

American Geriatrics Society
Clinical Practice Committee

Guidelines Abstracted from the
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On behalf of the AGS Clinical Practice Committee, the following author abstracted

this guideline:

Matthew McNabney, MD

Assistant Professor of Medicine, Johns Hopkins University

Commentary provided by:

William J. Hall, MD

Director, Center for Healthy Aging, University of Rochester Medical Center

Address correspondence and reprint requests to:

Sara Reinthaler

[American Geriatrics Society](#)

The Empire State Building

350 Fifth Avenue, Suite 801

New York, NY 10118

Fax: 212-832-8646

info.amger@americangeriatrics.org.

1 **Source:**

2 This guideline abstract summarizes the contents Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive
3 Lung Disease Workshop Report: *Global Strategy for the Diagnosis, Management, and*
4 *Prevention of Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease*. Electronic copies are available at
5 <http://www.goldcopd.com>.

6

7 **Objective:**

8 To increase awareness of COPD and decrease morbidity and mortality from the disease.
9 The guideline aims to improve prevention and management of COPD through a
10 concerted worldwide effort of people involved in all facets of health care and health care
11 policy. The guideline emphasizes strategies to reduce tobacco smoking and other risk
12 factors for the disease as well as recommendations regarding optimal treatments for each
13 stage of the disease.

14

15 **Options:**

16 Proper staging of the disease is essential and a four stage classification is used in this
17 guideline. This classification (Stage 0 through 3) is determined by history and
18 spirometry. Risk factor modification and therapy for airway obstruction are
19 recommended based on this classification.

20

21 **Outcomes:**

22 Outcomes considered include prevention of disease progression, symptom relief,
23 improved exercise tolerance, prevention and treatment of complications and

24 exacerbations, and reduction of mortality. These outcomes are a result of the underlying
25 pathologic process of COPD, defined by GOLD consensus as: “A disease state
26 characterized by airflow limitation that is not fully reversible. The airflow limitation is
27 usually both progressive and associated with an abnormal inflammatory response of the
28 lungs to noxious particles or gases”.

29

30 ***Evidence:***

31 Articles pertaining to COPD were identified through a search of the world’s literature.
32 Level of evidence was determined, according the criteria established by NHLBI (See
33 Table). Selection of appropriate articles was done by GOLD panel members and
34 completed in May 2000. All management decisions recommended by the panel were
35 assigned a level of evidence as a basis for the decision. The methodological issues
36 concerning the use of evidence from meta-analyses were carefully scrutinized.

37

38 **Description of Levels of Evidence**

Evidence Category	Sources of Evidence	Definition
A	Randomized controlled trials (RCTs). Rich body of data.	Evidence is from endpoints of well-designed RCTs that provide a consistent pattern of findings in the population for which the recommendation is made. Category A requires substantial numbers of studies involving substantial numbers of participants.
B	Randomized controlled trials	Evidence is from endpoints of

	(RCTs). Limited body of data.	intervention studies that include only a limited number of patients, posthoc or subgroup analysis of RCTs, or meta-analysis of RCTs. In general, Category B pertains when few randomized trials exist, they are small in size, they were undertaken in a population that differs from the target population of the recommendation, or the results are somewhat inconsistent.
C	Nonrandomized trials. Observational studies.	Evidence is from outcomes of uncontrolled or nonrandomized trials or from observational studies.
D	Panel Consensus Judgment.	This category is used only in cases where the provision of some guidance was deemed valuable but the clinical literature addressing the subject was deemed insufficient to justify placement in one of the other categories. The Panel Consensus is based on clinical experience or knowledge that does not meet the above-listed criteria.

39

40 *Values:*

41 The GOLD Report was not intended to be a comprehensive textbook on COPD, but

42 rather to summarize the current state of the field.

43 The recommendations were created by the expert panel of the GOLD Initiative with input
44 and comment from members of the American Thoracic Society and the European
45 Respiratory Society. It is a worldwide initiative with focus on areas in the world with
46 high prevalence of smoking and COPD.

47

48 ***Benefits, Harms, and Costs:***

49 COPD causes significant morbidity and mortality and accounts for large direct and
50 indirect monetary costs worldwide. There is good evidence that interventions to reduce
51 risk factors (particularly smoking cessation) as recommended in this guideline are
52 effective and cost-effective. Some treatments suggested in this guideline carry risk and
53 potential harm to individual patients. However, in general, the benefits exceed the harms
54 and are considered cost-effective

55

56 ***Recommendations:***

57 Management of COPD is broken into 4 components.

58 **1. Assess and Monitor Disease**

59 -Diagnosis is based on a history of exposure to risk factors and the presence of
60 airflow limitation that is not fully reversible, with or without the presence of
61 symptoms.

62 -Patients who have chronic cough and sputum production with a
63 history of exposure to risk factors should be tested for airflow limitation
64 (spirometry) even if they do not have dyspnea.

65 -For the diagnosis and assessment of COPD, spirometry is the gold standard.

66 FEV₁/FVC and a post-bronchodilator FEV₁ < 80% of predicted confirms the
67 presence of airflow limitation that is not fully reversible.

68 -Health care workers involved in the diagnosis and management of COPD
69 patients should have access to spirometry.

70 -Measurement of arterial blood gas tensions should be considered in all patients
71 with FEV₁ < 40% predicted or clinical signs suggestive of respiratory failure or
72 right heart failure.

73 **2. Reduce Risk Factors**

74 -Reduction of total personal exposure to tobacco smoke, occupational dusts and
75 chemicals, and indoor and outdoor air pollutants are important goals to prevent
76 the onset and progression of COPD.

77 -Smoking cessation is the single most effective-and cost effective-way in most
78 people to reduce the risk of developing COPD and stop its progression (**Evidence**
79 **A**).

80 -Brief tobacco dependence counseling is effective (**Evidence A**) and every
81 tobacco user should be offered at least this treatment at every visit to a health care
82 provider.

83 -Three types of counseling are especially effective: practical counseling, social
84 support as part of treatment, and social support arranged outside of treatment
85 (**Evidence A**).

86 -Several effective pharmacotherapies for tobacco dependence are available
87 (**Evidence A**), and at least one of these medications should be added to
88 counseling if necessary and in the absence of contraindications..

89 -Progression of many occupationally induced respiratory disorders can be reduced
90 or controlled through a variety of strategies aimed at reducing the burden of
91 inhaled particles and gases (**Evidence B**).

92 **3. Manage Stable COPD**

93 -Overall approach to managing COPD should be characterized by a stepwise
94 increase in treatment, depending on the severity of the disease.

95 -Health education can play a role in improving skills, ability to cope with illness,
96 and health status. It is effective in accomplishing certain goals, including smoking
97 cessation (**Evidence A**).

98 -None of the existing medications for COPD has been shown to modify the long-
99 term decline in lung function that is the hallmark of this disease (**Evidence A**).

100 Therefore, pharmacotherapy is used to decrease symptoms and/or complications.

101 -Bronchodilator medications are central to the symptomatic management of
102 COPD (**Evidence A**). They are given on an as needed basis or on a regular basis
103 to prevent or reduce symptoms.

104 -The principal bronchodilator treatments are β -agonists, anticholinergics,
105 theophylline and a combination of one or more of these drugs (**Evidence A**).

106 -Addition of regular treatment with inhaled glucocorticoids to bronchodilator
107 treatment is appropriate for symptomatic COPD patients with an FEV₁ <50%
108 predicted and repeated exacerbations. (Evidence A)

109 Regular treatment with long-acting bronchodilators is more effective and
110 convenient than treatment with short-acting bronchodilators but more expensive
111 (Evidence A).

112 -Regular treatment with inhaled glucocorticosteroids should only be prescribed
113 for symptomatic COPD patients with documented spirometric response to
114 glucocorticosteroids or in those with an FEV1 < 50% predicted and repeated
115 exacerbations requiring treatment with antibiotics or oral glucocorticosteroids
116 **(Evidence B).**

117 -Chronic treatment with systemic glucocorticosteroids should be avoided because
118 of unfavorable benefit-to-risk ration **(Evidence A).**

119 -All COPD patients benefit from exercise training programs, improving with
120 respect to both exercise tolerance and symptoms of dyspnea and fatigue
121 **(Evidence A).**

122 -Long-term administration of oxygen (>15 hours/day) to patients with chronic
123 respiratory failure has been shown to increase survival **(Evidence A).**

124 **4. Manage Exacerbations**

125 -Exacerbations of respiratory symptoms requiring medical interventions are
126 important clinical events in COPD.

127 -The most common causes of an exacerbation are infection of the
128 tracheobronchial tree and air pollution, but the cause of about one-third of severe
129 exacerbations cannot be identified **(Evidence B).**

130 -Inhaled bronchodilators (particularly inhaled β_2 -agonists and/or
131 anticholinergics), theophylline, and systemic, preferably oral, glucocorticosteoids
132 are effective treatments for acute exacerbations of COPD **(Evidence A).**

133 -Patients experiencing COPD exacerbations with clinical signs of airway infection
134 may benefit from antibiotic treatment **(Evidence B).**

135 -Noninvasive intermittent positive pressure ventilation (NIPPV) in acute
136 exacerbations improves blood gases and pH, reduces in-hospital mortality,
137 decreases the need for invasive mechanical ventilation and intubation, and
138 decreases the length of hospital stay (**Evidence A**).

139

140 ***Validation:***

141 These guidelines were created by lung disease specialists from several countries. The
142 committee received comment from the 2 leading chest medicine professional societies in
143 the US and Europe. The continued revision and updating of this guideline is planned.

144

145 ***Sponsors:***

146 Recommendations were developed by the “GOLD Workshop Staff” who represented
147 several countries. It was sponsored by the National Heart Lung and Blood Institute and
148 the World Health Organization.

149

150 ***Commentary:***

151 As always, applying clinical guidelines in practice requires specific knowledge of a
152 particular patient's needs and consummate medical judgment. To put these guidelines
153 into perspective, the Clinical Practice Committee solicited the following commentary
154 from Dr. William J. Hall, MD.

155 The Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease (Gold) Initiative is an
156 exceptionally ambitious international initiative designed to develop a world-wide
157 standardization for the definition, classification, and management of Chronic Obstructive

158 Lung Disease (COPD) (1). In addition to the Guidelines abstracted in this issue (2), the
159 Initiative has provided a variety of educational resources based on meticulous consensus
160 conferences that adhere to strict principles of evidence-based medicine. On the GOLD
161 web site <http://www.goldcopd.org>, various clinical guideline statements can be printed or
162 downloaded to a PDA. The Initiative has an active program of professional and public
163 education on virtually all continents.

164 There is abundant evidence that chronic lower respiratory disease is common in
165 older adults. Overall, chronic lower respiratory disease remains the fourth leading cause
166 of death among adults age 65 and over (3). COPD, in its various clinical forms, is
167 relatively common in older adults and probably under diagnosed. For example, chronic
168 bronchitis, defined as production of phlegm for at least three months for at least two years
169 is present in about 15% of community dwelling adults age 65 and older (4). The presence
170 of chronic bronchitis is associated with more acute respiratory infections and
171 hospitalizations. In addition to being very common in older adults, chronic bronchitis has
172 strong prognostic implications. In fact, this symptom complex of cough and phlegm
173 production is associated with a 30% excess mortality over a ten-year period (4). Walke
174 and associates found a particularly high symptom burden in community-dwelling older
175 persons with advanced COPD (5). Participants with COPD had 71% more moderate or
176 severe symptoms than did participants with advanced congestive heart failure. As is so
177 often the case in geriatrics, the frequency and range of symptoms associated with COPD
178 may be distinct from those experienced by younger patients. For example, predominate
179 presenting symptoms such as limited activity, fatigue, and physical discomfort are almost

180 as prevalent as shortness of breath (5). Clearly more accurate diagnosis and targeted
181 therapy are likely to benefit older adults with COPD.

182 Although the GOLD guidelines present excellent recommendations for almost all
183 clinical aspects of COPD, the potential modifying effect of age on these
184 recommendations is virtually absent throughout their various position papers. This
185 omission is all the more surprising, since many of the expert panels included scientists
186 and clinicians from Western European countries where the current proportion of older
187 adults is even greater than the US. Since spirometry is proposed as the gold standard for
188 diagnosis of obstructive airways disease, a clear understanding of age-related changes in
189 lung function is essential. Unfortunately, we know considerably less about age-related
190 physiologic changes in the respiratory system compared with other organs systems such
191 as the cardiovascular or renal systems. Since lung function is closely linked to
192 environmental influences, there are probably marked differences among continents and
193 cultures. However, it has been established that normal aging may be associated with
194 physiological changes that can be mistaken for intrinsic disease. Age-related loss of
195 elastic tissue in lung parenchyma may lead to collapse of the airways during expiration
196 resulting in pseudo-obstruction as measured by spirometry (7). Along with other tissue
197 changes, this phenomenon has been labeled in the past as “senile emphysema” a term
198 while perhaps repugnant to geriatricians tries to telegraph the message that this form of
199 emphysema is not disease related. Recent analyses have begun to explore how age might
200 alter the GOLD recommendations. GOLD utilized simple spirometry as the key
201 diagnostic procedure to define stages of COPD. Such instrumentation is inexpensive, and
202 available at most clinical settings, often including long term care facilities, where

203 geriatricians are likely to evaluate and care for older adults. The most recent GOLD
204 recommendations define stage I COPD as airflow limitation where forced expiratory
205 volume in one second/forced vital capacity (FEV₁/FVC)% is <70% and FEV₁ predicted
206 is >80%. Stage 2 COPD has been defined as a FEV₁/FVC% of <70% and an FEV₁%
207 predicted of <80%. These criteria are set irrespective of age (1). This trade-off with
208 simplicity may lead to misclassification. The FEV₁/FVC ratio falls with age, as does the
209 FEV₁ (6). Therefore any scale that does not correct for age will invariably over-diagnosis
210 both the presence and severity of COPD in older adults cohorts. In a recent study from
211 Norway, community-dwelling never-smokers with no current respiratory disease,
212 dyspnea or comorbid illness were tested with spirometry. Approximately 35% of these
213 healthy, older never-smokers had an FEV₁/FVC of <70% and would be classified as
214 having Stage 1 COPD. This percentage increased with age and in those aged >80 years,
215 50% would be classified as having COPD and one-third would have an FEV₁ of <80%
216 (Stage 2). Moreover, since the GOLD criteria for COPD are based on post-bronchodilator
217 FEV₁, routine spirometry in older adults is likely to have an even higher rate of false
218 positivity (8). It is not difficult to imagine a scenario where a 75-year-old woman with
219 congestive heart failure might be diagnosed as having COPD by virtue of spirometry and
220 be prescribed inhaled anticholinergic bronchodilators only to present later with
221 confusion, incontinence, and no relief of her dyspnea, a scenario familiar to all
222 geriatricians.

223 Therapeutic recommendations are also not age specific. The report includes the
224 use of the new generation, long acting anticholinergic bronchodilator, tiotropium, as do
225 other recent guidelines (9-10). This agent has achieved superior bronchodilatation and

226 greater improvement in quality of life compared to other classes of bronchodilators.
227 Moreover, it requires only once-daily administration, and is not appreciably absorbed
228 through the gastrointestinal system. Physiologically, the agent has key muscarinic
229 receptor specificity that theoretically would be of advantage in older patients since it is
230 known that muscarinic activity becomes relatively more important influence on airway
231 tone than beta-receptor activity (11). Presently available clinical trials have not been done
232 in cohorts of patients above age 66. The agent is mainly renally excreted, and the
233 potential adverse anticholinergic effect of the agent in those older patients with
234 substantial age related diminution in creatinine clearance is not known. In addition, the
235 metered dose inhaler requires a high degree of manual dexterity. Potential drug-drug
236 interactions are also not discussed.

237 How should we best utilize this guideline in the care of our older patients? First,
238 we should be reminded that COPD is prevalent in older adults and often presents with a
239 non-specific symptom complex. Secondly, spirometry remains the gold standard in
240 diagnosing obstructive airway syndromes. Even if there is the potential for false-
241 positives, a normal expiratory flow pattern virtually excludes the diagnosis of obstructive
242 lung disease and prevents misclassification and errant treatment. This tool is available to
243 all of us, and is underutilized in the care of older adults. Third, and most importantly,
244 COPD is another example of the potential pitfalls of disease-specific guidelines for older
245 patients with multiple conditions and complex pharmacological regimens (12).

246 Perhaps an equally important question is what does the field of geriatrics have to
247 offer producers of guidelines? COPD is a perfect example of how powerful collaborative
248 clinical research between disease sub-specialists and geriatricians can develop new

249 paradigms for approaching our older patients in what some have labels the post-disease
250 era of medical decision making (13). Examples abound in respiratory disease. We have
251 already mentioned the need for more precise metrics in the use of spirometry for
252 diagnosis in older adults. Newer therapeutic agents potentially useful to our patients have
253 yet to be evaluated in clinical trials targeting older adult, the age group with the most to
254 gain from such therapeutic advances. Even our own cherished instrument, the geriatric
255 functional assessment has yet to be utilized by all but a few academic pulmonologists
256 (14). Many clinical scoring systems heavily weight age, irrespective of functional status,
257 in determining prognosis. It has been recently demonstrated that functional state is an
258 independent predictor for short- and long-term mortality in hospitalized patients older
259 than 65 admitted with community-acquired pneumonia (15). It is likely that the same, or
260 event greater predictive value will be found in patient with acute exacerbations of COPD.
261 The widespread use of non-invasive positive pressure ventilation in treatment of acute
262 respiratory failure is anything but non-invasive to an 80 year old. The key studies to
263 determine its appropriate use have yet to be done.

264 It is likely that funding opportunities can be found for the creative academic
265 geriatricians and their subspecialty colleagues in pulmonary medicine. Such collaborative
266 clinical research is badly needed and geriatricians can make substantial contributions to
267 new knowledge and better care of older adults with respiratory disease.

268

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271 commentary author – William J. Hall have no financial support for research,
272 consultantships, and speakers forum, as well as any company holdings.

273 ***Author Contributions:***

274 Matthew McNabney reviewed extant expert/professional recommendations from the
275 original set of guidelines and abstracted the specific recommendations that were relevant
276 to the Geriatric population. Dr. McNabney drafted the abstracted guidelines and made
277 minor revisions as requested by the AGS Clinical Practice Committee.

278 William J. Hall wrote and edited the commentary.

279 ***Sponsor's Role:*** There is no sponsor for this document.

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