Do clinical investigations predict long-term wheeze? A follow-up of paediatric respiratory outpatients

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37 supplementary questionnaires

39 **Running title: Predicting wheeze: a follow-up study** (max. 50 characters)

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40 Do clinical investigations predict long-term outcome? 41 A follow-up of paediatric respiratory outpatients

- 42 de Jong CCM, Pedersen ESL, Goutaki M, Trachsel M, Barben J, Kuehni CE
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44 Abstract (250/250)

45 Introduction: The contribution of clinical investigations to prediction of long-term outcomes

- 46 of children investigated for asthma is unclear.
- 47 Aim: We performed a broad range of clinical tests and investigated whether they helped to

48 predict long-term wheeze among children referred for evaluation of possible asthma.

- 49 **Methods**: We studied children aged 6-16 years referred to two Swiss pulmonary outpatient
- 50 clinics with a history of wheeze, dyspnoea, or cough in 2007. The initial assessment included
- 51 spirometry, fractional exhaled nitric oxide, skin prick tests, and bronchial provocation tests
- 52 (BPT) by exercise, methacholine, and mannitol. Respiratory symptoms were assessed with
- 53 questionnaires at baseline and at follow-up seven years later. Associations between
- 54 baseline factors and wheeze at follow-up were investigated by logistic regression.
- 55 **Results**: At baseline, 111 children were examined in 2007. Seven years after baseline, 85
- 56 (77%) completed the follow-up questionnaire, among whom 61 (72%) had wheeze at
- 57 baseline, while at follow-up 39 (46%) reported wheeze. Adjusting for age and sex, the
- 58 following characteristics predicted wheeze at adolescence: wheeze triggered by pets (odds
- ratio 4.2, 95% CI 1.2-14.8), pollen (2.8, 1.1-7.0), and exercise (3.1, 1.2-8.0). Of the clinical
- 60 tests, only a positive exercise test (3.2, 1.1-9.7) predicted wheeze at adolescence.
- 61 Conclusion: Reported exercise-induced wheeze and wheeze triggered by pets or pollen 62 were important predictors of wheeze persistence into adolescence. None of the clinical tests 63 predicted wheeze more strongly than reported symptoms. Clinical tests might be important 64 for asthma diagnosis but medical history is more helpful in predicting prognosis in children 65 referred for asthma.

67 Introduction

Asthma is the most prevalent chronic respiratory disease in childhood and adolescence, 68 which leads to many health care visits¹⁻³. Its key symptoms are wheeze, cough, and difficulty 69 breathing, but symptoms vary substantially between individuals and across ages^{1,2}. Some 70 children who present with asthma symptoms continue to have problems later in life, while 71 72 others do not. Better knowledge of their individual prognoses might affect their follow-up and answer questions of parents in the clinics⁴⁻⁶. Assessing prognosis of asthma symptoms from 73 school age into adulthood and identifying children at high-risk of symptom persistence is 74 75 challenging⁴. 76 Studies investigating prognosis of asthma or wheeze in school-aged children are conducted

⁷⁷ with either clinical asthma cohorts or symptomatic children of a population-based cohort⁷.

Studies in clinical asthma cohorts have found that lower FEV₁, asthma severity, sensitisation
to indoor allergens, eczema, hay fever, skin test reactivity, and bronchial hyper-

80 responsiveness were associated with asthma persistence⁸⁻¹⁰. Studies in population-based

cohorts have found that wheeze persistence was predicted by frequent attacks of wheeze,

82 female sex, sensitization to furred animals or house dust mites, rhinitis, and bronchial hyper-

83 responsiveness¹¹⁻¹⁶.

For clinical practice, two knowledge gaps remain. First, few studies have examined the prediction of long-term prognosis, but none have done this for school-aged children seen in outpatient clinics for possible asthma. Second, many tests are performed in clinics to diagnose these children, but it is unclear whether these tests predict prognosis more accurately than reported symptoms alone. We determined whether clinical tests in addition to reported symptoms help predict wheeze in adolescence in school-aged children referred for possible asthma.

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95 Methods

96 Study population and study design

97 Of the 124 children invited, 111 were recruited from the respiratory outpatient clinics of two paediatric hospitals in Switzerland, 84 from St. Gallen and 27 from Basel, who were eligible 98 if they had been referred for evaluation of current wheeze, dyspnoea, or cough. Children 99 with a known chronic respiratory disease such as cystic fibrosis or primary ciliary dyskinesia. 100 101 or a respiratory tract infection during four weeks prior to the visit were excluded. At baseline in 2007-2008, parents completed a questionnaire and children underwent a set of 102 standardised clinical tests during two different visits within one week as part of the study 103 protocol^{17,18}. At follow-up, seven years after baseline, in 2014 to 2015, we sent a 104 105 questionnaire to the 12-23 year-old adolescents or young adults (from now on referred to as 106 adolescents) (E-figure 1).

Ethical approval was obtained from the local Ethics committee and all parents gave informed
consent during the first visit at baseline and by sending back the questionnaire at follow-up
(EKSG 07/001).

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111 Baseline assessment

The parental questionnaire included ISAAC key questions¹⁹ plus additional questions on 112 113 type and triggers of respiratory symptoms, atopic symptoms, previous treatments and environmental exposures (Supplementary questionnaire 1 (German, original) and 2 (English, 114 translation)). The study physician reported clinical test results, final diagnosis, and 115 prescribed medication in a uniform way. Physicians diagnosed the children after all clinical 116 117 tests were done, taking into consideration medical history, clinical examination, and all test 118 results. Vocal cord dysfunction was diagnosed based on medical history, physical 119 examination and normal expiratory curves in spirometry. 120 The baseline assessment consisted of two visits. At the initial baseline visit, children performed spirometry, fractional exhaled nitric oxide (FeNO) measurement, a skin prick test 121

122 (SPT), bronchial provocation test (BPT) by exercise and, by methacholine. At the second

baseline visit, children did a BPT by mannitol. All clinical tests were performed according to 123 published guidelines²⁰⁻²⁴. A detailed description of the test procedures has been published 124 elsewhere ^{17,18,25} and is included in the online supplementary material (E-text). Lung function 125 measurements were compared to reference values from Zapletal et al²⁶. We considered the 126 127 exercise test as positive in the event of a \geq 15% decrease in the FEV₁ after the exercise 128 challenge test, and the methacholine test as positive when the minimal dose causing a ≥20% decrease of FEV₁ was <1mg (the provocation dose, PD 20). The mannitol dry powder 129 challenge test was considered as positive when a 15% fall in FEV₁ was measured before a 130 131 cumulative dose of 635 mg was reached, or when a 10% fall in FEV_1 between two doses was reached. FeNO was measured using the portable NIOX MINO® device, and was 132 considered as positive when FeNO was higher than 26ppb¹⁸. We performed skin prick tests 133 for birch, grass, mugwort, alternaria, cat, house dust mites (D. pteronysinus), and positive 134 and negative controls¹⁸. These allergens cover 95% of inhaled allergens in Switzerland²⁷. 135 The test was considered to be positive if any mean wheal diameter was ≥3mm. 136

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138 Assessment at follow-up

- 139 The follow-up questionnaire was very similar to the baseline questionnaire, but the questions
- 140 were addressed directly to the adolescents instead of their parents (supplementary

141 questionnaire 3 (German, original) and 4 (English, translation)).

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143 Definitions of wheeze and frequent wheeze

We assessed wheeze at follow-up with the question, "Have you had a whistling sound in the chest in the last 12 months?" If a child had had more than three attacks of wheeze in the last 12 months, we considered the child to have had frequent wheeze.

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148 Statistical analysis

149 We compared the participants with information at baseline and follow-up to those without

150 follow-up information to test for selection bias, using chi-square test. The participants with

151 information at baseline and follow-up were included in the analysis.

We investigated the association between exercise-induced wheeze and a positive exercise test at baseline using the Fisher's exact test, and the Mann-Whitney-U test when looking at the association of reported exercise-induced wheeze and the fall of FEV₁% predicted during the exercise test.

We investigated the association between symptoms (table 1) and clinical test results (table 2) at baseline with any wheeze and frequent wheeze at follow-up using logistic regression, adjusting for sex and age. For comparison, we repeated the analysis including only children diagnosed with asthma (N=62). We did not consider interactions or a multivariable model because of the sample size. We used STATA software (version 14; College Station, Texas) to analyse the data.

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163 **Results**

164 Characteristics of the study population at baseline and at follow-up

Eighty-five (77%) of the 111 children who participated in the baseline study completed the 165 follow-up questionnaire. The median age was 12 years at baseline (range 6-16) and 18 at 166 follow-up (12-23); 60% (51/85) were male. Wheeze was reported by 61 (72%) at baseline, 167 168 and 7 reported cough without wheeze, 12 (14%) reported exercise-related breathing problems and 5 (6%) reported allergic rhinitis. Among those with wheeze, 27 (44%) had 169 170 more than three attacks during 12 months prior to the baseline visit (Table 1). Symptoms at 171 baseline were very similar in children who did not take part in the follow-up (E-table 1 online 172 supplementary material). Asthma medication was prescribed at the baseline visit for 71 173 (85%) children, of whom 47 (55%) received inhaled short-acting β 2-agonists (SABA) alone, 6 received SABA and inhaled corticosteroids (ICS), and 18 received long-acting β2-agonists 174 (LABA) and ICS. At follow-up, 39 (46%) participants reported wheeze of whom 30 had more 175 176 than 3 attacks during the last year. At follow-up, 44 adolescents (52%) reported using

inhalers, including 21 using SABA alone, 2 using SABA and ICS, and 21 using LABA andICS (Table 1).

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Table 2 shows the clinical test results and diagnoses at baseline. All tests were completed in 180 at least 90% of the children. The main reason for not completing a BPT was exhaustion^{17,18}. 181 182 For the 78 children who completed the BPT by methacholine at baseline, the test was positive in 76% and the median provocation dose was 0.14mg. Eighty-two completed the 183 BPT by mannitol, of whom 28% tested positive. The median provocation dose was 635 mg. 184 185 Of the 76 children who completed the BPT by exercise, the median fall of FEV_1 was 8% predicted. The test was positive (≥15% decrease in the FEV₁) in 18 (24%) children. SPT 186 187 was positive in 33 (39%) children and FeNO was positive in 35 (41%). Doctors diagnosed 62 (73%) children with asthma or episodic viral wheeze. The other children were mostly 188 189 diagnosed with cough not due to asthma or vocal cord dysfunction. At baseline, self-reported exercise-induced wheeze was associated with a positive exercise 190

191 test (p=0.022, E-table 2).

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193 Baseline factors associated with wheeze and frequent wheeze at follow-up

194 Four respiratory symptoms and one clinical test at baseline were associated with any wheeze at follow-up. Of the reported symptoms, frequent wheeze (>3 attacks) (OR 2.86, 195 95% CI 1.10-7.43), exercise-induced wheeze (3.07, 1.19-7.96), wheeze triggered by pets 196 197 (4.22, 1.21-14.76), and wheeze triggered by pollen (2.78, 1.11-6.98) were associated with 198 wheeze at follow-up. For the clinical tests, only a positive exercise test was significantly associated with wheeze seven years later (3.20, 1.05-9.70). Results remained very similar 199 after adjusting for age and sex (Table 3). When we repeated the analysis for children 200 201 diagnosed with asthma (N=62), we found mostly comparable results (E-table 3). However, associations tended to be less strong (lower odds ratios) in particular for exercise induced 202 203 wheeze (1.79, 0.58-5.48) and positive exercise test (2.00, 0.63-6.39)

Two respiratory symptoms were associated with *frequent wheeze* at follow-up. These were exercise-induced wheeze (OR 3.05, 95% CI 1.07-8.67) and wheeze triggered by pets (3.79, 1.15-12.48; E-table 4). None of the clinical test results were associated with frequent wheeze at follow-up.

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210 **Discussion**

211 Among school-aged children referred to a respiratory outpatient clinic for evaluation of wheeze, cough, or dyspnoea, 46% reported wheeze seven years later. Reported exercise-212 induced wheeze and wheeze triggered by pets or pollen at baseline predicted wheeze at 213 follow-up. Of the clinical tests, only a positive exercise challenge test predicted wheeze at 214 215 follow-up, but no more strongly than reported exercise-induced wheeze. When we repeated the analysis based on children with asthma only, associations were weaker, probably 216 217 because the same characteristics that predicted persistence (exercise induced wheeze, positive exercise test) had already been used by the clinicians to decide on a diagnosis of 218 219 asthma.

220 A few studies have examined the prediction of prognosis by clinical testing, but ours is the only study to have done this for so many clinical tests in school-aged children referred to a 221 222 respiratory outpatient clinic. We did not find an association between FEV₁ or bronchial 223 provocation test by methacholine at baseline and wheeze seven years later; previous studies have reported contradictory findings. Both the CAMP cohort of 909 children aged 5-224 12 years with diagnosed asthma and another Dutch clinical cohort study of 5-14 year-old 225 children diagnosed with asthma found that asthma persistence at ages 15-20 and 32-42, 226 respectively, was associated with decreased FEV₁ at school-age^{8,9}. In contrast, the 227 population-based Tasmanian cohort did not find an association between FEV₁ at age 7 and 228 wheeze persistence at age 29-32¹⁵. The CAMP study also found that a lower methacholine 229 provocation concentration was associated with asthma persistence from age 5-12 until age 230 15-20⁹. In contrast, the population based Dunedin cohort of 613 children reporting wheeze at 231 232 age 9 and a Norwegian cohort of 62 children reporting asthma at age 10, found that

233 bronchial provocation test by methacholine was not associated with persistence at age 26 and 16 respectively, which is in line with our findings^{12,28}. The Norwegian cohort did not find 234 bronchial provocation test by exercise to be associated with asthma persistence from age 10 235 to age 16, which is in contrast to the association we found²⁸. This heterogeneity between 236 237 studies could be because children with wheeze from population-based cohorts might have 238 milder disease than those in clinical studies. FeNO was not associated with wheeze persistence in children aged 6-16 years old suspected for asthma in our study. In contrast, 239 FeNO was reported to predict asthma in pre-school children with wheeze²⁹⁻³². To our 240 241 knowledge, no studies assess the predictive value of FeNO on wheeze persistence at school age. Available publications assessed the predictive value of FeNO on asthma control, 242 relapse or exacerbations in asthmatic children, but with a short follow-up³³⁻³⁶. 243 Our observation that frequent attacks of wheeze at school age predicted wheeze persistence 244 seven years later is in line with findings from the Melbourne and Tasmanian cohorts^{10,11}. In 245 contrast to their findings, we found no significant association between either eczema or hay 246 fever at baseline and wheeze persistence. This could be because those cohorts used 247 different outcomes—severe wheeze and atopic asthma, respectively—or simply because we 248 249 had low numbers and limited power.

A possible limitation of our study was that the bronchial provocation tests were done within a 250 short period of time. This could have influenced the methacholine test result, which was 251 performed after the exercise test on the same day and was positive in 76% of the children. 252 253 Most likely the bronchial provocation test by mannitol was not influenced by the short time 254 interval. We assured an appropriate interval of at least 24 hours without a change in respiratory health or medication in this time interval. A second limitation was the small 255 sample size, which limited statistical power and did not allow us to perform a multivariable 256 257 analysis including all symptoms and test results simultaneously. Adolescents might have 258 underreported respiratory symptoms, which might have led to an underestimation of the 259 proportion of adolescents with wheeze. However, since this underreporting is not likely to be

associated with symptoms or positive test results at baseline, this should not have influencedthe results relating to risk factors.

The main strength of our study is its clinical design, which reflects the typical mix of patients 262 in a paediatric outpatient clinic. All children were first-time referrals to the paediatric 263 264 respiratory clinic for evaluation of possible asthma. Therefore, the study population is 265 representative of daily clinical work, in contrast to many clinical studies that selectively include well-defined moderate to severe asthmatics and leave out patients with unclear 266 degrees of airway reactivity. Our study also profited from a very detailed baseline 267 268 examination. Children in the study had an extensive array of examinations for lung function, BPT and allergy, which allowed us to assess the contribution of clinical tests in predicting 269 270 long-term wheeze in addition to reported symptoms among those referred for evaluation of 271 possible asthma.

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273 Conclusion

This study is an initial step towards finding out whether clinical tests can predict wheeze later in life. Though clinical tests might be important for asthma diagnosis, our results suggest that they do not strongly predict prognosis of wheeze. In contrast, our data underline the importance of a detailed history, as school-age children reporting exercise-related wheeze and wheeze triggered by allergens were at higher risk and thus might profit from more frequent follow-up.

280

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288

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294 Author contributions

295 Claudia Kuehni and Jürg Barben conceptualised and designed the study. Daniel Trachsel

and Jürg Barben supervised data collection. Carmen de Jong analysed the data and drafted

the manuscript. Eva Pedersen and Myrona Goutaki supported the statistical analysis and

298 gave input for interpretation of the data. All authors critically revised the manuscript and

approved the final manuscript as submitted.

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402 Supplementary data

- 403 E-table 1 Comparison of characteristics of the children included in the follow-up study and
 404 the children that did not take part in the follow-up study
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- 406 E-table 2 Association between reported exercise-induced wheeze and exercise test result at
 407 baseline N=76
- 409 E-table 3 Association between baseline factors and wheeze at follow-up in children with410 diagnosed asthma
- **E-table 4** Association between baseline factors and frequent wheeze at follow up 413
- **E-figure 1** Flowchart of patient recruitment at baseline and follow-up
- **E-text**: methods of clinical tests
- **Supplementary questionnaire 1**: Baseline questionnaire in German (original)
- 418 Supplementary questionnaire 2: Baseline questionnaire in English
- **Supplementary questionnaire 3**: Follow-up questionnaire in German (original)
- **Supplementary questionnaire 4**: Follow-up questionnaire in English