PHENOTYPING OF OBSTRUCTIVE AIRWAYS DISEASE

BY

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To Hannah, the best thing that has ever happened to me, thank you
for your love and unswerving support.

To Alex and Chloe, for giving me a sense of perspective and so much
joy in my life.

In Memoriam
Paul John Fingleton
1964 – 2012
ABSTRACT

BACKGROUND

Asthma and Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD) are heterogeneous disorders which may be made up of different sub-types, or phenotypes, of airflow obstruction with distinct clinical characteristics. To facilitate personalised treatment the different phenotypes and their response to treatment must be clearly defined and sound diagnostic rules developed.

In this thesis I explore the evidence supporting candidate phenotypes and report the results of my research, known as the New Zealand Respiratory Health Survey (NZRHS). The NZRHS was designed to determine candidate phenotypes, compare these phenotypes to those previously described, characterize their response to inhaled medication, and develop a method for allocating patients to the most appropriate phenotype.

RESEARCH AIMS

- To explore clinical phenotypes of chronic airways disease by cluster analysis.
- To examine if phenotypes identified by a previous cluster analysis exist in the independent NZRHS sample.
- To compare the response to a short-acting beta-agonist inhaler between phenotype groups.
- To compare the response to a short-acting muscarinic antagonist inhaler between phenotype groups.
- To compare the response to an inhaled corticosteroid between phenotype groups.
- To generate allocation rules and determine their predictive value for the different disorders of airways disease.
METHODS

This cross-sectional research was performed in three phases.

Phase 1

1,264 participants aged 18-75 with self-reported current wheeze and breathlessness were identified from a random population sample of 16,459 people.

Phase 2

451 symptomatic participants attended for detailed phenotyping, including responsiveness to inhaled salbutamol and ipratropium bromide.

Phase 3

168 steroid naive participants were enrolled in a prospective 12-week trial of budesonide, in which both investigator and participants were blind to cluster allocation.

Statistical analysis

Cluster analysis was performed using data from the 389 subjects who completed Phase 2 with full data. Phenotypes were determined by 13 variables based on medical history, lung function, clinical measures, and serum and exhaled breath biomarkers. The treatment responsiveness of the phenotypes was determined and an allocation rule generated to allow prospective identification of cluster membership.

FINDINGS

Cluster analysis identified five distinct phenotypic groups: ‘asthma/COPD overlap’, ‘moderate to severe atopic childhood onset asthma’, ‘mild atopic childhood onset asthma’, ‘adult onset obese/ co-morbid’, and ‘mild/ intermittent’. These phenotypes differ in key pathophysiological and clinical characteristics including responses to inhaled beta agonist, anti-muscarinic and corticosteroid treatments. It was possible
to allocate around 75% of participants to their designated cluster with the use of three readily available clinical features; Forced Expiratory Volume in 1 second (FEV1), age of onset, and Body Mass Index (BMI).

CONCLUSIONS

This research has identified phenotypes of airways disease that differ significantly in their clinical and pathophysiological characteristics. Evidence is presented to support the existence of the asthma/COPD overlap and obesity/co-morbid phenotypes and provide data of their responsiveness to inhaled corticosteroid, beta agonist and anti-muscarinic treatments, which may guide future management of patients with these phenotypes of obstructive airways disease.
To date, the following manuscripts and abstracts have arisen from or are linked to the research work presented in this thesis.


ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Research by its very nature builds on the work of forerunners and colleagues at the Medical Research Institute of New Zealand (MRINZ) and elsewhere. Without their hard work and insight this research would not exist. I am therefore grateful to many people, more than I can reasonably list here.

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My research owes a huge debt to all the people listed here. Any errors which remain are my own.

Thank you
This thesis is laid out in three parts, plus references and appendices.

**Part I**

In Part I the background to the research is outlined. Asthma and COPD are defined and the pathology and epidemiology briefly described. The concept of the phenotype is explained, together with an explanation of the potential benefits of phenotyping, before discussion of different approaches to phenotyping to date, including cluster analysis.

The concept and methodology of cluster analysis are discussed together with a systematic review of cluster analyses in obstructive airways disease. Finally, methodological issues in performing cluster analysis are discussed to highlight choices made during this research.

**Part II**

In Part II the rationale for the research is outlined and the aims and hypotheses specified. The design and methods of the research are then laid out in detail, including the statistical methodology.

**Part III**

In Part III each phase of the NZRHS is reported in sequence. The results of each phase are reported and discussed separately. Finally in chapter 12 the key findings are summarised and conclusions drawn, together with discussion of required future research.
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FEV1 Forced Expiratory Volume in 1 second
FRC Functional Residual Capacity
FVC Forced Vital Capacity
GINA the Global Initiative for Asthma
GOLD the Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease
GORD gastro-oesophageal reflux disease
HRCT High Resolution Computed Tomography
HSRCP high sensitivity C-Reactive Protein
ICS inhaled corticosteroid
IGE Immunoglobulin E
IL-4 Interleukin 4
IL-5 Interleukin 5
IL-13 Interleukin 13
KCOcorr transfer factor adjusted for lung volumes and corrected for haemoglobin
LABA long-acting beta-agonist
LAMA long-acting anti-muscarinic
LCA Latent Class Analysis
LTRA Leukotriene Receptor Antagonist
MCID minimum clinically important difference
MDI Metered Dose Inhaler
MRINZ Medical Research Institute of New Zealand
NETT National Emphysema Treatment Trial
NZ New Zealand
NZRHS New Zealand Respiratory Health Survey
OAD obstructive airways disease
PEFR Peak Expiratory Flow Rate
PCA Principle Components Analysis
PFT Pulmonary Function Test
PRISMA Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses
QOL Quality of Life
RCT randomised controlled trial
SABA short-acting beta-agonist
SAE Serious Adverse Event
SAM A short-acting muscarinic antagonist
SARP Severe Asthma Research Programme
SD Standard Deviation
SGRQ Saint George’s Respiratory Questionnaire
SQ screening questionnaire
TH2 T-cell helper 2
URTI Upper Respiratory Tract Infection
WRS Wellington Respiratory Survey
Part I

LITERATURE REVIEW
BACKGROUND

Asthma and Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD) are two very important diseases, both in New Zealand (NZ) and internationally. Together they are part of a group of conditions which cause narrowing of the airways and can be referred to as obstructive airways diseases (OADs). Asthma affects 15% of the NZ population [Holt and Beasley, 2001] and 300 million people worldwide [GINA, 2011]. COPD affects around 220,000 people in NZ [Town et al., 2003] and may affect 1 in 10 worldwide [GOLD, 2010].

The economic burden of these two diseases is substantial, with estimated overall costs of asthma to NZ of over $125 million and direct costs for COPD of up to $192 million per annum, at late 1990’s prices [Holt and Beasley, 2001; Town et al., 2003].

The burden of disease for an individual is very variable for both conditions. Most people with OAD will have some symptoms of shortness of breath, wheeze and/or cough, but the severity and response to treatment of these symptoms is highly individual [British Thoracic Society; Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network, 2012; GINA, 2011; GOLD, 2010]. Many people with OAD have minimal or easily controlled disease, however both asthma and COPD can give rise to severe and potentially fatal exacerbations; with the consequence that
COPD is currently the fifth commonest cause of death in NZ [Ministry of Health, 2010].

Choosing the most appropriate treatment for a particular person with airways disease is a decision reached jointly between the patient and their doctor, in the context of both relevant evidence from clinical trials and national and international guidelines [Rothwell, 2005]. The guidelines currently recommended by the Asthma Foundation of NZ are those issued by British Thoracic Society (BTS), 2012, although many clinicians will also consider the latest recommendations by the Global Initiative for Asthma (GINA) [GINA, 2011]. The most appropriate local COPD guidelines are the Australian and New Zealand guidelines for the management of Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD-X) [McKenzie et al., 2012], which draw their assessment of evidence from the latest guidelines produced by the Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease (GOLD) [GOLD, 2010]. Important considerations when relating evidence and guidelines to a specific individual are the pattern of disease, severity, previous response to treatment, and the results of any diagnostic tests which may inform treatment. Some combinations of these characteristics appear to represent distinct sub-types, or ‘phenotypes’ of the disease. The tailoring of treatment to an individual according to their phenotype is referred to as ‘individualised’, or ‘personalised’ treatment and it is believed that this has the potential to offer more effective treatment, with fewer side-effects [Anderson, 2008; Bousquet et al., 2011; Drazen, 2011; Fingleton et al., 2011; Han et al., 2010; Lötvall et al., 2011; Shirtcliffe et al., 2011; Weiss, 2012]. In order for personalised medicine to become a reality,
the different disease phenotypes must be adequately characterised and their patterns of response to treatment described [Han et al., 2010].

This literature review will explore the range of clinical patterns expressed by people with OAD and discuss the evidence relating to candidate phenotypes which have been described.

The following chapters of the literature review will briefly review the definitions of asthma and COPD, current models relating to their pathophysiology and the concept of the clinical phenotype. Different techniques used to explore phenotypes to date will then be discussed along with a systematic review of the existing literature on cluster analysis within COPD and asthma. The rationale, methodology and results of the research which forms the basis of this thesis will then be presented and discussed in Parts II and III.
The focus of this literature review is on different methods for describing potential phenotypes in OAD rather than the pathophysiology of individual phenotypes per se. In order to adequately describe the pathophysiology of a condition, people with the disease must be able to be distinguished from others with similar conditions. Attempts to define sub-types of disease tend to apply one of the guiding principles of taxonomy to diseases, in that individuals with similar clinical patterns of disease are thought more likely to have closely related pathophysiological mechanisms underlying their presentation [Snider, 2003].

The pathophysiology of both asthma and COPD are complex and rapidly changing fields and a full review of that literature is outside the scope of this review. This section summarises some of the key concepts and important points of difference in the two diseases as currently understood. Individual aspects will be discussed further where relevant to specific phenotypes.

When establishing a diagnosis, doctors obtain information by taking a medical history to elicit symptoms, risk factors and relevant past history, and by performing an examination. They then attempt to
synthesise this information and match it against known patterns of
disease to formulate a list of possible diagnoses. Once this differential
diagnosis has been constructed, the clinician can use various diagnostic
tests to confirm or refute the putative diagnosis. This process relies
on the existence of clear, well described, patterns of disease. However,
although the commonly used definitions of asthma and COPD are
quite distinct, and sometimes mutually exclusive, it has long been the
experience of doctors that in an individual patient the reality can be far
more complex.

One example of the gap between classical descriptions of asthma
and COPD and the reality is that of bronchodilator reversibility. When
assessing patients in clinic, and particularly in recruiting for clinical
trials, the degree of improvement in airflow provided by inhalers
which relax airway muscle (known as reversibility) is often used as
an objective measure to help confirm a diagnosis [British Thoracic
Society; Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network, 2012; GINA, 2011].
Definitions of asthma and COPD usually include statements that in
asthma the airway obstruction is partially or fully reversible and
that COPD causes irreversible or only partially reversible airways
obstruction. Accordingly, randomised controlled trials (RCTs) will often
require a certain level of reversibility for a patient with asthma to be
included and exclude patients who do not have significant reversibility
(commonly defined as a 12% improvement in Forced Expiratory
Volume in 1 second (FEV1) from baseline) [Travers et al., 2007a,b].
This means that one of the cardinal features of asthma is significant
bronchodilator reversibility, and yet it is well recognised that some
patients with asthma, especially those who have had the condition for many years, develop a degree of fixed airways obstruction [Bel et al., 2011; Contoli et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2011; Vonk et al., 2003]. Conversely, limited reversibility is one of the core characteristics in many definitions of COPD. However, it has been demonstrated that in well characterised populations of patients with COPD around 40% will have significant bronchodilator reversibility [Calverley et al., 2003]. These characteristics can fluctuate over a relatively short time-scale, meaning that the same patient could be classified as having asthma on one day and COPD the next [Calverley et al., 2003]. Other examples of characteristics which are classically associated with asthma but can co-exist in people who otherwise fit the pattern of COPD are atopy and bronchial hyperresponsiveness (BHR) to environmental stimuli [Postma and Boezen, 2004b].

There is therefore a significant degree of overlap in the clinical expression (phenotype) of these two conditions in patients. It is not known whether patients expressing an overlap phenotype are suffering from a different disease from those with apparently discrete asthma or COPD, or whether all phenotypes are part of a continuous spectrum of the same disease. The hypothesis that asthma and COPD are not distinct diseases was first proposed by Orie and colleagues in 1961 [University of Groningen, 1961]. They espoused the term Chronic Non-specific Lung Disease [CIBA Symposium, 1959] to cover the spectrum encompassed by asthma, chronic bronchitis and emphysema. This phrase has not been widely adopted, but the underlying concept that asthma and COPD are different expressions of a unifying disease
process with shared risk factors has come to be known as the ‘Dutch hypothesis’ and remains disputed [Barnes, 2006; Bleecker, 2004; Kraft, 2006; Postma and Boezen, 2004a; Vestbo and Prescott, 1998].

This is important because currently asthma and COPD are treated differently, particularly with reference to inhaled corticosteroid (ICS) therapy and use of long-acting beta-agonist (LABA) and long-acting anti-muscarinic (LAMA) inhaled therapies (Figures 2.1 and 2.2). Several classes of medication may be used in both asthma and COPD but the recommended thresholds and order of treatment differ. For example, ICS therapy is recommended for all but the mildest disease in patients with asthma. The British Thoracic Society (BTS), 2012 guidelines recommend that patients move from Step One to Step Two, and therefore start ICS, if they have symptoms or require their reliever 3 times a week, wake due to asthma symptoms once a week, or have had an exacerbation in the last year (Figure 2.1). However, a patient with a diagnosis of COPD would not start ICS treatment until they had severe obstruction, their symptoms worsened, or they had frequent exacerbations [GOLD, 2013; McKenzie et al., 2012] (Figure 2.2). Recommendations on LABA therapy also differ markedly, as can be seen in Figure 2.2. LABA monotherapy is currently recommended in people with moderately-severe COPD but it is contra-indicated in patients with asthma [Beasley et al., 2012; Chowdhury and Dal Pan, 2010; McKenzie et al., 2012; Medicines & Healthcare Products Regulatory Agency, 2010, Accessed 13th March 2013]. LAMA therapy is not currently routinely recommended in asthma, although there is some evidence of benefit in severe asthma and in
patients with features of both asthma and COPD [Bateman et al., 2010; Magnussen et al., 2008].

There may therefore be a disconnect between the relatively precise definitions and treatment recommendations in guidelines, and the complex, less well demarcated, patterns of disease expression seen clinically. Because the major RCTs are usually designed to provide evidence in those patients with classical asthma and COPD, we have very little evidence on which to base our treatment decisions for those patients with non-classical phenotypes. A study in NZ demonstrated that only 10% of patients with COPD and 4% of those with a diagnosis of asthma would meet the criteria for inclusion in the major clinical trials on which their management is based [Travers et al., 2007a,b]. We therefore do not have high quality evidence setting out the most appropriate treatment for the remaining 90-95%. This has led some commentators to recommend moving away from the diagnostic labels ‘asthma’ and ‘COPD’ towards specific phenotypes, which may show differing responses to treatment [Editorial, 2006; Shirtcliffe et al., 2011]. Possible phenotypes which have been described to date will be discussed further in chapters 3 and 4.

2.1 Definition and Epidemiology of Asthma

The word asthma has its origins in the Greek word ἀσθμα, meaning ‘to pant’ or ‘short of breath’. The earliest known description of asthma is that by Aretaeus the Cappadocian, who provided what would still be considered a recognisable description of common asthma symptoms [Holgate, 2010; Karamanou and Androutsos, 2011]. Whilst asthma
Inhaled short-acting β₂ agonist as required

There is no description of asthma and COPD.

**STEP 1**
Mild intermittent asthma
Add inhaled steroid 200-800 mcg/day*
400 mcg is an appropriate starting dose for many patients
Start at dose of inhaled steroid appropriate to severity of disease.

**STEP 2**
Regular preventer therapy
1. Add inhaled long-acting β₂ agonist (LABA)
2. Assess control of asthma:
   - Good response to LABA - continue LABA
   - Benefit from LABA but control still inadequate - continue LABA and increase inhaled steroid dose to 800 mcg/day* (if not already on this dose)
   - No response to LABA - stop LABA and increase inhaled steroid to 800 mcg/day.
   - If control still inadequate, institute trial of other therapies, leukotriene receptor antagonist or SR theophylline

**STEP 3**
Initial add-on therapy
Consider trials of:
- Increasing inhaled steroid up to 2000 mcg/day*
- Addition of a fourth drug e.g. leukotriene receptor antagonist, SR theophylline, β₂ agonist tablet

**STEP 4**
Persistent poor control
Use daily steroid tablet in lowest dose providing adequate control
Maintain high dose inhaled steroid at 2000 mcg/day*
Consider other treatments to minimise the use of inhaled steroids
Refer patient for specialist care

**STEP 5**
Continuous or frequent use of oral steroids
Move down to find and maintain lowest controlling step

* BDP or equivalent

Patients should start treatment at the step most appropriate to the initial severity of their asthma. Check concordance and reconsider diagnosis if response to treatment is unexpectedly poor.

**Figure 2.1:** Stepwise treatment of asthma in adults

Reprinted with permission of the British Thoracic Society.
# Typical Symptoms
- few symptoms
- breathless on moderate exertion
- recurrent chest infections
- little or no effect on daily activities

# Lung Function

**FEV1**
- FEV1 ≈ 60-80% predicted
- FEV1 ≈ 40-59% predicted
- FEV1 < 40% predicted

# Stepwise Management of Stable COPD

**Non-Pharmacological Interventions**
- Management of stable COPD should centre around supporting smoking patients to quit. Encouraging physical activity and maintenance of a normal weight range are also important. Pulmonary rehabilitation is recommended in symptomatic patients.

**Pharmacological Interventions**
- The aim of pharmacological treatment may be to treat symptoms, (ie breathlessness) or to prevent deterioration (either by decreasing exacerbations or by reducing decline in quality of life) or both. A stepwise approach is recommended, irrespective of disease severity, until adequate control has been achieved.

**Risk Reduction**
- Check smoking status, support smoking cessation, recommend annual influenza and pneumococcal vaccine according to immunisation handbook.

**Optimise Function**
- Encourage physical activity, review nutrition, provide education, develop GP management plan and initiate regular review.

**Consider Co-Morbidities**
- Especially osteoporosis, coronary disease, lung cancer, anxiety and depression.

**Refer to Pulmonary Rehabilitation**
- Consider oxygen therapy, surgery, palliative care and advanced care directives.

**Check Device Usage Technique and Adherence at Each Visit**
- Up to 90% of patients don’t use devices correctly.

**Symptom Relief**
- Long acting anticholinergic (tiotropium) and/or long acting beta2 agonists (salmeterol, eformoterol or indacaterol*).
- This may also help to prevent exacerbations. Once tiotropium is commenced, ipratropium bromide should be discontinued.

**Exacerbation Prevention**
- (When FEV1 < 50% predicted AND patient has had 2 or more exacerbations in the previous 12 months) inhaled glucocorticoids combined with long-acting beta2 agonist (fluticasone/salmeterol or budesonide/eformoterol). LABA monotherapy (eformoterol, salmeterol or indacaterol) should be ceased once combination therapy (ICS/LABA) is initiated.

**Short-Acting Reliever Medication**
- salbutamol or terbutaline or ipratropium bromide

**Check if roflumilast** or low dose theophylline is indicated.

---

* Indacaterol should not be used in asthma or mixed airways disease. A differential diagnosis should be made to exclude asthma or mixed airways disease before initiating indacaterol.

* Roflumilast is not yet available for use in Australia.
appears to have been recognised for at least 2000 years, its prevalence has increased significantly in the last 50 years [Braman, 2006], with marked variation in prevalence across the world. The highest asthma prevalences are seen in English speaking Western countries, and NZ has amongst the highest rates in the world [Asher et al., 2006; Beasley, 1998; Beasley et al., 2000; Holt and Beasley, 2001]. Childhood wheeze is reported in around 30%, with overall prevalence of asthma of around 15%. Rates vary significantly within different populations in NZ. Maori and Pacific populations have reported prevalences of 21.9% and 20% respectively, compared with a rate in the non-Polynesian population of 14.9% [Holt and Beasley, 2001].

GINA, a multi-national group attempting to improve the recognition, diagnosis and treatment of asthma, have defined asthma as:

"...a chronic inflammatory disorder of the airways in which many cells and cellular elements play a role: in particular, mast cells, eosinophils, T lymphocytes, macrophages, neutrophils, and epithelial cells. In susceptible individuals, this inflammation causes recurrent episodes of wheezing, breathlessness, chest tightness, and coughing, particularly at night or in the early morning. These episodes are usually associated with widespread but variable airflow obstruction that is often reversible either spontaneously or with treatment. The inflammation also causes an associated increase in the existing BHR to a variety of stimuli. Reversibility of airflow limitation may be incomplete in some patients with asthma."

[GINA, 2011]

It is notable that this new definition, established in 2004 [GINA, 2004], recognises the potential for patients with asthma to have only
partially reversible obstruction; although it stops short of explicitly acknowledging the existence of asthmatic patients with entirely fixed airways obstruction.

2.2 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF ASTHMA

Asthma is an inflammatory condition of the airways characterised by BHR, sensitivity to external stimuli, airway remodelling, and variable airflow obstruction [British Thoracic Society; Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network, 2012; Busse, 2010; GINA, 2011]. The airway inflammation and remodelling leads to a reduced diameter of the airways, increasing resistance to airflow and thereby the work of breathing, causing symptoms of shortness of breath. In addition to dyspnoea, many people with asthma will have other symptoms such as chronic cough or chest tightness. Commonly symptoms begin in childhood, although some people develop asthma for the first time in later life. The pattern of symptoms is highly variable between individuals and within an individual over time [British Thoracic Society; Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network, 2012; GINA, 2011]. The different patterns of disease described for asthma will be discussed in the following chapter on the phenotyping of OAD (chapter 3).

Inflammation

Asthma is generally understood to result from an allergic type inflammatory response to environmental stimuli, whether allergens or respiratory infections. The response is characterised by a pattern of
inflammation governed in part by the T-cell helper 2 cell type [Holgate, 2011; Robinson, 2010]. It is increasingly recognised that epithelial damage and impaired barrier function are important in establishing airway inflammation in asthma [Davies, 2009; Dekkers et al., 2009; Fahy, 2001; Holgate et al., 2009]. This inflammation leads to multiple structural changes in the airways of patients with asthma, including:

- Basement membrane thickening
- Sub-epithelial fibrosis
- Smooth muscle hypertrophy and hyperplasia
- Blood vessel proliferation
- Mucus hyper-secretion
- Epithelial changes

These structural changes lead to airway obstruction through airway thickening, with a consequent reduction in airway diameter, smooth muscle contraction and luminal obstruction by mucus. In addition the work of breathing increases as a result of reduced lung compliance, particularly in the setting of chronic inflammation. Over time these changes, collectively referred to as airway remodelling, may lead to irreversible or incompletely reversible airway narrowing [Dunnill, 1960; GINA, 2011; Hamid, 2012; James et al., 1989; Jeffery, 2001; Murphy and Byrne, 2010]

Inflammation is detectable in all patients with asthma although different patterns of inflammatory cells exist, and changes in the proportions of different inflammatory cells are not always well correlated with clinical outcome [GINA, 2011; Holgate, 1999].
Cell types which appear to be important in the establishment and maintenance of inflammation in asthma include T lymphocytes, activated mast cells, natural killer T cells, dendritic cells, basophils and eosinophils [Akbari et al., 2006; Brightling et al., 2000a, 2002; GINA, 2011; Holgate, 1999; Murphy and Byrne, 2010; Robinson, 2010]. The relative contribution of different cell types is still unclear, for example the interaction of T-cell helper 2 (Th2) and CD1 invariant natural killer T cells and the extent to which the balance between the cell types may affect the clinical presentation of asthma [Meyer et al., 2008; Murphy and Byrne, 2010; Robinson, 2010; Thomas et al., 2010; Umetsu and DeKruyff, 2010]. In addition, high levels of neutrophils are seen in some people with asthma, particularly patients with more severe disease and those on high levels of ICS [Douwes et al., 2002; Murphy and Byrne, 2010; Wenzel, 2006; Wenzel et al., 1997]. Inflammometry based phenotyping will be discussed further in chapter 3.

**Bronchial hyperresponsiveness and atopy**

BHR is a key component of asthma. Because the degree of BHR can be objectively characterised with bronchial challenge testing, this is a useful tool for exploring epidemiological association and inheritance patterns to try and understand the underlying processes contributing to the development of asthma [Busse, 2010; Weatherall et al., 2013]. For instance, BHR has been shown to be strongly associated with atopy [Boezen et al., 1996; Clifford et al., 1987; Holgate, 1999]. Atopy is defined as “The propensity to generate Immunoglobulin E (IgE) against
common environmental allergens” [Holgate, 1999], and often presents as eczema or allergic rhinitis.

The association between asthma and atopy suggests a degree of overlap in the aetiology, inheritance and pathophysiology of the two conditions [Clifford et al., 1987, 1989; Holgate, 1999; Postma et al., 1995]. However, within family groups a high IgE does not predict the development of asthma [Holgate, 1999], and not all people with asthma have elevated specific IgE to environmental allergens [Murphy and Byrne, 2010; Vijverberg et al., 2011].

Genetic contribution

Asthma arises from a complex interaction between an individual’s genetic predispositions and environmental exposures. That there is a significant genetic component to asthma has been confirmed through multiple inheritance studies. A child who has one parent with asthma has approximately double the general population risk of developing asthma [Clifford et al., 1987; Sibbald et al., 1980]. Evidence that this is not purely due to a shared home environment comes from twin studies which show that identical twins are far more likely to share asthma than non-identical twins [Sarafino and Goldfedder, 1995]. Inheritance is not due to any single gene but rather the interaction of multiple genes which affect the predisposition of an individual to a maladaptive response to stimuli. The overall heritability in asthma has been estimated at 40-60% [Adcock and Barnes, 2011] and a number of chromosomal regions have been highlighted as playing an important role. Perhaps the most widely reported of these is a chromosome region
on 5q which contains the genes for Interleukin 4 (IL-4), Interleukin 5 (IL-5) and Interleukin 13 (IL-13), and is associated with the development of asthma and atopy [Cookson and Moffatt, 2000; Postma et al., 1995; Sandford and Pare, 2000]. However, the contribution of specific polymorphisms to an individual’s risk of developing asthma is small and this has so far confined the role of genetic analysis to assisting with an understanding of the underlying pathophysiology rather than predicting outcome or treatment response. In time physicians may use knowledge of an individual’s genome to tailor their treatment, but trials stratifying participants according to β2-adrenergic receptor polymorphisms have not yet shown clinically important differences in response [Bleecker et al., 2007; Tse et al., 2011; Wechsler et al., 2009]. Accordingly this thesis will concentrate on those aspects of disease that may currently be measured in a respiratory clinic setting.

2.3 DEFINITION AND EPIDEMIOLOGY OF COPD

The term ‘Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease’ was popularised by Briscoe and Nash [1965] but the underlying manifestations of chronic bronchitis and emphysema were described many years before. The first pathological description may have been that by Bonet [1679] and the terms themselves were formalised at the Ciba Symposium [1959] [Petty, 2006]. In NZ, COPD is predominantly due to tobacco smoke inhalation [Broad and Jackson, 2003], however other inhaled toxins such as biomass smoke from cooking fires may be responsible for a significant proportion of COPD worldwide [Decramer et al., 2012; GOLD, 2010; Town et al., 2003].
COPD is estimated to affect around 15% of the population over the age of 45 in NZ. Rates in Maori populations are estimated to be more than twice as high, due at least in part to far higher rates of smoking. In the most recent report, [Ministry of Health, 2012] 18% of adult New Zealanders reported smoking in the last month, compared with 41% of Maori adults. The prevalence of COPD is increasing due to high rates of smoking over the last 50 years.

The consumption of tobacco has reduced markedly in NZ over the last 30 years [Broad and Jackson, 2003; Ministry of Health, 2012], but it will take many years before this change is reflected in changing incidence and prevalence rates of COPD. Men once made up the vast majority of COPD sufferers, but with changes in smoking patterns the prevalence of COPD in women has almost reached that of men [GOLD, 2010].

GOLD, an equivalent body to GINA, has defined COPD as follows:

“Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease, a common preventable and treatable disease, is characterised by persistent airflow limitation that is usually progressive and associated with an enhanced chronic inflammatory response in the airways and the lungs to noxious particles or gases. Exacerbations and comorbidities contribute to the overall severity in individual patients.”

[GOLD, 2013]

The persistence of the airflow limitation, and hence the limited reversibility, is here a defining characteristic of COPD.
2.4 Pathophysiology of COPD and Comparison with Asthma

Like asthma, COPD is an inflammatory condition of the airways which can lead to airway narrowing, but there are some differences in the inflammation seen when patients with asthma and COPD are compared [Fabbri et al., 2003]. As with asthma, patients with COPD exhibit day to day variation in symptoms and airflow obstruction but this is typically less marked, and the disease process is by definition not fully reversible with treatment [GOLD, 2010; McKenzie et al., 2012].

Diagnosis

Typical symptoms include dyspnoea, chronic cough and sputum production in the context of a history of significant tobacco smoke-, biomass smoke-, or occupational- exposure. The majority of patients will develop symptoms in later life, and COPD is rare in people under the age of 40.

The diagnosis is suspected clinically on the basis of a consistent history and clinical examination findings, but spirometry is required to confirm a diagnosis of COPD [GOLD, 2013; McKenzie et al., 2012]. The most commonly used criterion to diagnose significant airflow limitation is a post-bronchodilator FEV₁ to Forced Vital Capacity (FVC) ratio of less than 0.7 [GOLD, 2010]. This cut-off has the advantage of simplicity but it is known to miss significant disease in younger patients and may over-diagnose obstruction in elderly patients when compared with alternative cut-off’s such as the lower-limit of normal [GOLD, 2013]. This means that prevalence estimates may vary, depending on the cut-
off chosen [Celli et al., 2003; Mohamed Hoesein et al., 2011; Shirtcliffe et al., 2007; Swanney et al., 2008; Viegi et al., 2000].

Symptoms suggestive of asthma are similar to those above, but sputum production and cough are typically more prominent in COPD. Variability may be more prominent in asthma and the relative probability of asthma and COPD depends on a combination of factors, including age of onset, variability of symptoms, history of atopy and tobacco smoke exposure. No single feature of history or examination can reliably distinguish between asthma and COPD in older adults.

Inflammation

COPD is characterised by chronic inflammation in the airways in response to tobacco smoke and environmental exposures. The predominant cell types in COPD are CD8+ T lymphocytes, macrophages and neutrophils [Decramer et al., 2012; GOLD, 2013; Hogg, 2004; MacNee, 2005]. However, eosinophils are increasingly recognised as playing a significant role in some patients with COPD [D’Armiento et al., 2009; Perng et al., 2004], and sputum and blood eosinophil levels may predict response to steroid treatment and the risk of exacerbation on ICS withdrawal [Bafadhel et al., 2012; Brightling et al., 2000a, 2005; Liesker et al., 2011].

The structural changes seen in COPD include:

- Goblet cell metaplasia and mucus hyper-secretion
- Small airway fibrosis
- Parenchymal destruction
Different patients with COPD will show different patterns of inflammation. Classically the main patterns described are those of chronic bronchitis and emphysema. In chronic bronchitis there is inflammation in the walls of the bronchi and bronchioles. This causes stiffening of the small airways, reduced lung compliance, increased bronchial wall thickness and narrowing of the lumen, as well as mucus hypersecretion. This leads to shortness of breath by increasing the work of breathing both through increased airway resistance and reduced lung compliance. In emphysema there is expansion of distal airspaces through parenchymal destruction, which leads to dyspnoea through a combination of impaired gas exchange, air trapping and airflow obstruction, due to loss of the interstitial connections which prevent small airways collapse during expiration [Decramer et al., 2012; GOLD, 2010; Hogg, 2004; MacNee, 2005; Snider, 1989a,b].

The parenchymal changes seen in COPD can not be reversed with treatment and are progressive in nature, although the rate of progression is variable and can be altered by smoking cessation [Fletcher et al., 1976; Kohansal et al., 2009].

*Bronchial hyperresponsiveness*

BHR, although classically a key feature in asthma, can also be present in patients with COPD independently of whether they have a history of asthma [GOLD, 2010; Postma and Boezen, 2004a; van den Berge et al., 2012]. A study by Tashkin et al. [1996] reported significant BHR in over two thirds of subjects with mild-moderate COPD, and other groups have reported BHR prevalences of between 46 and 70% [Bahous et al., 1984;
Ramsdale et al., 1984; Yan et al., 1985]. BHR is also a risk factor for the future development of COPD, and for accelerated lung function decline in patients who already have COPD [GOLD, 2010; Tashkin et al., 1996].

The mechanism underlying the development of BHR may be different in COPD [van den Berge et al., 2012] but the overlap in results on methacholine challenge testing suggest that BHR, like the response to bronchodilators at a single visit, is of limited usefulness in distinguishing asthma from COPD in an individual patient [Calverley et al., 2003; Fingleton et al., 2012; Tashkin et al., 2008].

Co-morbidities and systemic inflammation

A key feature of COPD in some patients is its systemic effect. Populations of people with COPD have high rates of cardiovascular disease, stroke, diabetes and other co-morbidities [Agustí et al., 2012; Anthonisen et al., 2002; Barnes and Celli, 2009; Garcia-Aymerich et al., 2011; Hansell et al., 2003]. It is not clear whether the increased systemic inflammation seen in some COPD patients is due to "spill-over" from the lungs, or if both the co-morbidities and COPD are different expressions of an underlying process [Barnes and Celli, 2009; Fingleton et al., 2011; Garcia-Aymerich et al., 2011; Wouters et al., 2009]. The systemic inflammation leads to a cachectic state in some patients with COPD, resulting in loss of muscle bulk and potentially worsening comorbidities [GOLD, 2010].
Genetic contribution

As with asthma, COPD arises from an interaction between an individual’s genetic predispositions and environmental exposures. Sensitivity to the effects of tobacco smoke varies markedly between individuals, with some people developing little evidence of airways disease despite a lifetime of smoking. Approximately 10-15% of smokers develop COPD [Postma and Boezen, 2004a]. Family members of people with severe COPD have an increased chance of developing COPD if they smoke [McCloskey et al., 2001] and this may in part be due to differences in the protease/anti-protease balance in the lung [Barnes, 2000, 2004; Churg et al., 2012; Hunninghake et al., 2009].

There is one distinct subset of COPD with a predominant genetic component. People with α1-antitrypsin deficiency are at much higher risk of developing emphysema with even modest exposures to environmental toxins such as cigarette smoke. A variety of mutations can reduce the plasma level of α1-antitrypsin, and those which reduce the level of this enzyme below 11μmol/l are liable to cause clinically significant disease [GOLD, 2010; Stoller and Aboussouan, 2005].

2.5 Asthma / COPD overlap

The underlying pathophysiology of asthma and COPD are generally referred to as distinct [GINA, 2011; GOLD, 2013], and indeed when clinically clearly discrete groups are studied there are significant differences in the patterns of disease seen. Fabbri et al. [2003] studied two groups with chronic airflow limitation: a young onset group with atopic
asthma who had never smoked and a late onset group of smokers with clinical patterns matching classical COPD. Patients with a diagnosis of asthma had higher lung eosinophils, fewer neutrophils, higher Fraction of Exhaled Nitric Oxide (FeNO) and greater epithelial basement membrane thickening. The authors conclude that patients with asthma and COPD have distinct characteristics and should be clearly identified as having one or the other condition. However, Bourdin et al. [2004] report that endobronchial biopsy cannot discriminate between asthma and COPD in routine practice. It appears probable that the patients in whom the clinical diagnosis is unclear are also the most likely to have indeterminate results on pathological examination.

While the patterns of inflammation may differ in well characterised groups with different clinical phenotypes, it is not clear that the same is true in those patients in whom the clinical diagnosis is uncertain. In recent years it has been increasingly recognised that there is a group of patients with significant tobacco smoke exposure and incompletely reversible airways disease, but other characteristics more commonly seen in people with asthma [Gibson and Simpson, 2009; Kim and Rhee, 2010; Miravitlles et al., 2013; Piras and Miravitlles, 2012; Soler-Cataluña et al., 2012; Soriano, 2003; Wardlaw et al., 2005; Weatherall et al., 2009; Zeki et al., 2011]. This group is commonly referred to as the ‘overlap’ group due to the overlapping nature of their presentation between asthma and COPD. The phrase stems from the overlapping circles of a Venn diagram such as Figure 3.2 (page 36) and there can be overlaps between many disease patterns. Unless otherwise qualified, in this thesis ‘overlap’ refers to the asthma-COPD overlap group. Patients
in this group appear to have relatively severe airflow obstruction with marked variability, evidence of emphysema and atopy, and may have an accelerated decline in lung function [Gibson and Simpson, 2009].

The existence of an overlap group, whilst widely recognised, is not universally accepted. Some commentators perceive this group as simply representing a population who have co-existent asthma and COPD as separate processes, in whom it is challenging to make a definite diagnosis of asthma or COPD, but do not feel that this makes the overlap group a separate diagnostic category [Barnes, 2000, 2004; GOLD, 2013].

Table 2.1 summarises some of the reported patterns of disease for asthma, COPD and the overlap group. Our knowledge of the overlap group is currently limited. This is in part because there is no universally accepted definition, and therefore different studies may be characterising different populations under the same broad label. One group has produced a consensus document recognising the existence of the overlap group and making diagnostic and treatment recommendations [Soler-Cataluña et al., 2012], however the GINA and GOLD guidelines do not currently acknowledge the overlap group as a distinct clinical phenotype.

The concept and potential utility of clinical phenotypes will be summarised in chapter 3, with a description of candidate phenotypes described to date.
### Table 2.1: Typical Features of Asthma, Overlap group and COPD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DEMOGRAPHICS / RISK FACTORS</th>
<th>ASTHMA</th>
<th>OVERLAP</th>
<th>COPD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age of onset</strong></td>
<td>Early or Late onset, classically early-onset</td>
<td>Typically childhood onset with recurrence of symptoms in later life</td>
<td>Late onset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Smoking / pollutant exposure</strong></td>
<td>Similar to population levels</td>
<td>Majority</td>
<td>Majority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Atopy</strong></td>
<td>Majority &amp; a risk factor</td>
<td>Common</td>
<td>Less common, not a risk factor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<tr>
<th>SYMPTOMS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cough</strong></td>
<td>Common</td>
<td>Typical</td>
<td>Typical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wheeze</strong></td>
<td>Typical</td>
<td>Common</td>
<td>Common</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sputum production</strong></td>
<td>Common</td>
<td>Typical</td>
<td>Typical</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>BHR</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Direct BHR</strong></td>
<td>Typical</td>
<td>Typical</td>
<td>Common</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indirect BHR</strong></td>
<td>Typical</td>
<td>Typical</td>
<td>Limited / Absent</td>
</tr>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>LUNG FUNCTION TESTS</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Peak flow variability</strong></td>
<td>Typical</td>
<td>Typical, often moderate/severe</td>
<td>Present by definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Obstruction</strong></td>
<td>Common</td>
<td>Typical</td>
<td>Incomplete or absent by definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reversibility</strong></td>
<td>Present by definition, typically complete</td>
<td>Typical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transfer factor</strong></td>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>Reduced</td>
<td>Reduced</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<th>INFLAMMOMETRY</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>FeNO</strong></td>
<td>Variable $</td>
<td>Variable $</td>
<td>Variable $</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Raised Sputum Eosinophils</strong></td>
<td>Common</td>
<td>Common</td>
<td>Common</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Raised Sputum Neutrophils</strong></td>
<td>Common</td>
<td>Typical</td>
<td>Typical</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>TREATMENT GUIDELINES‡</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ICS</strong></td>
<td>In majority</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>In more severe patients</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LABA</strong></td>
<td>Common, never as monotherapy §</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Monotherapy common §</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LAMA</strong></td>
<td>Rarely, except in acute setting</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Common</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>PATHOLOGY</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Basement membrane thickening</strong></td>
<td>Prominent</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Limited or absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Smooth muscle hypertrophy</strong></td>
<td>Prominent</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Limited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mucus hyper-secretion</strong></td>
<td>Common</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Prominent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Epithelial changes</strong></td>
<td>Desquamation</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Metaplasia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emphysema</strong></td>
<td>Absent</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Typical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fibrosis</strong></td>
<td>Limited</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Prominent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparison of characteristics of asthma, COPD and the overlap group as generally described. The severity of individual components is highly variable, not all individuals will fit these patterns, and some individuals present with features of more than one condition. †May be reduced due to air trapping in severe or chronic asthma. ‡Based on current COPD-X and BTS guidelines, other groups have recommended the early use of ICS in the overlap group. [Soler-Cataluña et al., 2012] §Monotherapy refers to the use of LABA without regular ICS. $ Often elevated in corticosteroid responsive disease. ‡ The treatment and pathology of the overlap group have not been firmly established at this time.
3.1 WHAT IS A PHENOTYPE?

The phenotype of an organism is classically defined as:

*The observable properties of an organism that are produced by the interaction of the genotype and the environment.*

*Merriam-Webster [2013]*

This idea has been adapted for use in clinical medicine, where a disease process can affect individuals in more than one fashion. Doctors are used to seeing patients with the same disease affected in very different ways. These may be idiosyncratic differences, but if a particular pattern is seen recurrently it may be perceived as a distinct sub-type of disease. The concept of a clinical phenotype has emerged which (with reference to COPD) has been suggested by one group as being reserved for patterns of disease attributes that:

“...describe differences between individuals with COPD as they relate to clinically meaningful outcomes (symptoms, exacerbations, response to therapy, rate of disease progression, or death).”

*Han et al. [2010]*

The authors suggest that a pattern of disease should not be referred to as a phenotype until these criteria have been proven to be fulfilled.
An alternative approach which has been suggested by Anderson [2008] and endorsed by Lötvall et al. [2011] is the concept of the endotype (short for endophenotype). Anderson [2008] defined an endotype as:

"...a subtype of disease defined functionally and pathologically by a molecular mechanism or treatment response."

This definition was modified by Lötvall et al. [2011] to:

"...a subtype of a condition, which is defined by a distinct functional or pathophysiological mechanism."

This latter definition removes the reference to treatment response and thereby focuses purely on the underlying disease process. Supporters of this approach would suggest that endotypes do not replace phenotypes, they simply operate at a different level (Figure 3.1).

![Diagram showing the suggested place of endotypes in asthma. Endotypes would be distinct disease entities underlying the clinical presentation characterised by phenotypes. Reproduced with permission from Lötvall et al. [2011]](image-url)

This would require a more limited interpretation of phenotype, in that once an observable characteristic is defined by a specific biological
mechanism it would cease to be a phenotype and become an endotype. For example, aspirin-sensitive asthma is generally accepted to be a phenotype of asthma [British Thoracic Society; Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network, 2012; GINA, 2011; Wenzel, 2006] but according to the consensus statement by Lötvall et al. [2011] it should be regarded as an endotype. Another example of a characteristic that has been described both as a phenotype and endotype is neutrophilic asthma [Anderson, 2008; Wenzel, 2006].

Within this thesis the word ‘phenotype’ refers to any sub-type of disease that can be determined according to the observable characteristics of the individual. Whether these phenotypes should be seen as aspects of disease, disease variants, different disease entities, or simply descriptors of parts of a spectrum will be discussed in Part III.

3.2  POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF PHENOTYPING

Phenotyping of different types of airways disease is not a matter of purely academic interest, as it may have important ramifications for our understanding of the different sub-types. Disease phenotypes may differ in:

- risk factors
- natural history
- aetiology
- pathophysiology
- treatment responsiveness

and may be best monitored with different techniques [Fingleton and Beasley, 2012; Fingleton et al., 2011; Han et al., 2010; Weiss, 2012].
One example of these differences is the suggested frequent exacerbator phenotype in patients with COPD [Donaldson et al., 2002; GOLD, 2013; Hurst et al., 2010; Makris et al., 2007]. Some individuals with COPD have relatively frequent exacerbations, and this is associated with a more rapid decline in FEV\textsubscript{1} [Donaldson et al., 2002; Makris et al., 2007] and an increased mortality and morbidity [Hurst and Wedzicha, 2009; Soler-Cataluña et al., 2005]. Although there is a positive association between severity of obstruction and exacerbation frequency, the best predictor of future exacerbations is the patient’s personal history [Donaldson and Wedzicha, 2006; Hurst et al., 2010]. These results strongly suggest that frequent exacerbations of COPD identify a distinct clinical phenotype which has a different natural history. Studying clinical phenotypes may allow us to identify differences in the underlying pathogenesis, which in turn will allow a greater understanding of the disease process and may allow targeted phenotype specific treatment [Anderson, 2008; Bousquet et al., 2011; Drazen, 2011; Fingleton and Beasley, 2012; Fingleton et al., 2011; Han et al., 2010; Lötvall et al., 2011; Shirtcliffe et al., 2011; Weiss, 2012].

The current use of personalised treatment according to phenotypes in OAD is relatively limited, due to the incomplete evidence base. However, there are examples within both asthma and COPD. Within COPD, the frequent exacerbator group may preferentially benefit from combination ICS and LABA due to their higher rate of future exacerbations and lung function decline [Calverley et al., 2007; Hurst and Wedzicha, 2009; Hurst et al., 2010]; the National Emphysema Treatment Trial (NETT) analysis demonstrated that lung volume reduction surgery
was likely to be beneficial in individuals with upper lobe predominant emphysema and poor exercise tolerance, but inappropriate in other groups [National Emphysema Treatment Trial Group, 2003]; and the phosphodiesterase type 4 inhibitor roflumilast may have a limited role in patients with multiple exacerbations and a chronic bronchitic phenotype [Calverley et al., 2009; Chong et al., Accessed 23rd April 2013; Fabbri et al., 2009; Rennard et al., 2011].

Within asthma, potential examples of personalised medicine include the biological agents, where monoclonal antibodies to specific targets are used to try and reduce lung inflammation. This group of medications includes the anti-IgE therapy omalizumab [Bousquet et al., 2004], anti-IL-5 agents such as mepolizumab [Pavord et al., 2012], and the newer IL-13 agents lebrikizumab [Corren et al., 2011; Drazen, 2011] and tralokinumab [Piper et al., 2012]. These high cost medications have so far not been demonstrated to be appropriate for use in the wider population with asthma. However, within subgroups of patients with frequent exacerbations and moderate to severe disease there is evidence that they may be of greater benefit. One example of this is with early studies of the anti IL-5 agent mepolizumab. The expectation prior to clinical trials was that blockade of IL-5 would lead to a substantial reduction of eosinophils in the airways and an improvement in asthma symptoms. The expected reduction in eosinophils was demonstrated but this was not accompanied by an improvement in BHR or clinical characteristics [Flood-Page et al., 2007, 2003; Leckie et al., 2000]. Mepolizumab may however reduce exacerbation rates in a sub-
group of patients with severe refractory eosinophilic asthma [Haldar et al., 2009; Pavord et al., 2012].

Differences in treatment responsiveness between phenotypes may be due to differences in the underlying pathophysiology, for instance aspirin-sensitive asthma may show an enhanced response to Leukotriene Receptor Antagonists (LTRAs) because of the up-regulation of cysteinyl leukotriene production and receptor expression in these pathways [Israel, 2000; Park et al., 2010; Schafer and Maune, 2012; Sousa et al., 2002; Teran et al., 2012]. However in other situations, such as the restriction of omalizumab use to patients with severe asthma and frequent exacerbations, the benefits of targeted treatment may stem from the fact that those patients at highest risk of exacerbation have the greatest chance of demonstrating benefit from a therapy of marginal efficacy. The description of clinical phenotypes with different risk factors, natural histories or treatment responses may therefore suggest differences in the underlying pathophysiology, but not all phenotypes will be shown to have distinct pathophysiological mechanisms.

3.3 Phenotyping of Airways Disease Pre Cluster Analysis

COPD was first defined in 1964 and the terminology was progressively adopted thereafter [Mitchell and Filley, 1964]. Prior to this patients with OAD who had smoked were classified as having chronic bronchitis or emphysema depending on their level of cough, airway narrowing and lung destruction. The heterogeneous nature of COPD was recognised long before the term was popularised by Briscoe and Nash [Briscoe and Nash, 1965; Nash et al., 1965] and the original classifications of
chronic bronchitis and emphysema remain more recognisable to the general public than the term COPD. In order to better understand the different clinical pictures seen by doctors, a variety of methods have been used to explore the different phenotypes of COPD. Early studies constructed groups based on recognised clinical patterns, informed by those variables which were significantly associated with outcome. For example Burrows et al. [1987] described three groups within sufferers of chronic airways obstruction, Group 1 "considered to have features most characteristic of chronic asthma", Group 3 "non-atopic smokers without known asthma" and Group 2 "an intermediate group".

Following on from studies such as these came the construction of the original non-proportional diagram for COPD [Snider, 1989a] and its incorporation into the 1995 American Thoracic Society (ATS) guidelines [American Thoracic Society, 1995] (Figure 3.2).

Subsequent refinements of the Venn diagram approach have described at least 15 phenotypes, with more recent population samples allowing the construction of proportional Venn diagrams [Marsh et al., 2008; Soriano, 2003; Viegi et al., 2004] (Figure 3.3). However the response to treatment and pathogenesis of these sub-groups are not well understood [Marsh et al., 2008].

Phenotypes in asthma have been explored with similar methods to those used to characterise COPD, and a variety of possible phenotypes have been described [Bel, 2004; Wenzel, 2006]. Venn diagrams have also been constructed for asthma, with the most recent [Wenzel, 2006] describing 13 possible phenotypes (Figure 3.4).
Figure 3.2: The original non-proportional Venn diagram for COPD

Schema of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. This nonproportional Venn diagram shows subsets of patients with chronic bronchitis, emphysema, and asthma. The subsets comprising COPD are shaded.
Reprinted with permission of the American Thoracic Society.

The paper by Wenzel [2006] highlights the different approaches which can be used to describe phenotypes, including clinical and physiological parameters, measures of inflammation and characterisation according to disease triggers. The list below highlights some of the major candidate phenotypes for asthma and COPD described prior to the use of cluster analysis methodologies.

Aetiology / precipitant based phenotyping:

- Occupational asthma [British Thoracic Society (BTS), 2012; GINA, 2012]
3.3 PHENOTYPING OF AIRWAYS DISEASE PRE CLUSTER ANALYSIS

Figure 3.3: Proportional Venn diagrams in Obstructive Airways Disease

(a) Reproduced from Soriano [2003] with permission from the American College of Chest Physicians

(b) Reproduced from Viegi et al. [2004] with permission from the American College of Chest Physicians

(c) Reproduced from Marsh et al. [2008] with permission from BMJ Publishing Group Ltd.
Figure 3.4: Candidate Phenotypes of Asthma. Reproduced from Wenzel [2006]

PMA = Peri Menstrual Asthma

- Aspirin sensitive asthma [British Thoracic Society (BTS), 2012; GINA, 2012]
- Exercise associated asthma [British Thoracic Society (BTS), 2012; GINA, 2012]
- Non-smoking-related COPD [Birring et al., 2002; Zeng et al., 2012]
- Early/Late-onset asthma [Wenzel, 2006]
3.3 Phenotyping of Airways Disease Pre Cluster Analysis

- Atopic / non-atopic asthma [Wenzel, 2006]

Inflammation based phenotyping: [Fahy, 2009; Saha and Brightling, 2006]
  - Eosinophilic asthma/COPD
  - Non-eosinophilic asthma/COPD

Symptom based phenotyping:
  - Cough-variant asthma [GINA, 2012]

Healthcare usage based phenotyping:
  - Frequent exacerbator- applies to both COPD and asthma [GINA, 2011; GOLD, 2013]

Other phenotypes:
  - Asthma/COPD overlap [GINA, 2012]

As can be seen by the wide variety of potential phenotypes, the clinical presentation of both asthma and COPD is highly variable. This may result either from differences in severity or differences in the underlying pattern of disease. For example, exercise induced/associated asthma is a well-recognised sub-type of asthma [British Thoracic Society; Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network, 2012; GINA, 2011; Wenzel, 2006] but symptoms of asthma with exercise may either reflect underlying airway narrowing due to partially controlled asthma, or may be due to bronchoconstriction in response to exercise. These two different aetiologies can present with the same symptoms, and highlight the difficulties which can be encountered when linking symptom profiles to the underlying physiological state. As a result, there is interest in the potential for measures of inflammation (inflammetry)
and other biomarkers to act as indicators of treatment responsiveness and disease activity.

Inflammometry may be performed by obtaining cellular samples from the lung, usually by induced sputum, and performing a differential cell count to assess the proportions of eosinophils and neutrophils in the airway, or can be assessed through measurement of exhaled nitric oxide levels. The observation that high eosinophil levels in the sputum was associated with a good response to oral steroids was first reported by Brown [1958] but safe and reproducible methods for sputum induction were not described in the literature until the 1990’s [Fahy et al., 1993; Hargreave and Leigh, 1999; Kips et al., 1998; Pavord et al., 1997; Pin et al., 1992]. Over the last 20 years studies have described three main patterns seen with sputum induction, ‘eosinophilic’—defined as a differential cell count of >3% eosinophils, ‘neutrophilic’—raised neutrophils but <3% eosinophils, and ‘pauci-granulocytic’—no excess of inflammatory cells [Green et al., 2002]. It is important to note that eosinophilic samples will often also have raised neutrophils, with some groups distinguishing between ‘eosinophilic’ and ‘mixed-granulocytic’ forms, where the latter has both raised neutrophils and a high proportion of eosinophils. Sputum eosinophilia has been shown to predict response to steroids in both asthma and COPD [Berry et al., 2007; Brightling et al., 2000b, 2005; Gonem et al., 2012] and there is evidence of improved clinical outcomes or reduced steroid burden in the majority of trials using induced sputum to guide treatment [Pavord and Gibson, 2012]. However the technical challenges associated with sputum induction have precluded widespread clinical
use [Petsky et al., 2012] and there has been interest in using FeNO as a more easily measurable marker of eosinophilia and predictor of steroid response [Shaw et al., 2007; Silkoff et al., 2000; Smith et al., 2005; Taylor et al., 2006]. FeNO is highly associated with sputum eosinophilia but is also a predictor of steroid responsiveness in its own right. However, trials using FeNO to guide therapy have not yet shown a clear benefit [Pavord and Gibson, 2012; Petsky et al., 2012]. Inflammometry therefore highlights the heterogeneous nature of asthma and COPD but the current evidence base does not support the widespread use of inflammometry to determine management.

The emerging field of systems biology, which includes the disciplines of metabolomics, proteomics and genomics amongst others, is greatly increasing the complexity and variety of descriptors which are available to characterise phenotypes of disease [Agustí et al., 2010; Bousquet et al., 2011]. In light of the many different variables by which patterns of obstructive airways disease can now be described, the focus has turned to multivariate statistical techniques to help interpret this wealth of data.

**Multivariate Techniques**

Group definition based on the subjective interpretation of data collected from a population tends to describe groups which match existing beliefs about the patterns of disease. These hypotheses can then be tested but the original hypothesis remains vulnerable to individual bias. More recently there have been attempts to explore phenotypes with methods which are less reliant on a priori assumptions. In view of the
large number of potentially important but overlapping variables, the focus has turned to multivariate statistical approaches such as Factor Analysis (FA) and, more recently, cluster analysis.

FA, and particularly Principle Components Analysis (PCA), are statistical methods which can be applied to large data-sets containing multiple variables. Factors are generated which are a combination of scaled original variables and which each describe a proportion of the variability within the study population. The combination of particular variables within the same factor may indicate a relationship due to the underlying pathophysiology and hence may support the description of particular phenotypes based on the different factors. The allocation of variables to factors is determined by the statistical procedure used rather than according to existing hypotheses and so is less susceptible to bias. The choice of variables can however greatly affect the outcome and so it is not immune to a priori assumptions.

Use of FA has provided evidence for measures of obstruction [Lapperre et al., 2004; Mahler and Harver, 1992; Wegner et al., 1994], hyperinflation [Wegner et al., 1994], exercise tolerance [Ries et al., 1991; Wegner et al., 1994], airway hyper-responsiveness / reversibility [Lapperre et al., 2004] measures of inflammation [Lapperre et al., 2004; Roy et al., 2009], and dyspnoea/health related quality of life [Fuchs-Climent et al., 2001; Mahler and Harver, 1992; Wegner et al., 1994] as independent components of COPD phenotypes. Within asthma, FA has been used to explore the relationship between quality of life and asthma severity [Juniper et al., 2004], to describe groups of characteristics which may be useful in disease phenotyping [Holberg
et al., 2001; Pillai et al., 2008], to suggest that markers of atopy and measures of airway inflammation are separate dimensions of asthma [Leung, 2005], and to guide assessment of the patient with acute severe asthma [Rodrigo and Rodrigo, 1993].

Whilst FA and PCA are useful in determining which variables are responsible for the majority of variability within a group; they cannot be used to allocate individuals to sub-groups determined by these differences [Weatherall et al., 2010]. There is now a burgeoning interest in techniques which can allocate individuals to particular sub-groups in a relatively unbiased way. One such group of methods used to explore data and generate possible phenotypes is cluster analysis. The principles behind cluster analysis and the relevant literature will be summarised in chapter 4.
4.1 BACKGROUND

Cluster analysis techniques aim to find groups within a set of data. They do this by using variables (clinical measurements, blood tests, medical history, etc...) to assess the degree of difference between individuals and then create two or more clusters where people within the cluster are as similar to one another as possible, and as different from the other cluster as possible. The major strength of cluster analysis methodology is that it minimises a priori assumptions about the groups contained within the data and it may therefore be less susceptible to bias [Weatherall et al., 2010].

The concept behind cluster analysis can be illustrated with the following hypothetical example. A researcher has information about the characteristics (variables A, B, C, ...) of a population and wishes to know if there are distinct groups within the population. The ease with which groups can be described depends on the number of variables required to describe differences between the groups. If there were two groups within the population and one variable (A) adequately described all the variation in the population, then by simply plotting the distribution of A the researcher would see the bimodal distribution
(Figure 4.1) and infer the existence of two groups. However, if the variation in the population is described by multiple variables, each contributing only a portion of the variability, the distribution of any one variable will not allow the researcher to determine the existence of groups within the data.

![Density plot showing a bimodal distribution](image)

Figure 4.1: Density plot showing a bimodal distribution

If the researcher suspects that a particular combination of 2 variables defines the groups then the variables can be plotted and the plot examined for groupings. In this example, plotting variables A and B strongly suggests the existence of two groups, X and Y (Figure 4.2). Plots can be extended into three dimensions, but once more than three variables are required to describe the variation in a population we require multidimensional mathematical techniques to describe and display the data. Cluster analysis, as stated previously, has the advantage over other multivariate techniques such as FA in that it can be used to estimate the number of groups in a dataset and allocate
Variables A and B have been plotted on the x and y axes respectively. Individuals are represented by the black dots. Examination of the plot suggests the existence of two distinct groups, X and Y, highlighted by the red circles.

Individuals to particular groups. There are many different cluster analysis techniques, and the selection of particular aspects will be discussed in section 4.4; but the concept will be illustrated by applying one commonly used technique, known as hierarchical cluster analysis, to the hypothetical example above. To illustrate the process clearly only 2 variables (A and B) and 10 individuals will be used.

Hierarchical cluster analysis finds clusters by systematically grouping together (agglomerative) or splitting apart (divisive) the individuals in a dataset according to how similar they are. In this example agglomerative cluster analysis will be used. Agglomerative hierarchical cluster analysis starts with each individual representing a separate cluster, so in this example there would be 10 clusters, each with one member (Figure 4.3).

The difference between each individual, or dissimilarity, as described by the two variables is calculated using a measure called a distance
Variables A and B have been plotted on the x and y axes respectively. Individuals are represented by the black dots, clusters by red circles. At the start of the analysis each individual is in a cluster of one.

 metric. In the case of the commonly used Euclidean distance metric, this is analogous to calculating the length of the hypotenuse for a right angle triangle when given the length of the other two sides (Figure 4.4).

Figure 4.3: Starting point of an agglomerative hierarchical cluster analysis

Figure 4.4: Representation of Euclidean distance metric

The euclidean distance ($x$) between two points can be seen in this two dimensional representation to be analogous to the hypotenuse in a right angle triangle. 

$\delta A$: Distance between two points along axis A. $\delta B$: Distance between two points along axis B.
The euclidean distance between two individuals can be read off the distance matrix. For instance, the distance between individuals 1 and 2 is 7.516648.

Unlike the hypotenuse, the euclidean distance can be calculated with many more than two input variables. Each additional variable adds a dimension to the calculation, therefore with \( n \) variables the distance between the two points is calculated in \( n \) dimensional space. The calculated distances are stored in a distance matrix (Table 4.1) and can then be compared. At each step of the cluster analysis the two clusters which are most similar to one another, i.e. have the smallest distance between them, are merged.

The first step of the cluster analysis is to determine the two most similar clusters, according to the distance metric, which are then combined to form a cluster with two members (Figure 4.5).

The distance between each cluster is then recalculated and the two closest clusters merged to leave a total of 8 clusters (Figure 4.6).

Multiple iterations of this process are carried out until there is only one cluster containing all 10 members (Figure 4.7).

The results of this process can be visualised as a dendrogram (Figure 4.8) which shows a tree structure illustrating the progressive
Figure 4.5: Progression of an agglomerative hierarchical cluster analysis

The two closest clusters have merged to form a cluster containing two individuals. Layout as per Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.6: Progression of an agglomerative hierarchical cluster analysis (2)

Two more clusters have merged leaving eight clusters, two of which contain two individuals. Layout as per Figure 4.3.
Figure 4.7: Progression of an agglomerative hierarchical cluster analysis (3)

With each iteration the two closest clusters merge, until there is only one cluster containing all individuals. Layout as per Figure 4.3.
joining of different clusters. This dendrogram represents all possible solutions from 1 to 10 clusters.

![Dendrogram of an agglomerative hierarchical cluster analysis](image)

Figure 4.8: Dendrogram of an agglomerative hierarchical cluster analysis

The height of different parts of the dendrogram relate to the amount of dissimilarity they describe. If two clusters are similar the branch joining them will be closely related along the y axis.

In order to determine which cluster an individual belongs to, the appropriate number of clusters must be decided and the dendrogram ‘cut’ at that level. This may be done by inspection, according to a prior hypothesis, or with the aid of mathematical descriptors such as Average Silhouette Width (ASW) and the gap statistic, which are discussed in section 4.4. In this example a visual inspection suggests a two cluster solution, as the majority of the height of the dendrogram is taken up by the two cluster portion of the tree. The distance between the groups, or dissimilarity, is represented on the y axis. It can be seen in Figure 4.9 that the two cluster solution describes a large proportion of the dissimilarity but that separating into more clusters does not significantly change the dissimilarity. By inspection of the dendrogram
we can therefore infer the existence of two groups, X and Y, as were identified by plotting A and B. Where subsequent divisions of the dendrogram are very close together, as in this example, it is often not appropriate to divide the dataset into more groups.

In this simplified example, cluster analysis does not provide additional information when compared to plotting the data; however, unlike simple plots, cluster analysis can describe groups according to the simultaneous contribution of multiple variables and can also partition the data into clusters even when group separation is much less obvious. This allows for the identification of groupings that may not otherwise be recognised due to the complexity of their interactions.

![Figure 4.9: Dendrogram of an agglomerative hierarchical cluster analysis (2)](image)

The portion of the dissimilarity described by the two clusters, X and Y, is marked by the red rectangles. The green rectangle highlights the additional dissimilarity described by subdividing into smaller clusters.

Key elements in the design of any cluster analysis are the method of recruitment, choice and number of variables. If study participants are too similar then clusters described may not reflect true phenotypes.
Conversely, very heterogeneous groups can lead to multiple very small clusters of doubtful significance. The selection and number of variables involves compromises. Selecting a smaller number of variables felt to be clinically important risks bias towards pre-conceived phenotypes. Whereas, uncritical inclusion of a large number of variables risks reducing the ability to detect clinically meaningful phenotypes amongst the noise [Fingleton et al., 2011; Weatherall et al., 2010]. Cluster analysis methodology is discussed further in section 4.4, the following section summarises groups described to date by cluster analysis.

4.2 Systematic review of cluster analyses

A systematic review was performed of all papers relating to cluster analysis in the phenotyping of asthma or COPD in adults. The intent of this review was a descriptive summary of the literature rather than to address a specific clinical question. Accordingly the search strategy but not discussion will be reported according to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) [Moher et al., 2009].

Ovid was used to search Medline (1948-present) and Embase (1947-present) databases. The search terms used were:

"cluster analysis" and (asthma or COPD or (Chronic and Obstructive and Pulmonary and Disease) or Emphysema).mp. [mp=ti, ab, sh, hw, tn, ot, dm, mf, dv, kw, ps, rs, nm, an, ui]

Results were limited to: Human. Titles and abstracts were screened for relevance and the full text of selected articles assessed. The search was last updated on 28th January 2013 and the results are shown in
Figure 4.10. Usage of MESH terms or the addition of Chronic Bronchitis as a search term did not identify additional papers. References were hand-searched for other relevant papers as were the author’s personal collection. Two additional papers [Clarisse et al., 2009; Henderson et al., 2008] were identified by hand-searching reference lists.

The literature search was not limited to adults to avoid accidental omission of relevant papers, however ten papers [Chen et al., 2012; Clarisse et al., 2009; Henderson et al., 2008; Isozaki et al., 2011; Just et al., 2012; Rancire et al., 2012; Savenije et al., 2011; Simpson et al., 2010; Spycher et al., 2008; van der Valk et al., 2012] will not be discussed further as they explore wheeze or atopy phenotypes in infants and young children; whereas the focus of this review is on phenotypes in adults with established airways disease. Full text review led to the
exclusion of one paper [Weatherall et al., 2010] as it was an editorial which did not present new data. The cluster analyses identified during the systematic review are outlined in Table 4.2.

This is a rapidly expanding field, only 10 of the 19 included cluster analyses had been published when recruitment commenced for the New Zealand Respiratory Health Survey (NZRHS). As the number of publications is relatively small, and the methodology and study population used quite varied, this literature is best understood with a clear description of the different approaches utilised. Accordingly, the following section (4.3) contains outlines of individual papers with commentary. Emergent themes and candidate phenotypes are summarised in section 4.4.

4.3 SUMMARY OF PUBLISHED CLUSTER ANALYSES

The first English language report of cluster analysis being applied to airways disease occurs in a review article by Wardlaw et al. [2005]. The first report in any language appears to be an article by Richter et al. [1985] published in German; however this focuses on the psychology of asthma rather than the pathophysiology or clinical picture and as such will not be discussed further.

Articles are summarised in the order of publication:

Wardlaw et al. [2005]

The authors report their cluster analysis within a review article discussing the concept of multi-dimensional phenotyping of airways
Table 4.2: Summary of papers included in systematic review.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paper</th>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Role of cluster analysis</th>
<th>No. of variables</th>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Technique Used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wardlaw et al., Clin Exp Allergy 2005</td>
<td>Asthma and COPD</td>
<td>Hospital outpatients</td>
<td>Explore phenotypes of asthma and COPD</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Ward's hierarchical cluster analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pistolesi et al., Resp Med 2008</td>
<td>COPD</td>
<td>Hospital outpatients</td>
<td>Explore phenotypes of COPD</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>Unspecified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haldar et al., AJRCCM 2008</td>
<td>Asthma</td>
<td>Primary care, Hospital Outpatients and trial subjects</td>
<td>Explore phenotypes of asthma</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>184, 187 and 68</td>
<td>PCA followed by Ward's method &amp; K-means cluster analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weatherall et al., ERJ 2009</td>
<td>OAD</td>
<td>Population sample</td>
<td>Explore phenotypes of OAD</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>Agnes and Diana algorithm cluster analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moore et al., AJRCCM 2010</td>
<td>Asthma</td>
<td>Severe Asthma Research Program Cohort</td>
<td>Explore phenotypes of asthma</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>726</td>
<td>Ward's hierarchical cluster analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gupta et al., Thorax 2010</td>
<td>Asthma</td>
<td>'Difficult asthma' clinic</td>
<td>Explore CT appearance of severe asthma phenotypes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>PCA followed by Ward's method &amp; K-means cluster analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burgel et al., ERJ 2010</td>
<td>COPD</td>
<td>Hospital Outpatients</td>
<td>Explore phenotypes of COPD</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>PCA followed by Ward's hierarchical cluster analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jo et al., Int J Tub Lung Dis. 2010</td>
<td>OAD</td>
<td>Hospital Outpatients ≥ 60 yrs</td>
<td>Explore phenotypes of OAD in an older age group</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>Factor analysis followed by k-means cluster analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cho et al., Resp Res 2010</td>
<td>Emphysema</td>
<td>National Emphysema Treatment Trial subjects</td>
<td>Explore sub-types of emphysema</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>Factor analysis followed by k-means cluster analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benton et al., J Asthma 2010</td>
<td>Asthma</td>
<td>AsthmaM project participants</td>
<td>Explore phenotypes of asthma</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>PCA followed by Ward's method &amp; K-means cluster analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garcia-Valenzuela et al., Thorax 2011</td>
<td>COPD</td>
<td>Admissions to University hospitals</td>
<td>Explore phenotypes of COPD</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>342</td>
<td>K-means cluster analysis</td>
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<td>Fitzpatrick et al., JACI 2011</td>
<td>Asthma</td>
<td>Severe Asthma Research Program Cohort</td>
<td>Explore phenotypes of asthma in children</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>Ward's hierarchical cluster analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>Siroux et al., ERJ 2011</td>
<td>Asthma</td>
<td>Population based case-control &amp; family cohorts</td>
<td>Explore phenotypes of asthma</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>189, 641</td>
<td>Latent Class Analysis</td>
</tr>
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<td>Mavit et al., Resp Res 2011</td>
<td>Asthma</td>
<td>Hospital Outpatients</td>
<td>Examine usefulness of FeNO in defining phenotypes</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>PCA followed by k-means cluster analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Musk et al., ERJ 2011</td>
<td>OAD</td>
<td>General population</td>
<td>Describe patterns of airways disease in the general population</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1,969</td>
<td>K-means cluster analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Braini et al., Mckenna et al., AJRCCM 2011</td>
<td>COPD</td>
<td>Hospital Outpatients &quot;Biomarkers in COPD Cohort&quot;</td>
<td>Describe sub-types according to exacerbation etiology</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>Factor analysis followed by k-means cluster analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Braini et al., Chest 2011</td>
<td>COPD</td>
<td>Hospital Outpatients &quot;Biomarkers in COPD Cohort&quot;</td>
<td>Describe sub-types of radiological appearance of COPD</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>Factor Analysis followed by k-means cluster analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Just et al., ERJ 2012</td>
<td>Asthma</td>
<td>Hospital outpatients</td>
<td>Explore phenotypes of asthma in children</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>Factor Analysis followed by k-means cluster analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sutherland et al., PLos One 2012</td>
<td>Asthma</td>
<td>Asthma Clinical Research Network</td>
<td>Explore phenotypes of asthma</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>Ward's hierarchical cluster analysis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All studies involved adults unless otherwise stated. For details of selection methods see discussion of individual papers.
OAD = Obstructive airways disease, LCA = Latent Class Analysis, PCA = Principal Component analysis, FA = Factor Analysis
disease. They discuss the difficulties associated with using symptoms as defining characteristics of disease and re-iterate the overlapping nature of potential sub-types. Cluster analysis was suggested as a possible technique allowing multiple aspects of the disease to be represented in one analysis, with the hope that this may generate useful sub-types. An example cluster analysis was presented involving 49 subjects, 27 with diagnosed asthma and 22 with diagnosed COPD. The authors used eight variables considered to represent important dimensions of asthma and COPD. These are age, gender, tobacco exposure (as pack years), FEV1 percent predicted, FEV1/FVC ratio, percentage reversibility, total IgE (log transformed to prevent outliers skewing the data) and percentage of eosinophils in induced sputum. The cluster analysis was reported with two cluster and four cluster solutions. The first described two groups with good separation, these groups roughly equated to patients with COPD and asthma respectively. The separation was not exactly according to previous diagnosis, however when the clusters were examined it was found that the three patients with a diagnosis of asthma who were clustered with COPD subjects had relatively fixed airways obstruction and would meet standard criteria for COPD. Of the two patients with a diagnosis of asthma who were clustered with COPD patients, one was found to have minimal obstruction and should not have been diagnosed with COPD; the other had a high IgE and a raised sputum eosinophil count, consistent with an asthma-like phenotype. The two cluster solution demonstrates the ability of cluster analysis to separate well characterised groups but adds no new information. The authors therefore explored a four cluster solution in which both of
the original clusters are split into two sub-clusters each. The resultant clusters were described according to the characteristics of the subjects within them. Cluster 1a contained predominantly older patients with fixed airways obstruction, corresponding to the classic description of COPD. Cluster 1b also contained patients who would meet the definition of COPD but had more variable airway obstruction. This cluster was felt to show characteristics of an overlap phenotype between asthma and COPD. Cluster 2a consisted of asthmatic patients with an eosinophilic pattern of inflammation in their sputum. Cluster 2b contained patients with minimal tobacco exposure and mild asthma.

Given the small sample size and the lack of detailed methodology presented in this paper, the clusters themselves are less important than the principle that cluster analysis methods may help identify potential clinical phenotypes. As such this was a landmark paper.

*Pistolesi et al. [2008] and Paoletti et al. [2009]*

The next reported cluster analysis was that by Pistolesi et al. [2008]. The paper by Paoletti et al. [2009] is included here as a cluster analysis of the same subjects is reported in this paper. The focus of the two papers is different but both report cluster analysis of the same patient group with the same two cluster structure. Accordingly the later paper is not discussed further.

Pistolesi et al. [2008] report a prospectively collected series of 415 patients presenting to secondary care outpatients over a one year period. All patients had a diagnosis of COPD. Variables collected included features from the history such as cough and sputum charac-
teristics, examination findings and chest x-ray appearance. Data from 322 subjects were used to perform the cluster analysis and derive a multivariate prediction model for group allocation. The remaining 93 subjects had all undergone High Resolution Computed Tomography (HRCT) of the chest and were used as a validation group for the model.

Cluster analysis was performed using 19 categorical and 15 continuous variables. Two groups were described, which the authors felt corresponded to classical descriptions of emphysematous and chronic bronchitis phenotypes. The authors were able to construct a multivariate regression model using only 9 variables which described 91% of the variance. When this model was applied to the validation dataset two groups were constructed which again were felt to represent chronic bronchitis and emphysema phenotypes and could not have been identified by using standard GOLD severity classification.

This study was interesting in that it was the first to report a reasonable sample size of prospectively collected data and the unsupervised cluster analysis generated two groups which correspond to long recognised sub-types of COPD. However there are significant limitations in the paper which highlight problems inherent in cluster analysis. Although cluster analysis is designed to minimise a priori assumptions and therefore not be swayed by the bias of the investigators it is vulnerable to bias through the number and choice of variables used. If variables are highly correlated or describe the same aspect of a disease, this aspect becomes disproportionately important in defining cluster structure [Weatherall et al., 2010]. A considerable number of
the variables used in this cluster analysis are those classically used to
describe chronic bronchitis and emphysema, for instance:

- History variables: presence of cough and sputum production
- Physical examination variables: Presence / absence of barrel chest
  and chest hyper-resonance
- Radiographic variables: Presence / absence of increased lung
  volume and reduced lung density

The presence of multiple variables which may be correlated and are
used to describe the emphysema and chronic bronchitis subtypes may
have predisposed the cluster analysis to produce groups which fit
this model. In addition the reliability of some of the variables may
be questioned. The reported inter-observer agreement for radiographic
findings such as interstitial changes was only moderate and the inter-
observer agreement for examination findings was not reported.

Haldar et al. [2008]

This paper reported the first cluster analysis of a population of
patients with asthma. The post-hoc analysis was performed on three
datasets. A cohort of 184 primary care patients (Sample One), one of 187
refractory secondary care patients (Sample Two) and the third a group
of 68 patients at the start of a study investigating steroid responsiveness
relative to the pattern of sputum inflammation (Sample Three). The
three samples generated three, four and three clusters respectively.
Samples One and Two were reported as both containing an early
onset atopic group and an obese non-eosinophilic group. Samples Two
and Three both contained clusters described as symptom predominant
and inflammation predominant, although the patterns of disease were not identical in the different samples. The authors highlighted the concept of concordant and discordant disease and then analysed the response to ICS in Sample Three. They found that all those who derived significant benefit from ICS treatment were within the inflammation predominant cluster. Although a post-hoc analysis, this is strongly suggestive that cluster analysis can identify sub-types which show important differences in their clinical pattern of disease and response to treatment, thereby potentially representing true phenotypes.

*Weatherall et al. [2009]*

The authors report a hierarchical cluster analysis of a sample of 175 subjects drawn from a random population sample. A total of 749 subjects underwent questionnaires, detailed lung-function testing with reversibility as well as FeNO measurement, bloods including IgE and Computed Tomography (CT) scanning. All included subjects had one or both of wheeze in the last 12 months or an FEV1/FVC ratio <0.7. Five clusters were described, which the authors describe as:

- Cluster 1: Severe and markedly variable airflow obstruction with features of atopic asthma, chronic bronchitis and emphysema
- Cluster 2: Features of emphysema alone
- Cluster 3: Atopic asthma with eosinophilic airways inflammation
- Cluster 4: Mild airflow obstruction without other dominant phenotypic features
- Cluster 5: Chronic bronchitis in non-smokers
A notable feature of this study is the population sampling approach, which may have allowed a more complete representation of the patterns of disease than had been captured by previous studies looking at patients who already had a diagnostic label of asthma or COPD. The authors were relatively unusual in not including the subject age or duration of disease in the analysis. The intention behind this was to avoid variables which may tend to create groups based on duration or stage of disease as against true phenotypes. Cluster 1 represents an overlap group with features of asthma, bronchitis and emphysema. This group is not specifically studied in any interventional trials done to date for asthma or COPD, and there is therefore no evidence base on which to treat patients with this pattern of disease. This is particularly important as these patients were some of the most symptomatic, with significant degrees of airway obstruction. The authors draw the parallel with the overlap group described in the analysis by Wardlaw et al. [2005] and suggest this as an important potential phenotype requiring further validation.

Moore et al. [2010]

The cohort for this post-hoc analysis is drawn from the Severe Asthma Research Programme (SARP) in the United States. SARP provided the largest data-set to date with a total of 726 subjects and 628 variables, which were reduced to 38 for the cluster analysis. Five clusters were described, two characterised by atopy and early onset milder disease, differing mainly in subject age; two clusters with severe asthma differing in age of onset and degree of atopy; one cluster
consisting of older women with increased body mass index who had more health care use, more steroids and inhaled medication and a greater discordance between symptoms and degree of obstruction. This latter group is one with face validity as it is a pattern seen in clinic but which had not been well characterised. The most novel aspect of this paper is a discriminant analysis and tree diagram performed after the cluster analysis. The authors were able to correctly allocate 80% of subjects to the appropriate cluster based on 3 variables: pre and post bronchodilator FEV1 and age of onset of disease (Figure 4.11).

Figure 4.11: Allocation rule from Moore et al. [2010]

This was the first description of discriminant analysis to allow the generation of an allocation rule for cluster membership. This step will be crucial if candidate phenotypes are to be tested in prospective interventional trials, as it will not be feasible to perform cluster analysis on all subjects at the point of enrolment. An allocation rule is therefore required to allow cluster assignment at study entry. As a post-hoc database study the authors do not claim that the allocation rule generated should be used clinically, but it is a useful proof of concept.

Gupta et al. [2010]

This paper reports a cluster analysis in 99 individuals with severe asthma who had undergone HRCT scans and calculation of ‘bronchial wall area’ and ‘lumen area / body surface area’. The cluster analysis was performed as part of a wider analysis looking at patterns of airway remodelling. The authors used the methodology of Haldar et al. [2008] with the same variables and describe four clusters.

There were three clusters with evidence of eosinophilic inflammation, one of which was felt to have an asthma control score concordant with the degree of obstruction. The two discordant groups were separated by severity of obstruction and degree of eosinophilia. The fourth cluster was made up predominantly of obese women with non-eosinophilic severe asthma and high asthma control scores. Despite differences in type of inflammation and symptom scores, the groups had similar patterns of airway remodelling.
This paper reports a cluster analysis of 322 subjects with COPD recruited from French University hospitals. Four clusters were described which roughly equate to:

- Young, severe obstruction with a low Body Mass Index (BMI) and poor quality of life
- Older with mild disease
- Younger with moderate to severe disease
- Older with moderate to severe disease, a higher BMI, more co-morbidities and more dyspnoea

Two important issues in this paper were the extent of missing data, 262 subjects were excluded due to missing data, and the PCA method applied prior to cluster analysis. As stated earlier, PCA generates components made up of a combination of scaled original variables and which each describe a proportion of the variability within the study population. Eight components were generated from the eight variables and the three which described the greatest proportion of the variability within the dataset were used in the cluster analysis. The rationale for this is that this approach leads to a greater separation between clusters and can help with noisy datasets. However, although the authors state that the other components did not describe a significant amount of variability, the included components described only 61% of the variability within the dataset. This potentially means that a lot of the information within the data has been discarded and the clean separation between clusters comes at the cost of a less complete
description of the data. Other papers in this systematic review apply PCA or other forms of FA prior to cluster analysis but most include a larger proportion of the variability in the cluster analysis.

Jo et al. [2010]

191 subjects 60 years or over with chronic respiratory symptoms, obstruction, or bronchial hyperresponsiveness were included in this analysis from Korea. All subjects were recruited in hospital outpatient clinics. FA was used to select four variables from a potential 17 prior to cluster analysis. Three clusters were described which differed according to the severity of airflow obstruction and reversibility. One cluster was characterised as having moderate to severe airflow obstruction and substantial bronchodilator reversibility. This cluster bore some resemblance to the overlap groups described by Wardlaw et al. [2005] and Weatherall et al. [2009].

A novel aspect of this study was the selection of an exclusively older population, who are relatively under-represented in other trials. However there are questions over the generalisability of the results as all subjects were from referral hospitals and none had symptoms of chronic bronchitis, suggesting a skewed sample.

Cho et al. [2010]

Subject data drawn from the National Emphysema Treatment Trial was used for this cluster analysis of 308 subjects [Cho et al., 2010]. FA was used to reduce 31 variables to four for cluster analysis,
which generated four clusters with only modest separation. The major limitation of this study is that NETT had a highly selected and therefore relatively homogeneous population leaving little room for description of different sub-types and meaning that generalisability is minimal.

*Benton et al. [2010]*

This study used a combined hierarchical/k-means approach to explore phenotypes of asthma in African American people between the ages of 6 and 20.

Three clusters were reported, males with neutrophilic asthma, females with 'later-onset asthma' and elevated BMI normalised for age, and a group with eosinophilic features. In addition a small fourth cluster of subjects with minimal evidence of disease was excluded. It is worth noting that in this context 'later-onset asthma' means a mean age of 7.5 years and would therefore still be considered young-onset asthma in most studies.

*Garcia-Aymerich et al. [2011]*

Garcia-Aymerich et al. [2011] reported a cluster analysis on behalf of the PAC-COPD Study Group. They collected detailed data on patients presenting to hospital with a first exacerbation of COPD, including measures of lung function, inflammation, exercise tolerance, atopy, symptoms/quality of life and arterial blood gases. In addition a subset underwent CT evaluation of lung density and bronchial wall thickness. They propose phenotypes of "Severe respiratory COPD","Moderate
respiratory COPD” and “Systemic COPD”. The authors suggest that their proposed phenotype of systemic COPD may be consistent with the hypothesis of the "chronic systemic inflammatory syndrome” [Fabbri et al., 2009]. However, as the authors acknowledge, although this group showed evidence of greater systemic inflammation they did not demonstrate higher markers of bronchial inflammation. The greater systemic inflammation may therefore be due to co-morbidities rather than spill-over. Among the strengths of this study were its size and the four year follow-up period, which allowed a description of significant differences in patterns of hospital admission and mortality between the groups. This prospective collection of admission and mortality data helps in the determination of the clinical significance of the groups described. The ‘Severe respiratory COPD’ group had more frequent hospitalisations due to COPD and a trend to increased mortality, although this was not significant once disease severity was adjusted for using the U-BODE index [Puhan et al., 2009]. What still remains to be elucidated is whether differences between these groups represent separate pathophysiological processes or merely describe patients at different stages of disease with varying co-morbidities. A notable feature in this analysis was the large number of variables used. The authors used a total of 224 variables including measures of lung function, blood gas results, CT appearance, quality of life and exercise tolerance. The strength of this approach is that it minimises the effect that a priori assumptions can have on variable selection. However, many highly correlated variables will have been included, particularly
within lung function, and this may serve to over-represent this aspect of the disease in cluster separation [Weatherall et al., 2010].

Fitzpatrick et al. [2011]

This analysis draws from the SARP cohort previously reported by Moore et al. [2010]. The original analysis was in adults whereas this explores patterns of disease in children, who the authors report are widely believed to show different patterns of disease. Data from 161 children were analysed with an agglomerative hierarchical approach. Four clusters were described, differing mainly by age of onset, atopic status and degree of obstruction. The identification of a sub-group with early-onset asthma and atopy is a recurring theme in asthma cluster analyses and provides some of the strongest evidence that this may represent a true phenotype.

Siroux et al. [2011]

This paper reports by far the largest multi-variable cluster analyses performed to date in respiratory medicine. Data from subjects with asthma in the French Epidemiological Study on the Genetics and Environment of Asthma (EGEA2, 641 subjects) and the pan-European European Community Respiratory Health Survey (ECRHSII, 1,895 subjects) was used for Latent Class Analysis (LCA). The authors state that among the strengths of LCA are the ability to handle missing data and better performance in handling categorical variables. Each dataset generated four classes, with early onset atopic and late onset non-atopic
groups present in both datasets. The remaining two classes in each dataset were subjects with either no active disease or mild disease not requiring treatment.

Mahut et al. [2011]

This single centre French study reports a retrospective post-hoc analysis of 169 subjects from a secondary care cohort of 592 children with asthma. The remainder were excluded due to a lack of bronchodilator response or missing data. The stated intention was to explore the evidence for a particular phenotype associated with raised FeNO. PCA followed by cluster analysis was performed as per Haldar et al. Four clusters were described, two with milder disease, separated by gender, and two with more severe disease, distinguished by parental smoking and airway tone. The clusters did not differ significantly in terms of FeNO, although raised FeNO was noted to be associated with ICS dependant inflammation and increased airway tone. The complete separation of clusters according to sex is surprising. Although there are differences in incidence and severity of asthma between the sexes [Postma et al., 2009] these are not marked enough to expect unisex phenotypes. Indeed the clusters were virtually identical apart from sex. Sex is a categorical variable and, because this separates individuals more completely than a continuous variable, there is the potential for it to dominate the cluster analysis. This highlights the degree to which variable selection influences cluster assignment and that a distinct cluster does not necessarily represent a meaningful phenotype.
In this paper Musk et al. [2011] report only the second cluster analysis in a general population sample, based on data from the Bussepton cohort. This cluster analysis included a large number of adults without signs and symptoms of respiratory disease, and reported seven clusters, that differed by age, sex, BMI, atopic status, FeNO, BHR and FEV₁. The focus of the paper was comparing clusters to prior doctor’s diagnosis of asthma or bronchitis. Prior diagnoses did not predict cluster membership. The analysis described two ‘normal’ clusters, one of each sex. There were four ‘atopic’ clusters characterised by younger age, high FeNO, lower FEV₁ and greater BHR respectively. The other cluster was predominantly ‘obese females’ and had the lowest prevalence of doctor diagnosed asthma of the non ‘normal’ clusters. Interpretation of these clusters is hampered by the limited variety of descriptor variables not included in the cluster analysis.

One of several cluster analyses by the Leicester group, this paper focuses on patterns of acute exacerbation and potential biomarkers in a cohort of secondary care patients with COPD. 145 patients were enrolled and a combined total of 182 exacerbations were recorded from 82 patients. A wide panel of biomarkers was measured and FA used to select the three variables which best represented bacterial-, viral- and eosinophil- associated exacerbations respectively. Cluster analysis of these three variables produced four groups, referred to as
bacterial-, viral- and eosinophil- associated respectively plus a fourth cluster referred to as pauci-inflammatory. Subjects with bacterial and eosinophil associated exacerbations were more likely to have bacterial colonisation or raised eosinophils respectively at baseline. Whilst a well-constructed paper which presented interesting data about the performance of different biomarkers, the cluster analysis component added little information. Only one aspect of disease, namely type of inflammation, was examined and the 3 variables selected had been shown by FA to be independent of one another. It could be suggested that this is similar to performing a cluster analysis with one categorical variable of inflammation type and categories of viral, bacterial, eosinophilic or "none of the above". The risk is one of ‘begging the question’ in that the outcome is determined by the premise. The main use of cluster analysis in this circumstance is that by determining cluster allocation it allows the description of group characteristics.

*Bafadhel et al. [2011a]*

This paper reports a sub-analysis of subjects from the previous study who had undergone a CT scan of the thorax as part of their standard care. 64 patients were included in the cluster analysis, with variables representing lung capacity, air trapping and gas transfer chosen by PCA. Clusters were described which were deemed to represent two groups of emphysema predominant disease and one with a mixture of emphysema and bronchiectasis. The significance of these groups is not clear.
The final paper in this systematic review is a retrospective cluster analysis of 250 asthmatics with full data, from 826 asthmatics recruited into two studies run through the Asthma Clinical Research Network. The authors report four clusters, differentiated by BMI and asthma symptoms. The two groups characterised by obesity differed in their level of asthma control but were both predominantly female and had higher biomarkers of systemic inflammation. The remaining clusters were characterised as ‘non-obese female asthmatics’ and ‘non-obese male asthmatics’ respectively.

4.4 Emergent themes and candidate phenotypes

Cluster analysis methodology

It is clear from the above literature that there are several different approaches which can be used in performing a cluster analysis and no consensus as to the optimum methodology. Key decisions in a cluster analysis include the choice of algorithm and distance metric, as well as the type and number of different variables. Differences in variable selection, dependence between variables, and other factors have the potential to greatly affect the outcome of a cluster analysis [Everitt et al., 2011; Fingleton et al., 2011; Weatherall et al., 2010]. As cluster analysis is to an extent best viewed as a hypothesis generating exercise [Everitt et al., 2011; Wardlaw et al., 2005; Weatherall et al., 2010], the most appropriate approach may be to employ more than
one methodology and compare the results obtained [Kaufman and Rousseau, 1990] before selecting the solution which appears most biologically and clinically coherent. The cluster analysis methodologies employed in the NZRHS are detailed in section 8.3.

As highlighted in the systematic review, there are many different cluster analysis methodologies. All seek to identify groups in the data but they have differing strengths and weaknesses. Unless a dataset was very highly structured, it is unlikely that identical clusters would be described by different methodologies. Indeed some methods, such as the k-means approach, start the clustering process from randomly generated seed positions which means that running the k-means algorithm on the same dataset twice may give two different cluster structures unless the seed positions are determined non-randomly.

The key methodological decisions when undertaking a cluster analysis are the choice of algorithm, choice of distance measure, variable selection, and determination of the number of clusters.

**Choice of Algorithm**

The most commonly employed approaches in cluster analysis are hierarchical cluster analysis, as described earlier, and k-means cluster analysis.

Hierarchical cluster analysis creates a tree of connections between all individuals in the dataset, in a similar way to phylogenetic trees of different plant or animal species. This tree, which can be cut at any level, is constructed such that members of a small cluster would also be members of a larger cluster made up of several sub-clusters. This has
the advantage that the number of clusters in a dataset does not need to be determined a priori, but can be determined by examination of the tree and comparison of the cluster characteristics. Hierarchical cluster analysis can be generated by agglomerative or divisive methods, i.e. the algorithm may start with \( n \) clusters each containing one individual and then merge them progressively until only one cluster remains (agglomerative), or the process can start with one cluster containing all individuals and progressively divide the clusters until there are \( n \) clusters each containing one individual (divisive) [Everitt et al., 2011; Kaufman and Rousseau, 1990]. One potential weakness of hierarchical cluster analysis relates to its structure. Later iterations of the procedure are constrained by previous cluster assignments so if a point was inappropriately assigned to a cluster early in the procedure, it cannot be reassigned later on [Everitt et al., 2011; Kaufman and Rousseau, 1990].

K-means analysis requires the number of clusters to be set at the start of the process. Centre points (centroids) are generated for each cluster, either randomly or using the results of a previous cluster analysis. The algorithm then assigns each individual to a cluster based on their proximity to each centroid. The centroid is then recalculated using the new points and the process repeated over multiple iterations to estimate the optimal arrangement of clusters. K-means is an efficient algorithm, which has made it popular for use on large datasets, and it is not constrained by clustering decisions made in a previous iteration. However, it is relatively sensitive to outliers and clustering results are highly dependant on the starting position of cluster centroids and the order of objects in the dataset [Kaufman and Rousseau, 1990].
There are many other methods available for cluster analysis but there is no consensus on which is optimal as each have their strengths and weaknesses [Kaufman and Rousseau, 1990]. The majority of cluster analyses in respiratory medicine have used one of the two methods above, however there has been some interest in model-based clustering methods such as latent class analysis, which use Bayesian information criteria to assign individuals to the cluster for which they have the highest probability of membership and can determine the most appropriate number of clusters utilising pre-determined criteria [Everitt, 2007; Therneau et al., 2012]. These methods can accommodate missing data and have therefore been particularly widely used in epidemiological studies examining patterns of disease in early childhood [Chen et al., 2012; Henderson et al., 2008; Savenije et al., 2011; Simpson et al., 2010; Spycher et al., 2008; van der Valk et al., 2012].

In the research discussed in this thesis the choice of methodology was influenced by the previously published work of Weatherall et al. [2009]. One of the aims of this research was to investigate whether the same candidate phenotypes as previously described would be identified in a second random population sample. Accordingly it was felt appropriate to use similar methodology to that used in the Wellington Respiratory Survey (WRS) and hierarchical cluster analysis is used in this thesis.

**Choice of Distance Measure**

The most widely used distance measure is the euclidean distance measure [Everitt et al., 2011], which has been previously discussed. However in some circumstances other distance metrics are required.
The most common situation in which the euclidean distance measure is inappropriate is when the variables to be used for cluster analysis are a mixture of continuous and categorical variables. In this situation the Gower distance measure is an appropriate choice as it remains meaningful with mixed variable types [Everitt, 2007; Gower, 1971].

Once a distance measure has been chosen the method of application must be decided. When the distance between clusters is calculated in a hierarchical analysis the distance measured can be between the two nearest individuals in the different clusters (single-linkage), the two furthest apart individuals (complete-linkage), or an average of all the possible distances between individuals in the different clusters (un-weighted average pair group method) [Everitt et al., 2011; Kaufman and Rousseau, 1990]. The latter option is widely used as it performs relatively well in datasets with a significant amount of random variation, ‘or noise’, as does an alternative approach, Ward’s method [Ward, 1963]. Ward’s method aims to minimise ‘information loss’ at each cluster fusion and hence maximise the similarity of individuals in a cluster [Everitt et al., 2011]. Both average group and Ward’s methods are utilised in this research.

**Variable selection**

Variable selection is of key importance in cluster analysis as it can greatly affect the outcome. Ideally all variables should be informative and contribute to the separation between clusters. This is because the inclusion of variables which are not related to the underlying structure of the data will appear as ‘noise’ in the analysis, making it harder to
determine the true sub-types. Conversely it is important not to include too many highly related variables in the data, as this multicollinearity will mean that this aspect of disease dominates the analysis, separating clusters predominantly or only on these measures [Everitt et al., 2011; Weatherall et al., 2010].

The literature reviewed here covers a wide variety of approaches, with cluster analyses using between 4 and 224 variables, or as few as 3 composite variables generated by PCA. This last approach, although widespread, has been challenged on the grounds that if clusters are separated using a composite variable generated through PCA or FA it is more difficult to interpret the clinical meaning of the resultant groups [Weatherall et al., 2010]. In addition the composite variables will only represent a portion of the original variability in the data so a considerable amount of information is lost with this approach. For example, Burgel et al. [2010] generated 8 components from 8 variables and selected 3 components for the cluster analysis. As a result the data used for cluster analysis only described 61% of the original variability in the dataset. Other than as part of a PCA, variables used in a cluster analysis would not normally be weighted according to perceived importance, as this would introduce bias according to a priori assumptions.

The approach used in this thesis was to select a modest number of variables for which there is evidence that they represent important components of airways disease. Multi-collinearity was minimised by not selecting a large number of variables representing a particular
aspect of disease. Correlations between the selected variables were assessed as part of the analysis (chapter 10).

Choosing the number of clusters

With any form of cluster analysis a decision must be made as to the number of clusters to be created. With hierarchical cluster analysis it is possible to output a solution of all possibilities and then examine the dendrogram to determine a sensible point at which to cut the tree, whereas with non-hierarchical methods the number of clusters must be specified at the start of the analysis. Some investigators will use a hierarchical cluster analysis to suggest an appropriate number of clusters for a non-hierarchical methodology.

Within hierarchical cluster analysis, the decision on the number of clusters (k) may be based on a priori expectations or on examination of the size and characteristics of the clusters described for different values of k. In order to increase the objectivity of this decision, a number of metrics have been suggested to assess the most appropriate value for k. Two of the most widely accepted are used in this research- the Average Silhouette Width (ASW) and the gap statistic.

The ASW was proposed by Kaufman and Rousseau [1990] and is a measure the amount of inherent structure in a dataset. The range is from -1 to +1, where values greater than zero imply that individuals are more likely than not to be in the correct clusters. The higher the ASW, the more natural structure is likely to be present in the dataset. However, if groups are closely related or overlapping a high ASW is unlikely. The ASW for different values of k can be compared, and
when an increase in k causes the ASW to drop rapidly it may not be appropriate to increase the number of clusters further [Everitt et al., 2011; Kaufman and Rousseau, 1990].

The gap statistic was described by Tibshirani et al. [2001] as a means of formalising the widely used method of choosing the number of clusters by examining a graph of within cluster dispersion, i.e. how tightly clustered the individuals are, against number of clusters (k). Tibshirani et al. [2001] argue that the gap statistic outperforms other measures such as ASW in many cases, although it is best to use more than one method to determine the number of clusters [Everitt et al., 2011]. Unlike ASW, the gap statistic is meaningful for data with one cluster. If the gap statistic is maximal for k=1 there may not be any clustering within the dataset.

**Candidate Phenotypes and outstanding research questions**

The cluster analyses outlined in this literature review provide support for several candidate phenotypes of OAD and suggest some new possibilities. Of particular interest in both asthma and COPD is the increasing appreciation of the existence and importance of the overlap group discussed in section 2.5 [Jo et al., 2010; Wardlaw et al., 2005; Weatherall et al., 2009].

Within asthma one novel phenotype which has emerged from the cluster analyses is that of the obese, symptom predominant, individual [Benton et al., 2010; Haldar et al., 2009; Moore et al., 2010; Musk et al., 2011; Sutherland et al., 2012]. Within COPD the majority of phenotypes described fit with previously suggested patterns, splitting
patients according to the relative extent of chronic bronchitis and emphysema or the severity of airways obstruction. However two interesting candidate phenotypes have been described. Burgel et al. [2010] reported a symptom predominant group with obesity and multiple comorbidities that may be the COPD equivalent of the obese asthmatic group. Garcia-Aymerich et al. [2011] also described a group with multiple comorbidities, which they characterised as "Systemic COPD", and which was associated with worse outcomes. This group differed from other co-morbidity associated groups in having a low BMI, possibly due to the severity of their COPD. It is not yet clear whether individuals in this group have worse outcomes because the COPD related inflammation is driving systemic inflammation, systemic inflammation is driving the COPD, both are driven by other factors such as cigarette smoke exposure, or if these are simply individuals with two common but unrelated pathologies [Fingleton et al., 2011]. Irrespective of whether the pulmonary and systemic inflammation is closely related, these individuals appear to suffer much higher morbidity and, if reproduced in other studies with longitudinal follow-up, this would fulfil the definition of a clinical phenotype proposed by Han et al. [2010].

In order for these candidate phenotypes to become accepted and clinically useful they need to be fully validated. The requirements for validation of a phenotype would include:

1. Replication in more than one study.
3. Description and validation of allocation rules that allow patients to be reliably matched to the most appropriate phenotype.

4. Longitudinal follow-up with assessment of phenotype stability, natural history and demonstration of differential outcome between phenotypes.

The New Zealand Respiratory Health Survey was designed to address the first three points. The rationale, design and methods of the NZRHS are described in Part II.
Part II

THE NEW ZEALAND RESPIRATORY HEALTH SURVEY: RATIONALE, DESIGN AND METHODS
The literature on which this PhD aims to build has been summarised in Part I. In particular I wish to develop the work of Weatherall et al. [2009] and assess whether the candidate phenotypes described in the Wellington Respiratory Survey are reproducible in a new population sample. A new study, known as the New Zealand Respiratory Health Survey, was designed to address the following aims.

5.1 MAIN AIMS

- To explore clinical phenotypes of chronic airways disease by cluster analysis.
- To examine if phenotypes identified by the previous cluster analysis exist in the independent NZRHS sample.
- To compare the response to short-acting beta-agonist (SABA) between phenotype groups.
- To compare the response to short-acting muscarinic antagonist (SAMA) between phenotype groups.
- To compare the response to ICS between phenotype groups.
- To generate allocation rules and determine their predictive value for the different disorders of airways disease.
5.2 **Hypotheses**

1. That cluster analysis will identify distinct clinical phenotypes within the population tested, which will differ significantly in the characteristics they express.

2. That the clusters identified in the NZRHS will approximate to clusters described by the WRS.

3. That the response to salbutamol, as measured by change in FEV₁, will differ between clusters.

4. That the response to ipratropium, as measured by change in FEV₁, will differ between clusters.

5. That it will be possible to generate an allocation rule which can accurately predict cluster membership, using only a subset of the variables.

6. That the response to the ICS budesonide will differ between clusters.
DESIGN

The NZRHS was made up of three phases:

- Phase One: Sample recruitment
- Phase Two: Data collection for phenotyping
- Phase Three: Trial of ICS

Precise details of the methodology is given in chapter 7, the phases are outlined below.

6.1 PHASE ONE- SAMPLE RECRUITMENT

The aim of the NZRHS was to describe potential phenotypes in a population of subjects with obstructive airways disease. In order for the results to be widely generalisable, the subjects were taken from a general population sample. The most complete list of the general adult population available in NZ comes from the electoral roll and a random sample drawn from this was therefore used to generate a list of potential subjects.

Subjects were sent a one page letter inviting them to complete a brief questionnaire, which was printed on the reverse. Subjects with self-reported wheeze and breathlessness in the past year were eligible to take part in phase two. Eligible subjects were contacted by telephone and recruited to the study.
6.2 PHASE TWO- CLINICAL PHENOTYPING

In phase two, eligible subjects who agreed to take part in the study attended for two visits and data were collected to allow detailed description of their clinical phenotype. In order to represent multiple aspects of airways disease, information was collected on medical history, symptoms, lung function and bronchodilator responsiveness as well as markers of inflammation and atopy.

Once clinical testing was complete, a cluster analysis was performed to describe potential phenotypes within the population.

6.3 PHASE THREE- CORTICOSTEROID RESPONSIVENESS

In order for phenotypes described by cluster analysis to be clinically relevant there should be differences in the underlying pathophysiology or response to treatment [Han et al., 2010]. Therefore, in order to try and validate phenotypes described by the cluster analysis, all steroid naïve subjects were invited to take ICS for 12 weeks followed by repeat testing to assess response to treatment and allow comparisons of treatment response between candidate phenotypes.

In order to minimise bias in this open label study, the cluster analysis was not performed until phase three was complete. This ensured both subjects and investigators were blind to cluster allocation at the time of testing.
STUDY METHODOLOGY

7.1 PHASE ONE

Postal Survey

A total sample of 20,000 people was randomly selected from the electoral roll in two batches using a computer based (ranuni function, SAS v9.2, SAS Institute Inc., USA) pseudo-random number generator [Fishman and Moore, 1982]. Each person on the electoral roll was assigned a random number and the 20,000 with the lowest random numbers were included in the survey.

Electorates sampled were Wellington Central, Rongotai, Ōhariu, Hutt South and the corresponding parts of Te Tai Tonga, Te Tai Hauāuru and Ikaroa-Rāwhiti. These regions have an estimated population of approximately 230,000 and the boundaries are shown in Figure 7.1 [Electoral Commission, Accessed 21st August 2012]. The first sample of 10,000 subjects was drawn in May 2010 and the second sample of 10,000 drawn in November 2011. Sample size calculation is explained in chapter 8.

Subjects were sent a one page letter [Figure 7.2] inviting them to complete the brief screening questionnaire (SQ) printed on the reverse [Figure 7.3]. A freepost return envelope was included in an attempt
to increase questionnaire return rate. Subjects could alternatively complete the questionnaire by going to http://www.mrinz.ac.nz/survey and entering the personal number given in the invitation letter.

Subjects who answered yes to questions 1 and 1b were eligible to take part in phase two. Eligible subjects who supplied contact details (predominantly telephone numbers) were contacted and offered information on the study. Interested subjects were booked to attend and sent a ‘Participant Information Sheet’ [Appendix B] as well as ‘Important Information for Study Participants’ [Figure 7.4] which they had the opportunity to read and discuss with family and whânau prior to attending. If no response was received, repeat letters were sent on two occasions at approximately 2 monthly intervals. If no response was received after two reminders a telephone call was made, provided the subject had a publicly listed number associated with the registered address. Subjects were able to opt out of further contact at any point.

**Construction of Study Number**

In order to allow online survey returns each potential subject was allocated a unique identifier, referred to as their ‘Personal Number’. This was an alpha-numeric code in the form A1111. In order to reduce the risk of hoax online returns being treated as genuine returns, only every seventh possible code was used, e.g. A1001, A1008, . . . , B1001, B1008, . . . and the structure of personal numbers was not described on the website. The letters I and O can be confused with the numbers 1 and 0 and were omitted from the sequence.
Figure 7.1: Map of Electorate Boundaries

(a) Wellington Central
(b) Rongotai
(c) Ōhāriu
(d) Hutt South
The second sample was unlikely to be entirely utilised. Therefore, in order to ensure that certain surnames were not preferentially sampled, which might constitute a bias, the code numbers for the second sample were allocated in the order Q1002, R1002,… T1002, Q1009, R1009,… This ensured an even alphabetical spread within each wave.

*Electoral Roll sample processing*

The electoral roll sample was reviewed and entries with non-Wellington postal addresses were removed. Entries were then allocated a unique code number as above. Finally, Foreign Office postal addresses were also removed as these represented workers on overseas postings who were not currently resident in Wellington.

To control the rate of postal returns and minimise delays between SQ return and recruitment, mail-outs were done in waves. Waves were defined by the letter at the beginning of their code (wave A, wave B etc.). As removal of foreign office addresses was done after allocation of code numbers, each wave varied slightly in size, although each contained approximately 1,200 subjects.

Mail-outs continued until sufficient responses had been received to be confident of reaching the recruitment target. The full sample of 20,000 was not used as this would lead to more returns from eligible participants than required, and hence the proportion of eligible subjects tested in Phase 2 would be lower, reducing the generalisability of Phase 2 results.
New Zealand Respiratory Health Survey

Breathing problems like asthma, chronic bronchitis and emphysema cause great distress to many people. They affect New Zealanders of all ages and some of these problems are becoming more common. The Medical Research Institute of New Zealand, is conducting a survey of respiratory health in the greater Wellington region, to help find out what causes these problems and how they might best be treated.

This letter is to let you know that you have been randomly selected from the electoral roll to participate in the first phase which involves completing the questionnaire on the other side of this letter. Thank you for taking the time to answer these questions – your help is crucial to the success of this study.

If you would rather respond via the internet, please go to www.mrinz.ac.nz/survey and enter your personal number. Your personal number is ...........

This survey has the approval of the Central Regional Ethics Committee and is completely confidential, and will not affect your health care in any way. No material which could personally identify you will be used in any reports on this study. If you have any queries please contact us at the address below.

Some participants may be contacted and invited to take part in the second phase of the survey in which lung function and response to standard treatments will be assessed.

We would like to add how much we appreciate your assistance with this important project. Your participation will help us to continue to improve the care of patients with breathing problems.

Yours sincerely,

James Fingleton  
Medical Research Fellow  
Medical Research Institute of New Zealand

Richard Beasley  
Respiratory Physician and Director  
Medical Research Institute of New Zealand

Figure 7.2: NZRHS Invitation Letter
NZRHS Screening Questionnaire

TO ANSWER THE QUESTIONS PLEASE CHOOSE THE APPROPRIATE BOX. IF YOU ARE UNSURE OF THE ANSWER, PLEASE CHOOSE "NO".

1. Have you had any wheezing or whistling in your chest at any time in the last 12 months?
   No Yes

   If "Yes", go to Question 1B, if "No", go to Question 2:

1B. Have you been at all breathless when the wheezing noise was present?
   No Yes

2. Do you usually cough when you don’t have a cold?
   No Yes

   If "Yes", go to Question 2B; if "No", go to Question 3:

2B. Do you cough on most days for as much as 3 months each year?
   No Yes

3. Do you usually bring up phlegm from your chest first thing in the morning?
   No Yes

   If "Yes", go to Question 3B; if "No", go to Question 4:

3B. Do you bring up phlegm like this on most days for as much as 3 months each year?
   No Yes

4. Do you ever have trouble with your breathing?
   No Yes

5. Has a doctor ever told you that you had chronic bronchitis?
   No Yes

6. Has a doctor ever told you that you had emphysema?
   No Yes

7. Has a doctor ever told you that you had asthma?
   No Yes

8. Do you now smoke cigarettes, or a pipe or cigars?
   No Yes

   If "Yes", go to Question 9; if "No", go to Question 8B:

8B. If not, have you ever smoked?
   No Yes

   If "Yes", go to Question 9; if "No", go to Question 10:

9. How many years have you smoked on a regular basis?
   Years

   Day Month Year

10. What is your date of birth?

11. Are you male or female?
   M F

We may wish to contact some respondents with information about the second phase of the study. If you would be prepared for us to contact you, please provide your telephone number below. If you do not wish to be contacted please write "no contact":

Day.................................................... Evening......................................................

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP

Protocol No. NZRHS01 Letter of Invitation Version 4.6, 28th September 2010 (side 2 of 2)

Figure 7.3: NZRHS Screening Questionnaire
7.2 PHASE TWO

Eligibility and Consent

Subjects were consented at visit 1 and their eligibility confirmed according to the inclusion and exclusion criteria. Inclusion criteria were assessed using the subject’s SQ and were not checked as part of the consent process. The exception was in the event of a subject stating they did not think they should be eligible for the trial, or the SQ having been completed more than 6 months previously, in which case the investigator checked whether their answer to the two questions was still yes. If not the subject would be excluded from further testing at that point. Exclusion criteria were sought at visit 1.

INCLUSION CRITERIA:

- Randomly selected from electoral register
- Aged 18-75 years at the time of visit 1
- Indicated an affirmative answer to the following question on the screening questionnaire: “Have you had wheezing or whistling in your chest at any time in the last 12 months?” and if yes “have you been at all breathless when the wheezing noise was present?”

EXCLUSION CRITERIA:

- Unable to provide informed consent
- Unable or unwilling to comply with study procedures including withholding of medication prior to pulmonary function testing
- Known hypersensitivity to salbutamol, ipratropium or inhaled corticosteroid medication
A respiratory diagnosis other than asthma or COPD which may influence the validity of study measurements, e.g. pulmonary fibrosis

- A non-respiratory diagnosis which is likely to render pulmonary function test results inaccurate, e.g. severe heart failure.

Visit Schedule

If the subject did not meet any criteria for deferral (see Pulmonary Function Tests), visits 1 and 1b were combined. The testing carried out at each visit is summarised in Table 7.1.

7.3 Details of Testing

Pulmonary Function Tests

Subjects involved in phase two attended for lung function testing on two occasions, visit 1b and visit 2. All subjects were asked to follow the ‘Important Information for Study Participants’ [Figure 7.4]. Deviations from this guidance were noted at the time of testing.

Testing was deferred if the subject had suffered a chest infection or upper respiratory tract infection in the last 3 weeks. Infections were self-reported by the subject but to help standardise interpretation definitions of chest infection and Upper Respiratory Tract Infection (URTI) were constructed [Appendix A]. Testing was also deferred if the subject had taken a SABA or SAMA in the last 4 hours, or a LABA or LAMA in the last 12 hours. Other deviations from the 'Important
Table 7.1: Schedule for Clinical Testing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Phase 1</th>
<th>Phase 2</th>
<th>Phase 3†</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Visit 1</td>
<td>Visit 1B†</td>
<td>Visit 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Screening Questionnaire</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informed consent</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confirm eligibility</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main questionnaire</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-ipratropium PFTs</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-ipratropium PFTs</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak flow diary issued</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak flow diary collected</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>QoL Questionnaires</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FeNO measurement</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-salbutamol PFTs</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bloods</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-salbutamol PFTs</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer factor</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICS dispensed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exacerbation history</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adherence check</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Adverse Events check</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

†If subject had not had bronchodilators pre-visit, visits 1 & 1B are combined.
‡For steroid-naïve participants only
Pulmonary Function Test include resistance, lung volumes and spirometry.

Information for Study Participants’ were recorded by the investigator without deferral of testing.

Participants performed pulmonary function tests pre- and post-bronchodilator at visits 1 and 2 and, if continuing in the study, at visit 3. Lung function testing was performed using three whole body constant-volume plethysmographs with heated pneumotachograph and gas analysers (Masterlab 4.66 and 5.31, Erich-Jaeger, Würzburg, Germany) in accordance with the guidelines outlined by the American Thoracic
Important information for study participants

Please observe the following instructions before attending for your lung function tests

Avoid smoking tobacco for the 2 hours before your appointment
Avoid smoking marijuana for the 6 hours before your appointment
Avoid drinks with caffeine (tea, coffee, hot chocolate) for 6 hours before your appointment
Avoid fizzy drinks on the day of your test
Avoid large meals and do not eat for 1 hour prior to testing
Do not take antihistamines (anti-allergy medication) for 72 hours prior to testing

If you take medication for your breathing please observe the following

Relieving medication such as Salbutamol (Ventolin, Combivent) or Ipratropium (Atrovent) should not be taken for 6 hours before testing
Long acting inhalers such as Salmeterol (Serevent, Seretide), Formoterol (Oxis, Symbicort) or Tiotropium (Spiriva) should not be taken for 36 hours before testing
Methylxanthines (Nuelin) should not be taken for 12 hours if they are the short acting type or 48 hours for the slow release type.

Oral or inhaled steroids remain unchanged

All inhaled medication can be restarted immediately once testing has finished and all other medications can be taken as normal. If you have any questions about these instructions or feel that you need to use your medications within the times indicated please contact us.

If you have had a chest infection or symptoms of a cold (including sore throat, cough/runny or blocked nose that is not normal for you) in the 3 weeks before testing or have been given antibiotics for an exacerbation of asthma, COPD (chronic bronchitis or emphysema) please call us as soon as possible as we will need to reschedule your test.

If you have any queries please telephone us:

MRINZ Respiratory Lab: Tel 04 8050243 (please leave a message if there is no answer)

Figure 7.4: NZRHS Important Information for Study Participants
Society. Local NZ reference ranges derived by Marsh et al. [2006] were used. These reference ranges include predicted values for transfer factor and are a more accurate description of the local population than more widely used reference ranges [Fingleton et al., 2013c]. Subjects were tested using the same equipment, and in the majority of cases the same operator, at each visit to minimise variation. Height and weight were recorded, with shoes and outdoor clothing removed, to allow calculation of predicted values. Two identical scales were used in the study, both of which gave the same weight for a biological control when measured on each scale within one hour. Scale consistency was checked periodically throughout the study.

**Test Sequence**

For all visits the test sequence for PFTs was to measure airway conductance and resistance, followed by lung volumes by body plethysmography and finally spirometry with flow volume loops. Transfer factor was measured post- salbutamol at visit two, and expressed as transfer factor adjusted for lung volumes and corrected for haemoglobin (kCOcorr).

Visit specific testing was as follows.

Visit 1b:

- Height and weight
- Pre-bronchodilator PFTs
- Administration of ipratropium followed by 30 minute wait
- Main questionnaire administered during wait, assuming visit 1 and 1b were combined
Peak Expiratory Flow Rate (PEFR) diary and meter given and use explained

Post-bronchodilator PFTs

Visit 2:

- Asthma Control Questionnaire (ACQ-7)
- PEFR diary and meter collected and checked
- FeNO measurement
- Pre-bronchodilator PFTs
- Administration of salbutamol followed by 30 minute wait
- Saint George’s Respiratory Questionnaire (SGRQ)
- Blood Samples taken
- Post-bronchodilator PFTs
- Transfer Factor

- Dispense ICS and check technique
- Collect exacerbation history

Visit 3:

- ACQ-7
- PEFR diary and meter collected and checked
- Collect ICS and check compliance
- Collect adverse event and exacerbation history
- FeNO measurement
- Pre-bronchodilator PFTs
- Administration of salbutamol, followed by 30 minute wait
- SGRQ
- Post-bronchodilator PFTs
Shaded items performed as part of Phase 3 only.

**General guidelines**

All tests were performed with subjects sitting, with nose clips on and using a rubber mouthpiece without teeth grips. The tests were clearly explained to the subject before starting and positive encouragement was given at all stages of the test.

Equipment was calibrated daily prior to testing and biological controls were performed periodically on each machine. Same day lung function testing of a biological control in all three machines in sequence gave comparable results.

**Quality of life Questionnaires**

The questionnaires selected for use in the study were the Saint George’s Respiratory Questionnaire (SGRQ) and the Asthma Control Questionnaire (ACQ-7).

The SGRQ is a well validated health status questionnaire focusing on the impact of respiratory symptoms, and is available in NZ English [Jones, 2009, 2005; Jones et al., 1991, 1992]. The SGRQ was primarily included for use as a cluster analysis variable but was also used as a secondary outcome measure for the ICS responsiveness trial.

The ACQ-7 questionnaire is a well validated measure of control in asthma [Juniper et al., 1999, 2005]. It is sensitive to change and widely used as an outcome measure in asthma trials, accordingly this was selected as the primary outcome measure for Phase 3.
Bronchodilator Reversibility

Bronchodilator reversibility was performed in all subjects in accordance with British Thoracic Society guidelines. Each subject received 80mcg of ipratropium via a spacer at visit 1B and 400mcg of salbutamol via a spacer at visits 2 and 3.

The procedure for bronchodilator administration was as follows. The subject exhaled to Functional Residual Capacity (FRC) and placed their lips around the spacer (Volumatic, GSK, Brentford, UK). The Metered Dose Inhaler (MDI) was then shaken, placed into the end of the spacer and fired once. The subjects then inhaled slowly and deeply and held their breath for 10–15 seconds. This procedure was followed a total of four times. Post-bronchodilator pulmonary function tests were performed 30 minutes after the administration of the bronchodilator to allow for the slower onset of action of ipratropium [Gross, 1975].

Acceptability and reproducibility criteria

Criteria for technically unsatisfactory tests:
- Coughing during procedure
- Glottis closure during procedure
- Obstructed mouthpiece e.g. tongue in front of the mouthpiece
- A leak in the system or around the mouthpiece
- Excessive hesitation at the start of expiration
- Early termination of test by subject

Criteria for poor compliance:
- Greater than 5% variation in FEV1 between attempts
Expiratory time of less than 6 seconds

Peak expiratory flow of less than 85% of the best recorded

Testing was continued until 3 acceptable manoeuvres were completed or the subject had performed 9 manoeuvres.

In line with ATS guidelines, subjects who were unable to produce reproducible flow volume loops (<200mls difference or 5% variation in FEV₁ and FVC) were not excluded from analysis. In subjects who were not able to produce 3 acceptable flow volume loops comments regarding the technical acceptability of their testing were made. Prior to analysis all lung function data were reviewed to ensure technically inadequate data were excluded. Details of plethysmography settings are given in Appendix D

Main Questionnaire

The main respiratory questionnaire (Appendix C) was administered at the first study visit only. Questions in the main respiratory questionnaire were taken from the WRS and European Community Respiratory Survey. Interview guidelines for the questionnaire were provided to interviewers to ensure consistency in the method of administration, and are included in the appendix.

Exhaled Nitric Oxide

FeNO was measured by chemoluminescence using an online nitric oxide monitor (NIOX; Aerocrine AB, Solna, Sweden), according to the guidelines from the American Thoracic Society [2005].
Seated subjects exhaled fully, inhaled ambient air through a nitric oxide scrubber to total lung capacity, and then exhaled against an automatically adjusting resistance to achieve a constant exhalation flow rate of 50ml/s. Resistance was adjusted so that an upper airway pressure of at least 5cm H2O was maintained throughout exhalation, sufficient to close the velum and exclude nasal air. FeNO measurements were taken from a stable plateau exhaled nitric oxide concentration of at least 3 seconds duration. Exhalations where flow rate and plateau criteria were not met were deemed not acceptable for measurement. Repeated exhalations were performed a maximum of six times to obtain three acceptable measurements that agreed within 10%. The average of these three measurements was used.

The nitric oxide monitor was calibrated every 14 days or if the room temperature changed by more than 5°C. Measurements were made before other pulmonary function testing.

**Blood Tests**

Blood samples were drawn at visit two. The serum total IgE and high sensitivity C-Reactive Protein (hsCRP) were measured using a Roche Modular analyser (Roche, Basle, Switzerland). Blood haemoglobin and eosinophil levels were measured using the SYMEX XE2100 automated CBC analyser (Mundelein, Illinois, USA). Serum Phadiatop®, a composite test for a panel of specific IgEs with a positive result signifying atopy, was measured using the Thermo Fisher Scientific, ImmunoCAP platform (Phadia, Uppsala, Sweden).
All subjects who were steroid naïve at the time of testing were eligible to take part in Phase 3. Those who agreed to take part commenced a 12 week trial of ICS after visit two.

Subjects were given budesonide turbuhaler 400mcg twice daily and were taught correct inhaler technique at the end of visit two. During the final week of the ICS trial subjects completed a second peak flow diary, which they brought with them to visit three.

Subjects received a phone call at six and 11 weeks into the ICS trial, to encourage adherence to study medication and to remind them to start their peak flow diaries respectively.

In the original protocol and ethics application, ‘steroid naïve’ was defined as no inhaled or oral steroid in the previous 12 months. During the study it became apparent that there was a significant minority of subjects who had used ICS occasionally in the last 12 months but who had not used it in the last 3 months. As the purpose of phase three was to examine ICS responsiveness it was not felt appropriate to exclude these subjects from phase 3. Accordingly, an amendment was made to define eligibility for Phase 3 as “No oral or inhaled steroids in the last 90 days”. The amendment was approved by the ethics committee on the 30th August 2011. 145 subjects completed visit two prior to this amendment, of whom 81 were deemed not eligible for Phase 3. It is likely that a small proportion of those deemed not eligible for Phase 3 would have been eligible under the new definition.
When subjects attended for visit 3, peak flow diary sheets were collected and checked for completeness. ICS study medication inhalers were returned and checked. Information was sought regarding exacerbations, adverse events and subjective adherence to medication. Thereafter, testing was identical to visit 2 with the exception that transfer factor and bloods were not repeated.

7.5 STUDY DATA MANAGEMENT

Study data for individual subjects was stored in a subject file and later entered into a custom made Access database, used to store data generated during testing. All test data was double-entered into duplicate databases, which were reconciled prior to statistical analysis.
8.1 MAIN NZRHS ANALYSIS OBJECTIVES

Phase One

- To describe the demographics and symptom burden of the population from which the participants in the NZRHS were recruited.

Phase Two

- To explore clinical phenotypes of chronic airways disease by cluster analysis.
- To examine if phenotypes identified by the previous cluster analysis exist in the independent NZRHS sample.
- To compare the response to salbutamol between phenotype groups.
- To compare the response to ipratropium bromide between phenotype groups.
- To generate allocation rules and determine their predictive value for the different disorders of airways disease.

Phase Three

- To compare the response to ICS between phenotype groups.
8.2 Phase One

The response rate to the mailout was reported with a breakdown by wave. Completed questionnaire data was summarised to characterise the population from which the sample was drawn, and compare eligible respondents who did not take part in Phase 2 with those who did.

8.3 Phase Two

Summary data

Research participants were described by summary statistics and plots of personal, pulmonary function, and clinical disease characteristics.

Primary Cluster Analysis

Variable Selection

The 13 variables selected for cluster analysis are shown in Table 8.1. Selected variables differ slightly from those used in the previous WRS. In order to reduce the risk of one variable dominating the analysis, the categorical cough variable was removed. Five additional variables were added to try and describe more of the complexity of disease:

1. Peak flow variability
2. Quality of life
3. Age at onset of respiratory symptoms
4. BMI
5. hsCRP
A second measure of disease variability, peak flow variability (calculated as amplitude as a percentage of the mean over one week), was added in recognition of the limited value of a single measurement of bronchodilator reversibility [Fingleton et al., 2012]. SGRQ score was added as a measure of health status / Quality of Life (QoL). QoL is a very important component of the patient experience of disease, and therefore phenotypes which differed in QoL may be clinically important.

Age of onset of respiratory disease has been suggested to define important phenotypes [Wenzel, 2006] and was therefore added. As age of onset is potentially vulnerable to recall bias the youngest age given in response to the following three questions was used:

Table 8.1: Primary cluster analysis variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-bronchodilator FEV$_1$/FVC ratio (%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-bronchodilator FEV$_1$ (% predicted)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in FEV$_1$ post-salbutamol from baseline (%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kCOcorr (% predicted)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>FRC(% predicted)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural logarithm of the serum IgE concentration</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mean FeNO</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Pack years of tobacco consumption</td>
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<tr>
<td>Peak flow variability (amp. % mean)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of life (as measured by SGRQ score)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age at onset of respiratory symptoms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hsCRP</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

(%): Expressed as a percentage
(% predicted): Expressed as percentage of predicted normal
(amp. % mean): Expressed as amplitude as a percentage of the mean
- How old were you when you first experienced shortness of breath with wheezing? (If participant had answered yes to ‘Have you ever had wheezing or whistling in your chest when breathing?’)
- How old were you when you first noticed this trouble? (If participant had answered yes to ‘Do you ever have trouble with your breathing?’)
- How old were you when you had your first attack of asthma? (If participant had answered yes to ‘Did a doctor ever tell you that you that you had asthma?’)

BMI is a potentially important descriptor in relation to the obese, symptom predominant, candidate phenotype [Haldar et al., 2008].

hsCRP was added as a measure of systemic inflammation.

ALGORITHM

Cluster analysis was performed using all subjects with complete data for the 13 selected variables. As this study builds on the WRS, the methodology used was similar to that reported by Weatherall et al. [2009]. Hierarchical cluster analysis was applied, with both agglomerative (‘Agnes’) and divisive (‘Diana’) algorithms contained within the open-source R statistical software package ‘Cluster’ (R version 2.15.2, R statistical software, Auckland, NZ).

DISTANCE MEASURE

The previous analysis by Weatherall et al. [2009] utilised the Gower distance measure as this is meaningful in the context of categorical and continuous measures. This was replicated in the current analysis but, as the variables in the NZRHS are all continuous, the cluster analyses
were repeated using the more commonly applied Euclidean distance metric to allow comparison of the results and investigation of the extent to which the methodology used affects the clusters described. Both distance measures are available through the R function ‘Daisy’.

Many studies identified in the literature review utilise Ward’s minimum variance methodology [Ward, 1963], which aims to minimise the variation within a cluster [Everitt et al., 2011; Kaufman and Rousseau, 1990]. This method may have the advantage of being less affected by random variation, or ‘noise’, in the dataset [Everitt, 2007] and was therefore utilised. These choices meant that a total of 6 cluster analysis variants were explored:

- Diana–Euclidean
- Diana–Gower
- Agnes–Euclidean
- Agnes–Gower
- Agnes–Euclidean–Ward
- Agnes–Gower–Ward

In the previous analysis the number of clusters was chosen such that each cluster had a minimum of five to ten participants. This criterion was repeated. However in order to compare response to ICS, an estimated minimum cluster size of 30 was required in the sample size calculation (chapter 8). Therefore cluster solutions with a minimum size of 30 or more were selected where two methods gave otherwise comparable results.

Each solution was examined for group size and clinical coherence before the optimal solution was selected for phenotype description.
Clusters were described by summary statistics (mean and standard deviation) for the 13 cluster analysis variables. The chosen solution was then used for phenotype description with appropriate summary statistics for characteristics not included in the cluster analysis. These variables describe aspects of:

- Personal characteristics:
- Symptom history
- Age of onset
- Comorbidities
- Respiratory related healthcare utilisation
- Treatment in the last 12 months
- Laboratory values
- Lung function variables

*Exploratory Cluster Analyses*

A pre-specified exploratory cluster analysis was conducted to investigate the consistency of cluster identification if variables were changed.

To explore the extent to which results may differ from those of Weatherall et al. [2009] because of changes in analysis variables, the previous cluster analysis variables were applied to the new data set using the Agnes–and DIvisive ANAlysis (DIANA) algorithms. The results were then compared with those from the WRS and the Agnes–Gower–Ward 5 (AGW5) solution in this study.

The nine variables used for this analysis were:

1. Pre-bronchodilator FEV₁/FVC ratio (%)
2. Pre-bronchodilator FEV₁ (% predicted)
3. Change in $\text{FEV}_1$ post-salbutamol from baseline (%)
4. $k\text{COcorr}$ (% predicted)
5. $\text{FRC}$ (% predicted)
6. Natural logarithm of the serum IgE concentration
7. Mean $\text{FeNO}$
8. Pack years of tobacco consumption
9. Sputum production

For the purpose of this analysis the NZRHS cough question "Do you usually bring up phlegm from your chest first thing in the morning" was deemed equivalent to the WRS question "Do you usually bring up sputum from your chest or have sputum in your chest that is difficult to bring up when you don’t have a cold?".

*Bronchodilator Responsiveness*

The primary response variables for ipratropium and salbutamol responsiveness were change from baseline expressed as a percentage. Bronchodilator responsiveness was calculated for all participants included in the cluster analysis and differences between groups compared using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

*Generation of Allocation Rule*

Diagnostic criteria or allocation rules for the identified phenotypes were developed using regression trees. Multiple possible allocation rules were generated and the performance of different allocation rules compared.
The classification approach used the R function ‘rpart’ [Therneau et al., 2012] and tree-pruning using ten-fold cross-validation using the ‘one minus standard error’ approach to define the complexity parameter for the trimmed tree.

The 13 cluster analysis variables were included in the analysis along with sputum production, FeNO and serum Phadiatop (as a dichotomous variable). In addition, after the cluster analysis was completed, the descriptive data were reviewed and additional variables which appeared differentially distributed between groups were added to the analysis.

If different combinations of variables gave a similar accuracy of allocation, priority was given to variables with less between test variability, and which could feasibly be used in routine clinical practice as well as future research studies.

8.4 Phase three

ICS Responsiveness

ICS responsiveness definition:

Within this document the phrase "ICS responsiveness" refers to the change in clinical characteristics from baseline in steroid naive subjects receiving 12 weeks of open label inhaled corticosteroid.

The primary outcome variable for ICS Responsiveness was symptom control as measured by ACQ-7 score. Although the intervention was open label, both subjects and investigators were blind to cluster
allocation at the time of testing as the cluster analysis had not yet been conducted. For the purposes of the analyses, changes in the specified outcome variables are deemed to be due to the ICS treatment.

All participants who took part in the ICS trial and attended for visit 3 were included in the analysis, as long as they had taken at least 6 weeks and not more than 6 months of ICS.

For the participants who were given ICS a mixed linear model was used to compare the mean differences between visit 3 and visit 2 between clusters using a ‘visit by cluster’ interaction term. If this was not statistically significant then the model without the interaction term was used to estimate the difference between visit 3 and visit 2, averaged over clusters, and the difference between clusters averaged over visits, the latter used cluster 3 as the comparator level. For the mixed linear model the participants were treated as random effects, to take account of the repeated measurements on the same participants. FeNO also had a skew distribution and was analysed on the logarithm transformed scale.

**SECONDARY OUTCOME VARIABLES FOR ICS RESPONSIVENESS**

The secondary outcome variables for ICS responsiveness were:

- Mean FeNO
- Total SGRQ
- FEV1 (% predicted)
- Peak flow variability (amplitude as a percentage of the mean)
- Difference in the rate of serious adverse events between clusters.
Secondary outcome measures were analysed as above for the continuous variables. Serious Adverse Event (SAE) rates were compared by exact Chi-squared test.

8.5 Sample size and power calculation

The sample size for the NZRHS was determined with the aim of ensuring that there would be a sufficient number of subjects in Phase 3 to detect a difference in ICS responsiveness. The major challenge in determining the appropriate sample size for the study was that cluster allocation would not be known at the time of testing and a change in the relative size of different groups would substantially alter the power to detect differences between groups.

The primary outcome for Phase 3 was the change in ACQ-7. The minimum clinically important difference (MCID) for ACQ-7 is a 0.5 point change [Juniper et al., 2005] and this was used for the power calculation. As discussed in the literature review, the Medical Research Institute of New Zealand (MRINZ) previously conducted the WRS in a similar population sample with similar methodology [Weatherall et al., 2009]. The following assumptions were made for the sample size calculation:

- The NZRHS would describe the same number of clusters as the WRS, with similar proportions in each cluster.
- The Standard Deviation (SD) for the ACQ-7 would be similar to that seen in a previous study [Martin et al., 2007]
- At least 50% of the subjects would be eligible for Phase 3.

It was planned to survey 9,700 individuals from the general population. Assuming a similar response rate to the earlier Wellington Respiratory
Survey, it was anticipated that around 6,429 would return the postal questionnaire. Also based on results from the WRS, it was estimated that 900 (14%) of these would meet the criteria for symptomatic airways obstruction and would be invited to attend for the investigative modules. If approximately half of these subjects attended visit 1, this would allow the enrolment of 450 participants (Figure 8.1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original electoral roll sample (n=9,709)</th>
<th>85% correctly addressed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid contact details (n=8,252)</td>
<td>77.9% response rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completed screening questionnaire (n=6,429)</td>
<td>14% eligible for Phase 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eligible for enrollment in Phase 2 (n=900)</td>
<td>50% enrollment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolled in Phase 2 (n= 450)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 8.1: Estimates of the mail-out size required to enrol 450 participants

This would provide the necessary numbers to ensure that at least 30 steroid-naïve subjects would be included in each of the five major clusters, thereby enabling recruitment of at least 16 steroid naive subjects per cluster group in the clinical trial of ICS responsiveness if over half of the eligible subjects enrolled. If the response to the postal
survey was smaller than anticipated then additional mail-outs would be undertaken to allow 450 subjects to be recruited for testing. The utility of this sample size for the ICS trial is supported by previously published work examining the 16 week efficacy of ICS in asthma patients defined by degree of eosinophilic airways inflammation [Martin et al., 2007]. In this study, ICS efficacy was measured using the ACQ-7. There was a difference between the eosinophilic and non-eosinophilic groups of 0.49 units on this score with standard deviations of 0.57 and 0.54 in each group. A sample size of 16 for each of the comparator groups provides, at 5% significance, 80% power to detect a difference of 0.5 units between groups, which is equal to the MCID.

8.6 Safety Monitoring

General Health Care

Participants received usual general practitioner care throughout the study. At the end of their final visit participants were offered a copy of their lung function and spirometry data with a covering letter, which could be modified with additional information where felt appropriate.

Adverse Events

For the purposes of this study an adverse event was any untoward medical occurrence in a study subject temporally associated with participation in the trial and the administration of study medication, whether or not considered related to the medicine. An adverse event can therefore be any unfavourable and unintended sign, symptom
or disease temporally associated with the use of the study treatment. Adverse event data was collected and analysed with efficacy data at the end of the study. Serious adverse events were notified to the Central Regional Ethics Committee according to standard guidelines.

**Serious Adverse Events (SAEs)**

For the purposes of this study the following events were considered to be SAEs and required expedited reporting:

- Death
- Life-threatening event
- Permanently disabling or incapacitating event
- Hospitalisation or prolongation of hospitalisation
- Any event considered serious by the study investigator

Hospitalisation for the purposes of SAE reporting was defined as an admission to hospital and did not include a presentation to the Emergency Department followed by discharge without admission, or an admission for elective reasons.

Should a female subject on the trial have become pregnant during the course of the trial, the pregnancy itself would not be regarded as an SAE although it would have been reported to the Ethics Committee in an expedited manner. The subject would have been asked to contact the researchers after the birth of the baby and any congenital anomaly or birth defect would have been considered to be an SAE.
Asthma or COPD Exacerbations

In the event of an exacerbation of a subject’s airways disease during the study period they received standard care for their exacerbation from their usual medical practitioner and were advised to continue their study medication. They were asked to notify the study investigator of any such events and were followed-up as appropriate.

Designated Safety Data Reviewers

The designated safety data reviewer for the study was Dr Philippa Shirtcliffe. The investigators met regularly to review the progress of the study including the monitoring of adverse events.

8.7 ethics approval

The study was approved by the Central Regional Ethics Committee, approval number CEN\09\12\095. All subjects completed written informed consent prior to lung-function testing.
Part III

THE NEW ZEALAND RESPIRATORY HEALTH SURVEY: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
PHASE 1

9.1 RESULTS

Ethics committee final approval for the NZRHS was gained on the 2nd November 2010. There was a rapid response to the initial mail-out and the first participant attended for testing on the 15th November 2010. Enrolment was completed on 25th July 2012 and the last subject’s last visit was on the 3rd December 2012. The flow diagram for the NZRHS is shown in Figure 9.1.

Response Rates

Questionnaires were sent out to a total of 16,459 individuals. Mail-outs were sent in 13 similarly sized waves to stagger responses, with the aim of minimising the time between questionnaire response and the invitation to attend for testing.

There were 11,397 responses (69.2%), of which 2,658 were “Not known at this address”. 35 individuals were deceased and there were 76 spoiled/blank questionnaires, leaving 8,628 completed questionnaires (62.5% of correctly addressed mail). Response rates varied between waves and are shown in Table 9.1.
Figure 9.1: Flow of participants through the 3 phases of the NZRHS

† 29 participants were not included in the cluster analysis because they had missing data for one or more of the 13 cluster analysis variables.
The response rate by stage of mail-out was not formally collected and therefore cannot be reported for each wave. However, for wave 1 approximately 35% of the 1,272 individuals selected responded to the initial mail-out, approximately 15-20% responded to the first reminder, around 8% responded to the second reminder, and a further 10-15% responded to telephone contact. This pattern appeared consistent across all waves.

Whilst the majority of responses were received by post, a total of 1,038 responses were received online, of which 1,024 had matching personal numbers. All online respondents answered at least one of the screening questions, therefore 1,024 of the 8,627 completed questionnaires (11.9%) were returned online. The mean (SD) age of online respondents was 40.4 (12.9), with a range of 18-75 years.

### Table 9.1: NZRHS response rates by wave

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wave</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Responded</th>
<th>Did Not Respond</th>
<th>Response Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,272</td>
<td>944</td>
<td>328</td>
<td>74.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1,271</td>
<td>935</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>73.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1,273</td>
<td>959</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>75.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1,278</td>
<td>943</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>73.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1,273</td>
<td>918</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>72.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1,280</td>
<td>932</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>72.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1,274</td>
<td>896</td>
<td>378</td>
<td>70.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1,265</td>
<td>946</td>
<td>419</td>
<td>74.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1,235</td>
<td>797</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>64.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1,235</td>
<td>783</td>
<td>452</td>
<td>63.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>1,234</td>
<td>776</td>
<td>458</td>
<td>62.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1,235</td>
<td>807</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>65.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>1,235</td>
<td>761</td>
<td>474</td>
<td>61.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16,460</td>
<td>11,397</td>
<td>5,063</td>
<td>69.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Examination of the data suggested that, although all age groups were represented in online responses, participants above the age of 60 were less likely to respond online (Figure 9.2a) but were well represented in postal responses (Figure 9.2b). The difference in respondent age pattern with online responses was most marked for participants who identified as female, with a high proportion of online responses identifying as female coming from individuals below the age of 40.
Figure 9.2: Age and sex distributions of online, postal, telephone and all NZRHS respondents for comparison with estimated NZ population.
Figure 9.2: Age and sex distributions of NZRHS respondents continued. Figure (d) is repeated as Figure (g) for ease of comparison.
1,036/8,627 (12.0%) questionnaires were completed by telephone in response to a reminder call. Examination of the age and sex distribution (Figure 9.2c) suggests that middle-aged people were most likely to complete the questionnaire when receiving a reminder call, with no clear difference between the sexes. It is possible that this is in part due to this age group being more likely to have a publicly listed telephone number.

As the majority of completed questionnaires, 6,527/8,627 (76.1%), were received by post, the age pyramid for postal responses (Figure 9.2b) is similar to that of all respondents (Figure 9.2d). Comparison of the age pyramid for all respondents with one constructed using estimated NZ population data obtained from Statistics New Zealand [Accessed 15th May 2013] (Figure 9.2h) suggests that the younger age groups may be under-represented. In order to examine whether this was due to poor response rates in this age group or under-representation on the electoral roll, electoral roll statistics for the four sampled electorates were obtained [Electoral Commission, Accessed 15th May 2013]. A combined plot of all four electorates (Figure 9.3) clearly shows that enrolment rates are substantially lower in younger age groups. Over all age groups it is estimated that 89.2% of eligible voters are enrolled, however the proportion varies from around 100% in older age groups to 63.4% among 18-24yr olds (Table 9.2).
Figure 9.3: Estimated eligible and enrolled voters in the Wellington region

Population pyramid with absolute numbers in thousands on the left and percentages on the right. The estimated population eligible to vote is shown in blue and the enrolled population in green, therefore visible blue bars represented eligible but not enrolled voters. Figure drawn using data from Table 9.2.

Table 9.2: Estimated eligible and enrolled voters for the Wellington region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>ELIGIBLE</th>
<th>GENERAL ROLL</th>
<th>MAORI ROLL</th>
<th>TOTAL ENROLLED</th>
<th>% ENROLLED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18 - 24</td>
<td>33,260</td>
<td>19,681</td>
<td>1,412</td>
<td>21,093</td>
<td>63.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 - 29</td>
<td>26,340</td>
<td>18,752</td>
<td>1,152</td>
<td>19,904</td>
<td>75.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 - 34</td>
<td>23,520</td>
<td>19,135</td>
<td>1,142</td>
<td>20,277</td>
<td>86.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 - 39</td>
<td>19,880</td>
<td>18,727</td>
<td>1,086</td>
<td>19,813</td>
<td>99.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 - 44</td>
<td>20,280</td>
<td>19,067</td>
<td>1,128</td>
<td>20,195</td>
<td>99.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 - 49</td>
<td>19,150</td>
<td>18,182</td>
<td>1,040</td>
<td>19,222</td>
<td>100.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 - 54</td>
<td>17,860</td>
<td>17,104</td>
<td>976</td>
<td>18,080</td>
<td>101.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55 - 59</td>
<td>14,510</td>
<td>13,579</td>
<td>679</td>
<td>14,258</td>
<td>98.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 - 64</td>
<td>12,020</td>
<td>11,351</td>
<td>517</td>
<td>12,068</td>
<td>100.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 - 69</td>
<td>9,420</td>
<td>8,673</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>8,967</td>
<td>95.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70+</td>
<td>8,960</td>
<td>17,757</td>
<td>369</td>
<td>18,126</td>
<td>95.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>215,200</td>
<td>182,208</td>
<td>9,795</td>
<td>192,003</td>
<td>89.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of voters, estimated and enrolled, for Wellington Central, Rongotai, Óhariau, Hutt South and the corresponding parts of Te Tai Tonga, Te Tai Hauáuru and Ikaroa-Rãwhiti. Data obtained from Electoral Commission [Accessed 15th May 2013].
Eligibility and Enrolment

1,264 respondents (14.8% of those answering Q1) had experienced wheeze with breathlessness in the previous 12 months and were eligible to be enrolled in phase 2 (Table 9.3).

Table 9.3: NZRHS screening questionnaire responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUESTION</th>
<th>ANSWERED BY</th>
<th>POSITIVE RESPONSE†</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>DEMOGRAPHICS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (years)</td>
<td>8,366</td>
<td>46.9 (14.6)‡</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex (Male)</td>
<td>8,509</td>
<td>3,999 (47.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SYMPTOMS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheeze in last 12 months</td>
<td>8,540</td>
<td>2,136 (25.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breathless when wheezing</td>
<td>8,523</td>
<td>1,264 (14.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually cough</td>
<td>8,509</td>
<td>1,856 (21.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cough ≥3 months per year</td>
<td>8,497</td>
<td>1,008 (11.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually bring up phlegm</td>
<td>8,501</td>
<td>1,027 (12.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phlegm ≥3 months per year</td>
<td>8,502</td>
<td>726 (8.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trouble with breathing</td>
<td>8,516</td>
<td>1,940 (22.88)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DOCTORS DIAGNOSIS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chronic bronchitis</td>
<td>8,500</td>
<td>574 (6.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphysema</td>
<td>8,509</td>
<td>78 (0.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asthma</td>
<td>8,519</td>
<td>1,969 (23.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SMOKING STATUS</strong></td>
<td>8,399</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current</td>
<td></td>
<td>785 (9.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ex</td>
<td></td>
<td>2,638 (31.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td></td>
<td>4,976 (59.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of smoking</td>
<td>3,312</td>
<td>15.0 (13.2)‡</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table shows the number of people who answered "Yes" to each question. †Values reported as N (%) except where otherwise stated. ‡Continuous variables expressed as Mean (SD)

When contacted, approximately half of respondents with eligible questionnaires agreed to attend for phenotyping. Mail-outs were therefore discontinued once over 900 eligible questionnaires had been
received. Reminders were sent out in similar fashion for all waves to avoid bias from only sampling early responders in later waves. Responses were returned up to a year after the initial mail-out, so some returns were received after completion of enrolment.

Questionnaire responses for all, eligible and enrolled respondents are shown in Table 9.4.

Table 9.4: Screening questionnaire responses by eligibility and enrolment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>All Responses (N=8,627)</th>
<th>Phase 2 Eligible (N=1,264)</th>
<th>Phase 2 Enrolled (N=451)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demographics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (years) †</td>
<td>46.9 (14.6)§</td>
<td>45.4 (14.6)†</td>
<td>47.5 (14.0)#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex (Male)</td>
<td>3,999/8,509 (47.0)</td>
<td>496/1,256 (60.5)</td>
<td>210/449 (46.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symptoms</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheeze in last 12 months</td>
<td>2,136/8,540 (25.0)</td>
<td>1,264/1,264 (100)</td>
<td>451/451 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breathless when wheezing</td>
<td>1,264/8,523 (14.8)</td>
<td>1,264/1,264 (100)</td>
<td>451/451 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually cough</td>
<td>1,856/8,509 (21.8)</td>
<td>617/1,251 (49.3)</td>
<td>234/446 (52.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cough &gt;3 months per year</td>
<td>1,008/8,497 (11.9)</td>
<td>423/1,252 (33.8)</td>
<td>164/445 (36.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually bring up phlegm</td>
<td>1,027/8,501 (12.1)</td>
<td>342/1,249 (29.8)</td>
<td>141/446 (31.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phlegm &gt;3 months per year</td>
<td>726/8,502 (8.5)</td>
<td>298/1,257 (23.7)</td>
<td>107/446 (24.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trouble with breathing</td>
<td>1,940/8,516 (22.8)</td>
<td>983/1,252 (78.5)</td>
<td>381/449 (84.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctors diagnosis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chronic bronchitis</td>
<td>574/8,500 (6.8)</td>
<td>243/1,244 (19.5)</td>
<td>82/443 (18.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphysema</td>
<td>76/8,509 (0.9)</td>
<td>47/1,244 (3.8)</td>
<td>18/442 (4.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asthma</td>
<td>1,069/8,519 (23.1)</td>
<td>860/1,254 (68.6)</td>
<td>323/446 (72.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smoking status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current</td>
<td>785/8,399 (9.4)</td>
<td>203/1,240 (16.4)</td>
<td>60/443 (13.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ex</td>
<td>2,638/8,399 (31.4)</td>
<td>424/1,240 (35.0)</td>
<td>157/441 (35.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>4,976/8,399 (59.3)</td>
<td>603/1,240 (48.6)</td>
<td>224/441 (50.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of smoking †</td>
<td>15.0 (13.2)*</td>
<td>17.1 (13.9)§</td>
<td>18.2 (13.9)††</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values reported as N/N (%) unless otherwise stated. † Mean (SD) § N=8,366; † N=1,240; # N=445; * N=3,312; $ N=610; †† N=210
Individuals did not always answer all questions on the screening questionnaire, therefore the number of respondents is given for each question.

When contacted, approximately half of respondents with eligible questionnaires agreed to attend for phenotyping. Mail-outs were therefore discontinued once over 900 eligible questionnaires had been
received. Reminders were sent out in similar fashion for all waves to avoid bias from only sampling early responders in later waves. Responses were returned up to a year after the initial mail-out, so some returns were received after completion of enrolment.

Questionnaire responses for all, eligible and enrolled respondents are shown in Table 9.4.

Eligible respondents were similar in age but were more likely to be male (60.5% versus 46.8%), more likely to have a respiratory diagnosis (68.6% v 23.1% for asthma), more likely to be current smokers (16.4% v 9.4%), and by definition had more symptoms than the overall sample. Enrolled respondents were similar to eligible respondents but with a smaller proportion of participants identifying as male (46.8% v 60.5%). The proportion of participants eligible to take part in Phase 2 was similar across age bands (Figure 9.4).

![Figure 9.4: Eligibility of NZRHS respondents by age bands](image_url)
Questionnaire Results

A summary of questionnaire responses is shown in Table 9.3. Mean respondent age at the start of the study was 46.9 (14.6) years, range 18-99.

Wheeze and wheeze plus breathlessness in the last 12 months were both common, being reported by 25.0% and 14.8% of respondents respectively. Rates of cough (21.8%) and sputum production (12.1%) were also high, consistent with a substantial burden of disease in the population. Current smoking was reported by 16.4%, with 59.3% of respondents identifying as never smokers.

Examination of responses for all and eligible participants by age bands showed clear differences in smoking patterns and symptom burden (Figure 9.5). Smoking rates were higher for eligible participants in all age bands but eligible and enrolled participants had similar distributions by age band. A higher proportion of young people were never smokers, which is consistent with the reported decline in smoking in NZ [Broad and Jackson, 2003]. All symptoms and diagnoses were more common in eligible participants.

Prevalence of reported asthma declined with age whereas emphysema and chronic bronchitis were more common in older age bands. There was no clear age pattern for cough amongst all respondents, however within eligible participants there was a trend to increased prevalence with increasing age.
9.2 Discussion

Figure 9.5: Characteristics of NZRHS respondents by age bands

- (a) Smoking status by age band (eligible respondents)
- (b) Smoking status by age band (all respondents)
- (c) Asthma diagnosis by age band (eligible respondents)
- (d) Asthma diagnosis by age band (all respondents)
Figure 9.5: Characteristics of NZRHS respondents by age bands continued.
Figure 9.5: Characteristics of NZRHS respondents by age bands continued.
The response rate to the screening questionnaire was high and the responses are therefore likely to be representative of the wider population. The response rate is not as high as that achieved in the previous WRS (69% versus 77.9%) [Shirtcliffe et al., 2007] but is still good by international standards. Response rates to postal surveys may be dropping in NZ [Fink et al., 2011] and the rate achieved in the NZRHS compares favourably with recent response rates reported by Fink et al. [2011] (48.1% in 2008 to 70.9% in 1990).

The extent to which the design of the questionnaire determines response is unclear, but a Cochrane Review has reported that different designs can lead to substantially different response rates in the same population [Edwards et al., 2009]. Factors in the NZRHS which have previously been associated with higher response rates are ‘short questionnaire’, ‘personalised letter’, ‘assurance of confidentiality’, ‘follow-up contact’ and provision of a second copy of the questionnaire with reminder contacts [Edwards et al., 2009]. Although an incentive delivered with the questionnaire has been reported to improve response rates, excellent response rates were achieved in this study without the use of incentives.

The increased rate of all respiratory conditions amongst the eligible groups supports the usefulness of the selected questions in identifying individuals with possible respiratory disease.

One interesting pattern in this study is the decline in response rate in the later waves. This is unlikely to be due to early waves having
had longer to respond, as even the later waves were sent out almost a year before these figures were compiled and responses had stopped prior to response rates being calculated. However, due to timing of post-outs varying around holiday periods, the early waves had two months between the initial letter and the first reminder whereas later waves only had a one month gap. It is possible that earlier reminders are perceived as inappropriate and lead to a lower overall response rate.

The option to respond online was offered with the aim of improving response rates in the younger age-range, but it is not possible to know if these participants would have returned paper questionnaires had the online option had not been available. The younger age profile of online respondents (Figure 9.2a) suggests that this age group are comfortable with online surveys and that including this option may have improved response rates in this group. Younger adults are less likely to have a long-term fixed address and this contributes to their under-representation and a higher proportion of incorrect addresses on the electoral roll.

The high response rate and take-up of Phase 2 places means that the Phase 2 sample is likely to be representative of the population sampled, although the under 25 age groups will be slightly under-represented. The reported prevalence of wheeze in this study (25.7%) is similar to that previously reported in NZ adults taking part in the European Community Respiratory Health Survey [1996] (25.0%) and the rate of wheeze with breathlessness in the last year is identical at 14.8% [Crane et al., 1994; D'Souza et al., 1999; European Community Respiratory Health Survey, 1996]. The higher prevalence of reported
asthma in younger age groups would be consistent with an increasing prevalence of asthma, as has been previously reported [British Thoracic Society; Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network, 2012; GINA, 2011]. However, there may be an element of recall bias, in that older age groups may not recall a childhood diagnosis of asthma.
10

PHASE 2

10.1 RESULTS

Data description

Of the 451 participants who enrolled in phase 2, 10 were excluded and 23 withdrew during phenotyping. Of the 10 excluded subjects, four were unable to complete PFTs, and three had co-morbidities which affected the interpretation of their lung function tests (two subjects had severe heart failure, one had renal failure with fluid overload). The remaining three subjects were found not to meet the inclusion criteria after the consent form had been signed. 418 subjects completed both phenotyping visits, of whom 389 had complete data for the 13 cluster analysis variables. Of the 29 with missing data, 16 did not have an age of symptom onset recorded, 10 had incomplete peak flow diaries and the remainder were missing hsCRP or IgE values. The majority were missing peak flow variability due to incomplete peak flow diaries.

Characteristics of participants with complete data are shown in Table 10.1, with self-reported ethnicity shown in Table 10.2. All characteristics showed a wide range of values, reflecting the heterogeneity of the participants. The majority of participants were of NZ European origin, precluding further analysis by ethnicity.
### Table 10.1: Characteristics of cluster analysis sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Mean (SD)</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age at first visit, years</td>
<td>48.9 (13.9)</td>
<td>19 to 76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of Onset</td>
<td>23.8 (19.1)</td>
<td>0 to 70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack Years</td>
<td>8.20 (15.1)</td>
<td>0 to 87.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMI</td>
<td>28.6 (6.6)</td>
<td>15.7 to 57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV₁ (% predicted)</td>
<td>81.7 (19.0)</td>
<td>18.8 to 123.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV₁/FVC ratio (%)</td>
<td>70.3 (12.5)</td>
<td>25.5 to 94.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRC (% predicted)</td>
<td>93.5 (26.2)</td>
<td>46.5 to 216.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kCOcorr (% predicted)</td>
<td>99.1 (17.4)</td>
<td>34.5 to 143.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEFR variability (%)</td>
<td>20.7 (12.6)</td>
<td>1.8 to 84.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reversibility (%)</td>
<td>10.0 (11.8)</td>
<td>-10.7 to 121.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FeNO</td>
<td>33.7 (35.2)</td>
<td>2.7 to 262.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IgE</td>
<td>343 (1162)</td>
<td>0.1 to 18,083</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hsCRP</td>
<td>2.88 (4.43)</td>
<td>0.3 to 43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGRQ</td>
<td>23.7 (16.8)</td>
<td>0 to 84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 389

### Table 10.2: Self-reported ethnicity of Phase 2 participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maori</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NZ European</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>86.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pacific Islander</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other / Not Stated</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 389
Distribution of cluster analysis variables was assessed using histograms. IgE, FeNO and hsCRP had markedly skewed distributions and a natural logarithmic transformation was applied to give a more symmetrical distribution. The remaining cluster analysis variables did not require transformation.

Correlations between the cluster analysis variables were calculated as a correlation matrix (Table 10.3) and are represented as an ellipse plot (Figure 10.1). FEV\textsubscript{1} and FEV\textsubscript{1}/FVC ratio were highly correlated, with moderate correlation between degree of obstruction and reversibility, transfer factor, health status and smoking history. FeNO was inversely correlated with smoking history and SGRQ. Other variables showed weak or no correlation, which would be consistent with them representing relatively independent components of disease.
Figure 10.1: Graphical correlation matrix for cluster analysis variables

The strength of correlation between variables is represented by the colour of the ellipse, as indicated by the legend. Dark red represents a strongly negative correlation and dark blue a strongly positive correlation. The narrower the ellipse the more statistically significant the correlation. Correlation values and level of significance are given in Table 10.3. †Expressed as percent predicted; ‡Percent change from baseline after 400mcg salbutamol; §Log transformed.
Table 10.3: Correlation matrix for cluster analysis variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>BMI</th>
<th>FVC:FVC</th>
<th>FEV1</th>
<th>FRC</th>
<th>kCOcorr</th>
<th>hsCRP</th>
<th>IgE</th>
<th>FeNO</th>
<th>PACK YRS</th>
<th>PEFR VAR</th>
<th>REVERSIBILITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BMI</td>
<td>0.18***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FVC:FVC</td>
<td>-0.14**</td>
<td>0.14**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.77***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRC†</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>-0.39***</td>
<td>-0.73***</td>
<td>-0.46***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kCOcorr†</td>
<td>-0.19***</td>
<td>0.21***</td>
<td>0.33***</td>
<td>0.16***</td>
<td>-0.45***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hsCRP$§</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.45***</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>-0.15**</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>-0.10*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IgE§</td>
<td>-0.19***</td>
<td>-0.12*</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.11*</td>
<td>0.12*</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FeNO§</td>
<td>-0.14**</td>
<td>-0.17***</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.18***</td>
<td>-0.16***</td>
<td>0.23***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack yrs</td>
<td>0.27***</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>-0.38***</td>
<td>-0.27***</td>
<td>0.28***</td>
<td>-0.33***</td>
<td>0.14**</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.31***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEFR variability</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.45***</td>
<td>-0.49***</td>
<td>0.33***</td>
<td>-0.17***</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.12*</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.16**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reversibility†</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.17***</td>
<td>-0.60***</td>
<td>-0.57***</td>
<td>0.49***</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.21***</td>
<td>0.17***</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.41***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGRQ</td>
<td>0.24***</td>
<td>0.26***</td>
<td>-0.33***</td>
<td>-0.38***</td>
<td>0.20***</td>
<td>-0.25***</td>
<td>0.24***</td>
<td>-0.10*</td>
<td>-0.25***</td>
<td>0.32***</td>
<td>0.36***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** p < 0.001; ** p < 0.01; * p < .05

$AOO: Age of onset †Percent predicted; §Log transformed; ‡Percent change from baseline 30 minutes post 400mcg salbutamol
Cluster Analysis

Cluster analysis was performed as described in chapter 8. The use of Agnes and Diana algorithms, Gower and Euclidean metrics, and the addition of Ward’s method gave a total of 6 possible solutions for examination:

- Diana–Euclidean
- Diana–Gower
- Agnes–Euclidean
- Agnes–Gower
- Agnes–Euclidean–Ward
- Agnes–Gower–Ward

Each solution was examined for group size and clinical coherence before the optimal solution was selected for phenotype description, using variables not included in the cluster analysis. The chosen solution, and reasons for selection will be described and solutions which were not selected will be discussed briefly, prior to detailed examination of the selected candidate phenotypes.

AGNES–GOWER–WARD SOLUTION

The dendrogram generated by the AGglomerative NESting (AGNES) algorithm using Ward’s method and the Gower distance metric is shown in Figure 10.2a.

A plot of ASW did not provide strong evidence in favour of a particular number of clusters, although ASW decreased with increasing number of clusters (Figure 10.2b). However, the gap statistic, although not clearly separating groups (Figure 10.2c), was maximal for four and
Figure 10.2: Dendrogram and cluster selection statistics for Agnes–Gower–Ward solution
five cluster solutions (Figure 10.2d), suggesting these may be most appropriate numbers of groups. Cluster solutions with up to 5 clusters had more than 30 participants in the smallest group, whereas moving to a 6 cluster solution led to one cluster containing only 9 participants (Table 10.4).

Table 10.4: Number of participants per cluster for Agnes–Gower–Ward solution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NUMBER OF CLUSTERS IN SOLUTION</th>
<th>CLUSTER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two cluster</td>
<td>296 93 – – – –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three cluster</td>
<td>155 141 93 – – –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four cluster</td>
<td>155 141 59 34 – –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five cluster</td>
<td>155 80 61 59 34 –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Six cluster</td>
<td>155 80 61 59 25 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In light of the gap statistic results and group sizes, the four and five cluster solutions were used for examination of cluster characteristics (Tables 10.5 and 10.6).

Clusters containing 155, 59 and 34 participants were present in both Agnes–Gower–Ward 4 (AGW4) and Agnes–Gower–Ward 5 (AGW5) solutions. The cluster of 34 participants was characterised by late onset disease with moderate to severe obstruction, hyperinflation, marked bronchodilator reversibility and peak flow variability, raised IgE but low FeNO and reduced transfer factor in smokers. This group had the worst health status and the pattern would be consistent with an asthma/COPD overlap group.

The clusters with 155 and 59 participants have early-onset disease with evidence of atopy and raised FeNO, separated by severity of
### 10.1 Results

#### Table 10.5: Agnes–Gower–Ward 4 cluster comparison by analysis variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>1 (N=34)</th>
<th>2 (N=59)</th>
<th>3 (N=141)</th>
<th>4 (N=155)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEV1/FVC ratio (%)</td>
<td>51.5 (15.2)</td>
<td>56.0 (9.3)</td>
<td>73.9 (6.8)</td>
<td>76.6 (7.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1 (%) predicted</td>
<td>62.02 (4.8)</td>
<td>59.9 (15.0)</td>
<td>87.2 (14.2)</td>
<td>89.4 (12.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRC (%) predicted</td>
<td>133.5 (35.9)</td>
<td>113.9 (25.2)</td>
<td>83.6 (17.9)</td>
<td>86.0 (16.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reversibility</td>
<td>16.4 (12.4)</td>
<td>24.1 (18.7)</td>
<td>6.0 (7.0)</td>
<td>6.9 (5.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEFR variability</td>
<td>34.1 (15.2)</td>
<td>33.3 (15.3)</td>
<td>16.7 (9.6)</td>
<td>18.8 (8.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kCOcorr (%) predicted</td>
<td>73.5 (21.3)</td>
<td>99.4 (18.7)</td>
<td>102.0 (14.8)</td>
<td>102.0 (13.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FeNO</td>
<td>12.3 (8.3)</td>
<td>42.1 (41.2)</td>
<td>25.6 (23.1)</td>
<td>42.7 (41.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IgE</td>
<td>397 (72)</td>
<td>452 (1103)</td>
<td>190 (635)</td>
<td>428 (1543)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hsCRP</td>
<td>2.7 (2.7)</td>
<td>3.3 (6.4)</td>
<td>2.7 (2.4)</td>
<td>2.9 (5.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of Onset</td>
<td>35.5 (19.8)</td>
<td>11.5 (10.5)</td>
<td>40.1 (15.1)</td>
<td>11.1 (9.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMI</td>
<td>26.2 (4.3)</td>
<td>26.5 (5.4)</td>
<td>31.4 (6.7)</td>
<td>27.3 (6.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGRQ</td>
<td>43.6 (16.8)</td>
<td>26.2 (15.0)</td>
<td>27.0 (17.6)</td>
<td>15.3 (10.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack years</td>
<td>35.55 (17.8)</td>
<td>4.4 (9.0)</td>
<td>10.8 (16.1)</td>
<td>1.3 (3.8)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Table 10.6: Agnes–Gower–Ward 5 cluster comparison by analysis variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>1 (N=34)</th>
<th>2 (N=59)</th>
<th>3 (N=80)</th>
<th>4 (N=61)</th>
<th>5 (N=155)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEV1/FVC ratio (%)</td>
<td>51.5 (15.2)</td>
<td>56.0 (9.3)</td>
<td>73.8 (7.1)</td>
<td>74.0 (6.5)</td>
<td>76.6 (7.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1 (%) predicted</td>
<td>62.02 (4.8)</td>
<td>59.9 (15.0)</td>
<td>92.0 (13.0)</td>
<td>80.9 (13.4)</td>
<td>89.4 (12.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRC (%) predicted</td>
<td>133.5 (35.9)</td>
<td>113.9 (25.2)</td>
<td>89.5 (18.0)</td>
<td>75.9 (14.5)</td>
<td>86.0 (16.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reversibility</td>
<td>16.4 (12.4)</td>
<td>24.1 (18.7)</td>
<td>6.2 (8.1)</td>
<td>5.7 (5.3)</td>
<td>6.9 (5.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEFR variability</td>
<td>34.1 (15.2)</td>
<td>33.3 (15.3)</td>
<td>16.7 (9.6)</td>
<td>18.8 (8.1)</td>
<td>15.9 (7.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kCOcorr (%) predicted</td>
<td>73.5 (21.3)</td>
<td>99.4 (18.7)</td>
<td>98.4 (14.5)</td>
<td>106.8 (13.9)</td>
<td>102.0 (13.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FeNO</td>
<td>12.3 (8.3)</td>
<td>42.1 (41.2)</td>
<td>28.9 (24.6)</td>
<td>21.2 (20.4)</td>
<td>42.7 (41.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IgE</td>
<td>397 (72)</td>
<td>452 (1103)</td>
<td>181 (617)</td>
<td>203 (663)</td>
<td>428 (1543)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hsCRP</td>
<td>2.7 (2.7)</td>
<td>3.3 (6.4)</td>
<td>1.7 (1.2)</td>
<td>4.0 (2.9)</td>
<td>2.9 (5.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of Onset</td>
<td>35.5 (19.8)</td>
<td>11.5 (10.5)</td>
<td>45.8 (11.7)</td>
<td>32.6 (15.9)</td>
<td>11.1 (9.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMI</td>
<td>26.2 (4.3)</td>
<td>26.5 (5.4)</td>
<td>27.6 (4.5)</td>
<td>36.3 (6.0)</td>
<td>27.3 (6.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGRQ</td>
<td>43.6 (16.8)</td>
<td>26.2 (15.0)</td>
<td>20.8 (16.8)</td>
<td>35.3 (15.1)</td>
<td>15.3 (10.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack years</td>
<td>35.55 (17.8)</td>
<td>4.4 (9.0)</td>
<td>7.9 (13.0)</td>
<td>14.7 (18.8)</td>
<td>1.3 (3.8)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values reported as mean (SD); †pre-bronchodilator; ‡post-bronchodilator; §Log transformed
obstruction. These may represent mild (155 subjects) and moderate to severe (59 subjects) atopic asthma respectively.

Examining the AGW₄ solution, the cluster of 141 subjects did not have a clearly recognisable clinical pattern. Age of onset was relatively late, but the majority of other variables had intermediate values of unclear significance. However in the AGW₅ solution the cluster of 141 separates into two groups; a group of 80 participants with mild, adult-onset disease and normal lung function, and a group of 61 people characterized by obesity and late onset disease with relatively preserved lung function but poor health status and an elevated hsCRP suggestive of systemic inflammation. The two groups show clear separation on the majority of cluster variables.

In light of the clear, clinically coherent, differences between the groups identified by the AGW₅ solution and because it fulfilled the preferred size criteria, this was chosen as the solution to be used for phenotype description and ICS responsiveness analyses. The minimal disease group (cluster 3) was used as a reference group for ICS responsiveness.

**DIANA–EUCLIDEAN**

The dendrogram generated by the DIANA algorithm with Euclidean distance metric is shown in Figure 10.3a. ASW was highest for the two cluster solution and dropped markedly above four clusters, suggesting separation was not distinct with more than four clusters. However the gap statistic, although not clearly separating groups (Figure 10.3c), was maximal for three and five cluster solutions (Figure 10.3d), suggesting
these may be the most appropriate choices. Only two and three cluster solutions had more than 10 participants in each cluster (Table 10.7), therefore the three cluster solution had the best balance between cluster size and gap statistic and was used for examination of cluster characteristics (Table 10.8).

Table 10.7: Number of participants per cluster for Diana–Euclidean solution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NUMBER OF CLUSTERS IN SOLUTION</th>
<th>PARTICIPANTS IN CLUSTER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Two cluster</td>
<td>359 30 – –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three cluster</td>
<td>359 18 12 –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four cluster</td>
<td>359 18 11 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10.8: Characteristics of Diana–Euclidean solution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHARACTERISTIC</th>
<th>CLUSTER 1</th>
<th>CLUSTER 2</th>
<th>CLUSTER 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N=16</td>
<td>N=10</td>
<td>N=363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1/FVC ratio (%)†</td>
<td>41.5 (13.3)</td>
<td>45.5 (6.8)</td>
<td>72.5 (9.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1 (% predicted)†</td>
<td>44.3 (22.6)</td>
<td>45.4 (13.9)</td>
<td>84.8 (15.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRC (% predicted)†</td>
<td>160.4 (30.2)</td>
<td>143.7 (16.5)</td>
<td>88.5 (18.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reversibility</td>
<td>20.5 (13.6)</td>
<td>38.1 (31.8)</td>
<td>8.6 (8.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEFR variability</td>
<td>30.9 (16.5)</td>
<td>39.9 (17.5)</td>
<td>19.6 (11.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kCOcorr (% predicted)‡</td>
<td>60.1 (18.3)</td>
<td>91.7 (23.0)</td>
<td>101.3 (14.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FeNO</td>
<td>16.0 (15.1)</td>
<td>44.5 (41.4)</td>
<td>34.3 (35.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IgE</td>
<td>399 (1083)</td>
<td>860 (2263)</td>
<td>323 (1114)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hsCRP</td>
<td>5.4 (9.7)</td>
<td>5.3 (6.9)</td>
<td>2.7 (3.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of Onset</td>
<td>42.1 (15.5)</td>
<td>16.7 (17.1)</td>
<td>23.1 (18.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMI</td>
<td>25.5 (5.2)</td>
<td>24.7 (4.3)</td>
<td>28.8 (6.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGRQ</td>
<td>47.5 (16.7)</td>
<td>43.2 (15.1)</td>
<td>21.8 (15.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack years</td>
<td>38.9 (21.2)</td>
<td>7.9 (12.8)</td>
<td>6.7 (13.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 389, †Not used in cluster analysis, logarithm used.
Figure 10.3: Dendrogram and cluster selection statistics for Diana–Euclidean solution
Examination of the three cluster solution showed clinically recognisable patterns, with a clear separation by age of onset and severity of obstruction.

Cluster one may be characterised as severe obstruction with late onset disease and reduced transfer factor. Participants have a low FeNO and a significant smoking history but elevated IgE and marked reversibility. This is the same pattern of disease seen in cluster one for the AGW₅ solution and would therefore be consistent with the overlap group.

Cluster two also has severe obstruction with marked reversibility, but with an earlier onset, less than 10 pack year smoking history, elevated FeNO and an extremely high IgE. This group may be characterised as severe asthma with evidence of atopy and probable eosinophilia, based on FeNO and is therefore a similar pattern to cluster two in AGW₅. Both clusters one and two have a high symptom burden as measured by SGRQ.

The final cluster contains the majority of participants and therefore has characteristics very similar to the mean for all participants, with the exception of lower reversibility and less cigarette exposure. It is not clear that this represents a distinct phenotypic group and is probably an aggregation of more than one pattern of airways disease.

As this three cluster solution contained two groups with less than 30 participants it did not meet the pre-specified size criteria and was not used for further analysis.
DIANA–GOWER

The dendrogram generated by the DIANA algorithm with Gower distance metric is shown in Figure 10.4a.

ASW was highest for the two cluster solution and dropped rapidly above three clusters, suggesting modest separation with more than three clusters. The gap statistic again did not show strong evidence but was maximal for the 6 cluster solution (Figure 10.4d). Division into two or more clusters meant that there were less than 30 participants in one or more clusters (Table 10.9) and this was therefore not the preferred solution for phenotype description.

Table 10.9: Number of participants per cluster for Diana–Gower solution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of clusters in solution</th>
<th>Participants in cluster</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two cluster</td>
<td>363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three cluster</td>
<td>363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four cluster</td>
<td>342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five cluster</td>
<td>247</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As an exploratory analysis, the characteristics of the five cluster solution (Table 10.10) were explored and compared with the AGW solution.

The Diana–Gower 5 (DG5) solution showed comparable patterns to those seen with the Agnes–Gower–Ward (AGW) approach (Table 10.10). The 16 participant cluster had characteristics similar to the AGW5 overlap group; severe obstruction with reduced transfer factor and significant smoking history, but marked variability and raised IgE. Similarly the 247 and 10 participant clusters showed evidence of mild
Figure 10.4: Dendrogram and cluster selection statistics for Diana–Gower solution.
Table 10.10: Characteristics of Diana–Gower solution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>1 (N=16)</th>
<th>2 (N=10)</th>
<th>3 (N=21)</th>
<th>4 (N=247)</th>
<th>5 (N=95)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEV1/FVC ratio (%)‡</td>
<td>38.4 (10.4)</td>
<td>42.4 (5.3)</td>
<td>77.4 (7.0)</td>
<td>72.5 (10.1)</td>
<td>71.2 (8.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1 (% predicted)‡</td>
<td>37.9 (14.7)</td>
<td>40.4 (12.6)</td>
<td>79.2 (14.1)</td>
<td>85.1 (15.6)</td>
<td>85.3 (14.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRC (% predicted)‡</td>
<td>158.7 (31.4)</td>
<td>148.0 (21.8)</td>
<td>72.3 (18.2)</td>
<td>91.8 (19.7)</td>
<td>85.9 (18.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reversibility</td>
<td>22.7 (14.8)</td>
<td>36.1 (35.1)</td>
<td>7.8 (7.7)</td>
<td>9.9 (9.7)</td>
<td>5.9 (6.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEFR variability</td>
<td>35.9 (19.7)</td>
<td>36.6 (14.1)</td>
<td>22.5 (11.4)</td>
<td>19.5 (12.0)</td>
<td>19.4 (9.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kCOcorr (% predicted)‡</td>
<td>62.8 (20.3)</td>
<td>90.4 (29.2)</td>
<td>102.2 (16.3)</td>
<td>102.3 (14.0)</td>
<td>97.1 (16.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FeNO</td>
<td>13.2 (9.7)</td>
<td>46.0 (43.2)</td>
<td>18.3 (17.3)</td>
<td>41.1 (40.2)</td>
<td>20.1 (12.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IgE</td>
<td>413 (1146)</td>
<td>1170 (2466)</td>
<td>328 (863)</td>
<td>370 (1264)</td>
<td>177 (581)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hsCRP</td>
<td>3.6 (2.9)</td>
<td>10.2 (13.5)</td>
<td>11.2 (11.1)</td>
<td>1.8 (1.7)</td>
<td>2.9 (2.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>light-gray Age of Onset</td>
<td>46.5 (10.6)</td>
<td>12.2 (12.8)</td>
<td>20.9 (18.2)</td>
<td>15.2 (14.0)</td>
<td>44.2 (13.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMI</td>
<td>26.7 (5.5)</td>
<td>23.8 (3.8)</td>
<td>42.7 (7.6)</td>
<td>26.6 (4.8)</td>
<td>31.5 (5.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGRQ</td>
<td>49.8 (16.2)</td>
<td>37.7 (17.1)</td>
<td>39.3 (14.9)</td>
<td>16.9 (11.9)</td>
<td>32.0 (17.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack years</td>
<td>39.0 (22.9)</td>
<td>9.2 (11.1)</td>
<td>5.5 (12.7)</td>
<td>3.8 (9.7)</td>
<td>15.0 (17.3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 389, ‡Not used in cluster analysis, logarithm used. Values reported as mean (SD)
‡pre-bronchodilator ‡post-bronchodilator
and severe atopic asthma respectively, the 21 subject cluster appeared to represent an obesity cluster similar to AGW5 cluster 4, and the 95 participant cluster appeared to be a mild/minimal disease group with relatively recent onset symptoms.

AGNES–EUCLIDEAN

The dendrogram generated by the AGNES algorithm with Euclidean distance metric is shown in Figure 10.5a.

Without the use of Ward’s method this approach did not produce any significant separation of the participants (Table 10.11). Even the two cluster solution contained a group with less than 10 participants and the Agnes–Euclidean approach was therefore not pursued further.

Table 10.11: Number of participants per cluster for Agnes–Euclidean solution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NUMBER OF CLUSTERS IN SOLUTION</th>
<th>PARTICIPANTS IN CLUSTER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two cluster</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three cluster</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

AGNES–GOWER

The dendrogram generated by the AGNES algorithm with Gower distance metric is shown in Figure 10.6a.

As with Agnes–Euclidean, without the use of Ward’s method this approach led to minimal separation of the participants (Table 10.12).

Both groups in the two cluster solution contain more than 10 participants so the characteristics of the two cluster solution were explored (Table 10.13).
Figure 10.5: Dendrogram and cluster selection statistics for Agnes–Euclidean solution
Figure 10.6: Dendrogram and cluster selection statistics for Agnes-Gower solution
Table 10.12: Number of participants per cluster for Agnes–Gower solution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NUMBER OF CLUSTERS IN SOLUTION</th>
<th>PARTICIPANTS IN CLUSTER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Two cluster</td>
<td>376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three cluster</td>
<td>376</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10.13: Agnes–Gower 2 cluster comparison by analysis variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>CLUSTER 1 (N=376)</th>
<th>CLUSTER 2 (N=13)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEV1/FVC ratio (%)†</td>
<td>71.5 (10.6)</td>
<td>33.8 (6.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1 (% predicted)†</td>
<td>83.5 (16.5)</td>
<td>29.6 (6.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRC (% predicted)†</td>
<td>90.7 (21.4)</td>
<td>173.2 (26.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reversibility</td>
<td>9.1 (9.6)</td>
<td>35.9 (29.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEFR variability</td>
<td>20.1 (12.0)</td>
<td>39.1 (15.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kCOcorr (% predicted)‡</td>
<td>100.5 (15.6)</td>
<td>60.7 (24.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FeNO</td>
<td>34.0 (35.1)</td>
<td>25.1 (38.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IgE</td>
<td>328.2 (1112.4)</td>
<td>762.1 (2191.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hsCRP</td>
<td>2.7 (3.8)</td>
<td>8.2 (12.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of Onset</td>
<td>23.4 (18.9)</td>
<td>36.7 (21.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMI</td>
<td>28.7 (6.5)</td>
<td>24.2 (5.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGRQ</td>
<td>22.8 (16.0)</td>
<td>50.5 (16.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack years</td>
<td>7.4 (13.9)</td>
<td>31.4 (26.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values reported as mean (SD); †pre-bronchodilator; ‡post-bronchodilator.

The larger group does not appear to describe a potential phenotype as it contains almost all participants. The second cluster again has the characteristics of an overlap group. This particular group includes particularly severely obstructed individuals, with a mean FEV1 of 29.6 (6.6) percent predicted. The reversibility and raised IgE are greater than in the AGW5, as is the hsCRP, suggesting that this pattern is driven by a severe subset of the individuals who make up the overlap cluster in other solutions.
AGNES–EUCLIDEAN–WARD

The dendrogram generated by the AGNES algorithm using Ward’s method and Euclidean distance metric is shown in Figure 10.7a.

Cluster separation was modest based on the ASW (Figure 10.7b). The gap statistic was maximal for a six cluster solution (Figure 10.7c) but the solutions with 3 or more clusters did not fulfil the size criteria and so could not be used for cluster description (Table 10.14). The five cluster solution was therefore characterised to assess consistency with the AGW5 clusters (Table 10.15).

Table 10.14: Number of participants per cluster for Agnes–Euclidean–Ward solution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NUMBER OF CLUSTERS IN SOLUTION</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Two cluster</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three cluster</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four cluster</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five cluster</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Six cluster</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall pattern of the five clusters was the same as for the AGW5 solution, and the same five phenotypes were identified: Asthma / COPD overlap, moderate-severe young onset atopic asthma, mild reference group, obese with co-morbidities, and mild young onset atopic asthma.

There were some differences due to the different proportions in each cluster. The overlap group had more severe airflow obstruction, suggesting this was a severe subgroup of the overlap group. Mean hsCRP was relatively high, 7.6 (11.9), but on examination this was due to two outlier readings affecting the mean due to the relative small
Figure 10.7: Dendrogram and cluster selection statistics for Agnes–Euclidean–Ward solution
cluster size. The median hsCRP in this group was 2.8. Separation of clusters by FeNO was less marked than in the AGW5 solution but overall the Agnes–Euclidean–Ward 5 (AEW5) and AGW5 solutions were very similar.

Table 10.15: Agnes–Euclidean–Ward 5 cluster characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>1 (N=14)</th>
<th>2 (N=89)</th>
<th>3 (N=99)</th>
<th>4 (N=43)</th>
<th>5 (N=144)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEV1/FVC ratio (%)†</td>
<td>34.3 (6.4)</td>
<td>59.4 (9.5)</td>
<td>73.3 (7.4)</td>
<td>74.5 (6.3)</td>
<td>77.2 (7.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1 (% predicted)†</td>
<td>30.9 (8.2)</td>
<td>67.6 (14.8)</td>
<td>91.8 (14.2)</td>
<td>81.5 (11.3)</td>
<td>88.6 (12.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRC (% predicted)†</td>
<td>173.6 (24.1)</td>
<td>112.1 (20.0)</td>
<td>89.1 (16.3)</td>
<td>73.5 (11.6)</td>
<td>83.3 (16.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reversibility</td>
<td>37.3 (27.7)</td>
<td>17.1 (12.3)</td>
<td>6.5 (8.3)</td>
<td>5.2 (4.9)</td>
<td>6.9 (5.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEFR variability</td>
<td>38.1 (15.5)</td>
<td>31.6 (15.1)</td>
<td>15.8 (7.4)</td>
<td>21.5 (9.2)</td>
<td>15.5 (7.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kCOcorr (% predicted)‡</td>
<td>63.5 (25.7)</td>
<td>93.3 (17.9)</td>
<td>98.8 (14.4)</td>
<td>110.4 (12.1)</td>
<td>103.0 (13.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FeNO</td>
<td>33.2 (39.9)</td>
<td>36.0 (39.6)</td>
<td>31.0 (30.2)</td>
<td>22.9 (22.1)</td>
<td>37.5 (37.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IgE</td>
<td>727 (2109)</td>
<td>402 (718)</td>
<td>243 (796)</td>
<td>170 (424)</td>
<td>389 (1556)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hsCRP</td>
<td>7.6 (11.9)</td>
<td>2.9 (4.6)</td>
<td>2.0 (1.6)</td>
<td>3.4 (2.7)</td>
<td>2.8 (4.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of Onset</td>
<td>38.2 (19.1)</td>
<td>19.2 (17.1)</td>
<td>41.7 (11.9)</td>
<td>37.3 (18.4)</td>
<td>8.9 (7.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMI</td>
<td>24.1 (5.5)</td>
<td>27.7 (6.8)</td>
<td>28.9 (5.2)</td>
<td>35.3 (7.2)</td>
<td>27.3 (5.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGRQ</td>
<td>45.6 (20.3)</td>
<td>30.5 (16.0)</td>
<td>19.1 (14.5)</td>
<td>43.0 (13.1)</td>
<td>14.8 (9.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack years</td>
<td>27.6 (27.9)</td>
<td>13.8 (17.4)</td>
<td>6.7 (10.4)</td>
<td>16.0 (22.1)</td>
<td>1.5 (4.4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values reported as mean (SD); †pre-bronchodilator; ‡post-bronchodilator; §Log transformed
**Phenotype Description**

Having reviewed the results of all six clustering approaches, the Agnes–Gower–Ward 5 solution was selected for phenotype description as the clusters showed clinically coherent patterns of disease and met the preferred size criteria. Table 10.16 shows the AGW5 clusters with the 13 analysis variables as previously shown in Table 10.6 but with the addition of log transformed FeNO, IgE and hsCRP to reduce the effect of outlier values, and with differences from the mean of all 451 participants expressed qualitatively to aid recognition of disease patterns.

Examination of Table 10.16 reveals that the ‘asthma/COPD overlap’ (cluster 1) and ‘moderate-severe atopic asthma’ (cluster 2) phenotypes share characteristics of moderate-severe airflow obstruction, hyperinflation, significant bronchodilator reversibility, PEFR variability, raised total IgE and poor respiratory health status; but that the overlap group has greater cigarette exposure, later age of onset, lower FeNO, lower transfer factor and raised hsCRP. The difference in hsCRP can only be reliably assessed with the log transformed values, as the mean hsCRP for cluster 2 is increased by a small number of very high hsCRP values. The ‘mild/reference’ group (cluster 3) is distinguished by a very late age of onset and the highest mean FEV1 of any phenotype. The ‘obesity’ group is characterised by a markedly raised hsCRP, later onset disease, raised BMI, clinically significant cigarette exposure and worse respiratory health status. The ‘mild asthma’ group (cluster 5) has raised
Table 10.16: Agnes–Gower–Ward 5 cluster comparison by analysis variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>CLUSTER</th>
<th>1</th>
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<th>3</th>
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<td>(N=34)</td>
<td>(N=59)</td>
<td>(N=80)</td>
<td>(N=61)</td>
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<td>PHENOTYPE</td>
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<td>Mild</td>
<td>Obese</td>
<td>Mild</td>
<td>atopic asthma</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>atopic asthma</td>
<td>reference</td>
<td></td>
<td>co-morbid</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>FEV1/FVC ratio (%)†</td>
<td>51.5 (15.2)</td>
<td>56.0 (9.3)</td>
<td>73.8 (7.1)</td>
<td>74.0 (6.5)</td>
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<tr>
<td>FEV1 (% predicted)†</td>
<td>62.02 (4.8)</td>
<td>59.9 (15.0)</td>
<td>92.0 (13.0)</td>
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<tr>
<td>FRC (% predicted)†</td>
<td>133.5 (35.9)</td>
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<td>89.5 (18.0)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reversibility</td>
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<td>24.1 (18.7)</td>
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<td>5.7 (5.3)</td>
<td>6.9 (5.8)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEFR variability</td>
<td>34.1 (15.2)</td>
<td>33.3 (15.3)</td>
<td>16.7 (9.6)</td>
<td>18.8 (8.1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>kCOcorr (% predicted)‡</td>
<td>73.5 (21.3)</td>
<td>99.4 (18.7)</td>
<td>98.4 (14.5)</td>
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<tr>
<td>FeNO</td>
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<td>Log FeNO</td>
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<td>3.4 (0.8)</td>
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<td>IgE</td>
<td>397 (72)</td>
<td>452 (1103)</td>
<td>181 (617)</td>
<td>203 (663)</td>
<td>428 (1543)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Log IgE</td>
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<td>3.6 (1.8)</td>
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<tr>
<td>hsCRP</td>
<td>2.7 (2.7)</td>
<td>3.3 (6.4)</td>
<td>1.7 (1.2)</td>
<td>4.0 (2.9)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Log hsCRP</td>
<td>0.7 (0.7)</td>
<td>0.5 (1.0)</td>
<td>0.3 (0.7)</td>
<td>1.1 (0.8)</td>
<td>0.5 (0.9)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of Onset</td>
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<td>11.5 (10.5)</td>
<td>45.8 (11.7)</td>
<td>32.6 (15.9)</td>
<td>11.1 (9.8)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMI</td>
<td>26.2 (4.3)</td>
<td>26.5 (5.4)</td>
<td>27.6 (4.5)</td>
<td>36.3 (6.0)</td>
<td>27.3 (6.4)</td>
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<tr>
<td>SGRQ</td>
<td>43.6 (16.8)</td>
<td>26.2 (15.0)</td>
<td>20.8 (16.8)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pack years</td>
<td>35.55 (17.8)</td>
<td>4.4 (9.0)</td>
<td>7.9 (13.0)</td>
<td>14.7 (18.8)</td>
<td>1.3 (3.8)</td>
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Qualitative comparison of cluster variables

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<td>FEV1/FVC ratio (%)†</td>
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<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
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<tr>
<td>FEV1 (% predicted)†</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRC (% predicted)†</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reversibility</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEFR variability</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kCOcorr (% predicted)‡</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
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<td>FeNO</td>
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<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IgE</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hsCRP</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>+</td>
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<td>Age of Onset</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMI</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>+ +</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pack years</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>+ +</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values reported as mean (SD); †pre-bronchodilator; §Log transformed ‡post-bronchodilator

+ Greater than 20% above the overall mean value
+ + Greater than 10% and less than or equal to 20% above the overall mean value
● Within 10% of the overall mean value
– Less than 20% and more than 10% below the overall mean value
-- More than 20% below the overall mean value
| DEMOGRAPHICS | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Age | 56.1 (8.5) | 53.4 (13.5) | 55.8 (11.3) | 53.8 (11.3) | 40.1 (12.6) |
| Height | 169.4 (9.0) | 169.0 (9.5) | 170.4 (8.0) | 168.7 (9.3) | 170.4 (8.8) |
| Sex (Male) | 22/34 (64.7) | 24/59 (40.7) | 40/80 (50.0) | 27/61 (44.3) | 67/155 (43.2) |

| RISK FACTORS | | | | | |
| Smoking status: Current | 22/34 (64.7) | 6/59 (10.2) | 8/80 (10.0) | 11/61 (18.0) | 11/155 (7.1) |
| Ex | 12/34 (35.3) | 22/59 (37.3) | 33/80 (41.3) | 26/61 (42.6) | 39/155 (25.2) |
| Never | 0/34 (0) | 31/59 (52.5) | 39/80 (48.8) | 24/61 (39.3) | 105/155 (67.7) |
| Biomass exposure | 2/34 (5.9) | 14/59 (23.7) | 11/80 (13.8) | 10/61 (16.4) | 35/155 (22.6) |
| Occupational exposure | 23/34 (67.7) | 27/59 (45.8) | 43/80 (53.8) | 35/61 (57.4) | 73/155 (47.1) |

| PREVIOUS RESPIRATORY DIAGNOSES | | | | | |
| Asthma | 20/34 (58.8) | 55/59 (93.2) | 35/80 (43.8) | 42/61 (68.9) | 135/155 (87.1) |
| Chronic bronchitis | 12/34 (35.3) | 9/59 (15.3) | 6/80 (7.5) | 7/61 (11.5) | 21/155 (13.6) |
| COPD | 7/34 (20.6) | 6/59 (10.2) | 2/80 (2.5) | 2/61 (3.3) | 0/155 (0) |
| Emphysema | 5/34 (14.7) | 4/59 (6.8) | 1/80 (1.3) | 3/61 (4.9) | 0/155 (0) |
| No prior diagnosis | 8/34 (23.5) | 3/59 (5.1) | 43/80 (53.8) | 17/61 (27.9) | 17/155 (11.0) |

| SYMPTOMS | | | | | |
| Cough | 24/34 (70.6) | 34/59 (57.6) | 41/80 (51.3) | 43/61 (70.5) | 62/155 (40.0) |
| Sputum | 23/34 (67.7) | 22/59 (37.3) | 23/80 (28.8) | 24/61 (39.3) | 29/155 (18.7) |
| Rhinitis | 19/34 (55.9) | 43/59 (72.9) | 50/80 (62.5) | 39/61 (63.9) | 137/155 (88.4) |
| GORD | 17/34 (50.0) | 24/59 (40.7) | 46/80 (57.5) | 35/61 (57.4) | 56/155 (36.1) |
| ACQ-7 score | 1.9 (1.0) | 1.5 (0.8) | 0.5 (0.5) | 1.0 (0.7) | 0.6 (0.5) |

| ATOPY | | | | | |
| Phadiatop (Positive) | 15/34 (44.1) | 50/59 (84.8) | 33/80 (41.3) | 24/61 (39.3) | 121/155 (78.1) |
| Eczema diagnosis | 13/34 (38.2) | 36/59 (61.0) | 39/80 (48.8) | 28/61 (45.9) | 97/155 (62.6) |

| CO-MORBIDITIES | | | | | |
| Cardiovascular disease | 8/34 (23.5) | 8/59 (13.5) | 14/80 (17.5) | 15/61 (24.6) | 13/155 (8.4) |
| GORD on treatment | 17/33 (51.5) | 16/59 (27.1) | 23/80 (28.8) | 27/61 (44.3) | 35/155 (22.6) |
| Diabetes | 3/33 (9.1) | 6/59 (10.2) | 5/80 (6.3) | 8/61 (13.1) | 5/155 (3.2) |
| Depression or anxiety | 8/33 (24.2) | 7/59 (11.9) | 22/80 (27.5) | 22/61 (36.1) | 49/155 (31.8) |
| Hypertension | 9/33 (27.3) | 14/58 (24.1) | 22/80 (27.5) | 32/61 (52.3) | 25/130 (16.1) |

| MEDICATION USE IN LAST 12 MONTHS | | | | | |
| Any inhaler | 24/34 (70.6) | 57/59 (96.6) | 43/80 (53.8) | 38/61 (62.3) | 118/155 (76.1) |
| ICS | 11/34 (32.4) | 31/59 (52.5) | 25/80 (31.3) | 18/61 (29.5) | 56/155 (36.1) |
| SABA use in 12 months | 20/34 (58.8) | 52/59 (88.1) | 38/80 (47.5) | 37/61 (60.7) | 114/155 (73.6) |
| Combination SABA/LABA | 7/33 (21.2) | 15/58 (25.9) | 8/80 (10.0) | 8/61 (13.1) | 21/155 (13.6) |
| LABA use in 12 months | 5/34 (14.7) | 10/58 (17.2) | 5/80 (6.3) | 5/61 (8.2) | 9/155 (5.8) |
| LAMA use in 12 months | 2/34 (5.9) | 5/58 (8.6) | 0/80 (0) | 0/61 (0) | 0/155 (0) |

| HEALTHCARE USE IN LAST 12 MONTHS | | | | | |
| Oral Steroid | 5/34 (14.7) | 11/58 (19.0) | 9/80 (11.3) | 9/61 (14.8) | 15/154 (9.7) |
| Urgent ED/Hospital visit | 2/34 (5.9) | 1/59 (1.7) | 2/80 (2.5) | 3/61 (4.9) | 2/155 (1.3) |
| Courses of antibiotic | 0.4 (0.7) | 0.6 (0.8) | 0.7 (1.0) | 0.8 (1.3) | 0.5 (0.8) |
| Chest infections | 0.6 (0.7) | 0.9 (1.0) | 0.8 (1.1) | 1.1 (1.5) | 0.8 (1.0) |

| LUNG FUNCTION | | | | | |
| MMEF 25-75% | 31.6 (20.1) | 32.2 (13.8) | 84.8 (28.7) | 74.1 (28.5) | 81.5 (24.9) |
| TLC/RV | 2.4 (0.7) | 2.5 (0.6) | 3.1 (0.7) | 2.9 (0.6) | 3.6 (0.8) |
| Conductance (Gaw) | 56.5 (51.6) | 41.8 (19.1) | 87.0 (51.3) | 66.3 (19.9) | 86.9 (43.7) |

| BIOMARKERS | | | | | |
| Eosinophils | 0.2 (0.1) | 0.3 (0.3) | 0.2 (0.1) | 0.2 (0.2) | 0.2 (0.1) |
| Neutrophils | 4.6 (1.3) | 4.0 (2.0) | 3.8 (1.3) | 4.1 (1.3) | 3.8 (1.3) |
| White cell count | 7.8 (2.0) | 7.4 (4.0) | 6.9 (1.8) | 7.4 (1.7) | 6.9 (1.7) |

Categorical variables expressed as N/N (%), continuous variables expressed as mean (SD)
IgE and FeNO with early onset disease, good respiratory health status and minimal cigarette smoke exposure.

Due to the nature of cluster analysis, clusters will usually show differences when compared using the cluster analysis variables, as seen in the previous section. In order to determine if the groups are clinically meaningful, clusters must be compared using descriptor variables not included in the cluster analysis. Table 10.17 describes the candidate phenotypes using variables which were not included in the cluster analysis, including demographics, risk factors, previous respiratory diagnoses, symptoms, atopy, co-morbidities, medication and healthcare utilisation, lung function and biomarkers.

**Cluster 1: Asthma/COPD overlap**

All members of the overlap group were current (64.7%) or ex (35.5%) smokers. Over half had a diagnosis of asthma (58.8%) but doctor diagnosed chronic bronchitis, COPD and emphysema were also prevalent (35.3%, 20.6% and 14.7% respectively). Rate of productive cough (67.7%) were markedly higher than for other groups. Individuals with the overlap phenotype had the worst symptom control, as measured by ACQ-7, and high rates of co-morbidities including cardiovascular disease and gastro-oesophageal reflux disease (GORD). There was some evidence of systemic inflammation, with the highest mean neutrophil and total white cell counts, together with a mean log hsCRP of greater than 10% higher than the sample mean. This group also had the highest reported level of occupational exposure to dust and fumes.
CLUSTER 2: MODERATE-SEVERE YOUNG-ONSET ATOPIC ASTHMA

Cluster 2 showed characteristics consistent with moderate to severe young-onset atopic asthma. As well as elevated FeNO this group had high rates of eczema, rhinitis and atopy, as measured by serum Phadiatop. Almost all individuals in this cluster had a doctor’s diagnosis of asthma, although seven individuals in the moderate to severe group also had a diagnosis of COPD or emphysema. The moderate to severe asthma phenotype had the highest rates of oral steroid use in the last year (19%) and almost all members (96.6%) had used an inhaler in the last 12 months. The mean ACQ-7 score of 1.5 (0.8) is consistent with poorly controlled asthma.

CLUSTER 3: MILDE/INTERMITTENT

The mild disease cluster (cluster 3) had preserved lung function with the highest FEV1 percent predicted, normal FeNO, low rates of atopy, and the lowest ACQ-7 scores. This group had no dominant phenotypic features, despite having been symptomatic in the last 12 months, and may represent people with intermittent disease that was quiescent at the time of testing. This cluster was used as a reference group for the ICS responsiveness analysis.

CLUSTER 4: OBESE WITH CO-MORBIDITIES

The obesity phenotype (cluster 4) was characterised by relatively prevalent GORD and high rates of all co-morbidities. Participants with this phenotype reported the most chest infections, courses of antibiotics for respiratory indications, and courses of oral corticosteroids, despite relatively preserved lung function.
Neutrophils and total white cell count were relatively high, with only the overlap group having higher values. The obese group also had the highest hsCRP and this cluster appears to represent a phenotype of obesity with co-morbidities and systemic inflammation.

**Cluster 5: Mild Young-Onset Atopic Asthma**

The mild young-onset atopic asthma phenotype shows similar patterns to the moderate-severe asthma phenotype, including prominent rhinitis and eczema, but with relatively preserved lung function and much better asthma control, as measured by ACQ-7. Rates of cough and sputum production were lowest in this phenotype but biomass exposure was relatively high, 35/155 (22.6%), with a similar rate to the moderate-severe asthma phenotype.

*Bronchodilator responsiveness*

Change in FEV₁ in response to salbutamol and ipratropium on different days is shown for each phenotype in Table 10.18.

All phenotypes showed mean salbutamol reversibility equivalent to or greater than ipratropium. No phenotype demonstrated a preferential response to ipratropium on average. The overlap groups showed a marked response to bronchodilators, with an average change which would be considered significant by ATS criteria (>12% and >200ml). The moderate to severe atopic asthma phenotype showed even greater reversibility, with a mean change of 480ml in response to 400µcg salbutamol.
The obese/co-morbid, mild atopic asthma, and reference groups had more modest responses to both salbutamol and ipratropium. All groups had a mean increase in FEV₁ post-bronchodilator of at least 150ml, which is greater than the suggested minimally detectable change in FEV₁ of 100ml [Donohue, 2005]. Although these changes are of a size which individuals may notice symptomatically, the percentage change from baseline did not meet the ATS criteria for significance due to their relatively preserved lung function at baseline.

**Generation of Allocation Rule**

Using the Rpart function, a classification tree was constructed which could allocate participants to their assigned cluster with 75% accuracy, using only age of onset, BMI and FEV₁ percent predicted (Figure 10.8).

Using FEV₁/FVC ratio in place of FEV₁ percent predicted gave similar classification accuracy. Use of other variable combinations or

<table>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Overlap Mod - severe atopic asthma</td>
<td>Mild / reference</td>
<td>Obese/co-morbid</td>
<td>Mild atopic asthma</td>
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<td>N=34</td>
<td>N=59</td>
<td>N=80</td>
<td>N=61</td>
<td>N=155</td>
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### Table 10.18: FEV₁ change with bronchodilator by phenotype

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<th>SALBUTAMOL</th>
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<td>FEV₁ (%)†</td>
<td>FEV₁ (%)†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>16.4 (12.4)</td>
<td>13.6 (10.5)</td>
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<td>24.1 (18.7)</td>
<td>18.4 (15.3)</td>
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<td>6.2 (8.1)</td>
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<td>6.9 (5.8)</td>
<td>6.1 (5.4)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values given as mean (SD). †Change in FEV₁ expressed as percentage change relative to baseline; ‡Absolute change in FEV₁, expressed in litres.
Figure 10.8: Allocation rule for predicting cluster membership

Cluster membership could be correctly predicted for 75% of participants using the above allocation rule generated from this dataset.
addition of non-cluster analysis variables did not significantly improve classification accuracy.

*Exploratory Cluster Analysis using WRS variables*

Cluster analysis was performed using the DIANA and AGNES algorithms and Gower distance metric, with nine cluster variables as described by Weatherall et al. [2009]. To aid meaningful comparison the number of clusters was set at that described in the original paper. Therefore the four cluster solution was selected for the DIANA analysis and five cluster for the AGNES approach. Ward’s method was used with the AGNES algorithm.

The Diana-Gower 4 cluster solution had group sizes of 13, 57, 113 and 206 participants, and the characteristics are shown in Table 10.19.

The Diana-Gower clusters can be characterised as 'asthma / COPD overlap', 'moderate-severe atopic asthma', 'chronic bronchitis in smokers' and 'mild disease, no specific features'. These groups represent four of the five clusters described by Weatherall et al. [2009], however the pure emphysema group they described is not seen in this analysis.

The AGW5 solution with WRS variables also described similar groups. Cluster 1 had severe airflow obstruction with marked reversibility and bore some similarity to the overlap group, although the transfer factor was less markedly reduced and the FeNO higher. Cluster 2 showed the same pattern with less severe obstruction. The most marked difference between clusters 1 and 2 was that no subjects in cluster 1 had a productive cough and all subjects in cluster 2 did, strongly suggesting that the dichotomous cough question dominated the analysis. Cluster 3
Table 10.19: Diana–Gower 4 cluster comparison using WRS variables

<table>
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<tr>
<td>FEV1/FVC ratio (%)†</td>
<td>34.0 (6.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1 (% predicted)†</td>
<td>31.3 (8.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRC (% predicted)†</td>
<td>170.9 (27.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reversibility</td>
<td>29.1 (13.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kCOcorr (% predicted)‡</td>
<td>57.2 (19.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log IgE</td>
<td>15.2 (11.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack years</td>
<td>36.4 (24.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Productive cough</td>
<td>8 (61.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Qualitative comparison of continuous cluster variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEV1/FVC ratio (%)†</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1 (% predicted)†</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRC (% predicted)†</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reversibility</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kCOcorr (% predicted)‡</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FeNO</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log IgE</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack years</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values reported as mean (SD); †pre-bronchodilator; ‡post-bronchodilator; §Log transformed
+ + Greater than 20% above the overall mean value
+ Greater than 10% and less than or equal to 20% above the overall mean value
● Less than 10% and less than or equal to 20% above the overall mean value
– More than 20% and more than 10% below the overall mean value
– – More than 20% below the overall mean value
Table 10.20: Agnes–Gower–Ward 5 cluster comparison using WRS variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>1 (N=9)</th>
<th>2 (N=49)</th>
<th>3 (N=79)</th>
<th>4 (N=72)</th>
<th>5 (N=180)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEV1/FVC ratio (%)†</td>
<td>33.6 (6.3)</td>
<td>55.3 (11.3)</td>
<td>64.6 (9.0)</td>
<td>74.8 (6.2)</td>
<td>76.9 (7.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1 (% predicted)†</td>
<td>30.0 (8.5)</td>
<td>63.7 (22.3)</td>
<td>74.9 (11.6)</td>
<td>85.8 (11.7)</td>
<td>90.6 (14.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRC (% predicted)†</td>
<td>162.5 (31.1)</td>
<td>122.4 (30.8)</td>
<td>101.3 (19.2)</td>
<td>83.2 (14.2)</td>
<td>82.9 (17.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reversibility</td>
<td>43.9 (30.7)</td>
<td>16.8 (14.0)</td>
<td>15.9 (10.3)</td>
<td>8.0 (6.9)</td>
<td>4.7 (5.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kCOcorr (% predicted)‡</td>
<td>84.9 (29.9)</td>
<td>84.9 (23.4)</td>
<td>103.4 (11.9)</td>
<td>103.6 (13.0)</td>
<td>100.0 (16.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FeNO</td>
<td>37.0 (47.0)</td>
<td>32.3 (34.0)</td>
<td>60.2 (46.7)</td>
<td>27.6 (26.6)</td>
<td>24.88 (24.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log IgE</td>
<td>4.8 (2.1)</td>
<td>4.6 (2.0)</td>
<td>5.0 (1.4)</td>
<td>4.2 (1.9)</td>
<td>4.0 (1.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack years</td>
<td>25.4 (28.1)</td>
<td>25.6 (22.0)</td>
<td>2.0 (4.8)</td>
<td>4.8 (8.6)</td>
<td>6.7 (12.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Productive cough</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>49 (100)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>72 (100)</td>
<td>0 (180)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Qualitative comparison of continuous cluster variables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEV1/FVC ratio (%)†</td>
<td>– –</td>
<td>– –</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1 (% predicted)†</td>
<td>– –</td>
<td>– –</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRC (% predicted)†</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reversibility</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>– –</td>
<td>– –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kCOcorr (% predicted)‡</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FeNO</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log IgE</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack years</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values reported as mean (SD); †pre-bronchodilator; ‡post-bronchodilator; §Log transformed
+ + Greater than 20% above the overall mean value
+ Greater than 10% and less than or equal to 20% above the overall mean value
• Within 10% of the overall mean value
– Less than 20% and more than 10% below the overall mean value
– – More than 20% below the overall mean value
had features of atopic asthma. Clusters 4 and 5 were groups with mild disease and no specific phenotypic features, separated by the presence of cough in all individuals in cluster 4 and none in cluster 5.

10.2 DISCUSSION

The hypotheses tested in Phase 2 were:

1. That cluster analysis will identify distinct clinical phenotypes within the population tested, which will differ significantly in the characteristics they express.

2. That the clusters identified in the NZRHS will approximate to clusters described by the WRS.

3. That the response to salbutamol, as measured by change in FEV1, will differ between clusters.

4. That the response to ipratropium, as measured by change in FEV1, will differ between clusters.

5. That it will be possible to generate an allocation rule which can accurately predict cluster membership, using only a subset of the variables.

These hypotheses will be discussed in turn, followed by further discussion of findings.

Hypothesis 1

Cluster analysis identified 5 candidate phenotypes using the selected Agnes–Gower–Ward 5 solution:

- Asthma/COPD overlap group (cluster 1)
- Moderate to severe, young-onset atopic asthma (cluster 2)
- Mild, young-onset atopic asthma (cluster 5)
- Obese with comorbidities (cluster 4)
- A mild group with recent onset disease used as a reference group (cluster 3)

Cluster analysis is predominantly an exploratory technique which will find groups in any dataset. An unbiased assessment of phenotypes must consider the possibility that the individuals cannot be meaningfully subdivided and that a single cluster of all individuals could be the best solution. It may be that, rather than describing true phenotypes, these clusters describe patterns within the data that do not translate to clinically distinct groups. The silhouette width cannot be used to determine if one cluster is the ideal solution, as it is only meaningful for solutions of two or more clusters [Everitt et al., 2011]. The gap statistic can provide some support for deciding between one or more clusters and it is notable that the gap statistic was never maximal for k=1, suggesting that there is some natural clustering within the data. The extent to which these clusters represent meaningful phenotypes must be judged from their clinical coherence, difference in treatment outcome, and the consistency with which they are reproduced in different studies [Weatherall et al., 2010]. All five phenotypes have supporting evidence, to different degrees, from previous studies (Part I), increasing the probability that these represent clinically important entities. The similar mean age in all but the mild atopic asthma phenotype suggests that these are more likely to
represent distinct phenotypes than the same phenotype at different stages of disease.

The consistency of cluster description varied according to phenotype. As the Agnes-Euclidean solution did not separate into phenotypes there are a maximum of five approaches which could support each phenotype. The overlap phenotype was demonstrated in all five solutions and this provides strong evidence that this pattern represents a distinct phenotype. The severe young-onset atopic asthma phenotype was demonstrated in four of the five solutions, with the mild, young-onset, atopic asthma and mild/intermittent phenotypes separating out in three of the five solutions. The most novel phenotype, the obese/co-morbid cluster, was demonstrated in three of the five solutions. Perhaps most importantly, the three solutions which described five clusters all identified the same five phenotypes of disease, although with differences in severity and the proportions in each group. This consistency across the different methodologies suggests that the phenotypes described are relatively distinct entities; as if the cluster algorithms were simply partitioning datasets with no underlying structure one would not expect to see the same patterns with each methodology.

These groups are clinically coherent, described with multiple different approaches, and show different patterns of response to inhaled bronchodilators and inhaled corticosteroids, as well as having markedly different patterns using the phenotype descriptor variables (Table 10.17). Accordingly hypothesis 1 is accepted.
Comparison of this research with results previously reported from the WRS has not completely replicated the candidate phenotypes reported by Weatherall et al. [2009], although some phenotypes are described by both analyses. The overlap group is reported in both analyses, which supports the case for this as a valid phenotype. Likewise, the atopic asthma (clusters 2 and 5) and mild/reference (cluster 3) phenotypes described here appear similar to the "atopic asthma" and "mild airflow obstruction without other dominant phenotypic features" phenotypes identified in the WRS. The pure emphysema and chronic bronchitis clusters described by Weatherall et al. [2009] were not reproduced in this study.

Hypothesis 2 is accordingly rejected as not all clusters matched those described previously, which may in part reflect improvements in methodology and differences in the population studied. However, where similar groups are described in both analyses this provides strong evidence supporting the validity of these candidate phenotypes.

There are two key aspects of the NZRHS methodology which may have caused differences from the WRS findings. Firstly, although in both studies participants were drawn from a random population sample, in the WRS individuals with either symptoms or a reduced FEV1/FVC ratio were included in the cluster analysis, whereas in the NZRHS all subjects had current symptoms of wheeze and breathlessness. The change in selection criteria was essential, as to include asymptomatic individuals in phase 2 testing would have required a far larger sample.
size. To have 250 subjects eligible for cluster analysis in the WRS (of whom 175 had complete data), they had to test 750 individuals, therefore to recruit 450 using the WRS design would have required up to 2,000 individuals. More importantly, phenotyping symptomatic participants is more likely to be clinically relevant as the benefit of treating asymptomatic people who have abnormal lung function has not been established. One possibility is that this difference in criteria led to some individuals with COPD who do not perceive themselves as having either wheeze or breathlessness being omitted from the NZRHS population, and may explain why the pure emphysema group in the WRS was not reproduced. The pure emphysema phenotype was not demonstrated even in the exploratory analysis and this is likely to be because participants with this pattern of disease were not present in significant numbers in the NZRHS sample. However, it is relevant to note that wheeze is a recognised symptom of COPD [GOLD, 2013] and that, using the same question as in the NZRHS, wheeze is reported by three-quarters of patients with COPD [Oh et al., 2013]. The screening questionnaire was therefore expected to identify a substantial number of people with COPD. Only 78/8,509 (0.9%) individuals responding to the screening questionnaire stated that they had a doctors diagnosis of emphysema (Table 9.4) and this proportion is similar to that reported from the WRS [Shirtcliffe et al., 2007]. Of the 78 people with a diagnosis of emphysema 60 (77%) reported wheeze. The screening questionnaire questions do not therefore appear to have excluded a significant number of individuals with emphysema. Given the low prevalence of diagnosed emphysema in the population, further exploration of
the pure emphysema candidate phenotype would require purposive sampling of people with confirmed COPD and emphysema.

The second key change in methodology was the alteration of cluster analysis variables, in particular the removal of the dichotomous question asking about cough with sputum production. Clusters in the WRS showed complete separation by reported cough and this may have driven the description of the chronic bronchitis phenotype (cluster five in Weatherall et al. [2009]). Once the dichotomous question was removed then other variables became more important in determining the outcome of the analysis. This interpretation is supported by the findings of the exploratory cluster analysis using the variables from Weatherall et al. [2009]. Four of the five phenotypes described in the previous analysis are reproduced when the same cluster variables are used on the NZRHS dataset. In particular, the exploratory analysis demonstrates a chronic bronchitis phenotype not seen in the main analysis, and the cluster separation by cough is complete for the AGNES based solution and almost complete for the DIANA solution. This strongly suggests that when the dichotomous cough question is included in the variables it dominates the analysis. It was not possible to apply the methods from the NZRHS to the WRS dataset as not all 13 variables were collected in the previous study.

Hypotheses 3 and 4

The response to salbutamol and ipratropium varied significantly between phenotypes and hypotheses 3 and 4 are therefore accepted. The pattern was similar in both bronchodilators, with the 'overlap'
and ‘moderate - severe atopic asthma’ phenotypes having markedly greater response to bronchodilators than the reference group, both as a percentage of baseline value and absolute change in litres. The extent of bronchodilation after salbutamol was equal to or greater than that achieved with ipratropium for all phenotypes, suggesting that salbutamol is an appropriate first choice of bronchodilator in all of the phenotypes described in the study. No phenotype had an average response to ipratropium greater than that for salbutamol.

Hypothesis 5

The allocation rule constructed using the ‘rpart’ function was able to allocate 75% of participants to the correct cluster using only 3 variables. This is similar to the performance of a previously reported allocation rule in severe asthma [Moore et al., 2010], and indeed two of the variables (FEV\(_1\) percent predicted and age of onset) are used in both algorithms. The hypothesis is therefore accepted with regard to accurately allocating participants from the NZRHS. However, allocation rules will tend to over-fit the dataset used to generate them and allocation accuracy is therefore likely to be lower if this rule was applied in an independent sample [Crawley, 2013; Travers et al., 2012]. The unexpectedly high proportion of participants with asthma allows detailed examination of phenotypes within asthma and permits investigation of the asthma/COPD overlap group, but will have limited the power of this study to explore phenotypes within COPD and may explain why the pure emphysema phenotype seen in other studies was not reproduced. The allocation rule described here
is likely to perform relatively well in a new sample selected using the same methodology but, as there were no clusters identified as representing classical COPD or pure emphysema, the allocation rule would be unable to distinguish between the overlap group and other forms of COPD when applied to a sample in which these conditions are present. To facilitate future studies investigating the overlap group separately from other forms of COPD, a new allocation rule would need to be constructed using criteria based on our understanding of the characteristics of the overlap group. One approach to establishing these criteria is the consensus methodology reported by Soler-Cataluña et al. [2012], who have suggested major and minor criteria which can be used to define the overlap group (Table 10.21).

Table 10.21: Proposed diagnostic criteria for the overlap group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
<th>MAJOR</th>
<th>MINOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very positive bronchodilator test</td>
<td>High total IgE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(FEV(_1) increase of (\geq 15%) and (\geq 400) ml)</td>
<td>Personal history of atopy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eosinophilia in sputum</td>
<td>Positive bronchodilator test on 2 or more occasions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal history of asthma</td>
<td>(FEV(_1) increase of (\geq 12%) and (\geq 200) ml)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Criteria taken from Soler-Cataluña et al. [2012] who proposed that 2 major criteria or 1 major and 2 minor criteria were sufficient to establish the diagnosis of asthma COPD/overlap syndrome.

The consensus criteria suggested by this group are consistent with the overlap phenotype characteristics in this research, however they
could unfortunately not be accurately tested against NZRHS data as salbutamol reversibility was only measured on one occasion and sputum samples were not taken.

One aspect of the overlap phenotype which is not included as a criterion in the consensus report is smoking history. All members of the overlap phenotype in this study were current or ex-smokers and had cigarette exposure of >10 pack years, and a significant smoking history was also a characteristic of the overlap group in other cluster analyses [Wardlaw et al., 2005; Weatherall et al., 2009]. For the purposes of allocating research participants it may therefore be appropriate to include a minimum level of cigarette smoke exposure, e.g. 10 pack years, in future allocation rules. Any such cut-off will be arbitrarily precise and will exclude some individuals who have a history of biomass smoke or other environmental exposures and would otherwise fall within the asthma/COPD overlap group. However, in the context of research, the additional precision may outweigh the effects on external validity.

Further discussion

Medication use

One notable difference between the overlap and moderate-severe asthma phenotypes was the variation in use of inhalers. Despite a similar severity of airflow obstruction and clinically important bronchodilator reversibility in both groups, use of SABA and ICS was much higher in the moderate-severe asthma phenotype. This may reflect the much higher rates of undiagnosed disease, with almost a
quarter of participants in the asthma/COPD overlap phenotype having no prior respiratory diagnosis. The majority of people with COPD do not have a doctors diagnosis [Soriano et al., 2009] and the high rates of clinically important undiagnosed disease in the overlap group in this research suggest that people with the overlap phenotype may benefit from some of the screening and case-finding approaches which have been recommended in COPD as a whole [Castillo et al., 2009; Haroon et al., 2013; Jithoo et al., 2013; Løkke et al., 2012; Sansores et al., 2013; Soriano et al., 2009].

BIOMARKERS

The moderate-severe asthma phenotype (cluster 2) had a raised FeNO and the highest blood eosinophil count, this would be consistent with a Th2 pattern of inflammation. High sensitivity CRP, total white cell count and blood neutrophil counts were highest in the overlap and obese/co-morbid phenotypes (clusters 1 and 4), consistent with systemic inflammation. Despite the high hsCRP the obese/co-morbid phenotype had the lowest FeNO and IgE. It is possible that in this situation systemic inflammation may be driving the airways disease, rather than representing spill-over inflammation from the lung. This may also be the case in the ‘systemic COPD’ group described by Garcia-Aymerich et al. [2011].

PHENOTYPE SEPARATION

Although individuals in each phenotype predominantly group together, the clusters are closely apposed, and in some cases overlapping,
as can be appreciated in a three-dimensional model constructed using allocation rule variables as axes (Figure 10.9).

Examination of the model in different planes highlights that the obese/co-morbid group separates out on BMI, whereas the remaining four clusters are differentiated based on age of onset and disease severity. The overlap between clusters means that some individuals could easily have been assigned to either of two clusters and suggests that alteration of classification of individuals may occur if phenotyping was repeated, although the underlying phenotype patterns are likely to still be present. Given the closely related nature of these phenotypes, the longitudinal stability of these phenotypes is important as a candidate phenotype is only useful if an individual can be confidently assigned to the phenotype on more than one occasion over time. If phenotypes are not stable it would be impractical to use them as the basis of future therapeutic trials, and therefore personalised treatment by phenotype would not be evidence based. The longitudinal stability of the phenotypes described in this research is not known and requires further study.

As repeat cluster analysis over time is not feasible, the most appropriate approach would be to apply an allocation rule to individuals on multiple occasions over time, allowing assessment of the variability of cluster assignment. Longitudinal studies should also be performed to compare the natural history of different phenotypes and assess phenotype stability. In order to perform these trials a clear allocation rule must be constructed to allow phenotype assignment at study entry. As the allocation rule described in this thesis would not be able
Figure 10.9: Snapshot of 3D model using variables from allocation rule

Yellow: Asthma / COPD overlap group
Blue: Moderate / severe, young onset, atopic asthma
Green: Mild, young onset, atopic asthma
Red: Obese with co-morbidities
White: Mild, reference group

The figure shows a snapshot of a 3D model in which each of the 389 individuals in the cluster analysis is represented by a sphere. The colour of the sphere indicates their assigned phenotype. Axes are those used in the allocation rule: FEV₁ percent predicted, age of onset and BMI. Examination of the model in different planes highlights that the ‘obese with co-morbidities’ group separates out on BMI, whereas the remaining four clusters are differentiated based on age of onset and disease severity.
to discriminate between the asthma/COPD overlap group and other individuals with COPD, it will be necessary to construct alternative allocation rules to allow all potential patients access to future trials. These rules, once constructed, may be validated against existing datasets to determine the proportion of patients likely to be allocated to the overlap phenotype. The criteria reported by Soler-Cataluña et al. [2012] may form a good starting point for construction of a future allocation rule.

Linked to the question of cluster stability is the core question of whether the phenotypes described constitute distinct disease entities or simply different expressions of the same disease. Phenotype description is simply a logical extension of disease taxonomy, or nosology [Snider, 2003]. As clinical phenotypes are emergent properties arising from the complex interaction of genetic, environmental and therapeutic inputs it is perhaps simplistic to expect a heterogeneous group of individuals to express a discrete phenotype, cleanly separated from other possible phenotypes. Clinical phenotypes may be linked to one or more endotypes (chapter 3), and the processes which define different endotypes may be able to occur in the same individual simultaneously. As with the taxonomy of species, when differences are large it is easy to separate disparate groups. However, once we are attempting to separate two highly related groupings it is less clear how to draw the division, different methods may describe different groupings, and we may be imposing discrete groups on a continuum.

As the boundaries between phenotypes may be somewhat arbitrary at times, it is important to focus on clinical utility above other
considerations. The ability of a phenotype to predict pathogenesis, future outcome, or treatment response is key to its worth. The candidate phenotypes described in this research differ in response to inhaled bronchodilators, suggesting the phenotypes may form clinically useful groupings. In chapter 11 the response of the different phenotypes to inhaled steroids is described.
PHASE 3

11.1 RESULTS

Eligibility and Enrolment

Progress through the study is shown in the flow diagram (Figure 9.1) and eligibility and enrolment for the ICS trial by cluster is shown in Table 11.1. Of the 418 participants who completed Phase 2, 194 were not eligible for the ICS trial as they had received treatment with steroids within the last 3 months. 56 subjects were eligible but elected not to participate, and the remaining 168 people (75% of those eligible) were both eligible and chose to participate in the ICS trial.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1 (n=34)</th>
<th>2 (n=59)</th>
<th>3 (n=80)</th>
<th>4 (n=61)</th>
<th>5 (n=155)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not eligible</td>
<td>17 (50%)</td>
<td>44 (75%)</td>
<td>30 (38%)</td>
<td>26 (43%)</td>
<td>71 (46%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eligible:</td>
<td>17 (50%)</td>
<td>15 (25%)</td>
<td>50 (63%)</td>
<td>35 (57%)</td>
<td>84 (54%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not enrolled</td>
<td>1 (3%)</td>
<td>6 (10%)</td>
<td>14 (18%)</td>
<td>9 (15%)</td>
<td>18 (12%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolled</td>
<td>16 (47%)</td>
<td>9 (15%)</td>
<td>36 (45%)</td>
<td>26 (43%)</td>
<td>66 (43%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentages may exceed 100% due to rounding

Eligibility rates were similar in clusters one, three and five. Subjects in cluster two, the moderate-severe atopic asthma phenotype, were far
more likely to be receiving ICS at baseline, and if not taking ICS were less likely to agree to enrol in the ICS trial. Some of these participants had consciously chosen not to take ICS despite prescription by their regular doctor, and were therefore less inclined to participate in the ICS trial.

Subjects in the obese, co-morbid, phenotype were more likely to be eligible for the ICS trial as they had lowest rates of baseline ICS use.

Description of ICS trial participants

Brief characteristics of ICS trial participants are shown in Table 11.2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>MEAN (SD) VALUES BY AGW5 CLUSTER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All n = 127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>49.0 (14.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1/FVC†</td>
<td>71.1 (12.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1‡</td>
<td>83.5 (17.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kCOcorr‡</td>
<td>97.8 (18.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack years</td>
<td>11.4 (17.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male sex‡</td>
<td>75 (59%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICS in last year§</td>
<td>7 (6%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

†Pre-bronchodilator, expressed as percent predicted; ‡Post-bronchodilator, expressed as percent predicted; §Values reported as N (%)

Participants enrolling in the ICS trial had similar screening questionnaire characteristics to those of the overall sample (Table 9.4). The main difference was a higher percentage of males among the ICS trial participants.
ICS Responsiveness

Change in outcome measures with 12 weeks of ICS is shown in Table 11.3, Table 11.5 and Figure 11.1.

There was no evidence of a significantly different change in ACQ-7 between the clusters (p=0.38). However, there was strong evidence of a difference between clusters for change in SGRQ (p=0.005) and peak flow variability (p<0.001). SGRQ change showed a statistically significant and clinically important improvement that was greater than the reference group for the overlap and obese/co-morbid phenotypes (p=0.008 and p<0.001 respectively, Table 11.3). Mild and moderate-severe atopic asthma phenotypes showed a trend to greater improvement than the reference group but this did not reach significance (p=0.054 and p=0.057, respectively). Peak flow variability was significantly improved relative to the reference group for the overlap (p=0.028) and moderate-severe atopic asthma (p<0.001) phenotypes; but there was no significant difference from the reference group for the mild asthma phenotype (p=0.91). Peak flow variability worsened slightly in the obese/co-morbid group (p=0.044).

Change with ICS was not significantly different between the groups for FEV1 (p=0.88) and FeNO (p=0.19). There was no difference between groups in the proportion of participants who had a severe adverse event (p=0.32).

The SGRQ score is made up of 3 sub-domains and change in sub-domains was compared as an exploratory analysis, using the same methods as for total SGRQ (Table 11.5). Change in the Symptoms
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>MEAN (SD) VALUES BY AGW5 CLUSTER</th>
<th>P-VALUE†</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All n = 127</td>
<td>1 n = 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACQ-7 Visit 2</td>
<td>0.79 (0.75)</td>
<td>1.85 (1.18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACQ-7 Visit 3</td>
<td>0.63 (0.76)</td>
<td>1.63 (1.26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in ACQ-7 V3 - V2</td>
<td>-0.16 (0.56)</td>
<td>-0.21 (0.50)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGRQ Total Visit 2</td>
<td>23.0 (16.9)</td>
<td>45.2 (20.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGRQ Total Visit 3</td>
<td>17.4 (14.6)</td>
<td>36.1 (20.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGRQ Total Visit 3 minus Visit 2</td>
<td>-5.6 (9.8)</td>
<td>-9.1 (12.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEF variability Visit 2</td>
<td>20.3 (12.5)</td>
<td>35.4 (18.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEF variability Visit 3</td>
<td>15.0 (7.9)</td>
<td>23.4 (9.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in PEF variability, V3 - V2</td>
<td>-5.0 (10.4)</td>
<td>-9.7 (16.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FeNO, Visit 2</td>
<td>38.4 (40.5)</td>
<td>10.9 (6.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log FeNO, Visit 2</td>
<td>3.25 (0.86)</td>
<td>2.24 (0.54)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FeNO, Visit 3</td>
<td>24.3 (17.4)</td>
<td>9.5 (5.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log FeNO, Visit 3</td>
<td>2.97 (0.67)</td>
<td>2.09 (0.58)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in Log FeNO, V3 - V2</td>
<td>-0.28 (0.53)</td>
<td>-0.16 (0.35)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1 percent predicted, Visit 2</td>
<td>83.5 (17.9)</td>
<td>57.5 (25.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1 percent predicted, Visit 3</td>
<td>84.2 (17.6)</td>
<td>58.9 (23.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in FEV1 V3 - V2</td>
<td>0.7 (3.9)</td>
<td>1.4 (4.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1 Visit 2</td>
<td>3.18 (0.98)</td>
<td>1.98 (1.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1 Visit 3</td>
<td>3.21 (0.97)</td>
<td>2.03 (0.98)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in FEV1 V3 - V2</td>
<td>0.03 (0.15)</td>
<td>0.05 (0.15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAE‡</td>
<td>2/127</td>
<td>0/14 (0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

†P-value calculated using a mixed linear model to compare the mean differences between visit 3 and visit 2 between clusters using a ‘visit by cluster’ interaction term unless otherwise stated; ‡Values reported as N (%). p-value calculated by exact Chi-square test for association.
Figure 11.1: Box and whisker plots showing change in outcome variables during ICS trial
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLUSTER</th>
<th>PHENOTYPE</th>
<th>ACQ MEAN (95% CI)</th>
<th>ACQ P</th>
<th>SGRQ MEAN (95% CI)</th>
<th>SGRQ P</th>
<th>PEFR MEAN (95% CI)</th>
<th>PEFR P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Asthma/COPD Overlap</td>
<td>0.20 (-0.16 to 0.56)</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>8.2 (2.2 to 14.2)</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>6.8 (0.7 to 12.9)</td>
<td>0.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Moderate-severe atopic asthma</td>
<td>0.35 (-0.09 to 0.79)</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>7.2 (-0.2 to 14.6)</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>17.9 (10.6 to 25.2)</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Obese with co-morbidities</td>
<td>0.27 (-0.05 to 0.58)</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>9.5 (4.2 to 14.8)</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>-5.4 (-10.6 to -0.1)</td>
<td>0.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Mild atopic asthma</td>
<td>0.14 (-0.11 to 0.39)</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>4.2 (-0.1 to 8.4)</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>-0.2 (-4.4 to 4.1)</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table shows the improvement in outcome variable between visits minus the improvement in the outcome for the reference cluster. Positive values represent improvement. Values shown for the primary and significant secondary outcome variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLUSTER</th>
<th>PHENOTYPE</th>
<th>SYMPTOMS MEAN (95% CI)</th>
<th>SYMPTOMS P</th>
<th>ACTIVITIES MEAN (95% CI)</th>
<th>ACTIVITIES P</th>
<th>IMPACT MEAN (95% CI)</th>
<th>IMPACT P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Asthma/COPD Overlap</td>
<td>14.2 (2.6 to 25.7)</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>14.0 (5.1 to 22.9)</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>3.2 (-3.2 to 9.6)</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Moderate-severe atopic asthma</td>
<td>20.5 (6.3 to 34.7)</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>9.2 (-1.8 to 20.1)</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>2.0 (-5.8 to 9.9)</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Obese with co-morbidities</td>
<td>12.4 (2.3 to 22.6)</td>
<td>0.017</td>
<td>12.8 (4.9 to 20.6)</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>6.3 (0.7 to 11.9)</td>
<td>0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Mild atopic asthma</td>
<td>4.1 (0.4 to 16.6)</td>
<td>0.041</td>
<td>5.7 (-0.6 to 12.0)</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>2.1 (-2.4 to 6.6)</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table shows the improvement in SGRQ sub-domain variable between visits minus the improvement in the outcome for the reference cluster. Positive values represent improvement.
sub-domain was significantly different between groups, $p=0.017$. The greatest improvement relative to the mild/reference cluster was for the moderate-severe asthma phenotype, followed by the overlap and obese/co-morbid phenotypes respectively.

Change in the activities sub-domain also differed between groups, $p=0.006$. The greatest improvement was seen in the overlap phenotype, followed by the obese/co-morbid phenotype. Change in mild and moderate-severe atopic asthma phenotypes was not significantly different from the reference cluster.

Change in the Impact sub-domain was not significantly different when compared across all clusters by the mixed linear model, $p=0.28$, although the improvement in the obese/co-morbid group was significantly greater than that in the reference group, $p=0.027$.

### 11.2 Discussion

Participants enrolling in the ICS trial had similar characteristics by cluster to those of the overall sample and are therefore likely to be representative of their phenotypes. The higher percentage of males among the ICS trial participants is a potential source of bias, however both sexes were still well represented and the sex balance is close to that seen among all eligible respondents in Phase 1.

The hypothesis tested in Phase 3 was

- That the response to the ICS budesonide will differ between clusters.

This research is the first to use cluster analysis to allocate patients to phenotypes and prospectively describe their response to ICS. The
primary variable of ACQ-7 was not significantly different between groups. However, ICS treatment for 12 weeks was associated with strong evidence of clinically important changes in health status and peak flow variability, which differed between the groups.

There are some limitations to this study that should be noted. As the ICS phase of the trial was an open label study without placebo control, the changes seen during ICS treatment cannot be assumed to be caused purely by ICS. However, investigators and participants were blind to cluster allocation throughout the study, which means that any placebo effect or regression to the mean should be present to a similar degree in the reference group that serves as an active control. The size of the effects and the fact that changes with steroids were seen in the atopic asthma phenotypes, which are known to be steroid responsive, but not in the reference group is also suggestive that these represent real differences in treatment responsiveness.

The primary outcome measure for ICS responsiveness was the ACQ-7. This is a very sensitive and well validated measure of asthma control but has not been validated in unselected airways disease. It is therefore possible it will exhibit different measurement properties in this group, although 70% of participants had a doctor’s diagnosis of asthma. The SGRQ has been extensively validated in both asthma and COPD. The modest, and therefore not statistically significant, changes in ACQ-7 with ICS contrast with the sizeable changes in SGRQ. The improvement in SGRQ was around twice the MCID (4 units) in the overlap, moderate-severe atopic asthma and obesity groups, whereas no phenotype had an improvement in ACQ-7 equal to the MCID (0.5
Interestingly the moderate-severe atopic asthma phenotype had the greatest improvement in ACQ-7 despite only having the third largest improvement in SGRQ. The ACQ-7 is known to be sensitive to change in patients with asthma but these results suggest that it may be less sensitive to change in a population with unselected airways disease. It may be that the elements that contribute to improved respiratory health status in the overlap and obese/co-morbid phenotypes are not captured as part of the ACQ-7, which is designed to measure asthma control.

Examining the sub-domains of the SGRQ, the moderate-severe atopic asthma phenotype had the biggest change in the symptoms sub-domain. This is consistent with the fact that symptoms are an accurate guide to disease activity in the majority of people with asthma [Fingleton and Beasley; GINA, 2011]. By comparison, the moderate-severe asthma phenotype had relatively modest changes in the Impact and Activities sub-domains.

The overlap and obese/co-morbid phenotypes had slightly smaller changes in the Symptoms domain, but then had similarly large changes in the Activities sub-domain, leading to a cumulatively much larger total SGRQ change. The change in the Impact sub-domain was greatest for the obese/co-morbid phenotype and was significantly greater for the obese/co-morbid group than for the reference group, possibly reflecting the psychological burden faced by the group. However, although the comparison between the obese/co-morbid and reference groups was significant (p=0.027), the mixed linear model did not show a significant difference across all groups (p=0.28); therefore the finding
of greater improvement in Impact score for the obese/co-morbid group must be treated with caution, as it may be an artefact of multiple testing.

The overall response to ICS of the moderate-severe asthma phenotype was smaller than might be expected. It is possible that those subjects with moderate-severe asthma not taking ICS at study entry were more likely to be steroid insensitive, and had previously discontinued ICS for this reason, however this information is not available.

The findings of the ICS trial support the hypothesis that the described phenotypes differ in their response to budesonide. The magnitude of the treatment effect is unclear given the contrast between effect as measured by ACQ-7 and as measured by SGRQ.

Currently patients in the overlap group may be treated either as having COPD or asthma, which will result in marked differences in the recommended inhaled therapy [British Thoracic Society; Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network, 2012; GINA, 2011]. Those treated as COPD in view of their smoking history and reduced transfer factor would be liable to receive initial treatment with short and long-acting bronchodilators, including LABA monotherapy. Whereas, those treated according to asthma guidelines, in view of the variability of their airflow obstruction and increased IgE, would receive maintenance ICS. The apparent benefit to the overlap group from ICS therapy shown in this study requires confirmation in future RCTs. However, given the known risks of LABA monotherapy in asthma [Beasley et al., 2012] and the potential opportunity cost of denying effective ICS therapy to ICS responsive individuals, it may be appropriate to treat
patients in the overlap group with ICS along asthma guidelines on a precautionary basis pending further studies. The increased use of steroids in the overlap group relative to other phenotypes of COPD has been recommended in Spanish [Miravitlles et al., 2012b; Soler-Cataluña et al., 2012] and Canadian COPD guidelines [O’Donnell et al., 2007], either on the basis that this is an asthma-like group [O’Donnell et al., 2007] or because of the evidence of ICS response in COPD with eosinophilia [Brightling et al., 2005; Leigh, 2006; Miravitlles et al., 2012a; Papi et al., 2000; Siva et al., 2007]. Whilst sputum eosinophilia has been reported to be a feature of the overlap group [Kitaguchi et al., 2012], this research and the previous WRS has reported low FeNO levels in the overlap group, and Miravitlles et al. [2013] reported low serum nitrate levels. These findings do not suggest that eosinophilia is a universal feature of the asthma/COPD overlap phenotype, therefore it is important that the expected benefit of ICS in the overlap group is confirmed with appropriately designed trials.
12

SUMMARY, POTENTIAL FUTURE WORK AND CONCLUSIONS

12.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND POTENTIAL FUTURE WORK

The aims of this research were:

- To explore clinical phenotypes of chronic airways disease by cluster analysis.
- To examine if phenotypes identified by a previous cluster analysis exist in the independent NZRHS sample.
- To compare the response to short-acting beta-agonist between phenotype groups.
- To compare the response to short-acting muscarinic antagonist bromide between phenotype groups.
- To compare the response to inhaled corticosteroid between phenotype groups.
- To generate allocation rules and determine their predictive value for the different disorders of airways disease.

It was possible to recruit 451 individuals with symptoms of obstructive airways disease from a large random population sample. Following detailed assessment, cluster analysis was used to identify and describe five candidate phenotypes of obstructive airways disease.
All five phenotypes identified in this research are supported, to different degrees, by evidence presented in the literature review. The bronchodilator and ICS response of these phenotypes is described and an allocation rule reported, which was able to assign three-quarters of participants to the correct cluster.

Before candidate phenotypes can be incorporated into clinical practice they must be fully validated. In the literature review I suggested the following minimal criteria in order for a candidate phenotype to gain acceptance and be clinically useful:

1. Replication in more than one study.
3. Description and validation of allocation rules that allow patients to be reliably matched to the most appropriate phenotype.
4. Longitudinal follow-up with assessment of phenotype stability, natural history and demonstration of differential outcome between phenotypes.

The research in this thesis has been directed towards the first three aspects of validation but, as a cross-sectional study, cannot address the fourth. The five phenotypes described in this research are at different stages in this process.

**Mild / Intermittent** This group was used as a reference group for the ICS analyses and had little evidence of active disease. Whilst other authors have also described minimal disease clusters it is not clear that these represent a coherent phenotype. Although one possibility would be that post infective wheeze is the dominant phenotype in
this cluster, individuals may well have diverse aetiologies for their symptoms, including mild asthma, post viral wheeze, and undiagnosed co-morbidities. If future longitudinal studies showed evidence of progression to overt disease over time then this would increase the clinical importance of the mild/intermittent phenotype, but on current evidence it may simply be a label for individuals who do not fit into the more clinically coherent categories.

**Young-onset atopic asthma** The most robust phenotypes described in the NZRHS are mild and moderate to severe young-onset atopic asthma. This phenotype was well recognised prior to the use of cluster analysis [Wenzel, 2006] and, given the restrictive criteria used in the majority of major asthma trials to date [Travers et al., 2007b], is well represented in observational and interventional studies. Both mild and moderate to severe young-onset atopic asthma can therefore be accepted as validated phenotypes.

**Asthma/COPD overlap** The asthma/COPD overlap group described in this study is a phenotype for which there is now considerable evidence (see Part I). This study provides further validation of the phenotype and extends the evidence by demonstrating the bronchodilator and ICS responsiveness of this group. The medication responsiveness findings from this research require replication in future controlled trials and the natural history and longitudinal stability of the overlap group remain to be determined.

**Obese / co-morbid** This study identified a cluster characterised by obesity, poor symptom control and worse health status despite
limited airflow obstruction, which is consistent with clusters described previously [Benton et al., 2010; Haldar et al., 2009; Moore et al., 2010; Musk et al., 2011; Sutherland et al., 2012]. The group described in this research is notable for the high prevalence of co-morbidities in this group and for the marked response to ICS. This latter finding contrasts with previous reports that obesity is associated with a reduced response to ICS [Peters-Golden et al., 2006], however Sutherland et al. [2012] described two different patterns of ICS response with obesity in their retrospective study. Of the two obesity clusters they identified, one was characterised by early onset, severe, disease and a poor ICS response, whereas the later onset group showed greater improvement in symptoms with ICS. The obesity cluster described in the NZRHS was characterised by later onset symptoms and may correspond with the steroid responsive obese asthma cluster reported by Sutherland et al. [2012]. Given this divergence in reported steroid responsiveness within obesity phenotypes, the precise inclusion criteria of future studies will be key to their interpretation. The longitudinal characteristics of obesity phenotypes are currently unknown and require further study.

This programme of research has several strengths. The large random population sample and cluster analysis methodology serve to minimize the extent to which bias and a priori assumptions affect outcome, whilst also allowing the extent to which methodological changes alter cluster assignment to be explored. Disease phenotyping was extensive and focused on variables which have the potential to be measured in clinical practice. No articles were identified in the systematic review that incorporated prospective assessment of ICS and bronchodilator
Responsiveness by phenotype, and this is therefore a key novel aspect of the research.

Potential future studies

There are a number of possible avenues that future research may take, but the following programme would begin to provide a firm evidence base for treatment recommendations in the overlap and obese-co-morbid phenotypes:

1. Validation of a modified allocation rule in independent datasets.

2. Longitudinal study of phenotype stability and natural history, using allocation rule to assign phenotypes.

3. Double-blind randomised controlled trials comparing response to common respiratory therapies in specific phenotypes, as determined by the allocation rule. Likely interventions would include:
   - Inhaled corticosteroid- including long term response
   - Inhaled corticosteroid/long-acting beta-agonist combination therapy
   - Tiotropium (overlap and mod-severe asthma phenotypes)
   - Roflumilast (overlap and obese/co-morbid phenotypes)
   - Leukotriene receptor antagonists
   - Targeted treatment of co-morbidities (overlap and obese/co-morbid phenotypes)

One key clinical question which the above studies would help to answer is the role of ICS in patients with the overlap phenotype. This study provides evidence which is suggestive that use of ICS may be beneficial in patients with an asthma-COPD overlap phenotype.
Given the changes in health status seen with ICS in this research and the known dangers of LABA monotherapy in asthma, it would be reasonable to treat patients with the overlap phenotype according to asthma guidelines, and hence have a relatively low threshold for ICS use, pending further research. This approach is not without risk given the potential increase in pneumonia with ICS seen in the TORCH study [Crim et al., 2009], and definitive trials in these phenotypes are therefore required.

12.2 CONCLUSIONS

Cluster analysis of patients with symptoms of airflow obstruction has identified disease phenotypes that differ significantly in their clinical, and pathophysiological characteristics. This research has confirmed the existence of the late-onset asthma/COPD overlap, young-onset atopic asthma, and obese/co-morbid phenotypes and provides data on their responsiveness to inhaled corticosteroid, short-acting beta-agonist and short-acting muscarinic antagonist therapies, which may guide future management of patients with these phenotypes of obstructive airways disease.
Part IV

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Part V

APPENDIX
CRITERIA FOR TEST POSTPONEMENT DUE TO CHEST INFECTION / URTI

It is unlikely that subjects who are feeling unwell would want to participate or produce their best results. The following are a guide and represent exclusion criteria only when the symptoms are different to normal for them for this time of year.

1. Upper respiratory tract infection
   a) Cough with sputum OR
   b) Change in colour of normal sputum (e.g. clear to yellow/-green) or increased quantity
   c) Rhinorrhea (runny nose)
   d) Sneezing
   e) Congestion or blocked nose +/- muscle aches or generalised/frontal headache

2. Chest Infection (lower respiratory tract infection)
   a) Cough with sputum OR
   b) Change in colour of normal sputum (e.g. clear to yellow/-green) or increased quantity
   c) Chest pain worsening with coughing
Any of these symptoms lasting for more than two days should lead to test postponement until at least three weeks from first symptom or full recovery.

If subjects have been given an antibiotic for a cough or cold, tests should also be postponed for 3 weeks from the start of symptoms for which treatment was started.
PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

The participant information sheet is included in unmodified form on the following pages. The version included here is the final version. Modifications were made during the study as new aspects were added. Periostin measurement and the taking of genetic samples was added to the study, as sub-studies not discussed in this thesis, and the relevant sections inserted at that time. No significant modifications were made to the remainder of the text once the study commenced.
PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

The Medical Research Institute of New Zealand is currently undertaking a study of airways disease in the greater Wellington region:

New Zealand Respiratory Health Survey

INVESTIGATORS

Professor Richard Beasley
Dr Justin Travers
Dr Pip Shirtcliffe
Dr James Fingleton
Mr Mathew Williams

Level 7, CSB Building
Wellington Hospital
Riddiford St, Newtown
Wellington 6021
Ph: 04 4 805 0147

You are invited to take part in this study. Do not feel obliged to make your decision now but feel free to think about it at home and contact us when you have made your decision. The information given in this leaflet should help to explain the study and tell you what is going to happen. It is your right to decide not to take part in the study.
What are the aims of the study?
Asthma and COPD (including emphysema and chronic bronchitis) are two of the most import and common medical conditions affecting adults worldwide. Despite the substantial burden of these diseases there is an inadequate understanding of their causation, particularly, how they should be classified and which types of patient with these diseases respond to the different medications. This study aims to confirm the presence of distinct disease types and compare their response to common medications currently used in the treatment of asthma and COPD.

How many participants will be involved?
We expect 500 participants to visit us for this study.

Where will the study be held?
The study will be held both at Wellington Hospital, Riddiford Street, Newtown in Wellington and Bowen Hospital, Churchill Drive, Crofton Downs, in Wellington. You can attend whichever hospital is more convenient for you.

What will I have to do?
Visit 1
You will be invited to Wellington or Bowen Hospital to assess the health and function of your lungs. We’ll ask you to sit in a plastic box like a shower stall. You will be asked to sit inside it for a few minutes and undertake some breathing exercises. You will be able to hear the operator’s voice at all times giving you instructions. Measurements will be taken at least 3 times to allow us to record the best reading. We will take a small blood sample before we measure how well your lungs transfer gas.

If you do not normally take inhalers you will be given some medication through an inhaler - this produces a fine mist of medication for you to breathe. At this visit, this medication will be either salbutamol (Ventolin) or ipratropium (Atrovent). Both medications are commonly given to people with airways disease to open up the passages in the lungs and improve breathing. While you wait 30 minutes for the medication to work, we will ask you to complete a questionnaire. Then we will repeat the breathing exercises in the box to see if the medication has helped your breathing. We estimate that this visit will take up to 2 hours of your time, not including travel time.

If you do normally take inhalers we may ask you to complete the questionnaires and then come back on a different day to be given the medication. We may ask you not to take your normal inhalers on that day until after we have seen you.

After Visit 1
We will give you a peak flow meter to take home when you leave the clinic. We will ask you to measure your breathing twice daily at home for one week.

Visit 2
You will be invited back to Wellington / Bowen Hospital. We will be asking you to breathe into different machines. First you breathe into a tube so that we can measure a gas (Nitric oxide) that you naturally exhale. Then you will again breathe into a machine to measure the work of your breathing, and to repeat the breathing test where you sit in a plastic box
like a shower stall. Then you will be given some medication through an inhaler. You will receive the other medication that you did not get at the first visit, either ipratropium or salbutamol. Whilst waiting for the medication to work we will ask you to fill in 3 questionnaires about your breathing. After waiting 30 minutes for the medication to work, we will repeat the breathing exercises in the box to see if the medication has helped your breathing. Selected study participants will be provided with an inhaled corticosteroid medication to be taken for 12 weeks. This is the most common medication used on a regular basis to reduce the severity of asthma or COPD. It controls the disease process by reducing inflammation in the airways. We estimate that this visit will take up to 2 hours of your time, not including travel time.

Participants who will be taking the inhaled corticosteroid will also have a nasal swab taken at visit 2 and 3. This swab will be used for looking at the different patterns of cell activity to see if some patterns are associated with a better response to the inhaler.

**After Visit 2**

If you were not provided with the inhaled corticosteroid medication, you have finished the study. If you were provided with this medication, you will keep taking it twice a day for 12 weeks. We will ask you to measure your breathing twice daily at home for one week.

**Visit 3**

You will be invited back to Wellington / Bowen Hospital. We will collect any remaining inhaled corticosteroid medication. You will breathe into a tube so that we can again measure the nitric oxide that you naturally exhale. You will then again breathe into a machine to measure the work of your breathing, and repeat the breathing test where you sit in a plastic box like a shower stall. Then you will be given salbutamol through an inhaler. While waiting 30 minutes for the medication to work, you will repeat some of the questionnaires. We will repeat the breathing exercises in the box to see if the salbutamol has helped your breathing. We estimate that this visit will take up to 2 hours of your time, not including travel time. Some subjects may be asked to have a second blood test at visit 3.

**QUESTIONS THAT YOU MAY HAVE**

**What are the benefits of the study?**

The benefits of taking part in this study are that you will learn more about how your lungs work. The breathing tests might detect a problem with your lungs that you could then get treated, which may improve your health. You will also be contributing to important medical research.

**Do I continue to smoke during the study?**

You should continue to smoke in your usual pattern throughout the study, although you will need to withhold for a short period prior to the lung function tests. This is explained in the leaflet “**Important information for study participants**”

**What are the side effects of the drugs used in the study?**

Salbutamol (Ventolin) is the most common medication used to relieve symptoms in airways disease in New Zealand. Generally it is very well tolerated and causes no problems. Side effects when they do occur are usually mild and transient and include
tremor, palpitations, cramps and headaches. A single dose such as you will receive is unlikely to cause you any problems. However, should you experience any problems when you get home you are welcome to ring one of the doctors listed on the front of this leaflet for advice.

Ipratropium is a medication used by thousands of people with airways disease in New Zealand. Generally it is very well tolerated with no problems. Side effects when they do occur are usually mild and transient and include dry mouth and constipation. A single dose such as you will receive is unlikely to cause you any problems. However, should you experience any problems when you get home you are welcome to ring one of the doctors listed on the front of this leaflet and ask to speak to one of the doctors listed.

Inhaled corticosteroids are the most common preventative medication used by people with airways disease in New Zealand. Generally they are very well tolerated and cause no problems. Side effects with prolonged use, when they do occur, are usually mild and transient and include thrush of the mouth and throat and an increase in skin bruising. A short course such as you will receive is unlikely to cause you any problems. Cushing's syndrome, adrenal suppression, growth retardation, decreased bone mineral density and cataract occur very rarely when used at high doses for years.

What is my blood being tested for?
Your blood is being tested for the following things:

- **Anaemia**: This affects the results of your lung function tests.
- **C reactive protein**: This is a measure of inflammation in the body.
- **Carboxyhaemoglobin**: This is raised in tobacco smokers and affects the results of your lung function tests.
- **Immunoglobulin E**: this kind of antibody can be raised in people with asthma or allergies.
- **Evidence of allergic response to things such as pollen.**
- **Periostin**: This is a protein in the blood which may be raised in people with airway inflammation.

With your consent we will also store a sample of blood for some participants which can be used to look at links between types of airways disease and certain genes.

Will the blood test hurt?
There is always the risk of momentary discomfort, bleeding, swelling and bruising at the site of the needle during sampling.

How do you do the nasal swabs?
If you are having a nasal swab taken we will spray a small amount of local anaesthetic into one nostril and then place the swab in the nose and roll it to pick up a few cells from the surface. The local anaesthetic can sting and some people find the swab slightly uncomfortable.

What will happen to the stored blood and nasal swabs?
There are many links between our genes (part of our DNA) and the pattern of diseases we get. It can be very helpful to look at how common certain genes are in people with different types of airways disease. This will not tell us anything about your risk of experiencing a disease but may help us to better understand the different types of asthma and COPD.
Each person has a DNA make-up (their genes) that is different from that of everybody else (except in the case of identical twins). This genetic make-up is a mixture of the genes of our parents. The precise way genes are mixed varies from child to child within the same family, so having the same parents does not mean that two children will have exactly the same genes. We already know that some health conditions and disorders are definitely inherited through the genes (hereditary conditions), but we do not know how many conditions are explained by genetic inheritance. Inherited genes may explain why some people are more resistant and some people more prone to disorders that have not yet been identified as hereditary. The research in which you are invited to participate will investigate genetic makeup to look for any link between an occurrence of a disorder and inherited genes.

Because the research investigates genetic make-up, this identifies you as a participant as well as your particular genetic characteristics. This information is confidential and will not be disclosed, stored or used in any way without your informed consent.

In particular the researcher/sponsor of the research will not claim any right, ownership or property in your individual genetic information or that of your kinship group, hapū or iwi, without having first sought and obtained your informed consent to the transfer of any such right, ownership or property. Your consenting to participate in DNA sampling for the proposed study will not be construed as creating any right or claim on the part of the researcher/sponsor to your genetic information. For some people and their family/whanau, there may be concerns in sending genetic samples overseas. This should be discussed with them where possible/appropriate.

The stored samples will be kept in a secure freezer until analysed. The samples may be sent for analysis in an expert research centre in another country. Stored samples will only be used to help us understand these conditions better. To preserve confidentiality, any samples sent overseas will have personal information such as name and date of birth replaced by a code (de-identified).

In the future there may be other genes / genetic markers that we wish to investigate. With your consent we may use your stored blood sample in future studies looking at the relationship between our DNA and airways diseases.

**Will taking part cost me anything?**

There are no costs incurred by you to take part in the study for the tests, other than travel, and your time. You will receive some reimbursement in recognition of your participation in the trial and for travel costs you may incur for the visits to Wellington / Bowen hospital.

**Do I have to take part?**

Your participation is entirely voluntary (your choice). You do not have to take part in this study, and if you choose not to take part it will in no way affect your future health care. If you do agree to take part you are free to withdraw from the study at any time, without having to give a reason.

**Will I be able to bring somebody with me?**

Yes, you are welcome to bring a family member or friend with you if you wish.

**Will I be able to have an interpreter?**
Yes, interpreters are available on request.

**Will my GP be told I am in the study?**

Yes, with your permission, the researcher will write to your GP, once the study is completed, with the results of your tests. It is not a requirement that your GP be informed.

**Will the answers I give on the questionnaire be kept confidential?**

Absolutely everything you tell us will be protected by doctor - patient privilege and will not be disclosed to anyone. The questionnaire will be used only for the purposes of this study. No information that could personally identify you will be used in any reports on this study. For the duration of the study, any documentation will be kept in a locked office, and on completion of the study it will be stored in a locked cupboard for 10 years to comply with Good Clinical Practice guidelines and then destroyed.
If requested, auditors and regulatory authorities such as the Wellington Ethics Committee, may access documentation including participant’s notes for verification of study procedures. This process will in no way violate the confidentiality of the participants.

**Will I be able to find out the results of the study?**

Yes, your individual results can be posted to you on request and you will be able to find out the results of the study when it is completed.

**Where can I get more information about the study?**

You can call the researchers whose details are on the front page of this information sheet. An interpreter can be provided.

If you have any queries or concerns regarding your rights as a participant in this study, you may wish to contact a Health and Disability Services Consumer Advocate at telephone number 0800 423 638.

**What do I do now?**

If you have decided you would like to participate in the study and do not already have an appointment, please call Matthew on 04 8050243. We will then make your appointment for Wellington / Bowen Hospital.

**STATEMENT OF APPROVAL**

This study has received ethical approval from the Central Ethics Committee.

**Compensation:**
In the most unlikely event of a physical injury as a result of your participation in this study, you may be covered by ACC under the Injury Prevention, Rehabilitation and Compensation Act. ACC cover is not automatic and your case will need to be assessed by ACC according to the provisions of the 2002 Injury Prevention Rehabilitation and Compensation Act. If your claim is accepted by ACC, you still might not get any compensation. This depends on a number of factors such as whether you are an earner or non-earner. ACC usually provides only partial reimbursement of costs and expenses and there may be no lump
sum compensation payable. There is no cover for mental injury unless it is a result of physical injury. If you have ACC cover, generally this will affect your right to sue the investigators.

If you have any questions about ACC, contact your nearest ACC office or the investigator.
MAIN QUESTIONNAIRE

The following pages contain the NZRHS main questionnaire and the guidance document provided to investigators.
A. General Questions

1. When were you born?

2. Which ethnic group do you belong to? Mark the space or spaces which apply to you.
   - Maori
   - New Zealand European
   - Samoan
   - Cook Island Maori
   - Tongan
   - Niuean
   - Chinese
   - Indian
   - Other (such as DUTCH, JAPANESE, TOKELAUN). Please state:

3. Are you male or female?

B. Respiratory Symptoms

Cough

4. Do you usually cough when you don't have a cold?

If NO, go to question 5, if YES, proceed with this section:

4a. Do you cough on most days for as much as 3 months each year?

4b. For how many years have you had this cough?

4c. Have you been woken at night by an attack of coughing at any time in the last 12 months?
Sputum

5. Do you usually bring up phlegm from your chest first thing in the morning?
   - Yes
   - No

If NO, go to question 6, if YES, proceed with this section:

5a. Do you bring up phlegm like this on most days for as much as 3 months each year?
   - Yes
   - No

5b. For how many years have you had phlegm like this?
   - Years

5c. How many months of an average year would you have phlegm like this?
   - Months

5d. How many days of an average month (with phlegm) would you have phlegm like this?

5e. During the whole day, how much sputum is there usually?
   - < a tablespoon
   - > a tablespoon

Breathlessness

6. Do you ever have trouble with your breathing?
   - Yes
   - No

If NO, go to question 7, if YES, proceed with this section:

6a. When do you have this trouble?
   - Always, so that your breathing is never quite right
   - Comes and goes, but it always gets completely better
   - Rarely

6b. How old were you when you first noticed this trouble?

Wheeze

7. Have you ever had wheezing or whistling in your chest when breathing?
   - Yes
   - No

If NO, go to question 8, if YES, proceed with this section:

7a. Have you had wheezing or whistling in your chest at any time in the last 12 months?
   - Yes
   - No

7b. Have you been at all breathless when the wheezing noise was present?

If NO, go to question 8, if YES, proceed with this section:
7c. How old were you when you first experienced shortness of breath with wheezing?  
Age N/A

7d. How old were you when you last experienced shortness of breath with wheezing?  
Yes No N/A

7e. Have you experienced shortness of breath with wheeze in the last 12 months?  
1 0 N/A

If NO go to question 8, if YES proceed with this section:

7f. Have you had an attack of shortness of breath at any time in the last 12 months that has woken you from sleep?  
Yes No N/A

7g. Have you had an attack of shortness of breath at any time in the last 12 months where you have found it difficult to speak?  
Yes No N/A

7h. Have you had an attack of shortness of breath at any time in the last 12 months that required you to see a doctor?  
Yes No N/A

C. Past respiratory history and diagnoses

Emphysema

8. Did a doctor ever tell you that you had emphysema?  
Yes 0 No

Chronic bronchitis

9. Did a doctor ever tell you that you had chronic bronchitis?  
Yes 0 No

COPD

10. Did a doctor ever tell you that you had chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD)?  
Yes 0 No

Bronchiectasis

11. Did a doctor ever tell you that you had bronchiectasis?  
Yes 0 No

Tuberculosis

11a. Did a doctor ever tell you that you had tuberculosis?  
Yes 0 No

If NO, go to question 8, if YES, proceed with this section:

11b. Have you ever received treatment for tuberculosis?  
Yes, what treatment? 0 No

If NO, go to question 8, if YES, proceed with this section:

11c. Have you received at least 6 months of antibiotic treatment for tuberculosis?  
Yes 0 No
Asthma

12. Did a doctor ever tell you that you had asthma?

If NO, go to question 13a, if YES, proceed with this section:

12a. How old were you when you had your first attack of asthma?

12b. How old were you when you had your most recent attack of asthma?

Atopy

13a. Have you ever had eczema or any kind of skin allergy?

13b. Have you ever had a problem with sneezing, or a runny or blocked nose when you DID NOT have a cold or the flu?

Chest infections

14. How many chest infections have you had in the last 12 months?

D. Smoking

Current Smoking

15. Do you now smoke cigarettes?

If NO go to question 16, if YES proceed with this section:

15a. How old were you when you began to smoke cigarettes?

15b. How many cigarettes do you smoke each day, on average:

Interviewer calculate pack years
Previous Smoking

16. Did you smoke cigarettes previously?

If NO go to question 17, if YES proceed with this section:

16a. How old were you when you began to smoke cigarettes?

16b. How old were you when you stopped cigarette smoking?

16c. How many cigarettes did you smoke each day, on average?

Interviewer calculate pack years

E. Occupation

17. Age when completed full time education?

17a. What is your current or most recent job? (be as precise as possible)

17b. Are you or were you:
   a manager working for an employer
   a foreman or supervisor working for an employer
   working for an employer but neither a manager, supervisor or foreman
   self-employed

17c. Does being at work ever make your chest tight or wheezy?

17d. Have you ever had to change or leave your job because it affected your breathing

If NO go to question 18; if YES, proceed with this section:

17e. What was this job? (Be as precise as possible)

Occupational Exposures

18. Have you ever worked in a job which exposed you to vapours, gas, dust or fumes?

If NO go to question 19; if YES, proceed with this section:

18a. What was this job? (Be as precise as possible)
F. Your home

19. Which of the following fuels do you use for heating or for hot water?

19a. open coal, coke or wood fire

19b. open gas fire

19c. electric heater

19d. paraffin heater

19e. gas-fired boiler

19f. oil-fired boiler

19g. other

---

20. Which of the following fuels do you mostly use for cooking? (Choose one only)

20a. coal, coke or wood (solid fuel)

20b. gas

20c. electric

20d. paraffin

20e. other

---

G. Medication

21. Have you used any inhalers to help your breathing at any time in the last 12 months?

If YES, which of the following inhalers have you used in the last 12 months?

21a. Short-acting β₂-agonist

21b. Short acting anticholinergic

21c. Combination bronchodilator

21d. Long-acting β₂-agonist (LABA)

21e. Long acting anticholinergic

21f. Inhaled corticosteroid (ICS)

21g. Combination ICS and LABA

21h. Other
22. Have you used any *pills, capsules, tablets or medicines*, other than inhaled medicines, to help your breathing at any time in the last *12 months*?

**If YES, which of the following have you used in the last 12 months?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>If yes, which one?</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22a</td>
<td>Oral specific $\beta_2$-agonists</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>22b</td>
<td>Oral methylxanthines</td>
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<tr>
<td>22c</td>
<td>Oral steroids</td>
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<td>22d</td>
<td>Oral antihistamines</td>
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<tr>
<td>22e</td>
<td>Other oral medications</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Antibiotics**

23. How many courses of antibiotics have you taken to treat a chest infection in the last *12 months*?

**H. Use of health services**

24. Have you ever had to make an unplanned visit to your family doctor because of breathing problems?

   **24a. If yes, how many times in the last *12 months*?**

25. Have you ever visited a hospital casualty department or emergency room because of breathing problems?

   **25a. If yes, how many times in the last *12 months*?**

26. Have you ever spent a night in hospital because of breathing problems?

   **26a. If yes, how many times in the last *12 months*?**

27. Have you ever been admitted to a hospital intensive care unit because of breathing problems?

   **27a. If yes, how many times in the last *12 months*?**
I. Gastroesophageal reflux

28. Do you have heartburn, waterbrash, or indigestion?

If NO go to question 30; if YES, proceed with this section:

28a. Which of the following best represents your symptoms:

- Occasional heartburn / reflux
- Heartburn / reflux requiring antacids or medical advice (but not interfering with activities)
- Heartburn / reflux constantly interfering with activities

29. Do you take any pills, capsules, tablets or medicines to help with this?

If YES, which of the following have you used in the last 12 months?

29a. Proton pump inhibitors

29b. Histamine receptor antagonists

29c. Other antacid

30. Is your breathing worse lying down?

31. Is your breathing worse after stooping?

32. Is your breathing worse after eating?

J. Co-morbidities

33. Has a doctor ever told you that you had one of the following diseases?

33A. Heart trouble?

If NO to 33A, SKIP to 33B.
If YES to 33A, ANSWER the following:

33A.1 Have you ever had treatment for heart trouble in the past 10 years?

33B. High Blood Pressure (hypertension)?

If NO to 33B, SKIP to 33C.
If YES to 33B, ANSWER the following:

33B.1 Have you had any treatment for high blood pressure (hypertension) in the past 10 years?
Has a doctor ever told you that you had one of the following diseases?

33C. Angina?

33D. Heart attack/Myocardial Infarction?

33E. Stroke?

33F. Heart Failure?

33G. Arrhythmia?

33H. Osteoporosis or 'thin' bones?

33I. Osteoarthritis?

33J. Rheumatoid Arthritis?

33K. Inflammatory Bowel Disorders (i.e., Crohn’s Disease, Colitis)?

33L. Diabetes?

If NO to 33L, SKIP to 33M.
If YES to 33L ANSWER the following:

33L.1 Is your disease called "Type 1" or "early onset" diabetes?

33L.2 Is your disease called "Type 2" or "late onset" diabetes?

33M. Peptic Ulcer?

33N. Gastroesophageal Reflux/Heartburn?

33O. Depression that needs treatment?

33P. Anxiety or Panic Attacks?
Coding and Instructions for the Respiratory Questionnaire

Introduction
The use of a questionnaire to collect information makes it possible to obtain answers to important questions in a standardised way. The reliability of the questionnaire depends on the behaviour of the interviewer, and therefore it is important that the questions are read exactly as they are printed and that no non-verbal clues are given.

The respiratory questionnaire contains many questions which have been taken from the European Community Respiratory Health Survey II main questionnaire. The appropriate explanatory notes below have therefore been taken from the instructions which accompany that survey. Original documents can be found at http://www.ecrhs.org/.

Instructions for administering the questionnaire

Basic rules
1. Interviews should take place where there is minimal disturbance, where both interviewer and subject can be comfortable, and where eye contact and hence the attention of the subject is maintained.

2. The interview is started when the interviewer has the subject’s full attention, with the introductory sentence used in the questionnaire.

3. Occasionally, the interview may be complicated by one of the following difficulties:
   a) The subject will not understand the question.
   b) The subject or interviewer will find an ambiguity in the question.
   c) The subject’s answer may be inappropriate to the question.

4. It is very important that all interviewers in all the centres follow the same procedure for solving problems, so that it is possible to compare the answers given in one centre with the answers given in another.

5. The following general rules should be obeyed when there is a problem:
   a) The question is repeated exactly as written, emphasising the wording where there is ambiguity,
   b) The subject is reminded that he/she should try to answer ‘YES’ or ‘NO’ to each of the questions.
   c) If an answer of ‘YES’ or ‘NO’ is required and the subject does not understand the question even when repeated, the answer is coded as ‘NO’, (unless a ‘DON’T KNOW’ option is specifically provided).
   d) Where an answer is required to a quantitative or semi-quantitative question, the subject’s ‘best guess’ may be accepted.
   e) A tablespoon holds 15 millilitres (ml). It is acceptable to have a container as a prompt with a line marking the 15ml line. The interviewer may select the appropriate answer based on the subject’s response.

If, during the interview, a subject requests further information or clarification of a question that is not possible according to the questionnaire rules, the interviewer should explain to the subject that these points can be discussed at the end of the questionnaire.
Training
Before starting the survey, the questionnaire and instructions should be studied and any difficulties discussed. Trainee interviewers must become familiar with the flow of questions.

Recording the replies to the questions
Most of the questions are of the ‘YES’ or ‘NO’ types. If the subject is uncertain of the answer it is recorded as ‘NO’. If the answer to the question is a number, this should be recorded directly in the boxes provided. Where the answer is a date, this should be written out in full. The interviewer should follow instructions given in the questionnaire regarding which questions to ask according to the subject’s response. In cases when further questions are irrelevant (and this can follow a ‘YES’ or a ‘NO’ answer) a ‘skip’ (‘GO TO’) will direct interviewers to the next question. Occasionally, there are ‘skips’ within sub-divisions of questions. For questions where there is a choice of answers there are two formats. If there is only one possible or likely answer the format is ‘TICK ONE BOX ONLY’. If the subject cannot decide between two options, then the choice which applies most of the time and most recently should be recorded. The second format is a ‘YES’ or ‘NO’ box to each of a number of possibilities or choices in cases where they could all apply. Some of these questions have as a final option ‘OTHER’. If the subject chooses this option and, therefore, gives an unusual or unexpected answer, the box next to this option is ticked and the answer written in freehand. If the subject is asked to list items and there is insufficient space, the most often used or the item the subject considered most important should be recorded.

Additional clarification of questions

Question 4
A cough with their first smoke or on going out of doors is included. Clearing the throat or a single cough is excluded. The word ‘usually’ should be emphasised. An occasional cough may be considered as normal and the answer should be recorded as ‘NO’. As a rough guide single coughs at a frequency of less than six a day are ‘occasional’. ‘Three months’ refers to three consecutive months, and ‘each year’ to the last two years.

Questions 5-5a
When night shift workers are interviewed the words ‘on getting up’ should be used instead of ‘first thing in the morning’. As with cough, phlegm with the first smoke or on going out of doors is included, but not mucoid discharge from the nose. Contrary to cough, however, ‘occasional’ phlegm production from the chest is considered abnormal if it occurs twice or more per day. The interviewer may use any suitable word that accords with local usage provided that it distinguishes phlegm from the chest or throat from pure nasal discharge. Some subjects admit to bringing up phlegm without admitting to coughing. This should be accepted without changing the replies to the questions about cough. A claim that phlegm is coughed from the chest but swallowed counts as a positive reply. ‘Three months’ refers to three consecutive months, and ‘each year’ to the last two years.

Question 6
The phrase ‘trouble with your breathing’ should not be elaborated upon. If the subjects feel that there is something wrong with their breathing, whatever the reason, the answer is recorded as ‘YES’.

Questions 7 – 7b
These questions are intended to identify persons who have occasional and/or frequent wheezing. Subjects may confuse wheezing with snoring or bubbling sounds in the chest.
‘Wheeze’ can be described as ‘A whistling sound, whether high or low pitched and however faint’. If the question is not understood, a vocal demonstration of wheezing by the interviewer can be helpful. No distinction is made between those who only wheeze during the day and those who only wheeze at night.

**Questions 7c-d**
If the subject does not remember their age at time of their first or most recent attack of asthma, the interviewer should ask an estimate of the age. This is more likely with the first, rather than the most recent, but an estimate may also be given for most ‘recent attack’.

**Question 12**
Further explanation of the definition of ‘asthma’ should not be given. If the term is not understood, the answer should be recorded as ‘NO’.

**Question 13a**
If the term eczema is not understood the answer should be recorded as ‘NO’.

**Questions 15 & 16**
[‘YES’ means at least 20 packs of cigarettes or 12 oz (360 grams) of tobacco in a lifetime, or at least one cigarette per day or one cigar a week for one year]
If the subject is in doubt about their smoking status the interviewer should read the definition of ‘smoking’ above. If the subject answers ‘YES’ but does not remember when they started smoking, the interviewer should ask for an approximate age. The question on ‘present’ smoking status relates to the last month. For example, if the subject smoked their last cigarette two weeks ago the answer is ‘YES’. If the subject’s smoking habits have changed, they will be asked how old they were when they cut down or stopped smoking. The tendency will be to remember ‘how long ago’ rather than ‘at what age’, so the interviewer will need to work out with the subject the age at cutting down. The subject will then be asked how much he/she smoked on average the entire time that he/she smoked before cutting down. The questions are designed so that a consistent smoker answers only about what he/she smokes now and ex-smoker answers about what he/she now smokes and what he/she smoked before. ‘Home’ or ‘self-rolled’ cigarettes are included in ‘number of cigarettes’ smoked. If the subject has smoked cigars or pipe tobacco the interviewer should convert this to pack years. The following conversions may be used:

- One pack year is equivalent to 20 cigarettes smoked per day for 1 year.
- 1 cigar is considered equivalent to 4 cigarettes
- 1 cigarillo is considered equivalent to 2 cigarettes. Cigarillos are a small, thin type of cigar.
- 12.5 grams (0.5oz) of loose tobacco is approximately equivalent to 20 cigarettes.
- One Pipe is equivalent to two and a half cigarettes.

Pack years = ounces per week x 2/7 x number of years smoked

**Question 17**
Response is recorded in years. When subjects give an answer in years and months, only the number of years should be recorded and should be rounded down. A full-time student is defined as one currently attending an educational establishment and not having full-time employment. If the subject is a student, but works part-time this counts as full-time education. If a full time student enter 888.

**Question 17b**
Refers to current or most recent job. This question is trying to capture whether the subject has staff members working for them. A supervisor or foreman typically refers to a senior
employee in a factory or manual labour environment who has responsibility for other employees. A manager typically refers to an office based employee who has junior staff at the office reporting to them. Subjects should select the option that most closely represents their situation.

Questions 19 & 20
These questions refer to heating and cooking fuels and give some idea of indoor air pollution. Information on the type of heating will provide information on temperature differentials and humidity changes throughout the house, which can occur when there is no central heating. ‘Open fires’ as a form of heating refers to a ‘fireplace’ a ‘stove’ or a ‘woodstove’ used for heating or hot water in a room which is inhabited rather than in an unused basement, whether or not it is part of a ducted heating system. Biomass fuels such as animal dung used for heating would be included under question 19a “open coal, coke or wood fire”. For cooking biomass fuels would come under option 20a.

If the subject has additional forms of heating (for example, electric storage heaters) and they have been used at least once in the last 12 months, the answer is recorded as ‘YES’. If other heaters are present but have never been used in the previous 12 months, the answer to the question is ‘NO’.

Questions 21 & 22
The subject should be asked to bring along any medication that he/she is currently taking. The question refers to the last 12 months so it is possible that the subject no longer has the medicine or that it is not in its original container, so therefore, the interviewer can show the subject photographs of inhalers/medicines at the time of questioning. Of two or more inhalers or medicines from the same group are simultaneously used, the one that is most often or most recently used should be recorded. Menthol rubs and similar ‘inhaled’ medicine are not counted as inhalers.

Question 24 & 25
In China few subjects will have a family doctor. Attendance at the Day Clinic in the hospital should be recorded as a yes to question 24. Attendance in the emergency department in the hospital should be recorded as a yes to question 25. These questions are designed to capture information about the need for unplanned medical care. No distinction will be drawn between Day clinic and the emergency department in terms of likely severity.

Question 26
If the subject was kept in overnight for observation either in the emergency department or in hospital this counts as an admission. If the subject waited many hours to be seen but was allowed home once assessed this would not count as an admission.

Question 27
If the subject was ventilated on a general ward or received non-invasive ventilation the answer should be recorded as yes.

Instructions for coding the questionnaire

Standard coding
For all questions;
0 NO
1 YES
555 NOT ANSWERED
999 DON’T KNOW  This option should rarely be used. If the subject is not sure if the answer to a question is ‘Yes’ or ‘No’ it should be coded as ‘No’. However, don’t know may be appropriate in some circumstances- e.g. If a subject knew they were taking an inhaled steroid but did not know which one, the answer to Question 21f would be ‘Yes’ and under ‘If yes which one’ the interviewer should enter ‘999’. Don’t know is also considered appropriate for co-morbidity questions- Q33.

**Question specific coding**

**Question 2**
Maori 1, NZ European 2, Samoan 3, Cook Island Maori 4, Tongan 5, Niuean 6, Chinese 7, Indian 8, Other 9. Additional codes will need to be generated for the Chinese arm of the study

**Question 7c**
First attack of asthma
000 First attack of asthma as early as they can remember  
999 Don’t know

**Question 17a**
888 Currently a full-time student

**References**


Testing Procedures

1. Subject Data (called Patient Data (V5.04b) in Jaeger LabManager V4.65g).
   1.1. If this is the first visit for the study then all of the following data will have to be entered:
       - **Last Name**
       - **First Name**
       - **Identification** Study identifier code - subject number, for example SCO104960-S002001
       - **Date of Birth** Day/Month/Year
       - **Sex** Male or Female
       - **Standing Height** The median of 3 measurements is to be recorded to the nearest 0.5 centimetres.
       - **Weight** To be recorded to the nearest 0.5 kilograms
       - **Pred. Module** (predicted normal value) – this should be the ECCS\(^1\) unless otherwise stated by the Sponsor.
       - **Operator** Initials of the technician or doctor conducting the plethysmography measurements.
       - **Visit** (Visit number of the study) \(^2\)
       - **Study** (The study identifier code, for example SCO104960) \(^3\)

   1.2. If the subject is here for a subsequent visit within the same study then load the patient details that have been saved previously, AND
       - Update only the subject’s weight and visit number, and the operator if different.

2. Ambient Calibration should be updated (V4.65.0.1) in Jaeger LabManager V4.65g) **immediately prior to opening the Body Plethysmography programme** (V4.66.7.0)\(^4\).

   2.1. Two independent ambient sensors should be present to verify the integrity of the Jaeger sensor.

   2.2. Readings from the Jaeger sensor which interfaces with the computer should be used to update ambient conditions within the ambient calibration.\(^5\)

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\(^1\) By default this is called Standard in Jaeger LabManager V4.65g, Patient Data V5.04b.
\(^2\) By default this field is called Ward rather than Visit in Jaeger LabManager V4.65g, Patient Data V5.04b.
\(^3\) By default this field is called Physician rather than Study in Jaeger LabManager V4.65g, Patient Data V5.04b.
\(^4\) If not, a comment should be made in the subjects report.
\(^5\) The units should vary no more than 1°C, 10hPa, and 10%rel.Hum, otherwise refer to Calibration SOP for MRINZ – Bowen.
3. Immediately following the opening of the Body Plethysmography programme (V4.66.7.0) the correct settings should be loaded. The settings should be set to MRINZsop, unless otherwise stated by the sponsor (these settings will then be named after the study identifier code – for example ABC104960).

4. Body Plethysmography testing should begin as soon as the temperature in the body box has stabilised due to the subjects exhaled breath and body temperature increasing the internal box temperature.

4.1. Should the subject become uncomfortable and require the body box be opened before reproducibility has been met the internal box temperature must re-stabilise before testing is recommenced.

5. Resistance and conductance measurements should be carried out before lung volume and spirometry measurements.

5.1. After establishing tidal breathing the subject should be encouraged to increase their frequency of breathing to 1.5 breaths per second and correspondingly reduce tidal volume, keeping even breaths at this frequency the shutter is then closed while the subject keeps breathing through the closure.

5.2. Body Plethysmography V4.66.7.0 (in LabManager V4.65g) calculates Resistance and Conductance is recorded as the breaths immediately prior to the shutter closure.

5.3. Between 3 and 8 measurements should be carried out, stopping once the reproducibility criteria have been met. Each measurement should be inspected for acceptability. The subject should rest off the mouthpiece between measurements. Each measurement is saved in a separate file, Using F1 to capture resistance loops, F2 to close shutter for TGV then F7 to display results. Removing loops with a breathing frequency less than 90 or greater than 150. F9 to save test then F1 to start next measurement.

5.4. The test is complete when 3 acceptable attempts meeting reproducibility have been recorded. Reproducibility criteria is
- 3 Resistance measurements are within 10% of their mean, AND
- 3 Conductance measurements are within 10% of their mean.

5.5. If reporting single values then the mean of the three reproducible values is reported and printed by RepOutput 5.00b (in LabManager V4.65g). The loading of the files to be reported should be done in Patient Data V5.04b.

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6 These setting are defined in Appendix A – MRINZsop settings for Whole Body Plethysmography.

7 The major determinant of stability in the Bodybox is temperature change due to body heat, which affects both humidity and pressure.

8 If not, a comment should be made in the subjects report.

9 While resistance is best measured at 1.5-2.5 breaths per second (AARC Guideline: Body Plethysmography) the ITGV is best measured at 1 breath per second (AARC Guideline: Static Lung Volumes), so we aim for the lower end of breath frequency.

10 If the required frequency is not achieved within 15sec on starting the end of tidal breathing then the subject should be rested, returned to tidal breathing, and another attempt made prior to measurement.

11 This programme calculates arithmetic mean value of tests selected.


13 If more than one value is reported then all 3 reproducible values are reported.
5.6. The door to the Body box can be opened for patient comfort (section 4) prior to further testing.

6. Lung volumes should be measured after the resistance and conductance measurements and before beginning spirometry measurements\(^{15}\).

6.1. The subject is to establish normal tidal breathing\(^{16}\) prior to TGV measurement, is then informed of the shutter closure and encouraged to keep breathing through it, and then asked to exhale fully to RV, inhale fully to TLC then relax back to FRC\(^{17}\). F7 to save measurement.

6.2. Between 3 and 8 measurements should be carried out, stopping when reproducibility criteria have been met. **These must all be completed in the same file**\(^{18}\). The subject should rest off the mouthpiece between measurements.

6.3. The test is complete when 3 acceptable attempts meeting reproducibility have been recorded. Reproducibility criteria is

- **3 ITGVs are within 5% of their mean**, AND
- **the 2 largest ICs (from the same manoeuvres) are within the larger of 5% or 60ml**\(^{19}\)
- **The 2 largest VC s are within the smaller of 5% or 150ml**\(^{20}\)

6.4. All manoeuvres which do not fit into the acceptability criteria must be deselected in Body Plethysmography V4.66.7.0 so that they do not affect the values calculated and reported. Values calculated and reported are as follows\(^{21}\):

- **ITGV, IC, and VCIn are measured directly**
- **TLC is calculated as mean ITGV and mean IC**
- **ERV is calculated as maximum VCIn minus mean IC**
- **RV is calculated as mean ITGV minus ERV**

6.5. If reporting single values\(^{22}\) then the mean ITGV, and maximum VC of the three reproducible values, mean IC two largest repeatable vaies. The TLC, ERV, and RV as calculated.

6.6. The door to the Body box will usually be opened for patient comfort (section 4) prior to further testing.

7. Spirometry measurements should be carried out after resistance and conductance, and lung volume measurements\(^{23}\). These measurements should be carried out with the Body box door open.

\(^{14}\) RepOutput 5.00b (in LabManager V4.65g) will report subjects current age rather than the age at testing if the files are loaded from within RepOutput rather than Patient Data).

\(^{15}\) If not, a comment should be made in the subjects report.

\(^{16}\) In Body Plethysmography V4.66.7.0 use F2 rather than F1 (to avoid resistance/conductance measurement), to start measurement, F2 to close shutter, and F7 to add measurement to the file. F9 will save the file once reproducibility is met.

\(^{17}\) The time limit post shutter to complete IC has been increased form 20 seconds to 45 seconds (See Appendix B).

\(^{18}\) RepOutput 5.00b (in LabManager V4.65g) cannot report TLC as Mean ITGV and Mean IC unless it received those values directly from Body Plethysmography V4.66.7.0, which cannot be done if manoeuvres are carried out in different files.

\(^{19}\) ICs under 1.2L should be within 60mls of each other, others can vary more (e.g. 5% of 3L = 150mls)

\(^{20}\) VC s over 4L should be within 150mls of each other, others must vary less (e.g. 5% of 2L = 100mls)

\(^{21}\) These setting are defined in Appendix A – MRINZsop settings for Whole Body Plethysmography.

\(^{22}\) If more than one value is reported then all 3 reproducible values are reported.

\(^{23}\) If not, a comment should be made in the subjects report.
7.1. After two tidal breaths the subject is instructed to breathe in slowly to reach TLC, then immediately exhale quickly to RV. Subjects are encouraged to continue to breathing out until empty or until they can no longer keep blowing. If the operator can see time volume graph shows no airflow for 2 seconds the operator will instruct the subject to inhale, or if the subject has exhaled for greater than 15 seconds the subject is then instructed to breath in when they can no longer keep blowing.\textsuperscript{24}

7.2. Between 3 and 8 measurements should be carried out, stopping when 3 acceptable and reproducible tests are achieved. These should all be completed in the same file\textsuperscript{25}. The subject should rest off the mouthpiece thoroughly between measurements (the time is dependant on subjects ability to recover form the manoeuvre).

7.3. Reproducibility is achieved when:
- **the 3 selected manoeuvres meet ATS acceptability criteria**\textsuperscript{26}, AND
- **the 2 largest FEV1 measurements are within 150mls of each other**, AND
- **the 2 largest FVC measurements are within 150mls of each other**\textsuperscript{27}
  (NOTE: The operator makes the final judgement based on subject observation, graphical data, and experience as to the acceptability of a manoeuvre.)

7.4. All manoeuvres which do not fit into the acceptability criteria must be deselected in Body Plethysmography V4.66.7.0 so that they do not affect the values calculated and reported. Values calculated and reported are as follows\textsuperscript{28}:
- **Maximum FEV1 measured**
- **FEV6 and mid expiratory flows are measured from the best single manoeuvre** (the manoeuvre with the highest Sum of FEV1 and FVC).
- **Maximum FVC measured**
- **FEV1/FVC ratio calculated by Maximum FEV1/Maximum FVC** of all three measurements.

7.5. If reporting single values\textsuperscript{29} then the FEV1, FEV6, FVC, and FEV1/FVC Ratio as measured is reported and printed. This is done in RepOutput 5.00b (in LabManager V4.65g). The **loading of the files to be reported should be done in Patient Data** V5.04b

\textsuperscript{24}Pressing F3 will begin capturing Spirometry data and F7 will save captured data to file (allowing the use of F3 to capture subsequent data). F9 will save the file once reproducibility is met.
\textsuperscript{25}Body Plethysmography V4.66.7.0, can assess ATS reproducibility criteria for Spirometry manoeuvres saved within the same file.
\textsuperscript{26}Reproducibility is achieved by meeting ATS criteria alone but testing will continue and manoeuvres will be selected to meet.
\textsuperscript{27}Standardisation of Spirometry – ATS/ERS task force standardisation of spirometry. Eur Respir J 2005; 26: 319-338
\textsuperscript{28}These setting are defined in Appendix A – MRINZsop settings for Whole Body Plethysmography.
\textsuperscript{29}If more than one value is reported then all 3 reproducible values are reported.
Appendixes

A. MRINZsop settings for Whole Body Plethysmography

Body Plethysmography V4.66.7.0 (in LabManager V4.65g) screen dumps for various setting are as follows:

i. Settings → Modify → Axis scaling... Settings → Modify → Resistance/ITGV...

Note that parameter list (right) will vary dependent on values required by the study. Note also that “Display tangent for...” parameter does not change the values recorded – it is only used by the operator to assess the quality of the measurements – this parameter is changed to match the values required by the study.

ii. ...
Settings → Modify → Spiro./F-V…
Note that parameter list (right) will vary dependent on values required by the study.

iii. Settings → Modify → Save as…
Note that parameter list (right) will vary dependent on values required by the study.
Settings → Modify → Parameter list…
Actual parameter list will vary dependent on the values required by the study but
- All resistance and conductance, and lung volume parameters (for example, the first two sections of the parameter list on right of previous pictures) will be calculated/measured with values in the **bodyplethysmography** rather than **spirometry** formulas.

- All spirometry or forced volumes will be calculated/measured with values in the **spirometry** rather than **bodyplethysmography** formulas.
B. Changing the default ‘time-out’ for a SVC manoeuvre following an ITGV measurement
   i. You must edit the “JAEGER.INI” file which is found in the windows directory (in our case “C:\WINDOWS”)  
   ii. On opening the file scroll through the parameters until you find the line “[BODY]” under which you will find the line “ERV_TIME=20” 
   iii. Change “ERV_TIME=20” to ERV_TIME=45” 
   iv. Save the changes to the file and then restart LabManager and Body Plethysmography.