



UPPSALA
UNIVERSITET

*Digital Comprehensive Summaries of Uppsala Dissertations
from the Faculty of Medicine 982*

Assessing Physical Activity and Physical Capacity in Subjects with Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease

MIKAEL ANDERSSON



ACTA
UNIVERSITATIS
UPSALIENSIS
UPPSALA
2014

ISSN 1651-6206
ISBN 978-91-554-8905-2
urn:nbn:se:uu:diva-220602

Dissertation presented at Uppsala University to be publicly examined in Gunnesalen, Akademiska sjukhuset, ingång 10, Uppsala, Friday, 9 May 2014 at 13:00 for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Faculty of Medicine). The examination will be conducted in Swedish. Faculty examiner: Docent Ann Ekberg-Jansson (Göteborgs Universitet).

Abstract

Andersson, M. 2014. Assessing Physical Activity and Physical Capacity in Subjects with Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease. *Digital Comprehensive Summaries of Uppsala Dissertations from the Faculty of Medicine* 982. 64 pp. Uppsala: Acta Universitatis Upsaliensis. ISBN 978-91-554-8905-2.

The overall aim of this thesis was to assess measurement properties of methods suitable for screening or monitoring of physical capacity and physical activity in subjects with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), and to explore factors associated with physical activity levels.

Methods: Four observational studies were conducted. Participants in studies I-III (sample sizes) (n=49, n=15, n=73) were recruited from specialist clinics, and in study IV from a population-based cohort (COPD n=470 and Non-COPD n=659). Psychometric properties of methods assessing physical capacity (study I) and physical activity (study II) were investigated in laboratory settings. Daily physical activity and clinical characteristics were assessed with objective methods (study III) and with subjective methods (study IV).

Results: Physical capacity as measured by walking speed during a 30-metre walk test displayed high test-retest correlations ($ICC > 0.87$) and small measurement error. The accuracy for step count and body positions differed between activity monitors and direct observations. In study III 92% of subjects had an activity level below what is recommended in guidelines. Forty five percent of subjects' activity could be accounted for by clinical characteristics with lung function (22.5%), walking speed (10.1%), quadriceps strength (7.0%) and fat-free mass index (3.0%) being significant predictors. In study IV, low physical activity was significantly more prevalent in COPD subjects from GOLD grade \geq II than among Non-COPD subjects (22.4 vs. 14.6%, $p = 0.016$). The strongest factors associated with low activity in COPD subjects were a history of heart disease, OR (CI 95%) 2.11 (1.10-4.08) and fatigue, OR 2.33 (1.31-4.13) while obesity was the only significant factor in Non-COPD subjects, OR 2.26 (1.17-4.35).

Conclusion: The 30 meter walk test and activity monitors are useful when assessing physical capacity and physical activity, respectively in patients with COPD. Impaired physical activity in severe COPD is related to low lung function, low walking speed, low muscle strength and altered body composition, whereas comorbidities and fatigue are linked to insufficient physical activity in patients with moderately severe COPD.

Keywords: COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, physical activity, measurement properties, reliability, accuracy, validity, sedentary behavior, activity monitor, questionnaire, anthropometrics, comorbidity, fatigue

Mikael Andersson, Department of Neuroscience, Physiotherapy, Box 593, Uppsala University, SE-75124 Uppsala, Sweden.

© Mikael Andersson 2014

ISSN 1651-6206

ISBN 978-91-554-8905-2

urn:nbn:se:uu:diva-220602 (<http://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn:nbn:se:uu:diva-220602>)

*“If it can't be expressed in figures, it
is not science; it is opinion”*

Robert A. Heinlein

List of Papers

This thesis is based on the following papers, which are referred to in the text by their Roman numerals.

- I Andersson M, Moberg L, Svantesson U, Sundbom A, Johansson H, Emtner M. (2011) Measuring walking speed in COPD: test-retest reliability of the 30-metre walk test and comparison with the 6-minute walk test. *Primary Care Respiratory Journal*, 20(4):434–40.
- II Andersson M, Janson C, Emtner M. (2014) Accuracy of three activity monitors in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease - A comparison with video recordings. *COPD [accepted for publication]*.
- III Andersson M, Slinde F, Grönberg AM, Svantesson U, Janson C, Emtner M. (2013) Physical activity level and its clinical correlates in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: a cross-sectional study. *Respiratory Research*, 1 (14) 128.
- IV Andersson M, Stridsman C, Rönmark E, Lindberg A, Emtner M. (2014) Physical activity and fatigue in subjects with COPD – A population-based study [*in manuscript*].

Reprints were made with permission from the respective publishers.

Contents

Introduction.....	11
Definition of COPD	11
Pathology.....	11
Indicators of COPD.....	12
Characteristics of COPD	12
Treatment of COPD	13
Physical activity –definition of terms and public recommendations.....	14
Methods for quantifying physical activity	16
Reliability and validity of assessment methods.....	17
Physical activity in COPD.....	18
Physical capacity in COPD	19
Rationale for this thesis	20
Aims.....	21
Methods	22
Design and ethics	22
Participants and procedures.....	22
Study I.....	25
Study II	25
Study III.....	25
Study IV.....	25
Data collection.....	26
Results.....	32
Study I	32
Study II.....	33
Study III	35
Study IV	37
Discussion.....	39
Physical capacity	39
How to assess walking performance.....	39
What does walking speed reflect?	39
Physical activity levels and associated factors in COPD	41
Factors associated to activity levels in a selected sample.....	41
Factors associated to activity levels in a population-based sample	41

Objective measures of activity and sedentary behaviors	43
Method discussion	44
Clinical application and future perspectives	45
Conclusions.....	46
Swedish summary	47
Syfte	47
Delarbete I	47
Delarbete II.....	47
Delarbete III.....	48
Delarbete IV	48
Acknowledgements.....	50
References	53

Abbreviations

6MWT	6-Minute Walk Test
30mWT	30-metre Walk Test
BMI	Body Mass Index
COPD	Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease
GOLD	The Global initiative for Obstructive Lung Disease
EE	Energy Expenditure
FEV1	Forced Expiratory Volume in one second
FVC	Forced Vital Capacity
FFM	Fat-Free Mass
FFMI	Fat-Free Mass Index
ICC	Intraclass Correlation Coefficient
ISWT	Incremental Shuttle Walk Test
IPAQ	International Physical Activity Questionnaire
mMRC	Modified Medical Research Council
OLIN	Obstructive Lung disease In Northern Sweden
RMR	Resting Metabolic Rate
SEM	Standard Error of Measurement

Introduction

Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) is a chronic inflammatory disease, characterized by non-reversible airflow obstruction (1). COPD is a leading cause of morbidity and mortality, and was ranked as the third leading cause of death in the world 2010 (2). The prevalence of COPD is estimated to be about 9-10% from the age of 40 (3) and the disease has implications reaching far beyond the lungs and airways. The fact that the condition is chronic means that treatment is directed towards symptom relief, halting progression and minimizing the impact on daily life. Although the condition is chronic, there are many possibilities for treatment, and the condition is not to be seen as static.

Definition of COPD

The current updated report from the Global initiative for Obstructive Lung Disease (GOLD) defines COPD as follows: “*COPD, a common preventable and treatable disease, is characterized by persistent airflow limitation that is usually progressive and associated with enhanced chronic inflammatory response in the airways and lungs to noxious particles or gases. Exacerbations and comorbidities contribute to the overall severity in individual patients*” (1).

Pathology

The primary cause of COPD is inhalation of particles (usually tobacco smoke) that gives rise to an inflammatory response in the lung parenchyma and small airways. The inflammation leads to mucosal hyper secretion (4), remodeling of small airways (5), increased airway resistance, loss of alveolar detachments and decreased elastic properties of the lung (5). Primary smoking is the dominant risk factor for developing disease, but exposure to secondary smoke is also associated with COPD (6). In developing countries noxious particles can be

Altered mechanical properties of the lungs, increased dead space ventilation, increased ventilatory demands, deconditioning and peripheral muscle dysfunction (7), contributes to the ventilatory limitations in subjects(8). The

inability to rapidly expire air leads to incomplete emptying of the lungs, particularly during exercise (9). In flow limited subjects, increasing expiratory effort beyond a critical point only contributes to further worsening of the flow limitation (8) and increased sensations of dyspnea relating to a discrepancy between inspiratory muscle effort and ventilatory output (10).

Indicators of COPD

Key indicators of COPD include: progressive and persistent dyspnea, chronic cough, chronic sputum production, and a history of exposure to risk factors, particularly tobacco smoke (1). If one or several of the indicators are present, spirometry should be performed to confirm or refute the diagnosis of COPD. A post bronchodilator value for the ratio of forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV₁) by the Forced Vital Capacity (FVC) below 0.7 indicates an obstructive spirometric pattern (1).

If airway obstruction is confirmed, subject's post bronchodilator FEV₁ expressed percent of predicted values can be used to grade the severity of airway obstruction according to the system proposed by GOLD (1) (table 1).

Table 1. Grading of airflow obstruction according to GOLD.

All values are intended as post-bronchodilator FEV ₁ in patients with a ratio of FEV ₁ /FVC < 0.70:		
GOLD I	Mild	FEV ₁ ≥ 80% predicted
GOLD II	Moderate	50% ≤ FEV ₁ < 80% predicted
GOLD III	Severe	30% ≤ FEV ₁ < 50% predicted
GOLD IV	Very Severe	FEV ₁ < 30% predicted

FEV₁ = forced expiratory volume in one second; FVC = forced vital capacity; GOLD = the Global initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease

An exacerbation of COPD is defined as a worsening of the patient's respiratory symptoms that is beyond normal day-day variations and leads to a change in medication. By combining lung function measurements, symptoms and exacerbation history, assessment of risk of future exacerbations is possible and now recommended as a complement to the spirometric classification (1).

Characteristics of COPD

Cardinal symptoms of COPD are dyspnea and fatigue, often leading to limitations in daily life (11). Co-morbid conditions contribute to the over-all burden in the individual patient and cardiovascular, metabolic, musculoskel-

etal dysfunction, systemic inflammation and osteoporosis are commonly reported comorbid conditions (12)(13).

The complexity of the disease has been suggested to form a “vicious cycle” (14) where the pulmonary manifestations interact in a complex manner to impact patient’s health status and health related quality of life through deconditioning, activity limitations and symptoms of dyspnea and anxiety (figure 1). The complexity strongly supports the need for an integrated treatment that extends beyond pharmacological alternatives.

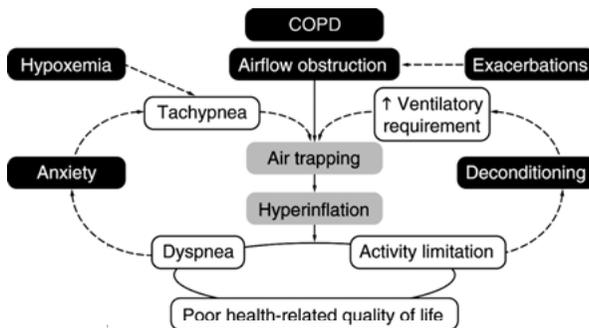


Figure 1. The vicious cycle of symptoms and physical inactivity in COPD. Troosters *et al. Respiratory Research* 2013 **14**:115 (15)

Treatment of COPD

Treatment can be divided into two main directions; pharmacological and non-pharmacological treatment, which are often combined.

The goal of pharmacological therapy is to reduce symptoms frequency and severity of exacerbations as well as to improve health status and exercise tolerance (1). The greatest potential for impacting the progression of COPD is smoking cessation in subjects who are active smokers (16). The damage that has been inflicted to the lung parenchyma and airways it is not recovered, but the rate of the decline in lung function is reverted to the expected age-related decline seen in non-smokers. The pharmacological treatment is directed towards respiratory symptoms; bronchodilators (Beta₂-agonists and anticholinergics) are prescribed as regular and relief treatment, and in addition inhaled corticosteroids are indicated in patients at higher risk of exacerbations.

The term non-pharmacological treatment is usually synonymous with pulmonary rehabilitation. Pulmonary rehabilitation is described as an integrated care model which has been proposed to “*be an integral part of the clinical management of all patients with chronic respiratory disease, ad-*

addressing their functional and/or physiologic deficits”(17). Key parts of the pulmonary rehabilitation include physical exercise, nutritional counseling and patient education, with the aim of improving patients’ participation in everyday activities and reducing activity limitations (1)

The limitations in activity becomes evident when comparing physical activity patterns in subjects with COPD to that of healthy subjects: In COPD, more time is spent in sedentary behaviors (sitting and lying) and less time walking and standing up (18)(19)(20). Regular physical activity is reported to be preventive for a number of health conditions; diabetes, cancer, cardiovascular disease, hypertension, depression, osteoporosis and obesity (21). This indicates that the lower activity levels observed in COPD could place these subjects at risk for several other conditions. The severity of low physical activity was highlighted in the 2009 report from the World Health Organization (WHO) on the burden of disease and mortality attributable to various risk factors. The WHO concludes that physical inactivity constitutes the fourth leading risk factor for global mortality (22). Support for the need of extra vigilance in regards to activity levels in COPD comes from cross-sectional data comparing physical activity in healthy with that of subjects with chronic diseases (23). Insufficient physical activity was common in healthy (60%), but significantly more prevalent in rheumatoid arthritis (74%) and diabetes mellitus (72%) and particularly in COPD (82%). From a health care perspective, physical activity (and inactivity) should be seen as a modifiable risk factor in the population, and of particular importance in a sedentary population such as COPD.

Physical activity –definition of terms and public recommendations

Physical activity is defined as “Any bodily movement produced by skeletal muscles that result in energy expenditure” (24). This is distinctly separate, although related, to the concept of **physical fitness** which is defined as “a set of attributes people have or achieve that relates to the ability to perform activities”. If activities are “planned, structured, repetitive and purposive in the sense that improvement or maintenance of one or more components of physical fitness is the objective” it is labeled **exercise**. The health-related components of physical fitness (considered equivalent to the term **physical capacity** used in this thesis) can be further subdivided into cardio-respiratory endurance, muscular endurance, muscular strength, body composition and flexibility (24). The complete assessment and description of subjects’ physical activity or exercise habits would need to include information on four more dimensions: *i*) **frequency**, the number of time the activity/event has oc-

curred, *ii*) **duration**, time invested in a single bout of activity, *iii*) **intensity**, the physiological effort associated with performing it, *iv*) the **type** of activity performed (25). The **volume** indicates the total amount activity accumulated in a specific time period and is the result of the frequency, duration and intensity of the performed activities.

The recommended amount of weekly physical activity for individuals aged 65 years and above, or individuals with chronic non-communicable conditions, is to achieve a weekly volume of at least 150 minutes of moderate intensity aerobic physical activity, accumulated in bouts of a minimum 10 minute duration, *or* by performing higher intensity activities for a shorter total duration (75 minutes) *or* any combination of the above (22). In addition to aerobic activities, muscle-strengthening exercises should be performed two times per week according to the same guidelines. The recommendations recognizes that in elderly subjects or those with chronic conditions affecting their ability to perform activities, smaller volumes of activity is probably still beneficial and should be encouraged. Furthermore, the intensity of activities should be interpreted relative to the fitness level of the individual.

As reflected in the definition of physical activity, a key construct relating to physical activity is movement. Movement can be expressed in terms of behaviors individuals exhibit (active or sedentary), or by their resulting physiological attributes (energy expenditure, increased/decreased fitness) (26) (figure 2). The separation of behavioral aspects of movement from the associated physiological attributes is necessary as a guide in selecting the appropriate type of measurement tool for the quantification of the aspect of interest.

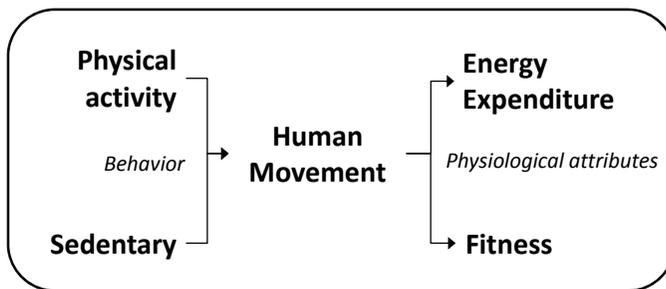


Figure 2. Graphical representation of the relationships between the behavioral aspects of human movement and the related physiological attributes. Inspired by the framework by Pettee Gabriel, Morrow and Woolsey (26).

The term **physical inactivity** can be used to describe the state of subjects not reaching the recommended level of activity, whereas sedentary is considered as a separate entity. **Sedentary behavior** has been defined as “activities that do not increase energy expenditure substantially above the resting level and

includes activities such as sleeping, sitting, lying down (27). Sedentary behavior has been linked to increased risk for metabolic syndrome and mortality, effects that are present even if the recommended physical activity level is achieved (28)(29). However, whether these observations on sedentary behaviors and their associated risks are valid for subjects with COPD is not yet established.

Clear evidence of positive health outcomes from physical activity (21)(30), and emerging evidence of detrimental effects from sedentary behaviors (31) highlights the need for reliable and valid methods for quantifying all aspects of human movement.

Methods for quantifying physical activity

Two principal methods can be applied for quantifying the behaviors of physical activity and sedentary behavior as well as the physiological attributes; objective and subjective methods (32).

Objective methods

There are several methods that are considered “objective” in the sense that the data collected is not dependent on subject’s report and recall of events. The type of objective method to utilize depends on aspects such as economical, practical (need of specialist personnel) or availability, but should primarily be guided by the research question at hand (25). Different methods are needed for capturing behavioral aspects of movement than the physiological attributes resulting from the behavior (figure 2).

To estimate energy expenditure (EE), a physiological attribute, in daily life the doubly labeled water technique can be applied (33). The technique is limited by very high costs associated with the analysis, and by the fact that the only outcome consists of the total energy expended. No data on type, intensity, duration or frequency can be derived. To achieve greater level of details on both the behavioral and the physiological attributes of subject’s movement in daily life, different types of activity monitors can be utilized. These are devices worn on the body to register movement (acceleration). The simplest form of device is pedometers, a spring-loaded devices that measures vertical movement of the body and translates this into steps·unit time⁻¹ (e.g. per day). More sophisticated motion sensors, accelerometers, register both the rate and magnitude of movement (34). These devices register accelerations (gravitational forces) in one, two or three planes depending on the type of accelerometer used.

A subdivision of accelerometers can be made with regard to the primary outcome they provide; EE-devices, or body-positional devices (35). The EE-types record raw acceleration data (counts) and averages these counts over a specific time frame (epoch). The outcome is an estimate of the time spent at different intensity levels (moderate, vigorous or sedentary) and often step

count is reported as a measure of ambulatory activity. The body-positional device either attempts to determine the body position through an algorithm that assesses the accelerometer signal, or uses inclinometers to track the position of the device (and thereby the body segment by which it is attached). Other approaches such as integrating physiologic sensors to improve the estimated energy expenditure are also available (36).

The accuracy of activity monitors has been shown to be negatively affected in subjects with slow movement patterns, such as COPD (37).

Subjective methods

If data is collected based on patients recollection of events the method is said to be subjective. To assess physical activity (or sedentary) behaviors by subjective methods, questionnaires, recall forms or record/log books of activity can be utilized (32). Typically questionnaires are designed to collect data on the four dimensions relating to the activity behavior; frequency, intensity, type and duration. With these data, physiological attributes relating from the reported activity can be estimated using standard tables of energy expenditure for various types of activities (38). Advantages of subjective measures compared to objective methods are low costs and ease of administration which makes it a feasible method for large scale, epidemiological studies (39). Drawbacks include uncertainty of subjects to recall activities, and concerns regarding the construct validity in many of the questionnaires have been raised (40). Some types of activities, such as eating behaviors are often underreported, whereas physical activity is over reported (41).

Reliability and validity of assessment methods

Reliability of assessment methods

All performance based tests are affected by several sources of error contributing to variability in the measurement, including learning effects, motivational aspects and the biological variability in human performance. In measurement theory, the score of an individual is only an *observed score*. This means that inherent in every observed score is both the *true score* and some degree of *error*. In the 6-minute walk tests, an increase in the distance walked between two test occasions, attributed two a learning effect, ranges between 0-17% (42). To separate variability in scores due to different sources of error, reliability studies must be conducted for the specific instrument and population for which it is to be applied. The information can then be used to assess whether differences in performance are due to a real treatment effect or possibly be accounted for by measurement error.

Reliability is a term describing the consistency or reproducibility of measurements across different occasion, or to assess the consistency between different raters (43). There are several ways in which reliability could be

evaluated, and several statistical methods can be applied (44). One of the most common analyses is assessing same individuals at two occasions, separated by a short time frame and analyzing the agreement between them, *test-retest reliability*. The Intraclass Correlation Coefficients (ICC) are often applied, but should be complemented by methods analyzing the differences between tests (45)(43). The time between occasions in a test-retest study should be long enough to avoid fatigue from the first test to affect the latter, but short enough to avoid the underlying construct to change.

Validity of assessment methods

Validity pertains to the question of whether an instrument measures what it is intended to measure (46). If a new method is introduced to complement or replace an established one, the criterion validity of the new method should be addressed. This is achieved by comparing the new instrument with a well established method (the criterion) for the area of interest using correlation analysis. The type of criterion chosen should be based on the construct of interest.

Recommendation on how to perform and report validation studies on activity monitors are to compare several different activity monitors against a specific criterion in the same study (47). In this way criterion validity can be assessed for each activity monitor, and by comparing the agreement between monitors against the criterion the concurrent/convergent validity can also be assessed. Most studies examining the validity of activity monitors have been in healthy young subjects with only limited evidence in disabled populations (48). The various ways that different activity monitors process, filter and analyze the accelerometer signal means that although identical outputs are reported by different activity monitors, equivalency cannot be assumed if validation studies in the intended population are not available (47).

Physical activity in COPD

When assessed by objective methods, the physical activity level in subjects with COPD is low compared to healthy controls (18)(19)(20)(49)(50). The consequences of low physical activity can be severe in COPD, as indicated by a longitudinal population-based study; among subjects reporting some degree of physical activity (low, moderate or high), the risks of both hospital admission and all-cause mortality were decreased (51). The authors also observed that this protective effect of at least some regular physical activity persisted when reanalyzing groups stratified by age, disease severity and history of heart disease. In active smokers moderate (≥ 2 h/week) to high (≥ 4 h/week) amounts of light activity has been associated with a reduction in lung function decline and seem to protect against the development of COPD (52). Pitta et. al showed, using activity monitors, that patients with low activ-

ity (time spend walking) were more likely to have been admitted for exacerbations the proceeding year, and to be admitted during the year following the current exacerbation (53). Low activity levels among subjects with COPD are associated with worse health related quality of life (23), and increased activity levels are associated with improved quality of life (54). Some caution is needed in the interpretation of the latter studies since the physical activity was assessed with subjective methods.

The traditional pulmonary rehabilitation efforts have been targeting the physical capacity dimension, assuming that improvements in capacity will spill over to activity, but also by the associations between impaired in physical capacity and increased mortality.

Physical capacity in COPD

Systemic effects of COPD are observed in several aspects of physical capacity; altered body composition, muscle dysfunction and impaired exercise capacity are frequently observed and associated with increased mortality.

The impact of weight change, as measured by reduction in body mass index (BMI) on mortality was investigated in the population-based Copenhagen City Heart Study (55). Increased risk of mortality was observed for weight loss of >3 units of BMI in both COPD and non-COPD, whereas weight gain was associated with mortality in non-COPD only (55). The association between mortality and BMI has been described as U-shaped in the general population with the least risk attributable to subjects of normal weight (BMI 20.0-29.9 kg/m²) and higher risks at both the low and high end of the BMI continuum (56). In COPD, low weight (BMI<20) has been associated with increased risk of mortality (57). Since BMI does not take into account the distribution of weight loss in the different body compartments, the risks associated with loss of fat-free mass (FFM) has been investigated (58). Vestbo et al. observed that despite having a BMI in the normal range, 26% of subjects had a FFM below the 10th percentile of a healthy population. The authors concluded that both BMI and FFM was predictors of mortality, but that FFM was an independent predictor even in cases of normal BMI, therefore contributing complementary information in clinical practice. Since the main proportion of FFM is muscle mass, an impaired body composition could be expected to have implications for functional performance and exercise capacity.

Reduced maximal quadriceps strength has been shown to be linked to impaired exercise capacity when assessed by a field walk test, whereas the maximal exercise capacity mainly was associated with lung function (59). The impairment in muscle function can be complex as both the maximal strength and endurance capacity can be affected. When comparing both these aspects in a sample of subjects with COPD and elderly controls, both maxi-

mal strength and endurance were reduced in COPD (60). Coronell et al. observed that reduced endurance was independent of physical activity and present already in mild airway obstruction. They also noted that impaired endurance could not be predicted based on their subjects maximal strength measurements.

In assessing whether functional capacity is impaired the use of exercise tests have been recommended as a global sign of the integrated response of the involved systems (61). The type of test to conduct in clinical setting is often dictated by practical issues of having access to the necessary equipment and limited time at hand (62). This has led to the development of several field tests of exercise capacity, and in COPD most have been targeting walking performance. Walking has usually been assessed by the maximal distance covered in fixed time (6 or 12 minutes) (42)(63), or by the distance walked at a constant (64) or incremental speed (65). A reduced walking distance in COPD has been shown to be a better indicator of progression of disease than lung function (66), and distance walked in a 6MWT has been recommended as an outcome in clinical trials (42), useful for predicting mortality (67), exacerbations (68), and as an outcome of pulmonary rehabilitation (69).

When assessing the complex picture of impairments reported in COPD, clearly no test of function is likely to be able to capture the full range of possible impairments. The degree of airway obstruction is not likely to reliably reflect body composition, symptoms and subjects performance. In an attempt to improve the predictive capabilities of physical capacity measures, Celli et al. derived a composite index of several known risk factors; BMI, airway Obstruction, Dyspnea and Exercise capacity (BODE-index)(70). They demonstrated that the predictive capabilities were improved when assessed as a composite score than as individual predictors in their sample, indicating the need of comprehensive assessment of patients.

Rationale for this thesis

Although several field exercise tests have been developed and proven successful in identifying individuals at risk of exacerbations and mortality (66), the time required to perform them as well as the strain placed on patients makes implement into clinical practice challenging. Low levels of activity in daily life is a risk factor for exacerbations (53) and mortality (51). New objective assessment methods could prove useful for exploring both sedentary behaviors as well as supplying detailed information on physical activity behaviors in COPD if their validity for behavioral aspects proves adequate. The identification of factors distinguishing subjects suitable for pulmonary rehabilitation is still highly relevant given the positive effects thereof.

Aims

The overall aim of this thesis was to assess measurement properties of methods suitable for screening or monitoring of physical capacity and physical activity levels in subjects with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, and to explore factors associated with daily physical activity levels.

The specific aims of the studies included in this thesis were:

To examine test-retest reliability of the 30-metre walk test in subjects with COPD and to compare the 30-metre walk test with the 6-minute walk test (*Study I*).

To assess the accuracy and equivalency of three activity monitors regarding steps, body position and their ability to differentiate between periods of physical activity and inactivity in subjects with moderate to very severe COPD (*Study II*).

To explore the clinical characteristics of physical activity in subjects with moderate to very severe COPD, with special emphasis on variables that are amendable through rehabilitation efforts (*Study III*).

To assess physical activity levels in a population-based sample of subjects with and without COPD, and to investigate which factors that would be associated with low physical activity in these groups (*Study IV*).

Methods

Design and ethics

The thesis consists of four observational studies, based on four samples (table 2). Participants in all studies were given verbal and written information about the aim, methods and procedures of the specific study and gave their informed consent to participate. All studies were approved by the respective regional ethical review board (EPN); **studies I and III** were approved by the EPN in Gothenburg (D-nr: 408-05), and **study II** by the EPN in Uppsala (D-nr: 2009/093). **Study IV** was approved by the Regional Ethics Committee at University Hospital of Northern Sweden and Umeå University.

Participants and procedures

All participants in **studies I and III** had diagnose of COPD and were recruited by convenience sampling from the pulmonary units at Uppsala University Hospital, Uppsala and/or Sahlgrenska University Hospital, Gothenburg. Participants in **study II** were recruited from the pulmonary unit at Uppsala University Hospital. **Study IV** was based on an outpatient sample from the population based Obstructive Lung disease In Northern Sweden (OLIN) COPD study cohort, consisting of subjects with and without COPD. Sample characteristics are presented in table 3. In **studies I-III** treatment with long term oxygen therapy was an exclusion criterion. In **study II** a $FEV_1 > 80$ percent of predicted was also applied as exclusion criteria. In **study III** other conditions known to affect muscular tissue or performance (such as chronic heart failure, renal failure, rheumatic disease, diabetes or severe arthritis) were grounds for exclusion.

Table 2. Overview of study designs, sample sizes, inclusion criteria and procedures of the studies included in the thesis.

	Study I	Study II	Study III	Study IV
Design	Observational (Descriptive, correlative)	Observational (Descriptive)	Observational (Descriptive, correlative)	Observational (Cross-sectional cohort)
Inclusion criteria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $FEV_1/FVC < 0.70$ • Ability to perform walk tests 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $FEV_1/FVC < 0.70$ • Stable condition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FEV_1/FVC of 2 SR below reference population • ≥ 10 pack years • Stable disease 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $FEV_1/FVC < 0.70$ • Complete IPAQ
Sample size, (n)	49	15	73	1129
Type of data collected	Functional performance Lung function	Physical activity Video observation Lung function	Objectively assessed physical activity Functional performance Detailed anthropometrics Blood samples Lung function	Questionnaires (physical activity, fatigue) Structured interview Lung function
Main analysis strategy	Bland-Altman SEM ICC	Bland-Altman Friedmans ANOVA ICC	Multiple linear regression	Binary logistic regression

1 pack year = 20 cigarettes/day x 365; FEV_1 = forced expiratory volume in one second; FVC = forced vital capacity; SR = standardized residuals; IPAQ = International physical activity questionnaire; SEM = standard error of measurement; ICC = intraclass correlation coefficient; Bland-Altman = mean vs. difference analysis with accompanying graphical presentation

Table 3. Overview of the sample characteristics for studies included in the thesis. Numbers are mean and standard deviations or proportions if not otherwise stated.

Characteristic	Study I (n = 49)	Study II (n = 15)	Study III (n = 73)	Study IV (n = 470 COPD) (659 Non-COPD)
Age (years)	67 ± 8	64 ± 6	65 ± 7	68 ± 10
Gender, male/female (n)	16/31	7/8	28/44	257/213
BMI (kg/m ²)	25 ± 6	21 ± 3	24 ± 4.7	27 ± 4
FEV ₁ (L)	1.20 ± 0.49	1.13 ± 0.39	1.11 ± 0.43	2.26 ± 0.52
FEV ₁ % pred. (%)	46 ± 17	37 ± 12	43 ± 15	82 ± 18
(F)VC (L)	2.77 ± 0.85	2.97 ± 0.81	2.61 ± 0.80	3.48 ± 1.02
FVC % pred. (%)	83 ± 22	77 ± 21	83 ± 20	105 ± 19
GOLD grade I/II/III/IV (n)	1 / 19 / 18 / 9	0 / 3 / 8 / 4	1/18/37/16	309/148/11/2
Current smokers (%)	17%	38*	28%	25%
				8%

*= pack years (1 pack year = 20 cigarettes/day x 365); n/a = not applicable; FEV₁ % pred. = forced expiratory volume in one second; FVC = forced vital capacity; FEV₁ % pred. = FEV₁ in percent of predicted value; FVC % pred. = FVC in percent of predicted value.

Study I

A total of 49 subjects were recruited, 25 in Uppsala and 24 in Gothenburg. Potential subjects were identified from patient registries and study representatives contacted them by telephone to inform about the purpose of the study and to assess eligibility against inclusion criteria. Subjects were consecutively invited to two clinical visits. At the first visit inclusion criteria was confirmed and four walk tests were performed; two 30-metre walk tests and two six minute walk tests. At the second visit, approximately seven days later and at the same time of day, a retest of the 30mWT was conducted.

Study II

Seventeen subjects were approached and 15 accepted participation. The same physiotherapist (MA) was responsible for screening of subjects and recruitment to the study. Subjects were consecutively included until the target sample size of 15 had been reached. At the clinical visit, subjects performed a structured protocol of 53 minutes comprised of different activities mimicking daily life of subjects with COPD. When performing the protocol subjects wore all three activity monitors simultaneously while being video recorded. After completion of the protocol measurements, subjects were asked to simultaneously wear all three monitors during one day at home.

Study III

Seventy-three subjects were recruited from the pulmonary unit at Sahlgrenska University Hospital in Gothenburg, Sweden. Eligible subjects matching the inclusion criteria were contacted by telephone. Subjects who gave their oral consent were sent detailed information on the study by post and the first of three clinical visits were scheduled. At the first visit a spirometry was performed, each subject's resting metabolic rate was measured and blood-samples were drawn. At the second visit, walk tests were performed and anthropometrics measured. At the end of the visit subjects were fitted with the activity monitor and given instruction and information regarding its application and use. The instruction to subjects was to wear the monitor for seven days and then return it by prepaid mail.

Study IV

Participants consisted of subjects from the OLIN COPD study in the county of Norrbotten, Sweden. The OLIN COPD cohort was formed from previous population-based OLIN cohorts that were re-invited for clinical visits including lung function measurements between years 2002-2004. Subjects with a

ratio of FEV₁/FVC ratio < 0.70 (n = 993) were defined as cases with COPD, and from the same population a similar age and gender-matched control group was formed by subjects with a FEV₁/FVC > 0.70 (n = 993). These groups formed the OLIN COPD study which has been invited for yearly examinations since 2005.

In **study IV** all subjects in the OLIN COPD cohort that attended the clinical visit in 2008 were eligible for participation. Inclusion criteria were: complete data on the International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ), and having performed spirometry assessments. Subjects were grouped into COPD and Non-COPD based on the spirometry performed at the clinical visit 2008.

Data collection

Lung function

If no recent spirometry data measurements (within six months) were available in patient's records, dynamic spirometry was performed to ascertain inclusion criteria of the respective study. Spirometry was performed according to guidelines (71) and reference values were applied to assess disease severity. Reference values of the European Community for Coal and Steel (72) were used in **studies I-III** and in **study IV** reference values by Berglund were applied (73).

Definition of chronic airway obstruction: A fixed ratio of FEV₁/ (F)VC < 0.70 was used in studies I, II and IV. In study III a ratio of > 2 standardized residuals below the reference population was used.

Grading of airway obstruction: Based on a subject's FEV₁ in percent of predicted value, the four-grade spirometric classification proposed by the GOLD committee was applied (74) (FEV₁ ≥ 80 % predicted = GOLD I, FEV₁ 79-50 % predicted = GOLD II, FEV₁ 49-30 % predicted = GOLD III, FEV₁ < 30 % predicted = GOLD IV).

Symptoms

Dyspnea (Studies I, III, IV)

The modified Medical Research Council dyspnea scale (mMRC) (75) was used to assess dyspnea. The scale is a five item self-complete adjectival scale ranging from 0: "I only get breathless with strenuous exercise" to 4: "I am too breathless to leave the house or I am breathless when dressing". The maximum score is 4, indicating the worst dyspnea.

Fatigue (Study IV)

The Functional Assessment of Chronic Illness Therapy-Fatigue scale (FACIT-F) was used (76). FACIT-F is a 13-item self-reported Likert scale

with five options per item. Questions relate to both the intensity and impact of fatigue during the last seven days and scored on as follows: (score) *Not at all (0), A little bit (1), somewhat (2), Quite a bit (3), Very much (4)*. Maximum score is 52 indicating less fatigue, which is achieved by reversing scores for negatively phrased questions. A difference of 3-4 points has been reported as the minimal important difference (77).

Definition of clinically significant fatigue: In study IV a score ≥ 3 points below the median person of the Non-COPD group was considered indicative of clinically significant fatigue.

Anthropometrics

Body weight and height (studies I, II, III, IV)

A wall-mounted stadiometer was used to measure a subject's height (cm), and body weight was measured to the nearest 0.1 kg. BMI was calculated as bodyweight/body height squared (kg/m^2).

Fat-free mass (study III)

Dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry (DEXA) (Lunar Prodigy, GE Healthcare, United Kingdom) was used to measure body composition in **study III**. Fat-free mass (FFM) was measured in grams and normalized to the subject's height into a fat-free mass index (FFMI). FFMI was calculated as FFM-weight/body height squared (kg/m^2).

Definition of FFM-depletion: FFM depletion was defined as a FFMI ≤ 15 for women or ≤ 16 for men, as proposed by Vermeeren et al. (78).

Definition of sarcopenia: Sarcopenia was defined as a lean appendicular mass, corrected for height squared, of two standard deviations below the mean of a healthy young reference group in combination with usual walking speed $< 1.0\text{m}/\text{s}$ and/or low muscle strength (79).

Functional performance

Walking speed (Studies I, III)

The 30-metre walk test (30mWT) was used to assess the time needed to cover a 30-metre distance at two walking speeds: *self-selected* and *maximal speed*. The outcome of the test is the time(s) needed to cover the 30-metre distance, from which the mean self-selected and maximal speeds (m/s) are derived.

Definition of slow walking: In study III a self-selected walking speed of $1.0\text{ m}/\text{s}$ was used as a cut-off for normal walking speed (80). Reference values for walking speed from Bohannon et al. were applied in study I (81).

Walking distance (Study I, II, III)

The six-minute walk test (82) (6MWT) was used to measure the maximal distance covered in six minutes when walking at a self-selected speed. The

test was performed in a quiet, 30 metre corridor and standardized according to guidelines (42). The outcome of the test is distance (m) covered in six minutes. Reference values for walking distance from Enright and Sherrill were applied in study I (83).

Muscle strength (study III)

The maximal knee-extensor strength was measured by isometric dynamometry using the *SteveStrong dynamometer* (SteveStrong HB, Gothenburg, Sweden). The outcome used was the maximal strength (N) obtained from either leg.

Definition of quadriceps weakness: Muscle weakness was defined as a maximal quadriceps strength ≥ 1.645 standardized residuals below the reference population (84).

Physical activity – objectively assessed

Accelerometry was used in **study II**. The accelerometers included were: the DynaPort ADL-monitor (McRoberts, The Hague, Netherlands), the DynaPort MiniMod (McRoberts, The Hague, Netherlands) and the BodyMedia SenseWear Armband, pro3 (SenseWear, BodyMedia, Pittsburg, USA). Monitor accuracy was assessed for the following indices of physical activity: *step count, body positions and pattern of energy expenditure rates*. Physical activity level was dichotomized based on daily step count from one day of measurement in the subject's home setting as active (≥ 4580 /day) or inactive (<4580 /day) (85).

In **study III**, the ActiReg activity monitor (Premed AS, Oslo, Norway) was used. The main outcome is energy expenditure calculated using the ActiCalc software (Premed AS, Oslo, Norway). By incorporating a subject's resting metabolic rate, the relationship of the total energy expenditure and resting energy expenditure can be expressed as a ratio; the physical activity level (PAL) (86).

Definition of activity levels: Subjects mean PAL value from seven days of measurement was used to categorize their lifestyle as; very inactive (PAL <1.40), lightly active (PAL 1.40-1.69), active or moderately active (PAL 1.70-1.99) or vigorously active (PAL 2.00-2.40)(86).

Physical activity – self-reported

The International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ) (87), specifically the culturally adapted short version (88), was used in **study IV** to assess habitual physical activity levels. The outcomes from IPAQ is expressed categorically as *low, moderate* or *high* physical activity level, alternatively expressed as a body weight adjusted estimate of total weekly activity, MET-minutes performed at health enhancing levels (at least moderate intensity) (89).

Definition of low physical activity: In **study IV** subjects not reporting weekly physical activity equivalent to at least 30 minutes of moderate activity or walking on five days or more, were categorized in the IPAQ low category (89).

Resting metabolic rate

In **study III** resting metabolic rate (RMR) was measured using a ventilated hood system (Deltatrac II, Datex, Helsinki, Finland). Measurements were performed after overnight fast (12h) with subjects well rested, in the supine position and in a temperature-neutral environment. The mean energy expenditure rate from the last 25 minutes of a 30-minute measuring period was used to determine the RMR.

Systemic inflammation (study III)

In **study III** venous blood samples were used to assess systemic inflammation. Blood samples were drawn after overnight fast (12h). Systemic inflammation was assessed by C-reactive protein (CRP) and conducted according to standardized procedures at the Department of Clinical Chemistry, Sahlgrenska University hospital, Gothenburg.

Structured interview questionnaire (study IV)

In **study IV** a structured interview questionnaire was used to collect data on subject characteristics, medication, respiratory symptoms and comorbidity. The questionnaire has been used in previous studies (90)(91).

Statistical methods and data management

All statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics (IBM Corporation, New York, United States) versions 17, 19, 21 or 22. An overview of analysis methods are presented in table 4. Missing values in studies I, II and IV were treated by pairwise deletion. In study III the multiple imputation technique was used to impute missing values for independent variables in the regression model. Statistical significance was declared at $p < 0.05$ in all studies.

Table 4. Data analysis methods in studies I-IV.

Methods	Study I	Study II	Study III	Study IV
Descriptive analyses				
- Median and/or range	X	X	X	X
- Interquartile range		X	X	X
- Numbers and frequencies	X	X	X	X
- Mean and standard deviation	X		X	X
Inferential analyses				
- Paired t-test	X	X		
- Mann-Whitney U test	X		X	X
- Wilcoxon Signed rank test	X	X		
- Kruskal-Wallis test			X	X
- Analysis of variance	X			
- Friedman´s ANOVA		X		
- Spearman´s correlation coefficient for ranked data	X	X	X	
- Pearson´s product moment correlation coefficient	X		X	
- Linear regression	X		X	
- Logistic regression				X
Psychometric analyses				
- Intra class correlation coefficient	X	X		
- Standard error of measurement	X			
- Bland-Altman analysis	X	X		

The analysis strategy was based on the type of data collected (categorical or continuous) and the distribution of collected data. For methods assuming normal distribution, normality was assessed graphically using histograms and through tests of normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test). Non-normally distributed variables and categorical data were analyzed by non-parametric methods or transformed to normalize the data.

Psychometric analyses

In **study I** *absolute reliability and agreement* in walking speed and walking distance was assessed using the method proposed by Bland and Altman with accompanying graphical presentation (45) and by the SEM method. *Relative reliability* was assessed using correlation analysis ($ICC_{2,1}$).

In **study II** the correlation between the step count from the three activity monitors and manually counted steps from video recordings was analyzed by $ICC_{2,1}$ and complemented by the Bland-Altman method to allow for assessment of accuracy/agreement. Differences between devices in step count during specific walking tasks of the protocol as well as time spent in different body positions were analyzed by Friedman's ANOVA.

Multivariate analyses

In **study III** the explanatory capabilities of a set of objectively measured variables (not reported by subjects) on variations of physical activity levels were assessed by hierarchical linear regression. PAL measured by activity

monitor was used as the dependent variable. Age, gender, FEV₁ in percent predicted, self-selected walking speed, quadriceps strength, FFMI and CRP were included as independent variables. Assumptions for regression (linearity, presence of outliers and/or multicollinearity between independent variables) were assessed by scatter plots, standardized residuals (<3) Cook's distance (<1) variance inflation factor (<10) respectively. Two cases were identified as potential outliers but retained as they were deemed as true extremes of the population, not resulting from selection bias or faulty measurements.

In **study IV** variables associated with a low physical activity level were explored using binomial logistic regression. The two levels of the dependent variable were based on having a low physical activity level or not in the IPAQ questionnaire. Age, gender, FEV₁ in percent of predicted value, BMI, history of heart disease, smoking status and clinically significant fatigue were chosen as covariates. The same model was fitted separately on subjects with COPD and those without COPD. Assumptions were assessed by Cook's distance (< 1) and standardized residuals (<3).

In both **study III** and **study IV** independent variables were selected based on prior knowledge and/or for exploratory reasons.

Results

Study I

Both the self-selected and maximal speeds were lower than reference populations and decreased in comparable degree to the walking distance (table 5).

Table 5. Walking speeds and distance at the two test occasions. Percent predicted values are not reported in the published paper.

Test	Test 1	% Pred.	Test 2	% Pred.
ss-30mWT, (m/s) (n=47)	1.14 ± 0.20	87 ± 15	1.15 ± 0.18	88 ± 14
ms-30mWT, (m/s) (n=47)	1.55 ± 0.28	83 ± 17	1.60 ± 0.30	85 ± 17
6MWT, (m) (n=35)	413 ± 99	85 ± 22	435 ± 104	89 ± 23

% Pred. = Compared to reference values based Bohannon et al (81) for walking speed and Enright and Sherrill for walking distance (83); ss-30mWT=self-selected speed from the 30-metre walk test; ms-30mWT=maximal speed from the 30-m walk test; 6MWT=six-minute walk test

In both self-selected and maximal speeds measurement error was small (SEM % 5.9 and 4.4 respectively) and comparable to that of the 6MWT (SEM % 4.7) (table 6). In the maximal speed 30mWT a small bias of 0.05 m/s ($p=0.04$) between test occasions was identified. High correlation coefficients between the 30mWTs and the best 6MWT (all $ICC_{2,1} > 0.70$), indicated good criterion validity of the 30mWT for measuring functional performance.

Table 6. Reliability of the 30mWT and 6MWT

Test	$ICC_{2,1}$ (95 % CI)	d (95 % CI)	SEM	SEM %
ss-30mWT (n=47)	0.87 (0.78 to 0.93)	0.01 (-0.04 to 0.01)	0.07	5.9
ms-30mWT (n=47)	0.93 (0.87 to 0.97)	0.04 (-0.07 to -0.02)	0.07	4.4
6MWT (n=35)	0.94 (0.75 to 0.98)	22.0 (12.5 to 32.0)	20.01	4.7

ss-30mWT=self-selected speed from the 30-metre walk test; ms-30mWT=maximal speed from the 30-m walk test; 6MWT=six-minute walk test; $ICC_{2,1}$ =intraclass correlation coefficient; SEM=standard error of measurement; SEM %=Standard error of measurement expressed as a percentage.

Study II

Step count and body positions

Manually counted steps from the video observations were median (IQR) 1824 (252) and the corresponding data from the activity monitors were: ADL-monitor = 1700 (398), MiniMod = 1799 (290) and SenseWear Armband = 1269 (570).

Compared to video recordings, the MiniMod underestimated time in locomotion (77 %, $p=0.001$) and overestimated time in sitting (121 %, $p=0.001$) whereas the ADL-monitor overestimated time standing (114 %, $p=0.004$) and underestimated time in locomotion (92 %, $p=0.001$). The SenseWear Armband did not recognize any body position. Details on time spent in different body positions are presented in table 7.

Physical activity level during one day of home measurement

Step count captured from the MiniMod was 3364 (2851- 5101) and from the SenseWear Armband 2489 (2873-4694) and the difference was not statistically significant ($p=0.427$) (figure 3).

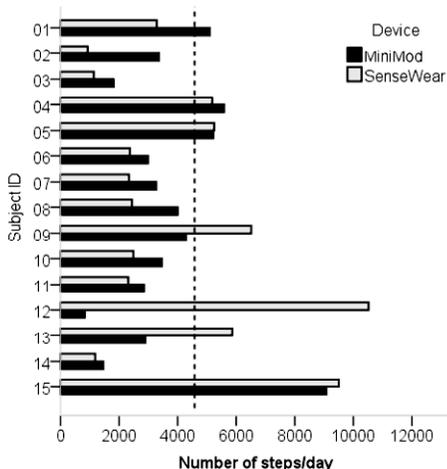


Figure 3. Step count captured from the MiniMod and SenseWear Armband during one day of home measurements. The dotted line represents the cut-off (4580 steps) associated with severe physical inactivity (85).

Table 7. Step count and time in different body positions captured on video and from activity monitors. Values are medians (1st-3rd quartiles).

Device	Type of walking activity performed (steps)					Body position (seconds)		
	(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	(F)	(G)	
Video	597 (574-641)	417 (376-424)	511 (468-543)	288 (258-315)	352 (333-374)	1109 (1077-1137)	347 (335-367)*	
ADL-monitor	583 (505-639)	393 (420-312)	480 (414-552)	258 (207-310)	360 (330-360)†	1080 (1020-1080)*†	420 (360-420)	
MiniMod	594 (561-594)	419 (424-365)	509 (469-542)	264 (254-300)	363 (360-365)	1334 (1257-1621)	283 (154-351)	
SenseWear	524 (406-600)*†	63 (0-220)*‡§	434 (358-506)*†	223 (163-270)*†	Not detected	n/a	n/a	

Sample size: Video n = 15, ADL-monitor n = 13, MiniMod n = 15, SenseWear n = 14. n/a = not applicable. A= walking slow and fast on the level; B = walking with roller; C= walking with backpack; D= walking intermittent and stair climbing; E= lying; F=sitting; G=standing. * = p<0.05 for difference to video; †= p<0.01 for difference to MiniMod; §= p<0.01 for difference to ADL-monitor; ‡< 0.05 compared to video.

Study III

Physical activity level

The majority of subjects (92 %) were *very inactive or sedentary*, four subjects were *active or moderately active* and two subjects were classified as *vigorously active*.

Factors associated with varying physical activity levels

FEV₁ accounted for the largest proportion (22.5 %) of the explained variability in PAL when adjusting for age and gender. Self-selected walking speed added further improvements to the model (10.1 %) as did quadriceps strength (7.0 %) and FFMI (3 %). No significant contribution to the model was seen for age, gender or CRP when adjusting for previous variables entered.

The fit of the final model was $R^2 = 0.45$ ($p < 0.001$) (figure 4).

By further analyzing the modifiable variables that contributed to the model, 30 subjects (41.7 %) had an abnormally low walking speed, 15 (20.8 %) had quadriceps weakness and 35 (48.6 %) were FFM-depleted (figure 5).

Additional analysis not included in the publication:

Sarcopenia with reduced mobility was present in 13 (18 %) of subjects.

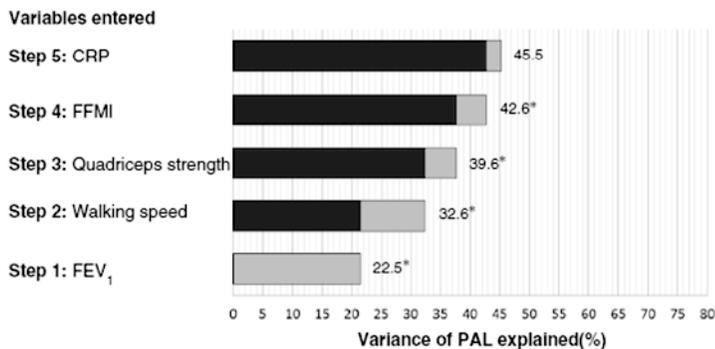


Figure 4. Hierarchical regression model, adjusted for age and gender. Light grey color represents proportion of variance gained at current step of the evolving model. Values outside is the total variance explained at current step; asterisk denotes a significant contribution to the model.

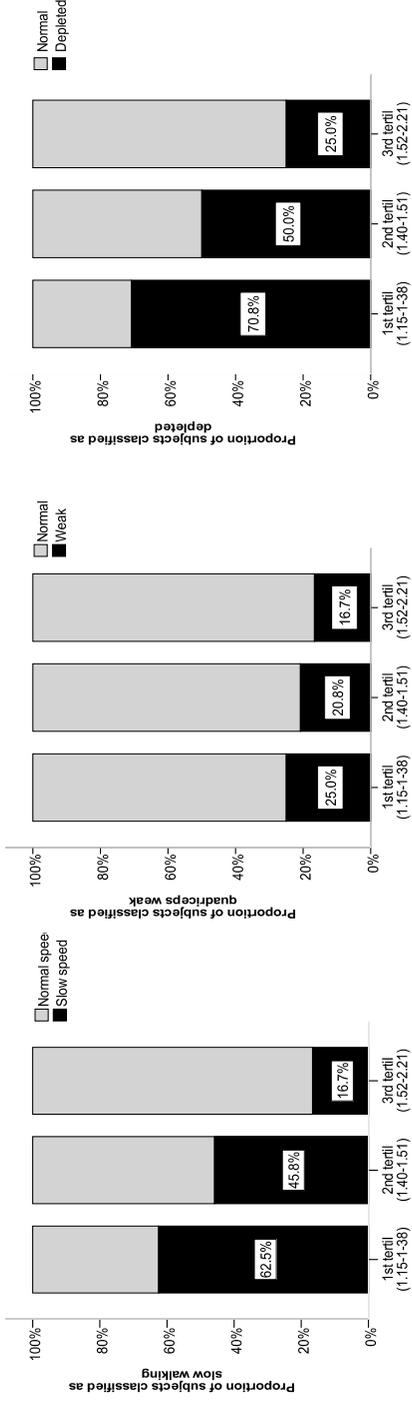


Figure 5. Distribution of subjects classified as abnormal according to clinical cut-offs for walking speed, muscle strength and fat-free mass. Y-axis shows the proportion of subjects in each tertile of physical activity level (PAL). 1st tertile indicates the least physically active, 3rd tertile the most active, (n= 24 in all tertiles of activity).

Study IV

Physical activity levels

Equal proportions (14.6 %) of subjects in Non-COPD and GOLD I were categorized as having *low physical activity level*. The proportion in IPAQ category *low* was increased from GOLD II (20.3 %) compared to Non-COPD ($p=0.016$) (figure 6).

In COPD 77.2 % of the total physical activity reported was accumulated from walking compared to 59.8 % in Non-COPD (figure 6).

Factors associated with low physical activity

- In subjects without COPD *low* physical activity was associated with obesity, OR 2.26 (1.17-4.35)
- In subjects with COPD, age, OR (1.12-2.06), a history of heart disease, OR 2.11 (1.10-4.08) and reporting clinically significant fatigue, OR 2.33 (1.33-4.13) were associated (table 8).

Table 8. Multivariate analysis of associations with low physical activity in non-COPD and COPD respectively. Numbers are odds ratios (OR) with upper and lower 95 % confidence interval (95 % CI).

Variables included	Non-COPD (n =607)		COPD (n = 435)	
	OR	95 % CI	OR	95 % CI
Age per 10 years	1.29	0.99 - 1.67	1.52	1.12 – 2.06
Gender (female = 1)	0.92	0.57 – 1.49	1.22	0.69 – 2.14
FEV ₁ per 10 %	0.94	0.80 – 1.10	0.90	0.77 – 1.05
Normal weight	1.00		1.00	
Underweight	0.91	0.18 – 4.47	0.21	0.02 – 2.08
Overweight	0.87	0.47 – 1.60	1.15	0.63 – 2.12
Obesity	2.26	1.17 – 4.35	0.44	0.18 – 1.07
Heart disease	0.89	0.47 – 1.66	2.11	1.10 – 4.08
Non-smoker	1.00		1.00	
Ex-smoker	0.76	0.46 – 1.26	0.85	0.41 – 1.75
Current smoker	1.21	0.51 – 2.89	1.62	0.72 – 3.65
Clinically significant fatigue (yes = 1)	1.28	0.79 – 2.07	2.33	1.31 – 4.13

Underweight = BMI < 20, Normal weight = BMI 20.0 -24.99, Overweight = BMI 25.0-29.99, Obesity = BMI >30; Missing data for FACIT-F in 87 cases (Non-COPD = 52, COPD = 35).

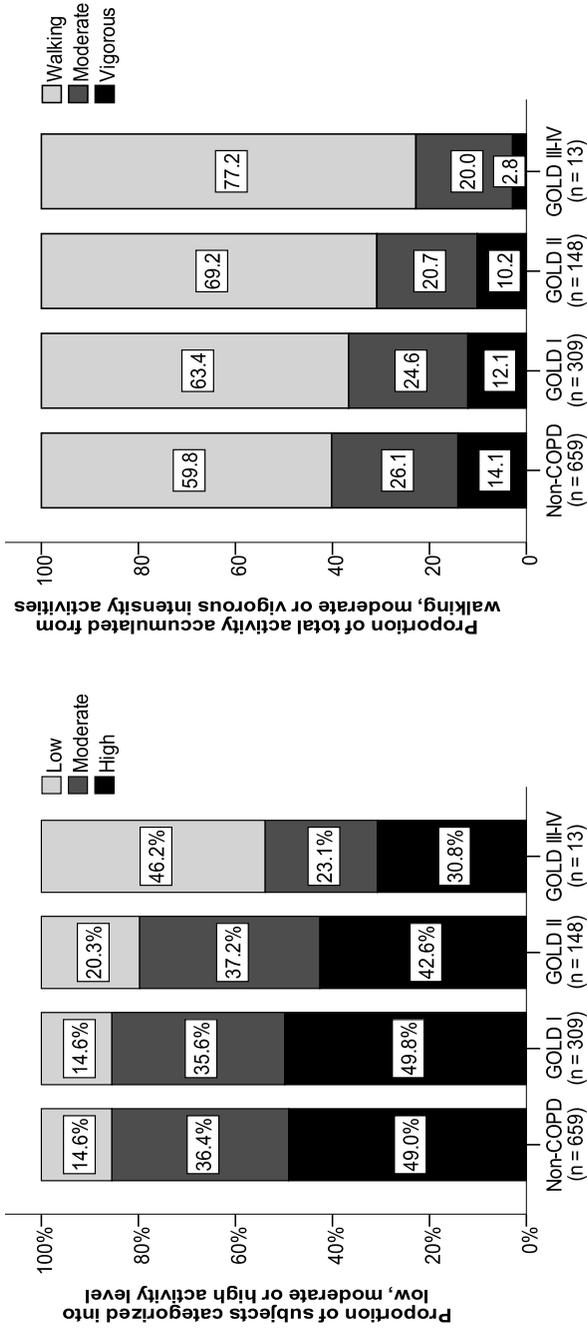


Figure 6. X-axis represents groups of varying lung function and y-axis represents proportions in each category of lung function: Left panel displays proportions of subjects categorized as *low*, *moderate*, or *high* physical activity level; right panel represents proportions of the total weekly physical activity accumulated from *walking*, *moderate* and *vigorous* activities. GOLD = Global initiative for Obstructive Lung Disease

Discussion

Physical capacity

How to assess walking performance

Our group was among the first to study walking performance in COPD from the aspect of walking speed. Previously, most studies assessed walking performance based on distance walked in a fixed time, such as in 2, 6 or 12-minutes (82) or in tests of fixed or incremental speed, as in the endurance shuttle walk tests (92) or incremental shuttle walk test (ISWT) (93).

The reliability of the 30mWT was comparable to the reliability of the 6MWT, as indicated by high correlation coefficients and low measurement errors. As we had expected, the physiological demands were much lower during the shorter walk test, whereas the 6MWT resulted in significantly more dyspnea and exertion.

A method suitable for clinical use should ideally be quick to complete, require little or none additional resources, give meaningful and easily interpretable information, and have little patient recovery time (62). A short test of walking speed seems to fit this description well. Since 2011, other groups have published data on walking speed in COPD (94)(95)(96)(97)

In a similar study design as ours, Kon et al. investigated the test-retest reliability of the 4-metre walk test and compared it with the ISWT (94). The 4-meter walk test was performed essentially in the same way as the 30mWT, but speed was measured over four meters. The authors reported very high test-retest coefficients, $r = 0.99$ and very similar associations to the comparison test ($r_s = 0.78$). The higher correlations and subsequently also smaller measurement errors of the 4mWT, SEM% = 1.8, might be accounted for by shorter test-retest interval (24-38h) or that a shorter distance might not allow subjects to alter their speed during the performance of the test, thereby decreasing variability.

What does walking speed reflect?

In COPD a 6-minute walk distance less than 350 m has been reported to predict mortality (98) and a walking distance less than 357m constitutes an increased risk of hospitalizations due to exacerbations (68). Although capable of supplying valuable information, the 6MWT is still not considered as

practical for clinical use because of the time needed to perform it, especially if a practice walk is performed, and the stress placed on subjects (62). By converting the 6MWD into 6-minute walking speed (distance in meters/360 seconds) the results are strikingly close to the walking speed cut-off value of 1.0m/s showed to be clinically meaningful as predictors of mortality in the elderly (99). Therefore it seems reasonable to assume that subjects with COPD having a walking speed <1.0 m/s should be a cause for concerns in clinical practice as it could, by proxy, be predictive of mortality. By applying this cut-off value of 1.0m/s for self-selected speed in study III we observed that among the lowest tertile of physical activity, 65% were “slow walkers”, identifying them as being at increased risk of mortality and exacerbations.

By applying a cut-off value of 0.80m/s Kon et al. reported that slow walking subjects had substantial deficits in health status, as measured by St George’s Respiratory Questionnaire, compared to those with preserved walk speed (94). As both health-status and physical activity seem impaired among the slowest moving subjects, walking speed could be useful as an important clinical marker of systemic effects of COPD.

The high correlation coefficients observed between the 30mWT and 6MWT as well as between the 4-m walk test and ISWT indicate that all these field test, although different in appearance and complexity, might be assessing a common underlying cause/construct.

A physiological model explaining impaired walking performance might be found in the concept of *critical power*. *Critical power* is a term describing the speed which one can endure almost indefinitely, that is by titrating work rate to remain below the ventilatory threshold (100). In subjects without lung disease, neither young nor old exceed the ventilatory threshold when walking at self-selected speeds (101). The same was observed in an study on subjects with COPD: that the speed chosen in the final three minutes of a 6MWT was highly correlated to subject’s *critical walk speed* (the maximal sustainable walking speed without exceeding the ventilatory threshold) (95). Remarkably stable walking speeds across all minutes of a 6MWT has been reported (97). Both the endurance time and the speed of walking has been shown to be responsive to pulmonary rehabilitation (96).

If applying a walk test to screen for increased risk of morbidity and mortality, then a short test of walking speed could potentially be equally useful as the longer 6MWT, but much more easily implemented into clinical practice. It should be recognized that the shorter test does not reveal any underlying physiological explanation to the impaired exercise capacity, such as oxygen desaturation, for which a longer test such as the 6MWT would be preferable, or a test of higher intensity such as the ISWT.

Physical activity levels and associated factors in COPD

Factors associated to activity levels in a selected sample

In the studies included in the thesis we have used both objective methods and subjective methods to assess the activity levels of our samples, and the methods have yielded substantially different results. When assessments were performed with an activity monitor, less than 10% of subjects were classified as sufficiently active. Although activity levels were generally low in the sample, some distinct patterns emerged. In the multivariate model, lung function in combination with walking speed emerged as the two variables most strongly associated with daily activity, alongside muscle strength and FFMI. A surprisingly large proportion of subjects was FFM-depleted and categorized as having a slow walking speed. It is likely that the subgroup of participants (18%) that showed a combination of both low FFM and impaired function, i.e. sarcopenia, would be of extra concern. Although these impairments were affecting mainly subjects in the lowest two tertiles of activity, these observations should not be interpreted as evidence for a causal chain between these impairments of capacity and a low physical activity, since the cross-sectional design of the study does not permit such a conclusion. However, sarcopenia could potentially be a determinant of physical activity, but that needs to be investigated in future studies of longitudinal design.

The need for studies of longitudinal design was recently highlighted in a systematic review where the evidence for determinants of activity as well as outcomes of activity were summarized (102). The authors concluded that the only two areas currently supported by moderately strong evidence as being outcomes of activity, were mortality and exacerbations. Furthermore, concluded that although many high quality cross-sectional studies have been performed, and potential determinants identified, the lack of longitudinal data makes any assumptions of causality invalid.

Factors associated to activity levels in a population-based sample

To our knowledge, we are the first study reporting on the relationship between physical activity and symptoms of fatigue in subjects with COPD. In our study, fatigue and a history of heart disease were associated with not reporting the recommended level of physical activity. This would identify these subjects as suitable for pulmonary rehabilitation, based solely on not achieving the recommended level of activity. This is supported by results from recent studies showing that subject with cardiovascular comorbidities (103) and subject with fatigue show (104) improvements in exercise capacity following pulmonary rehabilitation.

Our results highlight the importance of having accurate methods for quantifying walking behavior, especially in more severe COPD. If an intervention for increased physical activity behavior was to be implemented, clearly, methods able to accurately reflect changes in the activity most often performed would be desirable.

The IPAQ instrument is constructed so that only activities of at least moderate intensity is reported, corresponding to the recommended intensity for health enhancing physical activity (22). Using objective methods, subjects with COPD has been reported to move slower than healthy elderly controls (19), but the opposite has also been observed (18). Both situations could contribute to a non-differential miss-classification of subjects with COPD. If they were walking slower it could mean that they are more likely to achieve the minimum bout-length of 10 minutes, albeit at lower intensity than intended, on the other hand they were walking at higher intensities it would likely provoke symptoms of dyspnea and thereby fulfilling the criterion of vigorous intensity stated in the IPAQ: "*activities that take hard physical effort and make you breathe much harder than normal*". However, this misclassification would contribute to subjects being classified as more active than intended. The latter scenario is not likely to have impacted results in any substantial way given that the proportion of total activity reported in the vigorous category only constitutes less than 3 % of the total volume of physical activity. Whether walking actually constitutes a moderate activity in COPD has been investigated with activity monitors, by assessing the proportion of total time spent walking with the proportion of that time which corresponded to at least moderate intensity (105). The majority (82%) of subjects did accumulate 30 minutes of walking, but only 23% of total walking time was at moderate intensity. However, as stated in the guidelines, the intensity levels should be relative to the subject's fitness level, which an activity monitor is not capable of taking into account. The information from an activity monitor should therefore ideally, be combined with some measure of perceived exertion related to the performing of the activity.

The activity levels in study IV, although seemingly high, are in line with the 12-country reliability study of the IPAQ questionnaire, where 82% were reported as sufficiently active (87). Identical levels of activity existed between non-COPD and subjects with mild airway obstruction, and reduced activity levels were present from GOLD II. This is corroboratory of results from smaller samples assessed by objective methods (106)(107)(108). A PAL < 1.40 has been reported as the strongest predictor of 4 year mortality in subjects with COPD (109). Using subjective methods for assessing physical activity is still the most feasible option for large studies due to the costs and complexity of the objective methods.

Objective measures of activity and sedentary behaviors

The public recommendations for older adults state that 30 minutes of daily moderate intensity activity on five days of the week, accumulated in bouts of at least 10 minutes duration should be performed (22)(30). Furthermore, the health enhancing activities are to be accumulated *over and above* the light intensity activities performed as part of daily life. To ascertain whether recommended levels are met, the objective methods have a clear advantage in the details they are capable of capturing.

We hypothesized that activity monitors would not be equivalent in their ability to accurately capture physical activity in subjects with severe COPD. Problems for the early activity monitors in accurately detecting steps in slow moving subjects were reported (37). This was based on the fact that a multitude of different monitors were being applied in research, but the validity was not rigorously investigated. The new technology has great promise, theoretically, to be able to capture both physical activity behavior and sedentary behaviors of subjects.

By designing a study on the accuracy and equivalency of three activity monitors used in the field of COPD research, we were able to identify some weak spots of monitors which, if not taken into account, might bias results from a study of the most disabled and those using walking aids. The differences highlighted in study II were, we believe, primarily due to the placement of the respective device. An arm mounted monitor cannot reliably be used to assess physical activity in the form of step count if the subject is using a rollator, nor can time standing up be accurately captured from a device mounted at the lower back, if transitions between postures are not accompanied with a period of steps taken.

As a separate part of study II, we included one day of home measurements of subjects' activity levels. Although this did not allow for a comparison of monitors against a gold standard, the monitors could be compared against each other. If the pattern established under laboratory settings, a consistent underestimation of steps from the SenseWear Armband, would be mirrored in the free living data. Due to the small number of subjects in the study, it was possible to analyze data ongoing and wherever unsuspected discrepancies between monitors emerged, subjects was asked to recall what he/she had been doing at the time of the day. As confirmed in the laboratory setting, rollator use severely underestimates step count from the SenseWear Armband in home setting (ID 2), vibrations from a motorcycle caused the opposite error with increased step count from the SenseWear Armband (ID 13), and as could be expected, some subjects will not be compliant with wearing the devices (ID 12). The in step count from the SenseWear armband would however only affect the step count, not the energy expenditure estimates, since they rely on the added information from the physiological sen-

sors. It would however mean that detailed information on ambulatory activity in subjects using a rollator would be lost.

From study III we clearly see that few subjects are truly active in accordance with public guidelines. The ActiReg monitor used in study III falls somewhere between a EE-device and a body positional device, according to the classification by Granat (35). The ActiReg uses information on body positions and positional changes which is then used to estimate the energy expenditure (110). The monitors used in study II would have allowed us to assess the activity and sedentary behavior of the sedentary subjects in study III in greater detail. Patterns of sedentary behaviors or physical activity that can be identified through the real time activity monitoring could be used in forming individualized activity plans for subjects, if these aspects are adequately captured by the monitor. However, with support from the data in study II, some caution in the interpretation of the outcomes related to behavioral aspects is warranted.

We deliberately constructed a test protocol to be challenging to the particular monitors included in the study, and the results clearly show that the activities that were anticipated to be problematic for the monitors were confirmed as sources of error in the analysis.

One challenge in activity monitoring is deciding on whether or not to strictly apply the 10-minute bout criteria stipulated in the activity guidelines. From a physiological standpoint, a subject walking for nine minutes who is forced to stop for one minute is likely to obtain positive health aspects even if the 10-minute bout is interrupted. This means that although the activity monitor itself is objective in the collection of data, subjective judgment will be involved even in this process. The implication in regards to whether public guidelines are met will be very much impacted by this decision (111)(112). Hagströmer et al. reported that although more than 50% of subjects reached the recommended amount of weekly activity, only 1% had accumulated it according to the stipulated minimum bout of 10 minutes. This was later confirmed in a population-based sample from the United States where less than 5 % of adults achieved the recommended level when an 8-10 minute bout criteria was applied (112).

Method discussion

In studies I-III convenience sampling was used to identify potential subjects. Although more susceptible to introducing selection bias, the method was deemed as appropriate for the following reasons: In study I we had no prior knowledge regarding the 30mWT and how it would perform in subjects with varying disease severity and opted for a wider criteria to gain this knowledge. In study II the goal was to have a majority of subjects with severe disease, as these were expected to walk slower and pose greater challenges to the monitors (19). Regarding sample selection in study III subjects

with many of the common comorbid conditions (heart failure, diabetes) were purposely excluded. This was done to better be able to study the specific effects from COPD on physical activity levels, body composition and performance. Had we included many of the comorbid conditions present with COPD, the observed associations would have been expected to be stronger. These data are therefore likely conservative, but of the generalizability of the estimated associations should nonetheless be viewed in light of the sample used.

Study IV was based on subjects from an ongoing study cohort of subjects with and without COPD, originally recruited from representative samples of the population. However, a healthy survivor effect cannot be excluded in the COPD group, meaning that the subjects with better health are remaining in the study whereas those with more severe disease subjects drop out. In addition, because the categorization into COPD and Non-COPD were made solely on spirometric criteria using the fixed ratio of FEV_1/FVC , some misclassification may have occurred as a result (113). It is likely that symptomatic smokers in the Non-COPD group might be more limited than asymptomatic subjects defined as GOLD I.

Clinical application and future perspectives

To the clinician: we have shown that a test assessing walking speed in subjects with moderate to severe COPD is both tolerable to subjects, and feasible for a clinical settings. If given the chance to add two complementary objective assessments to your spirometry of moderate to severe COPD patients, walking speed and body composition should be prioritized. In less severe airway obstruction comorbid conditions and symptoms of fatigue should not be overlooked.

To the researcher: the importance of impaired walking speed and altered body composition as possible determinants of insufficient physical activity needs to be addressed longitudinally.

Conclusions

The 30-metre walk test is reliable in subjects with moderate and severe COPD. The walking speed in the 30-metre walk test is highly correlated to the distance walked in the 6-minute walk test.

Activity monitors are not equivalent in their abilities to detect steps and time in varying body positions among subjects with moderate to very severe COPD, but they display similar capabilities in capturing patterns of energy expenditure.

In addition to lung function, walking speed and muscle strength are important correlates of physical activity in subjects with moderate to very severe COPD. Further explorations of the longitudinal effects of the factors characterizing the most inactive subjects are warranted.

Physical activity levels are reduced in subjects with moderate to severe COPD. The factors associated with not reaching health-enhancing levels of physical activity in subjects with COPD were a history of heart disease and symptoms of fatigue, whereas in subjects without COPD obesity was the only associated factor.

Swedish summary

Kroniskt obstruktiv lungsjukdom (KOL) är en långsamt progredierande inflammatorisk lungsjukdom. Den största riskfaktorn för KOL är rökning, men andra faktorer kan inverka. Tillståndet är vanligt och år 2010 beräknades den vara den tredje vanligaste dödsorsaken i världen.

Vi behöver fler metoder som kan hjälpa oss att identifiera personer som skulle dra nytta av rehabiliteringsinsatser, för hjälp finns, men vi behöver bli bättre på att kunna identifiera de personer som har störst behov.

Syfte

Det övergripande syftet med avhandlingen var att undersöka metoder som kunde vara användbara för att upptäcka och följa påverkan av sjukdomen, samt även att studera vilken koppling som finns mellan fysisk aktivitet och eventuell andra faktorer som är påverkade vid sjukdomen.

Delarbete I

Det första delarbetet undersöker tillförlitligheten (reliabiliteten) i två tester av fysisk prestationsförmåga. Vi ville studera ett nytt test som inte använts inom detta område förut, 30-meters gångtest, och jämföra resultatet med ett väletablerat test, 6-minuters gångtest. Vi lät 49 personer med KOL genomföra två upprepningar av respektive test och jämförde sedan i) hur överensstämmelsen mellan testtillfällena för respektive test var, ii) hur påverkade personerna blev av att genomföra de olika testerna. Resultatet visade att överensstämmelsen mellan testtillfällena var hög (Korrelationskoefficienter ≥ 0.87 för alla jämförelser) samt att graden av mätfel var jämförbar mellan de olika typerna av test. Deltagarna var betydligt mer påverkade efter genomförandet av 6-minuters gångtest än 30-meters gångtest. Slutsatsen från delarbete I var att tillförlitligheten i 30-meters gångtest är god, och att det genom sin ringa påverkan på deltagarna skulle lämpa sig väl för användande i vården.

Delarbete II

Genom så kallade aktivitetsmätare kan man få en detaljerad bild av hur fysiskt aktiva personer är i sitt dagliga liv. Detta är apparater som fästs på

kroppen och som registrerar hur mycket och hur intensivt personen rör sig. Vi undersökte tre olika aktivitetsmätare (DynaPort MiniMod, DynaPort ADL-monitor, SenseWear Armband) avseende deras förmåga att korrekt registrera antalet steg och tid i olika kroppspositioner som våra deltagare utförde i ett standardiserat försök. Vid försöket fick 15 personer med svår KOL bära alla tre aktivitetsmätare samtidigt medan de utförde olika ett antal olika moment som efterliknar aktiviteter i vardagen. Alla försök videofilmades och överrensstämningen mellan mätarnas uppgifter och videofilmen analyserades. Resultatet visade att mätarna inte var likvärdiga i förmågan att korrekt identifiera steg och tid i kroppspositioner. Slutsatsen från arbetet var att valet av aktivitetsmätare behöver göras med vägledning av exakt vilken aspekt av aktivitet man önskar studera eftersom de visade sig vara olika bra på att mäta olika aspekter av aktivitetsbeteenden.

Delarbete III

Här studerade vi deltagares fysiska aktivitet med hjälp av en aktivitetsmätare samt undersökte deras fysiska prestationsförmåga och eventuell påverkan av sjukdomen, förutom lungfunktion, på ett flertal sätt: gångförmåga, muskelstyrka, kroppssammansättning och inflammationsmarkörer i blodet. De 72 deltagarna fick bära aktivitetsmätare under sju dagar. Vi analyserade hur den fysiska aktiviteten varierade i gruppen samt huruvida de olika markörerna för systemisk påverkan kunde förklara varför personerna hade olika grader av aktivitet. Resultatet visade att gruppen i stort var inaktiv, 92 % nådde inte upp till en aktivitetsnivå som är rekommenderad för bibehållande av hälsa. Vi fann att variationer i aktivitet till ca hälften (45 %) kunde förklaras av att man uppvisade olika grader av systemisk påverkan i testerna. De starkaste sambanden till aktivitet sågs för lungfunktion, gångförmåga, muskelstyrka och kroppssammansättning. Kön, ålder eller inflammatorisk aktivitet spelade inte roll. Slutsatsen blev att lungfunktion kan förklara en del av daglig aktivitet, men att även gångförmåga och muskelstyrka är starkt kopplat till aktivitetsnivån. Huruvida de karakteristika som utmärkte de mest inaktiva personerna innebär en särskild risk är något som behöver studeras i framtida studier.

Delarbete IV

I detta arbete undersökte vi deltagarnas aktivitetsnivåer genom ett frågeformulär. Även här studerade vi ett antal andra faktorer och huruvida de var kopplade till att inte uppnå rekommenderad grad av aktivitet. För att besvara dessa frågor inkluderades en grupp personer med KOL (470 stycken) och en grupp personer utan lungfunktionsnedsättning (569 stycken). Alla personer besvarade frågeformulär om sin fysiska aktivitetsnivå och sin förekomst av symptomet utmattning (fatigue). Dessutom besvarade deltagarna frågor om

andningsrelaterade symptom, förekomst av andra sjukdomar, rökvanor samt registrerade uppgifter om deras kroppssammansättning (BMI). Resultatet visade att majoriteten i båda grupper uppnådde rekommenderad nivå för fysisk aktivitet (83 % vid KOL och 85 % hos de utan KOL). I gruppen med KOL ökade andelen personer som inte uppnådde rekommenderad aktivitetsnivå i svårare grader av lungfunktionsnedsättning. Vi analyserade även sambandet mellan en låg aktivitetsnivå och ett antal olika faktorer (ålder, kön, lungfunktion, BMI, hjärtsjukdom, rökvanor, upplevd utmattning). Effekten av dessa faktorer undersöktes i var grupp för sig. I gruppen med KOL var de starkaste sambanden, uttryckt som Oddsquoter (95 % konfidensintervall), för tidigare förekomst av hjärtsjukdom, OR 2.11 (1.10–4.08), samt upplevd utmattning, OR 2.33 (1.31–4.13), medan hos gruppen utan KOL var förekomst av fetma (BMI >30) den enda signifikanta faktorn, OR 2.26 (1.17–4.35). Slutsatsen från arbetet var att hos personer med KOL föreligger en sänkt aktivitetsnivå från grad II, och att faktorerna som är kopplade till att inte uppnå rekommenderad aktivitetsnivå är olika vid KOL jämför med personer utan KOL. Att registrera upplevd utmattning och förekomst av hjärtsjukdom hos personer med KOL skulle kunna vara användbart i arbetet med att identifiera vilka som bör erbjudas rehabilitering.

Acknowledgements

Nu vill jag avslutningsvis rikta min ärliga och uppriktiga tacksamhet till ett antal personer som har varit viktiga för mig under genomförandet av min forskarutbildning

Framför allt vill jag tacka:

- Min huvudhandledare *Margareta Emtner*, för ditt stöd och omutliga driv framåt i forskningen. Jag kommer alltid vara tacksam för att du lockade in mig i forskningen värld.
- Min handledare *Christer Janson*, för din ojämförliga förmåga att se essensen i ett projekt eller manus. Tack för vägledning och diskussioner inom såväl forskningens som Curlingens värld.
- *Alla deltagare i studierna*, för utan er hade det verkligen inte varit möjligt!

Ulla Svantesson, Frode Slinde, AnneMarie Grönberg och Linda Moberg, Sahlgrenska sjukhuset, Göteborg, för gott samarbete och medförfattarskap kring delarbete I och III

Anne Lindberg och Eva Rönmark och övriga vid OLIN-gruppen, Sunderbyns sjukhus, Luleå, för givande och lärorikt samarbete kring delarbete IV

Morgan Emtner, för statistisk vägledning och för ditt arbete i samband med delarbete II.

Henrik Johansson och Ann Sundbom, för strålande samarbete kring logistiken i delarbete I (och för gemenskap i ”klubb C”)

Institutionen för Neurovetenskap, Fysioterapeutprogrammet, Uppsala Universitet, under ledning av biträdande prefekt Cathrin Martin, för möjliggörandet av denna forskarutbildning. Likaså till alla mina kollegor på fysioterapeutprogrammet, för att ni alla bidrar till ett fantastiskt arbetsklimat!

Marianne Christensen, verksamhetschef för VO LSA, Akademiska sjukhuset, Uppsala samt *Ulrika Lindelöf* min tidigare avdelningschef "Akutgruppen", för "lösgörandet" av mig från min kliniska tjänst.

Till *alla kollegor i f.d. "Akutgruppen"*, speciellt *Maria Antonsson*, för många bra diskussioner i både kliniska och forskningsrelaterade frågor.

All personal vid Enheten för Lungmedicin och Allergologi, Akademiska sjukhuset, men ett litet extra tack till:

..*Gun-Marie Bodman Lund*, för att du delar med dig av all din erfarenhet och vägledning i praktiska göromål inom forskningen och ffa. för allt ditt vänliga stöd genom åren (samt för ett vinnande samarbete med curlingkvasten)!

..*Ulrike Spetz-Nyström, Katrina Nisser* för vägledning i GCP och

..*Gunilla Hägg* för gott samarbete i frågor kring ffa. *practical jokes!*

Till alla fantastiska *doktorandkollegor* verksamma vid Institutionen för Neurovetenskap, fysioterapeutprogrammet: *Christina Emilson, Sara Holm, Henrik Johansson, Susanna Tuvemo-Johnson, Sören Spörndly-Nees, Birgit Vahlberg, Åsa Revenäs* och till de som redan lämnat boet: *Annika Bring, Charlotte Urell och Helena Igelström*, för utan alla er skulle den här tiden inte varit tillnärmelsevis lika rolig, tack alla inspirerande diskussioner vid seminarier och fikabord!

Till min familj,

Mamma Ulli, Pappa Björn och syster Mia, för er stöttning genom åren.

Peggy & Svinto, för att ni ger perspektiv på det viktiga i tillvaron.

Och allra mest av allt vill jag tacka min älskade **Malin**. Tack för allt ditt stöd och all positiv pushning i de stunder jag behövde det som bäst. Nu är det äntligen klart!

Detta arbete har finansierats genom stöd från följande organisationer:

- *Bror Hjertstedts Stiftelse*
- *Uppsala Läns förening mot hjärt- och lungsjukdom*
- *Hjärt-lungfonden*
- *Riktade FoU-medel, landstinget i Uppsala län.*

References

1. From the Global Strategy for the Diagnosis, Management and Prevention of COPD, Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease (GOLD) 2014. [Internet]. Available from: <http://www.goldcopd.org/>
2. Lozano R, Naghavi M, Foreman K, Lim S, Shibuya K, Aboyans V, et al. Global and regional mortality from 235 causes of death for 20 age groups in 1990 and 2010: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2010. *The Lancet*. 2012 Dec;380(9859):2095–128.
3. Halbert RJ, Natoli JL, Gano A, Badamgarav E, Buist AS, Mannino DM. Global burden of COPD: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur Respir J*. 2006 Sep 1;28(3):523–32.
4. Taylor JD. COPD and the response of the lung to tobacco smoke exposure. *Pulm Pharmacol Ther*. 2010 Oct;23(5):376–83.
5. McDonough JE, Yuan R, Suzuki M, Seyednejad N, Elliott WM, Sanchez PG, et al. Small-airway obstruction and emphysema in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2011 Oct 27;365(17):1567–75.
6. Hagstad S, Bjerg A, Ekerljung L, Backman H, Lindberg A, Rönmark E, et al. Passive smoking exposure is associated with increased risk of copd in never-smokers. *Chest* [Internet]. 2013 Dec 19 [cited 2014 Mar 23]; Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1378/chest.13-1349>
7. Skeletal Muscle Dysfunction in Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease A Statement of the American Thoracic Society and European Respiratory Society. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 1999 Apr 1;159(Supplement 1):S2–S40.
8. O'Donnell DE, Reville SM, Webb KA. Dynamic Hyperinflation and Exercise Intolerance in Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*. 2001 Sep;164(5):770–7.
9. Johnson BD, Weisman IM, Zeballos RJ, Beck KC. Emerging concepts in the evaluation of ventilatory limitation during exercise*: The exercise tidal flow-volume loop. *Chest*. 1999 Aug 1;116(2):488–503.

10. O'Donnell DE, Bertley JC, Chau LK, Webb KA. Qualitative aspects of exertional breathlessness in chronic airflow limitation: pathophysiologic mechanisms. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*. 1997 Jan;155(1):109–15.
11. Polkey MI, Moxham J. Attacking the disease spiral in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Clin Med*. 2006 Mar 1;6(2):190–6.
12. Barnes PJ, Celli BR. Systemic manifestations and comorbidities of COPD. *Eur Respir J*. 2009 May;33(5):1165–85.
13. Decramer M, Rennard S, Troosters T, Mapel DW, Giardino N, Mannino D, et al. COPD as a Lung Disease with Systemic Consequences – Clinical Impact, Mechanisms, and Potential for Early Intervention. *COPD: Journal of Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease*. 2008 Jan;5(4):235–56.
14. Kessler R, Partridge MR, Miravittles M, Cazzola M, Vogelmeier C, Leynaud D, et al. Symptom variability in patients with severe COPD: a pan-European cross-sectional study. *Eur Respir J*. 2011 Feb 1;37(2):264–72.
15. Troosters T, Molen T van der, Polkey M, Rabinovich RA, Vogiatzis I, Weisman I, et al. Improving physical activity in COPD: towards a new paradigm. *Respiratory Research*. 2013 Oct 29;14(1):115.
16. Fletcher C, Peto R. The natural history of chronic airflow obstruction. *Br Med J*. 1977 Jun 25;1(6077):1645–8.
17. Nici L, Donner C, Wouters E, Zuwallack R, Ambrosino N, Bourbeau J, et al. American Thoracic Society/European Respiratory Society Statement on Pulmonary Rehabilitation. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*. 2006 Jun 15;173(12):1390–413.
18. Singh S, Morgan MD. Activity monitors can detect brisk walking in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *J Cardiopulm Rehabil*. 2001 Jun;21(3):143–8.
19. Pitta F, Troosters T, Spruit MA, Probst VS, Decramer M, Gosselink R. Characteristics of physical activities in daily life in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2005;171(9):972–7.

20. Sandland CJ, Singh SJ, Curcio A, Jones PM, Morgan MDL. A profile of daily activity in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *J Cardiopulm Rehabil.* 2005 Jun;25(3):181–3.
21. Warburton DER, Nicol CW, Bredin SSD. Health benefits of physical activity: the evidence. *CMAJ.* 2006 Mar 14;174(6):801–9.
22. WHO | Global recommendations on physical activity for health [Internet]. WHO. [cited 2014 Mar 23]. Available from: <http://www.who.int/dietphysicalactivity/publications/9789241599979/en/>
23. Arne M, Janson C, Janson S, Boman G, Lindqvist U, Berne C, et al. Physical activity and quality of life in subjects with chronic disease: chronic obstructive pulmonary disease compared with rheumatoid arthritis and diabetes mellitus. *Scand J Prim Health Care.* 2009;27(3):141–7.
24. Caspersen CJ, Powell KE, Christenson GM. Physical activity, exercise, and physical fitness: definitions and distinctions for health-related research. *Public Health Rep.* 1985 Apr;100(2):126–31.
25. Warren JM, Ekelund U, Besson H, Mezzani A, Geladas N, Vanhees L. Assessment of physical activity – a review of methodologies with reference to epidemiological research: a report of the exercise physiology section of the European Association of Cardiovascular Prevention and Rehabilitation. *European Journal of Cardiovascular Prevention & Rehabilitation.* 2010 Apr 1;17(2):127–39.
26. Pettee Gabriel KK, Morrow JR Jr, Woolsey A-LT. Framework for physical activity as a complex and multidimensional behavior. *J Phys Act Health.* 2012 Jan;9 Suppl 1:S11–18.
27. Pate RR, O’Neill JR, Lobelo F. The evolving definition of “sedentary.” *Exerc Sport Sci Rev.* 2008 Oct;36(4):173–8.
28. Hamilton MT, Hamilton DG, Zderic TW. Role of Low Energy Expenditure and Sitting in Obesity, Metabolic Syndrome, Type 2 Diabetes, and Cardiovascular Disease. *Diabetes.* 2007 Sep 7;56(11):2655–67.
29. Bertrais S, Beyeme-Ondoua J-P, Czernichow S, Galan P, Hercberg S, Oppert J-M. Sedentary behaviors, physical activity, and metabolic syndrome in middle-aged French subjects. *Obes Res.* 2005 May;13(5):936–44.

30. Nelson ME, Rejeski WJ, Blair SN, Duncan PW, Judge JO, King AC, et al. Physical activity and public health in older adults: recommendation from the American College of Sports Medicine and the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. 2007 Aug 28;116(9):1094–105.
31. Owen N, Healy GN, Matthews CE, Dunstan DW. Too much sitting: the population health science of sedentary behavior. *Exerc Sport Sci Rev*. 2010 Jul;38(3):105–13.
32. Pitta F, Troosters T, Probst VS, Spruit MA, Decramer M, Gosselink R. Quantifying Physical Activity in Daily Life with Questionnaires and Motion Sensors in COPD. *Eur Respir J*. 2006 May 1;27(5):1040–55.
33. Speakman JR. The history and theory of the doubly labeled water technique. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1998 Oct;68(4):932S–938S.
34. Chen KY, Bassett DR Jr. The technology of accelerometry-based activity monitors: current and future. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2005 Nov;37(11 Suppl):S490–500.
35. Granat MH. Event-based analysis of free-living behaviour. *Physiol Meas*. 2012 Nov 1;33(11):1785.
36. Patel SA, Benzo RP, Slivka WA, Sciruba FC. Activity monitoring and energy expenditure in COPD patients: a validation study. *COPD*. 2007 Jun;4(2):107–12.
37. Dallas MI, McCusker C, Haggerty MC, Rochester CL, ZuWallack R, Consortium NPR. Using pedometers to monitor walking activity in outcome assessment for pulmonary rehabilitation. *Chronic Respiratory Disease*. 2009 Nov 1;6(4):217–24.
38. Ainsworth BE, Haskell WL, Herrmann SD, Meckes N, Bassett DR Jr, Tudor-Locke C, et al. 2011 Compendium of Physical Activities: a second update of codes and MET values. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2011 Aug;43(8):1575–81.
39. Troiano RP, Pettee Gabriel KK, Welk GJ, Owen N, Sternfeld B. Reported physical activity and sedentary behavior: why do you ask? *J Phys Act Health*. 2012 Jan;9 Suppl 1:S68–75.
40. Gimeno-Santos E, Frei A, Dobbels F, Rüdell K, Puhan MA, Garcia-Aymerich J. Validity of instruments to measure physical activity may

be questionable due to a lack of conceptual frameworks: a systematic review. *Health Qual Life Outcomes*. 2011;9:86.

41. Lichtman SW, Pisarska K, Berman ER, Pestone M, Dowling H, Offenbacher E, et al. Discrepancy between Self-Reported and Actual Caloric Intake and Exercise in Obese Subjects. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 1992;327(27):1893–8.
42. ATS statement: guidelines for the six-minute walk test. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2002 Jul 1;166(1):111–7.
43. Lexell JE, Downham DY. How to assess the reliability of measurements in rehabilitation. *Am J Phys Med Rehabil*. 2005;84(9):719–23.
44. Atkinson G, Nevill AM. Statistical methods for assessing measurement error (reliability) in variables relevant to sports medicine. *Sports Med*. 1998 Oct;26(4):217–38.
45. Bland JM, Altman DG. Measuring agreement in method comparison studies. *Statistical methods in medical research*. 1999;8(2):135–60.
46. Kazdin AE. *Research design in clinical psychology*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon; 2003.
47. Welk GJ, McClain J, Ainsworth BE. Protocols for evaluating equivalency of accelerometry-based activity monitors. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2012 Jan;44(1 Suppl 1):S39–49.
48. Van Remoortel H, Giavedoni S, Raste Y, Burtin C, Louvaris Z, Gimeno-Santos E, et al. Validity of activity monitors in health and chronic disease: a systematic review. *The international journal of behavioral nutrition and physical activity*. 2012 Jul 9;9(1):84.
49. Coronado M, Janssens JP, de Muralt B, Terrier P, Schutz Y, Fitting JW. Walking activity measured by accelerometry during respiratory rehabilitation. *Journal of Cardiopulmonary Rehabilitation and Prevention*. 2003;23(5):357.
50. Schönhofer B, Ardes P, Geibel M, Köhler D, Jones PW. Evaluation of a movement detector to measure daily activity in patients with chronic lung disease. *Eur Respir J*. 1997 Dec;10(12):2814–9.
51. Garcia-Aymerich J, Lange P, Benet M, Schnohr P, Antó JM. Regular physical activity reduces hospital admission and mortality in chronic

- obstructive pulmonary disease: a population based cohort study. *Thorax*. 2006 Sep;61(9):772–8.
52. Garcia-Aymerich J, Lange P, Benet M, Schnohr P, Antó JM. Regular Physical Activity Modifies Smoking-related Lung Function Decline and Reduces Risk of Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease: A Population-based Cohort Study. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*. 2007 Mar;175(5):458–63.
 53. Pitta F, Troosters T, Probst VS, Spruit MA, Decramer M, Gosselink R. Physical activity and hospitalization for exacerbation of COPD. *Chest*. 2006 Mar;129(3):536–44.
 54. Esteban C, Quintana JM, Aburto M, Moraza J, Egurrola M, Pérez-Izquierdo J, et al. Impact of changes in physical activity on health-related quality of life among patients with COPD. *Eur Respir J*. 2010 Aug;36(2):292–300.
 55. Prescott E, Almdal T, Mikkelsen KL, Tofteng CL, Vestbo J, Lange P. Prognostic value of weight change in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: results from the Copenhagen City Heart Study. *Eur Respir J*. 2002 Sep 1;20(3):539–44.
 56. Flegal KM, Graubard BI, Williamson DF, Gail MH. Excess deaths associated with underweight, overweight, and obesity. *JAMA*. 2005 Apr 20;293(15):1861–7.
 57. Hallin R, Gudmundsson G, Suppli Ulrik C, Nieminen MM, Gislason T, Lindberg E, et al. Nutritional status and long-term mortality in hospitalised patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). *Respiratory Medicine*. 2007 Sep;101(9):1954–60.
 58. Vestbo J, Prescott E, Almdal T, Dahl M, Nordestgaard BG, Andersen T, et al. Body mass, fat-free body mass, and prognosis in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease from a random population sample: findings from the Copenhagen City Heart Study. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2006 Jan 1;173(1):79–83.
 59. Gosselink R, Troosters T, Decramer M. Peripheral muscle weakness contributes to exercise limitation in COPD. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 1996 Mar;153(3):976–80.
 60. Coronell C, Orozco-Levi M, Méndez R, Ramírez-Sarmiento A, Gáldiz JB, Gea J. Relevance of assessing quadriceps endurance in patients with COPD. *Eur Respir J*. 2004 Jul;24(1):129–36.

61. ATS/ACCP Statement on Cardiopulmonary Exercise Testing. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*. 2003 Jan 15;167(2):211–77.
62. Kocks JWH, Asijee GM, Tsiligianni IG, Kerstjens HAM, van der Molen T. Functional status measurement in COPD: a review of available methods and their feasibility in primary care. *Prim Care Respir J*. 2011 Sep;20(3):269–75.
63. McGavin CR, Gupta SP, McHardy GJ. Twelve-minute walking test for assessing disability in chronic bronchitis. *Br Med J*. 1976;1(6013):822–3.
64. Revill SM, Morgan MDL, Singh SJ, Williams J, Hardman AE. The endurance shuttle walk: a new field test for the assessment of endurance capacity in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Thorax*. 1999 Mar 1;54(3):213–22.
65. Singh SJ, Morgan MD, Scott S, Walters D, Hardman AE. Development of a shuttle walking test of disability in patients with chronic airways obstruction. *Thorax*. 1992 Dec 1;47(12):1019–24.
66. Casanova C, Cote CG, Marin JM, de Torres JP, Aguirre-Jaime A, Mendez R, et al. The 6-min walking distance: long-term follow up in patients with COPD. *European Respiratory Journal*. 2007 Mar 1;29(3):535–40.
67. Casanova C, Cote C, Marin JM, Pinto-Plata V, de Torres JP, Aguirre-Jaime A, et al. Distance and oxygen desaturation during the 6-min walk test as predictors of long-term mortality in patients with COPD. *Chest*. 2008 Oct;134(4):746–52.
68. Spruit MA, Polkey MI, Celli B, Edwards LD, Watkins ML, Pinto-Plata V, et al. Predicting outcomes from 6-minute walk distance in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *J Am Med Dir Assoc*. 2012 Mar;13(3):291–7.
69. Clini EM, Crisafulli E. Exercise Capacity as a Pulmonary Rehabilitation Outcome. *Respiration*. 2009;77(2):121–8.
70. Celli BR, Cote CG, Marin JM, Casanova C, Montes de Oca M, Mendez RA, et al. The Body-Mass Index, Airflow Obstruction, Dyspnea, and Exercise Capacity Index in Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 2004;350(10):1005–12.

71. Miller MR, Hankinson J, Brusasco V, Burgos F, Casaburi R, Coates A, et al. Standardisation of spirometry. *Eur Respir J*. 2005 Aug 1;26(2):319–38.
72. Quanjer P, Tammeling G, Cotes J, Pedersen O, Peslin R, Yernault J. Lung volumes and forced ventilatory flows. Report Working Party Standardization of Lung Function Tests, European Community for Steel and Coal. Official Statement of the European Respiratory Society. *Eur Respir J Suppl*. 1993;16:5–40.
73. Berglund E, Birath G, Bjure J, Grimby G, Kjellmer I, Sandqvist L, et al. Spirometric studies in normal subjects. I. Forced expirograms in subjects between 7 and 70 years of age. *Acta Med Scand*. 1963 Feb;173:185–92.
74. Vestbo J, Hurd SS, Agustí AG, Jones PW, Vogelmeier C, Anzueto A, et al. Global strategy for the diagnosis, management, and prevention of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: GOLD executive summary. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2013 Feb 15;187(4):347–65.
75. Mahler D, Wells C. Evaluation of clinical methods for rating dyspnea. *Chest*. 1988 Mar 1;93(3):580–6.
76. Cella D. Manual of the Functional Assessment of Chronic Illness Therapy (FACIT) Measurement System. Center on Outcomes, Research and Education (CORE), Evanston Northwestern Healthcare and Northwestern University, Evanston IL, Version 4. 1997;
77. Yost KJ, Eton DT. Combining Distribution- and Anchor-Based Approaches to Determine Minimally Important Differences The FACIT Experience. *Eval Health Prof*. 2005 Jun 1;28(2):172–91.
78. Vermeeren MAP, Creutzberg EC, Schols AMWJ, Postma DS, Pieters WR, Roldaan AC, et al. Prevalence of nutritional depletion in a large out-patient population of patients with COPD. *Respir Med*. 2006 Aug;100(8):1349–55.
79. Cruz-Jentoft AJ, Baeyens JP, Bauer JM, Boirie Y, Cederholm T, Landi F, et al. Sarcopenia: European consensus on definition and diagnosis: Report of the European Working Group on Sarcopenia in Older People. *Age Ageing*. 2010 Jul;39(4):412–23.
80. Cesari M, Kritchevsky SB, Penninx BW, Nicklas BJ, Simonsick EM, Newman AB, et al. Prognostic value of usual gait speed in well-

functioning older people--results from the Health, Aging and Body Composition Study. *J Am Geriatr Soc.* 2005;53(10):1675–80.

81. Bohannon RW. Comfortable and maximum walking speed of adults aged 20-79 years: reference values and determinants. *Age Ageing.* 1997;26(1):15–9.
82. Butland RJ, Pang J, Gross ER, Woodcock AA, Geddes DM. Two-, six-, and 12-minute walking tests in respiratory disease. *Br Med J (Clin Res Ed).* 1982 May 29;284(6329):1607–8.
83. Enright PL, Sherrill DL. Reference equations for the six-minute walk in healthy adults. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 1998 Nov;158(5 Pt 1):1384–7.
84. Seymour J, Spruit M, Hopkinson N, Natanek S, Man W, Jackson A, et al. The prevalence of quadriceps weakness in COPD and the relationship with disease severity. *Eur Respir J.* 2010;36(1):81–8.
85. Depew ZS, Novotny PJ, Benzo RP. How many steps are enough to avoid severe physical inactivity in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease? *Respirology (Carlton, Vic)* [Internet]. 2012 Jun 5 [cited 2012 Jun 11]; Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22672739>
86. Human energy requirements: Report of a Joint FAO/WHO/UNU Expert Consultation. Rome; 2001 [cited 2013 Jan 28]. Available from: <http://www.fao.org/docrep/007/y5686e/y5686e00.htm>
87. Craig CL, Marshall AL, Sjöström M, Bauman AE, Booth ML, Ainsworth BE, et al. International physical activity questionnaire: 12-country reliability and validity. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2003 Aug;35(8):1381–95.
88. Hurtig-Wennlöf A, Hagströmer M, Olsson LA. The International Physical Activity Questionnaire modified for the elderly: aspects of validity and feasibility. *Public Health Nutr.* 2010 Nov;13(11):1847–54.
89. IPAQ scoring protocol - International Physical Activity Questionnaire [Internet]. [cited 2012 Dec 4]. Available from: <https://sites.google.com/site/theipaq/scoring-protocol>
90. Lundbäck B, Eriksson B, Lindberg A, Ekerljung L, Muellerova H, Larsson L-G, et al. A 20-year follow-up of a population study-based

COPD cohort-report from the obstructive lung disease in Northern Sweden studies. *COPD*. 2009 Aug;6(4):263–71.

91. Lindberg A, Bjerg-Bäcklund A, Rönmark E, Larsson L-G, Lundbäck B. Prevalence and underdiagnosis of COPD by disease severity and the attributable fraction of smoking: Report from the Obstructive Lung Disease in Northern Sweden Studies. *Respiratory Medicine*. 2006 Feb;100(2):264–72.
92. Revill SM, Morgan MD, Singh SJ, Williams J, Hardman AE. The endurance shuttle walk: a new field test for the assessment of endurance capacity in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Thorax*. 1999;54(3):213–22.
93. Dyer CAE. The incremental shuttle walking test in elderly people with chronic airflow limitation. *Thorax*. 2002 Jan 1;57(1):34–8.
94. Kon SS, Patel MS, Canavan JL, Clark AL, Jones SE, Nolan CM, et al. Reliability and validity of the four metre gait speed in COPD. *Eur Respir J [Internet]*. 2012 Dec 6 [cited 2013 Apr 16]; Available from: <http://erj.ersjournals.com/content/early/2012/12/06/09031936.00162712>
95. Dolmage TE, Evans RA, Hill K, Blouin M, Brooks D, Goldstein RS. The effect of pulmonary rehabilitation on critical walk speed in patients with COPD: a comparison with self-paced walks. *Chest*. 2012 Feb;141(2):413–9.
96. Evans RA, Hill K, Dolmage TE, Blouin M, O’Hoski S, Brooks D, et al. Properties of self-paced walking in chronic respiratory disease: A patient goal-oriented assessment. *Chest*. 2011 Sep 1;140(3):737–43.
97. DePew ZS, Karpman C, Novotny PJ, Benzo RP. Correlations between gait speed, six-minute walk, physical activity, and self-efficacy in severe chronic lung disease. *Respir Care [Internet]*. 2013 May 21 [cited 2013 Jun 17]; Available from: <http://rc.rcjournal.com/content/early/2013/05/21/respcare.02471>
98. Cote CG, Casanova C, Marin JM, Lopez MV, Pinto-Plata V, de Oca MM, et al. Validation and comparison of reference equations for the 6-min walk distance test. *European Respiratory Journal*. 2008 Mar 1;31(3):571–8.
99. Studenski S. Bradypedia: is gait speed ready for clinical use? *J Nutr Health Aging*. 2009 Dec;13(10):878–80.

100. Neder JA, Jones PW, Nery LE, Whipp BJ. Determinants of the Exercise Endurance Capacity in Patients with Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease: The Power–Duration Relationship. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*. 2000 Aug;162(2):497–504.
101. Martin PE, Rothstein DE, Larish DD. Effects of age and physical activity status on the speed-aerobic demand relationship of walking. *J Appl Physiol*. 1992 Jul 1;73(1):200–6.
102. Gimeno-Santos E, Frei A, Steurer-Stey C, Batlle J de, Rabinovich RA, Raste Y, et al. Determinants and outcomes of physical activity in patients with COPD: a systematic review. *Thorax*. 2014 Feb 20;thoraxjnl-2013-204763.
103. Hornikx M, Van Remoortel H, Demeyer H, Marcal Camillo CA, Decramer M, Janssens W, et al. The Influence of Comorbidities on Outcomes of Pulmonary Rehabilitation Programs in Patients with COPD: A Systematic Review. *BioMed Research International [Internet]*. 2013 Dec 26 [cited 2014 Mar 21];2013. Available from: <http://www.hindawi.com/journals/bmri/2013/146148/abs/>
104. Baltzan MA, Scott AS, Wolkove N, Bailes S, Bernard S, Bourbeau J, et al. Fatigue in COPD: Prevalence and effect on outcomes in pulmonary rehabilitation. *Chronic Respiratory Disease*. 2011 May 1;8(2):119–28.
105. Vitorasso R, Camillo CA, Cavalheri V, Aparecida Hernandez N, Cortez Verceze A, Sant’Anna T, et al. Is walking in daily life a moderate intensity activity in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease? *Eur J Phys Rehabil Med*. 2012 Dec;48(4):587–92.
106. Waschki B, Spruit MA, Watz H, Albert PS, Shrikrishna D, Groenen M, et al. Physical activity monitoring in COPD: compliance and associations with clinical characteristics in a multicenter study. *Respir Med*. 2012 Apr;106(4):522–30.
107. Troosters T, Sciurba F, Battaglia S, Langer D, Valluri SR, Martino L, et al. Physical inactivity in patients with COPD, a controlled multicenter pilot-study. *Respir Med*. 2010 Jul;104(7):1005–11.
108. Remoortel HV, Hornikx M, Demeyer H, Langer D, Burtin C, Decramer M, et al. Daily physical activity in subjects with newly diagnosed COPD. *Thorax [Internet]*. 2013 Apr 20 [cited 2013 May 15]; Availa-

ble from: <http://thorax.bmj.com/content/early/2013/04/19/thoraxjnl-2013-203534>

109. Waschki B, Kirsten A, Holz O, Müller K-C, Meyer T, Watz H, et al. Physical activity is the strongest predictor of all-cause mortality in patients with COPD: a prospective cohort study. *Chest*. 2011 Aug;140(2):331–42.
110. Arvidsson D, Slinde F, Nordenson A, Larsson S, Hulthén L. Validity of the ActiReg system in assessing energy requirement in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease patients. *Clinical Nutrition*. 2006;25(1):68–74.
111. Hagströmer M, Oja P, Sjöström M. Physical activity and inactivity in an adult population assessed by accelerometry. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2007 Sep;39(9):1502–8.
112. Troiano RP, Berrigan D, Dodd KW, Mâsse LC, Tilert T, McDowell M. Physical activity in the United States measured by accelerometer. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2008 Jan;40(1):181–8.
113. Tilert T, Dillon C, Paulose-Ram R, Hnizdo E, Doney B. Estimating the U.S. prevalence of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease using pre- and post-bronchodilator spirometry: the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) 2007–2010. *Respiratory Research*. 2013 Oct 9;14(1):103.

Acta Universitatis Upsaliensis

*Digital Comprehensive Summaries of Uppsala Dissertations
from the Faculty of Medicine 982*

Editor: The Dean of the Faculty of Medicine

A doctoral dissertation from the Faculty of Medicine, Uppsala University, is usually a summary of a number of papers. A few copies of the complete dissertation are kept at major Swedish research libraries, while the summary alone is distributed internationally through the series Digital Comprehensive Summaries of Uppsala Dissertations from the Faculty of Medicine. (Prior to January, 2005, the series was published under the title "Comprehensive Summaries of Uppsala Dissertations from the Faculty of Medicine".)

Distribution: publications.uu.se
urn:nbn:se:uu:diva-220602



ACTA
UNIVERSITATIS
UPSALIENSIS
UPPSALA
2014