analytic techniques for investigating proteins and surfactants.

The procurement of BAL samples by using flexible bronchoscopy (FB) is a skilled procedure that requires special training to achieve proficiency and ensure patient safety.<sup>4</sup> FB can be performed with variable methods as outlined in Table 1. Pediatric FB and BAL

are generally considered safe and well tolerated<sup>9–12</sup>; however, they are technically invasive procedures and carry associated risks in <2% of patients, including bleeding, barotrauma, need for prolonged intubation, severe hypoxia, and/or bronchospasm. Minor desaturations and epistaxis can occur more frequently in up to 7% of patients, and an additional 19% can experience post-bronchoscopy fever.<sup>3</sup> Relative contraindications to FB or BAL include massive hemoptysis, bleeding diathesis, severe airway obstruction, foreign body removal,<sup>12–14</sup> severe hypoxia, and unstable hemodynamic status.<sup>4</sup>

### ETHICS OF PERFORMING BAL FOR RESEARCH

Although complications from FB and BAL are relatively minor and rare, in some institutions the ethics of performing BAL for research purposes are being increasingly scrutinized, likely due to greater awareness of ethics guidelines regarding research studies in children, particularly those studies involving invasive procedures.<sup>15</sup> Institutional ethics review and informed consent by the legal guardians of children undergoing BAL for research studies must be obtained before performing such stud-

ies. Assent may be required from adolescent patients. The consent process must ensure that children/families are not coerced into study participation for perceived clinical benefit.<sup>16</sup>

Given the ethical considerations in obtaining control BAL fluid for research studies, sample procurement is generally limited to those subjects in whom FB is being performed for a specific clinical indication (Table 2)<sup>17–25</sup> or in those whom sedation and intubation is clinically indicated for other reasons (eg, elective abdominal surgery).<sup>26,27</sup> In the former, control data consist of BAL samples in children without the respiratory disease under investigation. Although the use of these samples may not represent ideal controls, they may be an acceptable alternative for practical considerations in the absence of an acute infectious process and active inflammation on direct visualization of the airways. Even in healthy subjects, perioperative stress may influence levels of inflammatory cells, cytokines, and chemokines in lavage samples.<sup>28</sup> Reference data for BAL cellular constituents in children have been published,<sup>29–36</sup> but because of wide variability across studies, reference values for BAL cellular and noncellular

**TABLE 1** Pediatric FB Techniques

Point of Entry	Benefits	Pitfalls	Sedation/Anesthesia
Nose <sup>4,105</sup> (directly or via oxygen face mask with port for bronchoscope)	Allows best inspection of entire airway <sup>39</sup> Allows larger bronchoscope size <sup>39</sup> Allows best visualization of dynamic airway motion <sup>39</sup>	Lack of full control of airway <sup>39</sup>	If conscious sedation is used, apply topical plain lidocaine (2% to 4%) at larynx and 0.5% to 1% at carina to maximum dose of 5–7 mg/kg <sup>39</sup>
Mouth (laryngeal mask airway) <sup>39,106</sup>	Allows inspection of larynx and upper trachea <sup>39</sup> Allows largest bronchoscope size <sup>39</sup>	Lack of full control of airway <sup>39</sup> Less ideal for visualization of dynamic airway motion due to distortion of upper airway dynamics	If conscious sedation is used, apply topical plain lidocaine (2% to 4%) at larynx and 0.5% to 1% at carina to maximum dose of 5–7 mg/kg <sup>39</sup>
Mouth (ETT) <sup>39</sup>	Best airway protection <sup>39</sup> , may be required for transbronchial biopsy <sup>39</sup>	Size of bronchoscope limited by internal diameter of ETT <sup>4</sup> Visualization only of distal trachea and bronchial tree Difficult to maintain spontaneous ventilation to assess dynamic airways movement	GA required for deep sedation

ETT, endotracheal tube; GA, general anesthesia.

**TABLE 2** Clinical Indications for Pediatric FB

Anatomic Evaluation	BAL	Airway Clearance	Biopsy	Other
Dynamic airway collapse (eg, bronchomalacia)	Microbiologic identification (eg, fungal/bacterial stains, culture, viral studies, PCR)	Foreign body assessment (removal should be performed by rigid bronchoscope) <sup>13</sup>	Endobronchial biopsy	pH of lower airways using pH probe <sup>108</sup>
External compression (eg, vascular ring, cardiac chambers)	Cell count and differential	Removal of mucus plugs	Transbronchial biopsy <sup>39</sup>	Ion transport properties of respiratory epithelium <sup>109</sup>
Tracheoesophageal fistula	Subpopulations of lymphocytes (eg, CD4 <sup>+</sup> :CD8 <sup>+</sup> ratio)	Direct instillation of mucolytics (eg, dornase $\alpha$ , fibrinolytics) <sup>107</sup>	Bronchial brushings	
Endobronchial lesions (eg, tumor, hemangioma)	Noncellular components (eg, surfactant, lipid-laden macrophages, or hemosiderin)			
Bronchial webs/stenosis	Whole lung lavage			
Anatomic variants (eg, tracheal bronchus)				
Source of hemoptysis				

CD, cluster of differentiation; PCR, polymerase chain reaction.

components should be established locally.<sup>28</sup>

### BAL PROCEDURE

Performing BAL involves passing a flexible bronchoscope distally into an airway until the tip becomes wedged and cannot move any farther.<sup>4</sup> The location of BAL sampling is dependent upon the clinical indication, but in cases of diffuse lung disease or for samples acquired for research purposes sampling of the right middle lobe may be ideal from an operator standpoint.<sup>37</sup> It is important to note that the outer diameter of the bronchoscope relative to the wedge position can influence epithelial lining fluid (ELF) recovery and composition; wedging a small bronchoscope into a more distal bronchus will sample a smaller lung volume than if a larger bronchoscope is used.

In certain instances only nonbronchoscopic, blind BAL can be performed, such as in clinically unstable patients and in very small infants for whom the endotracheal tube size precludes insertion of a bronchoscope smaller than 2.7-mm external diameter. Different methods for nonbronchoscopic BAL are described, including the blind insertion of an 8F catheter as far as possible down the endotracheal tube beyond the estimated site of the carina to instill and withdraw

fluid in variously sized aliquots,<sup>3,38,39</sup> or fixing a catheter to the external surface of a 2.2-mm flexible bronchoscope that does not contain an internal suction channel.

Different methods for determining BAL instillation volume have been reported (Table 3) and adjusting the amount of instilled fluid per the weight of the child (aged 3–15 years) was shown to improve the consistency of ELF sampling.<sup>40</sup> Distal sites may be better represented by a higher number of sequential aliquots taken from a particular wedge location.<sup>41</sup> It is not known whether the method of aliquot aspiration affects BAL composition. Two reported methods for aliquot aspiration include the following: mechanical aspiration using 25 to 200 mm Hg pressure (3.33–13.3 kPa) into a suction trap or hand suction using a syringe.

### FACTORS AFFECTING COMPOSITION OF BAL FLUID

Many factors can influence the quality and composition of BAL samples, including the total volume of saline instilled and the length of the dwell time between saline instillation and withdrawal, because ELF can be diluted by fluid exchange occurring between alveolar, vascular, and interstitial compartments.<sup>42,43</sup> The BAL sample should be considered adequate if there is >40% recovery of instilled fluid, <5% epithelial cells (unless an airway sample is desired), and minimal amounts of mucus after filtering.<sup>5,8,28</sup>

There is no reliable indicator to calculate the proportion of BAL fluid that represents ELF, which makes comparison between research studies difficult.<sup>1</sup> The concentrations of urea<sup>18,44–46</sup> and albumin<sup>47,48</sup> have been used to estimate the

**TABLE 3** Different Reported Methods for Determining BAL Instillation Volume in Children

Aliquot Size	Patient Size Adjustment
2–4 fractions of 10–20 mL <sup>37,110</sup>	N/A
5- to 20-mL fractions <sup>111</sup>	Adjusted by FRC
5 mL for infants <sup>4</sup>	N/A
10 mL for small child <sup>4</sup>	
15 mL for large child <sup>4</sup>	
3 mL/kg <sup>3,30,112</sup>	Divided into 3 aliquots for children <20 kg Divided into 20-mL aliquots for children >20 kg

FRC, functional residual capacity; N/A, not applicable.

ELF component, although each has its unique problems. Urea is present in ELF in equal concentrations to serum but diffuses into BAL fluid in a time-dependent manner,<sup>49</sup> with higher concentrations observed in diseases with increased capillary permeability. Albumin diffuses only very slowly into BAL fluid, but its concentration is frequently altered by lung disease. Given the technical variations used for performing BAL sampling in children, the solute concentrations from BAL are best reported along with the following variables: total volume of normal saline instilled, the number of specimens, the volume of each specimen, the percentage of BAL fluid recovered (eg, number of recovered cells per milliliter of BAL fluid), as well as the site of BAL collection.

## BAL FLUID HANDLING AND PROCESSING

General recommendations on BAL in children have been published.<sup>8</sup> Specific recommendations were proposed to optimize the handling and processing of samples to facilitate pathologic diagnosis, but less attention has been paid to the handling and processing of BAL fluid in the context of research practices.<sup>50–52</sup> Because of the limited ability to perform pediatric FB strictly for research purposes, protocols by which samples are processed and handled will be dependent upon a number of factors and tailored on a “case-by-case” basis, including (1) the primary indication for the procedure, (2) immediate testing to be performed on samples to facilitate diagnosis, (3) local practices, and (4) availability of local resources. Furthermore, given the lack of control data, uniform handling, processing, and storage of samples should be observed to maximize the consistency and minimize variability in the results. Practices for the handling and processing of specimens that are designated

for research purposes are summarized in Tables 4 and 5.

## INITIAL PROCUREMENT CONSIDERATIONS

Upon retrieval of BAL fluid, the conditions for fluid transportation are primarily

dependent on the anticipated duration of time from sample collection to laboratory analysis. Accordingly, the volume, location, quality of lavage, as well as underlying disease pathology may result in lavage fluid samples that vary considerably between individuals. For BAL samples in which the anticipated

**TABLE 4** Suggested Processing and Storage Practices for Samples From BAL Fluid

Practice	BAL	
	Culture, Noncellular Components	Cellular Components (Macrophages, Lymphocytes, Neutrophils, Eosinophils, etc)
Transport to the laboratory	BAL fluid samples must be fresh and should be transported on ice <sup>8,113,114</sup> Samples can be transported at RT if processing will occur in <60 min <sup>114,115</sup>	Same as noncellular components
Sample pooling step	The first BAL sample should not be pooled with the next samples because it has a lower cellular yield with more neutrophils and less lymphocytes than subsequent samples <sup>8</sup> ; the first sample can be used for culture (microbiology) <sup>8</sup> After first lavage, subsequent lavages are higher in cell count, which remains consistent throughout subsequent lavages <sup>59,60</sup> ; lavages should be pooled to increase yield of material	Same as noncellular components
Filtration step	Before the evaluation of noncellular components, BAL fluid should be filtered <sup>8</sup> Microbiologic studies (cultures) should be performed on unfiltered BAL fluid because organisms may be trapped in the mucus <sup>8</sup>	When total cell count is performed, filtration of pooled aliquots is important to prevent mixing of mucus with the cell pellet and to remove bronchial epithelial cells <sup>8,115</sup>
Time to do total cell counting		Immediately after collection <sup>113</sup>
Time to centrifugation	Samples must be fresh and processed immediately after collection <sup>62,113</sup>	Same as noncellular components When delay in cellular analysis is expected, the BAL sample should be centrifuged at 200–300 <i>g</i> for 10 min, and pellet should be resuspended in nutrient-supplemented media and stored at 4°C for up to 12 h <sup>54</sup>
Centrifugation step	The lavage sample is initially centrifuged at 250–500 <i>g</i> for 10 min at 4°C to separate the pellet (cellular components) from the supernatant (total surfactant or noncellular components) <sup>8</sup>	Same as noncellular components
Time to freeze	Immediately after centrifugation <sup>113</sup>	Cells can remain viable in BAL fluid at 25°C for up to 4 h <sup>114,115</sup> or at 4°C for up to 24 h <sup>54</sup>
Storage	–70°C is recommended to maximize storage duration without changes in sample quality <sup>8,113,116</sup>	Pelleted cells can be resuspended in nutrient-supplemented media and stored at 4°C for up to 12 h <sup>54</sup>
Freeze-thaw	Freeze-thaw should be limited to only 1 cycle to ensure sample integrity <sup>8</sup>	Same as noncellular components

RT, room temperature (21°C).

**TABLE 5** Suggested Processing and Storage Practices for Surfactant Studies

Practice	Processing and/or Storage
Transport to the laboratory	BAL fluid should be transported on ice <sup>113</sup>
Time to centrifugation	Whether fresh or frozen, BAL supernatant from first centrifugation should be used for the isolation of surfactants <sup>8</sup> High-speed centrifugation immediately upon sample retrieval before freezing is recommended to maintain maximal consistency among large aggregate samples, particularly when functional activity is assessed
Centrifugation step	After initial centrifugation to pellet cells, functional large aggregate forms of surfactant should be collected through high-speed centrifugation of the previous supernatant (40 000–48 000 <i>g</i> , 4°C, 60 min) <sup>117,118</sup> Small aggregate forms should be collected from remaining supernatant after high-speed centrifugation <sup>117,118</sup>
Time to freeze	Immediately after high-speed centrifugation <sup>119</sup>
Storage	–70°C is recommended to maximize storage duration without changes in sample quality <sup>8,113,116</sup>
Freeze-thaw	Freeze-thaw should be limited to only 1 cycle to ensure sample integrity <sup>8</sup>

time for processing is <60 minutes, samples can be transported “fresh” at room temperature (21°C).<sup>53</sup> After 60 minutes, there is no formal consensus. In general, specimens should be transported on ice and may be stored at 4°C for up to 24 hours.<sup>54</sup> If delays in cellular analysis are expected, samples should be centrifuged at 200 to 300 *g* × 10 minutes (to maintain cellular integrity), the cellular fraction should be resuspended in nutrient-supplemented media (eg, Minimum Essential Medium [MEM] supplemented with the pH buffering agent hydroxyethyl piperazineethanesulfonic acid [HEPES]), and the suspension can be stored at 4°C for up to 12 hours.<sup>54</sup> Freeze/thaw cycles of samples should be avoided when possible.

Processing of cellular components and/or microbiologic agents should follow guidelines as previously described for freshly obtained clinical samples. When proteins and/or nucleic acids studies are required, BAL fluid supernatants can be stored from –20°C<sup>55</sup> to –80°C<sup>8,56–58</sup> to avoid degradation and then can be bulk analyzed at a later time.

### INITIAL ALIQUOT

As a general consideration, the initial BAL fluid aliquot should not be used for

direct assessment of the alveolar environment.<sup>41</sup> Although there is no specific consensus regarding the quality of the initial aliquot, previous studies performed in pediatric patients have established that this first sample has a lower cellular yield and may increase the likelihood of airway sampling rather than alveolar sampling.<sup>59</sup> Thus, the initial aliquot may be of greater interest in the study of airway-related diseases. Subsequent BAL samples have higher cell counts and tend to remain consistent across multiple lavages.<sup>59,60</sup>

### MICROBIOLOGIC STUDIES

Occult or suspected respiratory infection represents one of the most common clinical indications for FB and may include bacterial, fungal, and viral pathogens in both immunocompetent and immunocompromised patients.<sup>61</sup> Accurate pathogen identification is also critical to investigate host response. Some advocate that microbiologic studies be performed on nonfiltered BAL samples to eliminate the possibility of inadvertently trapping organisms.<sup>8</sup> Samples sent for microbiologic culture should be processed immediately to minimize the risk of contamination or degradation of anaerobic organisms,

and the concurrent use of antibiotics should be noted, which may affect the interpretation of results.<sup>62</sup> Cleaning and disinfection of all instruments used for the BAL procedure should be practiced to minimize the risk of false-positive results.<sup>12,63,64</sup> Similarly, avoidance of suctioning while the bronchoscope is in the upper airway is critical to avoid contamination of lower airway samples.<sup>4</sup> Specimens should be collected in leak-proof containers and transported in sealed plastic bags. If delays are anticipated in the processing of samples, refrigeration is preferable to storage at ambient temperatures; delays >48 hours are undesirable and results should be interpreted with caution.<sup>54</sup>

### CELLULAR ISOLATION

Sequential aliquots of BAL fluid should be pooled and filtered through 1 layer of sterile gauze to remove excess mucoid debris<sup>8</sup>; however, filtering of BAL fluid through gauze may result in a significant reduction in the volume of sample.<sup>65</sup> Furthermore, filtering may result in lower cell counts, in particular adherent alveolar macrophages.<sup>66,67</sup> Nevertheless, the total volume of retrieved BAL sample should be measured and cell viability should be initially assessed by using standard techniques such as trypan blue staining.<sup>68</sup> Samples should then undergo centrifugation at 50 to 500 *g* for 10 to 15 minutes for cell subtype isolation and identification, and cell counting should be performed (ie, using cytopsin preparations [Diff-Quick staining; Merz & Dade AG, Dudingin, Germany]) by using manual counts on simple smears or through automated counting techniques using a flow cytometer.<sup>29,69,70</sup> Table 6 lists specific cellular components that can be isolated from BAL fluid and special considerations for processing.

A minimum of 300 to 350 cells should be counted to maximize accuracy, and multiple slides may be stored for



**TABLE 6** Cellular Content Isolated From BAL and Processing Tips and Facts

Cell Type	Processing Tips, Detection Methods, and/or General Information
Macrophages	<p>80% to 90% of the cells recovered from BAL from normal individuals are macrophages<sup>68</sup></p> <p>Morphologic changes can be seen in alveolar macrophages that include a foamy appearance in HP, markedly vacuolated cytoplasm with positive staining of vacuoles for fat in chronic aspiration pneumonia, cytoplasmic inclusions associated with viral infection, ingested RBCs and RBC fragments and hemosiderin with DAH, ingested asbestos bodies, or other dust particles<sup>68</sup></p> <p>Esterase staining distinguishes immature macrophages from lymphocytes<sup>120</sup></p> <p>BAL macrophages may exhibit the same light scatter profile as lymphocytes, promoting errors in lymphocyte counts<sup>121</sup></p> <p>Macrophages can be further characterized through flow cytometric techniques by using monoclonal antibodies<sup>122</sup></p> <p>In DAH, alveolar macrophages will stain for iron (hemosiderin) if the onset of hemorrhage has preceded the time of BAL by 24–48 h<sup>68,123</sup></p> <p>A high-lipid-laden macrophage index<sup>124</sup> may indicate chronic aspiration of oral or gastric contents<sup>125–127</sup></p> <p>Immunostaining is used to assess for phagocytosis or apoptosis in asthma<sup>18</sup></p> <p>KP-1 stains macrophages, which sometimes can be confused with epithelial cells<sup>114</sup></p>
Lymphocytes (eg, CD3, CD4, CD8)	<p>5% to 15% of the cells recovered from BAL of normal individuals are lymphocytes<sup>68</sup>; the subsets of T lymphocytes in the normal adult lung are 75% of CD3<sup>+</sup>, 45% of CD4<sup>+</sup>, 25% of CD8<sup>+</sup>, and &lt;5% for B cells<sup>121</sup>; total T- and B-cell counts are similar in children and adults<sup>128</sup></p> <p>In children, there is an increase in CD8<sup>+</sup> subset of T cells in BAL that gives a lower CD4<sup>+</sup>:CD8<sup>+</sup> ratio than that in adults<sup>128</sup></p> <p>Increased numbers of lymphocytes recovered in BAL fluid have been reported in diseases including hypersensitivity pneumonia, sarcoidosis, berylliosis, tuberculosis, various drug-induced lung diseases, asbestosis, some collagen vascular diseases, and HIV infections<sup>129</sup></p> <p>A high percentage of lymphocytes (&gt;50%) suggests HP or cellular NSIP, whereas a value &gt;25% suggests granulomatous lung diseases (sarcoidosis, HP), NSIP, berylliosis, drug reaction, COP, LIP, or lymphoma<sup>130</sup></p> <p>Although sarcoidosis involves predominantly CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, HP involves typically lymphocytic alveolitis with a predominance of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells<sup>131</sup></p> <p>Immunoperoxidase reaction in immunocytochemistry is frequently used to enumerate lymphocyte populations in BAL fluid in patients with pulmonary diseases, but it is time-consuming and the accuracy and reliability of results depend on the number of cells counted and the experience of the observer<sup>121</sup></p> <p>Lymphocytes can be assessed by using immunofluorescence-labeled monoclonal antibodies and flow cytometry for counting and assessment of polyclonality<sup>20,115,132</sup></p> <p>Lymphocyte phenotype can be further characterized through flow cytometric techniques by using monoclonal antibodies<sup>122</sup></p> <p>Flow cytometry rapidly counts large cell numbers compared with manual counting, but the heterogeneity of the cellular populations makes analysis difficult and can lead to the exclusion of cells of interest as well as the inclusion of unwanted cells<sup>121</sup></p> <p>Cyocentrifugation is the best technique to avoid lymphocyte loss; differential counting of cells is performed on air-dried May-Grünwald-Giemsa- or Wright-Giemsa-stained preparations<sup>115,133</sup></p> <p>Cyocentrifugation (Cytospin) can underestimate the proportion of lymphocytes by ~45% compared with a smear of resuspended cells under a glass coverslip<sup>8</sup></p> <p>Macrophages can be removed before lymphocyte immunophenotyping by adherence to plastic in media such as RPMI 1640 supplemented with serum for 30 min to 1 h, by the magnetic removal of ingested carbonyl iron, with complement-mediated lysis and anti-CD11c, or by passage through a nylon wool column<sup>121</sup></p> <p>Specific T-cell subset populations can be isolated by rosetting with neuraminidase-treated sheep erythrocytes followed by Ficoll-Hypaque gradient centrifugation<sup>134</sup></p>
Neutrophils	<p>Less than 3% of the cells recovered from BAL from normal individuals are neutrophils<sup>68</sup></p> <p>The percentage of neutrophils is higher in BAL fluid from children &lt;12 mo than children aged 13–36 mo<sup>31</sup></p> <p>A high percentage of neutrophils (&gt;50%) strongly suggests pneumonia,<sup>126</sup> aspiration pneumonia, lung abscess, or acute lung injury<sup>130</sup></p> <p>Increased neutrophils in BAL from patients with sarcoidosis has been associated with more progressive disease that is less likely to respond to immunosuppressive therapy<sup>135</sup></p> <p>Increases in BAL neutrophils have been correlated with disease severity and prognosis for both HP<sup>136,137</sup> and IPF<sup>138,139</sup></p> <p>ARDS is associated with lung neutrophil infiltration and elevated cytokines/chemokines<sup>56</sup></p> <p>Elevated neutrophil levels are seen in CF,<sup>140–142</sup> asthma, PCD, PBB,<sup>143</sup> bronchiectasis, measles, and bronchiolitis obliterans<sup>144</sup> and in patients with tracheotomy<sup>104</sup></p> <p>Neutrophil apoptosis has been studied in children with RDS/ECMO by using Giemsa staining of cytospin preparations<sup>145</sup></p> <p>Filtration, as a method to obtain differential cell counts, should be avoided for neutrophils due to filter preparations that can underestimate cell number<sup>115</sup></p>
Eosinophils	<p>Less than 1% of cells recovered by BAL from normal individuals are eosinophils<sup>68</sup></p> <p>A high percentage of eosinophils (&gt;25%) suggests eosinophilic lung disease,<sup>130</sup> especially EP if the presentation is acute<sup>146</sup></p> <p>BAL eosinophilia has been linked to more severe disease and worse prognosis in IPF<sup>147,148</sup></p>
Granulocytes	<p>Elevated during CF due to inflammatory reaction<sup>142</sup></p>
RBCs	<p>RBC proportion is used to evaluate blood contamination in BAL fluid,<sup>149</sup> which is common</p> <p>If DAH is present, RBCs should be identifiable on the cytospin<sup>68</sup></p> <p>RBC contamination can be removed by using lysis reagents including ammonium chloride, commercial lysing reagents, or mild hypotonic lysis solution<sup>121</sup></p> <p>The use of lysing reagents to remove RBC contamination could lead to the release of cellular debris and interfere with lymphocyte gating purity<sup>121</sup></p>

TABLE 6 Continued

Cell Type	Processing Tips, Detection Methods, and/or General Information
Mast cells	Increased numbers of mast cells have been associated with HP, drug reactions, sarcoidosis, ILD associated with collagen vascular disease, IPF, COP, EP, and malignancy <sup>68</sup>
Squamous epithelial cells	Squamous epithelial cells suggest that the BAL fluid has been contaminated by oropharyngeal secretions, which may reflect operator inexperience in BAL or aspirated upper airway secretions <sup>68</sup>
Langerhans cells	Langerhans cells can be stained with S-100 protein and CD 1a antibodies for the diagnosis of Langerhans cells histiocytosis; these 2 antibodies work well in formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded sections <sup>114</sup>

ARDS, acute respiratory distress syndrome; CD, cluster of differentiation; CF, cystic fibrosis; COP, cryptogenic organizing pneumonia (distinctly adult disease); DAH, diffuse alveolar hemorrhage; ECMO, extracorporeal membrane oxygenation; EP, eosinophilic pneumonia; HP, hypersensitivity pneumonitis; ILD, interstitial lung disease; IPF, idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (distinctly adult disease); LIP, lymphoid interstitial pneumonia; NSIP, nonspecific interstitial pneumonia (distinctly adult disease); PBB, persistent bacterial bronchitis; PCD, primary ciliary dyskinesia; RBC, red blood cell; RDS, respiratory distress syndrome; RPMI, Roswell Park Memorial Institute.

clinical or research purposes.<sup>8</sup> If delays are anticipated for specific cellular analysis, cells can be stored at 4°C and analyzed up to 24 hours later without significant changes in the cellular composition or differential cell count,<sup>54</sup> although neutrophil apoptosis with engulfment by alveolar macrophages can commence before 24 hours, and thus samples should be analyzed with minimum delay.<sup>71,72</sup>

### NUCLEOTIDE ANALYSIS

Cellular gene expression studies from BAL samples in pediatric respiratory disease states have also been reported (ie, cytokine mRNA).<sup>35</sup> More commonly, nucleotide analysis has been useful to detect a variety of infectious pathogens localized in different cell types and/or in cell-free compartments of the respiratory tract and to detect increases in the number of specific cell-type populations (lymphocytes, macrophages, neutrophils, etc). Several molecular techniques with high sensitivity and specificity, such as polymerase chain reaction and hybridization, have been used to identify bacteria,<sup>73,74</sup> mycobacteria,<sup>75,76</sup> fungi,<sup>77–83</sup> *Chlamydia*,<sup>57</sup> mycoplasma,<sup>57</sup> and viruses<sup>84–87</sup>, whereas consensus has not been reached about the value of polymerase chain reaction for fungal detection due to positive results in patients who do not develop the associated disease.<sup>88–90</sup> Examples of nucleotide analysis used for samples isolated from cell or cell-free compartments are shown in Table 7.

### NONSURFACTANT PROTEIN ANALYSIS

Protein analyses have been used to assess the functional consequences of gene expression and to provide greater insight into protein expression and modification within complex disease states<sup>91</sup> (Table 8). Recently, there have been significant advancements in proteomics, which analyzes large numbers of proteins in biological tissues with two-dimensional gel electrophoresis, multidimensional liquid chromatography, and/or mass spectrometry.<sup>92,93</sup> Because of the abundance of high-molecular-weight proteins that predominate in the BAL fluid proteome in both diseased and nondiseased states, the detection of less abundant pathologic proteins may be more difficult<sup>94</sup> and thus require special consideration when initially harvesting BAL fluid.

Because of the inherent nature of biological samples, several factors have the potential to interfere with proteomic analysis, including the presence of insoluble substances and biological salts,<sup>95</sup> in addition to the dilute concentrations of proteins that are being measured. The initial centrifugation of samples before direct analysis or storage will initially remove insoluble factors present in the BAL. Subsequently, desalting of BAL samples has been described through a variety of techniques including dialysis, size-exclusion filtering, protein precipitation,<sup>96</sup> or reverse-phase chromatography,<sup>97</sup> in addition to removal of ubiquitous proteins such as

albumin.<sup>98</sup> Techniques such as affinity purification can be used to minimize the dynamic range and enrich the specific protein of interest.<sup>99</sup>

Although proteomic analysis has been used across a spectrum of pediatric lung diseases, lack of uniformity exists across published studies and has likely contributed to proteomic variability.<sup>99</sup> Currently, no standardized protocols exist for procedural aspects of sample retrieval and, furthermore, a standardized approach to optimizing samples for proteomic analysis has not been clearly defined. Thus, key information such as volume and protein concentration of the initial lavage, the number of freeze-thaw cycles, and methodology used in sample preparation should be carefully documented and reported.

### SURFACTANT ANALYSIS

Analysis of the protein-phospholipid surfactant complexes remains an area of particular interest in pediatric respiratory research. Newer techniques allow in-depth analysis of the surfactant system, including quantification of the functional (large aggregate) and nonfunctional (small aggregate) forms and may offer insight into in vivo function (Table 9). Functional large aggregate forms of surfactant can only be retrieved via high-speed centrifugation (pellet), with nonfunctional small aggregate forms retrieved from the remaining supernatant. An alternative method of aggregate separation includes

**TABLE 7** Nucleotides Isolated From BAL Fluid

Nucleotide	Detection Technique	Infectious Agent	Source of Nucleotide	Clinical Diseases
RNA	RT-PCR and Taqman primers for either serotype A or B <sup>87</sup>	RSV	BAL neutrophils	Severe bronchiolitis <sup>87</sup>
	RT (Superscript II; Invitrogen, Grand Island, NY) is performed with random hexamers <sup>86</sup>	HRV and HEV	BAL fluid, cell-free	Pneumonia and pericarditis <sup>86</sup>
DNA	PCR technique is used to amplify DNA <sup>78,84,85</sup>	<i>Aspergillus</i> species <sup>78</sup>	Second aliquot of BAL fluid <sup>78</sup> or BAL fluid, <sup>85</sup> cell-free	IPA <sup>78</sup>
	DNA amplification and hybridization is a sensitive method to detect bacteria <sup>73</sup>	HSV, CMV <sup>85</sup>	BAL fluid, cell-free	Lung transplantation <sup>85</sup>
	DNA is isolated with MagNa Pure LC DNA isolation kit II (Roche Diagnostics, Basel, Switzerland) and amplified by PCR using a bacterial broad-range 16S rDNA primer set <sup>74</sup>	HPV <sup>84</sup>	BAL fluid pellets after first centrifugation, <sup>74</sup> cellular	Asymptomatic immunocompetent children <sup>84</sup>
	Genomic DNA can be isolated by using a QIAMP DNA Blood mini kit (Qiagen, Venlo, The Netherlands) followed by PCR <sup>57</sup>	<i>Legionellae</i> species <sup>73</sup>	BAL fluid, first centrifugation, cell-free	Atypical pneumonia <sup>73</sup>
	LightCycler PCR detects virus DNA with high sensitivity <sup>85</sup>	Tropheryma whipplei <sup>74</sup>	BAL fluid, cell-free	Pneumonia <sup>74</sup>
	Total DNA content is measured with microtiter plates (Immulon 2 flat-bottom plates; Dynatech Laboratories, Chantilly, VA) and a fluorometer plate reader <sup>150</sup>	<i>Chlamydia</i> and <i>Mycoplasma</i>	From BAL fluid: supernatant (filtered)	Refractory asthma <sup>57</sup>
	One single and 2 nested PCR reactions are used to identify fungus; the 2 nested PCRs using primers that target ITS and mtLSU rRNA are more sensitive than a single assay <sup>80</sup>	CMV and HSV	BAL fluid, cell-free	Transplant recipients <sup>85</sup>
	A new single-round and nested PCR assay detects DNA with 2–3 orders of magnitude more than previous conventional PCR <sup>79</sup>	Neutrophil content	BAL fluid, cell-free	CF <sup>150</sup>
	Competitive PCR from BAL fluid is more sensitive for detecting low burdens of hyphae compared with routine culture <sup>78,88,89</sup>	PJP (previously classified as PCP)	Second aliquot of BAL fluid, first centrifugation, <sup>78</sup> cell-free	Immunocompromised patients <sup>80</sup>
	DNA amplification by PCR is used for early detection of mycobacteria in children <sup>76</sup>	PJP <i>Aspergillus</i> species <i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i>	BAL fluid, cell-free	HIV and non-HIV immunocompromised patients <sup>79</sup> IPA <sup>78</sup> Tuberculosis <sup>76</sup>
Purines (ATP, ADP, AMP, adenosine) <sup>23</sup>	Luminometry <sup>23</sup>	N/A	BAL fluid	CF

ADP, adenosine diphosphate; AMP, adenosine monophosphate; ATP, adenosine triphosphate; CF, cystic fibrosis; CLD, chronic lung disease; CMV, cytomegalovirus; HEV, enterovirus; HPV, human papillomavirus; HRV, human rhinoviruses; HSV, herpes simplex virus; IPA, invasive pulmonary aspergillosis; ITS, internal transcribed spacer region; mtLSU rRNA, mitochondrial large subunit ribosomal RNA locus; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; PCP, *Pneumocystis pneumonia*; PJP, *Pneumocystis jirovecii pneumonia*; RSV, respiratory syncytial virus; RT-PCR, reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction.

equilibrium buoyant density gradient centrifugation.<sup>100</sup> Although both methods have been validated, high-speed centrifugation can be performed on multiple samples in a less labor-intensive manner compared with equilibrium buoyant density gradient centrifugation.<sup>100</sup> The evaluation of surfactant

function can be performed through measurements of surface tension by using surfactometers or quantitative Brewster angle microscopy.<sup>101–104</sup> Standard practices for the handling, processing, and storage of specimens that are designated for surfactant isolation are listed in Table 5.

## CONCLUSIONS

This review summarizes pertinent issues regarding BAL in children for research purposes, including ethical and methodologic considerations for obtaining BAL fluid, and the cellular and noncellular elements that can be obtained by FB. The



TABLE 8 Protein Isolation From BAL Fluid

Noncellular Constituents	Clinical Disease	Detection Technique	Isolation Method	General Information
Albumin (produced only outside the lungs)	Healthy Children <sup>31</sup> Fibrosing alveolitis <sup>151,152</sup> ILD <sup>153</sup> CF <sup>46</sup>	Nephelometric method <sup>151,152</sup> Radial immunodiffusion in agar <sup>151,152</sup> Isotope counting <sup>153</sup> Immunoblotting <sup>46</sup>	Isolated from supernatant after first centrifugation Cell-free	At least 66% of the proteins in BAL fluid are serum derived <sup>151</sup> An increase in immunoglobulins and albumin is detected in these diseases <sup>151-153</sup> Specific antibodies in BAL can indicate infection
Immunoglobulins (synthesized both within and outside the lungs)	Fibrosing alveolitis, IPF, HP, pulmonary fibrosis <sup>152</sup> <i>Cryptococcus</i> infection <sup>154</sup> Fungal infection	Radial immunodiffusion in agar Radioimmunoabsorbent method ELISA Immunoblot assay ELISA	Isolated from cell pellet derived from BAL fluid after first centrifugation step Cellular	
Osteopontin (alveolar epithelium), <sup>155</sup> PEDF (fibrotic interstitium and epithelium) <sup>156</sup>	IPF	Microarray analysis IHC Western blot analysis ELISA Proteolytic enzyme assay Immunoblot Western blot IF IHC		BAL pepsin indicates GER and aspiration of contents <sup>26,127,157</sup> Innate inhibitor of serine proteases such as elastase in CF airways <sup>46</sup>
Pepsin	GER CF			
Serpin B1	CF			
RSV F, G, and N proteins <sup>87</sup>	CLD of prematurity <sup>158</sup> Bronchiolitis	NE-specific substrate assay, <sup>159</sup> nitroanilide colorimetric assay, <sup>160</sup> kinetic conversion assay <sup>158</sup> ELISA <sup>26,46,125</sup> RIA kit <sup>163</sup>	Proteins are isolated from the surface of neutrophils from BAL fluid <sup>87</sup> Cellular Isolated from BAL fluid supernatant after first centrifugation Cell-free Transport of frozen samples does not affect level of oxidized proteins <sup>163</sup>	Neutrophil elastase and myeloperoxidase in BAL are indicators of pulmonary inflammation in several disease processes
NE, <sup>159,160</sup> myeloperoxidase, <sup>19,125,161</sup> endotoxin <sup>162</sup>	CF	Immune-beads, <sup>21</sup> FACS <sup>161</sup> Limulus amoebocyte lysate assay <sup>162</sup> Radio-ligand binding assay Western blot analysis, heparin affinity, gel filtration, IHC		
PDGF <sup>164</sup>	GER Bronchiolitis <sup>161</sup> Bronchiolitis obliterans	ELISA ELISA ELISA IHC		
Mannose-binding lectin <sup>160</sup> BAFF APRIL <sup>165</sup> GM-ab <sup>166</sup> IL-6 receptor single nucleotide polymorphism <sup>167</sup> TGF- $\beta$ <sup>168</sup> PPAR- $\gamma$ , paraoxonase 2 <sup>169</sup> MCP-1, MCP-1 mRNA expression <sup>170</sup> MMP-8 <sup>171</sup>	Pulmonary infections RSV Pulmonary alveolar proteinosis Asthma Asthma CF ILD Preterm infants of mothers with chorioamnionitis	RT-PCR qPCR Multiplex, particle-based commercial assay qRT-PCR <sup>170</sup> ELISA	BAL cells air-dried, fixed, and stored at $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  RNA extracted from cell pellets mRNA extracted from lysed BAL fluid cells	
Lipoxin A, Clara cell protein <sup>10,172</sup>	CF	ELISA One-dimensional electrophoresis on 10% bis-Tris NuPAGE gel RIA <sup>22</sup> Western blot ELISA <sup>158</sup> EIA Sandwich EIA RIA <sup>74</sup>		Partial or complete courses of antenatal corticosteroids had no effect on MMP-8 concentrations  Measurement of protease-antiprotease balance was affected by molar ratio of TIMP-1 to MMP-9 <sup>22</sup>
s(CAM)-1, MMP-9, TIMP-1 <sup>22,156</sup> AA1 <sup>155</sup>	Persistent wheeze CLD of prematurity <sup>158</sup>			
LTB <sub>4</sub> , LTC <sub>4</sub> , PGD <sub>2</sub> , PGE <sub>2</sub> , HETE, $\beta$ -tryptase <sup>173,174</sup>	Wheezing Asthma <sup>174</sup>			

**TABLE 8** Continued

Noncellular Constituents	Clinical Disease	Detection Technique	Isolation Method	General Information
HA <sup>175</sup> TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6 <sup>180</sup>	Healthy adults and lung cancer Lung transplant	RIA	Isolated from BAL supernatant after first centrifugation Cell-free	ELISA is the most frequently used method for detecting various protein elements in BAL. <sup>3,176-178</sup> In some cases, radiolabeled <sup>175</sup> and dye-based immunoassays are used. <sup>176,177</sup>
Matrix components (elastin, collagen glycosaminoglycans) <sup>176</sup> and intracellular cytokines (TNF, IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-8, IL-6, IL-1ra) <sup>177</sup>	CF	Dye binding assay kits <sup>176</sup> IHC <sup>177</sup>		
Intracellular cytokines (IFN- $\gamma$ , IL-2, IL-4, IL-5, IL-10) <sup>181</sup>	Asthma	Flow cytometry after stimulation with PMA and ionomycin	Anti-CD4 added to prevent PMA or ionomycin-caused reduction in surface expression of CD4	
IL-2, IFN- $\gamma$ , CCR2 <sup>+</sup> , CCR4 <sup>+</sup> , CCR3 <sup>+</sup> , CCR5 <sup>+</sup> , CXCR3 <sup>+</sup> <sup>170</sup> IP-10, ITAC, Mig, TARC, MDC, IL-5, IL-4 <sup>182</sup> IL-8 <sup>22,144</sup>	ILD Asthma, chronic cough Measles bronchiolitis obliterans <sup>144</sup> Persistent wheeze <sup>22</sup> CF, asthma	Flow cytometry ELISA, particle-based multiplex array ELISA		
TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-8, nitrite <sup>183</sup> , nitrotyrosine <sup>184</sup>	Healthy adults	ELISA Griess colorimetric assay <sup>185</sup> ELISA		Salivary components and mucin can mask detection of hBD-2 and -3 ELISA found to be more sensitive than semiquantitative Western blots PAI-1 was a good biomarker for discriminating VAP in ventilated patients
hBD-2, hBD-3 <sup>186</sup>	Healthy adults	Immune dot blot assay		
$\beta$ -defensins: hBD-1, hBD-2 Cathelicidin LL-37, hCAP-18 <sup>187</sup> PAI-1, sTREM-1, RAGE <sup>188,189</sup>	CF VAP	ELISA		
Pulmonary lymphocyte expression of CXCR3 <sup>+</sup> , CCR5 <sup>+</sup> , CCR4 <sup>+</sup> , CCR3 <sup>+</sup> <sup>182</sup> CXCL chemokines (CXCL10, CXCL8, CCL2, CCL3, CCL5, CCL1) <sup>180</sup> RANTES, MCP-3, MCP-4, eotaxin 1,2 <sup>179</sup>	Asthma, chronic cough Infants with severe RSV bronchiolitis Asthma	Flow cytometry ELISA ELISA		RANTES, MCP-3, MCP-4, eotaxins regulate eosinophil trafficking into the airways of asthmatic children in a coordinated manner <sup>179</sup>
Fibronectin <sup>31</sup> ; TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-4, IL-5, IL-18, IL-8, eotaxin <sup>28</sup>	Healthy children	ELISA with/without Western blot		Requires purification with Sep pak system <sup>183</sup>
S2 Gelatinase, TIMP-1, IL-6 <sup>191</sup> IL-4, IL-5, IL-13 and IL-18, <sup>178</sup> TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-8, MMP-9, TIMP-1 <sup>192</sup> , eicosanoid mediators (LTB <sub>4</sub> , thromboxane) <sup>193</sup>	ARDS Asthma			
IL-6, sIL-6r, sgp-130, <sup>194</sup> TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-8, IL-1Ra, IL-10 and TNF-sr <sup>177</sup> , IL-1 <sup>110</sup> , A1AT and S1P1, <sup>159</sup> IL-18, IL-2, <sup>155</sup> complement receptors (CR1, CR3) <sup>186</sup>	CF			Upregulation of these molecules can indicate neutrophil activation <sup>196</sup> . CR3 is necessary for migration and phagocytosis <sup>196</sup> ELISA used to confirm proteins identified by proteomics <sup>197</sup>
Serum proteins (eg, albumin, $\beta$ 2-microglobulin and fibrinogen), IGFBP-3 and pulmonary proteins (eg, as SP-D and Clara cell protein) Carbonylated proteins <sup>172</sup> Bile acids IL-8 Carbonylated proteins, 8-isoprostane, catalase, glutathione peroxidase <sup>198</sup>	ARDS <sup>197</sup> GER Bronchiolitis obliterans	Immunoblot Commercial enzymatic assay ELISA DNPH-based procedure Exponential decay of H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> in K <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> buffer ELISA PCR		Protein carbonyls used as a measure of oxidative stress
Foxp3 <sup>117</sup> VEGF-C	Lung transplant RDS, BPD infants <sup>199</sup>	PCR ELISA		Reduced Foxp3 <sup>+</sup> cells found in immunosuppressed transplant patients

TABLE 8 Continued

Noncellular Constituents	Clinical Disease	Detection Technique	Isolation Method	General Information
VEGF receptor-3, <sup>156</sup> VEGF <sup>152</sup>	Asthma	LPS assay <sup>152</sup>		In situ pulmonary concentration of VEGF-C estimated by using secretory IgA in tracheal aspirate fluid versus human colostrum reference standard <sup>159</sup>
Gene expression for TLR-2, TLR-3, TLR-4, CCR3, CCR5, CXCR1, neutrophilins, TAC1, TAC3, CGRP, NGF substance P, <sup>126</sup> TLR-2, TLR-4, TLR-7, TLR-8, TLR-9, CD11b <sup>87</sup>	Healthy children (with bacterial colonization), bronchiolitis <sup>87</sup>	Duplex real-time PCR <sup>126</sup>	Commercial multiple tissue RNA preparation <sup>126</sup> TLR-2, TLR-4, and LPS-stimulated neutrophils used as calibration control sample	
Eosinophil cationic protein <sup>22</sup>	Persistent wheeze, asthma	ELISA Fluoro-immunoassay <sup>174</sup> Immunoassay HPLC Colorimetric assays		Glutathione is an antioxidant found in airway cells. Glutathione supplementation inhibited apoptosis and rescued phagocytosis of airway cells <sup>16</sup>
Serine protease Grb <sup>200</sup>	RSV			
Glutathione, glutathione disulfide, MDA (lipid/DNA oxidation) <sup>19</sup>	Asthma	Immunostaining Incubation of BAL fluid with 4-methylumbelliferyl-D-N, N'-diacetylchitobioside ELISA Dot blot colorimetric assay		Chitinases break down chitin within cell walls of fungi; there may be a role for chitinases in asthma pathogenesis. <sup>154</sup>
Chitinase activity, YKL-40 <sup>154</sup>	Asthma			
Carbonylated proteins <sup>172</sup>	CF		Protease inhibitors added to cell-free supernatant 1 or 2 thaw/refreeze cycles did not impact protein carbonylation Isolated from BAL fluid supernatant after first centrifugation Cell-free	A marker of oxidation of pulmonary ELF proteins
Carbonylated proteins (ie, albumin, IgG heavy chain, transferrin, hemopexin, complement C3, superoxide dismutase, transthyretin, IgA s-chain, IgA heavy-chain, ceruloplasmin and haptoglobin) <sup>201</sup>	Sarcoidosis, IPF, and SSC	2-DE PAGE, Shotgun proteomics, SELDI-TOF, LC-MS/MS analysis, DIGE, cation exchange chromatography Immunoblotting		To further identify carbonylated proteins, high-power 2-DE combined with Western blot technique should be used. <sup>201</sup> Changes in pulmonary oxidant/antioxidant balance can be detected with proteomics techniques. <sup>201</sup> 2-DE analysis and immunoblot analysis of BAL protein composition revealed different profiles in these diseases and that patients with IPF had a greater number of protein targets of oxidation in BAL compared with patients with sarcoidosis or SSC and controls. <sup>201</sup>
ApoA1 and S100 calcium binding protein A8 and A9 <sup>55</sup>	Bronchial lung endotoxin instillation and ARDS	ELISA		Ceruloplasmin and haptoglobin are 2 glycoproteins with antioxidant function and which are only carbonylated in patients with IPF. <sup>61</sup> SELDI-TOF and 2-DE PAGE techniques are useful to detect unique/differential expression patterns of biomarker in acute lung inflammation. <sup>56</sup> Low protein content, high salt concentration, elevated albumin and immunoglobulins can affect results. <sup>56</sup>
Calgranulin A <sup>82</sup>	CF		SELDI-TOF spectrometry Identification of proteins by peptide mass fingerprinting of trypsin digested fragments	Chromatographic chips used to avoid unintended "preselection" of proteins before protein identification, samples purified and submitted to PAGE 2-DE analysis of BAL fluid showed quantitative differences between IPF, sarcoidosis, and HP. <sup>55,202-203</sup> , and among sarcoidosis, IPF, and SSC. <sup>205</sup> Plasma proteins increased in sarcoidosis and SSC, and low-molecular-weight proteins
IgG and IgA, plasma proteins, calgranulin, antioxidant peroxisomal enzyme, thioredoxin peroxidase 2, and proteins with low molecular masses (<35 kDa) and acidic isoelectric points (4 < pI < 7) such as cyclophilin A, calgranulin B, TCTP, and MIF	IPF, sarcoidosis, HP, and SSC <sup>55,202-205</sup>			

**TABLE 8 Continued**

Noncellular Constituents	Clinical Disease	Detection Technique	Isolation Method	General Information
IgJ chain, $\alpha$ 1-acid glycoprotein <sup>206</sup>	Healthy adults			were detected in IPF, suggesting different pathogenesis of these diseases <sup>205</sup> 2-DE-based proteomics method is used to show differences in proteins from BAL fluid <sup>206</sup> A limitation to the 2-DE proteomics approach is that it is not easy to quantify all changes in relative protein expression among a large number of samples <sup>206</sup> 2-DE cannot detect low-abundance proteins and hydrophobic proteins; there is a large intersubject variability in relative protein intensity <sup>206</sup> Shotgun proteomics can obtain a set of BAL fluid protein profiles of markers of lung injury <sup>197</sup> Shotgun proteomics can detect proteins that are limited by 2-DE <sup>197</sup> LC-MS/MS analysis is an excellent screening tool to characterize sample containing unknown protein composition <sup>197</sup> Extra steps including isolation of subpopulations of proteins should be done to increase the yield of proteins using LC-MS/MS proteomic screen <sup>197</sup> Cation exchange chromatography of trypsin-digested samples followed by MS/MS analysis is limited by overlap in the proteins, but it has the advantage of high throughput <sup>197</sup> DIGE allows profiling of protein expression in BAL fluid samples at the onset and during the course of acute lung injury Computational analysis and bioinformatics can be applied to map complex protein interactions during the course of ARDS; in the study, several proteins found in low concentrations in BAL fluid (eg, cytokines, intracellular signaling proteins, and transcription factors) were added <sup>207</sup>
Membranes, nuclear, cytosolic, extracellular, and secreted proteins, as well as protein from cytoskeleton, serum, and intracellular compartments (ie, fibrinogen $\alpha$ chain, $\alpha$ 2-HS-glycoprotein, ceruloplasmin, $\alpha$ 1 chymotrypsin, antitrypsin inhibitor, C3a, leukotrienes, collagenases A and B, IGFBP-3, and proteases)	ARDS <sup>197</sup>			
Opsonins, antioxidants, basement membrane proteins, coagulation proteins, and serum acute-phase reactants (ie, S100A8, S100A9, C3, C4, C9, cystatin S, transferrin, hemoglobin, PRDX2, FGA, FTL, annexin 1, SAA1, etc <sup>201</sup> )	ARDS <sup>207</sup>			

AIAT,  $\alpha$ 1 antitrypsin; AAT, Alpha-1 antitrypsin; ApoA1, apolipoprotein A1; APRIL, A proliferation inducing ligand; ARDS, acute respiratory distress syndrome; BAF, B-cell activating factor; BPD, bronchopulmonary dysplasia; C3, complement C3 precursor; C4, complement C4 precursor; C9, complement C9 precursor; CCL2, monocyte chemoattractant protein 1; CCL3, macrophage inflammatory protein 1 $\alpha$ ; CCR5, chemokine (C-C motif) receptor type 5; CD11b, cluster of differentiation molecule 11B; CF, cystic fibrosis; CGRP, calcitonin gene-related peptide; CLD, chronic lung disease; CR1, C3b receptor; CR3, iC3b receptor; CXCL8, interleukin-8; CXCR3, chemokine (C-X-C motif) receptor 3; DIGE, difference gel electrophoresis; DNPH, 2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazine; EA, competitive enzyme immunoassay; ELISA, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; FACS, fluorescence-activated cell sorting; FGA, fibrinogen A chain; FTL, ferritin light chain; GER, gastroesophageal reflux; GM-ab, immunoglobulin G—granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor antibody; Grb, granzyme B; HA, hyaluronic acid; hBD, human  $\beta$  defensin; human cathelicidin antimicrobial peptide (hCAP) and LL-37, human cathelicidin; HETE, 15-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid; HP, hyper-sensitivity pneumonitis; HPLC, high-performance liquid chromatography; IF, immunofluorescence; Ig, immunoglobulin; HS, Homo sapiens; IGFBP-3, insulin-like growth factor binding protein-3; IHC, immunohistochemistry; IL, interleukin; IL-1ra, interleukin-1 receptor antagonist; ILD, interstitial lung disease; IP-10, interferon- $\gamma$  inducible 10 kDa protein; IPF, idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (distinctly adult lung disease); ITAC, interferon- $\gamma$  inducible cell chemoattractant; LC-MS/MS, liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; LTB<sub>4</sub>, leukotriene B<sub>4</sub>; LTC<sub>4</sub>, leukotriene C<sub>4</sub>; MCP-1, monocyte chemoattractant protein 1; MDA, malondialdehyde; MDC, macrophage-derived chemokine; MIF, migration inhibitory factor; Mig, monokine induced by interferon- $\gamma$ ; MMP, matrix metalloprotein; MS/MS, tandem mass spectrometry; NE, neutrophil elastase; NGF, substance P; nerve growth factor substance P; PAGE, polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; PAI-1, plasminogen activation inhibitor; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; PDGF, platelet-derived growth factor; PGE<sub>2</sub>, prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub>; PI, isoelectrical point; PMA, phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate; PPAR- $\gamma$ , peroxisome proliferator activated receptor- $\gamma$ ; PRDX2, peroxiredoxin 2; qPCR, quantitative polymerase chain reaction; qRT-PCR, quantitative reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction; RAGE, receptor for advanced glycation end-products; RANTES, regulated on activation, normal T-cell expressed and secreted; RDS, respiratory distress syndrome; RIA, radioimmunoassay; RSV, respiratory syncytial virus; RT-PCR, reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction; S100A8, calgranulin A; S100A9, calgranulin B; SAA1, serum amyloid protein A; SELDI-TOF, surface-enhanced laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight; sgp-130, human soluble glycoprotein of 130 kDa; siCAM-1, soluble intercellular adhesion molecule-1; sll-6r, soluble interleukin-6 receptor; SLP, secretory leukocyte protease inhibitor; SP-D, surfactant protein-D; SSC, pulmonary fibrosis associated with systemic sclerosis; sTREM, soluble triggering receptor expressed on myeloid cells; TAC-1/3, tachykinin precursor 1/3; TARC, thymus- and activation-regulated chemokine; TGF- $\beta$ , transcription growth factor- $\beta$ ; TIMP-1, tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase 1; TLR, Toll-like receptor; TNF-sR, tumor necrosis factor–soluble receptor; TNF- $\alpha$ , tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$ ; VAP, ventilator-associated pneumonia; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor; YKL-40, chitinase-3-like protein 1 (CHI3L1); 2-DE, two-dimensional gel electrophoresis.

**TABLE 9** SP-Phospholipid Complexes Isolated From BAL Fluid

	Clinical Disease	Isolation/Detection Method	General Information
Total phospholipid <sup>208</sup>	Healthy children <sup>208</sup>	Cell-free BAL fluid, chloroform/methanol followed by HPLC	Surfactant phospholipid concentrations are higher in children between 3 and 9 years than in older children <sup>208</sup>
SP-A <sup>24,27,101,116,118,141,142,197,201,202,206-215</sup>	Healthy children <sup>206,208</sup>	Isolated from BAL supernatant after first centrifugation	SP-A concentrations are independent of the child's age <sup>208</sup>
SP-B <sup>24,25,101,116,118,142,197,210,211,214,215,217</sup>	PAP <sup>24,216</sup>	Immunoblot <sup>24,25</sup>	CF, pneumonia, and ARDS shift the composition of phospholipids and reduce the amount of SP-A but not SP-B <sup>142,214</sup>
SP-C <sup>24,25,101,118,215,217,219</sup>	Acute inflammatory airway disease <sup>25</sup>	Chemiluminescence assay <sup>217</sup>	Deglycosylation of reacting proteins using recombinant N-glycosidase F <sup>217</sup>
SP-D <sup>116,118,142,188,209-211,215,216,218</sup>	Chronic bronchitis <sup>27</sup>	Agglutination assay <sup>27</sup>	
	Mechanical ventilation <sup>101</sup>	Gel chromatography <sup>27,212</sup>	
	ALI/ARDS <sup>116,118,197,207,210,214</sup>	Mass spectrometry <sup>210</sup>	
	CF <sup>27,141,142,212,213,215</sup>	ELISA <sup>101,116,118,141,142,188,210,211,214,215,218</sup>	
	CLD <sup>217</sup>	Western blot <sup>24,209,210,216,217,219</sup>	
	GER <sup>209</sup>	Commercial protein assay kit <sup>217</sup>	
	Acute bacterial pneumonia <sup>214</sup>		
	IPF <sup>201,202</sup>		
	RDS <sup>211</sup>		
	VAP <sup>188,218</sup>		
	Sarcoidosis <sup>201,202,219</sup>		
Phosphatidylcholine/ phosphatidylglycerol <sup>116,142,214,220,221</sup>	CF <sup>142</sup>	Isolated from BAL supernatant after first centrifugation; a high-speed centrifugation isolation is conducted for further isolation of lipid-protein complex (from cell-free supernatant or pellet)	Phospholipid content can be determined by phosphorus assay of lipid extract of surfactant pellet after high-speed centrifugation <sup>142</sup>
Phosphatidylinositol <sup>116,142,214,220,221</sup>	Acute bacterial pneumonia <sup>214</sup>		For further separation and analysis of different classes of phospholipids, HPTLC can be used <sup>142,214</sup>
Sphingomyelin <sup>116,142,214,220,221</sup>	ARDS <sup>116,220</sup>		Extensive alterations in the biochemical and biophysical properties of surfactant have been described in CF, pneumonia, and ARDS <sup>116,142,214</sup>
Phosphatidylserine <sup>116,142,220</sup>	Thromboembolic disease <sup>221</sup>		The lipid-protein complexes from lung lavage are not surface-active in ARDS <sup>116,220</sup>
Phosphatidyl-ethanolamine <sup>142,221</sup>			Lipids can also be extracted from BAL fluid by using chloroform/methanol <sup>222</sup>
Lecithin <sup>116,220</sup>	ARDS <sup>116,220</sup>	Isolated from BAL supernatant after first centrifugation	Disaturated lecithin is low, but sphingomyelin and phosphatidylserine are elevated in ARDS <sup>116,220</sup>
		Supernatant is used for analysis of lipids and enzymatic activities	Additional phospholipids present in the airways that could dilute surfactant and nonsurfactant lipids can originate from outside or within the lung (type II pneumocytes) <sup>220</sup>
		High-speed centrifugation is conducted on the first supernatant for the measurement of surface activity of lipid-protein complex	
Napsin <sup>24</sup>	PAP <sup>24</sup>	Activity assay	
Cathepsin H <sup>24</sup>	PAP <sup>24</sup>	Proteolysis by elastase, cathepsin G, or proteinase 3, then gold or silver staining plus Western blot <sup>24,213</sup>	
Cathepsin G <sup>213</sup>	CF <sup>213</sup>	Coupled spectrophotometric reaction <sup>213</sup>	
Surfactant function <sup>104</sup>	Chronic airway inflammation (chronic bronchitis and tracheostomy patients)	Capillary surfactometer after separation of BAL fluid to large surfactant aggregates (LA) and supernatant with inhibitory constituents	Function of LA-supernatant recombinations is poor because of protein influx during lavage procedure

ALI, acute lung injury; ARDS, acute respiratory distress syndrome; CF, cystic fibrosis; CLD, chronic lung disease; ELISA, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; GER, gastroesophageal reflux; HPLC, high-performance liquid chromatography; HPTLC, high-performance thin layer chromatography; IPF, idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (distinctly adult lung disease); LA, large aggregates; PAP, pulmonary alveolar proteinosis; RDS, respiratory distress syndrome; SP, surfactant protein; VAP, ventilator-associated pneumonia.

study of procured BAL fluid continues to be a fertile ground for pediatric translational research. Indeed, newer quantitative analytic techniques have been used to investigate cellular and noncellular components, thereby improving our ability to identify early markers of sus-

ceptibility to respiratory disease, monitor and predict disease progression, and understand pulmonary disease pathogenesis and outcomes. Although gaps still exist in BAL practices, the development of disease- or technique-specific guidelines would significantly enhance homogeneity

and allow more accurate comparisons across different studies.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Dr Fraser is Director of the Translational Research Centre (<http://www.translational-research.ca>; London, ON, Canada).



## REFERENCES

- Baughman RP. Technical aspects of bronchoalveolar lavage: recommendations for a standard procedure. *Semin Respir Crit Care Med.* 2007;28(5):475–485
- Rose AS, Knox KS. Bronchoalveolar lavage as a research tool. *Semin Respir Crit Care Med.* 2007;28(5):561–573
- de Blic J, Marchac V, Scheinmann P. Complications of flexible bronchoscopy in children: prospective study of 1,328 procedures. *Eur Respir J.* 2002;20(5):1271–1276
- Balfour-Lynn IM, Spencer H. Bronchoscopy—how and when? *Paediatr Respir Rev.* 2002;3(3):255–264
- Davies JC. Pseudomonas aeruginosa in cystic fibrosis: pathogenesis and persistence. *Paediatr Respir Rev.* 2002;3(2):128–134
- Brisson AR, Matsui D, Rieder MJ, Fraser DD. Translational research in pediatrics: tissue sampling and biobanking. *Pediatrics.* 2012;129(1):153–162
- Gillio-Meina C, Cepinskas G, Cecchini EL, Fraser DD. Translational research in pediatrics II: blood collection, processing, shipping, and storage. *Pediatrics.* 2013;131(4):754–766
- de Blic J, Midulla F, Barbato A, et al; European Respiratory Society. Bronchoalveolar lavage in children. ERS Task Force on Bronchoalveolar Lavage in Children. *Eur Respir J.* 2000;15(1):217–231
- Nussbaum E. Pediatric fiberoptic bronchoscopy: clinical experience with 2,836 bronchoscopies. *Pediatr Crit Care Med.* 2002;3(2):171–176
- Wood RE. Spelunking in the pediatric airways: explorations with the flexible fiberoptic bronchoscope. *Pediatr Clin North Am.* 1984;31(4):785–799
- Perez CR, Wood RE. Update on pediatric flexible bronchoscopy. *Pediatr Clin North Am.* 1994;41(2):385–400
- Green CG, Eisenberg J, Leong A, Nathanson I, Schnapf BM, Wood RE. Flexible endoscopy of the pediatric airway. *Am Rev Respir Dis.* 1992;145(1):233–235
- Martinot A, Closset M, Marquette CH, et al. Indications for flexible versus rigid bronchoscopy in children with suspected foreign-body aspiration. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 1997;155(5):1676–1679
- Tang LF, Xu YC, Wang YS, et al. Airway foreign body removal by flexible bronchoscopy: experience with 1027 children during 2000–2008. *World J Pediatr.* 2009;5(3):191–195
- Health Canada's Research Ethics Board. Ethics review of research involving humans. Administrative Policy and Procedures Manual. Health Canada. 2009. Available at: [www.hc-sc.gc.ca/sr-sr/alt\\_formats/pdf/pubs/advice-avis/reb-cer/reb-cer-eng.pdf](http://www.hc-sc.gc.ca/sr-sr/alt_formats/pdf/pubs/advice-avis/reb-cer/reb-cer-eng.pdf). Accessed April 24, 2014
- Mtunthama N, Malamba R, French N, Molyneux ME, Zijlstra EE, Gordon SB. Malawians permit research bronchoscopy due to perceived need for health-care. *J Med Ethics.* 2008;34(4):303–307
- Eiwögger T, Gruber S, Geiger C, et al. Impact of systemic immuno-suppression after solid organ transplantation on allergen-specific responses. *Allergy.* 2011;66(2):271–278
- Fitzpatrick AM, Teague WG, Burwell L, Brown MS, Brown LA; NIH/NHLBI Severe Asthma Research Program. Glutathione oxidation is associated with airway macrophage functional impairment in children with severe asthma. *Pediatr Res.* 2011;69(2):154–159
- Thomson E, Brennan S, Senthilmohan R, et al; Australian Respiratory Early Surveillance Team for Cystic Fibrosis (AREST CF). Identifying peroxidases and their oxidants in the early pathology of cystic fibrosis. *Free Radic Biol Med.* 2010;49(9):1354–1360
- Regamey N, Tsartsali L, Hilliard TN, et al. Distinct patterns of inflammation in the airway lumen and bronchial mucosa of children with cystic fibrosis. *Thorax.* 2012;67(2):164–170
- Brennan S, Sly PD, Gangell CL, et al; Australian Respiratory Early Surveillance Team for Cystic Fibrosis. Alveolar macrophages and CC chemokines are increased in children with cystic fibrosis. *Eur Respir J.* 2009;34(3):655–661
- Erlwyn-Lajeunesse MD, Hunt LP, Pohunek P, et al. Bronchoalveolar lavage MMP-9 and TIMP-1 in preschool wheezers and their relationship to persistent wheeze. *Pediatr Res.* 2008;64(2):194–199
- Esther CR Jr, Alexis NE, Clas ML, et al. Extracellular purines are biomarkers of neutrophilic airway inflammation. *Eur Respir J.* 2008;31(5):949–956
- Woischnik M, Bauer A, Aboutaam R, et al. Cathepsin H and napsin A are active in the alveoli and increased in alveolar proteinosis. *Eur Respir J.* 2008;31(6):1197–1204
- Tafel O, Latzin P, Paul K, Winter T, Woischnik M, Griesse M. Surfactant proteins SP-B and SP-C and their precursors in bronchoalveolar lavages from children with acute and chronic inflammatory airway disease. *BMC Pulm Med.* 2008;8:6–13
- McNally P, Ervine E, Shields MD, et al. High concentrations of pepsin in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid from children with cystic fibrosis are associated with high interleukin-8 concentrations. *Thorax.* 2011;66(2):140–143
- Heinrich SM, Griesse M. Assessment of surfactant protein A (SP-A) dependent agglutination. *BMC Pulm Med.* 2010;10:59–67
- Gidaris D, Kanakoudi-Tsakalidou F, Papakosta D, et al. Bronchoalveolar lavage in children with inflammatory and noninflammatory lung disease. *Hippokratia.* 2010;14(2):109–114
- Marguet C, Jouen-Boedes F, Dean TP, Warner JO. Bronchoalveolar cell profiles in children with asthma, infantile wheeze, chronic cough, or cystic fibrosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 1999;159(5 pt 1):1533–1540
- Riedler J, Grigg J, Stone C, Tauro G, Robertson CF. Bronchoalveolar lavage cellularity in healthy children. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 1995;152(1):163–168
- Midulla F, Villani A, Merolla R, Bjermer L, Sandstrom T, Ronchetti R. Bronchoalveolar lavage studies in children without parenchymal lung disease: cellular constituents and protein levels. *Pediatr Pulmonol.* 1995;20(2):112–118
- Ratjen F, Bredendiek M, Brendel M, Meltzer J, Costabel U. Differential cytology of bronchoalveolar lavage fluid in normal children. *Eur Respir J.* 1994;7(10):1865–1870
- Kim CK, Chung CY, Choi SJ, Kim DK, Park Y, Koh YY. Bronchoalveolar lavage cellular composition in acute asthma and acute bronchiolitis. *J Pediatr.* 2000;137(4):517–522
- Heaney LG, Stevenson EC, Turner G, et al. Investigating paediatric airways by non-bronchoscopic lavage: normal cellular data. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 1996;26(7):799–806
- Tessier V, Chadelat K, Baculard A, Housset B, Clement A. BAL in children: a controlled study of differential cytology and cytokine expression profiles by alveolar cells in pediatric sarcoidosis. *Chest.* 1996;109(6):1430–1438
- Merchant RK, Schwartz DA, Helmers RA, Dayton GS, Hunninghake GW. Bronchoalveolar lavage cellularity: the distribution in normal volunteers. *Am Rev Respir Dis.* 1992;146(2):448–453
- Pingleton SK, Harrison GF, Stechschulte DJ, Wesselius LJ, Kerby GR, Ruth WE. Effect of location, pH, and temperature of instillate in bronchoalveolar lavage in

- normal volunteers. *Am Rev Respir Dis*. 1983;128(6):1035–1037
38. Chang AB, Cox NC, Purcell J, et al. Airway cellularity, lipid laden macrophages and microbiology of gastric juice and airways in children with reflux oesophagitis. *Respir Res*. 2005;6(1):72–76
  39. Midulla F, de Blic J, Barbato A, et al; ERS Task Force. Flexible endoscopy of paediatric airways. *Eur Respir J*. 2003;22(4):698–708
  40. Ratjen F, Bruch J. Adjustment of bronchoalveolar lavage volume to body weight in children. *Pediatr Pulmonol*. 1996;21(3):184–188
  41. Rennard SI, Ghafouri M, Thompson AB, et al. Fractional processing of sequential bronchoalveolar lavage to separate bronchial and alveolar samples. *Am Rev Respir Dis*. 1990;141(1):208–217
  42. Henderson AJ. Bronchoalveolar lavage. *Arch Dis Child*. 1994;70(3):167–169
  43. Kelly CA, Fenwick JD, Corris PA, Fleetwood A, Hendrick DJ, Walters EH. Fluid dynamics during bronchoalveolar lavage. *Am Rev Respir Dis*. 1988;138(1):81–84
  44. Rennard SI, Basset G, Lecossier D, et al. Estimation of volume of epithelial lining fluid recovered by lavage using urea as marker of dilution. *J Appl Physiol (1985)*. 1986;60(2):532–538
  45. Ramsey BW, Boat TF. Outcome measures for clinical trials in cystic fibrosis. Summary of a Cystic Fibrosis Foundation consensus conference. *J Pediatr*. 1994;124(2):177–192
  46. Cooley J, Sontag MK, Accurso FJ, Remold-O'Donnell E. SerpinB1 in cystic fibrosis airway fluids: quantity, molecular form and mechanism of elastase inhibition. *Eur Respir J*. 2011;37(5):1083–1090
  47. Ward C, Duddridge M, Fenwick J, et al. Evaluation of albumin as a reference marker of dilution in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid from asthmatic and control subjects. *Thorax*. 1993;48(5):518–522
  48. Von Wichert P, Joseph K, Müller B, Franck WM. Bronchoalveolar lavage: quantitation of intraalveolar fluid? *Am Rev Respir Dis*. 1993;147(1):148–152
  49. Marcy TW, Merrill WW, Rankin JA, Reynolds HY. Limitations of using urea to quantify epithelial lining fluid recovered by bronchoalveolar lavage. *Am Rev Respir Dis*. 1987;135(6):1276–1280
  50. Desai R, Ross LA, Hoffman JA. The role of bronchoalveolar lavage galactomannan in the diagnosis of pediatric invasive aspergillosis. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 2009;28(4):283–286
  51. Efrati O, Sadeh-Gornik U, Modan-Moses D, et al. Flexible bronchoscopy and bronchoalveolar lavage in pediatric patients with lung disease. *Pediatr Crit Care Med*. 2009;10(1):80–84
  52. Armenian SH, Hoffman JA, Butturini AM, Kapoor N, Mascarenhas L. Invasive diagnostic procedures for pulmonary infiltrates in pediatric hematopoietic stem cell transplant recipients. *Pediatr Transplant*. 2007;11(7):736–742
  53. Meyer KC, Raghu G, Baughman RP, et al; American Thoracic Society Committee on BAL in Interstitial Lung Disease. An official American Thoracic Society clinical practice guideline: the clinical utility of bronchoalveolar lavage cellular analysis in interstitial lung disease. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2012;185(9):1004–1014
  54. Rankin JA, Naegel GP, Reynolds HY. Use of a central laboratory for analysis of bronchoalveolar lavage fluid. *Am Rev Respir Dis*. 1986;133(2):186–190
  55. Magi B, Bini L, Perari MG, et al. Bronchoalveolar lavage fluid protein composition in patients with sarcoidosis and idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: a two-dimensional electrophoretic study. *Electrophoresis*. 2002;23(19):3434–3444
  56. de Torre C, Ying SX, Munson PJ, Meduri GU, Suffredini AF. Proteomic analysis of inflammatory biomarkers in bronchoalveolar lavage. *Proteomics*. 2006;6(13):3949–3957
  57. Patel KK, Vicencio AG, Du Z, Tzirilakis K, Salva PS, Webley WC. Infectious Chlamydia pneumoniae is associated with elevated interleukin-8 and airway neutrophilia in children with refractory asthma. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 2010;29(12):1093–1098
  58. Berry LJ, Sheil B, Garratt L, Sly PD; Australian Respiratory Early Surveillance Team for Cystic Fibrosis. Stability of interleukin 8 and neutrophil elastase in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid following long-term storage. *J Cyst Fibros*. 2010;9(5):346–350
  59. Dohn MN, Baughman RP. Effect of changing instilled volume for bronchoalveolar lavage in patients with interstitial lung disease. *Am Rev Respir Dis*. 1985;132(2):390–392
  60. Halmers RA, Dayton CS, Floerchinger C, Hunninghake GW. Bronchoalveolar lavage in interstitial lung disease: effect of volume of fluid infused. *J Appl Physiol (1985)*. 1989;67(4):1443–1446
  61. Joos L, Chhajed PN, Wallner J, et al. Pulmonary infections diagnosed by BAL: a 12-year experience in 1066 immunocompromised patients. *Respir Med*. 2007;101(1):93–97
  62. Souweine B, Veber B, Bedos JP, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of protected specimen brush and bronchoalveolar lavage in nosocomial pneumonia: impact of previous antimicrobial treatments. *Crit Care Med*. 1998;26(2):236–244
  63. Behringer EC. The care and cleaning of the flexible fiberoptic bronchoscope. *Anesthesiol Clin North America*. 1991;9(1):35–42
  64. Prakash UB. Does the bronchoscope propagate infection? *Chest*. 1993;104(2):552–559
  65. Lam S, LeRiche JC, Kijek K. Effect of filtration and concentration on the composition of bronchoalveolar lavage fluid. *Chest*. 1985;87(6):740–742
  66. Saltini C, Hance AJ, Ferrans VJ, Basset F, Bitterman PB, Crystal RG. Accurate quantification of cells recovered by bronchoalveolar lavage. *Am Rev Respir Dis*. 1984;130(4):650–658
  67. Walters EH, Gardiner PV. Bronchoalveolar lavage as a research tool. *Thorax*. 1991;46(9):613–618
  68. Meyer KC, Raghu G. Bronchoalveolar lavage for the evaluation of interstitial lung disease: is it clinically useful? *Eur Respir J*. 2011;38(4):761–769
  69. Welker L, Jörres RA, Costabel U, Magnussen H. Predictive value of BAL cell differentials in the diagnosis of interstitial lung diseases. *Eur Respir J*. 2004;24(6):1000–1006
  70. Karimi R, Tornling G, Grunewald J, Eklund A, Sköld CM. Cell recovery in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid in smokers is dependent on cumulative smoking history. *PLoS ONE*. 2012;7(3):e34232
  71. Hébert MJ, Takano T, Holthöfer H, Brady HR. Sequential morphologic events during apoptosis of human neutrophils: modulation by lipoygenase-derived eicosanoids. *J Immunol*. 1996;157(7):3105–3115
  72. Savill JS, Wyllie AH, Henson JE, Walport MJ, Henson PM, Haslett C. Macrophage phagocytosis of aging neutrophils in inflammation: programmed cell death in the neutrophil leads to its recognition by macrophages. *J Clin Invest*. 1989;83(3):865–875
  73. Kessler HH, Reinthaler FF, Pschaid A, et al. Rapid detection of Legionella species in bronchoalveolar lavage fluids with the EnviroAmp Legionella PCR amplification and detection kit. *J Clin Microbiol*. 1993;31(12):3325–3328
  74. Bousbia S, Papazian L, Auffray JP, et al. Tropheryma whipplei in patients with pneumonia. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2010;16(2):258–263

75. Hung HC, Chan CH, Tsao SM, et al. Effectiveness of the BDProbeTec ET system for detection of Mycobacterium tuberculosis complex in sputum and bronchoalveolar lavage specimens. *Braz J Infect Dis.* 2012; 16(3):242–249
76. Delacourt C, Poveda JD, Chureau C, et al. Use of polymerase chain reaction for improved diagnosis of tuberculosis in children. *J Pediatr.* 1995;126(5 pt 1):703–709
77. Borrás R, Roselló P, Chilet M, Bravo D, de Lomas JG, Navarro D. Positive result of the Aspergillus galactomannan antigen assay using bronchoalveolar lavage fluid from a patient with an invasive infection due to Lichtheimia ramosa. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2010;48(8):3035–3036
78. Bretagne S, Costa JM, Marmorat-Khuong A, et al. Detection of Aspergillus species DNA in bronchoalveolar lavage samples by competitive PCR. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1995; 33(5):1164–1168
79. Tia T, Putaporntip C, Kosuwir R, Kongpolprom N, Kawkitinarong K, Jongwutiwes S. A highly sensitive novel PCR assay for detection of Pneumocystis jirovecii DNA in bronchoalveolar lavage specimens from immunocompromised patients. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2012;18(6):598–603
80. Gupta R, Mirdha BR, Guleria R, et al. Use of different primer directed sequence amplification by polymerase chain reaction for identification of Pneumocystis jirovecii in clinical samples. *Indian J Chest Dis Allied Sci.* 2008;50(4):321–327
81. Reinwald M, Spiess B, Heinz WJ, et al. Diagnosing pulmonary aspergillosis in patients with hematological malignancies: a multicenter prospective evaluation of an Aspergillus PCR assay and a galactomannan ELISA in bronchoalveolar lavage samples. *Eur J Haematol.* 2012;89(2):120–127
82. Reinwald M, Hummel M, Kovalevskaya E, et al. Therapy with antifungals decreases the diagnostic performance of PCR for diagnosing invasive aspergillosis in bronchoalveolar lavage samples of patients with haematological malignancies. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2012;67(9): 2260–2267
83. Oren I, Hardak E, Finkelstein R, Yigla M, Sprecher H. Polymerase chain reaction-based detection of Pneumocystis jirovecii in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid for the diagnosis of pneumocystis pneumonia. *Am J Med Sci.* 2011;342(3):182–185
84. Mammas IN, Zaravinos A, Sourvinos G, Spandidos DA. Detection of human papillomavirus in bronchoalveolar lavage samples in immunocompetent children. *Pediatr Infect Dis J.* 2011;30(5):384–386
85. Engelmann I, Hesse N, Fegbeutel C, et al. Incidence and impact of herpes simplex and cytomegalovirus detection in the respiratory tract after lung transplantation. *Transpl Infect Dis.* 2011;13(3):259–265
86. Tapparel C, L'Huillier AG, Rougemont AL, Beghetti M, Barazzone-Argiroffo C, Kaiser L. Pneumonia and pericarditis in a child with HRV-C infection: a case report. *J Clin Virol.* 2009;45(2):157–160
87. Halfhide CP, Flanagan BF, Brearey SP, et al. Respiratory syncytial virus binds and undergoes transcription in neutrophils from the blood and airways of infants with severe bronchiolitis. *J Infect Dis.* 2011;204(3):451–458
88. Spreadbury C, Holden D, Aufauvre-Brown A, Bainbridge B, Cohen J. Detection of Aspergillus fumigatus by polymerase chain reaction. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1993;31 (3):615–621
89. Melchers WJ, Verweij PE, van den Hurk P, et al. General primer-mediated PCR for detection of Aspergillus species. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1994;32(7):1710–1717
90. Leibovitz E, Pollack H, Rigaud M, et al. Polymerase chain reaction is more sensitive than standard cytologic stains in detecting Pneumocystis carinii in bronchoalveolar lavages from human immunodeficiency virus type 1-infected infants and children with pneumonia. *Pediatr Infect Dis J.* 1995;14(8):714–716
91. Yates JR, Ruse CI, Nakorchevsky A. Proteomics by mass spectrometry: approaches, advances, and applications. *Annu Rev Biomed Eng.* 2009;11:49–79
92. MacGregor G, Gray RD, Hilliard TN, et al. Biomarkers for cystic fibrosis lung disease: application of SELDI-TOF mass spectrometry to BAL fluid. *J Cyst Fibros.* 2008;7(5):352–358
93. Gharib SA, Vaisar T, Aitken ML, Park DR, Heinecke JW, Fu X. Mapping the lung proteome in cystic fibrosis. *J Proteome Res.* 2009;8(6):3020–3028
94. Neumann M, von Bredow C, Ratjen F, Griese M. Bronchoalveolar lavage protein patterns in children with malignancies, immunosuppression, fever and pulmonary infiltrates. *Proteomics.* 2002;2(6):683–689
95. Govender P, Dunn MJ, Donnelly SC. Proteomics and the lung: analysis of bronchoalveolar lavage fluid. *Proteomics Clin Appl.* 2009;3(9):1044–1051
96. Issaq HJ, Conrads TP, Janini GM, Veenstra TD. Methods for fractionation, separation and profiling of proteins and peptides. *Electrophoresis.* 2002;23(17):3048–3061
97. Badock V, Steinhilber U, Bommert K, Otto A. Prefractionation of protein samples for proteome analysis using reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography. *Electrophoresis.* 2001;22(14):2856–2864
98. Sellers TA, Yates JR. Review of proteomics with applications to genetic epidemiology. *Genet Epidemiol.* 2003;24(2):83–98
99. Magi B, Bargagli E, Bini L, Rottoli P. Proteome analysis of bronchoalveolar lavage in lung diseases. *Proteomics.* 2006;6(23): 6354–6369
100. Gross NJ, Kellam M, Young J, Krishnasamy S, Dhand R. Separation of alveolar surfactant into subtypes. A comparison of methods. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2000; 162(2 pt 1):617–622
101. Merrill JD, Ballard RA, Cnaan A, et al. Dysfunction of pulmonary surfactant in chronically ventilated premature infants. *Pediatr Res.* 2004;56(6):918–926
102. Garmany TH, Moxley MA, White FV, et al. Surfactant composition and function in patients with ABCA3 mutations. *Pediatr Res.* 2006;59(6):801–805
103. Winsel K, Hönig D, Lunkenheimer K, Geggel K, Witt C. Quantitative Brewster angle microscopy of the surface film of human broncho-alveolar lavage fluid. *Eur Biophys J.* 2003;32(6):544–552
104. Braun A, Steinecker M, Schumacher S, Griese M. Surfactant function in children with chronic airway inflammation. *J Appl Physiol (1985).* 2004;97(6):2160–2165
105. Wood RE, Pick JR. Model systems for learning pediatric flexible bronchoscopy. *Pediatr Pulmonol.* 1990;8(3):168–171
106. Nussbaum E, Zagnoev M. Pediatric fiberoptic bronchoscopy with a laryngeal mask airway. *Chest.* 2001;120(2):614–616
107. McLaughlin AM, McGrath E, Barry R, Egan JJ, Gallagher CG. Treatment of lobar atelectasis with bronchoscopically administered recombinant human deoxyribonuclease in cystic fibrosis? *Clin Respir J.* 2008;2(2):123–126
108. McShane D, Davies JC, Davies MG, Bush A, Geddes DM, Alton EW. Airway surface pH in subjects with cystic fibrosis. *Eur Respir J.* 2003;21(1):37–42
109. Alton EW, Stern M, Farley R, et al. Cationic lipid-mediated CFTR gene transfer to the lungs and nose of patients with cystic fibrosis: a double-blind placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet.* 1999;353(9157):947–954
110. Wilmott RW, Kassab JT, Kilian PL, Benjamin WR, Douglas SD, Wood RE. Increased levels of interleukin-1 in bronchoalveolar washings from children with bacterial pulmonary infections. *Am Rev Respir Dis.* 1990; 142(2):365–368
111. de Blic J, McKelvie P, Le Bourgeois M, Blanche S, Benoist MR, Scheinmann P. Value of bronchoalveolar lavage in the

- management of severe acute pneumonia and interstitial pneumonitis in the immunocompromised child. *Thorax*. 1987;42(10):759–765
112. Grigg J, van den Borre C, Malfroot A, Pierard D, Wang D, Dab I. Bilateral fiberoptic bronchoalveolar lavage in acute unilateral lobar pneumonia. *J Pediatr*. 1993;122(4):606–608
  113. Translational Research Centre. *Standard Operating Procedure V: Bronchoalveolar Lavage Isolation and Processing*. 2013. Available at: [www.translationalresearch.ca/documents/SOP%20V%20BAL.pdf](http://www.translationalresearch.ca/documents/SOP%20V%20BAL.pdf). Accessed April 24, 2014
  114. Travis WD, Colby TV, Koss MN, Rosado-de-Christenson ML, Muller NL, King TEJ. Handling and analysis of bronchoalveolar lavage and lung biopsy specimens with approach to patterns of lung injury. *ARP Atlases*. 2007;1:17–47
  115. King TEJ. *Basic Principles and Techniques of Bronchoalveolar Lavage*. UptoDate; 2012. Available at: [www.uptodate.com/contents/basic-principles-and-technique-of-bronchoalveolar-lavage](http://www.uptodate.com/contents/basic-principles-and-technique-of-bronchoalveolar-lavage). Accessed April 23, 2014
  116. Greene KE, Wright JR, Steinberg KP, et al. Serial changes in surfactant-associated proteins in lung and serum before and after onset of ARDS. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 1999;160(6):1843–1850
  117. Yamashita C, Forbes A, Tessolini JM, Yao LJ, Lewis JF, Veldhuizen RA. Protective effects of elevated endogenous surfactant pools to injurious mechanical ventilation. *Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol*. 2008;294(4):L724–L732
  118. Schmidt R, Markart P, Ruppert C, et al. Time-dependent changes in pulmonary surfactant function and composition in acute respiratory distress syndrome due to pneumonia or aspiration. *Respir Res*. 2007;8(1):55–65
  119. Veldhuizen RA, Inchley K, Hearn SA, Lewis JF, Possmayer F. Degradation of surfactant-associated protein B (SP-B) during in vitro conversion of large to small surfactant aggregates. *Biochem J*. 1993;295(pt 1):141–147
  120. Lawrence C, Grossman R. Simple butyrate esterase stain for monocytes. *Stain Technol*. 1979;54(6):321–323
  121. Harbeck RJ. Immunophenotyping of bronchoalveolar lavage lymphocytes. *Clin Diagn Lab Immunol*. 1998;5(3):271–277
  122. van Rijt LS, Kuipers H, Vos N, Hijdra D, Hoogsteden HC, Lambrecht BN. A rapid flow cytometric method for determining the cellular composition of bronchoalveolar lavage fluid cells in mouse models of asthma. *J Immunol Methods*. 2004;288(1–2):111–121
  123. Salih ZN, Akhter A, Akhter J. Specificity and sensitivity of hemosiderin-laden macrophages in routine bronchoalveolar lavage in children. *Arch Pathol Lab Med*. 2006;130(11):1684–1686
  124. Colombo JL, Hallberg TK. Recurrent aspiration in children: lipid-laden alveolar macrophage quantitation. *Pediatr Pulmonol*. 1987;3(2):86–89
  125. Sacco O, Silvestri M, Sabatini F, et al. IL-8 and airway neutrophilia in children with gastroesophageal reflux and asthma-like symptoms. *Respir Med*. 2006;100(2):307–315
  126. Grissell TV, Chang AB, Gibson PG. Reduced toll-like receptor 4 and substance P gene expression is associated with airway bacterial colonization in children. *Pediatr Pulmonol*. 2007;42(4):380–385
  127. Farrell S, McMaster C, Gibson D, Shields MD, McCullion WA. Pepsin in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid: a specific and sensitive method of diagnosing gastroesophageal reflux-related pulmonary aspiration. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2006;41(2):289–293
  128. Ratjen F, Bredendiek M, Zheng L, Brendel M, Costabel U. Lymphocyte subsets in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid of children without bronchopulmonary disease. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 1995;152(1):174–178
  129. Agostini C, Chilosi M, Zambello R, Trentin L, Semenzato G. Pulmonary immune cells in health and disease: lymphocytes. *Eur Respir J*. 1993;6(9):1378–1401
  130. Meyer KC, Raghu G, Baughman RP, Brown KK, Costabel U, du Bois RM, Drent M, Haslam PL, Kim DS, Nagai S, Rottoli P, Saltini C, Selman M, Strange C, Wood B; American Thoracic Society Committee on BAL in Interstitial Lung Disease. An official American Thoracic Society clinical practice guideline: the clinical utility of bronchoalveolar lavage cellular analysis in interstitial lung disease. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2012;185(9):1004–1014
  131. Semenzato G. Immunology of interstitial lung diseases: cellular events taking place in the lung of sarcoidosis, hypersensitivity pneumonitis and HIV infection. *Eur Respir J*. 1991;4(1):94–102
  132. Tricas L, Echeverría A, Blanco MA, Menéndez M, Belda J. Flow cytometry counting of bronchoalveolar lavage leukocytes with a new profile of monoclonal antibodies combination. *Cytometry B Clin Cytom*. 2012;82(2):61–66
  133. BAL Cooperative Group Steering Committee. Bronchoalveolar lavage constituents in healthy individuals, idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis, and selected comparison groups. *Am Rev Respir Dis*. 1990;141(5 pt 2):S169–S202
  134. Gerblich AA, Salik H, Schuyler MR. Dynamic T-cell changes in peripheral blood and bronchoalveolar lavage after antigen bronchoprovocation in asthmatics. *Am Rev Respir Dis*. 1991;143(3):533–537
  135. Drent M, Jacobs JA, de Vries J, Lamers RJ, Liem IH, Wouters EF. Does the cellular bronchoalveolar lavage fluid profile reflect the severity of sarcoidosis? *Eur Respir J*. 1999;13(6):1338–1344
  136. Haslam PL, Dewar A, Butchers P, Primett ZS, Newman-Taylor A, Turner-Warwick M. Mast cells, atypical lymphocytes, and neutrophils in bronchoalveolar lavage in extrinsic allergic alveolitis: comparison with other interstitial lung diseases. *Am Rev Respir Dis*. 1987;135(1):35–47
  137. Drent M, van Velzen-Blad H, Diamant M, Wagenaar SS, Hoogsteden HC, van den Bosch JM. Bronchoalveolar lavage in extrinsic allergic alveolitis: effect of time elapsed since antigen exposure. *Eur Respir J*. 1993;6(9):1276–1281
  138. Haslam PL, Turton CW, Lukoszek A, et al. Bronchoalveolar lavage fluid cell counts in cryptogenic fibrosing alveolitis and their relation to therapy. *Thorax*. 1980;35(5):328–339
  139. Lynch JP III, Standiford TJ, Rolfe MW, Kunkel SL, Strieter RM. Neutrophilic alveolitis in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: the role of interleukin-8. *Am Rev Respir Dis*. 1992;145(6):1433–1439
  140. Starosta V, Ratjen F, Rietschel E, Paul K, Griese M. Anti-inflammatory cytokines in cystic fibrosis lung disease. *Eur Respir J*. 2006;28(3):581–587
  141. Noah TL, Murphy PC, Alink JJ, et al. Bronchoalveolar lavage fluid surfactant protein-A and surfactant protein-D are inversely related to inflammation in early cystic fibrosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2003;168(6):685–691
  142. Griese M, Birrer P, Demirsoy A. Pulmonary surfactant in cystic fibrosis. *Eur Respir J*. 1997;10(9):1983–1988
  143. Priftis KN, Litt D, Manghani S, et al. Bacterial bronchitis caused by *Streptococcus pneumoniae* and nontypable *Haemophilus influenzae* in children: the impact of vaccination. *Chest*. 2013;143(1):152–157
  144. Koh YY, Jung E, Koh JY, Kim JY, Yoo Y, Kim CK. Bronchoalveolar cellularity and interleukin-8 levels in measles bronchiolitis obliterans. *Chest*. 2007;131(5):1454–1460
  145. Kotecha S, Mildner RJ, Prince LR, et al. The role of neutrophil apoptosis in the



- resolution of acute lung injury in newborn infants. *Thorax*. 2003;58(11):961–967
146. Allen JN, Davis WB. Eosinophilic lung diseases. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 1994; 150(5 pt 1):1423–1438
  147. Watters LC, Schwarz MI, Cherniack RM, et al. Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: pretreatment bronchoalveolar lavage cellular constituents and their relationships with lung histopathology and clinical response to therapy. *Am Rev Respir Dis*. 1987;135(3): 696–704
  148. Peterson MW, Monick M, Hunninghake GW. Prognostic role of eosinophils in pulmonary fibrosis. *Chest*. 1987;92(1):51–56
  149. Taskinen EI, Tukiainen PS, Alitalo RL, Turunen JP. Bronchoalveolar lavage: cytological techniques and interpretation of the cellular profiles. *Pathol Annu*. 1994;29(pt 2): 121–155
  150. Meyer KC, Sharma A. Regional variability of lung inflammation in cystic fibrosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 1997;156(5):1536–1540
  151. Davis GS. Bronchoalveolar lavage in interstitial lung disease. *Semin Respir Crit Care Med*. 1994;15:37–60
  152. Reynolds HY, Fulmer JD, Kazmierowski JA, Roberts WC, Frank MM, Crystal RG. Analysis of cellular and protein content of broncho-alveolar lavage fluid from patients with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis and chronic hypersensitivity pneumonitis. *J Clin Invest*. 1977;59(1):165–175
  153. Ward C, Fenwick J, Booth H, Walters EH. Albumin is not suitable as a marker of bronchoalveolar lavage dilution in interstitial lung disease. *Eur Respir J*. 1997; 10(9):2029–2033
  154. Goldman DL, Li X, Tzirilakis K, Andrade C, Casadevall A, Vicencio AG. Increased chitinase expression and fungal-specific antibodies in the bronchoalveolar lavage fluid of asthmatic children. *Clin Exp Allergy*. 2012;42(4):523–530
  155. Pardo A, Gibson K, Cisneros J, et al. Up-regulation and profibrotic role of osteopontin in human idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. *PLoS Med*. 2005;2(9):e251
  156. Cosgrove GP, Brown KK, Schiemann WP, et al. Pigment epithelium-derived factor in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: a role in aberrant angiogenesis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2004;170(3):242–251
  157. Starosta V, Kitz R, Hartl D, Marcos V, Reinhardt D, Griese M. Bronchoalveolar pepsin, bile acids, oxidation, and inflammation in children with gastroesophageal reflux disease. *Chest*. 2007;132(5):1557–1564
  158. Davies PL, Spiller OB, Beeton ML, Maxwell NC, Remold-O'Donnell E, Kotecha S. Relationship of proteinases and proteinase inhibitors with microbial presence in chronic lung disease of prematurity. *Thorax*. 2010;65(3):246–251
  159. Birrer P, McElvaney NG, Rudeberg A, et al. Protease-antiprotease imbalance in the lungs of children with cystic fibrosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 1994;150(1):207–213
  160. Fidler KJ, Hilliard TN, Bush A, et al. Mannose-binding lectin is present in the infected airway: a possible pulmonary defence mechanism. *Thorax*. 2009;64(2): 150–155
  161. Halfhide CP, Brearey SP, Flanagan BF, et al. Neutrophil TLR4 expression is reduced in the airways of infants with severe bronchiolitis. *Thorax*. 2009;64(9):798–805
  162. Muhlebach MS, Noah TL. Endotoxin activity and inflammatory markers in the airways of young patients with cystic fibrosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2002;165(7):911–915
  163. Kettle AJ, Chan T, Osberg I, et al. Myeloperoxidase and protein oxidation in the airways of young children with cystic fibrosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2004; 170(12):1317–1323
  164. Hertz MI, Henke CA, Nakhleh RE, et al. Obliterative bronchiolitis after lung transplantation: a fibroproliferative disorder associated with platelet-derived growth factor. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1992;89(21):10385–10389
  165. McNamara PS, Fonceca AM, Howarth D, et al. Respiratory syncytial virus infection of airway epithelial cells, in vivo and in vitro, supports pulmonary antibody responses by inducing expression of the B cell differentiation factor BAFF. *Thorax*. 2013;68(1):76–81
  166. Nei T, Urano S, Motoi N, et al. IgM-type GM-CSF autoantibody is etiologically a bystander but associated with IgG-type autoantibody production in autoimmune pulmonary alveolar proteinosis. *Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol*. 2012;302(9): L959–L964
  167. Hawkins GA, Robinson MB, Hastie AT, et al. The IL6R variation Asp(358)Ala is a potential modifier of lung function in subjects with asthma. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2012; 130(2):510–515, e511
  168. Brown SD, Baxter KM, Stephenson ST, Esper AM, Brown LA, Fitzpatrick AM. Airway TGF-beta1 and oxidant stress in children with severe asthma: association with airflow limitation. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2012;129(2):388–396, e381–e388
  169. Griffin PE, Roddam LF, Belessis YC, et al. Expression of PPAR $\gamma$  and paraoxonase 2 correlated with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infection in cystic fibrosis. *PLoS ONE*. 2012; 7(7):e42241
  170. Hartl D, Griese M, Nicolai T, et al. A role for MCP-1/CCR2 in interstitial lung disease in children. *Respir Res*. 2005;6(1):93–104
  171. Curley AE, Sweet DG, MacMahon KJ, O'Connor CM, Halliday HL. Chorioamnionitis increases matrix metalloproteinase-8 concentrations in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid from preterm babies. *Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed*. 2004;89(1):F61–F64
  172. Starosta V, Rietschel E, Paul K, Baumann U, Griese M. Oxidative changes of bronchoalveolar proteins in cystic fibrosis. *Chest*. 2006;129(2):431–437
  173. Krawiec ME, Westcott JY, Chu HW, et al. Persistent wheezing in very young children is associated with lower respiratory inflammation. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2001;163(6):1338–1343
  174. von Ungern-Sternberg BS, Sly PD, Loh RK, Isidoro A, Habre W. Value of eosinophil cationic protein and tryptase levels in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid for predicting lung function impairment in anaesthetised, asthmatic children. *Anaesthesia*. 2006;61(12):1149–1154
  175. Márquez Pérez FL, Blasco Ferrández R, Callol Sánchez L, Chivato Pérez T, Villegas Fernández F, Gómez de Terreros Sánchez FJ. Study of mast cell, eosinophil and fibroblast activation in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid in patients with lung cancer [in Spanish]. *Arch Bronconeumol*. 1998;34(10):484–488
  176. Hilliard TN, Regamey N, Shute JK, et al. Airway remodelling in children with cystic fibrosis. *Thorax*. 2007;62(12):1074–1080
  177. Bonfield TL, Panuska JR, Konstan MW, et al. Inflammatory cytokines in cystic fibrosis lungs. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 1995; 152(6 pt 1):2111–2118
  178. Bossley CJ, Fleming L, Gupta A, et al. Pediatric severe asthma is characterized by eosinophilia and remodeling without T(H) 2 cytokines. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2012; 129(4):974–982, e913
  179. Rojas-Ramos E, Avalos AF, Pérez-Fernandez L, Cuevas-Schacht F, Valencia-Maqueda E, Terán LM. Role of the chemokines RANTES, monocyte chemoattractant proteins-3 and -4, and eotaxins-1 and -2 in childhood asthma. *Eur Respir J*. 2003;22(2):310–316
  180. Magnan A, Mege JL, Reynaud M, et al; Marseille and Montreal Lung Transplantation Group. Monitoring of alveolar macrophage production of tumor necrosis factor-alpha and interleukin-6 in lung transplant recipients. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 1994;150(3):684–689
  181. MacLennan C, Hutchinson P, Holdsworth S, Bardin PG, Freezer NJ. Airway inflammation



- in asymptomatic children with episodic wheeze. *Pediatr Pulmonol.* 2006;41(6):577–583
182. Hartl D, Griese M, Nicolai T, et al. Pulmonary chemokines and their receptors differentiate children with asthma and chronic cough. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2005;115(4):728–736
  183. Cetin I, Ozcelik U, Goçmen A, Kiper N, Dođru D, Yalçin E. BALF nitrite as an indicator of inflammation in children with cystic fibrosis. *Respiration.* 2004 71(6):625–629
  184. Fitzpatrick AM, Brown LA, Holguin F, Teague WG; National Institutes of Health/National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute; Severe Asthma Research Program Levels of nitric oxide oxidation products are increased in the epithelial lining fluid of children with persistent asthma. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2009;124(5):990–996
  185. Grasmann H, Ioannidis I, Tomkiewicz RP, de Groot H, Rubin BK, Ratjen F. Nitric oxide metabolites in cystic fibrosis lung disease. *Arch Dis Child.* 1998;78(1):49–53
  186. Ghosh SK, Gerken TA, Schneider KM, Feng Z, McCormick TS, Weinberg A. Quantification of human beta-defensin-2 and -3 in body fluids: application for studies of innate immunity. *Clin Chem.* 2007;53(4):757–765
  187. Chen CI, Schaller-Bals S, Paul KP, Wahn U, Bals R. Beta-defensins and LL-37 in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid of patients with cystic fibrosis. *J Cyst Fibros.* 2004;3(1):45–50
  188. Srinivasan R, Song Y, Wiener-Kronish J, Flori HR. Plasminogen activation inhibitor concentrations in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid distinguishes ventilator-associated pneumonia from colonization in mechanically ventilated pediatric patients. *Pediatr Crit Care Med.* 2011;12(1):21–27
  189. Yerkovich ST, Chang AB, Carroll ML, Petsky HL, Scrivener G, Upham JW. Soluble receptor for advanced glycation end products (sRAGE) is present at high concentrations in the lungs of children and varies with age and the pattern of lung inflammation. *Respirology.* 2012;17(5):841–846
  190. McNamara PS, Flanagan BF, Hart CA, Smyth RL. Production of chemokines in the lungs of infants with severe respiratory syncytial virus bronchiolitis. *J Infect Dis.* 2005;191(8):1225–1232
  191. Ricou B, Nicod L, Lacraz S, Welgus HG, Suter PM, Dayer JM. Matrix metalloproteinases and TIMP in acute respiratory distress syndrome. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 1996;154(2 pt 1):346–352
  192. Hauk PJ, Krawiec M, Murphy J, et al. Neutrophilic airway inflammation and association with bacterial lipopolysaccharide in children with asthma and wheezing. *Pediatr Pulmonol.* 2008;43(9):916–923
  193. Wenzel SE, Szeffler SJ, Leung DY, Sloan SI, Rex MD, Martin RJ. Bronchoscopic evaluation of severe asthma. Persistent inflammation associated with high dose glucocorticoids. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 1997;156(3 pt 1):737–743
  194. McGreal EP, Davies PL, Powell W, et al. Inactivation of IL-6 and soluble IL-6 receptor by neutrophil derived serine proteases in cystic fibrosis. *Biochim Biophys Acta.* 2010;1802(7–8):649–658
  195. Reeves EP, Williamson M, Byrne B, et al. IL-8 dictates glycosaminoglycan binding and stability of IL-18 in cystic fibrosis. *J Immunol.* 2010;184(3):1642–1652
  196. Berger M, Sorensen RU, Tosi MF, Dearborn DG, Döring G. Complement receptor expression on neutrophils at an inflammatory site, the *Pseudomonas*-infected lung in cystic fibrosis. *J Clin Invest.* 1989;84(4):1302–1313
  197. Schnapp LM, Donohoe S, Chen J, et al. Mining the acute respiratory distress syndrome proteome: identification of the insulin-like growth factor (IGF)/IGF-binding protein-3 pathway in acute lung injury. *Am J Pathol.* 2006;169(1):86–95
  198. Mallol J, Aguirre V, Espinosa V. Increased oxidative stress in children with post infectious Bronchiolitis obliterans. *Allergol Immunopathol (Madr).* 2011;39(5):253–258
  199. Janér J, Lassus P, Haglund C, Paavonen K, Alitalo K, Andersson S. Pulmonary vascular endothelial growth factor-C in development and lung injury in preterm infants. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2006;174(3):326–330
  200. Bem RA, Bos AP, Bots M, et al. Activation of the granzyme pathway in children with severe respiratory syncytial virus infection. *Pediatr Res.* 2008;63(6):650–655
  201. Rottoli P, Magi B, Cianti R, et al. Carbonylated proteins in bronchoalveolar lavage of patients with sarcoidosis, pulmonary fibrosis associated with systemic sclerosis and idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. *Proteomics.* 2005;5(10):2612–2618
  202. Lenz AG, Meyer B, Costabel U, Maier K. Bronchoalveolar lavage fluid proteins in human lung disease: analysis by two-dimensional electrophoresis. *Electrophoresis.* 1993;14(3):242–244
  203. Uebelhoer M, Bewig B, Oldigs M, et al. Protein profile in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid from patients with sarcoidosis and idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis as revealed by SDS-PAGE electrophoresis and Western blot analysis. *Scand J Clin Lab Invest.* 1993;53(6):617–623
  204. Wattiez R, Hermans C, Bernard A, Lesur O, Falmagne P. Human bronchoalveolar lavage fluid: two-dimensional gel electrophoresis, amino acid microsequencing and identification of major proteins. *Electrophoresis.* 1999;20(7):1634–1645
  205. Rottoli P, Magi B, Perari MG, et al. Cytokine profile and proteome analysis in bronchoalveolar lavage of patients with sarcoidosis, pulmonary fibrosis associated with systemic sclerosis and idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. *Proteomics.* 2005;5(5):1423–1430
  206. Bowler RP, Duda B, Chan ED, et al. Proteomic analysis of pulmonary edema fluid and plasma in patients with acute lung injury. *Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol.* 2004;286(6):L1095–L1104
  207. Chang DW, Hayashi S, Gharib SA, et al. Proteomic and computational analysis of bronchoalveolar proteins during the course of the acute respiratory distress syndrome. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2008;178(7):701–709
  208. Ratjen F, Rehn B, Costabel U, Bruch J. Age-dependency of surfactant phospholipids and surfactant protein A in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid of children without bronchopulmonary disease. *Eur Respir J.* 1996;9(2):328–333
  209. Griese M, Maderlechner N, Ahrens P, Kitz R. Surfactant proteins A and D in children with pulmonary disease due to gastroesophageal reflux. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2002;165(11):1546–1550
  210. Todd DA, Marsh MJ, George A, et al. Surfactant phospholipids, surfactant proteins, and inflammatory markers during acute lung injury in children. *Pediatr Crit Care Med.* 2010;11(1):82–91
  211. Beresford MW, Shaw NJ. Bronchoalveolar lavage surfactant protein A, B, and D concentrations in preterm infants ventilated for respiratory distress syndrome receiving natural and synthetic surfactants. *Pediatr Res.* 2003;53(4):663–670
  212. Griese M, Heinrich S, Ratjen F, et al. Surfactant protein A in cystic fibrosis: supratrimeric structure and pulmonary outcome. *PLoS ONE.* 2012;7(12):e51050
  213. Rubio F, Cooley J, Accurso FJ, Remold-O'Donnell E. Linkage of neutrophil serine proteases and decreased surfactant protein-A (SP-A) levels in inflammatory lung disease. *Thorax.* 2004;59(4):318–323
  214. Günther A, Siebert C, Schmidt R, et al. Surfactant alterations in severe pneumonia, acute respiratory distress syndrome, and

- cardiogenic lung edema. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 1996;153(1):176–184
215. Griese M, Essl R, Schmidt R, et al; Beat Study Group. Sequential analysis of surfactant, lung function and inflammation in cystic fibrosis patients. *Respir Res.* 2005;6(1):133–142
216. Doua DN, Farmakovski N, Dell S, Grasemann H, Palaniyar N. SP-D counteracts GM-CSF-mediated increase of granuloma formation by alveolar macrophages in lysinuric protein intolerance. *Orphanet J Rare Dis.* 2009;4(1):29–43
217. Griese M, Schumacher S, Tredano M, et al. Expression profiles of hydrophobic surfactant proteins in children with diffuse chronic lung disease. *Respir Res.* 2005;6(1):80–90
218. Said AS, Abd-Elaziz MM, Farid MM, Abd-Elfattah MA, Abdel-Monim MT, Doctor A. Evolution of surfactant protein-D levels in children with ventilator-associated pneumonia. *Pediatr Pulmonol.* 2012;47(3):292–299
219. Guillot L, Flamein F, Thouvenin G, et al. BAL fluid surfactant protein C level is related to parenchymal lung disease in children with sarcoidosis. *Chest.* 2011;140(4):1104–1105
220. Hallman M, Spragg R, Harrell JH, Moser KM, Gluck L. Evidence of lung surfactant abnormality in respiratory failure: study of bronchoalveolar lavage phospholipids, surface activity, phospholipase activity, and plasma myoinositol. *J Clin Invest.* 1982;70(3):673–683
221. Nakos G, Kitsiouli EI, Lekka ME. Bronchoalveolar lavage alterations in pulmonary embolism. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 1998;158(5 pt 1):1504–1510
222. Bligh EG, Dyer WJ. A rapid method of total lipid extraction and purification. *Can J Biochem Physiol.* 1959;37(8):911–917

**AN UNTIMELY DEATH:** *I was recently in Washington, DC, and stayed in a hotel close to the White House. I enjoyed walking around the National Mall, visiting the museums, and viewing the monumental architecture. The area around the White House was packed with stores, restaurants, and office buildings. It was a bit odd to realize, however, that I was walking on the remains of what was once an old sewage dump. Human waste was actually dumped into an area north of the White House where it often formed a marsh. In fact, the drinking water supply of the White House was only a few blocks from this dumping ground. Not many would care about that, but as an infectious disease physician I have enormous respect for the infectious diseases that may arise from improper disposal of human waste.*

*As reported in The New York Times (Science: March 31, 2014), President William Henry Harrison may have died of Salmonella acquired from these very sewage fields. President Harrison is best known for being the shortest-serving President, dying after only one month in office. The most commonly accepted reason for his death is that he died of pneumonia acquired while giving an interminable inaugural address in freezing weather. That theory is, however, under attack. For one, President Harrison had few signs and symptoms of pneumonia. An alternative theory is that he died of typhoid fever.*

*Presidents Harrison, Polk, and Taylor all developed severe gastrointestinal disease while living in the White House, but Harrison may have been prone to severe disease as he took alkali for dyspepsia – which increases the risk of gastrointestinal infection. Moreover, his physician repeatedly treated his illness with enemas – which in the setting of invasive Salmonella infection would increase the risk of perforation and sepsis. Before his death, President Harrison had a thready pulse and cold extremities, both of which are features of sepsis. I am not entirely sure why President Harrison died, but I do know that the sewage system of Washington, DC, is just as important as the heroic above-ground architecture.*

*Noted by WVR, MD*

**Translational Research in Pediatrics III: Bronchoalveolar Lavage**  
Dhenuka Radhakrishnan, Cory Yamashita, Carolina Gillio-Meina and Douglas D.  
Fraser

*Pediatrics* 2014;134;135

DOI: 10.1542/peds.2013-1911 originally published online June 30, 2014;

<b>Updated Information &amp; Services</b>	including high resolution figures, can be found at: <a href="http://pediatrics.aappublications.org/content/134/1/135">http://pediatrics.aappublications.org/content/134/1/135</a>
<b>References</b>	This article cites 214 articles, 49 of which you can access for free at: <a href="http://pediatrics.aappublications.org/content/134/1/135#BIBL">http://pediatrics.aappublications.org/content/134/1/135#BIBL</a>
<b>Subspecialty Collections</b>	This article, along with others on similar topics, appears in the following collection(s): <b>Committee on Pediatric Research</b> <a href="http://www.aappublications.org/cgi/collection/committee_on_pediatric_research">http://www.aappublications.org/cgi/collection/committee_on_pediatric_research</a>
<b>Permissions &amp; Licensing</b>	Information about reproducing this article in parts (figures, tables) or in its entirety can be found online at: <a href="http://www.aappublications.org/site/misc/Permissions.xhtml">http://www.aappublications.org/site/misc/Permissions.xhtml</a>
<b>Reprints</b>	Information about ordering reprints can be found online: <a href="http://www.aappublications.org/site/misc/reprints.xhtml">http://www.aappublications.org/site/misc/reprints.xhtml</a>

American Academy of Pediatrics

DEDICATED TO THE HEALTH OF ALL CHILDREN™



# PEDIATRICS®

OFFICIAL JOURNAL OF THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF PEDIATRICS

## **Translational Research in Pediatrics III: Bronchoalveolar Lavage**

Dhenuka Radhakrishnan, Cory Yamashita, Carolina Gillio-Meina and Douglas D. Fraser

*Pediatrics* 2014;134;135

DOI: 10.1542/peds.2013-1911 originally published online June 30, 2014;

The online version of this article, along with updated information and services, is located on the World Wide Web at:

<http://pediatrics.aappublications.org/content/134/1/135>

Pediatrics is the official journal of the American Academy of Pediatrics. A monthly publication, it has been published continuously since 1948. Pediatrics is owned, published, and trademarked by the American Academy of Pediatrics, 141 Northwest Point Boulevard, Elk Grove Village, Illinois, 60007. Copyright © 2014 by the American Academy of Pediatrics. All rights reserved. Print ISSN: 1073-0397.

American Academy of Pediatrics

DEDICATED TO THE HEALTH OF ALL CHILDREN™

