

This is the *Accepted Manuscript* of an article published in *Movement Disorders*, © 2022. The manuscript is made available here with permission from *Movement Disorders* and is further available online <https://movementdisorders.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/mds.28707>

**Title:** Sensorimotor Cough Dysfunction is Prevalent and Pervasive in Progressive Supranuclear Palsy

**Running Title:** Dystussia is Prevalent and Pervasive in PSP

**Authors:**

James C. Borders, MS, CCC-SLP<sup>1</sup>, Jordanna S. Sevitz, MS, CCC-SLP<sup>1</sup>, James A. Curtis, MS, CCC-SLP, BCS-S<sup>1</sup>, Nora Vanegas-Arroyave, MD<sup>2</sup>, & Michelle S. Troche, PhD, CCC-SLP<sup>1</sup>

**Affiliations:**

<sup>1</sup>Laboratory for the Study of Upper Airway Dysfunction, Department of Biobehavioral Sciences, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, NY United States

<sup>2</sup> Department of Neurology. Baylor College of Medicine. Houston, TX United States

**Corresponding Author:**

Michelle S. Troche, PhD, CCC-SLP  
Teachers College, Columbia University  
525 West 120th Street, New York, NY 10027  
Email: mst2139@tc.columbia.edu

**Compliance with Ethical Standards:**

*Ethical Approval:* All procedures performed were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. Approval was obtained from the Institutional Review Board.

*Informed Consent:* Informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to enrollment in this research study.

*Funding:* This work was funded by the Cure PSP Foundation (Grant # 644-2016-11 to Dr. Troche).

*Conflicts of Interest:* All authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

1 **Abstract**

2 Background: Pneumonia, a leading cause of death in progressive supranuclear palsy (PSP), results  
3 from progressive and pervasive deficits of airway protection, including both cough and swallowing  
4 dysfunction. Cough protects the airway by expelling aspirate and may be an important therapeutic  
5 target to protect against pneumonia in the presence of dysphagia. However, cough has not been  
6 objectively characterized in PSP or compared to other common forms of parkinsonism like Parkinson's  
7 Disease (PD).

8 Objectives: The purpose of this study was to examine voluntary and reflex cough function in PSP, as  
9 compared to individuals with PD matched for disease duration.

10 Methods: Twenty-six individuals with PSP and 26 with PD completed voluntary and reflex cough  
11 testing via spirometry. Linear mixed effects models examined comparisons between-groups and within  
12 cough types across cough sensory and motor outcomes.

13 Results: Individuals with PSP demonstrated significantly reduced cough motor function compared to  
14 PD, specifically reduced peak expiratory flow rate ( $p < .001$ ), cough expiratory volume ( $p < .001$ ), and  
15 cough inspiratory volume ( $p = .008$ ). Both groups showed similarly blunted cough sensation, including  
16 urge-to-cough ( $p = .644$ ) and reflex cough thresholds ( $p = .122$ ).

17 Conclusions: These findings suggest that sensorimotor cough dysfunction is prevalent in PSP and  
18 cough motor deficits, in particular, are worse in PSP than PD. These deficits likely contribute to the  
19 pathogenesis of pneumonia in PSP. Therefore, cough should be integrated into assessments of airway  
20 protection and considered as a therapeutic target to potentially reduce adverse health events and  
21 improve quality of life in this population.

22 **Introduction**

23           Pneumonia is a leading cause of death among patients with neurodegenerative conditions (1–5).  
24 Though swallowing dysfunction, or dysphagia, contributes to pneumonia, the development of  
25 pneumonia cannot be solely explained by its presence (6,7). Instead, it is likely that progressive and  
26 pervasive deficits of airway protection, including both swallowing and cough (dystussia) dysfunction,  
27 collectively result in uncompensated aspiration that cannot be cleared from the airway, thereby  
28 increasing the risk of pneumonia and mortality. Therefore, it is imperative that if we are to reduce the  
29 risk of pneumonia and associated mortality, we not only understand dysphagia but also the reflexive  
30 and voluntary cough deficits which occur in a given population. This understanding is key as reflex  
31 cough forms the first line of defense in the presence of aspiration, while voluntary coughs initiated on  
32 command may serve as a compensatory approach to prophylactically protect the airway and expel  
33 aspirate among individuals with chronic dysphagia (8,9).

34           The characterization and rehabilitation of cough deficits has garnered significant research and  
35 clinical interest in recent years, particularly in Parkinson’s disease (PD) (10–14). However, much less  
36 is known about cough dysfunction in atypical parkinsonism. Progressive supranuclear palsy (PSP) is  
37 the most common atypical parkinsonian syndrome and tauopathy that presents with high rates of  
38 dysphagia and aspiration pneumonia (1,15), and with an earlier dysphagia onset associated with  
39 increased mortality as compared to PD (16,17). Though studies have examined swallowing function in  
40 PSP (15,18–21), research characterizing cough is limited and based on subjective reports (18) with  
41 limited quantification of cough characteristics. Understanding sensory and motor aspects of reflexive  
42 and voluntary cough is essential in order to promote a significant advancement in the management of  
43 airway protective deficits in PSP.

44           An objective and comprehensive examination of cough dysfunction in PSP may improve the  
45 screening and evaluation of deficits in airway protection and elucidate important therapeutic targets to  
46 improve function and quality of life. Preliminary evidence suggests that integrating cough testing into  
47 clinical practice increases the sensitivity and specificity of screening tools (13,22,23) and improves  
48 long-term health outcomes, such as a reduction in the prevalence of aspiration pneumonia (24).  
49 Additionally, there is a growing body of literature suggesting that upregulating voluntary and reflex  
50 cough is feasible and effective for cough rehabilitation (12,25), supporting its role as a clinically  
51 relevant therapeutic target in individuals with neurodegenerative disease and concomitant dysphagia  
52 and dystussia. Lastly, cough may also provide a deeper understanding of PSP’s underlying disease

53 process and distinct neuropathologic features, serving as a potential biomarker to differentiate between  
54 parkinsonian disorders and PD, to facilitate more timely and accurate diagnoses.

55 Therefore, the aim of this study was to characterize voluntary and reflex cough dysfunction in  
56 PSP. Secondly we aimed to compare cough dysfunction between PSP and PD, given that PSP is  
57 often misdiagnosed as PD, a population also found to have swallowing and cough deficits (12,26). We  
58 hypothesized that individuals with PSP would demonstrate reduced motor and somatosensory cough  
59 responses compared to PD and that reflex cough airflow would be reduced compared to voluntary  
60 cough.

61

## 62 **Methods**

### 63 *Participants*

64 The Institutional Review Board approved study procedures and informed consent were  
65 obtained. Participants with PSP and idiopathic PD were prospectively recruited and diagnosed by a  
66 fellowship-trained movement disorders neurologist based on current Movement Disorder Society  
67 clinical diagnostic criteria for PSP (27) and the UK Brain Bank criteria for PD (28). Participants were  
68 matched based on disease duration from PD or PSP symptom onset. PSP participants were classified  
69 into particular PSP subtypes based on disease features. Exclusion criteria included a history of other  
70 neurological disorders, head and neck cancer, respiratory disease, or smoking within five years. In  
71 order to understand baseline characteristics between groups, the following demographic factors were  
72 collected: age, sex, disease duration from symptom onset and diagnosis, Schwab and England activities  
73 of daily living (29), cognition (30), and severity of swallowing deficits (31).

74

### 75 *Procedures*

76 Reflex cough testing was performed with a facemask coupled to a pneumotachograph with a  
77 side port and inspiratory valve for a nebulizer connection. The nebulizer connected to a dosimeter that  
78 delivered single doses of capsaicin during inhalation for a duration of two seconds. Participants were  
79 presented three randomized blocks of 0, 50, 100, and 200  $\mu\text{M}$  capsaicin. The capsaicin was dissolved  
80 in a vehicle solution consisting of 80% physiological saline, 20% ethanol. If no cough response was  
81 reliably elicited with 200  $\mu\text{M}$  capsaicin, then 500  $\mu\text{M}$  was provided. Participants were instructed to  
82 “cough if you need to” prior to each trial. A minimum 30 second interval was provided between trials  
83 during which participants were provided with water. Participants also performed sequential voluntary

84 coughs with an identical spirometric setup. They were instructed to “cough as if something went down  
85 the wrong tube” after which a model of a three-cough epoch was performed for the participant by the  
86 examiner. Both voluntary and reflex cough airflow was inputted into the PowerLab Data Acquisition  
87 system, digitized, and recorded on a computer through LabChart software. Each sample was low pass  
88 filtered at 50 Hz.

89

### 90 *Data Analysis and Outcomes*

91 Cough airflow outcomes were measured from both voluntary and reflex cough types and  
92 included peak expiratory flow rate (PEFR; L/s), cough expiratory volume (CEV; Liters), inspiratory  
93 volume (IV; Liters), compression phase duration (CPD; seconds), peak expiratory flow rise time  
94 (PEFRT; seconds), and cough volume acceleration (CVA; L/s/s) (Figure 1). The first cough from the  
95 epoch of each trial was used for analyses. All trials of voluntary cough and reflex cough at 200  $\mu\text{M}$   
96 were included for airflow statistical analyses. The capsaicin concentration of 200  $\mu\text{M}$  was selected  
97 from reflex coughs since it has been previously identified as a suprathreshold concentration for  
98 eliciting a cough response in healthy adults (25,32). The coefficient of variation (standard deviation  
99 divided by the mean of three trials) was calculated for cough airflow outcomes in order to examine  
100 within-subject variability. Inter- and intra-rater reliability was performed on 20% of coughs.

101 Sensory outcomes during reflex cough included cough threshold and urge-to-cough. The total  
102 number of coughs were counted for each cough epoch (CrTot). The lowest concentration of capsaicin  
103 that elicited at least two consecutive coughs within 30 seconds of the stimulus on 2 out of 3 trials was  
104 recorded as the cough threshold (33). Participants self-reported their urge-to-cough immediately  
105 following each capsaicin stimulus presentation using a modified Borg scale ranging from 0 (no urge-  
106 to-cough) to 10 (maximal urge-to-cough) during reflex cough (34).

107

### 108 *Statistical Analysis*

109 A simulation-based sensitivity analysis showed that our data had 80% power to detect a mean  
110 PEFR difference between PSP and PD of 0.48 L/s ( $d = 0.46$ ) in voluntary cough and 0.50 L/s ( $d =$   
111 0.48) in reflex cough at 200  $\mu\text{M}$  (35) (Supplemental Table 1). Welch’s t-tests and chi-square tests  
112 compared demographic characteristics between groups. Two-way random effects intra-class  
113 correlation coefficients (single measure, absolute agreement) were used for reliability estimates.

114 Linear mixed effects models were performed for each cough airflow outcome. Group  
115 (PD/PSP), cough type (voluntary/reflex), and their two-way interaction were included as fixed effects  
116 and participant was a random effect. CrTot was included as a covariate in the PEF, CEV, and CVA  
117 models given prior research demonstrating a relationship between expiratory airflow and number of  
118 coughs (36). The Akaike information criterion determined the appropriate covariance structure for each  
119 model. Welch's t-tests explored cough airflow variability (coefficient of variation) between groups.

120 In order to examine reflex cough sensitivity and urge-to-cough, separate mixed effects models  
121 were performed for these outcome variables with fixed effects of capsaicin concentration and group  
122 and a random effect of participant. First and second order polynomials were used with capsaicin  
123 concentration in separate models. Likelihood ratio tests compared models to determine best fit. Given  
124 that a second order polynomial did not significantly improve model fit for urge-to-cough ( $\chi^2 = 0.36, p$   
125  $= .549$ ) or CrTot ( $\chi^2 = 0.45, p = .501$ ), a log-log scale was used in subsequent analyses. Urge-to-cough  
126 sensitivity slopes were then calculated for each participant by performing a linear regression of urge-  
127 to-cough and capsaicin concentration on a log-log scale within each participant, resulting in sensitivity  
128 slopes for analysis between groups (37). Similarly, reflex cough motor slopes were calculated with a  
129 regression of log CrTot and log capsaicin. In order to examine differences in urge-to-cough or reflex  
130 cough sensitivity, mixed models assuming a compound symmetry covariance structure were used with  
131 fixed effects of capsaicin concentration and group and a random effect of participant. To examine  
132 differences in urge-to-cough sensitivity slopes and reflex cough motor slopes between groups, Welch's  
133 t-tests were performed. Fischer's exact test compared cough thresholds between groups.

134 Inspection of standardized residual plots indicated that assumptions were met. Fixed effects  
135 were deemed appropriate based on an a priori threshold (i.e., variance inflation factor  $< 3$ ). Marginal  
136  $R^2$  for the fixed effects in each model provided an overall measure of effect size (38) and Cohen's  $d$   
137 (39) was used for post-hoc comparisons. Alpha was set at  $< .05$ . A Holm-Bonferroni correction was  
138 applied for four planned post-hoc comparisons within models reaching statistical significance and  
139 adjusted p-values are reported for these comparisons. Analyses were performed in R version 4.0.1 (40).

140

## 141 **Results**

### 142 Demographics

143 Twenty-six individuals with PSP and 26 with PD matched for disease-duration met inclusion  
144 criteria. Voluntary cough included 65 trials for PSP and 77 trials for PD, and reflex cough included

## Dystussia is Prevalent and Pervasive in PSP

145 290 trials (73 for 200  $\mu$ M) for PSP and 318 trials (78 for 200  $\mu$ M) for PD. Four participants with PSP-  
146 RS were unable to perform a voluntary cough. One participant with PSP-F and one participant with PD  
147 were unable to complete any voluntary cough trials. One participant with PSP-RS was unable to  
148 tolerate reflex cough testing. Two participants with PSP-P and PSP-RS completed only all two trials of  
149 200  $\mu$ M.

150 There were no significant differences between groups in age, sex, disease duration from  
151 symptom onset, maximum inspiratory pressure, or maximum expiratory pressure ( $p > .05$ ). Individuals  
152 with PSP demonstrated lower scores on the Schwab and England activities of daily living compared to  
153 PD ( $p < .001$ , Table 1). Descriptive statistics of cough airflow is provided by group (Table 2) and PSP  
154 subtype (Supplemental Table 2). There were no significant differences in trial-by-trial variability  
155 between groups across cough outcomes ( $p > .05$ ).

156

### 157 Peak Expiratory Flow Rate

158 Random and fixed effect estimates are provided in Supplemental Table 2. A significant  
159 interaction of group and cough type was found for PEFr ( $p = .015$ ,  $R^2 = 0.17$ , Figure 2) while  
160 controlling for CrTot. Post-hoc comparisons revealed increased PEFr for PD compared to PSP for  
161 voluntary ( $p < .001$ ,  $d = 1.11$ ) and reflex ( $p = 0.041$ ,  $d = 0.57$ ) cough. Comparisons between cough  
162 tasks showed increased PEFr for voluntary compared to reflex cough in PD ( $p = .007$ ,  $d = 0.45$ ), but  
163 no significant differences between voluntary and reflex in PSP ( $p = 0.583$ ,  $d = 0.09$ ).

164

### 165 Cough Expired Volume

166 There was a significant interaction effect of group and cough type for CEV ( $p = .014$ ,  $R^2 =$   
167  $0.26$ ) controlling for CrTot. Post-hoc comparisons revealed increased CEV for PD compared to PSP  
168 for voluntary ( $p < .001$ ,  $d = 1.46$ ) and reflex cough ( $p < .001$ ,  $d = 1.01$ ). Comparisons between cough  
169 tasks showed increased CEV for reflex compared to voluntary cough in PSP ( $p = .002$ ,  $d = 0.44$ ), but no  
170 significant differences between voluntary and reflex in PD ( $p = .884$ ,  $d = 0.03$ ).

171

### 172 Cough Volume Acceleration

173 There was a significant main effect of group ( $p = .001$ ,  $R^2 = 0.14$ ), such that individuals with  
174 PD demonstrated increased CVA compared to individuals with PSP across cough types. There was no

## Dystussia is Prevalent and Pervasive in PSP

175 statistically significant effect of cough type ( $p = .750$ ) or interaction between group and cough type ( $p$   
176  $= .062$ ).

177

### 178 Cough Inspiratory Volume

179 There was a significant interaction effect of group and cough type ( $p = .007$ ,  $R^2 = 0.15$ ). Post-  
180 hoc comparisons revealed increased CIV for PD compared to PSP for voluntary ( $p = .008$   $d = 0.31$ ),  
181 but not reflex cough ( $p = 0.684$   $d = 0.04$ ). Comparisons between cough tasks showed increased CIV for  
182 voluntary compared to reflex cough in PD ( $p < .001$   $d = 0.92$ ), and for voluntary and reflex cough in  
183 PSP ( $p < .001$   $d = 0.66$ ).

184

### 185 Compression Phase Duration & Peak Expiratory Flow Rise Time

186 There were no significant main effects for CPD by group ( $p = .085$ ), cough type ( $p = .415$ ), or  
187 an interaction between group and cough type ( $p = .497$ ). Additionally, there were no significant main  
188 effects of PEFRT of group ( $p = .138$ ), cough type ( $p = .631$ ), or an interaction between group and  
189 cough type ( $p = .702$ ).

190

### 191 Urge-to-Cough

192 Urge-to-cough significantly increased across capsaicin concentrations in both groups ( $p < .001$ ,  
193 Figure 3A). Individuals with PD ( $M = 1.92$ ,  $SD = 0.86$ ) and PSP ( $M = 1.81$ ,  $SD = 0.77$ ) did not show  
194 significant differences in urge-to-cough sensitivity slopes ( $p = .644$ ,  $d = 0.13$ , Figure 3B). Twenty-two  
195 individuals with PSP (85%) and 19 with PD (73%) demonstrated reduced urge-to-cough sensitivity  
196 slopes compared to healthy adults from prior research (37).

197

### 198 Reflex Cough Sensitivity

199 There was a significant main effect of cough type ( $p < .001$ ,  $R^2 = 0.10$ ) showing increased  
200 number of coughs for voluntary compared to reflex cough. There were no statistically significant  
201 effects of group ( $p = .122$ ) or interaction between group and cough type ( $p = .695$ ). Number of evoked  
202 reflex coughs significantly increased across capsaicin concentrations in both groups ( $p < .001$ , Figure  
203 3C). Reflex cough motor slopes were not significantly different between groups ( $p = .277$ ,  $d = 0.32$ ).  
204 Cough thresholds were not significantly different between PD and PSP ( $p = .694$ , Figure 3D). Three  
205 participants with PSP-RS, two with PSP-P, and three with PD did not demonstrate a reliable cough



## Dystussia is Prevalent and Pervasive in PSP

206 response to 200  $\mu\text{M}$ ; however, one participant with PSP-RS and one with PD did cough in response to  
207 500  $\mu\text{M}$ . Two participants with PSP-RS, two with PSP-P and two with PD did not demonstrate a  
208 reliable cough response across all capsaicin concentrations. One participant with PSP-P, one with PSP-  
209 F, and two with PD coughed in response to saline (0  $\mu\text{M}$ ) on at least one trial.

210

### 211 Inter- and Intra-Rater Reliability

212 Inter-rater reliability was 1.00 for PEFR, 0.97 for CEV, 0.97 for CPD, 0.96 for CVA, 0.85 for  
213 CrTot, and 0.82 for CIV and 0.82 for PEFRT. Intra-rater reliability was 1.00 for PEFR, 0.98 for  
214 PEFRT, 0.95 for CEV and CPD, 0.94 for CIV, 0.90 for CVA, and 0.80 for CrTot.

215

## 216 Discussion

217 The development of pneumonia, a leading cause of death in PSP (1), is multifactorial and likely  
218 precipitated by uncompensated aspiration secondary to cough and swallowing dysfunction. There have  
219 been no prior published studies examining dystussia in PSP (15,18). Thus, the present study sought to  
220 characterize voluntary and reflex cough dysfunction across sensory and motor outcomes in PSP.

221 Comparisons were made with PD, a population with known cough and swallowing dysfunction  
222 (12,26). Both PSP and PD were matched for disease duration to control for effects of disease severity.  
223 Results showed reduced PSP cough motor performance compared to PD and blunted sensory responses  
224 in both groups. Overall, these findings suggest that both motor and sensory cough dysfunction are  
225 prevalent and pervasive in PSP.

226

### 227 Cough Sensorimotor Outcomes

228 Individuals with PSP demonstrated reduced cough expiratory (PEFR, CEV, CVA) airflow, as  
229 compared to PD. These motor measures provide insight into the shearing forces necessary to clear the  
230 airway of secretions or aspirate material in order to maintain a homeostatic pulmonary environment  
231 (11,36). Importantly, these deficits in both PSP and PD are substantially altered compared to prior  
232 research in healthy controls (41). Individuals with PSP demonstrated clinically important differences  
233 compared to PD. For example, average PEFRT was 0.92 and 0.53 L/s lower for voluntary and reflex  
234 cough, reflecting substantial impairments in cough performance in PSP compared to PD.

235 Detection of a sensory stimulus is an important component of cough, which is mediated from  
236 peripheral mechano- and chemoreceptors, as well as neural substrates from ascending vagal pathways

## Dystussia is Prevalent and Pervasive in PSP

237 (42,43). Blunted reflex cough sensitivity (i.e., the inability to cough in response to a sensory stimulus,  
238 such as capsaicin) has been previously associated with dysphagia in PD (44–46). Our findings suggest  
239 that PSP demonstrates similar blunted cough thresholds with nearly half of participants demonstrating  
240 impaired reflex cough sensitivity compared to normative data from healthy adults (25,37). This finding  
241 is in contrast to reports of pyramidal signs, including hyperreflexia, in individuals with PSP (47). Both  
242 PSP and PD also demonstrated blunted urge-to-cough slopes compared to healthy adults (37). A  
243 blunted cognitive perception of sensory stimuli may influence cough motor output, such as the total  
244 number of reflex coughs produced (37). In the presence of dysphagia, these sensorimotor cough  
245 deficits may result in an inability to detect and identify a sensory stimulus, such as aspirate material, as  
246 threatening and insufficient generation of expulsive airflow to clear the airway, leading to clinical  
247 profiles of progressive and pervasive impairments in airway protection commonly seen in both PSP  
248 and PD. Future studies will be needed to understand underlying neural mechanisms driving similarities  
249 and differences in sensorimotor cough function between PSP and PD.

250

### 251 Cough Airflow Between Reflex and Voluntary Cough

252 Cough airflow patterns can vary based on the type of cough elicited. Specifically, lower  
253 inspiratory volumes and reduced expiratory airflow has been noted in reflex cough compared to  
254 voluntary cough (36). In PD, voluntary cough testing has also been shown to overestimate expiratory  
255 airflow during reflex cough (14,22). Understanding these differences is important to guide  
256 interpretation of clinical cough outcomes in PSP. In the present study, both groups demonstrated  
257 increased CIV for voluntary compared to reflex cough, likely due to the volitional, unevoked nature of  
258 voluntary cough. In PSP, increased CEV was appreciated in reflex compared to voluntary cough,  
259 though no differences were found in any other expiratory airflow parameters (PEFR, CVA). The  
260 absence of an effect for PEFR between cough types is likely due to more severe deficits in voluntary  
261 cough motor control compared to PD and healthy controls. Individuals with PD demonstrated reduced  
262 PEFR in reflex compared to voluntary cough, replicating prior findings (14,22). However, increased  
263 CEV in voluntary compared to reflex cough was not replicated in PD. This discrepancy may be due to  
264 our decision to statistically control for the number of coughs given prior research demonstrating a  
265 relationship with the volume of expiratory airflow (36). This study provides additional evidence that  
266 evaluations of voluntary cough may overestimate PEFR during reflex cough in PD; however, PEFR  
267 from voluntary cough may serve as an adequate proxy for reflex cough motor function in PSP.

268

269 Cough Dysfunction as a Neuropathologic Feature of PSP

270 The sensorimotor cough deficits identified in PSP and the differences with PD may be  
271 explained by several neural and peripheral mechanisms. Dysfunction of the basal ganglia, brainstem,  
272 and cortical structures involved in discriminative and affective processing have all been described in  
273 PSP and have potential to impair cough function (48,49). The increased atrophy of brainstem regions  
274 in PSP versus PD (50,51) is likely the main cause of the more severe deficits of cough in PSP given  
275 that the brainstem houses the central pattern generator controlling cough. Additionally, the more severe  
276 cortical impairments in PSP including attention and executive function may also contribute to more  
277 severe cough dysfunction, resulting in reduced somatosensation and motor planning. Though basal  
278 ganglia dysfunction most certainly plays a role in the dysfunctional cough in PSP, our results showed  
279 similar cough variability between PSP and PD with both groups descriptively demonstrating increased  
280 variability compared to healthy adults (52,53). Similarly blunted cough sensation in both groups could  
281 indicate that PSP and PD pathology affect some similar sensory afferent pathways; however, the  
282 severity of basal ganglia dysfunction, presence of pyramidal signs, and varying degrees of brainstem  
283 pathology cannot be excluded as potential contributors to sensory cough dysfunction.

284 Accurate diagnosis of PSP currently depends on clinical acumen based on symptomatology,  
285 often resulting in delayed or incorrect diagnoses (54). Given the variable and atypical presentation of  
286 PSP and absence of a reliable diagnostic biomarker, cough may serve as an additional symptom to  
287 improve the diagnostic accuracy of clinical examinations. Profound deficits in voluntary or reflex  
288 cough combined with other common clinical features may better differentiate PSP from similar  
289 parkinsonian disorders, such as PD. Future research will be necessary to confirm the diagnostic utility  
290 of cough as biomarker of PSP in longitudinal studies.

291

292 Limitations and Future Considerations

293 There are several limitations to address. The present study is unable to directly address the  
294 neural and peripheral mechanisms underlying reduced cough function seen in PSP compared to PD. It  
295 is unclear whether this may be unique to the disease process of PSP or due to a more rapid disease  
296 progression compared to PD. We chose to match both cohorts based on duration from symptom onset  
297 given that scales of clinical severity for PSP and PD are not equivalent. For example, gait and balance  
298 are more likely to be compromised early on in PSP cases, confounding comparisons of clinical

299 severity. Additionally, this approach was fundamental to our primary aim examining differences in  
300 cough presentation between groups when disease duration was comparable. However, we acknowledge  
301 that reports of disease duration may be subject to recall bias. Future studies should investigate the  
302 impact of other disease-specific factors on cough outcomes in PSP. Capsaicin was administered in a  
303 randomized block design, which has the benefit of reducing potential order effects across doses.  
304 However, the use of discrete capsaicin presentations with limited gradation between doses may have  
305 limited our ability to detect differences in reflex cough outcomes. Though we provide a description of  
306 cough function across three PSP subtypes, our distribution favored Richardson’s syndrome which  
307 prohibited statistical comparisons. This is an important limitation since substantial variability in  
308 pathologic profiles has been documented in PSP (51) and some subtypes may have cough presentations  
309 that are more similar or different compared to PD. However, pervasive deficits of cough dysfunction  
310 were identified across all PSP subtypes.

311

### 312 **Clinical Implications and Future Directions**

313         Sensorimotor cough dysfunction is prevalent in PSP and cough motor deficits, in particular, are  
314 worse in PSP than PD. Cough dysfunction may contribute to the pathogenesis of pneumonia, a leading  
315 cause of death in PSP. These findings provide support for the integration of cough testing into  
316 screening and assessments of airway protection in this population. Expiratory cough airflow can be  
317 easily obtained from low-cost peak flow meters, facilitating the integration of voluntary cough testing  
318 into clinical practice to better characterize and differentiate parkinsonian syndromes, such as PSP and  
319 PD. Swallowing treatment in this population is limited to compensatory strategies in the absence of  
320 efficacious rehabilitation approaches and this study suggests that cough is a necessary treatment target.  
321 Indeed, sensorimotor cough paradigms have shown preliminary efficacy to upregulate cough (55),  
322 which may prevent adverse health outcomes and improve quality of life. Overall, cough is an  
323 important component of progressive and pervasive deficits of airway protection in PSP, which may  
324 improve clinical management and reduce adverse health outcomes, such as pneumonia and mortality.

325

326 **References**

- 327 1. Litvan I, Mangone CA, McKee A, Verny M, Parsa A, Jellinger K, et al. Natural history of progressive  
328 supranuclear palsy (Steele-Richardson-Olszewski syndrome) and clinical predictors of survival: a  
329 clinicopathological study. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery & Psychiatry*. 1996 Jun  
330 1;60(6):615–20.
- 331 2. Fernandez HH, Lapane KL. Predictors of mortality among nursing home residents with a diagnosis  
332 of Parkinson’s disease. *Med Sci Monit*. 2002 Apr;8(4):CR241-246.
- 333 3. Brunnström HR, Englund EM. Cause of death in patients with dementia disorders. *Eur J Neurol*.  
334 2009 Apr;16(4):488–92.
- 335 4. Fall P-A, Saleh A, Fredrickson M, Olsson J-E, Granéus A-K. Survival time, mortality, and cause of  
336 death in elderly patients with Parkinson’s disease. A 9-year follow-up: Mortality in Parkinson’s  
337 Disease. *Mov Disord*. 2003 Nov;18(11):1312–6.
- 338 5. D’Amelio M, Ragonese P, Morgante L, Reggio A, Callari G, Salemi G, et al. Long-term survival of  
339 Parkinson’s disease. *J Neurol*. 2006 Jan 1;253(1):33–7.
- 340 6. Langmore SE, Terpenning MS, Schork A, Chen Y, Murray JT, Lopatin D, et al. Predictors of  
341 Aspiration Pneumonia: How Important Is Dysphagia? *Dysphagia*. 1998 Feb;13(2):69–81.
- 342 7. Troche MS, Brandimore AE, Godoy J, Hegland KW. A framework for understanding shared  
343 substrates of airway protection. *J Appl Oral Sci*. 2014 Jul;22(4):251–60.
- 344 8. Chen C-Y, Joad JP, Bric J, Bonham AC. Central Mechanisms I: Plasticity of Central Pathways. In:  
345 Chung KF, Widdicombe J, editors. *Pharmacology and Therapeutics of Cough* [Internet]. Berlin,  
346 Heidelberg: Springer; 2009 [cited 2021 Jan 25]. p. 187–201. (Handbook of Experimental  
347 Pharmacology). Available from: [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-540-79842-2\\_9](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-540-79842-2_9)
- 348 9. Curtis JA, Dakin AE, Troche MS. Respiratory–Swallow Coordination Training and Voluntary Cough  
349 Skill Training: A Single-Subject Treatment Study in a Person With Parkinson’s Disease. 2020;15.
- 350 10. Pitts T, Troche MS, Mann G, Rosenbek J, Okun MS, Sapienza C. Using Voluntary Cough To Detect  
351 Penetration and Aspiration During Oropharyngeal Swallowing in Patients With Parkinson Disease.  
352 *Chest*. 2010 Dec;138(6):1426–31.
- 353 11. Hegland KW, Okun MS, Troche MS. Sequential Voluntary Cough and Aspiration or Aspiration Risk  
354 in Parkinson’s Disease. *Lung*. 2014 Aug;192(4):601–8.
- 355 12. Brandimore AE, Hegland KW, Okun MS, Davenport PW, Troche MS. Voluntary upregulation of  
356 reflex cough is possible in healthy older adults and Parkinson’s disease. *J Appl Physiol* (1985).  
357 2017 Jul 1;123(1):19–26.

## Dystussia is Prevalent and Pervasive in PSP

- 358 13. Troche MS, Schumann B, Brandimore AE, Okun MS, Hegland KW. Reflex Cough and Disease  
359 Duration as Predictors of Swallowing Dysfunction in Parkinson's Disease. *Dysphagia*. 2016  
360 Dec;31(6):757–64.
- 361 14. Hegland KW, Troche MS, Brandimore AE, Davenport PW, Okun MS. Comparison of voluntary and  
362 reflex cough effectiveness in Parkinson's disease. *Parkinsonism & Related Disorders*. 2014  
363 Nov;20(11):1226–30.
- 364 15. Clark HM, Stierwalt JAG, Tosakulwong N, Botha H, Ali F, Whitwell JL, et al. Dysphagia in  
365 Progressive Supranuclear Palsy. *Dysphagia*. 2019;
- 366 16. dell'Aquila C, Zoccolella S, Cardinali V, de Mari M, Iliceto G, Tartaglione B, et al. Predictors of  
367 survival in a series of clinically diagnosed progressive supranuclear palsy patients. *Parkinsonism &  
368 Related Disorders*. 2013 Nov;19(11):980–5.
- 369 17. Umemoto G, Furuya H. Management of Dysphagia in Patients with Parkinson's Disease and  
370 Related Disorders. *Intern Med*. 2020 Jan 1;59(1):7–14.
- 371 18. Warnecke T, Oelenberg S, Teismann I, Hamacher C, Lohmann H, Ringelstein EB, et al. Endoscopic  
372 characteristics and levodopa responsiveness of swallowing function in progressive supranuclear  
373 palsy. *Mov Disord*. 2010 Jul 15;25(9):1239–45.
- 374 19. Johnston BT, Castell JA, Stumacher S, Colcher A, Gideon RM, Li Q, et al. Comparison of swallowing  
375 function in Parkinson's disease and progressive supranuclear palsy. *Mov Disord*. 1997  
376 May;12(3):322–7.
- 377 20. Litvan I, Sastry N, Sonies BC. Characterizing swallowing abnormalities in progressive supranuclear  
378 palsy. *Neurology*. 1997 Jun 1;48(6):1654–62.
- 379 21. Leopold NA, Kagel MC. Dysphagia in Progressive Supranuclear Palsy: Radiologic Features.  
380 *Dysphagia*. 1997 May;12(3):140–3.
- 381 22. Curtis JA, Troche MS. Handheld Cough Testing: A Novel Tool for Cough Assessment and Dysphagia  
382 Screening. *Dysphagia* [Internet]. 2020 Feb 24 [cited 2020 Feb 25]; Available from:  
383 <http://link.springer.com/10.1007/s00455-020-10097-z>
- 384 23. Sato M, Tohara H, Iida T, Wada S, Inoue M, Ueda K. Simplified Cough Test for Screening Silent  
385 Aspiration. *Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation*. 2012 Nov;93(11):1982–6.
- 386 24. Perry SE. The Dysphagia in Stroke Protocol Reduces Aspiration Pneumonia in Patients with  
387 Dysphagia Following Acute Stroke: a Clinical Audit. *Translational Stroke Research*. 2019;10:36–43.
- 388 25. Hegland KW, Bolser DC, Davenport PW. Volitional control of reflex cough. *J Appl Physiol*.  
389 2012;113(1):39–46.

## Dystussia is Prevalent and Pervasive in PSP

- 390 26. Takizawa C, Gemmell E, Kenworthy J, Speyer R. A Systematic Review of the Prevalence of  
391 Oropharyngeal Dysphagia in Stroke, Parkinson's Disease, Alzheimer's Disease, Head Injury, and  
392 Pneumonia. *Dysphagia*. 2015;31(3):434–41.
- 393 27. Höglinger GU, Respondek G, Stamelou M, Kurz C, Josephs KA, Lang AE, et al. Clinical diagnosis of  
394 progressive supranuclear palsy: The movement disorder society criteria: MDS Clinical Diagnostic  
395 Criteria for PSP. *Mov Disord*. 2017 Jun;32(6):853–64.
- 396 28. Hughes AJ, Daniel SE, Kilford L, Lees AJ. Accuracy of clinical diagnosis of idiopathic Parkinson's  
397 disease: a clinico-pathological study of 100 cases. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery &*  
398 *Psychiatry*. 1992 Mar 1;55(3):181–4.
- 399 29. Schwab RS, England A. Projection technique for evaluating surgery in Parkinson's disease. In:  
400 Third symposium on Parkinson's disease. E&S Livingstone; 1969. p. 152–8.
- 401 30. Nasreddine ZS, Phillips NA, Bedirian V, Charbonneau S, Whitehead V, Collin I, et al. The Montreal  
402 Cognitive Assessment, MoCA: A Brief Screening Tool For Mild Cognitive Impairment. 53(4):5.
- 403 31. Rosenbek JC, Robbins JA, Roecker EB, Coyle JL, Wood JL. A penetration-aspiration scale.  
404 *Dysphagia*. 1996;(11):93–8.
- 405 32. Vovk A, Bolser DC, Hey JA, Danzig M, Vickroy T, Berry R, et al. Capsaicin exposure elicits complex  
406 airway defensive motor patterns in normal humans in a concentration-dependent manner.  
407 *Pulmonary Pharmacology & Therapeutics*. 2007 Aug;20(4):423–32.
- 408 33. Dicipinigaitis PV. Clinical cough III: measuring the cough response in the laboratory. In:  
409 *Pharmacology and Therapeutics of Cough*. Springer; 2009. p. 297–310.
- 410 34. Borg GA. Psychophysical bases of perceived exertion. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 1982;14(5):377–81.
- 411 35. Green P, MacLeod CJ. SIMR: An R package for power analysis of generalized linear mixed models  
412 by simulation. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*. 2015;7:493–8.
- 413 36. Hegland KW, Troche MS, Davenport PW. Cough expired volume and airflow rates during  
414 sequential induced cough. *Front Physiol*. 2013;4:1–5.
- 415 37. Davenport PW, Vovk A, Duke RK, Bolser DC, Robertson E. The urge-to-cough and cough motor  
416 response modulation by the central effects of nicotine. *Pulmonary Pharmacology*. 2009;82–9.
- 417 38. Nakagawa S, Schielzeth H. A general and simple method for obtaining R<sup>2</sup> from generalized linear  
418 mixed-effects models. O'Hara RB, editor. *Methods Ecol Evol*. 2013 Feb;4(2):133–42.
- 419 39. Brysbaert M, Stevens M. Power Analysis and Effect Size in Mixed Effects Models: A Tutorial.  
420 *Journal of Cognition*. 2018;1(1):9.

## Dystussia is Prevalent and Pervasive in PSP

- 421 40. R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing [Internet]. Vienna, Austria:  
422 R Foundation for Statistical Computing; 2018. Available from: <https://www.R-project.org/>
- 423 41. Brandimore AE, Troche MS, Huber JE, Hegland KW. Respiratory kinematic and airflow differences  
424 between reflex and voluntary cough in healthy young adults. *Front Physiol.* 2015 Oct 9;6:1–10.
- 425 42. Canning BJ. Afferent Nerves Regulating the Cough Reflex: Mechanisms and Mediators of Cough in  
426 Disease. *Otolaryngologic Clinics of North America.* 2010 Feb;43(1):15–25.
- 427 43. Driessen AK, Farrell MJ, Mazzone SB, McGovern AE. Multiple neural circuits mediating airway  
428 sensations: Recent advances in the neurobiology of the urge-to-cough. *Respiratory Physiology &  
429 Neurobiology.* 2016 Jun;226:115–20.
- 430 44. Ebihara S, Saito H, Kanda A, Nakajoh M, Takahashi H, Arai H, et al. Impaired Efficacy of Cough in  
431 Patients With Parkinson Disease. *Chest.* 2003 Sep;124(3):1009–15.
- 432 45. Troche MS, Brandimore AE, Okun MS, Davenport PW, Hegland KW. Decreased cough sensitivity  
433 and aspiration in Parkinson disease. *Chest.* 2014 Nov;146(5):1294–9.
- 434 46. Hegland KW, Troche MS, Brandimore A, Okun MS, Davenport PW. Comparison of Two Methods  
435 for Inducing Reflex Cough in Patients With Parkinson’s Disease, With and Without Dysphagia.  
436 *Dysphagia.* 2016 Feb;31(1):66–73.
- 437 47. Testa D, Monza D, Ferrarini M, Soliveri P, Girotti F, Filippini G. Comparison of natural histories of  
438 progressive supranuclear palsy and multiple system atrophy. *Neurological Sciences.* 2001 Jun  
439 1;22(3):247–51.
- 440 48. Robbins TW, James M, Owen AM, Lange KW, Lees AJ, Leigh PN, et al. Cognitive deficits in  
441 progressive supranuclear palsy, Parkinson’s disease, and multiple system atrophy in tests  
442 sensitive to frontal lobe dysfunction. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery & Psychiatry.* 1994 Jan  
443 1;57(1):79–88.
- 444 49. Esmonde T, Giles E, Gibson M, Hodges JR. Neuropsychological performance, disease severity, and  
445 depression in progressive supranuclear palsy. *J Neurol.* 1996;243(9):638–43.
- 446 50. Longoni G, Agosta F, Kostić VS, Stojković T, Pagani E, Stošić-Opinčal T, et al. MRI measurements of  
447 brainstem structures in patients with Richardson’s syndrome, progressive supranuclear palsy-  
448 parkinsonism, and Parkinson’s disease. *Mov Disord.* 2011 Feb 1;26(2):247–55.
- 449 51. Quattrone A, Nicoletti G, Messina D, Fera F, Condino F, Pugliese P, et al. MR Imaging Index for  
450 Differentiation of Progressive Supranuclear Palsy from Parkinson Disease and the Parkinson  
451 Variant of Multiple System Atrophy. 2008;246(1):8.
- 452 52. Borders JC, Brandimore AE, Troche MS. Variability of Voluntary Cough Airflow in Healthy Adults  
453 and Parkinson’s Disease. *Dysphagia.* 2020;1–7.



## Dystussia is Prevalent and Pervasive in PSP

- 454 53. Setaka Y, Takao T, Kawamura K, Watanabe K, Yoshida R, Ohse H, et al. Reliability of voluntary  
455 cough assessments using respiratory flow waveform. *J Phys Ther Sci.* 2020;32(7):454–8.
- 456 54. Williams DR, Lees AJ. Progressive supranuclear palsy: clinicopathological concepts and diagnostic  
457 challenges. *The Lancet Neurology.* 2009 Mar;8(3):270–9.
- 458 55. Borders JC, Curtis JA, Sevitz JS, Vanegas-Arroyave N, Troche MS. Immediate Effects of  
459 Sensorimotor Training in Airway Protection (smTAP) on Cough Outcomes in Progressive  
460 Supranuclear Palsy: A Feasibility Study. *Dysphagia.* 2021 Jan 30;
- 461

## Dystussia is Prevalent and Pervasive in PSP

### Figure Legends

#### Figure 1: Cough Airflow Diagram

*Caption:* CIV: cough inspiratory volume (L); CPD: compression phase duration (seconds); CEV: cough expired volume (L); PEFRT: peak expiratory flow rise time (seconds); PEFR: peak expiratory flow rate (L/s), CrTot: total number of coughs

#### Figure 2: Cough Airflow Outcomes in PD and PSP Across Cough Tasks

*Caption:* N/A

#### Figure 3: Cough Sensory Responses Between Groups

*Caption:* (A) Unadjusted urge-to-cough sensitivity slopes between groups.  
(B) Group comparison of mean adjusted (log-log transformed) urge-to-cough sensitivity slopes.  
(C) Unadjusted motor slopes for number of coughs (CrTot) during reflex cough.  
(D) Distribution of cough thresholds between groups.  
Note: Data for (A) sensitivity and (C) motor slopes are presented prior to log-log transformation.  
Dotted line in (B) represents average urge-to-cough sensitivity slope in healthy adults (Davenport et al., 2009).

## Dystussia is Prevalent and Pervasive in PSP

### **Author Roles:**

#### 1. Research project:

- A. Conception
- B. Organization
- C. Execution

#### 2. Statistical Analysis:

- A. Design
- B. Execution
- C. Review and Critique

#### 3. Manuscript Preparation:

- A. Writing of the first draft
- B. Review and Critique

JCB: 2A, 2B, 2C, 3A, 3B

JSS: 1C, 2C, 3B

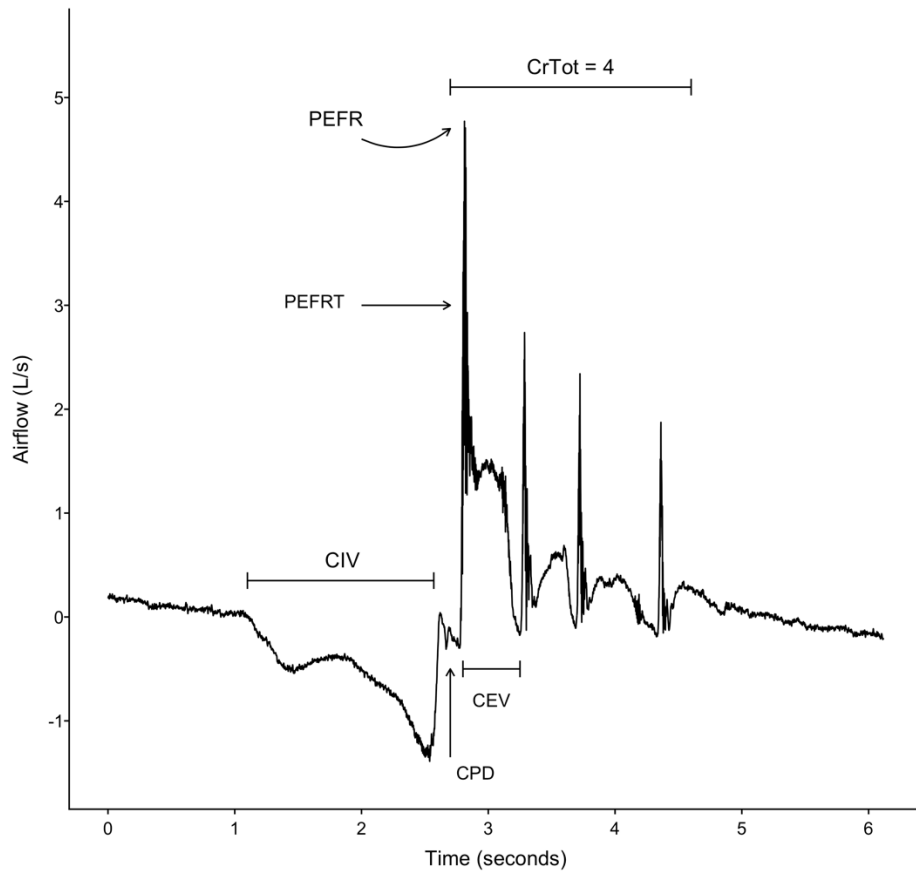
JAC: 1C, 2C, 3B

NVA: 1B, 1C, 2C, 3B

MST: 1A, 1B, 1C, 2A, 2C, 3B

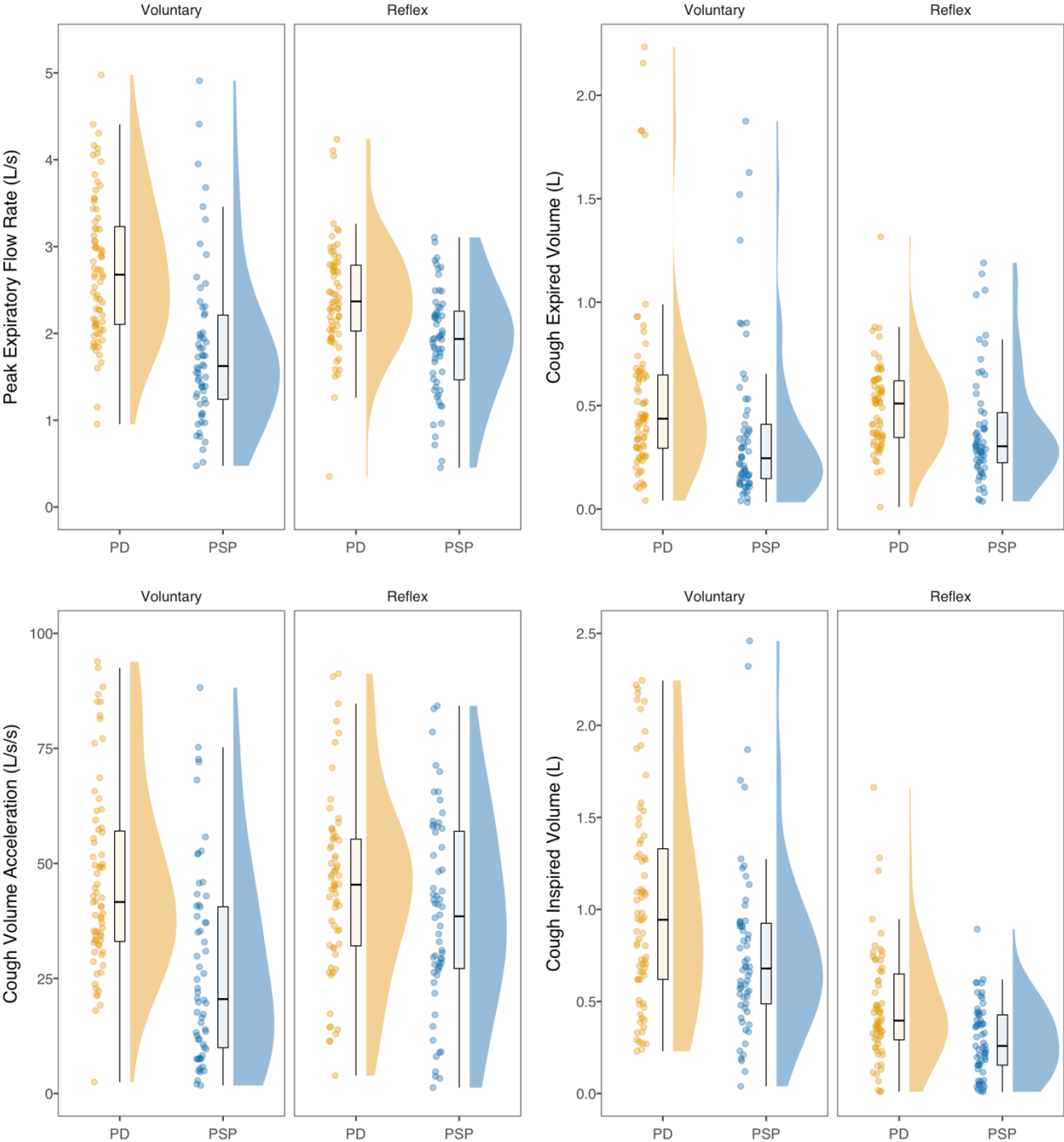
# Dystussia is Prevalent and Pervasive in PSP

Figure 1



# Dystussia is Prevalent and Pervasive in PSP

Figure 2



# Dystussia is Prevalent and Pervasive in PSP

Figure 3

