Bronchiolitis in children

NICE guideline Draft for consultation, November 2014

If you wish to comment on this version of the guideline, please be aware that all the supporting information and evidence is contained in the full version.

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Introduction

Bronchiolitis is the most common disease of the lower respiratory tract during the first year of life. It usually presents with cough with increased work of breathing, and it often affects a child's ability to feed. In primary care, the condition may often be confused with a common cold, though the presence of lower respiratory tract signs (wheeze and/or crackles on auscultation) in an infant in mid- winter would be consistent with this clinical diagnosis. The symptoms are usually mild and may only last for a few days, but in some cases the disease can cause severe illness.

There are several individual and environmental risk factors that can put children with bronchiolitis at increased risk of severe illness. These include premature birth, passive smoke exposure, living conditions, congenital heart disease, cystic fibrosis, immunodeficiency and chronic lung disease.

The management of bronchiolitis depends on the severity of the illness. In most children bronchiolitis can be managed at home by parents or carers.

Approximately 1 in 3 infants will develop clinical bronchiolitis in the first year of life and 2–3% of all infants require hospitalization. In 2011/12 in England, there were 30,451 secondary care admissions for the management of bronchiolitis. It is uncommon for bronchiolitis to cause death. In 2009/10 in England, there were 72 recorded deaths of children within 90 days of hospital admission for bronchiolitis.

Bronchiolitis is associated with an increased risk of chronic respiratory conditions, including asthma, but it is not known if it causes these conditions.

The guideline covers children with bronchiolitis but not those with other respiratory conditions, such as recurrent viral induced wheeze or asthma.

Medicine recommendations

The guideline will assume that prescribers will use a drug's summary of product characteristics to inform decisions made with individual patients.

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Patient-centred care

This guideline offers best practice advice on the care of children with bronchiolitis.

Patients and healthcare professionals have rights and responsibilities as set out in the NHS Constitution for England – all NICE guidance is written to reflect these. Treatment and care should take into account individual needs and preferences. Patients should have the opportunity to make informed decisions about their care and treatment, in partnership with their healthcare professionals. If the patient is under 16, their family or carers should also be given information and support to help the child or young person to make decisions about their treatment. Healthcare professionals should follow the Department of Health's advice on consent (or, in Wales, advice on consent from the Welsh Government). If someone does not have capacity to make decisions, healthcare professionals should follow the code of practice that accompanies the Mental Capacity Act and the supplementary code of practice on deprivation of liberty safeguards.

If a young person is moving between paediatric and adult services, care should be planned and managed according to the best practice guidance described in the Department of Health's <u>Transition: getting it right for young people</u>.

Adult and paediatric healthcare teams should work jointly to provide assessment and services to young people with bronchiolitis. Diagnosis and management should be reviewed throughout the transition process, and there should be clarity about who is the lead clinician to ensure continuity of care.

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Strength of recommendations

Some recommendations can be made with more certainty than others. The Guideline Development Group makes a recommendation based on the trade-off between the benefits and harms of an intervention, taking into account the quality of the underpinning evidence. For some interventions, the Guideline Development Group is confident that, given the information it has looked at, most patients would choose the intervention. The wording used in the recommendations in this guideline denotes the certainty with which the recommendation is made (the strength of the recommendation).

For all recommendations, NICE expects that there is discussion with the patient about the risks and benefits of the interventions, and their values and preferences. This discussion aims to help them to reach a fully informed decision (see also 'Patient-centred care').

Interventions that must (or must not) be used

We usually use 'must' or 'must not' only if there is a legal duty to apply the recommendation. Occasionally we use 'must' (or 'must not') if the consequences of not following the recommendation could be extremely serious or potentially life threatening.

Interventions that should (or should not) be used – a 'strong' recommendation

We use 'offer' (and similar words such as 'refer' or 'advise') when we are confident that, for the vast majority of patients, an intervention will do more good than harm, and be cost effective. We use similar forms of words (for example, 'Do not offer...') when we are confident that an intervention will not be of benefit for most patients.

Interventions that could be used

We use 'consider' when we are confident that an intervention will do more good than harm for most patients, and be cost effective, but other options may be similarly cost effective. The choice of intervention, and whether or not to have the intervention at all, is more likely to depend on the patient's values and preferences than for a strong

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recommendation, and so the healthcare professional should spend more time considering and discussing the options with the patient.

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Key priorities for implementation

The following recommendations have been identified as priorities for implementation. The full list of recommendations is in section 1.

- Diagnose bronchiolitis if the child has a coryzal prodrome lasting 1 to 3 days, followed by:
 - persistent cough and
 - either tachypnoea or chest recession (or both) and
 - either wheeze or crackles on chest auscultation (or both). [1.1.3]
- When diagnosing bronchiolitis, take into account that young infants (in particular those under 6 weeks of age) may present with apnoea without other clinical signs.
 [1.1.5]
- Immediately refer children with bronchiolitis for emergency hospital care (usually by 999 ambulance) if they have any of the following:
 - apnoea (observed or reported)
 - child looks seriously unwell to a healthcare professional
 - severe respiratory distress, for example grunting, marked chest recession, or a respiratory rate of over 70 breaths/minute
 - central cyanosis
 - persistent oxygen saturation of 92% or less when breathing air. [1.2.1]
- Consider referring children with bronchiolitis to secondary care if they have any of the following:
 - a respiratory rate of over 60 breaths/minute
 - difficulty with breastfeeding or inadequate oral fluid intake (less than 75% of usual volume)
 - clinical dehydration. [1.2.2]
- When assessing a child in a secondary care setting, admit them to hospital if they
 have any of the following:
 - apnoea (observed or reported)
 - persistent oxygen saturation of 92% or less when breathing air
 - inadequate oral fluid intake (less than 75% of usual volume)

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- persisting severe respiratory distress, for example grunting, marked chest recession, or a respiratory rate of over 70 breaths/minute. [1.3.2]
- Do not perform a chest X-ray in children with bronchiolitis, because changes on X-ray may mimic pneumonia and should not be used to determine the need for antibiotics. [1.3.7]
- Do not use any of the following to treat bronchiolitis in children:
 - antibiotics
 - hypertonic saline
 - adrenaline (nebulised)
 - salbutamol
 - Montelukast
 - ipratropium bromide
 - systemic or inhaled corticosteroids
 - a combination of systemic corticosteroids and nebulised adrenaline. [1.4.3]
- Give oxygen supplementation to children with bronchiolitis if their oxygen saturation is persistently 92% or less. [1.4.4]
- Give fluids by nasogastric or orogastric tube in children with bronchiolitis if they cannot take enough fluid by mouth. [1.4.11]
- Provide key safety information for children who will be looked after at home. This should include information:
 - for parents and carers on how to recognise developing 'red flag' symptoms:
 - worsening work of breathing (for example grunting, nasal flaring, marked chest recession)
 - ♦ fluid intake is less than 75% of normal or no wet nappy for 12 hours
 - ♦ apnoea or cyanosis
 - exhaustion (for example, not responding normally to social cues, wakes only with prolonged stimulation)
 - on how to get immediate help from an appropriate professional if any red flag symptoms develop
 - on arrangements for follow-up if necessary. [1.6.1]

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1 Recommendations

The following guidance is based on the best available evidence. The <u>full guideline</u> [hyperlink to be added for final publication] gives details of the methods and the evidence used to develop the guidance.

1.1 Assessment and diagnosis

- 1.1.1 When diagnosing bronchiolitis, take into account that it occurs in children under 2 years of age and most commonly in the first year of life, peaking between 3 and 6 months.
- 1.1.2 When diagnosing bronchiolitis, take into account that symptoms usually peak between 3 and 5 days, and that cough resolves in 90% of infants within 3 weeks.
- 1.1.3 Diagnose bronchiolitis if the child has a coryzal prodrome lasting 1 to 3 days, followed by:
 - · persistent cough and
 - either tachypnoea or chest recession (or both) and
 - either wheeze or crackles on chest auscultation (or both).
- 1.1.4 When diagnosing bronchiolitis, take into account that the following symptoms are common:
 - fever (in around 30% of cases, usually of less than 39°C)
 - poor feeding (typically after 3 to 5 days of illness).
- 1.1.5 When diagnosing bronchiolitis, take into account that young infants (in particular those under 6 weeks of age) may present with apnoea without other clinical signs.
- 1.1.6 Check for the following potential risk factors for developing more severe bronchiolitis:
 - chronic lung disease (including bronchopulmonary dysplasia)

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- congenital heart disease, particularly if this is hemodynamically significant
- age in young infants (under 3 months)
- premature birth, particularly under 32 weeks
- neuromuscular disorders
- immunodeficiency
- male sex
- if the child has not been breast fed
- if the child comes from a household with people who smoke.
- 1.1.7 Consider a diagnosis of pneumonia if the child has:
 - high fever (over 39°C) and/or
 - persistently focal crackles.
- 1.1.8 Think about a diagnosis of viral-induced wheeze or early-onset asthma rather than bronchiolitis in older infants and young children if they have:
 - · persistent wheeze without crackles or
 - recurrent episodic wheeze or
 - a personal or family history of atopy.

Take into account that these conditions are unusual in children under 1 year of age.

- 1.1.9 Measure oxygen saturation in every child presenting with suspected bronchiolitis, including those presenting to primary care if pulse oximetry is available.
- 1.1.10 Ensure healthcare professionals performing pulse oximetry are appropriately trained in its use specifically in infants and young children.
- 1.1.11 Suspect impending respiratory failure if the child has any of the following:
 - signs of exhaustion, for example listlessness or decreased respiratory effort
 - recurrent apnoea

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 failure to maintain adequate oxygen saturation despite oxygen supplementation.

1.2 When to refer

- 1.2.1 Immediately refer children with bronchiolitis for emergency hospital care (usually by 999 ambulance) if they have any of the following:
 - apnoea (observed or reported)
 - child looks seriously unwell to a healthcare professional
 - severe respiratory distress, for example grunting, marked chest recession, or a respiratory rate of over 70 breaths/minute
 - · central cyanosis
 - persistent oxygen saturation of 92% or less when breathing air.
- 1.2.2 Consider referring children with bronchiolitis to secondary care if they have any of the following:
 - a respiratory rate of over 60 breaths/minute
 - difficulty with breastfeeding or inadequate oral fluid intake (less than 75% of usual volume)
 - clinical dehydration.
- 1.2.3 When deciding whether to refer a child with bronchiolitis to secondary care, take account of the following risk factors for more severe bronchiolitis:
 - chronic lung disease (including bronchopulmonary dysplasia)
 - haemodynamically significant congenital heart disease
 - age in young infants (under 3 months)
 - premature birth, particularly under 32 weeks
 - neuromuscular disorders
 - immunodeficiency.
- 1.2.4 When deciding whether to refer to secondary care a child, take into account factors which might affect a carer's ability to look after a child with bronchiolitis, for example:

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- social circumstances
- the skill and confidence of the carer in looking after a child with bronchiolitis at home
- confidence in being able to spot red flag symptoms (see recommendation 1.6.1)
- distance to healthcare in case of deterioration.

1.3 When to admit

- 1.3.1 Measure pulse oxygen saturation using pulse oximetry in every child presenting to secondary care with clinical evidence of bronchiolitis.
- 1.3.2 When assessing a child in a secondary care setting, admit them to hospital if they have any of the following:
 - apnoea (observed or reported)
 - persistent oxygen saturation of 92% or less when breathing air
 - inadequate oral fluid intake (less than 75% of usual volume)
 - persisting severe respiratory distress, for example grunting, marked chest recession, or a respiratory rate of over 70 breaths/minute.
- 1.3.3 When deciding whether to admit a child with bronchiolitis, take account of the following risk factors for more severe bronchiolitis:
 - chronic lung disease (including bronchopulmonary dysplasia)
 - haemodynamically significant congenital heart disease
 - age in young infants (under 3 months)
 - premature birth, particularly under 32 weeks
 - neuromuscular disorders
 - immunodeficiency.
- 1.3.4 When deciding whether to admit a child, take into account factors which might affect a carer's ability to look after a child with bronchiolitis, for example:
 - social circumstances

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- the skill and confidence of the carer in looking after a child with bronchiolitis at home
- confidence in being able to spot red flag symptoms (see recommendation 1.6.1)
- distance to healthcare in case of deterioration.
- 1.3.5 Clinically assess the hydration status of children with bronchiolitis.
- 1.3.6 Do not routinely perform blood tests in the assessment of a child with bronchiolitis.
- 1.3.7 Do not perform a chest X-ray in children with bronchiolitis, because changes on X-ray may mimic pneumonia and should not be used to determine the need for antibiotics.
- 1.3.8 Provide parents or carers with key safety information (see recommendation 1.6.1) if the child is not admitted.

1.4 Management of bronchiolitis

- 1.4.1 Do not perform chest physiotherapy on children with bronchiolitis who do not have relevant comorbidities (for example spinal muscular atrophy, severe tracheomalacia).
- 1.4.2 Consider requesting a chest physiotherapy assessment in children who have relevant comorbidities (for example spinal muscular atrophy, severe tracheomalacia) when there may be additional difficulty clearing secretions.
- 1.4.3 Do not use any of the following to treat bronchiolitis in children:
 - antibiotics
 - hypertonic saline
 - adrenaline (nebulised)
 - salbutamol
 - Montelukast
 - ipratropium bromide

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- systemic or inhaled corticosteroids
- a combination of systemic corticosteroids and nebulised adrenaline.
- 1.4.4 Give oxygen supplementation to children with bronchiolitis if their oxygen saturation is persistently 92% or less.
- 1.4.5 Consider continuous positive airway pressure (CPAP) in children with bronchiolitis who have impending respiratory failure (see recommendation 1.1.11).
- 1.4.6 Do not routinely perform upper airway suctioning in children with bronchiolitis.
- 1.4.7 Consider upper airway suctioning in children who have respiratory distress or feeding difficulties because of upper airway secretions.
- 1.4.8 Perform upper airway suctioning in children with bronchiolitis presenting with apnoea even if there are no obvious upper airway secretions.
- 1.4.9 Do not routinely carry out blood gas testing in children with bronchiolitis.
- 1.4.10 Consider carrying out capillary blood gas testing in children with severe worsening respiratory distress (when supplemental oxygen concentration is greater than 50%) or suspected impending respiratory failure (see recommendation 1.1.11)
- 1.4.11 Give fluids by nasogastric or orogastric tube in children with bronchiolitis if they cannot take enough fluid by mouth.
- 1.4.12 Give intravenous isotonic fluids (see NPSA guidance) to children who:
 - do not tolerate nasogastric or orogastric fluids or
 - have impending respiratory failure.

1.5 When to discharge

1.5.1 When deciding on the timing of discharge for children admitted to hospital, make sure that the child:

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- is clinically stable
- is taking adequate oral fluids
- has maintained oxygen saturation over 92% in air for 4 hours, including a period of sleep.
- 1.5.2 When deciding whether to discharge a child, take into account factors which might affect a carer's ability to look after a child with bronchiolitis, for example:
 - social circumstances
 - the skill and confidence of the carer in looking after a child with bronchiolitis at home
 - confidence in being able to spot red flag symptoms (see recommendation 1.6.1)
 - distance to healthcare in case of deterioration.
- 1.5.3 Provide parents or carers with key safety information (see recommendation 1.6.1) when the child is discharged.

1.6 Key safety information for looking after a child at home

- 1.6.1 Provide key safety information for children who will be looked after at home. This should include information:
 - for parents and carers on how to recognise developing 'red flag' symptoms:
 - worsening work of breathing (for example grunting, nasal flaring, marked chest recession)
 - fluid intake is less than 75% of normal or no wet nappy for 12 hours
 - apnoea or cyanosis
 - exhaustion (for example, not responding normally to social cues, wakes only with prolonged stimulation)
 - on how to get immediate help from an appropriate professional if any red flag symptoms develop
 - on arrangements for follow-up if necessary.

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2 Research recommendations

The Guideline Development Group has made the following recommendations for research, based on its review of evidence, to improve NICE guidance and patient care in the future. The Guideline Development Group's full set of research recommendations is detailed in the full guideline. See The guidelines manual section 9.5 for guidance on formulating and selecting high-priority research recommendations for inclusion in the NICE guideline.

2.1 Oxygen saturation measurement in primary care

What is the clinical and cost effectiveness of SpO₂ measurement in primary care in children with bronchiolitis?

Why this is important

There are no studies to inform the use of SpO₂ measurement in primary care. SpO₂ is used routinely in secondary care to help decide on the need for admission to hospital. The clinical and cost effectiveness of SpO₂ measurement in primary care is also important. SpO₂ measurement is not routinely measured in infants and young children with bronchiolitis in primary care. The value of SpO₂ measurement to help identify those who need admission to hospital should be assessed. Possible outcomes might be fewer or more infants being referred to the hospital, or admitted.

2.2 Paediatric early warning score (PEWS) as predictors of deterioration

In children with bronchiolitis can paediatric early warning score (PEWS) predict deterioration?

Why this is important

In children with bronchiolitis there is clinical uncertainty about the prediction of deterioration. There are a number of clinical scores for bronchiolitis that include objective and subjective measures. No bronchiolitis score is currently in widespread use in clinical practice. Increasingly, PEWS are being employed generically in paediatric practice in the UK. The effectiveness of PEWS in predicting deterioration for infants with bronchiolitis needs to be assessed.

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2.3 Combined bronchodilator and corticosteroid therapy for bronchiolitis

What is the efficacy of combined bronchodilator and corticosteroid therapy?

Why this is important

There are no effective therapies for the treatment of bronchiolitis. One study reported that infants provided with both nebulised adrenaline and systemic steroids had improved clinical outcomes. This was a subgroup analysis, so was not anticipated in the trial design and consequently the analysis was not adequately powered to answer this question. A multicentre RCT that assesses the clinical and cost effectiveness of combined adrenaline and corticosteroids treatment for bronchiolitis is needed.

2.4 High-flow humidified oxygen and oxygen

What is the clinical and cost effectiveness of high-flow humidified oxygen versus standard supplemental oxygen?

Why this is important

Providing oxygen (typically by nasal cannula) is standard care for bronchiolitis. Newly-developed medical devices can now deliver high-flow humidified oxygen that is thought to provide more comfortable and effective delivery of gases while retaining airway humidity. The use of this medical device is becoming widespread without demonstration of additional efficacy. A multicentre RCT comparing high-flow humidified oxygen and standard supplemental oxygen would be of benefit, as would including weaning strategies for high-flow humidified oxygen.

2.5 Nasal suction

What is the clinical and cost effectiveness of suction to remove secretions from the upper respiratory tract compared with minimal handling?

Why this is important

Suction is a commonly used therapy in bronchiolitis. Infants are obligate nasal breathers, so removal of secretions is thought to relieve respiratory distress.

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However, suction is distressing to infants and parents. Methods vary and there is no evidence on which approach, if any, is most effective. In some trials it appears that minimal handling is more effective than therapies. A multicentre RCT comparing the clinical and cost effectiveness of suction (also covering different suction strategies, for example superficial versus deep) with minimal handling is needed.

3 Other information

3.1 Scope and how this guideline was developed

NICE guidelines are developed in accordance with a <u>scope</u> that defines what the guideline will and will not cover.

How this guideline was developed

NICE commissioned the National Collaborating Centre for Women's and Children's Health to develop this guideline. The Centre established a Guideline Development Group (see section 4), which reviewed the evidence and developed the recommendations.

The methods and processes for developing NICE clinical guidelines are described in The guidelines manual.

3.2 Related NICE guidance

Details are correct at the time of consultation on the guideline (November 2014). Further information is available on the NICE website.

Published

General

Medicines adherence NICE guideline CG76 (2009).

Condition-specific

- <u>Feverish illness in children</u> NICE guideline CG160 (2013).
- Antibiotics for early-onset neonatal infection NICE guideline CG149 (2012).

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- Infection NICE guideline CG139 (2012).
- Prevention and control of healthcare-associated infections NICE guideline PH36 (2011).
- <u>Bacterial meningitis and meningococcal septicaemia</u> NICE guideline CG102 (2010).
- Respiratory tract infections antibiotic prescribing NICE guideline CG69 (2008).
- Omalizumab for severe persistent allergic asthma NICE technology appraisal guidance 133 (2007).
- Inhaled corticosteroids for the treatment of chronic asthma in children under the age of 12 years NICE technology appraisal guidance 131 (2007).
- Guidance on the use of inhaler systems (devices) in children under the age of
 5 years with chronic asthma NICE technology appraisal guidance 10 (2000).

Under development

NICE is developing the following guidance (details available from the NICE website):

- Asthma. NICE guideline. Publication expected June 2015.
- Intravenous fluid therapy in children. NICE guideline. Publication expected October 2015.

4 The Guideline Development Group, National Collaborating Centre and NICE project team

4.1 Guideline Development Group

Thomas Bourke

Consultant general paediatrician, Royal Belfast Hospital for Sick Children

Kate Chadwick

Patient and carer member

Geoffrey John Crimmins

GP, Llantwit Major, Vale of Glamorgan

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Steve Cunningham (Chair)

Consultant and Honorary Reader in Paediatric, Royal Hospital for Sick Children, Edinburgh

Julian Legg

Consultant in paediatric respiratory medicine, Southampton Children's Hospital

Bhavee Mahesh Patel

Clinical Lead Paediatric Specialist Pharmacist, Morriston Hospital, Swansea

Clare van Miert

Clinical Nursing Research Fellow, Alder Hey Children's Hospital, Liverpool

Julie McKnight

Advanced paediatric nurse practitioner, Royal Belfast Hospital for Sick Children

Debra Quantrill

Patient and carer member

Anshu Sharma

Paediatric Consultant, Russells Hall Hospital, Dudley

4.2 National Collaborating Centre for Women and Children's Health

Anne Carty

Project Manager

Katherine Cullen

Health economist

Nitara Prasannan

Research Associate

Stephen Murphy

Clinical Director

Vanessa Delgado Nunes

Guideline Lead

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Valentina Ricci

Research Associate

Zosia Beckles

Information Scientist

4.3 NICE project team

Sarah Willett

Guideline Lead

Martin Allaby

Clinical Adviser

Oliver Bailey

Guideline Commissioning Manager

Besma Nash

Guideline Coordinator

Nitara Prasannan

Technical Lead

David Glynn

Health Economist

Gareth Haman

Senior Medical Editor

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