

1 **ONLINE SUPPLEMENT**

2 **The Interaction between Bronchoconstriction and Cough in Asthma**

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14 **ABBREVIATIONS USED:**

15 ATP, adenosine triphosphate; BHR, BHR, Bronchial hyper-responsiveness; BMI, Body mass
16 index; C₂, Concentration of capsaicin inducing at least 2 coughs; C₅, Concentration of
17 capsaicin inducing at least 5 coughs; ED₅₀, Capsaicin dose inducing half-maximal response;
18 E_{max}, Maximum cough response evoked by any concentration of capsaicin; FEV₁, Forced
19 expiratory volume in 1 second; GEE, generalise estimating equations; GINA, Global initiative
20 for Asthma; ICS, inhaled corticosteroids; PC₂₀, Provocative concentration of methacholine
21 causing a 20% drop in FEV₁; SABA, salbutamol; TGF-β, transforming growth factor beta;
22 TRPV₁, Transient receptor potential vanilloid type 1

23

24

25 **SUPPLEMENTARY INTRODUCTION**

26 The pathophysiological hallmarks of asthma are the presence of airway inflammation,
27 bronchial hyper-responsiveness (BHR) and variable airflow obstruction, which manifest in
28 patients with symptoms of wheeze, cough, shortness of breath and chest tightness. Current
29 dogma assumes that the pathophysiology directly causes symptoms; however, the
30 mechanisms linking the pathophysiology and the development of symptoms are poorly
31 understood.

32 Cough is considered to be the archetypal airway neuronal reflex, whilst wheeze mainly
33 occurs as a result of airway-obstruction occurring as a direct response to local mediator
34 release e.g. histamine, or by reflex activation of parasympathetic fibres releasing
35 acetylcholine. The interaction and relationships between airway smooth muscle and nerve
36 function is unclear, but our previous work demonstrated that cough responses to capsaicin
37 were not correlated with BHR to methacholine and forced expiratory volume in 1 second
38 FEV1 (1, 2). This is consistent with previous uncontrolled cross-sectional studies which found
39 only 14-17% of subjects with asthma spontaneously coughed after methacholine induced
40 bronchoconstriction (3, 4), and another study where healthy volunteers coughed more than
41 subjects with asthma up to 30 mins after a methacholine challenge (5). However, none of
42 these studies directly assessed the acute effects of bronchoconstriction on the cough reflex,
43 nor did they objectively record cough frequency.

44 The effects of bronchoconstriction on cough responses evoked by capsaicin inhalation have
45 been studied in healthy volunteers using methacholine and 0.9% saline. However, only
46 minor bronchoconstriction was achieved (mean fall in FEV1 of 8.8%) and this resulted in no
47 changes in the capsaicin concentration provoking two coughs (C2) (6). As such, there is a

48 paucity of human data which has investigated the effects of smooth muscle contraction on
49 the cough reflex in individuals with asthma.

50 In this study, we aimed to directly investigate the interaction between acute
51 bronchoconstriction and cough in subjects with mild atopic asthma. We used specific
52 agonists to achieve bronchoconstriction (methacholine via muscarinic receptors) and cough
53 (capsaicin via transient receptor potential vanilloid type-1 (TRPV1) receptors). We
54 hypothesised that neuronal function and smooth muscle function are independent in
55 asthma. Hence, we predicted that capsaicin evoked coughing would not be influenced by
56 changes in airway calibre and vice-versa.

57

58 **DETAILED METHODS:**

59 **Participants:** Participants with mild atopic asthma were recruited, but not selected for
60 symptoms of cough. All subjects had evidence of bronchial hyper-responsiveness to
61 methacholine (PC20<8mg/ml) and at least one positive skin prick test to an inhaled
62 aeroallergen. Treatment with salbutamol as required, and/or inhaled corticosteroid (ICS)
63 ≤ 250 mcg of fluticasone propionate equivalent daily were permitted. Subjects uncontrolled
64 according to Global Initiative for Asthma (GINA) classification or not on stable medication ≥ 4
65 weeks were excluded. We also excluded current smokers, those with a recent exacerbation,
66 and use of medication which may alter cough responses (e.g. opiates, gabapentin, anti-
67 cholinergics, and theophylline). The protocol was approved by the local research ethics
68 committee (15/NW/0052) and all subjects provided written informed consent.

69 **Study Protocol and Procedures:** Subjects were initially invited to attend on six occasions,
70 and then on a further two occasions following a protocol amendment (Figure E1).

71 On visit 1, subjects underwent history and examination, spirometry, and a capsaicin cough
72 challenge, as previously described (1, 7). Briefly, four inhalations were administered, thirty
73 seconds apart, of doubling concentrations of capsaicin (12 concentrations, 0.48-
74 1000 μ mol/L); after each inhalation, the numbers of coughs in the first 15 seconds were
75 counted. The challenge was completed when the patient reached the final dose or the
76 maximal tolerated dose. The maximum evoked coughs were denoted E_{max} and the dose
77 evoking half this response ED_{50} ; we have previously shown these parameters to be highly
78 reproducible (8). Individual ED_{50} doses of capsaicin were used to evoke cough in subsequent
79 visits.

80 At Visit 2, ≥ 48 hours later, subjects underwent a methacholine challenge (2 minute tidal
81 breathing) (9) to evaluate PC_{20} ; the concentration preceding this was used to initiate
82 bronchoconstriction in future visits. Subjects with no evidence of BHR ($PC_{20} > 8$ mg/ml) were
83 excluded.

84 Participants then entered a three-period, single-blinded, randomised, crossover study with
85 ≥ 48 hours between visits (Figure E1). At visits 3/4 (period 1), the effect of
86 bronchoconstriction on capsaicin cough responses was assessed. Subjects were randomised
87 to inhale methacholine to achieve a fall in %FEV1 between 15-25% (starting concentration
88 determined at visit 2, next doubling concentration inhaled if required), or placebo (saline)
89 for two minutes followed immediately by ED_{50} capsaicin (4 inhalations, 30s apart). At visits
90 5/6 (period 2), the effect of cough reflex activation on bronchial hyper-responsiveness was
91 assessed. Subjects were randomised to either ED_{50} capsaicin or placebo (saline), followed by
92 a 2 minute inhalation of the methacholine concentration selected at visit 2.

93 At visits 7/8 (period 3), we assessed the effect of spontaneous recovery of
94 bronchoconstriction on evoked cough responses. Visits were identical to visits 3/4, except
95 after inhaling methacholine or placebo, subjects received ED₅₀ capsaicin immediately and
96 again at 30 and 60mins thereafter.

97 Spirometry was performed before and after all challenges and participants were discharged
98 when FEV1 had returned to ≥90% of baseline. A cough monitor (VitaloJAK™; Vitalograph,
99 Buckinghamshire, UK) was worn throughout visits to record coughing.

100 **Statistical Analysis:** Generalised estimating equations (GEE) were used to model the effect
101 of bronchoconstriction on capsaicin evoked coughs (periods 1 and 3), and the effect of
102 capsaicin evoked cough on FEV1 (period 2); reported as estimated means and 95%
103 confidence intervals (SPSS Version 22.0, IBM Corp., NY). The GEE models assumed an
104 exchangeable working correlation matrix structure with a robust variance estimation and
105 were adjusted for baseline ED50 cough responses and the effects of gender, period and
106 intervention sequence assessed. Exploratory analyses also compared the effects of
107 methacholine and saline inhalation on spontaneous coughing during visits. Cough data was
108 log transformed for analysis to normalise distribution.

109

110 **SUPPLEMENTARY RESULTS:**

111 **Subjects**

112 Two subjects screened did not meet BHR criteria (PC20>16mg/ml), but fourteen subjects
113 completed the first six visits (periods 1 and 2). Ten of those subjects (four males) returned to
114 complete the additional two visits (visits 7 and 8, period 3). Table E1 shows the
115 demographics and key baseline data of the subjects enrolled.

116

117 **Induced bronchoconstriction increased capsaicin evoked coughing**

118 The mean % fall in FEV1 following methacholine was 19.1% (95% CI; 17.3 to 21.0) and after
119 saline was 1.3% (1.0 to 3.5). Bronchoconstriction was associated with an increase in
120 capsaicin evoked coughs (geometric mean 8.4 coughs (95%CI 6.6-10.7) vs. 13.9 coughs
121 (10.9-17.8), 34.2% increase, $p < 0.001$) (Figure 1A). The analysis was adjusted for baseline
122 ED50 coughs and there was no significant effect of gender, period or sequence.

123 **No change in bronchial hyper-responsiveness following capsaicin evoked coughing**

124 Four inhalations of one dose of capsaicin at ED50 evoked a mean cough count of 8.9 (95%
125 CI; 6.8-10.9) whilst saline evoked 0 coughs (0.0-0.0). There was no difference in the mean
126 fall in %FEV1 with methacholine after capsaicin or saline (12.3% (95% CI 15.7-8.9) vs. 13.7%
127 (18.7-8.7) of baseline respectively, $p = 0.49$) (Figure E2).

128 **Capsaicin evoked coughs during spontaneous resolution of bronchoconstriction**

129 Compared with placebo inhalation, there was a significant drop in %FEV1 from baseline with
130 methacholine, which spontaneously resolved over 60 mins ($p < 0.001$, Figure 1B).
131 Spontaneous resolution of FEV1 was associated with a significant reduction in coughs after
132 inhaling the ED₅₀ dose of capsaicin ($\beta = -0.24$, $p < 0.001$, Figure 1B). Therefore, each 10%
133 improvement in FEV1 equated to a reduction of 2.4 coughs evoked by capsaicin.

134 **Exploratory analysis of spontaneous coughing**

135 A post-hoc exploratory analysis of the cough monitor data showed that in the time periods
136 when subjects were not inhaling capsaicin, asthmatics coughed more on the visits when
137 methacholine was inhaled compared with placebo (mean coughs 1.59 (95% CI 1.2-2.0) vs.

138 0.73 (0.3-1.1) per visit, $p < 0.001$). Each visit was divided into five time periods to compare
139 differences in spontaneous coughs; pre-challenge spirometry, after methacholine/placebo
140 challenge, post-challenge spirometry, post-salbutamol (SABA) recovery and after the final
141 spirometry. Compared with placebo inhalation, significant differences in spontaneous
142 coughs were seen immediately after methacholine inhalation, and after performing
143 spirometry subsequently (both $p = 0.001$, Figure 2).

144 We compared also spontaneous coughing in visits 7 and 8 by dividing the 60-minute
145 recovery period after methacholine/placebo inhalation and the capsaicin challenges into
146 two time periods; 0-30 and 30-60 mins. There was a significant increase in spontaneous
147 coughs 0-30 mins after methacholine challenge compared with placebo ($p = 0.05$, Figure E3).

148 **Safety of inhaled capsaicin**

149 Inhaling ED50 dose capsaicin did not cause any further bronchoconstriction after
150 methacholine induced bronchoconstriction. Instead, FEV1 tended to increase (mean fall in
151 %FEV1 from baseline before capsaicin was 19.1% (S.D. 3.6), and after, 15.9% (5.5).

152 **SUPPLEMENTARY DISCUSSION**

153 To our knowledge this is the first study that has investigated the interaction between acute
154 bronchoconstriction and cough in asthma. We have demonstrated that methacholine
155 induced bronchoconstriction causes a significant increase in capsaicin evoked cough
156 responses, which gradually resolves as airway calibre returns to baseline. In contrast,
157 capsaicin evoked coughing has no influence on bronchial hyper-responsiveness. Our data
158 therefore challenges the idea that cough reflex responses and bronchoconstriction are
159 completely independent in asthma. An exploratory analysis of spontaneous cough

160 frequency also demonstrated that bronchoconstriction was associated with increased
161 coughing.

162 Our data would suggest that subjects with asthma might behave differently to healthy
163 volunteers, as two controlled studies in healthy participants found bronchoconstriction
164 induced by methacholine did not alter capsaicin sensitivity measured by C2(6) or C5(10).
165 However, there are fundamental differences between our study and those performed in
166 healthy controls. In the first study, cough responses were not affected by either
167 bronchoconstriction with methacholine or bronchodilation with salbutamol, however the
168 induced changes in FEV1 were all small, less than 10% of baseline. In addition, both studies
169 relied on the conventional C2 and C5 endpoints, which we have recently shown may not be
170 optimal especially in subjects with asthma (1, 7). The relationship between
171 bronchoconstriction and cough has also previously been explored to some extent by
172 inhalational of hypertonic saline, hypertonic histamine and mannitol, which evoke both
173 cough and bronchoconstriction but with different endpoints and non-conventional
174 challenge protocols (11-13) . During hypertonic challenges asthmatics cumulatively coughed
175 more, but these hyperosmolar challenge agents may have acted via multiple ion channels
176 on nerves and smooth muscle and hence it is difficult to draw conclusions about the
177 interactions between airway nerves and smooth muscle from those studies.

178 There are several potential explanations for the effects of bronchoconstriction on cough
179 responses found in this study. Firstly the mechanical effect of bronchoconstriction on the
180 epithelium, smooth muscle and other structural cells may result in the release of mediators
181 capable of sensitising airway nerves and hence increasing cough responses to capsaicin. For
182 example, preclinical evidence supports the release of ATP following airway constriction with
183 subsequent airway nerve activation, blocked by a specific antagonist (P2X2/3 receptors)

184 (14). Furthermore TGF- β , a mediator typically associated with mechanical stress, has also
185 been shown to sensitise nerve terminals via ATP release (15, 16). Secondly, mechano-
186 sensitive afferent nerves in the airways are tonically active during tidal breathing and
187 provide feedback to the central nervous system about changes in lung pressures/volumes.
188 These same fibres are activated by bronchoconstriction, and converge with those evoking
189 cough in the brainstem, providing the opportunity for cough responses to be modified by
190 bronchoconstriction (17, 18). Finally, bronchoconstriction alters the deposition of inhaled
191 particles within the airways (19). During bronchoconstriction capsaicin may have been
192 deposited in areas more densely innervated with cough fibres. Such an effect could similarly
193 apply to real world irritant exposures, however as capsaicin has a very short-lived effect, the
194 increase in spontaneous cough frequency during bronchoconstriction would argue against
195 this explanation.

196 We have previously found in patients with mild/moderate stable asthma that capsaicin
197 evoked cough responses were heightened compared with healthy controls, but this was not
198 related to the degree of airflow obstruction (1). However, in this current study we have
199 demonstrated that dynamically changing FEV1 in an individual subject with asthma does
200 heighten cough responses, which then recovers as FEV1 returns to baseline. Hence, patients
201 with stable asthma have a greater tendency to cough than healthy volunteers, but a
202 dynamic drop in FEV1 increases the propensity to cough further. Therefore, we speculate
203 that variations in airflow obstruction, which are a fundamental feature of asthma, may be
204 accompanied by a similar variability in airway neuronal sensitivity, superimposed on
205 elevated baseline neuronal excitability previously demonstrated in stable disease.
206 Bronchodilator treatments might be expected to counteract the sensitising effects of
207 bronchoconstriction, but not abolish the baseline neuronal excitability. Indeed, cough in

208 stable asthma patients suggest that despite adequate treatment, capsaicin cough responses
209 and spontaneous cough frequency are increased compared with healthy controls (1). It also
210 remains to be determined whether sensory nerves and neuronal pathways mediating other
211 symptoms such as shortness of breath and chest tightness are similarly sensitised.

212 Therefore, this study may provide much broader mechanistic insights describing the link
213 between intermittent episodes of bronchoconstriction typical of asthma and heightened
214 symptoms.

215 An important unique feature of this study was the use of an individualised ED50 capsaicin
216 dose serially in order to compare differences in coughing. Although single doses of tussive
217 agents are commonly used in animal studies, this is the first study to use this particular
218 method in humans to assess cough. The main advantages of performing a single ED50
219 challenge is the ability to very quickly and safely assess in two minutes whether cough
220 responses increase or decrease as airway calibre changes with minimal exposure to
221 capsaicin. The choice of individualised ED50 rather than an arbitrary single dose ensures
222 changes in cough responses are readily detected; this stimulus level is on the steepest
223 portion of the dose response curve. Hence, this can be a useful tool particularly in
224 mechanistic or interventional studies where there are time restraints due to rapid changes
225 in physiology.

226 There are a number of limitations in this study. Firstly, we have shown changes in coughs
227 induced by capsaicin, which is a very specific TRPV1 agonist. It is possible that other tussive
228 challenge agents may show different results and further insights into changes in nerve
229 function. Secondly, we recruited young mild atopic subjects with early onset asthma, and it
230 is unclear whether similar results would be achieved in other asthma phenotypes, and

231 moderate/severe disease. Thirdly, we deliberately did not measure any markers of airway
232 inflammation in sputum or exhaled breath because performing these tests may have
233 interfered with inhaling methacholine and capsaicin immediately after each other.

234 In conclusion, this study provides some important mechanistic insights about how airway
235 pathophysiology in asthma relates to the development of symptoms through neuronal
236 activation. These data shows that bronchoconstriction increases the activation of capsaicin-
237 responsive airway nerves but the mechanisms and mediators involved require further
238 evaluation.

239 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

240 The authors would like to thank all the subjects who participated in the study, the National
241 Institute for Health Research (NIHR) South Manchester Clinical Research Facility (CRF) and
242 the NIHR/Wellcome Trust Central Manchester CRF.

243 **Author's contributions:** Concept and design; IS, HB, MW, POB, SJF, JAS. Data generation; IS,
244 and HB. Statistical analysis and modelling; IS and JAS. All authors reviewed the manuscript
245 and approved the final draft.

246 **Role of the Sponsor:** No input in design, analysis or in manuscript writing.

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309 **ONLINE TABLES AND FIGURES:**

310 **Table E1:** Demographics and baseline data

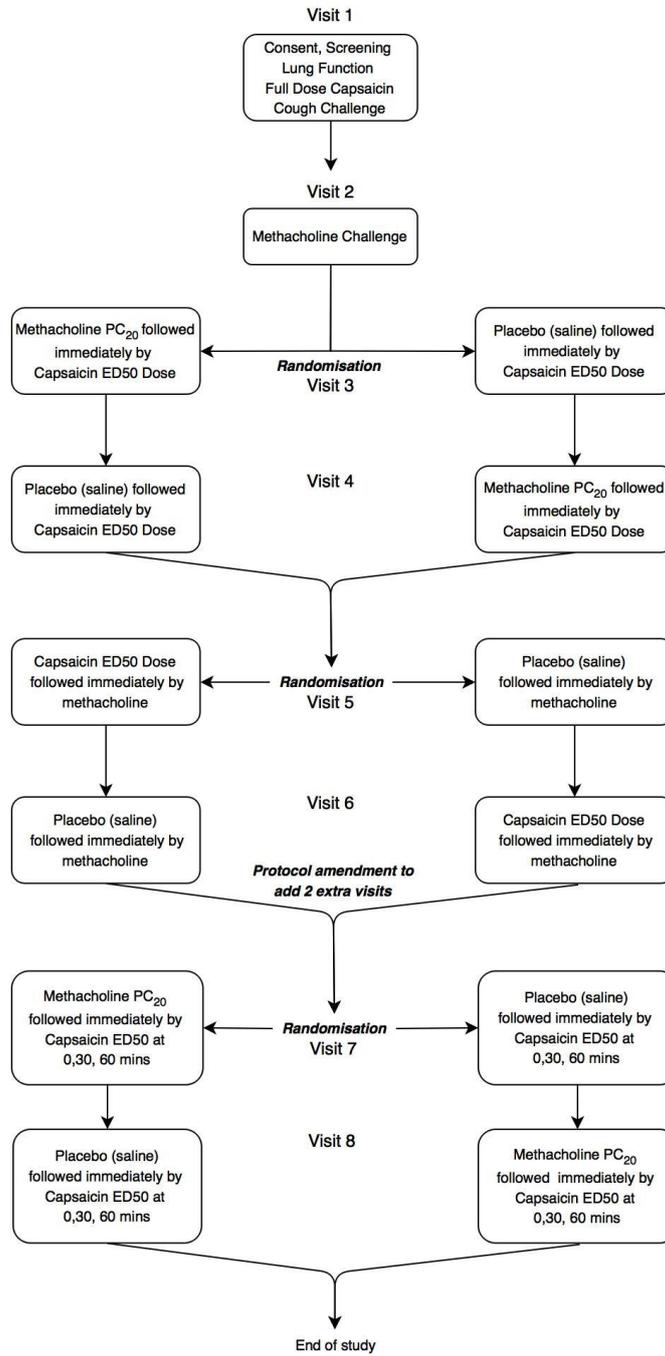
Characteristic		Asthma Participants (n=14)
Age, years		23.0 (21.0-28.5)
Gender, % Female		64.3
BMI, kg/m ² *		23.8 (21.7-25.1)
Smoker, %	Never	100.0
Treatment, %	Salbutamol PRN only	50.0
	ICS	50.0
ICS Dose, µg FP**		200 (50.0-200.0)
Asthma age of onset, Years		7.5 (5.0-14.3)
FEV ₁ , L		3.2 (2.8-3.8)
FEV ₁ , % predicted		95.9 (85.9-106.4)
E _{max} (coughs, n)		17 (13.8-20.0)
ED ₅₀ (capsaicin, µM)		15.6 (6.8-15.60)
Methacholine PC ₂₀ (mg/ml)		0.95 (0.4-3.1)

311

312 Data quoted as median (Interquartile range), * Body Mass Index **fluticasone propionate equivalent
 313 dose in those treated with ICS. There were no significant differences in the 10 patients who returned
 314 for visits 7 and 8.

315

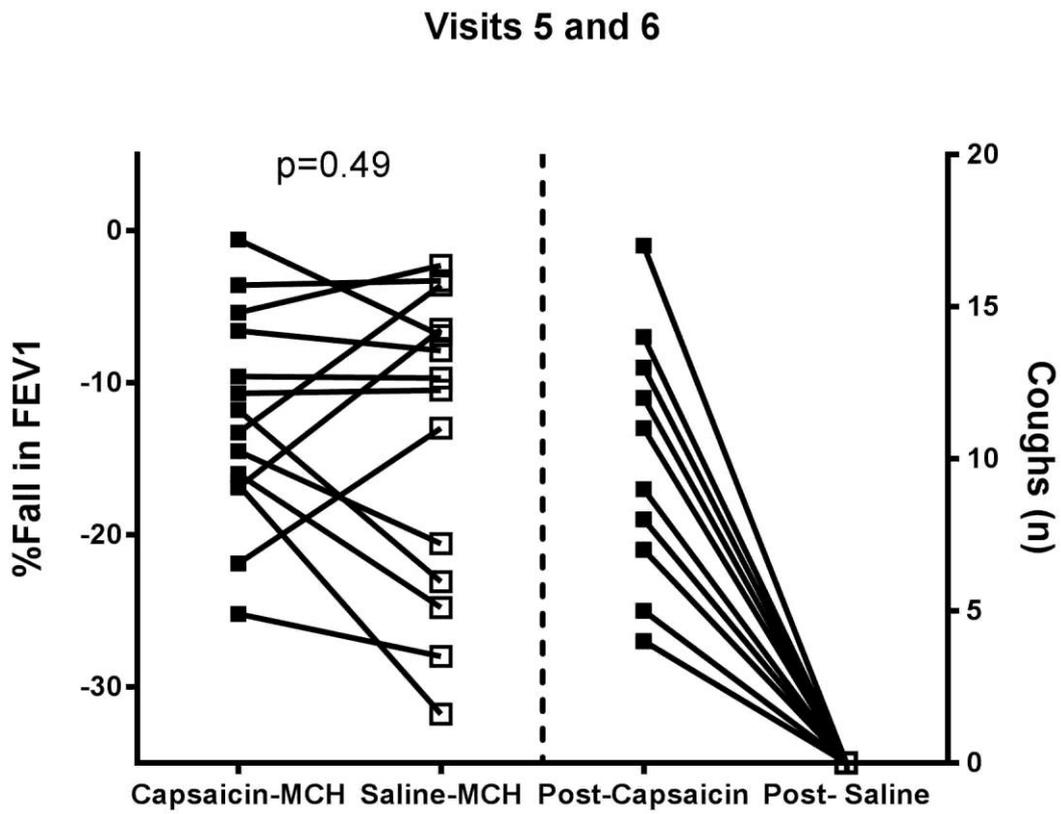
317 **Figure E1:** Flow chart summarising the study design



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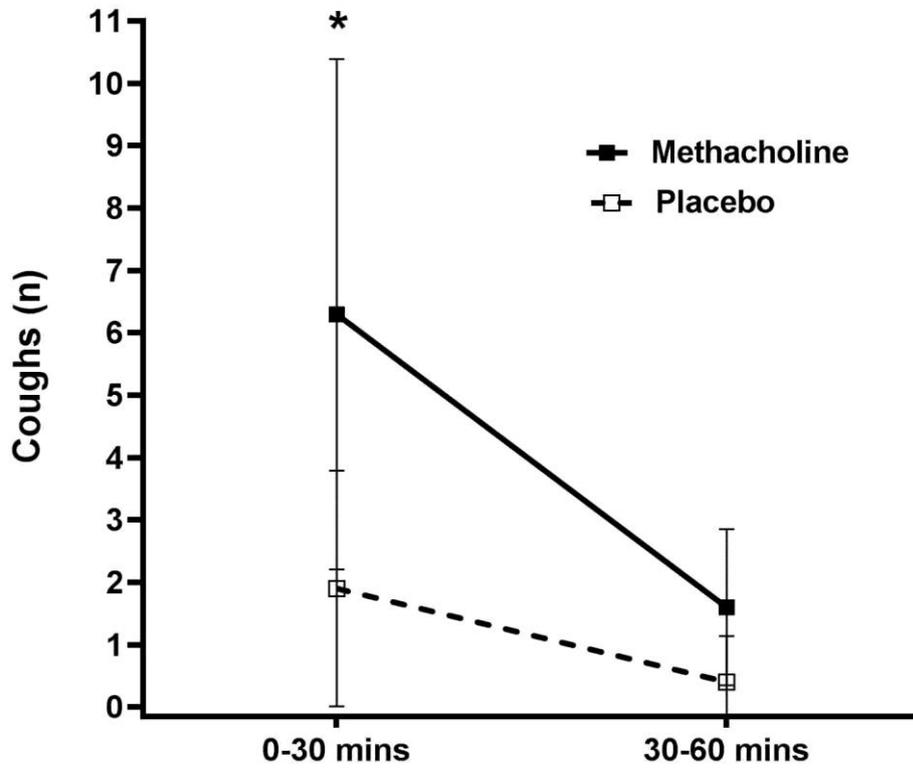
320 **Figure E2: The effects of capsaicin evoked coughing on methacholine bronchial hyper-**
321 **responsiveness.** Fall in %FEV1 from baseline (left y-axis) after methacholine and saline
322 challenge with corresponding capsaicin evoked coughs (right y-axis).



323

324

325 **Figure E3:** Spontaneous coughs during 0-30 mins and 30-60 mins after inhaling
326 methacholine and placebo. Mean and 95% CI shown.* indicates p=0.05.



327