

Current Controversies in Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD), 2018

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Abstract

Research demonstrates that Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD) is not only preventable, but treatable. Despite these efforts, COPD continues to claim many lives, and disable many more, without any cure in sight. Our inability to reverse the devastating course of COPD is in part due to the fact that it is often recognized late, after the disease has advanced. In addition, COPD is a complex disease with protean pulmonary and non-pulmonary manifestations punctuated by episodic escalations of respiratory symptoms in a predominately older patient population with multiple comorbidities.

The major objective of the Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease (GOLD) is to improve the diagnosis, assessment and prevention of COPD by increasing awareness while simultaneously stimulating new research. GOLD publishes an annual report that provides recommendations, however, it is clear that some major issues regarding COPD management are not certain, and that limited or contradictory data exists in important areas that requires further information to guide recommendations. The GOLD scientific committee recently conducted a public forum where controversial topics were discussed to define the current gaps in knowledge regarding the diagnosis, assessment and treatment of COPD. Herein, we summarize the results of that discussion.

Introduction

Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD) is a preventable and treatable worldwide leading cause of morbidity and mortality that markedly increases healthcare costs. Smoking cessation, vaccinations, supplemental oxygen for hypoxemic patients and lung volume reduction surgery in selected patients all improve survival; smoking cessation also attenuates disease progression. Several inhaled, oral and systemically administered drugs improve lung function, decrease the frequency and severity of COPD exacerbations and improve patient's quality of life. Pulmonary rehabilitation, noninvasive ventilation and lung volume reduction also improve outcomes in selected patients. Despite these efforts, COPD continues to claim many lives, and disable many more. COPD is a complex process with protean pulmonary and non-pulmonary manifestations punctuated by episodic escalations of respiratory symptoms in a predominately older patient population with multiple comorbid conditions.

Bridging Knowledge gaps in COPD

The GOLD scientific committee conducted a public forum where controversial topics were discussed to define current gaps in our knowledge. These topics included: 1) diagnosis and assessment; 2) risk factors for disease development; 3) advances in treatment of the stable patient and; 4) the assessment and treatment of exacerbations. This manuscript summarizes that discussion and provides information about current research needs.

Diagnosis and Assessment of COPD

Is airflow limitation essential to diagnose and treat COPD?

COPD comprises a complex and heterogeneous group of entities caused by different agents acting through various pathobiological processes. COPD appears to be more a syndrome than a single disease, however, all processes lead to a common physiological endpoint, airflow limitation, measured as the forced expiratory volume expired during the first second (FEV₁). Labeling the disease as "obstructive" distinguishes COPD from other respiratory diseases that cause similar symptoms. Spirometric "obstruction" remains despite administration of inhaled bronchodilators, a feature that differentiates COPD from asthma.

Spirometric determined airflow limitation is required to diagnose COPD. (1) Recent studies reported respiratory symptoms in smokers without obstructed spirometry.(2, 3) Their symptoms were severe enough to impact on their quality of life scores and were associated with exacerbation like events. Thus, the question arises as to whether these subjects suffer from

COPD, and if so, would it be possible to diagnose COPD without the presence of obstructive spirometry? A recent proposal for an updated taxonomy of COPD suggests the term of Pre-COPD for subjects with these characteristics.(4) While these issues remain unsettled, there is agreement that subjects at risk (history of smoking, environmental exposure or family history of respiratory diseases) and those with respiratory symptoms of dyspnea, cough and sputum production are candidates for spirometry to help determine the physiological presence and severity of airflow limitation.

Key points:

The persistence of respiratory symptoms and airflow limitation are key to the diagnosis of COPD. Future work needs to determine the prognosis and response to treatment of at risk individuals who have persistent respiratory symptoms without airflow obstruction.

What symptoms are pivotal in the assessment and treatment of patients with COPD?

The 2017 GOLD Report states that the most common respiratory symptoms are dyspnea, cough and/or sputum production; however, dyspnea on exertion is the most dominant one. (5, 6) Several scales can quantify the severity of symptoms. The modified Medical Research Council (mMRC), Borg, and baseline dyspnea and transitional dyspnea index (BDI/TDI) measure dyspnea. The Saint George's Respiratory Questionnaire (SGRQ), COPD assessment test (CAT), and chronic respiratory questionnaire (CRQ) evaluate overall health status, including dyspnea. (7) The 2017 GOLD Report suggests to base pharmacological treatment on symptom load and exacerbation risk except in cases with a marked discordance between airflow limitation and perceived symptoms. In those cases, a detailed evaluation should be performed with full lung function tests, computed tomography, exercise tests and examination for comorbidities to explain any discordant findings.

Key Points:

Dyspnea on exertion is the most frequently reported symptom, but it is not COPD-specific indicating that other diagnoses need to be considered.

Role of chest imaging in the diagnosis and treatment of COPD

Patients with COPD usually suffer from combinations of emphysema and small airways abnormalities which explains why patients with similar degrees of airflow obstruction have marked differences in symptoms, quality of life and survival. Computed tomographic (CT) imaging provides *in-vivo* assessments of organ structure and suggests that CT imaging could identify clinically relevant subtypes of COPD with variable treatment responses.

An example of the clinical utility of thoracic imaging in COPD is demonstrated by lung volume reduction surgery (LVRS) evaluation. The National Emphysema Treatment Trial (NETT) compared LVRS vs optimal medical therapy in severe emphysematous COPD patients.(8) While there was no overall benefit from LVRS, a subset of patients with upper zone predominant emphysema on CT scan and low exercise capacity experienced a reduction in symptoms and improved survival after LVRS.

Subjects with normal spirometry can have significant emphysema and gas trapping on expiratory CT scan as well as airway wall thickening and small airways abnormalities.(2, 3) Image based investigations are also exploring the non-pulmonary manifestations of smoking related injury such as osteoporosis, atherosclerosis and metabolic syndrome.

Imaging has broadened our conceptualization of COPD to encompass a spectrum of smoking related conditions including parenchymal inflammation and fibrotic lung disease.(9) In addition, imaging and pathological studies have suggested that small airway injury may be accompanied by inflammatory overspill to the surrounding alveoli leading to remodeling, and centrilobular emphysema.(10-12)

Image based investigations demonstrate that both airway dilation and macrovasculature pruning independently predict worse clinical outcomes.(13-15) These latter findings, including regional changes in microvascular perfusion (16), suggest that pulmonary vascular disease affects parenchymal remodeling.

Key points

Chest CT characterizes the structure of the airways, lung parenchyma and pulmonary vasculature and can phenotype COPD patients. Further research is needed to determine if chest imaging can guide COPD therapies.

Risk factors for the development of COPD

Host factors (Genetic factors and childhood illnesses)

A recent study reported variable lung function trajectories leading to COPD in late adulthood.(17) Approximately half of adults diagnosed with COPD had an accelerated rate of lung function decline, the other half did not. The latter group already had low lung function in early adulthood suggesting that abnormal lung development (in utero and after birth) is a risk factor for COPD in adulthood. (18, 19)

Lung development is highly complex and influenced by multiple genetic and/or in-utero or post-natal environmental factors, including passive smoking, poor nutrition and repeated infections. (20) These factors can compromise development of other organ systems. (21) A recent study showed that 4–13% of the general population had low lung function ($FEV_1 < 80\%$ predicted) in early adulthood and a higher prevalence and premature incidence of respiratory, cardiovascular, metabolic abnormalities and mortality.(22) Furthermore, there was evidence of trans-generational reproducibility.(22, 23)

Key points:

Childhood disorders, a diagnosis of asthma, repeated airway infections, and host factors (premature birth, prenatal and perinatal circumstances) can impair lung development that may contribute to COPD in the adult.

Biomass Exposure vs. active and passive cigarette smoking

Smoking is the greatest contributor to COPD burden in countries with a higher socio-demographic development index (SDI); environmental (biomass exposure) and occupational risks predominate in low-middle or low SDI countries.

Approximately 50% of households worldwide (3 billion people) and 90% of rural households in low income countries use biomass fuel as their main domestic energy source.(24) In low SDI quintile countries, women, young girls, and children have long biomass exposure. In China, mortality due to COPD caused by biomass smoke exposure is similar to mortality due to tobacco smoking.(25) Exposure to biomass fumes increases the odds of COPD by 2.3-fold. This

is similar to cigarette smoking (OR, 2.12-3.77) (26) and higher than that reported from second hand smoke exposure (OR, 1.48).(27) Combined tobacco smoking and biomass smoke exposure has an OR of 4.39 [3.4-5.7] versus 2.55 [2.0-3.1] for biomass smoke alone.(28) Increased ventilation, improved stove design and low-emission fuel use can decrease or prevent biomass exposures. Smoking bans increase quit rates and reduce harm from second-hand smoke exposure. (29)

Exposures to cigarette and biomass smoke cause different COPD phenotypes. Women with COPD from tobacco exposure have more emphysema than those exposed to biomass fumes who have more air trapping and less respiratory symptoms. (30, 31)

Key points:

Besides cigarette smoking, environmental factors (i.e., biomass fuel, poor air quality and occupational exposures) contribute to COPD development. The following needs to be determined: the extent of exposure required to initiate and perpetuate lung disease progression, the differences between COPD induced by cigarette smoking vs biomass exposure, and the best preventative measures that improve clinical outcomes.

Risk factors for the development of COPD: childhood and adolescent asthma

Increased knowledge about the risk factors leading to different lung function trajectories may prompt preventative strategies. Several lung function cohort studies report that lung function “tracks” throughout life and that patients with persistent wheeze and a diagnosis of asthma have diminished lung function that becomes evident in early adulthood. (32-35) Other early life factors associated with lower FEV₁ in adulthood included maternal, paternal, and childhood asthma, severe childhood respiratory infection, and maternal smoking. (36) These “Childhood Disadvantage Factors” were associated with decline in FEV₁ similar to smoking 10–20 cigarettes per day.

The Childhood Asthma Management Program (CAMP) reported that in children recruited (ages 5 and 12 years), 75% had abnormal lung growth patterns: normal growth/early decline (26%); reduced growth only (23%); reduced growth/early decline (26%). (37) Risk factors for abnormal growth and decline were lower lung function at enrollment and male sex. Eleven percent of patients in this cohort met GOLD criteria for COPD, particularly those with a reduced lung

growth pattern. Data from the Tucson Children's Respiratory Study showed that approximately 10% of their subjects had a low lung function trajectory. (19) These subjects had a higher incidence of active asthma, mothers with asthma, lower lung function in infancy, and RSV infections in early life. (38, 39)

Key points:

Airway abnormalities that occur early in life and/or the diagnosis of childhood asthma, may precipitate a lower trajectory of lung function that increases the risk of developing COPD in the adult.

Impact of gender on COPD development

COPD prevalence is increasing more rapidly in women than men. (40) In some countries, female COPD-related deaths now surpass men. Gender encompasses not just differences in disease biology but also differences in environmental exposures and psychosocial factors that affect disease development. Females achieve peak lung function earlier than males (15 vs. 22 years). Yet, both start smoking at the same age, suggesting that the impact of smoking in a mature (females) or immature (males) lung may be different. (41)

Women are more susceptible than men to develop COPD with tobacco exposure.(42) A meta-analysis of studies examining the annual decline in FEV₁% predicted in smokers, observed significantly faster annual lung function declines in women than men.(43) Women are over-represented in the subset of COPD patients with severe disease despite lower tobacco smoke exposure (< 20 pack years) and also in patients under the age of 60.(44) Female ex-smokers are at increased risk for airflow obstruction after 10 pack-years exposure as compared to 19 pack-years for men (Figure 1).(45)

Potential causes of sex differences in tobacco susceptibility include differences in metabolism, hormonal influences, lung anatomy, inhalation technique, or a dose exposure since females' lungs are smaller than males.

Sex differences are also apparent in non-tobacco related COPD. Women comprise the majority of patients with COPD who have never smoked; possibly because women have greater biomass exposure through cooking and domestic responsibilities. Less than 1% of women in India smoke yet, non-smokers constitute 65% of all female patients who meet spirometric criteria for COPD. Women exposed to biomass fuel during childhood have greater risk for

COPD than those exposed later (OR 2.9 vs 1.3). The Canadian chronic obstructive lung disease (CanCOLD) study demonstrated that exposures to passive smoke and biomass fuels was an independent risk factor for women to develop COPD.(46)

Sex may influence the response to smoking cessation therapies. In the Lung Health Study (LHS) women who became sustained quitters had 2.3 times greater improvement in lung function compared to men.(47) The LHS also demonstrated that fewer women were able to achieve smoking cessation. A large, national community study in Canada suggests women who smoke have higher nicotine addiction levels than their male counterparts.(48)

Women, may also differ in response to other therapies. Pooled analyses of indacaterol/glycopyrronium studies reported greater quality of life improvements in women versus men.(49)

Key points:

COPD prevalence is increasing more rapidly in women than men. In some countries female COPD-related deaths surpass those in men. Women are more susceptible to tobacco smoke and may have greater lung function improvement with smoking cessation than men. More research is needed to determine the impact of gender on these issues.

Aging and COPD

Theories of aging fall into two main categories: programmed and damage theories.(50) Programmed theories implies aging follows a biological timetable, similar to processes that regulate childhood growth and development. In contrast, damage theories emphasize aging derives from environmental assaults inducing injury and cellular and molecular DNA damage. COPD fits well with damage theories of aging since cigarette smoke, noxious fumes and dusts, increase oxidative stress that cause DNA damage.

The prevalence of COPD increases with age, from 3.2% among those aged 18–44 years to 11.6% among those aged ≥ 65 years, increasing two-fold for every 10-year increment above age 40. The diagnosis of COPD in the elderly can be difficult since some patients are unable to perform adequate spirometry. In the SARA study only 78% of elderly subjects (> 65 years) could perform reproducible spirometry. (51)

The amount of used medications coupled with cognitive dysfunction impacts adherence. Scoring less than 24 on the Mini-Mental State Examination carries a very high risk of inhaler device failure. (52) Age and gender are more important determinants of inspiratory flow through dry powder inhalers (DPIs) than the degree of airway obstruction. (53)

Elderly COPD patients are more prone to drug side effects including: an increased risk for pneumonia with the use of ICS, urinary obstruction with inhaled anticholinergics, theophylline toxicity due to reduced metabolism despite therapeutic levels.

Polypharmacy is common in the elderly. A population study of 191,005 elderly COPD patients > 66 years old in Canada found that newly prescribed long-acting inhaled β -agonists and anticholinergics had a higher risk of hospitalization or ED visit for a cardiovascular event compared with non-use of those medications. (54)

Key points:

COPD may be considered a disease of accelerated aging that disproportionately afflicts the elderly. Current PFT reference standards may over diagnose airflow obstruction in the elderly. COPD disproportionately impacts the elderly due to more comorbid conditions, impaired cognition and difficulties with proper inhaled therapy. More research is needed to understand the impact of COPD in the elderly.

Treatment of COPD

Is personalized treatment a viable goal?

Phenotyping patients with COPD advances an understanding of the pathogenesis of COPD and the risks and benefits of various therapies. Multiple large observational trials have enhanced the phenotyping of the COPD population. ECLIPSE, BODE, COPDGENE, CanCOLD and SPIROMICS are efforts to explore the unique features of COPD and the demographic, physiological and radiological features that better characterize COPD sub-groups. (55-59)

Symptom burden and smoking status regardless of the presence or degree of airflow obstruction, affects the response to inhaled therapies.(60) The degree of hypoxemia influences the response to chronic supplemental oxygen and the persistence of significant hypercapnia

signals the response to noninvasive ventilation.(1) Physiological characterization of hyperinflation coupled with the presence of intact fissures differentiates patients' responses to bronchoscopic lung reduction.(61, 62) Absolute number and % of blood eosinophils, predicts exacerbation risk, and the response to systemic and inhaled corticosteroids and anti-L-5 antagonists.(63-66) New tests that assess biological mechanisms (e.g. endotypes) may identify the presence of treatable traits regardless of the clinical labeling of the disease (e.g., asthma vs COPD) and foster the use of precision medicine in treating patients with COPD.(67)

These data suggest that phenotypic characterization of COPD patients is critically important to assess the subsets of patients with COPD more likely to respond to a therapy and better balance clinical benefit over risk.

Key points:

Phenotypic characterization of patients with COPD has implications for the approach to selected treatments. Research is needed to discover tools that can enhance phenotypic characterization, especially in the area of blood biomarkers for the diagnosis, prognosis and response to therapy.

Maximal bronchodilation at initiation of therapy vs progressive bronchodilation?

Inhaled bronchodilators improve lung function, activity-related dyspnea, exercise tolerance and perceived health status. (1) Bronchodilator choices should be individualized and based on assessment of physiological impairment, symptom burden, and exacerbation risk. These three factors, together with drug safety, cost and patients' preference for device and medication, helps clinicians chose the best treatment for an individual patient. The question arises what is best?: 1) progressive escalation of bronchodilator therapy or 2) "maximizing" bronchodilator therapy with dual bronchodilator therapy, ab initio. The rationale for the latter is that optimal, sustained, reversal of abnormal respiratory mechanics is best achieved by combining bronchodilator classes that work on different pathways: long-acting anti-muscarinic (LAMA) and Beta-2 agonist (LABA). Conversely, does the onset of dual bronchodilator therapy substantially increase the risk of side effects compared to use of a single agent?

It seems reasonable that in patients with significant symptom burden, effective sustained 24-hour bronchodilation and lung deflation should be the primary goal. Two recent meta-analyses of seven studies (68, 69) show that dual LAMA/LABA FDC provide significantly greater

improvements in spirometry, lung hyperinflation, activity-related dyspnea, exercise tolerance, and health-related quality of life than the constituent monocomponents. In many patients, respiratory mechanics progressively worsen during sleep, therefore effective night-time bronchodilation should help alleviate evening and early morning symptoms. (70) (71) Dual LABA/LAMA FDC prescribed twice daily can achieve superior nocturnal and early morning bronchodilation than LAMA alone.(70, 72) (60)

The choice of bronchodilator initiation therapy (“maximal” or progressive) in less severely affected patients is more problematic given the paucity of clinical trials in this sub-population. However, many patients under-report their symptoms of exertional dyspnea because of successful temporal adaptation to their insidious disability and habitual avoidance of physical activity. These patients can have impaired pulmonary gas exchange and significant resting and exercise lung hyperinflation. Given that lung hyperinflation is linked to increased mortality and risk of severe exacerbations, initiation of dual FDC treatment may be a reasonable first choice for these patients.

If a single agent is chosen, evidence supports using a LAMA (tiotropium) since it improves lung function (including FEV₁ decline) and quality of life scores even in patients with mild COPD with minimal symptoms. (73)

Key points: Dual bronchodilators improve symptoms, increase physical activity, slow disease progression, reduce exacerbations and provide effective sustained 24-hour bronchodilation and lung deflation. More research is needed to determine the patient profile and disease stage where long acting bronchodilators and their combinations should be initiated and maintained to maximize patient outcome.

What is the role of inhaled corticosteroids (ICS) in the therapy of COPD?

The sole use of ICS to treat patients with COPD is discouraged because of its limited effect on lung function, potential for side effects and association with increased mortality in the TORCH trial when compared with an ICS/LABA combination. However, when ICS is combined with LABA in patients with a history of prior exacerbations, or concomitant asthma and COPD, there

is a consistent effect on exacerbation reduction. Combined ICS/LABA is more effective than the individual components in improving lung function, health status and reducing exacerbations (74, 75)

Patients with moderate and severe COPD are commonly treated with “triple therapy”, either combination ICS/LABA and a long-active anticholinergic (LAMA) or newly approved triple combinations in a single inhaler because they improve symptoms, lung function(76), quality of life, and reduce exacerbation frequency with a potential improvement in survival.(66, 76, 77), particularly when compared to LAMA (77) or LABA/LAMA combinations. (66, 78)

ICS have side-effects such as pneumonia, skin thinning and bruising, bone fractures (79) and oropharyngeal candidiasis. (80) In a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials, the risk of pneumonia increased in patients receiving ICS at doses > 1000 µg of beclomethasone equivalent/day (OR 1.56, [1.30 to 1.86]) (81) This excess risk has also been confirmed using fluticasone furoate, even at lower doses. Immune suppression may be involved to link ICS use with the increased risk of tuberculosis and non-tuberculous mycobacterial disease. (82)

Switching patients at low risk of COPD exacerbations from LABA+ICS to LABA alone did not affect symptoms or health status or COPD exacerbation rates over 1 year. (83) A systematic review found no evidence that withdrawing ICS results in a deterioration in outcomes (84), other than a modest decrease in FEV₁ (of the order 40 mL). (85, 86)

Key points:

ICS have been predominately used in COPD patients as combination therapy (with LABA or LABA/LAMA) for exacerbation prevention. Although combinations of ICS with long acting bronchodilators have reduced exacerbation frequency and severity and improved quality of life and lung function, its effect on mortality remains unclear. Ongoing and recently completed studies evaluating the impact of ICS combined with LABA or LABA/LAMA will hopefully expand our knowledge about the risks and benefits of ICS use in patients with COPD. (66, 77, 78, 87)

Peripheral eosinophils are a useful biomarker in COPD

Some COPD patients have eosinophilic airway inflammation when stable (88) and during exacerbations. (89) Sampling the airways is time-consuming, and the potential of blood eosinophils as a more practical COPD biomarker has been investigated. A population study showed that patients with eosinophil counts >340 cells/ μ L had increased exacerbations. (90) However, two long-term cohort studies (91, 92) found no increased risk of moderate-severe exacerbations when a threshold of $\geq 2\%$ blood eosinophils was used. (90) Analyses of the COPDgene and ECLIPSE cohorts showed increased risk of exacerbations in patients with >300 eosinophils/ μ L, primarily driven by the subgroup with ≥ 2 exacerbations in the prior year. While blood eosinophil counts have utility to predict exacerbations in high risk patients, diverse results are reported from studies with patients at low risk or on an CS. While some studies show that increased blood eosinophils are associated with better lung function, quality of life (93) and reduced mortality (92, 94), these findings are not consistent. In contrast, eosinopenia (count $<0.05 \times 10^9/L$) is associated with sepsis (95), worse outcomes in patients hospitalized with exacerbation (96, 97), and increased pneumonia risk. (63)

Several post-hoc and pre-specified analyses of clinical trials report that the effects of ICS on exacerbations can be predicted by blood eosinophil counts, either for ICS/LABA vs. LABA (64, 98) or triple therapy vs. LABA/LAMA (77, 78, 87). A pooled analysis (n=4528) showed that ICS benefits were observed at >100 eosinophils/ μ L with greater effects seen at higher eosinophil levels. (99) These analyses suggest that a low eosinophil threshold (such as <100 eosinophils/ μ L) may be a negative predictor of ICS effects, while a higher threshold (such as >300 eosinophils/ μ L) suggests that ICS will be beneficial. A post-hoc analysis of two studies (100) (101) supports this statement. Additionally, trials with mepolizumab (anti-IL-5) reported that exacerbation reduction (63) was greatest in patients with eosinophil counts >300 cells/ mm^3 .

There have been concerns regarding the reproducibility of blood eosinophils in COPD patients. (102) While there can be considerable variability at higher levels (e.g. >300 eosinophils/ μ L), (92) (102) the reproducibility at lower levels appears acceptable. (103)

Key points:

There is evolving evidence that blood eosinophil levels may be associated with important outcomes in patients with COPD. Although the eosinophil has promise as a biomarker in patients with COPD, more work conducted within prospective and controlled trials is

needed to understand the role and practical value of measuring eosinophils in patients with COPD.

Exacerbations of COPD

A new definition of COPD exacerbations is needed?

The first definition of COPD exacerbation focused exclusively on three cardinal symptoms, “worsening of shortness of breath, sputum production and/or sputum purulence.” (104) Eleven years later, an event-driven definition was introduced, “a worsening of COPD symptoms requiring changes to normal treatment, including antimicrobial therapy, short courses of oral steroids, and other bronchodilator therapy, with the aim to assess the efficacy of ICS to prevent COPD exacerbations”. (105) A subsequent consensus conference defined exacerbation as “an acute event characterized by a worsening of the patient’s respiratory symptoms that is beyond normal day-to-day variations and necessitates a change in regular medication, in a patient with underlying COPD.” (106) The definition was later refined as: “may warrant a change in regular medication” to acknowledge that exacerbations often go unreported (107).

The consensus definition is the most quoted definition because it integrates the clinical worsening of an acute event with a change in the regular treatment for COPD. It also grades mild to severe conditions based on management and prompts consideration for other events that mimic an acute exacerbation. These events may be pulmonary (i.e., pneumonia, pulmonary thromboembolism) or cardiac in nature, (i.e., congestive heart failure, arrhythmias). (108)

A recent study (109) used multi-level network analysis to investigate pathobiological mechanisms of exacerbations and biomarkers. The main findings were: (1) exacerbations represent a disruption of the network observed during convalescence, indicating less resilience and homeostasis during exacerbations; and, (2) a panel of biomarkers (i.e., increased levels of dyspnea, circulating neutrophils and C-reactive protein (CRP)) has a high predictive value for the diagnosis (AUC 0.97). These hypotheses need to be explored in future studies. (110)

Key points:

Current definitions of exacerbations of COPD are limited by the subjective and variable nature of symptoms defining their occurrence. The lack of an objective biomarker that

indicates the onset and severity of an exacerbation is a major limitation . An easy to use objective definition of exacerbation that incorporates symptom change with biomarker characterization is needed.

Determining the cause of exacerbations: does it matter?

COPD exacerbations increase hospitalizations, impair quality of life, worsen lung function and increase mortality. Most exacerbations are attributed to respiratory infections (50-70%), including bacteria, atypical organisms and respiratory viruses.(111) Except for influenza, there is no specific anti-viral treatment. Viral infections may also precipitate secondary bacterial infections.(112) Many patients require antibiotics and systemic corticosteroids to treat an acute exacerbation. A systematic review of placebo-controlled studies shows that antibiotics reduce short-term mortality by 77%, treatment failure by 53% and sputum purulence by 44% during acute exacerbations. (113) Another systematic review of placebo-controlled studies reports that systemic corticosteroids reduce the risk of treatment failure by 50% but increase side effects by 200%. (114)

Biomarkers have been used to phenotype exacerbations. Levels of C reactive protein (CRP) demonstrate contradictory findings and are often elevated in both bacterial and viral infections. A recent meta-analysis reports that procalcitonin-based protocols (indicative of bacterial infections) can decrease antibiotic prescription (RR 0.56, 95% CI 0.43–0.73) without adversely affecting clinical outcomes.(115) Whether procalcitonin based protocols are cost effective or improve outcomes remains unknown.

COPD exacerbations must be differentiated from other conditions like myocardial infarction, CHF, pulmonary embolism, and pneumonia which may present similarly. However, therapeutic options remain limited beyond antibiotics and systemic corticosteroids.

Key points:

The cause of a COPD exacerbation is needed to institute appropriate treatment. Current treatment of acute exacerbations is limited to administration of short acting bronchodilators, glucocorticoids and antibiotics. Novel, more effective agents are needed to treat the infectious, inflammatory and oxidative stress states that occur during an acute exacerbation.

Exacerbations can be totally prevented?

The GOLD 2017 Report lists interventions other than inhaled medications that can reduce the frequency of exacerbations (1)

Chronic macrolide use has been recommended for some COPD patients. Among selected subjects, azithromycin taken daily for one year decreases exacerbation frequency by 27%, but causes hearing loss and induces changes in microbial resistance patterns. (116) Accordingly, reduction in the frequency of azithromycin use has been suggested (e.g., 3 times weekly), and monitoring of macrolide resistance is warranted.

Roflumilast can decrease exacerbations in patients who have severe COPD whether on ICS, bronchodilators, or both. (117, 118) These benefits were primarily in patients with cough and sputum production. Although its side effects are important (nausea, vomiting and weight loss), it has a role in selected patients.

Mucoregulators have been studied in COPD. The frequency of COPD exacerbations with a high dose of oral N-acetylcysteine (NAC) was lower than placebo during the year of study (119); similarly, NAC treatment was more effective in GOLD-2 than in GOLD-3 patients (120). Carbocysteine induced a 25% reduction in exacerbations. (121) However, due to heterogeneity in the studied populations, these results were unable to identify a target population.

Low-dose theophylline has potential anti-inflammatory benefits that may help prevent exacerbations. (122) Low-dose slow-release theophylline (100 mg, b.i.d.) in a randomized trial significantly delayed the time to the first exacerbation, however in another trial, theophylline on top of LABA+ICS did not impact exacerbation rate. (123) Because of side effects, theophylline remains a 4th line drug for exacerbation prevention.

Key points:

Inhaled and oral agents can prevent exacerbations. However, none of these agents are potent enough to totally eradicate exacerbations. Because even one exacerbation in a fragile patient can be life threatening, future research must identify more effective treatments.

Treatment of exacerbations is currently adequate?

Short acting bronchodilators, such as inhaled beta₂-agonists and short-acting anticholinergics, are the initial bronchodilators for acute treatment of COPD exacerbation. A systematic review of the route of delivery of short-acting bronchodilators found no significant differences in FEV₁ between using metered dose inhalers (MDI) (with or without a spacer device) or nebulizers to deliver the agent.(124) Studies have shown that systemic glucocorticoids in COPD exacerbations improve lung function (FEV₁), decrease early relapse, treatment failure and hospitalization duration. (125) (126) (127)Whereas older studies used larger doses of corticosteroids, recent studies report that a lower dose for 5 days may be sufficient.(128) Oral steroid therapy is equally effective to intravenous administration. (129)

A systematic review of the placebo-controlled studies reported that antibiotics reduce the risk of short-term mortality, treatment failure, and prolonged the interval between exacerbations. (113, 130) Antibiotic choice should be based on local bacterial resistance pattern; initial empirical treatment is usually an aminopenicillin with or without clavulanic acid, macrolide, or tetracycline. Route of administration (oral or intravenous) depends on swallowing function and pharmacokinetics of the antibiotic. The recommended length of antibiotic therapy is 5-7 days.

A major impediment to improving outcomes in exacerbation is that the pharmacological treatment has not substantially changed over the last 4 decades.

Key points:

Treatment of COPD exacerbation has not substantially changed over the past several decades. Objective biomarkers that capture the totality of the event from a mechanistic level (inflammatory and injury) is needed.

Is non-pulmonary treatment useful in the prevention of acute exacerbations ?

Although the lung is the primary target organ, smoking affects other organs due to generalized injury (131-133). It is possible that changes caused by COPD per se (such as hypoxemia, chronic systemic inflammation, increased oxidative stress levels and hyperinflation) contribute to the progression of non-pulmonary organ injury.

Management of patients with COPD must include identification and treatment of other concomitant diseases. The presence of comorbidities should not alter COPD treatment, and concomitant diseases should be treated according to single disease guidelines regardless of COPD. Simplicity of treatment and avoidance of gross polypharmacy should be ensured.

Non-pulmonary diseases that afflict COPD patients includes cardiovascular, peripheral vascular disease, bronchiectasis, asthma, sleep apnea, interstitial lung diseases, pulmonary hypertension, obesity, diabetes, osteoporosis, GERD, chronic liver disease, anemia and renal failure. Of particular importance are congestive heart failure, atrial fibrillation, coronary artery disease, depression, anxiety and lung cancer, all occur more frequently in patients with COPD than those without COPD. Their presence significantly increases the risk of death.(134)

In patients hospitalized for COPD, pulmonary rehabilitation post hospitalization may prevent re-hospitalization and even reduce mortality.

Key points:

Comorbidities are common in patients with COPD and can mimic the symptoms of an acute exacerbation. Comorbid conditions are difficult to discover at times and high vigilance is needed to detect and treat them optimally. Post hospitalization rehabilitation improves outcomes and needs to be more accessible.

Summary

Although much progress has been made over the past several decades with the diagnosis, assessment and treatment of patients with COPD, many questions remain unanswered. The issues discussed above outline areas that require active research to discover new characterization tools, biological targets and better preventive and therapeutic measures. Particular attention should be given to events in early life to avoid developmental impairment that results in chronic airflow obstruction in adulthood. Concerted multidisciplinary efforts by academia, clinicians, pharma companies, society and patients are needed to help slow the high worldwide burden of COPD.

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