



Poor recovery from a pulmonary exacerbation does not lead to accelerated FEV₁ decline

Don B. Sanders, MD, MS^{a,*}, Zhanhai Li, PhD^{b,c}, Qianqian Zhao, MS^{b,c}, and Philip Farrell, MD, PhD^b

^bDepartment of Pediatrics, Riley Hospital for Children, School of Medicine, Indiana University, Indiana, IN

^bDepartment of Pediatrics, School of Medicine and Public Health, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI, USA

^cDepartment of Biostatistics and Medical Informatics, School of Medicine and Public Health, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI, USA

Abstract

Background—Patients with CF treated for pulmonary exacerbations (PE_x) may experience faster subsequent declines in FEV₁. Additionally, incomplete recovery to baseline FEV₁ occurs frequently following PE_x treatment. Whether accelerated declines in FEV₁ are preceded by poor PE_x recovery has not been studied.

Methods—From 2004–2011 CF Foundation Patient Registry data, we randomly selected one PE_x among patients 6 years of age with no organ transplantations, 12 months of data before and after the PE_x, and 1 FEV₁ recorded within the 6 months before and 3 months after the PE_x. We defined poor PE_x recovery as the best FEV₁ in the 3 months after the PE_x <90% of the best FEV₁ in the 6 months before the PE_x. We calculated mean (95% CI) hazard ratios (HR) of having >5% predicted/year FEV₁ decline and poor PE_x recovery using multi-state Markov models.

Results—From 13,954 PE_x, FEV₁ declines of >5% predicted/year were more likely to precede poor spirometric recovery, HR 1.17 (1.08, 1.26), in Markov models adjusted for age and sex. Non-Responders were less likely to have a subsequent fast FEV₁ decline, HR 0.41 (0.37, 0.46), than patients who recovered to >90% of baseline FEV₁ following PE_x treatment.

Conclusions—Accelerated declines in FEV₁ are more likely to precede a PE_x with poor recovery than to occur in the following year. Preventing or halting declines in FEV₁ may also have the benefit of preventing PE_x episodes.

Corresponding Author Don B. Sanders, MD, MS, Riley Hospital for Children, 705 Riley Hospital Drive, ROC 4270, Indianapolis, IN 46202, dbsand@iu.edu, Phone: 317-274-7208, Fax: 317-944-7247.

*During the conduct of this study, Dr. Sanders was a faculty member in the Department of Pediatrics, School of Medicine and Public Health, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI

Publisher's Disclaimer: This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final citable form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

Data from this manuscript was presented at the North American Cystic Fibrosis Conference in October, 2015, in Phoenix, Arizona, USA.

1. Introduction

Pulmonary exacerbations (PE_x) treated with intravenous (IV) antibiotics in patients with cystic fibrosis (CF) are associated with increased mortality, worsening forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV₁), poorer quality of life, and increased healthcare costs (1–4). Epidemiologic studies have shown that patients with CF may have a faster subsequent decline in FEV₁ after PE_x treatment (5, 6). Studies have also shown that patients frequently do not recover to near their previous spirometry baseline following a PE_x (7–10). The timing of these events is important in order to target prevention and treatment strategies: if PE_x contribute to accelerating FEV₁ decline, then preventing or improving outcomes after PE_xs should be a focus. On the other hand, if larger FEV₁ declines typically precede PE_x treatments, then anticipating a PE_x by preventing declines in FEV₁ should be a focus. We hypothesized that patients who experienced poor recovery of FEV₁ following treatment with IV antibiotics for a PE_x would be more likely to have an accelerated subsequent decline in FEV₁.

2. Methods

Data were obtained from the CF Foundation Patient Registry (CFFPR) between 2004 and 2011. Written informed consent and assent was obtained for data to be included in the CFFPR and the Institutional Review Board of the University of Wisconsin approved the study. For this analysis, we included one PE_x randomly selected for each patient 6 years of age if the patient had not had an organ transplantation, there was at least 12 months of data available before and after the selected PE_x, and there was at least one measurement of FEV₁ recorded within the 6 months before and 3 months after the PE_x. Patients were defined as Non-Responders if their best FEV₁ in the 3 months after the PE_x was <90% of the best FEV₁ in the 6 months before the PE_x. We excluded PE_x episodes where another PE_x occurred before the best FEV₁ in the 3 months following the PE_x. We used linear regression to determine the annual change in FEV₁ for each individual patient in the 12 months before and 12 months after the PE_x using all measurements of FEV₁ excluding measurements that occurred during the PE_x. An accelerated decline of FEV₁ referred to hereafter as “fast FEV₁ decline” was defined as >5% predicted in the year before or after the PE_x; this value represents more than double estimates of the average annual decline in FEV₁ (2, 11).

PE_x recovery and FEV₁ declines were modeled using multi-state Markov models (12, 13). Multistate Markov models can be used to describe how an individual moves through a series of disease states over time. CF lung disease is only observed at arbitrary times (i.e., clinic visits, hospitalizations), so that the exact times when the disease state changes are unobserved. In Markov models, the next disease state to which the individual moves, or “transitions,” and the timing of the change, are governed by a set of transition intensities, or probabilities, for each pair of states. These transition intensities represent the instantaneous risks of moving from one state to another, and may depend on the time of the process, and on individual characteristics such as patient age and sex. Once the Markov model is fitted, the ratio of the transition intensities can be used to determine whether one state transition is more likely than another. The Markov model assumes all patients begin in the same disease state. Once patients progress into a new disease state, they do not transition back.

For our study, we compared the likelihood of transitioning from a slow to fast FEV₁ decline and to being a Non-Responder after PEx treatment (Figure 1). Since, if monitored continuously, a transition to a fast FEV₁ decline and to being a Non-Responder would not happen simultaneously, our Markov model did not allow direct transitions from disease state 1 (neither a fast FEV₁ decline nor a Non-Responder) to disease state 4 (fast FEV₁ decline and Non-Responder). Once patients were classified as having a fast decline in FEV₁ or being a Non-Responder, they could not transition back to their previous categorization. The likelihoods of moving from one disease state to another were modeled using log-linear models adjusted for age and sex. Differences in the intercepts of these models represent the effects of FEV₁ decline on PEx recovery and vice versa. Estimates from the models are exponentiated and interpreted as hazard ratios (HR). Analyses were conducted with SAS (Version 9.4, SAS Institute Inc, Cary, NC, USA, 2013) and R (version 3.2.1, the R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria, 2015).

3. Results

There were 35,516 patients with 197,085 hospitalizations and/or home courses of IV antibiotics recorded in the CFFPR in 2004–2011. Of these, Responder status could be determined for 13,954 PExs (1 per patient) that met inclusion/exclusion criteria were randomly chosen (Figure E1 online supplement). Cohort characteristics are included in Table 1. Comparing the best values of FEV₁ before and after the analyzed PEx, 19.8% of patients were classified as Non-Responders. Non-Responders were more likely to be adult patients, undernourished, on Medicaid/state insurance, have persistent infections with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and mucoid *P. aeruginosa*, have baseline FEV₁ <80% predicted, and have CF-related diabetes (Table 1).

The mean (SD) best FEV₁ recorded in the 6 months prior to the PEx was 70 (26)% predicted. Annual declines in FEV₁ could be determined for 13,774 patients prior to the PEx and 13,953 patients following the PEx, using a mean of 5.3 and 6.0 FEV₁ measurements, respectively. The median annual decline in FEV₁ was –4.3% predicted in the year prior to the PEx and –2.6% predicted in the year after the PEx. Forty-eight percent of patients had >5% predicted annual decline in FEV₁ before the PEx and 40% of patients had >5% predicted decline in FEV₁ after the PEx. Patients with declines >5% predicted in the year prior to the PEx were generally similar to patients with declines ≤5% predicted (see online supplement Table E1). At the completion of the study, only 23% of patients were neither Non-Responders nor had a fast decline in FEV₁.

To determine if being a Non-Responder was more likely to precede or follow a fast FEV₁ decline, we compared the probability of moving from State 3 (fast FEV₁ decline only) to State 4 (fast FEV₁ decline and Non-Responder) to the probability of moving from State 1 (neither) to State 2 (Non-Responder only) (Figure 1). Patients who were Non-Responders at the time of the analyzed PEx were at lower risk of having a subsequent fast decline of FEV₁ than patients who were Responders, HR 0.41 (95% CI 0.37, 0.46).

To determine if having a fast decline in FEV₁ was more likely to precede being a Non-Responder, we compared the probability of moving from State 2 (Non-Responder only) to

State 4 (fast FEV₁ decline and Non-Responder) to the probability of moving from State 1 (neither) to State 3 (fast FEV₁ decline only). Patients with a fast decline in FEV₁ in the year prior to the analyzed PEx were at increased risk of being Non-Responders than patients without a fast FEV₁ decline, HR 1.17 (95% CI 1.08, 1.26).

Results were similar for pediatric and adult patients, and if we used a cut-off of >3% predicted/year to define fast FEV₁ decline (data not shown). In the year prior to the analyzed PEx, 8,069 patients had 0–1 PEx and 5,885 had 2 PEx episodes. Patients with 0–1 and 2 PEx episodes in the prior year had similar rates of annual FEV₁ decline prior to the analyzed PEx. Hazard ratios were similar to the overall cohort, indicating that, regardless of the number of PEx in the prior-year, patients who had a fast decline prior to the analyzed PEx were at increased risk of being Non-Responders and patients who were Non-Responders at the analyzed PEx were at low risk of having a subsequent fast decline in FEV₁.

4. Discussion

Epidemiologic studies have demonstrated that pulmonary exacerbations treated with IV antibiotics are associated with both acute declines in FEV₁ and accelerated subsequent FEV₁ declines (5, 6, 14). Physiologic changes that may occur following a PEx, e.g., changes in the inflammatory milieu (15), changes in the microbiota (16), and incomplete spirometric recovery, suggest that PEx episodes may lead to further poor outcomes. For example, the number of prior PEx is the greatest risk factor for having another PEx treated with IV antibiotics (17). In this report, we have attempted to identify whether an accelerated decline in FEV₁ or poor spirometric recovery following a PEx is more likely to occur first. We found that having a fast decline in FEV₁ is more likely to precede a PEx. This would suggest that efforts to avoid or halt declines in FEV₁ will have the added benefit of preventing PEx and the many adverse effects associated with PEx. Acute declines in FEV₁ are common and often do not lead to treatment with IV antibiotics (14). By monitoring and treating these acute declines in FEV₁ clinicians have a significant opportunity to avoid acute PEx and long-term progression of CF lung disease.

There are limitations to our study. The Markov model assumes that patients are neither Non-Responders, nor are experiencing fast declines in FEV₁ at the start of the study period. However, we are not able to verify that that is the case. In part to avoid indication bias, we used an annual decline of FEV₁ and excluded measurements of FEV₁ that occurred during the PEx. However, it is possible that acute or subacute decreases in FEV₁ that preceded the PEx are still captured with our definition of FEV₁ decline. Moreover, compartmentalizing changes in FEV₁ to before, during, and after PExs is an artificial construct necessary for this type of analysis. Others have estimated the degree of overall loss of FEV₁ that is attributable to PEx (5). The mean annual declines in FEV₁ (–4.3% predicted prior to the PEx and –2.6% predicted after the PEx) are higher than typically reported. This is because in order to use the Markov model, it was necessary to calculate the annual FEV₁ decline for each individual separately. The corresponding mean annual declines in FEV₁ for the study cohort were –1.1% predicted before and after the PEx, similar to other recent reports that have used data from the CFFPR (2, 18, 19). In addition, this is an observational study, so we cannot make conclusions about causation. FEV₁ measurements are entered into the CFFPR at irregular

intervals and may not represent a patient's best possible values. We excluded PEx if another PEx occurred before the best FEV₁ in the 3 months following the analyzed PEx was recorded, so our results may not apply to patients with short intervals between PEx, who may be at higher risk of accelerated FEV₁ decline (5).

In conclusion, an accelerated decline of FEV₁ is more likely to precede poor spirometric recovery from a PEx than to occur in the year following the PEx. Interventional studies designed to prevent PEx should consider strategies to prevent or halt declines in FEV₁. Insights from our observations also support current efforts to monitor FEV₁ regularly and closely once CF lung disease develops.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

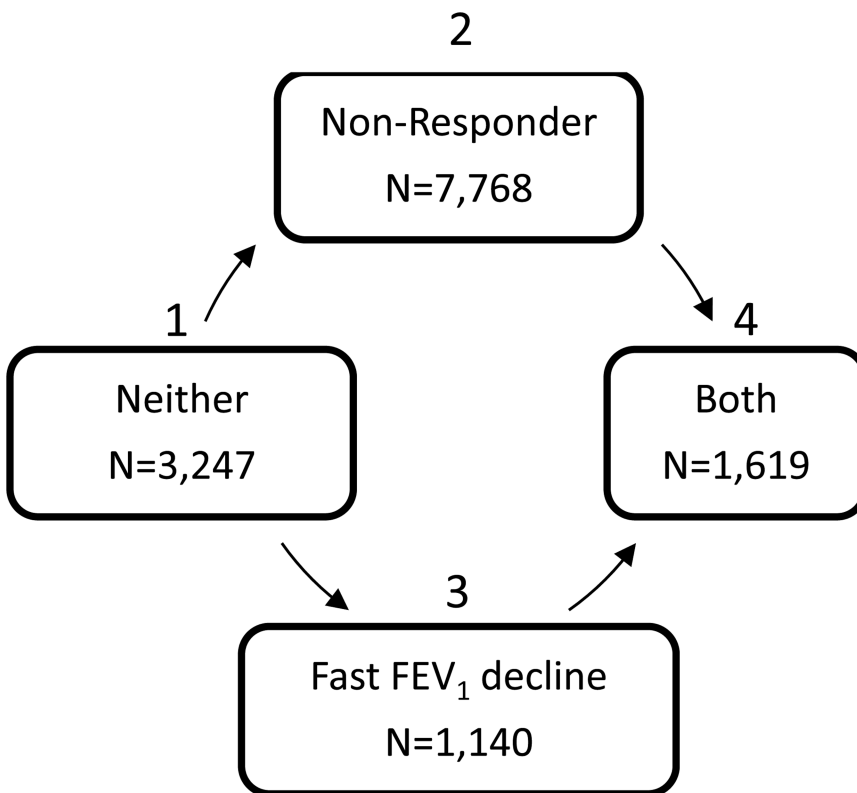
The authors would like to thank Michael Evans for aid in interpreting Markov models. The authors would like to thank Bruce Marshall, Emily Knapp, and the Cystic Fibrosis Foundation for the use of CF Foundation Patient Registry data to conduct this study. Additionally, we would like to thank the patients, care providers, and clinic coordinators at CF Centers throughout the United States for their contributions to the CF Foundation Patient Registry.

This work was supported by the Cystic Fibrosis Foundation (SANDERS11A0) and the Institute for Clinical and Translational Research (ICTR) through the NIH National Center for Advancing Translational Sciences (NCATS) grants UL1 TR000427 and KL2TR000428.

References

1. Liou T, Adler F, Fitzsimmons S, Cahill B, Hibbs J, Marshall B. Predictive 5-year survivorship model of cystic fibrosis. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2001; 153(4):345–52. [PubMed: 11207152]
2. Konstan M, Morgan W, Butler S, Pasta D, Craib M, Silva S, et al. Risk factors for rate of decline in forced expiratory volume in one second in children and adolescents with cystic fibrosis. *J Pediatr*. 2007; 151(2):134–9. 9.e1. [PubMed: 17643762]
3. Britto M, Kotagal U, Hornung R, Atherton H, Tsevat J, Wilmott R. Impact of recent pulmonary exacerbations on quality of life in patients with cystic fibrosis. *Chest*. 2002; 121(1):64–72. [PubMed: 11796433]
4. Lieu T, Ray G, Farmer G, Shay G. The cost of medical care for patients with cystic fibrosis in a health maintenance organization. *Pediatrics*. 1999; 103(6):e72. [PubMed: 10353969]
5. Waters V, Stanojevic S, Atenafu EG, Lu A, Yau Y, Tullis E, et al. Effect of pulmonary exacerbations on long-term lung function decline in cystic fibrosis. *Eur Respir J*. 2012; 40(1):61–6. [PubMed: 22135280]
6. Sanders DB, Bittner RC, Rosenfeld M, Redding GJ, Goss CH. Pulmonary exacerbations are associated with subsequent FEV₁ decline in both adults and children with cystic fibrosis. *Pediatr Pulmonol*. 2011; 46(4):393–400. [PubMed: 20967845]
7. Sanders D, Bittner R, Rosenfeld M, Hoffman L, Redding G, Goss C. Failure to recover to baseline pulmonary function after cystic fibrosis pulmonary exacerbation. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2010; 182(5):627–32. [PubMed: 20463179]
8. Sanders D, Hoffman L, Emerson J, Gibson R, Rosenfeld M, Redding G, et al. Return of FEV₁ after pulmonary exacerbation in children with cystic fibrosis. *Pediatr Pulmonol*. 2010; 45(2):127–34. [PubMed: 20054859]

9. Waters VJ, Stanojevic S, Sonneveld N, Klingel M, Grasemann H, Yau YC, et al. Factors associated with response to treatment of pulmonary exacerbations in cystic fibrosis patients. *J Cyst Fibros.* 2015; 14(6):755–62. [PubMed: 25690407]
10. Parkins MD, Rendall JC, Elborn JS. Incidence and Risk Factors for Pulmonary Exacerbation Treatment Failures in Patients With Cystic Fibrosis Chronically Infected With *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *Chest.* 2012; 141(2):485–93. [PubMed: 21835906]
11. Szczesniak RD, McPhail GL, Duan LL, Macaluso M, Amin RS, Clancy JP. A semiparametric approach to estimate rapid lung function decline in cystic fibrosis. *Ann Epidemiol.* 2013; 23(12):771–7. [PubMed: 24103586]
12. Jackson CH. Multi-State Models for Panel Data: The msm Package for R. *J Stat Softw.* 2011; 38(8):1–28.
13. Meira-Machado L, de Una-Alvarez J, Cadarso-Suarez C, Andersen PK. Multi-state models for the analysis of time-to-event data. *Stat Methods Med Res.* 2009; 18(2):195–222. [PubMed: 18562394]
14. Wagener JS, Rasouliyan L, VanDevanter DR, Pasta DJ, Regelman WE, Morgan WJ, et al. Oral, inhaled, and intravenous antibiotic choice for treating pulmonary exacerbations in cystic fibrosis. *Pediatr Pulmonol.* 2013; 48(7):666–73. [PubMed: 22888106]
15. Sagel SD, Thompson V, Chmiel JF, Montgomery GS, Nasr SZ, Perkett E, et al. Effect of treatment of cystic fibrosis pulmonary exacerbations on systemic inflammation. *Ann Am Thorac Soc.* 2015; 12(5):708–17. [PubMed: 25714657]
16. Zemanick ET, Harris JK, Wagner BD, Robertson CE, Sagel SD, Stevens MJ, et al. Inflammation and airway microbiota during cystic fibrosis pulmonary exacerbations. *PLoS One.* 2013; 8(4):e62917. [PubMed: 23646159]
17. VanDevanter DR, Pasta DJ, Konstan MW. Treatment and demographic factors affecting time to next pulmonary exacerbation in cystic fibrosis. *J Cyst Fibros.* 2015; 14(6):763–9. [PubMed: 25754096]
18. Konstan MW, Wagener JS, Vandevanter DR, Pasta DJ, Yegin A, Rasouliyan L, et al. Risk factors for rate of decline in FEV1 in adults with cystic fibrosis. *J Cyst Fibros.* 2012; 11(5):405–11. [PubMed: 22561369]
19. Sawicki GS, McKone EF, Millar SJ, Pasta DJ, Konstan MW, Lubarsky B, et al. Patients with Cystic Fibrosis and a G551D or Homozygous F508del Mutation: Similar Lung Function Decline. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2017; 195(12):1673–6.



Non-Responder status precedes fast FEV₁ decline

2→4 occurs more often than 1→3

Fast FEV₁ decline precedes Non-Responder status

3→4 occurs more often than 1→2

No causality

2→4 occurs as commonly as 1→3

3→4 occurs as commonly as 1→2

Figure 1. Four-state longitudinal model assessing temporal relationships between PEx response and FEV₁ decline. Patients were assessed before and after a randomly selected PEx and classified into one of these four disease states. The relative probability of moving from one state to another suggests the temporal relationship between these events. N represents the number of patients in each disease state at the end of the study.

Table 1

Cohort characteristics according to Responder status

Characteristic	Responders (n=11,192) N (%) or mean (SD)	Non-Responders (n=2,762) N (%) or mean (SD)	Total (n=13,954) N (%) or mean (SD)
Female sex	5,654 (50.5)	1,441 (52.2)	7,095 (50.9)
Age (all patients)	20.8 (11.3)	23.1 (11.0)	21.2 (11.2)
Age (pediatric patients)	12.2 (3.5)	12.7 (3.6)	12.3 (3.5)
Adult patients (≥ 18 years old)	5,674 (50.7)	1,803 (65.3)	7,477 (53.6)
Age (adult patients)	29.1 (9.9)	28.7 (9.4)	29.0 (9.8)
Undernourished ^a	1,506 (13.5)	633 (22.9)	2,139 (15.3)
BMI percentile (pediatric patients)	43.3 (26.7)	36.7 (27.6)	42.3 (26.9)
BMI (adult patients)	21.7 (3.6)	20.9 (5.0)	21.5 (4.0)
Pancreatic enzyme replacement therapy	10,471 (93.6)	2,608 (94.4)	13,079 (93.7)
Homozygous F508del	5,478 (48.9)	1,330 (48.1)	6,808 (48.8)
Heterozygous F508del	3,977 (35.5)	983 (35.6)	4,960 (35.6)
Other/Unknown mutations	1,737 (15.5)	449 (16.3)	2,186 (15.7)
Medicaid/state insurance	5,169 (46.2)	1,478 (53.5)	6,647 (47.6)
Persistent <i>P. aeruginosa</i> infection ^a	5,540 (49.5)	1,642 (59.6)	7,182 (51.5)
Persistent <i>B. cepacia</i> complex infection ^a	296 (2.6)	114 (4.1)	410 (2.9)
Persistent mucoid <i>P. aeruginosa</i> infection ^a	3,921 (35.0)	1,221 (44.2)	5,142 (36.9)
Persistent MRSA infection ^a	2,275 (20.3)	659 (23.9)	2,934 (21.0)
Nontuberculous <i>Mycobacteria</i>	264 (2.4)	73 (2.6)	337 (2.4)
Allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis (ABPA)	815 (7.3)	238 (8.6)	1,053 (7.5)
Baseline FEV ₁			
<40% predicted	1,629 (14.6)	618 (22.4)	2,247 (16.1)
40–59% predicted	2,092 (18.7)	713 (25.8)	2,805 (20.1)
60–79% predicted	2,775 (24.8)	617 (22.3)	3,392 (24.3)
80% predicted	4,691 (41.9)	814 (29.5)	5,505 (39.5)
CF-related diabetes mellitus	2,314 (20.7)	803 (29.1)	3,117 (22.3)
Time between baseline and start of IV antibiotics (weeks)	11.9 (8.3)	14.6 (7.7)	12.4 (8.2)
Change in FEV ₁ % predicted from baseline to start of IV antibiotics ^b	-13.1 (14.3)	-23.9 (16.4)	-15.1 (15.3)
PEXs treated with IV antibiotics in the previous 12 months	1.6 (1.1)	2.3 (1.5)	1.8 (1.2)
Duration of PEX treatment (days)	15.5 (15.3)	18.2 (22.3)	16.0 (16.9)

^aPersistent infection defined as ≥ 2 positive culture in the 12 months before the PEX

^bBaseline defined as the best FEV₁ % predicted in the 6 months before the PEX among 7,678 patients with FEV₁ measured within 3 days of the start of IV antibiotics