

Research Article

Voluntary Cough Effectiveness and Airway Clearance in Neurodegenerative Disease

James C. Borders^a  and Michelle S. Troche^a ^aLaboratory for the Study of Upper Airway Dysfunction, Department of Biobehavioral Sciences, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, NY

ARTICLE INFO

Article History:

Received June 3, 2021

Revision received August 12, 2021

Accepted September 23, 2021

https://doi.org/10.1044/2021_JSLHR-21-00308

ABSTRACT

Purpose: Voluntary cough dysfunction is highly prevalent across multiple patient populations. Voluntary cough has been utilized as a screening tool for swallowing safety deficits and as a target for compensatory and exercise-based dysphagia management. However, it remains unclear whether voluntary cough dysfunction is associated with the ability to effectively clear the airway.

Method: Individuals with neurodegenerative disorders performed same-day voluntary cough testing and flexible endoscopic evaluations of swallowing (FEES). Participants who were cued to cough after exhibiting penetration to the vocal folds and/or aspiration with thin liquids during FEES met inclusion criteria. One-hundred and twenty-three trials were blinded, and the amount of residue before and after a cued cough on FEES was measured with a visual analog scale. Linear and binomial mixed-effects models examined the relationship between cough airflow during voluntary cough testing and the proportion of residue expelled.

Results: Peak expiratory flow rate ($p = .004$) and cough expired volume from the entire epoch ($p = .029$) were significantly associated with the proportion of aspiration expelled from the subglottis. Peak expiratory flow rate values of 3.00 L/s, 3.50 L/s, and 5.30 L/s provided high predicted probabilities that $\geq 25\%$, $\geq 50\%$, and $\geq 80\%$ aspirate was expelled. Accounting for depth of aspiration significantly improved model fit ($p < .001$).

Conclusions: These findings suggest that voluntary cough airflow is associated with cough effectiveness to clear aspiration from the subglottis, although aspiration amount and depth may play an important role in this relationship. These findings provide further support for the clinical utility of voluntary cough in the management of dysphagia.

Cough is a vital airway defense mechanism that expels secretions and/or foreign material from the upper and lower airways. Cough (dystussia) and swallowing (dysphagia) dysfunction are known to frequently co-occur in many patient populations, including Parkinson's disease, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, multiple sclerosis, stroke, and head and neck cancer (Hegland et al., 2014; Hutcheson et al., 2017; Pitts et al., 2008; Plowman et al., 2016; Silverman et al., 2016; Smith Hammond et al., 2009; Troche et al., 2016). Effective functioning of cough

and swallowing, as well as other pulmonary defense mechanisms such as mucociliary clearance, intact immune responses, and oral hygiene, is important in preventing adverse health outcomes such as pneumonia (Bianchi et al., 2012; Happel et al., 2004; Langmore et al., 1998; Nicod, 1999).

The neural control of cough exists along a continuum with reflexive and volitional control at either end. Reflex cough is initiated in response to activation of airway sensory receptors, which can include aspirate material or tussigenic stimuli such as capsaicin or citric acid administered in laboratory settings. On the other hand, voluntary cough is initiated on command. In the presence of a sensory stimulus, individuals can volitionally modulate reflex cough motor output with higher level cortical

Correspondence to James C. Borders: jcb2271@tc.columbia.edu. **Disclosure:** The authors have declared that no competing financial or non-financial interests existed at the time of publication.

processing (Hegland et al., 2012). Both reflex and voluntary coughs result in a rapid expulsion of air that can be measured from either a gold-standard spirometer or handheld peak flow meter. Although both cough types share peripheral anatomy and physiology, there are distinct differences in their underlying neural substrates and sensorimotor control. Reflex cough is primarily mediated by the brainstem, whereas voluntary cough is reliant on cortical structures (Mazzone et al., 2009). Voluntary and reflex cough can be further classified as either single or sequential with changes to cough airflow and effectiveness based on the number of coughs produced. Single coughs are thought to be important for removing material from the upper airway and trachea, whereas sequential coughs are effective at removing material from lower airway structures, including the mainstem bronchi, due to dynamic compression from a decrease in cross-sectional area (Ross et al., 1955). In combination with lower lung volumes, this transfers equal pressure points resulting in increased airflow velocity and improved clearance at different levels of the airway (Hegland et al., 2013). Several expiratory airflow measures are used to quantify the production of these shearing forces during cough and include parameters related to strength (e.g., peak expiratory flow rate and cough volume acceleration) and volume (e.g., cough expired volume [CEV]).

Failure to clear the airway of secretions has been associated with an increased risk of lung infection (Dickey, 2018). Management of this airway encumbrance can be assisted by measuring voluntary cough dysfunction. In patients with neuromuscular respiratory insufficiency, voluntary cough airflow has predicted successful extubation and tracheostomy tube decannulation (Bach & Saporito, 1996; Khamiees et al., 2001), clearance of secretions (Boitano, 2006; Szeinberg et al., 1988), and response to cough-augmentation techniques (Toussaint et al., 2009). These studies suggest that voluntary cough airflow, specifically peak expiratory flow rate, is associated with secretion mobilization and removal from the airway in medically acute populations—supporting the role of voluntary cough in a patient's ability to maintain a clear and patent airway.

Beyond understanding airway patency and secretion clearance postextubation, voluntary cough assessments also play an important role in the management of patients with dysphagia and impaired swallowing safety. A subjective impression of voluntary cough function has been a long-standing aspect of clinical swallowing evaluations (Logemann et al., 1999). However, aerodynamic measures of voluntary cough function have only recently been used to objectively quantify airflow during swallowing assessments (Silverman et al., 2016; Watts et al., 2016). A growing body of literature has not only confirmed that voluntary cough dysfunction is highly prevalent in many patient populations compared with healthy controls (e.g., Ebihara et al., 2003;

Kubo et al., 2020; Tabor-Gray et al., 2019) but also that voluntary cough airflow dysfunction is related to swallowing dysfunction, such that outcomes such as peak expiratory flow rate and cough volume acceleration are markedly reduced in patients with a greater degree of airway invasion (Pitts et al., 2008; Plowman et al., 2016; Silverman et al., 2016; Smith Hammond et al., 2001). In fact, recent studies suggest that voluntary cough may be a useful, low-cost screening tool to improve the identification of patients at risk for dysphagia (Pitts et al., 2010; Plowman et al., 2016; Smith Hammond et al., 2001). Collectively, these studies suggest that voluntary cough dysfunction is not only highly prevalent but also a clinically relevant component of assessment and screening procedures for patients with dysphagia. However, it remains unclear whether voluntary cough dysfunction directly translates to compromised airway clearance of penetrant or aspirate material in patients with dysphagia.

Voluntary cough is also a common target for compensation and treatment in patients with dysphagia. From a compensatory perspective, voluntary cough is often prescribed as a strategy to promote clearance of penetrant or aspirate material from the airway in order to maintain a homeostatic pulmonary environment despite airway invasion during swallowing (Dickey, 2018; Hasani et al., 1994). However, this strategy requires intact voluntary cough functioning, which is often reduced in patients with dysphagia (Pitts et al., 2008; Plowman et al., 2016; Silverman et al., 2016; Smith Hammond et al., 2001). Recently, strength and skill-based treatments have shown preliminary efficacy to improve voluntary cough effectiveness, supporting its feasibility as a treatment target (Chiara et al., 2006; Curtis et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2009; Pitts et al., 2009). However, it remains unclear how voluntary cough airflow translates to functional outcomes, such as airway clearance. Clinically meaningful voluntary cough treatment targets would enable clinicians and patients to have a better understanding of rehabilitation goals and allow individualized, patient-centered approaches. For researchers, knowing clinically meaningful targets for voluntary cough effectiveness would allow for more adequate determinations of statistical power, thereby improving data collection efficiency and the quality of inferences from studies seeking to rehabilitate voluntary cough dysfunction.

Given the aforementioned gaps in our understanding of voluntary cough, this retrospective study aimed to determine clinically meaningful cutoff values for voluntary cough airflow associated with airway clearance. To this end, we first explored the relationship between voluntary cough airflow measures obtained during spirometry and the proportion of penetration or aspiration expelled from a cued voluntary cough during flexible endoscopic evaluations of swallowing (FEES). We hypothesized that higher cough airflow values would be associated with a greater percentage of material cleared during a cued cough on

FEES. Next, we examined the ability of voluntary cough variables to predict “effective” airway clearance across four binary categorizations: $\geq 25\%$, $\geq 50\%$, $\geq 80\%$, and 100% residue expelled. We hypothesized that cough variables would discriminate between these categorizations and provide cutoff values with high predicted probabilities, sensitivity, and specificity. We also explored the effect of aspiration location (i.e., depth) on airway clearance and hypothesized that an interaction between aspiration location and cough airflow variables would influence the proportion of residue expelled.

Method

Participants

This retrospective study included patients with neurodegenerative disease and suspected oropharyngeal dysphagia referred by Movement Disorders neurologists to an academic outpatient research clinic for evaluation of swallowing and cough function via FEES and spirometric voluntary cough testing. Data from these clinical evaluations were collected to determine eligibility for larger prospective cohort studies. Informed consent was obtained prior to enrollment and ethical approval was granted by the local Institutional Review Board. Inclusion criteria required (a) penetration to the level of the vocal folds without immediate ejection (penetration–aspiration scale score of 5) and/or aspiration without immediate ejection (penetration–aspiration scale scores 7 and 8) during FEES with thin liquids (Rosenbek et al., 1996), (b) a clinician cued voluntary cough after penetration and/or aspiration on FEES, (c) adequate visualization of the vocal folds and/or subglottis before and after the cued cough, and (d) voluntary cough testing via spirometry performed prior to FEES. All participants with Parkinson’s disease were in the “on” phase of their medication cycle during cough and swallowing assessments.

Voluntary Cough Testing

Three trials of sequential voluntary cough testing were performed prior to the swallowing evaluation. A facemask coupled to a pneumotachograph and digital spirometer (MLT 1000, ADInstruments, Inc.) was positioned over the participant’s nose and mouth. Participants were provided the following instructions: “When you are ready, cough as if something has gone down the wrong pipe.” The examiner also provided a model of a three-cough epoch. The number of coughs per trial was not standardized across participants. Airflow data were inputted to a Power Lab Data Acquisition System (ADInstruments,

Inc. Version 8.1), digitized, and recorded to a computer. Each sample was low-pass filtered at 50 Hz.

FEES

FEES were performed with a 3-mm diameter flexible distal chip laryngoscope (ENT-5000; Cogentix Medical) without the use of topical anesthetics or vasoconstrictors. Participants were presented with a variety of thin liquid bolus volumes, including 5, 10, 20, and 90 ml, and patient preferred volumes. All boluses were dyed with either barium, white, blue, or green dye to maximize visualization. In the presence of penetration and/or aspiration, clinicians provided cues for the patient to perform a voluntary cough. Given the retrospective nature of this study, the instruction and frequency of these cues was not standardized across patients.

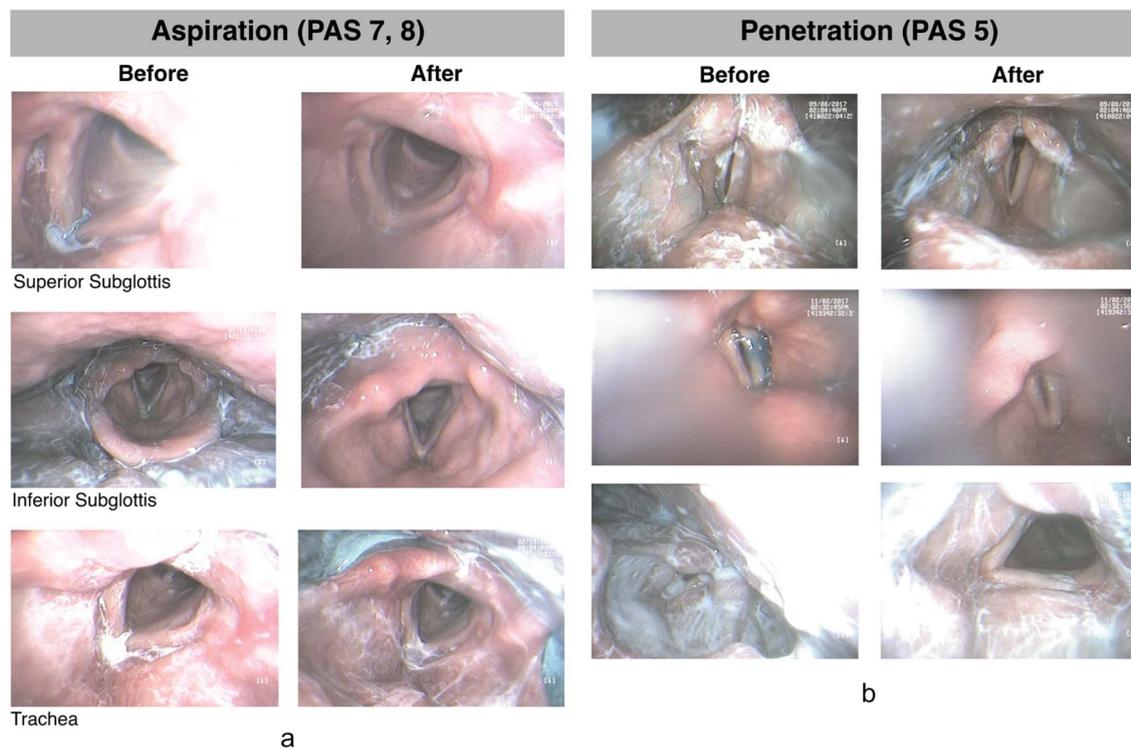
Data Analysis

Video segments before and after the cued cough were de-identified and randomized. Raters were blinded to whether the video segment occurred before or after the cued cough. Additionally, segments did not include the cued cough in order to reduce rater bias. The number of coughs performed during FEES, a description of the clinician cue, and the location of penetration or aspiration were documented separately by a blinded rater. A qualitative description of location and depth was provided for each penetration and aspiration event. Specifically, four locations were used to describe penetration events: left and right anterior one-third and/or left and right posterior two-thirds of the vocal folds. Three locations were used to describe aspiration events: superior one-third of the subglottis shelf (i.e., “superior subglottis”), inferior two-thirds of the subglottis shelf (i.e., “inferior subglottis”), or inferior to the first ring of the cricoid cartilage (i.e., “trachea”; see Figure 1). These categorical descriptors were used to further describe the data but were not used as an outcome in inferential statistical analyses. The proportion of residue expelled (based on Visual Analysis of Swallowing Efficiency and Safety [VASES] and described below) served as the primary outcome.

Outcome Measures

Raters used a 100-point visual analog scale and anatomic boundaries outlined in the VASES rating method to estimate the amount of penetrant and aspirate material present in each FEES video segment (Curtis et al., 2021). This rating reflected the amount of residue normalized to the area of the vocal folds or subglottis. Once ratings were unblinded, the proportion of residue expelled was individually calculated for each anatomic landmark (i.e., vocal

Figure 1. Examples of subglottic and vocal fold residue before and after cued coughs. PAS = penetration–aspiration scale.



folds and subglottis) by subtracting visual analog scale scores from before the cued cough to VAS after the cued cough and then dividing by the amount of residue present before the cough.

Proportion of Material Expelled

$$= \frac{\text{VAS Before Cough} - \text{VAS After Cough}}{\text{VAS Before Cough}} \quad (1)$$

In instances where the visual analog scale rating was greater after the cued cough (e.g., cough resulted in more material entering the area of interest), a score of 0% residue expelled was assigned. Cough airflow variables measured from spirometric voluntary cough testing included peak expiratory flow rate (L/s), CEV (L), and cough volume acceleration (L/s/s). These measures were obtained from the first cough in a cough epoch for each trial. CEV across the entire epoch (L) was also examined. The maximum cough airflow value for each cough variable across trials was used in order to capture the patient’s best cough performance. The number of coughs (CrTot) from the maximum trial for each cough variable was included as a covariate.

Statistical Analysis

Linear mixed-effects models were performed for each cough airflow variable with separate models for

penetration and aspiration events. The proportion of residue expelled was the dependent variable, a cough airflow variable was the fixed effect, and participant was the random effect. Covariates included sex, number of coughs during FEES, and number of coughs during spirometric voluntary cough testing. We included the number of coughs during FEES and spirometry due to the known relationship between expiratory airflow and number of coughs (Hegland et al., 2013). We also included sex as a covariate to account for potential differences in tracheal area (Dominelli et al., 2018). Variance inflation factors (VIFs) were calculated for each model. Fixed effects were deemed appropriate based on an a priori threshold ($VIF < 3$). The Akaike information criterion was used to determine the appropriate covariance structure. A compound symmetry covariance structure was used across all linear mixed-effects models.

Binomial mixed-effects models were also performed to explore the ability of cough variables to discriminate between “effective” and “ineffective” airway clearance while controlling for the aforementioned covariates. The random and fixed effects were identical to previously described linear mixed-effects models. We explored four binary categorizations for expelling residue: (a) $\geq 25\%$, (b) $\geq 50\%$, (c) $\geq 80\%$, and (d) 100% residue expelled from the vocal folds or subglottis. Seventy-five percent was initially chosen as the third cutoff value; however, models failed to

converge with this categorization. Additionally, all penetration and seven aspiration models failed to converge, likely due to overfitting and the data distribution, and were not reported. Specifically, the aspiration models that did not converge included CEV from the first cough ($\geq 50\%$ and 100% residue expelled), cough volume acceleration ($\geq 50\%$ and 100% residue expelled), and CEV from the entire epoch ($\geq 25\%$, $\geq 50\%$, and 100% residue expelled). Predicted probabilities were calculated for each cough variable for statistically significant binomial models. Eighty percent predicted probability was determined a priori as providing “high” probabilities of effective airway clearance for cough airflow variables. Both linear and binomial mixed-effects models were fit using restricted maximum likelihood estimation. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves were also used to determine how well cough variables differentiated between “effective” and “ineffective” airway clearance. The area under the curve (AUC) was calculated to determine the probability that a cough airflow variable would adequately differentiate effectiveness of airway clearance. We considered an AUC of 0.7–0.8 as “adequate” and 0.8–0.9 as “excellent” (Copay et al., 2007). From ROC analyses, we obtained the cutoff value that maximized sensitivity and specificity, as well as values that prioritized either sensitivity or specificity. Both predicted probabilities and ROC analyses were provided since the former provides an assessment of the predictive nature of cough variables while controlling for the presence of covariates, whereas the latter evaluates how sensitivity and specificity varies based solely on cough cutoff values and may therefore be of greater clinical utility.

In order to examine the influence of aspiration location on the relationship between significant spirometric cough variables and the proportion of residue expelled, additional models were fit with the deepest location of aspiration as a main effect and then with a two-way interaction between aspiration location and peak expiratory flow rate. These models were each compared with the original model without either the main effect of aspiration location or two-way interaction. Models were fit using maximum likelihood estimation to allow for comparisons with likelihood ratio (*LR*) tests. The amount of unique variance explained (f^2) was used as a measure of effect size for continuous variables (Lorah, 2018). The amount of unique variance explained was obtained from marginal pseudo- R^2 for mixed models (Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2013). Cohen’s *d* was used as an effect size measure for categorical predictors (Westfall et al., 2014).

Simulation-based sensitivity power analyses were performed with the *simr* R package for the aforementioned models (Green & MacLeod, 2015). This was accomplished by inputting a range of effect sizes for the predictor (i.e., cough variable) of interest. Coefficients in binomial mixed models were exponentiated for interpretation as unstandardized

odds ratios (*ORs*). Monte Carlo simulations were then performed to identify the minimum detectable effect size at 80% power. Results showed that aspiration linear mixed-effects models had 80% power to detect $f^2 = 0.13$ for peak expiratory flow rate, $f^2 = 0.13$ for CEV from the first cough, $f^2 = 0.10$ for CEV from the entire epoch, and $f^2 = 0.14$ for cough volume acceleration (see Appendix A). Model comparisons had 80% power to detect a main effect of $f^2 = 0.02$ for aspiration location, as well as a two-way interaction between peak expiratory flow rate and aspiration location of $f^2 = 0.78$.

Intraclass correlation coefficients (single measure, absolute agreement) were used to examine inter- and intrarater reliability of visual analog scale residue ratings and cough variables for a randomized 20% of trials. Alpha was set at 0.05. Corrections for multiple comparisons were not used due to the exploratory nature of this study. Analyses were performed in R version 4.0.1 (R Core Team, 2018).

Results

Participant Demographics

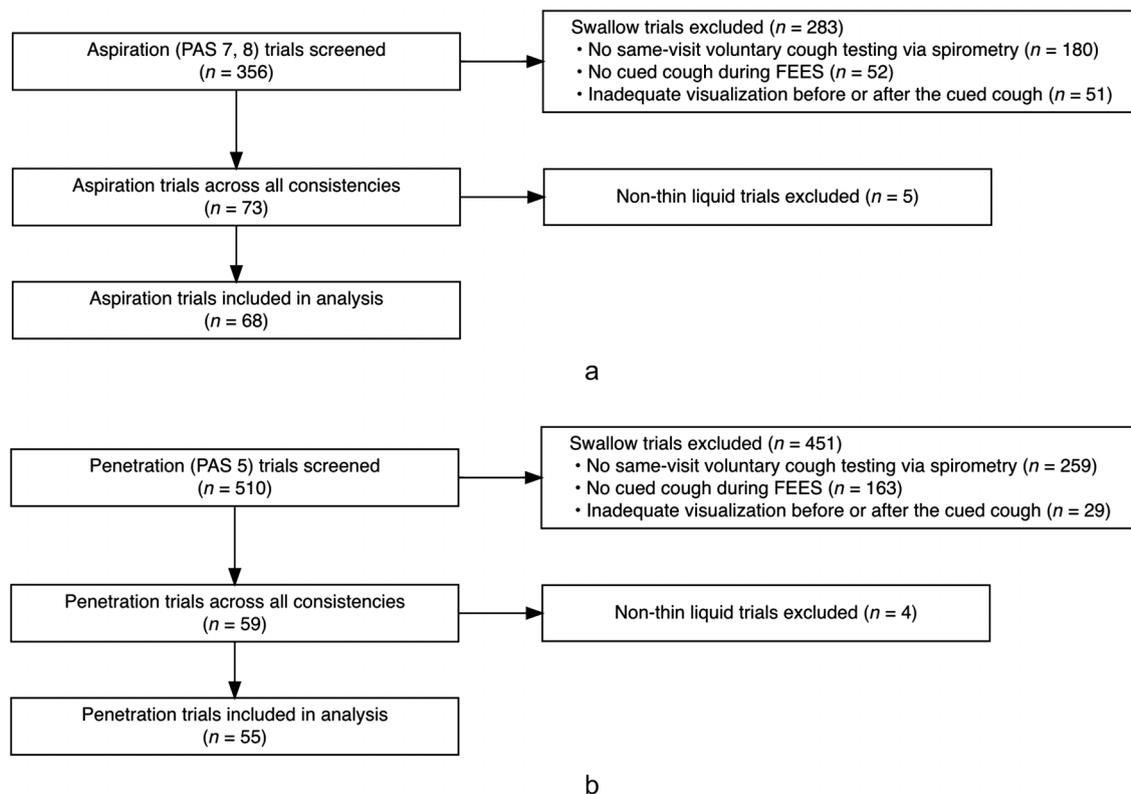
Sixty-eight aspiration events across 33 participants met criteria for inclusion in this study (see Figure 2). Aspiration events were from participants with a diagnosis of Parkinson’s disease ($n = 26$) or progressive supranuclear palsy ($n = 7$; see Table 1). Fifty-five penetration events across 30 participants were included. Participant diagnoses included Parkinson’s disease ($n = 21$), progressive supranuclear palsy ($n = 2$), multiple systems atrophy—cerebellar subtype ($n = 2$), and Type 1 spinocerebellar ataxia ($n = 2$). Given the previously described analysis plan, aspiration and penetration events were analyzed separately and are therefore presented in two sections.

Aspiration

Trial Characteristics

Boluses were dyed with barium (51%), green (20%), blue (26%), and white (3%) dye. Bolus volumes included 90 ml (50%), 20 ml (3%), 10 ml (31%), 5 ml (7%), and patient preferred (9%). Four aspiration trials (5.89%) demonstrated higher visual analog scale ratings after the cued cough and were assigned a rating of 0. Sixty-four percent of aspiration events had residue in the superior subglottis, 76% in inferior subglottis, and 31% in the trachea. Twenty-six percent of aspiration events were entirely cleared from the subglottis with a cued cough, 47% of coughs cleared at least 80% residue, 60% of coughs cleared at least 50% residue, and 12% of coughs did not clear any residue (0%). Among 18 aspiration events where residue

Figure 2. Inclusion and exclusion diagram. PAS = penetration–aspiration scale; FEES = flexible endoscopic evaluation of swallowing.



was entirely expelled from the subglottis, the superior subglottis was the deepest location of aspiration for most events (56%), whereas the remaining 44% were in the inferior subglottis. Cough instructions included cues for a strong single cough (41%), multiple coughs (18%), both a strong and sequential cough (19%), or no qualifiers (22%). There were no significant differences in the proportion of aspiration expelled between types of cough cues ($p > .05$). There was a strong correlation between the amount of aspirate residue in the subglottis before and after the cued cough ($r = 0.90$, $p < .001$, see Appendix B).

Peak Expiratory Flow Rate

Relationship between cough airflow and airway clearance. Linear mixed-effects models showed a significant main effect of peak expiratory flow rate ($p = .004$, $f^2 = 0.17$) on the amount of residue expelled from the subglottis when controlling for sex, number of coughs during FEES, and number of coughs during spirometry (see Table 2). Binomial mixed-effects models showed a significant main effect of peak expiratory flow rate to predict $\geq 25\%$ residue expelled ($p = .018$, $OR = 3.47$), $\geq 50\%$ residue expelled ($p = .033$, $OR = 3.63$), and $\geq 80\%$ residue expelled ($p = .015$, $OR = 2.10$) while controlling for covariates (see Table 3). However, peak expiratory flow rate did not

significantly discriminate between airway clearance of 100% residue ($p = .056$, $OR = 1.80$; see Appendix C).

Predictive ability of peak expiratory flow rate. Predicted probabilities of 3, 3.50, and 5.30 L/s peak expiratory flow rate were observed for clearance of $\geq 25\%$, $\geq 50\%$, and $\geq 80\%$ residue from the subglottis, respectively, when controlling for covariates (see Figure 3). ROC analyses demonstrated adequate AUC values (> 0.70) for clearance of $\geq 25\%$ and $\geq 50\%$ residue, suggesting that peak expiratory flow rate adequately differentiated between “effective” and “ineffective” airway clearance with optimal cutoff values of 3.23 L/s and 2.97 L/s, respectively (see Figure 4).

Effect of aspiration location. Model comparisons showed that including aspiration location significantly improved model fit ($p < .001$, $LR = 32.74$). The full model showed a significant main effect of aspiration location ($p < .001$, $f^2 = 0.58$), whereas peak expiratory flow rate was non-significant ($p = .087$, $f^2 = 0.08$). Pairwise comparisons showed significant differences in the proportion of residue expelled from the subglottis between all three subglottic landmarks. Specifically, the proportion of residue expelled was significantly higher when the deepest location of material was in the superior subglottic shelf compared with material in the inferior subglottic shelf ($p < .001$, mean difference [MD] = 0.37, $d = 0.53$) and trachea ($p < .001$, $MD = 0.66$, $d = 0.67$;

Table 1. Participant demographics.

| Aspiration cohort | |
|---|--------------------|
| Measures | N = 33 (68 trials) |
| Medical diagnosis | |
| Parkinson's disease | 26 |
| Progressive supranuclear palsy | 7 |
| Sex | |
| Males | 27 |
| Females | 6 |
| Age (years) | |
| Mean ± standard deviation | 70.10 ± 10.21 |
| Range (minimum–maximum) | (56–89) |
| Penetration cohort | |
| Measures | N = 30 (55 trials) |
| Medical diagnosis | |
| Parkinson's disease | 21 |
| Progressive supranuclear palsy | 5 |
| Multiple systems atrophy—cerebellar subtype | 2 |
| Spinocerebellar ataxia—Type 1 | 2 |
| Sex | |
| Males | 26 |
| Females | 4 |
| Age (years) | |
| Mean ± standard deviation | 68.96 ± 9.08 |
| Range (minimum–maximum) | (41–82) |

Note. PAS = penetration–aspiration scale.

see Figure 5). Additionally, the proportion of residue expelled was significantly higher when the deepest location of material was in the inferior subglottic shelf compared with the trachea ($p = .002$, $MD = 0.28$, $d = 0.41$). An additional model including a two-way interaction between peak expiratory flow rate and aspiration location did not significantly improve model fit ($p = .549$, $LR = 1.22$, $f^2 = 0.03$).

CEV (First Cough)

Relationship between cough airflow and airway clearance. No main effect of CEV was shown in linear mixed models ($p = .073$, $f^2 = 0.06$). CEV significantly discriminated between $\geq 80\%$ residue expelled ($p = .038$, $OR = 4.31$), but not between $\geq 25\%$ residue expelled ($p = .225$, $OR = 4.81$).

Predictive ability of CEV (first cough). A value of 1.30 L showed a high predicted probability of expelling $\geq 80\%$ subglottic residue. The ROC analysis demonstrated suboptimal differentiation (AUC = 0.59) between “effective” and “ineffective” airway clearance with a binary classification of $\geq 80\%$ residue expelled.

CEV (Entire Epoch)

Relationship between cough airflow and airway clearance. CEV from the entire epoch demonstrated a significant linear relationship with the proportion of residue expelled from the

subglottis ($p = .029$, $f^2 = 0.07$) while controlling for covariates (see Table 2). However, CEV did not significantly discriminate between $\geq 80\%$ residue expelled ($p = .062$, $OR = 2.16$).

Effect of aspiration location. Model comparisons showed that including aspiration location significantly improved model fit ($p < .001$, $LR = 33.94$). The full model showed a significant main effect of aspiration location ($p < .001$, $f^2 = 0.62$), whereas CEV from the entire epoch was nonsignificant ($p = .569$, $f^2 = 0.005$). Pairwise comparisons showed significant differences in the proportion of residue expelled from the subglottis between all three subglottic landmarks. Specifically, the proportion of residue expelled from the subglottis was significantly higher when the deepest location of material was at the anterior commissure compared with material inferior ($p < .001$, $MD = 0.72$, $d = 1.43$) and superior ($p < .001$, $MD = 0.39$, $d = 0.79$) to the first ring of the cricoid cartilage. Additionally, the proportion of residue expelled was significantly higher when the deepest location of material was superior compared with inferior to the first ring of the cricoid cartilage ($p < .001$, $MD = 0.32$, $d = 0.65$). An additional model including a two-way interaction between CEV from the entire epoch and aspiration location did not significantly improve model fit ($p = .186$, $LR = 3.37$, $f^2 = 0.07$).

Cough Volume Acceleration

Relationship between cough airflow and airway clearance. Cough volume acceleration was not significantly associated with the proportion of residue expelled ($p = .057$, $f^2 = 0.07$). Furthermore, cough volume acceleration did not significantly discriminate between the proportion of residue expelled in binomial mixed models ($p > .05$).

Penetration to the Vocal Folds

Trial Characteristics

Bolus colorants included barium (60%), blue (23%), green (15%), and white (2%) dye. Bolus volumes included 90 ml (31%), 20 ml (5%), 10 ml (27%), 5 ml (13%), and patient preferred (24%). Two trials (3.60%) demonstrated higher visual analog scale ratings after the cued cough and were assigned a rating of 0. Fifty-one percent of penetration events were entirely cleared from the vocal folds with a cued cough, 78% of coughs cleared at least 80% of penetration, and 91% of coughs cleared at least 50% of penetration. Fifty-eight percent of penetration events had residue on the left anterior one-third of the vocal folds, 56% on the right anterior one-third, 42% on the left posterior two-thirds, and 47% on the right posterior two-thirds. Cough instructions included cues for a strong single cough (44%), a sequential cough (13%), both a strong and sequential cough (9%), or no qualifiers (35%). There were no significant differences in the proportion of penetration expelled between types of cough cues ($p > .05$). There was a moderate correlation between the

Figure 3. Probabilities of cough airflow variables to predict aspiration amount expelled. Predicted probabilities for statistically significant binomial mixed-effects models are reported. These models account for additional covariates of sex, number of coughs during flexible endoscopic evaluations of swallowing, and number of coughs during spirometric voluntary cough testing.

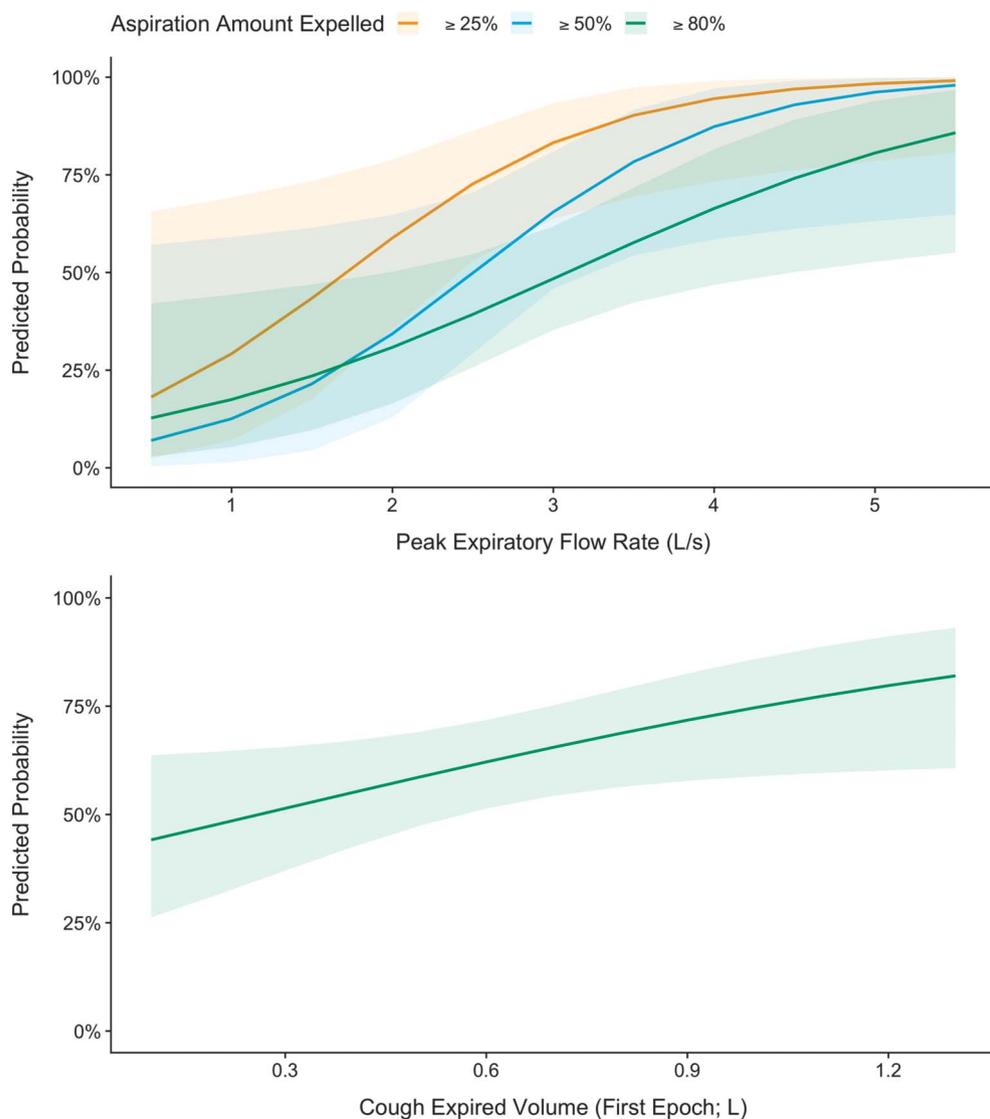


Table 2. Summary of linear mixed-effects model results.

| Outcome | Predictor | Aspiration | | | Penetration | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------|----------------|------------------------------|---------------------|----------------|------------------------------|
| | | β coefficient | <i>p</i> value | Variance explained (f^2) | β coefficient | <i>p</i> value | Variance explained (f^2) |
| Proportion of residue expelled | Peak expiratory flow rate | .16 | .004 | 17% | .03 | .320 | 2% |
| | Cough expired volume (first cough) | .32 | .073 | 6% | .12 | .306 | 2% |
| | Cough expired volume (entire epoch) | .17 | .029 | 7% | .06 | .379 | 2% |
| | Cough volume acceleration | .01 | .057 | 7% | .001 | .549 | 0.5% |

Table 3. Summary of binomial mixed-effects model and receiver operating characteristic results.

| Outcome | Predictor | Aspiration | | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------|------------|-------------------|---------------|
| | | <i>p</i> value | Odds ratio | AUC (95% CI) | ROC cut point |
| ≥ 25% residue expelled | Peak expiratory flow rate | .018 | 3.47 | 0.73 [0.61, 0.85] | 3.23 L/s |
| | Cough expired volume (first cough) | .225 | 4.84 | 0.62 [0.47, 0.77] | 0.40 L |
| | Cough expired volume (entire epoch) | .169 | 2.81 | 0.65 [0.50, 0.79] | 1.14 L |
| | Cough volume acceleration | .155 | 1.02 | 0.64 [0.49, 0.80] | 38.72 L/s/s |
| ≥ 50% residue expelled | Peak expiratory flow rate | .033 | 3.63 | 0.70 [0.57, 0.83] | 2.97 L/s |
| ≥ 80% residue expelled | Peak expiratory flow rate | .015 | 2.10 | 0.66 [0.53, 0.79] | 3.41 L/s |
| | Cough expired volume (first cough) | .038 | 4.31 | 0.59 [0.45, 0.73] | 0.70 L |
| | Cough expired volume (entire epoch) | .062 | 2.17 | 0.60 [0.46, 0.74] | 1.52 L |
| | Cough volume acceleration | .092 | 1.01 | 0.62 [0.48, 0.75] | 43.16 L/s/s |
| 100% residue expelled | Peak expiratory flow rate | .056 | 1.80 | 0.64 [0.48, 0.80] | 3.52 L/s |

Note. AUC = area under the curve; CI = confidence interval; ROC = receiver operating characteristic.

amount of penetrant residue on the vocal folds before and after the cued cough ($r = .37, p = .004$; see Appendix B).

Peak Expiratory Flow Rate, CEV (First Cough), CEV (Entire Epoch), and Cough Volume Acceleration

No statistically significant relationship between peak expiratory flow rate ($p = .320, f^2 = 0.02$), CEV from the first cough ($p = .306, f^2 = 0.02$), CEV from the entire epoch ($p = .379, f^2 = 0.02$), or cough volume acceleration ($p = .549, f^2 = 0.005$) and the proportion of residue expelled from the vocal folds was found in linear mixed-effects models.

Reliability

Intraclass correlation coefficients for interrater reliability were .83 for visual analog scale ratings of aspiration, .78 for penetration, .94 for peak expiratory flow rate, .73 for CEV from the first cough, .91 for CEV from the entire epoch, .77 for cough volume acceleration, and .70 for CrTot. Intraclass correlation coefficients for intrarater reliability were 0.82 for aspiration, .89 for penetration, .96 for peak expiratory flow rate, .89 for CEV from the first cough, .77 for CEV from the entire epoch, .68 for cough volume acceleration, and .96 for CrTot.

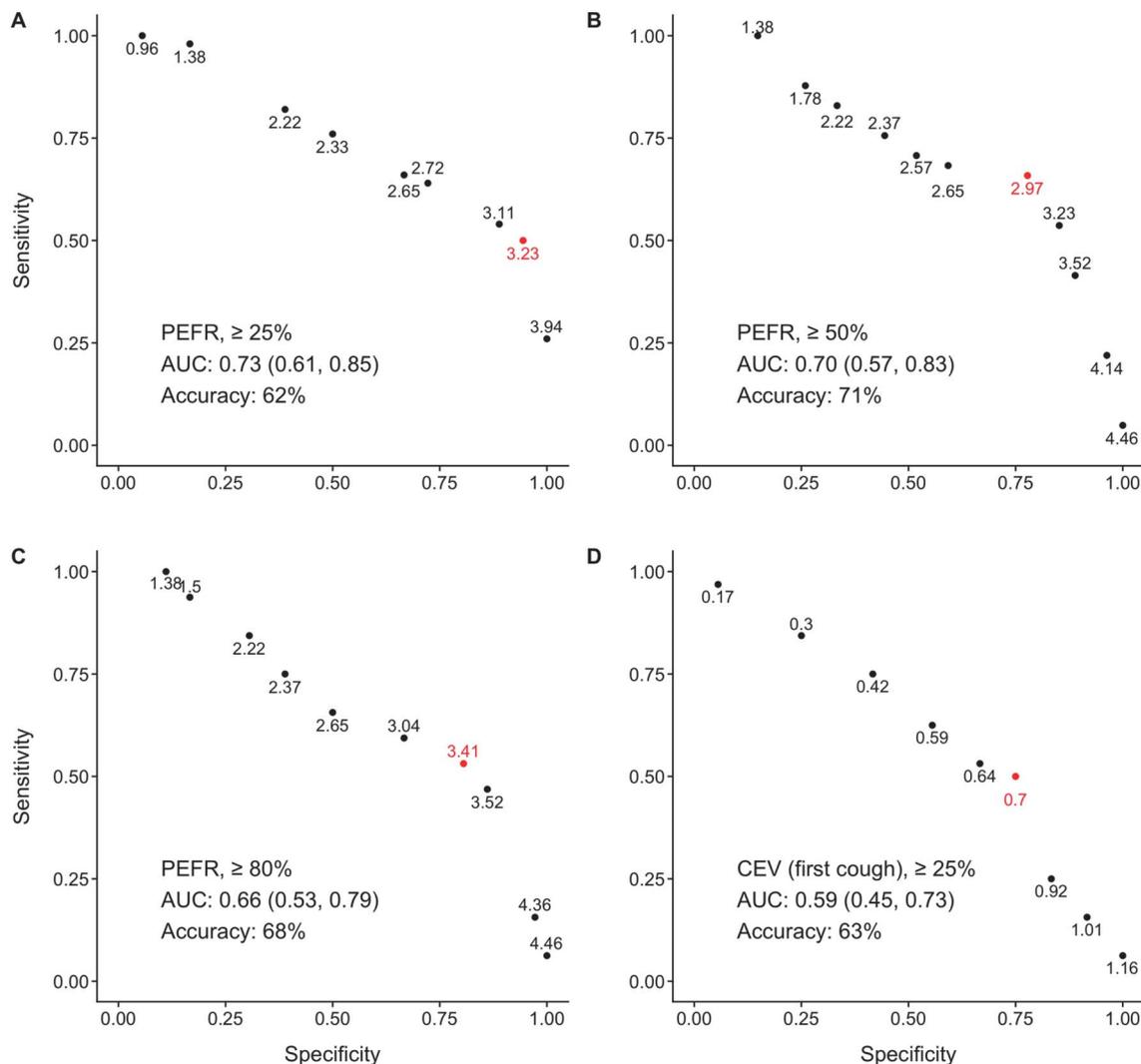
Discussion

Voluntary cough is a central component of dysphagia management as it is commonly assessed during clinical swallowing evaluations, incorporated in screening protocols to identify dysphagia, and targeted in compensatory and rehabilitation dysphagia management plans. Although prior research has identified a close relationship between voluntary cough and swallowing dysfunction (Hegland et al., 2014; Pitts et al., 2008, 2010; Plowman et al., 2016),

it remains unclear whether voluntary cough airflow is related to the ability to clear the airway of penetrant or aspirate material. Results from this retrospective investigation provide a first step toward establishing a clinically meaningful relationship between voluntary cough airflow and airway clearance. Our findings suggest that higher values of voluntary cough airflow, specifically peak expiratory flow rate and CEV, are associated with a greater proportion of residue expelled from the subglottis. Additionally, the amount and depth of aspiration may play a role in this relationship, such that smaller amounts and more superior aspiration locations may require lower cough airflow. However, inadequate statistical power hindered our ability to confidently examine the role of aspiration location as a potential mediator in this relationship and the present findings should be interpreted within this context. Voluntary cough airflow was not associated with the ability to expel penetration from the vocal folds, potentially due to a large number of successful cough events. Collectively, these findings suggest that higher voluntary cough airflow is associated with improved airway clearance of aspiration.

Voluntary cough is commonly assessed during clinical swallowing evaluations and subjective judgments from clinicians have been a long-standing part of dysphagia clinical practice (Logemann et al., 1999). More recently, aerodynamic measures from gold-standard spirometric or handheld peak flow devices have garnered research and clinical interest to objectively quantify cough airflow during clinical swallowing evaluations (Watts et al., 2016). In fact, reduced voluntary cough airflow values have been found to predict airway invasion in Parkinson's disease, stroke, and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (Pitts et al., 2010; Plowman et al., 2016; Smith Hammond et al., 2001), which can be tested with low-cost analog or digital peak flow meters (Silverman et al., 2014). However, the predictive value of voluntary cough airflow as a metric for effectiveness of airway clearance has not been quantified. Results from this

Figure 4. Sensitivity and specificity of cough airflow values to predict proportion of aspiration expelled. (A) Peak expiratory flow rate (L/s) for $\geq 25\%$ of aspiration expelled. (B) Peak expiratory flow rate (L/s) for $\geq 50\%$ of aspiration expelled. (C) Peak expiratory flow rate (L/s) for $\geq 80\%$ of aspiration expelled. (D) Cough expired volume from first cough (L) for $\geq 80\%$ of aspiration expelled. PEFR = peak expiratory flow rate; AUC = area under the curve; CEV = cough expired volume. Accuracy is provided for the cutoff value that maximizes sensitivity and specificity (shown in red). Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) analyses for cough airflow variables from statistically significant binomial models are shown.

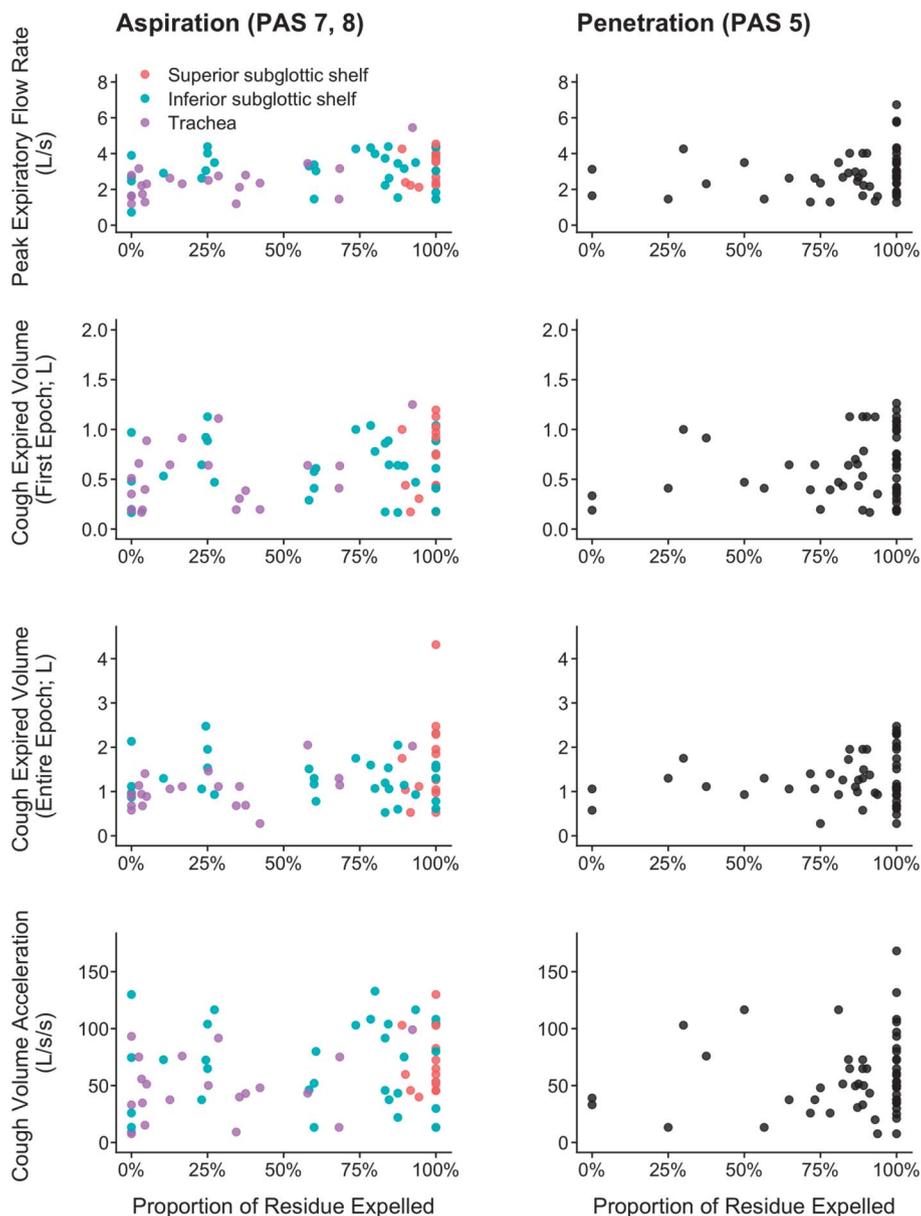


study revealed that peak expiratory flow rate and CEV (from the entire epoch) were significantly associated with effective airway clearance. We found that higher cough airflow values corresponded with a greater proportion of material expelled from the subglottis. More specifically, we identified clinically meaningful cutoffs for voluntary cough effectiveness, such that peak expiratory flow rate values of 3.23, 2.97, and 3.41 L/s differentiated between “effective” and “ineffective” airway clearance for $\geq 25\%$, $\geq 50\%$, and $\geq 80\%$ subglottic residue expelled, respectively. These cutoffs complement prior research suggesting that peak expiratory flow rate values greater than 2.67 L/s predicted clearance of secretions and successful extubation in patients with

neuromuscular disease (Bach & Saporito, 1996). Together, this may suggest that if a patient is able to generate sufficient airflow required for clearance of aspiration in the upper airway, then this may also facilitate the removal of secretions. However, future research will be necessary to examine cough effectiveness in the context of both the upper and lower airways in a single patient population with validated secretion outcomes and gold-standard spirometric measurement of cough airflow.

The findings of this study, most specifically the clinically meaningful cutoffs, have important implications for the screening, assessment, and treatment of patients with dysphagia. These data suggest that voluntary cough peak

Figure 5. The proportion of residue expelled across cough variables. PAS = penetration–aspiration scale; aspiration location categories refer to the deepest location of aspirate material before the cued cough.



flow can be used to assess both risk of airway invasion and risk of ineffective airway clearance. For example, a patient with Parkinson’s disease who demonstrates a voluntary cough peak flow value of 2.75 L/s during a clinical swallowing evaluation is at elevated risk for aspiration (e.g., based on Pitts et al., 2010 cutoff value of 5.24 L/s) and also at elevated risk for ineffective airway clearance. These two together indicate the possibility of both dysphagia and dystussia and would support the need for further objective swallowing and cough assessment. Additionally, objective peak flow values can be tracked over time to assess changes in cough effectiveness associated with disease

progression or in response to treatment and whether these are associated with an elevated risk for ineffective airway clearance. Furthermore, these values can guide the development of treatment goals which are of high clinical significance for the rehabilitation of voluntary cough dysfunction. For example, in a patient with reduced cough effectiveness and known swallowing safety deficits, the goal for improved cough strength could be set to 5.30 L/s, which corresponds with more than 80% clearance of aspirate material.

Penetration to the level of the vocal folds is a frequent finding in individuals with dysphagia and associated with an increased risk of pneumonia (Ekberg & Nylander,

1982; Pikus et al., 2003). Thus, it is important to determine whether voluntary cough airflow values are associated with effective clearance of penetration. In this study, the majority of cued coughs entirely cleared residue from the vocal folds, and we did not find a significant relationship between voluntary cough airflow and airway clearance. There are several potential explanations for these findings. Despite a wide range of cough airflow values, most coughs cleared penetration from the vocal folds, which might suggest that higher cough expiratory airflow values are not necessary for airway clearance and that the majority of our participants met the requisite cough strength. This perspective complements prior research in a heterogeneous cohort (traumatic brain injury, head and neck cancer, and stroke) demonstrating that reflex coughs can effectively clear penetration from the airway (Wallace et al., 2020). Alternatively, our retrospective design may have introduced sampling bias (e.g., more frequently cueing less impaired patients to cough during penetration) prohibiting the ability to detect an effect of cough strength on clearance of penetrant. Regardless, future prospective investigations will be required to understand this potential relationship.

This work highlights the need to further investigate the role of voluntary cough effectiveness on airway clearance in patients with dysphagia. Given the retrospective, exploratory nature of this study and the lack of standardized instructions or cueing across participants, sampling and selection biases are potential confounds. Furthermore, cough airflow data were not captured simultaneously during FEES in this study. Therefore, these results suggest an associative relationship, rather than a causal relationship, between voluntary cough airflow obtained during spirometric cough testing and airway clearance visualized during cued voluntary coughs on FEES. Other demographic or cough-specific factors may contribute to one's ability to expel penetrant or aspirate from the airway, including age, height, number of coughs, lung volume at cough initiation, or temporal and kinematic respiratory parameters. An interaction between cough airflow and aspiration location (i.e., depth) may also play an important role, although this study was underpowered to detect conventionally "small-to-moderate" effect sizes specific to aspiration depth. The amount of aspirate material present before a cued cough may also be a mediating factor in this relationship. It is also plausible that penetrant or aspirate material was inhaled further into the trachea during cued voluntary coughs, which we may not have been able to visualize on FEES. These will be important considerations for future well-controlled, prospective studies. It is important to note that cough airflow values (in particular peak expiratory airflow) may vary between spirometric equipment setups and peak flow meters. Therefore, future research will be necessary to determine cutoff values with low-cost tools that are easily implemented in clinical practice.

Conclusions

Voluntary cough dysfunction is highly prevalent across multiple patient populations and commonly used as a screening tool for swallowing safety deficits and potential target for compensatory and exercise-based dysphagia management. This preliminary, retrospective study supports the clinical utility of voluntary cough in dysphagia management given the findings of a relationship between voluntary cough airflow and clearance of aspiration from the subglottis in patients with neurodegenerative disease. Utilizing voluntary cough effectiveness cutoffs should be considered as a method to improve the identification of individuals at risk for swallowing safety airway clearance impairments. Additionally, these cutoff values can be used to select specific clinically meaningful cough treatment targets. Lastly, these values enable researchers to ensure adequate statistical power to detect clinically meaningful change related to effective airway clearance.

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

References

- Bach, J. R., & Saporito, L. R. (1996). Criteria for extubation and tracheostomy tube removal for patients with ventilatory failure. *Chest*, *110*(6), 1566–1571. <https://doi.org/10.1378/chest.110.6.1566>
- Bianchi, C., Baiardi, P., Khirani, S., & Cantarella, G. (2012). Cough peak flow as a predictor of pulmonary morbidity in patients with dysphagia. *American Journal of Physical Medicine & Rehabilitation*, *91*(9), 783–788. <https://doi.org/10.1097/PHM.0b013e3182556701>
- Boitano, L. J. (2006). Management of airway clearance in neuromuscular disease. *Respiratory Care*, *51*(8), 913–924.
- Chiara, T., Martin, A. D., Davenport, P. W., & Bolser, D. C. (2006). Expiratory muscle strength training in persons with multiple sclerosis having mild to moderate disability: Effect on maximal expiratory pressure, pulmonary function, and maximal voluntary cough. *Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation*, *87*(4), 468–473. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apmr.2005.12.035>
- Copay, A. G., Subach, B. R., Glassman, S. D., Polly, D. W., & Schuler, T. C. (2007). Understanding the minimum clinically important difference: A review of concepts and methods. *The Spine Journal*, *7*(5), 541–546. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.spinee.2007.01.008>
- Curtis, J. A., Borders, J. C., Perry, S. E., Dakin, A. E., Seikaly, Z. N., & Troche, M. S. (2021). Visual Analysis of Swallowing

- Efficiency and Safety (VASES): A standardized approach to rating pharyngeal residue, penetration, and aspiration during fees. *Dysphagia*, 1–19. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00455-021-10293-5>
- Curtis, J. A., Dakin, A. E., & Troche, M. S.** (2020). Respiratory–swallow coordination training and voluntary cough skill training: A single-subject treatment study in a person with Parkinson’s disease. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research*, 63(2), 472–486. https://doi.org/10.1044/2019_JSLHR-19-00207
- Dickey, B. F.** (2018). What it takes for a cough to expel mucus from the airway. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 115(49), 12340–12342. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1817484115>
- Dominelli, P. B., Ripoll, J. G., Cross, T. J., Baker, S. E., Wiggins, C. C., Welch, B. T., & Joyner, M. J.** (2018). Sex differences in large conducting airway anatomy. *Journal of Applied Physiology*, 125(3), 960–965. <https://doi.org/10.1152/jappphysiol.00440.2018>
- Ebihara, S., Saito, H., Kanda, A., Nakajoh, M., Takahashi, H., Arai, H., & Sasaki, H.** (2003). Impaired efficacy of cough in patients with Parkinson disease. *Chest*, 124(3), 1009–1015. <https://doi.org/10.1378/chest.124.3.1009>
- Ekberg, O., & Nylander, G.** (1982). Cineradiography of the pharyngeal stage of deglutition in 250 patients with dysphagia. *The British Journal of Radiology*, 55(652), 258–262. <https://doi.org/10.1259/0007-1285-55-652-258>
- Green, P., & MacLeod, C. J.** (2015). SIMR: An R package for power analysis of generalized linear mixed models by simulation. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 7(4), 493–498. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12504>
- Happel, K., Bagby, G., & Nelson, S.** (2004). Host defense and bacterial pneumonia. *Seminars in Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*, 25(1), 43–52. <https://doi.org/10.1055/s-2004-822304>
- Hasani, A., Pavia, D., Agnew, J. E., & Clarke, S. W.** (1994). Regional lung clearance during cough and forced expiration technique (FET): Effects of flow and viscoelasticity. *Thorax*, 49(6), 557–561. <https://doi.org/10.1136/thx.49.6.557>
- Hegland, K. W., Bolser, D. C., & Davenport, P. W.** (2012). Volitional control of reflex cough. *Journal of Applied Physiology*, 113(1), 39–46. <https://doi.org/10.1152/jappphysiol.01299.2011>
- Hegland, K. W., Okun, M. S., & Troche, M. S.** (2014). Sequential voluntary cough and aspiration or aspiration risk in Parkinson’s disease. *Lung*, 192(4), 601–608. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00408-014-9584-7>
- Hegland, K. W., Troche, M. S., & Davenport, P. W.** (2013). Cough expired volume and airflow rates during sequential induced cough. *Frontiers in Physiology*, 4, 167. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fphys.2013.00167>
- Hutcheson, K. A., Barrow, M. P., Warneke, C. L., Wang, Y., Eapen, G., Lai, S. Y., Barringer, D. A., Plowman, E. K., & Lewin, J. S.** (2017). Cough strength and expiratory force in aspirating and nonaspirating postradiation head and neck cancer survivors. *Laryngoscope*, 128(7), 1615–1621. <https://doi.org/10.1002/lary.26986>
- Khamices, M., Raju, P., DeGirolamo, A., Amoateng-Adjepong, Y., & Manthous, C. A.** (2001). Predictors of extubation outcome in patients who have successfully completed a spontaneous breathing trial. *Chest*, 120(4), 1262–1270. <https://doi.org/10.1378/chest.120.4.1262>
- Kim, J., Davenport, P., & Sapienza, C.** (2009). Effect of expiratory muscle strength training on elderly cough function. *Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics*, 48(3), 361–366. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.archger.2008.03.006>
- Kubo, H., Asai, T., Fukumoto, Y., Oshima, K., Koyama, S., Monjo, H., Tajitsu, H., & Oka, T.** (2020). Comparison of voluntary cough function in community—Dwelling elderly and its association with physical fitness. *Physical Therapy Research*, 23(1), 47–52. <https://doi.org/10.1298/ptr.E10007>
- Langmore, S. E., Terpenning, M. S., Schork, A., Chen, Y., Murray, J. T., Lopatin, D., & Loesche, W. J.** (1998). Predictors of aspiration pneumonia: How important is dysphagia? *Dysphagia*, 13(2), 69–81. <https://doi.org/10.1007/PL00009559>
- Logemann, J. A., Veis, S., & Colangelo, L.** (1999). A screening procedure for oropharyngeal dysphagia. *Dysphagia*, 14, 44–51. <https://doi.org/10.1007/PL00009583>
- Lorah, J.** (2018). Effect size measures for multilevel models: Definition, interpretation, and TIMSS example. *Large-scale Assessments in Education*, 6(1), Article 8. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40536-018-0061-2>
- Mazzone, S. B., McGovern, A. E., Koo, K., & Farrell, M. J.** (2009). Mapping supramedullary pathways involved in cough using functional brain imaging: Comparison with pain. *Pulmonary Pharmacology & Therapeutics*, 22(2), 90–96. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pupt.2008.08.003>
- Nakagawa, S., & Schielzeth, H.** (2013). A general and simple method for obtaining R² from generalized linear mixed-effects models. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 4(2), 133–142. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2041-210x.2012.00261.x>
- Nicod, L. P.** (1999). Pulmonary defence mechanisms. *Respiration*, 66, 2–11. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000029329>
- Pikus, L., Levine, M. S., Yang, Y.-X., Rubesin, S. E., Katzka, D. A., Laufer, I., & Gefter, W. B.** (2003). Videofluoroscopic studies of swallowing dysfunction and the relative risk of pneumonia. *American Journal of Roentgenology*, 180(6), 1613–1616. <https://doi.org/10.2214/ajr.180.6.1801613>
- Pitts, T., Bolser, D., Rosenbek, J., Troche, M. S., Okun, M. S., & Sapienza, C.** (2009). Impact of expiratory muscle strength training on voluntary cough and swallow function in Parkinson disease. *Chest*, 135(5), 1301–1308. <https://doi.org/10.1378/chest.08-1389>
- Pitts, T., Bolser, D., Rosenbek, J., Troche, M. S., & Sapienza, C.** (2008). Voluntary cough production and swallow dysfunction in Parkinson’s disease. *Dysphagia*, 23(3), 297–301. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00455-007-9144-x>
- Pitts, T., Troche, M. S., Mann, G., Rosenbek, J., Okun, M. S., & Sapienza, C.** (2010). Using voluntary cough to detect penetration and aspiration during oropharyngeal swallowing in patients with Parkinson disease. *Chest*, 138(6), 1426–1431. <https://doi.org/10.1378/chest.10-0342>
- Plowman, E. K., Watts, S. A., Robison, R., Tabor, L., Dion, C., Gaziano, J., Vu, T., & Gooch, C.** (2016). Voluntary cough airflow differentiates safe versus unsafe swallowing in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. *Dysphagia*, 31(3), 383–390. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00455-015-9687-1>
- R Core Team.** (2018). *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. R Foundation for Statistical Computing. <https://www.R-project.org/>
- Rosenbek, J. C., Robbins, J. A., Roecker, E. B., Coyle, J. L., & Wood, J. L.** (1996). A penetration-aspiration scale. *Dysphagia*, 11, 93–98. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00417897>
- Ross, B. B., Gramiak, R., & Rahn, H.** (1955). Physical dynamics of the cough mechanism. *Journal of Applied Physiology*, 8(3), 264–268. <https://doi.org/10.1152/jappl.1955.8.3.264>
- Silverman, E. P., Carnaby, G., Singletary, F., Hoffman-Ruddy, B., Yeager, J., & Sapienza, C.** (2016). Measurement of voluntary cough production and airway protection in Parkinson disease. *Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation*, 97(3), 413–420. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apmr.2015.10.098>
- Silverman, E. P., Carnaby-Mann, G., Pitts, T., Davenport, P., Okun, M. S., & Sapienza, C.** (2014). Concordance and

- discriminatory power of cough measurement devices for individuals with Parkinson disease. *Chest*, 145(5), 1089–1096. <https://doi.org/10.1378/chest.13-0596>
- Smith Hammond, C. A., Goldstein, L. B., Horner, R. D., Ying, J., Gray, L., Gonzalez-Rothi, L., & Bolser, D. C.** (2009). Predicting aspiration in patients with ischemic stroke. *Chest*, 135(3), 769–777. <https://doi.org/10.1378/chest.08-1122>
- Smith Hammond, C. A., Goldstein, L. B., Zajac, D. J., Gray, L., Davenport, P. W., & Bolser, D. C.** (2001). Assessment of aspiration risk in stroke patients with quantification of voluntary cough. *Neurology*, 56(4), 502–506. <https://doi.org/10.1212/WNL.56.4.502>
- Szeinberg, A., Tabachnik, E., Rashed, N., McLaughlin, F. J., England, S., Bryan, C. A., & Levison, H.** (1988). Cough capacity in patients with muscular dystrophy. *Chest*, 94(6), 1232–1235. <https://doi.org/10.1378/chest.94.6.1232>
- Tabor-Gray, L. C., Gallestagui, A., Vasilopoulos, T., & Plowman, E. K.** (2019). Characteristics of impaired voluntary cough function in individuals with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. *Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis and Frontotemporal Degeneration*, 20, 37–42. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21678421.2018.1510011>
- Toussaint, M., Boitano, L. J., Gathot, V., Steens, M., & Soudon, P.** (2009). Limits of effective cough-augmentation techniques in patients with neuromuscular disease. *Respiratory Care*, 54(3), 359–366.
- Troche, M. S., Schumann, B., Brandimore, A. E., Okun, M. S., & Hegland, K. W.** (2016). Reflex cough and disease duration as predictors of swallowing dysfunction in Parkinson's disease. *Dysphagia*, 31(6), 757–764. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00455-016-9734-6>
- Wallace, E., Macrae, P., & Huckabee, M.-L.** (2020). Objective measurement of acoustic intensity of coughing for clearance of penetration and aspiration on video-fluoroscopy. *International Journal of Speech-Language Pathology*, 23(3), 313–320. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17549507.2020.1784280>
- Watts, S. A., Tabor, L., & Plowman, E. K.** (2016). To cough or not to cough? examining the potential utility of cough testing in the clinical evaluation of swallowing. *Current Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation Reports*, 4(4), 262–276. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40141-016-0134-5>
- Westfall, J., Kenny, D. A., & Judd, C. M.** (2014). Statistical power and optimal design in experiments in which samples of participants respond to samples of stimuli. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 143(5), 2020–2045. <https://doi.org/10.1037/xge0000014>

Appendix A

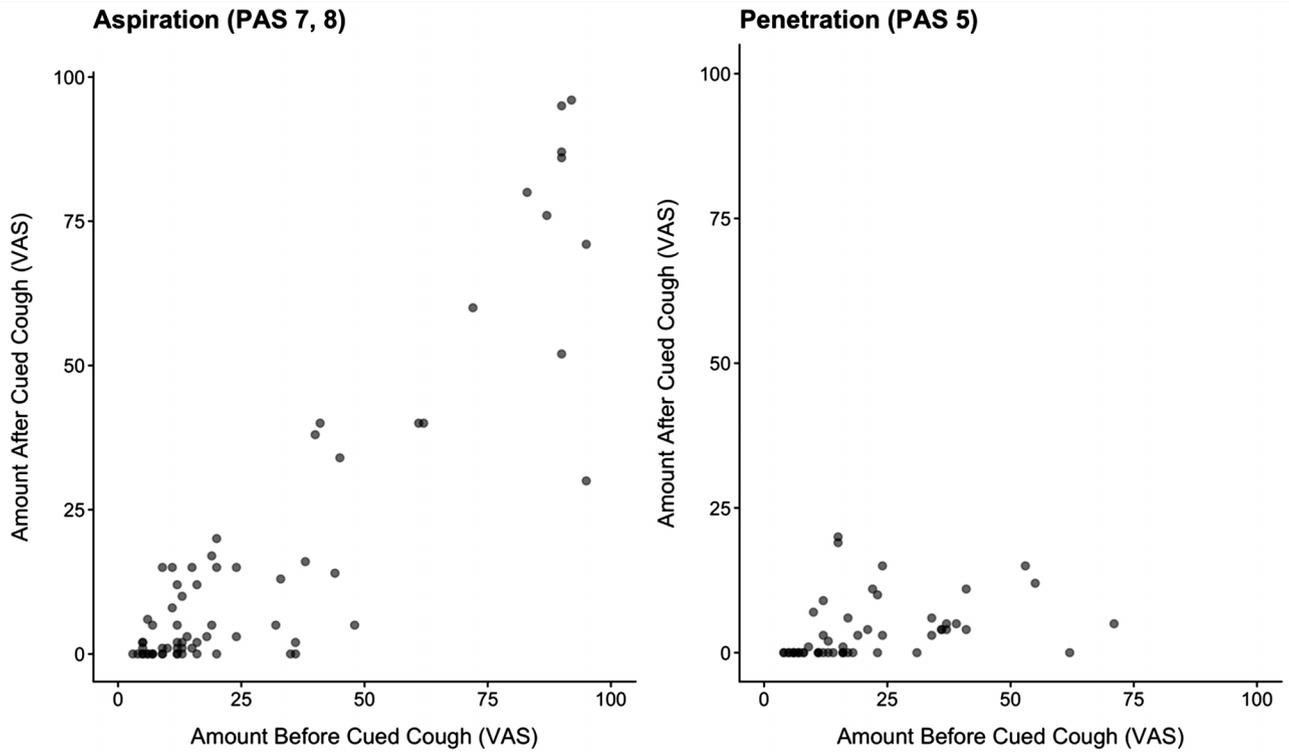
Sensitivity Power Analyses

| Aspiration power analyses | | |
|---|---|---|
| Outcome | Variable of interest | Minimum detectable effect size at 80% power |
| Proportion of residue expelled ^a | Peak expiratory flow rate | $f^2 = 0.13$ |
| | Cough expired volume (first cough) | $f^2 = 0.13$ |
| | Cough expired volume (entire epoch) | $f^2 = 0.10$ |
| | Cough volume acceleration | $f^2 = 0.14$ |
| | Main effect of aspiration location in peak expiratory flow rate model | $f^2 = 0.02$ |
| | Interaction of aspiration location and peak expiratory flow rate | $f^2 = 0.78$ |
| | Main effect of aspiration location in cough expired volume (entire epoch) model | $f^2 = 0.03$ |
| | interaction of aspiration location and cough expired volume (entire epoch) | $f^2 = 0.25$ |
| ≥ 25% Residue expelled ^b | Peak expiratory flow rate | OR = 3.33 |
| | Cough expired volume (first cough) | OR = 1.05 |
| | Cough volume acceleration | OR = 1.94 |
| ≥ 50% Residue expelled ^b | Peak expiratory flow rate | OR = 3.32 |
| ≥ 80% Residue expelled ^b | Peak expiratory flow rate | OR = 2.14 |
| | Cough expired volume (first cough) | OR = 2.90 |
| | Cough expired volume (entire epoch) | OR = 7.39 |
| | Cough volume acceleration | OR = 1.04 |
| 100% Residue expelled ^b | Peak expiratory flow rate | OR = 2.23 |
| Penetration power analyses | | |
| Proportion of residue expelled ^a | Peak expiratory flow rate | $f^2 = 0.13$ |
| | Cough expired volume (first cough) | $f^2 = 0.16$ |
| | Cough expired volume (entire epoch) | $f^2 = 0.16$ |
| | Cough volume acceleration | $f^2 = 0.17$ |

Note. All models include covariates of sex, number of coughs during flexible endoscopic evaluations of swallowing (FEES), and number of coughs during spirometric voluntary cough testing. Models with f^2 represent the amount of unique variance explained by the variable of interest, which was calculated from marginal pseudo- R^2 . All penetration analyses and seven aspiration binomial mixed models (cough expired volume [CEV] from first epoch and CVA for ≥ 50% and 100% residue expelled, and CEV from entire epoch for ≥ 25%, ≥ 50%, and 100% residue expelled) were not reported due to failure of these models to converge. OR = odds ratio.

^aLinear mixed-effects model. ^bBinomial mixed-effects model.

Appendix BRelationship Between Residue Amount Before and After a Voluntary Cued Cough



Note. PAS = penetration–aspiration scale; VAS = visual analog scale.

Appendix C (p. 1 of 3)

Fixed and Random Effect Estimates for Linear and Binomial Mixed-Effects Model

| Penetration Models | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|---|-----------------|------------------------|---------|---------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Outcome | Predictor | β coefficient (standard error) | 95% CI | Test statistic (df) | p value | Effect size | Intercept random effect SD | Residual random effect SD |
| Proportion of residue expelled | Intercept | 0.13 (0.26) | [-0.41, 0.67] | 0.50 (32) | .618 | | 0.17 | 0.33 |
| | PEFR | 0.16 (0.05) | [0.05, 0.26] | 3.09 (32) | .004 | $f^2 = 0.17$ | | |
| | Sex | -0.01 (0.15) | [-0.32, 0.30] | -0.07 (31) | .942 | $d = -0.02$ | | |
| | CrTot FEES | -0.04 (0.03) | [-0.10, 0.02] | -1.37 (32) | .181 | $f^2 = 0.02$ | | |
| | CrTot Spirometry | 0.04 (0.26) | [-0.02, 0.09] | 1.41 (32) | .167 | $f^2 = 0.02$ | | |
| Proportion of residue expelled | Intercept | 0.40 (0.25) | [-0.12, 0.91] | 1.57 (32) | .126 | | 0.22 | 0.33 |
| | CEV (first epoch) | 0.32 (0.17) | [-0.03, 0.67] | 1.85 (32) | .073 | $f^2 = 0.06$ | | |
| | Sex | -0.01 (0.16) | [-0.35, 0.33] | -0.07 (31) | .948 | $d = -0.02$ | | |
| | CrTot FEES | -0.05 (0.03) | [-0.11, 0.02] | -1.40 (32) | .171 | $f^2 = 0.03$ | | |
| | CrTot Spirometry | 0.04 (0.03) | [-0.02, 0.09] | 1.45 (32) | .157 | $f^2 = 0.03$ | | |
| Proportion of residue expelled | Intercept | 0.53 (0.22) | [0.08, 0.97] | 2.41 (32) | .022 | | 0.21 | 0.32 |
| | CEV (entire epoch) | 0.17 (0.08) | [0.02, 0.32] | 2.28 (32) | .029 | $f^2 = 0.07$ | | |
| | Sex | -0.08 (0.16) | [-0.41, 0.26] | -0.46 (31) | .647 | $d = -0.12$ | | |
| | CrTot FEES | -0.05 (0.03) | [-0.11, 0.02] | -1.56 (32) | .129 | $f^2 = 0.03$ | | |
| | CrTot Spirometry | 0.02 (0.03) | [-0.04, 0.07] | 0.65 (32) | .520 | $f^2 = 0.002$ | | |
| Proportion of residue expelled | Intercept | 0.34 (0.24) | [-0.15, 0.83] | 1.40 (32) | .172 | | 0.20 | 0.33 |
| | CVA | 0.01 (0.001) | [-0.001, 0.007] | 1.97 (32) | .057 | $f^2 = 0.07$ | | |
| | Sex | -0.09 (0.16) | [-0.41, 0.23] | -0.56 (31) | .576 | $d = -0.14$ | | |
| | CrTot FEES | -0.06 (0.03) | [-0.12, 0.004] | -1.90 (32) | .067 | $f^2 = 0.04$ | | |
| | CrTot Spirometry | 0.08 (0.03) | [0.02, 0.15] | 2.66 (32) | .012 | $f^2 = 0.11$ | | |
| $\geq 25\%$ residue expelled | Intercept | -2.10 (2.05) | [0, 0.93] | -1.02 | .307 | | 1.04 | 1.81 |
| | PEFR | 1.24 (0.53) | [0.22, 2.27] | 2.37 | .018 | $OR = 3.47$ | | |
| | Sex | 0.23 (1.18) | [-2.12, 2.53] | 0.19 | .847 | $OR = 1.25$ | | |
| | CrTot FEES | -0.21 (0.24) | [-0.67, 0.26] | -0.87 | .386 | $OR = 0.81$ | | |
| | CrTot Spirometry | 0.14 (0.23) | [-0.31, 0.59] | 0.61 | .542 | $OR = 1.15$ | | |
| $\geq 25\%$ residue expelled | Intercept | 0.84 (1.79) | [-2.66, 4.34] | 0.47 | .639 | | 1.20 | 1.81 |
| | CEV (first epoch) | 1.58 (1.30) | [-0.97, 4.12] | 1.21 | .225 | $OR = 4.84$ | | |
| | Sex | 0.11 (1.19) | [-2.21, 2.44] | 0.09 | .929 | $OR = 1.11$ | | |
| | CrTot FEES | -0.15 (0.26) | [-0.65, 0.36] | -0.57 | .568 | $OR = 0.86$ | | |
| | CrTot Spirometry | -0.001 (0.20) | [-0.39, 0.39] | -0.005 | .996 | $OR = 1.00$ | | |
| $\geq 25\%$ residue expelled | Intercept | 1.27 (1.60) | [-1.89, 4.46] | 0.79 | .431 | | 1.29 | 1.81 |
| | CEV (entire epoch) | 1.03 (0.75) | [-0.43, 2.50] | 1.38 | .169 | $OR = 2.81$ | | |
| | Sex | -0.24 (1.19) | [-2.53, 2.08] | -0.21 | .837 | $OR = 0.78$ | | |
| | CrTot FEES | -0.16 (0.25) | [-0.65, 0.34] | -0.65 | .519 | $OR = 0.85$ | | |
| | CrTot Spirometry | -0.12 (0.19) | [-0.49, 0.27] | -0.59 | .558 | $OR = 0.89$ | | |
| $\geq 25\%$ residue expelled | Intercept | 0.003 (1.78) | [-3.51, 3.50] | 0.002 | .999 | | 1.29 | 1.81 |
| | CVA | 0.02 (0.01) | [-0.01, 0.05] | 1.42 | .155 | $OR = 1.02$ | | |
| | Sex | -0.03 (1.23) | [-2.41, 2.38] | -0.03 | .980 | $OR = 0.97$ | | |
| | CrTot FEES | -0.26 (0.26) | [-0.78, 0.26] | -0.98 | .329 | $OR = 0.77$ | | |
| | CrTot Spirometry | 0.29 (0.28) | [-0.26, 0.84] | 1.05 | .295 | $OR = 1.34$ | | |

Appendix C (p. 2 of 3)

Fixed and Random Effect Estimates for Linear and Binomial Mixed-Effects Model

| Penetration Models | | | | | | | | |
|------------------------|--------------------|---|---------------|------------------------|---------|-------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Outcome | Predictor | β coefficient (standard error) | 95% CI | Test statistic (df) | p value | Effect size | Intercept random effect SD | Residual random effect SD |
| ≥ 50% residue expelled | Intercept | -2.79 (2.34) | [0, 1.79] | -1.19 | .233 | | 1.23 | 1.81 |
| | PEFR | 1.29 (0.60) | [0.10, 2.47] | 2.14 | .033 | OR = 3.63 | | |
| | Sex | -0.90 (1.27) | [-3.50, 1.58] | -0.71 | .478 | OR = 0.41 | | |
| | CrTot FEES | -0.21 (0.25) | [-0.69, 0.27] | -0.86 | .391 | OR = 0.81 | | |
| ≥ 80% residue expelled | CrTot Spirometry | 0.30 (0.26) | [-0.21, 0.81] | 1.16 | .248 | OR = 1.35 | 0.13 | 1.81 |
| | Intercept | -2.26 (1.51) | [-4.61, 0.69] | -1.50 | .133 | | | |
| | PEFR | 0.74 (0.31) | [0.14, 1.35] | 2.43 | .015 | OR = 2.10 | | |
| | Sex | 0.02 (0.82) | [-1.61, 1.64] | 0.98 | .978 | OR = 1.02 | | |
| ≥ 80% residue expelled | CrTot FEES | -0.29 (0.22) | [-0.73, 0.14] | 0.18 | .183 | OR = 0.75 | 0.47 | 1.81 |
| | CrTot Spirometry | 0.27 (0.18) | [-0.08, 0.62] | 0.13 | .133 | OR = 1.31 | | |
| | Intercept | 0.11 (0.92) | [-1.71, 1.91] | 0.12 | .907 | | | |
| | CEV (first epoch) | 1.46 (0.70) | [0.09, 2.84] | 2.08 | .038 | OR = 4.31 | | |
| ≥ 80% residue expelled | Sex | -0.49 (0.70) | [-1.84, 0.88] | -0.70 | .487 | OR = 0.62 | 0.54 | 1.81 |
| | CrTot FEES | -0.23 (0.14) | [-0.51, 0.04] | -1.67 | .095 | OR = 0.79 | | |
| | CrTot Spirometry | 0.20 (0.12) | [-0.04, 0.43] | 1.65 | .100 | OR = 1.22 | | |
| | Intercept | 0.51 (0.87) | [-1.20, 2.20] | 0.58 | .560 | | | |
| ≥ 80% residue expelled | CEV (entire epoch) | 0.77 (0.42) | [-0.04, 1.59] | 1.87 | .062 | OR = 2.17 | 0.52 | 1.81 |
| | Sex | -0.72 (0.71) | [-2.12, 0.67] | -1.01 | .312 | OR = 0.49 | | |
| | CrTot FEES | -0.23 (0.14) | [-0.49, 0.04] | -1.70 | .090 | OR = 0.79 | | |
| | CrTot Spirometry | 0.12 (0.12) | [-0.12, 0.36] | 1.01 | .315 | OR = 1.13 | | |
| ≥ 80% residue expelled | Intercept | 0.33 (0.93) | [-1.47, 2.15] | 0.36 | .721 | | 0.52 | 1.81 |
| | CVA | 0.01 (0.007) | [0, 0.03] | 1.68 | .092 | OR = 1.01 | | |
| | Sex | -0.76 (0.70) | [-2.12, 0.62] | -1.08 | .282 | OR = 0.47 | | |
| | CrTot FEES | -0.31 (0.15) | [-.60, -0.01] | -2.01 | .045 | OR = 0.74 | | |
| 100% residue expelled | CrTot Spirometry | 0.31 (0.14) | [0.03, 0.59] | 2.17 | .030 | OR = 1.36 | 0.05 | 1.81 |
| | Intercept | -3.44 (1.84) | [0, 0.16] | -1.87 | .061 | | | |
| | PEFR | 0.59 (0.31) | [-0.01, 1.19] | 1.91 | .056 | OR = 1.80 | | |
| | Sex | 0.42 (1.01) | [-1.56, 2.41] | 0.42 | .677 | OR = 1.52 | | |
| 100% residue expelled | CrTot FEES | -0.32 (0.23) | [-0.78, 0.13] | -1.38 | .169 | OR = 0.73 | | |
| | CrTot Spirometry | 0.36 (0.18) | [0.01, 0.71] | 2.03 | .043 | OR = 1.43 | | |

Appendix C (p. 3 of 3)

Fixed and Random Effect Estimates for Linear and Binomial Mixed-Effects Model

| Penetration Models | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|---|---------------|------------------------|---------|---------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Outcome | Predictor | β coefficient (standard error) | 95% CI | Test statistic (df) | p value | Effect size | Intercept random effect SD | Residual random effect SD |
| Proportion of residue expelled | Intercept | 0.88 (0.14) | [0.59, 1.18] | 6.11 (28) | < .0001 | | 0.08 | 0.24 |
| | PEFR | 0.03 (0.03) | [-0.03, 0.10] | 1.02 (22) | .320 | $f^2 = 0.02$ | | |
| | Sex | -0.13 (0.12) | [-0.37, 0.10] | -1.16 (28) | .256 | $d = 0.08$ | | |
| | CrTot FEES | -0.002 (0.02) | [-0.04, 0.04] | -0.15 (22) | .882 | $f^2 = 0.001$ | | |
| | CrTot Spirometry | 0.001 (0.02) | [-0.04, 0.04] | 0.03 (22) | .975 | $f^2 = 0.001$ | | |
| Proportion of residue expelled | Intercept | 0.87 (0.13) | [0.60, 1.14] | 6.52 (28) | < .0001 | | 0.05 | 0.24 |
| | CEV (first epoch) | 0.12 (0.11) | [-0.11, 0.34] | 1.05 (22) | .306 | $f^2 = 0.02$ | | |
| | Sex | -0.16 (0.11) | [-0.38, 0.07] | -1.44 (28) | .162 | $d = -0.33$ | | |
| | CrTot FEES | -0.01 (0.02) | [-0.05, 0.03] | -0.49 (22) | .629 | $f^2 = 0.001$ | | |
| | CrTot Spirometry | 0.02 (0.02) | [-0.02, 0.06] | 1.07 (22) | .296 | $f^2 = 0.001$ | | |
| Proportion of residue expelled | Intercept | 0.89 (0.12) | [0.64, 1.14] | 7.29 (28) | < .0001 | | 0.04 | 0.24 |
| | CEV (entire epoch) | 0.06 (0.07) | [-0.08, 0.19] | 9.00 (22) | .379 | $f^2 = 0.02$ | | |
| | Sex | -0.18 (0.11) | [-0.39, 0.04] | -1.68 (28) | .104 | $d = -0.36$ | | |
| | CrTot FEES | -0.01 (0.02) | [-0.05, 0.03] | -0.33 (22) | .746 | $f^2 = 0.001$ | | |
| | CrTot Spirometry | 0.02 (0.02) | [-0.03, 0.06] | 0.79 (22) | .435 | $f^2 = 0.001$ | | |
| Proportion of residue expelled | Intercept | 0.93 (0.13) | [0.66, 1.19] | 7.17 (28) | < .0001 | | 0.08 | 0.24 |
| | CVA | 0.001 (0.01) | [-0.01, 0.01] | 0.61 (22) | .549 | $f^2 = 0.005$ | | |
| | Sex | -0.16 (0.11) | [-0.39, 0.07] | -1.42 (28) | .167 | $d = -0.33$ | | |
| | CrTot FEES | -0.009 (0.02) | [-0.05, 0.03] | -0.45 (22) | .660 | $f^2 = 0.001$ | | |
| | CrTot Spirometry | 0.02 (0.02) | [-0.03, 0.06] | 0.72 (22) | .479 | $f^2 = 0.01$ | | |

Note. Sex reference level is female. CI = confidence interval; *df* = degrees of freedom; PEFR = peak expiratory flow rate; CrTot = number of coughs; FEES = flexible endoscopic evaluations of swallowing; CEV = cough expired volume; CVA = cough volume acceleration.