

Clinical Phenotypes and Health-Related Quality of Life of COPD Patients in a Rural Setting in Malaysia – A Cross-Sectional Study

Chee-Shee Chai (✉ cschai@unimas.my)

Universiti Malaysia Sarawak <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4277-6152>

Sumastika Bt Mos

Faculty of Medicine and Health Science, University Malaysia Sarawak

Diana-Leh-Ching Ng

Faculty of Medicine and Health Science, University Malaysia Sarawak

Greta-Miranda-Kim-Choo Goh

Faculty of Medicine and Health Science, University Malaysia Sarawak

Anselm-Ting Su

Faculty of Medicine and Health Science, University Malaysia Sarawak

Muhammad Amin Bin Ibrahim

Faculty of Medicine, University Technology MARA

Aisyah Natasya Bt Musa

Faculty of Medicine, University Technology MARA

Seng-Beng Tan

Faculty of Medicine, University of Malaya

Yong-Kek Pang

Faculty of Medicine, University of Malaya

Chong-Kim Liam

Faculty of Medicine, University of Malaya

Research article

Keywords: Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, clinical phenotypes, health-related quality of life, exacerbators, asthma overlap

Posted Date: September 22nd, 2020

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-35066/v3>

License:  This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

[Read Full License](#)

Version of Record: A version of this preprint was published on September 29th, 2020. See the published version at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12890-020-01295-4>.

Abstract

Background The Spanish chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) guideline phenotypes patients according to the exacerbation frequency and COPD subtypes. In this study, we compared the patients' health-related quality of life (HRQoL) according to their COPD phenotypes. Methods This was a cross-sectional study of COPD patients who attended the outpatient clinic of the Serian Divisional Hospital and Bau District Hospital from 23 th January 2018 to 22 th January 2019. The HRQoL was assessed using modified Medical Research Council (mMRC), COPD Assessment Test (CAT), and St George's Respiratory Questionnaire for COPD (SGRQ-c). Results Of 185 patients, 108 (58.4%) were non-exacerbators (NON-AE), 51 (27.6%) were frequent exacerbators (AE), and the remaining 26 (14.1%) had asthma-COPD overlap (ACO). Of AE patients, 42 (82.4%) had chronic bronchitis and only 9 (17.6%) had emphysema. Of the COPD patients, 65.9% had exposure to biomass fuel. The scores of mMRC, CAT, and SGRQ-c were significantly different between COPD phenotypes ($p < 0.001$). There were significantly more patients with mMRC 2 – 4 among AE (68.6%) ($p < 0.001$), compared to those with ACO (38.5%) and NON-AE (16.7%). AE patients had significantly higher total CAT ($p = 0.003$; $p < 0.001$) and SGRQ-c (both $p < 0.001$) scores than those with ACO and NON-AE. Patients with ACO also had significantly higher total CAT and SGRQ-c (both $p < 0.001$) scores than those with NON-AE. AE patients had significantly higher score in each item of CAT and component of SGRQ-c compared to those with NON-AE (all $p < 0.001$), and ACO [($p = 0.003 - 0.016$; $p = < 0.001 - 0.005$) except CAT 1, 2 and 7]. ACO patients had significantly higher score in each item of CAT and component of SGRQ-c ($p = < 0.001 - 0.040$; $p < 0.001$) except CAT 2 and activity components of SGRQ-c. Conclusions The HRQoL of COPD patients was significantly different across COPD phenotypes. HRQoL was worst in AE, followed by ACO and NON-AE. This study supports phenotyping COPD patients based on their exacerbation frequency and COPD subtypes. The treatment of COPD should be personalised according to these two factors.

Background:

Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) is a common, preventable, and treatable airway disease characterized by persistent respiratory symptoms and airflow limitation, due to inflammatory response of the airway and lung tissue to noxious particles or gases.(1) Worldwide, COPD is currently the fourth leading cause of death and is expected to rank number three by 2030.(2) It also ranks second in the disease burden measured by the disability-adjusted life-years,(3) causing substantial socioeconomic burden in many countries. (1)

COPD phenotype is defined as a single or combination of disease attributes that describe the differences between individuals with COPD according to their clinically meaningful outcomes, such as exacerbation, symptoms, rate of disease progression, response to therapy, and mortality risk.(4) The idea of conceptualizing different COPD phenotypes came from Snider in 1989, when "chronic bronchitis", "emphysema" and "asthmatic" were presented in three overlapping circles in a non-proportional Venn diagram.(5) In 2012, the Spanish Society of Pulmonology and Thoracic Surgery proposed to phenotype COPD based on the exacerbation frequency and existing COPD subtypes.(6)

Health-related quality of life (HRQoL) is defined as an individual's happiness or satisfaction with an aspect of his/her life which is affected by physical, mental, emotional and social health.(7) Impaired HRQoL is common in COPD patients due to the troublesome respiratory symptoms, limited physical activity, psychological distress, sleep disturbance and concomitant co-morbidities.(8) While there have been many studies to determine the impact of COPD on the patients' HRQoL, studies that specifically compare HRQoL across different COPD phenotypes are limited, particularly in Asian countries and in the rural setting.

In this study, we aimed to compare the HRQoL of patients with COPD attending the hospitals in rural area of Malaysia based on their clinical phenotype. We hypothesize that COPD patients with frequent exacerbation and chronic bronchitis have the worst HRQoL.

Methods:

Study Design and Patients:

We conducted a cross-sectional study on patients with COPD attending the outpatient clinics of the Serian Divisional Hospital and Bau District Hospital from 23th January 2018 to 22th January 2019. Both hospitals are primary care centres that serve the rural population of southern Sarawak, a state in Malaysia located in northern Borneo Island. All patients were aged 35 years and above, with the ratio of post-bronchodilator forced expiratory volume in one second (PB-FEV₁) to post-bronchodilator forced vital capacity in six seconds (PB-FVC₆) < 0.7. Patients with clinical or radiological diagnosis of other chronic lung diseases (such as bronchiectasis and interstitial lung disease), active tuberculosis and lung tumours were excluded. The estimated minimum sample size for the study was 140 based on the prevalence of 10.1% in previous study at 5% of Type-1 error and 5% of precision.(9, 10) The primary objective of this study was to compare the modified Medical Research Council (mMRC) score, total COPD Assessment Tool (CAT) score and total St George's Respiratory Questionnaire COPD (SGRQ-c) score of patients with different COPD phenotypes. The score of each item of CAT and each component of SGRQ-c of different COPD phenotypes were compared as a secondary objective. Written informed consent was obtained from every patient. Ethics approval was obtained from the Medical Research and Ethics Committee of the National Medical Research Registry of Malaysia (NMRR-17-2549-38621) and the respective hospitals. The study was conducted in accordance to the Declaration of Helsinki.

Procedure:

We consecutively identified eligible patients from the outpatient clinics of both hospitals. Patient demographic and clinical data were acquired from face-to-face interview and the case notes.

Never-smokers were individuals who had smoked < 100 cigarettes in their lifetime.(11) Ex-smokers and current-smokers were defined as those who smoked ≥ 100 cigarettes in their lifetime, the former having

quitted smoking for at least a year at the time of interview.(11) Biomass exposure was defined as exposure to biomass smoke from the burning of wood or charcoal for \geq 100 hours per year.(12) PB-FEV₁ was expressed in percent of predicted value based on the patients' age, gender, height, and ethnicity (PB-FEV₁ % predicted).(13) A severe exacerbation was defined as an exacerbation that required hospital admission, while a moderate exacerbation was defined as an exacerbation that required outpatient treatment with corticosteroids and/or antibiotic.(14) The total number of exacerbations in this study only included severe and moderate exacerbations because these types of exacerbations and not mild ones are associated with an increased risk of future exacerbations.(1) The phenotypes of COPD were defined according to the Spanish COPD guideline (GesPOC) 2017.(15) A non-exacerbator phenotype (NON-AE) was defined as having no severe exacerbation and \leq one episode of moderate exacerbation in the past one year. Exacerbator phenotype (AE) was defined as having any severe exacerbation or \geq two episodes of moderate exacerbations in the past one year. AE was further divided into chronic bronchitis (AE-CB) and emphysema (AE NON-CB). The former was defined by the presence of cough and sputum for \geq three months in a year for two consecutive years;(16) while the latter was defined by the presence of air-trapping on examination or investigations.(17) Asthma-COPD overlap phenotype (ACO) included patients who had previously been diagnosed as bronchial asthma (BA); or had PB-FEV₁ \geq 15% and \geq 400 ml improvement over pre-bronchodilator FEV₁; or blood eosinophil \geq 300 cells/mm.(3, 18)

The patients' HRQoL was assessed using mMRC, CAT and SGRQ-c questionnaires. Patients answered these questionnaires independently in original English version, or validated Malay/Chinese version. They could obtain explanation from the investigators if there was any problem with understanding the questionnaires. mMRC only measured the severity of dyspnea: no dyspnea except on strenuous activity – 0; dyspnea when walking uphill – 1; walked slower than people of the same age because of dyspnea – 2; dyspnea after walking 100 meters on level ground and needed to stop for breath – 3; and dyspnea when dressing or too dyspnoeic to leave home – 4.(19) mMRC 0 – 1 was defined as low symptom, while 2 – 4 was defined as high symptom.(1) Eight items, each with score ranging 0 – 5 are measured in the CAT questionnaire. These included cough – CAT 1; sputum – CAT 2; chest tightness – CAT 3; dyspnea – CAT 4; activity limitation – CAT 5; confidence to leave home – CAT 6; sleep – CAT 7; and energy - CAT 8.(20) The total CAT score in normal individuals is \leq 6.(21) The SGRQ-c questionnaire consists of three components. The symptoms component consists of questions 1 – 7; activity component consists of questions 9 and 12; and impact component consists of questions 8, 10, 11, 13 and 14.(22) The total score of SGRQ-c, as well as the score of each component range 0 -100%. The SGRQ-c score for normal individuals is \leq 6%; symptoms component \leq 12%; activity component \leq 9%; and impact components \leq 2%.(23) For all questionnaires, higher scores denote poorer HRQoL.

Statistical analysis

Categorical variables are presented as percentages. The difference between clinical phenotypes was compared using the chi-squared test, with post-hoc analysis taking adjusted standardized residual of > 2

as significant. Continuous variables are presented as the mean \pm standard deviation (SD), or median with inter-quantile range. Differences between clinical phenotypes were compared using one-way ANOVA test or Kruskall-Wallis H test. The post-hoc analysis was performed using Tukey test or Dunn's procedure with a Bonferroni adjustment, respectively. The significant p-value in this study was < 0.05 . Statistical analyses were performed using the software package, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS for Windows version 23.0, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

Results:

Demographic and clinical characteristics

We included 185 patients in this study (Figure 1). Their demographic and clinical characteristics are described in Table 1. Patients were mostly males, natives of the state of Sarawak, current or ex-smokers and had biomass fuel exposure.

Figure 1. Algorithm of patients' recruitment in the study

Table 1. Demographic and clinical characteristics of 185 patients according to COPD phenotypes

One hundred and eight (58.4%) patients belonged to the NON-AE phenotype, 51 (27.6%) patients were AE phenotype, and the remaining 26 (14.1%) patients had ACO. Of AE patients, 42 (82.4%) had chronic bronchitis and only 9 (17.6%) had lung emphysema. AE patients were significantly older than those with ACO (67.910.0 versus 60.514.0 years, $p = 0.024$) or NON-AE (67.910.0 versus 60.5 11.6 years, $p = 0.001$). The smoking intensity in terms of pack-years of AE patients was significantly higher than that of NON-AE patients (22.519.5 versus 14.314.2 pack years, $p = 0.012$), but not significantly different from that of ACO patients. There were significantly more female patients with ACO (42.3%) compared to AE (13.7%) or NON-AE (23.1%) ($p = 0.019$). The total exacerbation episodes of ACO patients were significantly lower than that of AE patients (0.20.4 versus 4.73.4, $p < 0.001$). Otherwise, there was no significant difference in ethnicity, smoking status, biomass exposure, and PB-FEV₁ between the COPD phenotypes.

The mean scores of mMRC, CAT, and SGRQ-c were significantly different across different COPD phenotypes (all $p < 0.001$) (Table 2). A significantly higher percentage of AE patients had mMRC 2 – 4 (68.6%), compared to ACO patients (38.5%) and NON-AE patients (16.7%). Patients with AE had significantly higher total CAT and SGRQ-c scores than those with ACO (17.3 9.5 versus 11.7 8.6, $p = 0.003$; 53.5 22.7% versus 34.419.5%, $p < 0.001$) and NON-AE (17.39.5 versus 5.54.7, $p < 0.001$; 53.5 22.7% versus 16.4 14.8%, $p < 0.001$). Patients with ACO also had significantly higher total CAT and SGRQ-c scores than those with NON-AE (11.7 8.6 versus 5.54.7, $p < 0.001$; 34.419.5% versus 16.4 14.8%, $p < 0.001$).

Table 2. mMRC, CAT) and SGRQ-c scores of COPD patients according to their COPD phenotypes

Patients with AE had significantly higher score in each item of CAT and each component of SGRQ-c compared to those with NON-AE (all $p < 0.001$) (Figure 2 and Figure 3). Patients with AE also had significantly higher score in CAT 3 ($p = 0.004$), CAT 4 ($p = 0.008$), CAT 5 ($p = 0.013$), CAT 6 ($p = 0.003$) and CAT 8 ($p = 0.016$); as well as symptoms ($p < 0.001$), activities ($p < 0.001$), and impacts ($p = 0.005$) components of SGRQ-c, when compared to ACO patients. Compared to NON-AE patients, ACO patients had significantly higher score in each item of CAT ($p = < 0.001 - 0.040$) except CAT 2; as well as symptoms and impact components of SGRQ-c ($p < 0.001$).

Figure 2. Score of CAT items according to the COPD phenotypes

Figure 3. Score of SGRQ-c total and components according to COPD phenotypes

The total CAT and SGRQ-c scores of the only nine AE NON-CB patients were significantly higher than that of NON-AE patients (12.6 9.1 versus 5.54.7, $p = 0.018$; 47.6 18.5% versus 16.4 14.8 < 0.001), but were not significantly different compared to those of AE-CB or ACO patients, respectively.

Discussion:

The most frequent COPD phenotype in this unselected population in the rural setting of Malaysia was NON-AE, followed by the AE-CB, ACO and AE NON-CB. Patients with AE were significantly older and smoked more cigarettes, while patients with ACO were predominantly female. Regardless of the COPD phenotypes, biomass fuel exposure was a common risk factor of COPD among them. Close to two-thirds of the patients were exposed to biomass fuel, mainly due to the seasonal open burning in agriculture activities.

The HRQoL of patients with AE and ACO was markedly impaired compared to normal individuals. Meanwhile, the HRQoL of patients with NON-AE was reduced when measured by SGRQ-c but not by CAT. The worst HRQoL was reported in patients with AE followed by those with ACO. The HRQoL of patients with AE was significantly worse than that of ACO and NON-AE while the HRQoL of ACO patients was significantly worse than the HRQoL of NON-AE patients. A similar pattern was also observed in each item of CAT and each component of SGRQ-c, except that the differences were not significant in cough, sputum, and sleep for AE versus ACO, as well as cough and daily activity limitation for ACO versus NON-AE. This lack of significance could be due to the smaller sample size of ACO, or the diurnal variation in symptomatology of bronchial asthma which is commonly associated with cough and sputum production.

The distribution of COPD phenotypes in the present study was almost similar to that of western populations,(24 – 27) except that AE NON-CB is less commonly reported than ACO.(28) So far, only two other studies have reported AE CB is the commonest COPD phenotypes followed by NON-AE, AE NON-CB and ACO. The first study was conducted in primary care centres of the Russia Federation,(29) while the second study involved selected COPD patients in the respiratory clinic of a tertiary hospital.(30) Our findings of patients with AE being older and smoked more cigarettes,(25, 27, 28, 31) as well as more

female patients with the ACO phenotype are in agreement with other studies.(24, 26 – 28) The finding that the HRQoL of COPD patients was more impaired in the phenotype sequence of NON-AE, ACO and AE is consistent with the findings of previous studies.(24, 26 – 28, 32) Patients with AE are consistently highlighted as having the worst HRQoL,(24, 26 – 28, 31, 32) while those with NON-AE have the best HRQoL.(25, 29) Of patients with AE, Miravitles et al,(28) Cosio et al,(31) Kania et al,(27) and Chai et al, (30) reported those with AE-CB have significantly worse HRQoL compared to other COPD phenotypes (all $p < 0.001$); while Corlattenau et al reported the worst HRQoL in patients with AE NON-CB.(32) The CAT was uniformly used to assess HRQoL in these studies, with the latter two studies also using the SGRQ-c questionnaire. Only this study and that by Miravitles et al,(28) show patients with ACO have significantly worse HRQoL than those with NON-AE.

Exacerbation is the prognostic hallmark of COPD. Frequent exacerbation is associated with poor HRQoL,(33) decline in lung function,(34) recurrence of exacerbations,(33) recurrent hospitalisations,(35) and increased mortality.(36) Seemungal et al and Mackay et al, respectively reported COPD patients with \geq three exacerbations (SGRQ-c, $p < 0.001$) and \geq two exacerbations (CAT, $p = 0.025$) per year have significantly worse HRQoL.(33, 37) Cheng et al also reported COPD frequent exacerbators have significantly worse HRQoL (mMRC, $p < 0.001$; CAT, $p < 0.001$) compared to non-frequent exacerbators.(38) Therefore, this explains the significantly worse HRQoL among our patients with AE. Despite similar exacerbation frequency, our patients with ACO had significantly worse HRQoL than those with NON-AE which highlights that COPD subtypes can also affect the patients' HRQoL. Miravitles et al and Hardin et al, respectively reported COPD patients with BA have significantly worse HRQoL than those without [(mMRC, $p = 0.008$; SGRQ-c, $p < 0.001$), and (SGRQ-c, $p = 0.008$), respectively.(39, 40) Such a finding is not surprising in view of the presence of two different inflammatory processes in ACO.

The findings of our study support the recommendation of GesEPOC to phenotype every COPD patients based on their exacerbation frequency and COPD subtypes.(15) Besides, this study also highlights that exacerbation frequency supersedes COPD subtypes in determining the patients' HRQoL. Therefore, clinicians should manage COPD patients with frequent exacerbations more aggressively, and consider prescribing pharmacotherapies such as long-acting muscarinic antagonist (LAMA), LAMA and long-acting β_2 -agonist in combination, inhaled corticosteroids (ICS), roflumilast, macrolide, or N-acetylcysteine according to the COPD phenotype.(1) COPD treatment should also be personalised according to COPD subtypes, such as ICS for ACO, roflumilast for CB, and medical or surgical lung volume reduction for emphysema.(1)

The present study is among the few in Asia that compares the HRQoL of COPD patients based on different clinical phenotypes. All the patients in this study were from the rural area. Their characteristics are very different from previous studies, such as having a high incidence of significant exposure to biomass fuel, required good physical fitness for agriculture activities, and had limited access to more expensive or newer COPD medications. Besides, we evaluated the HRQoL by using different HRQoL assessment tools and compared each of the subitem or component. By doing so we aimed to assess the patients' HRQoL in more dimensions and to minimise biases.

There were several limitations in this study. Firstly, the number of AE NON-CB patients was disproportionately small and therefore we were unable to analyse it independently. We added AE NON-CB to AE-CB, and analysed in the line of AE for HRQoL analysis. Secondly, the direct comparison of CB versus emphysema subtypes was not possible because of the first limitation. Thirdly, the AE NON-CB phenotype was based on the finding of air-trapping on physical examination and on chest X-ray. Static lung volume measurement of functional residual capacity, residual volume and total lung capacity as well as non-contrast-enhanced thoracic computed tomography scan acquired at full inspiration and expiration that is able to differentiate emphysematous from non-emphysematous air-trapping were not performed.(41) Fourthly, spirometry used to identify COPD patients in this study utilised FVC₆ instead of force vital capacity, potentially excluding a proportion of patients with mild COPD. Fifthly, body plethysmography and diffusion capacity for carbon monoxide (DLCO) were not performed. Studies have shown that body plethysmography and DLCO are more sensitive than spirometry in detecting early emphysema, evidenced by increase in residual volume and reduced DLCO.(42) Besides, COPD severity graded by using compression-free FEV₁ measured by body plethysmograph is more accurate than FEV₁ measured by spirometry.(43) Six, ACO in this study was defined based on a history of BA and very reversible airflow obstruction on spirometry testing. Blood eosinophil count was not routinely performed in the rural areas in Malaysia. The term ACO remains controversial without an agreed-upon definition.(44) Lastly, the exacerbation frequency was subjected to the recall error of the patients. We tried to minimize this error by confirmation from the patients' medical records and with the patients' family members.

Conclusions:

The present study concludes that HRQoL of patients with different COPD phenotypes is not the same. Patients with AE had the worst HRQoL, followed by those with ACO and NON-CB, respectively. The findings of this study support the recommendation of GesEPOC to phenotype and manage COPD patients based on their exacerbation frequency and COPD subtypes. COPD management should be personalised and more aggressive in frequent exacerbators to improve their poor HRQoL.

Abbreviations:

COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; HRQoL, health-related quality of life; PB-FEV₁, post-bronchodilator forced expiratory volume in 1 second; PB-FVC₆, post-bronchodilator forced vital capacity in 6 seconds; mMRC, modified Medical Research Council; CAT, COPD Assessment Test; SGRQ-c, St Georges Respiratory Questionnaire for COPD; PB-FEV₁ % predicted, PB-FEV₁ in % of predicted; GesEPOC, Spanish COPD guideline; NON-AE, non-exacerbator phenotype; AE, exacerbator phenotype; AE CB, exacerbator phenotype with chronic bronchitis; AE NON-CB, exacerbator phenotype with emphysema; BA, bronchial asthma; ACO, asthma-COPD overlap phenotype; SD, standard deviation; 95% CI, 95% confidence interval; LAMA, long-acting muscarinic antagonist; ICS, inhaled corticosteroids; DLCO, diffusion capacity for carbon monoxide.

Declarations

Ethics Approval and Informed Consent:

The ethics approval for this study was obtained from the Medical Research and Ethic Committee of National Medical Research Registry Malaysia (NMRR-17-2549-38621) and the respective hospitals. Written informed consent was obtained from every patient.

Consent for publication:

Not applicable.

Availability of Data and Materials:

The datasets used and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Competing Interest:

The authors declare no potential conflicts of interest in respect to the research, authorship, and publication of this article.

Funding:

This study was fully supported by the Research Acculturation Grant Scheme of the Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia (RAGS/1/2015/SKK02/UNIMAS/03/2 or FA052000-0708-0029). The funding body only financially supported this study, and did not take part in the design of the study; or collection, analysis, and interpretation of the data; or writing of the manuscript.

Authors Contributions:

CSC, DLCN, ATS, MABI, ANBM, SBT, YKP and CKL contributed to the conception and design of the study; CSC, SBM, and DLCN contributed to the data acquisition; CSC, SBM, DLCN, GMKCG, ATS and SBT contributed to the data analysis and interpretation; CSC, DLCN, GMKCG, ATS, MABI, ANBM, SBT, YKP and CKL contributed to the drafting of the article and critically revising it. All authors made final approval of

the version to be published. All authors agreed to be accountable for all aspects of the work in ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of the work are appropriately investigated and resolved.

Acknowledgements:

We would like to thank the Director General of Health Malaysia for his permission to publish this article. We want to express our gratitude to all the patients who had participated in the study.

References

1. GOLD. Global Strategy for the Diagnosis, Management and Prevention of COPD, Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease (GOLD) 2020 [Available from: <https://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. Lancet. 2012;380(9859):2095-128.
3. Murray CJ, Lopez AD. Measuring the global burden of disease. The New England journal of medicine. 2013;369(5):448-57.
4. Han MK, Agusti A, Calverley PM, Celli BR, Criner G, Curtis JL, et al. Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease phenotypes: the future of COPD. American journal of respiratory and critical care medicine. 2010;182(5):598-604.
5. Snider GL. Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease: A Definition and Implications of Structural Determinants of Airflow Obstruction for Epidemiology. American Review of Respiratory Disease. 1989;140(3_pt_2):S3-S8.
6. Miravitles M, Soler-Cataluna JJ, Calle M, Molina J, Almagro P, Quintano JA, et al. Spanish COPD Guidelines (GesEPOC): pharmacological treatment of stable COPD. Spanish Society of Pulmonology and Thoracic Surgery. Archivos de bronconeumologia. 2012;48(7):247-57.
7. Fayers PM, D M. Quality of life The assessment, analysis and interpretation of patient-reported outcomes. 2nd edition. John Wiley & Sons Ltda: West Sussex 2007.
8. Miravitles M, Ribera A. Understanding the impact of symptoms on the burden of COPD. Respiratory Research. 2017;18(1):67.
9. Buist AS, McBurnie MA, Vollmer WM, Gillespie S, Burney P, Mannino DM, et al. International variation in the prevalence of COPD (The BOLD Study): a population-based prevalence study. The Lancet. 2007;370(9589):741-50.
10. Charan J, Biswas T. How to calculate sample size for different study designs in medical research? Indian J Psychol Med. 2013;35(2):121-6.
11. Cigarette smoking among adults and trends in smoking cessation - United States, 2008. MMWR Morbidity and mortality weekly report. 2009;58(44):1227-32.

12. Montes de Oca M, Zabert G, Moreno D, Laacho-Contreras ME, Lopez Varela MV, Surmont F. Smoke, Biomass Exposure, and COPD Risk in the Primary Care Setting: The PUMA Study. *Respiratory care*. 2017;62(8):1058-66.
13. Ostrowski S, Barud W. Factors influencing lung function: are the predicted values for spirometry reliable enough? *Journal of physiology and pharmacology : an official journal of the Polish Physiological Society*. 2006;57 Suppl 4:263-71.
14. Hurst JR, Vestbo J, Anzueto A, Locantore N, Mullerova H, Tal-Singer R, et al. Susceptibility to exacerbation in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *The New England journal of medicine*. 2010;363(12):1128-38.
15. Miravitles M, Soler-Cataluna JJ, Calle M, Molina J, Almagro P, Quintano JA, et al. Spanish Guidelines for Management of Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (GesEPOC) 2017. Pharmacological Treatment of Stable Phase. *Archivos de bronconeumologia*. 2017;53(6):324-35.
16. Burgel P-R. Chronic cough and sputum production: a clinical COPD phenotype? *European Respiratory Journal*. 2012;40(1):4.
17. Sarkar M, Bhardwaz R, Madabhavi I, Modi M. Physical signs in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Lung India*. 2019;36(1):38-47.
18. Miravitles M, Alvarez-Gutierrez FJ, Calle M, Casanova C, Cosio BG, Lopez-Vina A, et al. Algorithm for identification of asthma-COPD overlap: consensus between the Spanish COPD and asthma guidelines. *The European respiratory journal*. 2017;49(5).
19. Hajiyo T, Nishimura K, Tsukino M, Ikeda A, Koyama H, Izumi T. Analysis of clinical methods used to evaluate dyspnea in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *American journal of respiratory and critical care medicine*. 1998;158(4):1185-9.
20. Jones PW, Harding G, Berry P, Wiklund I, Chen WH, Kline Leidy N. Development and first validation of the COPD Assessment Test. *The European respiratory journal*. 2009;34(3):648-54.
21. Pinto LM, Gupta N, Tan W, Li PZ, Benedetti A, Jones PW, et al. Derivation of normative data for the COPD assessment test (CAT). *Respiratory Research*. 2014;15(1):68-.
22. Meguro M, Barley EA, Spencer S, Jones PW. Development and Validation of an Improved, COPD-Specific Version of the St. George Respiratory Questionnaire. *Chest*. 2007;132(2):456-63.
23. Ferrer M, Villasante C, Alonso J, Sobradillo V, Gabriel R, Vilagut G, et al. Interpretation of quality of life scores from the St George's Respiratory Questionnaire. *The European respiratory journal*. 2002;19(3):405-13.
24. Koblizek V, Milenkovic B, Barczyk A, Tkacova R, Somfay A, Zykov K, et al. Phenotypes of COPD patients with a smoking history in Central and Eastern Europe: the POPE Study. *The European respiratory journal*. 2017;49(5).
25. Alcázar-Navarrete B, Trigueros JA, Riesco JA, Campuzano A, Pérez J. Geographic variations of the prevalence and distribution of COPD phenotypes in Spain: "the ESPIRAL-ES study". *International journal of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease*. 2018;13:1115-24.

26. Calle Rubio M, Casamor R, Miravitles M. Identification and distribution of COPD phenotypes in clinical practice according to Spanish COPD Guidelines: the FENEPOC study. *Int J Chron Obstruct Pulmon Dis.* 2017;12:2373-83.
27. Kania A, Krenke R, Kuziemski K, Czajkowska-Malinowska M, Celejewska-Wójcik N, Kuźnar-Kamińska B, et al. Distribution and characteristics of COPD phenotypes - results from the Polish sub-cohort of the POPE study. *Int J Chron Obstruct Pulmon Dis.* 2018;13:1613-21.
28. Miravitles M, Barrecheguren M, Roman-Rodriguez M. Frequency and characteristics of different clinical phenotypes of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *The international journal of tuberculosis and lung disease : the official journal of the International Union against Tuberculosis and Lung Disease.* 2015;19(8):992-8.
29. Arkhipov V, Arkhipova D, Miravitles M, Lazarev A, Stukalina E. Characteristics of COPD patients according to GOLD classification and clinical phenotypes in the Russian Federation: the SUPPORT trial. *International Journal of Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease.* 2017;12:3255-62.
30. Chai C-S, Liam C-K, Pang Y-K, Ng DL-C, Tan S-B, Wong T-S, et al. Clinical phenotypes of COPD and health-related quality of life: a cross-sectional study. *International journal of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease.* 2019;14:565-73.
31. Cosio BG, Soriano JB, López-Campos JL, Calle M, Soler JJ, de-Torres JP, et al. Distribution and Outcomes of a Phenotype-Based Approach to Guide COPD Management: Results from the CHAIN Cohort. *PLOS ONE.* 2016;11(9):e0160770.
32. Corlateanu A, Botnaru V, Rusu D, Scutaru E, Covantev S. Assessment of health-related quality of life in different phenotypes of COPD. *European Respiratory Journal.* 2017;50(suppl 61).
33. Seemungal TA, Donaldson GC, Paul EA, Bestall JC, Jeffries DJ, Wedzicha JA. Effect of exacerbation on quality of life in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *American journal of respiratory and critical care medicine.* 1998;157(5 Pt 1):1418-22.
34. Donaldson GC, Seemungal TAR, Bhowmik A, Wedzicha JA. Relationship between exacerbation frequency and lung function decline in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Thorax.* 2002;57(10):847-52.
35. Garcia-Aymerich J, Farrero E, Felez MA, Izquierdo J, Marrades RM, Anto JM. Risk factors of readmission to hospital for a COPD exacerbation: a prospective study. *Thorax.* 2003;58(2):100-5.
36. Soler-Cataluna JJ, Martinez-Garcia MA, Roman Sanchez P, Salcedo E, Navarro M, Ochando R. Severe acute exacerbations and mortality in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Thorax.* 2005;60(11):925-31.
37. Mackay AJ, Donaldson GC, Patel AR, Jones PW, Hurst JR, Wedzicha JA. Usefulness of the Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease Assessment Test to evaluate severity of COPD exacerbations. *American journal of respiratory and critical care medicine.* 2012;185(11):1218-24.
38. Cheng Y, Tu X, Pan L, Lu S, Xing M, Li L, et al. Clinical characteristics of chronic bronchitic, emphysematous and ACOS phenotypes in COPD patients with frequent exacerbations. *Int J Chron Obstruct Pulmon Dis.* 2017;12:2069-74.

39. Miravittles M, Soriano JB, Ancochea J, Munoz L, Duran-Tauleria E, Sanchez G, et al. Characterisation of the overlap COPD-asthma phenotype. Focus on physical activity and health status. *Respiratory medicine*. 2013;107(7):1053-60.
40. Hardin M, Silverman EK, Barr RG, Hansel NN, Schroeder JD, Make BJ, et al. The clinical features of the overlap between COPD and asthma. *Respiratory research*. 2011;12(1):127-.
41. Occhipinti M, Paoletti M, Bigazzi F, Camiciottoli G, Inchingolo R, Larici AR, et al. Emphysematous and Nonemphysematous Gas Trapping in Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease: Quantitative CT Findings and Pulmonary Function. *Radiology*. 2018;287(2):683-92.
42. Zanforlin A, Sorino C, Sferrazza Papa GF. Towards a multi-dimensional approach to COPD. *Minerva medica*. 2016;107(3 Suppl 1):1-6.
43. Pellegrino R, Crimi E, Gobbi A, Torchio R, Antonelli A, Gulotta C, et al. Severity grading of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: the confounding effect of phenotype and thoracic gas compression. *Journal of applied physiology (Bethesda, Md : 1985)*. 2015;118(7):796-802.
44. Zeki AA, Jarjour NN. The Asthma-Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease Overlap Syndrome: A New Take on an Old Concept. *Ann Am Thorac Soc*. 2016;13(9):1440-2.

Tables

Table 1. Demographic and clinical characteristics of 185 patients according to COPD phenotypes

Characteristic	No. of patients, n 185	COPD phenotype, n (%)			
		NON-AE 108 (58.4)	ACO 26 (14.1)	AE 51 (27.6)	p-value
Age, years (meanSD, 95% CI)	62.5	60.511.6; 58.3 – 62.7	60.514.0; 54.9 – 66.2	67.910.0; 65.1 – 70.7	0.001
Gender, n (%)					
Male	142	83 (76.9)	15 (57.7)	44 (86.3)	0.019
Female	(76.8) 43 (23.2)	25 (23.1)	11 (42.3)	7 (13.7)	
Ethnicity, n (%)					
Malay	31 (16.8)	12 (11.1)	6 (23.1)	13 (25.5)	0.161
Chinese	20 (10.8)	14 (13.0)	2 (7.7)	4 (7.8)	
Native of the state of Sarawak	134 (72.4)	82 (75.9)	18 (69.2)	34 (66.7)	
Smoking status, n (%)					
Never smoker	57 (30.9)	35 (32.4)	11 (42.3)	11 (21.6)	0.151
Ex- or current smoker	128 (69.1)	73 (67.6)	15 (57.7)	40 (78.4)	
Biomass fuel exposure, n (%)					
No	63 (34.1)	34 (31.5)	7 (26.9)	22 (43.1)	0.249
Yes	122 (65.9)	74 (68.5)	19 (73.1)	29 (56.9)	
Risk for COPD, n (%)					
Cigarette smoking	63 (34.1)	34 (31.5)	7 (26.9)	22 (43.1)	0.430
Biomass fuel exposure	49 (26.5)	31 (28.7)	10 (38.5)	8 (15.7)	
Both	73 (39.4)	43 (39.8)	9 (34.6)	21 (41.2)	

Smoking intensity, pack-years (meanSD, 95% CI)	17.1	14.314.2; 11.6 - 17.0	18.119.6; 10.2 - 26.0	22.519.5; 17.0 - 28.0	0.016
PB- FEV₁, % (meanSD, 95% CI)	42.8 40.0 - 45.7	43.620.1; 39.8 - 47.4	44.417.9; 37.2 - 51.7	40.419.3; 34.9 - 45.8	0.566
Exacerbations, episode (meanSD, 95% CI)					
Total	1.4 1.0 - 1.8	0.20.4; 0.1 - 0.3	0.20.4; 0.1 - 0.4	4.73.4; 3.8 - 5.7	< 0.001
Moderate	1.1	0.20.4; 0.1 - 0.3	0.20.4; 0.1 - 0.4	3.62.9; 2.8 - 4.4	< 0.001
Severe	0.3	0 -	0 -	1.11.2; 0.8 - 1.5	< 0.001

Abbreviation: COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; NON-AE, non-exacerbators; ACO, asthma-COPD overlap; AE, frequent exacerbators; PB-FEV₁, post bronchodilator forced expiratory volume in 1 second; SD, standard deviation; 95% CI, 95% confidence interval

p-values with bold are significant

Table 2. mMRC, CAT and SGRQ-c scores of COPD patients according to their COPD phenotypes

Quality of Life Measurement	Clinical Phenotype, n (%)			
	NON-AE 108 (58.4)	ACO 26 (14.1)	AE 51 (27.6)	p-value
mMRC, n, (%)				
0 – 1	90 (83.3)	16 (61.5)	16 (31.4)	< 0.001
2 – 4	18 (16.7)	10 (38.5)	35 (68.6)	
CAT, score (meanSD, 95% CI)				
Total	5.54.7; 4.6 – 6.4	11.78.6; 8.2 – 15.2	17.39.5; 14.6 – 19.9	< 0.001
Cough	1.91.3; 1.7 – 2.2	2.61.1; 2.2 – 3.1	3.21.5; 2.8 – 3.6	< 0.001
Mucus	1.31.2; 1.0 – 1.5	1.91.5; 1.3 – 2.5	2.51.6; 2.1 – 3.0	< 0.001
Chest tightness	0.40.7; 0.3 – 0.5	1.41.4; 0.9 -2.0	2.21.4; 1.9 – 2.6	< 0.001
Walk uphill	0.91.1; 0.7 – 1.1	1.81.3; 1.3 – 2.3	2.71.5; 2.3 – 3.1	< 0.001
Home activity	0.30.7; 0.2 – 0.5	1.21.5; 0.6 – 1.8	2.01.6; 1.5 – 2.4	< 0.001
Leaving home	0.20.6; 0.1 – 0.3	0.91.1; 0.4 – 1.3	1.71.5; 1.2 – 2.1	< 0.001
Sleep	0.20.6; 0.1 – 0.3	0.91.2; 0.4 – 1.4	1.21.2; 0.9 – 1.6	< 0.001
Energy	0.30.6; 0.2 -0.4	1.01.4; 0.5 – 1.6	1.81.5; 1.3 – 2.2	< 0.001
SGRQ-c, % (meanSD, 95% CI)				
Total	16.414.8; 13.5 – 19.2	34.419.5; 26.5 – 42.2	53.522.7; 47.1 – 59.8	< 0.001
Symptoms	18.314.3; 15.5 – 21.0	41.916.1; 35.4 – 48.4	64.6	< 0.001

Activities	27.123.2; 22.6 – 31.5	36.319.4; 28.4 – 44.1	57.820.9; 52.0 – 63.7	< 0.001
Impact	9.314.3; 6.6 – 12.1	30.626.1; 20.0 – 41.2	47.129.9; 38.7 – 55.5	< 0.001

Abbreviation: COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; NON-AE, non-exacerbators; ACO, asthma-COPD overlap; AE, frequent exacerbators; mMRC, modified Medical Research Council; CAT, COPD Assessment Test; SGRQ-c, St George's Respiratory Questionnaire for COPD; SD, standard deviation; 95% CI, 95% confidence interval

p-values with bold are significant

Figures

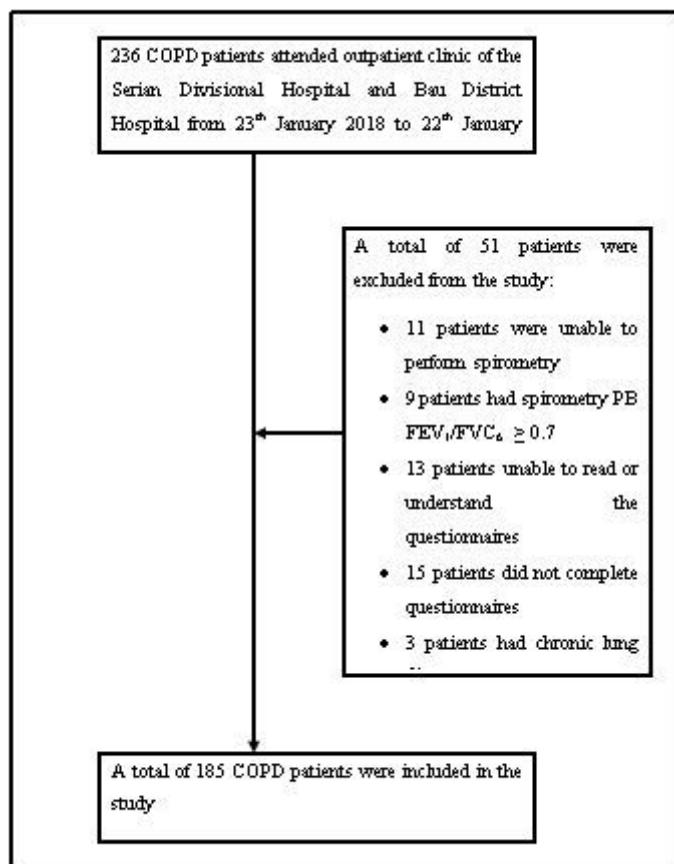


Figure 1

Algorithm of patients' recruitment in the study

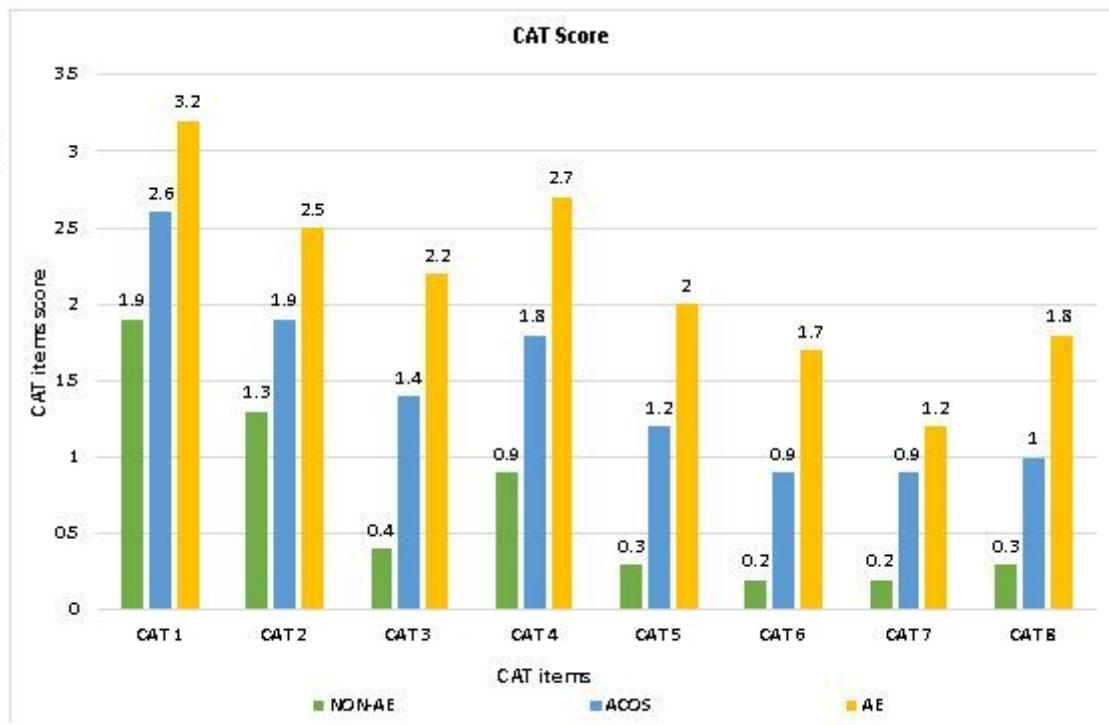


Figure 2

Score of CAT items according to the COPD phenotypes

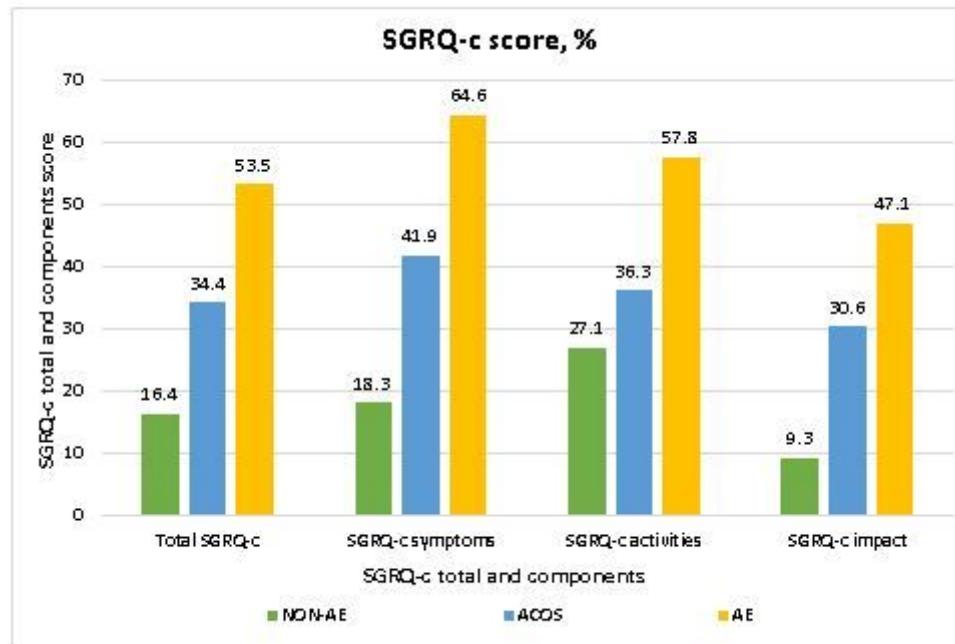


Figure 3

Score of SGRQ-c total and components according to COPD phenotypes