# Analysis of Risk Factors for COPD Incidence in Adults Over 40 Years of Age in Korea 

Do-Youn Lee, PT, PhD ${ }^{\dagger}$<br>Department of Rehabilitation and Health Promotion, Daegu university

Received: November 272023 / Revised: November 272023 / Accepted: December 222023
(c) 2024 J Korean Soc Phys Med


#### Abstract

| Abstract |

PURPOSE: The purpose of this study is to identify the incidence of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) and risk factors for diseases in adults over 40 years of age in Korea, and to provide basic data for the prevention of COPD incidence through management.

METHODS: Based on the 2019 data of the Korea National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (KNHANES), 1,788 adults over the age of 40 who participated in pulmonary function test and health survey were selected as subjects. COPD incidence risk factors were analyzed using complex sample multiple logistic regression analysis.


RESULTS: As a result of the analysis, the incidence of COPD in Korea was $11.5 \%$, and the risk of developing COPD was higher in men, age, and current smokers. Compared to women, men had an increased risk of developing COPD by 2.369 times ( $95 \%$ CI 1.289-4.355). In age, the risk of COPD incidence increased by 3.702 -fold ( $95 \%$ CI 1.923-7.124) in their 50 s, 11.238 -fold ( $95 \%$ CI 6.009-21.017) in their 60s, and

[^0]28.320 -fold ( $95 \%$ CI 14.328-55.977) in their 70 s compared to those in their 40s. In the smoking state, 2.302 times ( $95 \% \mathrm{CI}$ 1.373-3.860) of past smokers and 4.542 times ( $95 \% \mathrm{CI}$ 2.694-7.658) of current smokers were found to have a higher risk of developing COPD than non-smokers.
CONCLUSION: To reduce the incidence of COPD, interventions are required to prevent disease development through lifestyle and smoking cessation education in subjects with COPD risk factors.

Key Words: COPD, Incidence, Risk factor

## I. Introduction

Chronic Observational Pulmonary Disease (COPD) is a disease that reduces airflow due to excessive sputum production along with respiratory airway inflammation [1]. This disease is mainly caused by middle-aged and elderly people, resulting in physical problems such as independent daily life limitations due to dyspnea, weight loss, and hormonal abnormalities, as well as mental problems such as depression, anxiety, and sleep disorders, and increases mortality [2]. The prevalence of COPD over the age of 40 in Korea was reported to be $12.4 \%$ in $2011,11.5 \%$ in 2015 and $13.6 \%$ in 2019 [3,4]. In addition, the mortality rate from respiratory diseases, including COPD, is 27.7
per 100,000 people, which is the fifth leading cause of death after cancer, cerebrovascular disease, heart disease, and diabetes [5].

Due to the aging of the population and related risks, respiratory diseases are an important cause of morbidity and mortality [6]. COPD is identified as the leading cause of death worldwide [7]. These facts suggest that health care professionals should monitor COPD prevalence and manage diseases in the long term, as COPD will be a major factor in increasing individual patient health care costs, and furthermore, social health care costs.

In the management of COPD patients, the focus should be on prevention of risk factors along with diagnosis and treatment [7]. Smoking, age, genetic factors, low socioeconomic status, chemicals, or infection have been pointed out as risk factors for COPD disease, and among them, smoking is known to be the most important risk factor for the development and exacerbation of COPD [8]. The mortality rate from COPD also increased as the smoking age increased, and the total amount of smoking increased. In addition, it has been shown that stopping smoking can slow the progression of COPD [9].

This study aims to examine the prevalence and risk factors of COPD in Koreans over 40 years of age with significantly reduced lung function using data from the National Health and Nutrition Survey (KNHANES) conducted by the Korea Disease Control and Prevention Agency in 2019. The sample area (survey area) of the KNHANES was extracted by the multistage cluster stratified sampling method, a complex sample design method, to improve the representativeness of the sample and the accuracy of the estimation. Therefore, when using data from the KNHANES, a complex sample design reflecting weights should be used when analyzing data in accordance with the guidelines for using raw data so that it can represent the entire population in Korea. Therefore, this study provides basic data for developing health care strategies and intervention programs by monitoring COPD
prevalence and risk factors for disease occurrence using national statistics that are representative and reliable of the data.

The specific purpose of this study is as follows. First, this study identifies the prevalence of COPD in the study subjects. Second, this study compares and analyze the differences of sociodemographic, health related, and lifestyle characteristics in the COPD and normal groups. Third, this study identifies risk factors that affect the development of COPD.

## II. Methods

## 1. Research Participants

This study used data from the KNHANES 2019 conducted by the KCDCA. The subjects were determined as those who responded to all health surveys among adults over 40 years of age, participated in physical measurement tests such as blood sugar and blood pressure, and measured lung function tests. Of the 8,110 subjects who participated in the survey, 3,302 under the age of $40,2,048$ who did not participate in the health survey and physical measurement test, and 972 who did not participate in the lung function test were excluded. Finally, 1,788 subjects were selected (Fig. 1).


Fig. 1. Flowchart of participants throughout the study.

## 2. Research Variables

1) Demographic and Sociological Characteristic Factors

As for the demographic and sociological variables, items such as sex, age, education level, marital status, and income level were collected. Age was divided into $40 \mathrm{~s}, 50 \mathrm{~s}, 60 \mathrm{~s}$, and 70s or older. Education level was divided into Low and High based on high school graduation. Marital status was classified according to whether you currently live with your spouse. individual income level was divided by the average monthly personal income using the quartile.

## 2) Health-related Characteristic Factors

Body mass index (BMI) was calculated by dividing body weight ( kg ) by height squared value (m2). It was divided into underweight, normal, overweight, and obese. Blood pressure was measured using a mercury blood pressure gauge, and after stabilizing for 5 minutes using a cuff suitable for the arm circumference, it was measured three times at intervals of 30 seconds. Hypertension was classified as having systolic blood pressure of 130 mmHg or higher, diastolic blood pressure of 85 mmHg or higher, or currently taking antihypertensive drugs. Blood tests were collected with an empty stomach maintained for more than 8 hours and analyzed within 24 hours using Hitachi Automatic Analyzer 7600 (Hitachi, Tokyo, Japan). Dysglycemia was defined as fasting blood glucose $\geq$ of $100 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$ or the case of taking diabetic medications. Hypertriglyceridemia was classified as triglyceride above $150 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$. Low HDL-C was classified as less than 40 $\mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$ in men and less than $50 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$ in women, and abdominal obesity was classified as more than 90 cm in men and more than 85 cm in women based on waist circumference (WC) [10].

## 3) Lifestyle Characteristic Factors

Smoking status was classified as "daily smoking" and "sometimes smoking" as current smoking, "smoking in the
past, but not smoking now" as past smoking, and "never smoking" as non-smoking. Drinking status was classified as non-drinking when responding to 'more than once a month', 'less than once a month', and 'I haven't drunk at all in the last year'.

Aerobic exercise was defined based on the rate of aerobic physical activity practice. Medium-intensity physical activity per week was classified according to whether to practice 2 hours and 30 minutes or high-intensity physical activity for 1 hour and 15 minutes or by mixing medium-intensity and high-intensity physical activity (high-intensity 1 minute is medium-intensity 2 minutes). When asked, "How many times a week do you do muscle exercises (push-ups, sit-ups, dumbbells, or barbells?" resistance exercise was classified according to the presence or absence of exercise for more than 2 days.

## 4) COPD Definition

Pulmonary function was measured using a spirometer (model 2130; SensorMedics, Yorba Linda, California). Participants were classified according to spirometry patterns into a normal group (FEV $1 /$ FVC $\geq .70$, FVC $\geq .80 \%$ predicted), an COPD group (FEV1/FVC $<.70$ ) [11].

## 3. Data Analysis

The SPSS 28.0 program was used for data analysis in this study, and the statistical significance level was based on 0.05 . To analyze the data of the KNHANES, a complex sampling method was used, and sample survey tools and weights were applied so that the data used in this study could represent the Korean. The specific analysis method is as follows.

First, the difference in characteristics between COPD and normal groups was analyzed by t -test and chi-square test ( $\chi^{2}$-test), and variance estimation was compared using standard errors. Second, complex sample multiple logistic regression analysis was used to analyze risk factors affecting COPD, and the statistics were expressed as odds
ratios and $95 \%$ confidence intervals (CI). Conditional forward-stepwise multiple logistic regressions were used to establish the predictive model.

## III. Results

## 1. General Characteristics and Health Related Characteristics

In this study, the prevalence of COPD was $11.5 \%$. The differences in the characteristics of the subjects of this study are presented in Tables 1 and 2. The demographic and sociological characteristics of COPD and normal groups were statistically significant differences in gender, age, height, and education level. The proportion of COPD was higher in those the gender of the subjects was men than women, in those in their 60s, and those with low education level. Health-related characteristics were significantly different in hypertriglyceridemia. There was a statistically significant difference in lifestyle characteristics in smoking status. The COPD rate was high in the case of current
smoking and past smoking.

## 2. Factors Affecting COPD Incidence

As a result of simple logistic regression, the factors affecting COPD were gender, age, education level, and smoking status. However, in the multiple regression analysis that adjusted the influencing factors, significant differences were found only in the sex, age, and smoking status. Nagelkerke $\mathrm{R}^{2}=0.291$ of the final multiple logistic regression model. Compared to women, men had an increased risk of developing COPD by 2.369 times ( $95 \%$ CI 1.289-4.355). In age, the risk of COPD incidence increased by 3.702 -fold ( $95 \%$ CI 1.923-7.124) in their 50 s , 11.238 -fold ( $95 \%$ CI $6.009-21.017$ ) in their 60 s , and 28.320 -fold ( $95 \%$ CI 14.328-55.977) in their 70s compared to those in their 40s. In the smoking state, 2.302 times ( $95 \%$ CI 1.373-3.860) of past smokers and 4.542 times ( $95 \%$ CI 2.694-7.658) of current smokers were found to have a higher risk of developing COPD than non-smokers (Table 3).

Table 1. General characteristics of continuous variables in subjects according to COPD

| Variables | COPD ( $\mathrm{n}=227$ ) | Normal $(\mathrm{n}=1,561)$ | p |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Age $(\mathrm{y})$ | $63.2 \pm .84$ | $53.14 \pm .33$ | $<.001$ |
| Height $(\mathrm{cm})$ | $166.55 \pm .61$ | $163.73 \pm .26$ | $<.001$ |
| Weight $(\mathrm{kg})$ | $66.01 \pm .77$ | $64.36 \pm .36$ | .058 |
| BMI $\left(\mathrm{kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}\right)$ | $23.73 \pm .21$ | $23.9 \pm .11$ | .472 |
| Systolic BP (mmHg) | $124.41 \pm 1.11$ | $118.65 \pm .47$ | $<.001$ |
| Diastolic BP (mmHg) | $76.17 \pm .62$ | $77.5 \pm .29$ | .034 |
| Fasting glucose (mg/dL) | $106.14 \pm 1.62$ | $101.8 \pm .71$ | .018 |
| Triglyceride | $152.34 \pm 7.86$ | $137.01 \pm 2.83$ | .058 |
| HDL-cholesterol | $49.98 \pm .87$ | $53.25 \pm .43$ | $<.001$ |
| WC (cm) | $86.64 \pm .60$ | $33.81 \pm .31$ | $<.001$ |
| FVC (L) | $3.58 \pm .07$ | $2.66 \pm .03$ | .248 |
| FEV1 (L) | $2.31 \pm .05$ | $0.89 \pm .02$ | $<.001$ |
| FEV1/FVC (\%) | $0.65 \pm .01$ | $7.40 \pm .07$ | $<.001$ |
| PEF (L/sec) | $6.29 \pm .15$ | $<.001$ |  |

Data were presented as means $\pm \mathrm{SE}(\%)$. BMI=body mass index; $\mathrm{BP}=$ blood pressure; HDL=high density lipoprotein; $\mathrm{WC}=$ Waist circumference; $\mathrm{FVC}=$ forced vital capacity, $\mathrm{FEV} 1=$ forced expiratory volume in 1 second; PEF=peak expiratory flow

Table 2. General characteristics of categorical variables in subjects according to COPD

| Factors | Categories | COPD ( $\mathrm{n}=227$ ) |  | Normal ( $\mathrm{n}=1561$ ) |  | $\chi^{2}$ | p |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | U/F | W/F | U/F | W/F |  |  |
|  |  | N | \% | N | \% |  |  |
| Sex | Men | 167 | 77.5 | 628 | 46.5 | 69.911 | < . 001 |
|  | Women | 60 | 22.5 | 933 | 53.5 |  |  |
| Age | 40-49 | 18 | 9.0 | 621 | 41.6 | 169.289 | < . 001 |
|  | 50-59 | 56 | 28.2 | 520 | 34.8 |  |  |
|  | 60-69 | 88 | 33.9 | 286 | 16.1 |  |  |
|  | $\geq 70$ | 65 | 28.9 | 134 | 7.4 |  |  |
| Education | Low | 170 | 71.2 | 889 | 54.4 | 20.828 | < . 001 |
|  | High | 57 | 28.8 | 672 | 45.6 |  |  |
| Marital status | with | 185 | 83.2 | 1287 | 85.2 | . 557 | . 448 |
|  | without | 42 | 16.8 | 247 | 14.8 |  |  |
| Individual income | Q1 (Lowest) | 52 | 21.7 | 354 | 22.2 | 1.792 | . 668 |
|  | Q2 | 53 | 22.9 | 386 | 24.3 |  |  |
|  | Q3 | 57 | 25.1 | 418 | 27.5 |  |  |
|  | Q4 (Highest) | 65 | 30.3 | 403 | 26.1 |  |  |
| BMI | Low | 8 | 3.0 | 32 | 1.8 | 2.246 | . 558 |
|  | Normal | 152 | 68.4 | 1050 | 66.3 |  |  |
|  | Overweight | 59 | 25.7 | 426 | 28.0 |  |  |
|  | Obesity | 8 | 2.9 | 53 | 3.9 |  |  |
| Blood pressure | Normal | 141 | 63.0 | 1073 | 67.5 | 1.720 | . 191 |
|  | Hypertension | 86 | 37.0 | 524 | 32.5 |  |  |
| Glucose | Normal | 107 | 50.9 | 915 | 58.8 | 4.650 | . 051 |
|  | Dysglycemia | 120 | 49.1 | 646 | 41.2 |  |  |
| TG | Normal | 143 | 60.2 | 1099 | 68.4 | 5.615 | . 025 |
|  | High | 84 | 39.8 | 462 | 31.6 |  |  |
| HDL-C | Normal | 161 | 71.2 | 1101 | 71.6 | . 019 | . 889 |
|  | Low | 66 | 28.8 | 460 | 28.4 |  |  |
| WC | Normal | 137 | 60.8 | 1078 | 68.4 | 4.774 | . 050 |
|  | abdominal obesity | 90 | 39.2 | 483 | 31.6 |  |  |
| Smoking status | current | 73 | 35.6 | 245 | 17.5 | 73.713 | < . 001 |
|  | past | 87 | 38.1 | 359 | 25.3 |  |  |
|  | non | 67 | 26.3 | 957 | 57.1 |  |  |
| Alcohol | Yes | 173 | 77.7 | 1170 | 75.8 | . 373 | . 557 |
|  | No | 54 | 22.3 | 391 | 24.2 |  |  |
| Aerobic exercise | Yes | 103 | 46.9 | 648 | 41.8 | 1.964 | . 153 |
|  | No | 124 | 53.1 | 913 | 58.2 |  |  |
| resistance exercise | Yes | 49 | 23.8 | 258 | 17.7 | 4.414 | . 083 |
|  | No | 178 | 76.2 | 1303 | 82.3 |  |  |

Data were presented as means $\pm$ SE (\%).
$\mathrm{BMI}=$ body mass index; $\mathrm{BP}=$ blood pressure; $\mathrm{HDL}=$ high density lipoprotein; $\mathrm{WC}=$ Waist circumference

Table 3. Multiple logistic regression analysis for COPD risk factor

| Variables |  | Crude OR |  | Adjusted OR |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | OR (95\% CI) | p | OR (95\% CI) | p |
| Sex | Men | 3.961 (2.635-5.953) | < . 001 | 2.369 (1.289-4.355) | . 006 |
|  | Women | 1.0 |  | 1.0 |  |
| Age | 40-49 | 1.0 |  | 1.0 |  |
|  | 50-59 | 3.724 (2.076-6.681) | < . 001 | 3.702 (1.923-7.124) | < . 001 |
|  | 60-69 | 9.650 (5.588-16.666) | < . 001 | 11.238 (6.009-21.017) | < . 001 |
|  | $\geq 70$ | 17.860 (9.932-32.117) | < . 001 | 28.320 (14.328-55.977) | < . 001 |
| Education | Low | 2.070 (1.416-3.027) | < . 001 | 1.304 (0.798-2.131) | . 288 |
|  | High | 1.0 |  | 1.0 |  |
| Smoking status | current | 4.413 (2.936-6.633) | < . 001 | 4.542 (2.694-7.658) | < . 001 |
|  | past | 3.267 (2.228-4.790) | < . 001 | 2.302 (1.373-3.860) | . 002 |
|  | non | 1.0 |  | 1.0 |  |
| WC | Normal | 1.0 |  | 1.0 |  |
|  | abdominal obesity | 1.395 (1.000-1.944) | . 050 | 1.166 (0.817-1.663) | . 396 |

Data were presented as means $\pm \mathrm{SE}$ (\%).
$\mathrm{BMI}=$ body mass index; $\mathrm{BP}=$ blood pressure; $\mathrm{HDL}=$ high density lipoprotein; $\mathrm{WC}=$ Waist circumference

## IV. Discussion

This study was conducted to identify COPD prevalence and risk factors affecting disease incidence, and to provide basic data for developing health care strategies for COPD disease and intervention programs for prevention. In this study, the prevalence of COPD among adults over 40 years of age in Korea was $11.5 \%$.

In this study, the final risk factors for COPD revealed in the multiple regression analysis of this study were sex, age, and smoking status. The prevalence of COPD in men was shown to be about 2.37 times higher than in women. COPD generally has a high prevalence in men. Although it varies from study to study, several previous studies have shown that men are 2 to 4 times higher than women in the COPD rate of middle-aged people, which is consistent with the results of this study $[12,13]$. These gender differences support the need for targeted assessment and management of COPD in women and men.

As age increased, the risk of developing COPD increased, and compared to those in their 40s, it increased 3.70 times in their 50 s, 11.24 times in their 60 s, and 28.32 times in their 70s and older. The prevalence of COPD increases with age, especially in those over 60 years of age [14]. This phenomenon is similar not only in Korea but also abroad. The results of this study, the prevalence of COPD increased with increasing age, especially in those over 60 years of age [15]. Therefore, it is thought that national health prevention or customized environmental health policy projects will help the public's health care for the elderly, who are sensitive to COPD.

Smoking is a major trigger for the occurrence of COPD, and as the smoking rate increases, the prevalence of COPD also increases [16]. In the results of this study, past smokers had a 2.30 times higher risk of developing COPD than non-smokers and current smokers had a 4.54 times higher risk of developing COPD. According to the World Health Organization, men's smoking rate is 34 percent worldwide,

6 percent of women smoke, and Korea's smoking rate is 40.9 percent for men and 6.2 percent for women [17]. Although the male smoking rate has halved due to various tobacco control policies compared to 20 years ago, the current smoking rate in Korea is high among OECD member countries, and the smoking rate for women in their 20 s and 30 s is increasing [18]. Accordingly, the incidence of COPD in Korea due to smoking is thought to continue, and the prevalence of women is expected to increase. In particular, the negative effects of smoking on the lungs are more lethal in women than in men, depending on their physical structural characteristics. This may further increase disease morbidity caused by smoking, as the lung size of women is relatively small, and the metabolism of nicotine is slower than that of men [19]. Therefore, active smoking cessation management is necessary to prevent COPD diseases.

This study has several limitations. First, this study is a cross-sectional study, which identified the factors affecting the occurrence of COPD at the time of investigation. Therefore, there is a limit to explaining the causal relationship. Therefore, it is necessary to confirm the causal relationship through cohort studies in the future. Second, the smoking period and amount of smoking of smokers were not considered in this study, and factors that can affect the development of COPD, such as secondhand smoke or family history, were not considered even for non-smokers, so further studies considering this will be needed in the future. Third, in several recent studies, air pollution, especially fine dust, has attracted attention among the risk factors for COPD [20]. Moreover, smelter workers and chefs with jobs related to incomplete combustion in addition to cigarettes are also emerging as risk factors [21, 22]. However, there is a limitation because related information cannot be obtained from the data of this study. Therefore, it is difficult to determine only smoking as a risk factor for COPD, and further research is needed. Despite these limitations, this study has research
significance as a primary basis for health promotion projects for COPD subjects.

## V. Conclusion

This study was conducted to provide basic data for COPD prevention and management by identifying the prevalence and risk factors of COPD in adults over 40 years of age in Korea. COPD prevalence was found to be $11.5 \%$. Analysis of the factors affecting the incidence of COPD showed that in men, the higher the age, the higher the risk of occurrence in past and current smokers. Therefore, intervention programs to prevent diseases through smoking cessation education and lifestyle control are required for subjects with COPD risk factors.

## References

[1] Vestbo J. COPD: definition and phenotypes. Clin Chest Med. 2014;35(1):1-6.
[2] Sin DD, Anthonisen NR, Soriano JB, et al. Mortality in COPD: Role of comorbidities. Eur Respir J. 2006;28(6):1245-57.
[3] Hong JY, Jung JY, Lee MG, et al. Changes in the prevalence of COPD in Korea between 2001 and 2011 in the KNHANES data. Respir Med. 2017;125:12-8.
[4] Kim SH, Lee H, Kim Y, et al. Recent prevalence of and factors associated with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in a rapidly aging society: Korea national health and nutrition examination survey 2015-2019. J Korean Med Sci. 2023;38(14):e108.
[5] Jung YM, Lee H. Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in Korea: prevalence, risk factors, and quality of life. J Korean Acad Nurs. 2011;41(2):149-56.
[6] Adeloye D, Song P, Zhu Y, et al. Global, regional, and national prevalence of, and risk factors for, chronic
obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) in 2019: a systematic review and modelling analysis. Lancet Respir Med. 2022;10(5):447-58.
[7] Berry CE, Wise RA. Mortality in COPD: causes, risk factors, and prevention. COPD. 2010;7(5):375-82.
[8] Brashier BB, Kodgule R. Risk factors and pathophysiology of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). J Assoc Physicians India. 2012;60 Suppl:17-21.
[9] Tønnesen P. Smoking cessation and COPD. Eur Respir Rev. 2013;22(127):37-43.
[10] Lee D-Y, Kim S-G. The association between pulmonary function and metabolic syndrome in Koreans: a cross-sectional study. International Journal of Gerontology. 2021;15(3):228-32.
[11] Lee DY, Nam SM. Association between restrictive pulmonary disease and type 2 diabetes in Koreans: A cross-sectional study. World J Diabetes. 2020;11(10): 425-34.
[12] Hwang YI, Park YB, Yoo KH. Recent trends in the prevalence of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in Korea. Tuberc Respir Dis (Seoul). 2017;80(3):226-9.
[13] Grabicki M, Kuźnar-Kamińska B, Rubinsztajn R, et al. COPD Course and comorbidities: are there gender differences?. Adv Exp Med Biol. 2019;1113:43-51.
[14] Jeon C, Oh K. Prevalence of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease among adults over 40 years old in Korea, 2009-2013. Public Health Weekly Report, KCDC. 2015; 8(15):334e6.
[15] Menezes AM, Perez-Padilla R, Jardim JR, et al. Chronic
obstructive pulmonary disease in five Latin American cities (the PLATINO study): a prevalence study. Lancet. 2005;366(9500):1875-81.
[16] Laniado-Laborín R. Smoking and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). Parallel epidemics of the 21 century. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2009; 6(1):209-24.
[17] Organization WH. World health statistics 2016 [OP]: monitoring health for the sustainable development goals (SDGs). World Health Organization. 2016.
[18] Kim S, Kim G. The prevalence of smoking and its implications for tobacco control polices in South Korea. Health-welfare Policy Forum. 2022;5(307):6-22.
[19] Langhammer A, Johnsen R, Holmen J, et al. Cigarette smoking gives more respiratory symptoms among women than among men. The nord-trondelag health study (HUNT). J Epidemiol Community Health. 2000;54(12): 917-22.
[20] Kaur M, Chandel J, Malik J, et al. Particulate matter in COPD pathogenesis: an overview. Inflamm Res. 2022;71(7):797-815.
[21] Kräm-Leleu M, Lesage FX, Drame M, et al. Occupational risk factors for COPD: a case-control study. PLoS One. 2016;11(8):e0158719.
[22] Pathak U, Gupta NC, Suri JC. Risk of COPD due to indoor air pollution from biomass cooking fuel: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Int J Environ Health Res. 2020;30(1):75-88.


[^0]:    $\dagger$ Corresponding Author : Do-Youn Lee
    triptoyoun@naver.com, https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0886-1713 This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0) which permits unrestricted non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

