

1 **Asthma and COPD “overlap”: a treatable trait or common several**  
2 **treatable-traits?**

3

4 **Abstract**

5 In the last years, disease classification of chronic respiratory diseases (CRD) has been  
6 vivaciously discussed and new concepts have been introduced, namely asthma-chronic  
7 obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) overlap (ACO). Controversially the GOLD  
8 consensus document of 2020 considered that we should no longer refer to ACO, as they  
9 constitute two different diseases that may share some common traits and clinical features.

10 The treatable traits approach has numerous strengths that are applicable to several  
11 levels of health care. In this paper we review the application of the treatable traits to  
12 CRD and describe in detail the ones already identified in patients with asthma and COPD.  
13 Treatable traits in CRD can be divided in pulmonary, extra-pulmonary and  
14 behavior/lifestyle risk factors. Patients with both asthma and COPD have clearly  
15 recognized treatable traits in all these subgroups with a pattern of severe and frequent  
16 exacerbations, associated cardiovascular disease and low health related quality of life  
17 and productivity.

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## 18 Introduction

19 In recent years the disease classification of chronic respiratory diseases has been put  
20 into debate (1, 2). Classical classification used pre-20<sup>th</sup> century descriptions and  
21 concepts, based on symptoms, signs and functional abnormalities instead of  
22 pathophysiological mechanisms. Diagnostic terms such as asthma, chronic obstructive  
23 pulmonary disease (COPD) and chronic bronchitis were originally proposed to define a  
24 clinical presentation that appeared to encompass a more or less distinct disease process  
25 (1). These labels were defined in a subjective manner taking into account non-specific  
26 symptoms and signs such as cough, wheeze and breathlessness. As our knowledge of  
27 disease mechanisms progressed to a detailed molecular level the general approach to  
28 chronic respiratory diseases has been to try and match these abnormalities to the  
29 original disease classification rather than taking into consideration the pathophysiologic  
30 mechanisms themselves as the basis for classification (1, 2).

31

32 In the last years there has been a renewed debate about how asthma and COPD may  
33 likely represent a continuum of different diseases that may share biological mechanisms  
34 (i.e. endotypes) and present similar clinical, functional, imaging and/or biological  
35 features that can be observed, (i.e. phenotypes) which require precision medicine  
36 treatment(2). Current consensus documents about asthma and COPD assume that  
37 “heterogeneity” and “complexity” are both part of both diseases and even went further  
38 including these characteristics in disease definition (3, 4). Our inability to understand  
39 the complexity of airway diseases is clinically relevant as it may conduct to suboptimal  
40 management due to the potentially need of different therapeutic strategies and may  
41 constraint our pathophysiologic investigation about patients whose clinical phenotype  
42 is not easily classified. Additionally, this “Oslerian diagnostic label” may jeopardize drug  
43 development for specific endotypes and it limits the generalizability of the results of  
44 most randomized controlled trials (2). Despite the identified limitations, the diagnostic  
45 labels approach has many advantages: they are useful to discriminate grossly defined  
46 groups of patients, are an “easy basis” for teaching students as well as explaining to  
47 patients and to use in interventional studies to convince authorities to fund medications.  
48 In clinical practice, they are also useful to identify a syndrome but this will probably lead

49 to empirical management. With nowadays knowledge the labels should represent the  
50 start of the assessment process, not the end (5).

51

52 The concept of “treatable trait” has been proposed by A. Agusti in 2016, encompassing  
53 a label-free, precision medicine approach to the diagnosis and management of chronic  
54 airway diseases (2). This strategy has the purpose of “treatable traits” identification in  
55 each patient and these traits can be “treatable” based on “phenotypic” recognition or  
56 on deep understanding of the critical causal pathways (2). From a patient perspective it  
57 is important to recognize that a given patient may have more than one treatable trait  
58 and actually this is often the case. A treatable-trait should fulfil the following three  
59 characteristics: 1. *Clinical relevant*: (requires to be clinically important, associated with  
60 specific disease outcomes); 2. *Identifiable and measurable* (should have a marker to  
61 objectively be identified, typically would be a biomarker) and 3. *Treatable* (should be  
62 effectively treated and this effect should ideally be measured in randomized controlled  
63 trials; traits not currently treatable or partly treatable are research opportunities)(6).  
64 One of the main potential strengths of this approach is that it does not start on the  
65 assumption that the diagnosis (asthma or COPD) is well established and clear, a situation  
66 which is not the case in many instances in clinical practice, particularly in primary care.  
67 In the “treatable traits” approach specific diagnostic criteria are defined for these  
68 “traits” and this may have a considerable impact in patient treatment assuming an  
69 expected larger therapeutic response. Another relevant aspect is that this approach may  
70 stimulate better translational research by identifying knowledge gaps that can be in future  
71 addressed (2).

72

73 In Table I we present the potential advantages and disadvantages (2, 5) of traditionally  
74 “Oslerian approach” versus a “Treatable-traits approach” in chronic respiratory  
75 diseases:

76

77

78 Another interesting point is that until recently a new phenotypic entity has re-emerged,  
79 the asthma-COPD overlap (ACO) (7). This entity has been put into debate due to the  
80 evidence that in clinical practice there is a significant number of patients who exhibit  
81 features of both diseases (7). Taking into consideration the well-known heterogeneity  
82 of both diseases our question is why should patients with overlap of both diseases be  
83 “homogeneous” and not also rather “heterogeneous”?

84 The purpose of our review is to discuss nowadays criteria of asthma-COPD overlap and  
85 possible treatable traits among this group of patients.

86

### 87 **Asthma-COPD overlap definition**

88 The possible first description of ACO is thought to be proposed by Orie and Sluiter in  
89 1961, the well-know “Dutch hypothesis”. This hypothesis theorized that asthma and  
90 COPD may have a mutual origin and subsequent expression of each disease is explained  
91 by individual variables encompassing genetic factors and environmental exposures (7).  
92 On the other hand, an opposite theory has been called the “British hypothesis”, which  
93 postulates separate origins for asthma and COPD driven by its own individual genetic  
94 traits, inflammatory profile and treatment (7). In 2015 a consensus document  
95 elaborated together by GINA (Global Initiative for Asthma) and GOLD (Global Initiative  
96 for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease) proposed a clinical description of patients who  
97 exhibited features of both asthma and COPD and called this entity the asthma-COPD  
98 overlap syndrome (ACOS)(8). In this document it was already emphasized that ACOS was  
99 not a single disease entity, including different forms of airways diseases. This constitutes  
100 one of the first and main misleading concepts associated with this subject as a syndrome  
101 by definition is “a recognizable complex of symptoms and physical findings which  
102 indicate a specific condition for which a direct cause is not necessarily understood” (9).  
103 In the context of the overlap between asthma and COPD we could argue that the causes  
104 are not necessarily understood but by no means the symptoms and physical findings  
105 indicate a specific condition.

106

107 Recent reviews also concluded that the ACOS does not represent a unique form of  
108 disease, and that the inclusion of patients with different endotypes and phenotypes  
109 under this umbrella term may not facilitate treatment decisions (10). Although the  
110 conceptual interest about ACOS is totally understandable it is now recognized that  
111 another syndrome is not needed in the already complex matrix of airways disease and  
112 that its use in clinical practice is likely to require a treatable-traits approach (10). Current  
113 GINA consensus document also discourages the use of previously described term ACOS  
114 given the propensity to consider this entity as a single disease, emphasizing the  
115 heterogeneity of patients with ACO (3). The GOLD consensus document of 2020 went  
116 even further, considering that we should no longer refer to ACO as asthma and COPD  
117 are different disorders. Also, according to this document, a patient with the diagnosis of  
118 both diseases should be seen as having concurrent diagnosis that may share common  
119 traits and clinical features (4). From our point of view this approach may be too simplistic  
120 and disregards all the data available where was shown that patients with concurrent  
121 asthma and COPD do not have a simple addition of both diseases and an “interaction”  
122 between both diseases may occur as it will be further detailed.

123

124 One clear and paradigmatic example of how ACO cannot be considered one single  
125 disease is the vast number of published definitions. In the last recent years, we can find  
126 several examples of an “Oslerian approach” in “consensus” or “guidelines” to define  
127 ACO. In Table II are detailed the several proposed criteria for asthma-COPD overlap  
128 (adapted from (11)):

129

130 Apart from the above cited definitions several other definitions have been used for  
131 clinical research purpose and this is by sure one of the main limitations about ACO  
132 clinical research (16-22). In 2018, using a Delphi structured survey of Portuguese  
133 specialists in respiratory diseases, it was published other ACO diagnostic criteria. This  
134 group of physicians established a consensus for these criteria: a fixed airflow obstruction  
135 ( $FEV_1/FVC < 0.7$ ) associated with 2 major criteria (previous history of asthma; presence  
136 of a previous history of smoking exposure and/or exposure to biomass combustion;

137 positive bronchodilation test (increase in FEV<sub>1</sub> of at least 200mL and 12%) on more than  
138 1 occasion) plus 1 minor criteria (history of atopy; age ≥40 years; peripheral eosinophilia  
139 (>300 eosinophils/ $\mu$ L or >5% of leukocytes); elevation of specific IgEs or positive skin  
140 tests for common allergens)(23). The proposed criteria, as compared to the above  
141 definitions, are quite similar to what had been proposed by guidelines/consensus (11).  
142 This study, as others published using only expert opinion clearly use an “Oslerian  
143 approach”, but have the interest of setting the stage about the national general  
144 agreement about ACO definition adapted to our local context.

145

146 The clinical research (including also clinical trials) about asthma and COPD always used  
147 useful approaches to define both conditions in order to exclude patients that did not  
148 fulfil the “pure form” of both diseases (24). Though is an easy going approach it limits  
149 available evidence and does not fully depict the spectrum of obstructive airway disease  
150 that is seen in clinical practice (24). If in the recent years several studies have tried to  
151 answer this knowledge gap, the methodologic issue associated with ACO definition may  
152 prejudice achieved conclusions.

153

#### 154 **Treatable traits among asthma-COPD overlap**

155 Currently available data about asthma-COPD overlap has increased in the last years and  
156 several conclusions can be discussed. From our conceptual point of view and assuming  
157 that the “treatable-traits approach” of diseases is the update method to define patient  
158 characteristics we will now discuss the treatable traits identified among ACO patients.  
159 In this paper we review the available data published until 2018 about treatable traits  
160 identified in patients with ACO. We performed a Pubmed search of all the papers  
161 published from 2010 to 2018 that included simultaneously all the search terms “COPD”,  
162 “Asthma” and “Overlap”. A total of 436 papers were selected for a first analysis. All the  
163 guidelines, consensus, reviews and editorials were excluded from our review. After  
164 exclusion of the previous mentioned papers a total of 304 papers were included in our  
165 review and we here discuss the papers that describe treatable traits in ACO.

166

167 As previously described by Agusti et al. treatable traits of chronic airway diseases can be  
168 divided in pulmonary, extrapulmonary and behaviour/lifestyle risk factors treatable  
169 traits (2).

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170 Pulmonary treatable traits in ACO

171 In Table III are listed the pulmonary treatable traits described in patients with asthma-  
172 COPD overlap:

173

174 Revising the pulmonary treatable traits described in patients with ACO we can clearly  
175 notice that airflow limitation, airway smooth muscle contraction and eosinophilic airway  
176 inflammation are constantly found in the literature. This makes perfect sense and is  
177 expectable as nowadays available ACO definitions continually include them as diagnostic  
178 criteria (12-15). This evidence underlines the interest about bronchodilators treatment  
179 in patients with ACO as recommended by nowadays documents of GINA and GOLD (3,  
180 4).

181

182 Evidence about eosinophilic airway inflammation in ACO patients has emerged from  
183 several studies, not only studies considering it a diagnostic criterion but also an  
184 evaluated outcome. Evidence about eosinophilic airway inflammation has emerged  
185 using different methodologies: eosinophils in induced sputum but also with eosinophils  
186 in peripheral blood and fractional exhaled nitric oxide (FeNO) as surrogate markers (19,  
187 20, 29, 31, 41, 42, 44, 47, 48, 58, 61-64, 67, 71, 73, 74, 77-79, 85-87, 90). The presence  
188 of eosinophilic airway inflammation in patients with COPD/ACO is a nowadays matter  
189 of debate and may have a therapeutic consequence with the recommendation for the  
190 need of inhaled corticosteroids treatment (3, 4). The interest about FeNO evaluation in  
191 ACO patient management is also a trending topic and more studies are needed. A study  
192 from Chen et al. in 2016 found a FeNO optimal diagnostic cut-off of 22.5 ppb in  
193 differentiating patients with ACO from COPD patients, with 70% sensitivity and 75%  
194 specificity (38). More recently in 2018 Takayama et al. described that a composite cut-  
195 off of  $\text{FeNO} \geq 25$  ppb combined with blood eosinophils counts  $\geq 250$  cels./ $\mu\text{L}$  showed a  
196 96.1% specificity for differentiating ACO from COPD.

197

198 Another interesting point of debate about ACO patients is their rate and severity of  
199 exacerbations. Although evidence is not consistent in all the published papers there is  
200 clearly a trend for considering that ACO patients have not only more frequent  
201 exacerbations, as more severe, with increased mortality and associated costs (19, 20,  
202 29, 31, 41, 42, 44, 47, 48, 58, 61-64, 67, 71, 73, 74, 77-79, 85-87, 90). The study from  
203 Gerhardsson de Verdier et al. showed that patients with asthma and COPD had nearly  
204 double health care costs compared to patients with asthma without COPD, and this large  
205 difference was mainly driven by the rates of hospitalizations and emergency department  
206 visits (95). A fascinating study from Lange et al. published in 2016 concludes that  
207 regarding long-term prognosis of individuals with ACO, we can even identify a more  
208 susceptible and severe subgroup with late-onset asthma with an extraordinarily poor  
209 prognosis according to FEV<sub>1</sub> decline, exacerbations, pneumonias, and survival (49). All  
210 this information together highlights that ACO patients should be carefully managed as  
211 an inappropriate management will have a high individual burden but also for the  
212 healthcare system.

213

214 Emphysema is another pulmonary treatable trait found in patients with ACO but with a  
215 frequency apparently lower than in patients with COPD (16, 19, 20, 30, 40, 41, 53, 54,  
216 67, 71, 73, 77, 83, 88, 91). Two different papers published by Yeh et al. in 2016 analyzing  
217 the National Health Insurance Research Database of Taiwan found attention-grabbing  
218 associations of ACO with pulmonary embolism and incident tuberculosis (102, 103). The  
219 association of ACO with increased risk of pulmonary embolism was independent of age,  
220 sex, comorbidities and corticosteroids use. The proposed explanation for this risk is that  
221 the eosinophilic and neutrophilic inflammation of the airways with pulmonary artery  
222 inflammation might be the predisposing factors of pulmonary embolism (102). ACO was  
223 also found to be associated with incident tuberculosis in another paper published by Yeh  
224 analyzing the same database. The authors found an adjusted hazard ratio for  
225 tuberculosis of 2.41 (95% confidence interval: 2.19–2.66) in the ACOS cohort and the  
226 tuberculosis risk was significantly higher in the ACOS cohort than in the non-ACOS cohort  
227 when stratified by age, sex, comorbidities, and atopy. The authors proposed as probable  
228 explanations for this association the possible high doses of corticosteroid and likely

229 frequent intensive care unit hospitalizations due to recurrent and severe exacerbations  
230 of ACO (103).

231

232 There has been extensive investigation about the possibility of a biomarker or composite  
233 biomarkers to diagnose ACO, apart from what has been discussed for FeNO and blood  
234 eosinophils. In 2016, Gao et al. described sputum neutrophil gelatinase-associated  
235 lipocalin (NGAL) levels as potentially differentiators of ACO from asthma and COPD, as  
236 ACO patients had increased values of this biomarker compared to the other groups of  
237 patients. Although NGAL is also a COPD-related biomarker, NGAL is not only attributed  
238 to activated neutrophils but could also be secreted by the respiratory epithelial cells in  
239 response to inflammatory stimuli and by myeloid and epithelial cells in response to toll-  
240 like receptor activation during bacterial infections. Therefore, the high sputum NGAL  
241 levels found in ACO might be related to airway inflammation and low-grade microbial  
242 colonization, which predispose these patients to acute viral infections and  
243 exacerbations (42). Although this result seems promising induced sputum unfortunately  
244 is not settled as desired in routine clinical practice and this is a challenge to the  
245 implementation of this biomarker and others using this technique. More recently, in  
246 2018, Wang et al. described that plasma YKL-40 also referred to as chitinase-3-like-1  
247 protein (CHI3L1) is a promising candidate for distinguishing between patients with  
248 features of ACO and COPD patients, while plasma NGAL may be a valuable biomarker  
249 for differentiating between patients with features of ACO and asthma patients (87).

250 Extra-pulmonary treatable traits in ACO

251 In Table IV are listed the extra-pulmonary treatable traits described in patients with  
252 asthma-COPD overlap:

253

254 The association of ACO with allergic rhinoconjunctivitis (16, 30, 48, 58, 70, 71, 73, 80,  
255 88, 103), atopic dermatitis (57, 70, 88, 103) and atopy (20, 27, 31, 33, 41, 42, 44, 48, 52,  
256 57, 58, 62, 63, 66, 71, 73, 74, 76-79, 81, 85, 87, 90, 96) is also intuitive and in some  
257 papers were considered diagnostic criteria for ACO. There is some heterogeneous data  
258 about the frequency of these treatable traits in ACO patients in comparison with asthma  
259 patients, some pointing out less frequency and others similar results. More consistent  
260 is the evidence that these treatable traits occur with superior frequency compared to  
261 patients with “pure” COPD and are even a factor to consider when comparing both  
262 diseases. Considering the other extra-pulmonary treatable traits associated with ACO  
263 and their relative frequency compared to “pure” asthma and COPD patient’s data is  
264 somewhat discordant. The rates of obesity (2, 30, 57, 59, 65, 73, 78, 80, 81, 84, 96, 97,  
265 104), diabetes (22, 25, 39, 40, 57-59, 70, 73, 76, 77, 86, 94, 95, 98, 99, 102, 103),  
266 dyslipidemia (40, 59, 66, 70, 73, 95, 102, 103), cataracts (99), gastroesophageal reflux  
267 disease (39, 58, 59, 66, 71, 95), cerebrovascular disease (22, 25, 91, 98-100, 103),  
268 osteoarthritis (20, 22, 59), osteoporosis/fractures (20, 58, 59, 66, 68, 71, 85, 94, 102),  
269 depression (19, 20, 40, 57, 91, 94, 106), anxiety (19, 20, 40, 57, 99, 100), autoimmune  
270 diseases (20) and malignancies (35, 98) are in general superior to “pure” asthma and  
271 COPD patients although some papers have conflicting results. The noteworthy  
272 association of ACO with malignancies has been shown not only for lung cancer but also  
273 to other malignancies (35, 98). Cardiovascular disease is an exception to what was  
274 previously mentioned as in this case the frequency of disease is consistently superior in  
275 ACO patients compared to patients with only asthma or COPD. This evidence has been  
276 shown in several forms of cardiovascular disease, including hypertension, ischemic heart  
277 disease, angina, acute myocardial infarction and congestive heart failure (20, 22, 25, 28,  
278 29, 39, 40, 57-59, 66, 70, 71, 73, 76, 77, 84, 86, 91, 94, 95, 98-100, 102, 103, 105). The  
279 pathophysiology of this association may be related to the persistent systemic  
280 inflammation found in patients with ACO (20, 29, 77). In the paper of Fu et al. published

281 in 2014 it was suggested that systemic inflammation is commonly present in ACO, and  
282 ACO resembled COPD in terms of systemic inflammation. The evidence about systemic  
283 inflammation in COPD is for long known and matter of debate sincere early 2000s (107,  
284 108). In the same study it was shown that IL-6 is a pivotal inflammatory mediator that  
285 may be involved in airflow obstruction and cardiovascular disease and may be an  
286 independent treatment target for ACO. The systemic inflammation that occurs in ACO  
287 has also been proposed as a possible mechanism involved in osteoporosis associated  
288 with ACO. In the study of Oh et al. patients with ACO had a significantly lower bone  
289 mineral density than did those with asthma, after adjusting for age, sex, body mass  
290 index, smoking and corticosteroid use (85).

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291 Behaviour/lifestyle risk factors treatable traits in ACO

292 In Table V are listed the behavior/lifestyle risk factors treatable traits described in  
293 patients with asthma-COPD overlap:

294

295 The role of smoking exposure in ACO's pathophysiology is clear and is emphasized in  
296 several publications about ACO. Although the data is somewhat contradictory if patients  
297 with ACO have different smoking exposure than patients with "pure" COPD, compared  
298 with patients with only asthma it is convincing that ACO patients have an increased  
299 smoking exposure (16, 17, 19, 20, 25-27, 30, 31, 33, 35, 38-41, 44, 45, 47, 48, 54-58, 60,  
300 62, 63, 65-67, 69, 71-78, 80, 81, 84, 86-89, 93, 96, 97, 101, 104, 107, 110). This evidence  
301 is so clear that smoking exposure is included as a diagnostic criterion for ACO in some of  
302 the proposed guidelines (12, 13). From a clinical and management perspective this  
303 association should highlight the need for effective smoking cessation strategies in  
304 patients with ACO, as a truly disease modifying approach. Nonetheless other exposures  
305 have been associated with ACO and constitute identified treatable traits, including  
306 exposure to pollution (98) and childhood respiratory infections (33). The familiar history  
307 of asthma is an identified treatable trait (30, 77, 80, 88) although the potential to be  
308 "treated" nowadays is still somewhat debatable.

309

310 Another remarkable discussion is the low health related quality of life found in patients  
311 with ACO, that has been described in general health related quality of life as well as in  
312 respiratory related quality of life (17, 18, 25, 30, 37, 52, 82, 83). This evidence may be  
313 probably related to the high number and to the severity of the exacerbations but also  
314 to the several comorbidities described in patients with ACO.

315

316 At last but not least, there are some behavioral/lifestyle risk factors treatable traits that  
317 current evidence cannot clearly describe as cause or consequence of ACO although their  
318 association is clear. Sedentarism (17, 80, 97), low education level (22, 78, 82, 97, 101,  
319 104, 110), low productivity (83), low household income and unemployment (65, 104,

320 110) are consistently described in ACO. From a common sense perspective, we can  
321 speculate that the low education level can act as a risk factor for ACO development  
322 probably related to an unhealthy lifestyle, smoking and sedentarism. On the other hand,  
323 taking into consideration the high disease burden of ACO, it is perfectly conceivable that  
324 it will cause low productivity and consequently low household income and  
325 unemployment.

326

327 In Figure 1 is a summary of the main treatable traits described in patients with asthma-  
328 COPD overlap:

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329 **Conclusions**

330 The recently proposed concept of “treatable traits” will definitely substitute our  
331 traditional “Oslerian approach” of diseases. The identification of “treatable traits” in  
332 each patient should be based on deep understanding of the critical causal pathways.  
333 There are several potential advantages of this approach, valuable for all levels of care  
334 and different areas of medicine. Chronic respiratory diseases management are always  
335 included among this approach, particularly the asthma-COPD patients due to the lack of  
336 definitive diagnostic criteria in an “Oslerian approach”. There are several pulmonary,  
337 extra-pulmonary and behavioral treatable traits associated to patients with both asthma  
338 and COPD. The deep knowledge of these treatable traits will possibly permit a better  
339 disease management in order to diminish the high disease burden described in patients  
340 with these features.

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**Table I. Potential advantages and disadvantages of traditionally “Oslerian approach” versus a “Treatable-traits approach” in chronic respiratory diseases:**

	<b>“Oslerian approach”</b>	<b>“Treatable-traits approach”</b>
<b>Advantages</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Simpler definition patients’ groups (convenient for students teaching, patient education)</li><li>• Easy to use in interventional studies</li><li>• Useful syndrome identification</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• No diagnostic assumptions</li><li>• Precise definition of the “traits”</li><li>• Disease mechanisms based</li><li>• Expected larger therapeutic response</li><li>• Stimulates translational research</li><li>• Helps the identification of key criteria for future RCT</li></ul>
<b>Disadvantages</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Fails to provide optimal care (no consideration to endotypes)</li><li>• No appreciation of common patterns of disease</li><li>• Increases clinical practice variability</li><li>• Inhibits research progress</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Nowadays only partially based on evidence</li><li>• Requires comparison about efficacy, safety and cost-effectiveness with “classic strategies”</li><li>• Uncertainty about patients, physicians and stakeholder acceptance</li></ul>

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Legend: RCT – Randomized clinical trials

Table II. Proposed criteria for asthma-COPD overlap (adapted from (11)):

Consensus	Diagnostic Criteria for ACO	Ref.
<b>GesEPOC-GEMA (2017)</b>	- Age $\geq 35$ years old	(12)
	- Tobacco exposure $\geq 10$ pack-years	
	- Post BDT FEV1/FVC $< 0.70$	
	- Diagnosis of asthma	
	- In absence of asthma diagnosis: very positive BDT ( $\geq 400$ mL and 15% )	
	- and/or blood eosinophilia $\geq 300$ cells/mL	
ACO is confirmed by the presence of three major and at least one minor criteria		
<u>Major criteria</u>		
<b>Sin et al. (2016)</b>	- Post BDT FEV1/FVC $< 0.70$ in individuals $> 40$ years of age	(13)
	- At least 10 pack-years of tobacco smoking	
	- Documented history of asthma before 40 years of age	
	- BDT of $> 400$ mL in FEV1	
<u>Minor criteria</u>		
	- Documented history of atopy or allergic rhinitis	
	- BDR of FEV1 $\geq 200$ mL and 12% from baseline values on 2 or more visits	
	- Peripheral blood eosinophil count of $\geq 300$ cells/uL	
ACO is confirmed by presenting two main criteria or one main criteria and two additional criteria:		
<u>Main criteria:</u>		
<b>Finnish guidelines (2015)</b>	- Very positive BDT FEV1 $> 15\%$ and $> 400$ ml	(14)
	- Sputum eosinophilia or elevated FENO ( $> 50$ ppb)	
	- Previous asthma symptoms (starting age at $< 40$ y)	
	<u>Additional criteria</u>	
	- Elevated total IgE	
	- Atopy	
	- Repeated significant positive BDT (FEV1 $> 12\%$ and $> 200$ ml)	
	- Peak expiratory flow follow-up typical of asthma	
ACO is confirmed by the presence of two major criteria or one major plus two minor criteria: Definitive diagnosis of COPD		
<b>Czech guidelines (2013)</b>	<u>Major criteria:</u>	(15)
	- Very positive BDT FEV1 $> 15\%$ and $> 400$ mL	
	- FENO $\geq 45$ – $50$ ppb and/or sputum eosinophils $\geq 3\%$	
	- history of asthma	
<u>Minor criteria:</u>		

- 
- Positive BDT (FEV1 >12% and >200 mL)
  - Elevated total IgE
  - History of atopy
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710 ACO: asthma-COPD overlap; GesEPOC-GEMA: Spanish COPD guidelines-Spanish Asthma Guidelines; BDT:

711 Bronchodilator test; Ref.: reference

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Table III. Pulmonary treatable traits described in asthma-COPD overlap:

	References
<b>Airflow limitation</b>	(16-20, 25-88)
<b>Airway smooth muscle contraction</b>	(16-20, 26, 27, 29-32, 36, 41-45, 47, 50-58, 61-64, 66, 67, 69, 70, 73-79, 81, 85-90)
<b>Hyperinflation</b>	(44, 47, 57)
<b>Emphysema</b>	(16, 19, 20, 30, 40, 41, 53, 54, 67, 71, 73, 77, 83, 88, 91)
<b>Eosinophilic airway inflammation</b>	(19, 20, 29, 31, 41, 42, 44, 47, 48, 58, 61-64, 67, 71, 73, 74, 77-79, 85-87, 90)
<b>Severe and frequent exacerbations</b>	(16-20, 30, 36, 40, 49, 50, 52, 57, 63, 64, 69, 75, 76, 78, 82-84, 92-100)
<b>Chronic bronchitis</b>	(19, 20, 41, 57, 65, 75-77, 80, 83, 88, 91, 101)
<b>Bronchiectasias</b>	(81, 88)
<b>Chronic respiratory failure</b>	(6)
<b>Pulmonary embolism</b>	(102)
<b>Pulmonary hypertension</b>	(75)
<b>Pneumonia</b>	(99)
<b>Incident Tuberculosis</b>	(103)

Table IV. Extra-Pulmonary treatable traits described in asthma-COPD overlap:

	References
Allergic Rhinoconjunctivitis	(16, 30, 48, 58, 70, 71, 73, 80, 88, 103)
Atopic Dermatitis	(57, 70, 88, 103)
Atopy	(20, 27, 31, 33, 41, 42, 44, 48, 52, 57, 58, 62, 63, 66, 71, 73, 74, 76-79, 81, 85, 87, 90, 96)
Obstructive Sleep Apnoea Syndrome	(39, 40, 57, 77)
Obesity	(25, 39, 57, 59, 65, 73, 78, 80, 81, 84, 96, 97, 101)
Cardiovascular disease	(20, 22, 25, 28, 29, 39, 40, 57-59, 66, 70, 71, 73, 76, 77, 84, 86, 91, 94, 95, 98-100, 102, 103, 106)
Diabetes	(22, 25, 39, 40, 57-59, 70, 73, 76, 77, 81, 91, 95, 98, 99, 102, 103)
Dyslipidemia	(40, 59, 66, 70, 73, 95, 102, 103)
Cataracts	(99)
Gastroesophageal reflux disease	(39, 58, 59, 66, 71, 95)
Cerebrovascular disease	(22, 25, 91, 98-100, 103)
Osteoarthritis	(20, 22, 59)
Osteoporosis/Fractures	(20, 58, 59, 66, 68, 71, 85, 94, 102)
Depression	(19, 20, 40, 57, 91, 94, 106)
Anxiety	(19, 20, 40, 57, 99, 100)
Dementia	(100)
Autoimmune diseases	(20)
Malignancies	(35, 98)
Persistent systemic inflammation	(20, 29, 77)

**Table V. Behaviour/lifestyle risk factors treatable traits described in asthma-COPD overlap:**

	<b>References</b>
<b>Smoking exposure</b>	(16, 17, 19, 20, 25-27, 30, 31, 33, 35, 38-41, 44, 45, 47, 48, 54-58, 60, 62, 63, 65-67, 69, 71-78, 80, 81, 84, 86-89, 93, 96, 97, 101, 104, 109, 110)
<b>Exposure to pollution</b>	(98)
<b>Childhood respiratory infections</b>	(33)
<b>Familiar history of asthma</b>	(30, 77, 80, 88)
<b>Low health related quality of life</b>	(17, 18, 25, 30, 37, 52, 82, 83)
<b>Sedentarism</b>	(17, 80, 97)
<b>Low education level</b>	(22, 78, 82, 97, 101, 104, 110)
<b>Low productivity</b>	(83)
<b>Low household income / unemployment</b>	(65, 104, 110)

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