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Jensen, M. E.; Gibson, P. G.; Collins, C. E.; Hilton, J. M.; Wood, L. G. "Diet-induced weight loss in obese children with asthma: a randomized controlled trial", Clinical and Experimental Allergy Vol. 43, Issue 7, p. 775-784 (2013)

Available from: <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/cea.12115</u>

"This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: Jensen, M. E.; Gibson, P. G.; Collins, C. E.; Hilton, J. M.; Wood, L. G. "Diet-induced weight loss in obese children with asthma: a randomized controlled trial", Clinical and Experimental Allergy Vol. 43, Issue 7, p. 775-784 (2013), which has been published in final form at http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/cea.12115. This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with WieleyTerms and Conditions for Self-Archiving."

Accessed from: http://hdl.handle.net/1959.13/1045761

- 1 Manuscript body: 3539words
- 2 **Abstract: 250words**
- 3

4 Title: Diet-induced weight loss in obese children with asthma: A randomized controlled trial

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- 16 Funding: The project is supported by a Hunter Medical Research Institute Gastronomic Society Donor Grant.
- 17 Financial disclosure: The authors have no financial relationships relevant to this article to disclose. CEC is
- 18 supported by an Australian National Health and Medical Research Council Career Development Fellowship.
- 19 MEJ is supported by a University of Newcastle Priority Research Centre (Asthma) RHD Scholarship.
- 20 Conflict of Interest: The authors have no COI to disclose
- 21 Clinical Trial Registration: Australian New Zealand Clinical Trials Registry: ACTRN12610000955011
- 22

23 Abstract

Background: Obesity is highly prevalent in asthmatic children and associated with worse clinical outcomes. The
 use of energy restriction to induce weight loss in asthmatic children has not been investigated in a RCT.

Objective: To investigate the effect of diet-induced acute weight loss on respiratory outcomes in obese asthmatic
 children.

Methods: In a 10-week pilot RCT, obese asthmatic children, aged 8-17yrs, were randomised to a wait-list control (WLC) (n=15) or dietary-intervention group (DIG) (n=13). Lung function, Asthma Control Questionnaire (ACQ) score, and sputum and systemic inflammation were assessed at baseline and postintervention. (Australian New Zealand Clinical Trials Registry: ACTRN12610000955011).

32 *Results*: Body mass index (BMI) *z*-score reduced significantly in the DIG versus the WLC (-0.2[-0.4, -0.1] vs. 33 0.0[-0.1, 0.0], p=0.014). ERV increased significantly within the DIG, but not compared to the WLC (0.7[0.0, 34 1.0]L vs. 0.3[0.0, 0.8]L, p=0.355). ACQ improved significantly in the DIG, compared to the WLC (-0.4[-0.7, 35 0.0] vs. 0.1[0.0, 0.6], p=0.004). Airway and systemic inflammation did not change within the DIG. In 36 comparison, CRP increased significantly in the WLC (-0.4[-0.5, 0.4] vs. 0.7[-0.1, 1.9], p=0.037). Δ BMI *z*-score 37 correlated with Δ CRP (*r*=0.47, p=0.012) and Δ eNO (*r*=0.46, p=0.034), and Δ ACQ was associated with 38 Δ CRP(*r*=0.43, p=0.029).

39 Conclusion: Dietary intervention can induce acute weight loss in obese asthmatic children with subsequent 40 improvements in static lung function and asthma control. Systemic and airway inflammation did not change 41 following weight loss. However, changes in BMI *z*-score were associated with changes in airway and systemic 42 inflammation and this requires further investigation in a larger RCT.

43 Key Words

44 asthma; body mass index; body composition; child; diet; inflammation; weight loss; pediatric; respiratory
 45 function tests; obesity

47 Introduction

48 Obesity is highly prevalent in the asthmatic population, with almost one in two children with asthma carrying 49 excess weight[1], compared to approximately one quarter of the general population[2]. Addressing the high 50 prevalence of obesity in children with asthma is of critical importance. Once a child becomes overweight or 51 obese the risk of obesity tracking into adulthood is dramatically increased[3]. The detrimental effects of obesity 52 upon adult respiratory status has been well documented[4], with significant lung restriction[5], steroid 53 resistance[6], altered airway inflammation[7, 8], and raised systemic inflammation[8] characterising factors. 54 There is also increasing evidence to suggest that excess weight in children with asthma is associated with worse 55 asthma control and increased risk of exacerbations[4, 9], reduced static lung function[10, 11] and reduced 56 steroid efficacy[12], complicating their management.

57 Despite the heterogeneity in interventions and measurement outcomes, weight loss in asthmatic populations 58 consistently demonstrates a significant improvement in asthma outcomes [13, 14], notably lung function [15-18], 59 asthma control and severity [15-18], airway responsiveness [15, 16, 18], medication use [16, 18], and quality of 60 life[15, 18]. With the exception of one uncontrolled study[17], previous weight loss interventions in the 61 asthmatic population have been conducted in adults. The majority of these studies have investigated surgically-62 induced weight loss[13], while few have used very low to low calorie diets[14] or combination therapy[15, 17]. 63 Surgical intervention has achieved up to 35-45% weight loss within 1-3yr follow-up in asthmatic adults[13, 16], 64 with associated improvements in dynamic and static lung function, airway reactivity and medication usage[13, 65 16, 18]. Dietary interventions conducted in asthmatic adults have ranged from 8-26weeks in duration and 66 achieved approximately 8-19% weight loss, with associated improvements in asthma control, lung function, 67 bronchodilator response, quality of life, self-reported dyspnea and rescue medication use[14, 15].

Evidence suggests that interventions including a dietary component are effective in achieving weight loss in non-asthmatic children[19]. Only one weight loss study has been conducted in obese asthmatic adolescents, which used a 12-month combined dietary, physical activity, psychological and medical intervention[17]. This uncontrolled pre-post study reported significant improvements in lung function, asthma severity and symptoms, with approximately 13% weight loss[17]. However, whether an energy-restricted diet can induce acute weight loss in obese children with asthma and achieve significant improvements in asthma outcomes has not been investigated in a randomised controlled trial (RCT).

75 Therefore, the aim of this study was to investigate whether: a) acute weight loss can be achieved in children 76 with asthma in a 10-week RCT using dietary intervention alone; and b) dietary-induced weight loss is associated

- 77 with changes in asthma outcomes, including systemic and airway inflammation, lung function and asthma
- 78 control.
- 79

Jensen 5

80 Methods

81 Study design

82 Participants

83 Obese children (BMI z-score \geq 1.64 standard deviation score (SDS)), aged 8-17 years, with a physician diagnosis 84 of asthma were recruited from the John Hunter Children's Hospital (JHCH) outpatients, local medical centres 85 and the general community in Newcastle, Australia. Participants were randomised by a statistician to one of two 86 groups: (1) Dietary intervention (DIG); or (2) Wait-list control (WLC), who received the intervention after the 87 initial 10-week control period (Fig 1). Exclusion criteria included unexplained weight change during the past 88 3mths, inflammatory or endocrine disorders, and respiratory disorders other than asthma. Participant assent and 89 guardian consent were obtained. The study was registered with the Australian New Zealand Clinical Trials 90 Registry (ACTRN12610000955011) and approved by the Hunter New England and University of Newcastle 91 Human Research Ethics Committees (09/05/20/5.08).

92 Intervention

93 Participants randomised to the intervention group underwent a 10 week dietary intervention, which targeted a 94 500-kcal/day energy reduction from individually calculated age- and gender-appropriate energy requirements 95 (Schofield equation to estimate basal metabolic rate using activity factor of 1.55)[20]. Participants were required 96 to attend counselling sessions with an Accredited Practising Dietitian (MEJ) in weeks 0, 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10 and 97 were contacted via telephone in alternate weeks. Sessions involved theoretical and practical education on 98 selection of foods and appropriate serving sizes to optimise macronutrient and micronutrient intakes within an 99 energy-restricted diet; identification and resolution of barriers to dietary change; and goal-setting. Materials 100 included individually adapted meal plans and a commercial calorie counter. Participants were encouraged to 101 self-monitor energy intake using a food diary throughout the study period.

102 Clinical visits

103 Clinical assessment

Participants attended JHCH after an overnight fast (≥12hrs) and withholding antihistamines and asthma medications (≥24hrs). Asthma stability was confirmed, defined as no exacerbation, respiratory tract infection or oral corticosteroid use in the past 4 weeks. Clinical asthma pattern, current asthma status, and quality of life were assessed using Global Initiative for Asthma (GINA) guidelines[21], Juniper Asthma Control Questionnaire (ACQ)[22], and Paediatric Asthma Quality of Life Questionnaire (standardised) (PAQLQ(s))[23], respectively, in their original unmodified form. Atopy was determined by positive skin prick test to common allergen(s) (Aspergillus fumigatus, Alternaria tenius, Dermatophagoides Pteronyssinus, Cockroach mix, Grass mix).
Tobacco exposure was measured by urinary cotinine (NicAlert, Nymox Pharmaceutical Corp, USA NJ).
Dynamic and static lung function was measured using spirometry (Windows KoKo PFT System Version 4.9
2005, PDS Inc Louisville USA) and plethysmography (MedGraphics Elite Series Plethysmograph, USA; Breeze
Suite 6.4.1.14 Version 510 2008, MedGraphics Corp., USA). FEV₁ and FVC values were expressed as a
percentage of the predicted values[24], and obstruction as FEV₁/TLC(%)[25].

116 Anthropometry

Weight and height were measured using 150 kg max scales (EB8271 NuWeigh, Newcastle Weighing Services NSW, Australia) and 2 m wall-suspended measuring tape with wall stop (Surgical and Medical Supplies Pty Ltd SA, Australia). BMI was calculated (weight (kg) / height (m)²) and converted to BMI *z*-scores[26]. Total body and thoracic fat and lean mass were measured as a percentage (%) of total body weight using dual energy X-ray absorptiometry (GE Lunar Prodigy, Medtel; GE Healthcare encore 2007 software Version 11.40.004, Madison USA).

123 Airway biomarkers

124 Participants underwent exhaled Nitric Oxide (eNO) measurement (NiOX chemiluminescent Detector, 125 Aerocrine, Australian Supplier Zynergy Medical) and combined bronchial provocation testing and sputum 126 induction with hypertonic saline (4.5%) (ULTRA-NEBTM ultrasonic nebuliser, DeVilbiss, Model 2000)[27]. 127 Airway hyperresponsiveness (AHR) was defined as a fall in $FEV_1 \ge 15\%$ of their baseline FEV_1 . The dose 128 response slope (DRS) and the log-transformed provocation dose (LogPD₁₅) were calculated. Opaque 129 mucocellular sputum portions were selected from saliva, processed using dithiothreitol[27, 28], and a total cell 130 count of leukocytes and viability performed[27, 28]. Cytospins were prepared, stained (May-Grunwald Geimsa) 131 and a differential cell count obtained from 400 non-squamous cells.

132 Systemic biomarkers

Fasting blood samples were centrifuged at 3000 rpm, 4°C for 10 minutes. All samples underwent duplicate testing. Plasma IL-6 (R&D Systems, Minneapolis MN USA), and serum leptin and adiponectin (Bio-Rad, Hercules CA USA) were measured using commercial ELISAs, with respective sensitivity of 0.039pg/ml, 3.1pg/ml and 32.7pg/ml. Serum high sensitivity C-Reactive Protein (CRP), and plasma cholesterol, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C), triglyceride and glucose were measured using commercial assays (CRP Flex reagent cartridge, CHOL Flex reagent cartridge, HDLC Flex reagent cartridge, TRIG Flex reagent cartridge & GLU Flex reagent cartridge, Dimension Vista System, Siemans Healthcare Diagnostics Inc. 2008, Newark

- 140 USA). Plasma insulin was measured using commercial immunoassay (Access Ultrasensitive Insulin assay,
- 141 Beckman Coulter Inc. 2008, CA USA). Low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) (total cholesterol-(HDL-
- 142 C)-(0.4545*triglycerides)) and homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance (HOMA-IR) (glucose
- 143 (mmol/L)*insulin (mlU/L) / 22.5) were calculated.

144 Statistical analysis

- 145 Data are presented as mean (standard deviation, SD), median [interquartile range, IQR], or proportion (n, (%)).
- 146 Outcome data are reported as change (Δ) from baseline. Continuous data were assessed using a paired mean-
- 147 comparison *t*-test or Wilcoxon sign-rank test for within-group comparisons, and a two-group mean-comparison
- 148 *t*-test or Wilcoxon rank-sum test for between-group comparisons. Associations between ΔBMI *z*-score and 5
- 149 key pathways were explored using spearman-rank correlation coefficients: mechanical function (ΔERV), airway
- 150 inflammation (Δ %sputum inflammatory markers, Δ eNO), systemic inflammation (Δ CRP), endocrine function
- 151 (Δ leptin), and metabolic function (Δ HOMA). All tests were of size alpha = 0.05 and unadjusted for multiple
- 152 comparisons. Statistical analysis was performed using Intercooled Stata Version 11.0 for Windows (StataCorp,
- 153 College Station, Texas, USA 1984-2005).
- 154

155 Results

156 Group characteristics were similar at baseline (Table I), except for a significantly higher ACQ score in the DIG 157 compared to the WLC. Following the intervention period, a significant reduction in all adiposity indicators 158 occurred in the DIG (Table II), with a clinically important reduction in BMI z-score (Fig 2a) and a reduction in 159 %body fat (Fig 2b). However, metabolic markers remained unchanged in the DIG. No significant change in 160 anthropometric or metabolic markers was observed for the WLC, except for a statistically significant increase in 161 body weight and fasting glucose levels (**Table II**). The change in BMI *z*-score and %body fat was significantly 162 different between groups (Fig 2a, Fig 2b). The change in weight was also significantly different between 163 groups, while changes in metabolic markers were not significantly different (Table II).

164 There was no significant change in dynamic lung function, within or between groups (Table III). Static lung 165 function, including ERV (Fig 3a), was significantly different within the DIG compared to baseline. However, 166 the difference between groups was not statistically significant. ACO score improved significantly within the 167 DIG, compared to the WLC (Fig 3b). PAQLQ symptom (0.6[-0.1, 1.2], p<0.05) and emotional (0.4[0.3, 1.7], 168 p<0.05) domain scores significantly improved in the DIG, but this was not different compared to the change in 169 the WLC (0.1[-0.4, 0.6] and -0.1[-0.4, 0.8], respectively). A trend towards a clinically significant improvement 170 in PAQLQ total (0.7(1.2), p>0.05) and activity domain (0.6[-0.3, 1.7], p>0.05) scores was also observed in the 171 DIG, but this did not differ from the change in the WLC (0.1(0.7) and 0.1[-0.2, 0.4], respectively).

172 Airway & systemic inflammation

There was no change in the number or proportion of eosinophils or neutrophils, within or between groups (**Table IV**). However, a non-significant trend towards a reduction in %neutrophils in the DIG was observed. A statistically significant difference in both absolute and %lymphocytes was observed between groups. However, the change within groups was non-significant. A significant increase in CRP levels was detected in the WLC compared to the DIG, while no change was observed in IL-6, leptin or adiponectin levels, within or between groups (**Table IV**).

179 Correlations

180Table V presents correlations between $\triangle BMI z$ -score and key outcomes. Change in BMI z-score was associated

- 181 with \triangle CRP and \triangle eNO (**Table V**). Change in CRP was positively associated with \triangle %body fat (*r*=0.64, p=0.001)
- 182 and negatively associated with Δ % lean mass (r=-0.61, p=0.001) and Δ % thoracic lean mass (r=-0.41, p=0.043).
- 183 Change in eNO was negatively associated with Δ %thoracic lean mass (r=-0.56, p=0.011) only. In addition,
- 184 Δ HOMA-IR was positively associated with Δ %body fat (r=0.57, p=0.003) and Δ %thoracic fat (r=0.47,

- 185 p=0.020), while negatively associated with Δ % lean mass (r=-0.61, p=0.001) and Δ % thoracic lean mass (r=-
- 186 0.51, p=0.012). Only \triangle CRP was associated with \triangle ACQ (*r*=0.43, p=0.029).

188 Discussion

The presented study was a pilot RCT aimed at investigating the efficacy of dietary energy restriction to induce acute weight loss in obese children with asthma, and the subsequent effect on asthma outcomes. Results demonstrate that dietary intervention can induce clinically important weight loss in asthmatic children within 10-weeks. Importantly, acute dietary-induced weight loss was associated with a significant improvement in static lung function, asthma control, and self-reported quality of life in this group of children.

194 Our data demonstrate that clinically significant rapid weight loss can be achieved in children with asthma, 195 compared to controls, using simple dietary intervention. The presented dietary intervention achieved a median 196 5.7% reduction in body weight within 10-weeks, comparable with the 5.4% weight loss achieved at 6-months 197 using interdisciplinary therapy in a previous study [17]. Notably, in the presented study, the reduction in BMI z-198 score achieved in the intervention group was of clinical importance. Few weight loss intervention studies 199 conducted in children and adolescents have reported age- and sex-standardised BMI, which limits comparability 200 between studies. Nonetheless, of previous weight loss interventions in non-asthmatic children which included a 201 dietary component and reported standardised BMI, reductions of approximately 0.2-0.4BMI-SDS have been 202 reported over time frames ranging from 4-6mths[29-32], while others have found no significant change[33, 34]. 203 Hence, the weight loss achieved in the current study, a median BMI z-score reduction of 0.2SDS, suggests our 204 intervention was very successful. This may be due to the frequency of dietetic contact and/or the delivery of the 205 dietary intervention, or that it was motivated by evaluating the impact on asthma outcomes. Participants were 206 required to focus on one aspect of lifestyle modification which may make adjusting to beneficial changes easier 207 than addressing multiple aspects simultaneously. Participation in a weight loss study designed to evaluate the 208 effect upon asthma outcomes may also have motivated adherence to the dietary prescription. Investigation of 209 whether greater weight loss can be achieved with a longer intervention, and follow-up to evaluate weight loss 210 maintenance, is a consideration for future studies.

In both asthmatic and non-asthmatic adults, obesity is associated with reduced static lung function, namely FRC and ERV, while ventilatory function is only moderately affected[5]. A dose-response relationship has been reported with weight loss in adults, whereby greater improvements in FEV_1 , FVC and TLC are seen with greater amounts of weight loss[35]. However, the most notable increases in lung function following weight loss have been reported for ERV, with increases of approximately 20% and 60% reported in asthmatic adults following diet-induced[15] and surgery-induced[16] weight loss, respectively. Recently, Boulet et al reported significant improvements in %predicted dynamic and static lung function variables, with the greatest improvement seen in 218 %ERV, which more than doubled the baseline value by 12-months post-surgery in asthmatic adults[16]. Recent 219 reports describe RV and FRC, expressed as both %predicted and relative to TLC, to be significantly lower in 220 overweight and obese asthmatic children compared to non-obese counterparts[10, 11]. We recently reported that 221 obesity in children with asthma is also associated with a reduced ERV (Jensen et al, unpublished). Conversely, 222 childhood FEV₁ and FVC appear largely unaffected by the presence of obesity, with reports of increased 223 ventilatory function in overweight and obese children compared to non-obese children with asthma[4, 10, 11]. A 224 recent uncontrolled weight-loss study did not measure static lung function, but did demonstrate significant 225 improvements in %predicted spirometry values at 6-months and 12-months post-intervention in asthmatic 226 adolescents[17]. In contrast to this study, our participants had relatively normal baseline %FEV₁ and %FVC, 227 which may explain why a change in spirometry measurements was not observed following acute weight loss. 228 However, similar to adult studies, a significant improvement in ERV for the intervention group was detected, 229 following weight loss. In addition, there was a significant reduction in RV and %RV/TLC, suggesting a 230 reduction in obstruction.

231 Importantly, the improvement in asthma control in the intervention group approached clinical significance. 232 There was also a clinically significant improvement in self-reported quality of life for the intervention group. 233 However, only the change in the PAQLQ symptom and emotion domains reached statistical significance. 234 Improved quality of life and asthma control has been demonstrated in asthmatic adults, 6 and 12-months 235 following surgically-induced weight loss[16, 18] and 10-weeks following dietary-induced weight loss[15]. Our 236 results demonstrate that acute weight loss can achieve clinically significant improvements in static lung 237 function, and significant improvements in asthma control and quality of life in obese children. Follow-up studies 238 are needed to investigate the effect of long-term weight loss intervention on lung function and asthma control in 239 this group of children.

240 Non-eosinophilic asthma, characterised by significant neutrophilia, has been described as a defining feature of 241 adult obese asthma[7], and recently, Scott et al reported a significant association between %weight loss and 242 reduced sputum %neutrophils in asthmatic females following a 10-week dietary and/or exercise 243 intervention[15]. Although a recent cluster analysis in asthmatic children identified a distinct cluster 244 characterised by a greater BMI, elevated peripheral neutrophils and poorer $FEV_1[36]$, the presence of airway 245 neutrophilia in paediatric obese asthma has not been described. The presented study is the first paediatric weight 246 loss trial to report airway inflammation. No significant change in eNO or induced sputum inflammatory cells 247 was detected within groups. However, there was a non-significant trend towards a reduction in % neutrophils in

the intervention group. Likewise, there was no significant difference in the change in airway inflammatory markers between groups, with the exception of absolute and %lymphocytes. Interestingly, in asthmatic adults, an increase in %lymphocytes in broncho-alveolar lavage (BAL) samples 12-months post-bariatric surgery has also been reported, while no change in neutrophils or eosinophils were observed[18].

252 Elevated systemic inflammation has been described in adult obese asthma[8]. Following weight loss, significant 253 increases in adiponectin levels[18], and significant reductions in CRP[16], leptin[15] and IL-6[15] have been 254 reported. Previous weight loss interventions in non-asthmatic children have produced variable changes in 255 systemic inflammation[14]. Both short (3-6 weeks) and long term (3-12 months) weight-loss studies have 256 observed significant reductions in CRP, IL-6 and leptin, and increases in adiponectin[14], while other studies 257 have reported no difference in CRP, TNF- α or adiponectin levels over a 6-12 month period, despite weight loss 258 of up to 0.4BMI-SDS[14, 29, 31]. These studies also failed to detect a significant change in metabolic 259 markers[29, 31]. The recent weight loss intervention by da Silva et al reported modest but statistically 260 significant improvements in CRP, leptin and adiponectin in obese asthmatic and non-asthmatic adolescents at 261 12-months, where there was no significant change at 6-months[17]. Furthermore, a 12-month longitudinal study 262 in non-asthmatic children demonstrated that improvements in TNF- α , CRP, leptin and adiponectin levels did not 263 occur in children with weight loss < 0.5BMI-SDS compared to children with weight loss $\ge 0.5BMI$ -SDS[37, 38]. 264 Although, the presented study achieved a clinically significant reduction in BMI z-score in 10-weeks, the 265 median reduction of 0.2BMI-SDS may not have been sufficient to achieve favourable changes in systemic 266 biomarkers. Indeed, systemic inflammatory and metabolic biomarkers remained stable in this group of children, 267 despite acute weight loss. However, moderate but significant increases in glucose and CRP were observed in the 268 control group, even in this short period of time. This may suggest that although this group of children appeared 269 metabolically healthy at baseline, changes in body weight, specifically body composition, may have adverse 270 effects upon the metabolic profile, which increases risk for other chronic conditions, including cardiovascular 271 disease and diabetes mellitus. This is supported by the positive correlations between Δ CRP and Δ HOMA-IR 272 versus fat mass and negative associations versus lean mass.

In an endeavour to understand the mechanism of weight loss in asthma, we explored the associations between ΔBMI *z*-score and key outcomes. Previous reports have suggested that obesity adversely impacts asthma outcomes via mechanical restriction of the chest wall and diaphragm[39]. It is also suggested that obesity alters the airway inflammatory phenotype in asthma, altering management needs[7, 8]. Our results indicate that weight change after 10 weeks is associated with airway and systemic inflammation, as indicated by ΔCRP and ΔeNO . 278 This may suggest that weight loss, and more specifically, reductions in adiposity and increases in lean mass, can 279 lead to reductions in both systemic and airway inflammation. However, increased systemic inflammation was 280 the only outcome associated with poorer asthma control, supported by a positive association between Δ CRP and 281 Δ ACQ. This may suggest that the adverse effect of obesity may operate via alterations in systemic 282 inflammation, and that body composition is an important consideration, as previously hypothesised[4, 14]. 283 However, further investigation is required.

284 This was the first RCT, designed as a pilot study, to investigate: a) the feasibility of dietary-induced weight loss 285 in asthmatic children; and b) whether improvements in asthma outcomes are observed with acute weight loss. 286 The presented study is limited by the sample size which may have reduced the likelihood of detecting a change 287 in outcome measures. Although this was a randomised trial, the intervention group tended to have a greater 288 proportion of males and a greater proportion were reportedly using ICS. The intervention group also had a 289 significantly poorer ACO score at baseline, compared to the WLC, which may have confounded the results. In 290 addition, a potential source of bias is improved patient-directed asthma awareness, such as improved medication 291 adherence, purely due to enrolment in a study in which the primary end-points are asthma outcomes. Although 292 there was no significant change in reported medication use during the course of the study in either group, the 293 reliability of this information is subject to the limitations of self-report. Furthermore, the nature of the 294 intervention precluded blinding of participants and research officers to group allocation. However, the key 295 outcomes of the study were objective measurements, which would have minimised bias. Lastly, our study did 296 not include a follow-up period. Recent studies including a follow-up period have indicated that weight loss is 297 maintained in children[29, 30, 32]. Therefore, further investigation into the efficacy of diet-induced weight loss 298 in asthmatic children is needed, which includes an adequate follow-up period.

299 The presented study demonstrates that rapid weight loss can be achieved safely in obese asthmatic children with 300 dietary intervention alone, resulting in improvements in static lung function, asthma control and quality of life. 301 On the other hand, changes in airway and systemic inflammation were not detected following acute dietary-302 induced weight loss in this group of children. However, exploratory analysis suggests that body composition 303 changes, specifically greater adiposity and lesser lean mass, are associated with adverse changes in systemic and 304 airway inflammation. In addition, systemic inflammation was associated with poorer asthma control in children, 305 indicating that the role of inflammation should not be discounted and further investigation in larger trials is 306 needed. Our data indicates that weight loss can produce beneficial changes in childhood asthma outcomes and 307 supports the need for larger RCTs, with an appropriate intervention and follow-up period, to investigate further308 the efficacy of weight loss intervention in asthmatic children.

309

310 Acknowledgements

- 311 Authors would like to thank Respiratory Research (Hunter Medical Research Institute) laboratory and clinical
- 312 staff for assistance with sample collection and processing, Majella Maher (John Hunter Children's Hospital) for
- 313 performing lung plethysmography, and Patrick McElduff (University of Newcastle) for statistical consultation
- 314 and assistance. Project funding: Hunter Medical Research Institute Donor Grant (Gastronomic Society). Author
- 315 support: University of Newcastle Priority Research Centre (Asthma) RHD Scholarship (MEJ); Australian
- 316 National Health and Medical Research Council Career Development Fellowship (CEC).

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414 Tables

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Table I: Subject characteristics at baseline, randomised to dietary intervention of	r wait-list control group
for ten weeks	

Subject Characteristics	Dietary Intervention	Wait-list Control
number; n	13	15
Age (years); mean (SD)	11.5(2.1)	12.4(2.4)
Gender (% females); %	3(23.1)	8(53.3)
Height (cm); mean (SD)	1.6(0.1)	1.6(0.1)
Weight (kg); median [IQR]	59.9[56.1, 78.6]	71.2[66.5, 82.4]
BMI z-score (SDS); median [IQR]	2.1[1.9, 2.3]	2.2[1.8, 2.4]
Total body fat mass (%); mean (SD)	44.7(5.9)	44.8(7.3)
Total body lean mass (%); mean (SD)	53.3(5.6)	53.3(6.8)
Atopic (Y/N) ; n (% Y)	9(69.2)	10(66.7)
FEV ₁ % predicted (%); mean (SD)	90.5(13.6)	96.0(7.6)
FVC %predicted (%); mean (SD)	100.8(10.2)	101.4(6.9)
FEV ₁ /TLC (%); mean (SD)	59.1(9.0)	64.0(9.0)
ACQ Score; median [IQR]	1.14[0.43, 1.57]*	0.57[0.29, 0.86]
PAQLQ; median [IQR]	5.52[4.65, 6.26]	6.00[5.65, 6.52]
Airway hyperresponsiveness (%true)†; n (%)	8(72.7)	10(76.9)
LogPD ₁₅ (ml); mean (SD)	1.4[0.4, 2.0]	1.1[-0.3, 2.4]
Dose response slope (%fall/ml)); median [IQR]	2.6[1.4, 9.2]	1.8[0.5, 14.3]
SABA (true) [†] ; n (%)	11(84.6)	13(86.7)
ICS (true) †; n (%)	7(53.9)	3(20.0)
Beqs; median [IQR]	400[275, 400]	400[233, 400]

BMI, body mass index; SDS, standard deviation score; FEV₁, forced expiratory volume in 1 second; FVC, forced vital capacity; TLC, total lung capacity; ACQ, Asthma Control Questionnaire (Juniper); PAQLQ, Paediatric Asthma Quality of Life Questionnaire (Juniper); LogPD₁₅, log-transformed provocation dose; SABA, short acting β -agonist; ICS, inhaled corticosteroid; Beqs, beclomethasone equivalents; *p =0.026 vs control group; †Pearson's Chi-squared test.

	Intervention group		Control group		
Anthropometric & metabolic markers	Baseline	Change (∆) vs. Baseline	Baseline	Change (∆) vs. Baseline	- Change (∆) between groups: p-value
Weight (kg); median [IQR]	59.9[56.1, 78.6]	-3.4[-4.8, -2.9]*	71.2[66.5, 82.4]	1.3[0.7, 2.2]*	0.003
Total body lean mass (%); mean (SD)	53.3(5.6)	2.1(3.0)*	53.3(6.8)	0.2(2.5)	0.083
Glucose (mmol/L); median [IQR]	4.3[3.9, 4.4]	0.0[-1.0, 0.3]	4.4[4.0, 4.7]	0.4[-0.2, 0.5]*	0.174
Insulin (mlU/L); median [IQR]	7.3[5.3, 12.0]	-0.7[-6.4, 3.7]	10.1[7.1, 16.2]	0.9[-2.3, 8.1]	0.356
Total cholesterol (mmol/L); median [IQR]	3.9[3.8, 4.1]	-0.1[-0.3, 0.2]	4.1[3.8, 4.7]	0.1[-0.3, 0.3]	0.437
LDL-C (mmol/L); median [IQR]	2.2[2.0, 2.7]	-0.1[-0.3, 0.2]	2.2[1.9, 2.8]	0.1[-0.1, 0.2]	0.423
HDL-C (mmol/L); median [IQR]	1.3(0.2)	-0.0[-0.1, 0.0]	1.1(0.2)	0.1[0.0, 0.1]	0.254
Triglycerides (mmol/L); median [IQR]	1.0[0.7, 1.2]	0.0[-0.4, 0.2]	1.3[0.8, 2.0]	0.0[-0.4, 0.2]	0.923
HOMA-IR; median[IQR]	1.4[0.9, 2.0]	-0.2[-1.0, 1.2]	2.0[1.8, 3.2]	0.3[-0.4, 1.6]	0.317

Table II: Change in anthropometric & metabolic variables in obese children with asthma, following randomisation to diet-induced weight loss intervention or no intervention for ten weeks

LDL-C, low density lipoprotein cholesterol; HDL-C, high density lipoprotein cholesterol; HOMA-IR, homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance. *p <0.05 versus baseline value

Table III: Change in lung function & clinical asthma outcomes in obese children with asthma, following randomisation to diet-induced weight loss intervention or no intervention for ten weeks

	Interve	ntion group	Contro	ol group	_
Lung function variables	Baseline	Change (∆) vs. baseline	Baseline	Change (∆) vs. baseline	Change (∆) between groups: p-value
FEV ₁ (L); median [IQR]	2.4[2.0, 2.9]	0.0[-0.2, 0.1]	2.6[2.2, 2.9]	0.0[-0.2, 0.1]	0.489
FVC (L); median [IQR]	3.4[2.7, 3.5]	0.1(0.2)	3.3[2.9, 3.5]	0.0(0.2)	0.191
FEV ₁ / TLC (%); mean (SD)	59.1(9.0)	2.3[-1.3, 14.1]	64.7(8.9)	-0.5[-4.6, 4.8]	0.217
TLC (L); median [IQR]	4.4[3.4, 4.8]	0.0[-0.5, 0.0]	4.0[3.6, 4.7]	-0.1[-0.2, 0.1]	0.471
FRC (L); median [IQR]	1.9[1.7, 2.1]	0.2(0.5)	1.6[1.5, 2.1]	0.2(0.4)	0.905
RV (L); median [IQR]	0.9[0.8, 1.6]	-0.4(0.5)*	0.9[0.7, 1.1]	-0.1(0.4)	0.237
RV/TLC (%); mean (SD)	25.8(9.3)	-6.9(9.2)*	20.5(9.0)	-1.7(10.2)	0.188
Dose response slope (%fall/ml)); median [IQR]	2.6[1.4, 9.2]	0.4[-0.4, 1.7]	1.8[0.5, 14.3]	0.1[-4.7, 0.6]	0.271
LogPD ₁₅ (ml); mean (SD)	1.4[0.4, 2.0]	-0.4[-0.8, 0.3]	1.1[-0.3, 2.4]	0.6[-0.2, 1.2]	0.391

 FEV_1 , forced expiratory volume in 1 second; FVC, forced vital capacity; TLC, total lung capacity; FRC, functional residual capacity; RV, residual volume; LogPD₁₅, log-transformed provocation dose. *p <0.05 versus baseline value

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 $\textbf{Table IV: Change (\Delta) in airway \& systemic inflammatory markers in obese children with asthma, following randomisation to diet-induced weight loss$ intervention or no intervention for ten weeks

	Interven	tion group	Contro	l group	_
Airway & systemic inflammatory markers	Baseline	Change (∆) vs. baseline	Baseline	Change (∆) vs. baseline	Change (∆) between groups: p-value
Exhaled nitric oxide (ppb); median [IQR]	13.1[8.4, 41.8]	-2.6[-11.3, 0.39]	27.2[10.5, 46.7]	-1.9[-4.0, 0.3]	0.673
Total cell count (x 10 ⁶ /ml); median [IQR]	3.2[1.3, 4.6]	0.5[-0.5, 2.4]	2.8[1.9, 5.5]	0.7[0.3, 2.4]	0.596
Neutrophils (%); median [IQR]	10.5[8.0, 18.8]	-4.8[-7.5, -0.6]	10.3[2.8, 27.5]	1.0[-4.5, 14]	0.355
Eosinophils (%); median [IQR]	0.8[0.5, 5.3]	-0.1[-0.5, 5.1]	0.8[0.3, 8.5]	0.0[-0.8, 2.3]	0.938
Macrophages (%); mean (SD)	78.8[71.3, 83.5]	3.4[-3.6, 8.6]	78.0[42.5, 84.8]	3.5[-14.5, 4.0]	0.537
Lymphocytes (%); median [IQR]	2.3[0.3, 7.0]	-2.4[-4.9, -1.0]	1.0[0.0, 1.3]	0.8[0.0, 2.0]	0.025
Neutrophils (x 10 ⁶ /ml); median [IQR]	0.53[0.15, 1.50]	-0.09[-0.88, 0.48]	0.49[0.14, 1.39]	0.16[-0.24, 0.36]	0.497
Eosinophils (x 10 ⁶ /ml); median [IQR]	0.02[0.01, 0.12]	-0.01[-0.02, 0.24]	0.03[0.01, 0.12]	0.01[-0.01, 0.43]	0.396
Macrophages (x 10 ⁶ /ml); median [IQR]	2.48[1.25, 4.03]	0.22[-1.69, 3.92]	2.05[1.71, 4.93]	0.41[-0.49, 1.22]	1.00
Lymphocytes (x 106/ml); median [IQR]	0.12[0.05, 0.40]	-0.04[-0.35, 0.00]	0.04[0.02, 0.07]	0.05[0.01, 0.07]	0.042
C-Reactive Protein (mg/L); median [IQR]	2.1[1.5, 3.3]	-0.4[-0.5, 0.4]	2.1[0.7, 4.0]	0.7[-0.1, 1.9]*	0.037
Interleukin-6 (pg/mL); median [IQR]	1.2[0.7, 2.7]	0.3[-0.3, 0.4]	1.4[0.7, 2.0]	-0.1[-0.5, 0.4]	0.907
Leptin (ng/mL); median [IQR]	6.4[0.5, 27.4]	-0.3[-1.8, 0.2]	3.1[0.7, 18.0]	-0.5[-8.1, 0.1]	0.419
Adiponectin (ug/L); median [IQR]	4.4[3.6, 6.0]	0.7[-0.5, 2.4]	4.8[4.1, 7.2]	1.1[-1.3, 2.3]	0.954

*p <0.05 versus baseline value

H ₀ MOA	Key variable of interest	∆BMI <i>z</i> -score		
		r^{\dagger}	p-value	
Mechanical	ΔERV	0.12	0.568	
Systemic inflammation	ΔCRP	0.47	0.012	
Airway inflammation	Δ%eosinophils	-0.49	0.093	
	Δ %neutrophils	0.05	0.873	
	Δ %macrophages	0.16	0.591	
	Δ %lymphocytes	0.05	0.865	
	ΔeNO	0.46	0.034	
Endocrine	Δleptin	0.31	0.136	
Metabolic	ΔHOMA-IR	0.33	0.104	

Table V: Spearman rank correlation coefficients between change (Δ) in BMI *z*-score, lung function, and airway and systemic biomarkers.

 H_0 MOA, hypothesised mechanism of action; Δ , change; BMI, body mass index; ERV, expiratory reserve volume; CRP, C-Reactive Protein; eNO, exhaled nitric oxide; HOMA-IR, homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance. [†]Spearman's rank correlation coefficient

423	Figure Legends
424	Figure 1. Participant flow through study
425	
426	Figure 2. Change from baseline in a) BMI z-score, and b) Total %body fat. ‡p-value<0.05 within group; §p-
427	value<0.05 between groups
428	
429	Figure 3. Change from baseline in a) Expiratory Reserve Volume (ERV) and b) Juniper's Asthma Control
430	Questionnaire (ACQ) score. [‡] p-value<0.05 within group; [§] p-value<0.05 between groups