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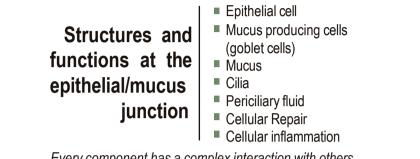
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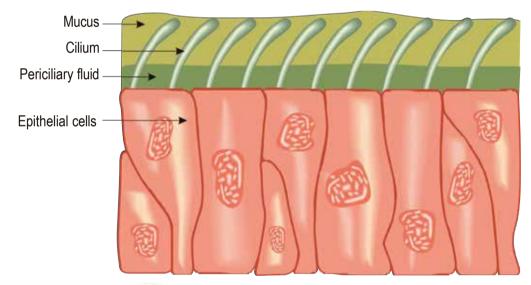
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Editorial

This edition of the journal covers three important common respiratory childhood conditions, namely respiratory tract infections, allergic rhinitis, and obstructive sleep apnea (OSA).

Acute respiratory infections are common in young children and account for frequent visits to the doctor as well as the emergency room. It is important to be able to accurately evaluate the severity of the respiratory disease so that those with more severe diseases requiring admission can be recognized and managed early in the appropriate setting. Several respiratory severity scores have been developed with varying complexities. Examples of such scores are the Tal score, Respiratory Distress Assessment Instrument (RDAI), the Wang Respiratory score (WRS), and the Kristjansson Respiratory score (KRS). Most of the scores are quite similar to the Paediatric Severity Respiratory Score (PRESS) but WRS, KRS, Tal score, and RDAI do not use SaO₂ in the score and uses mainly the components of respiratory rate, wheezing, and retractions with/ without the general condition for the score. These were designed mainly to assess bronchiolitis in children.

The utility of the PRESS as reported by Jagalamarri et al. in this publication has the advantage of being a simple and easy-to-use score that can be easily used in community settings as it uses five components, namely respiratory rate, wheezing, accessory muscle use, SaO₂, and feeding difficulties. SaO₂ is easy to measure in most clinical settings in this day and age. The authors showed a significantly increased need for respiratory support in those who had a severe PRESS as compared with those with a moderate score. The use of the PRESS may be useful in resource-limited countries to differentiate those children who should be admitted for management from those who can be continued to be managed in the community. To better answer that question, a larger community study should be performed. Subsequent management of the child is still dependent on an accurate diagnosis of the respiratory disease as the PRESS is a measure of respiratory distress and is not specific for any disease condition.

Another common disease in childhood is allergic rhinitis, which in Asia can affect up to 40% of children. The mainstay of treatment for allergic rhinitis is the use of intranasal steroids and antihistamines. There are still many parents who have concerns about giving their children long-term steroids due to the perceived complications with steroids. Nonsteroidal treatments are therefore very appealing to parents and especially the use of probiotics that are perceived to be harmless and beneficial to health. This article by Huang *et al.* conducted in Taiwan highlights the acceptability and tolerability of heat-killed *Lactobacillus paracasei* LCW23 in the management of allergic rhinitis. A 12-week treatment with *L. paracasei* LCW23 led to improvement in nasal symptoms. The use of probiotics for the management of allergic diseases is very species dependent and hence the results cannot be generalized to all probiotics.

The third article in this publication is on the use of pulse oximetry to screen for OSA in infants. Infants born prematurely with bronchopulmonary dysplasia, upper airway obstruction, and recurrent clinical apneas are at increased risk of OSA. The gold standard for diagnosing OSA is with polysomnography. However, polysomnography is labor intensive and is not available in many resource-limited countries. Even in countries where it is available, the wait time for a study can be very long due to limited availability. The study by Hou et al. is important as it targets a specific age group which are infants who are difficult to evaluate even on a sleep study. They showed that an overnight pulse oximetry had a good correlation with the polysomnogram. Their study showed that an oxygen desaturation index (ODI) < 90% of >1.3/h can detect an Obstructive Apnea-Hypopnea Index of >2/h with a sensitivity of 77% and specificity of 71%. This will allow more patients to be evaluated in a timely manner and especially in infants where doing an overnight polysomnography can be challenging.

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Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

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Utility of PRESS Score in Predicting the Outcomes of Children Admitted with Respiratory Distress: A Prospective Study

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Abstract

Background: Respiratory distress in children must be promptly recognized and aggressively treated because they decompensate quickly leading to adverse outcomes. **Objectives:** To determine the outcomes of children admitted with respiratory distress based on PRESS score. **Study Design:** A prospective study which was done between September 2018 and March 2020. A total of 90 children of age group 1 month to 10 years with respiratory distress at the time of admission. **Intervention:** The PRESS scoring was done and outcomes measured which included use of Respiratory support [nasal cannula, high flow nasal cannula (HFNC), mechanical ventilation (MV)], duration of ICU and hospital stay. **Results:** Compared to moderate PRESS score, children with severe PRESS score had significantly more admission in PICU (91.30% vs 64.18%, P = 0.016); significantly more number of days of hospital stay (7 vs 5, P = 0.001); significantly more number of days of ICU stay (5 vs 3, P<.0001); significantly more median days of respiratory support (4 vs 3, P<.0001); significantly more use of respiratory support (67 vs 23patients, P < 0.0003) and more HFNC usage (73.91% vs 20.90%, P<.0001). However there was comparable requirement of mechanical ventilation between the two groups (8.7% vs 0%, P = 0.063). **Conclusion:** PRESS score can be a useful respiratory scoring system in triaging the children at the time of admission and in predicting the requirement of respiratory support and duration of hospital stay. It probably may serve as a useful tool at the community level to consider referral to an appropriate health facility in view of its simplicity.

Keywords: HFNC, respiratory distress, respiratory score, Spo2

INTRODUCTION

Respiratory distress in children, particularly in infants, must be promptly recognized and aggressively treated because they decompensate quickly due to smaller airways, increased metabolic demands and less respiratory reserves. As such profound respiratory distress in children if not treated early and appropriately leads to respiratory failure and thus to cardiac arrest.^[1-5] So early recognition of respiratory distress and failure is important for implementation of non-invasive or invasive modalities to decrease mortality and morbidity.

Paediatric Respiratory Severity Score (PRESS) is one of the scores used for triaging and assessment of respiratory status.

It is crucial to evaluate the severity of respiratory distress in a timely manner at the initial bedside assessment in emergency department, so that further management can

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be planned. There are few scoring systems for evaluating respiratory distress at bed side. Paediatric respiratory score is one of the first score developed and used at Seattle children's hospital in 2004.^[6]

Yumiko Miyaji, K. Sugai *et al.* developed PRESS score in 2010 to evaluate a new simple bedside scoring system for the rapid assessment of paediatric respiratory infections in emergency settings.^[6]

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After that few studies were done basing on the PRESS score in evaluating the respiratory infections. Population group included was 1 month to 16 years.

Those studies highlighted the importance of PRESS score as a bed side scoring system for respiratory infections, need for hospitalization and need for oxygen therapy.^[6-8] There are also studies comparing CRS score (Clinical Respiratory Score) with PRESS Score.^[6,7] As PRESS score is very simple in its application, we preferred this for our study. It can be used in resource limited settings.

Inclusion criteria

Children of age group 1 month to 10 years with respiratory distress at the time of admission, independent of need for supplemental oxygen, HFNC, mechanical ventilation with or without fever were included in the study.

Exclusion criteria

Children of age less than one month, more than 10 years, and children with non-respiratory causes of respiratory distress were excluded from the study.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

After taking informed and written consent from the parents, we conducted a prospective observational study on 90 children over a period of 18 months from September 2018 to March 2020. Approval from Ethics committee was taken before commencing the study.

PRESS scoring was done at the time of admission and children were categorized into mild, moderate and severe respiratory distress. PRESS includes five components namely, respiratory rate, wheezing, accessory muscle use, SpO2, and feeding difficulties. Respiratory rate was evaluated based on the WHO guidelines.^[4] Wheezing was defined by auscultation performed by experienced paediatricians. Accessory muscle use was defined as visible retraction of one or more of the supraclavicular /suprasternal, intercostal, and subcostal muscles. SpO2 was evaluated as above or below 95% at room air. Feeding difficulties were assessed using information provided by the parents. Each component was given 0 or 1 point and the PRESS total score was classified as mild (0-1 points), moderate (2-3 points), or severe (4-5 points).

Data was collected regarding requirement and duration of respiratory support [by means of nasal oxygen therapy, high flow nasal cannula (HFNC) and mechanical ventilation (MV)], duration of ICU stay, and duration of hospital stay. Children who were given nasal oxygen were weaned off to room air. Children who required HFNC were gradually weaned off to nasal oxygen and then to room air. Likewise children who required mechanical ventilator were weaned off to HFNC and followed by nasal oxygen and subsequently to room air.

Statistical analysis

Collected data was entered in MS excel spreadsheet. Statistical tests were applied as follows-

- Quantitative variables were compared using ANOVA
 / Kruskal wallis Test (when the data sets were not normally distributed.) between the severity.
- 2. Qualitative variables were compared using Chi-Square test / Fisher's exact test.

Analysis was done using Statistical package for social science (SPSS) version 21.0. A p value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Demographic data of the study subjects revealed, the mean age of the children was 12.44 ± 14.83 months with a male preponderance with 59(65.56%) males and 31(34.44%) females. Of the 90 children, 64 (71.11%) were admitted in PICU and 26 (28.99%) were admitted in ward.

Respiratory support in the form of mechanical ventilation was required in 2 (2.22%) children, HFNC was required in 31 (34.44%) children and nasal oxygen was required in 33 (36.66%) children. Total no of children requiring respiratory support (nasal oxygen/HFNC/MV) was 66 (73.33%) and 24 (26.67%) children did not receive respiratory support in any form.

Mean PRESS score of study subjects was 3.1 ± 0.74 . PRESS score was moderate in 67 (74.44%) children and severe in 23(25.56%) children. Compared to moderate PRESS score, children with severe PRESS score had more significant requirement of respiratory support (Nasal oxygen/ HFNC/ MV) [43/67(64.18%) children vs 23/23(100%) children] with a P value of <0.0003 [Table 1].

Mean number of days of requirement of respiratory support was 2.64 ± 1.87 . Mean number of days of requirement of HFNC support was in 1.22 ± 1.8 . Mean number of days of hospital stay was i.e. 6.28 ± 3.02 . Mean number of days of ICU stay was 3.06 ± 2.13 [Table 1].

Compared to moderate PRESS score, children with severe PRESS score had significantly more admission in PICU (91.30% vs 64.18%, P = 0.016); significantly more number of days of hospital stay (7 vs 5, P = 0.001); significantly more number of days of ICU stay (5 vs 3, P<.0001); significantly more median days of respiratory support (4 vs 3, P<.0001); significantly more use of HFNC (73.91% vs 20.90%, P<.0001) and comparable requirement of ventilator (8.70% vs 0%, P = 0.063) [Table 1] [Figure 1].

DISCUSSION

In our study PRESS score was moderate and severe in 67(74.44%) and 23(25.56%) of study subjects respectively. Mild cases did not require admission and hence not included in the study. In the study by Miyaji *et al*, it was

Course during hospital stay	PRESS	score	Total	P value
	Moderate(n=67)	Severe(n=23)		
Zone of admission				
PICU	43 (64.18%)	21 (91.30%)	64 (71.11%)	0.016*
Ward	24 (35.82%)	2 (8.70%)	26 (28.89%)	
Ventilator				
No	67 (100.00%)	21 (91.30%)	88 (97.78%)	0.063*
Yes	0 (0.00%)	2 (8.70%)	2 (2.22%)	
HFNC				
No	53 (79.10%)	6 (26.09%)	59 (65.56%)	<.0001
Yes	14 (20.90%)	17 (73.91%)	31 (34.44%)	
Mean ± Stdev	0.67 ± 1.34	2.83 ± 2.04	1.22 ± 1.8	<.0001
Median(IQR)	0(0 - 0)	3(0.500 - 4)	0(0 - 3)	
Number of days of Respiratory support				
Mean ± Stdev	2.13 ± 1.77	4.13 ± 1.29	2.64 ± 1.87	<.0001
Median(IQR)	3(0 - 4)	4(3 - 5)	3(0 - 4)	
Number of days of hospital stay				
Mean ± Stdev	5.7 ± 2	7.96 ± 4.58	6.28 ± 3.02	0.001 ^s
Median(IQR)	5(4 - 7)	7(6 - 8)	6(4 - 7)	
Number of days of ICU stay				
Mean ± Stdev	2.45 ± 1.96	4.83 ± 1.56	3.06 ± 2.13	<.0001
Median(IQR)	3(0 - 4)	5(4 - 5.750)	3(1 - 5)	

*-Fisher's Exact test #-Chi square test

\$-Mann Whitney test(as the data sets were not normally distributed so median was used for comparison)

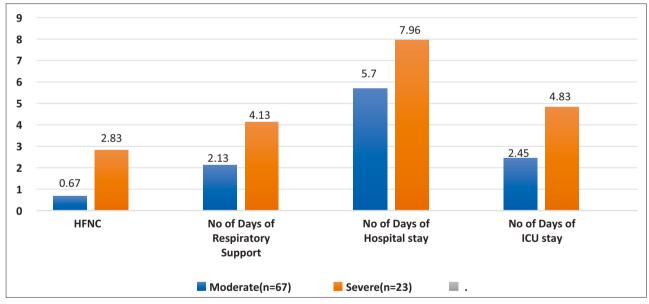


Figure 1: Association of PRESS score with course during hospital stay

found that 49.0% participants were classified as mild, 34.7% as moderate, and 16.3% as severe PRESS scores.^[6] In another study by Alexandrino *et al*, revealed that 37.3% of the children had a normal respiratory health condition, 62.7% had a moderate impairment of the respiratory health condition and there were no cases of severe impairment of the respiratory health condition as per PRESS scores.^[8]

In our study, on comparing children with severe PRESS score and moderate PRESS score, there was a significant requirement of PICU admission (91.30% vs 64.18%) (P = 0.016). The findings were in line with the western studies.^[9-18] The PICU admission as indicated by the higher PRESS scores suggests utility value in triaging the children in ER. Also, future studies could look at ability of low PRESS to predict successful outpatient management,

and ability of high PRESS to predict children in need of early aggressive inpatient care.

On comparing children with severe PRESS score and moderate PRESS score there was significantly more median days of respiratory support (4 vs 3, P<.0001); significantly more use of HFNC (73.91% vs 20.90%, P<.0001) and there was comparable requirement of ventilation. (8.7% vs 0%, P = 0.063). Our findings were in line with Miyaji *et al*, who reported that oxygen therapy was longer in severe cases compared with mild and moderate cases (3.7 ± 1.8 vs 0.2 ± 0.8 vs 1.5 ± 1.8).^[6] This shows higher PRESS score denotes severe respiratory dysfunction thus requiring a prolonged respiratory support in the form of HFNC or oxygen therapy. The present study shows a significant utility value of HFNC as compared to mechanical ventilation.^[19] This study probably reinforces the present trend towards non-invasive respiratory management.

As expected, we noted that as compared to children with moderate PRESS score, children with severe PRESS score had significantly more number of days of hospital stay (7 vs 5, P = 0.001); and significantly more number of days of ICU stay (5 vs 3, P<.0001). Similar results were reported by Miyaji *et al*, who found that the hospitalization rate was 32.3% in mild cases, 91.4% in moderate cases, and 97.0% in severe cases, with significant differences between the hospitalization rates of mild and moderate cases, and between mild and severe cases. Number of days of hospital stay was highest in those with severe PRESS score than mild and moderate PRESS score in determining the duration of ICU stay and Hospital stay.

Based on our results, we can assume that the PRESS score can help in triaging the children in ER and in deciding the zone of admission and the probable clinical course. These findings may have clinical implications and usefulness in research as it could be used to determine the severity of respiratory illness. This utility may be especially true in resource limited settings but it requires community level validation.

Limitations of our study

The patients enrolled were at a single academic institution that is a referral centre for numerous local hospitals. As such children who were included in the study were probably more sick than those at other hospitals and at the community level. So the PRESS score in this study is probably skewed in favour of severe cases. Another limitation was small sample size. To offset this aberration larger community level studies and multicentric studies with larger sample size may be needed to further validate the scoring system.

CONCLUSION

PRESS score can be a useful respiratory scoring system in triaging the children at the time of admission and in predicting the requirement of respiratory support, zone of admission and duration of hospital stay. As it is a simple severity scoring system, healthcare providers at all levels of health care, especially in resource limited settings can apply it as a preliminary patient assessment tool for initial triaging and referral to an appropriate healthcare facility. As of now this score needs to be validated at the community level and if found good it may be applied more efficiently at the community level by health workers also. Early recognition, referral and treatment can save lives of many children. Further large scale studies can look at the ability of PRESS score in deciding the modality of respiratory support and utility value of mild PRESS score in predicting successful outpatient management.

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Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

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Efficacy and Safety of Orally Administered Heat-killed Lactobacillus paracasei LCW23 in Patients with Allergic Rhinitis: A Randomized Controlled Clinical Trial

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Abstract

Objective: In this study, we primarily evaluated the effects of IMMUPHYLA LCW23 on symptoms of allergic rhinitis. IMMUPHYLA LCW23 is a commercial probiotic product containing the *Lactobacillus paracasei* LCW23 strain. **Materials and Methods:** Sixty 5–18-year-old children with allergic rhinitis positive for the dust mite-specific bivalent antibody and meeting the inclusion criteria were enrolled in this double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled trial. They were administered 2–4 g of the probiotic product containing *L. paracasei* LCW23 (2.5×10^9 cells/g; n = 28) or a placebo supplement (n = 32) according to their body weights for 12 weeks. After the treatment period, a self-assessment of allergic rhinitis symptoms in the nose and eyes was performed. **Results:** This study results revealed that 12-week supplementation with IMMUPHYLA LCW23 is safe, with no side effects. In addition, the Pediatric Rhinoconjunctivitis Quality of Life Questionnaire (PRQLQ) assessment revealed that the probiotic significantly alleviated general discomfort (P = 0.003) and common symptoms of allergic rhinitis, such as nasal congestion (P = 0.033), runny nose (P = 0.001), and blowing nose (P = 0.008). **Conclusion:** Administration of IMMUPHYLA LCW23 was safe in the long-term follow-up study. The probiotic likely reduced the risk of allergy prevalence, without any major side effects.

Keywords: Allergic rhinitis, heat-killed probiotic, IMMUPHYLA LCW23, Lactobacillus paracasei LCW23, PRQLQ

INTRODUCTION

Allergic rhinitis is the most common childhood illness. The prevalence of this global health concern is continuously increasing.^[1] Allergic diseases are characterized by long-term nasal symptoms of obstruction, rhinorrhea, sneezing, and itching, affecting 10%–40% of the children worldwide.^[2] According to the World Allergy Organization, more than 400 million individuals experience allergic rhinitis globally. In the European Union, one in every four children is affected by an allergic disease. Increasing adoption of western lifestyles and use of antibiotics cause changes in the normal microflora, which can predispose children to allergic diseases. In the USA, 10–30% of adults and up to 40% of children are affected by the condition.

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Taiwan is an island region with a subtropical climate that is hot and humid. The air quality is also poor in the region. These factors are conducive to allergen prevalence. Allergic diseases in the region include allergic rhinitis, asthma, and insect-sting allergies. Contact or inhaled allergens cause allergic rhinitis, which is associated with a series of immune reactions that cause inflammation of the nasal mucosa. Children and adolescents have a considerably

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higher prevalence of allergic rhinitis than adults do. The prevalence rate decreases with age.^[3] Although allergic rhinitis is considered a mild and seasonal nuisance, it leads to a considerable economic burden and affects children's social activities, school performance, and work efficiency.

Supplementation of specific probiotic bacteria is an attractive approach to reduce the risk of allergic rhinitis.^[4,5] The health benefits of lactic acid bacteria were first observed by Metchnikoff in the late nineteenth century.^[6] Currently, oral bacteriotherapy is accepted in the prevention and treatment of allergies.^[7] Probiotics have been used effectively in allergen-mediated conditions to alleviate allergy symptoms by improving the gut ecosystem.^[4] The incidence of allergic diseases has been reported to be associated with the presence of probiotics in the gut, especially *Lactobacillus paracasei*.^[8] A randomized, double-blind clinical trial^[9] found that the ingestion of milk fermented with L. paracasei reduced the severity and frequency of allergic rhinitis symptoms. The antiallergic mechanism of probiotics is related to immune regulation in which the Th1/ Th2 balance is skewed toward Th1 by inhibiting Th2 cytokines.^[10] Another study reported that L. paracasei strains may be more beneficial than other strains are in treating allergies.^[11] Clinical trials on allergies in children administered L. paracasei supplementation reported improvement in perennial allergic rhinitis symptoms in 95% of the patients.^[4] Recent evidence indicated that a combination supplement of L. paracasei and L. plantarum for 3 months is beneficial in reducing common cold infections in children.^[12] Moreover, supplementation with L. paracasei positively and significantly improved ocular symptoms, as assessed using the Rhinoconjunctivitis Quality of Life Questionnaire (RQLQ).^[13] Studies have also demonstrated the beneficial effects of L. paracasei LP33 on allergic rhinitis symptoms.^[9,14] Huang et al.^[15] revealed that children with asthma receiving L. paracasei for 12 weeks demonstrated reduced asthma severity and improved allergic rhinitis symptoms. These study results reveal the therapeutic potential and safety of L. paracasei supplementation.

Clinical studies have suggested that non-viable probiotic containing dead cells and their metabolites can exert relevant biological responses.^[16] For instance, it can release bacterial components with key immunomodulating effects,^[16,17] enhancing gene expression,^[18] activated macrophages, and suppressed excessive inflammation in mice and humans.^[19,20] *L. paracasei* LCW23 (commercially available as IMMUPHYLA LCW23[®]) was initially isolated from the intestinal tract of normal, healthy humans in Taiwan. Due to specific heat-killed process, *L. paracasei* LCW23 exert relevant biological benefit. Our animal studies have demonstrated that heat-treated *L. paracasei* LCW23 can significantly reduce immunoglobulin E (IgE) level and allergy-related cytokines such as interleukin-4

(IL-4) and IL-5. Besides, *L. paracasei* LCW23 can reduce inflammatory cell infiltration and airway obstructions when observing lung tissue in mice (data not published). Specific heat-killed process allows *L. paracasei* LCW23 to retain its immune activity without being restricted by temperature condition. In this investigation, we hypothesize that heat-killed *L. paracasei* LCW23 can improve allergic symptoms in children caused by allergic rhinitis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

This double-blind, randomized, parallel, placebocontrolled study was conducted in Taiwan. The trial was approved by the Ethics Committee of the hospital (No. 97-1580D). In total, 80 children with allergic rhinitis were recruited in this study. Signed informed consent to participate in the study was obtained from their caregivers. The children were randomly allocated to either the probiotic (n = 40) or placebo (n = 40) group. Inclusion criteria were as follows: (I) 5-18 years of age; (II) personal allergy history, (III) family allergy history, and (IV) allergy to house dust mites. Exclusion criteria were as follows: (I) use of any other steroid-containing drugs and (II) smoking. During the screening period, patient characteristics and personal histories of allergic diseases were obtained. Allergic responses were confirmed concomitantly in a positive skin prick test or specific IgE (ImmunoCAP; Pharmacia and Upjohn, Kalamazoo, MI, USA) bivalent for house dust mites.

Study design

IMMUPHYLA LCW23 and a placebo powder were prepared and coded in good manufacturing practice (GMP)-certified facilities by Syngen Biotech Co., Ltd (Tainan, Taiwan, ROC) and dispensed by a study nurse. IMMUPHYLA LCW23 comprised *L. paracasei* LCW23 $(2.5 \times 10^9$ cells/g) heat killed at 70–75°C for 30 min. The probiotic and placebo (sharing the same physical appearance) products were stored at room temperature and administered to the participants orally once daily at night for 12 weeks. Children who weighed less than 30 kg were administered 2 g of the probiotic or placebo per day, whereas those weighing more than 30 kg were given 4 g of probiotic or placebo.

Each subject had five clinical visits (visits 0–4) in the protocol. At visit 0, which was the screening visit, general data of all children were recorded. A comprehensive medical and allergy rhinitis history were obtained from all children. A physical examination of vital signs (blood pressure, heart rate, body temperature, and respiratory rate) was performed at each visit. In addition, blood samples were collected at the baseline assessment visit (visit 1) and end-of-study visit (visit 4) for evaluation of the allergy markers of total IgE, absolute eosinophil count

RESULTS

Demographic characteristics

trial, children and caregivers received the questionnaire assessment. The children or caregivers assessed the severity of allergic rhinoconjunctivitis symptoms in the nose and eyes, quality of life, and other symptoms by using the modified Pediatric RQLQ (PRQLQ) at the baseline assessments visit (visit 1), treatment visits (visits 2 and 3), and end-of-study visit (visit 4). Adverse events (AEs) were recorded in the diary at each visit [Figure 1].

(AEC), and related biochemical parameters. During the

PRQLQ evaluation

The PRQLQ, developed by Juniper *et al.*,^[21] is a diseasespecific HRQOL instrument focussing on the physical and emotional impact of a disease. The modified PRQLQ can comprehensively evaluate the physical, psychological, and social skills of children with allergic rhinoconjunctivitis.^[21] It is divided into two parts, namely, the degree and frequency of symptoms, and each part has 20 questions in 5 domains: nasal symptoms, ocular symptoms, practical problems, other symptoms, and activity limitations. Each item is scored using a 5-point scale from 0 to 4, with 0 representing no impairment and 4 maximum impairments. The participants were asked to complete the questionnaire with assistance from their parents at visits 1–4.

Biochemical analysis

Dust mite-specific IgE in total serum was measured using a fluorescence enzyme immunoassay. Peripheral blood was also sampled and measured using an automated hematology analyzer. Blood samples were analyzed for white blood cell count, red blood cell count, hemoglobin, hematocrit, glutamic oxaloacetic transaminase, and glutamic pyruvic transaminase.

Statistical analysis

Efficacy was assessed on the basis of symptoms of allergic rhinitis by using the modified PRQLQ. A χ^2 test was used for comparative analysis. The differences between the study groups were compared using an unpaired *t*-test, and differences between visits in each group were compared using a paired *t*-test. A *P*-value of less than 0.05, with a 95% confidence interval, was considered statistically significant in all tests. All values are expressed as means \pm SDs.

A total of 80 participants were randomly and equally allocated to the probiotic and placebo groups for screening. Of the 80 screened children, 20 were excluded for the following reasons: 6 participants did not meet the acceptance criteria in visit 0 (e.g., those aged <5 or >18 years). In the baseline assessment during visit 1, three participants did not have positive allergy test results. Of these three participants, two had negative results for the house dust mite-specific antibody bivalent and one did not have baseline biochemical data from blood samples. In visit 2, 11 participants withdrew their consent during the experiment. Among them, seven withdrew their consent and four were excluded for taking steroids during the study period [Figure 2]. Finally, 60 children participated in this study, and their demographic data are provided in Table 1. No statistically significant differences were observed between the groups at baseline.

Efficacy assessment

No differences in the level of general discomfort were noted in the baseline PRQLQ scores between the probiotic and placebo groups $(2.50 \pm 1.32 \text{ and } 2.50 \pm 1.31,$ respectively). The symptom scores for general discomfort level (P = 0.003) [Table 2], frequency of nasal congestion (P = 0.033), runny nose (P = 0.001), and blowing nose (P = 0.008) [Table 3] in the probiotic group were significantly reduced at final visit when compared with those in the placebo group. After taking the probiotic product for 4 weeks, the participants exhibited a significant improvement in 18 of the 40 items (45%) on the questionnaire regarding symptoms of allergic rhinitis. Furthermore, 32 items (80%) were significantly improved and 38 items (95%) were improved in the symptoms of allergic rhinitis at week 12.

The percentage changes in IgE and AEC levels between baseline and visit 4 in the probiotic and placebo groups are presented in Figure 3. No significant difference in the IgE or AEC levels was noted between the groups. This was possibly due to a large variation in the level of allergenspecific IgE in serum.

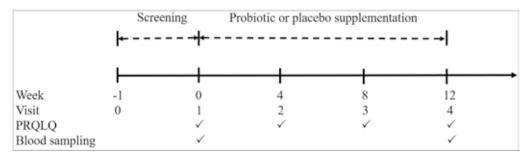


Figure 1: Schema of the experimental design

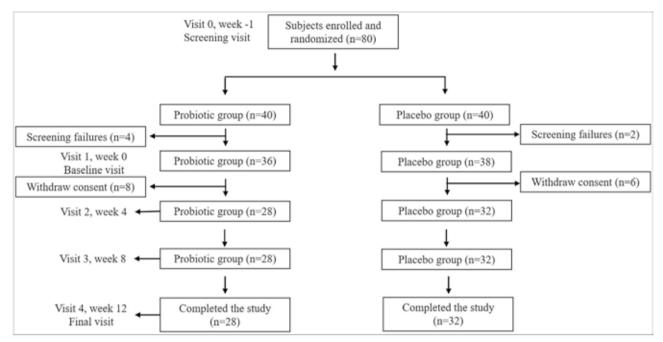


Figure 2: Flow chart of study procedures

Table 1: Baselin	e characteristics of participa	ants
	IMMUPHYLA LCW23 $^{(n)}$ ($n = 28$)	Placebo $(n = 32)$
Gender (F/M)	14/14	13/19
Age (years)	9.92 ± 3.00	9.19 ± 3.45
Height (cm)	138.95 ± 15.54	134.89 ± 19.26
Weight (kg)	35.92 ± 12.22	34.91 ± 14.93
BMI (kg/m ²)	18.09 ± 3.01	18.41±3.36

Safety assessment

Adverse reactions were not noted in vital signs or physical examination of all systems in both groups. AEs were noted in seven children. Overall, 28 AEs of mild or moderate severity were reported. The most common AE was vomiting (21.4%), followed by headache (14.2%). The incidence of any other AE was <11%. The treating physician identified that one case of nausea and one case of vomiting were related to the probiotic, but their severities were mild. The probiotic group had a lower proportion of AEs (9.3%) than the placebo group did (12.5%).

DISCUSSION

Inhaled allergens and specific IgE antibodies in the body may trigger an immune response, leading to allergic rhinitis. Mast cells, the body's immune cells, release inflammatory substances, such as histamine, which cause inflammation of the nasal mucosa. The three most typical symptoms of allergic rhinitis are sneezing, nasal congestion, and runny nose. If the symptoms of allergic rhinitis are not well controlled, they may affect breathing and sleep quality, even resulting in poor learning ability and weakened concentration.^[22,23]

The effects of probiotics on allergic rhinitis have been widely investigated in randomized clinical trials and summarized in multiple reviews and meta-analyses.[10,24,25] Probiotics for the primary prevention of allergy have been investigated. L. paracasei is a member of normal human and animal gut microbiota. Previous studies have indicated that L. paracasei has antiallergic benefits possibly by modulating the immune response through rebalancing the Th1/Th2 pathway.^[26] Our study indicated that L. paracasei LCW23 exerts antiallergic benefits after 3 months of supplementation. Intake of L. paracasei LCW23 for 8 weeks can help patients achieve up to 80% of improvement in symptoms. After 12 weeks of treatment, it can help achieve 95% improvement in allergic rhinitis symptoms, with a low incidence of AEs. After the 3-month experimental period, children in the probiotic group had significantly less frequent uncomfortable symptoms such as nasal congestion, runny nose, and blowing nose than did those in the placebo group. Our findings are consistent with results of previous studies, which demonstrated that certain probiotic strains are effective in alleviating allergic rhinitis,^[9,13,14] with no serious AEs.^[9,14]

L. paracasei LCW23 is a heat-killed probiotic. Heat treatment may affect the composition of the bacterial cell wall and modify the immunological properties of the bacterium, providing protection against enteropathogens and helping maintain intestinal barrier integrity.^[27] Previous studies have revealed that dead bacterial cells release components with key immunomodulating effects and antagonizing properties against pathogens.^[16] In a clinical study, heat-killed *L. paracasei* effectively improved the overall QoL of patients with allergic rhinitis.^[14] Other investigations have shown that

Variables	IMMUPHYLA LCW23® (first visit)	Placebo (first visit)	Р	IMMUPHYLA LCW23® (final visit)	Placebo (final visit)	Р
Nose symptoms domains						
Stuffy	3.18 ± 1.145	3.18 ± 1.145	NS	2.06 ± 1.037	2.10 ± 1.039	NS
Sneezing	2.88 ± 1.062	3.22 ± 1.005	NS	2.19 ± 0.941	2.00 ± 0.962	NS
Runny nose	2.75 ± 1.195	3.15 ± 1.096	NS	2.08 ± 0.997	2.09 ± 0.989	NS
Itchy nose	2.81 ± 1.139	3.18 ± 1.158	NS	1.97 ± 0.872	$1.78 \pm .912$	NS
Eye symptoms domains						
Itchy eyes	2.56 ± 1.320	2.53 ± 1.190	NS	1.83 ± 0.985	2.03 ± 1.119	NS
Watery eyes	1.77 ± 1.035	1.93 ± 1.055	NS	1.45 ± 0.711	1.50 ± 0.970	NS
Swollen	1.78 ± 1.291	1.63 ± 0.960	NS	1.39 ± 0.748	1.28 ± 0.643	NS
Sore eyes	1.66 ± 1.144	1.56 ± 0.952	NS	1.41 ± 0.729	$1.37 \pm .667$	NS
Practical problems domains						
Rub nose and eyes	3.03 ± 1.333	3.12 ± 1.086	NS	2.00 ± 0.909	3.12 ± 1.086	NS
Blow nose	2.98 ± 1.303	3.13 ± 1.078	NS	2.03 ± 0.942	3.13 ± 1.078	NS
Carry Kleenex	2.67 ± 1.322	2.71 ± 1.270	NS	2.02 ± 1.161	2.71 ± 1.270	NS
Feel embarrassed	2.50 ± 1.297	2.66 ± 1.192	NS	1.75 ± 0.816	2.66 ± 1.192	NS
Other symptoms domains						
Tired	2.52 ± 1.155	2.59 ± 1.284	NS	1.78 ± 0.934	1.87 ± 0.960	NS
Irritable	2.75 ± 1.309	2.32 ± 1.321	NS	1.66 ± 1.042	1.56 ± 0.741	NS
Do not feel well all over	2.50 ± 1.333	2.50 ± 1.321	NS	1.41 ± 0.583	$1.85 \pm 1.040^{\#}$	0.003
Headache	2.11 ± 1.086	$1.87 \pm .976$	NS	1.47 ± 0.734	1.43 ± 0.759	NS
Activities limitation domains						
Playing outdoors	2.08 ± 1.145	2.06 ± 1.244	NS	1.53 ± 0.755	1.71 ± 0.754	NS
Hard to get to sleep at night	2.75 ± 1.309	2.85 ± 1.319	NS	1.77 ± 0.988	1.68 ± 0.781	NS
Hard to pay attention	2.83 ± 1.242	2.79 ± 1.333	NS	2.00 ± 1.155	1.82 ± 0.961	NS
Wake up during the night	2.45 ± 1.458	2.32 ± 1.321	NS	1.58 ± 1.051	1.46 ± 0.762	NS

Table 2: Mean severity score for individual symptom items of the Pediatric Rhinoconjunctivitis Quality of Life Questionnaire between the probiotic and placebo groups (n = 60)

Between-group comparison, #NS = not significant

heat-killed L. paracasei produces a high-tumor necrosis factor-a secretion of stimulated monocytes.^[28] Heatkilled bacteria are different from live bacteria in terms of their lipoteichoic acid (LTA), peptidoglycan (PGN), and exopolysaccharide contents.^{[16} Evidence has demonstrated that bacterial cell-wall components, such as PGNs and LTAs, stimulate IL-12 (p70) production^[29] and activate the innate immune system through pattern recognition receptors called toll-like receptors.[30,31] PGNs are a major component of the probiotic cell wall, which interacts with TLR2 for Th1-cell activation and differentiation.^[32] In addition, Li et al.^[33] reported that PGNs in probiotics have preventive activity against allergic inflammatory response by regulating Treg/Th17 imbalance. In contrast, LTAs from the cell wall of heatkilled L. paracasei D3-5 can be used as a biotherapy to ameliorate leaky gut and inflammation.[34] Non-viable probiotics can provide health benefits in terms of modulating immunity. They may further act to reduce allergic rhinitis symptoms.

Allergens taken up by antigen-presenting cells lead to the activation of Th2 cells, which help regulate cellular immunity, promote isotype transformation, and produce specific IgE antibodies from B cells.^[35] Theoretically, patients with allergic rhinitis are more likely to have an elevated total IgE level than healthy individuals, and *L. paracasei* may reduce IgE levels. However, previous researches showed inconsistent results. A previous study reported that *L. paracasei* CNCMI-1518 affects immune responses by inhibiting IgE-dependent human basophil and mouse mast-cell activation.^[11] In a 12-month study, the *L. paracasei* group had decreased IgE levels compared with the placebo group.^[15] However, other studies reported no significant difference in IgE levels between the probiotic and placebo groups, which were consistent with our study.^[36-40] These inconsistent results may be explained by the difference of study groups age, probiotic strains, and the duration of treatment.

L. paracasei LCW23 did not change the biochemical parameters in the study population at the baseline or final visit. The findings indicated that the probiotic used in our study did not have any obvious side effects in children. In addition, uncomfortable symptoms in a single child were related to the test sample, but the severity of these AEs was mild. Moreover, the probiotic group had a lower proportion of AEs (9.3%) than the placebo group did. Therefore, *L. paracasei* LCW23 is considered safe for use in children.

Variables	IMMUPHYLA LCW23® (first visit)	Placebo (first visit)	<i>P</i> -value	IMMUPHYLA LCW23® (final visit)	Placebo (final visit)	<i>P</i> -value
Nose symptoms domains						
Stuffy	3.59 ± 1.231	3.66 ± 0.971	NS	2.30 ± 0.987	$2.68 \pm 1.029^{\#}$	0.033
Sneezing	3.07 ± 0.919	3.00 ± 0.909	NS	2.34 ± 0.930	2.38 ± 0.792	NS
Runny nose	2.88 ± 0.890	2.66 ± 1.087	NS	2.03 ± 0.942	$2.54 \pm 0.818^{\#}$	0.001
Itchy nose	2.99 ± 1.000	2.70 ± 1.064	NS	2.06 ± 0.941	2.26 ± 0.940	NS
Eye symptoms domains						
Itchy eyes	2.27 ± 0.930	2.41 ± 0.950	NS	1.84 ± 0.979	1.93 ± 0.869	NS
Watery eyes	1.91 ± 1.050	1.79 ± 0.890	NS	1.44 ± 0.710	1.50 ± 0.820	NS
Swollen	1.63 ± 0.826	1.71 ± 0.830	NS	1.39 ± 0.704	1.41 ± 0.696	NS
Sore eyes	1.72 ± 1.061	1.59 ± 0.738	NS	1.38 ± 0.655	1.46 ± 0.679	NS
Practical problems domains						
Rub nose and eyes	2.83 ± 1.135	3.10 ± 0.917	NS	2.00 ± 0.816	2.15 ± 0.778	NS
Blow nose	3.10 ± 0.917	2.86 ± 1.167	NS	2.09 ± 0.955	2.50 ± 0.782 #	0.008
Carry Kleenex	2.93 ± 1.188	2.97 ± 1.321	NS	1.95 ± 1.133	2.06 ± 1.244	NS
Feel embarrassed	2.50 ± 1.113	2.50 ± 1.357	NS	1.86 ± 1.006	1.90 ± 1.095	NS
Other symptoms domains						
Tired	2.72 ± 1.188	2.69 ± 1.175	NS	1.88 ± 1.016	2.03 ± 1.007	NS
Irritable	2.70 ± 1.094	2.43 ± 1.163	NS	1.89 ± 1.071	1.75 ± 0.904	NS
Do not feel well all over	2.56 ± 1.167	2.59 ± 1.136	NS	1.58 ± 0.773	1.85 ± 0.996	NS
Headache	2.19 ± 0.990	2.00 ± 0.993	NS	1.50 ± 0.735	1.49 ± 0.763	NS
Activities limitation domains						
Playing outdoors	2.20 ± 1.115	2.24 ± 1.024	NS	1.81 ± 1.111	1.94 ± 0.844	NS
Hard to get to sleep at night	2.75 ± 1.098	2.59 ± 1.026	NS	1.81 ± 1.052	1.74 ± 0.908	NS
Hard to pay attention	2.97 ± 1.272	2.93 ± 1.297	NS	2.13 ± 1.228	2.06 ± 1.006	NS
Wake up during the night	2.33 ± 1.222	2.19 ± 1.200	NS	1.67 ± 1.024	1.60 ± 0.900	NS

Table 3: Mean frequency score for individual of symptoms items of the Pediatric Rhinoconjunctivitis Quality of Life Questionnaire
between the problotic and placebo groups ($n = 60$)

Between-group comparison, *NS = not significant

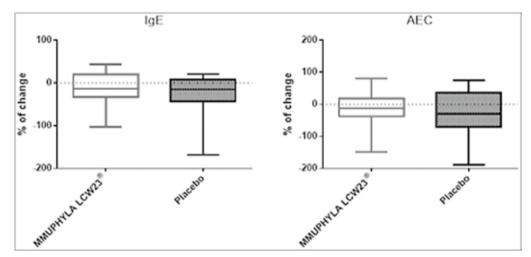


Figure 3: Change in IgE and AEC levels between baseline and visit 4 in the placebo and the IMMUPHYLA LCW23 groups

CONCLUSION

Supplementation with the probiotic product for 12 weeks significantly improved individual symptoms, such as frequency of uncomfortable symptoms and nasal concerns, compared with placebo supplementation. The benefits of heat-killed bacteria can be exploited in

a commercial product. There are several advantages for such a product including the absence of risks for immunocompromised children, increased stability compared to products containing live bacteria, and therefore easier to ship and store. *L. paracasei* LCW23 appears to be safe, with potential therapeutic value in allergy alleviation.

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Conflicts of interest

The authors have no conflicts of interest. This manuscript was edited by Wallace Academic Editing.

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Use of Pulse Oximetry to Screen for Infant Obstructive Sleep Apnoea

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Abstract

Introduction: Pulse oximetry is currently used to screen for obstructive sleep apnoea (OSA) in children. However, its use in infant has not yet been well studied. **Aim:** The aim of this study was to develop a screening criterion using pulse oximetry to identify infant with probable OSA. **Materials and Methods:** This was a retrospective cross-sectional study including infants <1 year of age with features of upper airway obstruction or requiring home oxygen to find associations between obstructive apnoea hypopnoea index (OAHI) in infant polysomnography (PSG) and parameters in pulse oximetry by Spearman Rho's correlation. The factor with the strongest correlation is further analysed by receiver-operating characteristic (ROC) curve to identify a cutoff with highest Youden index to screen for probable OSA (OAHI >2 per hour). **Results:** A total of 27 infants were studied. The index of oxygen desaturation with SpO2 <90% per sampled hour (ODI<90%) had the best correlation with OAHI (r = 0.52, P = 0.005). Using the cutoff of ODI<90% more than 1.3 per hour, the sensitivity and specificity for identifying OAHI >2 per hour was 77% and 71%, respectively. **Conclusion:** Infant pulse oximetry can be a useful tool to screen for probable infant OSA especially for paediatric units not offering infant PSG service.

Keywords: Infant, obstructive sleep apnoea, oximetry

INTRODUCTION

Obstructive sleep apnoea (OSA) has been reported to be associated with sudden infant death syndrome long ago.^{[1-} ^{3]} Recent studies reported infants with snoring or OSA had poorer neurocognitive outcomes.^[4-7] Polysomnography (PSG) remains the gold standard to diagnose infant with OSA.^[8,9] Yet the availability of infant PSG in paediatric units is limited due to its sophisticated and labour-intensive nature. Pulse oximetry was introduced as a screening test for OSA in children in 2000.^[10] It gains popularity in research and clinical use in the past decades.[11,12] Recent research further focuses on its simplicity and accuracy.^[13,14] However, publications on pulse oximetry to screen for infant OSA and its clinical use is very limited.^[15] The aim of this study was to develop a screening criterion using pulse oximetry to identify infant with probable OSA for earlier referral to diagnosis and intervention.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This was a retrospective cross-sectional study conducted in Kwong Wah Hospital (Hong Kong) from December

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2019 to December 2020. The study included infants aged 12 months or below. These subjects simultaneously underwent a PSG and a separate pulse oximetry study. Infants with cyanotic heart diseases or severe hypoxic ischemic encephalopathy were excluded from the study.

PSG was performed by qualified sleep technologists in sleep laboratory with a digitized system (Siesta, Profusion 3 Software, Compumedics, Australia).^[16] The standard infant montage was used and the following parameters were recorded during the study: electroencephalogram (EEG) F3-M2, F4-M1, O1-M2, O2-M1, C4-M1, C3-M2; electrooculogram (EOG); submental, tibial, and intercostal electromyogram (EMG); electrocardiography (ECG); airflow with nasal pressure transducer and

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oral thermal sensor; oxygen saturation and pulse waveform by build-in pulse oximeter; carbon dioxide level by transcutaneous carbon dioxide monitor (TCM 4, Radiometer, Copenhagen, Denmark); rib cage and abdominal volume changes using respiratory inductance plethysmograph (RIP); sleep characteristics by position sensor, snoring microphone and video monitoring using an infrared video camera. Infant and paediatric sleep staging rules of American Academy of Sleep Medicine (AASM) manual version 2.4 were observed.^[17] Infants staging was done in children younger than 2 months and the child staging to older children. AASM criteria for obstructive apnoea and obstructive hypopnoea were employed.

Pulse oximetry study was recorded by Masimo Radical-7 pulse-oximeter. Data were downloaded to PROFOX software for analysis. Periods with low Signal IQ (Signal Identification and Quality indicator) were excluded from interpretation as artefacts. Awake periods when the infant's eyes were opened or during crying or feeding were manually excluded. This is done by one same independent observer, not involved in PSG interpretation, using 5–10 min, to quickly screen through the video captured by the infrared camera recorded during the pulse oximetry study and PSG.

Several oximetry parameters were analysed and are listed in Table 1. These included ODI4₀: index of oxygen desaturation $\geq 4\%$ from baseline (ODI4) for events lasting more than 0s per sampled hour; ODI4₁₀: ODI4 for events lasting more than or equal to 10s per sampled hour; ODI3₀: index of oxygen desaturation $\geq 3\%$ from baseline (ODI3) for events lasting more than 0s per sampled hour; ODI3₁₀: ODI3 for events lasting more than or equal to 10s per sampled hour; ODI<90%: index of oxygen desaturation with SpO2 <90% per sampled hour; cluster of 5: ≥ 5 drops of SpO2 $\geq 4\%$ from baseline within 30 min; cluster of 3: ≥ 3 drops of SpO2 $\geq 4\%$ from baseline within 30 min; McGill score by Nixon in 2004.^[18]

All statistical analyses were performed by using IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 25.0. Separate Spearman Rho's correlation for each mentioned oximetry parameters with OAHI were determined. Receiveroperating characteristic (ROC) curves were plotted for the oximetry parameter with the most significant Spearman's Rho's correlation to OAHI. The cutoff level with the optimal combination of sensitivity and specificity was calculated using the Youden index. The area under curve (AUC) reflects the accuracy of the oximetry parameters in predicting OAHI >2 per hour and >5 per hour in PSG. A value of P < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

This study was approved by the Hong Kong Hospital Authority Kowloon Central Cluster Ethics Committee.

RESULTS

This study included 27 infants consisted of 17 boys and 10 girls, of which 17 were ex-preterm infants. The median chronological age was 122 days and the median corrected age was 105 days. The indications for PSG were moderate-to-severe bronchopulmonary dysplasia (BPD) (n = 13), upper airway obstruction (n = 13), and recurrent clinical apnoea (n = 1).

Median total sleep time, study time, and sleep efficiency of the PSGs were 174 min, 219 min, and 80.5%, respectively. The median obstructive apnoea hypopnoea index (OAHI) of the subjects was 1.8 per hour.

For pulse oximetry, the median study time was 244 min, the median time excluded as artefacts, and awake period was 12 min. The median of $ODI4_0$ was 13.2 per hour; $ODI4_{10}$ was 5.1 per hour; $ODI3_0$ was 24.0 per hour; $ODI3_{10}$ was 10.0 per hour; ODI<90% was 1.4 per hour; cluster of 5 was 0.8 per hour; and cluster of 3 was 1.2 per hour. Using McGill scoring, 9 infants scored 1; 11 infants scored 2; and 7 infants scored 3. These are summarized in Table 2.

The Spearman's Rho correlation between each oximetry parameter and OAHI (with p-value <0.05) were as follows: 0.498 for ODI4₀; 0.413 for ODI4₁₀; 0.427 for ODI3₀; 0.520 for ODI<90%; 0.493 for cluster of 5 per hour; and 0.414 for McGill score. The results of ODI3₁₀ and cluster of 3 per hour were statistically insignificant. These are summarized in Table 3. ODI <90% had the highest correlation with OAHI (r = 0.52, P = 0.005). This is shown in Figure 1.

ROCs were derived from logistic regression models with OAHI >2 per hour and >5 per hour as response variables and ODI<90% as covariate. The AUC for OAHI >2 per

Table 1: Oximetry parameters analysed and their abbreviations			
ODI4 ₀	Index of oxygen desaturation $\geq 4\%$ from baseline for events lasting more than 0s per sampled hour		
ODI4 ₁₀	Index of oxygen desaturation ≥4% from baseline for events lasting more than or equal to 10 seconds per sampled hour		
ODI3 ₀	Index of oxygen desaturation $\geq 3\%$ from baseline for events lasting more than 0s per sampled hour		
ODI3 ₁₀	Index of oxygen desaturation ≥3% from baseline for events lasting more than or equal to 10 seconds per sampled hour		
ODI<90%	Index of oxygen desaturation with SpO2 <90% per sampled hour		
Cluster of 5	≥5 drops of SpO2 ≥4% from baseline within 30 min		
Cluster of 3	≥3 drops of SpO2 ≥4% from baseline within 30 min		
	McGill score		

Variables	Total	OAHI<=2	OAHI>2	P Value
	(n = 27)	(n = 14)	(<i>n</i> = 13)	
	Median (IQR)	Median (IQR)	Median (IQR)	
Maturity, <i>n</i> (%):				
Term (>=37 week)	10 (37%)	6 (43%)	4 (31%)	0.695
Preterm (<37 week)	17 (63%)	8 (57%)	9 (69%)	
Gender, <i>n</i> (%):				
Female	10 (37%)	4 (29%)	6 (46%)	0.345
Male	17 (63%)	10 (71%)	7 (54%)	
Indications, <i>n</i> (%):				
BPD	11 (41%)	5 (36%)	6 (46%)	0.581
Upper airway obstruction	15 (55%)	9 (64%)	6 (46%)	0.343
Recurrent clinical apnoea	1 (4%)	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	0.481
Chronological age, days	122 (94 to 162)	127 (71 to 173)	114 (99 to 157)	0.734
Corrected age, days	105 (62 to 124)	112 (58 to 125)	94 (63 to 124)	0.734
Infant PSG parameters:				
Study time, min	219 (198 to 239)	232 (202 to 242)	208 (197 to 226)	0.133
Total sleep time, min	174 (160 to 194)	190 (160 to 206)	169 (160 to 175)	0.069
Sleep efficiency, %	81 (75 to 90)	83 (77 to 92)	77 (74 to 84)	0.159
OAHI/h	1.8 (1.1 to 4.3)	1.1 (0.0 to 1.6)	4.3 (2.6 to 5.2)	< 0.001
CAI/h	2.3 (1.2 to 4.3)	1.6 (1.1 to 3.5)	3.7 (1.4 to 7.0)	0.099
SpO2 nadir, %	82 (79 to 86)	83 (80 to 87)	80 (78 to 85)	0.158
Pulse oximetry parameters:				
Study time, min	244 (220 to 257)	250 (224 to 266)	220 (210 to 253)	0.085
Artefacts time, min	12 (5 to 25)	10 (3 to 13)	19 (12 to 43)	0.085
ODI4 ₀ /h	13.2 (8.9 to 18.8)	9.4 (7.0 to 15.5)	17.1 (11.3 to 22.3)	0.037
ODI4 ₁₀ /h	5.1 (3.3 to 8.4)	3.9 (1.9 to 7.1)	6.6 (4.7 to 8.9)	0.094
ODI3 ₀ /h	24.0 (14.0 to 33.0)	17.0 (13.5 to 30.3)	29.0 (19.5 to 37.5)	0.126
ODI3 ₁₀ /h	10.0 (7.7 to 16.9)	9.5 (7.0 to 15.0)	14.5 (8.0 to 18.7)	0.264
ODI<90%	1.4 (0.9 to 3.5)	1.2 (0.5 to 1.7)	2.8 (1.2 to 4.6)	0.016
Cluster of 5/h	0.8 (0.4 to 1.2)	0.6 (0.3 to 1.3)	0.9 (0.6 to 1.5)	0.120
Cluster of 3/h	1.2 (0.9 to 1.4)	1.2 (0.7 to 1.4)	1.2 (0.9 to 1.6)	0.480
McGill classification, <i>n</i> (%):				
Score 1	9 (33%)	6 (43%)	3 (23%)	0.069
Score 2	11 (41%)	7 (50%)	4 (31%)	
Score 3	7 (26%)	1 (7%)	6 (46%)	

BPD = bronchopulmonary dysplasia, PSG = polysomnography, OAHI = obstructive apnoea hypopnoea index, CAI = central apnoea index, SpO2 = oxygen saturation, $ODI4_0$ = index of oxygen desaturation $\geq 4\%$ from baseline (ODI4) for events lasting more than 0s per sampled hour, ODI4₁₀ = ODI4 for events lasting more than or equal to 10s per sampled hour, ODI3₀ = index of oxygen desaturation $\geq 3\%$ from baseline (ODI3) for events lasting more than 0s per sampled hour, ODI3₁₀ = ODI3 for events lasting more than or equal to 10s per sampled hour, ODI = oxygen desaturation index

Cluster of 5: \geq 5 drops of SpO2 \geq 4% from baseline within 30 min

Cluster of 3: \geq 3 drops of SpO2 \geq 4% from baseline within 30 min

Frequencies and percentages [n (%)], or medians and interquartile range (median [IQR]) are shown.

P Values were calculated with chi-square test or Mann-Whitney U test.

hour was 0.77 (P = 0.016). Using the cutoff of ODI<90% more than 1.3 per hour, the sensitivity and specificity for identifying OAHI >2 per hour was 77% and 71%, respectively. This is shown in Figure 2A and Table 4A. The AUC for OAHI >5 per hour was 0.98 (P = 0.008). Using the cutoff of ODI<90% more than 3.8 per hour, the sensitivity and specificity for identifying OAHI >5 per hour was 100% and 91.7%, respectively. This is shown in Figure 2B and Table 4B.

DISCUSSION

This study showed that video-adjusted infant pulse oximetry had a significant correlation with in-hospital PSG. Index of oxygen desaturation with SpO2 <90% per sampled hour (ODI<90%) had the best correlation with OAHI. Non-video adjusted oximetry with automatic artefacts exclusion may still resulted in SpO2 drops and SpO2 nadir much lower than the baseline leading to questionable preciseness.

Yet there is not a consensus on defining infant OSA. American Thoracic Society (ATS) suggested that an infant found to have an apnoea–hypopnoea index (AHI) greater than 2 per hour should alert physicians as to the probable presence of significant OSA.^[19] European Respiratory Society practice statement for obstructive sleep disordered breathing in 1- to 23-month-old children defined OSA with OAHI ≥1 per hour.^[20] Kato and Schlüter reported obstructive apnoea was rarely seen in healthy term infants in their publications in early 2000s.^[21,22] However, hypopnoea index (HI) was not reported in both studies. Kato explained that their PSG recording techniques in 1991 to 1993 did not allow for identification of such events. In 2013, 2015 and 2019,

Table 3: Correlation parameters	between OAHI	and	pulse	oximetry
Variables	r			P Value
ODI4 ₀ /hour	0.498			0.008

ODI I ₀ /IIOuI	0.150	0.000
ODI4 ₁₀ /hour	0.413	0.032
ODI3 ₀ /hour	0.427	0.027
ODI3 ₁₀ /hour	0.356	0.068
ODI<90%	0.520	0.005
Cluster of 5/hour	0.414	0.032
Cluster of 3/hour	0.241	0.226
McGill score	0.493	0.009

OAHI = obstructive apnoea hypopnoea index, ODI4₀ = index of oxygen desaturation $\geq 4\%$ from baseline (ODI4) for events lasting more than 0s per sampled hour, ODI4₁₀ = ODI4 for events lasting more than or equal to 10s per sampled hour, ODI3₀ = index of oxygen desaturation $\geq 3\%$ from baseline (ODI3) for events lasting more than 0s per sampled hour, ODI3₁₀ = ODI3 for events lasting more than or equal to 10s per sampled hour, ODI = oxygen desaturation index

Cluster of 5: \geq 5 drops of SpO2 \geq 4% from baseline within 30 min

Cluster of 3: \geq 3 drops of SpO2 \geq 4% from baseline within 30 min

r values were correlation coefficients and *P* value were calculated using Spearman Rho's correlation analysis

Brockmann, Duenas-Meza and Daftary, respectively, published new reference values for infant PSG from 'healthy' term subjects.^[23-25] Data on HI were included in these three studies. The median OAHI ranged from 0.5 per hour to 7.7 per hour, in which younger infants has higher median OAHI. The significant diversified findings between earlier and later publications were partly contributed by the advancement in technology and equipment sensitivity nowadays compared to the first infant PSG in Jan 1989 by Schlüter.^[26] Moreover, there had been changes in the AASM scoring criteria for defining an obstructive apnoea event and an obstructive hypopnoea event throughout the past two decades.^[27-30] Some otorhinolaryngologists has been using OAHI \geq 1.5 to define infant OSAS in their publications.^[31-33] Up till now, we still lack a universally adopted cutoff for defining OSAS in infants. From current evidence, we can predict the 'normal' OAHI in infant is likely represented by an inverse proportion curve, and join as a continuum with the cutoff of OAHI <1 in children. This study hence adopted a fixed cutoff of OAHI >2 to screen for presence of probable OSA among infants.

Ehsan included 38 infants over their 8-year study period.^[15] They have shown that ODI from home- or hospital-based oximetry has a significant positive correlation with OAHI in PSG for young infants with symptoms or risk factors for sleep disordered breathing. An average of 3 hours data were excluded due to artefact in each oximetry of their subjects. They reported ODI4₀ >3 is useful to screen for OAHI>5 in symptomatic infants (noisy breathing/snoring or history of ALTE/BRUE) with a sensitivity of 100%, specificity of 35%. They showed that ODI4₀ was not a good parameter to screen for milder OSA.

In this study, ODI<90%, McGill score and cluster of 5 per hour are good predictors of probable OSA. Why ODI<90% is chosen for further analysis is because of its

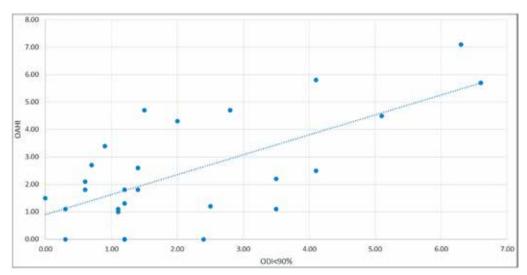


Figure 1: Spearman's rho correlation analysis between ODI < 90% and OAHI

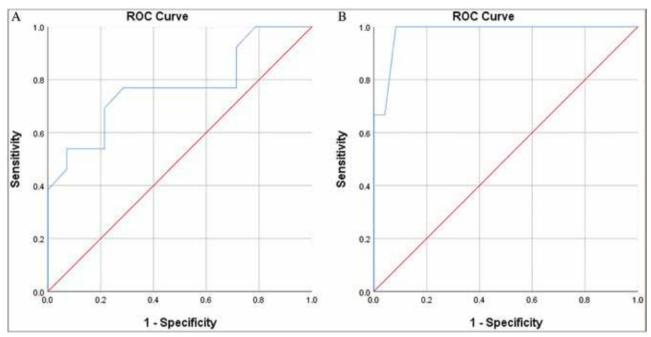


Figure 2: (A) ROC curves with OAHI >2 and ODI<90%. (B) ROC curves with OAHI >5 and ODI<90%

Table 4A: Receiver-operating characteristic (ROC) curve analysis of ODI<90% for detecting OAHI>2/h				
Cutoff point, ODI<90%, >/h	Sensitivity	Specificity	Youden index	
1.00	0.769	0.286	0.055	
1.15	0.769	0.429	0.198	
1.30	0.769	0.714	0.484	
1.45	0.692	0.786	0.478	
1.75	0.615	0.786	0.401	
2.20	0.538	0.786	0.324	

Youden index = sensitivity + specificity -1

Table 4B: Receiver-operating characteristic (ROC) curve analysis of ODI<90% for detecting OAHI>5/h			
Cutoff point, ODI<90%, >/h	Sensitivity	Specificity	Youden Index
1.00	1.000	0.292	0.292
1.15	1.000	0.375	0.375
1.30	1.000	0.542	0.542
1.45	1.000	0.625	0.625
1.75	1.000	0.667	0.667
2.20	1.000	0.708	0.708
2.45	1.000	0.750	0.750
2.65	1.000	0.792	0.792
3.15	1.000	0.833	0.833
3.80	1.000	0.917	0.917
4.60	0.667	0.958	0.625
5.70	0.667	1.000	0.667

Youden index = sensitivity + specificity -1

highest correlation coefficient and its simplicity in data collection. This study showed that ODI<90% of >1.3 per hour, can detect OAHI >2 per hour with a sensitivity and specificity of 77% and 71%, respectively. The strength of

this current study is standardization, simultaneousness and conveniency. All our infant PSGs were performed and scored by a standardized protocol in accordance to AASM manual version 2.4.^[17] The interpretation is done by the same group of qualified Paediatric Respiratory Medicine specialist with a decade or more experience in sleep medicine. Both PSG and oximetry of each subject were performed simultaneously but independently. Our oximetry recording technically started earlier and ended later than PSG; this is represented by the discrepancy in the reported study time. In daily practice, most pulse oximetry machines can automatically count for the number of times that SpO2 drops below 90%. Thus, it is convenient to use the suggested ODI<90% cutoff as a screening tool.

There are several limitations in this study. First, the small sample size of 27 infants. Second, our PSG recorded a total sleep time close to the lower margin of the median range (2.5 to 6 hours) reported in those normal value studies;^[20-22,24] however, each of our PSG has included portions of REM and non-REM (active and quiet) sleep. Third, we only recruited infants <1 year of age with features of upper airway obstruction or requiring home oxygen in this study, this may cause selection bias in our findings. Hence generalization of its utility to healthy infants may not be congruent.

Galway reported that 59% of children screened positive by pulse oximetry for OSA on at least one of the three nights compared with 38% if only one night had been performed.^[34] If oximetry is abnormal on the first night there is no requirement to do further recordings on subsequent nights. They also found that reducing the threshold duration for technically adequate oximetry traces to a minimum of 4h increased the number of patients who would have been screened positive for OSA by McGill classification.

For screening infant at risk of OSA, we suggest a videotaped pulse oximetry of 3–4 hours with accurate artefact exclusion. Obvious awake periods where the infant is crying or feeding should be manually excluded by quick screening through the recorded video. Repeat pulse oximetry in screened negative but clinically high-risks patient may help to reduce the possible 'first night effect' though this phenomenon has not been studied in infants.^[35,36] Any screened positive infants should be referred to have a formal infant PSG for OSA confirmation and further management.

Home oximetry screening for OSA in Hong Kong children is not as popular as foreign countries. Infant home oximetry screening is even rare. Unobserved pulse oximetry in young infants usually posted us with great difficulty to distinguish motion artefacts from genuine desaturation events.^[37,38] The aim of this study was to provide a solution to paediatric units without infant PSG service to identify babies at risk of OSA by employing observed in-hospital oximetry. A video-taped home oximetry allowing accurate artefact exclusion may be considered as an alternative, although further study with similar methodology should be carried out in home setting for verification. Directly applying the result of this study for unobserved oximetry to screen for OSA in infants may not be accurate.

In conclusion, video-assisted pulse oximetry using ODI<90% is a simple parameter to predict probable OSA with a relatively good sensitivity and specificity. Although more effort is spent in editing a video adjusted oximetry, less-sophisticated tools and time is required in performing and reporting an infant PSG.

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Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interests.

Ethical approval

The study was conducted according to the guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki, and approved by the Hong Kong Hospital Authority Kowloon Central Cluster Ethics Committee.

Informed consent

Not applicable to this study.

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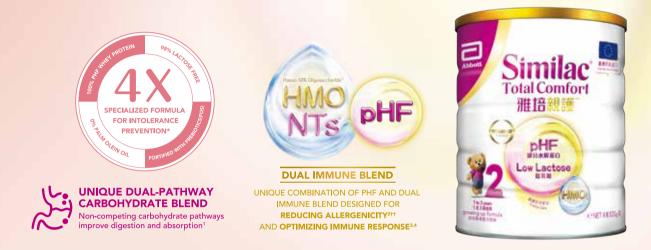
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