

## Does dynamic hyperinflation contribute to dyspnoea during exercise in patients with COPD?

Jordan A. Guenette<sup>1</sup>, Katherine A. Webb<sup>1</sup>, Denis E. O'Donnell<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Respiratory Investigation Unit, Department of Medicine, Queen's University and Kingston General Hospital, Kingston, ON, Canada

**Running Head:** Dynamic Hyperinflation in COPD

**Word Count:** 3149

**Sources of support:** Boehringer Ingelheim Pharma GmbH & Co. KG, Ingelheim, Germany. JG was supported by postdoctoral fellowships from the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada, the Canadian Thoracic Society and the Canadian Lung Association.

**Conflicts of interest:** JG and KW have no conflicts of interest to report. DO has received research funding via Queen's University from AstraZeneca, Boehringer Ingelheim, GlaxoSmithKline, Merck, Novartis, Nycomed and Pfizer; and has served on speakers bureaus, consultation panels and advisory boards for AstraZeneca, Boehringer Ingelheim, GlaxoSmithKline, Nycomed and Pfizer.

### Corresponding Author:

Jordan A. Guenette, Ph.D.  
Respiratory Investigation Unit  
Queen's University and Kingston General Hospital  
76 Stuart Street  
Kingston, Ontario, Canada K7L-2V7  
Phone: 613-549-6666 ext. 4910  
Fax: 613-548-1307  
Email: guenette@queensu.ca

## ABSTRACT

Dynamic hyperinflation (DH) during exercise occurs in most but not all patients with advanced COPD. It is not known whether the presence or absence of DH has implications for dyspnoea and exercise tolerance. Therefore, we compared detailed ventilatory and sensory responses to exercise in hyperinflators and non-hyperinflators with moderate to severe COPD.

Non-hyperinflators (n=65) were retrospectively identified from a sample of 427 patients and case-matched to a group of hyperinflators (n=65) based on sex, age, body mass index and %predicted forced expiratory volume in 1 second. Resting pulmonary function and constant work rate cycle exercise responses were compared.

Hyperinflators decreased inspiratory capacity (IC) from rest to peak exercise by  $0.46\pm 0.24$ L whereas the non-hyperinflators increased IC by  $0.10\pm 0.15$ L ( $P<0.0001$ ). There were no significant group differences in endurance time ( $9.11\pm 5.98$  vs.  $8.87\pm 5.24$ min) or dyspnoea intensity for any given time or ventilation. An inflection in tidal volume versus ventilation occurred in the majority of non-hyperinflators (n=61) and hyperinflators (n=62) at a similar time and ventilation. Mechanical constraints on tidal volume expansion and the attendant rise in dyspnoea intensity were similar in both groups.

Dyspnoea intensity during exercise was associated with progressive mechanical constraints on tidal volume expansion regardless of the presence of DH.

**Key Words:** inspiratory capacity, inspiratory reserve volume, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease

## INTRODUCTION

In patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), dyspnoea (or breathing discomfort) arises in any situation where there is a disparity between the central drive to breathe and the mechanical response of the respiratory system, i.e., neuromechanical uncoupling [1-3]. Resting lung hyperinflation and reduced inspiratory capacity (IC) predispose to critical mechanical constraints on tidal volume ( $V_T$ ) expansion as ventilatory requirements increase during exercise. An inflection or plateau in the  $V_T$  response to exercise, when expressed as a function of increasing ventilation, occurs at a minimal dynamic inspiratory reserve volume (IRV) of 0.5-1.0L. This mechanical event marks the beginning of a progressive disparity between respiratory muscle effort (i.e., tidal oesophageal pressure relative to maximum inspiratory pressure) and the corresponding  $V_T$  response (relative to vital capacity) [3]. This increasing neuromechanical uncoupling is associated with an abrupt increase in dyspnoea intensity which is predominantly perceived as unsatisfied inspiration [1, 3]. The smaller the IC, the lower the  $V_E$  during exercise at which the  $V_T$  reaches its plateau and the earlier the onset of intolerable dyspnoea [2].

Traditionally, dynamic hyperinflation (DH) refers to the variable and temporary increase in end-expiratory lung volume (EELV) above its baseline value that occurs when ventilatory demand is acutely increased. This is usually measured by serial inspiratory capacity (IC) manoeuvres which accurately reflect changes in EELV provided that total lung capacity (TLC) remains unaltered. This is to be distinguished from changes in end-inspiratory lung volume (EILV) which represents the combination of change in EELV and expansion of  $V_T$ , and is therefore not a measure of DH. The specific contribution of DH and the consequent progressive erosion of dynamic IC to dyspnoea causation during exercise is unclear and is the main focus of this study. In population samples of patients with moderate to severe COPD, a decrease in rest to peak IC was reported in the majority of patients (80-85%) [4, 5]. Smaller studies employing optoelectronic plethysmography have identified

varied behaviour of end-expiratory chest wall motion during exercise and have designated subgroups of COPD as non-hyperinflators (“euvolemics”) [6] and; “early” and “late” hyperinflators [7].

The mechanical consequences of DH during exercise are complex. In many patients the largest increase in dynamic EELV occurs within the first few minutes of exercise where dyspnoea ratings are generally only in the mild to moderate range [3]. DH at these lower exercise intensities attenuates expiratory flow limitation which helps to preserve neuromechanical coupling of the respiratory system [3]. However, it is also possible that progressive erosion of dynamic IC during exercise in hyperinflators will force an earlier  $V_T$  plateau with attendant increase in dyspnoea at a lower  $V_E$  than in non-hyperinflators. Moreover, it is known that further acute-on-chronic lung hyperinflation has other potentially negative pulmonary and cardiovascular consequences as recently reviewed [8].

Given the variable mechanical consequences of DH, its specific contribution to perceived respiratory discomfort during physical activity in COPD is difficult to predict. For example, improvement in dyspnoea ratings after bronchodilator therapy is more closely associated with reductions in absolute lung volumes (or increase in  $V_T$  and inspiratory reserve volume (IRV)) than with reduction of DH which is often unaffected or, in some cases, may even increase modestly [9-11].

The main purpose of this study was to determine the direct contribution of DH to dyspnoea and exercise intolerance in COPD. We therefore compared breathing pattern, time to the  $V_T$  plateau/minimal IRV, dyspnoea/IRV relationships and endurance time in hyperinflators and non-hyperinflators matched for severity of airway obstruction, age, sex, and body mass index. We reasoned that the finding of an earlier onset of critical mechanical constraints on  $V_T$  expansion and corresponding increase in dyspnoea in hyperinflators would support the notion that DH of itself has important negative sensory consequences in COPD.

## METHODS

### Subjects and Study Design

This study is a retrospective analysis of exercise data from a large group (n=427) of COPD patients that participated in two multicentre clinical trials examining the effects of tiotropium on exercise tolerance [12, 13]. It does not overlap with previous analyses of the same data set [2, 14, 15]. Ethical approval was obtained by all research sites and patients gave informed written consent prior to participation. The Research Ethics Board of Queen's University and Affiliated Teaching Hospitals approved the use of this data (DMED-1424-11).

Original inclusion criteria were as follows: 40-75 years of age, cigarette smoking history > 10 pack-years, plethysmographic functional residual capacity > 120% predicted and a forced expiratory volume in 1 second ( $FEV_1$ )  $\leq$  65% predicted. Subjects were excluded if they had a history of asthma, allergic rhinitis or atopy, any contraindication to clinical exercise testing and/or participation in a COPD rehabilitation program within 6 weeks prior to the screening visit.

Subjects were required to refrain from using long-acting bronchodilators for a minimum of 1 week prior to and throughout the duration of the study. Short-acting anticholinergics were withdrawn a minimum of 1 day prior to the screening visit and were not used throughout the study. Salbutamol was given as rescue medication during the study but was withdrawn  $\geq$  6 hours prior to each visit.

Detailed pulmonary function testing and an incremental symptom-limited cycle exercise test were performed during a screening visit which was followed by two run-in visits whereby subjects performed pulmonary function tests and a symptom-limited constant work rate cycle test. Exercise and pulmonary function data analysis were based upon the second run-in visit. DH was defined as a decrease in IC from rest of more than 150 ml or 4.5% predicted at any time point during exercise [4].

O'Donnell et al [4] previously demonstrated that the 95% confidence interval for the resting IC measurement was  $\pm 0.14$  L or  $\pm 4.5\%$  predicted in patients with COPD, indicating that reproducibility criteria of within 150 ml is appropriate for testing IC in this population. Importantly, the 95% CI for peak exercise IC was similar. Subjects were then divided into two subgroups based on the presence or absence of DH. After identifying all non-hyperinflators (n=65), experimenters systematically matched them to 65 of the remaining 362 hyperinflators based on sex, percent predicted FEV<sub>1</sub>, age, and BMI while remaining blinded to all other measurements. Matching was randomly determined if more than one hyperinflator was a suitable match to a non-hyperinflator.

### **Pulmonary Function**

Spirometry and body plethysmography were performed according to established guidelines and values are expressed as percentages of predicted normal values. Predicted IC was calculated as predicted total lung capacity minus predicted functional residual capacity since there are no current equations for predicting normal IC. Maximal ventilatory capacity (MVC) was estimated by multiplying FEV<sub>1</sub> by 35 [16].

### **Exercise Tests**

Details regarding the incremental cycle test have been described elsewhere [12]. The constant work rate exercise test involved a steady-state rest period and a 1 minute warm up at 0W followed immediately by an increase in work rate corresponding to 75% of the peak incremental work rate until symptom limitation. Time from the onset of this work rate to symptom limitation was defined as the endurance time. Metabolic and ventilatory parameters were measured on a breath-by-breath basis using various commercially available systems. Intensity of dyspnoea and leg discomfort were assessed using the modified Borg scale [17]. Borg ratings and IC maneuvers were performed at rest, throughout exercise, and at symptom limitation. IC maneuvers were used to examine operating lung volumes and

DH as previously described [18]. Data are presented as 30 second averages during rest, the last 30 seconds of each second minute during exercise, and at peak exercise. The inflection point of  $V_T$  relative to  $V_E$  during exercise was also determined for each subject using the 30 second averaged data at each time point [19].

### **Statistical Analysis**

Data are presented as means  $\pm$  SD unless otherwise specified. Reasons for stopping exercise were analyzed as frequency statistics and compared using the Fisher's exact test. Between group comparisons (non-hyperinflators vs. hyperinflators) for descriptive characteristics and exercise responses at standardized times were performed using unpaired *t*-tests. Statistical significance was set at  $P < 0.05$ .

## **RESULTS**

### **Subject Characteristics**

Sixty-five out of 427 (15%) subjects were identified as non-hyperinflators. Characteristics of the non-hyperinflators and the matched hyperinflators ( $n=65$ ) are shown in Table 1. By design, both groups were closely matched for FEV<sub>1</sub> (% predicted and liters), age, BMI, and sex. The hyperinflators had a larger forced vital capacity (FVC) resulting in a slightly lower FEV<sub>1</sub>/FVC ratio. Hyperinflators also had greater percent predicted values for total lung capacity (TLC) and functional residual capacity compared with the non-hyperinflators. There were no significant differences between groups in peak incremental work rate and oxygen consumption (VO<sub>2</sub>).

### **Exercise Responses**

Physiological and perceptual responses at the  $V_T$  inflection point and at peak exercise are summarized in Table 2. Both groups were well matched for absolute work rate during the constant work rate cycling test with no significant differences in cycle endurance time or peak VO<sub>2</sub>.

The change in dynamic IC from rest to peak exercise (i.e., the inverse magnitude of DH) was  $-0.46 \pm 0.24$  L in the hyperinflators and  $0.10 \pm 0.15$  L in the non-hyperinflators (Figure 1A, Table 2). IC in the hyperinflators decreased rapidly (by  $0.34 \pm 0.23$  L) within the first 2 minutes of exercise and continued to decrease, albeit less abruptly, until symptom limitation (Figure 1). In contrast, the non-hyperinflators increased IC modestly (by  $0.10 \pm 0.28$  L) at the onset of exercise and then maintained this level throughout exercise.

Selected exercise responses are shown in Figure 2. There were no significant differences between groups for  $\dot{V}O_2$ ,  $V_E$ , breathing frequency or  $V_T$  at any given time throughout exercise. An inflection point in the relation between  $V_T$  and  $V_E$  occurred in the majority of non-hyperinflators (61/65) and hyperinflators (62/65). This inflection point occurred at a similar time,  $\dot{V}O_2$ ,  $V_E$ ,  $V_T$ , and inspiratory reserve volume (IRV) in each group (Table 2). After the  $V_T/V_E$  inflection point where IRV had reached a critically reduced level in both groups, there was no further change in  $V_T$  during exercise, i.e., there was a plateau (Figure 3).

### **Exertional Dyspnoea**

The main reasons for stopping constant work rate exercise were similar in both groups: dyspnoea was selected as the primary reason, either alone or in combination with leg discomfort, in 51/65 and 53/65 of non-hyperinflators and hyperinflators, respectively. No significant differences in dyspnoea intensity were observed at any given exercise time or  $V_E$  during constant work rate cycling (Figure 4). Likewise, no differences in dyspnoea intensity were observed at the  $V_T$  inflection point (Table 2). Dyspnoea intensity increased linearly as IRV decreased in both groups up to an inflection point (corresponding to the  $V_T/V_E$  inflection point) where subjects reported “moderate” exertional dyspnoea. Beyond this point, and irrespective of the presence of DH, dyspnoea as a function of IRV increased



steeply to intolerable levels where patients reported “very severe” dyspnoea at the symptom-limited endpoint (Figure 4C).

A secondary analysis comparing the non-hyperinflators (n=65) to all hyperinflators (n=362) whereby groups were not systematically matched for any baseline characteristics, revealed similar results for our primary outcomes (i.e., no group differences in dyspnea or cycle endurance time).

## DISCUSSION

The main findings of this study are as follows: 1) patients who acutely increased EELV during exercise did not experience higher exertional dyspnoea ratings or greater exercise intolerance compared with FEV<sub>1</sub>-matched patients who did not increase dynamic EELV; 2) hyperinflators and non-hyperinflators reached critical constraints on V<sub>T</sub> expansion at a similarly reduced dynamic IRV and at a similar time and V<sub>E</sub> during constant work rate cycle exercise; 3) dyspnoea/IRV and dyspnoea/V<sub>E</sub> relationships were not altered by the presence of DH.

The results of this study coupled with those of others [4, 5, 20] suggest that approximately 15-20% of patients with moderate to severe COPD do not consistently increase EELV during exercise. Out of 427 patients in the present study, we identified 65 patients who did not meet our conservative definition of DH [4]. After carefully matching subgroups of hyperinflators and non-hyperinflators for disease severity, age, sex, and BMI, we observed that those who did not increase dynamic EELV during exercise had a slightly higher FEV<sub>1</sub>/FVC ratio and less resting lung hyperinflation suggesting less airway dysfunction than the group who hyperinflated (Table 1). Given that ventilatory demand and the volume and timing components of breathing during exercise were similar in both groups, we can assume that differences in EELV behaviour during exercise primarily reflected unmeasured differences in mechanical time constants for lung emptying.

The fact that patients in each group were well matched for several key parameters that influence respiratory mechanics allowed us to evaluate the role of DH in contributing to dyspnoea and exercise intolerance in COPD. We found that, contrary to our original hypothesis, the presence of DH was not associated with increased dyspnoea ratings or greater exercise intolerance. Aliverti *et al.* [6] recently measured operating lung volumes by optoelectronic plethysmography in patients with moderate to severe COPD. As in the current study, dyspnoea ratings during a symptom-limited incremental cycle test were similar in 8 non-hyperinflators and 12 hyperinflators who were not matched for spirometric or anthropometric parameters. However, despite having better baseline spirometry, and in contrast to our results, the non-hyperinflators had diminished exercise performance. This discrepancy in results between the current and previous studies is likely related to differences in methods of measurement of DH and in exercise protocols.

The relative importance of DH in contributing to the intensity and quality of dyspnoea during exercise in COPD has been difficult to determine. Previous studies have shown that besides increased dynamic EELV, several indices of dynamic mechanical constraint have correlated, albeit variably, with dyspnoea intensity during exercise including increases in EILV and the  $V_T/IC$  ratio and decreases in dynamic IRV, as recently reviewed [21]. In addition to correlative evidence, specific therapeutic interventions can be used to manipulate DH and its mechanical consequences. For example, low level continuous positive airway pressure therapy, which is thought to counterbalance the negative effects of the inspiratory threshold load, has been shown to reduce dyspnoea and improve exercise endurance in selected patients with COPD [22, 23]. Similarly, improvement in dyspnoea and endurance time following helium-oxygen therapy has been associated with a reduction in the rate of DH [24, 25]. In contrast, dyspnoea reduction following bronchodilator therapy, hyperoxia, and exercise training have been shown to occur in the absence of a reduced rate of DH confirming the multifactorial nature of this symptom [9-11, 26-28]. It is possible that other mechanical improvements following these

interventions such as reduced absolute lung volumes with a delay in reaching critical ventilatory constraints are more important in explaining dyspnoea relief than small or inconsistent reductions in the rate of DH. It is also noteworthy that increases in EELV in the hyperinflator group tended to occur early during high intensity constant work rate exercise: 69% of hyperinflators showed an average decrease in IC of 0.2 L in the first 2 min of exercise where perceived dyspnoea intensity was only 'slight' at 2.4 Borg units.

In keeping with previous studies, a discernable inflection or plateau in the  $V_T/V_E$  relation during exercise occurred in nearly all (~95%) of our study patients. This occurred regardless of whether they hyperinflated or not (Figure 3A). Beyond this  $V_T$  inflection (at a minimal IRV of 0.5-1 L), dyspnoea rose sharply to intolerable levels (Figure 4C). We have previously proposed that the magnitude of the resting IC and the decrease in dynamic IRV during exercise importantly influence the evolution of dyspnoea in COPD [1, 2]. The current study suggests that dyspnoea rises as  $V_T$  expands to reach a minimal IRV regardless of whether IC remains stable (non-hyperinflators) or diminishes (hyperinflators) during exercise. Thus, the regulation of end-inspiration relative to TLC likely provides a more proximate measure of the critical mechanical constraints during exercise relevant to dyspnoea provocation than the behaviour of EELV *per se*. For example, the difference in IC from rest to peak exercise between the two groups was 0.56 L; change in EELV in excess of 0.5 L would be expected to increase inspiratory threshold loading of the inspiratory muscles and, of itself, may have negative sensory consequences [23]. The results of the current study suggest other mechanical factors are more important. In both groups EILV from the  $V_T/V_E$  inflection to peak was in excess of 90% of TLC (Table 2). Breathing at this high EILV is difficult to sustain given the associated increased elastic loading and functional respiratory muscle weakness [29]. This is further compounded by increased velocity of shortening of the inspiratory muscles and decreased dynamic lung compliance. At this point, central neural drive has reached near maximal levels as a result of metabolic and possibly

respiratory acidosis in some and  $V_T$  expansion is critically constrained. We have argued that this progressive neuromechanical uncoupling of the respiratory system after reaching maximal EILV provokes intolerable dyspnea which, in many patients with COPD, is the proximate cause of exercise limitation. Other factors such as respiratory muscle fatigue and central inhibition of neural drive may also contribute to exercise intolerance but their precise role is inconclusive at this time [29-32].

### **Methodological Considerations**

The underlying mechanism for the different behaviour of EELV between the groups could not be determined. By exclusion, differences in expiratory flow limitation and mechanical time constants for lung emptying which could not be measured in this study are likely important. Our patients had a reasonably well preserved resting IC (75-78 % predicted) and results may not be generalizable to patients with a smaller resting IC.

Accurate assessment of dynamic hyperinflation using the IC is based on the assumption that TLC remains constant and that patients are able to inspire to TLC throughout exercise. Stability of TLC during exercise could not be evaluated in this study. However, previous work has confirmed that TLC remains constant during exercise in healthy subjects [33] and in COPD [34]. Studies have also shown that patients with COPD can consistently generate similar peak inspiratory oesophageal pressures during serial IC manoeuvres throughout exercise, despite progressive reduction of the latter as a result of DH [35, 36]. Moreover, patients are capable of maximal diaphragm activation during inspiratory efforts to TLC [29, 37] even when dyspneic at peak exercise [29]. These observations coupled with recent evidence that IC during cycle exercise is highly reproducible in a large patient population which included the current study sample [5], support our approach for detecting dynamic hyperinflation.

In conclusion, we have shown that differences in the behaviour of dynamic EELV during exercise in FEV<sub>1</sub>-matched groups with COPD did not appear to influence exertional dyspnoea intensity or exercise

endurance time during high intensity constant work rate cycle exercise. This study has shown for the first time that critical constraints on  $V_T$  expansion occur at a similar time and  $V_E$  in patients with moderate to severe COPD irrespective of the presence of DH during exercise. These results support the idea that the prevailing IC and the mechanical constraints on  $V_T$  as the IRV approaches its minimal value strongly influence dyspnoea intensity and exercise tolerance in COPD, independent of the presence of acute-on-chronic DH during exercise.

## REFERENCES

1. Laveneziana P, Webb KA, Ora J, Wadell K, O'Donnell DE. Evolution of dyspnea during exercise in COPD: impact of critical volume constraints. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* doi:10.1164/rccm.201106-1128OC.
2. O'Donnell DE, Guenette JA, Maltais F, Webb KA. Decline of resting inspiratory capacity in COPD: the impact on breathing pattern, dyspnea and ventilatory capacity during exercise. *Chest* doi:10.1378/chest.11-0787
3. O'Donnell DE, Hamilton AL, Webb KA. Sensory-mechanical relationships during high-intensity, constant-work-rate exercise in COPD. *J Appl Physiol* 2006; 101: 1025-1035.
4. O'Donnell DE, Reville SM, Webb KA. Dynamic hyperinflation and exercise intolerance in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2001; 164: 770-777.
5. O'Donnell DE, Travers J, Webb KA, He Z, Lam YM, Hamilton A, Kesten S, Maltais F, Magnussen H. Reliability of ventilatory parameters during cycle ergometry in multicentre trials in COPD. *Eur Respir J* 2009; 34: 866-874.
6. Aliverti A, Stevenson N, Dellaca RL, Lo Mauro A, Pedotti A, Calverley PM. Regional chest wall volumes during exercise in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Thorax* 2004; 59: 210-216.
7. Vogiatzis I, Georgiadou O, Golemati S, Aliverti A, Kosmas E, Kastanakis E, Geladas N, Koutsoukou A, Nanas S, Zakynthinos S, Roussos C. Patterns of dynamic hyperinflation during exercise and recovery in patients with severe chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Thorax* 2005; 60: 723-729.
8. O'Donnell DE, Laveneziana P. The clinical importance of dynamic lung hyperinflation in COPD. *COPD* 2006; 3: 219-232.
9. O'Donnell DE, Lam M, Webb KA. Spirometric correlates of improvement in exercise performance after anticholinergic therapy in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1999; 160: 542-549.
10. O'Donnell DE, Voduc N, Fitzpatrick M, Webb KA. Effect of salmeterol on the ventilatory response to exercise in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Eur Respir J* 2004; 24: 86-94.
11. Peters MM, Webb KA, O'Donnell DE. Combined physiological effects of bronchodilators and hyperoxia on exertional dyspnoea in normoxic COPD. *Thorax* 2006; 61: 559-567.
12. O'Donnell DE, Fluge T, Gerken F, Hamilton A, Webb K, Aguilaniu B, Make B, Magnussen H. Effects of tiotropium on lung hyperinflation, dyspnoea and exercise tolerance in COPD. *Eur Respir J* 2004; 23: 832-840.
13. Maltais F, Hamilton A, Marciniuk D, Hernandez P, Sciruba FC, Richter K, Kesten S, O'Donnell D. Improvements in symptom-limited exercise performance over 8 h with once-daily tiotropium in patients with COPD. *Chest* 2005; 128: 1168-1178.
14. Laviolette L, Sava F, O'Donnell DE, Webb KA, Hamilton AL, Kesten S, Maltais F. Effect of obesity on constant workrate exercise in hyperinflated men with COPD. *BMC Pulm Med* 2010; 10: 33.

15. Laviolette L, O'Donnell DE, Webb KA, Hamilton AL, Kesten S, Maltais F. Performance during constant workrate cycling exercise in women with COPD and hyperinflation. *COPD* 2009; 6: 340-351.
16. Gandevia B, Hugh-Jones P. Terminology for measurements of ventilatory capacity; a report to the thoracic society. *Thorax* 1957; 12: 290-293.
17. Borg GA. Psychophysical bases of perceived exertion. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 1982; 14: 377-381.
18. O'Donnell DE, Lam M, Webb KA. Measurement of symptoms, lung hyperinflation, and endurance during exercise in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1998; 158: 1557-1565.
19. Hey EN, Lloyd BB, Cunningham DJ, Jukes MG, Bolton DP. Effects of various respiratory stimuli on the depth and frequency of breathing in man. *Respir Physiol* 1966; 1: 193-205.
20. Garcia-Rio F, Lores V, Mediano O, Rojo B, Hernanz A, Lopez-Collazo E, Alvarez-Sala R. Daily physical activity in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease is mainly associated with dynamic hyperinflation. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2009; 180: 506-512.
21. O'Donnell DE, Laveneziana P. Dyspnea and activity limitation in COPD: mechanical factors. *COPD* 2007; 4: 225-236.
22. O'Donnell DE, Sanii R, Younes M. Improvement in exercise endurance in patients with chronic airflow limitation using continuous positive airway pressure. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1988; 138: 1510-1514.
23. O'Donnell DE, Sanii R, Giesbrecht G, Younes M. Effect of continuous positive airway pressure on respiratory sensation in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease during submaximal exercise. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1988; 138: 1185-1191.
24. Palange P, Valli G, Onorati P, Antonucci R, Paoletti P, Rosato A, Manfredi F, Serra P. Effect of heliox on lung dynamic hyperinflation, dyspnea, and exercise endurance capacity in COPD patients. *J Appl Physiol* 2004; 97: 1637-1642.
25. Eves ND, Petersen SR, Haykowsky MJ, Wong EY, Jones RL. Helium-hyperoxia, exercise, and respiratory mechanics in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2006; 174: 763-771.
26. O'Donnell DE, McGuire M, Samis L, Webb KA. General exercise training improves ventilatory and peripheral muscle strength and endurance in chronic airflow limitation. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1998; 157: 1489-1497.
27. O'Donnell DE, Bain DJ, Webb KA. Factors contributing to relief of exertional breathlessness during hyperoxia in chronic airflow limitation. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1997; 155: 530-535.
28. Belman MJ, Botnick WC, Shin JW. Inhaled bronchodilators reduce dynamic hyperinflation during exercise in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1996; 153: 967-975.

29. Sinderby C, Spahija J, Beck J, Kaminski D, Yan S, Comtois N, Sliwinski P. Diaphragm activation during exercise in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2001; 163: 1637-1641.
30. Polkey MI, Kyroussis D, Keilty SE, Hamnegard CH, Mills GH, Green M, Moxham J. Exhaustive treadmill exercise does not reduce twitch transdiaphragmatic pressure in patients with COPD. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1995; 152: 959-964.
31. Luo YM, Moxham J. Measurement of neural respiratory drive in patients with COPD. *Respir Physiol Neurobiol* 2005; 146: 165-174.
32. Qin YY, Steier J, Jolley C, Moxham J, Zhong NS, Luo YM. Efficiency of neural drive during exercise in patients with COPD and healthy subjects. *Chest* 2010; 138: 1309-1315.
33. Stubbing DG, Pengelly LD, Morse JL, Jones NL. Pulmonary mechanics during exercise in normal males. *J Appl Physiol* 1980; 49: 506-510.
34. Stubbing DG, Pengelly LD, Morse JL, Jones NL. Pulmonary mechanics during exercise in subjects with chronic airflow obstruction. *J Appl Physiol* 1980; 49: 511-515.
35. Yan S, Kaminski D, Sliwinski P. Reliability of inspiratory capacity for estimating end-expiratory lung volume changes during exercise in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1997; 156: 55-59.
36. O'Donnell DE, Bertley JC, Chau LK, Webb KA. Qualitative aspects of exertional breathlessness in chronic airflow limitation: pathophysiologic mechanisms. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1997; 155: 109-115.
37. Bellemare F, Grassino A. Force reserve of the diaphragm in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *J Appl Physiol* 1983; 55: 8-15.



**Table 1.** Subject characteristics

Subject Characteristics	Non-Hyperinflators (n = 65)	Hyperinflators (n = 65)
Males : Females (n)	44 : 21	44 : 21
Age (years)	60 ± 7	62 ± 7
Height (cm)	171 ± 8	170 ± 9
Mass (kg)	73.5 ± 18.4	74.6 ± 15.6
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	25.1 ± 5.6	25.7 ± 4.2
Smoking history (pack-years)	48.1 ± 23.5	48.9 ± 25.3
Duration of COPD (years)	9.8 ± 8.0	7.8 ± 6.4
FEV <sub>1</sub> (L)	1.41 ± 0.45	1.38 ± 0.47
FEV <sub>1</sub> (% predicted)	50 ± 14	50 ± 13
FVC (L)	2.78 ± 0.79	2.96 ± 0.79
FVC (% predicted)	70 ± 16	76 ± 15 *
FEV <sub>1</sub> /FVC (%)	51.1 ± 10.9	46.7 ± 11.1 *
FEV <sub>1</sub> /FVC (% predicted)	71 ± 16	66 ± 15.3 *
FEF <sub>25-75</sub> (L/sec)	0.61 ± 0.37	0.52 ± 0.29
FEF <sub>25-75</sub> (% predicted)	21 ± 12	18 ± 9
IC (L)	2.16 ± 0.62	2.22 ± 0.68
IC (% predicted)	75 ± 18	78 ± 20
IC/TLC	30.6 ± 7.5	29.9 ± 7.6
TLC (L)	7.08 ± 1.17	7.50 ± 1.52 ‡
TLC (% predicted)	115 ± 15	122 ± 16 *
FRC (L)	4.92 ± 1.00	5.27 ± 1.28 ‡
FRC (% predicted)	151 ± 30	161 ± 33 †
RV (L)	4.12 ± 1.00	4.29 ± 1.20
RV (% predicted)	196 ± 48	201 ± 49
Raw (cmH <sub>2</sub> O/L/sec)	5.58 ± 2.72	5.46 ± 2.04
Raw (% predicted)	425 ± 215	413 ± 155
W <sub>peak</sub> (W)	81 ± 28	86 ± 32
W <sub>peak</sub> (% predicted)	55 ± 20	58 ± 17
VO <sub>2peak</sub> (L/min)	1.25 ± 0.41	1.27 ± 0.47
VO <sub>2peak</sub> (mL/kg/min)	17.2 ± 4.9	16.9 ± 4.8
VO <sub>2peak</sub> (% predicted)	65 ± 23	67 ± 18

BMI = body mass index; FEV<sub>1</sub> = forced expiratory volume in 1 second; FVC = forced vital capacity; FEF<sub>25-75%</sub> = forced expiratory flow between 25 and 75% of FVC; IC = inspiratory capacity; TLC = total lung capacity; FRC = functional residual capacity; RV = residual volume; Raw = airways resistance; W<sub>peak</sub> = peak incremental cycle work rate; VO<sub>2peak</sub> = peak oxygen consumption obtained during an incremental cycle test. Values are means ± SD. \* Significantly different between groups ( $P < 0.05$ ); †  $P = 0.05$ ; ‡  $P = 0.08$ .

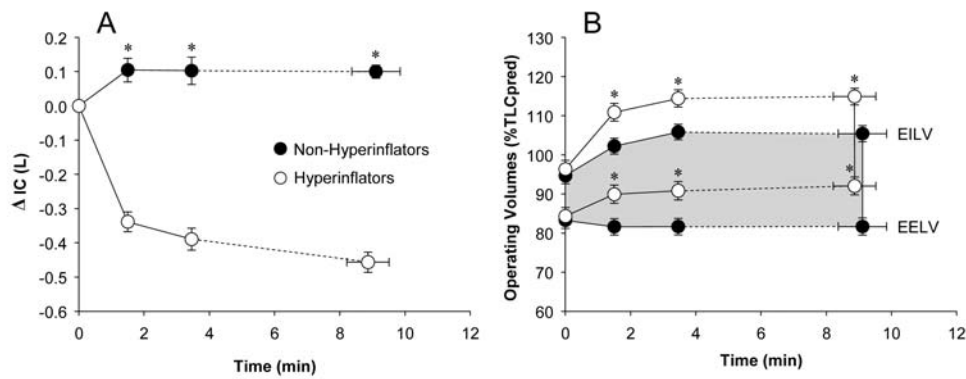
**Table 2.** Measurements during exercise at the tidal volume/ventilation inflection point and at symptom-limited peak

	<b>V<sub>T</sub>/V<sub>E</sub> Inflection</b>		<b>Peak</b>	
	<b>Non-Hyperinflators (n=61)</b>	<b>Hyperinflators (n=62)</b>	<b>Non-Hyperinflators (n=65)</b>	<b>Hyperinflators (n=65)</b>
Work rate (W)	63 ± 21	66 ± 25	63 ± 21	66 ± 25
Time (min)	2.81 ± 1.41	2.47 ± 1.29	9.11 ± 5.98	8.87 ± 5.24
IC (L)	2.13 ± 0.59	1.99 ± 0.59	2.10 ± 0.57	1.87 ± 0.57 *
ΔIC from rest (L)	0.14 ± 0.34	-0.34 ± 0.26 *	0.10 ± 0.15	-0.46 ± 0.24 *
IC/TLC (%)	30 ± 7	27 ± 7 *	30 ± 8	25 ± 7 *
V <sub>T</sub> /IC (%)	72 ± 16	73 ± 12	72 ± 16	77 ± 12 *
EELV (%TLC)	70 ± 7	73 ± 7 *	70 ± 8	75 ± 7 *
EILV (%TLC)	91 ± 5	92 ± 4	91 ± 6	94 ± 4 *
V <sub>E</sub> (L/min)	35.8 ± 11.4	35.1 ± 10.8	44.4 ± 14.1	44.9 ± 14.1
V <sub>E</sub> /MVC <sub>pred</sub> (%)	76 ± 24	78 ± 21	94 ± 27	98 ± 24
VO <sub>2</sub> (L/min)	1.10 ± 0.36	1.08 ± 0.38	1.25 ± 0.40	1.26 ± 0.44
V <sub>T</sub> (L)	1.50 ± 0.47	1.43 ± 0.44	1.48 ± 0.45	1.41 ± 0.40
F <sub>b</sub> (breaths/min)	24.8 ± 6.4	25.2 ± 5.3	30.9 ± 7.0	32.2 ± 6.2
IRV (L)	0.62 ± 0.41	0.56 ± 0.32	0.61 ± 0.40	0.46 ± 0.31 *
IRV (%TLC)	9 ± 5	8 ± 4	9 ± 6	6 ± 4 *
Dyspnoea (Borg)	3.5 ± 1.5	3.1 ± 1.7	6.8 ± 2.1	6.5 ± 2.3
SpO <sub>2</sub> (%)	94 ± 3	94 ± 3	93 ± 5	94 ± 4
ΔSpO <sub>2</sub> from rest (%)	-1.6 ± 2.4	-1.7 ± 2.2	-2.4 ± 3.5	-2.5 ± 3.4

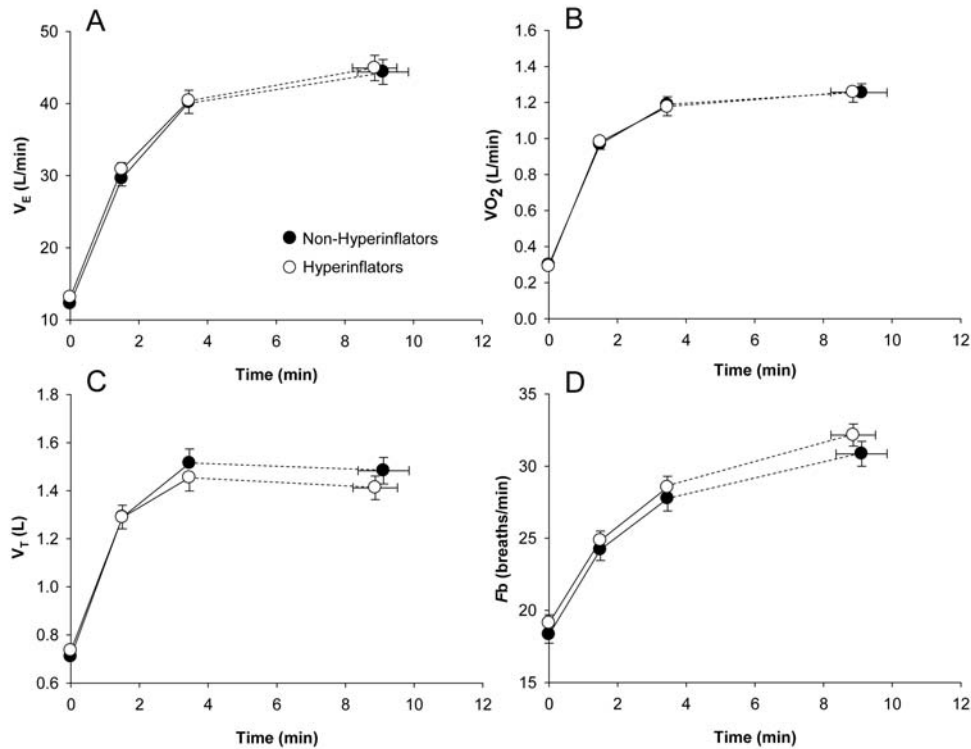
Tidal volume (V<sub>T</sub>) inflection data are from subjects with a detectable V<sub>T</sub> inflection and peak data are from all subjects. IC = inspiratory capacity; TLC = total lung capacity; V<sub>T</sub> = tidal volume; EELV = end expiratory lung volume; EILV = end inspiratory lung volume; V<sub>E</sub> = minute ventilation; MVC<sub>pred</sub> = predicted maximal ventilatory capacity based on forced expiratory volume in 1 second multiplied by 35; VO<sub>2</sub> = oxygen uptakes; F<sub>b</sub> = breathing frequency; IRV = inspiratory reserve volume; SpO<sub>2</sub> = pulse oximetry derived oxygen saturation. Values are means ± SD. \* Significantly different between groups (*P*<0.05).

## FIGURE LEGEND

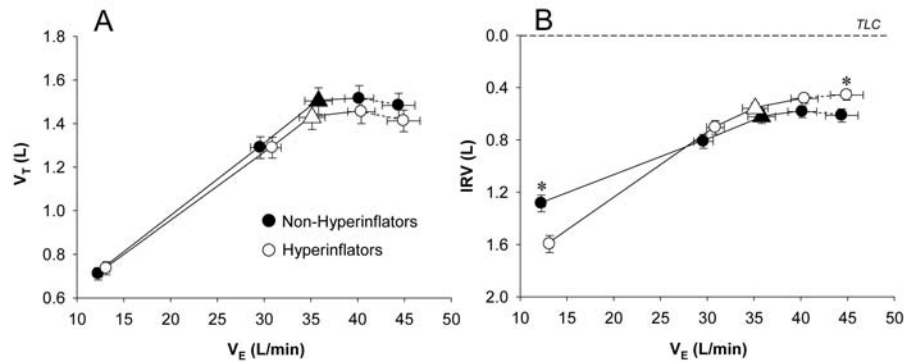
**Figure 1.** Change in inspiratory capacity from rest ( $\Delta$ IC) and operating lung volumes are plotted against constant work rate exercise time in hyperinflators and non-hyperinflators. Dashed lines are from the last standardized measurement time to peak exercise. Total lung capacity in the hyperinflators and non-hyperinflators were 122 and 115% predicted, respectively. EELV, end-expiratory lung volume; EILV, end-inspiratory lung volume. Shaded region represents tidal volume in the non-hyperinflators. Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SE. \*  $P < 0.05$  significant difference between groups at a given time point.



**Figure 2.** Ventilation ( $V_E$ ), oxygen consumption ( $VO_2$ ), tidal volume ( $V_T$ ), and breathing frequency ( $F_b$ ) versus constant work rate exercise time in hyperinflators and non-hyperinflators. Dashed lines are from the last standardized measurement time to peak exercise. Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SE.



**Figure 3.** Tidal volume ( $V_T$ ) and inspiratory reserve volume (IRV) versus ventilation ( $V_E$ ) in hyperinflators and non-hyperinflators. Dashed lines are from the last standardized measurement time to peak exercise. Triangles represent data at the  $V_T/V_E$  inflection. TLC, total lung capacity. Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SE. \*  $P < 0.05$ .



**Figure 4.** Dyspnoea versus constant work rate exercise time, ventilation ( $V_E$ ), and inspiratory reserve volume (IRV) in hyperinflators and non-hyperinflators. Dashed lines are from the last standardized measurement time to peak exercise. Triangles represent data at the tidal volume inflection point. TLC, total lung capacity. Shaded region represents the critical or minimal IRV where dyspnoea intensity ratings deviate from linearity and increase vertically. Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SE.

