

Text word count 1465

**CALCULATING GAMBLING ODDS
AND LUNG AGES FOR SMOKERS**

**James E. Hansen, MD; Xing-Guo Sun, MD; and Karlman
Wasserman, PhD, MD**

**Corresponding author: James E. Hansen, MD; Box 405; Department of Medicine
Harbor-UCLA Medical Center, Torrance, CA 90502; phone and fax- 310-519-8187**

email - jimandbev@cox.net or jhansen@labiomed.org,

**E-mail addresses: jhansen@labiomed.org; xgsun@labiomed.org;
kwasserman@labiomed.org**

**All author affiliations: Los Angeles Biomedical Research Institute and Division of
Respiratory and Critical Care Physiology and Medicine;
Department of Medicine at Harbor-UCLA Medical Center,
University of California David Geffen School of Medicine, Torrance, CA, 90509**

**Dr. Hansen has no conflicts of interest to declare; Dr. Sun has no conflicts of
interest to declare; Dr. Wasserman has no conflicts of interest to declare**

ABSTRACT: Interpreting spirometry as normal or abnormal using 95% confidence limits can obscure milder airflow decreases. Other analyses might better persuade cigarette-smokers to quit.

High-quality spirometric data of ambulatory never- and current-smokers of African-, European-, and Latin-American ethnicity from the Third National Health and Nutrition Evaluation Survey (n>9000) were analyzed. We desired to calculate, for each decade of life, the odds that specific ratios of forced expiratory volume in 1-second to 6-seconds (%FEV1/FEV6) and to forced vital capacity (%FEV1/FVC) values came from a current- or never-smoker. We also desired to develop new, simpler, and better formulas to estimate changes in physiological lung age (Δ lung age) for men and women.

For each decade of life, odds increase strikingly that smoking decreases %FEV1/FEV6 and %FEV1/FVC. At least for these three ethnicities, Δ lung ages can be easily calculated as the product of (predicted–actual)%FEV1/FEV6 times 4 or (predicted–actual) %FEV1/FVC times 3. Through the 6th decade, smokers' Δ lung ages increase rapidly, but little thereafter, presumably due to the inabilities of older smokers to participate in the survey or their deaths.

Using odds and Δ lung ages rather than traditional 95% confidence limits might better persuade smokers to quit.

KEYWORDS: COPD, FEV1/FEV6, FEV1/FVC, lung age, spirometry

INTRODUCTION

It is incumbent upon us to help persuade cigarette smokers to quit smoking and reduce suffering, pain, and premature deaths [1-5]. Increasing cigarette taxes, reducing locations where smoking is allowed, litigating, advertising the effects of tobacco smoking, and increasing the stigma of smoking have all been helpful [6-7]. Health practitioners have assisted their patients by listening, counseling, referring to support groups, and prescribing drugs to mollify withdrawal effects from nicotine [8-10]. But spirometry has usually been of minimal benefit [11-13], perhaps because results are not presented optimally. Unfortunately, citing simplicity, the GOLD expert committee concluded that, even in younger individuals, all values of %FEV₁/FVC above 70% are normal [5, 14] despite strong evidence and opposition to the contrary [15-17]. Alternatively, others rely on classical statistical analyses with 95% confidence limits, and p values of < 0.05 to interpret their patients' spirometry [15].

We now question whether it is necessary for %FEV₁/FVC values to be below these limits before concluding that airflow is reduced. We suggest two options for our readers' consideration: gambling odds and estimation of lung age. We can be like card players and gamblers by making decisions based on odds or probabilities without using a cut-off of p<0.05. Second, we can simplify the estimation of spirometric lung age [18], as initially proposed by Morris and Thomas [19] and recently used with some benefit [20].

Therefore, using analyses of FEV₁/FEV₆ and FEV₁/FVC data from the Third National Health and Nutrition Evaluation Survey (NHANES-3) [21-22], we relate airflow to gambling odds and lung age.

METHODS

We selected from the NHANES-3 database [23] 9353 self-identified European-American (White), African-American (Black), and Mexican-American (Latin) adults with satisfactory spirometry [21-22] between the ages of 20 and 80 years. See supplement.

We had previously calculated from NHANES-3 data that $\%FEV_1/FVC$ for normal never-smoking adults $=98.8-0.25 \times \text{age}(\text{yrs})-1.79 \times FVC(L)$, independent of ethnicity and gender [24-25]. We now similarly developed the formula: $\%FEV_1/FEV_6 = 96.9-0.189 \times \text{age}(\text{yrs})-1.524 \times FEV_6(L)$ (SEE = 4.7%).

We measured the percent differences between predicted and actual $\%FEV_1/FEV_6$ in each subject, which allowed us to graph for each decade, the distribution of the $\%FEV_1/FEV_6$ of 5835 never-smokers about their predicted values and separately, the same for 3518 current-smokers. We could then calculate within each decade, the gambling odds that at any given deviation from mean predicted, the actual $\%FEV_1/FEV_6$ of an individual might be that of a current-smoker or never-smoker.

We developed new formula relating how the percent differences between actual and predicted spirometric values were related to changes in physiological lung age (Δ lung age). (See supplement.) For each adult, we calculated that Δ lung age $=4 \times [(\% \text{predicted} - \% \text{actual}) \%FEV_1/FEV_6]$ and $=3 \times [(\% \text{predicted} - \% \text{actual}) \%FEV_1/FVC]$. Then, using the formulas of Morris and Thomas [19], we calculated the lung ages for each White adult. This allowed both

sets of formula to be compared for never- and current-smokers for each decade by two-tailed unpaired t-tests with $p < 0.05$ considered significant [26].

RESULTS

By GOLD categories, none of the current-smokers were very severe GOLD ($FEV_1 < 30\%$), 0.8% were severe category ($FEV_1 = 30-50\%$), 6.5% were moderate GOLD ($FEV_1 = 50-80\%$), and 10.4% were mild GOLD ($FEV_1 > 80\%$) [5]. See supplement and Figure 1E.

Gambling odds

Figure 1 displays the actual distribution, by 2% bins, for the 3rd through 8th decades for % FEV_1/FEV_6 for White adults. The patterns are quite similar for other ethnicities using either the % FEV_1/FVC or % FEV_1/FEV_6 formulas. Table 1 lists the resultant prevalence (gambling) odds that for a given difference between actual and predicted % FEV_1/FVC , a value is from a current- or never-smoker. As the actual % FEV_1/FVC decrease a few percentages from mean predicted, the odds increase above 1.0, tending to identify current-smokers rather than never-smokers. Conversely, odds of less than 1.0 tend to identify never-smokers. As seen in Figure 2E in the supplement, discrimination of reduced airflow attributable to smoking is evident at 25 years but strikingly greater at 55 years of age.

Lung age formula comparisons

Figure 2A shows the Morris and Thomas mean lung ages for White never- and current smokers by decade of age using gender, age, and FEV_1 or gender, age, and FVC. Note that the never-smokers mean lung ages are usually considerably less than their actual ages while the current-

smokers mean lung ages exceed their actual ages. In the same population, Figure 2B shows that for either the Harbor % FEV₁/FVC or % FEV₁/FEV₆ formulas, never-smokers mean lung ages approximate their actual age, while the current-smokers lung age differences increase decade by decade for both genders up to the 6th decade and then level off at approximately 25 years. For all decades, current-smokers differed from never-smokers by 7 to 28 years (p<0.0001) with either Harbor formula. Figures 2C and 2D show the lung age findings in Black and Latin adults using the Harbor formulas, sometimes with lesser but still statistically significant difference between never- and current-smokers.

DISCUSSION

Subtle reductions in airflow should be discernible well before a clinical diagnosis of COPD can be made [27, 28]. The presentation of gambling odds is used to challenge the deeply-held belief that 95% confidence limits should be the primary criteria to decide whether a patient has reduced airflow. 95% confidence limits are appropriate to analyze treatment differences, but are not ideal in distinguishing the effects of whether or not exposure to a substance is harmful. Gambling odds remind us that probabilities other than 5% or 20 to 1 can be useful. For example, a family may decide to live in site A, not because it is 20 times better than site B, but because site A is 10% or 20% or 30% safer (or cleaner, or more attractive) than site B. These odds are 1.1, 1.2, or 1.3 for choosing site A. Although airflow is influenced by health, genetics, nutrition, motivation, and environmental factors, a Bayesian approach tells us that the influence of cigarette smoking on airflow need not be ignored with relative odds of 1.1, 1.2, and 1.3, to say nothing when relative odds of 2 or 5 are found.

Morris and Thomas deserve credit for introducing the concept of lung age to assess airflow obstruction. Parkes et al [20] found their lung ages useful, but they are not routinely calculated. Using the new formulas presented here, anyone can easily manually calculate and inform patients of their Δ lung ages from any spirometric report. For example if a patient's actual % FEV₁/FEV₆ is 3% below predicted or % FEV₁/FVC is 4% below predicted, the Δ lung age is +12 years. This should elicit a response and open discussion regarding the dangers of continuing cigarette smoking. Referral to support groups, educational and counseling sessions, and use of newer pharmaceuticals all offer avenues for success [8, 9, 20, 29, 30].

Cigarette smoking is the leading cause of preventable morbidity and mortality [1, 2, 5]. Airway and vascular obstruction, both worsened by smoking, are usually parallel processes [4, 13, 31-35], but airway obstruction is cheaper and quicker to assess. There have been significant declines in death rates and morbidity from cardiovascular diseases [36], but a parallel decline in airway diseases and lung cancer attributable to cigarette smoking is not yet obvious, especially in women [1, 2, 5]. Simple and compelling advocacy is even more necessary where cigarette smoking is more openly tolerated and promoted.

Limitations

We believe our analysis of the cross-sectional NHANES-3 data underestimates the significance of the effect of cigarette smoking on airflow, morbidity, and mortality. One factor is the lack of continuing rise in airway obstruction after the 6th decade in the White and Black subjects. We suggest that increased mortality (due to malignancies, COPD, or cardiovascular diseases) plus the severe morbidity and lack of mobility in older smokers was likely responsible. Second, the

lower number of current smokers than never-smokers in the 7th and 8th decades would support that possibility. Third, considering the high morbidity associated with COPD, malignancies, and cardiovascular diseases, the finding that no one in the never-smoking population met the GOLD criteria [5] of very severe COPD ($\%FEV_1/FVC < 70\%$ and $FEV_1 < 30\%$ of predicted), and $< 1\%$ had severe COPD ($\%FEV_1/FVC < 70\%$ and $FEV_1 \geq 30\%$ and $< 50\%$) supports this under-representation of disease. Further, exposure of many never-smokers to second-hand smoke or to other important pollutants may have reduced differences between the never-smoking and current-smoking groups [37].

Because there is marked variability in the spirometric ratios of normal individuals, unexplained by height, age, gender, or ethnicity, not all current-smokers have lower than mean predicted $\% FEV_1/FEV_6$ or $\% FEV_1/FVC$, and not all never-smokers have higher than mean predicted $\% FEV_1/FEV_6$ or $\% FEV_1/FVC$. See supplement.

Conclusion

Simple formulas for assessing normality of $\% FEV_1/FEV_6$ and $\% FEV_1/FVC$ values are presented. They allow any health professional receiving a spirometry report to calculate some of the detrimental effects of cigarette smoking on airflow and lung age and thus better inform, challenge, and support their patients to quit smoking.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors acknowledge and thank the United States government agencies, investigators, technicians, and subjects of NHANES-3 who together acquired the data and made it available to us for further analyses.

REFERENCES

1. U.S. Cancer Statistics Working Group. *United States Cancer Statistics: 2004 Incidence and Mortality*. Atlanta (GA): Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, and National Cancer Institute; 2007.
2. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Annual smoking-attributable mortality, years of potential life lost, and productivity losses – United States, 1997-2001. *Morb Mort Wkly Rep*. 2005; 54: 625-628.
3. deVerdier, MG. The big three concept: a way to tackle the health care crisis? *Proc Am Thorac Soc*, 2008; 5: 800-805.
4. Rennard SI. Lessons from multidisciplinary cross-fertilization: chronic obstructive lung disease, lung cancer, and heart disease. *Proc Am Thorac Soc*, 2008; 5: 865-868.
5. <http://www.goldcopd.org>. Global Strategy for the Diagnosis, Management and Prevention of COPD, Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease (GOLD) 2008.
6. Alamar B, Glantz S. Effect of increased social unacceptability of cigarette smoking on reduction in cigarette consumption. *Am J Public Health* 2006; 96: 359-363.
7. Vernick JS, Rutkow L, Teret SP. Public health benefits of recent litigation against the tobacco industry. *JAMA* 2007; 298: 86-89.
8. Carrozzi L, Pistelli F, Viegi G. Pharmacotherapy for smoking cessation. *Ther Adv Respir Dis* 2008; 2: 301-317.
9. Fagerstrom KG, Jiminez-Ruiz CA. Pharmacological treatments for tobacco dependence. *Eur Respir Rev* 2008; 17: 192-198.
10. Cornuz J, Willi C. Non-pharmacological smoking cessation interventions in clinical practice. *Eur Respir Rev* 2008; 17: 187-191.

11. Wilt TJ, Niewoehner D, Kim C, et al. Use of spirometry for case finding, diagnosis, and management of chronic obstructive lung disease (COPD). Summary Evidence Report/Technology Assessment No 121 (prepared by the Minnesota Evidence-based Practice Center under Contract No.290-02-0009. Rockville, MD: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, 2005. AHRQ Publication No. 05-E017-1.
12. Boushey H, Enright P, Samet J. Spirometry for chronic obstructive pulmonary disease case finding in primary care? *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2005; 172: 1481-1482.
13. Kotz D, Wessling G, Hulbers MJH, van Schayck OCP. Efficacy of confronting smokers with airflow limitation for smoking cessation. *Eur Respir J* 2009; 33: 754-762.
14. Mannino DM. Should we be using statistics to define disease? *Thorax* 2008; 63: 1031-1032.
15. Pellegrino R, Viegi G, Brusasco V, et al. ATS/ERS task force: Standardization of lung function testing: Interpretative strategies for lung function tests. *Eur Respir J* 2005; 26: 948-968.
16. Hansen JE, Sun XG, Wasserman K. Spirometric criteria for airway obstruction: Use percentage of FEV1/FVC ratio below the fifth percentile, not < 70%. *Chest* 2007; 131: 349-355.
17. Swanney MP, Ruppel G, Enright PL, et al. Using the lower limit of normal for the FEV1/FVC ratio reduces the misclassification of airway obstruction. *Thorax* 2008; 63: 1046-1051.
18. Kazuhiro I, Barnes PJ. COPD as a disease of accelerated lung aging. *Chest* 2009; 135: 173-180.
19. Morris JF, Thomas W. Spirometric “lung age” estimation for motivating smoking cessation. *Prev Med* 1985; 14: 655-662.
20. Parkes G, Greenhalgh T, Griffin M, Dent R. Effect on smoking quit rate of telling patients their lung age: the Step2quit randomised controlled trial. *BMJ* 2008; 336: 598-600.

21. US Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS) National Center for Health Statistics. Third national health and nutrition examination survey, 1998-1994: NHANES III raw spirometry data file. Hyattsville, MD: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2001.
22. Hankinson JL, Odencrantz JR, Fedan KB. Spirometric reference values from a sample of the general US population. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1999; 159: 179-187.
23. American Thoracic Society. Standardization of spirometry. 1994 update. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1995; 152: 1107-1136.
24. Hansen JE, Sun X-G, Wasserman K. Discriminating measures and normal values for expiratory obstruction. *Chest* 2006; 129: 369-377.
25. Hansen JE, Sun X-G, Wasserman K. Ethnic- and sex-free formula for detection of airway obstruction. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2006; 174: 493-498.
26. Dixon WJ, Massey FJ, Jr. *Introduction to Statistical Analysis*. 3rd ed. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill; 1969.
27. Doherty DE. A review of the role of FEV1 in the COPD paradigm. *COPD*, 2008; 5: 310-318.
28. Fletcher C, Peto R. The natural history of chronic airflow obstruction. *BMJ* 1977; 1: 1645-1648.
29. Tashkin DP, Murray RP. Smoking cessation in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Respir Med* 2009; 103: 963-974.
30. Lee TA, Bartle B, Weiss KB. Spirometry use in clinical practice following diagnosis of COPD. *Chest* 2006; 129: 1509-1515.
31. Wilson D, Adams R, Appleton S, Ruffin R. Difficulties identifying and targeting COPD and population-attributable risk of smoking for COPD. *Chest* 2005; 128: 2035-2042.

32. Brook RD, Franklin B, Cascio W, Hong Y, Howard G, Lipsett M. Air pollution and cardiovascular disease: A statement for healthcare professionals from the expert panel on population and prevention science of the American Heart Association. *Circulation* 2004; 109: 2655-2671.
33. Miller KA, Siscovick DS, Sheppard L, et al. Long-term exposure to air pollution and incidence of cardiovascular events in women. *N Engl J Med* 2007; 356: 447-458.
34. Frostad A, Soyseth V, Haldorsen T, Anderson A, Gulsvik A. Respiratory symptoms and long term cardiovascular mortality *Respir Med* 2007; 101: 2289-2296.
35. Iwamoto H, Yokoyama A, Kitahara Y, et al. Airflow limitation in smokers is associated with subclinical atherosclerosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2009; 179: 35-40.
36. <http://www.Americanheart.org/presenter.jhtml?identifier=4478>.
37. Schane RE, Glantz SA. Education on the dangers of passive smoking: a cessation strategy. *Circulation* 2008; 118: 1521-1523.
38. Hankinson JL, Crapo RO, Jensen RL. Spirometric reference values for the 6-s FVC maneuver. *Chest* 2003; 124: 1805-1811.

TABLES

TABLE 1– Prevalence (gambling) odds that a lower or higher % FEV₁/FVC is from a current-smoker, not a never-smoker.

% below or above predicted mean	(20-29 years) 3 rd decade	(30-39 years) 4 th Decade	(40-49 years) 5 th Decade	(50-59 years) 6 th decade	(60-69 years) 7 th decade	(70-79 years) 8 th decade	All decades Mean	All decades SD
≤ -14%	4.2	4.6	12.3	45.3	92.5	77.1	39.3	38.6
-12%	2.3	6.0	1.7	9.7	3.5	2.9	4.4	3.0
-10%	1.3	4.1	1.4	7.5	3.8	0.7	3.1	2.6
-8%	1.8	1.5	3.3	1.5	1.3	1.8	1.9	0.7
-6%	1.4	1.7	2.0	2.0	1.4	0.7	1.5	0.5
-4%	1.2	1.0	1.5	1.3	0.5	1.4	1.2	0.4
-2%	1.4	1.2	1.0	0.5	1.6	0.8	1.1	0.4
0%	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.2
2%	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.2
4%	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.2
6%	0.5	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
≥ 8%	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2
If ≤ -8%	2.1	2.9	2.8	5.4	4.3	4.1	3.6	1.2
If ≤ -6%	1.8	2.4	2.6	4.0	3.0	2.8	2.8	0.7
If ≤ -4%	1.7	1.7	2.2	3.0	2.1	2.3	2.2	1.5

FIGURE TITLES and LEGENDS:

FIGURE 1. A, B, C, D, E, and F: Distribution of % FEV₁/FEV₆ for White never- and current-smokers by decades 3 to 8 (ages 20-29 to 70-79 years), respectively. Each never-smoker curve is normally distributed. The left-shifted curves of current-smokers, especially as ages increase, indicate increasing odds for current-smoking status.

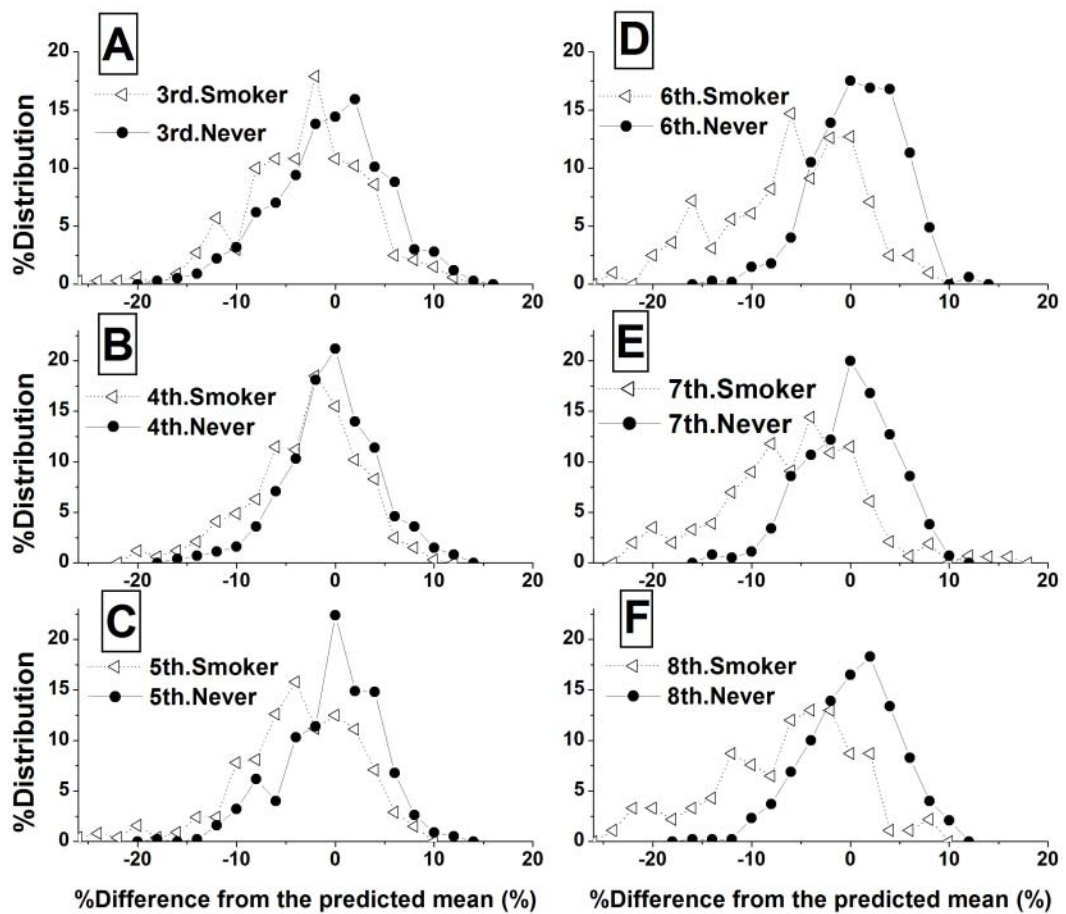


FIGURE 2. Lung age changes by decade for never-smokers and current-smokers. A: White adults with Morris formulas; B: White adults with Harbor formulas; C: Black adults with Harbor formulas; and D: Latin adults with Harbor formulas. 2A: For the 3rd decade (ages 20-29); white current- and never-smokers differed by 4 years ($p = 0.003$) using FEV₁ and 2 years ($p =$

0.43) using FVC. For older decades, FEV1 values differed by 8 to 20 years ($p < 0.0001$) while FVC values varied by 5 to 14 years ($p = 0.0008$ to 0.014). C: Black current-smokers differed from never-smokers by 5 to 24 years ($p < 0.001$) for all but the 4th decade when the differences were only 2-3 years ($p \sim 0.08$). D: Latin current-smokers differed from never-smokers by 3 to 5 years ($p \sim 0.01$) for the 3rd and 4th decades, and 7 to 26 years ($p < 0.001$) for all other decades.

