

Clinical Studies on Reversibility of Pulmonary Airway Dysfunctions in Asymptomatic Smokers: Role of Nervous Mechanism in Small Airway Disease

Md. Masudur Rahman

The Second Department of Internal Medicine, Hiroshima University School of Medicine, 1-2-3, Kasumi, Minami-ku, Hiroshima 734, Japan

(Director: Professor Yukio NISHIMOTO)

(Received September 6, 1985)

Key words: Nonsmoker and smoker, Pulmonary function tests, Volume of isoflow, Reversibility of airway dysfunctions, Cholinergic nerve

ABSTRACT

Pulmonary function tests were performed on twenty eight males, among whom eight were healthy nonsmokers and twenty were asymptomatic smokers. Pulmonary function tests such as spirometry, respiratory impedance (Z_{3Hz}), single breath nitrogen washout (SBN_2) and volume of isoflow ($Viso\dot{V}$) were done before and after inhalation of orciprenaline sulphate and atropine sulphate in all nonsmokers and smokers. Subdivisions of lung volume, diffusing capacity (D_{Lco}) and arterial blood gas analysis were conducted only before inhalation of drugs. Acute effects were studied after smoking a cigarette and effects of orciprenaline inhalation after smoking were also observed. Furthermore, effects of smoking on prior inhalation of orciprenaline, atropine or lidocaine were evaluated.

The results obtained were as follows:

1) There were no differences in the results of routine pulmonary function tests, between nonsmokers and smokers except Z_{3Hz} , which was significantly higher in smokers ($p < 0.01$) and there was a tendency to decrease in flow especially at low lung volumes in smokers. Smokers could be well differentiated from nonsmokers by $Viso\dot{V}/FVC$ ($p < 0.001$) and the difference in distribution of ventilation was greater ($p < 0.05$).

2) In nonsmokers, Z_{3Hz} decreased and \dot{V}_{50} increased significantly after inhalation of orciprenaline and atropine. $FEV_{1.0}$ increased significantly with atropine inhalation only. There were no changes in $Viso\dot{V}/FVC$ with inhalation of orciprenaline or atropine.

In smokers, Z_{3Hz} and $Viso\dot{V}/FVC$ decreased significantly after inhalation of orciprenaline or atropine ($p < 0.001$). $FEV_{1.0}$ and flow rates improved significantly with both drugs.

3) After smoking a cigarette, Z_{3Hz} and $Viso\dot{V}/FVC$ significantly increased ($p < 0.01$), but inhalation of orciprenaline or atropine prior to smoking significantly inhibited the acute effects of smoking and lidocaine completely inhibited the acute effects of smoking.

These results indicate that several parameters such as Z_{3Hz} , flow at low lung volume, $Viso\dot{V}/FVC$ could detect the airway dysfunctions in asymptomatic cigarette smokers. These airway dysfunctions might be due to increased vagal tone, leading to narrowing of the airways and these airway dysfunctions were reversible by bronchodilator drugs.

Lungs are the organ of respiration for continuous gaseous exchange. For gaseous exchange through the lungs, there should be proper ventilation and sufficient pulmonary blood flow. It is desirable that intact airway system should provide proper ventilation. Due to clinical convenience, pulmonary airways are divided into two components, central and peripheral. Airways less than 2 mm in internal diameter are called peripheral or small airways²⁵.

According to Woolcock and his associates⁶⁴, the peripheral airways are the silent zones in the lungs and clinical manifestations of early small airway obstructions are usually nonapparent or mild. Pulmonary function tests including airway resistance, forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV_{1.0}) and other flow rates at high lung volumes may be normal because they do not reflect the peripheral airways which are the sites of obstruction.

In healthy lungs, peripheral airway resistance is so small that it is difficult to measure in man. In 1967, Macklem and his associates⁴⁰ measured the resistance of the peripheral airways less than 2 mm in diameter in dogs and observed that there were large differences in resistance between large and small airways. In high lung volumes the airway resistance was due to large airways and even in low lung volumes the peripheral airways contributed only 15% of the total airway resistance.

In 1968, Hogg et al²⁵ have measured the central and peripheral airway resistances in excised lungs (at autopsy) of normal human and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) patients by retrograde catheter technique. They have also suggested that in normal lung peripheral airways contributed only 25% of the total airway resistance, but in COPD patients this increased from 4 to 40 times because of narrowing, mucus plugging and obliteration of small airways. McLean⁴⁸ has concluded from his observation that the changes in the peripheral airways are the primary sites of COPD. Hence, it is likely that the clinical detection of COPD at an earlier stage is ordinarily delayed until more advanced obstruction becomes present.

If smoking is continued for many years, there is an increased prevalence of COPD. As the cigarette smokers at a high risk of developing COPD, there is great interest in identifying tests

that can detect COPD in its early stage when changes in the peripheral airways may still be reversible. Since most advanced COPD patients have abnormal FEV_{1.0} or the ratio of FEV_{1.0} to FVC (FEV_{1.0}%) the disease may be irreversible¹⁶. For early detection of peripheral airway dysfunctions, sensitive lung function tests have been introduced. These tests include: 1) detection of abnormalities in gas exchange (diffusing capacity)^{2,33}, 2) frequency dependence of dynamic lung compliance (C_{dyn})^{28,64}, 3) analysis of flow rates at low lung volumes utilizing maximum expiratory flow-volume curves (MEFV)^{17,18,27,65}, 4) closing volume^{9,17,44,46} and 5) volume of isoflow (Viso \dot{V}) using MEFV curves with air and He+O₂^{3,12,13,19-21,26,31,49}.

Hutcheon and his associates²⁶ introduced the volume of isoflow (Viso \dot{V}) as a new test for the detection of small airway obstruction. Their report suggested that Viso \dot{V} is more sensitive than the other tests as mentioned above.

Inhalation of various irritant particles and gases, such as dust, sulfur dioxide and ammonia, causes bronchoconstriction in man^{50,56,62}. It has also been reported that inhalation of cigarette smoke induces bronchoconstriction in man^{11,32,51} and animals^{4-6,23,34,37,52}. Widdicombe⁶¹ has established by experimental observations that airway smooth muscle tone is regulated by cholinergic vagal pathway. In quiet breathing, the airway smooth muscle is in tonic contraction and this muscle tone may be reduced by the administration of adrenergic receptors stimulant and atropine. Therefore, bronchoconstriction due to smoking may be mediated by vagal reflex by stimulating vagal airway sensory receptors, the so-called irritant receptors^{5,23,52,56}.

It has been observed that the acute effect of cigarette smoking can be demonstrated either with airway resistance^{1,52} specific airway conductance⁵⁶ or C_{dyn}⁴¹, but there has been no report of evaluating the acute effect of smoking by Viso \dot{V} .

Many studies have shown reversal effects with different beta adrenergic receptor agonists and anticholinergic drugs in different diseases such as chronic bronchitis, bronchial asthma and emphysema^{10,30,38} but there are a very few reports on reversibility of pulmonary airway dysfunctions in asymptomatic smokers with beta adrenergic receptor agonists and anticholinergic

bronchodilators.

This study was designed:

- a. to make an early detection of pulmonary airway dysfunctions,
- b. to evaluate the reversibility of pulmonary airway dysfunctions and

- c. to investigate the role of cholinergic nerve in pulmonary airway dysfunctions in asymptomatic cigarette smokers.

Symbols and abbreviations used in this study are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Symbols and Abbreviations

Symbols and Abbreviations	Unit	
$A^{ass} aDo_2$	mmHg	alveolar-arterial (assumption) oxygen pressure difference
B.I.		Brinkman index (no. of cigarette smoking per day times year of smoking)
Cdyn	liter/cmH ₂ O	dynamic compliance of the lung
COPD		chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
DL _{co}	ml/min/mmHg	diffusing capacity of lung (single breath holding method)
%DL _{co}	%	percentage of DL _{co} to predicted value
FEV _{1.0}	liter	forced expiratory volume in 1.0 second
FEV _{1.0} %	%	percentage of FEV _{1.0} to forced vital capacity
FVC	liter	forced vital capacity
%FVC	%	percentage of FVC to predicted value
FRC	liter	functional residual capacity
%FRC	%	percentage of FRC to predicted value
FET _{He}	%	fractional end-tidal helium concentration
He		helium gas
He+O ₂		mixture of 80% helium and 20% oxygen gas
MEFV		maximum expiratory flow volume curve
ΔN_2	%/liter	changes of nitrogen concentration from the slope of phase II of SBN ₂
O ₂		oxygen gas
Pao ₂	mmHg	partial pressure of arterial oxygen
Paco ₂	mmHg	partial pressure of arterial carbon dioxide
PF	liter/sec	peak flow
RV	liter	residual volume
%RV	%	percentage of RV to predicted value
RV/TLC	%	ratio of RV to TLC
SBN ₂		single breath nitrogen washout
TLC	liter	total lung capacity
%TLC	%	percentage of TLC to predicted value
VC	liter	vital capacity
%VC	%	percentage of VC to predicted value
\dot{V}_{75}	liter/sec	flow rate at 75% of MEFV
\dot{V}_{50}	liter/sec	flow rate at 50% of MEFV
\dot{V}_{25}	liter/sec	flow rate at 25% of MEFV
$\dot{V}_{50}/\dot{V}_{25}$		ratio of \dot{V}_{50} and \dot{V}_{25}
$\Delta \dot{V}_{50}$	%	$\dot{V}_{50He} - \dot{V}_{50air} / \dot{V}_{50air} \times 100$
$\Delta \dot{V}_{25}$	%	$\dot{V}_{25He} - \dot{V}_{25air} / \dot{V}_{25air} \times 100$
Viso \dot{V}	liter	volume of isoflow
Viso \dot{V} /FVC	%	percentage of volume of isoflow to FVC
\dot{V}_{visov}	liter/sec	flow at volume of isoflow
Z _{3Hz}	cmH ₂ O/liter/sec	respiratory impedance

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Subjects:

Subjects of this work included twenty eight males, consisting of eight healthy nonsmokers and twenty asymptomatic smokers. Subjects

were doctors, technicians, medical representatives and other employees of this hospital.

A nonsmoker was defined as an individual who had never smoked more than a few cigarettes during his life or had smoked absolutely none.

A smoker was defined as an individual who has smoked an average of more than 10 cigarettes per day for a period of more than five years and was smoking to the date of this experiment. Before inclusion in the study all the subjects were screened by personal interview to eliminate the possibility of any previous and current respiratory diseases. Presence of any lung disease excluded the subject from the study. The study was designed to isolate the effect of smoking as closely as possible.

Methods:

All the smoker subjects were requested to abstain from smoking at least 3 hr before the examination. Pulmonary function tests were performed which included the determination of vital capacity (VC), percentage of VC to predicted value (%VC) and forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV_{1.0}) with a box spirometer (OST-80, Chest Co. Ltd, Tokyo). Subdivisions of lung volume such as total lung capacity (TLC), functional residual capacity (FRC) and residual volume (RV) were determined by the closed circuit helium dilution method²²⁾ and the pulmonary diffusing capacity (D_{Lco}) was measured by the single breathholding method. (P.K. Morgan Ltd., England). Predicted values for subdivisions of lung volume and diffusing capacity were obtained for adults by the prediction formula developed at the Second Department of Internal Medicine, Hiroshima University^{53,54)}. Respiratory impedance (Z_{3Hz}) was measured by 3Hz oscillation method (Nihon Koden Kogyo Ltd.).

Blood samples were drawn from the brachial artery and oxygen tension (P_{aO₂}), carbon dioxide tension (P_{aCO₂}) and pH were analyzed (ABL-3, Radiometer Co., Copenhagen, Denmark).

In all subjects MEFV curves were obtained while breathing air and repeated after three slow vital capacity maneuvers with low density gas of 80% He + 20% O₂ (Fig. 1)^{18,21)}. MEFV curves were recorded by displaying flow against volume on the X-Y coordinates of a recorder (Model WX 4401, Watanabe, Japan) during forced expiration from TLC level to RV level. Each MEFV curve was repeated until virtually indistinguishable values were obtained. The two MEFV curves (with air and He+O₂) were superimposed at the RV level if the volumes were

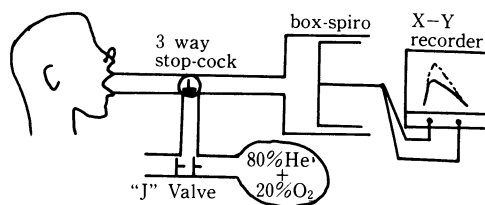


Fig. 1. Schematic outline of the method used to obtain MEFV curves with air and 80% helium + 20% O₂.

unequal. The volume at which the flow rates were identical on both air and He+O₂ curves called volume of isoflow (Viso \dot{V}), was expressed as percentage of FVC (Viso \dot{V} /FVC).

The responses to breathing He+O₂ at \dot{V}_{50} and \dot{V}_{25} were calculated as follows:

$$\frac{\text{flow with He} - \text{flow with air}}{\text{flow with air}} \times 100$$

and were expressed as $\Delta \dot{V}_{50}$ and $\Delta \dot{V}_{25}$, respectively. Fig. 2 shows the MEFV curves with air and He+O₂ and appearance of Viso \dot{V} .

To assess the distribution of ventilation, single breath nitrogen washout (SBN₂) was done in all nonsmokers and smokers (Fig. 3). After tidal breathing the subjects first exhaled to RV level and then inhaled 100% O₂ to TLC level and a slow exhalation to RV level was performed. Changes of N₂ concentration and volume were plotted on X-Y recorder (Hewlett-Packard, 7046 A) and ΔN_2 was calculated from this SBN₂ curve³⁾.

To observe distribution of ventilation during three breaths of He+O₂ end-tidal helium concentration (F_{ETHe}) was measured. A Douglas bag containing 10% He, 20% O₂ and 70% N₂ was used as source of gas mixture¹⁵⁾. Helium concentration was measured at the end of expiration following one, two and three slow vital capacity maneuver, inspired from the gas mixture. With the help of a mass-spectrometer (Perkin-Elmer, Model No. 1100) end tidal helium concentration was recorded in a unicorder (Nippon Denshi Kagaku, Model U-626 DS).

Following these baseline tests, the subjects inhaled aerosolized orciprenaline sulphate (Alotec[®]), 0.5 ml (10 mg) in 1 ml of normal saline with the help of intermittent positive pressure breathing (IPPB). Ten min after inhalation

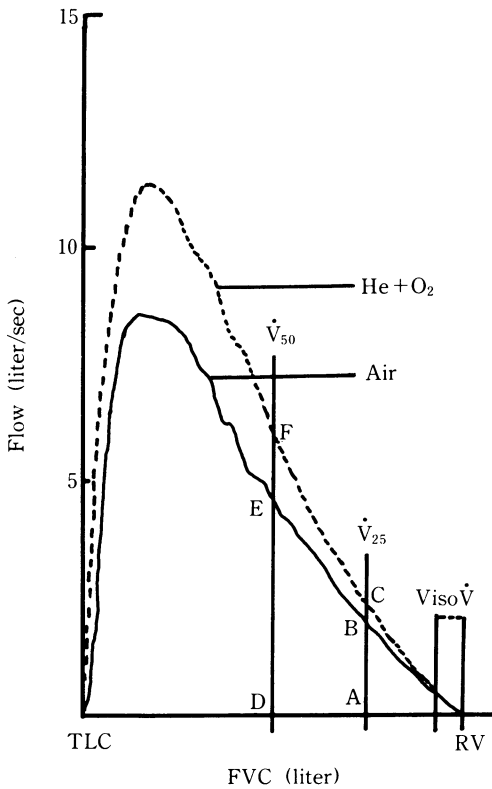


Fig. 2. MEFV curves with air (solid line) and after three breaths of 80%He+20%O₂ (dashed line). Figure shows the result in a 30 year-old nonsmoker. VisoV occurred at low lung volume. AB = flow rate at 25% of MEFV curve with air, AC = flow rate at 25% of MEFV curve with He+O₂, DE = flow rate at 50% of MEFV curve with air, DF = flow rate at 50% of MEFV curve with He+O₂.

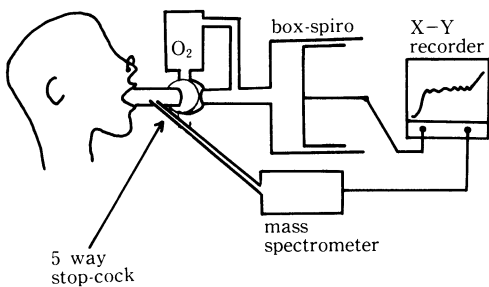


Fig. 3. Schematic view of the experimental set-up to perform single breath nitrogen washout.

of orciprenaline, the tests were repeated except subdivisions of lung volume, diffusing capacity

and arterial blood gas analysis, which were done only before inhalation of the drugs.

On another day the same subjects were inhaled atropine sulphate, 0.05 mg/kg of the body weight, with a nebulizer (NE-U06, Omron, Japan) and the same pulmonary function tests were repeated 30 min after inhalation of atropine.

On a separate occasion, acute effects of cigarette smoking on pulmonary functions were measured in five asymptomatic smokers. The smokers abstained from cigarette smoking from the night before the day of experiment. Tests were performed in five different sets (Table 2).

Table 2. Sequences of study of acute effects of cigarette smoking

Experiments	Time in min						
	C	0	5	10	15	30	60
First set	T	S	T	T		T	T
Second set	T	S	TO		T	T	T
Third set	T	O		TST			
Fourth set	T	A				TST	
Fifth set	T	L		TST			

Note: C = control, T = tests was done, S = smoking a cigarette, O = orciprenaline inhalation, A = atropine inhalation, L = lidocaine inhalation. In the second set tests were repeated at 10, 30 and 60 min after inhalation of orciprenaline.

In the first set, after measurement of control parameters (Z_{SHZ} , $FEV_{1.0}$, $Viso\dot{V}/FVC$) the subjects smoked one cigarette in a usual way and tests were repeated immediately after smoking (within 5 min from starting of smoking) and at intervals of 10, 30 and 60 min after starting smoking.

In the second set, after control measurements subject smoked one cigarette. Tests were performed immediately after smoking and then inhaled orciprenaline. After orciprenaline inhalation, tests were repeated at intervals of 10, 30 and 60 min.

In the third, fourth and fifth sets after control measurements, the same subjects inhaled orciprenaline, atropine or lidocaine (4% lidocaine, 2 mg/kg) on different days. After inhalation of each drug, pulmonary function tests (Z_{SHZ} , $FEV_{1.0}$ and $Viso\dot{V}/FVC$) were done and immediately thereafter, the subject smoked one cigarette and tests were repeated again.

Table 3. Physical characteristics and pulmonary function tests of 8 nonsmokers and 20 asymptomatic smokers

	Nonsmokers		Smokers		p value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Age (year)	27.6	4.4	31.2	7.3	NS
Height (cm)	168.9	3.0	170.9	3.4	NS
Weight (kg)	61.3	6.3	65.6	7.2	NS
B.I.	—	—	285.20	275.80	
VC (liter)	4.38	0.35	4.53	0.43	NS
%VC (%)	106.1	7.2	109.6	9.6	NS
FVC (liter)	4.41	0.41	4.54	0.44	NS
%FVC (%)	106.9	8.5	109.8	8.9	NS
FEV _{1.0} (liter)	3.96	0.46	3.78	0.47	NS
FEV _{1.0} % (%)	88.2	6.6	83.4	4.8	NS
Z _{3Hz} (cmHz ² /liter/sec)	2.35	0.39	3.30	0.70	<0.01
PF (liter/sec)	9.57	1.95	8.64	1.06	NS
\dot{V}_{75} (liter/sec)	7.97	1.74	7.15	0.97	NS
\dot{V}_{50} (liter/sec)	4.72	1.18	4.08	0.80	NS
\dot{V}_{25} (liter/sec)	2.03	0.66	1.47	0.46	<0.05
$\dot{V}_{50}/\dot{V}_{25}$	2.41	0.43	2.95	0.83	NS
$\Delta\dot{V}_{50}$ (%)	41.9	15.1	43.9	17.2	NS
$\Delta\dot{V}_{25}$ (%)	26.9	13.9	19.1	11.5	NS
Viso \dot{V} (liter)	0.40	0.12	0.85	0.25	<0.001
Viso \dot{V}/FVC (%)	9.3	3.3	18.2	5.7	<0.001
\dot{V}_{visov} (liter/sec)	0.74	0.45	0.95	0.39	NS
ΔN_2 (%/liter)	1.47	0.50	1.69	0.46	<0.05
TLC (liter)	5.79	0.43	6.02	0.53	NS
%TLC (%)	101.1	6.2	103.5	7.6	NS
FRC (liter)	2.98	0.20	3.10	0.47	NS
%FRC (%)	98.8	6.8	99.5	13.9	NS
RV (liter)	1.43	0.14	1.48	0.29	NS
%RV (%)	103.8	13.3	102.1	16.4	NS
RV/TLC (%)	24.8	1.7	24.7	3.9	NS
D _{Lco} (ml/min/mmHg)	29.32	2.90	28.61	3.03	NS
%D _{Lco} (%)	94.1	8.5	91.8	9.2	NS
D _{L/VA} (ml/min/mmHg/liter)	6.06	0.63	5.93	0.90	NS
P _{aO₂} (mmHg)	100.0	10.3	95.6	7.1	NS
P _{aCO₂} (mmHg)	39.2	2.1	39.4	2.9	NS
pH	7.413	0.03	7.418	0.02	NS
S _{aO₂} (%)	97.7	0.91	97.3	0.62	NS
A ^{ass} aDo ₂ (mmHg)	5.2	6.2	6.6	5.9	NS

Values are Mean \pm SD. p value indicates significant difference between nonsmokers and smokers.

Data were analyzed statistically with paired or nonpaired students t test.

RESULTS

Physical characteristics, smoking history and pulmonary function tests as control study are shown in Table 3. In this study, it was found that smokers had higher value in Z_{3Hz} (p<0.01), Viso \dot{V} (p<0.001), Viso \dot{V}/FVC (p<0.001) and ΔN_2 (p<0.05) than nonsmokers. Although there was a significant difference in ΔN_2 between nonsmokers and smokers, the mean values of ΔN_2 in both groups were within normal limits as shown in Fig. 4. It was

also observed that \dot{V}_{25} was significantly lower in smokers than nonsmokers (p<0.05). In addition to these results, there were correlations between Viso \dot{V}/FVC and Brinkman index (B.I.), between \dot{V}_{25} and B.I. and also between Viso \dot{V}/FVC and Z_{3Hz}, shown in Figs. 5, 6 and 7 respectively.

Table 4 and 5 show the pulmonary function tests done before and after inhalation of oriprenaline and atropine in all subjects. Drugs were inhaled either with IPPB or nebulizer. But airway responsiveness was not influenced by the way of inhalation. The following results were obtained:

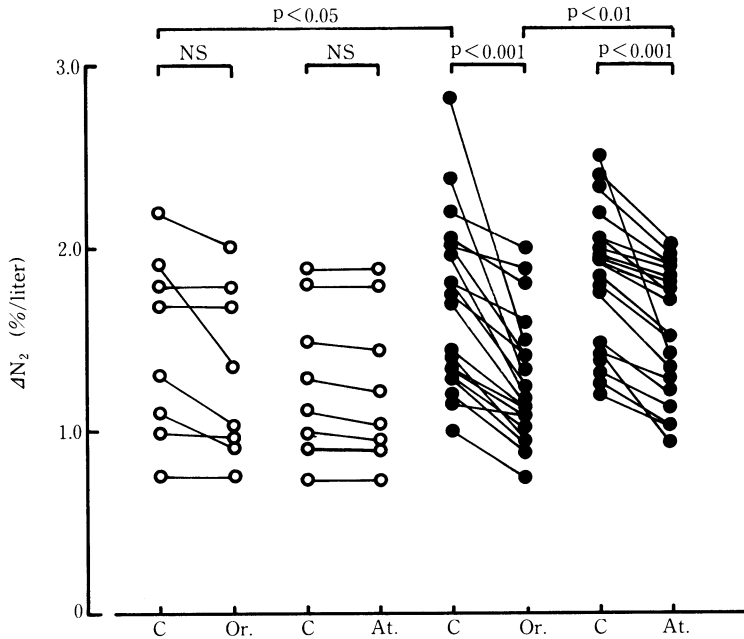


Fig. 4. Distribution of ventilation was measured by SBN₂. Changes of nitrogen concentration was calculated from the slope of phase III of SBN₂ and expressed as ΔN_2 . ΔN_2 was significantly higher in smokers (●—●) than nonsmokers (○—○). After inhalation of oriprenaline or atropine improved in smokers but no change was observed in nonsmokers. C = control, Or. = after oriprenaline inhalation, At. = after atropine inhalation. p value indicates significant difference.

1) Vital capacity (VC):

Orciprenaline inhalation: The mean values were 4.38 ± 0.35 liters and 4.53 ± 0.43 liters before oriprenaline inhalation in nonsmokers and smokers, respectively. After oriprenaline inhalation the values were 4.45 ± 0.44 liters in nonsmokers and 4.57 ± 0.48 liters in smokers and no significant changes were observed.

Atropine inhalation: Before atropine inhalation, VC were 4.40 ± 0.37 liters and 4.52 ± 0.44 liters in nonsmokers and smokers and after inhalation of atropine the values were 4.46 ± 0.40 liters and 4.58 ± 0.44 liters respectively. There were no significant changes after inhalation of atropine between nonsmokers and smokers.

2) Forced vital capacity (FVC):

Orciprenaline inhalation: The mean values were 4.41 ± 0.41 liters and 4.54 ± 0.44 liters before oriprenaline inhalation in nonsmokers and smokers, respectively. After oriprenaline inhalation, the values were 4.34 ± 0.48 liters and 4.55 ± 0.51 liters, respectively.

Atropine inhalation: Prior to atropine inhala-

tion, FVC were 4.50 ± 0.35 liters and 4.54 ± 0.43 liters in nonsmokers and smokers, respectively. After atropine inhalation, the values were 4.41 ± 0.39 liters and 4.57 ± 0.43 liters, respectively. In both groups no significant changes were observed after inhalation of oriprenaline or atropine.

3) Forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV_{1.0}):

Orciprenaline inhalation: In nonsmokers the mean value was 3.96 ± 0.46 liters and a slight increase in mean value to 4.00 ± 0.39 liters occurred after oriprenaline inhalation, but it was not significant. In smokers this value was 3.78 ± 0.47 liters and increased significantly to 3.92 ± 0.48 liters ($p < 0.01$).

Atropine inhalation: In nonsmokers, the mean value of FEV_{1.0} was 3.94 ± 0.49 liters and after atropine inhalation it increased significantly to 4.05 ± 0.47 liters ($p < 0.05$). In smokers it was 3.72 ± 0.43 liters and increased to 3.93 ± 0.45 liters ($p < 0.001$). There was no significant difference in FEV_{1.0} between nonsmok-

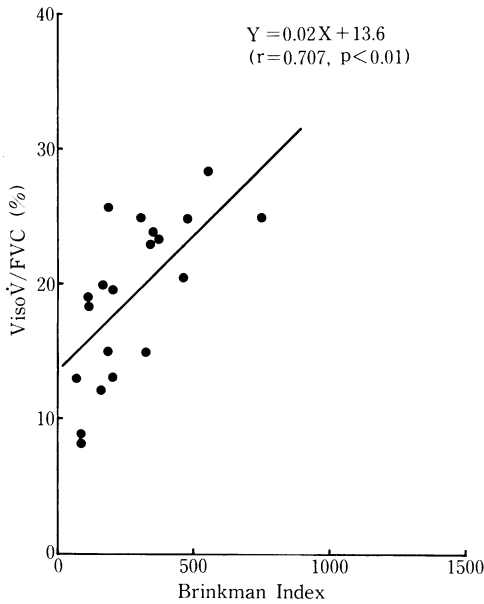


Fig. 5. Relationship between $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ and B.I. $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ increased with increasing value of B.I. ($r = 0.707, p < 0.01$).

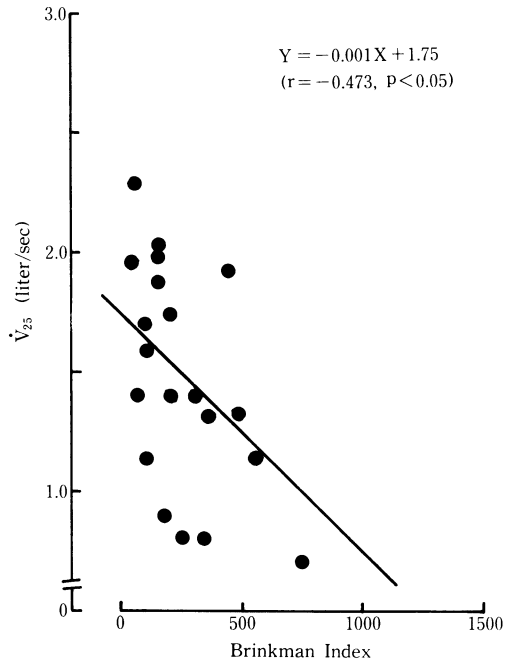


Fig. 6. Relationship between \dot{V}_{25} and B.I. \dot{V}_{25} decreased with the increasing value of B.I. ($r = -0.473, p < 0.05$).

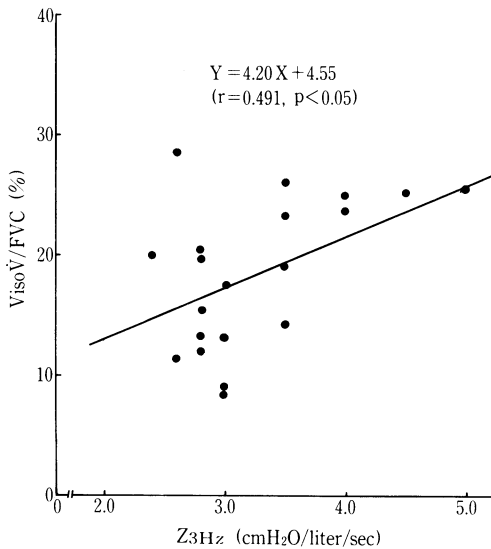


Fig. 7. Relationship between $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ and $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$. $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ increased with increasing value of $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$ ($r = 0.491, p < 0.05$).

ers and smokers.

4) Respiratory impedance ($Z_{3\text{Hz}}$):

Orciprenaline inhalation: After inhalation of orciprenaline, $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$ significantly decreased from

$2.35 \pm 0.39 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O/liter/sec}$ to $2.12 \pm 0.39 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O/liter/sec}$ ($p < 0.01$) in nonsmokers and from $3.30 \pm 0.70 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O/liter/sec}$ to $2.68 \pm 0.52 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O/liter/sec}$ ($p < 0.001$) in smokers.

Atropine inhalation: Again after inhalation of atropine, the value decreased from $2.35 \pm 0.35 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O/liter/sec}$ to $1.88 \pm 0.32 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O/liter/sec}$ ($p < 0.001$) and from $3.30 \pm 0.67 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O/liter/sec}$ to $2.38 \pm 0.38 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O/liter/sec}$ ($p < 0.001$) in nonsmokers and smokers, respectively.

Fig. 8 shows the changes of $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$ after inhalation of drugs with statistical analysis. Percentage decrease of $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$ after inhalation of orciprenaline and atropine were $9.7 \pm 6.3\%$ and $19.7 \pm 6.1\%$ in nonsmokers and $18.2 \pm 6.6\%$ and $26.0 \pm 7.1\%$ in smokers, respectively, shown in Fig. 9.

5) Flow rates:

Orciprenaline inhalation: After orciprenaline inhalation, PF and \dot{V}_{75} did not increase significantly, but \dot{V}_{50} increased significantly from $4.72 \pm 1.18 \text{ liters/sec}$ to $5.47 \pm 1.51 \text{ liters/sec}$ ($p < 0.05$) and \dot{V}_{25} increased from 2.03 ± 0.66

Table 4. Pulmonary function tests before and after inhalation of orciprenaline and atropine of 8 nonsmokers

	Orciprenaline					Atropine				
	before		after		p value	before		after		p value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
VC (liter)	4.38	0.35	4.45	0.44	NS	4.40	0.37	4.46	0.40	NS
%VC (%)	106.1	7.2	107.4	8.6	NS	106.5	7.7	107.8	8.4	NS
FVC (liter)	4.41	0.41	4.34	0.48	NS	4.50	0.35	4.41	0.39	NS
%FVC (%)	106.9	8.5	105.6	10.0	NS	108.8	8.0	106.6	8.5	NS
FEV _{1.0} (liter)	3.96	0.46	4.00	0.39	NS	3.94	0.49	4.05	0.47	<0.05
FEV _{1.0} % (%)	88.2	6.6	90.3	6.0	<0.01	86.8	7.3	90.3	5.6	<0.001
Z _{3Hz} (cmHzO/liter/sec)	2.35	0.39	2.12	0.39	<0.01	2.35	0.35	1.88	0.32	<0.001
PF (liter/sec)	9.57	1.95	9.94	2.85	NS	9.97	2.07	10.45	1.54	NS
\dot{V}_{75} (liter/sec)	7.97	1.74	8.15	1.29	NS	7.77	1.68	8.21	1.17	NS
\dot{V}_{50} (liter/sec)	4.72	1.18	5.47	1.51	<0.05	4.75	1.20	5.69	1.43	<0.001
\dot{V}_{25} (liter/sec)	2.03	0.66	2.26	0.59	<0.05	2.09	0.76	2.18	0.68	NS
$\dot{V}_{50}/\dot{V}_{25}$	2.41	0.43	2.46	0.59	NS	2.37	0.40	2.46	0.50	NS
$\Delta\dot{V}_{50}$ (%)	41.9	15.1	45.5	12.2	NS	51.8	19.1	48.9	14.7	NS
$\Delta\dot{V}_{25}$ (%)	26.9	13.9	43.8	14.9	<0.01	37.7	7.7	32.8	11.8	NS
Viso \dot{V} (liter)	0.40	0.12	0.37	0.14	NS	0.42	0.09	0.40	0.09	NS
Viso \dot{V}/FVC (%)	9.3	3.3	8.6	3.6	NS	9.5	2.5	9.3	2.4	NS
$\dot{V}_{viso\dot{v}}$ (liter/sec)	0.74	0.45	0.73	0.47	NS	0.61	0.34	0.61	0.35	NS
ΔN_2 (%/liter)	1.47	0.50	1.30	0.47	NS	1.29	0.40	1.20	0.44	NS

Values are Mean \pm SD. p value indicates significant difference from before inhalation values.

Table 5. Pulmonary function tests before and after inhalation of orciprenaline and atropine of 20 asymptomatic smokers

	Orciprenaline					Atropine				
	before		after		p value	before		after		p value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
VC (liter)	4.53	0.43	4.57	0.48	NS	4.52	0.44	4.58	0.44	NS
%VC (%)	109.6	9.6	110.9	10.7	NS	109.8	9.0	110.8	9.2	NS
FVC (liter)	4.54	0.44	4.55	0.51	NS	4.54	0.43	4.57	0.43	NS
%FVC (%)	109.8	8.9	110.9	11.5	NS	110.3	9.4	110.8	9.2	NS
FEV _{1.0} (liter)	3.78	0.47	3.92	0.48	<0.01	3.72	0.43	3.93	0.45	<0.001
FEV _{1.0} % (%)	83.4	4.8	81.2	18.9	NS	81.8	5.1	82.4	19.0	NS
Z _{3Hz} (cmHzO/liter/sec)	3.30	0.70	2.68	0.52	<0.001	3.30	0.67	2.38	0.38	<0.001
PF (liter/sec)	8.64	1.06	9.16	0.93	<0.05	8.91	1.20	9.50	1.10	<0.01
\dot{V}_{75} (liter/sec)	7.15	0.97	7.80	1.02	<0.01	6.99	0.75	8.11	1.05	<0.001
\dot{V}_{50} (liter/sec)	4.08	0.80	4.68	0.85	<0.01	3.98	0.77	4.93	0.96	<0.001
\dot{V}_{25} (liter/sec)	1.47	0.47	1.74	0.54	<0.001	1.45	0.46	1.64	0.46	<0.001
$\dot{V}_{50}/\dot{V}_{25}$	2.95	0.83	2.89	0.81	NS	2.92	0.79	2.83	0.60	NS
$\Delta\dot{V}_{50}$ (%)	43.9	17.2	45.1	17.4	NS	42.6	14.3	42.3	16.8	NS
$\Delta\dot{V}_{25}$ (%)	19.1	11.5	28.2	13.8	<0.05	22.6	13.2	24.9	16.5	NS
Viso \dot{V} (liter)	0.85	0.25	0.47	0.18	<0.001	0.82	0.29	0.58	0.24	<0.001
Viso \dot{V}/FVC (%)	18.2	5.7	10.5	3.9	<0.001	18.2	6.6	13.0	5.3	<0.001
$\dot{V}_{viso\dot{v}}$ (liter/sec)	0.95	0.39	0.57	0.25	<0.001	0.88	0.38	0.64	0.35	<0.001
ΔN_2 (%/liter)	1.69	0.46	1.23	0.36	<0.001	1.84	0.39	1.51	0.38	<0.001

Values are Mean \pm SD. p value indicates significant difference from before inhalation values.

liters/sec to 2.26 \pm 0.59 liters/sec (p<0.05) in nonsmokers. In smokers all the flow rates (PF, \dot{V}_{75} , \dot{V}_{50} , \dot{V}_{25}) increased significantly as shown in Table 5.

Atropine inhalation: In nonsmokers no remarkable changes were observed in flow rates after

atropine inhalation except \dot{V}_{50} which increased from 4.75 \pm 1.20 liters/sec to 5.69 \pm 1.43 liters/sec (p<0.001), but in smokers PF increased from 8.91 \pm 1.20 liters/sec to 9.50 \pm 1.10 liters/sec (p<0.01), \dot{V}_{75} from 6.99 \pm 0.75 liters/sec to 8.11 \pm 1.05 liters/sec (p<0.001),

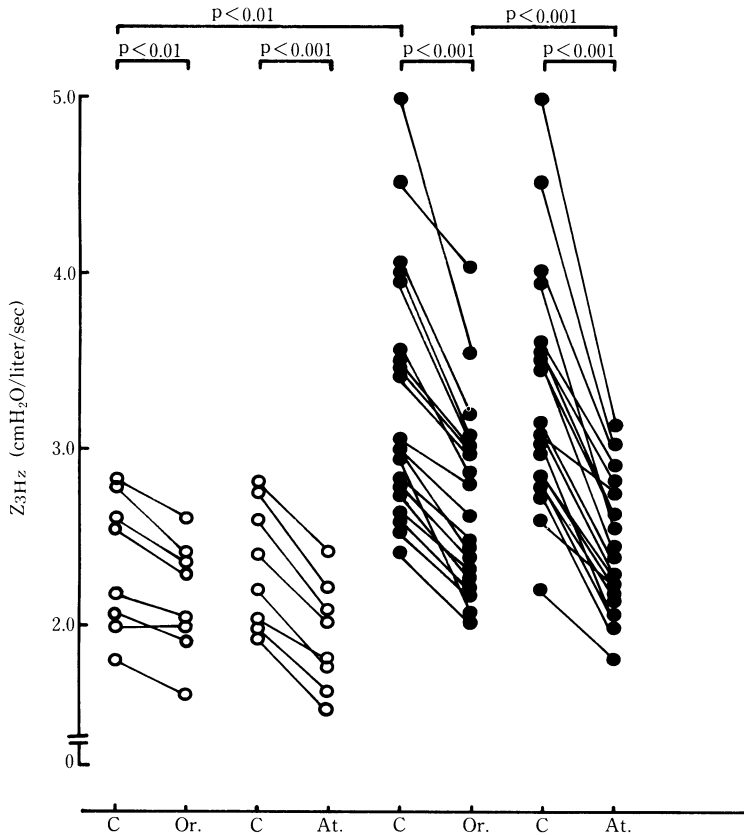


Fig. 8. Effects of orciprenaline or atropine on Z_{3Hz} in nonsmokers (○—○) and smokers (●—●). Z_{3Hz} decreased after inhalation of orciprenaline or atropine in both the groups. C = control, Or. = after orciprenaline inhalation, At. = after atropine inhalation. p values indicates significant difference.

\dot{V}_{50} from 3.98 ± 0.77 liters/sec to 4.93 ± 0.96 liters/sec ($p < 0.001$) and \dot{V}_{25} from 1.45 ± 0.46 liters/sec to 1.64 ± 0.46 liters/sec ($p < 0.001$). In nonsmokers $\dot{V}_{50}/\dot{V}_{25}$ was 2.41 ± 0.43 and 2.37 ± 0.40 before and 2.46 ± 0.59 and 2.46 ± 0.50 after inhalation of orciprenaline and atropine, respectively. In smokers the value was 2.95 ± 0.83 and 2.92 ± 0.79 before and 2.89 ± 0.81 and 2.83 ± 0.60 after inhalation of orciprenaline and atropine, respectively. No significant difference of $\dot{V}_{50}/\dot{V}_{25}$ was obtained between nonsmokers and smokers before and after inhalation of orciprenaline or atropine.

6) $\Delta\dot{V}_{50}$ and $\Delta\dot{V}_{25}$:

$\Delta\dot{V}_{50}$ and $\Delta\dot{V}_{25}$ represent the airway responsiveness while breathing air and helium. There was no significant change in $\Delta\dot{V}_{50}$ after inhalation of bronchodilators in both nonsmokers and smokers, but $\Delta\dot{V}_{25}$ increased significantly from

$26.9 \pm 13.9\%$ to $43.8 \pm 14.9\%$ ($p < 0.01$) in nonsmokers, and in smokers it increased from $19.1 \pm 11.5\%$ to $28.2 \pm 13.8\%$ ($p < 0.05$) after orciprenaline inhalation. No change was observed after atropine inhalation.

7) Volume of isoflow ($Viso\dot{V}$):

Orciprenaline inhalation: Fig. 10 reveals the change of $Viso\dot{V}/FVC$ after drug inhalations. After orciprenaline inhalation no significant change was observed in nonsmokers (it decreased from $9.3 \pm 3.3\%$ to $8.6 \pm 3.6\%$) but it decreased significantly from $18.2 \pm 5.7\%$ to $10.5 \pm 3.9\%$ ($p < 0.001$) in smokers.

Atropine inhalation: Fig. 10 shows that after atropine inhalation there was no significant change of $Viso\dot{V}/FVC$ in nonsmokers (it decreased from $9.5 \pm 2.5\%$ to $9.3 \pm 2.4\%$). In smokers the value of $Viso\dot{V}/FVC$ decreased significantly from $18.2 \pm 6.6\%$ to $13.0 \pm 5.3\%$

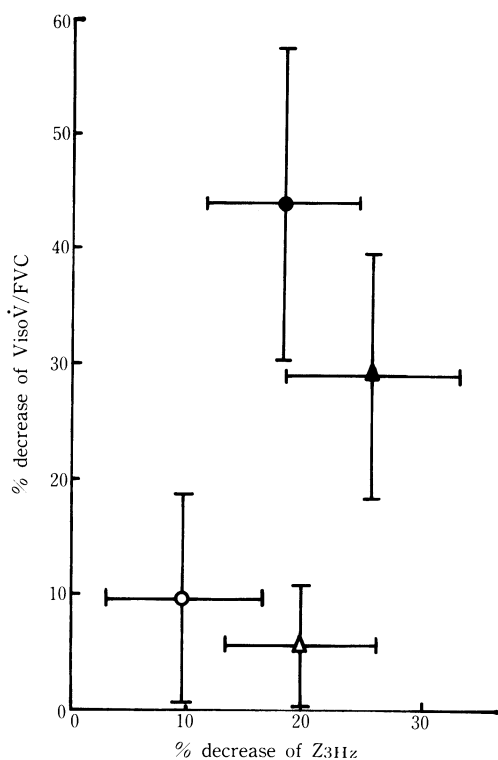


Fig. 9. Airway responsiveness with orcioprenaline and atropine in nonsmokers and smokers. Results indicates that orcioprenaline exerts its effect on both central and peripheral airways, and atropine exerts its effect predominantly on central airways.

○ = nonsmoker orcioprenaline, △ = nonsmoker atropine, ● = smoker orcioprenaline, ▲ = smoker atropine.

($p < 0.001$) after atropine inhalation. In comparison with the control value, percentage decrease of $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ in smokers was greater after orcioprenaline inhalation (decreased 43.9% in orcioprenaline and 28.9% in atropine inhalation, respectively) than atropine inhalation (Fig. 9). 8) ΔN_2 :

After inhalation of orcioprenaline or atropine, no significant change of ΔN_2 was observed in nonsmokers (it decreased from $1.47 \pm 0.50\%$ /liter to $1.30 \pm 0.47\%$ /liter after orcioprenaline and from $1.29 \pm 0.40\%$ /liter to $1.20 \pm 0.44\%$ /liter after atropine inhalation). However, the value decreased in smokers significantly from $1.69 \pm 0.46\%$ /liter to $1.23 \pm 0.36\%$ /liter ($p < 0.001$) after orcioprenaline and from $1.84 \pm 0.39\%$ /liter to $1.51 \pm 0.38\%$ /liter ($p < 0.001$) after atropine inhalation (Fig. 4).

9) End-tidal He concentration and distribution of ventilation (F_{ETHe}):

$F_{\text{ETHe(1)}}$, $F_{\text{ETHe(2)}}$ and $F_{\text{ETHe(3)}}$ were determined before and after orcioprenaline inhalation in five nonsmokers and seven smokers as shown in Table 6. Tracings of one nonsmoker and one smoker are also shown in Fig. 11. F_{ETHe} was lower in smokers especially at first F_{ETHe} , and after orcioprenaline inhalation F_{ETHe} improved in smokers. In nonsmokers, no change of F_{ETHe} was observed after drug inhalation.

10) Acute effect of smoking on pulmonary functions:

Fig. 12 shows the mean \pm SD values of $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$ before and after smoking a cigarette (above) and effect of orcioprenaline after smoking (below). After smoking a cigarette $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$ increased significantly from 3.16 ± 0.35 cmH₂O/liter/sec to 4.14 ± 0.75 cmH₂O/liter/sec ($p < 0.01$) and returned to the pre-smoking level within 30 min but it did not decrease below the pre-smoking level. Inhalation of orcioprenaline decreased $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$ significantly and below the control value (from 3.84 ± 0.32 cmH₂O/liter/sec to 2.92 ± 0.11 cmH₂O/liter/sec, $p < 0.01$).

Fig. 13 shows the mean \pm SD values of $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ before and after smoking a cigarette (above) and the effect of orcioprenaline after smoking was observed (below). $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ increased significantly after smoking (increased from $17.4 \pm 6.6\%$ to $20.6 \pm 7.1\%$, $p < 0.01$). Then inhalation of orcioprenaline decreased the value of $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ significantly from $20.6 \pm 0.71\%$ to $13.3 \pm 4.9\%$ ($p < 0.01$) and below the control value and action of orcioprenaline was effective for one hr. No significant changes of $\text{FEV}_{1.0}$ were observed either after smoking (above) or after orcioprenaline inhalation as shown in Fig. 14.

Furthermore, Fig. 15 shows that the mean \pm SD values of $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$ reflect the acute effect of cigarette smoking with prior inhalation of orcioprenaline, atropine or lidocaine. It shows that $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$ decreased significantly after inhalation of orcioprenaline or atropine (decreased from 3.02 ± 0.29 cmH₂O/liter/sec to 2.52 ± 0.18 cmH₂O/liter/sec in orcioprenaline, $p < 0.01$ and from 3.08 ± 0.41 cmH₂O/liter/sec to 2.36 ± 0.30 cmH₂O/liter/sec in atropine, $p < 0.01$) and after smoking a cigarette, there was a tendency for the value of $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$ to increase (increased

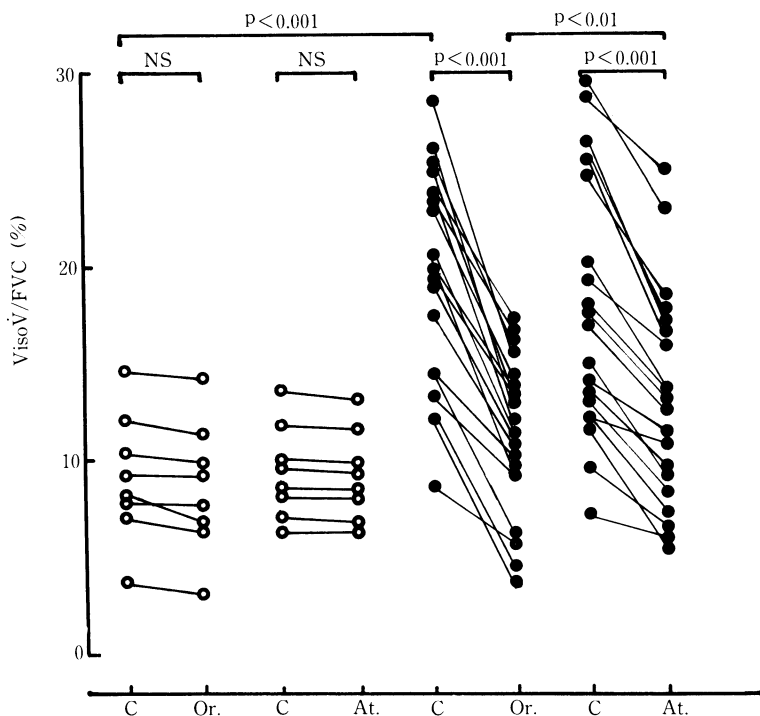


Fig. 10. Effects of orciprenaline or atropine on $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ in nonsmokers (○—○) and smokers (●—●). $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ was significantly higher in smokers and improved after inhalation of orciprenaline or atropine. No significant change was observed in nonsmokers. C = control, Or. = after orciprenaline inhalation, At. = after atropine inhalation. p value indicates significant difference.

Table 6. End-tidal helium concentration in nonsmokers and smokers before and after orciprenaline inhalation

	Before orciprenaline inhalation			After orciprenaline inhalation		
	$\text{FET}_{\text{He}(1)}$	$\text{FET}_{\text{He}(2)}$	$\text{FET}_{\text{He}(3)}$	$\text{FET}_{\text{He}(1)}$	$\text{FET}_{\text{He}(2)}$	$\text{FET}_{\text{He}(3)}$
Nonsmokers (n=5)	7.16 ± 0.32	8.90 ± 0.23	9.68 ± 0.08	7.18 ± 0.31	8.98 ± 0.33	9.70 ± 0.17
Smokers (n=7)	6.38 ± 0.80	8.74 ± 0.56	9.52 ± 0.45	7.07 ± 0.92	9.00 ± 0.56	9.67 ± 0.36

Values are Mean \pm SD. $\text{FET}_{\text{He}(1)}$, $\text{FET}_{\text{He}(2)}$ and $\text{FET}_{\text{He}(3)}$ = end-tidal helium concentration (%) obtained following one, two and three inhalations of a gas mixture containing 10% helium, 20% oxygen and 70% nitrogen.

from 2.52 ± 0.18 $\text{cmH}_2\text{O}/\text{liter}/\text{sec}$ to 3.14 ± 0.26 $\text{cmH}_2\text{O}/\text{liter}/\text{sec}$ in orciprenaline and from 2.36 ± 0.30 $\text{cmH}_2\text{O}/\text{liter}/\text{sec}$ to 2.72 ± 0.41 $\text{cmH}_2\text{O}/\text{liter}/\text{sec}$ in atropine). In spite of the increasing tendency, in comparison with the control value, orciprenaline or atropine significantly inhibited the acute effect of smoking on $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$. There were no changes of $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$ after inhalation of lidocaine and even after smoking.

Fig. 16 shows that $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ was also decreased from $18.0 \pm 6.9\%$ to $10.3 \pm 4.3\%$ ($p < 0.001$) after orciprenaline inhalation and

from $17.8 \pm 7.1\%$ to $13.5 \pm 5.6\%$ ($p < 0.02$) after atropine inhalation. After smoking a cigarette, there was a tendency for the value of $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ to increase (increased from $10.3 \pm 5.6\%$ to $14.2 \pm 6.1\%$ in orciprenaline and from $13.5 \pm 5.6\%$ to $17.4 \pm 5.7\%$ in atropine). Although there was a tendency for the value of $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ to increase after smoking with prior inhalation of orciprenaline or atropine, but in comparison with the control value, both drugs significantly inhibited the acute effect of smoking. There were no changes of $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ af-

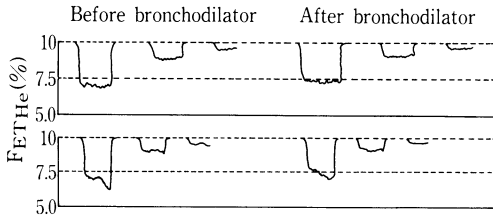


Fig. 11. Changes of helium concentrations during three slow vital capacity breathing maneuvers in a nonsmoker (above) and a cigarette smoker (below), before (left) and after (right) inhalation of orciprenaline. In each subject, three successive plateaus below the 10% F_{ETHe} line represent expired concentration (%) after first, second and third breath of helium. In smoker F_{ETHe} was lower than nonsmoker, especially at first F_{ETHe} .

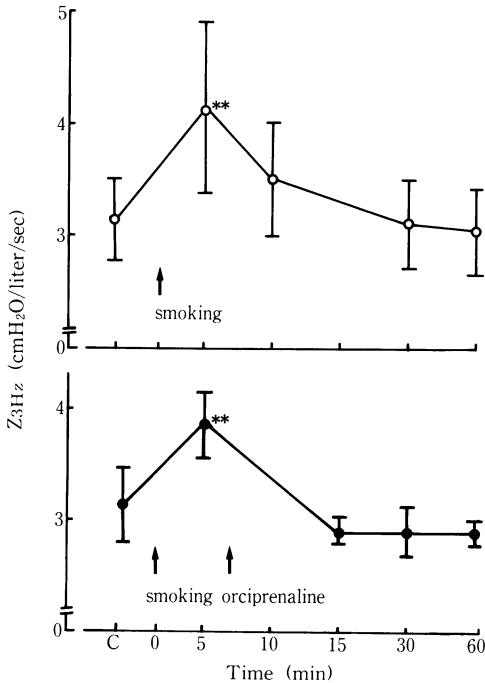


Fig. 12. Acute effect of smoking a cigarette on Z_{3Hz} and effect of orciprenaline with time course was observed in five smokers. Changes of Z_{3Hz} was significant immediately after smoking a cigarette only and the value returned to control level within 30 min (above). Inhalation of orciprenaline after smoking decreased the value of respiratory impedance below the control rapidly (below).
** significant difference from control value. ($p < 0.01$)

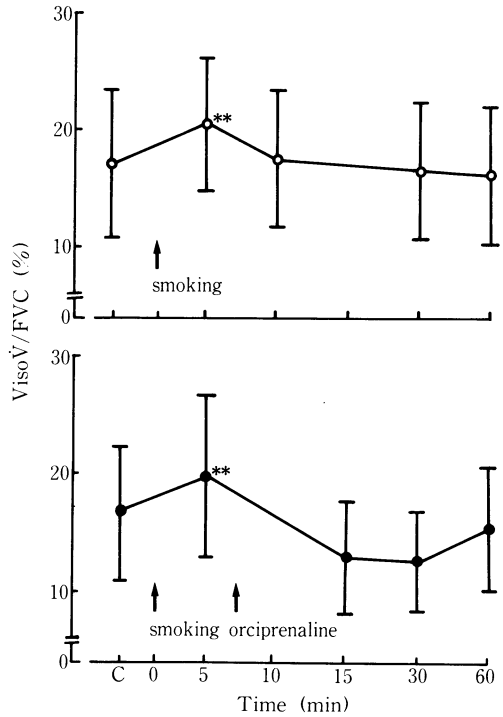


Fig. 13. Effect of smoking a cigarette on $VisoV/FVC$ was significant (above). Inhalation of orciprenaline after smoking decreased the value below the control level quickly (below).
** significant difference from control value. ($p < 0.01$)

ter inhalation of lidocaine and even after smoking. Lidocaine completely prevented the acute effect of smoking in the present study.

There were no changes of $FEV_{1.0}$ after inhalation of orciprenaline or lidocaine, but inhalation of atropine significantly increased the value of $FEV_{1.0}$ from 3.73 ± 0.37 liters to 3.98 ± 0.28 liters ($p < 0.05$). No significant changes were observed after smoking (Fig. 17).

Fig. 18 shows that lidocaine inhalation neither induced bronchodilatation nor any change of pulmonary function tests followed by orciprenaline inhalation induced significant bronchodilatation.

DISCUSSION

Mead and his associates⁴²⁾ have shown that maximal expiratory flow (\dot{V}_{max}) at a given lung volume is determined by elastic recoil pressure (P_{st}) and upstream resistance (R_{us}). Airway resistance consists of two components, resistance due to convective acceleration (R_{ca}) and friction-

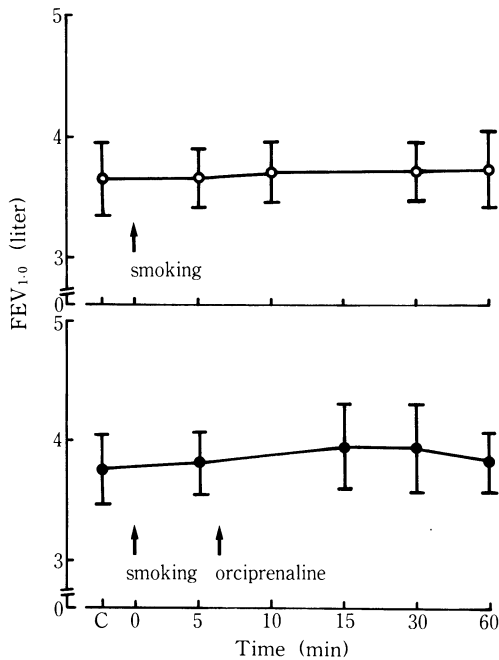


Fig. 14. Effect of smoking a cigarette on FEV_{1.0}. There was no significant change after smoking.

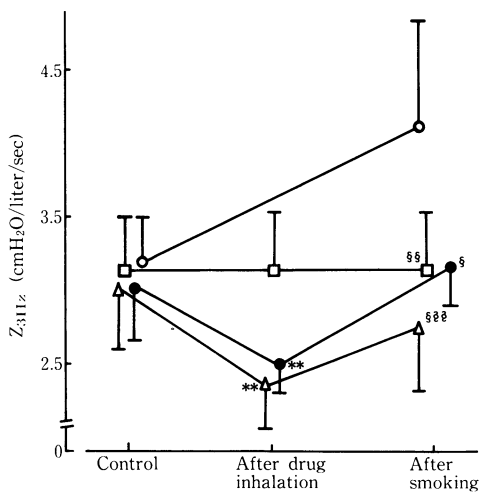


Fig. 15. Effect of cigarette smoking on Z_{SHz} in five smokers with prior inhalation of oriprenaline (●—●), atropine (△—△) or lidocaine (□—□). Z_{SHz} decreased significantly after oriprenaline or atropine inhalation. After that smoking a cigarette, there was a tendency to increase Z_{SHz} but in comparison with the control value (○—○) it was significantly inhibited. Lidocaine inhalation did not induce bronchodilatation and completely abolished the effect of smoking on Z_{SHz}.
 significantly difference from pre smoking control value (** p<0.01).
 significantly difference from post smoking control value (§p<0.05, §§p<0.01, §§§p<0.001)

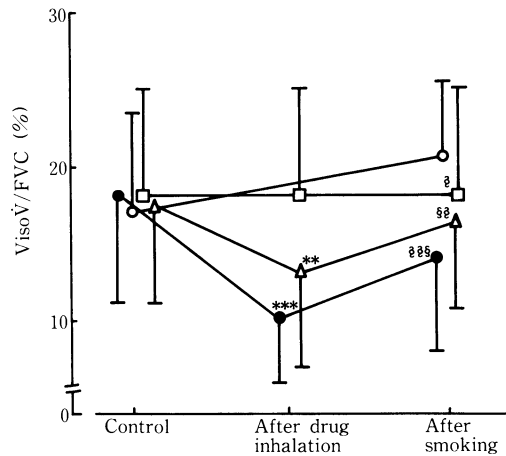


Fig. 16. Effect of smoking on VisoV/FVC in five smokers with prior inhalation of oriprenaline (●—●), atropine (△—△) or lidocaine (□—□). VisoV/FVC decreased significantly after inhalation of oriprenaline or atropine. After that smoking a cigarette, there was a tendency of increasing the VisoV/FVC value. But in comparison with the control value (○—○) inhalation of oriprenaline or atropine significantly inhibited the smoking effect. Lidocaine inhalation did not induce any change and completely abolished the effect of smoking.
 significantly difference from pre smoking control value (** p<0.02, *** p<0.001).
 significantly difference from post smoking control value (§p<0.05, §§p<0.01, §§§p<0.001).

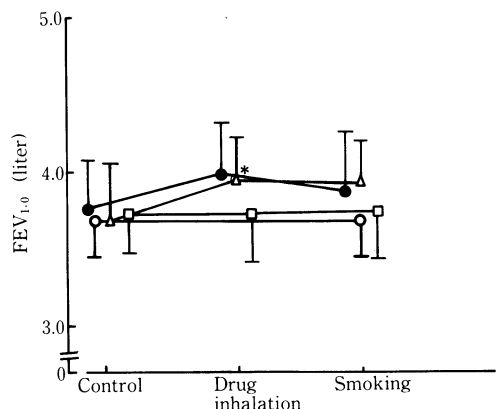


Fig. 17. Effect of smoking on FEV_{1.0} in five smokers with prior inhalation of oriprenaline (●—●), atropine (△—△) or lidocaine (□—□). There were no significant changes after smoking in comparison with control (○—○) value but FEV_{1.0} increased significantly after inhalation of atropine.
 * reveals significant difference from control value (p<0.05)

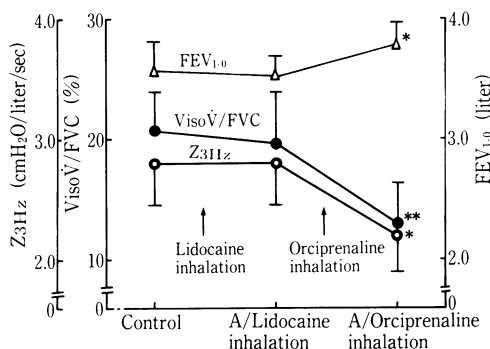


Fig. 18. Effect of orcprenaline inhalation on Z_{3Hz} , $Viso\dot{V}/FVC$ and $FEV_{1.0}$ after inhalation of lidocaine in three smokers. Lidocaine did not induce bronchodilatation following inhalation of orcprenaline induced significant bronchodilatation, indicates that lidocaine inhalation did not affect bronchial smooth muscle. significantly difference from control value (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$)

air resistance (R_{fr}) this relationship is represented by following equation:

$$\dot{V}_{max} = Pst / (Rca + Rfr)...(1)$$

During forced vital capacity maneuver at higher lung volumes, equal pressure point (EPP), defines the point within the airways where intrabronchial pressure and pleural pressure becomes equal, remains predominantly in large airways and most of the resistance to airflow is due to convective acceleration and turbulence, both of which are density dependent^{39,41,42,63}.

Furthermore, it has been known that resistance due to laminar flow predominates over resistance due to Rca at low lung volumes. Since, resistance due to laminar flow is inversely proportional to the square of the cross-sectional area, R_{us} is markedly reduced in small airway because the cross-sectional area is considerably increased. Flow at the lower lung volumes should be paid attention as a marker of detecting lesion in small airway. Macklem and Wilson⁴¹ have also demonstrated that the movement of EPP occurred below 25% of VC in normal person. Following increase in resistance offered by upstream airways and loss of elastic recoil due to disease or aging, the EPP moves further towards the alveoli and may be located in small airways following the decrease of expiratory flow at a given lung volume^{41,42}.

As mentioned above, Rca and turbulence is density dependent and resistance due to laminar flow is viscosity dependent. Therefore, reduction of gas density after breathing helium decreases the R_{us} and turbulence and improves the flow as shown in Fig. 2. However, because R_{fr} tends to predominate at lower lung volumes and laminar component tends to increase, flow at lower lung volumes will become more viscosity dependent. $He+O_2$ mixture has lower density than air but viscosity of that is not so different. Therefore, flow at MEFV curve with air and $He+O_2$ becomes identical at lower lung volumes, that is the mechanism of occurring volume of isoflow. This study shows that \dot{V}_{25} was significantly lower in smokers than in nonsmokers ($p < 0.05$) and although $Viso\dot{V}/FVC$ was less than 10% (mean) in nonsmokers, however, in smokers $Viso\dot{V}/FVC$ was 18.2% (mean). It was significantly higher than nonsmokers ($p < 0.001$). The higher value of $Viso\dot{V}/FVC$ obtained in smokers may be due to two reasons, from equation (1), these are: 1) increased upstream resistance and 2) loss of elastic recoil pressure of the lung. However, the smokers of this study were young except one who was 53 years old. There was no past history of cough or sputum production and they were free from COPD because of their normal $FEV_{1.0}$ and DL_{CO} and their response to bronchodilators⁶⁰. In this study, peripheral airways dysfunction in smokers was detected by higher $Viso\dot{V}/FVC$ value which was probably due to increased R_{us} rather than to loss of elastic recoil pressure²¹.

Moreover, distribution of ventilation is also an important marker of airway dysfunction. It has been reported that there was impairment of distribution of ventilation in smokers⁵⁷. Distribution of ventilation was measured by slope of phase III of SBN_2 washout (ΔN_2) and it was significantly higher in smokers ($p < 0.05$). F_{ETHe} was also measured and it was lower in smokers than nonsmokers. There are three possible explanations for this observation: 1) a relatively larger residual volume (RV) in smokers leads to greater overall dilution of inhaled helium, 2) uneven ventilation results in lower helium concentration at late expiration and 3) disturbance of mixing in the lung. But RV did not differ between nonsmokers and smokers (Table 3). Therefore, difference and disturbance in distribution

of ventilation might be due to increased Rus.

It has been established either by pulmonary function tests or pathological examinations that smoking causes changes in peripheral airways. Thus, airway dysfunctions detected in smokers seemed to be 1) narrowing of the peripheral airways and 2) disturbance in distribution of ventilation. Though there was a difference in distribution of ventilation between nonsmokers and smokers, no significant relationship was observed between $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ and N_2 . Moreover, Dosman et al¹³⁾ have suggested that distribution of ventilation might influence the response of maximal expiratory flow inhaling $\text{He}+\text{O}_2$. Fairshter and his associates¹⁵⁾ have observed that distribution of ventilation also influenced $\text{Viso}\dot{V}$. Furthermore, $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$ was higher in smokers and there was a good relationship between $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ and $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$ ($r = 0.491$, $p < 0.05$).

According to Bode and his associates⁹⁾, abnormalities in pulmonary function in smokers were reversible at least in part following cessation of smoking. McFadden and Linden⁴⁵⁾ demonstrated an improvement of maximal mid-expiratory flow rates in 21 of 25 smokers treated with prolonged oral bronchodilator. In the present study it was also evaluated that the pulmonary airway dysfunctions in smokers were reversible after inhalation of a single dose of orciprenaline or atropine. Namely, $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ was significantly decreased from the control value and flow-rates of MEFV curve were increased. Distribution of ventilation was also improved.

The data presented in Tables 4 and 5 suggest that there is a greater improvement in $\text{FEV}_{1.0}$ and $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$ in response to atropine than to orciprenaline and a moderately greater improvement of $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ and flow-rates at low lung volumes after inhalation of orciprenaline. Thus, orciprenaline appears to exert its effect upon both large and small airways and atropine exerts its effect predominantly on large airways. Moreover, the acute response and reversibility of pulmonary airway abnormalities by orciprenaline may suggest that the narrowing of the peripheral airways is due to bronchospasm rather than to mucus plugging or mucosal edema⁵¹⁾.

Nakamura et al⁵²⁾ measured the central and peripheral airway resistance simultaneously and

reported that cigarette smoke inhalation in vagus intact dogs increased the peripheral resistance (R_p) to 239% of the control value and the central resistance (R_c) increased to 112%, but in bilateral vagotomized dogs, R_p increased to 143% and R_c increased to 104%. They concluded that cigarette smoking mainly increased R_p via vagal reflex. According to Sellick and Widdicombe^{58,59)}, lung irritant receptors are complexes of nerve terminals that ramify beneath and between the cells of the airway epithelial lining.

Their histological structure and site are consistent with their sensitivity to intraluminal chemical and mechanical irritant stimuli. They are stimulated by a variety of conditions and cigarette smoke is one of them^{47,48,58)}. Stimulation of irritant receptors by dust and irritant gases such as ammonia, sulfur dioxide and smoke cause vagal reflex hyperpnea and vagal reflex bronchoconstriction in man and other experimental animals^{47,48,50,51,55,59)}. Nadel and Comroe⁵¹⁾ have found a decrease in $sGaw$ within one minute after starting to smoke a cigarette and observed the response from 10 to 40 min and they have suggested that the response was due to vagal stimulus reflex by smoke particles similar to that initiated by dust particles rather than nicotine, because inhalation of the latter in aerosol form did not elicit bronchoconstriction¹⁴⁾.

In this study, the main cause of airway dysfunctions for smoking might be due to smoke particles rather than nicotine through vagal reflex. Hawkins et al²⁴⁾ showed that guinea pig tracheal response to nicotine was unaffected by atropine.

Since, the changes of airway dysfunctions due to smoking seemed to be reversible, acute effect of cigarette smoking on pulmonary function tests was also investigated. According to Rees et al⁵⁶⁾ reproducible changes of airway resistance occurred within 30 seconds of smoking. Subjects of the present study smoked a cigarette in a usual way and immediately thereafter a significant response on $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$ and $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ was observed. The acute increase of $Z_{3\text{Hz}}$ and $\text{Viso}\dot{V}/\text{FVC}$ after smoking decreased to the control level within 10 to 30 min. Inhalation of orciprenaline after smoking decreased the values below the control level which was maintained for

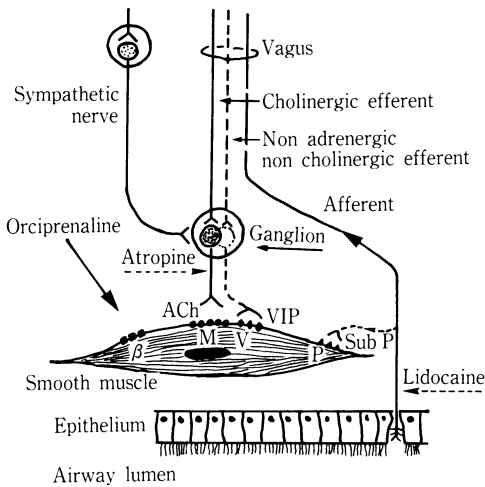


Fig. 19. Innervation of human airway smooth muscle: the three components of the autonomic nervous system. In addition to classical adrenergic and cholinergic nervous system, there is a third component to the autonomic nervous system shown by the dashed lines. The non-cholinergic, non-adrenergic pathway is inhibitory to airway smooth muscles, the neurotransmitter of which is likely to be an intestinal peptides (VIP). There may also be an excitatory non-cholinergic pathway, which may consist of collateral branches of afferent nerves which release substance P. Specific receptors for these neurotransmitters present on airway smooth muscle cells.

Figure drawn originally by Barnes, P.J.⁷⁾ was modified partially by the author.

β = adrenergic receptor, M = muscarinic cholinergic receptor, V = VIP receptor, Sub P = substance P, P = substance P receptor, ACh = acetylcholine. -----> = site of effect of drugs.

one hr. In addition, inhalation of orcioprenaline or atropine prior to smoking significantly inhibited the acute effect of smoking. Why were there airway responses after smoking in subjects previously treated with orcioprenaline or atropine? it is known that orcioprenaline is a beta adrenergic agonist drug, activates adenylyl cyclase, increases cAMP and produces smooth muscle relaxation. Since smoking causes further secretion of acetylcholine from post ganglionic nerve endings, it induces contraction of smooth muscles. Atropine is a competitive antagonist of acetylcholine which could not completely block the acute effects of smoking. The following reasons may be given: 1) The dose of atropine used

in this study (0.05 mg/kg) was insufficient to completely antagonize acetylcholine secreted after smoking. 2) atropine is not a ganglion blocker. 3) The noncholinergic afferent stimulatory pathways are present in the airways. As shown in Fig. 19, it has been reported that the non-cholinergic afferent stimulatory pathway, so-called third nerve pathway, may run together with the afferent fibres of vagus nerve^{7,35,36)}. Stimulation of these afferent fibers releases substance P, which is a bronchial smooth muscle constrictor^{7,35,36)}.

Lundberg³⁶⁾ concluded that substance P induced contractions were resistant to atropine, suggesting a direct effect of substance P on the bronchial smooth muscle.

There are many reports on use of local anesthetics for the study of acute effects of smoke inhalation and nicotine in living animals and in bronchial smooth muscle strip preparations. It has been shown that drugs having a local anesthetic action abolishes the acute contraction of bronchial smooth muscle induced by nicotine and smoke^{24,29)}.

In this study, lidocaine inhalation did not induce bronchodilatation and completely prevented the acute effects of smoking. There is evidence that intact vagus nerve pathways are supplied to the irritant receptors of the bronchial epithelial lining and that inhalation of lidocaine blocked the afferent pathways in vagus and prevented the reflex action of irritant receptors after smoking. There is a question of whether lidocaine inhalation also affects the bronchial smooth muscles. Although in the present study as shown in Fig. 18 lidocaine inhalation did not induce bronchodilatation, following inhalation of orcioprenaline induced significant bronchodilatation. This indicates that lidocaine did not affect bronchial smooth muscles in the subjects of this study.

Based on the results of this study, the author have concluded that pulmonary airway dysfunctions in asymptomatic cigarette smokers were due to bronchospasm causing narrowing of the peripheral airways and difference in distribution of ventilation. All these abnormalities were reversible after inhalation of orcioprenaline or atropine and cholinergic nerve plays an important role in peripheral airway dysfunctions in smokers.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author is greatly indebted to Professor Yukio NISHIMOTO, Chairman of the Second Department of Internal Medicine, for his guidance, kind support and valuable advice during the period of this study. Author's heartfelt honour and gratitude to Associate Professor Dr. Michio YAMAKIDO for his valuable support and reviewing of the manuscript.

The author wishes to express his gratefulness to Dr. Takehiko HIRAMOTO for his direct supervision, suggestions and support during the course of this study. He is also grateful to all the members of the pulmonary function group especially to Dr. Kenta FUJIWARA, Dr. Shigekiyo NAKANISHI, Dr. Hiroyuki ARITA, Dr. Kenichi ARITA, Dr. Hirofumi FUKUHARA, Dr. Kikuo NAKANO and Dr. Yutaka TOKUNAGA for their wholehearted cooperation.

Last but not least, his heartfelt thanks are also extended to all members of the Second Department of Internal Medicine, every members of the Hiroshima University, every members of the subjects of this study, all Japanese friends and to Dr. M. Nazir Ahmed for making his daily and social life most enjoyable and meaningful. Lastly, author would like to express his deep respect and honour to his uncle, Dr. Gholam Rasul Miah, for his inspiration and help to study in Japan.

This study was performed in the Second Department of Internal Medicine, Hiroshima University School of Medicine, under a scholarship granted by The Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (Monbusho), The Government of Japan.

REFERENCES

1. Angelo, M.T., Silvia, D.A. and Hamosh, P. 1973. Effect of a single cigarette on the small airways. *J. Appl. Physiol.* **34**: 361-365.
2. Anthonisen, N.R., Bass, H., Oriol, A., Place, R.E.G. and Bates, D.V. 1968. Regional lung function in patients with chronic bronchitis. *Clin. Sci.* **35**: 495-511.
3. Anthonisen, N.R., Danson, J., Robertson, P.C. et al. 1969-70. Airway closure as a function of age. *Resp. Physiol.* **8**: 338-345.
4. Aviado, D.M. and Palacek, P. 1967. Pulmonary effects of tobacco and related substances. 1. Pulmonary compliance and resistance in the anesthetized dog. *Arch. Environ. Health.* **15**: 187-193.
5. Aviado, D.M. and Palacek, P. 1967. Pulmonary effects of tobacco and related substances. 2. Comparative effect of cigarette smoke, nicotine and histamine on the anesthetized cat. *Arch. Environ. Health.* **15**: 194-203.
6. Aviado, D.M., and Samanek, M. 1965. Bronchopulmonary effects of tobacco and related substances. 1. Bronchoconstriction and bronchodilatation: influence of lung denervation. *Arch. Environ. Health.* **11**: 141-151.
7. Barnes, P.J. 1984. The third nervous system in the lung: Physiology and clinical perspectives. *Thorax* **39**: 561-567.
8. Bode, F.R., Dosman, J., Martin, R.R. and Macklem, P.T. 1975. Reversibility of pulmonary function abnormalities in smokers. A prospective study of early diagnostic tests of small airways disease. *Am. J. Med.* **59**: 43-52.
9. Buist, A.S., Douglas, L., Van, F. and Benjamin, B.R. 1973. A comparison of conventional spirometric tests and the tests of closing volume in an emphysema screening center. *Am. Rev. Respir. Dis.* **107**: 735-743.
10. Chick, T.W. and Jenne, J.W. 1977. Comparative bronchodilator responses to atropine and terbutaline in asthma and chronic bronchitis. *Chest* **72**: 719-723.
11. Dasilva, A.M.T. and Hamosh, P. 1980. The immediate effect on lung function of smoking filtered and nonfiltered cigarettes. *Am. Rev. Respir. Dis.* **122**: 794-797.
12. Despas, P.J., Leroux, M. and Macklem, P.T. 1972. Site of airway obstruction in asthma as determined by measuring maximal expiratory flow breathing air and a helium-oxygen mixture. *J. Clin. Invest.* **51**: 3235-3243.
13. Dosman, J., Bode, F., Urbanetti, J., Martin, R. and Macklem, P.T. 1975. The use of a helium-oxygen mixture during maximum expiratory flow to demonstrate obstruction in small airways in smokers. *J. Clin. Invest.* **55**: 1090-1099.
14. Dubois, A.B. and Dantrebande, L. 1958. Acute effects of breathing inert dust particles and of carbacol aerosol on mechanical characteristics of lungs in man. Changes in response after inhaling sympathomimetic aerosols. *J. Clin. Invest.* **37**: 1746-1755.
15. Fairshter, R.D. and Wilson, A.F. 1977. Volume of isoflow: effect of distribution of ventilation. *J. Appl. Physiol.: Respirat. Environ. Exercise Physiol.* **43**: 807-811.
16. Fletcher, C.M., Peto, R., Speizer, F.S. and Tinker, C.M. 1970. A follow-up bronchitis. Proceeding of international symposium on bronchitis. In Oris NGM. and vander Lende R. (ed.), Vol 3, Assen, The Netherlands Royal Vangorcum.
17. Gelb, A.F. and Zamel, N. 1973. Simplified diagnosis of small airway obstruction. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **288**: 395-398.
18. Gelb, A.F., Gold, W.M., Wright, R.R., Bruch, H.R. and Nadel, J.A. 1973. Physiologic diagno-

- sis of subclinical emphysema. *Am. Rev. Respir. Dis.* **107**: 50-63.
19. **Gelb, A.F. and MacAnally, B.J.** 1973. Clinical significance of pulmonary function tests. Early detection of obstructive lung disease by analysis of maximal expiratory flow-volume curves. *Chest* **64**: 749-753.
 20. **Gelb, A.F. and Klein, E.** 1977. Clinical significance of pulmonary function tests. The volume of isoflow and increase in maximal flow at 50 percent of forced vital capacity during helium-oxygen breathing as tests of small airway dysfunction. *Chest* **71**: 396-399.
 21. **Gelb, A.F., Molony, P.A., Klein, E. and Aronstam, P.S.** 1975. Sensitivity of volume of isoflow in the detection of mild airway obstruction. *Am. Rev. Respir. Dis.* **112**: 401-405.
 22. **Gilson, J.C. and Hugh-Jones, P.** 1949. The measurement of the total lung volume and breathing capacity. *Clin. Sci.* **7**: 185-216.
 23. **Hartiala, J., Mapp, C., Mitchell, R.A., Shields, R.L. and Gold, W.M.** 1984. Cigarette smoke-induced bronchoconstriction in dogs: vagal and extravagal mechanisms. *J. Appl. Physiol.: Respirat. Environ. Exercise Physiol.* **57**: 1261-1270.
 24. **Hawkins, D.F. and Paton, W.D.M.** 1958. Responses of isolated bronchial muscles to ganglionically active drugs. *J. Physiol.* **144**: 193-219.
 25. **Hogg, J.C., Macklem, P.T. and Thurlbeck, W.M.** 1968. Site and nature of airway obstruction in chronic obstructive lung disease. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **278**: 1355-1360.
 26. **Hutcheon, M., Griffin, P., Levison, H. and Zamel, N.** 1974. Volume of isoflow: A new test in detection of mild abnormalities of lung mechanics. *Am. Rev. Respir. Dis.* **110**: 458-465.
 27. **Hyatt, R.E. and Black, L.F.** 1973. The flow-volume curves. A current prospective. *Am. Rev. Respir. Dis.* **107**: 191-199.
 28. **Ingram, R.H.Jr. and O'cain, C.F.** 1971. Frequency dependence of compliance in apparently healthy smokers versus nonsmokers. *Bull. Physiopath. resp.* **7**: 195-210.
 29. **Jones, T.R., Lefcoe, N.M. and Hamilton, J.T.** 1980. Studies of the action of nicotine in guinea-pig tracheal smooth muscle: Interaction with beta adrenoceptor antagonist. *European. J. Pharmacol.* **67**: 53-64.
 30. **Kumar, A., Mead, G., Dickey, J.C.Jr., Berman, P. and Kuppinger, M.** 1980. Density dependence of expiratory flow and bronchodilator response in asthma. *Chest* **77**: 68-75.
 31. **Lapierre, J.G., Ho, M.F., Zamel, N., Levison, H. and Bryan, A.C. and Gelb, A.F.** 1975. Effect of age on volume of isoflow and its determinants in healthy persons. *Am. Rev. Respir. Dis.* **111**: 938.
 32. **Larson, P.S. and Silvtte, H.** 1975. Tobacco. Experimental and clinical studies. Baltimore, MD: Williams and Wilkins, Suppl. III.
 33. **Levine, G., Housely, E., MacLead, P. et al.** 1970. Gas exchange abnormalities in mild bronchitis and asymptomatic asthma. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **282**: 1277-1287.
 34. **Lee, L.Y., Morton, R.F., Hord, A.H. and Frazier, D.T.** 1983. Reflex control of breathing following inhalation of cigarette smoke in conscious dogs. *J. Appl. Physiol.: Respirat. Environ. Exercise Physiol.* **54**: 562-570.
 35. **Lundberg, J.M., Saria, A., Brodin, E., Rossell, S., Kolkers, K.** 1983. A substance P antagonist inhibits vagally induced increase in vascular permeability and bronchial smooth muscle contraction in the guinea pig. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **80**: 1120-1124.
 36. **Lundberg, J.M., Martling, C.R. and Saria, A.** 1983. Substance P and Capsaicin-induced contraction of human bronchi. *Acta. Physiol. Scand.* **119**: 49-53.
 37. **Loomis, T.A.** 1956. Broncho-constrictor factor in cigarette smoke. *Proc. Soc. Exp. Biol. Med.* **92**: 337-340.
 38. **Marini, J.J., Lakshinarayan, S. and Kradjan, W.A.** 1981. Atropine and terbutaline aerosols in chronic bronchitis. *Chest* **80**: 285-291.
 39. **Macklem, P.T. and Mead, J.** 1968. Factors determining maximum expiratory flow in dogs. *J. Appl. Physiol.* **25**: 159-169.
 40. **Macklem, P.T. and Mead, J.** 1967. Resistance of central and peripheral airways measured by a retrograde catheter. *J. Appl. Physiol.* **22**: 395-401.
 41. **Macklem, P.T. and Wilson J.** 1965. Measurement of intrabronchial pressure in man. *J. Appl. Physiol.* **20**: 653-663.
 42. **Mead, J., Turner, J.M., Macklem, P.T. and Little, J.B.** 1967. Significance of the relationship between lung recoil and maximum expiratory flow. *J. Appl. Physiol.* **22**: 95-108.
 43. **McLean, K.H.** 1958. The pathogenesis of pulmonary emphysema. *Am. J. Med.* **25**: 62-74.
 44. **McFadden, E.R.Jr., Kiker, R., Holmes, B., deGrol, W.J.** 1974. Small airway disease. An assessment of the test of peripheral airway function. *Am. J. Med.* **57**: 171-182.
 45. **McFadden, E.R. and Linden, D.A.** 1972. A reduction in maximum expiratory flow rate. A spirographic manifestation of small airway disease. *Am. J. Med.* **52**: 725-737.
 46. **McCarthy, D.S., Spencer, R., Greene, R. and Milic-Emili, J.** 1972. Measurement of closing volume as a simple and sensitive test for early detection of small airway disease. *Am. J. Med.* **52**: 747-753.
 47. **Mills, J., Sellick, H. and Widdicombe, J.G.** 1969. The role of lung irritant receptors in respiratory responses to multiple pulmonary embolism, anaphylaxis and histamine-induced bronchoconstriction. *J. Physiol.* **203**: 337-357.
 48. **Mills, J., Sellick, H., Widdicombe, J.G.** 1970. Epithelial irritant receptors in the lungs, p. 77-92. In Porter. R. (ed.), Ciba Foundation. Breathing: Hering-Breuer Centenary Symposium, Churchill,

- London.
49. **Mildon, A., Leroux, M., Hutcheon, M. and Zamel, N.** 1974. The site of airway obstruction in exercise induced asthma. *Am. Rev. Respir. Dis.* **110**: 409-414.
 50. **Nadel, J.A., Salem, H., Tamplin, B. and Tokiwa, Y.** 1965. Mechanism of bronchoconstriction during inhalation of sulfur dioxide. *J. Appl. Physiol.* **20**: 164-167.
 51. **Nadel, J.A. and Comroe, J.H.Jr.** 1961. Acute effect of inhalation of cigarette smoke on airway conductance. *J. Appl. Physiol.* **16**: 713-716.
 52. **Nakamura, M., Haga, T., Sasaki, H. and Takishima, T.** 1985. Acute effect of cigarette smoke inhalation on peripheral airways in dogs. *J. Appl. Physiol.: Respirat. Environ. Exercise Physiol.* **58**: 27-33.
 53. **Nishida, O., Sewake, N., Kambe, N., Okamoto, T., Takano, M., Aratani, Y., Shigeto, E., Sewake, H. and Nishimoto, Y.** 1976. Pulmonary function in healthy subjects and its prediction, 4. Subdivision of lung volumes in adult. *Jap. J. Clin. Path. (Japanese)* **24**: 837-841.
 54. **Nishida, O., Kambe, M., Sewake, N., Takano, M., Kawane, H., Kodomari, Y., Arita, K., Nasuno, H. and Nishimoto, Y.** 1976. Pulmonary function in healthy subjects and its prediction, 5. Pulmonary diffusing capacity in adult. *Jap. J. Clin. Path. (Japanese)* **24**: 941-947.
 55. **Pett, J.M.** 1970. Discussion. In: *Ciba Foundation. Breathing: Hering-Breuer Centenary Symposium*, p. 111-114. In Porter, R.(ed.) Churchill, London
 56. **Rees, P.J., Chowiecnyk, P.J., Clark, T.J.H.** 1982. Immediate response to cigarette smoke. *Thorax* **37**: 417-422.
 57. **Ross, J.C., Ley, G.D., Krumholz, R.A. and Rahbari, H.** 1967. A technique for evaluation of gas mixing in the lung: studies in cigarette smokers and nonsmokers. *Am. Rev. Respir. Dis.* **95**: 447-453.
 58. **Sellick, H. and Widdicombe, J.G.** 1971. Stimulation of lung irritant receptors by cigarette smoke, carbon dust, and histamine aerosol. *J. Appl. Physiol.* **31**: 15-19.
 59. **Sellick, H.G. and Widdicombe, J.G.** 1969. The activity of lung irritant receptors during pneumothorax, hyperpnoea and pulmonary vascular congestion. *J. Physiol.* **203**: 359-381.
 60. **Watanabe, S., Renzetti, A.D. Jr., Raymond, B. and Adelbert H.B.** 1974. Airway responsiveness to a bronchodilator aerosol. *Am. Rev. Respir. Dis.* **109**: 530-537.
 61. **Widdicombe, J.G.** 1963. Regulation of tracheobronchial smooth muscle. *Am. Physiol. Soci.* **43**: 1-37.
 62. **Widdicombe, J.G., Kent, D.C. and Nadel, J.A.** 1962. Mechanism of bronchoconstriction during inhalation of dust. *J. Appl. Physiol.* **17**: 613-616.
 63. **Wood, L.D.H. and Bryan, A.C.** 1967. Effect of increased ambient pressure on the flow-volume curve of the lung. *J. Appl. Physiol.* **27**: 4-8.
 64. **Woolcock, A.J., Vincent, N.J. and Macklem, P.T.** 1969. Frequency dependency of compliance as a test for obstruction in the small airways. *J. Clin. Invest.* **48**: 1097-1106.
 65. **Zamel, N., Kass, I., Fleischli, G.J.** 1973. Relative sensitivity of maximal expiratory flow-volume curves using spirometer versus body plethysmograph to detect mild airway obstruction. *Am. Rev. Respir. Dis.* **107**: 861-863.