

Investigation of extraesophageal gastroesophageal reflux disease

Emmanouela Tsoukali^a, Daniel Sifrim^b

Athens General Hospital Elpis, Greece; Queen Mary, University of London, UK

Abstract

The most common extraesophageal manifestations of gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD) include chronic cough, asthma and laryngitis. There are two mechanisms proposed to explain extraesophageal syndromes caused by GERD. The first one is a direct way via irritation and/or microaspiration and the second one is an indirect, vagally mediated way. The investigation of extraesophageal manifestations of GERD is difficult and the empirical therapy with proton pump inhibitors usually double dose for at least three months is still the most common approach.

Keywords Chronic cough, asthma, chronic laryngitis, extraesophageal reflux syndrome

Ann Gastroenterol 2013; 26 (4): 290-295

Introduction

Gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD) is a commonly diagnosed chronic disorder in the western countries [1]. According to the Montreal Classification, GERD is defined as a condition that develops when the reflux of stomach contents causes troublesome symptoms and/or complications [2]. Despite the fact that GERD typically presents with esophageal symptoms such as heartburn and regurgitation [3], it may also present with extraesophageal symptoms. The most common extraesophageal manifestations of GERD include chronic cough, asthma and laryngitis (Table 1) [2].

There are two mechanisms proposed to explain extraesophageal syndromes caused by GERD. The first one is a direct way via irritation and/or microaspiration and the second one is an indirect, vagally mediated way [4-9]. Irritation occurs with the entrance of gastroduodenal contents into the pharynx and larynx with or without microaspiration in deeper airways due to the disturbance of the normal protective mechanisms. In the second mechanism, symptoms are caused by vagally mediated esophago-tracheal-bronchial reflex when reflux reaches the lower esophagus [10,11]. It is known by embryological studies that esophagus and bronchial tree share a common innervation via the vagus nerve.

^aDepartment of Internal Medicine, Athens General Hospital Elpis, Greece (Emmanouela Tsoukali); ^bBarts and The London School of Medicine and Dentistry, Queen Mary, University of London, UK (Daniel Sifrim)

Conflict of Interest: None

Correspondence to: Daniel Sifrim MD, PhD, Wingate Institute of Neurogastroenterology, 26 Ashfield Street London, E12AJ United Kingdom, Tel.: + 44 (0) 20 7882 2631, Fax: + 44 (0) 20 7375 2103, e-mail: d.sifrim@qmul.ac.uk

Received 29 April 2013; accepted 10 June 2013

Table 1 Montreal definition of gastroesophageal reflux disease and its constituent syndromes [2]

Esophageal syndromes	Extraesophageal syndromes
Symptomatic syndromes	Established association
Typical reflux syndrome	Reflux cough
Reflux chest pain syndrome	Reflux asthma
	Reflux laryngitis
	Reflux dental erosions
Syndromes with esophageal injury	Proposed association
Reflux esophagitis	Sinusitis
Reflux stricture	Pulmonary fibrosis
Barrett's esophagus	Pharyngitis
Adenocarcinoma	Recurrent otitis media

Note: the listed manifestations may present alone or in combination

Nowadays, several tests have improved the diagnostic field of typical GERD. However, the investigation of extraesophageal manifestations of GERD is still difficult, and new methods and studies are needed to improve these diagnostic problems.

GERD-related cough

Beside asthma and postnasal drip, GERD has been confirmed to be one of the main three causes of chronic cough, accounting around 20% of cases [12-16]. Chronic cough is defined as cough that persists for longer than 8 weeks. GERD should be investigated in patients who are not taking any cough-inducing medications, who are non-smokers or exposed to other environmental irritants and who have normal x-ray and no evidence of asthma or postnasal drip

[12,13,17]. The American College of Chest Physicians suggest that GERD-related cough typically occurs during daytime, in the upright position and is non-productive [12].

Irritation of the upper respiratory tract with or without microaspiration is reported as a possible mechanism, but this hypothesis remains controversial [18]. Microaspiration may occur due to impairment of the protective reflexes or due to excessive challenges of pharyngeal reflexes [19]. Several studies have reported ineffective esophageal peristalsis in patients with chronic cough with or without acid reflux, suggesting that poor esophageal clearance might be related to cough episodes [20-22]. On the other hand, infusion of acid into the distal esophagus increases the frequency of coughing [5] and cough reflex sensitivity [23]. In a recent study, it was found that the proximal extent of reflux events is not important for provocation of cough [24]. Both central and local reflexes are considered to induce cough [17]. In addition, cough itself may promote reflux events. An increase in intra-abdominal pressure during cough episodes may provoke reflux events by overcoming lower esophageal sphincter basal pressure [5,25].

Unfortunately, the common tests used to diagnose typical GERD are less useful to diagnose GERD related cough. It has been proven that only a minority of patients with chronic cough and GERD have typical symptoms and/or evidence of esophagitis. Typical GERD symptoms such as heartburn and regurgitation are present in 25% approximately of patients with reflux cough [5,26]. In one study it is reported that 63% of patients with reflux-related cough, were experiencing also typical reflux symptoms [27]. In another study only 7 of 45 patients suffering from chronic cough related to GERD, had endoscopy-proven esophagitis [28]. Thus, endoscopy has limited utility in this group of patients. Besides that, it has been reported that 24-h esophageal pH monitoring has as low as 66% specificity in patients with reflux related cough [10,13,29-32]. Baldi *et al* found that only 53% of the patients with chronic cough had pathological reflux related to their symptom during 24-h pH monitoring [28]. In addition, Patterson and Murat found that only 1% of the total cough episodes in patients were associated with hypopharyngeal reflux events [33].

It is nowadays believed that non acid and weakly acid reflux can also be associated with symptoms such as cough and regurgitation in patients “off” and “on” proton pump inhibitor (PPI) therapy and therefore the threshold of pH 4 has been questioned [34-37]. Impedance monitoring can detect both acid and non acid reflux and is very useful especially in patients who are resistant to PPI therapy. Blondeau *et al* studied 100 patients with chronic cough (77 “off” and 23 “on” PPI therapy) using impedance-pH monitoring. It was reported that acid reflux could be a potential mechanism for cough in 45 patients and weakly acidic reflux in 24 patients [38]. In another study ambulatory pressure-pH-impedance monitoring was used and it was found that although the majority of cough events did not immediately follow reflux events, 31% of patients did have cough within 2 min of a reflux episode [36]. Greater prevalence for both reflux-cough and

cough-reflux associations than other techniques have been reported by studies using ambulatory acoustic systems to record cough sounds [39,40].

It is important to consider the differences between association reflux-cough and causality. This is particularly true in extra-esophageal GERD symptoms. Only in cough, is possible to try to analyze the one to one association using symptom associated probability (SAP) or symptom index (SI). It is much more complex to do so with symptoms such as globus or hoarseness.

Even if the SAP or SI are positive, the causality is not proven. Only outcome studies can prove causality, but unfortunately most placebo controlled clinical trials have failed to demonstrate a gain effect (vs placebo) of medical antireflux therapy and most published surgical trials are not controlled and potentially affected by high placebo effect.

The treatment of patients with suspected reflux related cough remains controversial. Vaezi and Richter found that in 10 of 11 patients with GERD-associated cough, treatment with omeprazole resulted in complete resolution of symptoms within 2 months [41]. In a first meta-analysis of placebo-controlled studies, most of which included only a few patients, a certain effect of PPI treatment on chronic cough in patients with GERD appeared probable [42]. However, a recent Cochrane review found that there was no significant difference between placebo and PPI treatment [43]. Similar results are reported from a large randomized controlled trial in patients with laryngeal reflux and ENT manifestations [44]. Esomeprazole 40 mg for 16 weeks failed to show any benefit compared to placebo. Interestingly, Reiche *et al* reported a case of cough induced by omeprazole, therefore physicians should be alert to the possible onset or exacerbation of cough during PPI therapy [45].

On the basis of current knowledge, other causes of cough should be investigated in patients who do not respond to PPI therapy and the role of non acid reflux should be defined. Recent studies suggest that impedance-pH monitoring with careful analysis of the symptom-reflux temporal relationship may help to select the right patients who can truly benefit from treatment of GERD [46,47]. In the case of negative results during the investigation “off” therapy, we should avoid PPIs and repeat pH-impedance monitoring after 6-12 months [18]. A recent follow-up study showed that most of patients with chronic cough had improved after 2 years [48]. The empirical therapy with PPI usually double dose for at least three months is the most common approach. Baldi *et al* have found that a four-week trial of double-dose PPI therapy appeared to be an effective criterion for selecting those patients who will respond well to standard PPI therapy. More than 80% of those patients who responded to PPI therapy had a positive response to the initial trial [28]. In patients who have documented reflux and do not respond to PPI therapy, it is proposed to perform a pH-impedance monitoring “on” therapy and define the role of non acid reflux. Antireflux surgery may be the solution for patients with refractory acid or non acid reflux and a good temporal correlation between reflux events and symptoms. Allen and Anvari studied surgical treatment of GERD in treating chronic

cough and reported that laparoscopic Nissen fundoplication is effective in the control of cough in patients with GERD, with or without primary respiratory disease. After surgery, half of the patients had complete resolution and one third had significant improvement of their cough. In addition, it has been shown that the response to surgical treatment may be dependent on the presence of typical GERD symptoms [50]. Further investigation should be conducted to determine the role of reflux inhibitors such as baclofen and lesogabaren in patients with chronic cough [51-55]. Additionally, some centrally acting agents such as morphine and gabapentin may have therapeutic benefit in these patients by inhibition of the esophago-bronchial reflex and central sensitization [56,57].

GERD-related asthma

Asthma and GERD are frequently associated, as it is concluded by a systematic review of studies [58]. It has been shown that asthma patients do indeed go on to develop GERD, but an increased incidence of asthma in patients with GERD should be considered controversial [58]. Asthmatic patients whose symptoms are getting worse after meals, and or patients who do not respond to anti-asthmatic therapy should be suspected of having GERD-related asthma. Similarly, patients who have GERD symptoms before the onset of asthma symptoms should be considered to have reflux induced asthma [59]. Kiljander *et al* found that slightly more than half of asthmatic patients had abnormal esophageal acid exposure by pH monitoring. However, one third of these patients had no typical reflux symptoms [60]. Additionally, Leggett *et al* studied patients with difficult to control asthma by using 24-h pH monitoring with distal and proximal pH probe [61]. It has been shown that the prevalence of reflux at the distal probe was 55% and at the proximal probe 35%. A large population-based epidemiological investigation showed that subjects with the combination of asthma and GERD had a higher prevalence of asthma and respiratory symptoms as compared to patients without reflux symptoms [62]. Moreover, Sontag *et al* reported that compared to controls, asthmatics have significantly more frequent and more severe day and night reflux symptoms and significantly more of the pulmonary symptoms attributed to GERD [63].

There are two proposed mechanisms that can explain the correlation between GERD and asthma. Direct contact of gastric acid with the upper airway, in some cases due to microaspiration, and a vagovagal reflex triggered by acidification of the distal portion of the esophagus can cause bronchospasm [64]. The relationship between GERD and airway hyperactivity can be detected using provocation tests during lung function assessment. Airway hypersensitivity can occur in parallel with GERD. This can be demonstrated with capsaicin or citric acid tests. Whether increased GER can provoke such hypersensitivity is still controversial.

Moreover, it has been shown that night-time reflux has a major role in the pathogenesis of supra-esophageal complaints

[64]. During nighttime there are changes that provoke this situation, such as slower gastric emptying, decreased saliva production, decreased swallowing frequency and reduction in voluntary clearance behavior [18]. Additionally, asthma itself can provoke GERD. During asthma exacerbation there is negative intra-thoracic pressure which can facilitate reflux events and medication used to treat asthma, such as theophylline, β -agonists, steroids, may promote gastroesophageal reflux as well.

There is great controversy regarding the role of antireflux therapy in asthma control. An older study by Kiljander *et al* found that in asthmatic patients with documented GERD by 24-h pH monitoring, there was a reduction in nocturnal asthma symptoms, whereas daytime asthma outcome did not improve after an 8-week omeprazole treatment [60]. A controlled trial suggested therapeutic benefit for PPIs in the subgroup of patients with both nocturnal respiratory and GERD symptoms. In subjects without both conditions, no improvement could be detected [65]. Moreover, Littner *et al* reported that in adult patients with moderate to severe persistent asthma and symptoms of GERD, PPI treatment for 24 weeks did not improve daily asthma symptoms or pulmonary function. However, patients had an improvement in asthma-related quality of life and a reduction in asthma exacerbations [66]. The American Lung Association Asthma Clinical Research Centers reported that treatment with proton-pump inhibitors does not improve asthma control, despite a high prevalence of asymptomatic gastroesophageal reflux among patients with poorly controlled asthma [67]. Additionally, a Cochrane review for asthmatic patients found only minimal improvement of asthma symptoms with antireflux therapy [68]. On the other hand, there are limited high-quality data on the role of antireflux surgery in asthma control. Field *et al* reported that surgery may improve reflux and asthma symptoms and decrease medication requirements, but it has little effect on pulmonary function [69]. There are some controlled studies which have been reported comparing H₂-receptor antagonists and fundoplication. In one study cimetidine and surgery were both associated with improvement in asthma symptoms and medication, but not with improved pulmonary function compared to placebo treatment [70]. Sontag *et al* studied patients who had both asthma and GERD it was reported that antireflux surgery has minimal effect on pulmonary function, pulmonary medication requirements, or survival, but significantly improves asthma symptoms and overall clinical status, compared to ranitidine and placebo [71]. Thus, it is not clear yet if surgery can improve quality of life of asthmatic patients.

Current data suggest that patients who suffer from both asthma and GERD should be treated with antireflux medications [72]. The initial empiric trial of twice daily PPIs for 2-3 months is recommended and then treatment should be adjusted to the minimal dose necessary to control symptoms. For those unresponsive to this initial approach, combined impedance-pH monitoring should be performed "on" therapy to detect patients with persistent acid reflux or non acid reflux. Patients with difficult to treat asthma and/or nocturnal symptoms without typical reflux symptoms should be investigated "off" therapy. This investigation may help detect patients with pathological

reflux and evaluate the temporal correlation between reflux events and respiratory symptoms. To conclude, one should be cautious to delineate the subgroup of asthmatic patients who may benefit from acid suppressive medication or surgical fundoplication and future trials are needed to identify better GERD and asthma association.

GERD-related laryngitis

Chronic laryngitis is defined as inflammation of the larynx that lasts several weeks and is frequently diagnosed in the ENT specialist's office [8]. Symptoms may include hoarseness, throat clearing, cough, globus sensation, throat pain, voice fatigue and heartburn. However, these symptoms are not specific and often occur due to postnasal drip, voice overuse, environmental irritants and smoking [73]. Chronic laryngitis and difficult-to-treat sore throat are associated with acid reflux in as many as 60% of patients [74]. It has been proposed but not proven that failure to diagnose laryngopharyngeal reflux may result to more severe complications, such as ulcers, granuloma, subglottic stenosis and lower airway disease [75].

Laryngoscopy is the first-line investigation that is usually performed to diagnose reflux related laryngitis. In the past, endoscopic lesions such as vocal cord ulcerations were associated with GERD [76,77]. More recently, laryngeal findings in reflux related laryngitis often include posterior cricoids erythema, vocal cord erythema/edema and arytenoid erythema/edema [78]. However, in an older study it was reported that the majority of asymptomatic control patients had hypopharyngeal lesions attributed to GERD [79]. Milstein *et al* also found that several signs of posterior laryngeal irritation, which are generally considered to be signs of laryngopharyngeal reflux, are present in a high percentage of non-symptomatic individuals and that these signs were more often detected with flexible than with rigid laryngoscopes [80]. More recently, Vavricka *et al* challenged the diagnostic specificity of laryngopharyngeal findings attributed to gastroesophageal reflux and found no difference in the prevalence of laryngeal lesions between patients with known GERD and normal subjects [81]. The only difference was noted in the posterior pharyngeal wall cobblestoning. 24-h pH monitoring is often used as a diagnostic tool, but again it has limitations. In a systematic review of reports, it was found there was no significant difference between the prevalence of pharyngoesophageal reflux events in patients with reflux laryngitis and healthy controls, when undergoing 24-h pH monitoring [82]. Most studies use dual pH sensors, usually placed 20 and 5 cm above LES, to correlate proximal esophageal and hypopharyngeal acid exposure with extraesophageal manifestations of GERD. Unfortunately the placement of the proximal pH sensor is inaccurate or the sensor does not work adequately due to dehydration when it is located above the UOS.

In addition, Kotby *et al* conducted a critical analysis of the literature between 1977 and 2008 and concluded that there is not a "gold standard" test for the diagnosis of laryngopharyngeal reflux [83]. Impedance monitoring should

be further used to determine the role of non acid reflux, especially in patients who continue to have symptoms, despite PPI therapy. Additionally, the Restech catheter, which is a transnasal catheter with ion flow sensor able to measure the pH both of liquid and aerolized droplets in the posterior oropharynx, is under investigation and it has been proposed that it could increase the diagnostic yield in laryngopharyngeal reflux. However, recent studies showed very poor specificity of Restech measurements, making its use in clinical practice very controversial [84,85].

Treatment of reflux related laryngitis with acid suppressive therapy is generally disappointing. Qadeer *et al* conducted a meta-analysis of eight different trials and concluded that PPI therapy was not beneficial for patients with chronic laryngitis symptoms [86]. Furthermore, in a large multicenter trial there was no evidence provided of a therapeutic benefit of treatment with esomeprazole 40 mg b.i.d. for 16 weeks compared with placebo for signs and symptoms associated with chronic laryngitis [44]. Nevertheless, when reflux related laryngitis is suspected, PPI therapy is recommended for 3 months until further scientific data become available [87].

Concluding remarks

The management of patients with extraesophageal manifestations of GERD remains challenging. In the absence of specific diagnostic methods capable of identifying individuals who might respond to antireflux therapy, an empiric trial of PPI therapy is the common approach. More invasive diagnostic testing should be reserved for those with poor or partial response to the initial PPI therapy to exclude reflux as the cause of patients' persistent symptoms. Future trials are needed to improve these diagnostic problems and identify the subgroup of individuals with extraesophageal reflux manifestations who may benefit from PPI therapy or antireflux surgery.

References

1. Dent J, El-Serag HB MA, Wallander MA, Johansson S. Epidemiology of gastro-oesophageal reflux disease: a systematic review. *Gut* 2005;**54**:710-717.
2. Vakil N, van Zanten SV, Kahrilas P, Dent J, Jones R, Global Consensus. The Montreal definition and classification of gastroesophageal reflux disease: a global evidence-based consensus. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2006;**101**:1900-1920; quiz 1943.
3. Cappell MS. Clinical presentation, diagnosis, and management of gastroesophageal reflux disease. *Med Clin North Am* 2005;**89**:243-291.
4. Field SK, Evans JA, Price LM. The effects of acid perfusion of the esophagus on ventilation and respiratory sensation. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1998;**157**:1058-1062.
5. Ing AJ, Ngu MC, Breslin AB. Pathogenesis of chronic persistent cough associated with gastroesophageal reflux. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1994;**149**:160-167.
6. Frye JW, Vaezi MF. Extraesophageal GERD. *Gastroenterol Clin North Am* 2008;**37**:845-858, ix.

7. Adhami T, Goldblum JR, Richter JE, Vaezi MF. The role of gastric and duodenal agents in laryngeal injury: an experimental canine model. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2004;**99**:2098-2106.
8. Richter JE. Review article: extraoesophageal manifestations of gastro-oesophageal reflux disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2005;**22**(Suppl 1):70-80.
9. Kollarik M, Ru F, Udem BJ. Acid-sensitive vagal sensory pathways and cough. *Pulm Pharmacol Ther* 2007;**20**:402-411.
10. Stanghellini V. Relationship between upper gastrointestinal symptoms and lifestyle, psychosocial factors and comorbidity in the general population: results from the Domestic/International Gastroenterology Surveillance Study (DIGEST). *Scand J Gastroenterol Suppl* 1999;**231**:29-37.
11. Poe RH, Kallay MC. Chronic cough and gastroesophageal reflux disease: experience with specific therapy for diagnosis and treatment. *Chest* 2003;**123**:679-684.
12. Irwin RS, Gutterman DD. American College of Chest Physicians' cough guidelines. *Lancet* 2006;**367**:981.
13. Irwin RS. Chronic cough due to gastroesophageal reflux disease: ACCP evidence-based clinical practice guidelines. *Chest* 2006;**129**(1 Suppl):80S-94S.
14. Ford AC, Forman D, Moayyedi P, Morice AH. Cough in the community: a cross sectional survey and the relationship to gastrointestinal symptoms. *Thorax* 2006;**61**:975-979.
15. Palombini BC, Villanova CA, Araujo E, et al. A pathogenic triad in chronic cough: asthma, postnasal drip syndrome, and gastroesophageal reflux disease. *Chest* 1999;**116**:279-284.
16. Nordenstedt H, Nilsson M, Johansson S, et al. The relation between gastroesophageal reflux and respiratory symptoms in a population-based study: the Nord-Trondelag health survey. *Chest* 2006;**129**:1051-1056.
17. Ing AJ. Cough and gastro-oesophageal reflux disease. *Pulm Pharmacol Ther* 2004;**17**:403-413.
18. Galmiche JP, F. Zerbib F, des Varannes SB. Review article: respiratory manifestations of gastro-oesophageal reflux disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2008;**27**:449-464.
19. Phua SY, McGarvey L, Ngu M, Ing A. The differential effect of gastroesophageal reflux disease on mechanostimulation and chemostimulation of the laryngopharynx. *Chest* 2010;**138**:1180-1185.
20. Vardar R, Sweis R, Anggiansah A, Wong T, Fox MR. Upper esophageal sphincter and esophageal motility in patients with chronic cough and reflux: assessment by high-resolution manometry. *Dis Esophagus* 2013;**26**:219-225.
21. Kastelik JA, Redington AE, Aziz I, et al. Abnormal oesophageal motility in patients with chronic cough. *Thorax* 2003;**58**:699-702.
22. Fouad YM, Katz PO, Hatlebakk JG, Castell DO. Ineffective esophageal motility: the most common motility abnormality in patients with GERD-associated respiratory symptoms. *Am J Gastroenterol* 1999;**94**:1464-1467.
23. Javorkova N, Varechova S, Pecova R, et al. Acidification of the oesophagus acutely increases the cough sensitivity in patients with gastro-oesophageal reflux and chronic cough. *Neurogastroenterol Motil* 2008;**20**:119-124.
24. Decalmer S, Stovold R, Houghton LA, et al. Chronic cough: relationship between microaspiration, gastroesophageal reflux, and cough frequency. *Chest* 2012;**142**:958-964.
25. Smith J, Woodcock A, Houghton L. New developments in reflux-associated cough. *Lung* **188** (Suppl 1):S81-S86.
26. Laukka MA, Cameron AJ, Schei AJ. Gastroesophageal reflux and chronic cough: which comes first? *J Clin Gastroenterol* 1994;**19**:100-104.
27. Everett CF, Morice AH. Clinical history in gastroesophageal cough. *Respir Med* 2007;**101**:345-348.
28. Baldi F, Cappiello R, Cavoli C, Ghersi S, Torresan F, Roda E. Proton pump inhibitor treatment of patients with gastroesophageal reflux-related chronic cough: a comparison between two different daily doses of lansoprazole. *World J Gastroenterol* 2006;**12**:82-88.
29. Chandra KM, Harding SM. Therapy Insight: treatment of gastroesophageal reflux in adults with chronic cough. *Nat Clin Pract Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2007;**4**:604-613.
30. Irwin RS, Curley FJ, French CL. Chronic cough. The spectrum and frequency of causes, key components of the diagnostic evaluation, and outcome of specific therapy. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1990;**141**:640-647.
31. Irwin RS, French CL, Curley FJ, Zawacki JK, Bennett FM. Chronic cough due to gastroesophageal reflux. Clinical, diagnostic, and pathogenetic aspects. *Chest* 1993;**104**:1511-1517.
32. McGarvey LP, Heaney LG, Lawson JT, et al. Evaluation and outcome of patients with chronic non-productive cough using a comprehensive diagnostic protocol. *Thorax* 1998;**53**:738-743.
33. Paterson WG, Murat BW. Combined ambulatory esophageal manometry and dual-probe pH-metry in evaluation of patients with chronic unexplained cough. *Dig Dis Sci* 1994;**39**:1117-1125.
34. Zerbib F, Roman S, Ropert A, et al. Esophageal pH-impedance monitoring and symptom analysis in GERD: a study in patients off and on therapy. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2006;**101**:1956-1963.
35. Mainie I, Tutuian R, Shay S, et al. Acid and non-acid reflux in patients with persistent symptoms despite acid suppressive therapy: a multicentre study using combined ambulatory impedance-pH monitoring. *Gut* 2006;**55**:1398-1402.
36. Sifrim D, Dupont L, Blondeau K, Zhang X, Tack J, Janssens J. Weakly acidic reflux in patients with chronic unexplained cough during 24 hour pressure, pH, and impedance monitoring. *Gut* 2005;**54**:449-454.
37. Patterson N, Mainie I, Rafferty G, et al. Nonacid reflux episodes reaching the pharynx are important factors associated with cough. *J Clin Gastroenterol* 2009;**43**:414-419.
38. Blondeau K, Dupont LJ, Mertens V, Tack J, Sifrim D. Improved diagnosis of gastro-oesophageal reflux in patients with unexplained chronic cough. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2007;**25**:723-732.
39. Smith JA, Decalmer S, Kelsall A, et al. Acoustic cough-reflux associations in chronic cough: potential triggers and mechanisms. *Gastroenterology* 2010;**139**:754-762.
40. Kunsch S, Gross V, Neesse A, et al. Combined lung-sound and reflux-monitoring: a pilot study of a novel approach to detect nocturnal respiratory symptoms in gastro-oesophageal reflux disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2011;**33**:592-600.
41. Vaezi M, Richter JE. Twenty-four-hour ambulatory esophageal pH monitoring in the diagnosis of acid reflux-related chronic cough. *South Med J* 1997;**90**:305-311.
42. Chang AB, Lasserson TJ, Kiljander TO, Connor FL, Gaffney JT, Garske LA. Systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials of gastro-oesophageal reflux interventions for chronic cough associated with gastro-oesophageal reflux. *BMJ* 2006;**332**:11-17.
43. Chang AB, Lasserson TJ, Gaffney J, Connor FL, Garske LA. Gastro-oesophageal reflux treatment for prolonged non-specific cough in children and adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2006;**1**:CD004823.
44. Vaezi MF, Richter JE, Stasney CR, et al. Treatment of chronic posterior laryngitis with esomeprazole. *Laryngoscope* 2006;**116**:254-260.
45. Reiche I, Troger U, Martens-Lobenhoffer L, et al. Omeprazole-induced cough in a patient with gastroesophageal reflux disease. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2010;**22**:880-882.
46. Mainie I, Tutuian R, Agrawal A, Adams D, Castell DO. Combined multichannel intraluminal impedance-pH monitoring to select patients with persistent gastro-oesophageal reflux for laparoscopic Nissen fundoplication. *Br J Surg* 2006;**93**:1483-1487.
47. Tutuian R, Mainie I, Agrawal A, Adams D, Castell DO. Nonacid reflux in patients with chronic cough on acid-suppressive therapy. *Chest* 2006;**130**:386-391.
48. Jaspersen D, Labenz J, Willich SN, et al. Long-term clinical course of extra-oesophageal manifestations in patients with gastro-

- oesophageal reflux disease. A prospective follow-up analysis based on the ProGERD study. *Dig Liver Dis* 2006;**38**:233-238.
49. Allen CJ, Anvari M. Gastro-oesophageal reflux related cough and its response to laparoscopic fundoplication. *Thorax* 1998;**53**:963-968.
 50. Francis DO, Goutte M, Slaughter JC, et al. Traditional reflux parameters and not impedance monitoring predict outcome after fundoplication in extraesophageal reflux. *Laryngoscope* 2000;**110**:1902-1909.
 51. Dicipinigaitis PV, K. Rauf K. Treatment of chronic, refractory cough with baclofen. *Respiration* 1998;**65**:86-88.
 52. Xu X, Chen Q, Liang S, Lu H, Qiu Z. Successful resolution of refractory chronic cough induced by gastroesophageal reflux with treatment of baclofen. *Cough* 2012;**8**:8.
 53. Lidums I, Lehmann A, Checklin H, Dent J, Holloway RH. Control of transient lower esophageal sphincter relaxations and reflux by the GABA(B) agonist baclofen in normal subjects. *Gastroenterology* 2000;**118**:7-13.
 54. Dicipinigaitis PV, Dobkin JB, Rauf K, Aldrich TK. Inhibition of capsaicin-induced cough by the gamma-aminobutyric acid agonist baclofen. *J Clin Pharmacol* 1998; **38**:364-367.
 55. Canning BJ, Mori N, Lehmann A. Antitussive effects of the peripherally restricted GABAB receptor agonist lesogaberan in guinea pigs: comparison to baclofen and other GABAB receptor-selective agonists. *Cough* 2012;**8**:7.
 56. Morice AH, Menon MS, Mulrennan SA, et al. Opiate therapy in chronic cough. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2007;**175**:312-315.
 57. Mintz S, Lee JK. Gabapentin in the treatment of intractable idiopathic chronic cough: case reports. *Am J Med* 2006;**119**:e13-e15.
 58. Havemann BD, Henderson CA, El-Serag HB. The association between gastro-oesophageal reflux disease and asthma: a systematic review. *Gut* 2007;**56**:1654-1664.
 59. Saritas Yuksel E, Vaezi MF. Extraesophageal manifestations of gastroesophageal reflux disease: cough, asthma, laryngitis, chest pain. *Swiss Med Wkly* 2012;**142**:w13544.
 60. Kiljander TO, Salomaa ER, Hietanen EK, Terho EO. Gastroesophageal reflux in asthmatics: A double-blind, placebo-controlled crossover study with omeprazole. *Chest* 1999;**116**:1257-1264.
 61. Leggett JJ, Johnston BT, Mills M, Gamble J, Heaney LG. Prevalence of gastroesophageal reflux in difficult asthma: relationship to asthma outcome. *Chest* 2005;**127**:1227-1231.
 62. Gislason T, Janson C, Vermeire P, et al. Respiratory symptoms and nocturnal gastroesophageal reflux: a population-based study of young adults in three European countries. *Chest* 2002;**121**:158-163.
 63. Sontag SJ, O'Connell S, Miller TQ, Bernsen M, Seidel J. Asthmatics have more nocturnal gasping and reflux symptoms than nonasthmatics, and they are related to bedtime eating. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2004;**99**:789-796.
 64. Fass R, Achem SR, Harding S, Mittal RK, Quigley E. Review article: supra-oesophageal manifestations of gastro-oesophageal reflux disease and the role of night-time gastro-oesophageal reflux. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2004;**20** (Suppl 9):26-38.
 65. Kiljander TO, Harding SM, Field SK, et al. Effects of esomeprazole 40 mg twice daily on asthma: a randomized placebo-controlled trial. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2006;**173**:1091-1097.
 66. Littner MR, Leung FW, Ballard ED 2nd, Huang B, Samra NK. Effects of 24 weeks of lansoprazole therapy on asthma symptoms, exacerbations, quality of life, and pulmonary function in adult asthmatic patients with acid reflux symptoms. *Chest* 2005;**128**:1128-1135.
 67. American Lung Association Asthma Clinical Research, C., Mastrorade JG., Anthonisen NR, et al. Efficacy of esomeprazole for treatment of poorly controlled asthma. *N Engl J Med* 2009;**360**:1487-1499.
 68. Gibson PG, Powell H, Coughlan J, et al. Limited (information only) patient education programs for adults with asthma. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2002;**2**:CD001005.
 69. Field SK, Gelfand GA, McFadden SD. The effects of antireflux surgery on asthmatics with gastroesophageal reflux. *Chest* 1999;**116**:766-774.
 70. Larrain A, Carrasco E, Galleguillos F, Sepulveda R, Pope CE. 2nd. Medical and surgical treatment of nonallergic asthma associated with gastroesophageal reflux. *Chest* 1991;**99**:1330-1335.
 71. Sontag SJ, O'Connell S, Khandelwal S, et al. Asthmatics with gastroesophageal reflux: long term results of a randomized trial of medical and surgical antireflux therapies. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2003;**98**:987-999.
 72. National Asthma, E. and P. Prevention, Expert Panel Report 3 (EPR-3): Guidelines for the Diagnosis and Management of Asthma-Summary Report 2007. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2007;**120**(5 Suppl):S94-S138.
 73. Diamond L. Laryngopharyngeal reflux--it's not GERD. *JAAPA* 2005;**18**:50-53.
 74. Vaezi MF, Hicks DM, Abelson TI, Richter JE. Laryngeal signs and symptoms and gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD): a critical assessment of cause and effect association. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2003;**1**:333-344.
 75. El-Serag HB, Hepworth EJ, Lee P, Sonnenberg A. Gastroesophageal reflux disease is a risk factor for laryngeal and pharyngeal cancer. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2001;**96**:2013-2018.
 76. Vaezi MF. Are there specific laryngeal signs for gastroesophageal reflux disease? *Am J Gastroenterol* 2007;**102**:723-724.
 77. Delahunty JE, Cherry J. Experimentally produced vocal cord granulomas. *Laryngoscope* 1968;**78**:1941-1947.
 78. Johnson DA. Medical therapy of reflux laryngitis. *J Clin Gastroenterol* 2008;**42**:589-93.
 79. Hicks DM, Ours TM, Abelson TI, Vaezi MF, Richter JE. The prevalence of hypopharynx findings associated with gastroesophageal reflux in normal volunteers. *J Voice* 2002;**16**:564-579.
 80. Milstein CF, Charbel S, Hicks DM, Abelson TI, Richter JE, Vaezi MF. Prevalence of laryngeal irritation signs associated with reflux in asymptomatic volunteers: impact of endoscopic technique (rigid vs. flexible laryngoscope). *Laryngoscope* 2005;**115**:2256-2261.
 81. Vavricka SR, Storck CA, Wildi SM, et al. Limited diagnostic value of laryngopharyngeal lesions in patients with gastroesophageal reflux during routine upper gastrointestinal endoscopy. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2007;**102**:716-722.
 82. Joniau S, Bradshaw A, Esterman A, Carney AS. Reflux and laryngitis: a systematic review. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* 2007;**136**:686-692.
 83. Kotby MN, Hassan O, El-Makhzangy M, Farahat M, Milad P. Gastroesophageal reflux/laryngopharyngeal reflux disease: a critical analysis of the literature. *Eur Arch Otorhinolaryngol* 2010;**267**:171-179.
 84. Ummarino D, Vandermeulen L, Roosens B, Urbain D, Hauser B, Vandenplas Y. Gastroesophageal reflux evaluation in patients affected by chronic cough: Restech versus multichannel intraluminal impedance/pH metry. *Laryngoscope* 2013;**123**:980-984.
 85. Becker V, Graf S, Schlag C, et al. First agreement analysis and day-to-day comparison of pharyngeal pH monitoring with pH/impedance monitoring in patients with suspected laryngopharyngeal reflux. *J Gastrointest Surg* 2012;**16**:1096-1101.
 86. Qadeer MA, Swoger J, Milstein C, et al. Correlation between symptoms and laryngeal signs in laryngopharyngeal reflux. *Laryngoscope* 2005;**115**:1947-1952.
 87. Kahrilas PJ, Shaheen NJ, Vaezi MF. American Gastroenterological Association, P. Clinical, and C. Quality Management, American Gastroenterological Association Institute technical review on the management of gastroesophageal reflux disease. *Gastroenterology* 2008;**135**:1392-1413, 1413 e1-e5.