Lung and chest wall mechanics in mechanically ventilated COPD patients

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GUÉRIN, C., M.-L. COUSSA, N. T. EISSA, C. CORBEIL, M. CHASSÉ, J. BRAIDY, N. MATAR, AND J. MILIC-EMILI. Lung and chest wall mechanics in mechanically ventilated COPD patients. J. Appl. Physiol. 74(4): 1570-1580, 1993.—By use of the technique of rapid airway occlusion, the effects of inspiratory flow, volume, and time on lung and chest wall mechanics were investigated in 10 chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) patients mechanically ventilated for acute respiratory failure. We measured the interrupter resistance (Rint), which in humans reflects airway resistance; the additional resistances due to time constant inequality and viscoelastic pressure dissipations within the lungs (ΔRL) and the chest wall; and the static and dynamic elastances of lung and chest wall. We observed that 1) static elastances of lung and chest wall in COPD patients were similar to those of normal subjects; 2) Rint of the lung was markedly increased and flow dependent in COPD patients, whereas Rint of the chest wall was negligible as in normal subjects; and 3) in COPD patients, ΔRL was markedly increased at all inflation flows and volumes, reflecting increased time constant inequalities within the lungs and/or altered viscoelastic behavior. The results imply increased dynamic work due to Rint and ΔRL and marked time dependency of pulmonary resistance and elastance in COPD patients.

flow resistance; static and dynamic elastances; interrupter resistance; viscoelastic properties; frequency dependence; springand-dashpot model of lung and chest wall

CHRONIC OBSTRUCTIVE PULMONARY disease (COPD) is characterized by an increase in airway resistance (Raw) and a loss of lung elastic recoil. As a result, airflow limitation develops, leading to the presence of an intrinsic positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEPi) and dynamic pulmonary hyperinflation (16, 28, 29). Although acute respiratory failure requiring mechanical ventilation is a frequent event in COPD patients, there are relatively few reports dealing with the mechanical properties of the respiratory system in this situation. Using the technique of rapid airway occlusion during constant-flow (V) inflation, Bernasconi et al. (7) and Broseghini et al. (9) measured 1) the total resistance of the respiratory system (Rrs); 2) the interrupter resistance of the respiratory system (Rint,rs), which in humans reflects Raw (11, 17); and 3) the difference between Rrs and Rint,rs, namely, the additional resistance (ΔRrs), which reflects dynamic pressure dissipations due to viscoelastic properties of the thoracic tissues and/or time constant inequality within the lungs (2, 11, 26). These measurements, which were

carried out at a single baseline inflation \dot{V} and volume (ΔV), showed that Raw, ΔRrs , and Rrs were markedly increased in COPD patients with acute respiratory failure. Tantucci et al. (32) extended these observations by determining the V and ΔV dependence of Rrs in mechanically ventilated COPD patients. However, they did not partition between lung and chest wall mechanics. In the present study on mechanically ventilated COPD patients, we used the rapid airway occlusion method combined with measurement of esophageal pressure to assess the effects of inflation \dot{V} , ΔV , and time on the mechanical properties of the lungs and chest wall.

METHODS

Ten COPD patients (7 men) in acute respiratory failure requiring orotracheal intubation and mechanical ventilation for exacerbation of their disease, due to infection of the upper respiratory tract, were investigated in a semirecumbent position. Their anthropometric characteristics are given in Table 1. The mean duration of mechanical ventilation before the investigation was 4.4 \pm 1.4 (SE) days. The diagnosis of COPD was made according to clinical history, chest X rays, and pulmonary function tests. The mean values of forced expiratory volume in 1 s, forced vital capacity, and the ratio of forced expiratory volume in 1 s to forced vital capacity before admission to the intensive care unit were 1.04 \pm 0.30 liters $(47 \pm 11\% \text{ of predicted}), 2.37 \pm 0.47 \text{ liters } (71 \pm 12\% \text{ of }$ predicted), and 0.50 ± 0.03 , respectively. The predicted values were those of Morris et al. (22). The investigation was approved by the Institutional Ethics Committee, and informed consent was obtained from each patient or next of kin.

The patients were intubated (cuffed-endotracheal tube of 8 or 8.5 mm ID and 27 cm length; Sheridan, New York, NY) and mechanically ventilated (900C servo ventilator, Siemens-Elema). During the study, all patients were sedated with fentanyl (2–3 μ g/kg) and paralyzed with pancuronium bromide (0.1–0.2 mg/kg). The baseline ventilatory settings, which were kept constant throughout the experiment, are listed in Table 1. The respiratory frequency was 12.5 ± 0.6 breaths/min, and the inspiratory-to-total cycle duration ratio (TI/TT) was 0.19 ± 0.01 . All measurements were done with zero applied end-expiratory pressure. Flow was measured with a

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TABLE 1. Anthropometric characteristics and baseline ventilatory settings of 10 COPD patients

	Age, yr	Height, cm	Weight, kg	$\operatorname{Fl}_{\operatorname{O}_2}$	ΔV, liter	Ϋ́, l/s	TI,	TT,
Mean ± SE	73±2.8	164±3.4	61±4.4	0.41±0.03	0.73±0.02	0.80±0.03	0.92±0.01	4.90±0.24

COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; FI_{O_2} , fraction of inspired oxygen; ΔV , tidal volume; \dot{V} , inspiratory flow; TI, inspiratory time; TT, total duration of respiratory cycle.

heated pneumotachograph (no. 2, Fleisch, Lausanne, Switzerland) inserted between the endotracheal tube and the Y-piece of the ventilator. The pressure drop across the two ports of the pneumotachograph was measured with a differential solid-state pressure transducer (163PC01D36 ±12.7 cmH₂O, Micro switch, Freeport, IL). The response of the pneumotachograph was linear over the experimental range of \dot{V} . ΔV was obtained by numerical integration of the V signal (model 8815A; Hewlett-Packard, Andover, MA). Pressure at the airway opening (Pao) was measured proximal to the endotracheal tube with a solid-state pressure transducer (143PC03D ± 176 cmH₂O, Micro switch). Tracheal pressure (Ptr) was measured with a polyethylene catheter (1.5 mm ID) with multiple side holes and an occluded end hole, placed 2-3 cm past the carinal end of the endotracheal tube, and connected to a solid-state pressure transducer (143PC03D ±176 cmH₂O, Micro switch). Esophageal pressure (Pes) was measured with a thin-walled latex balloon (10 cm long, 3 cm in circumference) sealed over one end of a polyethylene catheter (2 mm ID, 120 cm long), inflated with 0.6-1.0 ml of air, and connected to a solid-state pressure transducer (143PC03D ±176 cmH₂O, Micro switch). The validity of Pes was assessed with the occlusion test immediately before the paralysis (5). With the system used to measure Pao, Ptr, and Pes, there was no appreciable shift or alteration in amplitude ≤20 Hz. The equipment dead space (not including the endotracheal tube) was 150 ml. All variables were recorded on an eight-channel pen recorder (7718A; Hewlett-Packard, Cupertino, CA) at a paper speed of 10 mm/s and on an IBM-compatible personal computer by a 12-bit analogto-digital board at a sample frequency of 200 Hz for subsequent data analysis. In this analysis ΔV was obtained by digital integration of the V signal. Special care was taken to avoid gas leaks in the equipment and around the tracheal cuff. To reduce the effects of the compliance of the system connecting the subjects to the ventilator on the mechanics measurements (12), a single length of standard low-compliance adult tubing was used (2 cm ID, 60 cm long) and the humidifier was omitted from the inspiratory line. The compliance of the system connecting the subjects to the ventilator was 0.4 ml/cmH₂O.

Arterial blood gases were measured with a blood gas analyzer (ABL 330; Radiometer, Copenhagen, Denmark). During the experiment, arterial Po_2 averaged 110 ± 3 Torr, arterial Pco_2 averaged 43 ± 1.2 Torr, and pH was 7.45 ± 0.005 . The electrocardiogram, heart rate, systemic arterial blood pressure, and arterial O_2 saturation (model 11A, Biox, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada) were continuously monitored. During the study a physician not involved in the experiment was always present to provide for patient care.

Procedure and Data Analysis

Respiratory mechanics were assessed by the constant-V rapid airway occlusion method previously described in detail (10, 11). Two sets of experiments were done in each subject. 1) Iso- ΔV experiment: while baseline ΔV was kept constant, V was varied randomly from 0.2 to 1.2 l/s for single test breaths by regulating TI with the appropriate knob of the ventilator. 2) Iso-V experiment: while baseline V was kept constant, ΔV was changed randomly from 0.2 to 0.7 liter for single test breaths by changing the frequency of the ventilator. The end-inspiratory occlusion, obtained by pressing the end-inspiratory hold knob on the ventilator, lasted 5-6 s. Before each test breath an end-expiratory occlusion was performed by pressing the end-expiratory hold knob on the ventilator. This allowed us to quantify PEEPi and to start the test breath from a fixed static elastic equilibrium condition. Because PEEPi implies dynamic pulmonary hyperinflation [i.e., that the end-expiratory lung volume during mechanical ventilation exceeds the relaxation volume of the respiratory system (Vr)], we also measured the difference between end-expiratory lung volume and Vr (here termed the change in functional residual capacity) by reducing the ventilator frequency to its lowest value during baseline expiration, thus prolonging expiratory duration to allow the patient to exhale to Vr (12). Vr was achieved when expiratory flow became nil and end-expiratory occlusion resulted in no change in airway pressure (i.e., no PEEPi). After each test breath, the baseline ventilation was resumed until ΔV , V, and pressures returned to their baseline values (usually in a few breaths). Each measurement was done twice.

After end-inspiratory airway occlusions, Ptr and Pao, but not Pes except in one patient (patient 3), exhibited an initial rapid drop [maximum pressure (Pmax) - pressure after first drop (P_1) followed by a slow decay to an apparent plateau pressure (P₂) (Fig. 1). During this period, the contribution of reduction in pressure due to volume loss by continuing gas exchange should be negligible. Ptr, Pes, and transpulmonary pressures (PL) measured at 5 s were taken as the static end-inspiratory elastic recoil pressures of the respiratory system (Pst,rs), chest wall (Pst,w), and lung (Pst,L), respectively. By dividing tracheal values Pmax,tr - P2,tr and Pmax,tr -P₁,tr by the V immediately preceding the occlusion, Rrs and Rint,rs were obtained. ΔRrs was calculated as the difference between Rrs and Rint,rs. By dividing the esophageal value Pmax,es $-P_2$,es by the V preceding the occlusion, the total resistance of the chest wall (Rw) was obtained. Because Pes did not exhibit any immediate drop after end-inspiratory occlusion, except for patient 3, Rw represents the additional resistance of the chest wall (ΔRw) . In patient 3, the interrupter resistance of the

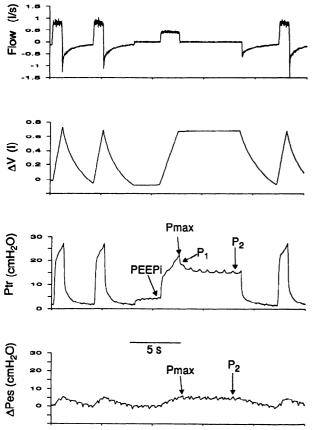


FIG. 1. Records of flow, volume (ΔV), tracheal pressure (Ptr), and esophageal pressure (ΔPes) vs. time in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) patient 9. Tracings show 2 baseline breaths followed by test breath comprising end-expiratory occlusion followed by end-inspiratory occlusion. In this test breath, inflation flow was decreased while inflation volume was kept at its baseline value (iso- ΔV experiment). PEEPi, intrinsic PEEP; Pmax, maximal pressures during lung inflation; P_1 , immediate drop in tracheal pressure after airway occlusion; P_2 , static end-inspiratory pressures. Note absence of immediate drop in ΔPes after end-inspiratory occlusion.

chest wall (Rint,w) was obtained by dividing Pmax,es -P₁,es by the V preceding the end-inspiratory occlusion and ΔRw was obtained by subtracting Rint,w from Rw. Total (RL), interrupter (Rint,L), and additional (Δ RL) resistances of the lung were obtained by subtracting the corresponding values of the chest wall from those pertaining to the total respiratory system. In computation of Rint, the errors caused by the closing time of the ventilator valve were corrected as previously described (10). The static elastances of the lung (Est.L) and chest wall (Est,w) were computed by dividing the corresponding values of P_2 – PEEPi by ΔV . Our values of PEEPi include a slightly positive end-expiratory pressure, ranging from 0.2 to 1.25 cmH₂O, due to the ventilator (29). The dynamic elastance of the lung (Edyn,L) was obtained by dividing the difference between the lung value P_1 ,L and the static end-expiratory PL by ΔV (29). The dynamic elastance of the chest wall (Edyn,w) was determined by dividing the difference between Pmax, es and the static end-expiratory Pes by ΔV in the nine patients whose Pes did not exhibit any immediate drop after end-inspiratory airway occlusion and by dividing P_1 , es – static end-expiratory Pes by ΔV in patient 3, who exhibited an immediate drop in Pes after end-inspiratory airway occlusion.

Model and Curve-Fitting

Our data were analyzed in terms of the model of the respiratory system proposed by D'Angelo et al. (11) for humans. This model comprises three compartments in parallel (Fig. 2). The first is a dashpot representing Rint, L, which explains the initial fast pressure drop observed in PL immediately after the end-inspiratory occlusion. Using the alveolar capsule technique, Bates et al. (2) found that in dogs Rint, L reflected Raw, indicating that the pulmonary tissues did not exhibit any appreciable Newtonian resistance. According to Liistro et al. (17) this is also probably true in humans. Contrary to dogs (31) and cats (30), in normal anesthetized paralyzed humans there is no appreciable immediate drop in Pes after end-inspiratory occlusion, indicating an absence of Rint, w (11). With one exception (patient 3), this was also the case in the COPD patients of the present study. The second and third compartments of the model in Fig. 2 are Kelvin bodies, corresponding to the lung and chest wall. Each consists of a standard static elastance (Est) in parallel with a Maxwell body, i.e., a spring (E₂) and a dashpot (R₂) arranged serially. In normal anesthetized paralyzed subjects, E₂ and R₂ probably virtually entirely reflect the viscoelastic properties of the tissues of the lungs and chest wall (11).

During constant-V inflation, the model in Fig. 2 predicts that ΔR should increase with TI according to the following function (11)

$$\Delta R = R_2 (1 - e^{-TI/\tau_2}) \tag{1}$$

where the viscoelastic time constant $(\tau_2) = R_2/E_2$.

Because during constant- \dot{V} inflation $TI = \Delta V/\dot{V}$, Eq. 1 can be rewritten (11)

$$\Delta R = R_2 (1 - e^{-\Delta V/\dot{V}_{\tau_2}}) \tag{2}$$

The model also predicts that during constant- \dot{V} inflation the tension in the spring E_2 will increase the effective stiffness (elastance) of the system. The additional elastance (ΔE) imposed by E_2 varies as a function of TI and inflation \dot{V} , according to the following functions (21)

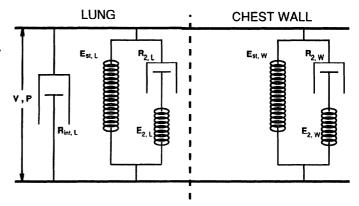


FIG. 2. Scheme of spring-and-dashpot model for interpretation of lung (L) and chest wall (W) mechanics during inflation flow interruption. Respiratory system consists of airway resistance (Rint,L) in parallel with 2 Kelvin bodies, corresponding to lung and chest wall. Each consists of standard static elastance (Est) in parallel with a Maxwell body, i.e., spring E_2 and dashpot R_2 arranged serially. E_2 and R_2 represent viscoelastic (stress adaptation) units. Distance between 2 horizontal bars is analogue of ΔV , and tension between these bars is analogue of pressure at airway opening (P). [Modified from D'Angelo et al. (11).]

(4)

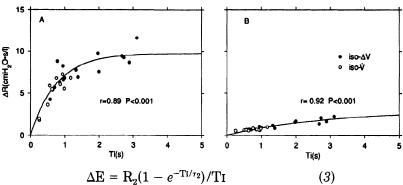


FIG. 3. Relationships of additional resistance (ΔR) to inspiratory time (TI) for lung (A) and chest wall (B) in COPD patient 4. Results were obtained in both iso- ΔV and iso-flow (\dot{V}) experiments. Curves were computed according to Eq. 1.

$$Rint, L = K_1 + K_2 \dot{V} \tag{5}$$

Equations 1 and 3 indicate that ΔR and ΔE are TI dependent.

 $\Delta \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{R}_{2} \dot{\mathbf{V}} (1 - e^{-\Delta \mathbf{V}/\dot{\mathbf{V}}\tau_{2}}) / \Delta \mathbf{V}$

In the present study, we could also fit Eq. 1 to our experimental data of ΔRL and ΔRw as shown in Fig. 3 for a representative patient. In all patients, the relationships of both ΔRL and ΔRW with TI closely fit Eq. 1 (P < 0.001). In line with previous results with normal subjects (11), there were no apparent differences between the individual iso- \dot{V} and iso- ΔV relationships for both ΔRL and ΔRW with T_I. Accordingly, a single curve was fitted to the combined experimental points, and the parameters R₂ and τ_2 of the lung and chest wall were thus determined. E₂ values of the lung and chest wall were computed as respective ratios R_2/τ_2 . As in normal subjects, ΔRw in our COPD patients is probably due virtually entirely to viscoelastic behavior of chest wall tissues. In contrast to normal subjects, however, ΔRL in COPD patients is likely to reflect to a major extent time constant inequalities within the lungs (pendelluft) (11). It should be noted that Eqs. 1-4 apply not only to the viscoelastic model in Fig. 2 but also to a two-compartment model of the lung with unequal time constants (4).

Statistical Analysis

Regression analysis was made using the least-squares method. The results of the 10 COPD patients and of 18 normal anesthetized paralyzed humans of D'Angelo et al. (11) were compared with use of Student's unpaired t test and two-way analysis of variance. P < 0.05 was accepted as statistically significant. Values are means \pm SE.

RESULTS

Rint

As in the normal subjects, in the COPD patients Rint,L increased linearly with increasing V according to

where K_1 and K_2 are Rohrer's constants (Fig. 4A). The values of K_1 and K_2 were significantly higher in COPD patients (Table 2).

As shown in Fig. 4B, during constant- \dot{V} inflation there was a linear relationship between interrupter pulmonary conductance (Gint,L, the reciprocal of Rint,L) and ΔV

$$Gint_{,L} = a' + b'\Delta V \tag{6}$$

where a' and b' are constants (11). The average values of a' and b' of the 10 COPD patients are given in Table 2 together with the corresponding values for normal subjects. The values of a' and b' were significantly lower in the COPD patients.

Except for patient 3, Pes did not exhibit any appreciable immediate drop after end-inspiratory occlusion (Fig. 1). In patient 3, Rint, w amounted to $2.84 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O} \cdot \text{l}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}$ at his baseline ventilatory settings (Table 1) and did not change significantly with either $\dot{\text{V}}$ or ΔV . Thus, in most COPD patients, Rint, w appears to be negligible as in normal individuals (11).

ΔR

Table 3 provides the average values of the "viscoelastic" constants for both lung and chest wall of 10 COPD patients and 18 normal subjects (11). R_2 ,L, E_2 ,L, R_2 ,W, and τ_2 ,W were significantly higher in the COPD patients. In the COPD patients, the values of R_2 and E_2 were significantly higher for the lung than the chest wall (P < 0.001), whereas the opposite was true for τ_2 (P < 0.001).

Figure 5 illustrates the average relationships of RL with $\dot{V}(A)$ and $\Delta V(B)$ in 10 COPD patients and 18 normal subjects (11). In both conditions, the values of RL were significantly higher in the COPD patients. In both groups at constant ΔV , RL decreased progressively with increasing \dot{V} , whereas at constant \dot{V} , RL increased progressively with increasing ΔV .

Both under iso- ΔV and iso- \dot{V} conditions, the values of ΔR_L were significantly higher in the COPD patients than

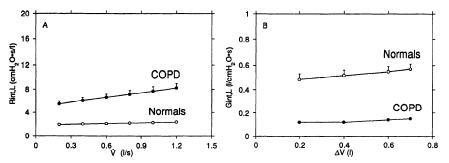


FIG. 4. Average relationships of interrupter resistance of lung (Rint,L) to $\dot{\rm V}$ at constant $\Delta {\rm V}$ of 0.73 liter (A) and of interrupter conductance of lung (Gint,L) to $\Delta {\rm V}$ at constant $\dot{\rm V}$ of 0.8 l/s (B) of 10 COPD patients and 18 normal subjects (11). Bars, SE when larger than symbols.

TABLE 2. Values of K_1 and K_2 and of a' and b' of 10 COPD patients and 18 normal subjects

	COPD	Normal Subjects		
K_1 , cm $H_2O \cdot l^{-1} \cdot s$	5.03±0.45	1.85±0.13*		
K_2 , cmH ₂ O·l ⁻² ·s ²	2.69 ± 0.63	$0.43 \pm 0.03*$		
$a', 1 \cdot s^{-1} \cdot cmH_2O^{-1}$	0.11 ± 0.01	$0.46\pm0.04*$		
$b', s^{-1} \cdot \text{cmH}_2 O^{-1}$	$0.06{\pm}0.02$	$0.15{\pm}0.02\dagger$		

Values are means \pm SE. K_1 and K_2 , constants from Eq. 5; α and α , constants from Eq. 6. Values for normal subjects from D'Angelo et al. (11). * P < 0.001, † P < 0.01 between COPD and normal subjects.

in normal subjects (Fig. 6). At constant ΔV , in both groups ΔRL decreased with increasing \dot{V} , whereas at constant \dot{V} , ΔRL increased with increasing ΔV . In both COPD patients and normal subjects, the changes of RL (= ΔRL + Rint,L) with increasing \dot{V} or ΔV (Fig. 5) were less than the concomitant changes in ΔRL because the changes in Rint,L with \dot{V} and ΔV were in the opposite direction (Fig. 4).

Both under iso- ΔV and iso- \dot{V} conditions ΔRw was significantly higher in COPD patients than in normal subjects (Fig. 7). At constant ΔV , ΔRw significantly decreased with increasing \dot{V} in both groups, whereas at constant \dot{V} it increased with increasing ΔV .

Est and Edyn

The average values of Est,L and Est,W of 10 COPD patients and 18 normal subjects (11) obtained during baseline mechanical ventilation are listed in Table 3. There were no significant differences between the two groups. As in normal subjects (11), in COPD patients neither Est, L nor Est, W correlated significantly with R₂, E_2 , and τ_2 of lung and chest wall. In both groups the values of Est,L and Est,w during the iso-ΔV experiment did not change significantly with V (Fig. 8). By contrast, the values of Edyn, L and Edyn, W significantly increased with increasing V in both groups (Fig. 8). In COPD patients, the relative increase of Edyn, L with increasing V from 0.2 to 1.2 l/s amounted to 70 ± 12 vs. $21 \pm 3\%$ in normal subjects (P < 0.001), whereas that for Edyn,W was 59 ± 0 vs. $20 \pm 2\%$ (P < 0.001). The values of Edyn,L were significantly higher in COPD patients, whereas those of Edyn, were not significantly different between the two groups over the entire experimental range of V.

In the iso-V experiments, the values of Est,L and Est,W were not significantly different between COPD patients and normal subjects and did not vary with ΔV in either group (Fig. 9). By contrast, Edyn,L and Edyn,W decreased with increasing ΔV in both groups. The values of

TABLE 3. Values of Est and "viscoelastic" parameters of lung and chest wall of 10 COPD patients and 18 normal subjects

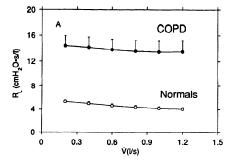
	Lı	ung	Chest Wall			
	COPD	Normal subjects	COPD	Normal subjects		
Est, cmH_2O/l	7.69±0.78	8.15±0.36	5.20±0.68	6.26±0.28		
R_2 , $cmH_2O \cdot l^{-1} \cdot s$	8.75±1.21	3.44±0.23*	3.25±0.60	2.12±0.14†		
τ_2 , s	1.40±0.19	1.11±0.10	2.49±0.48	1.29±0.08†		
E_2 , cm H_2O/I	6.76±1.03	3.21±0.27*	1.90±0.53	1.66±0.09		

Values are means \pm SE. Est, static elastance; R_2 , τ_2 , E_2 , "viscoelastic" resistance, time constant, and elastance, respectively, according to model in Fig. 2. Values for normal subjects from D'Angelo et al. (11). Values of Est pertain to baseline ΔV of present study (0.73 liter). * P < 0.001, † P < 0.05 between COPD and normal subjects.

Edyn,L were significantly higher in COPD patients than in normal subjects, whereas the values of Edyn,w were not significantly different.

DISCUSSION

We analyzed our results in terms of the viscoelastic model in Fig. 2. Although this model has been found to provide a useful representation of the dynamic behavior of the respiratory system in normal humans (10, 11), it clearly should not be regarded as a complete and perfect representation of respiratory mechanics. This is particularly true in COPD patients in whom time constant inequality within the lung probably significantly contributes to the time dependency of pulmonary elastance and resistance. Obviously, more complicated models would describe respiratory dynamics more accurately but at the expense of more parameters, the values of which would have to be estimated and then interpreted. Such interpretation is difficult because the precise anatomic or functional components of the elements pertaining to the lung and chest wall tissues in Fig. 2 are poorly understood. Nevertheless, the model has served as a useful conceptual aid to understanding the effects of a flow interruption. Furthermore, although the precise nature of the constants R_2 , E_2 , and τ_2 is not known, these constants together with Eqs. 1-4 provide a good description of the TI dependency of the resistance and elastance of the lung and chest wall. In this connection it should be noted that when Rohrer introduced Eq. 5, he attributed specific physical meaning to the constants K_1 and K_2 (27). Although Rohrer's interpretation of the constants is now disregarded, Eq. 5 is still applied as a useful descriptive tool. Similarly, Eqs. 1-4 appear to be useful for



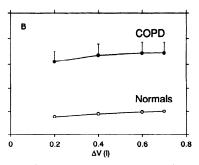
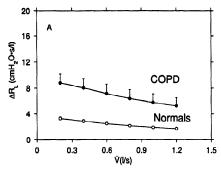


FIG. 5. Average relationships of total pulmonary resistance (RL) to \dot{V} at constant ΔV of 0.73 liter (A) and to ΔV at constant \dot{V} of 0.8 l/s (B) of 10 COPD patients and 18 normal subjects (11). Bars, SE when larger than symbols.



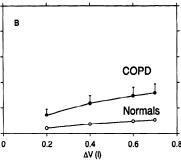


FIG. 6. Average relationships of additional resistance of lung (Δ RL) to \dot{V} at constant ΔV of 0.73 liter (A) and to ΔV at constant \dot{V} of 0.8 l/s (B) of 10 COPD patients and 18 normal subjects (11). Bars, SE when larger than symbols.

descriptive purposes despite the limitations inherent to our simplistic model analysis. A full discussion of the limitations and advantages of the flow interruption method can be found in a recent review (3).

Chest Wall

Rint. In cats (30) and dogs (31), the chest wall exhibits a substantial Rint. By contrast, in normal anesthetized paralyzed humans (11), there is no appreciable change in Pes immediately after airway occlusion, indicating that the tissues of the chest wall do not offer any appreciable velocity-dependent dissipative forces (11). Similar to normal subjects, the COPD patients of the present study did not exhibit any appreciable immediate drop in Pes after airway occlusion, except for patient 3. We have no explanation for this discrepant result. In patients with ischemic and valvular heart disease, Auler et al. (1) found a small but consistent Rint, w averaging ~ 1 cmH₂O·l⁻¹·s.

 ΔR . Because Rint,w was absent in COPD patients, ΔRw represents the total resistance of the chest wall ($\Delta Rw = Rw$). As in normal subjects (11), in our patients the iso- ΔV and iso- \dot{V} values of ΔRw fitted Eq.~1 (Fig. 7). Because of higher values of R_2 ,w, the values of ΔRw were higher in COPD patients than in normal subjects. The nature of this discrepancy is not clear. It should be noted, however, that the COPD patients were much older than the normal subjects.

Est. In the COPD patients the values of Est,w were similar to those of the normal subjects of D'Angelo et al. (11) (Table 3). During anesthesia paralysis in the supine position, Van Lith et al. (33) found that Est,w averaged $4.9 \pm 0.1 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O}/\text{l}$ in five stable COPD patients. The latter value is similar to the results obtained in the present study in COPD patients mechanically ventilated for acute respiratory failure $(5.2 \pm 0.7 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O}/\text{l})$.

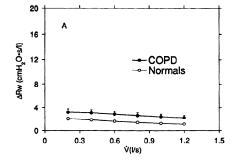
 ΔE and Edyn. As in normal subjects, in COPD patients Edyn,w (=Est,w + ΔE w) was higher than Est,w (Figs. 8 and 9). As predicted by Eq. 4, at constant ΔV , Edyn,w

increased with \dot{V} (Fig. 8), whereas at constant \dot{V} , it decreased with ΔV (Fig. 9). ΔEw implies that under dynamic conditions the effective elastic recoil pressures of the chest wall are not fixed but exceed Pst,w by P_1-P_2 , the latter representing the additional elastic pressure stored in the viscoelastic units of the chest wall tissues (i.e., in springs E_2 ,w of the model in Fig. 2) (11). ΔEw was slightly but significantly (P < 0.01) higher in COPD patients than in normal subjects over the entire experimental ranges of \dot{V} and ΔV .

Lung

Rint. In open-chest dogs in which alveolar pressure was measured directly with the alveolar capsule technique, Bates et al. (2) found that Rint,L was due essentially entirely to Raw. Moreover, even after histamine-induced intrapulmonary heterogeneities in dogs, Rint,L was still found to reflect Raw almost entirely (18). According to Liistro et al. (17), in humans Rint,L also probably reflects Raw, as originally proposed by Neegaard and Wirz (25). As in normal subjects (11), Rint,L of COPD patients exhibited \dot{V} and ΔV dependence (Fig. 4): at fixed ΔV , Rint,L increased with increasing V according to Rohrer's equation; and, at constant \dot{V} , it decreased with increasing ΔV , as originally described by Briscoe and Dubois (8).

In previous studies in mechanically ventilated COPD patients (7, 9, 32), Rint,rs was studied only at a single inflation \dot{V} and ΔV (i.e., solely under the baseline ventilatory settings). These results are summarized in Table 4 together with the data obtained in the present study at baseline ventilatory settings. The values of Rint,rs and Rrs of the present study were close to those of Bernasconi et al. (7) and of Tantucci et al. (32) but lower than those reported by Broseghini et al. (9). This discrepancy can probably be explained by the fact that in the latter investigation the patients were studied during the first day of mechanical ventilation. Indeed, in COPD patients the impairment of respiratory mechanics is in general



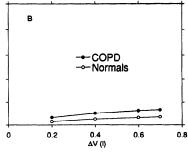


FIG. 7. Average relationships of additional resistance of chest wall (ΔRW) to \dot{V} at constant ΔV of 0.73 liter (A) and to ΔV at constant \dot{V} of 0.8 l/s (B) of 10 COPD patients and 18 normal subjects (11). Bars, SE when larger than symbols.

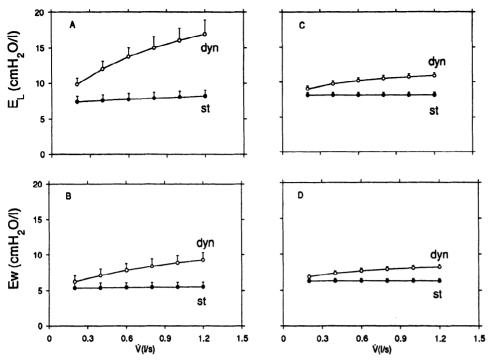


FIG. 8. Average relationships of static (st) and dynamic (dyn) elastance of lung (EL; A and C) and chest wall (Ew; B and D) to \dot{V} at constant ΔV of 0.73 liter of 10 COPD patients (A and B) and 18 normal subjects (C and D) (11). Bars, SE when larger than symbols.

more severe on the first day of mechanical ventilation than later on (24). The values of PEEPi were also higher in the study of Broseghini et al. compared with the other studies. This probably not only reflects the earlier investigation of the patients but also the shorter duration of mechanical expiration (Table 4). Our values of K_1 and K_2 were 2.7 and 6.3 times higher than those of normal subjects, respectively (Table 2). An increase of K_1 and K_2 has been previously reported in stable COPD patients (13, 15).

 ΔR . An increase of ΔR rs has been previously reported at fixed inflation \dot{V} and ΔV in mechanically ventilated COPD patients (7, 9, 32). The values obtained by Tantucci et al. (32) were essentially the same as in the pres-

ent study and were obtained at similar baseline ventilatory settings (Table 4). The values of Bernasconi et al. (7) were slightly higher, probably reflecting the longer TI (see $Eq.\ 1$). The highest values of ΔRrs were exhibited by the patients studied on the first day of mechanical ventilation by Broseghini et al. (9). Although this probably mostly reflected greater severity of lung disease, a relatively long TI may also have contributed to it.

The increase of ΔRrs found in the COPD patients was mainly due to increased ΔRL (Fig. 6), which probably mainly reflects increased dynamic dissipations due to time constant inhomogeneity within the lungs (26). Increased pressure losses of viscoelastic units within the lung could also contribute to increased ΔRL in COPD.

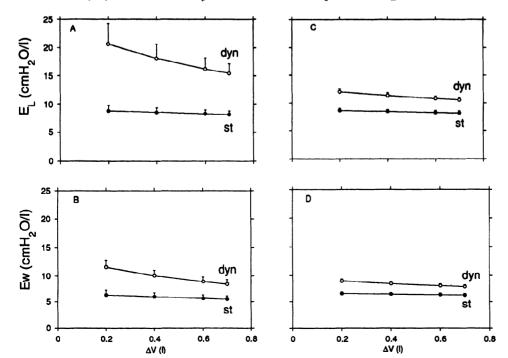


FIG. 9. Average relationships of static (st) and dynamic (dyn) EL (A and C) and EW (B and D) to ΔV at constant \dot{V} of 0.8 l/s of 10 COPD patients (A and B) and 18 normal subjects (C and D). Bars, SE when larger than symbols.

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TABLE 4. Values of respiratory mechanics in mechanically ventilated COPD patients

Reference	n	Time, days	ΔV, liter	Ϋ́, l∕s	TI, s	TE,	PEEPi, cmH₂O	ΔFRC, liter	Est,rs, cmH ₂ O/l	Rint,rs, cm $H_2O \cdot l^{-1} \cdot s$	ΔRrs , $cmH_2O \cdot l^{-1} \cdot s$	$Rrs, \\ cmH_2O \cdot l^{-1} \cdot s$
Bernasconi												
et al. (7)	11	1-9	0.68 ± 0.05	0.61 ± 0.04	1.30 ± 0.06	2.60 ± 0.18	5.1 ± 0.3		22.2 ± 0.01	8.1 ± 1.3	7.2 ± 0.3	15.8 ± 0.6
Broseghini												
et al. (9)	8	1	0.69 ± 0.03	0.62 ± 0.01	1.20 ± 0.05	2.14 ± 0.05	13.6 ± 0.8	0.66 ± 0.10	17.9 ± 0.01	15.6 ± 3.1	10.8 ± 2.0	26.4 ± 4.7
Tantucci et al.												
(32)	6	1-4	0.80 ± 0.04	1.01 ± 0.03	0.93 ± 0.04	3.35 ± 0.04	4.6 ± 0.9	0.42 ± 0.18	11.1 ± 0.01	8.0 ± 1.8	5.5 ± 1.0	13.5 ± 1.0
Present												
study	10	1-16	0.73 ± 0.02	0.80 ± 0.03	0.92 ± 0.01	3.98 ± 0.20	5.7 ± 0.9	0.34 ± 0.06	12.6 ± 0.7	7.2 ± 0.6	$5.6 {\pm} 0.5$	12.8 ± 1.1

Values are means \pm SE; n, no. of patients studied. Time, range of days between orotracheal intubation and experiment; ΔV , baseline tidal volume; \dot{V} , baseline inspiratory flow; TI, inspiratory time; TE, expiratory time; PEEPi, intrinsic end-expiratory positive pressure; ΔFRC , difference between end-expiratory lung volume during mechanical ventilation and relaxation volume; Est,rs, Rrs, Rint,rs, and ΔRrs , static elastance, total resistance, interrupter resistance, and additional resistance, respectively, of the respiratory system.

Indeed, derecruitment of lung units due to airway closure and loss of pulmonary tissue due to emphysema could be expected to result in an increase of both ΔRL and ΔEL .

As in normal subjects (11), ΔRL fitted Eq. 1 in our patients. Because of higher values of R₂,L, the values of ΔRL were higher in COPD patients than in normal subjects. In contrast, the values of τ_2 ,L were not significantly different between COPD patients and normal subjects (Table 3), reflecting equivalent changes in R_2 ,L and E_2 ,L in the COPD patients. The nature of this phenomenon is not clear. Loss of pulmonary tissue, whether anatomic (resection, emphysema) or functional (derecruitment), in the absence of rheologic changes of the remaining tissue should result in a proportional increase of R_2 and E_2 without a change in τ_2 (e.g., resection of one lung should result in approximately doubling of both R₂,L and E₂,L but no change in τ_2 ,L). This explanation, however, does not take into account the complex structural changes in the lungs of COPD patients nor the increased regional time constant inhomogeneity within their lungs. In nor-

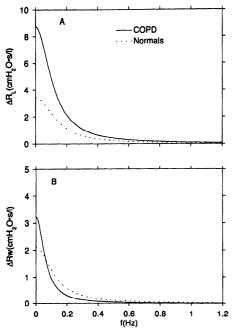


FIG. 10. Average relationships of ΔRL (A) and ΔRW (B) to frequency (f) of 10 COPD patients and 18 normal subjects (11) computed according to Eq. 7 using constants in Table 3. Intercepts of curves at f=0 correspond to R_2 .

mal lungs, the regional time constants are small relative to the time constant of the viscoelastic units. Accordingly, in normal subjects τ_2 ,L, which amounts to 1.11 \pm 0.10 s, mainly reflects viscoelastic behavior (11). In patients with COPD the regional differences in the time constant should increase substantially. Nevertheless, the slow viscoelastic behavior is probably still predominant, such that τ_2 ,L does not increase significantly in COPD patients (Table 3). However, this hypothesis must be taken with reservations because our analysis does not allow us to assess separately the contribution of pendelluft and viscoelastic behavior to ΔRL , ΔEL , and "viscoelastic" constants. Nevertheless, independent of the underlying mechanisms, the increase of ΔRL and ΔEL observed in the COPD patients implies increased work of breathing.

Est. The values of Est, L of the COPD patients of the present study were similar to those of the normal subjects of D'Angelo et al. (11) (Table 3). During anesthesia paralysis in the supine position, Van Lith et al. (33) found that in five stable COPD patients Est, L averaged 3.8 ± 0.8 cmH₂O/l. This value is substantially lower than that in the COPD patients of the present study, possibly reflecting the fact that the patients of Van Lith et al. had a greater degree of pulmonary emphysema or that Est,L increases in acute failure due to dynamic pulmonary hyperinflation, small airway closure, atelectasis, etc. In fact the value of Est,rs of our COPD patients was similar to that of the COPD patients in acute respiratory failure studied by Tantucci et al. (32) (Table 4). In contrast, a higher value of Est,rs was found by Broseghini et al. (9) in COPD patients studied during the first day of mechanical ventilation (Table 4). This is probably because of the fact that the latter patients exhibited a more marked degree of dynamic hyperinflation, as reflected by a higher change in functional residual capacity (Table 4), and hence were operating on a flatter part of the static V-P curve of the lungs.

 ΔE and Edyn. As a result of ΔEL , Edyn,L was higher than Est,L. As predicted by Eq. 4, at constant ΔV , Edyn,L increased with \dot{V} (Fig. 8), whereas at constant \dot{V} , it decreased with ΔV (Fig. 9). ΔEL implies that under dynamic conditions the effective elastic recoil pressure of the lung exceeds Pst,L by P_1-P_2 . P_1-P_2 reflects the additional elastic pressure stored in the viscoelastic units of the pulmonary tissues (i.e., in springs E_2 ,L in Fig. 2) (11) and contributions due to time constant inhomogen-

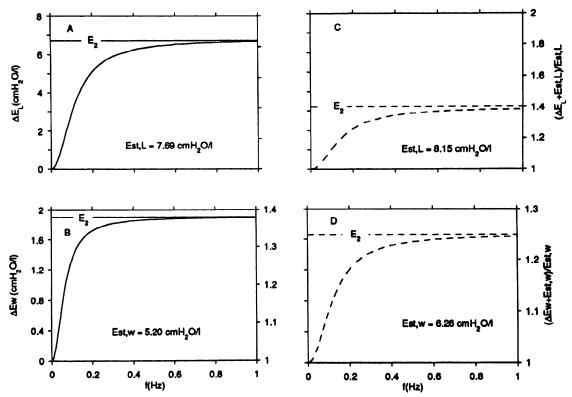


FIG. 11. Average relationships of Δ EL (A and C) and Δ Ew (B and D) to f of 10 COPD patients (A and B) and 18 normal subjects (C and D) (11) computed according to Eq. 8 using constants in Table 3. Curves asymptote toward E₂. Also shown on right-hand ordinates are changes in dynamic elastance (= Δ E + Est) expressed as a fraction of Est.

eities within the lungs, which in COPD should be substantial (26).

Frequency Dependence of Elastance and Resistance in COPD Patients

During steady-state sinusoidal breathing, ΔRL and ΔRW should decrease with increasing frequency (f) according to the following function (11)

$$\Delta R = R_2/(1 + \omega^2 \tau_2^2) \tag{7}$$

where ω is angular frequency (= $2\pi f$).

Figure 10 illustrates the relationships of ΔRL and ΔRW with f, computed according to Eq. 7 using the average values of R_2 and r_2 in Table 3. At low f, the values of ΔR

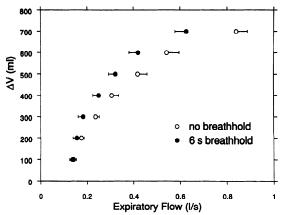


FIG. 12. Average relationships of ΔV to \dot{V} during passive expiration of 10 COPD patients. Results obtained at baseline ventilatory settings ($\Delta V=0.73$ liter and $\dot{V}=0.8$ l/s) without and with 6-s end-inspiratory breathhold. Bars, SE when larger than symbols.

were higher in COPD patients than in normal subjects for both lung and chest wall, reflecting the higher values of R_2 . With increasing f, ΔRw and ΔRL decreased rapidly in both COPD patients and normal subjects, becoming negligible at f > 0.6 Hz. Although the relationship of ΔRL with f was markedly different between COPD patients and normal subjects, that of ΔRw with f was relatively close.

During steady-state sinusoidal breathing, ΔEL and ΔEW should change with f according to

$$\Delta E = \omega^2 \tau_2^2 E_2 / (1 + \omega^2 \tau_2^2) \tag{8}$$

Figure 11 shows the relationships of ΔEL and ΔEw with f, computed according to Eq. 8 using the average values of E_2 and τ_2 in Table 3. Also shown, on the right-hand ordinates, are the corresponding values of dynamic elastance (=Est + Δ E) expressed as a ratio of Est. In contrast to ΔRL and ΔRw , ΔEL and ΔEw increased with increasing f, asymptoting toward E_2 at f > 0.6 Hz. The values of ΔE_L were considerably higher in COPD patients than in normal subjects. At f = 0.6 Hz, the increase in Edyn,L relative to Est,L was greater in COPD patients than in normal subjects (82 vs. 37%), whereas the corresponding increase for the chest wall was less pronounced (36 vs. 25%). Previous studies on stable awake COPD patients have shown that the magnitude of the changes in pulmonary resistance (15) and elastance (34) with f are greater in COPD patients than in normal subjects. Our results (Figs. 10 and 11) are in line with these observations. It should be noted, however, that our analysis was based on results obtained only during inspiration, whereas in the previous studies the measurements were obtained during the whole breathing cycle. Hence our analysis does not

include possible contributions due to plastoelastic phenomena, which may play a role during cycling breathing (3).

The high values of R_2 ,L and E_2 ,L found in the COPD patients imply that at f < 0.6 Hz the viscoelastic work is markedly increased relative to normal subjects (11). To a lesser extent, this is also true for the viscoelastic work of the chest wall.

Implications on Passive Lung Emptying

Figure 12 shows the relationship between ΔV and \dot{V} obtained during lung deflation in the 10 COPD patients after baseline mechanical ventilation both without and with an end-inspiratory pause of 6 s. Without the pause, the expiratory flows were higher than with the pause. This could be attributed to the fact that without the endinspiratory breathhold there is additional energy stored in springs E_2 , L and E_2 , W, as reflected by $P_1 - P_2$ (11, 23).

In the iso- ΔV experiment, ΔR decreased with flow according to $Eq.\ 2$. Because $\Delta R = (P_1 - P_2)/\dot{V}, Eq.\ 2$ can be rearranged into the following equation, which relates $P_1 - P_2$ to inflation flow for any given ΔV

$$P_1 - P_2 = \dot{V}R_2(1 - e^{-\Delta V/\dot{V}\tau_2})$$
 (9)

According to Eq. 9, after rapid lung inflation with a concomitant increase in $P_1 - P_2$ and in absence of an end-inspiratory pause to avoid dissipation of this additional elastic energy into dashpots R₂,L and R₂,w (Fig. 2), the expiratory flows should be higher than after a slow inflation or an end-inspiratory pause. It should be noted, however, that contrary to normal anesthetized paralyzed subjects (6) the ΔV - \dot{V} relationships of the COPD patients both with and without an end-inspiratory pause exhibited an upward convexity (Fig. 12) that, according to Gottfried et al. (14), should reflect expiratory flow limitation. If expiratory flow limitation was present with the end-inspiratory pause, how could the expiratory flows be higher without the pause? This phenomenon could be attributed to the fact that without the breathhold the overall elastic recoil pressure of the lung was higher than after the breathhold due to the additional elastic recoil pressure stored in spring E_2 ,L (= P_1 ,L - P_2 ,L). Indeed, to the extent that the maximal expiratory flow is modulated by the overall elastic recoil of the lung (20), an increase in expiratory flow should occur when this is increased. According to the model in Fig. 2, an increase in overall lung elastic recoil pressure can result from viscoelastic behavior of the pulmonary tissues. It should be noted, however, that differences in time constants within the lung could also contribute to the observed increase in expiratory flows during expiration without the breathhold. Whatever the nature of this phenomenon, the results in Fig. 12 have important implications in terms of dynamic pulmonary hyperinflation in COPD patients. To reduce dynamic pulmonary hyperinflation in mechanically ventilated COPD patients, low respiratory frequencies associated with low TI/TT ratios (and hence high inspiratory V) are commonly used. According to the present analysis, this strategy should be beneficial not only because of the prolongation of expiration per se but also because of a concomitant increase in expiratory flows. Both of these

mechanisms should contribute to a reduction in end-expiratory lung volume.

In conclusion, the present study is the first systematic investigation of the mechanics of the lung and chest wall in mechanically ventilated COPD patients with acute respiratory failure. Our main results are that in COPD patients 1) the static elastances of the lung and chest wall are not significantly different from those of normal subjects; 2) the pressure dissipations due to the viscoelastic properties of the chest wall are slightly increased; 3) the interrupter resistance is markedly increased; 4) the pressure dissipations due to the viscoelastic properties of pulmonary tissues and/or time constant inequalities within the lungs are markedly increased; 5) the magnitude of time dependency of pulmonary flow resistance and elastance is markedly increased; and 6) for comparative purposes, measurements of pulmonary and chest wall resistance and elastance must be standardized in view of their marked time, flow, and volume dependence.

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