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British Thoracic Society Clinical Statement on Pulmonary Rehabilitation

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56 **Introduction**

57 The evidence-based British Thoracic Society (BTS) Guideline for pulmonary rehabilitation (PR) in adults was
58 published in 2013.(1) There is a strong evidence base for the benefits of PR,(2) and it is one of the most cost-
59 effective interventions for adults with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD).(3) Furthermore, PR
60 improves exercise capacity and health related quality of life (HRQOL) in COPD to a much greater magnitude
61 than observed with bronchodilator therapy.(4)

62 Much of the guideline remains relevant today and does not need re-visiting. Since the guideline however,
63 there is deeper understanding of referral characteristics, outcome measures, patient selection, programme
64 delivery, potential adjuncts, and the role of maintenance following PR. The BTS Clinical Statement on PR will
65 provide a snapshot of current knowledge and best practice in topical areas by providing a series of clinical
66 practice points that are informed by evidence where this exists, or based on expert opinion and collective
67 clinical experience where evidence is limited. The intended audience are PR clinicians working within health
68 settings in the United Kingdom and beyond. The clinical statement will provide a framework to inform future
69 British Thoracic Society Quality Standards for PR. We have also highlighted areas of research priority, which
70 will be of interest to clinical researchers.

71 In this statement, we highlight the growing interest in alternative models of delivering PR (e.g. home-based,
72 remote supervision, use of technology), accelerated by the restrictions placed on face-to-face PR delivery
73 during the global COVID-19 pandemic. Alternative PR models, typically delivered remotely, might potentially
74 increase provision of, and accessibility to PR. However research gaps remain and it is crucial these alternative
75 models are optimised and carefully evaluated before widespread adoption.(2).

76 A recent international workshop report, using a Delphi process, defined essential and desirable components
77 of PR.(5) We have adapted this to define the core components of PR (Table 3), which will help health payers
78 decide if they are commissioning an intervention that is likely to produce good outcomes.

79

80 **Methodology**

81 The Clinical Statement Group (CSG) was chaired by Professor William Man and Professor Sally Singh.
82 Membership was drawn from an open application process. Members were selected for their experience
83 either in clinical delivery or academic evaluation (or both), and be representative of the multidisciplinary
84 team. The CSG identified key areas that reflect the scope approved by the BTS Standards of Care Committee
85 (SOCC). Following discussions of broad statement content, individual sections were drafted by CSG members
86 with the overall statement drafted by the chairs and reviewed by a patient representative. A final edited
87 draft was reviewed by the BTS SOCC before posting for public consultation and peer review on the BTS
88 website in (date to be confirmed). The revised document was re-approved by the BTS SOCC in TBC before
89 final publication.

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94 **Section 1: Pulmonary Rehabilitation: Access, Referrals, and Uptake**

95 **1.1 Access and Referrals**

96 There is a large disparity between the number who are eligible and the number receiving PR.(6) Reasons for
97 this are complex, but barriers may exist at several points of the pathway. Referral from primary care appear
98 to be influenced negatively by increasing age, gender (women less likely), deprivation, comorbidities,
99 respiratory disability and smoking status.(7) The PR outcomes from individuals with lower socioeconomic
100 status are not compromised, but they are less likely to be referred or to complete PR.(8) Over 10% of services
101 in England and Wales did not offer services to those with greatest respiratory disability (Medical Research
102 Council Dyspnoea Scale 5). Equity of access is rarely addressed within UK services, but modification of PR to
103 suit the needs of a diverse population has been proposed in other countries.(9) Health and digital literacy
104 require attention, particularly with ever diversifying modes of PR delivery, including the use of
105 technology.(10, 11)

106 Although there is a dearth of randomised controlled trial (RCT) data to support specific interventions
107 designed to improve referral for PR,(12, 13) identified referrer barriers include a lack of referrer knowledge
108 around eligibility criteria or how to refer for PR.(14) Several observational studies have provided indirect
109 evidence that improving education can increase referral rates (summarised in Table 1).

110

111 **Table 1: Effect of referrer education on pulmonary rehabilitation referrals**

Action	Effect on referrals
Delivering education to primary care referrers (18-20)	3-5% increase
Patient education as part of a 'patient held score card' with advice to discuss referral at their next COPD review (21)	6% increase
Integrated approach to COPD care (22)	25% increase over three years
Delivering education to secondary care referrers (33, 34)	6% increase RR: 2.78 [2.65; 2.90]
Delivering COPD discharge bundles by pulmonary rehabilitation practitioners versus non-pulmonary rehabilitation practitioners (129)	OR: 14.46 [5.28 to 39.57]

112 OR – adjusted odds ratio; RR – risk ratio; [] 95% confidence intervals

113

114 The most recent (pre-pandemic) national audit data identified that the median waiting time from receipt of
115 referral to PR enrolment was 84 days, with only 54% receiving PR within 90 days of referral receipt.(15) A
116 similar waiting time from prescription to receipt of an inhaler would be unacceptable, despite
117 bronchodilators being a less cost-effective intervention to PR.(3) Commissioners need to ensure that
118 accessibility to PR has at least the same priority as access to pharmacological therapy. This would require
119 investment in workforce and training, with the BTS report "A workforce for the future" highlighting the
120 substantial shortage of skilled health care professionals and support staff for PR.

121

122

123 **1.2 Uptake and Completion**

124 Barriers to uptake and completion of pulmonary rehabilitation are complex,(16, 17) but factors relating to
125 the quality of a PR service, such as lack of patient-centeredness and coordination within PR team, inadequate
126 professional competence of staff, lack of a holistic approach and limited accessibility, are relevant.(16)

127 There are few interventional studies targeting uptake and completion. Observational studies have explored
128 interventions such as group opt-in sessions (which led to fewer patients attending assessment for PR (18)),
129 patient-held manuals with research evidence summaries which improved attendance in the most
130 socioeconomic disadvantaged patients,(19) and a nurse-general practitioner partnership care plan which
131 increased attendance at PR by 21.5% compared to usual care.(20) In the acute setting, a patient co-designed
132 education video did not improve post-hospitalisation PR uptake.(21) Other interventions currently being
133 tested include the use of lay health workers to support patients.(22).

134

135 **Clinical Practice Points**

- 136 • PR provider leads should have designated sessional time to coordinate management and delivery of the
137 service. This should include: regular education of potential referrers about PR and referral pathways; the
138 expansion, training and skills maintenance of a specialist workforce to deliver PR; the collation of key
139 organisational metrics.
- 140 • PR providers should demonstrate the offer of timely, accessible and high quality services by the regular
141 monitoring and publication of key organisational metrics including waiting time from referral receipt to
142 assessment and enrolment, percentage of referred patients who attend an assessment, percentage of
143 patients who are assessed that attend at least one planned supervision, percentage of the number of
144 attended to planned sessions, percentage of patients attending a discharge assessment.
- 145 • PR providers should work closely with relevant national professional societies and other stakeholders to
146 develop consensus training programmes, competency documents and plans to develop and support a
147 skilled workforce to deliver increased PR.

148

149 **Research gaps**

- 150 ▪ Development of interventions to improve referrals to, uptake and completion of PR.
- 151 ▪ The adaptations and evaluation of PR services to ensure programmes meet the needs of a diverse
152 population, including equity of access.

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164 **Section 2: Assessment and Outcomes**

165 PR assessments are documented in the previous BTS guideline and include measures of breathlessness,
166 exercise capacity and HRQOL.(1) These remain core outcomes. However, this section will explore additional
167 assessments and outcomes that are complementary and should be considered as part of a high-quality PR
168 service.

169

170 **2.1 Holistic Assessment**

171 The PR pathway presents an opportunity to optimise holistic care. A thorough assessment for PR incorporates
172 a multi-system approach. This should help identify individuals who might benefit from other cost-effective
173 interventions such as vaccination and smoking cessation,(3) or those identified with treatable traits
174 associated with poor prognosis that might prompt onward referral.

175 There is a significantly increased risk of several cardiovascular diseases in COPD (23) so unexplained
176 symptoms (such as chest pain or intermittent claudication), or identification of elevated blood pressure or
177 arrhythmias should prompt referral for further evaluation. Long term oxygen therapy for severe hypoxaemia
178 remains one of the few interventions that influence prognosis in adults with COPD.(24, 25) Both low body
179 mass index (specifically unintentional weight loss) and extreme obesity are factors for poor prognosis.(26-
180 28). Frailty, a multisystem syndrome characterised by reduced functional reserve and increased vulnerability
181 following minor stressor events, is associated with adverse prognosis in adults with COPD,(29-31) and
182 increases likelihood of PR non-completion.(32) Mental health issues are common in patients referred for PR
183 (15, 33) and are associated with reduced adherence to interventions, increased dyspnoea, and lower levels
184 of patient activation.(34-37)

185 Education is a key component of PR; yet assessing the effects of this component is challenging, with limited
186 availability of validated questionnaires, particularly for non-COPD conditions.(38) Although validated COPD
187 knowledge questionnaires have been used in PR settings,(39, 40) further research is needed to determine
188 the impact of the educational component beyond knowledge acquisition. A list of suggested educational
189 topics were published in the previous BTS guidelines.(1)

190

191 **2.2 Home-based or remote assessment of core outcomes**

192 Since the COVID-19 pandemic, there has been increasing interest in home-based or remote assessment
193 options. Many non-exercise outcomes, such as HRQOL, are assessed through questionnaires. The COPD
194 Assessment Test, Saint Georges Respiratory Questionnaire and Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale have
195 comparable validity and reliability when delivered over the phone compared to face-to-face delivery.(41, 42)

196 However, evidence is lacking to support remote delivery of functional or field walking tests as a reliable
197 alternative to face-to-face testing. Although sit to stand, step, and timed up and go tests are feasible in the
198 home-setting, they do not accurately reflect oxygen desaturation with walking or allow exercise
199 prescription.(43) Six-minute walk tests (6MWT) supported by mobile phone application algorithms offers a
200 potentially attractive approach but has not been validated in chronic respiratory disease populations.(44)
201 There are some data to suggest that there is no significant difference in six-minute walk distance when
202 performed indoors or outdoors,(45) although further corroboration is required in variable environmental
203 conditions. Current assessment of patient safety for exercise-training and exercise capacity to facilitate
204 exercise prescription should be conducted in-person, irrespective of the PR delivery model (see Section 4).

206 **2.3 Functional assessments**

207 Simple functional assessments are attractive as they do not require as much space as field walking tests (46)
208 and can be performed in most healthcare settings including the home. These include four metre gait speed
209 (47-49), sit to stand tests (five repetition, 30 seconds, one minute) (50-53), step tests (54-57), timed up and
210 go (58), and composite measures combining several functional tests. These have been reviewed in detail
211 elsewhere (43, 59-61). These functional tests are safe and feasible in the home setting, have a moderate
212 relationship with field walking test performance or muscle strength and are responsive to exercise-based
213 interventions or PR.

214 However, there are several caveats. Most validation studies have taken place in clinical settings where the
215 tests were directly supervised and therefore the safety and validity of remotely supervised functional tests
216 in patients with chronic respiratory disease have not been established. Some functional tests have floor or
217 ceiling effects that might limit their application in PR. For example, 15% of those referred for PR were not
218 able to complete the five repetition sit to stand,(50) whilst the four metre gait speed is less responsive to PR
219 in higher functioning individuals with COPD.(47) Functional tests are also typically submaximal, and therefore
220 not able to support individualised exercise prescription.(47) Others have used functional tests as surrogate
221 markers of muscle strength. However the relationship between five repetition sit-to-stand test and
222 quadriceps strength is only moderate.(50)

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224

225 **2.4 Physical activity**

226 Reduced physical activity (PA) is associated with poor prognosis in COPD.(62) Although PA can be measured
227 subjectively using questionnaires, there are limitations to this method including recall bias.(63) There is
228 growing literature on measuring PA using wearable devices, including pedometers and accelerometers, but
229 considerable variability has been reported in clinical trials.(64) An International Taskforce on Physical Activity
230 has recommended implementation of standard operating procedures for PA data collection and
231 reporting.(62) Although PA has been identified as an important outcome that may be potentially amenable
232 to PR, further research is required before adoption into routine clinical practice.

233

234 **Clinical Practice Points**

- 235 • As well as establishing safety and suitability for exercise training and facilitation of exercise prescription,
236 a high quality PR assessment should encompass a holistic approach incorporating documentation of
237 vaccination and smoking/vaping status; resting oxygen saturations, heart rate and blood pressure
238 measurements; nutritional assessment; frailty; presence of anxiety and depression; and disease
239 knowledge. This information should be communicated to other relevant healthcare professionals
240 involved in the individual's management so that required action can be coordinated.
- 241 • Assessment of patient safety for exercise-training and exercise capacity to facilitate exercise prescription
242 should be conducted in-person using a validated field walking test (incremental shuttle walk, 6MWT) or
243 laboratory cardiopulmonary exercise test.
- 244 • There is no evidence to support the safety or validity of field walking tests or simple functional tests that
245 are supervised remotely.

- 246 • When routine face-to-face assessments are restricted, hybrid assessments can be considered with
247 questionnaire-based assessments conducted over the telephone and a directly supervised, face-to-face
248 assessment of exercise capacity.
- 249 • Functional tests are complementary to, but not a replacement for, validated exercise walking tests. There
250 is no evidence to support aerobic or strength exercise prescription from simple functional tests.

251

252 **Research gaps**

- 253 ▪ Development of outcomes that assess the effectiveness of the education component of the PR
254 programme
- 255 ▪ Studies to assess the safety and validity of remotely supervised exercise and functional outcomes through
256 video-conferencing or mobile applications.
- 257 ▪ Alternative strategies to prescribe exercise and deliver effective PR in the absence of a directly supervised
258 validated exercise test.
- 259 ▪ Clarify the value of measuring PA and other physiological data obtainable from wearables as part of
260 routine clinical practice in PR.
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278 **Section 3: Extending the Scope of Pulmonary Rehabilitation**

279 **3.1 Chronic Respiratory Disease other than COPD**

280 There is a growing evidence-base and real-world experience of delivering PR to people with asthma,
281 bronchiectasis and interstitial lung disease (ILD). Systematic reviews have demonstrated that exercise
282 training, compared with control interventions, significantly improves exercise capacity and HRQOL.(65-68)
283 Furthermore, real-world data suggest that these improvements are of similar magnitude to those observed
284 in matched patients with COPD.(33, 69, 70)

285 Considerations and potential adaptations needed to deliver PR to people with non-COPD chronic respiratory
286 disease are outlined in Table 2. For asthma, to minimise risk of adverse events, patients should be medically
287 optimised prior to referral for PR.(71) Similarly, as bronchiectasis is characterised by excessive sputum
288 production, a review and optimisation of airway clearance technique should be considered prior to starting
289 PR.(72) There are no data to support increased risk of cross-infection of multi-resistant organisms,(73) but
290 local infection control policies should be followed. Compared with COPD, profound exercise-induced oxygen
291 desaturation is more common in IPF and some subtypes of ILD; this needs to be considered as part of the
292 safe assessment and delivery of PR in these patients. Although most standard PR education is relevant to
293 people with non-COPD respiratory disease, some adaptations are needed (eg. medications) or particular
294 components prioritised (eg. airway clearance in bronchiectasis).

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314 **Table 2. Disease-specific considerations for pulmonary rehabilitation**

Asthma	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To minimise risk of adverse events, patients should be medically optimised prior to PR referral.(71)
Bronchiectasis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Bronchiectasis is characterised by excessive sputum production, therefore a review and optimisation of airway clearance technique is recommended prior to starting PR.(72) There are no data on risk of cross-infection of multi-resistant organisms during PR, but local infection control policies should be followed.
Interstitial lung disease	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Compared with COPD, profound exercise-induced desaturation is more common in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis and some sub-types of interstitial lung disease; this needs to be considered as part of the safe assessment and delivery of PR in these patients.
Post-COVID-19	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Check for contraindications and beware unexplained chest pain. Unidentified (and therefore untreated) pulmonary thromboembolic disease (84) and myocarditis (172) have been reported in the post-COVID-19 syndrome, which are relative contraindications to PR. Assessment: A proportion of patients will have post-intensive care syndrome with multi-systemic symptoms. The following symptoms should be assessed to enable the exercise and education components to be individualised: fatigue, muscle weakness, breathing pattern disorder, post-traumatic stress, swallow/speech difficulties, and peripheral neuropathy. Monitoring: Post-exertional symptom exacerbation (PESE) is a widely reported symptom in post-Covid 19 syndrome.(173) Given the potential for deterioration in function following overexertion, fatigue and PESE should be closely monitored during PR.
Lung cancer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Due to time sensitivity for curative surgery, conventional PR programmes would require adaptation to be suitable for prehabilitation.
Chronic heart failure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Programme adaptations/considerations might include:(99) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Exercise assessment with an exercise ECG. Provision of disease-specific education and non-exercise interventions to address breathless and psychological needs of patients and carers. Workforce training to understand signs of an episode of decompensated heart failure. Inclusion of a heart failure nurse in the multi-disciplinary team.
Pulmonary hypertension	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To be eligible for PR, people with pulmonary hypertension should:(101, 103) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have stable disease (>3 months). Be prescribed drug therapy with no change in previous two months. Have no recent syncope. International guidelines recommend that exercise is supervised by specialist exercise professionals.(103)

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316 *Abbreviations: ECG: Electrocardiogram; PR: Pulmonary Rehabilitation.*

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320 **3.2 Post-COVID-19**

321 Previous guidance from the BTS regarding the role of adapted PR to meet the recovery needs in post-COVID-
322 19 syndrome has been previously published.(74) Several observational studies have demonstrated that PR
323 following hospitalised COVID-19 is associated with significant improvements in exercise capacity,
324 breathlessness, and HRQOL.(75-80) Without a control group, natural recovery cannot be dismissed as the
325 main driver of improvements.(56) However, symptom burden, reduced exercise tolerance and sequelae of
326 hospitalisation for COVID-19 remain substantial at five months post-discharge,(81) with negligible
327 improvement one year after discharge.(82) Initial trial data suggest a role for PR in the recovery of individuals
328 with post-COVID-19 syndrome,(83) and the results of further trials are awaited

329 Several factors need to be considered when providing PR to individuals with post-COVID-19 syndrome (Table
330 2). A proportion will have post-intensive care syndrome with multi-organ impairment, and there should be a
331 wider assessment for symptoms such as fatigue, muscle weakness, breathing pattern disorder, post-
332 traumatic stress, swallow/speech difficulties, and peripheral neuropathy. These should also be considered
333 with regards to individualising the exercise and education components of the programme. Unidentified (and
334 therefore untreated) pulmonary thromboembolic disease (84) and myocarditis (85) have been reported in
335 the post-COVID-19 syndrome, which are relative contraindications to PR. Furthermore, post-exertional
336 symptom exacerbation (PESE) is a widely reported symptom in post-Covid 19 syndrome.(86) Given the
337 potential for deterioration in function following over-exertion, fatigue and PESE should be closely monitored
338 during PR.

339

340 **3.3 Lung Cancer**

341 Prehabilitation is the focus on modifiable risk factors in individuals preparing for lung cancer treatment,
342 typically commencing at the point of diagnosis and is multimodal in approach.(87) A systematic review
343 suggested that exercise pre-surgery improves physical and pulmonary function, although the interventions
344 were very heterogeneous in nature and duration.(88) Whilst PR addresses some modifiable factors, the time-
345 sensitivity of lung cancer resection means that the traditional outpatient PR model would need significant
346 adaptations to be suitable for prehabilitation (Table 2).

347 A Cochrane review identified eight RCTs of exercise-training following surgical resection of non-small cell lung
348 cancer (89). Compared with usual care, improvement in exercise capacity was greater in the intervention
349 group, but trial populations were small and there was lower certainty for other outcomes. Due to the
350 significant heterogeneity of the interventions, the optimal timing, setting, nature or duration of exercise-
351 training for post-lung cancer surgery patients remains unclear. Few patients are currently referred for PR
352 after lung cancer surgery.(90) Little data exists on rehabilitation interventions that combine pre- and post-
353 lung cancer surgery exercise-training.

354

355 **3.4 Lung Volume Reduction Surgery**

356 Lung volume reduction surgery (LVRS) is recommended by the National Institute for Health and Care
357 Excellence (NICE) for the treatment of selected individuals with emphysema and hyperinflation.(91) As part
358 of the work-up for LVRS, all individuals should receive PR, a prerequisite to randomisation in landmark trials
359 of LVRS.(92) Furthermore, it plays an important role in selecting individuals for LVRS with up to 20%
360 improving their exercise tolerance to such an extent that they change LVRS risk stratification groups.(93)

361 In the UK, only a small minority of eligible patients undergo LVRS due to the absence of standardised referral
362 pathways.(94) However, PR practitioners may have a role in identifying potential candidates as the post-PR
363 assessment represents the point at which the patient's functional capacity and management of
364 breathlessness should be optimised. Recent analysis of data from the National Asthma and COPD Audit
365 suggested that up to 18.1% of PR completers met the NICE criteria for a LVRS-focused respiratory review
366 (Non-smoker, MRC≥3, 6MWT > 140m or ISWT >80m).(95)

367

368 **3.5 Lung Transplantation**

369 Before referral for lung transplantation, individuals with advanced lung disease should have been optimised,
370 including completion of PR. Unlike for lung cancer, waiting time for lung transplantation is unpredictable, and
371 there is little guidance on the ideal content or duration of a prehabilitation programme for lung
372 transplantation, and consequently few published data.

373 Exercise-training following lung transplantation has been studied in more detail. A Cochrane review to
374 determine the benefits and safety of exercise training in adult lung transplant recipients included eight RCTs
375 involving 438 participants.(96) However, results could not be aggregated due to the small number of
376 underpowered trials and the heterogeneity of the interventions. The authors concluded that the effects of
377 exercise-based rehabilitation following lung transplantation were uncertain due to imprecise estimates of
378 effects and high risk of bias.(96)

379

380 **3.6 Cardiac Disease and Pulmonary Hypertension**

381 Cardiac comorbidity is highly prevalent in patients attending PR.(15) There is no convincing data to suggest
382 that stable cardiac comorbidity is associated with worse outcomes to PR.(97) Exercise-based cardiac
383 rehabilitation is safe in individuals with chronic heart failure (CHF) and improves exercise capacity and
384 HRQOL.(98) Integrating individuals with CHF and those with chronic respiratory disease into breathlessness
385 rehabilitation programmes is feasible with minor adaptations (Table 2).(99) These improve exercise capacity
386 in CHF, with a magnitude similar to that observed in COPD.(100) Only 18% of PR services in the UK currently
387 accept patients with CHF.(15)

388 In a systematic review of seven trials in patients with primarily pulmonary arterial hypertension (PAH)
389 (including some with chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension: CTEPH), exercise-based
390 rehabilitation improved 6MWT distance and peak oxygen consumption compared with usual care.(101)
391 However, the quality of evidence was low and the rehabilitation interventions were inpatient-based and
392 atypical of PR practice in the NHS. Collective experience is that exercise-training is safe and effective in
393 PAH,(102) and in those with pulmonary hypertension secondary to chronic lung disease. However, expert
394 consensus is that patient selection is key (stable disease with no recent change in drug therapy or recent
395 history of syncope).(101, 103). In PAH and CTEPH, exercise-based rehabilitation should be directly supervised
396 in person by specialist exercise health care professionals.(103)

397

398 **3.7 Pulmonary Rehabilitation around the time of a hospitalised exacerbation of COPD**

399 Extrapulmonary manifestations of hospitalised exacerbations include reduced walking performance (104,
400 105), HRQOL (106, 107), low physical activity levels (108) and muscle dysfunction (109) – all of which are
401 associated with poor prognosis,(30, 104, 110) but also potentially responsive to PR.

402 The BTS Guideline on PR recommended that individuals hospitalised for acute exacerbation of COPD should
403 be offered PR at hospital discharge to commence within one month of discharge.(1) The Cochrane systematic
404 review included 20 trials and 1477 participants and demonstrated moderate to large effects of rehabilitation
405 on HRQOL and exercise capacity in patients with COPD after an exacerbation.(111) Additionally there is
406 evidence that PR after hospitalised exacerbation may reduce the risk of readmission (112, 113) and improve
407 survival with a dose-response effect.(114) However, the content, setting and duration of rehabilitation
408 interventions were heterogeneous.

409 In the UK setting, inpatient rehabilitation may not be feasible given the short duration of hospital stays. Two
410 trials conducted in the NHS setting evaluated PR initiated during the inpatient stay and progressing to a more
411 “light touch” approach to post-discharge outpatient treatment with the aim of addressing both the initial
412 insult of the hospitalisation as well promoting recovery.(115, 116); however benefits were less impressive
413 than observed in post-exacerbation outpatient PR trials.(112, 115-117) Rehabilitation started one month
414 after hospitalisation yielded better overall results than rehabilitation started during the hospital
415 admission.(118) A systematic review, including 30 studies, identified that longer programmes, starting after
416 hospital discharge and including an educational component (as well as exercise), were most effective at
417 reducing hospital readmissions.(119)

418 Implementation of PR following an exacerbation remains a challenge. Real-world data suggests that uptake
419 is between 1.5% and 9%.(114, 120) Strategies to improve referral, uptake and completion have been
420 limited.(21) “Delayed” PR following a hospital admission is still associated with benefits (121) and therefore
421 it is important to re-offer PR to people who initially decline in the immediate post-hospitalisation period.

422

423 **Clinical Practice Points**

- 424 • PR should be offered to symptomatic individuals with asthma, bronchiectasis and ILD.
- 425 • PR may be helpful in the recovery of subgroups of patients with post-Covid-19 syndrome.
- 426 • The assessment, exercise and education components of PR should be adapted for relevant
427 cardiorespiratory diseases, taking into account disease-specific issues.
- 428 • The workforce should receive training and be competent to deliver high-quality PR for relevant
429 cardiorespiratory diseases.
- 430 • PR practitioners should have the skill set to support prehabilitation interventions for patients awaiting
431 lung cancer and lung transplant surgery, but the current delivery model of PR needs to be adapted in
432 order to be appropriately time sensitive.
- 433 • PR practitioners have a role in identifying potential candidates for LVRS.
- 434 • Patients with stable CHF, PAH or CTEPH can be incorporated safely within directly supervised outpatient
435 PR programmes.
- 436 • Outpatient supervised PR, incorporating both exercise-training and education should be offered to all
437 appropriate patients discharged from hospital after exacerbation of COPD.
- 438 • Members of the integrated care team should re-offer “delayed” PR in individuals who decline an initial
439 offer of post-hospitalisation PR.

440

441 **Research gaps**

- 442 ▪ Trials to understand the role of PR in the recovery of post-Covid-19 syndrome.
- 443 ▪ Trials to determine the optimal timing, setting, nature or duration of exercise-training for post-lung
444 cancer and post-lung transplant surgery.
- 445 ▪ Trials to evaluate the effects of PR in hospitalised exacerbations of chronic respiratory disease other than
446 COPD.
- 447 ▪ Interventional trials designed to increase referral to and uptake of post-exacerbation PR.
- 448 ▪ The role of alternative remote PR models in the post-exacerbation setting.

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465 **Section 4: Alternatives Models of Pulmonary Rehabilitation**

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467 Barriers to traditional hospital-based PR have been well documented.(17, 122) This has highlighted the need
468 for alternative modes of delivering PR, as these may potentially increase uptake and accessibility.

469 National audit data show that non-medical, community-based settings are increasingly used to deliver
470 supervised PR in the UK.(6) PR delivered in a community setting has similar efficacy to that produced in a
471 hospital-based setting.(123) Supervised PR using minimal resources have similar efficacy to programmes
472 using specialist exercise equipment.(124)

473 Home-based rehabilitation spans a range of delivery options ranging from standardised manuals, web-based
474 applications, tele-rehabilitation and face-to-face supervision. Across all these modes, the level and frequency
475 of supervision and contact with a health care professional may vary dramatically. Commissioners need to
476 consider carefully whether alternative models delivered by providers include core components detailed in
477 Table 3. Although some PR models might involve remote supervision, published trials have all incorporated
478 a directly supervised face-to-face, validated exercise test prior to the intervention to evaluate safety and
479 facilitate exercise prescription. A further consideration is digital literacy (10, 11) and avoiding the exclusion
480 of individuals uncomfortable with technology.

Table 3: Core Components of a Pulmonary rehabilitation programme

- An initial face-to-face assessment by a suitably trained health care professional;
- Initial assessment must include a validated exercise test from which an individualised exercise prescription can be obtained;
- Endurance and resistance training, which is individually prescribed and progressed with regular supervision from suitably trained health care professionals;
- A structured education programme;
- Delivered by a dedicated team of health care professionals trained in exercise assessment, prescription and progression and delivery of education on chronic respiratory disease management;
- The programme model, including assessment and delivery components, must have been previously tested in a clinical trial and shown to be safe and effective;
- Measurement of core outcomes before and after PR, including a validated exercise test;
- Participation in regular audit of organisational and clinical outcomes; for example engagement with a recognised national audit programme where available.
- Regular external peer review, for example engagement with a recognised accreditation programme where available.

481

482 **4.1 Home-based, non-digital**

483 In this model, individual patients are provided with a manual, exercise diary or written material which
484 provides structured exercise and educational components (Table 4). These are usually supported by remote

485 supervision from skilled PR health care professionals. Previous data suggest that this model does improve
 486 HRQOL and exercise capacity compared with usual care, although differences are modest.(125) Trials that
 487 have compared home-based models supported by manual and telephone support with outpatient, centre-
 488 based PR have produced short-term clinical outcomes that are similar to centre-based PR.(126-128)
 489 However, an interesting observation is that “gold-standard” centre-based rehabilitation did not produce the
 490 expected improvements in exercise capacity. In a real-world study, a home-based, manual-structured
 491 programme with weekly telephone supervision produced similar improvements in HRQOL, but smaller
 492 changes in exercise capacity, compared to a propensity-matched cohort undergoing twice-weekly centre-
 493 based supervised programme.(129)

494 Although home-based programmes typically involve less frequent staff contact than centre-based
 495 approaches, that contact is conducted one-to-one, and therefore data are required to evaluate the cost
 496 effectiveness of such an approach. Other home-based therapies include the use of neuromuscular electrical
 497 stimulation which improves muscle weakness in those with advanced disease.(130, 131) However, the effect
 498 on exercise capacity is unclear.(130, 132).

499 **Table 4: Comparison of Home-based, non-technology versus centre based PR or usual care: summary of**
 500 **selective studies**

Study	Population	Intervention / Control	Outcomes
Maltais 2018 (128)	252 with COPD	Home based (including one home visit and weekly telephone calls) versus Outpatient centre based rehabilitation supervised PR for eight weeks. Both groups received four weeks of in-person centre-based education	Similar changes in dyspnoea, health status and exercise capacity at 3 months and 12 months
Holland 2017 (126)	166 with COPD	Home based (including one home visit and weekly telephone calls) programme versus Outpatient centre based supervised PR for eight weeks	Short term clinical outcomes equivalent to centre based PR but neither effective maintenance at 12 months
Horton 2018 (127)	287 with COPD	Structured unsupervised home based programme including a manual and telephone support for seven weeks versus Centre based supervised PR for seven weeks	Evidence of significant gains in CRQ-D at 7 weeks in both groups. Inconclusive that homebased PR was non-inferior to PR in dyspnoea favouring the centre group at 7 weeks
Nolan 2019 (129)	154 with COPD	Home based structured exercise programme with weekly telephone calls versus Centre-based supervised PR for eight weeks	Significant improvements in both groups in exercise capacity but home-based group demonstrated smaller improvements; clinically and statistically significant improvements in QoL within each group. Completion rates were low in both groups

Mitchell 2014 (125)	184 with COPD	Structured unsupervised home based programme including a manual and telephone support for 6-weeks versus usual care	Significant differences between groups in QoL, exercise performance, anxiety, and disease knowledge at 6 weeks; Intervention did not improve dyspnoea over and above usual care at 6 months
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501 PR – Pulmonary rehabilitation; CRQ-D – Chronic respiratory questionnaire – dyspnoea domain; QoL – Quality
502 of life

503 4.2 Home-based Web Platform

504 These are similar to home-based models described in 4.1, except that the programme is supported by a web-
505 based platform or app (Table 5). A home-based, online platform, “MyPR”, was compared with face-to-face
506 PR delivered in an outpatient setting, and demonstrated that “MyPR” was safe and well tolerated, and non-
507 inferior to the control arm in terms of effects on exercise capacity and symptom scores.(133) However, the
508 trial population was selective (exclusion criteria included exercise-induced oxygen desaturation, functional
509 limitation, comorbidities, poor digital literacy), and the control arm was not a conventional supervised PR
510 programme, but comprised exercise stations matched to those provided by the online platform.(133)
511 Completers of both a home-based interactive web platform “SPACE for COPD” and a standard care outpatient
512 PR programme showed similar improvements in endurance shuttle walk and dyspnoea.(134) However
513 engagement with digital technology was challenging; only 103 of 2646 invited patients were randomised,
514 whilst 57% of the web platform arm dropped out.(134) Both platforms provided an introductory face to face
515 session, with either contact details provided for further queries (133) or weekly contact via email or
516 telephone using a standardised proforma.(134)

517 **Table 5: Comparison of Home-based, web platform versus centre based PR: summary of selective studies**

Study	Population	Intervention / Control	Outcomes
Chaplin 2017 (134)	103 with COPD	Web-based programme (SPACE for COPD) of exercise and education versus centre based supervised PR, twice weekly, 2 hourly sessions for 7 weeks (4 weeks supervised; 3 weeks unsupervised)	Interactive web-based PR programme is feasible and acceptable when compared with centre based PR; statistically significant improvements within groups for exercise capacity and dyspnoea but not between groups. Dropout rates were higher in the web-based programme
Bourne 2017 (133)	90 with COPD	6-week Online PR via log in and access to 'myPR' versus a supervised PR programme group sessions in a local rehabilitation facility	Online supported PR was non-inferior to a conventional model delivered in face-to-face sessions in terms of effects on 6MWT distance and symptom scores. Online PR was safe and well tolerated.

518 SPACE for COPD – Self management programme of activity, coping and education for Chronic obstructive
 519 pulmonary disease; PR – Pulmonary Rehabilitation; 6MWT – six minute walk test
 520

521 4.3 Video Tele-rehabilitation

522 Video tele-rehabilitation encompasses synchronous real-time PR supported by video-conferencing. A small
 523 trial showed that video tele-rehabilitation improved endurance exercise capacity and self-efficacy in patients
 524 with COPD when compared with usual care.(135) Two studies have compared video tele-rehabilitation with
 525 face-to-face centre-based PR, and shown similar effects on exercise capacity and HRQOL.(136, 137) However
 526 the improvements in exercise capacity were modest in both intervention and standard care arms (Table 6).
 527 Furthermore, participants were provided with video technology and specialist exercise equipment to use in
 528 the home for free, which may not be generalisable to the NHS setting.

529 Outside of the home-setting, video-conferencing has also been utilised to support satellite tele-rehabilitation
 530 centres (“hub and spoke” model).(138, 139) Trials are needed to test the effects of such models on patient
 531 throughput, staffing ratios and travelling for patients.(139)

532 **Table 6: Comparison of video tele-rehabilitation versus usual care without exercise or standard care:**
 533 **summary of selective studies**

Study	Population	Intervention / Control	Outcomes
Tsai 2017 (135)	37 with COPD	Supervised home-based real-time video tele-rehabilitation (exercise three times/week for eight weeks) versus usual care without exercise training	Statistical, and clinically significant, improvement in endurance shuttle walk time in video tele-rehabilitation group, but underpowered to demonstrate improvements in incremental shuttle walk or six-minute walk
Hansen 2020 (137)	134 with COPD	10-week video tele-rehabilitation programme versus supervised face-to-face rehabilitation	Similar changes in exercise capacity, breathlessness and HRQOL, but changes in both groups very modest and probably not clinically significant
Cox 2021 (136)	142 with chronic respiratory disease (100 with COPD)	Video tele-rehabilitation programme versus supervised centre-based PR, both interventions 8 weeks with 16 sessions	Video-telerehabilitation appeared safe and provided clinically meaningful improvements in dyspnoea and HRQOL, but equivalence to traditional PR not shown

534 HRQOL – health-related quality of life; PR – pulmonary rehabilitation

535 4.4 Virtual reality

536 Virtual reality is an emerging technology that might provide an interactive and visually stimulating approach
 537 to providing PR in the home setting.(140) To date, there are few published data, of which most have
 538 limitations in the reporting quality.(141) Acceptability is also unknown in a patient population that
 539 traditionally have digital hesitancy.(10)

540

541 **4.5 Active Mind-Body Movement Therapies**

542 Three systematic reviews have examined the deployment of active mind-body movement therapies as an
543 alternative to pulmonary rehabilitation.(142-144) Two reviews compared Tia' Chi or yoga against non-
544 exercise control groups and identified statistically significant improvements in both exercise capacity and
545 HRQOL, concluding that tai chi or yoga may be a useful adjunct to rehabilitation (142, 143). A later review
546 compared active mind-body movement therapies (largely tai chi and/or qigong) as an adjunct to or in
547 comparison with pulmonary rehabilitation.(144) Overall, the data was of poor quality, the impact on both
548 exercise capacity and HRQOL remained inconclusive, and none conducted in NHS settings.(53) A recent trial
549 directly compared PR (three sessions a week) to Tai Chi (five sessions a week) for 12 weeks.(145) While there
550 were important changes in HRQOL in both groups, neither group reached the minimal clinically important
551 difference for the 6MWT distance.(145) The population was atypical of those usually referred for PR with a
552 pre-PR 6MWT distance of over 500 metres. Standardised reporting is crucial to our understanding and
553 development of these modes of delivery, which is important to attract a more diverse population.(146)

554 Overall, the outcomes of alternative models of PR have been heterogeneous and studies need to be
555 interpreted with caution. Although systematic reviews have suggested that alternative models of PR achieve
556 outcomes similar to those seen in traditional centre-based PR,(147) the certainty of evidence is limited by
557 the small number of studies with relatively few participants, varying models of care, and whether models are
558 generalisable to the NHS setting. Almost all published data are restricted to COPD.

559 Notably, a near universal observation is the lower-than-expected benefits associated with the “gold-
560 standard” centre-based arm in equivalence or non-inferiority trials. This may reflect selective trial
561 populations lacking equipoise. Furthermore, systematic reviews of telerehabilitation studies have shown that
562 the mean change in six minute walk distance with telerehabilitation are lower than the established minimum
563 clinically important difference,(147) and lower than that observed with centre-based PR (Figure 1).(2) Real-
564 world observational data have shown that home-based, remotely supervised PR are associated with a smaller
565 magnitude of change in exercise-capacity, about half of that seen in directly supervised, centre-based
566 PR.(129) There is no published data on hybrid models (which combine limited centre-based with home-based
567 PR).

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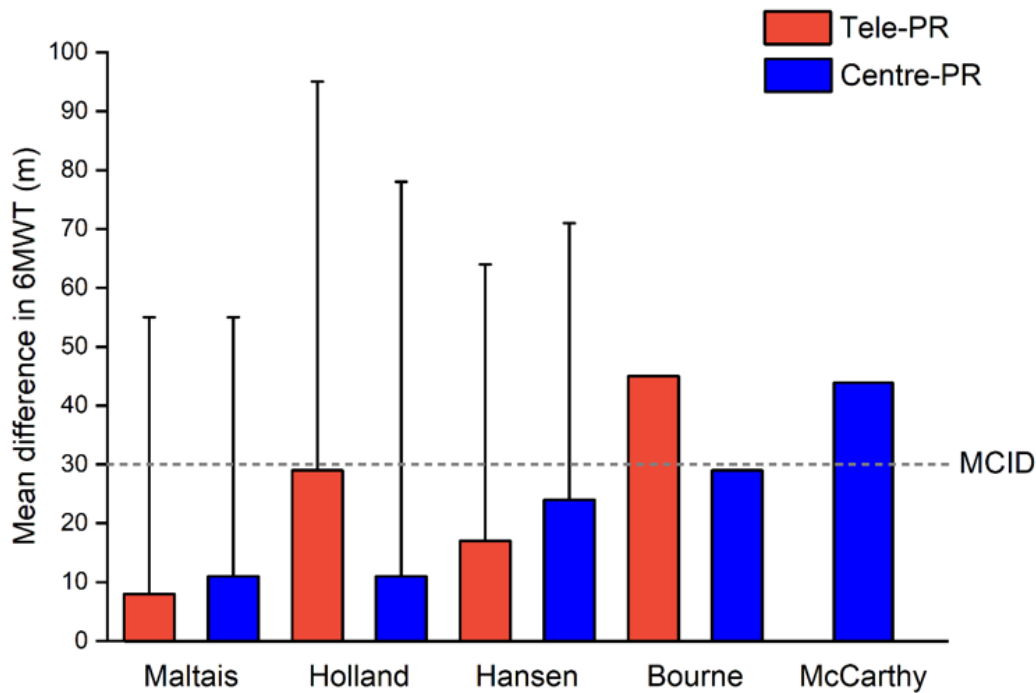
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578 **Figure 1**

579 Data taken from two Cochrane reviews a) Cox N et al (147) and McCarthy B et al (2) comparing the 6MWT
580 response data to home-based telerehabilitation and directly supervised PR based interventions. Data for
581 the 4 trials on the left is data from 4 RCT's comparing tele-rehabilitation and centre based rehabilitation,
582 and the data point on the right is combined data from 38 trials included in the Cochrane review of
583 supervised pulmonary rehabilitation which used six minute walk as an outcome.



584

585

586 **Clinical Practice Points**

- 587 • Every individual referred for PR should have the opportunity to access directly supervised, centre-based
588 PR in a timely way as this model is supported by a convincing evidence base.
- 589 • In patients who decline or drop out from supervised centre-based PR, providers should offer an
590 alternative model of delivery. Any alternative model should have a supporting evidence base (published
591 trials, ideally in the NHS setting), and incorporate a directly supervised, validated exercise test from which
592 individualised exercise can be prescribed.
- 593 • Both staff and patients require training to support alternative PR models, particularly those involving
594 digital technology.
- 595 • Commissioners and providers should ensure that the delivery of alternative PR models do not promote
596 digital exclusion.

597

598 **Research gaps**

- 599 ▪ Further trials are required to evaluate the efficacy and clinical effectiveness of alternative models of PR,
600 including hybrid models, particularly in the NHS setting.

- 601 ▪ An agreed framework for the reporting of technology-based interventions, including core datasets and
602 outcomes.
- 603 ▪ Alternative models of PR delivery should be evaluated in chronic respiratory diseases other than COPD.

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Draft for consultation

624 **Section 5: Adjuncts to and Maintenance of Pulmonary Rehabilitation**

625

626 Since the BTS guideline,(1) several trials have informed on the potential utility of adjunctive strategies to
627 improve PR outcomes.

628

629 **5.1 Oxygen supplementation**

630 Oxygen supplementation in the experimental setting acutely enhances endurance exercise performance in
631 individuals with COPD.(148-150) However, this has not translated to augmented outcomes in PR. In a
632 multicentre trial, 111 participants with COPD and exercise-induced oxygen desaturation were randomised to
633 receive either supplemental oxygen or room air during an eight-week exercise-training programme.(151)
634 Exercise capacity and HRQOL improved in both groups, with no additional benefit from training with
635 supplemental oxygen.(151) The majority of participants had only modest exercise induced oxygen
636 desaturation, and the acute physiological response to oxygen was not tested prior to the training
637 programme.(152) Limited data exist regarding the role of supplemental oxygen during PR in conditions other
638 than COPD.

639

640 **5.2 Non-invasive ventilation (NIV)**

641 Systematic reviews and meta-analyses of studies using NIV during supervised exercise training provide
642 conflicting evidence of the benefits. One meta-analysis showed improvements in endurance exercise capacity
643 with the addition of NIV (153), whilst another meta-analysis found similar responses to exercise training
644 between NIV supported and sham arms (154). In hospitalised exacerbations of cystic fibrosis and
645 bronchiectasis, Dyer and colleagues demonstrated that application of NIV could acutely improve endurance
646 cycling time (155), but there were concerns about patient acceptability. Practical considerations include the
647 additional equipment needed and time required to supervise patients on NIV during PR; this is less
648 problematic in those already established on domiciliary NIV.(156)

649

650 **5.3 Inspiratory muscle training (IMT)**

651 Since the guideline, three large RCTs have investigated the value of IMT as an adjunct to PR. Although IMT
652 improved inspiratory muscle strength, particularly in those with inspiratory muscle weakness,(157)
653 significant additive benefits of IMT to PR in core outcomes such as exercise capacity or HRQOL are less
654 convincing (157-159). Limited and conflicting data exist in respiratory disease other than COPD.(160, 161)

655

656 **5.4 Physical activity (PA) counselling**

657 Physical inactivity is associated with poor prognosis in COPD.(62) The effects of PR alone on physical activity
658 levels are relatively modest (162). A systematic review demonstrated that PA promotion with pedometers as
659 an adjunct to PR improves step counts/day,(163) although studies were small and results heterogeneous. A
660 trial conducted in the NHS setting randomised 152 participants with COPD to an eight-week PR programme
661 either with or without pedometer-directed step targets reviewed weekly.(164) No significant differences in
662 change in time spent in moderate intensity activity, exercise capacity or HRQOL were seen between
663 groups.(164) Studies exploring behavioural counselling as an adjunct to PR, typically using motivational

664 interviewing, have produced mixed results.(165-167) As discussed in Section 2.4, PA data collection and
665 reporting should conform to international consensus recommendations.(62)

666

667 **5.5 Maintenance of pulmonary rehabilitation**

668 The beneficial effects of PR decline over one year.(168) The previous BTS guidelines recommended that PR
669 graduates should be encouraged to continue exercise. However the format and delivery of maintenance
670 programmes reported in the literature vary significantly.(169)

671 The evidence for maintenance programmes after PR are inconsistent (Table 7). A Cochrane review of
672 supervised maintenance programmes showed clinically important improvements in HRQOL with
673 maintenance intervention but no significant differences in exercise capacity.(170) In contrast, the long-term
674 efficacy of PR with home-based or low frequency maintenance programmes showed improved maintenance
675 of exercise capacity but no differences in HRQOL.(171)

676 Further studies are needed to explore the optimal frequency and duration of supervised and unsupervised
677 maintenance programmes, and the cost-effectiveness of such programmes compared with alternative
678 approaches (e.g. repeated PR offers).

679 **Table 7: Systematic Reviews of Maintenance PR: summary of selective studies**

Study	Number of trials	Review question	Results
Malaguti, 2021 (170)	21 RCTs	Supervised maintenance programmes following pulmonary rehabilitation compared to usual care for COPD.	Supervised maintenance programmes not associated with increased adverse events, may improve health-related quality of life, and could improve exercise capacity at 6-12 months. Strength of evidence was limited (high risk of bias and small sample size).
Imamura, 2020 (171)	7 RCTs	Long-term efficacy of pulmonary rehabilitation with home-based or low frequent maintenance programs in COPD patients compared to those who had no maintenance programme.	PR with maintenance significantly improved 6MWD, but not HRQOL was observed.
Jenkins, 2018 (174)	8 RCTs	Efficacy of supervised maintenance exercise programmes following pulmonary rehabilitation compared to usual care on health care use.	Supervised maintenance exercise led to clinically important reduction in the rate of respiratory-cause hospital, overall risk of an exacerbation and mortality).
Busby, 2014 (175)	8 RCTs	Review of existing maintenance interventions following pulmonary rehabilitation	Most studies showed initial positive intervention effects, which declined to non-significance within 3-12 months after completion of maintenance.

680

681 **Clinical Practice Points**

- 682 • Oxygen supplementation should not be routinely used as an adjunct to PR except in individuals already
683 established on long-term or ambulatory oxygen therapy.
- 684 • NIV should not be routinely used as an adjunct to PR in those naïve to domiciliary NIV, but could be
685 offered to those already established on domiciliary NIV.
- 686 • IMT, as an adjunct to PR, is associated with improvements in muscle function, but this has not translated
687 to improvements in core outcomes.
- 688 • PA counselling should be a core component of the PR educational component. The use of pedometers
689 or/and additional PA counselling as adjuncts to PR require further evaluation.
- 690 • PR programmes should deliver self-management education and advice around the importance of regular
691 exercise after the PR programme has been completed. There is insufficient evidence to support the
692 routine formal delivery of maintenance programmes

693

694 **Research gaps**

- 695 ▪ The role of oxygen supplementation during PR in specific subgroups: severe exercise induced oxygen
696 desaturation (e.g. below 80%), those who demonstrate acute physiological response to oxygen.
- 697 ▪ Understanding the role of behavioural change on physical activity promotion and maintenance of the
698 benefits of PR.
- 699 ▪ Optimising the frequency, duration and content of supervised and unsupervised maintenance
700 programmes with concomitant assessment of cost-effectiveness.
- 701 ▪ Trials comparing maintenance interventions with repeated PR.

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