

COPD Common yet underdiagnosed Hamdi Turkey - Pulmonologist



At the end of this lecture the student should known the following:

- * The new GOLD definition of COPD
- * The pathophysiology of COPD
- * The risk factors for developing COPD
- * clinical manifestation and how to mange a case with COPD
- * The new GOLD classification of severity of COPD (2014)
- * The new GOLD treatment guidelines for the treatment of COPD

Burden of COPD

•The WHO estimates 1.1 billion smoker worldwide, increasing to 1.6 billion by 2025 in low&middle-income countries.

COPD is the 4th leading cause of death in the United States (behind heart disease, cancer, and cerebrovascular disease).

In 2000, the WHO estimated 2.74 million deaths worldwide from COPD.

In 1990, COPD was ranked 12th as a burden of disease; by 2020 it is projected to rank 5th.

67 Year old Male with shortness Of Breath with exertion



Your patient is a 67 year old male who complains of progressively worsening shortness of breath with exertion over the last year. He currently smokes half a pack of cigarettes daily and has accumulated 45 pack years. He uses a short acting beta agonist 3-4 times a day with limited relief. He is no longer able to ride a bike with his grandchildren. His last hospitalization was 4 months ago secondary to right lower lobe pneumonia. He

does not complain of weight loss or loss of appetite.

He has a past medical history of dietary controlled diabetes and mild osteoarthtitis. Medications include Albuterol and Celecoxib.

On exam respiratory rate is 22 per minute; chest exam reveals mild end expiratory wheezing without use of accessory muscles of respiration and no retractions. No clubbing, cyanosis or lower extremity edema is noted. Spirometry reveals an FVC of 78% predicted, FEV1 of 62% predicted and FEV1/FVC of 68%, post bronchodilator.

Leading causes of death in the USA, 1998	Number
Heart disease	724,269
Cancer	538,947
Cerebrovascular disease (stroke)	158,060
Respiratory diseases (COPD)	114,381
Accidents	94,828
Pneumonia and influenza	93,207
Diabetes	64,574
Suicide	29,264
Nephritis	26,265
Chronic liver disease	24,936
All other causes of death	469,314



Definition

Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD) is a preventable and treatable disease with some significant extrapulmonary effects that may contribute to the severity in individual patients. Its pulmonary component is characterized by airflow limitation that is not fully reversible. The airflow limitation is usually progressive and associated with an abnormal inflammatory response of the lung to noxious particles or gases.

This definition <u>does not</u> use the terms chronic bronchitis and emphysema <u>and excludes</u> asthma (reversible airflow limitation).

- Airflow obstruction is defined as reduced FEV_1/FVC ratio (< 0.7)
- It is no longer necessary to have an $FEV_1 < 80\%$ predicted for definition of airflow obstruction
- If FEV₁ is ≥ 80% predicted, a diagnosis of COPD should only be made in the presence of respiratory symptoms, for example breathlessness or cough

• COPD produces symptoms, disability and impaired quality of life which may respond to pharmacological and other therapies that have limited or no impact on the airflow obstruction.

Mechanisms Underlying Airflow Limitation in COPD

Small Airways Disease

- Airway inflammation
- Airway fibrosis, luminal plugs
- Increased airway resistance

Parenchymal Destruction

- Loss of alveolar attachments
- Decrease of elastic recoil

AIRFLOW LIMITATION

Chronic bronchitis

Defined as the presence of cough and sputum production for at least 3 months in each of 2 consecutive years, is not necessarily associated with airflow limitation.

Emphysema

Defined as destruction of the alveoli, is a pathological term that is sometimes (incorrectly) used clinically.

Emphysema

Abnormal permanent enlargement of the air space distal to the terminal bronchioles

Accompanied by destruction of bronchioles



Diagnosis Of COPD Indicators for considering the diagnosis of COPD	
Chronic sputum production	Any pattern of sputum production may indicate COPD
Acute bronchitis	Repeated episodes
Dyspnea that is	Progressive, persistent, worse on exercise, worse during respiratory infections
History of exposure to risk factors	Smoke, biomass fuel, occupational dusts
The diagnosis should be confirmed by	

- COPD is predominantly caused by smoking and is characterised by airflow obstruction that:
 is not fully reversible
 - does not change markedly over several months
 - is usually progressive in the long term
- Exacerbations often occur, where there is a rapid and sustained worsening of symptoms beyond normal day-to-day variations requiring a change in treatment

Risk Factors for COPD

* Genes

- * Exposure to particles
- * Tobacco smoke
- * Occupational dusts, organic and inorganic
- * Indoor air pollution from heating and cooking with biomass in poorly ventilated dwellings
- * Outdoor air pollution

- * Lung growth and development
- * Gender
- * Age
- * Respiratory infections
- * Socioeconomic status
- * Asthma/Bronchial hyperreactivity
- * Chronic Bronchitis



Risk factors

Cigarette smoking

- **Primary cause of COPD*****
- Clinically significant airway obstruction develops in 15% of smokers
- 80% to 90% of COPD deaths are related to tobacco smoking
 - > 1 in 5 deaths is result of cigarette smoking

Cigarette smoking

- Nicotine stimulates sympathetic nervous system resulting in:
 - \uparrow HR
 - **Peripheral vasoconstriction**
 - \uparrow BP and cardiac workload

Cigarette smoking

- Compounds problems in a person with CAD
- \downarrow Ciliary activity
- Possible loss of ciliated cells
- > Abnormal dilation of the distal air space
- > Alveolar wall destruction
- Carbon monoxide
 - \downarrow **O**₂ carrying capacity
 - Impairs psychomotor performance and judgment
- Cellular hyperplasia
 - **Production of mucus**
 - Reduction in airway diameter
 - Increased difficulty in clearing secretions

Risk factor

Secondhand smoke exposure associated with:

- > ↓ Pulmonary function
- ↑ Mortality rates from ischemic heart disease

Infection

Major contributing factor to the aggravation and progression of COPD

Heredity

a-Antitrypsin (AAT) deficiency (produced by liver and found in lungs); accounts for < 1% of COPD cases

Emphysema results from lysis of lung tissues by proteolytic enzymes from neutrophils and macrophages

Pathophysiology of Chronic Bronchitis and Emphysema



Emphysema Pathophysiology

- > Hyperinflation of alveoli
- > Destruction of alveolar walls
- > Destruction of alveolar capillary walls
- Narrowed airways
- > Loss of lung elasticity
 - Two types:
 - **Centrilobular** (central part of lobule)
 - Most common

Panlobular (destruction of whole lobule)Usually associated with AAT deficiency

Emphysema Pathophysiology

Small bronchioles become obstructed as a result of Mucus Smooth muscle spasm Inflammatory process **Collapse of bronchiolar walls Recurrent infections** ____production/ stimulation of neutrophils and macrophages destruction _____ inflammation, exudate, and edema

Alveolar Destruction With Emphysema





Normal

Emphysema

Nagai A, Thurlbeck WM. Scanning electron microscopic observations of emphysema in humans. A descriptive study. Am Rev Respir Dis. 1991;144:901-908. Official Journal Of The American Thoracic Society American Lung Association. 4/6/04. Reprinted with permission.

Emphysema Pathophysiology

- Elastin and collagen are destroyed Air goes into the lungs but is unable to come out on its own and remains in the lung Causes bronchioles to collapse
 - ➤ Trapped air → hyperinflation and overdistention
 - > As more alveoli coalesce, blebs and bullae may develop
 - > Destruction of alveolar walls and capillaries \rightarrow reduced surface area for O₂ diffusion
 - Compensation is done by increasing respiratory rate to increase alveolar ventilation
 - > Hypoxemia usually develops late in disease

Chronic bronchitis Pathophysiology

Pathologic lung changes are:

- Hyperplasia of mucus-secreting glands in trachea and bronchi
- > Increase in goblet cells
- > Disappearance of cilia
- Chronic inflammatory changes and narrrowing of small airways
- > Altered function of alveolar macrophages _____ infections
- Greater resistance to airflow increases work of breathing
- Hypoxemia and hypercapnia develop more frequently in chronic bronchitis than emphysema

Chronic bronchitis Pathophysiology

Chronic inflammation

- Primary pathologic mechanism causing changes
- Narrow airway lumen and reduced airflow d/t
 - hyperplasia of mucus glands
 - Inflammatory swelling
 - Excess, thick mucus
- Bronchioles are clogged with mucus and pose a physical barrier to ventilation
- Hypoxemia and hypercapnia d/t lack of ventilation and O₂ diffusion
- Tendency to hypoventilate and retain CO₂
- Frequently patients require O₂ both at rest and during exercise

Damaging cycle of COPD



Figure 1: Key Indicators for Considering a COPD Diagnosis

Consider COPD, and perform spirometry, if any of these indicators are present in an individual over age 40. These indicators are not diagnostic themselves, but the presence of multiple key indicators increases the probability of a diagnosis of COPD.

 Dyspnea that is: Progressive (worsens over time). Usually worse with exercise.

> Persistent (present every day). Described by the patient as an "increased effort to breathe," "heaviness," "air hunger,"

or "gasping."

- Chronic cough: May be intermittent and may be unproductive.
- Chronic sputum production:

Any pattern of chronic sputum production may indicate COPD.

History of exposure to risk factors:

Tobacco smoke (including popular local preparations).

Occupational dusts and chemicals.

Smoke from home cooking and heating fuel.

Causes of death in COPD patients



Emphysema Clinical Manifestations

Dyspnea

- **Progresses in severity**
 - Patient will first complain of dyspnea on exertion and progress to interfering with ADLs and rest
- Minimal coughing with no to small amounts of sputum
- Overdistention of alveoli causes diaphragm to flatten and AP diameter to increase
- Patient becomes chest breather, relying on accessory muscles
 - **Ribs become fixed in inspiratory position**
- Patient is underweight (despite adequate calorie intake)

Chronic Bronchitis Clinical Manifestations

- > Earliest symptoms:
 - Frequent, productive cough during winter
 - **Frequent respiratory infections**
 - Bronchospasm at end of paroxysms of coughing
 - Cough
 - **Dyspnea on exertion**
 - History of smoking
 - Normal weight or overweight
 - Ruddy (bluish-red) appearance d/t

 polycythemia (increased Hgb d/t chronic hypoxemia)
 cyanosis
- Hypoxemia and hypercapnia
 - Results from hypoventilation and **†** airway resistance + problems with alveolar gas exchange





This case for A 70-year-old man with a 70 pack-year history of smoking was referred to the emergency department for an exacerbation of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). On examination, he breathed through pursed lips and had paradoxical indrawing of the lower rib cage margin with inspiration (**Hoover** sign), A chest radiograph showed distension of the lungs and flattening of the diaphragm.

Pink puffer vs Blue blotter



Cigarette advertising makes smoking look cool and cowboys look stupid!







Pathogenesis

NOXIOUS AGENT (tobacco smoke, pollutants, occupational agent)

Genetic factors

Respiratory infection

Other






Diagnosis and Assessment: Key Points

- A clinical diagnosis of COPD should be considered in any patient who has dyspnea, chronic cough or sputum production, and a history of exposure to risk factors for the disease.
- Spirometry is required to make the diagnosis; the presence of a postbronchodilator FEV₁/FVC < 0.70 confirms the presence of persistent airflow limitation and thus of COPD.

Diagnosis

- The goals of COPD assessment are to determine the severity of the disease, including the severity of airflow limitation, the impact on the patient's health status, and the risk of future events.
- Comorbidities occur frequently in COPD patients, and should be actively looked for and treated appropriately if present.

SYMPTOMS shortness of breath chronic cough sputum EXPOSURE TO RISK FACTORS tobacco occupation indoor/outdoor pollution

SPIROMETRY Required to establish diagnosis

Assessment of Airflow Limitation: Spirometry

- Spirometry should be performed after the administration of an adequate dose of a shortacting inhaled bronchodilator to minimize variability.
- A post-bronchodilator FEV₁/FVC < 0.70
 confirms the presence of airflow limitation.
- Where possible, values should be compared to age-related normal values to avoid overdiagnosis of COPD in the elderly.

Spirometry in COPD





Category/Severity Stage	FEV ₁ /FEV	FEV ₁ (% Predicted)
Normal (healthy patients)	0.80	~100
I: Mild	<0.70	≥80
II: Moderate	<0.70	50 to <80
III: Severe	<0.70	30 to <50
IV: Very Severe	<0.70	<30 ^a

ANCILLARY INVESTIGATIONS IN COPD

CBC	may show polycythemia, anemia of chronic disease	
Oximetry & ABG	hypoxemia, hypercapnia (advanced COPD)	
CXR	Hyper-inflation, low lying diaphragms, dirty chest	
Chest HRCT	Centrilobular, para septal and pan lobular emphysema, bullae	
Alpha-1 anti- trypsin level	In cases with early onset emphysema	
Echo	In cases with suspected pulmonary hypertension	
Lung volumes and diffusing capacities	Help to characterize severity, but not essential to patient management	
Exercise testing	Objectively measured exercise impairment	

CXR in emphysema



CT in emphysema



ECG in cor pulmonale (ppulmonale)



Echo in cor pulmonale



Complications of COPD

- * acute exacerbation of COPD
- * cor pulmonale
- * Pneumothorax
- * Pulmonary hypertension
- * Respiratory failure
- * Polycythemia

Systemic Inflammation in COPD

- COPD is an inflammatory condition
- Pro-inflammatory mediators may be the driving force behind the disease process
- Inflammation and actions of pro-inflammatory mediators may extend beyond the lungs and play a part in COPD comorbidities
- As effective anti-inflammatory therapy becomes available for COPD, it will be important to monitor the effects on lungs and associated comorbidities

Systemic Inflammation in COPD: Potential Clinical Consequences

- Skeletal Muscle Dysfunction
- Cardiovascular
 - CHF
 - Arrhythmias
 - Hypertension (systemic pulmonary)
- Osteoporosis

- Anaemia of Chronic Disease
- Metabolic Disease
 - Diabetes
 - Metabolic Syndrome
- Depression
- Gastrointestinal
 - Ulcer Disease

COPD is a Systemic Disease

Systemic Inflammation and Comorbidities



Assessing Comorbidities in COPD



These comorbid conditions may influence mortality and hospitalizations and should be looked for routinely, and treated appropriately. **Objectives of COPD Management**

Prevent disease progression Relieve symptoms Improve exercise tolerance Improve health status Prevent and treat exacerbations Prevent and treat complications Reduce mortality Minimize side effects from treatment Global Strategy for Diagnosis, Management and Prevention of COPD Assessment of COPD: Goals

Determine the severity of the disease, its impact on the patient's health status and the risk of future events (for example exacerbations) to guide therapy. Consider the following aspects of the disease separately:

- current level of patient's symptoms
- severity of the spirometric abnormality
- frequency of exacerbations
 - presence of comorbidities.

Assessment of COPD

Assess symptoms Assess degree of airflow limitation using spirometry Assess risk of exacerbations Assess comorbidities

Assessment of symptoms

COPD Assessment Test (CAT)

or

Clinical COPD Questionnaire (CCQ)

or

mMRC Breathlessness scale

The Modified Medical Research Council (MMRC) Dyspnoea Scale

Grade of dyspnoea	Description
0	Not troubled by breathlessness except on strenuous exercise
1	Shortness of breath when hurrying on the level or walking up a slight hill
2	Walks slower than people of the same age on the level because of breathlessness <i>or</i> has to stop for breath when walking at own pace on the level
3	Stops for breath after walking about 100 m <i>or</i> after a few minutes on the level
4	Too breathless to leave the house or breathless when dressing or undressing

Assess degree of airflow limitation using spirometry

Category/Severity Stage	FEV ₁ /FEV	FEV ₁ (% Predicted)
Normal (healthy patients)	0.80	~100
I: Mild	<0.70	≥80
II: Moderate	<0.70	50 to <80
III: Severe	<0.70	30 to <50
IV: Very Severe	<0.70	<30 ^a

Assess risk of exacerbations

To assess risk of exacerbations use history of exacerbations and spirometry:

Two or more exacerbations within the last year or an FEV₁ < 50 % of predicted value are indicators of high risk.

One or more hospitalizations for COPD exacerbation should be considered high risk.

Combined Assessment of COPD



Patient Category	Characteristics	Spirometric Classification	Exacerbations Per Year	mMRC	CAT
A	Low Risk, Less Symptoms	GOLD 1-2	1	0-1	<10
В	Low Risk, More Symptoms	GOLD 1-2	1	2	10
С	High Risk, Less Symptoms	GOLD 3-4	2	0-1	<10
D	High Risk, More Symptoms	GOLD 3-4	2	2	10

Therapeutic Options

- Smoking cessation has the greatest capacity to influence the natural history of COPD. Health care providers should encourage all patients who smoke to quit.
- Pharmacotherapy and nicotine replacement reliably increase long-term smoking abstinence rates.
- All COPD patients benefit from regular physical activity and should repeatedly be encouraged to remain active.
- Influenza and pneumococcal vaccination should be offered depending on local guidelines.



Brief Strategies to Help the Patient Willing to Quit Smoking

ASKSystematically identify all tobacco users at every visitADVISEStrongly urge all tobacco users to quitASSESSDetermine willingness to make a quit attemptASSISTAid the patient in quittingARRANGESchedule follow-up contact.

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The latest study on e-cigarettes, published in the journal Lancet, supports that claim. In the first clinical trial comparing e-cigarettes and nicotine patches in helping people to quit smoking, both methods proved equally successful. After a 13-week smoking cessation program, similar numbers of smokers who used e-cigarettes remained smoke-free after six months as used nicotine patches.

Therapeutic Options: COPD Medications

Beta

Short-acting beta Long-acting beta Anticholinergics Short-acting anticholinergics Long-acting anticholinergics Combination short-acting beta Combination long-acting beta Methylxanthines Inhaled corticosteroids Combination long-acting beta Systemic corticosteroids **Phosphodiesterase-4** inhibitors

Medications used in the treatment of COPD

Table 2. Medications Used in the Treatment of COPD in the U.S.

Class	Drug (Brand)	Most Common Adverse Effects
Short-acting beta ₂ agonists (SABAs)	Albuterol (ProAir, Proventil, Ventolin) Levalbuterol (Xopenex)	Palpitations, tachycardia, insomnia, irritability, tremors, hypokalemia
Long-acting beta ₂ agonists (LABAs)	Formoterol (Foradil, Perforomist) Arformoterol (Brovana) Salmeterol (Serevent) Indacaterol (Arcapta)	Same as above
Short-acting anticholinergic (SAMA)	Ipratropium bromide (Atrovent)	Xerostomia, metallic taste
Long-acting anticholinergics (LAMAs)	Tiotropium (Spiriva) Alcidinium (Turdorza)	Xerostomia, metallic taste Headache, nasopharyngitis, cough
Combination: SABA + anticholinergic	Albuterol/ipratropium (Combivent)	Upper respiratory tract infections, headache
Methylxanthines	Aminophylline Theophylline (Theo-Dur, Theo-24)	Atrial and ventricular arrhythmias, grand mal convulsions, headache, nausea
Inhaled corticosteroids (ICS)	Beclomethasone (Qvar) ^a Budesonide (Pulmicort) Fluticasone (Flovent)	Oral candidiasis, skin bruising
Combination: LABA + ICS	Formoterol/budesonide (Symbicort) Salmeterol/fluticasone (Advair) Formoterol/mometasone (Dulera) ^a	Headache, nasopharyngitis, stomach discomfort
Phosphodiesterase-4 (PDE4) inhibitor	Roflumilast (Daliresp)	Nausea, weight loss, diarrhea, headache, abdominal pain

^a Currently FDA approved only for asthma. COPD: chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. Source: References 4, 10.

Therapeutic Options: Bronchodilators

- **Bronchodilator medications are central to the symptomatic management of COPD.**
- Bronchodilators are prescribed on an as-needed or on a regular basis to prevent or reduce symptoms.
- The principal bronchodilator treatments are beta₂ agonists, anticholinergics, theophylline or combination therapy.
- The choice of treatment depends on the availability of medications and each patient's individual response in terms of symptom relief and side effects.

Therapeutic Options: Bronchodilators

Long-acting inhaled bronchodilators are convenient and more effective for symptom relief than short-acting bronchodilators.

Long-acting inhaled bronchodilators reduce exacerbations and related hospitalizations and improve symptoms and health status.

Combining bronchodilators of different pharmacological classes may improve efficacy and decrease the risk of side effects compared to increasing the dose of a single bronchodilator.



Therapeutic Options: Inhaled Corticosteroids

- Regular treatment with inhaled corticosteroids improves symptoms, lung function and quality of life and reduces frequency of exacerbations for COPD patients with an FEV₁ < 60% predicted.
- Inhaled corticosteroid therapy is associated with an increased risk of pneumonia.
- Withdrawal from treatment with inhaled corticosteroids may lead to exacerbations in some patients.



Therapeutic Options: Combination Therapy

- An inhaled corticosteroid combined with a long-acting beta₂-agonist is more effective than the individual components in improving lung function and health status and reducing exacerbations in moderate to very severe COPD.
- Combination therapy is associated with an increased risk of pneumonia.
- Addition of a long-acting beta₂agonist/inhaled glucorticosteroid combination to an anticholinergic (tiotropium) appears to provide additional benefits.



Therapeutic Options: Systemic Corticosteroids

 Chronic treatment with systemic corticosteroids should be avoided
 because of an unfavorable
 benefit-to-risk ratio. Therapeutic Options: Phosphodiesterase-4 Inhibitors

In patients with severe and very severe COPD (GOLD 3 and 4) and a history of exacerbations and chronic bronchitis, the phospodiesterase-4 inhibitor, roflumilast, reduces exacerbations treated with oral glucocorticosteroids.

Daxas 500 Mikrogramm

Roflumilast

Zum Einnehmen. Packungsbeilage beachten


Therapeutic Options: Theophylline

- Theophylline is less effective and less well tolerated than inhaled
 long-acting bronchodilators and is
 not recommended if those drugs
 are available and affordable.
- There is evidence for a modest bronchodilator effect and some symptomatic benefit compared with placebo in stable COPD.
 Addition of theophylline to salmeterol produces a greater increase in FEV₁ and breathlessness than salmeterol alone.
- Low dose theophylline reduces exacerbations but does not improve post-bronchodilator lung function.



Therapeutic Options: Other Pharmacologic Treatments

Influenza vaccines can reduce serious illness. Pneumococcal polysaccharide vaccine is recommended for COPD patients 65 years and older and for COPD patients younger than age 65 with an $FEV_1 < 40\%$ predicted.

The use of antibiotics, other than for treating infectious exacerbations of COPD and other bacterial infections, is currently not indicated.





Oxygen therapy (LTOT)

LTOT may be indicated for those clients with chronic lung disease who meet **EITHER** of the following criteria:

- i. Documented hypoxaemia i.e. daytime $PaO_2 \le 55mmHg$, measured at rest via ABG whilst breathing room air when clinically stable **OR**
- Daytime PaO₂ 56 59mmHg, measured at rest via ABG whilst breathing room air when clinically stable, with evidence of end-organ damage due to hypoxia e.g. pulmonary hypertension, right heart failure, polycythaemia



Therapeutic Options: Rehabilitation

- All COPD patients benefit from exercise training programs with improvements in exercise tolerance and symptoms of dyspnea and fatigue.
- Although an effective pulmonary rehabilitation program is 6 weeks, the longer the program continues, the more effective the results.
- If exercise training is maintained at home, the patient's health status remains above prerehabilitation levels.

Therapeutic Options: Rehabilitation





Fig. 2 : Diaphragmatic breathing: During inspiration diaphragm descends down and abdomen moves out. Patient exhales through nose with abdomen drawing in

Manage Stable COPD: Goals of Therapy

Relieve symptoms
 Improve exercise tolerance
 Improve health status

Reduce symptom

Prevent disease progression
 Prevent and treat exacerbations
 Reduce mortality

Reduce risk

Manage Stable COPD: Non-pharmacologic

Patient Group	Essential	Recommended	Depending on local guidelines
A	Smoking cessation (can include pharmacologic treatment)	Physical activity	Flu vaccination Pneumococcal vaccination
B, C, D	Smoking cessation (can include pharmacologic treatment) Pulmonary rehabilitation	Physical activity	Flu vaccination Pneumococcal vaccination

Manage Stable COPD: Pharmacologic Therapy (Medications in each box are mentioned in alphabetical order, and therefore not necessarily in order of preference.)

Patient	Recommended First choice	Alternative choice	Other Possible Treatments
A	SAMA prn or SABA prn	LAMA or LABA or SABA and SAMA	Theophylline
B	LAMA or LABA	LAMA and LABA	SABA and/or SAMA Theophylline
C	ICS + LABA or LAMA	LAMA and LABA or LAMA and PDE4-inh. or LABA and PDE4-inh.	SABA and/or SAMA Theophylline
D	ICS + LABA and/or LAMA	ICS + LABA and LAMA or ICS+LABA and PDE4-inh. or LAMA and LABA or LAMA and PDE4-inh.	Carbocysteine SABA and/or SAMA Theophylline

Manage Stable COPD: Pharmacologic Therapy RECOMMENDED FIRST CHOICE



Manage Stable COPD: Pharmacologic Therapy ALTERNATIVE CHOICE

	С	D
GOLD 4	LAMA and LABA <i>or</i> LAMA and PDE4-inh <i>or</i>	ICS + LABA and LAMA <i>or</i> ICS + LABA and PDE4-inh <i>or</i> I AMA and I ABA
GOLD 3	LABA and PDE4-inh	or LAMA and PDE4-inh.
	Α	R
GOLD 2	LAMA or LABA	1 (not leading to hospital admission)
GOLD 1	<i>or</i> SABA and SAMA	LAMA and LABA
$mMRC 0-1 mMRC \ge 2$		

Exacerbations per year

Manage Exacerbations

An exacerbation of COPD is:

"an acute event characterized by a worsening of the patient's respiratory symptoms that is beyond normal day-to-day variations and leads to a change in medication."

Severity Scale for Acute Exacerbations of Chronic Bronchitis

Severe Exacerbation (Type 1)	3 of 3 clinical symptoms*
Moderate Exacerbation (Type 2)	2 of 3 clinical symptoms*
Mild Exacerbation (Type 3)	 of 3 clinical symptoms* + ≥ 1 from: Upper respiratory tract infection in last 5 days Fever without other apparent cause Increased wheezing Increased cough 20% increase in respiratory rate or heart rate over baseline

* Clinical Symptoms: Worsening dyspnea, increase in sputum purulence, increase in sputum volume

Manage Exacerbations: Key Points

- The most common causes of COPD exacerbations are viral upper respiratory tract infections and infection of the tracheobronchial tree.
- Diagnosis relies exclusively on the clinical presentation of the patient complaining of an acute change of symptoms that is beyond normal day-to-day variation.
- The goal of treatment is to minimize the impact of the current exacerbation and to prevent the development of subsequent exacerbations.

Assessment of acute exacerbation of COPD

ABG	PaO
IIDO	breathing room air indicates respiratory failure.
CXR	useful to exclude alternative diagnoses.
CBC	identify polycythemia, anemia or bleeding.
Biochemical tests	detect electrolyte disturbances, diabetes, and poor nutrition.
Sputum	Purulent sputum indicates the need for antibiotics
Biochemical	detect electrolyte disturbances, diabetes, and poor
tests	nutrition.
ECG	may aid in the diagnosis of coexisting cardiac problems.
Spirometry	not recommended during an exacerbation.
erum troponin,	Assess for myocardial injury or infarction Serum
serial CK-MB	troponin, serial CK-MB measurement

Manage Exacerbations: Treatment Options

Oxygen	titrate to improve the patient's hypoxemia with a target saturation of 88-92%
Bronchodilators	Short-acting inhaled beta short-acting anticholinergics are preferred.
Systemic Corticosteroids	Shorten recovery time, improve lung function (FEV hypoxemia (PaO failure, and length of hospital stay. A dose of 40 mg prednisone per
Magnesium sulphate	Nebulized magnesium as an adjuvent to salbutamol treatment in the setting of acute exacerbations of COPD has no effect on FEV
Antibiotics	Should be given when indicated
NIV	for patients hospitalized with severe exacerbation of COPD

Table 1. Clinical guidelines for initiation of antibiotics in AECOPD

Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease ³	 Antibiotics should be given to: 1. Patients with all three cardinal symptoms (increased dyspnea, increased sputum volume, increased sputum purulence) 2. Patients with two cardinal symptoms, if increased sputum purulence is present 3. Patients with severe exacerbations requiring noninvasive or invasive mechanical ventilation
American Thoracic	 In hospitalized, non-ICU patients, antibiotics may be
Society/European	initiated in patients with changes in sputum characteristics In patients requiring ICU admission, antibiotic
Respiratory Society ⁴	therapy is recommended
National Institute for	 Antibiotics should be used in exacerbations
Health and Clinical	associated with a history of more purulent sputum Patients with exacerbations who do NOT have
Excellence ⁵ (United	increased sputum purulence do not need
Kingdom)	antibiotics unless there are signs of pneumonia
Canadian Thoracic	1. Antibiotics may be beneficial in the treatment of
Society ⁶	more severe purulent AECOPD



Antibiotic Recommendations

Patient Characteristics	Pathogens	Therapy (no particular order)
Uncomplicated exacerbations <4 per year No comorbidities FEV ₁ >50% predicted Resistance uncommon	Streptococcus pneumoniae Haemophilus influenzae Moraxella catarrhalis Haemophilus parainfluenzae	Azithromycin or clarithromycin 2nd- or 3rd-generation cephalosporin Doxycycline
Complicated exacerbations Age ≥65 years >4 per year FEV ₁ 36%-49% predicted	Above plus drug-resistant pneumococci, beta-lactamase- producing <i>H influenzae</i> , and <i>M catarrhalis</i>	Amoxicillin/clavulanate Fluoroquinolone with enhanced pneumococcal activity (levofloxacin, gemifloxacin, or moxifloxacin)
Complicated exacerbations with risk of Pseudomonas aeruginosa Chronic bronchial sepsis ^b Chronic corticosteroids Nursing home resident >4 per year FEV ₁ >35% predicted	Enteric gram-negatives Above plus <i>P aeruginosa</i>	Levofloxacin ^a Possible IV therapy: beta-lactamase- resistant penicillin with antipseudomonal activity 3rd- or 4th-generation cephalosporin with antipseudomonal activity

^a Fluoroquinolone with enhanced pneumococcal/antipseudomonal activity. ^b In sepsis, addition of aminoglycoside considered for double antipseudomonal coverage. FEV ,: forced expiratory volume in one second.

Indications for Invasive Mechanical Ventilation

Absolute indications Cardiac or respiratory arrest

Failure of noninvasive ventilation or presence of exclusion criteria

Persistent hypoxemia (PaO₂<40 mm Hg) despite receiving optimal treatment

Worsening of respiratory acidosis Other complications (severe (pH<7.25) despite receiving optimal treatment

Relative indications

Severe dyspnea with use of accessory muscles

Respiratory rate >35 breaths/min

Vascular complications (hypotension, shock, heart failure)

pneumonia, pulmonary thromboembolism, etc)

HOSPITAL MANAGEMENT OF ACUTE EXACERBATIONS OF COPD

Definition

COPD is characterised by airflow obstruction, usually progressive, not fully reversible and not changing markedly over several months. It is predominantly caused by smoking

FEVI 30 – 49% predicted = **Moderate**

Severity of Airflow Obstruction

FEV 50 – 80% predicted = **Mild**

Exacerbation characteristics include some or all of these:

- 1 Dyspnoea
- 1 Sputum volume & purulence
- ↑ Cough
- 1 Wheeze / chest tightness
- ↑ Fatigue
- \uparrow Fluid retention
- •↓GCS
- \downarrow Exercise Tolerance

Differential Diagnosis in COPD patients includes:

- Pneumonia
- Pneumothorax
- Pulmonary Oedema
- Lung Cancer
- Upper Airway Obstruction
- Pleural Effusion

Initial Assessment

- CXR
- ABG note inspired FiO2
- ECG
- FBC / U&Es
- Theophylline level if on it
- Sputum M C&S if purulent
- Blood cultures if pyrexial

Standard Therapy

- \uparrow dose of bronchodilators
- Oral Prednisolone 30mg daily for 7-14 days
- Oxygen to maintain SaO₂ >90% but < 93%
- Antibiotics if sputum more purulent and / or pneumonia
- IV Theophylline if inadequate response to regular nebulised bronchodilators
- Physiotherapy using PEEP to help clear sputum when necessary
- No need for daily peak flow unless asthma suspected

Consider Hospital at Home or assisted early discharge if:

- Able to cope / good social circumstances / telephone
- Mild dyspnoea
- General condition and level of activity satisfactory
- Not on LTOT
- No confusion
- Onset not rapid
- No CXR consolidation
- pH > 7.35
- $PO_2 > 7kPa$

Indicators of a Severe Exacerbation

- Marked dyspnoea / tachypnoea
- Use of accessory respiratory muscles (sternomastoid and abdominal) at rest

FEV < 30% predicted = **Severe**

- Pursed lip breathing
- New onset cyanosis
- New onset peripheral oedema
- Marked reduction in activities of daily living
- Acute confusion

In Severe Exacerbation

- NIV for persistent hypercapnic respiratory failure despite optimal medical therapy
- NIV should be delivered in dedicated setting with trained staff
- IV respiratory stimulants only where NIV not available
- Ceilings of treatment should be agreed
- Referral for consideration of intubation and ventilation in cases of progressive exhaustion and worsening ABGs
- Evidence of advanced directive should be sought

Maintenance management

- SaO² monitoring in nonhypercapnic, non acidotic respiratory failure
- Otherwise check ABGs intermittently and prior to discharge
- Re-establish optimal inhaled therapy pre discharge including checking inhaler technique
- Check BMI and spirometry
 pre discharge
- If still requiring O₂ arrange O₂ cylinder or interim LTOT on discharge, pending formal assessment when stable
- Consider pulmonary rehabilitation referral
- Provide written guided selfmanagement plan to include advice on acute exacerbations
- Confirm 'flu' vaccine plans and home care support
- Consider follow up by respiratory nurse team in 4-6 weeks for those patients considered more vulnerable to early readmission



l months.

67 Year old Male with shortness Of Breath with exertion



Your patient is a 67 year old male who complains of progressively worsening shortness of breath with exertion over the last year. He currently smokes half a pack of cigarettes daily and has accumulated 45 pack years. He uses a short acting beta agonist 3-4 times a day with limited relief. He is no longer able to ride a bike with his grandchildren. His last hospitalization was 4 months ago secondary to right lower lobe pneumonia. He

does not complain of weight loss or loss of appetite.

He has a past medical history of dietary controlled diabetes and mild osteoarthtitis. Medications include Albuterol and Celecoxib.

On exam respiratory rate is 22 per minute; chest exam reveals mild end expiratory wheezing without use of accessory muscles of respiration and no retractions. No clubbing, cyanosis or lower extremity edema is noted. Spirometry reveals an FVC of 78% predicted, FEV1 of 62% predicted and FEV1/FVC of 68%, post bronchodilator.

