MEDICAL PROGRESS

OFFICE-BASED OBJECTIVE MEASURES IN CHILDHOOD ASTHMA

JOSEPH D. SPAHN, MD, AND BRADLEY E. CHIPPS, MD

sthma is among the most common chronic childhood diseases affecting 6 million children in the United States.¹ Despite better understanding of the pathogenesis and advances in the treatment of this disease, asthma continues to be a leading cause of school absences, emergency department visits, and hospitalizations in children.^{2,3} Although there are many reasons for the substantial morbidity rate associated with asthma, 1 reason stems from the fact that objective monitoring of asthma is not widely performed. The purpose of this review is to provide clinicians with an up-to-date review of the 2 most commonly used office-based lung function measures, peak expiratory flow (PEF) and spirometry, in childhood asthma. In addition, a novel noninvasive measure of inflammation, exhaled nitric oxide, will also be discussed. It is hoped that by increasing the number of tools we have to assess asthma, we can improve the quality of life in patients with asthma, while reducing morbidity and mortality rates.

MEASURES OF LUNG FUNCTION

Because asthma is a disease characterized by airflow limitation, objective monitoring of lung function should be an essential aspect of asthma care. Just as one performs routine blood pressure measures in patients with hypertension, patients with asthma should receive routine pulmonary function monitoring. Lung function measures are useful in establishing the diagnosis of asthma, they provide objective information with respect to the nature, severity, and level of asthma control, and they are useful in assessing response to therapeutic interventions. Last, when used longitudinally lung function tests can track asthma progression over time.

PEF

PEF is a widely used lung function measure because it is easily performed and inexpensive. Although routine PEF monitoring had been strongly encouraged in the past, recent studies have failed to support the benefits of asthma action plans on the basis of PEF monitoring in improving health care utilization. According to the most recent update from the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute's (NHLBI) Expert Panel Report for the Diagnosis and Management of Asthma,² PEF monitoring is still recommended for patients with moderate to severe asthma and in patients who do not recognize signs and symptoms of worsening asthma. PEF can also be useful early in the evaluation of a child with poorly controlled asthma. In this situation, twice-daily PEF measures can provide an objective means to assess response to pharmacologic intervention. As control is gained, PEF variability and beta-agonist reversibility should decrease as the baseline values rise (Figure 1). Peak flow variability is determined by the following equation: (Morning PEF – Evening PEF)/([Morning PEF + Evening PEF]/2). Once asthma control is optimized, PEF measures can be performed intermittently and at the first sign of asthma worsening.

In summary, the PEF is a useful test, but it has limitations. First, it is an effortdependent test—a low value can be the result of either a poor effort or worsening asthma. In addition, because it is a measure of large airway function, it is a less sensitive measure of airflow limitation compared with other lung function measures.⁴ Last, children with severe asthma can often generate normal or nearly normal PEF values while displaying significantly diminished FEV₁ and FEF₂₅₋₇₅ values.⁵

Spirometry

Spirometry is the most important lung function test in asthma. With adequate coaching, children as young as 5 years can be taught the maneuver. Spirometry allows for an assessment of flow at several levels of the airway from the large (PEF) to the peripheral airways (FEF₂₅₋₇₅). Evaluation of the volume-time curve allows one to assess the adequacy of the child's expiratory effort (Figure 2, *a*). In older children, an acceptable test requires the child to exhale for at least 6 seconds. If a child's expiratory effort is only a

CAMP Childhood Asthma Management Program FVC eNO Exhaled nitric oxide PEF FEV1 Forced expiratory volume in one second	Forced expiratory volume Peak expiratory flow
---	--

From the National Jewish Medical and Research Center, Denver, Colorado. Reprint requests: Bradley E. Chipps, MD, Capital Allergy and Respiratory Disease Center, 5609 J Street, Suite C, Sacramento, CA 95819. E-mail: jnanspahn@comcast.net.

J Pediatr 2006;148:11-5.

0022-3476/\$ - see front matter Copyright © 2006 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

10.1016/j.jpeds.2005.08.077



Figure 1. This 12-year old male presented to clinic with poorly controlled asthma requiring albuterol up to 4 times/day. Auscultation of his lungs revealed wheezing on forced expiration, and his FEV₁ was 65% of predicted. He was prescribed prednisone (20 mg twice daily for 4 days) and inhaled budesonide (200 μ g twice daily) with instructions to perform PEF measures twice daily as seen in this figure. Note significant diurnal variation in this child's pre-albuterol PEF values and his significant response to albuterol early in his treatment course. Also, note steady improvement in baseline PEFs as his asthma control improved.

couple of seconds, the test is unacceptable and the results uninterpretable. An acceptable test in a preschool child is one where there is an obvious peak flow, where there is no sharp drop or cessation in flow, and where there is an exhalation time of greater than 1 second.⁶ Evaluation of the flow-volume loop provides information with respect to the degree of airflow limitation. With increasing airflow limitation the expiratory curve becomes more concave or "scooped out" as seen in Figure 2, *b*. The inspiratory flow volume loop should have the appearance of a semicircle. If it has a blunted or scalloped appearance as illustrated in Figure 3, it suggests inappropriate closure of the vocal cords as is seen in vocal cord dysfunction—a masquerader of asthma. The following discussion will provide an overview of the various parameters of value when evaluating a spirometry report.

FEV₁

The FEV₁ is the "gold standard" measure for diseases characterized by airflow limitation⁷ such as asthma, cystic fibrosis, and chronic lung disease of prematurity. According to the NHLBI asthma guidelines,² patients with mild asthma have FEV₁ values of >80%, those with moderate persistent asthma have values 60% to 80%, while patients with severe persistent asthma have FEV₁ values of less than 60% of predicted.

FEV₁/FVC

The FEV₁/FVC ratio is the amount of air exhaled in the first second divided by all of the air exhaled during a maximal exhalation. The FEV₁/FVC ratio is highest in young children (>90%) and decreases with increasing age.⁶ A normal FEV₁/



Figure 2. a, Volume-time curves from non-asthmatic and asthmatic child demonstrate significant decrease in FEV_1 in asthmatic. Both children's expiratory times are adequate. b, Flow-volume curves from same 2 children demonstrating airflow obstruction in asthmatic child with characteristic concave appearing expiratory flow volume loop. Both children have normal inspiratory flow volume loops. Of note, despite diminished FEV_1 and FEV_1/FVC ratio, asthmatic child generated normal PEF.

FVC ratio is 86%, with values below 80% indicative of airflow obstruction.⁸ Many children with asthma will have FEV₁ values in the normal range while having diminished FEV₁/FVC ratios. In addition, the FEV₁/FVC ratio can provide a better measure of asthma severity compared with the FEV₁% predicted as recently described.⁹

FEF₂₅₋₇₅

The forced expiratory flow between 25% and 75% of vital capacity (FEF₂₅₋₇₅) measures airflow in the mid-portion of the vital capacity. It is effort independent and is believed to measure peripheral airway obstruction. The FEF₂₅₋₇₅ is among the first parameters to be abnormal in pediatric asthma, and it is often the most significantly impaired of all of the spirometric measures.¹⁰ It is the impairment in the FEF₂₅₋₇₅ that gives the expiratory flow volume curve its characteristic scooped out or concave appearance (Figure 2, b). Similar to the FEV₁/FVC ratio, the FEF₂₅₋₇₅ provides greater sensitivity with respect to lung function impairment in childhood asthma. This was recently demonstrated by Paull et al,¹⁰ who retrospectively analyzed over 24,000 lung function test results in 2728 children with asthma evaluated at a tertiary referral center. They found the mean FEV₁ of the children studied to be well within the normal range at 92.7% of predicted,

with 77% of the values within the normal range (>80% of predicted). In contrast, the mean FEF_{25-75} was only 78% of predicted with only 28% of the FEF_{25-75} values >80% of predicted.

Beta-Agonist Reversibility

Assessment of beta-agonist reversibility is an important aspect of spirometry serving several functions. First, it can aid in the diagnosis of asthma. In a patient with respiratory symptoms consistent with asthma, a positive beta-agonist response (either a 200 mL or \geq 12% improvement in FEV₁ after an inhaled beta-agonist) is strongly suggestive of asthma, although patients with cystic fibrosis can also be responsive to beta-agonists. Second, it provides information with respect to reversibility of airflow limitation. Third, beta-agonist reversibility provides information with respect to airway lability and inflammation. This is highlighted by 2 studies published by Covar et al,^{11,12} who evaluated the clinical utility of 2 noninvasive measures of airway inflammation, exhaled nitric oxide (eNO) and sputum eosinophils, in children with mild to moderate asthma. The investigators found neither inflammatory measure to correlate with baseline FEV₁, while both correlated with beta-agonist response. Ulrik et al¹³ prospectively evaluated asthma progression in a cohort of patients with asthma and found patients with the greatest degree of betaagonist reversibility at baseline to have the greatest decline in lung function. In addition, these were also at greatest risk of development of fixed airflow obstruction over time.

LUNG FUNCTION IN CHILDREN

What is known and what has yet to be learned?

Most Children with Asthma Do Not Have Chronically Impaired Lung Function

Unlike adults with longstanding asthma where chronic lung function impairment is the norm, children with asthma often have normal lung function during periods of disease stability; yet develop severe airflow obstruction during acute exacerbations.¹⁴ This lability in lung function is likely a reflection of the underlying bronchial hyperresponsiveness that characterizes childhood asthma.¹⁵ That children of all levels of asthma severity will often have normal or nearly normal FEV1 during periods of stability should come as no surprise because asthma is a slowly progressive disease. Fuhlbrigge et al¹⁶ evaluated the relationship between FEV₁ and risk for a subsequent asthma attack in 3626 children followed up yearly for up to 15 years. The investigators found that less than 1% of the children had FEV₁ values of 60% of predicted or less, whereas 94% had values of 80% of predicted or greater. Of importance, patients with an FEV₁ <60% of predicted had a 70% chance of having an asthma attack in the following year, whereas children with FEV₁ values >80% had only a 25% to 30% chance of having an attack. Additional data come from the Childhood Asthma Management Program (CAMP), which evaluated 1041 children with asthma.¹⁷ Despite the fact that more than 50% of the cohort had moderate persistent



Figure 3. Flow-volume curves from patient with vocal cord dysfunction. This adolescent female presented with recurrent respiratory difficulties refractory to multiple asthma medications. FEV₁ and FVC were equally impaired at 75% of predicted whereas her FEV₁/ FVC ratio was normal at 86%. Evaluation of inspiratory flow-volume curve revealed significant blunting caused by inappropriate closure of her vocal cords. She had negative methacholine challenge, which effectively ruled out asthma. She was subsequently diagnosed with vocal cord dysfunction, and speech therapy was begun with eventual resolution of her symptoms.

asthma on the basis of symptom frequency, the mean prebronchodilator FEV_1 was 94% of predicted. Last, Jenkins et al¹⁸ compared the lung function values of children and adults with difficult-to-control asthma and found that despite comparable disease severity, the mean pre-bronchodilator FEV_1 value of the children was 74% of predicted compared to 57% of predicted for adults.

In summary, the data suggest that a single FEV_1 value is a relatively insensitive measure of asthma severity in children. Thus a normal FEV_1 value should not give one a false sense of security given the inherent airway lability of childhood asthma. On the other hand, if a child's FEV_1 is impaired, asthma therapy should be intensified because that child is not only at risk for having an asthma attack¹⁶ but also at risk for progressive loss of lung function over time.¹⁹

Are Children with Asthma at Risk for Progressive Loss of Lung Function Over Time?

It is well established that adults with asthma lose lung function at a greater rate than their peers without asthma, with a rate of decline in FEV₁ of approximately 1% of predicted per year.²⁰ Whether children with asthma also lose lung function at an accelerated rate is less clear. Zeiger et al^{21} in a cross-sectional analysis of the children enrolled in the CAMP study found an annual decline of FEV₁ of 0.91% predicted per year of asthma at the time of randomization. This is in contrast to the results presented on completion of the CAMP study, where no decline in the mean pre- or post-bronchodilator FEV_1 was noted after 4 to 6 years of therapy with either budesonide, nedocromil, or placebo.¹⁷

Although the longitudinal data from the CAMP study failed to demonstrate a reduction in FEV₁, hidden in the mean were patients who had a progressive reduction in lung function over time as reported by Covar et al.²² These investigators found that approximately one quarter of the children had a >1% per year loss in pre- and post-bronchodilator FEV₁ over the course of the CAMP study. Children at risk for progressive loss of lung function were more likely to be younger, male, to have higher post-bronchodilator FEV₁ values at randomization, and to have had a shorter duration of asthma. Of interest, there was no difference in the percentage of decliners or the slope of the decline in the affected patients treated with active therapy (budesonide or nedocromil) compared with placebo. These data suggest that the process starts early, does not proceed uniformly over time, and may not be altered with currently available therapy.

Further support of the concept of early lung function decline in childhood asthma comes from 3 important birth cohort studies. The Melbourne Asthma Study has followed a large cohort of asthmatic patients from childhood to 42 years of age. Among many important findings, this study was among the first to note that children with persistent asthma already demonstrated a significant reduction in FEV₁ by age 7 to 10 vears.²³ In addition, the investigators found that asthma severity tracks over time. Those with severe asthma had the greatest impairment in FEV1 at the first measurement, and this persisted well into adulthood. The second cohort comes from Dunedin, New Zealand, where Sears et al²⁴ have followed a large cohort of asthmatics from childhood to adulthood with spirometry performed serially from 9 to 26 years. The investigators found patients with persistent asthma from childhood into adulthood had significantly impaired lung function compared with the non-asthmatic patients, and this difference was already apparent at the initial assessment. The third cohort study comes from Tucson, where Martinez et al^{25,26} have followed the lung growth of over 1000 children from 1 year of life to early adulthood. Children with persistent wheezing displayed a progressive decline in lung function from infancy to 6 years compared with children who were "transient," "late onset," and "never" wheezers. In addition, serial lung function evaluation at age 13 years revealed that the steepest decline in FEV₁ among the asthmatic patients studied occurred in the first 6 years of life.

Thus not all children with asthma are at risk of progressive loss of lung function. Identification of children at risk for decline would allow them to be targeted to receive more aggressive therapy with careful monitoring over time in an attempt to halt further progression. In addition, the loss of lung function occurs early in the course of the disease. At present, it is unknown whether any medication or combination of medications will have a protective effect against lung function decline. In 2 other diseases characterized by airflow limitation, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and cystic fibrosis, no available therapies have been shown to prevent loss of lung function.^{27,28}

Are Noninvasive Measures of Airway Inflammation Available?

Asthma is a disease characterized by airway inflammation, yet until recently there were no noninvasive ways to assess inflammation. Over the past decade, a great deal of research has been focused on exhaled nitric oxide. Nitric oxide is a gas produced in large quantities by damaged airway epithelial cells, eosinophils, and macrophages. Many studies have demonstrated its clinical utility in asthma. Several studies have shown eNO to be useful in establishing the diagnosis of asthma,^{29,30} whereas other studies have shown eNO levels correlate with both asthma severity and control.^{11,31} The eNO has also been shown to predict response to antiinflammatory therapy.³²

The Niox (Aerocrine, Sweden) system is an eNO analyzer that has recently been approved by the Food and Drug Administration for use in asthma. NO measurement is easier to perform and takes less time than spirometry, with children as young as 4 years able to perform the test. Its major disadvantage at present is the significant cost of the equipment. If the cost of the technology drops significantly, this test could easily be administered in any primary care setting. Studies have shown that it can provide information that is complementary to that obtained by performing spirometry. Obtaining measures of both lung function and airway inflammation, in addition to symptoms and need for rescue beta-agonist use would greatly enhance how we assess asthma severity/control and how we titrate (upward or downward) controller medications.

CONCLUSIONS

Objective monitoring of asthma remains underutilized especially in primary care. Peak flow measurement is often performed due to its ease of use and affordability. Unfortunately, it is relatively insensitive and is no longer recommended for routine home monitoring for many children with asthma. Spirometry remains the "gold standard" lung function test in that provides several different measurements of airflow including the FEV₁, the FEV₁/FVC ratio, and the FEF₂₅₋₇₅. It is important to realize that the FEV₁ can be within the normal range during periods of disease stability, but that rapid and significant drops can occur during acute illnesses. The FEV1/ FVC and FEF₂₅₋₇₅ can provide greater sensitivity compared to the FEV₁ in detecting airflow limitation in children with asthma. As such, these measures should always be assessed when reading a spirometry report. Ideally, spirometry should be performed serially, so that children at risk for progressive loss of lung function can be identified and therapy intensified. Lung function tests provide important information with respect to disease severity and response to therapy. New technologies are emerging that will allow for the assessment of airway inflammation. They have the potential to significantly improve our ability to assess disease activity, especially when the child has normal lung function. Wider application of these tests will allow for better definition of the natural history of lower airway disease in children over time.

REFERENCES

1. Graham L. Balancing safety and efficacy in the treatment of pediatric asthma. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2002;109:5560-6.

2. National Institutes of Health. National Heart Lung and Blood Institute. National asthma education and prevention program: executive summary of the NAEPP expert panel report. Guidelines for the diagnosis and management of asthma-update on selected topics 2002. NIH Publication No. 02-5075. June 2002.

3. Mannino DM, Homa DM, Akinbami LJ, Moorman JE, Gwynn C, Redd SC. Surveillance for Asthma- United States, 1980-1999. MMWR 2002;51(SS-1):1-14.

4. Sly PD, Landau LI, Weymoth R. Home recording of peak expiratory flow rates and perception of asthma. Am J Dis Child 1985;139:479-82.

5. Eid N, Yandell B, Howell L, Eddy M, Sheikh S. Can peak flow predict airflow obstruction in children with asthma? Pediatrics 2000;105:354-8.

6. Eigen H, Bieler H, Grant D, Christoph K, Terrill D, Heilman DK, et al. Spirometric Pulmonary Function in Healthy Preschool Children. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2001;163:619-23.

7. American Thoracic Society Board of Directors. Standardization of spirometry: 1987 update: statement of the American Thoracic Society. Am Rev Respir Dis 1987;136:1285-98.

8. Hankinson JL, Odencrantz JR, Fedan KB. Spirometric reference values from a sample of the general population. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 1999; 159:179-87.

9. Bacharier LB, Strunk RC, Mauger D, White D, Lemanske RF, Sorkness CA. Classifying asthma severity in children: Mismatch between symptoms, medication use, and lung function. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2004;170:426-32.

10. Paull K, Covar R, Jain N, Gelfand EW, Spahn JD. Do the NHLBI lung function criteria apply to children? A cross-sectional evaluation of childhood asthma at National Jewish Medical Center 1999-2002. Pediatr Pulmonol 2005;39:311-7.

11. Covar RA, Szefler SJ, Martin R, Sundstrom DA, Silkoff P, Murphy J, et al. Relationships between exhaled nitric oxide and measures of disease activity among children with mild to moderate asthma. J Pediatr 2003;142: 469-75.

12. Covar RA, Spahn JD, Martin RJ, Silkoff PE, Sundstrom DA, Murphy J, et al. Safety and application of induced sputum analysis in childhood asthma. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2004;114:575-82.

13. Ulrik CS, Backer V. Nonreversible airflow obstruction in lifelong nonsmokers with moderate to severe asthma. Eur Respir J 1999;14: 892-6.

14. Spahn JD, Cherniack R, Paull K, Gelfand EW. Is the forced expiratory volume in one second the best measure of severity in childhood asthma? Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2004;169:784-6.

15. Weiss ST, Van Natta ML, Zeiger RS. Relationship between increased airway responsiveness and asthma severity among children in the Childhood Asthma Program. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2000;162:50-6.

16. Fuhlbrigge AL, Kitch BT, Paltiel AD, Kuntz KM, Neumann PJ, Dockery DW, et al. FEV1 is associated with risk of asthma attacks in a pediatric population. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2001;107:61-7.

17. The Childhood Asthma Management Program Research Group. Long-term effects of budesonide or nedocromil in children with asthma. N Engl J Med 2000;343:1054-63.

18. Jenkins HA, Cherniack RM, Szefler SJ, Covar R, Gelfand EW, Spahn JD. A comparison of the clinical characteristics of children and adults with severe asthma. Chest 2003;124:1318-24.

19. Rasmussen F, Taylor DR, Flannery EM, Cowan JO, Greene JM, Herbison GF, et al. Risk factors for airway remodeling in asthma manifested by a low postbronchodilator FEV1/vital capacity ratio: a longitudinal population study from childhood to adulthood. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2002;165:1480-8.

20. Lange P, Parner J, Vestbo J, Schnohr P, Jensen G. A 15-year follow-up study of ventilatory function in adults with asthma. N Engl J Med 1998;339: 1194-200.

21. Zeiger RS, Dawson C, Weiss S, for the Childhood Asthma Management Program Research Group. Relationships between duration of asthma and asthma severity among children in the Childhood Asthma Management Program (CAMP). J Allergy Clin Immunol 1999;103:376-87.

22. Covar RA, Spahn JD, Murphy JR, Szefler SJ, for the Childhood Asthma Management Program Research Group. Progression of asthma measured by lung function in the Childhood Asthma Management Program. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2004;170:234-41.

23. Phelan PD, Robertson CF, Olinsky A. The Melbourne Asthma Study: 1964-1999. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2002;109:189-94.

24. Sears MR, Greene JM, Willan AR, Wiecek EM, Taylor DR, Flannery EM, et al. A longitudinal population-based cohort of childhood asthma followed to adulthood. N Engl J Med 2003;349:1414-22.

25. Martinez FD, Wright AL, Taussig LM, Holberg CJ, Halonen M, Morgan WJ. Asthma and wheezing in the first six years of life: the Group Health Associates. N Engl J Med 1995;332:133-8.

26. Taussig LM, Wright AL, Holberg CJ, Halonen M, Morgan WJ, Martinez FD. Tucson Children's Respiratory Study 1980 to present. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2003;111:661-75.

27. Gibson RL, Burns JL, Ramsey BW. Pathophysiology and management of pulmonary infections in cystic fibrosis. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2003; 168:918-51.

Sutherland ER. Outpatient treatment of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: comparisons with asthma. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2004;114:715-24.
Smith AD, Cowan JO, Filsell S, McLachlan C, Monti-Sheehan G, Jackson P, et al. Diagnosing Asthma: Comparison between exhaled nitric oxide measurements and conventional tests. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2004;169:473-8.

30. Dupont LJ, Demedts MG, Verleden GM. Prospective evaluation of the validity of exhaled nitric oxide for the diagnosis of asthma. Chest 2003; 123:751-6.

31. Meyts I, Proesmans M, DeBoeck K. Exhaled nitric oxide corresponds with office evaluation of asthma control. Pediatr Pulmonol 2003;36:283-9.

32. Szefler SJ, Phillips BR, Martinez Chinchilli VM, Lemanske RF, Strunk RC, et al. Characterization of within-subject responses to fluticasone and montelukast in childhood asthma. J Allergy Clin Immunol 2005;115:233-42.