COPYRIGHT[©] 2018 EDIZIONI MINERVA MEDICA

© 2018 EDIZIONI MINERVA MEDICA Online version at http://www.minervamedica.it Minerva Medica 2018 December;109(Suppl. 1 to No. 6):11-9 DOI: 10.23736/S0026-4806.18.05920-7

XIII PNEUMOLAB PROCEEDINGS

Respiratory muscle testing in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: a practical approach

Giuseppe F. SFERRAZZA PAPA ^{1, 2} *, Giulia M. PELLEGRINO ^{1, 2}, Hameeda SHAIKH ^{3, 4}, Agata LAX ⁵, Luca LORINI ⁶, Massimo CORBO ¹

¹Department of Neurorehabilitation Sciences, Casa di Cura Privata del Policlinico, Milan, Italy; ²Respiratory Unit, ASST Santi Paolo e Carlo, Department of Health Sciences, Università degli Studi di Milano, Milan, Italy; ³Division of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine, Loyola University of Chicago Stritch School of Medicine, Maywood, IL, USA; ⁴Edward Hines Jr. Veterans Administration Hospital Hines, Chicago, IL, USA; ⁵IRCCS Don Carlo Gnocchi Foundation, Milan, Italy; ⁶Unit of Neurosurgical Intensive Care, Department of Anesthesia and Critical Care Medicine, Azienda Socio Sanitaria Territoriale Papa Giovanni XXIII, Bergamo, Italy

*Corresponding author: Giuseppe F. Sferrazza Papa, Department of Neurorehabilitation Sciences, Casa di Cura Privata del Policlinico, via Dezza 48, 20142, Milan, Italy. E-mail:giuseppe.sferrazza@ccppdezza.it

ABSTRACT

In amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS), respiratory muscle weakness leads to respiratory failure and death. Non-invasive positive pressure ventilation (NIPPV) appears to reduce lung function decline, thus improving survival and quality-of-life of patients affected by the disease. Unfortunately, clinical features and timing to start NIPPV are not well defined. Starting from recent findings, we examine established and novel tests of respiratory muscle function that could help clinicians decide whether and when to start NIPPV in ALS. Non-invasive tests estimate the function of inspiratory, expiratory, and bulbar muscles, whereas clinical examination allows to assess the overall neurologic and respiratory symptoms and general conditions. Most of the studies recommend that together with a thorough clinical evaluation of the patient according to current guidelines, vital capacity, maximal static and sniff nasal inspiratory pressures, maximal static expiratory pressures and peak cough expiratory flow, and nocturnal pulse oximetry be measured. A sound understanding of physiology can guide the physician also through the current armamentarium for additional supportive treatments for ALS, such as symptomatic drugs and new treatments to manage sialorrhea and thickened saliva, cough assistance, air stacking, and physiotherapy. In conclusion, careful clinical and functional evaluation of respiratory function and patient's preference are key determinants to decide "when" and "to whom" respiratory treatments can be provided.

(*Cite this article as:* Sferrazza Papa GF, Pellegrino GM, Shaikh H, Lax A, Lorini L, Corbo M. Respiratory muscle testing in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: a practical approach. Minerva Med 2018;109(Suppl. 1 to No. 6):11-9. DOI: 10.23736/S0026-4806.18.05920-7)

KEY WORDS: Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis - Respiration disorders - Respiratory muscles - Spirometry.

Respiratory failure due to relentless progression of respiratory muscle weakness is the main cause of death in patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS).¹ The time from ALS diagnosis to death or respiratory muscle paralysis is on average 2-3 years.² Although riluzole is a licensed drug for ALS treatment,³ its effects on survival are modest. Other treatments are urgently required.⁴ Respiratory symptoms occur late in the disease and portend decreased survival.^{5, 6} In contrast, respiratory function defects occur early in the disease as a result of respiratory muscle weakness (Figure 1) and assist in the decision to start non-invasive positive pressure ventilation (NIPPV). Of clinical relevance, survival in patients under NIPPV has been proven to be signifi-

RESPIRATORY MUSCLE TESTING IN ALS

cantly higher if NIPPV was initiated earlier.^{7, 8} In addition, respiratory functional evaluation provides prognostic information and allows for risk-stratification prior to percutaneous endoscopic gastrostomy (PEG) tube placement.⁹ Societal recommendations suggest measurements of vital capacity (VC) over time to quantify respiratory muscle weakness in patients with ALS.^{9, 10} However, VC has physiological limitations in assessing muscle strength¹¹⁻¹³ and is technically challenging in about 20% of patients mainly because of bulbar dysfunction.¹⁴

Literature search and aims of this review

English literature was reviewed since the landmark paper of Black *et al.*¹⁵ on maximal static respiratory pressures in generalized neuromuscular disease to date (1971 to 30th November 2017) on PubMed. The following keywords were used: "amyotrophic lateral sclerosis" AND "respiratory muscle tests," "amyotrophic lateral sclerosis" AND "respiratory muscle tests spirometry," "amyotrophic lateral sclerosis" AND "lung volumes," "amyotrophic lateral sclerosis" AND "sniff test" based on title, abstract and MeSH terms. Original studies, editorials, published letters and reviews were included.

Moving forward from recent insights by Polkey *et al.*,⁴ we here review the key features of respiratory functional tests in ALS and examine what practical non-invasive approach best assists in the decision to start NIPPV and other supportive treatments for ALS. Finally, unanswered clinical questions concerning the respiratory management of ALS are discussed.

Review findings

Lung function testing in ALS

Combining invasive and non-invasive tests, Polkey *et al.*⁴ shed light on the link between respiratory muscle tests and survival in ALS. The gold standard for the assessment of the respiratory muscle strength is the measurement of the force exerted against an occluded valve.¹⁶ In 1969 Black and Hyatt pioneered the non-invasive assessment of the maximal static inspiratory (MIP) and expiratory pressure (MEP).^{15, 17} Nowadays, MIP and MEP are non-invasive, readily available, standardized, and economic tests to assess muscle strength.¹⁸ Given the alinear forcelength relationship of the respiratory system, MIP decreases earlier than lung volumes with the neuromuscular diseases,19 reason for which it is considered more sensitive than VC in detecting inspiratory muscle weakness (Figure 1).20 MIP values less than -70 cmH₂0 for women and -80 cmH₂0 for men practically tend to exclude clinically relevant inspiratory muscle weakness, while MEP values below 40 cmH₂0 are likely to be associated with ineffective cough.^{18, 21} However, caution should be used in interpreting MIP and MEP data, as low values may result from a lack of motivation and poor effort.22 Measurement of the transdiaphragmatic pressure (Pdi)^{21, 23-26} is the gold standard to measure the force of the diaphragm. It is the difference between gastric and esophageal pressure and can be assessed during maximal voluntary contraction or upon electrical or magnetic stimulation.^{18, 23, 27} Due to its invasive nature and the technical challenges involved in collecting and interpreting the data,19 this technique is generally limited to reference centers or physiological research.4, 19, 28

In clinical practice, assessment of the neurological and respiratory conditions together with lung volumes measurement is of help to raise the suspicion of respiratory muscle weakness, being

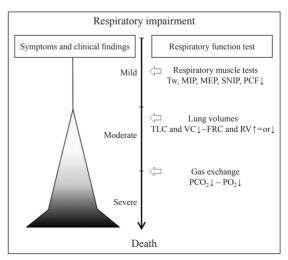


Figure 1.—Respiratory tests sensitivity according to amyotrophic lateral sclerosis disease progression.

RESPIRATORY MUSCLE TESTING IN ALS

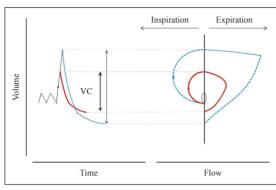


Figure 2.—Schematic representation of lung volume in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis plotted against time (left panel) and flow (right panel) during tidal breathing and forced inspiratory and expiratory manoeuvres. Blue and red lines (in the online version) are predicted and observed tracings, respectively. Dotted and full lines are predicted and observed tracings, respectively. The decrease in vital capacity (VC) may be due to weakness of inspiratory muscles preventing full inflation and/or of the expiratory muscles impairing expiration.

a reduction in vital capacity (VC) a reflection of muscle weakness.^{18, 29} VC may be limited by weak inspiratory muscles preventing full inflation and/or weakness of the expiratory muscles impairing expiration, or both (Figure 2).18 In addition, VC may also be reduced because of a decrease in lung and chest wall compliance as reported in patients affected by neuromuscular diseases.^{10, 30, 31} A physiological limitation of spirometry is that a decrease in lung volumes is a relatively late finding compared to the progression of muscle dysfunction.¹¹ As anticipated above, this is because of the non-linear relationship between respiratory volume and pressure.12 In mild to moderate muscle weakness. VC is in general less sensitive than maximum respiratory pressures¹² (Figure 1). Moreover, a decrease of VC is non-specific being caused by other potentially associated restrictive lung diseases. Finally, a practical limitation of spirometry in patients with bulbar impairment can be due to mouth leaks and lack of coordinated muscle activity to perform the test.32

A different way to assess the strength of the diaphragm is to measure the pressure exerted at the nostril during a sniff, *i.e.*, a short, sharp voluntary inspiratory maneuver.¹⁶ The sniff nasal inspiratory pressure (SNIP) is measured through a pressure transducer placed in a nostril with the other left unoccluded.^{22, 33-35} SNIP obviates the need of mouth seal, linearly declines with progression of the disease,³³ and has a high predictive power to predict survival.⁴ In general, a SNIP <-50 cmH₂0 for women and <-60 cmH₂0 for men exclude relevant respiratory muscle weakness.³⁶ However, SNIP test requires training,³⁷ and it may have some limitations in patients with bulbar impairment, anatomical abnormalities and nasal congestion.^{22, 38}

Cough is a vital reflex that requires the integrity of bulbar, inspiratory and expiratory muscles,³⁹ with the latter being the dominant determinant of cough. Commercial devices permit to assess peak cough expiratory flow (PCF) as a surrogate for cough effectiveness.⁴⁰ In clinical practice, a PCF >160 L/min is sufficient to remove secretions, though values >270 L/min⁴¹⁻⁴³ may be necessary to clear secretions especially during chest infections.⁴⁴

Polkey *et al.* found that the sniff and twitch transdiaphragmatic pressure had an excellent performance and linearly declined with progression of the disease.⁴ Amid non-invasive tests, sniff nasal pressure predicts mortality, while vital capacity remains stable until final stage of the disease. Among the few study limitations, one could argue that exercise (in the early phase) and sleep evaluation could have shown further insight in the progression of the disease and on choice and timing of tests.

Indications for NIPPV

According to the current international guidelines,9 the decision to start NIPPV in ALS should include a thorough clinical evaluation with special attention to dyspnea and objective tests of respiratory failure. Dyspnea at rest is a criterion to start NIPPV. Yet, as discussed in the following paragraph, how to best measure dyspnea in ALS remains to be elucidated. VC values below 50% of predicted is considered a threshold to start NIPPV. Yet in two studies NIPPV was initiated when VC decreased below 75% or 65% of predicted and this resulted in significantly higher survival.7, 8 Diffusing capacity of the lung for carbon monoxide (DLCO)⁴⁵ may be of help to rule out unexpected associated conditions. Even though MIP and SNIP are the classical markers

of inspiratory muscles strength, a recent study suggested that SNIP is easier to perform and more feasible in advanced disease.⁴ In any case, valus of MIP values <60 cmH₂0 and/or SNIP <40 cmH₂0 suggest to start NIPPV. MEP and PCF are key tests to assess expiratory muscles. A MEP value of <40 or a PCF <270 L/min are shared cut-offs to provide cough assistance.^{46, 47} Cough aid may be provided either manually or mechanically according to patient preferences and availability. Oxygen desaturation below 89% for more than 5 consecutive minutes at night is another criterion to start NIPPV48 and predict survival in ALS.⁴⁹⁻⁵¹ In selected cases a full polysomnography may be required. Given that impaired ventilation may worsen during sleep, transcutaneous carbon dioxide and capnography has been used to early detect nocturnal hypoventilation.52, 53 Yet, this device is still under scientific scrutiny.

Unmet needs in ALS

There are several unmet needs when it comes to assess the early respiratory impairment, monitoring muscle function, and treatments allocation in ALS (Table I).^{4, 22, 54-63} ALS presentation with overt respiratory impairment occurs in about 3% of patients and portends reduced survival.^{46, 63, 64} Usually, respiratory impairment follows limb or bulbar onset with an asymptomatic involvement of unknown duration (Figure 1). Dyspnea appears to mirror inspiratory muscle weakness and is amid criteria to start NIPPV.46 Yet, dyspnea at rest is a late finding before occurrence of respiratory failure.63 Given the contribution of the cortical areas in elaborating the symptom perception,65 assessing dyspnea is not easy to measure.⁶⁶⁻⁶⁹ Some patients tend to underestimate dyspnea, partly because of reduction in daily activities or fear, despite marked impairment of spirometry.⁷⁰ Different scores have been proposed to best estimate the symptom.⁷¹ Notably, when performed in the supine position, the BORG score quite well correlates with inspiratory muscle weakness.⁷¹ Yet, a prospective comparison of available scores is still lacking. Surely, the onset of dyspnea is ominous and its use as a trigger to respiratory consultation in ALS would result in dangerous delays.

Combining invasive and non-invasive tests, Polkey *et al.* shed light on the link between respiratory muscle tests and survival in ALS. The authors found that the sniff and twitch transdiaphragmatic pressure had an excellent performance and linearly declined with progression of the disease. Amid non-invasive tests, sniff nasal pressure predicts mortality, while VC remains stable until final stage of the disease. Among the few study limitations, one could argue that exercise in the early phase and sleep evaluation could show further insight in the progression of the disease and on choice and timing of tests.⁴

TABLE I.—Advances and unanswered clinical questions in the respiratory management of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis.

Advances	Assessment	Spirometry is insensitive to early respiratory muscle weakness and to stratify prognosis ⁴
		Primary determinant of ventilatory failure and respiratory symptoms are a result of inspiratory muscle weakness ⁵⁴
		Respiratory muscle tests are predictive biomarkers of survival ^{4, 22, 55}
	Treatment	NIPPV improves quality of life and survival ^{56, 57}
		Cough assistance is important and devices are effective ^{58, 59}
		Timely management of dysphagia and secretions are very important to maintain sufficient quality of life ⁶⁰⁻⁶²
Unanswered questions	Assessment	Which is the most accurate score to measure dyspnea?
		What strategies of respiratory muscle testing are more cost-effective in clinical practice?
		How to optimize the assessment in bulbar disease?
		Is diaphragmatic ultrasound accurate in detecting diaphragmatic weakness?
	Treatment	Timing for supportive treatment
		Role for NIPPV in bulbar disease
		Role and intensity of exercise and rehabilitation
		How can we improve patients' survival and QoL without invasive ventilation?
		Role of tele-monitoring in ALS

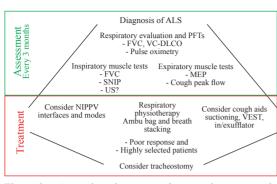


Figure 3.—A non-invasive approach to respiratory muscle testing in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis.

In bulbar impairment both the lung function assessment and supportive treatment (e.g. NIPPV) are challenging as frequently biased by leaks resulting from a lack of mouth seal.56 Specific studies are required to shed light on how to best measure VC in the patients with bulbar impairment.

Several supportive therapies are available for patients with ALS (Figure 3). In addition to NIPPV,^{14, 56, 72-76} symptomatic drugs and specific treatments to manage sialorrhea and thickened saliva,⁶⁰ manual and mechanical cough assistance devices,77 breath stacking,58 and physiotherapy^{78, 79} need to be carefully considered. Common errors that should be avoided include inappropriate use of bronchodilators which results in an increase in anxiety and tachycardia, use of oxygen with or without continuous positive airway pressure (CPAP) and inadequate pressure levels in a bilevel positive airway pressure (BiPAP) ventilator. It addition, it is recommended to seek treatment for bronchial secretions and thick saliva as soon as symptoms occur.80

Respiratory, nutritional, and systemic disease conditions tend to overlap and lead to catastrophic results (e.g. emergency intubation). In this respect, multidisciplinary ALS clinical programs may help evaluate the patients from all clinical perspectives. This will be of help to choose the best health assistance, offer excellent rehabilitation programs44,81 and help solve logistical problems usually occurring at the late stages of the disease.

Whether in ALS exercise is beneficial or harmful is still debated. Case series and case-control studies suggest that intense exercise might be a possible risk factor for ALS.82-85 Yet other studies failed to confirm these results.⁸⁶ Presumably, environmental factors (diet and supplements, pesticides in football fields or brain injuries) may help explain the association between exercise and increased risk for ALS.83, 87, 88 Strenuous exercise such as cycling or playing basketball does not seem to be a trigger for the disease.83 Another unsolved clinical question is about the potential therapeutic role of respiratory muscle training in ALS.46 If on one side physical exercises appear to be safe, clinical evidence on their efficacy is still lacking.46

Finally, there is some initial evidence that home-monitoring programs applied to patients under NIPPV or invasive mechanical ventilation are useful not just to achieve a good clinical control, but also to reduce hospital consultations77, 89-91 and health costs.46

Future directions

There is some new evidence that ultrasound examination may be useful to assess patients with ALS. Chest ultrasound are now well known to identify pleural and parenchymal abnormalities in several respiratory diseases,92-95 and to assess diaphragmatic function.96-99 The latter is conducted by measuring the diaphragmatic thickness and the respiratory excursions during tidal breathing and at maximal inspiration.96, 100-102 Recently, diaphragmatic ultrasound has been validated in mechanically ventilated patients.¹⁰³ Two recent studies using ultrasound detection of muscle fasciculations documented that this may help improve the diagnostic accuracy of the disease.^{104, 105} Other studies conducted in patients with ALS with and without bulbar dysfunction documented that ultrasound can be applied to the diaphragm to assess its function.98, 106 More studies are however, required to select the parameters that best identify the level of dysfunction according to the severity of the disease.107

Conclusions

Progressive respiratory muscle weakness is a clinical hallmark of ALS leading to respiratory failure and death. Its objective assessment is the main part of the comprehensive approach to the

cover.

Ľ

disease and is grounded on the measurement of dyspnea and respiratory muscles strength such as SNIP, MIP and MEP, and its spirometric surrogates such as VC. If the former functional tests are sensitive indicators of the severity of the disease in its early stages, VC finds more practical application late even because of the greater ease of execution. In any case, the ultimate goal of the clinical and functional assessment within a strict follow-up program is to identify the right time for cough assistance and ventilator assistance.

References

1. Lechtzin N, Rothstein J, Clawson L, Diette GB, Wiener CM. Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: evaluation and treatment of respiratory impairment. Amyotroph Lateral Scler Other Motor Neuron Disord 2002;3:5–13.

2. Louwerse ES, Visser CE, Bossuyt PM, Weverling GJ; The Netherlands ALS Consortium. Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: mortality risk during the course of the disease and prognostic factors. J Neurol Sci 1997;152(Suppl 1):S10–7.

3. Lacomblez L, Bensimon G, Leigh PN, Guillet P, Meininger V; Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis/Riluzole Study Group II. Dose-ranging study of riluzole in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Lancet 1996;347:1425–31.

4. Polkey MI, Lyall RA, Yang K, Johnson E, Leigh PN, Moxham J. Respiratory Muscle Strength as a Predictive Biomarker for Survival in Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2017;195:86–95.

5. Chiò A, Logroscino G, Hardiman O, Swingler R, Mitchell D, Beghi E, *et al.*; Eurals Consortium. Prognostic factors in ALS: A critical review. Amyotroph Lateral Scler 2009;10:310–23.

6. Stambler N, Charatan M, Cedarbaum JM; ALS CNTF Treatment Study Group. Prognostic indicators of survival in ALS. Neurology 1998;50:66–72.

7. Carratù P, Spicuzza L, Cassano A, Maniscalco M, Gadaleta F, Lacedonia D, *et al.* Early treatment with noninvasive positive pressure ventilation prolongs survival in Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis patients with nocturnal respiratory insufficiency. Orphanet J Rare Dis 2009;4:10.

8. Lechtzin N, Scott Y, Busse AM, Clawson LL, Kimball R, Wiener CM. Early use of non-invasive ventilation prolongs survival in subjects with ALS. Amyotroph Lateral Scler 2007;8:185–8.

9. Andersen PM, Abrahams S, Borasio GD, de Carvalho M, Chio A, Van Damme P, *et al.*; EFNS Task Force on Diagnosis and Management of Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis. EFNS guidelines on the clinical management of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (MALS)—revised report of an EFNS task force. Eur J Neurol 2012;19:360–75.

10. Miller RG, Rosenberg JA, Gelinas DF, Mitsumoto H, Newman D, Sufit R, *et al.* Practice parameter: the care of the patient with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (An evidence-based review). Muscle Nerve 1999;22:1104–18.

11. Saunders NA, Rigg JR, Pengelly LD, Campbell EJ. Effect of curare on maximum static PV relationships of the respiratory system. J Appl Physiol 1978;44:589–95.

12. Rahn H, Otis AB. The pressure-volume diagram of the thorax and lung. Am J Physiol 1946;146:161–78.

13. Mendoza M, Gelinas DF, Moore DH, Miller RG. A comparison of maximal inspiratory pressure and forced vital capacity as potential criteria for initiating non-invasive ventilation in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Amyotroph Lateral Scler 2007;8:106–11.

14. Esquinas AM, Garuti G, Pellegrino GM, Sferrazza Papa GF. Survival in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis patients on non-invasive ventilation. What can we do more? Amyotroph Lateral Scler Frontotemporal Degener 2017;18:305–6.

15. Black LF, Hyatt RE. Maximal static respiratory pressures in generalized neuromuscular disease. Am Rev Respir Dis 1971;103:641–50.

16. Laroche CM, Moxham J, Green M. Respiratory muscle weakness and fatigue. Q J Med 1989;71:373–97.

17. Black LF, Hyatt RE. Maximal respiratory pressures: normal values and relationship to age and sex. Am Rev Respir Dis 1969;99:696–702.

18. American Thoracic Society/European Respiratory S. ATS/ERS Statement on respiratory muscle testing. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2002;166:518–624.

19. Cattapan SE, Laghi F, Tobin MJ. Can diaphragmatic contractility be assessed by airway twitch pressure in mechanically ventilated patients? Thorax 2003;58:58–62.

20. De Troyer A, Borenstein S, Cordier R. Analysis of lung volume restriction in patients with respiratory muscle weakness. Thorax 1980;35:603–10.

21. McCool FD, Tzelepis GE. Dysfunction of the diaphragm. N Engl J Med 2012;366:932–42.

22. Héritier F, Rahm F, Pasche P, Fitting JW. Sniff nasal inspiratory pressure. A noninvasive assessment of inspiratory muscle strength. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 1994;150:1678–83.

23. Mier A, Brophy C, Moxham J, Green M. Twitch pressures in the assessment of diaphragm weakness. Thorax 1989;44:990–6.

24. Davis J, Goldman M, Loh L, Casson M. Diaphragm function and alveolar hypoventilation. Q J Med 1976;45:87–100.

25. Laroche CM, Mier AK, Moxham J, Green M. Diaphragm strength in patients with recent hemidiaphragm paralysis. Thorax 1988;43:170–4.

26. Akoumianaki E, Maggiore SM, Valenza F, Bellani G, Jubran A, Loring SH, *et al.*; PLUG Working Group (Acute Respiratory Failure Section of the European Society of Intensive Care Medicine). The application of esophageal pressure measurement in patients with respiratory failure. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2014;189:520–31.

27. Davison A, Mulvey D. Idiopathic diaphragmatic weakness. BMJ 1992;304:492–4.

28. Laghi F, Shaikh H. Preventing ventilator-induced diaphragmatic dysfunction with phrenic nerve stimulation. Crit Care Med 2014;42:492–4.

29. Pinto S, de Carvalho M. Correlation between Forced Vital Capacity and Slow Vital Capacity for the assessment of respiratory involvement in Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis: a prospective study. Amyotroph Lateral Scler Frontotemporal Degener 2017;18:86–91.

30. Estenne M, Heilporn A, Delhez L, Yernault JC, De Troyer A. Chest wall stiffness in patients with chronic respiratory muscle weakness. Am Rev Respir Dis 1983;128:1002–7.

31. Gibson GJ, Pride NB, Davis JN, Loh LC. Pulmonary mechanics in patients with respiratory muscle weakness. Am Rev Respir Dis 1977;115:389–95.

16

32. Polkey MI, Green M, Moxham J. Measurement of respiratory muscle strength. Thorax 1995;50:1131–5.

33. Fitting JW, Paillex R, Hirt L, Aebischer P, Schluep M. Sniff nasal pressure: a sensitive respiratory test to assess progression of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Ann Neurol 1999;46:887–93.

34. Chaudri MB, Liu C, Watson L, Jefferson D, Kinnear WJ. Sniff nasal inspiratory pressure as a marker of respiratory function in motor neuron disease. Eur Respir J 2000;15:539–42.

35. Stefanutti D, Benoist MR, Scheinmann P, Chaussain M, Fitting JW. Usefulness of sniff nasal pressure in patients with neuromuscular or skeletal disorders. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2000;162:1507–11.

36. Uldry C, Fitting JW. Maximal values of sniff nasal inspiratory pressure in healthy subjects. Thorax 1995;50:371–5.

37. Lofaso F, Nicot F, Lejaille M, Falaize L, Louis A, Clement A, *et al.* Sniff nasal inspiratory pressure: what is the optimal number of sniffs? Eur Respir J 2006;27:980–2.

38. Hart N, Polkey MI, Sharshar T, Falaize L, Fauroux B, Raphaël JC, *et al.* Limitations of sniff nasal pressure in patients with severe neuromuscular weakness. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2003;74:1685–7.

39. Laghi F, Maddipati V, Schnell T, Langbein WE, Tobin MJ. Determinants of cough effectiveness in patients with respiratory muscle weakness. Respir Physiol Neurobiol 2017;240:17–25.

40. Sancho J, Servera E, Díaz J, Marín J. Predictors of ineffective cough during a chest infection in patients with stable amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2007;175:1266–71.

41. Miller RG, Jackson CE, Kasarskis EJ, England JD, Forshew D, Johnston W, *et al.*; Quality Standards Subcommittee of the American Academy of Neurology. Practice parameter update: the care of the patient with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: drug, nutritional, and respiratory therapies (an evidence-based review): report of the Quality Standards Subcommittee of the American Academy of Neurology. Neurology 2009;73:1218–26.

42. Chetta A, Aiello M, Tzani P, Olivieri D. Assessment and monitoring of ventilatory function and cough efficacy in patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Monaldi Arch Chest Dis 2007;67:43–52.

43. Bach JR, Ishikawa Y, Kim H. Prevention of pulmonary morbidity for patients with Duchenne muscular dystrophy. Chest 1997;112:1024–8.

44. Hind M, Polkey MI, Simonds AK. AJRCCM: 100-Year Anniversary. Homeward Bound: A Centenary of Home Mechanical Ventilation. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2017;195:1140–9.

45. Graham BL, Brusasco V, Burgos F, Cooper BG, Jensen R, Kendrick A, *et al.* ERS/ATS standards for single-breath carbon monoxide uptake in the lung. Eur Respir J 2017;2017:49.

46. Pinto S, Carvalho M. Breathing new life into treatment advances for respiratory failure in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis patients. Neurodegener Dis Manag 2014;4:83–102.

47. Auger C, Hernando V, Galmiche H. Use of Mechanical Insufflation-Exsufflation Devices for Airway Clearance in Subjects With Neuromuscular Disease. Respir Care 2017;62:236–45.

48. No authors listed. Clinical indications for noninvasive positive pressure ventilation in chronic respiratory failure due to restrictive lung disease, COPD, and nocturnal hypoventilation—a consensus conference report. Chest 1999;116:521–34.

49. Jubran A. Pulse oximetry. Intensive Care Med 2004;30:2017–20.

50. Pinto A, de Carvalho M, Evangelista T, Lopes A, Sales-Luís L. Nocturnal pulse oximetry: a new approach to establish the appropriate time for non-invasive ventilation in ALS patients. Amyotroph Lateral Scler Other Motor Neuron Disord 2003;4:31–5.

51. Velasco R, Salachas F, Munerati E, Le Forestier N, Pradat PF, Lacomblez L, *et al.* [Nocturnal oxymetry in patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: role in predicting survival]. Rev Neurol (Paris) 2002;158:575–8. French.

52. Rafiq MK, Bradburn M, Proctor AR, Billings C, Bianchi S, McDermott CJ, *et al.* Using transcutaneous carbon dioxide monitor (TOSCA 500) to detect respiratory failure in patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: a validation study. Amyotroph Lateral Scler 2012;13:528–32.

53. Kim SM, Park KS, Nam H, Ahn SW, Kim S, Sung JJ, *et al.* Capnography for assessing nocturnal hypoventilation and predicting compliance with subsequent noninvasive ventilation in patients with ALS. PLoS One 2011;6:e17893.

54. Polkey MI, Lyall RA, Green M, Nigel Leigh P, Moxham J. Expiratory muscle function in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 1998;158:734–41.

55. Morgan RK, McNally S, Alexander M, Conroy R, Hardiman O, Costello RW. Use of Sniff nasal-inspiratory force to predict survival in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2005;171:269–74.

56. Bourke SC, Tomlinson M, Williams TL, Bullock RE, Shaw PJ, Gibson GJ. Effects of non-invasive ventilation on survival and quality of life in patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: a randomised controlled trial. Lancet Neurol 2006;5:140–7.

57. Radunovic A, Annane D, Rafiq MK, Mustfa N. Mechanical ventilation for amyotrophic lateral sclerosis/motor neuron disease. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2013;(3):CD004427.

58. Bach JR. Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: prolongation of life by noninvasive respiratory AIDS. Chest 2002;122:92–8.

59. Bach JR. Mechanical insufflation/exsufflation: has it come of age? A commentary. Eur Respir J 2003;21:385–6.

60. Banfi P, Ticozzi N, Lax A, Guidugli GA, Nicolini A, Silani V. A review of options for treating sialorrhea in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Respir Care 2015;60:446–54.

61. Leigh PN, Abrahams S, Al-Chalabi A, Ampong MA, Goldstein LH, Johnson J, *et al.*; King's MND Care and Research Team. The management of motor neurone disease. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2003;74(Suppl 4):iv32–47.

62. Shaw AS, Ampong MA, Rio A, Al-Chalabi A, Sellars ME, Ellis C, *et al.* Survival of patients with ALS following institution of enteral feeding is related to pre-procedure oximetry: a retrospective review of 98 patients in a single centre. Amyotroph Lateral Scler 2006;7:16–21.

63. Kiernan MC, Vucic S, Cheah BC, Turner MR, Eisen A, Hardiman O, *et al.* Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Lancet 2011;377:942–55.

64. de Carvalho M, Matias T, Coelho F, Evangelista T, Pinto A, Luís ML. Motor neuron disease presenting with respiratory failure. J Neurol Sci 1996;139(Suppl):117–22.

65. von Leupoldt A, Sommer T, Kegat S, Baumann HJ, Klose H, Dahme B, *et al.* The unpleasantness of perceived dyspnea is processed in the anterior insula and amygdala. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2008;177:1026–32.

66. Killian KJ, Jones NL. Respiratory muscles and dyspnea. Clin Chest Med 1988;9:237–48.

67. Killian KJ. Assessment of dyspnoea. Eur Respir J 1988;1:195–7.

68. Killian KJ. Measurements of dyspnoea during bronchoconstriction. Eur Respir J 1999;13:943–6.

69. Antonelli A, Crimi E, Gobbi A, Torchio R, Gulotta C, Dellaca R, *et al.* Mechanical correlates of dyspnea in bronchial asthma. Physiol Rep 2013;1:e00166.

70. Similowski T, Attali V, Bensimon G, Salachas F, Mehiri S, Arnulf I, *et al.* Diaphragmatic dysfunction and dyspnoea in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Eur Respir J 2000;15:332–7.

71. Just N, Bautin N, Danel-Brunaud V, Debroucker V, Matran R, Perez T. The Borg dyspnoea score: a relevant clinical marker of inspiratory muscle weakness in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Eur Respir J 2010;35:353–60.

72. Gonzalez Calzada N, Prats Soro E, Mateu Gomez L, Giro Bulta E, Cordoba Izquierdo A, Povedano Panades M, *et al.* Factors predicting survival in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis patients on non-invasive ventilation. Amyotroph Lateral Scler Frontotemporal Degener 2016;17:337–42.

73. Terzano C, Romani S. Early use of non invasive ventilation in patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: what benefits? Eur Rev Med Pharmacol Sci 2015;19:4304–13.

74. Bach JR. What is noninvasive ventilation? Amyotroph Lateral Scler Other Motor Neuron Disord 2003;4:270, author reply 271.

75. Bach JR. Noninvasive ventilation is more than mask ventilation. Chest 2003;123:2156–7, author reply 2157.

76. Bourke SC, Bullock RE, Williams TL, Shaw PJ, Gibson GJ. Noninvasive ventilation in ALS: indications and effect on quality of life. Neurology 2003;61:171–7.

77. Vitacca M, Paneroni M, Trainini D, Bianchi L, Assoni G, Saleri M, *et al.* At home and on demand mechanical cough assistance program for patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Am J Phys Med Rehabil 2010;89:401–6.

78. Sivak ED, Gipson WT, Hanson MR. Long-term management of respiratory failure in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Ann Neurol 1982;12:18–23.

79. Jones U, Enright S, Busse M. Management of respiratory problems in people with neurodegenerative conditions: a narrative review. Physiotherapy 2012;98:1–12.

80. Bach JR. Management of Respiratory Muscle Dysfunction. In: Grippi MA, Elias JA, Fishman JA, Kotloff RM, Pack AI, Senior RM, editors. Fishman's Pulmonary Diseases and Disorders. New York: Mc Graw Hill; 2015. p. 1313-20.

81. Pinto S, de Carvalho M. Can inspiratory muscle training increase survival in early-affected amyotrophic lateral sclerosis patients? Amyotroph Lateral Scler Frontotemporal Degener 2013;14:124–6.

82. Beghi E, Logroscino G, Chiò A, Hardiman O, Millul A, Mitchell D, *et al.* Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, physical exercise, trauma and sports: results of a population-based pilot case-control study. Amyotroph Lateral Scler 2010;11:289–92.

83. Chio A, Calvo A, Dossena M, Ghiglione P, Mutani R, Mora G. ALS in Italian professional soccer players: the risk is still present and could be soccer-specific. Amyotroph Lateral Scler 2009;10:205–9.

84. Scarmeas N, Shih T, Stern Y, Ottman R, Rowland LP. Premorbid weight, body mass, and varsity athletics in ALS. Neurology 2002;59:773–5.

85. Strickland D, Smith SA, Dolliff G, Goldman L, Roelofs RI. Physical activity, trauma, and ALS: a case-control study. Acta Neurol Scand 1996;94:45–50.

86. Veldink JH, Kalmijn S, Groeneveld GJ, Titulaer MJ, Wokke JH, van den Berg LH. Physical activity and the association with sporadic ALS. Neurology 2005;64:241–5.

87. Wicks P, Ganesalingham J, Collin C, Prevett M, Leigh

NP, Al-Chalabi A. Three soccer playing friends with simultaneous amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Amyotroph Lateral Scler 2007;8:177–9.

88. Vanacore N, Binazzi A, Bottazzi M, Belli S. Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis in an Italian professional soccer player. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 2006;12:327–9.

89. Vitacca M, Comini L, Tentorio M, Assoni G, Trainini D, Fiorenza D, *et al.* A pilot trial of telemedicine-assisted, integrated care for patients with advanced amyotrophic lateral sclerosis and their caregivers. J Telemed Telecare 2010;16:83–8.

90. Vitacca M, Comini L, Scalvini S. Is teleassistance for respiratory care valuable? Considering the case for a 'virtual hospital'. Expert Rev Respir Med 2010;4:695–7.

91. Vitacca M, Bazza A, Bianchi L, Gilè S, Assoni G, Porta R, *et al.* Tele-assistance in chronic respiratory failure: patients' characterization and staff workload of 5-year activity. Telemed J E Health 2010;16:299–305.

92. Reali F, Sferrazza Papa GF, Carlucci P, Fracasso P, Di Marco F, Mandelli M, *et al.* Can lung ultrasound replace chest radiography for the diagnosis of pneumonia in hospitalized children? Respiration 2014;88:112–5.

93. Volpicelli G. Sonographic diagnosis of pneumothorax. Intensive Care Med 2011;37:224–32.

94. Volpicelli G, Elbarbary M, Blaivas M, Lichtenstein DA, Mathis G, Kirkpatrick AW, *et al.*; International Liaison Committee on Lung Ultrasound (ILC-LUS) for International Consensus Conference on Lung Ultrasound (ICC-LUS). International evidence-based recommendations for point-of-care lung ultrasound. Intensive Care Med 2012;38:577–91.

95. Sferrazza Papa GF, Mondoni M, Volpicelli G, Carlucci P, Di Marco F, Parazzini EM, *et al.* Point-of-Care Lung Sonography: An Audit of 1150 Examinations. J Ultrasound Med 2017;36:1687–92.

96. Houston JG, Morris AD, Howie CA, Reid JL, McMillan N. Technical report: quantitative assessment of diaphragmatic movement—a reproducible method using ultrasound. Clin Radiol 1992;46:405–7.

97. Aliberti S, Messinesi G, Gramegna A, Tremolizzo L, Susani E, Pesci A. Diaphragm ultrasonography in the management of patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Amyotroph Lateral Scler Frontotemporal Degener 2013;14:154–6.

98. Fantini R, Mandrioli J, Zona S, Antenora F, Iattoni A, Monelli M, *et al.* Ultrasound assessment of diaphragmatic function in patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Respirology 2016;21:932–8.

99. Hiwatani Y, Sakata M, Miwa H. Ultrasonography of the diaphragm in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: clinical significance in assessment of respiratory functions. Amyotroph Lateral Scler Frontotemporal Degener 2013;14:127–31.

100. McKenzie DK, Gandevia SC, Gorman RB, Southon FC. Dynamic changes in the zone of apposition and diaphragm length during maximal respiratory efforts. Thorax 1994;49:634–8.

101. Cohen E, Mier A, Heywood P, Murphy K, Boultbee J, Guz A. Excursion-volume relation of the right hemidiaphragm measured by ultrasonography and respiratory airflow measurements. Thorax 1994;49:885–9.

102. Ueki J, De Bruin PF, Pride NB. In vivo assessment of diaphragm contraction by ultrasound in normal subjects. Thorax 1995;50:1157–61.

103. Goligher EC, Laghi F, Detsky ME, Farias P, Murray A, Brace D, et al. Measuring diaphragm thickness

RESPIRATORY MUSCLE TESTING IN ALS

with ultrasound in mechanically ventilated patients: feasibility, reproducibility and validity. Intensive Care Med 2015;41:734.

104. Misawa S, Noto Y, Shibuya K, Isose S, Sekiguchi Y, Nasu S, *et al.* Ultrasonographic detection of fasciculations markedly increases diagnostic sensitivity of ALS. Neurology 2011;77:1532–7.

105. Boekestein WA, Schelhaas HJ, van Dijk JP, Kleine BU, Zwarts MJ. Ultrasonographic detection of fasciculations

markedly increases diagnostic sensitivity of ALS. Neurology 2012;78:370, author reply 370–1.

106. Pinto S, Alves P, Pimentel B, Swash M, de Carvalho M. Ultrasound for assessment of diaphragm in ALS. Clin Neurophysiol 2016;127:892–7.

107. Sferrazza Papa GF, Pellegrino GM, Di Marco F, Imeri G, Brochard L, Goligher E, *et al.* A Review of the Ultrasound Assessment of Diaphragmatic Function in Clinical Practice. Respiration 2016;91:403–11.

Conflicts of interest.-The authors certify that there is no conflict of interest with any financial organization regarding the material discussed in the manuscript.

Manuscript accepted: November 15, 2018. - Manuscript received: November 12, 2018.