Br Med J (Clin Res Ed): first published as 10.1136/bmj.290.6462.97 on 12 January 1985. Downloaded from http://www.bmj.com/ on 9 April 2024 by guest. Protected by copyright

BRITISH MEDICAL JOURNAL VOLUME 290 12 JANUARY 1985 childhood or early adult life and does not resolve. Though four fifths of patients survive for at least 10 years, progression to end stage renal failure continues, so that only half of patients are alive with functioning kidneys at 20 years.¹⁶ Fifteen of our 19 patients who developed end stage renal failure had impaired renal function at presentation and progressed to renal failure over a median period of only 2.5 years. In 58 of our patients who deteriorated, however, the calculated time for progression to renal failure ranged from five to 25 (median 17·2) years. Just over a quarter of patients followed up for at least a year had deterioration in renal function but other studies have shown that when followed up for 10 years or more half deteriorate.16 The long term prognosis may, however, be excellent, some patients showing no functional or histological deterioration over 20 years. (At the other end of the spectrum, a small group of patients show rapid deterioration.²⁶ ²⁷)

The results of treatment have been disappointing. In patients with disease running a rapidly progressive course steroids, cyclophosphamide, and plasma exchange have been tried with some anecdotal accounts of improvement. We have found that, although renal function improves during plasma exchange, it deteriorates abruptly when plasma exchange is stopped.26 Tonsillectomy and phenytoin may produce some benefit, and of particular interest is phenytoin because it significantly lowers the serum IgA concentration.28 29 Although Clarkson et al did not show any benefit from phenytoin, 30 a recent controlled trial from Spain showed a clear cut reduction in episodes of macroscopic haematuria and urinary erythrocyte counts.31 Our data suggest that such a reduction reflects a reduction in the number of glomerular crescents.18 Circulating IgA immune complexes are also reduced by phenytoin and these almost certainly have a role in the progression of IgA nephropathy.¹³ In a controlled study we observed reduction in the urinary erythrocyte count in the group treated with doxycycline 100 mg daily for 12 months.³² Recently a report from Japan has documented a study in two groups of patients with impaired renal function in a trial of eicosapentaenoic acid.33 Significant benefit was reported in the treated group, and the simplicity of using fish oil rather than immunosuppressive drugs to treat glomerulonephritis has great appeal.

PRISCILLA S KINCAID-SMITH

Professor of Medicine. University of Melbourne, and Director of Nephrology, Royal Melbourne Hospital, Victoria 3050, Australia

1 Bodian M, Black JA, Kobayashi N, et al. Recurrent haematuria in childhood. Q J Med 1965;34:359-82.

Bodian M, Black JA, Kobayashi N, et al. Recurrent haematuria in childhood. Q J Med 1965;34:359-82.
 Berger J, De Montera H, Hinglais N. Classification des glomerulonephrities en practique biopsique. In: Schreiner G, ed. Proceedings of 3rd international congress of nephrology, Washington 1966. Vol 2. Basle: Karger, 1967:198-211
 Berger J, Hinglais N. Les Dépôts intercapillaires d'IgA-IgG. J Urol Nephrol 1968;74:694.
 Zollinger HU, Gaboardi E. Verzogerte heilung einer diffusen intra- und extracapillaren glomerulonephritis mit IgA depots. Virchows Arch [Pathol Anat] 1971;354:349-60.
 Imbasciati E, Colasanti G, Di Belgioisos GB, et al. Long-term follow-up of IgA mesangial deposits glomerulonephritis. Proc Eur Dial Transplant Assoc 1977;14:472.
 Van Der Peet J, Arisz L, Brentjens JRG, et al. The clinical course of IgA nephropathy in adults. Clin Nephrol 1977;8:335-40.
 Clarkson AR, Seymour AE, Thomson AJ, et al. IgA nephropathy: a syndrome of uniform morphology, diverse clinical features and uncertain prognosis. Clin Nephrol 1977;8:459-71.
 Sinniah R, Pwee HS, Lim CH. Glomerular lesions in asymptomatic microscopic haematuria discovered on routine medical examination. Clin Nephrol 1976;5:216-28.
 Nakamoto Y, Asano Y, Dohi K, et al. Primary IgA glomerulonephritis and Schonlein-Henoch purpura nephritis: clinicopathological and immunohistological characteristics. Q J Med 1978;47:495-516.
 Guttierrez-Millet V, Palacios JJN, Prieto C, et al. Glomerulonephritis mesangial IgA idiopatica. Estudio clinico e immunopatologico de 40 casos y revision de la literatura. Nefrologia 1982;2:21-34.
 Sissons IGP, Woodrow DE Cuttis IR et al. Isolated elomerulonephritis with Lea deposition. Re.

- 11 Sissons JGP, Woodrow DF, Curtis JR, et al. Isolated glomerulonephritis with IgA deposition. Br Med 7 1975;iii:611-4.

- Med J. 1975;mi:611-4.
 Power DA, Muirhead N, Simpson JG, et al. Asymptomatic hematuria and IgA nephropathy: results of a retrospective renal biopsy study. Kidney Int 1982;22:219A.
 Clarkson AR, Woodroffe AJ, Bannister KM, Lomax-Smith JD, Aarons I. The syndrome of IgA nephropathy. Clin Nephrol 1984;21:7-14.
 Morel-Maroger L, Mery JP, Robert CL, Richet G. Mesangial deposits. In: Kincaid-Smith P, Mathew T, Becker EL, eds. Glomerulonephritis. Bristol: John Wiley and Sons, 1973:301.

- Disney APS, ed. Australian and New Zealand Dialysis and Transplant Registry. Seventh Report. Adelaide, South Australia: Queen Elizabeth Hospital, 1984.
 Droz D. Natural history of primary glomerulonephritis with mesangial deposits of IgA. Contrib Nephrol 1976;2:150-7.
 Nicholls KM, Fairley KF, Dowling JP, Kincaid-Smith P. The clinical course of mesangial IgA nephropathy. QJ Med 1984;54:227-50.
 Bennett WM, Kincaid-Smith P. Macroscopic hematuria in mesangial IgA nephropathy: clinical pathologic correlations. Kidney Int 1983;23:393-400.
 Levy M, Beaufils H, Gubler MC, et al. Idiopathic recurrent macroscopic haematuria and mesangial IgA-1gG deposits in children (Berger's disease). Clin Nephrol 1973;1:63-9.
 Michalk D, Waldherr R, Seeling HP, et al. Idiopathic mesangial IgA glomerulonephritis in childhood. Description of 19 pediatric cases and review of the literature. Eur J pediatr 1980;134:13-22. Michalk D, Waldherr R, Seeling HP, et al. Idiopathic mesangial IgA glomerulonephritis in childhood. Description of 19 pediatric cases and review of the literature. Eur J pediatr 1980;134:13-22.
 d'Amico G. The natural history and treatment of idiopathic IgA nephropathy. In: Robinson RM, ed. Proceedings of 19th international congress of nephrology, Los Angeles 1984. New York: Springer-Verlag (in press).
 Clarkson AR, Seymour AE, Thompson AJ, Haynes WDG, Chan YL, Jackson B. IgA nephropathy: a syndrome of uniform morphology, diverse clinical features and uncertain prognosis. Clin Nephrol 1977;8:459-71.
 Rambausek M, Seeling HP, Andrassy K, et al. Mesangial IgA glomerulonephritis. Neue aspekte zur diagnose, klinik und prognose. Disch Med Wochenschr 1983;108:125-30.
 Shirai T, Tomino Y, Sato M, Yoshiki T, Itoh T. IgA nephropathy: clinicopathology and immunopathology. Contrib Nephrol 1978;9:88-100.
 Droz D. Natural history of primary glomerulonephritis with mesangial deposits of IgA. Contrib Nephrol 1967;2:150-7.
 Nicholls K, Walker RG. Kincaid-Smith P. Dowling I. Malignant IgA nephropathy. Am 7 Kidney.

- Nephrol 1967;2:150-7.
 Nicholls K, Walker RG, Kincaid-Smith P, Dowling J. Malignant IgA nephropathy. Am J Kidney Dis (in press).
 d'Amico G, Ferrario F, Colasanti G, Ragni A, Bosisio MB. IgA mesangial nephropathy (Berger's disease) with rapid decline in renal function. Clin Nephrol 1981;16:251-7.
 Lagrue G, Sadreux T, Laurent J, Hirbec G. Is there a treatment of mesangial IgA glomerulone-phritis? Clin Nephrol 1981;16:161.
 Lopez-Trascasa M, Egido J, Sancho J, Hernando L. Evidence of high polymeric IgA levels in serum of patients with Berger's disease and its modifications with phenytoin treatment. Proc Eur Dial Transplant Assoc 1979;16:513.
 Clarkson AR, Seymour AE, Woodroffe AJ, McKenzie PE, Chan YL, Wootton AM. Controlled trial on phenytoin therapy in IgA nephropathy. Clin Nephrol 1980;13:215-8.
 Egido J, Rivera F, Sancho J, Barat A, Hernando L. Phenytoin in IgA nephropathy: a long-term controlled trial. Nephron 1984;38:30-9.
 Kincaid-Smith P, Nicholls K. Mesangial IgA nephropathy. Am J Kidney Dis 1983;3:90-4.
 Hamazaki T, Tateno S, Shichido H. Eicosapentaenoic acid and IgA nephropathy. Lancet 1984;i:1017-8.

- 1984;i:1017-8.

Lung biopsy

Samples of lung tissue may be obtained through the bronchoscope—transbronchial lung biopsy, brush biopsy, and bronchoalveolar lavage; through the skin-needle aspiration, screw needle biopsy, cutting needle biopsy, and high speed trephine biopsy; through the thoracoscope; and by open lung biopsy.

Transbronchial biopsy is commonly used to investigate diffuse lung shadowing. Initial enthusiasm for the technique has been tempered by disappointing results in some conditions, such as fibrosing alveolitis, where recognising the pattern of lung inflammation is so important.¹² The overall diagnostic rate is 38-64%, 1-4 but it is higher in conditions with specific histological features such as sarcoidosis (67-88% positive¹²⁵), diffuse malignancy (67-80% positive¹²), opportunistic infection,¹⁶⁷ and alveolar proteinosis. Other useful techniques that may be employed at bronchoscopy include bronchial biopsy (often giving positive results in sarcoidosis and diffuse malignancy), brush biopsy,68 needle aspiration,9 and bronchoalveolar lavage. 1 10 11 The last may be particularly helpful in diagnosing opportunistic infection. In one study 15 of 16 episodes of infection in immunosuppressed patients were correctly diagnosed with lavage. 10 Complications of transbronchial biopsy are uncommon but include the hazards of bronchoscopy. 12 Pneumothorax occurs in 3-5% of patients; it is more common in those with pulmonary fibrosis.1458 Clinically important haemoptysis is uncommon except in uraemic patients.68 Postbronchoscopy pneumonia and fever are occasionally reported,5 and patients at risk of endocarditis should receive antibiotic prophylaxis. The mortality has been estimated as 0.2%.2

A percutaneous method is preferable to transbronchial biopsy for investigating pulmonary nodules not seen bronchoscopically. With percutaneous needle aspiration adequate samples for cytological and microbiological exami-

nation may nearly always be obtained and a positive diagnosis (usually of malignancy) made in 80-90%. 13-17 False positive findings are rare, but the tumour cell type identified may be inaccurate in one quarter to one third of cases. 15 17 The false negative rate is between 5% and 16%, and at least three separate samples should be taken before considering a lesion benign.15 A highly experienced cytohistologist is essential. A screw stylet increases sensitivity and specificity, and disposable screw biopsy needles are now widely used.13 13

Percutaneous needle aspiration has been used successfully to investigate lung infection but is less helpful in other forms of diffuse lung shadowing. 15 17 18 The main complication of needle aspiration is pneumothorax, which occurs in a quarter to one third of patients with 1-10% needing drainage. 13 14 17 Clinically important bleeding, air embolism, and tumour seeding are rare.15 The mortality is less than 0.1%.15 18 Complications increase with the depth of biopsy, emphysema, and age¹⁵ and are reduced with experience¹³ or by using ultrathin needles.17 These are difficult to guide accurately, however, and give less good results for small nodules.15

A recent study has reported the usefulness of percutaneous (Tru-Cut) cutting needle biopsy of lung nodules. 19 A specimen giving helpful and accurate histological information was obtained from over 90% of 89 consecutive adults. No false negative samples were identified. Complications were not appreciably greater than with needle aspiration, except that one patient developed a haemothorax and tumour seedlings developed at the biopsy site in two others—a complication reported before with cutting needle biopsy.²⁰ Cutting needle biopsy is rarely used now in diffuse lung disease because of complications. 16 19 A safer approach is with trephine biopsy needle driven by a high speed air drill. Generous samples, up to 2 mm diameter, allow accurate histological diagnosis in 70-90% of cases.^{21 22} Pneumothoraces occur in a quarter to a third of patients, however; 7% require tube drainage; 2% have substantial blood loss; and occasional deaths are reported. Cover by a thoracic surgeon is recommended whenever a cutting biopsy is being performed with a needle or trephine.19 20 Neither trephine biopsy nor perthoracoscopic lung biopsy is widely used in Britain.21

The advantage of open lung biopsy is that the surgeon can inspect the lung and take representative samples for histological and microbiological study. The most diseased areas and the tip of the lingula and middle lobe should be avoided as they may show only non-specific or end stage changes.²¹ In immunosuppressed patients with acute lung shadowing open lung biopsy gives a specific diagnosis (usually of infection) in 50-80%. 23-26 The diagnostic rate in adults with chronic lung shadowing is over 90%.23 The operative mortality is 0.3-1.0%, and minor complications occur in only 7-11% of patients.21 The value and safety of open lung biopsy were shown in a prospective study of 53 adults with chronic interstitial lung disease.² Transbronchial biopsy specimens were diagnostic in only 20. A specific diagnosis was made in 30 of the other 33 by open lung biopsy. In another study 20 adults with diffuse lung shadowing had a percutaneous needle aspiration biopsy, cutting needle biopsy, and a transbronchial biopsy all performed at the time of open lung biopsy.3 The respective diagnostic yields for each technique were 29%, 53%, 59%, and 94%.

How a lung shadow is investigated will depend, then, not

only on the condition of the patient and the urgency of the need for information but also on what skills are available \overline{\overline{\text{\text{\text{0}}}}} locally to take the biopsy specimen and examine it. Absolute \subseteq contraindications to closed lung biopsy include an unco- o operative patient, pulmonary hypertension, uncorrectable bleeding disorders, and inability to withstand a pneumothorax.

Most peripheral lung nodules considered for biopsy turn often reasonable. In those patients with questionable fitness of thoractomy a positive distance of the patients with a patient wi for thoractomy a positive diagnosis of a malignancy by percutaneous screw needle biopsy may strengthen the $\frac{\omega}{\omega}$ decision to operate. A negative biopsy specimen is more difficult to interpret and should be repeated.

In the patient not fit for thoracotomy the decision whether to biopsy an asymptomatic peripheral nodule or to \bigcirc await events is difficult. For adults with diffuse lung a shadowing transbronchial biopsy with bronchial biopsy, brush biopsy, and bronchoalveolar lavage are safe initial investigations, particularly if the diagnosis suspected is in active sarcoidosis, diffuse malignancy, infection, or alveolar proteinosis. If the result is unhelpful and further histo-logical information is needed then open lung biopsy should R be considered. In some centres a percutaneous trephine \mathfrak{S} biopsy is an alternative. With rapidly progressive lung 9 shadowing open lung biopsy should be considered early even as the first biopsy procedure—especially in immunosuppressed children, who are likely to be intolerant of other procedures. The chances of obtaining a result that will alter treatment or dramatically improve chances of survival, however, should not be overestimated in such circumstances.21 23 24

- JOHN MACFARLANE

 Consultant Physician,
 City Hospital,
 Nottingham NG5 1PD

 1 Haponik EF, Summer WR, Terry PB, Wang KP. Clinical decision making with transbronchial lung biopsies. Am Rev Respir Dis 1982;125:524-9.
 2 Wall CP, Gaensler EA, Carrington CP, Hayes JA. Comparison of transbronchial and open lung biopsies in chronic infiltrative lung disease. Am Rev Respir Dis 1981; 123:280-5.
 3 Burt ME, Flye W, Webber BL, Wesley RA. Prospective evaluation of aspiration needle, cutting needle, transbronchial and open lung biopsy in patients with pulmonary infiltrates. Ann Thonac Surg 1981;32:146-53.
 4 Stableforth DE, Knight RK, Collins JV, et al. Transbronchial lung biopsy through the fibreoptic bronchoscope. Br J Dis Chest 1978;72:108-14.
 5 Mitchell DM, Emerson CJ, Collyer J, Collins JV. Fibreoptic bronchoscopy: ten years on. Br Med J 1980;281:360-3.
 6 Cunningham JH, Zavala DC, Corry RJ, Keim LW. Trephine air drill, bronchial brush and

- Med J 1980;281:360-3.
 Cunningham JH, Zavala DC, Corry RJ, Keim LW. Trephine air drill, bronchial brush and fibreoptic transbronchial lung biopsies in immunosuppressed patients. Am Rev Respir Dis 1977;115:213-20.
 Blumfeld W, Wagar E, Hadley WK. Use of the transbronchial biopsy for diagnosis of opportunistic pulmonary infections in acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). Am J Clin Pathol 1984;81:1-5.
 Hanson RR, Zavala DC, Rhodes ML, et al. Transbronchial biopsy via flexible fibreoptic bronchoscope: results in 164 patients. Am Rev Respir Dis 1978;114:67-72.
 Shure D, Fedullo PF. Transbronchial needle aspiration of peripheral masses. Am Rev Respir Dis 1983;128:1090-2.
- 1983;128:1090-2

 10 Hopkin JM, Turney JH, Young JA, et al. Rapid diagnosis of obscure pneumonia in immunosuppressed renal patients by cytology of alveolar lavage fluid. Lancet 1983;ii:299-301.

 11 Kelley J, Landis JN, Davis GS, et al. Diagnosis of pneumonia due to pneumocystis by subsegmental pulmonary lavage via the fiberoptic bronchoscope. Chest 1978;74:24-8.

 12 Anonymous. Hazards of fibreoptic bronchoscopy [Editorial]. Br Med J 1979;i:212-3.

 13 Allison DJ, Hemingway AP. Percutaneous needle biopsy of the lung. Br Med J 1981;282:875-8.

 14 Nealon TF, Kramer M. Biopsy of the lung. Ann Thorac Surg 1981;32:214-5.

 15 Nordenström BEW. Technical aspects of obtaining cellular material from lesions deep in the lung. Acta Cytol (Baltimore) 1984;28:234-42.

 16 Zavala DC, Bedell GN. Percutaneous lung biopsy with a cutting needle. Am Rev Respir Dis 1972;106:186-93.

 17 Zavala DC, Schoell IE. Ultrathin needle aspiration of the lung in infectious amd malignant

- 16 Zavala DC, Bedell GN. Percutaneous lung biopsy with a cutting needle. Am Rev Respir Dis 1972;106:186-93.
 17 Zavala DC, Schoell JE. Ultrathin needle aspiration of the lung in infectious amd malignant disease. Am Rev Respir Dis 1981;123:125-31.
 18 Gibney RTN, Man GCW, King EG, IeRiche J. Aspiration biopsy in the diagnosis of pulmonary disease. Chest 1981;80:300-3.
 19 Harrison BDW, Thorpe RS, Kitchener PG, et al. Percutaneous Tru-Cut lung biopsy in the diagnosis of localised pulmonary lesions. Thorax 1984;39:493-9.
 20 Wolinsky H, Lischner MW. Needle track implantation of tumor after percutaneous lung biopsy. Ann Intern Med 1969;71:359-61.
 21 Gaensler EA. Open and closed lung biopsy. In: Sackner MA, ed. Diagnostic techniques in pulmonary disease. Part II. New York: Marcel Dekker Inc, 1981:597-622.
 22 Steel DJ, Winstanley DP. Trephine biopsy of the lung and pleura. Thorax 1969;24:576-84.
 23 Hiatt JR, Gong H, Mulder DG, Ramming KP. The value of open lung biopsy in the immunosuppressed patient. Surgery 1982;92:285-91.
 24 Imoke E, Dudgeon DL, Colombani P, et al. Open lung biopsy in the immunocompromised pediatric patient. J Pediatr Surg 1983;10:816-21.
 25 Jaffe JP, Maki DG. Lung biopsy in immunocompromised patients. Cancer 1981;48:1144-53.
 26 Prober CG, Whyte H, Smith CR. Open lung biopsy in immunocompromised children with pulmonary infiltrates. Am J Dis Child 1984;138:60-3.