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70 Abstract

71 Studies of chest computed tomography (CT) in patients with primary antibody deficiency
72 syndromes (ADS) suggest a broad range of bronchial pathology. However, there are as yet no
73 multicentre studies to assess the variety of bronchial pathology in this patient group. One of
74 the underlying reasons is the lack of a consensus methodology, a prerequisite to jointly
75 document chest CT findings.

76 We aimed to establish an international platform for the evaluation of bronchial pathology as
77 assessed by chest CT and to describe the range of bronchial pathologies in patients with
78 antibody deficiency.

79 15 immunodeficiency centres from 9 countries evaluated chest CT scans of patients with ADS
80 using a predefined list of potential findings including an extent score for bronchiectasis.

81 Data of 282 patients with ADS were collected. Patients with common variable
82 immunodeficiency disorders (CVID) comprised the largest subgroup (232 patients, 82.3%).
83 80% of CVID patients had radiological evidence of bronchial pathology including
84 bronchiectasis in 61%, bronchial wall thickening in 44% and mucus plugging in 29%.

85 Bronchiectasis was detected in 44% of CVID patients aged less than 20 years. Cough was a
86 better predictor for bronchiectasis than spirometry values. Delay of diagnosis as well as
87 duration of disease correlated positively with presence of bronchiectasis.

88 The use of consensus diagnostic criteria and a pre-defined list of bronchial pathologies allows
89 for comparison of chest CT data in multicentre studies. Our data suggest a high prevalence of
90 bronchial pathology in CVID due to late diagnosis or duration of disease.

91 **Key Words**

92 Chest CT; CVID, Primary Antibody Deficiency, bronchiectasis; bronchial pathology

94 Primary antibody deficiency syndromes (ADS) are a heterogeneous group of immune
95 disorders characterised by subnormal immunoglobulin levels and/or the inability to mount
96 specific antibody responses (1). Common variable immunodeficiency disorders (CVID) are
97 the most frequent humoral immunodeficiency requiring immunoglobulin replacement therapy
98 with an incidence of approximately 1:25,000 – 1:50,000 live births (2).

99 Agammaglobulinaemia, XLA (x-linked agammaglobulinaemia) together with other variants,
100 forms the second largest group affecting 3 to 6 per million live births (3). Recurrent bacterial
101 infections of the respiratory tract are a major part of morbidity in both conditions although the
102 frequency and severity are reduced by immunoglobulin replacement therapy (2,4-10). Airway
103 infections are predominantly caused by encapsulated bacteria and can lead to persistent
104 structural lung disease such as bronchiectasis (11,12). Presence of bronchiectasis is strongly
105 associated with mortality in CVID and XLA (13,14).

106 Early detection of the presence or progression of structural lung disease is essential to develop
107 preventive or therapeutic strategies in this setting. Imaging techniques, in particular computed
108 tomography (CT), are considered the gold standard for diagnosing structural lung disease
109 (15,16).

110 Chest X-ray (CXR) and pulmonary function tests (PFT) including spirometry, gas transfer and
111 body plethysmography are readily available and can be repeated frequently, due to lower or
112 absent dose of ionising radiation compared to sequential CT imaging.

113 However, both methods lack sensitivity to detect structural lung disease in patients with
114 antibody deficiency (11,17) or other conditions, such as cystic fibrosis (CF) (18).

115 A sizeable body of literature reports bronchial morbidity in patients with antibody deficiency
116 based on chest CT findings (17,19). However, these studies were almost exclusively single
117 centre studies and are not easily comparable, since they used differing reporting systems and
118 nomenclatures (11,20,21). The performance of multicentre studies therefore demands
119 consensus data definition, reporting and scanning methodology to afford internal validity.

120 The difficulties of providing a standardised evaluation of chest CT scans in antibody
121 deficiencies may have contributed to the apparent paucity of clinical studies describing
122 preventive or therapeutic interventions in this patient group (22).

123 The present study is the result of an international multicentre and multidisciplinary
124 collaboration aiming to create a common platform of chest CT findings from patients with
125 primary antibody deficiencies. Based on a large number of chest CT studies, the distribution,
126 variety and extent of pulmonary pathology was assessed. Herein, we report the findings on
127 bronchial pathology in conjunction with clinical data and pulmonary function testing. Based
128 on these findings, we propose a method to document bronchial pathologies for multicentre use
129 such as patient registries.

130 Methods

131 **Development of a consensus list of CT findings**

132 In the Chest CT in Antibody Deficiency Group, immunologists, radiologists and
133 pulmonologists agreed a list of chest CT findings with the aim of collecting pathologies of
134 potential relevance for patients with PAD. The list was based upon clinical experience and
135 review of the literature. In order to use radiological terminology that is both widely accepted
136 and defined by an image repository, the syllabus of the Fleischner Society (15) was used. A
137 short form of definitions and exemplary images was provided to the participating centres
138 (<http://www.chest-ct-group.eu/imagerepository>).

139 The Chest CT Group criteria scored 16 items (table 1, online repository), including 4 on
140 bronchial pathologies. Bronchial wall thickening was defined as a diameter of a bronchial
141 wall being larger than one third of the outer diameter of the accompanying bronchial artery, of
142 more than a fifth of the outer diameter of the bronchus. Bronchiectasis was defined as an
143 airway lumen larger in diameter than the outer diameter of the accompanying bronchial
144 artery. Two items were scored only as present or absent (bronchial wall thickening,
145 atelectasis). Mucus plugging was additionally scored for the distribution pattern (central or
146 peripheral). Bronchiectasis was scored for distribution and extent, the latter comprising a
147 simplified bronchiectasis score (0, 1, 2 or 3, ≥ 4 lobes affected or cystic changes in ≥ 2 lobes).
148

149 **Chest CT scans and data collection**

150 Chest CT scans were performed according to local guidelines of the participating centres and
151 evaluated locally. All chest CTs were acquired at full inspiratory capacity by using a thin slice
152 protocol of acquisition.

153 The diagnosis of the immunodeficiency was based on the diagnostic criteria of the European
154 Society for Immunodeficiencies (ESID)(23). Only CT scans that were performed in patients
155 with a stable clinical condition were included. The radiologists were requested to employ

156 chest CT scoring system provided by the Chest CT in Antibody Deficiency Group in addition
157 to their local practice.
158 CT findings along with clinical data were documented with the ESID online registry (24).
159 Some centres preferred to send the data with an anonymised chest CT documentation sheet
160 (table I, online repository) to the study centre. All data were stored in a database in an
161 anonymised fashion.

162

163 **Clinical data collection**

164 Similarly, clinical data were collected with a second documentation sheet with items identical
165 to the ESID registry (table II, Clinical Data Sheet in the online repository). The clinical data
166 sheet comprised data on lung function (spirometry, body plethysmography and carbon
167 monoxide diffusion capacity), pattern of cough and use of antibiotics).

168 Since lung function data were only available as “percentage of predicted for height and
169 weight” in several centres, data were collected accordingly (not as absolute measurements).

170 Cough lasting longer than 8 weeks was defined as chronic cough (25). Duration of disease
171 was calculated as time interval from date of onset of disease specific symptoms to date of CT
172 scan. The interval from date of diagnosis to CT scan was considered “duration of therapy”
173 based on the assumption that a diagnosis of CVID or XLA is generally followed by a rapid
174 initiation of immunoglobulin replacement therapy. “Delay of diagnosis” was the time from
175 onset of symptoms to diagnosis.

176

177 **Quality assurance, data processing and statistical analysis**

178 Written informed consent was obtained for documentation within the ESID Registry (2). Data
179 were transferred into a relational database (Microsoft Access V2010 Microsoft, Redmont,
180 WA (USA)) and evaluated anonymously. The inter-rater reliability of the CT findings as
181 documented in the chest CT pathology form was assessed by calculation of the intra-class
182 correlation coefficient (ICC) between independent radiologists. Descriptive data were
183 calculated as mean and standard deviation, or, if appropriate, as median and interquartile

184 range. Categorical data were reported as frequencies and percentages. Groups were compared
185 using the t-test unless the data were not normally distributed. In this case, the following
186 nonparametric methods were used. Categorical variables were analysed with Chi-Square tests.
187 Correlations were calculated as Pearson's coefficient and with linear regression analysis.
188 Explanation of variance was calculated using linear regression analysis. Dependence of
189 variables on parametric data was assessed by logistic regression analysis. The influence of
190 several variables was assessed by conditional forward and backward logistic and linear
191 regression analysis. A p-value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant. Differences in
192 prevalence of parameters between sexes were calculated by Mann Whitney U Test. All
193 statistical analyses were performed with the Statistical Software Package for the Social
194 Sciences (SPSS; V 24, IBM, Armonk, New York (USA)).

195 Results

196 Study Population

197 15 centres in 9 countries contributed chest CT findings of 282 patients (table III in online
198 repository). Clinical data were available in 192 patients. Diagnoses were CVID (232 patients
199 (82%)), XLA (28 patients (10%)), and other PAD (22 patients (8%)). Data of the latter group
200 are not included in this manuscript due to their lack of homogeneity.

201 Baseline characteristics of the CVID and XLA patient cohorts and data on clinical history are
202 given in table 1. For age distribution see figure I in the online repository.

203

204 Quality assurance and data quality

205 The CT pathology documentation form was assessed for inter-rater reliability based on
206 assessment by 4 radiologists of 21 randomly chosen CT studies. Rating was in good or very
207 good agreement, as shown by intra-class correlation coefficients (ICC) (Calder et al.
208 Paediatric Radiology 2014 44:1496–1506), ICC was 0.79 ($p < 0.001$) for atelectasis, 0.957 (p
209 < 0.001) for mucus plugging, and 0.917 ($p < 0.001$) for bronchiectasis severity. Rating of
210 bronchial wall thickening, however, was not reliable (ICC 0.332, $p = \text{n.s.}$).

211 In the main study, rating on the 4 items on bronchial pathologies was given in 94.9% (SD
212 2.1%) of the CT scans. The highest rate of missing data was present in the item termed
213 “mucus plugging”, with missing data in 7.8 % of the cases. Anthropometric data were
214 available from 64%, spirometry from 62%, cough frequency from 64%, antibiotic treatment
215 regimen from 72%, and body plethysmography from 28% of the patients.

216

217 Bronchial pathology in CVID

218 80% of the CVID patients had radiological evidence of some form of bronchial pathology.
219 Bronchiectasis had the highest prevalence of all bronchial pathologies and was reported in
220 61% of the CVID cohort, followed by bronchial wall thickening (44%), atelectasis (32 %),

221 and mucus plugging (29%). Mucus plugging was more frequent in the periphery (20%) than
222 in a distributed pattern (central and peripheral, 9%, figure 1). The prevalence of bronchial
223 pathologies did not differ between sexes. Bronchiectasis was not associated with other
224 bronchial pathology. Of the patients with bronchiectasis, 64% had no evidence of mucus
225 plugging, 60% had no atelectasis, and 43% had no evidence of bronchial wall thickening.

226

227 **Impact of age and duration of disease on bronchial pathology in CVID**

228 The prevalence of bronchiectasis was lowest in the patient group undergoing CT at < 20 years
229 at 44% and increased steadily with age to 79% in the age group ≥ 60 years (figure 2A). Extent
230 of bronchiectasis showed an age related increase ($R^2 = 0.029$; $F=6.6$; $p=0.01$, figure 2 B-D).

231 Patients ≥ 60 years had the highest proportion of extensive disease (3 or more lobes affected
232 and/or cystic changes) with 36% of this age group affected (figure 2D).

233 In contrast to bronchiectasis, prevalence of bronchial wall thickening, atelectasis and mucus
234 plugging did not rise with age nor with duration of disease or of therapy. Bronchiectasis was
235 associated with bronchial wall thickening, atelectasis and mucus plugging only in younger age
236 groups (table IV in online repository).

237 In multiple regression analysis, duration of the disease was a predictor for the presence and
238 extent of bronchiectasis, but age, sex and duration of therapy were not. Each year of disease
239 was associated with an additional risk of bronchiectasis by 4.4% ($p = 0.07$) and an increase of
240 the severity score by 0.025 ($p < 0.001$) (Figure IV, online repository).

241 Patients with a longer delay of diagnosis had a higher extent of bronchiectasis, although this
242 association was comparatively weak ($F = 6.14$, $p = 0.015$ in analysis of variance, figure 5).

243 Patients with advanced bronchiectasis tended to have higher trough IgG levels ($r_{\text{pearson}} = 0.19$,
244 $p = 0.048$).

245

246 **Bronchial Pathology in XLA**

247 The prevalences of bronchiectasis, atelectasis and mucus plugging, but not of bronchial wall
248 thickening, were higher in the XLA cohort as compared to the CVID cohort (Fig. 1a+b). The

249 extent of bronchiectasis was also more strongly related to age ($r_{\text{Pearson}} = 0.6$, $p < 0.001$, Figure
250 II in online repository) and to duration of disease ($r_{\text{Pearson}} = 0.7$, $p < 0.001$) than in CVID
251 patients. Again, duration of therapy correlated less strongly than age or duration of disease
252 with the extent of bronchiectasis in XLA patients, but more so than in CVID patients (r_{Pearson}
253 $= 0.55$, $p = 0.017$). Bronchiectasis was also associated with bronchial wall thickening (r_{Pearson}
254 $= 0.44$, $p = 0.018$), but not to mucus plugging or atelectasis in this cohort.

255

256 **Lung function**

257 CVID patients showed mild obstructive lung disease in the older age groups without
258 restriction, FEV₁ was 87.8 (19.6) % predicted in patients < 20 years and FEV₁ (FEV₁, figure
259 3A) 72.9 (26.3) % predicted in patients ≥ 60 years. There was a similar age dependent decline
260 in maximal expiratory flow at 25% of vital capacity (MEF₂₅), and total lung capacity (TLC),
261 but not of vital capacity (VC). However, explanation of variance of all parameters by age was
262 weak (FEV₁: $R^2 = 0.041$, $p = 0.016$, $F = 5.994$; MEF₂₅: $R^2 = 0.053$, $p = 0.01$, $F = 6.882$; TLC:
263 $R^2 = 0.072$, $p = 0.028$, $F = 5.061$). In XLA patients, advance of lung disease with age was
264 more obvious. FEV₁ declined from 95.7 (8.7) % predicted in patients aged less than 20 years
265 to 44.0 (23.2) % predicted in patients ≥ 40 years. Accordingly, linear regression analysis
266 showed a stronger relation between age and decline in lung function parameters in XLA
267 patients (vital capacity (VC): $R^2 = 0.351$, $p = 0.005$, $F = 10.285$; FEV₁: $R^2 = 0.529$, $p < 0.001$,
268 $F = 22.439$; MEF₂₅: $R^2 = 0.637$, $p = 0.002$, $F = 17.511$; TLC: $R^2 = 0.072$, $p = 0.028$, $F =$
269 5.061).

270 **CT findings and lung function**

271 Presence of bronchial wall thickening, bronchiectasis or mucus plugging was associated with
272 a lower FEV₁ in CVID patients (table V online repository, figure 3B). The combination of
273 bronchiectasis and bronchial wall thickening showed a further decline ($n = 54$, FEV₁ of 69.3
274 (23.3) % predicted). Patients with a severe lung disease as indicated by spirometry (FEV₁ <
275 40 % predicted) had a high prevalence of bronchiectasis (89%). However, normal FEV₁ (> 80
276 % predicted) did not preclude the presence of bronchiectasis . 59% of the patients with a

277 normal lung function had bronchiectasis (figure 3). Thus, spirometry was a poor predictor for
278 presence (sensitivity: 48.9%) or absence of bronchiectasis (specificity: 68.8%, table IV online
279 repository). Findings of bodyplethysmography and carbon monoxide diffusion capacity were
280 not better associated with structural bronchial pathology.

281

282 **Cough**

283 The majority of CVID patients for whom clinical data were available (n = 147) had
284 occasional (53.1%), or recurrent or chronic cough (34.7%). Prevalence of chronic cough
285 increased with age and rose from 18% in the age group < 20 years to 38.5% in the age group
286 ≥ 60 years ($R^2 = 0.054$, $F = 8.315$, $p = 0.005$). Quality of cough also changed with age; a
287 higher proportion of patients had productive cough and frequency of cough with increasing
288 age (79% in age group ≥ 60 years). In this age group all patient suffered from cough (fig. 4).
289 Of the patients who coughed chronically, 75% had evidence of bronchiectasis. Nevertheless,
290 60% of the subjects with occasional cough also had bronchiectasis. Almost all patients with
291 radiological evidence of bronchiectasis had some sort of cough (92.7%). These patients were
292 twice as much likely to have productive rather than unproductive cough (66.7 vs. 33.3%).
293 Patients with bronchiectasis and productive cough had a more compromised lung function test
294 (mean $FEV_1 = 71.9$ (26.1) % predicted) than those with bronchiectasis and unproductive
295 cough (mean $FEV_1 = 86.2$ (25.0) % [pred.], $p = 0.033$).

296

297 **Use of antibiotics**

298 Use of antibiotics varied considerably. Intermittent antibiotic therapy was more frequent
299 (47.7%) than maintenance (26.8%) therapy in n = 163 CVID patients, for whom data were
300 available. Usage varied also for patients with chronic cough (n = 51): intermittent 51.8% and
301 maintenance 40.8% therapy and for patients with bronchiectasis (n = 95): intermittent 44.2%,
302 and maintenance therapy 33.7%. Courses of antibiotic therapy were used more commonly as
303 the proportion of patients with bronchiectasis rose: 51.2% of the patients who received no
304 antibiotic therapy (n = 42) had bronchiectasis, 59.2% of the patients with intermittent therapy

305 (n = 71) had bronchiectasis, and 72.7% of the patients with maintenance antibiotic therapy (n
306 = 44) had bronchiectasis. Our data did not discriminate between prophylactic and therapeutic
307 use of antibiotics.

309 The purpose of this study was to identify the range and extent of bronchial pathology as
310 detected by chest CT in antibody deficient patients. A multicentre approach was used, as
311 antibody deficiencies are a relatively rare condition. CT findings provide primarily qualitative
312 data, which makes multicentre studies difficult to accomplish in the absence of pre-agreed
313 criteria. With the Chest CT in Antibody Deficiency Group, we set up a catalogue of
314 pathologies that were reported in the literature or seen in our own patients. In order to compile
315 data that is comparable, we agreed upon common radiological terminology, set up an image
316 repository, and agreed upon common definitions.

317 We found a high overall prevalence of bronchial pathology, with bronchial wall thickening
318 and bronchiectasis present in 52% and 61% of the CVID patients, respectively. The present
319 study is the first multicentre study to also assess extent of bronchiectasis in children and
320 adults with antibody deficiency. While the prevalence of bronchiectasis increased with age, it
321 was already present in our youngest age group (< 20 years) at 43%. Duration of disease,
322 however, was the best predictor for presence and extent of bronchiectasis, with age and sex
323 having no additional impact. Importantly, also delay of diagnosis correlated significantly with
324 the extent of bronchiectasis. Atelectasis and mucus plugging were reported less frequently,
325 but also at sizeable proportions of the patients.

326 As expected, the prevalence of bronchiectasis increased with age which did not apply to the
327 bronchial wall thickening, atelectasis and mucus plugging. While bronchiectasis correlated to
328 the other pathologies at younger age groups (table 4, online repository), in the older age
329 groups bronchiectasis appeared to be more the accumulation of damage acquired in past and
330 present inflammatory processes. Age as well as duration of disease accounted for more of the
331 variation in bronchiectasis and lung function in XLA than in CVID. This may reflect the
332 earlier and more homogeneous onset of immunodeficiency in XLA (8) compared with the
333 predominantly adult onset of CVID (11), although differences in the pathogenesis of lung
334 disease cannot be excluded.

335 Similar to prevalence and extent of bronchiectasis, spirometry values tended to be more
336 pathological at higher age groups. Along with bronchiectasis, prevalence of chronic and
337 productive cough increased with age, reaching 100%, in the oldest age group (> 60 years).
338 Cough frequency correlated better to bronchiectasis than spirometry. XLA patients had more
339 advanced bronchial disease in the older age groups when compared to the CVID cohort. This
340 is consistent with data from an Italian cohort (26) who had a cumulative risk of developing
341 structural lung disease of 92% by the age of 25 years, which was higher than in the Italian
342 CVID cohort that had a prevalence of bronchiectasis of 54% at an average age of 41 years
343 (27).

344 Our data show a rate of bronchiectasis in CVID patients (61%) in the same range as reported
345 with the as yet largest CVID cohort of Italian patients (54%) (27). In smaller chest CT studies,
346 bronchiectasis rates varied between 29 and 78% (summarised in (17)). A meta-analysis of
347 other studies summarised data from 587 CVID patients published in 26 studies. The authors
348 reported an overall prevalence of 73% of pulmonary pathologies, mainly bronchiectasis and
349 bronchial wall thickening.

350 The present study has several limitations:

351 First, it was not designed as a cross-sectional cohort study to assess the prevalence of
352 particular pathologies. The participating centres varied in their policies to perform chest CT
353 between clinical grounds and routine use. Since some centres performed chest CTs only on
354 clinical grounds, the study is likely to overestimate prevalence and extent. The relatively high
355 prevalence of bronchiectasis in children and adolescents (43% in the age group < 20 years)
356 may be partly explained by the fact, that the majority of the CT studies in this age group was
357 performed in a centre that performed CT on clinical grounds.

358 Second, we employed no training or quality control measures for our raters. Although we
359 used an internationally accepted vocabulary (15), published an image repository on our
360 website, we cannot be sure that all raters shared similar levels of expertise. Appreciating this,
361 we designed the list of CT findings of this study to be as simple as possible, indicating merely
362 presence or absence for most pathologies. A study on inter-rater reliability with our list of CT

363 findings showed very high rates of inter-rater agreement for all findings, in particular for the
364 bronchiectasis score. Rating of bronchial wall thickening, however, was unreliable which is
365 well recognized in the literature (28).

366 Despite these limitations, our data may nevertheless be meaningful. Our CVID study cohort
367 has an age and sex distribution that is close to the distribution of the ESID registry. Also, the
368 size of the compiled cohort is larger than previous reports in the literature.

369 Bronchiectasis is the finding most frequently reported in previous studies. Our data on the
370 prevalence of bronchiectasis (61%) are in the same range compared to the as yet largest CVID
371 cohort study (54%) (27). The latter study is likely to give the most accurate estimate on
372 prevalence of bronchiectasis for it was based on regular chest CT scans. Other studies based
373 on smaller cohorts reported bronchiectasis rates between 29 and 78% (summarised in (17)).

374 Chest CT scans identified a high proportion of respiratory pathology which did not appear to
375 be identified by symptoms or lung function. This applied in particular to patients with low
376 grade bronchiectasis in which spirometry tended to be normal (figure III in online repository).

377 Also, the decline in FEV₁ with age was relatively small in our cohort, compared to other
378 conditions with chronic lung disease, such as primary ciliary dyskinesia (PCD) (29,30).

379 However, spirometry appeared to better discriminate between prevalence or absence of
380 bronchiectasis in our patient group than reported in PCD or CF (31,32). While a sensitivity of
381 49% and a specificity of 68.8% for detection and exclusion of bronchiectasis are far from
382 satisfactory, the use of spirometry in routine management in patients with ADS may be at
383 least as adviseable as in PCD or CF. Although spirometry may not detect mild bronchiectasis,
384 it is likely to be a meaningful parameter for advanced stage of bronchial disease. In addition,
385 any decline in spirometry in a given patient, even within the normal range, may indicate
386 progressing lung damage and hence should prompt further evaluation. The higher
387 susceptibility to irradiation damage in some subgroups of CVID also supports the notion to
388 regularly monitor pulmonary disease without use of ionising radiation. Particular attention
389 should be paid to children and adolescents. Although bronchiectasis may be overestimated in
390 this age group, the true prevalence of bronchiectasis is likely to be high enough to warrant

391 high priority for prevention of development of structural lung disease. Spirometry needs to be
392 complemented by more sensitive functional tests. The multiple breath washout technique may
393 be particularly promising for detecting bronchiectasis, as shown in CF and other conditions
394 (31).

395 One important finding of this study is the observation that patients with a delay of diagnosis
396 correlated with advanced formation of bronchiectasis in CVID. This finding argues that
397 awareness of primary immunodeficiencies and early diagnosis may be particularly beneficial.

398 Prevalence and extent of bronchiectasis also increased with the years of disease, suggesting a
399 repeated or continuous burden of bronchial inflammation throughout the course of disease.

400 Cough turned out to be more closely related to bronchial disease than parameters of
401 spirometry. Again, patient selection may have biased this surprisingly high proportion of
402 patients with clinical evidence of lung disease. However, cough and other clinical parameters,
403 e.g. sputum volume, colour, frequency of chest exacerbations, or frequency of antibiotic
404 therapy, may be valuable tools in future interventional trials. Our findings also argue that we
405 do need better monitoring strategies for development of pulmonary pathologies before chronic
406 or productive cough develops.

407 Therapeutic regimens for antibiotic treatment of CVID patients with bronchiectasis,
408 pathologic spirometry or productive cough differ substantially in the present study as in others
409 (9,11). Chapel et al. found no clear evidence that bronchiectasis can be prevented by
410 prophylactic maintenance antibiotic therapy. Bondioni et al. recommended early detection of
411 pulmonary changes to adjust antibiotic therapy (21,33,34).

412 Evidence for the benefit of antibiotic therapy or other interventions to prevent or ameliorate
413 progress of bronchiectatic lung disease in other conditions is conflicting. Among the reasons
414 for the lack of efficacy trials in immunodeficiency is the difficult choice of outcome
415 parameters. FEV₁ and other lung function parameters show relatively little changes over time
416 rendering them less sensitive than desirable. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) has made
417 substantial progress in the detection of pulmonary pathology but is less widely available (35).

418 Chest CT is still considered the gold standard for detection of structural bronchial pathology
419 (17) and sensitive for changes over time (21).
420 Our bronchiectasis score was designed for use in routine care without prior training of the
421 raters. This score is clearly too crude to specifically assess progress of bronchiectasis. More
422 detailed extent scores for bronchiectasis in CVID were applied in 2 single centre studies
423 (20,21,36), demonstrating that progress of lung disease is detectable by chest CT at intervals
424 as short as 5 years.

425 Given the size and the relevance of pulmonary morbidity in primary antibody deficiencies, the
426 present study argues to optimise the use of chest CT. First, there is a need for a detailed score
427 on bronchial and other pulmonary pathologies for interventional trials (37). Second, chest CT
428 scans which are performed as part of routine care in primary antibody deficiencies should be
429 documented in a uniform manner in a patient registry along other clinical and immunological
430 data. Documentation should provide more quantitative data than the one used in the present
431 study, but still be compatible with routine care. The Chest CT Group has elaborated a
432 proposal for severity graded documentation of bronchial pathology (table VI, online
433 repository). Since this will be more prone to variation between different raters, we plan to
434 implement quality control measures that include rating of test images.

435 In summary, chest CT is a highly sensitive method for assessment of structural abnormalities
436 of the bronchial airways. If it is complemented by lung function and clinical parameters, it can
437 provide essential information on the progress and nature of lung disease in patients with
438 antibody deficiencies. However, rating of CT findings for cohorts requires a consensus as to
439 how the findings are documented. The present study shows how a multidisciplinary and
440 multicentre approach can come into operation and affords a rationale how to shape future
441 steps towards a better management of lung disease in antibody deficiency.

442 Conflict of interest statement

443 The authors declared that they have no conflict of interest.

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- 555

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563 **Table 1**

564 Table 1: Characteristics of the study population, sorted by the two main diagnosis groups.

565

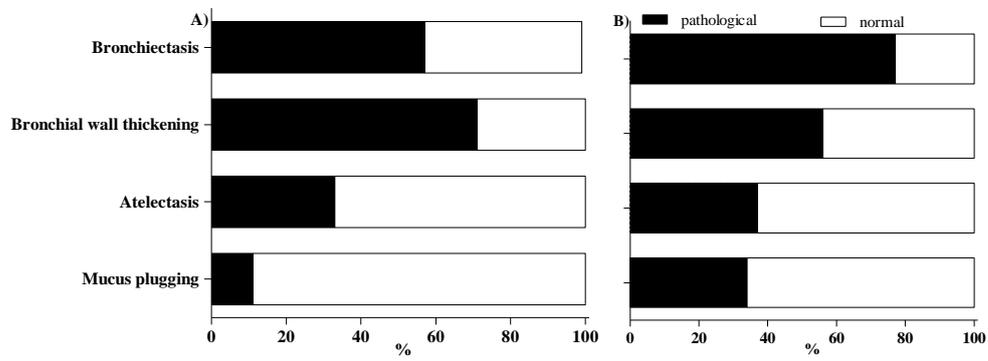
	CVID	XLA
n	232	28
Female, n	113 (49%)	0
Age, mean (SD; range) [years]	36.6 (17.6; 1.6-79.3)	25.1 (15.7, 4.0-53.1)
Children and adolescents < 18 years, n	46 (20%)	16 (53%)
Duration of disease, mean (SD; range) [years]	17.3 (13.5)	15.6 (11.6)
Delay of diagnosis, mean (SD; range) [years]	6.5 (8.3; 0 – 48.8)	2.8 (4.7; 0 – 17.3)
Duration of therapy, mean (SD; range) [years]	10.8 (9.8; 0 – 42.0)	11.3 (7.8; 0.9 – 29.7)
IgG trough levels, mean (SD) [g/L]	7.0 (3.0)	7.9 (2.1)

566

567 Abbreviations: CVID: common variable immunodeficiency disorders, XLA: X-linked

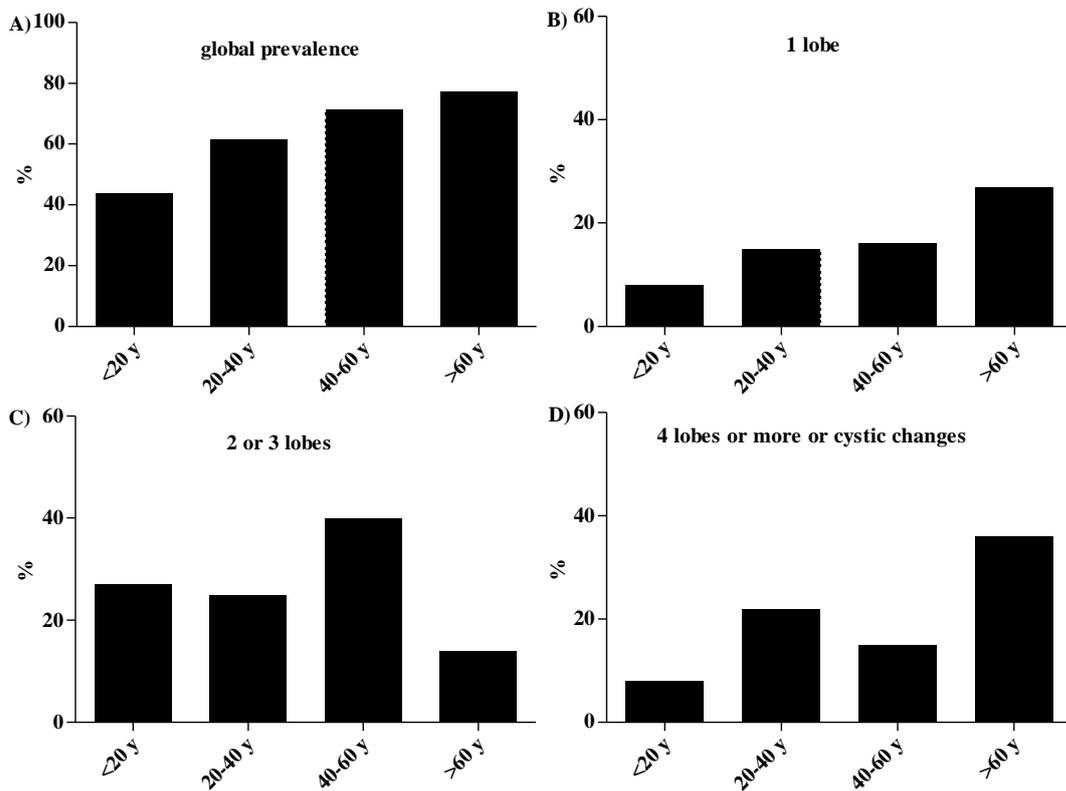
568 agammaglobulinaemia; SD: standard deviation

570 **Figure 1**



571 **Fig.1.: Prevalence of bronchial pathology in patients with CVID (A) and XLA (B).**

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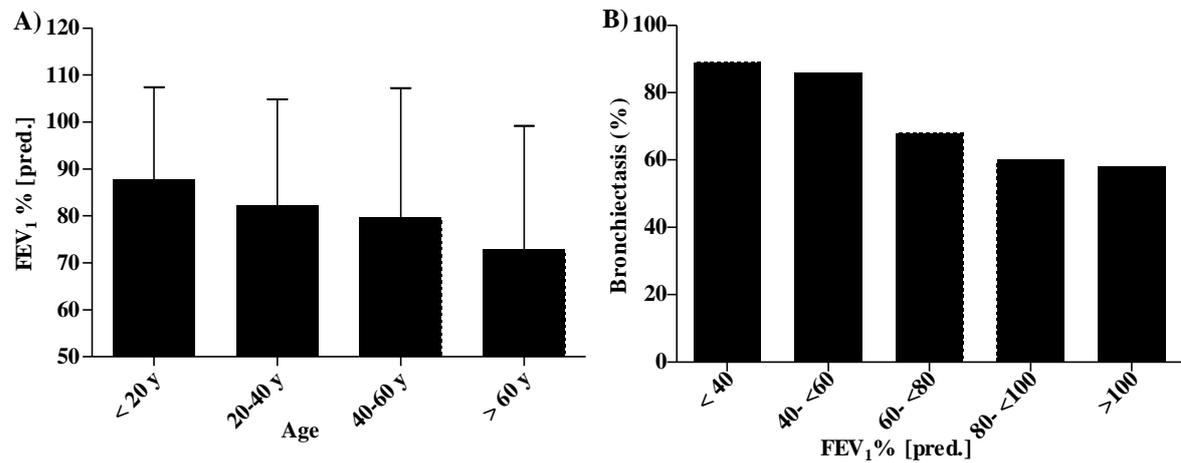
576 **Fig.2: Prevalence, extent and age distribution of bronchiectasis in 232 CVID patients.**

577 A: Global prevalence (any bronchiectasis), B: 1 lobe affected, C: 2 or 3 lobes affected, and D:

578 4 or more lobes affected or cystic changes. Lingula counted as a separate lobe. The extent

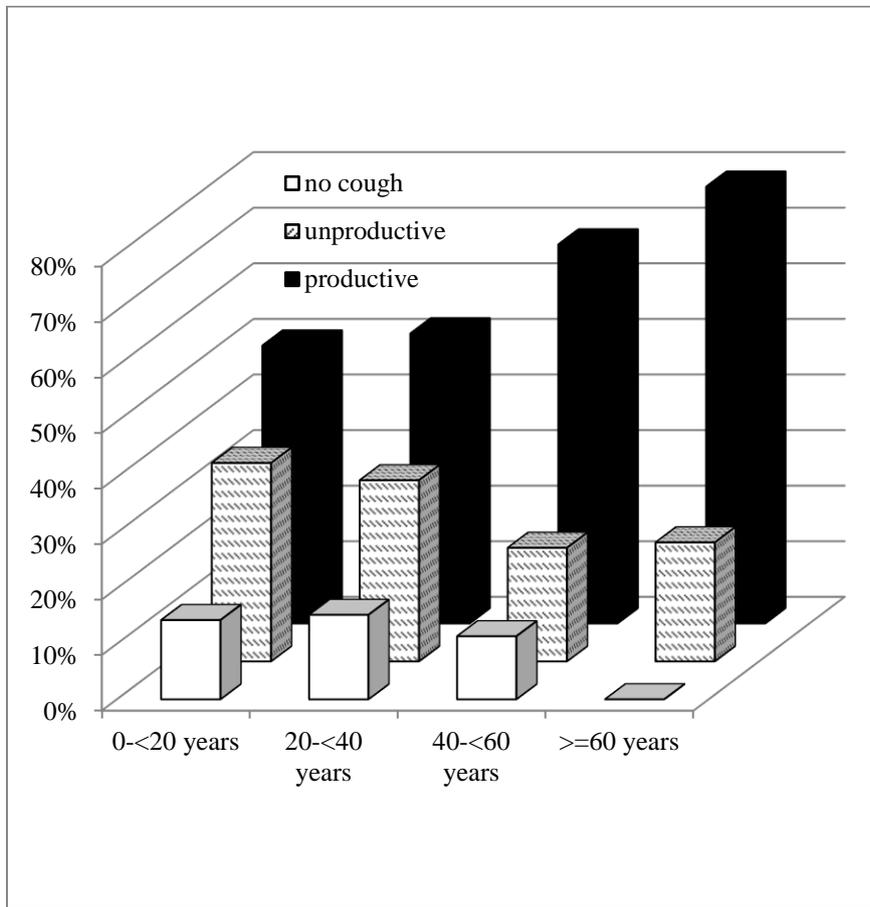
579 score correlated significantly with age ($r_{\text{Pearson}} = 0.171$, $p = 0.01$).

580



582 **Fig. 3. A: Mean (SD) forced expiratory volume in 1 second as percentage of predicted**
 583 **value (FEV₁ % [pred.]) in 232 CVID patients stratified in age groups. FEV₁ % predicted**
 584 **declined significantly with age ($r_{\text{Pearson}} = -0.203$, $p = 0.016$). B: Prevalence of bronchiectasis**
 585 **stratified by age groups. Prevalence and extent of bronchiectasis increased with deteriorating**
 586 **FEV₁ ($r_{\text{Pearson}} = -.22$, $p = 0.009$ and ($r_{\text{Pearson}} = -.322$, $p < 0.001$ for prevalence and extent of**
 587 **bronchiectasis with FEV₁ % predicted.**

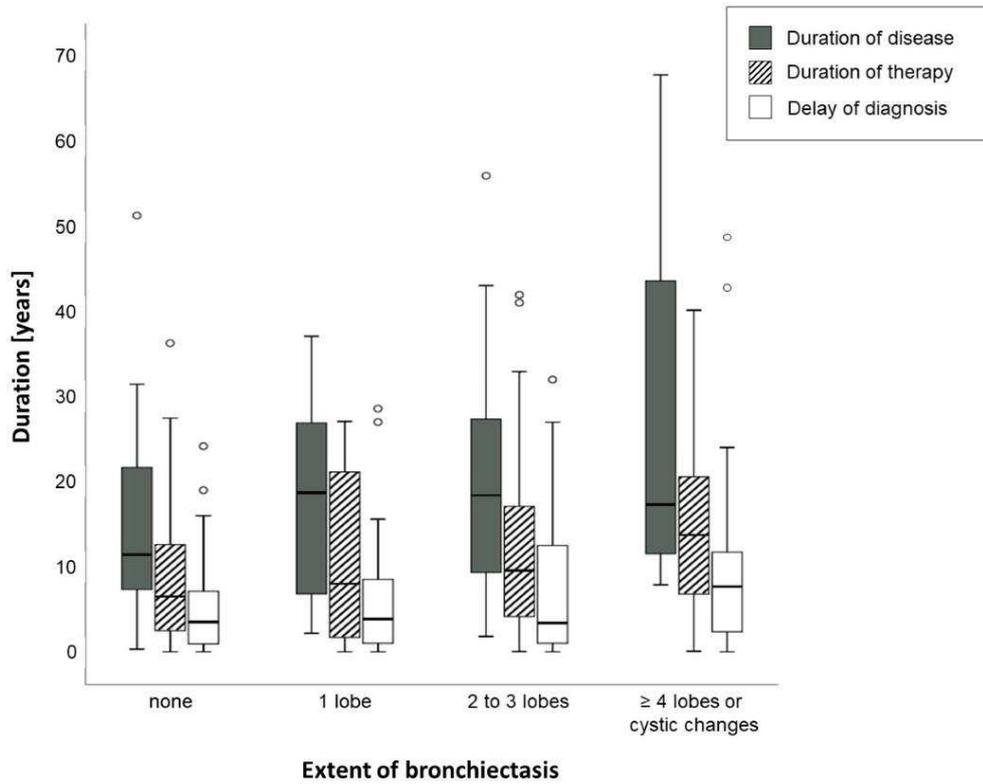
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592 **Fig.4. Prevalence of productive and unproductive cough of 120 CVID patients stratified**
 593 **in age groups.** Productive cough was more frequent with age ($r_{\text{Pearson}} = 0.222$, $p = 0.012$).

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Fig.5: Severity of bronchiectasis in relation to duration of disease, duration of medical attention following diagnosis of CVID (“duration of therapy”, and delay of diagnosis. Boxplots indicate median and interquartiles, whiskers range. Open dots show outliers. Delay of diagnosis correlates significantly with severity of bronchiectasis (p=0.03)

606 **Table I**607 **Documentation sheet for chest CT findings, section bronchial pathology.**

Bronchial Pathology	
Bronchial wall thickening	<input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> yes
Bronchiectasis	<input type="checkbox"/> none <input type="checkbox"/> one lobe <input type="checkbox"/> two or three lobes <input type="checkbox"/> four lobes or more or cystic changes in two or more lobes
Mucus plugging	<input type="checkbox"/> none <input type="checkbox"/> central <input type="checkbox"/> peripheral
Atelectasis	<input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> yes

608

609

Chest CT in Antibody Deficiency Group				
Clinical Data Sheet				
Patient initials	Date of birth	Institution	Diagnosis	Date of CT study
General data		Clinical data at date of CT		
Sex	<input type="checkbox"/> male <input type="checkbox"/> female	Cough		
Weight	_____ kg	<input type="checkbox"/> never		
Length	_____ cm	<input type="checkbox"/> occasional		
		<input type="checkbox"/> daily (< 8 weeks)		
		<input type="checkbox"/> chronic (> 8 weeks)		
		<input type="checkbox"/> unknown		
Lung function: Spirometry		Quality of cough		
Date of test (most closely by date of CT)	____/____/____ (MM/ DD / YYYY)	<input type="checkbox"/> unproductive		
		<input type="checkbox"/> productive		
VC Vital capacity	_____ Liter _____ % predicted	Antibiotic treatment		
		<input type="checkbox"/> none		
		<input type="checkbox"/> intermittent		
		<input type="checkbox"/> maintenance (permanent)		
		<input type="checkbox"/> unknown		
FEV ₁ Forced expiratory volume in 1 second	_____ Liter _____ % predicted	Comments _____ _____ _____ _____		
MEF25 Maximal expiratory flow at 25% of forced VC	_____ Liter / second _____ % predicted			
Lung function: Body plethysmography				
Date of test (most closely by date of CT)	____/____/____ (MM/ DD / YYYY)			
R _{eff} Effective airway resistance	_____ kPa*s/L _____ % predicted			
RV Residual volume	_____ Liter _____ % predicted			
TLC Total lung capacity	_____ Liter _____ % predicted			
Lung function: CO diffusion		Please enter data in ESID Registry or fax it to		
DL(CO) _c CO diffusion capacity corrected for Hb	_____ <input type="checkbox"/> mL/min/mmHG <input type="checkbox"/> mmol/min/kPa			
		Ulrich Baumann ++49-511-532-9125 baumann.ulrich@mh- hannover.de		
Date	Name of clinician (in capital letters)	Signature		

Contributing centres	CVID	XLA	Other Diagnoses
London (UK), Royal Free Hospital	41	6	8
Rotterdam (NL), Erasmus MC Sophia Children's Hosp.	38	0	0
Rome (I), Università degli Studi, La Sapienza	26	1	0
London (UK), Royal Brompton Hospital	21	0	0
Brno (CZ), Masaryk University, St Anne's University	20	2	2
Cambridge (UK), Addenbrook's NHS Trust	13	0	0
London (UK), Great Ormond Street Hospital	13	11	0
Brescia (I), Dept. of Paediatrics, University of Brescia	10	0	0
Naples (I), Federico II University	10	0	0
Cairo (ET), Paediatric University Hospital	9	0	3
Madrid (ES), Hospital 12 octubre	9	0	0
Hanover (D), Paediatric Pulmonology, Medical School	9	5	7
Melbourne (AUS), Alfred Hospital	7	3	2
Oxford (UK), John Radcliffe Hospital	5	0	0
Bruxelles (B), Cliniques Universitaires, Hôpital Erasme	1	0	0
Total	232	28	22

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616

617 **Table IV**

618 **Age dependent correlation of bronchiectasis with other bronchial pathology in 232**

619 **CVID patients.**

	Bronchiectasis correlates with					
	Bronchial Wall Thickening (n=103)		Atelectasis (n=74)		Mucus Plugging (n=67)	
Age Group	r_{Pearson}	p	r_{Pearson}	p	r_{Pearson}	p
< 20	0.325	0.029	0.337	0.020	0.421	0.007
20 - < 40	0.595	< 0.001	0.283	0.019	0.447	<0.001
40 - < 60	0.309	0.006		n.s.		n.s.
≥ 60		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.
All Age Groups	0.363	< 0.001	0.250	< 0.001	0.322	< 0.001

620

621 **Table V**

622 **Contingency table of lung function and bronchiectasis.** A FEV₁ < 80 % predicted is
623 considered as pathological. Presence or absence of bronchiectasis as defined by chest CT.

Sensitivity of FEV ₁ <80% % predicted to assess all cases of bronchiectasis	0.489
Specificity of FEV ₁ >80% % predicted for no bronchiectasis	0.688
Positive predictive value	0.750
False negative rate (miss rate)	0.511
False positive rate (fallout)	0.313
Negative predictive value	0.413

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626 **Table VI**

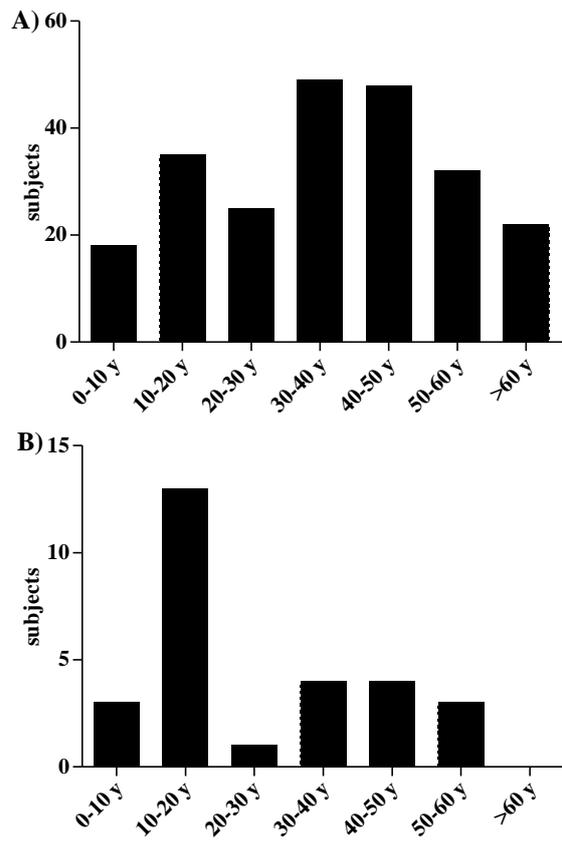
627 **Revised score for bronchial pathologies of the Chest CT in ADS group.** For definitions of

628 the various items see www.chest-ct-group.eu.

Bronchial Pathology							
Airway wall thickening							
Number of lobes affected (lingula counts as a lobe)	①	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
Most severely affected bronchia: Extent as in % of accompanying vessel		< 33%		33-66%		>66%	
Bronchiectasis							
Number of lobes affected	①	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
Most severely affected bronchia: Extent as in % of accompanying vessel		< 33%		33-66%		>66%	
Mucus plugging (large airways)							
Number of lobes affected	①	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
Mucus plugging (small airways – tree in bud)							
Number of lobes affected	①	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
Atelectasis (volume loss > 50%)							
Number of lobes affected	①	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥

629

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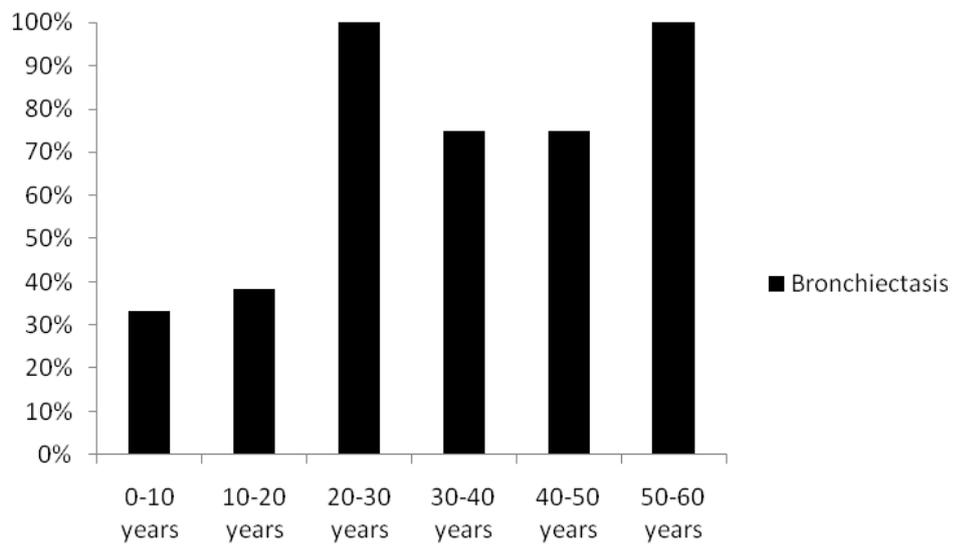


632

633 **Fig. I: Age distribution of the cohort with CVID (A) and XLA (B)**

634

635 **Figure II**

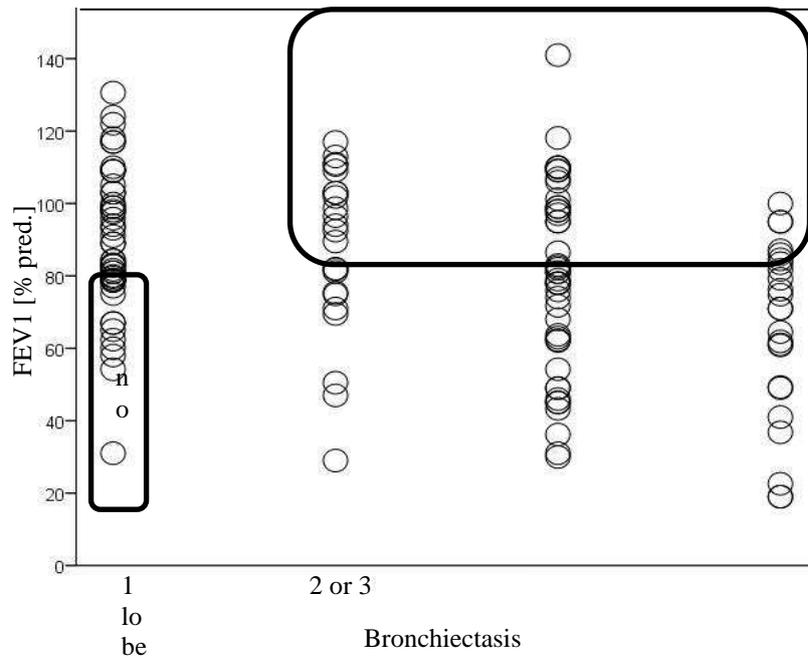


636

637 **Fig. II: Prevalence of bronchiectasis in 28 patients with XLA.**

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641

642 **Fig. III. Individual levels of FEV₁ % predicted of 143 CVID patients in relation to extent**

643 **of bronchiectasis.** Upper right box: patients with bronchiectasis with normal lung function

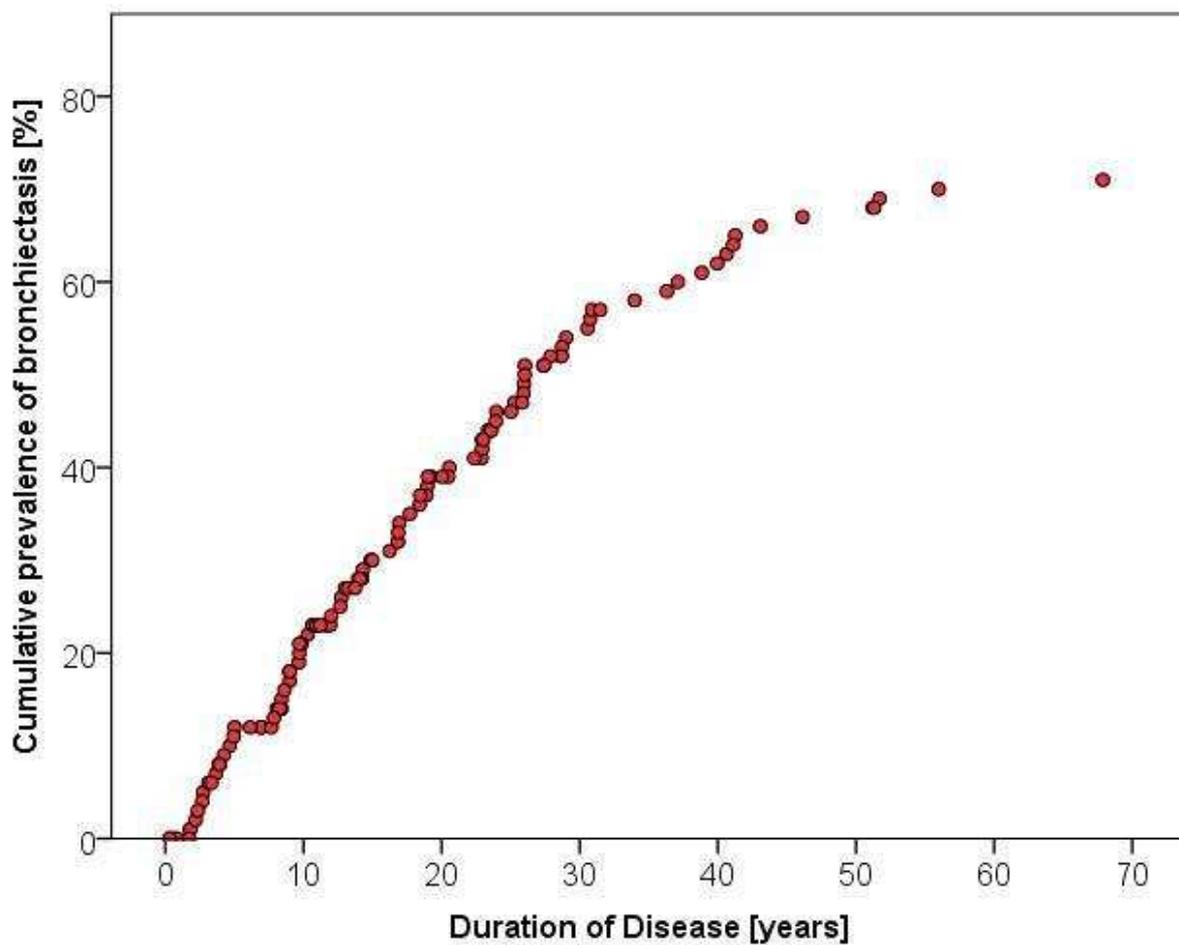
644 (FEV₁>80% % predicted: 47 (58.8%) out of the 80 patients with normal lung function. Lower

645 left box: patients with no bronchiectasis, but with abnormal lung function (FEV₁<80% %

646 predicted): 15 (25%) out of 60. The correlation between the extent score of bronchiectasis and

647 FEV₁ was significant, but weak, in linear regression analysis ($F = 15.9$, $R^2 = 0.10$, $p < 0.001$).

648 **Fig. IV: Correlation of prevalence of bronchiectasis with duration of disease.** The
649 cumulative prevalence of bronchiectasis in relation to the duration of disease. 1 year of
650 disease is associated with an average increase of risk of bronchiectasis by 4.8% ($p = 0.015$).



651