

Methods We retrospectively reviewed referrals with respiratory symptoms and dysphonia to the upper airway service at the Royal Brompton, over a 12 month period to 2015. PVD was identified according to accepted criteria:¹ no structural or neurological laryngeal disease, discrepancy between laryngeal status and voice quality, temporary loss of volitional control over phonation, (e.g. frequently reported as secondary to dyspnoea), normal voicing on vegetative manoeuvres (e.g. coughing) and positive psychological factors associated with onset of symptoms. Perceptual voice quality was rated using the GRBAS scale.

Results Ten female patients were identified as having PVD (70% type 2, 20% type 3, 10% type 1). All patients had preserved spirometric indices but daily symptoms of dyspnoea and dysphonia. Respiratory diagnoses at referral included chronic cough (20%), difficult asthma (50%) and unexplained dyspnoea (30%), with symptoms of between 2 months and 15 years' duration. The majority of patients (70%) were receiving treatment with either oral +/- inhaled corticosteroid prior to referral. Perceptual voice quality varied among patients, but in all cases normal voice was restored by the end of the first treatment session, leading to subjective reduction in breathlessness. Relevant psychological factors were identified as an underlying cause of the voice disorder.

Conclusion PVD is an under-recognised cause of treatment-refractory respiratory symptoms in patients with altered voice quality. Prior to referral, these symptoms are often attributed to the use of inhaled corticosteroid, yet accurate diagnosis and targeted therapy permits rapid restoration of normal voice and symptomatic improvement. This case series underpins the importance of collaborative working between SLT and respiratory medicine to ensure patients receive timely and appropriate specialist treatment.

REFERENCE

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P77 HYPOXIC CHALLENGE TESTING FOR FITNESS TO FLY IN SEVERE ASTHMA

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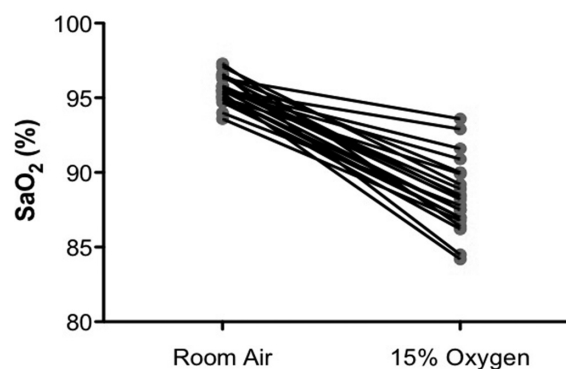
Introduction and objectives Commercial airline travel poses a recognised risk to patients with respiratory disease, including in those with asthma. Hypoxic challenge testing (HCT) is typically employed to mitigate this risk by dictating in-flight oxygen requirement. The objective of this work was to evaluate the role of HCT in patients with severe asthma.

Methods A retrospective analysis was performed of all BTS/SIGN Asthma Step 5 adult individuals under the Royal Brompton Hospital severe asthma service, who completed HCT between 2007 and 2014. In line with British Thoracic Society recommendations, under hypoxic conditions a reduction in PaO₂ to <6.6 kPa was reported as a positive result. A PaO₂ level of 6.6–7.5 kPa was considered borderline and supplemental oxygen was advised if co-existent evidence of hyperventilation. Electrocardiograph monitoring was performed in all patients during the HCT.

Results Of the 37 patients studied, 21 (57%) had a positive HCT. Individuals with a positive HCT had a lower PaO₂ under normoxic conditions (10.1 kPa v 11.4 kPa, $p < 0.01$), but similar PaCO₂ level (4.80 kPa v 4.91 kPa, $p > 0.05$). Baseline oxygen saturation was poorly predictive of the need for

supplementary oxygen and two-thirds of patients, for whom supplementary oxygen was recommended, had a baseline SpO₂ level of greater than 95%; approximately half of these individuals desaturated to less than 90% on HCT (Figure 1). Lung function was more obstructed in the positive HCT group (predicted FEV1 (52% v 78%, $p < 0.01$). Across the entire cohort, HCT was associated with a mean rise in heart rate (HR) of 5 bpm and there was no evidence of dysrhythmia or change in QTc. A combination of any two of: baseline PaO₂ ≤ 10.5 kPa, FEV1 ≤ 60% predicted and PEF ≤ 350 L/min predicted the need for in-flight oxygen with a sensitivity of 90% and a specificity of 69%.

SaO₂ in patients requiring O₂



Abstract P77 Figure 1

Conclusions In patients with severe asthma, baseline oxygen saturation level is poorly predictive of the need for in-flight oxygen. Our findings indicate that a HTC should be considered for all BTS/SIGN Step 5 asthmatics in whom air travel is being considered and should certainly be recommended in those with impaired lung function.

P78 STUDY OF MORTALITY IN SEVERE AND DIFFICULT TO TREAT ASTHMA

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Introduction The National Report on Asthma Death (NRAD 2014) highlighted important shortcomings related to asthma management and an important number of patients still die from asthma. However, the mortality rate and causes of mortality in the severe asthma services has not been previously reported.

Aim To study what patients with severe asthma die from and what is their risk of mortality

Methods All patients attending our severe asthma service who had died between March 2009 and December 2014 were identified. We retrieved data from case notes, GPs, local hospitals and local database using a pre designed proforma which included cause of death, place of death, age at time of death, clinical details on asthma duration, lung function, biomarkers, medication, exacerbations including hospitalisation and co-morbidities. Causes of death was obtained from death certificates and when available coroner's post-mortem reports.

Results Of the 520 patients attended our service between January 2009 and December 2014, there were 24 deaths (4.6% over 72 months, 0.7% annually). The mean age of death was 51 yrs (range 21–69), 17/24 (71%) were females. 50% had poorly

controlled asthma with a mean predicted FEV₁ of 54%. 13/24 (61%) were on a maintenance dose of oral corticosteroids (mean dose 19 mg/day). The mean inhaled corticosteroids was 1006 µg. The cause of death was not known in 6 cases, with majority of cases died from non-asthma causes (78%) with cardiovascular disease being the most common. Asthma was the cause of death in 4/18 (22%) cases. Co-morbid diseases were prevalent particularly those that form the metabolic syndrome. Non-concordance with asthma medications and smoking history (current and ex-smokers) were also common (50% and 60% respectively).

Conclusion Although death is a rare event in our severe asthma service (0.7%), patients did die prematurely (mean age 51 yrs) usually from non-asthma causes, but asthma still accounted for death in the fifth of this group. Larger multicentre study with control data will be needed to confirm these finding and look for drivers and predictors of mortality in severe asthma.

New markers of lung physiology

P79 COMPARISON OF CF AND NON CF LCI RESULTS USING THE EXHALYZER D AND INNOCORTM DEVICES

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Background Multiple breath washout (MBW) is a pulmonary function test that allows measurement of lung clearance index (LCI), a marker of ventilation heterogeneity. LCI is increasingly being considered as a clinical trial outcome measure. The Exhalyzer D N₂ washout (N₂/ExD, Ecomedics AG, Switzerland) is the recommended technique by the ECFS CTN. Mostly our group's experience with LCI uses the InnocorTM gas analyser (Innovision, Denmark), SF₆ as a tracer gas (SF₆/Inn). To understand the N₂/ExD technique, the aims of this study were to compare a) intra-test variability; b) LCI values c) LCI and FEV₁ for the two techniques.

Methods 21 CF (14F, mean 20 ± 12 yrs) and 10 non-CF (8F, mean 28 ± 10 yrs) have completed MBW trials with the 2 techniques in random order on the same visit; methods previously described (Horsley *et al.* 2009, Jensen *et al.* 2013).

Results Intra-test CoV (2–3 repeats) was similar for SF₆/Inn and N₂/ExD (3.57 vs 3.78 CF, ns). LCI was significantly higher with N₂/ExD than with SF₆/Inn in both CF (14.05 vs 9.33; *p* = <0.0001) and non-CF (7.08 vs 6.64, *p* = 0.04). Both techniques show a significant correlation for LCI and FEV₁%, although the regression slopes were significantly different (*p* = 0.005); much steeper for N₂/ExD.

Conclusions LCI values cannot be used interchangeably between the InnocorTM and Exhalyzer D. In non CF, there was a statistically significant difference, with higher values in the N₂/ExD. The difference was much greater in CF and increased as LCI

did. In the context of similar intra-test variability, the hypothesis that this may translate into improved power in future clinical trials needs to be tested. Sponsored by a non-restricted grant from Novartis.

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P80 EXTRAPOLATING LUNG CLEARANCE INDEX (LCI) FROM SHORTENED MEASUREMENTS

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Introduction and objectives Shortened multiple breath washouts (MBW) are attractive in young children, where a long test time may not be tolerable (Thorax 2013;68:586–7). Lung clearance index (LCI) is usually calculated at 1/40th of the starting concentration (LCI_{std}), but in shorter MBWs the LCI is calculated at 1/20th of the starting concentration (LCI_{0.5}). LCI_{0.5} and LCI_{std} are closely correlated but not interchangeable, and so we calculated an extrapolated full LCI (LCI_{ex}) from LCI_{0.5}. Our hypothesis was that extrapolated LCI (LCI_{ex}) will better reflect LCI_{std} than LCI_{0.5} and be more sensitive to intervention.

Methods Condition-specific equations for cystic fibrosis (CF), primary ciliary dyskinesia (PCD) and asthma, and an overall equation for all 3 groups, were developed to convert LCI_{0.5} to LCI_{ex} from data previously analysed (*n* = 90, Thorax 2014;69 [Suppl²]A166). LCI_{std}, LCI_{0.5} and LCI_{ex} were then calculated for new cohorts (*n* = 70, 20 asthma, 30 CF, 20 PCD), and LCI_{ex} was compared to LCI_{std}. CF patients receiving IV antibiotics (*n* = 17) and asthma patients receiving triamcinolone (*n* = 32)) also had LCI_{std}, LCI_{0.5} and LCI_{ex} calculated and compared. The upper limit of normal for LCI_{std} was calculated from healthy controls. LCI_{ex} was compared to LCI_{std} with a Bland-Altman plot.

Results In CF, at higher LCIs, the spread between LCI_{ex} and LCI_{std} grew but there was no bias. For PCD and asthma agreement remained very good. There was no significant difference between LCI_{std} and LCI_{ex}. Results for positive and negative prediction of LCI_{std} for LCI_{0.5} and LCI_{ex} are shown in the Table 1. LCI_{ex} and LCI_{0.5} were also sensitive to interventions in asthmatic and CF patients, although in general LCI_{std} had better *p* values.

Conclusions LCI_{ex} performed better than LCI_{0.5} in predicting results of LCI_{std}. However, LCI_{ex} did not always reflect LCI_{std}, particularly in CF, so the two cannot be used interchangeably in lung disease.

Abstract P80 Table 1 LCI_{ex} had an improved false negative rate compared with LCI_{0.5}

LCI	Correctly categorised (%)				Sensitivity to intervention	
	True positive	True negative	False positive	False negative	Asthma	CF
LCI _{std}	-	-	-	-	<i>p</i> = 0.001	<i>p</i> = 0.03
LCI _{ex}	37	26	5	2	<i>p</i> = 0.02	<i>p</i> = 0.02
LCI _{0.5}	38	26	0	6	<i>p</i> = 0.02	<i>p</i> = 0.04