

The relationship of fat and muscle measurements with emphysema and bronchial wall thickening in smokers

Stijn A.O. Bunk¹, Jetty Ipema¹, Grigory Sidorenkov², Edwin Bennink ¹, Rozemarijn Vliegenthart³, Pim A. de Jong¹, Esther Pompe¹, Jean-Paul Charbonnier⁴, Bart H.D. Luijk⁵, Joachim Aerts⁶, Harry J.M. Groen⁷ and Firdaus A.A. Mohamed Hoesein¹

¹Department of Radiology, University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht, The Netherlands. ²University of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, Department of Epidemiology, Groningen, The Netherlands. ³University of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, Center for Medical Imaging-North East Netherlands, Groningen, The Netherlands. ⁴Thirona, Nijmegen, The Netherlands. ⁵Department of Pulmonology, University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht, The Netherlands. ⁶Department of Respiratory Medicine, ErasmusMC, Rotterdam, The Netherlands. ⁷Department of Pulmonary Diseases, University Medical Center Groningen, University of Groningen, University of Groningen, University of Groningen, University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht, The Netherlands. ⁶Department of Respiratory Medicine, ErasmusMC, Rotterdam, The Netherlands. ⁷Department of Pulmonary Diseases, University Medical Center Groningen, University of Groningen, The Netherlands.

Corresponding author: Stijn A.O. Bunk (S.A.O.Bunk-2@umcutrecht.nl)



Shareable abstract (@ERSpublications) In a group of long-time smokers, CT-derived fat and muscle measurements related to mild emphysema and bronchial wall thickening. This finding could help inform early detection of fat and muscle loss during routine screening. https://bit.ly/3S8jns9

Cite this article as: Bunk SAO, Ipema J, Sidorenkov G, *et al.* The relationship of fat and muscle measurements with emphysema and bronchial wall thickening in smokers. *ERJ Open Res* 2024; 10: 00749-2023 [DOI: 10.1183/23120541.00749-2023].

Copyright ©The authors 2024

This version is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial Licence 4.0. For commercial reproduction rights and permissions contact permissions@ersnet.org

Received: 6 Oct 2023 Accepted: 17 Dec 2023



Abstract

Introduction Differences in body composition in patients with COPD may have important prognostic value and may provide opportunities for patient-specific management. We investigated the relation of thoracic fat and muscle with computed tomography (CT)-measured emphysema and bronchial wall thickening.

Methods Low-dose baseline chest CT scans from 1031 male lung cancer screening participants from one site were quantified for emphysema, bronchial wall thickening, subcutaneous fat, visceral fat and skeletal muscle. Body composition measurements were performed by segmenting the first slice above the aortic arch using Hounsfield unit thresholds with region growing and manual corrections. COPD presence and severity were evaluated with pre-bronchodilator spirometry testing.

Results Participants had a median age of 61.5 years (58.6–65.6, 25th–75th percentile) and median number of 38.0 pack-years (28.0–49.5); 549 (53.2%) were current smokers. Overall, 396 (38.4%) had COPD (256 Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease (GOLD) 1, 140 GOLD 2–3). Participants with COPD had less subcutaneous fat, visceral fat and skeletal muscle (p<0.001 for all). With increasing GOLD stages, subcutaneous (p=0.005) and visceral fat values (p=0.004) were higher, and skeletal muscle was lower (p=0.004). With increasing severity of CT-derived emphysema, subcutaneous fat, visceral fat and skeletal muscle values were lower (p<0.001 for all). With increasing CT-derived bronchial wall thickness, subcutaneous and visceral fat values were higher (p<0.001 for both), without difference in skeletal muscle. All statistical relationships remained when adjusted for age, pack-years and smoking status.

Conclusion COPD presence and emphysema severity are associated with smaller amounts of thoracic fat and muscle, whereas bronchial wall thickening is associated with fat accumulation.

Introduction

Among smokers, COPD is the second leading cause of death and in some countries, it is even the primary cause of smoking-related deaths [1]. For COPD patients the number of pack-years smoked contributes to disease severity [2]. The airflow limitation in COPD can be caused by airway disease and/or emphysema. In the end-stages of the disease a typical bronchitis patient, also called "blue bloater", classically presents as obese, whereas a typical emphysema patient, also called "pink puffer", is cachectic [3, 4]. Previous studies including early-stage disease information did not perform an in-depth analysis of the statistical relationship between early-stage disease and body composition [5].

Multiple studies have shown a negative association between anthropometric fat measurements and pulmonary function [6, 7], but other studies showed a higher body mass index (BMI) in persons with bronchial wall thickening compared to persons with emphysema [8]. Another study showed that the fat mass index was positively associated with bronchial wall thickness [9]. The ratio of fat types may be important too, as visceral fat is known to be more metabolically active than subcutaneous fat [10]. Mediastinal fat has been shown to be associated with decreased incremental shuttle walk distance and increased interleukin-6 levels, and subcutaneous fat with reduced emphysema progression [11]. In addition to fat, lower intercostal muscle mass was shown to be associated with a higher risk for repeated hospital admissions due to COPD exacerbations [12] and a higher Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease (GOLD) stage [13]. Previous research also showed that persons with lower pectoral muscle mass tended to have more severe airflow obstruction at expiration, a lower quality of life and a reduced exercise capacity [14]. Studies also showed that the fat-free mass index is negatively associated with emphysema [9, 15].

Computed tomography (CT) is a widely used and effective method for not only visualising early signs of COPD, but also quantifying fat and muscle quantity. CT is an easy and accurate method to investigate fat and muscle in larger cohort studies [16–18] when paired with automated analysis of body composition [19, 20]. The aim of our study was to investigate fat and muscle quantity in the chest in relation to subtypes of COPD, namely emphysema and bronchial wall thickening, in cases at an early disease stage.

Materials and methods

Study population

The Dutch and Belgium Lung Cancer Screening Trial (NELSON) is a randomised controlled population-based trial. Participants were current or former smokers with a smoking history of >15 cigarettes/day for >25 years or >10 cigarettes/day for >30 years. Inclusion and exclusion criteria have previously been described [21–23]. The screening group underwent low-dose inspiratory chest CT scanning. For the current study, a subsample of participants who underwent pulmonary function testing at the University Medical Center Utrecht was used, as previously described [24]. The Medical Ethics Committee approved the ancillary study protocol, and written informed consent for side studies was obtained from all participants included in the present study. This study was conducted as part of the NELSON-POP project, which is an extension of NELSON [25].

Pulmonary function testing

Pre-bronchodilator pulmonary function tests were performed according to the European Respiratory Society/American Thoracic Society guidelines [26]. Forced expiratory volume in 1 s (FEV₁) and forced vital capacity (FVC) were recorded [24]. FEV₁ was expressed as per cent predicted, calculated by FEV₁ of the patient divided by the mean FEV₁ in the population. COPD was defined as a FEV₁/FVC ratio <70%. GOLD stage was defined as: 1) mild, when FEV₁ was equal to or higher than 80% predicted; 2) moderate, when FEV₁ was between 50 and 80% predicted; and 3) severe, when FEV₁ was <50% predicted [27]. Given the limited number of participants staged as GOLD 3, they were grouped with GOLD 2 in the analysis.

Image acquisition

The scanning protocol has been previously described [24, 28]. Emphysema and airway measurements were performed on 1-mm axial slices at 0.7-mm increments. Pixel spacing ranged from 0.5 mm to 1.0 mm, with a mean±sp of 0.7±0.06 mm. Fat and muscle measurements were performed on post-processed slices with a thickness of 3.1 mm at 1.4-mm increments. These slices were created by averaging the 1-mm slices with a window of four slices and a step size of two slices. This post-processing step was performed to reduce image noise.

Emphysema and airway measurements

CT emphysema was defined as the Hounsfield unit (HU) value at the 15th percentile (Perc15) of the attenuation–distribution curve of all pulmonary voxels. The procedure for calculating Perc15 has been previously described [24, 29]. Bronchial wall thickness was defined as the square root of wall area at a theoretical internal lumen perimeter of 10 mm (Pi10). The procedure for calculating Pi10 has been previously described [29, 30]. All quantifications were performed with CIRRUS Lung 12.03 (Cirrus, Diagnostic Image Analysis Group, Radboud University Medical Center, Nijmegen, the Netherlands; Fraunhofer MEVIS, Bremen, Germany) [31].

Fat and muscle measurements

Fat and muscle measurements were performed using in-house developed manual segmentation software, with the observers adhering to a structured procedure. To start, the observer, a medical student, selected the correct axial slice. This was the first CT slice above the aortic arch. On the CT slice, areas containing



FIGURE 1 A computed tomography slice at the level just above the aortic arch.

visceral fat, subcutaneous fat and skeletal muscle were visually identified. Fat in the mediastinum was segmented as visceral fat. Skeletal muscle was segmented into four groups as determined visually by the observer: dorsal, shoulder, intercostal and pectoral muscle. These four groups were aggregated into an overall measurement of skeletal muscle. Manually initiated 2D region growing, based on a tissue's HU range, was used to label the tissue types. For visceral fat this was -150 to -50 HU, for subcutaneous fat -190 to -30 HU and for muscles -29 to 150 HU [32]. Inaccuracies were manually corrected. In figure 1 an example of an unsegmented slice is shown. In figure 2 multiple segmented slices are shown. To assess interobserver variability, two medical students, blinded for each other's results, performed fat and muscle measurements on the same 200 scans.

Statistical analysis

SPSS (version 26 for Windows) was used for data analysis. The intraclass correlation coefficient was used to test interobserver variability between the two observers. A coefficient above 0.7 was considered good and above 0.8 excellent [33]. Normality of data distribution was determined by visual analysis of Q-Q plots and histograms. Pi10 was divided into quartiles, from lowest bronchial wall disease (quartile 1) to highest bronchial wall disease (quartile 4). Perc15 was also divided into quartiles, from lowest amount of emphysema (quartile 1) to highest amount of emphysema (quartile 4). Differences in fat and muscle areas between the group with and without COPD, GOLD stages, Perc15 quartiles and Pi10 quartiles were



FIGURE 2 Population overview showing large variation in tissue distribution. Yellow: subcutaneous fat; pink: visceral fat; blue: skeletal muscle. a) Large amount of muscle. b) Large amount of subcutaneous fat. c) Large amount of visceral fat. analysed using the independent t-test (ANOVA). A p-value of 0.05 or lower was considered significant. *Post hoc* Tukey was used to determine the significantly different groups.

To understand the possible effect of confounders on the association of emphysema and bronchial wall thickness with the measures of thoracic fat and muscle, general linear models (GLM) were specified adjusting for age, pack-years and smoking status. Separate GLMs were created for the Perc15 and Pi10 quartiles. Separate GLMs were used because Perc15 and Pi10 are correlated, and thus should not be part of the same model. Subcutaneous fat, visceral fat and skeletal muscle area were chosen to be the dependent variables. Data are presented as mean±sD and median (interquartile range (IQR)) depending on the distribution unless stated otherwise.

Results

Study population

The study population comprised 1031 male participants who underwent pre-bronchodilator spirometry in addition to the lung cancer screening CT scan. The participants had a median (IQR) age of 61.5 (58.6–65.6) years and median pack-years of 38.0 (28.0–49.5). 549 (53.2%) participants were current smokers. Based on spirometry, COPD was diagnosed in 396 participants (38.4%), including 256 staged GOLD 1, 117 GOLD 2 and 23 GOLD 3. Detailed characteristics for the No COPD and COPD groups are shown in table 1. The COPD group was significantly older, had more pack-years and comprised relatively more current smokers. Age, number of pack-years and smoking status did not differ between the groups based on GOLD stage (supplementary table E1). Bronchial wall thickness data were only available for 1012 participants. BMI data were only available for 849 participants and were not analysed, but are reported. Intraclass correlation coefficients between observers were excellent for subcutaneous fat area (0.988), visceral fat area (0.937) and skeletal muscle area (0.957). The fat and muscle measurements stratified by the Perc15 quartiles, Pi10 quartiles and COPD stage are shown visually in figure 3. Distribution histograms of fat and muscle measurements, Perc15 and Pi10 can be seen in supplementary figures E1 to E9, showing they are all normally distributed.

COPD and body composition differences

The outcomes of the fat and muscle measurements stratified by the presence of COPD are reported in table 1. Individuals with COPD had less subcutaneous fat (no COPD: 150.5 cm², COPD: 126.4 cm², 16% less)

TABLE 1 Characteristics of the 1031 included male participants subdivided by COPD status				
	Total group	No COPD	COPD	p-value (between no COPD and COPD)
Participants n	1031	635	396	
Age years, median (IQR)	61.5 (7.1)	61.2 (6.9)	62.3 (7)	0.013
Pack-years smoked, median (IQR)	38 (21.5)	34.2 (18.3)	38.7 (19.8)	0.002
Current smoker, n (%)	549 (53.20)	316 (49.80)	233 (58.80)	0.004
FEV ₁ % predicted, mean±sp	96.8±17.3	103.5±13.7	86±17.2	<0.001
FEV ₁ /FVC %, mean±sp	71.7±9	76.7±4.9	63.6±8.1	<0.001
Subcutaneous fat cm ² , mean±sp	141.2±53.3	150.5±51.8	126.4±52.4	<0.001
Visceral fat cm ² , mean±sp	12.6±5.2	13.3±5.3	11.6±4.8	<0.001
Skeletal muscle cm ² , mean±sp	227.2±30.2	231.5±30.3	220.4±28.7	<0.001
Dorsal muscle cm ² , mean±sD	42.5±6.3	42.8±6.1	42.0±6.5	0.074
Shoulder muscle cm ² , mean±sp	123.5±19.6	125.7±19.9	119.9±18.4	<0.001
Intercostal muscle cm ² , mean±sp	14.4±3.6	14.6±3.5	13.9±3.8	0.002
Pectoral muscle cm ² , mean±sD	46.9±9.6	48.5±9.6	44.5±9.0	<0.001
Perc15 HU, mean±sp	-907.9±19	-902.5±17.8	-916.7±17.5	<0.001
Pi10 mm, mean±sp	2.4±0.5	2.3±0.4	2.6±0.5	<0.001
BMI kg·m ⁻² , mean±sp	26.3±3.4	26.9±3.3	25.3±3.4	<0.001
Missing, n	182	107	75	

p-values for age and pack-years smoked calculated using Kruskal–Wallis, all others calculated using ANOVA. Significant data (p<0.05) are highlighted in bold. IQR: interquartile range; FEV_1 : forced expiratory volume in 1 s; FVC: forced vital capacity; HU: Hounsfield unit; Perc15: computed tomography emphysema HU value at percentile 15; Pi10: bronchial wall thickness at lumen perimeter 10 mm; BMI: body mass index.



FIGURE 3 Boxplots showing group quartile differences for COPD stages in the first row, Perc15 quartiles in the second row and Pi10 quartiles in the third row. The letters above the columns indicate *post hoc* Tukey group. Perc15: computed tomography emphysema Hounsfield unit value at percentile 15; Pi10: bronchial wall thickness at lumen perimeter 10 mm; GOLD: Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease. Values more than 1.5 times IQR below Q1 or above Q3 are indicated by circles, and values more than 3.0 times IQR below Q1 or above Q3 are indicated by asterisks.

and visceral fat (no COPD: 13.3 cm², COPD: 11.6 cm², 12.9% less), as well as less skeletal muscle (no COPD: 231.5 cm², COPD: 220.4 cm², 4.7% less) (p<0.001 for all). With increasing GOLD stages (GOLD 1 to GOLD 2–3) the subcutaneous fat amount (121.7 *versus* 135.0 cm², p=0.017) was higher (figure 3, supplementary table E1).

Emphysema and body composition differences

More severe emphysema was correlated with reductions in fat and muscle (figure 3). With increasing severity of CT-derived emphysema (Q1 Perc15 *versus* Q4 Perc15), subcutaneous fat decreased on average by 22.3%, from 153.3 to 119.1 cm². Visceral fat decreased on average by 13.8%, from 13.0 to 11.2 cm², while skeletal muscle decreased on average by 7.6%, from 235.0 to 217.2 cm² (p<0.001 for all). The *post hoc* Tukey test result shows that the amount of skeletal muscle was already significantly different in Q2 *versus* Q1 (supplementary table E2).

Bronchial wall thickening and body composition differences

In contrast to emphysema, a higher value of Pi10, indicating thicker bronchial walls, showed significant association with higher amounts of subcutaneous and visceral fat (figure 3). From Q1 Pi10 to Q4 Pi10, subcutaneous fat increased on average by 14.7% from 130.7 cm² to 149.9 cm² (p<0.001). Visceral fat increased by 13.6% from 11.7 cm² to 13.2 cm² (p<0.001). No significant difference was found for muscle area (p=0.065). The *post hoc* Tukey test result shows that the amount of fat was already significantly different in Q2 *versus* Q1 (supplementary table E3).

Separate analysis of former and current smokers

For Perc15 and Pi10, when splitting the dataset by former and current smokers, no differences in the presence of statistical relationships were observed. Both groups (former *versus* current smoker) showed significant differences between Perc15 quartiles for subcutaneous (p<0.001 for both) and visceral (p<0.001 and p=0.001) fat, and for skeletal muscle (p<0.001 and p=0.004). For Pi10 quartiles there were significant differences for subcutaneous (p=0.032 and p=0.001) and visceral (p=0.019 and p=0.012) fat but not for skeletal muscle (p=0.090 and p=0.664).

Significance of separate muscle groups

The separate dorsal, shoulder, intercostal and pectoral muscle areas had different statistical relationships from each other with COPD, Perc15 and Pi10. Boxplots of these muscle group areas are shown in supplementary figure E10. Individuals with COPD had less shoulder (p<0.001), intercostal (p=0.002) and pectoral (p<0.001) muscle (table 1). No muscle groups were significantly different between GOLD 1 and GOLD 2–3 (supplementary table E1).

More severe emphysema was correlated with less shoulder and pectoral muscle (p<0.001 for both). The *post hoc* Tukey test result shows the amount of muscle was already significantly different in Q2 *versus* Q1 (supplementary table E2).

Higher values of Pi10 were correlated with less shoulder muscle (p=0.012). The *post hoc* Tukey test result shows the amount of muscle was already significantly different in Q2 *versus* Q1 (supplementary table E3).

Relation of confounders and outcomes

In GLM analysis of the influence of confounders on the association of emphysema and bronchial wall thickness with the thoracic fat and muscle measurements, some significant relationships between the thoracic fat and muscle measurements and age, pack-years, or smoking status were observed (tables 2 and 3). For Perc15, age had a significant effect on skeletal muscle (p<0.001), smoking status had a significant effect on subcutaneous and visceral fat and skeletal muscle (p<0.0001 for all), and pack-years had a significant effect on subcutaneous fat (p=0.008). For Pi10, age had a significant effect on skeletal muscle (p<0.001), smoking status had a significant effect on subcutaneous fat (p=0.008). For Pi10, age had a significant effect on skeletal muscle (p<0.001), smoking status had a significant effect on subcutaneous and visceral fat (p=0.008). However, based on these analyses, when corrected for confounders, no significant relationships of interest changed (supplementary table E1 to E3).

Discussion

In a cohort of male current and former smokers with and without COPD who participated in lung cancer screening, we investigated the relation of early CT signs of emphysema and bronchial wall thickening with CT-derived measures of thoracic fat and muscle. We observed significant differences in amounts of fat and muscle by GOLD stage, emphysema severity and bronchial wall thickness. The group with COPD had smaller areas of fat and muscle. Increasing emphysema severity was associated with smaller areas of fat and muscle, whereas increasing bronchial wall thickening was associated with more subcutaneous and visceral fat but not muscle. Interestingly, a smaller muscle area was already seen in participants in the 2nd quartile of Perc15, and larger areas of fat were already seen in the 2nd quartile of Pi10. The findings remained similar in GLM that adjusted for confounders. This suggests that the classic end-stage COPD phenotypes characterised by either cachexia and emphysema (pink puffers) or fat accumulation and

Dependent variable	Parameter estimate	Standard error	p-value
Subcutaneous fat cm ²			
Intercept	129.268	20.261	<0.001
Age	-0.131	0.314	0.677
Current smoker	-21.51	3.339	<0.001
Pack-years	0.244	0.091	0.008
GOLD stage	-3.494	2.228	0.117
Perc15 Q1	37.697	5.058	<0.001
Perc15 Q2	31.409	4.778	<0.001
Perc15 Q3	24.077	4.638	< 0.001
Perc15 Q4	reference*		
Visceral fat cm ²			
Intercept	11.47	2.034	< 0.001
Age	0.004	0.032	0.904
Current smoker	-1.649	0.335	< 0.001
Pack-years	0.011	0.009	0.222
GOLD stage	-0.287	0.224	0.199
Perc15 Q1	2.052	0.508	<0.001
Perc15 Q2	2.316	0.48	<0.001
Perc15 Q3	1.484	0.466	0.001
Perc15 Q4	reference"		
Skeletal muscle cm ⁻	202 521	11 450	-0.001
Intercept	302.521	11.450	<0.001
Age	-1.218	0.178	<0.001
Current smoker	-6.692	1.887	<0.001
Pack-years	-0.037	0.052	0.475
GOLD stage	-3.580	1.259	0.005
Percis QI	14.120	2.839	<0.001
Percis Q2	11.402 E 007	2.700	0.001
Percis Q3	5.907	2.021	0.024
Percis Q4	Telefence		
	60 242	2 457	<0.001
	-0.273	0.038	<0.001
Age Current smoker	-0.213	0.038	0.063
Pack-years	-0.008	0.011	0.003
GOLD stage	-0.352	0.270	0.193
Perc 15 O1	-0.058	0.613	0.133
Perc15 Q1	0.564	0.579	0.324
Perc15 Q2	0.347	0.562	0.530
Perc15 Q3	reference [#]	0.002	0.001
Shoulder muscle cm ²	101010100		
Intercept	162 419	7.553	< 0.001
Аде	-0.651	0.117	< 0.001
Current smoker	-3.343	1.245	0.007
Pack-vears	-0.023	0.034	0.492
GOLD stage	-1.228	0.831	0.140
Perc15 01	9.312	1.886	<0.001
Perc15 02	7.428	1.781	< 0.001
Perc15 03	3.735	1.729	0.031
Perc15 Q4	reference [#]		
Intercostal muscle cm ²			
Intercept	21.360	1.432	<0.001
Age	-0.101	0.022	<0.001
Current smoker	-0.457	0.236	0.053
Pack-vears	-0.005	0.006	0.000
GOLD stage	-0.482	0.157	0.002
Perc15 01	0.063	0.357	0.860
Perc15 02	-0.033	0 338	0.922
	-0.035	0.000	0.3

Continued

TABLE 2 Continued			
Dependent variable	Parameter estimate	Standard error	p-value
Perc15 Q3	0.008	0.328	0.980
Perc15 Q4	reference [#]		
Pectoral muscle cm ²			
Intercept	58.499	3.683	< 0.001
Age	-0.194	0.057	0.001
Current smoker	-2.139	0.607	< 0.001
Pack-years	0.000	0.017	0.980
GOLD stage	-1.519	0.405	< 0.001
Perc15 Q1	4.809	0.920	< 0.001
Perc15 Q2	3.443	0.869	< 0.001
Perc15 Q3	1.817	0.843	0.031
Perc15 Q4	reference [#]		

Significant data (p<0.05) are highlighted in bold. The parameter estimate indicates how much of the difference in measured tissue area is caused relative to the reference by every year of age, being a current smoker, every pack-year, GOLD stage group and specific quartile of Perc15. Perc15: computed tomography emphysema HU value at percentile 15; GOLD: Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease. [#]: this parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

FABLE 3 Parameter estimates for the general linear models with only quartiles of Pi10 as fixed independent *r*ariable

Dependent variable	Parameter estimate	Standard error	p-value
Subcutaneous fat cm ²			
Intercept	178.392	20.336	< 0.001
Age	-0.264	0.32	0.408
Current smoker	-16.162	3.3	< 0.001
Pack-years	0.28	0.094	0.003
GOLD stage	-14.915	2.248	< 0.001
Pi10 Q1	-31.292	4.835	< 0.001
Pi10 Q2	-13.843	4.797	0.004
Pi10 Q3	-14.98	4.636	0.001
Pi10 Q4	reference [#]		
Visceral fat cm ²			
Intercept	14.698	1.991	< 0.001
Age	-0.004	0.031	0.9
Current smoker	-1.298	0.323	< 0.001
Pack-years	0.014	0.009	0.142
GOLD stage	-1.061	0.22	< 0.001
Pi10 Q1	-2.49	0.473	< 0.001
Pi10 Q2	-0.759	0.47	0.106
Pi10 Q3	-1.349	0.454	0.003
Pi10 Q4	reference [#]		
Skeletal muscle cm ²			
Intercept	313.889	11.130	<0.001
Age	-1.277	0.175	< 0.001
Current smoker	-4.168	1.806	0.011
Pack-years	-0.043	0.051	0.524
GOLD stage	-7.282	1.230	<0.001
Pi10 Q1	-8.733	2.646	<0.001
Pi10 Q2	-5.687	2.625	0.013
Pi10 Q3	-1.030	2.537	0.631
Pi10 Q4	reference [#]		
Dorsal muscle cm ²			
Intercept	60.455	2.443	<0.001
Age	-0.273	0.038	<0.001
Current smoker	-0.763	0.396	0.054

Continued

TABLE 3 Continued			
Dependent variable	Parameter estimate	Standard error	p-value
Pack-years	-0.009	0.011	0.404
GOLD stage	-0.408	0.270	0.131
Pi10 Q1	0.014	0.581	0.981
Pi10 Q2	0.023	0.576	0.968
Pi10 Q3	0.331	0.557	0.553
Pi10 Q4	reference [#]		
Shoulder muscle cm ²			
Intercept	173.407	7.540	< 0.001
Age	-0.687	0.118	< 0.001
Current smoker	-2.069	1.223	0.091
Pack-years	-0.016	0.035	0.642
GOLD stage	-4.043	0.833	< 0.001
Pi10 Q1	-7.346	1.793	< 0.001
Pi10 Q2	-3.933	1.778	0.027
Pi10 Q3	-0.792	1.719	0.645
Pi10 Q4	reference [#]		
Intercostal muscle cm ²			
Intercept	21.929	1.420	< 0.001
Age	-0.105	0.022	< 0.001
Current smoker	-0.475	0.230	0.040
Pack-years	-0.008	0.007	0.210
GOLD stage	-0.550	0.157	< 0.001
Pi10 Q1	-0.118	0.338	0.727
Pi10 Q2	-0.237	0.335	0.479
Pi10 Q3	-0.188	0.324	0.561
Pi10 Q4	reference [#]		
Pectoral muscle cm ²			
Intercept	64.554	3.693	< 0.001
Age	-0.218	0.058	< 0.001
Current smoker	-1.458	0.599	0.015
Pack-years	8.246E-05	0.017	0.996
GOLD stage	-2.969	0.408	< 0.001
Pi10 Q1	-3.161	0.878	< 0.001
Pi10 Q2	-2.577	0.871	0.003
Pi10 Q3	-0.609	0.842	0.470
Pi10 Q4	reference [#]		

Significant data (p<0.05) are highlighted in bold. The parameter estimate indicates how much of the difference in measured tissue area is caused relative to the reference by every year of age, if the patient is a smoker, every pack-year, GOLD stage group and specific quartile of Pi10. Pi10: bronchial wall thickness at lumen perimeter 10 mm; GOLD: Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease. [#]: this parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

bronchial wall thickening (blue bloaters) may already exist at a mild stage of disease in smokers fit enough for potential lung surgery.

Visceral fat is known to produce hormones and cytokines that may induce inflammation [10], as seen in bronchitis and emphysema. Patients with thicker bronchial walls did have more visceral fat. It could represent a vicious circle of inflammatory bronchitis that is enhanced by inflammation from the metabolically active visceral fat compartment, similar to some other chronic inflammatory diseases such as atherosclerosis [34]. The decrease observed for visceral and subcutaneous fat with increasing emphysema severity was significant, with a larger reduction of subcutaneous fat than visceral fat. This suggests that in the early stage of emphysema fat loss occurs in both compartments, but more rapidly in the subcutaneous fat compartment. It also suggests that emphysema has a different underlying disease process compared to bronchitis, which is mainly caused by chronic inflammation. We speculate that the physical exertion of breathing in patients with emphysema.

Owing to clear inclusion and exclusion criteria, our cohort consisted of heavy (former) male smokers who were relatively healthy. Most patients in the COPD group were classified as GOLD 1, despite smoking on

average 38 pack-years. We observed significantly less fat and muscle in the COPD group compared to the group without COPD. This shows that even in patients with mild COPD, fat and muscle areas are affected. A significantly higher age in the COPD group compared to the group without COPD might, to some extent, also contribute to the differences in the amount of fat and muscle, as increasing age is related to lower subcutaneous fat and muscle amounts [35, 36]. However, age did not differ significantly between GOLD stages. The GLM analysis showed that age, when stratified by COPD presence or GOLD stage, had a small but significant effect on amount of skeletal muscle but not on the amount of fat. The relationship between age and skeletal muscle did not affect the observed statistical relationship between COPD and skeletal muscle.

Clinical importance

Using CT scans to quantify thoracic fat and muscle may help in diagnosing cachexia or sarcopenia and accumulation of visceral fat in an early stage of smoking-related disease, even when using low-dose scans. Early diagnosis might be helpful for effective management and prognosis, and prevention of muscle loss or fat accumulation by rehabilitation and lifestyle modification may be effective [37]. COPD and emphysema patients with loss of muscle or muscle weakness may benefit from muscle strengthening, as this may reduce exacerbations [12, 38, 39]. Furthermore, there may be a role for diet optimisation or supplementation to improve body composition and reduce cachexia. On the contrary, weight loss without reduction of skeletal muscle mass may be important for bronchitis-dominant patients as this is associated with improved clinical status [40].

Strengths and limitations

Strengths of our study are that we included a large cohort with low-dose CT scans and mostly participants without or with mild COPD, based on lung function criteria. Even stronger associations may be present in COPD patients with poorer disease condition and health status.

Our study has several limitations. First, our study group comprises only men. Fat distribution differs between men and women [41, 42]. This may have an impact when investigating a whole population, especially since susceptibility to COPD development in women seems to be greater than in men [43]. Second, in some cases the field of view of the CT scan did not cover the entire chest. This results in a bias towards underestimation of the amount of subcutaneous fat and muscle (figure 2), which could potentially result in bias towards zero effect. Nevertheless, significant differences were still found in subcutaneous fat between patients with emphysema and bronchial wall thickening. Methods are being developed to correct for an insufficient field of view [44]. Third, each type of fat and muscle was measured as an area on a single 3.1-mm CT slice. Therefore, the position of the patient and the slice selection may have influenced the results to some extent, as we did not employ full volumetric measurements. The associations we found might differ slightly in strength when looking at volume instead of area. Fourth, the quantitative methods for scoring emphysema are influenced by the low-dose scanning protocol, as this protocol decreases the signal to noise ratio, reducing measurement accuracy. Fifth, we also wished to analyse if specific muscle groups had individual significant differences based on disease severity, but only a composite measurement of all muscle groups added together showed significant relationships with disease severity. This is likely due to insignificant individual differences adding up to a larger, statistically significant difference. Sixth, a lower visceral fat measurement in Pi10 Q3 compared to Q2 and Q4 was observed. This can likely be attributed to measurement noise, as the overall correlation between Pi10 and visceral fat remains. Seventh, only pre-bronchodilator spirometry was performed, due to the limited time available in the lung cancer screening setting, while COPD is defined as post-bronchodilator FEV₁/FVC <70%. Eighth, in 2.2% of patients (23) in our dataset lung cancer was detected during one of the screening rounds. This is unlikely to affect our overall conclusion.

Conclusion

In patients with smoking-related pulmonary disease, mild COPD and mild emphysema are already associated with lower amounts of fat and muscle, and mild bronchial wall thickening is associated with fat accumulation. This may provide important information for prognosis and for personalised management of changes in body composition caused by early or mild smoking-related lung disease.

Acknowledgements: We are grateful to the following people from University Medical Center Groningen, University Medical Center Utrecht and Erasmus University Medical Center: R.J. van Klaveren, M. Oudkerk, W. Mali and H.J. de Koning for initiation, execution and follow-up of the NELSON trial; to C.A. van Iersel and K.A.M. van den Bergh for their contributions to the trial setup; to C.A. van der Aalst for her efforts in data analysis; and to all research

assistants, reading radiologists, treating specialists at the (screening) medical centres. We thank the trial participants and the staff from the participating institutes for the logistics and execution of the original screenings.

Provenance: Submitted article, peer reviewed.

Conflict of interest: S.A.O. Bunk has no conflict of interest to declare. J. Ipema has no conflict of interest to declare. G. Sidorenkov has no conflict of interest to declare. E. Bennink has no conflict of interest to declare. R. Vliegenthart declares receiving funding from the Dutch Cancer Foundation, Dutch Research Council and Dutch Heart Foundation, and institutional research grants from Siemens Healthineers. Pim A. de Jong has no conflict of interest to declare. E. Pompe declares she received fees from Thirona BV outside the submitted work and is an associate editor of this journal. J-P. Charbonnier declares he is a shareholder of Thirona BV. B.H.D. Luijk has no conflict of interest to declare. J. Aerts reports advisory board and speakers fees from MSD, BMS, Novocure, Astra-Zeneca, Amphera and Eli Lilly, and is a stock owner in Amphera. H.J.M. Groen has no conflict of interest to declare. F.A.A. Mohamed Hoesein has no conflict of interest to declare.

Support statement: This work is supported by funding from the Dutch Cancer Society, Siemens Healthineers, and by the Ministry of Economic Affairs and Climate Policy by means of the Public–Private Partnerships Allowance made available by the Top Sector Life Sciences & Health to stimulate public–private partnerships. Funding information for this article has been deposited with the Crossref Funder Registry.

References

- Reitsma MB, Kendrick PJ, Ababneh E, et al. Spatial, temporal, and demographic patterns in prevalence of smoking tobacco use and attributable disease burden in 204 countries and territories, 1990–2019: a systematic analysis from the Global Burden of Disease Study 2019. Lancet 2021; 397: 2337–2360.
- 2 Rennard SI, Vestbo J. COPD: the dangerous underestimate of 15%. Lancet 2016; 367: 1216–1219.
- 3 Mattison S, Christensen M. The pathophysiology of emphysema: considerations for critical care nursing practice. *Intensive Crit Care Nurs* 2016; 22: 329–337.
- 4 MacNee W. Pathology, pathogenesis, and pathophysiology. *BMJ* 2006; 332: 1202–1204.
- 5 Bak SH, Kwon SO, Han SS, *et al.* Computed tomography-derived area and density of pectoralis muscle associated disease severity and longitudinal changes in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: a case control study. *Respir Res* 2019; 20: 226.
- 6 Sutherland TJT, Goulding A, Grant AM, *et al.* The effect of adiposity measured by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry on lung function. *Eur Respir J* 2008; 32: 85–91.
- 7 Ceylan E, Çömlekçi A, Akkoçlu A, et al. The effects of body fat distribution on pulmonary function tests in the overweight and obese. South Med J 2009; 102: 30–35.
- 8 Mohamed Hoesein FAA, Schmidt M, Mets OM, *et al.* Discriminating dominant computed tomography phenotypes in smokers without or with mild COPD. *Respir Med* 2014; 108: 136–143.
- 9 Rutten EPA, Grydeland TB, Pillai SG, *et al.* Quantitative CT: associations between emphysema, airway wall thickness and body composition in COPD. *Pulm Med* 2011; 2011: 419328.
- 10 Zammit C, Liddicoat H, Moonsie I, et al. Obesity and respiratory diseases. Int J Gen Med 2010; 3: 335–343.
- **11** Grace J, Leader JK, Nouraie SM, *et al.* Mediastinal and subcutaneous chest fat are differentially associated with emphysema progression and clinical outcomes in smokers. *Respiration* 2017; 94: 501–509.
- 12 Güerri R, Gayete A, Balcells E, *et al.* Mass of intercostal muscles associates with risk of multiple exacerbations in COPD. *Respir Med* 2010; 104: 378–388.
- 13 Park MJ, Cho JM, Jeon KN, *et al.* Mass and fat infiltration of intercostal muscles measured by CT histogram analysis and their correlations with COPD severity. *Acad Radiol* 2014; 21: 711–717.
- 14 McDonald M-LN, Diaz AA, Ross JC, et al. Quantitative computed tomography measures of pectoralis muscle area and disease severity in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. A cross-sectional study. Ann Am Thorac Soc 2014; 11: 326–334.
- 15 Shimada T, Chubachi S, Otake S, *et al.* Differential impacts between fat mass index and fat-free mass index on patients with COPD. *Respir Med* 2023; 217: 107346.
- 16 Heymsfield S, Baumgarter R, Allison D, *et al.* Etiology and pathophysiology Part 1. In: Bray G, Bouchard C, James W, eds. Handbook of Obesity. 2nd Edn. New York/Basel, Marcel Dekker Inc, 2004; p. 49.
- 17 Klopfenstein BJ, Kim MS, Krisky CM, *et al.* Comparison of 3 T MRI and CT for the measurement of visceral and subcutaneous adipose tissue in humans. *Br J Radiol* 2012; 85: e826–e830.
- 18 Mathur S, Rozenberg D, Verweel L, *et al.* Chest computed tomography is a valid measure of body composition in individuals with advanced lung disease. *Clin Physiol Funct Imaging* 2020; 40: 360–368.
- **19** Bridge CP, Rosenthal M, Wright B, *et al.* Fully-automated analysis of body composition from CT in cancer patients using convolutional neural networks. *Lect Notes Comp Sci* 2018; 11041: 204–213.

- 20 Bridge CP, Best TD, Wrobel MM, et al. A fully automated deep learning pipeline for multi-vertebral level quantification and characterization of muscle and adipose tissue on chest CT scans. Radiol Artif Intell 2022; 4: e210080.
- 21 Dutch Trial Register. Dutch Belgian Randomised Lung Cancer Screening Trial (NELSON). Date last updated: 18 August 2018. https://onderzoekmetmensen.nl/en/trial/22971
- 22 Zhao YR, Xie X, de Koning HJ, et al. NELSON lung cancer screening study. Cancer Imaging 2011; 11: S79–S84.
- 23 van Iersel CA, de Koning HJ, Draisma G, et al. Risk-based selection from the general population in a screening trial: selection criteria, recruitment and power for the Dutch-Belgian randomised lung cancer multi-slice CT screening trial (NELSON). Int J Cancer 2007; 120: 868–874.
- 24 Mets O, Buckens C, Zanen P, *et al.* Identification of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in lung cancer screening computed tomographic scans. *JAMA* 2011; 306: 1775–1781.
- 25 Sidorenkov G, Stadhouders R, Jacobs C, *et al.* Multi-source data approach for personalized outcome prediction in lung cancer screening: update from the NELSON trial. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2023; 38: 445–454.
- 26 Miller MR, Crapo R, Hankinson J, *et al.* General considerations for lung function testing. *Eur Respir J* 2005; 26: 153–161.
- 27 Rabe KF, Hurd S, 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* 2007; 176: 532–555.
- 28 van Hamersvelt RW, Willemink MJ, Takx RAP, et al. Cardiac valve calcifications on low-dose unenhanced ungated chest computed tomography: inter-observer and inter-examination reliability, agreement and variability. Eur Radiol 2014; 24: 1557–1564.
- 29 Mohamed Hoesein FAA, De Jong PA, Lammers JWJ, *et al.* Airway wall thickness associated with forced expiratory volume in 1 second decline and development of airflow limitation. *Eur Respir J* 2015; 45: 644–651.
- 30 Mets OM, Schmidt M, Buckens CF, et al. Diagnosis of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in lung cancer screening computed tomography scans: independent contribution of emphysema, air trapping and bronchial wall thickening. *Respir Res* 2013; 14: 59.
- **31** Pompe E, de Jong PA, van Rikxoort EM, *et al.* Smokers with emphysema and small airway disease on computed tomography have lower bone density. *Int J Chron Obstruct Pulmon Dis* 2016; 11: 1207.
- 32 Mourtzakis M, Prado CM, Lieffers JR, et al. A practical and precise approach to quantification of body composition in cancer patients using computed tomography images acquired during routine care. Appl Physiol Nutr Metab 2008; 33: 997–1006.
- 33 Nunally J. Psychometric Theory. 3rd Edn. New York, McGraw-Hill, 1994.
- 34 Alexopoulos N, Katritsis D, Raggi P. Visceral adipose tissue as a source of inflammation and promoter of atherosclerosis. *Atherosclerosis* 2014; 233: 104–112.
- 35 Guglielmi G, Peh W, Guermazi A. Geriatric Imaging. 1st Edn. Berlin-Heidelberg, Springer-Verlag, 2013.
- 36 Baumgartner RN, Waters DL, Gallagher D, *et al.* Predictors of skeletal muscle mass in elderly men and women. *Mech Ageing Dev* 1999; 107: 123–136.
- 37 Tulek B, Kivrak AS, Ozbek S, *et al.* Phenotyping of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease using the modified Bhalla scoring system for high-resolution computed tomography. *Can Respir J* 2013; 20: 91–96.
- 38 Vilaró J, Ramirez-Sarmiento A, Martínez-Llorens JM, *et al.* Global muscle dysfunction as a risk factor of readmission to hospital due to COPD exacerbations. *Respir Med* 2010; 104: 1896–1902.
- 39 Spruit MA, Burtin C, De Boever P, *et al.* COPD and exercise: does it make a difference? *Breathe (Sheff)* 2016; 12: e38–e49.
- 40 McDonald VM, Gibson PG, Scott HA, et al. Should we treat obesity in COPD? The effects of diet and resistance exercise training. Respirology 2016; 21: 875–882.
- 41 Karastergiou K, Smith SR, Greenberg AS, *et al.* Sex differences in human adipose tissues: the biology of pear shape. *Biol Sex Differ* 2012; 3: 13.
- 42 Lemieux S, Prud'homme D, Bouchard C, *et al.* Sex differences in the relation of visceral adipose tissue accumulation to total body fatness. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1993; 58: 463–467.
- 43 Kamil F, Pinzon I, Foreman MG. Sex and race factors in early-onset COPD. *Curr Opin Pulm Med* 2013; 19: 140–144.
- 44 Xu K, Li T, Khan MS, *et al.* Body composition assessment with limited field-of-view computed tomography: a semantic image extension perspective. *arXiv* 2022; preprint [https://arxiv.org/abs/2207.06551].