

Effects of chlormadinone acetate, acetazolamide and oxygen on awake and asleep gas exchange in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD)

P.J.E. Vos*, H. Th.M. Folgering*, Th. M. de Boo**,
W.J.G.M. Lemmens**, C.L.A. van Herwaarden*

Effects of chlormadinone acetate, acetazolamide and oxygen on awake and asleep gas exchange in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). P.J.E. Vos, H. Th.M. Folgering, Th. M. de Boo, W.J.G.M. Lemmens, C.L.A. van Herwaarden. ©ERS Journals Ltd 1994.

ABSTRACT: The purpose of this study was to assess the short-term effects of chlormadinone acetate (CMA), a synthetic progestogen, acetazolamide (ACET) and oxygen on awake and asleep blood gas values.

The study was conducted according to a randomized, double-blind and placebo-controlled design in 53 hypoxaemic patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. On the first two consecutive nights, all patients received either room air or oxygen, via a nasal cannula, in random order. They then received either CMA (25 mg), ACET (250 mg) or placebo twice a day, all in identical capsules. On the third study night, after one week of drug treatment, the patients were tested breathing room air.

CMA and ACET therapy decreased mean daytime arterial carbon dioxide tension (P_{aCO_2}) by 0.7 and 0.5 kPa, respectively, and night-time end-tidal carbon dioxide tension (P_{ETCO_2}) by 0.5 and 0.3 kPa, respectively. Supplemental oxygen caused increased CO_2 retention during the day and night (0.6 and 0.3 kPa, respectively). Daytime arterial oxygen tension (P_{aO_2}) increased to the same extent during ACET (1.9 kPa) and oxygen (2.5 kPa). Asleep oxygen saturation improved most with oxygen supplementation (7%), although ACET also caused significant improvement (4%). CMA administration had virtually no effect on mean awake and asleep hypoxaemia. ACET therapy significantly improved subjective sleep quality. On CMA, minute ventilation increased in association with an augmentation of the hypercapnic ventilatory response. ACET treatment increased both hypercapnic and hypoxic ventilatory responses.

We conclude from the group of patients with COPD studied, that the short-term effects of ACET treatment on gas exchange compare favourably with those of CMA. Oxygen therapy improves oxygenation slightly more than ACET, but aggravates CO_2 retention.

Eur Respir J, 1994, 7, 850–855.

Hypoxaemic patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) may develop more profound oxygen desaturations during sleep [1]. Treatment of hypoxaemia is beneficial, since hypoxaemia leads to pulmonary hypertension, cor pulmonale, secondary polycythaemia, and cardiac arrhythmias [1]. Indeed, it has been shown that long-term oxygen supplementation, for at least 18 h-day⁻¹, can increase life expectancy in these patients [2].

Drugs that stimulate ventilation may ameliorate hypoxaemia as well as carbon dioxide retention in certain patients with COPD [3], and may, thus, provide an additional treatment to oxygen supplementation.

Synthetic progestogens, such as medroxyprogesterone and chlormadinone acetate (CMA), raise arterial oxygen tension and reduce carbon dioxide tension during wake-

fulness by central stimulating effects [3–7]. The effects on hypoxaemia during sleep were beneficial [3, 4, 6], or absent [5, 7].

Another respiratory stimulant is acetazolamide (ACET). It is a carbonic anhydrase inhibitor, which increases ventilation by inducing a metabolic acidosis, which possibly stimulates both the peripheral and the central chemoreceptors [8]. It diminishes nocturnal hypoxaemia and periodic breathing at high altitude [9]. ACET has been shown to improve blood gas values during the day and at night, in a few patients with COPD [4].

The aim of the current study was to determine whether CMA and ACET affect hypoxaemia and hypercapnia, and to compare the results with those derived during oxygen therapy. Therefore, the effects of CMA, ACET and oxygen on arterial blood gas values during wakefulness

Depts of *Pulmonary Disease and **Medical Statistics, University of Nijmegen, Dekkerswald, Groesbeek, The Netherlands.

Correspondence: P.J.E. Vos
Dept of Pulmonary Diseases
University of Nijmegen
Medical Centre Dekkerswald
P.O. Box 9001
6560 GB Groesbeek
The Netherlands

Keywords: Acetazolamide
pulmonary disease
hypoxaemia
oxygen supplementation
progesterone

Received: May 25 1993
Accepted for publication December 29 1993

This study was supported by a grant from the Dutch Asthma Foundation.

and sleep were studied in a group of hypoxaemic patients with COPD. Furthermore, the effects on subjective sleep quality, on patients' subjective feeling of well-being, and on control of breathing were measured.

Patients

Fifty three out-patients with COPD, as defined by the American Thoracic Society, participated in this study [10]. Inclusion criteria were: forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV_1) less than 65% of predicted value [11], and daytime arterial oxygen tension (Pao_2) of ≤ 8.5 kPa. At the time of the study, all patients had been in a stable clinical condition for at least four weeks and were receiving optimal bronchodilator treatment. Exclusion criteria were: thromboembolic events in the past, and factors suggesting possible obstructive sleep apnoea, such as complaints of excessive daytime sleepiness or anomalies of the oropharyngeal area. All medication was continued and remained unchanged during the study period. Patients already treated with supplemental home oxygen were allowed to continue this during the one week's pharmacological treatment. Patient characteristics are shown in table 1.

Methods

Daytime measurements

Hypercapnic ventilatory response was assessed by the steady-state method [12, 13]. The patient was connected to a closed spirometric circuit *via* a mouthpiece. The end-tidal carbon dioxide tension ($PETCO_2$) level could be increased by adjusting a three-way valve, partially short-circuiting the CO_2 absorber in the inspiratory limb of the circuit. Two different levels of $PETCO_2$ were studied. Oxygen was added to the system to keep the arterial oxygen saturation (Sao_2) level at 93–95%. Sao_2 was measured with an oximeter.

The hypoxic ventilatory response was performed by

inducing progressive isocapnic hypoxia [14]. $PETCO_2$ was maintained at the initial resting level. All patients started the test at an Sao_2 level of 90–93%, by adding supplemental oxygen to the system. The hypoxic ventilatory response was stopped when the Sao_2 reached 80%.

Furthermore, the capability of the ventilatory pump to lower $PETCO_2$ was assessed by means of a voluntary hyperventilation test.

Night-time measurements

Oxygen saturation was measured by a pulse-oximeter (Oxysuttle, Sensormedics). Data of a whole night were stored, digitized and analysed by a computer (Apple IIe) to provide mean and standard deviation as well as lowest saturation of each night. Nocturnal Pao_2 was calculated from the measured Sao_2 using the (Hill equation). The awake and asleep baseline Sao_2 were defined as the mean saturation 15 min before falling asleep and whilst sleeping, respectively. Desaturation was defined as a decrease in oxygen saturation of more than 4% from the asleep baseline value. The total desaturation time was calculated. Thoraco-abdominal movement was assessed by respiratory inductance plethysmography (Vitalog or RespiTrace).

$PETCO_2$ was determined by introducing a cannula through the nose into the nasopharyngeal cavity. An air sample was taken *via* a perma-pure drying tube connected to a sampling capnograph (Mijnhart capnolyser). No $PETCO_2$ signal and, thus, no air movement for a least 10 s, was considered to indicate apnoea. Baseline $PETCO_2$ awake and asleep were defined as the mean $PETCO_2$ value 15 min before falling asleep and whilst sleeping, respectively. $PETCO_2$ was not considered to be representative of arterial or alveolar carbon dioxide tension (PCO_2).

Study protocol

Prior to the study, pulmonary function tests were performed and an arterial blood gas sample was taken.

Table 1. – Patient characteristics

	Whole group	CMA group	ACET group	Placebo group
Sex M/F	39/14	14/4	11/6	14/4
Age yrs	65 (9)	64 (9)	64 (6)	65 (9)
FEV_1 % pred	30 (10)	31 (11)	31 (9)	29 (9)
IVC % pred	75 (14)	78 (14)	75 (14)	70 (10)
TLC % pred	101 (18)	99 (14)	100 (18)	103 (21)
FRC % pred	132 (30)	129 (26)	131 (31)	135 (33)
RV % pred	151 (46)	142 (38)	146 (41)	163 (57)
Pao_2 daytime kPa	7.4 (1.0)	7.2 (1.1)	7.5 (1.1)	7.5 (0.8)
$Paco_2$ daytime kPa	6.4 (1.2)	6.5 (1.3)	6.4 (1.3)	6.3 (0.8)
HCVR $l \cdot min^{-1} \cdot kPa$	2.4 (1.7)	2.3 (1.5)	2.7 (2.4)	2.2 (1.2)
HVR $l \cdot min^{-1} \cdot \%$	0.20 (0.15)	0.20 (0.20)	0.22 (0.16)	0.19 (0.10)
Body mass index	24 (4)	23 (4)	23 (4)	25 (5)
Mean Sao_2 night %	84 (10)	82 (11)	85 (11)	86 (4)

Data are presented as mean and sd in parenthesis. None of the characteristics is significantly different between the CMA, ACET and placebo groups. The fall in Pao_2 was calculated from fall in Sao_2 using the Hill equation. FEV_1 : forced expiratory volume in one second; IVC: inspiratory vital capacity; TLC: total lung capacity; FRC: functional residual capacity; RV: residual volume; Pao_2 : arterial oxygen tension; $Paco_2$: arterial carbon dioxide tension; HCVR: hypercapnic ventilatory response; HVR: hypoxic ventilatory response; Sao_2 : arterial oxygen saturation; CMA: chlormadinone; ACET: acetazolamide.

Naso- and oropharyngeal areas were examined and the neck circumference was measured.

All patients were studied during three nights. For two consecutive nights they received either room air or oxygen in a random order. On the third night, after one week of drug administration, the patients were studied receiving room air. Room air as well as oxygen was administered *via* a nasal cannula at 1 l·min⁻¹, in a single-blind fashion. The part of the study with the pharmacological respiratory stimulants was randomized, double-blind and placebo-controlled. After the first two study nights the patients ingested either CMA (25 mg), ACET (250 mg) or placebo, all in identical capsules (8 a.m. and 8 p.m.) for a period of one week. The patients were randomized within each of the four subgroups, defined according to FEV₁ value (above or below 35% of predicted value) and daytime Pao₂ (above or below 7.5 kPa).

After each study night, arterial blood gas samples were taken at 10 a.m., after 15 min of rest. These blood gas values were compared to the sample taken 2–4 weeks before the start of the study, in order to confirm the stability of the disease. Furthermore, after each study night, the patients answered the St Mary's Hospital Sleep Questionnaire concerning subjective sleep quality [15]. After the first night and after one week of "drug treatment", plasma-testosterone levels, white blood cells, sodium, potassium and creatinine concentration were measured. On these two days, the ventilatory responses to hypercapnia and hypoxia were also measured.

Informed consent was obtained from all patients, and the study was approved by the Hospital Ethics Committee.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis for paired comparisons was performed using the signed rank test, except for differences

on an ordinal scale: in such cases the sign test was used. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to determine possible statistically significant differences between the three groups. Probability values of ≤0.05 were considered to be significant.

Results

Daytime laboratory measurements

The effects of CMA, ACET, placebo and oxygen therapy on daytime blood gas values are shown in table 2. Daytime hypoxaemia improved to the same extent with ACET (1.9 kPa) and O₂ therapy (2.5 kPa); whereas, CMA increased Pao₂ just slightly (0.6 kPa), a result not significantly different from placebo (0.4 kPa). Mean Paco₂ decreased significantly during CMA and ACET therapy 0.7 and 0.5 kPa, respectively. During supplemental oxygen, Paco₂ increased by 0.6 kPa.

The patient compliance in taking the capsules was good, since in all male patients who received CMA, mean testosterone levels decreased significantly, mean (SD) 35 (20) nmol·l⁻¹ before CMA, to 15 (15) nmol·l⁻¹ during CMA. With ACET the base excess shifted to metabolic acidosis in all patients, mean (SD) decrease in base excess 6.7 (3.3) mmol·l⁻¹ (p<0.05).

After one week of ACET administration mean serum creatinine levels increased from 92 to 94 μmol·l⁻¹, mean potassium levels decreased from 3.7 to 3.4 mmol·l⁻¹, and chloride levels increased from 98 to 100 mmol·l⁻¹ (all changes p<0.05).

Ventilation

The patients had low hypercapnic and hypoxic ventilatory responses as compared to normals, whereas the breathing frequency was rather high (table 3) [16].

Table 2. – Effects of CMA, ACET and O₂ on daytime blood gas values

	CMA (n=18)		ACET (n=17)		Placebo (n=18)		During (n=53)	
	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Room Air	O ₂
Pao ₂ kPa	7.2 (1.1)	7.8 (1.4)*	7.5 (1.1)	9.4 (1.4)***	7.6 (0.8)	8.0 (0.9)*	7.4 (1.0)	9.9 (1.1)**
pH	7.42 (0.03)	7.43 (0.03)	7.42 (0.03)	7.35 (0.04)***	7.41 (0.04)	7.40 (0.04)	7.42 (0.03)	7.40 (0.04)†
Paco ₂ kPa	6.5 (1.3)	5.8 (1.2)**	6.4 (1.3)	5.9 (1.3)**	6.3 (0.8)	6.6 (1.0)*	6.4 (1.2)	7.0 (1.3)**†
BE mmol·l ⁻¹	+6.2 (5.3)	+4.2 (5.4)**	+6.6 (4.6)	-0.1 (4.8)***	+4.8 (2.0)	+5.1 (2.4)	+5.8 (4.2)	+6.7 (4.5)**†

Data are presented as mean and SD in parenthesis. n = number of patients in each group. *: p<0.05, comparison with data before therapy; #: p<0.05, comparison ACET to CMA; †: p<0.05, comparison O₂ to ACET; †: p<0.05, comparison to placebo; BE: base excess. For further abbreviations see legend to table 1.

Table 3. – Effects of CMA and ACET on ventilation

	CMA (n=18)		ACET (n=17)		Placebo (n=18)	
	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After
HCVR l·min·kPa	2.3 (1.5)	3.3 (2.0)**	2.7 (2.4)	3.7 (2.9)#	2.2 (1.2)	2.0 (1.4)
HVR l·min ⁻¹ ·%	0.20 (0.20)	0.20 (0.20)	0.22 (0.16)	0.34 (0.19)*	0.19 (0.10)	0.24 (0.10)*
VE l·min ⁻¹	9.6 (2.7)	11.8 (3.3)**	10.5 (2.7)	10.5 (2.5)	9.4 (2.1)	9.5 (1.7)
VT l	0.55 (0.2)	0.60 (0.2)	0.61 (0.2)	0.66 (0.2)	0.56 (0.2)	0.57 (0.2)
f breaths·min ⁻¹	19 (5)	21 (5)**	19 (5)	18 (5)	18 (4)	18 (4)

Data are presented as mean and SD in parenthesis. *: p<0.05, comparison with room air data; #: p<0.05, comparison to placebo. VE: minute ventilation; VT: tidal volume; f: breathing frequency. For further abbreviations see legend to table 1.

The hypercapnic ventilatory response and minute ventilation significantly increased during CMA therapy. After ACET administration, both the hypercapnic and the hypoxic ventilatory responses were augmented. In addition to the increase in hypercapnic ventilatory response, a considerable shift to the left was seen (fig. 1).

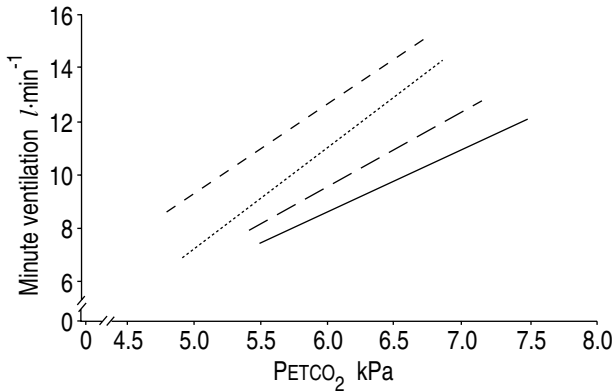


Fig. 1. – Hypercapnic ventilatory responses before and after CMA and ACET. —: after CMA;: after ACET; - - : before ACET; — — : before CMA. PETCO₂: end-tidal carbon dioxide tension; CMA: chlormadinone; ACET; acetazolamide.

All CMA patients and 16 of the 18 ACET patients (89%) were able to decrease their P_aCO₂ by at least 0.7 kPa during voluntary hyperventilation.

Subjective parameters

Beneficial effects. In the CMA group, 7 of the 18 patients said they benefited from this therapy. Seven of the 16 patients who had received ACET reported a favourable reaction. In the placebo group, 8 of the 18 patients claimed to feel better.

Side-effects. Three patients reported side-effects during CMA therapy (vertigo, palpitations and stomach cramps). In the ACET group, two patients complained of paraesthesia in the fingertips, one of vertigo and one of nausea. Three of the 18 patients in the placebo group complained of vertigo, nausea and increased dyspnoea.

Subjective sleep quality. The results of the St Mary's Hospital Sleep Questionnaire are shown in table 4. CMA and O₂ had no beneficial effect, whereas ACET therapy partly improved the subjective quality of sleep, since most patients reported sleeping better and longer during the treatment night.

Table 4. – Results of the SMH sleep questionnaire during CMA, ACET, placebo and oxygen compared to room air

	During CMA (n=18)			During ACET (n=16)			During placebo (n=18)			During O ₂ (n=53)		
	Better	Worse	Same	Better	Worse	Same	Better	Worse	Same	Better	Worse	Same
Depth of sleep (Q5#)	2	5	11	10*	3	3	1	7	10	25	15	13
Awakenings (Q6)	6	7	5	9	6	1	8	7	3	26	15	12
Hours asleep (Q7)	7	9	2	12*	3	1	5	11	2	33	18	2
Value of sleep (Q9)	5	8	5	10*	2	4	4	5	9	27	15	11
Alertness in the morning (Q10)	6	4	8	5	5	6	6	3	9	22	11	20
Early awake (Q11)	3	5	10	7	3	6	0	4	14	13	5	35
Difficulty in falling asleep (Q12)	4	4	10	9†	2	5	2	8	8	23	14	16

Values are number of patients. *: p<0.05, comparison with room air night; †: 0.05 < p < 0.01 comparison with room air night; #: number of question in SMH questionnaire. SMH: St Mary's Hospital. For further abbreviations see legend to table 1.

Table 5. – Effects of CMA, ACET and oxygen on nocturnal parameters

	CMA (n=18)		ACET (n=17)		Placebo (n=18)		During (n=53)	
	Before	During	Before	During	Before	During	Room Air	O ₂
Mean SaO ₂ %	82 (11)	84 (12)*	85 (11)	89 (6)**	86 (4)	87 (3)	85 (10)	92 (3)**†
sd of mean SaO ₂	3.6 (2)	3.6 (2)	3.4 (2)	3.1 (1)	3.1 (1)	3.5 (1)	3.4 (2)	2.6 (1)*†
Lowest SaO ₂ %	71 (15)	72 (16)	70 (22)	77 (12)*+	75 (6)	74 (7)	72 (15)	85 (7)**†
Fall in Pao ₂ kPa	2.3 (1)	2.5 (1)	2.7 (1)	3.1 (1)	2.5 (1)	2.7 (1)	2.5 (1)	2.9 (1)
No. 4% dips	17 (9)	17 (9)	19 (16)	15 (12)*	16 (5)	18 (8)	17 (11)	10 (9)**†
Baseline PETCO ₂ awake kPa	5.0 (0.7)	4.5 (1.0)*+	5.2 (0.7)	4.7 (0.7)*+	5.4 (1.2)	5.4 (1.0)	5.2 (0.9)	5.5 (0.9)*†
Baseline PETCO ₂ asleep kPa	5.2 (1.0)	4.7 (1.1)*	5.3 (0.9)	5.0 (0.7)*	5.7 (1.3)	5.5 (1.2)	5.4 (1.0)	5.7 (1.1)*†
Highest PETCO ₂ asleep kPa	6.6 (1.4)	6.0 (1.7)**	6.7 (1.1)	6.1 (0.9)**	6.9 (1.3)	7.0 (1.9)	6.7 (1.3)	7.2 (1.4)*†
Desaturation time min	41 (55)	39 (61)	62 (89)	31 (34)	41 (39)	43 (37)	47 (63)	10 (27)**†

Data are presented as mean and sd in parenthesis. *: p<0.05, comparison with data before treatment; +: p<0.05, comparison with placebo; #: p<0.05, comparison ACET to CMA; †: p<0.05, comparison O₂ to ACET. Fall in Pao₂ calculated from the fall in SaO₂ with Hill equation. PETCO₂: end-tidal carbon dioxide tension. For further abbreviations see legend to table 1.

Nocturnal parameters

Mean nocturnal oxygen saturation improved substantially during ACET (5%) and oxygen (7%) therapy (table 5). During CMA treatment, the mean SaO_2 at night only increased slightly (2%). No significant difference in the fall in nocturnal PaO_2 , as calculated from changes in SaO_2 (Hill equation), was observed during any of the therapies. Both CMA and ACET decreased the baseline $PETCO_2$ values during sleep to the same extent mean change (0.5 kPa), whereas oxygen increased the $PETCO_2$ (0.3 kPa). The rise in $PETCO_2$ throughout the night did not significantly change during any of the treatments, compared to the room air night.

Eleven percent (SD 19) of the desaturating episodes during the room air night were associated with apnoeas. Only 4 of the 53 patients experienced more than five apnoeas per hour of sleep. During the oxygen night 21 (SD 38)% (NS) more of the desaturations were accompanied by apnoeas. During CMA and ACET administration, a significant decrease in apnoeas was shown from 14 to 3% (CMA), and from 11 to 0% (ACET). In the placebo group the percentage of desaturations caused by apnoeas remained unchanged (9%).

Discussion

This investigation of the effects of CMA, ACET and O_2 on awake and asleep blood gas values in 53 hypoxaemic COPD patient was randomized, double-blind and placebo-controlled; hence suggestibility was minimized, changes could be made for any possible placebo effect, and cross-over effects could not obscure results. Supplemental oxygen was delivered from a nasal cannula, causing inspired oxygen concentration to be variable. Nocturnal $PETCO_2$ measurement was used as an indicator of increased or decreased hypoventilation. Obviously, quantitative changes in $PETCO_2$ were not considered to be representative of those of arterial or alveolar carbon dioxide tension (P_{CO_2}).

In this study we found that CMA and ACET therapy decreased day and night-time P_{CO_2} levels to a similar degree, whereas supplemental oxygen caused increased CO_2 retention during the day and night. Awake and asleep oxygenation improved most with oxygen therapy, although ACET also achieved a substantial improvement. CMA had virtually no effect on SaO_2 . These findings are comparable with those of other studies [5, 7], although some investigators have shown a more favourable effect of progesterone on nocturnal oxygenation in a few selected COPD patients [3, 4, 6].

No significant change was observed in the fall of the PaO_2 or in the rise of the $PETCO_2$ throughout the night with any of the three therapies. This suggests that the improvement of the nocturnal SaO_2 observed during the three therapies, as well as the decrease in $PETCO_2$ during CMA and ACET and the increase during oxygen supplementation were mostly due to different initial daytime blood gas values. In other works, nocturnal hypoventilation still occurred. This is consistent with the hypothesis that the major cause of hypoventilation

during rapid eye movement (REM) sleep is the reduction in activity of the inspiratory muscles and that diminished chemical ventilatory responses, which may be influenced by respiratory stimulants, only play a minor role [1, 17].

The calculated alveolar-arterial oxygen gradient diminished significantly during ACET therapy from 5.4 (SD 1.0) kPa to 4.1 (SD 1.2) kPa. During CMA therapy, the alveolar-arterial oxygen gradient remained unchanged (from 5.6 to 5.9 kPa). Therefore, part of the rise in PaO_2 during ACET therapy can probably be attributed to improved ventilation-perfusion ratios.

On CMA, minute ventilation increased in association with an augmentation of the hypercapnic ventilatory response, whereas the hypoxic ventilatory response remained unchanged. In this study, the hypoxic ventilatory response during therapy was measured at "hypocapnic post-drug" level. In some other studies, hypoxic ventilatory response was measured at relatively high pretreatment $PETCO_2$ levels. In these studies, an increased hypoxic ventilatory response after progesterone treatment was observed [6]. It has been suggested that progesterone stimulates ventilation through the central nervous system [6]. The fact that, in the current study, CMA affected the hypercapnic ventilatory response without effect on the hypoxic ventilatory response supported this theory. Medroxyprogesterone can be expected to have similar effects [18].

We found that hypercapnic and hypoxic ventilatory responses were augmented by ACET. This suggests that it had an effect both on peripheral and central receptors. From the literature, the exact mechanism of this action of ACET is not yet clear [8, 19].

SKATRUD *et al.* [4] who studied the effects of medroxyprogesterone and ACET, divided their patients into "correctors" and "noncorrectors" by using the criterion of a decrease of more or less than 0.67 kPa in daytime P_{CO_2} during treatment. They suggested that the noncorrectors in their study had more severe obstructive airway disease (lower FEV_1 values) and more hyperinflation (higher functional residual capacity (FRC) values), and were not able to lower their P_{CO_2} on voluntary hyperventilation. Furthermore, patients who increased tidal volume rather than respiratory rate would react more favourably to respiratory stimulants. In the current study, no significant difference in characteristics was found between correctors and noncorrectors to CMA or ACET. Furthermore, neither in the CMA group nor in the ACET group could a significant correlation be established between the response of P_{CO_2} and either the severity of the obstruction (FEV_1 % predicted), the degree of hyperinflation (FRC and residual volume (RV) % predicted), any other patient characteristic tested, or the concomitant response of ventilation parameters. Apparently, the response in our patients to the respiratory stimulating drugs used was not dependent on their ventilatory limitation. Indeed, all CMA patients and 89% of ACET patients were able to decrease their P_{CO_2} by at least 0.7 kPa by means of voluntary hyperinflation. Hence, we could not confirm any of the possible predictors of responses to ventilatory stimulants that were suggested by SKATRUD *et al.* [4]. Neither could we find any other predicting characteristic.

In COPD patients fewer nocturnal desaturations are associated with apnoeas during CMA and ACET therapy compared to breathing room air alone. These results are in agreement with findings in patients with the sleep apnoea syndrome [20, 21]. Hypoxaemic COPD patients with mild sleep apnoea <5 apnoeas·h⁻¹ may then benefit from CMA or ACET therapy. Oxygen in these patients may lead to prolonged apnoeas and therefore severe CO₂ retention and acidosis [22]. CMA and ACET may correct Paco₂ and diminish the occurrence of apnoeas.

The subjective daytime benefit of both CMA and ACET was probably a placebo effect, since in all three groups the same percentage of patients felt better when taking any of the capsules. The improvement of sleep quality during ACET therapy may have contributed to the daytime benefit. This increased sleep quality may be due to the sedative effect of ACET and not to direct effects on ventilation. The side-effects could be partly explained by a placebo effect, although paraesthesia and nausea are probably "true" side-effects of ACET [4, 20].

In the placebo group, a slight increase in awake Pao₂ was observed. This probably represents random fluctuation in a group of patients undergoing intensive study. The slight increase in hypoxic ventilatory response in the placebo group could be explained by the increased Paco₂ [23].

We conclude that in our group of severe COPD patients the effects of ACET treatment on gas exchange are more favourable than those of CMA. Oxygen therapy improves oxygenation slightly more than ACET, but aggravates CO₂ retention.

Acknowledgements: The authors would like to express their gratitude to J.R. Stradling (Oxford, UK) who gave very valuable advice on this manuscript.

References

- Douglas NJ, Flenley DC. Breathing during sleep in patients with chronic obstructive lung disease. State of the art. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1990; 141: 1055–1070.
- Medical Research Council Working Party Report. Long-term domiciliary oxygen therapy in chronic hypoxic cor pulmonale complicating chronic bronchitis and emphysema. *Lancet* 1981; i: 681–686.
- Skatrud JB, Dempsey JA, Iber C, Berssenbrugge A. Correction of CO₂ retention during sleep in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary diseases. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1981; 124: 260–268.
- Skatrud JB, Dempsey JA. Relative effectiveness of acetazolamide versus medroxyprogesterone acetate in correction of chronic carbon dioxide retention. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1983; 127: 405–412.
- Dolly FR, Block AJ. Medroxyprogesterone acetate and COPD. Effect on breathing oxygenation in sleeping and awake patients. *Chest* 1983; 84: 394–398.
- Tatsumi K, Kimura H, Kunitoma F, Kuriyama T, Watanabe S, Honda Y. Effect of chlormadinone acetate on sleep arterial oxygen desaturation in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Chest* 1987; 91: 688–692.
- Daskalopoulou E, Patakas D, Tsara V, Zoglopitis F, Maniki E. Comparison of almitrine bismesylate and medroxyprogesterone acetate on oxygenation during wakefulness and sleep in patients with chronic obstructive lung disease. *Thorax* 1990; 45: 666–669.
- Friberg L, Kastrup J, Rizzi D, Jensen JB, Lassen NA. Cerebral blood flow and end-tidal Pco₂ during prolonged acetazolamide treatment in humans. *Am J Physiol* 1990; 258: H954–H959.
- Hackett PH, Roach RC, Harrison GL, Schoene RB, Mills WJ. Respiratory stimulants and sleep periodic breathing at high altitude. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1987; 135: 869–898.
- Standards for the diagnosis and care of patients with chronic pulmonary disease (COPD) and asthma. An official statement of the American Thoracic Society. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1987; 136: 225–243.
- Quanjer Ph. Standardised lung function testing. *Clin Respir Physiol* 1983; 19 (Suppl. 5): 1–95.
- Smolders F, Folgering H, Bernards J. Capnostat and oxystat. Electronic devices to automatically maintain the end-tidal Paco₂ and Pao₂ of a subject connected to a closed respiratory circuit at adjustable levels. *Pflugers Arch* 1977; 372: 289–290.
- Cunningham DJC, Robbins PA, Wolff CB. Intergration of respiratory responses to changes in alveolar partial pressures of CO₂ and O₂ and in arterial pH. In: Handbook of Physiology. Section 2. Respiratory System. Bethesda, MD, Am Physiol Soc., 1986; pp. 475–528.
- Rebuck AS, Campbell EJM. A clinical method for assessing the ventilatory response to hypoxia. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1974; 109: 345–350.
- Ellis BW, Murray WJ, Lancaster R, Raptopoulos P, Angelopoulos N, Priest RG. The St Mary's Hospital Sleep Questionnaire: a study of reliability. *Sleep* 1981; 4 (1) : 93–97.
- Miller WF, Scacci R, Gast LR. Gas exchange and acid-base balance. In: Laboratory evaluation of pulmonary function. Philadelphia, Lippincott Co. 1987; pp. 363–398.
- Stradling JR. Controversies in sleep-relating breathing disorders. *Lung* 1986; 164: 17–31.
- Morikawa T, Tanaka Y, Maruyama R, Nishibayashi Y, Honda Y. Comparison of two synthetic progesterones on ventilation in normal males: CMA vs MPA. *J Appl Physiol* 1987; 63 (4) : 1610–1615.
- Lassen NA. Is central chemoreceptor sensitive to intracellular rather than extracellular pH? *Clin Physiol* 1990; 10: 311–319.
- Whyte KF, Gould GA, Airlie MAA, Shapiro CM, Douglas NJ. Role of protriptyline and acetazolamide in the sleep apnoea/hypopnoea syndrome. *Sleep* 1988, 11 (5) : 463–472.
- Hensley MJ, Saunders NA, Strohl KP. Medroxyprogesterone treatment of obstructive sleep apnoea. *Sleep* 1980; 3: 441–446.
- Goldstein RS, Ramcharan V, Bowes G, McNicholas WT, Bradley D, Phillipson EA. Effect of supplemental nocturnal oxygen on gas exchange in patients with severe obstructive lung disease. *N Engl J Med* 1984; 310: 425–429.
- Rebuck AS, Woodley WE. Ventilatory effects of hypoxia and their dependence on Pco₂. *J Appl Physiol* 1975; 38 (1) : 16–19.