Ventilatory and cerebrovascular responses in normocapnic and hypercapnic COPD patients


ABSTRACT: This study investigated the hypothesis that hypercapnia in some chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) patients may be related to a high cerebrovascular response to carbon dioxide (CO₂).

The relationship between responses of ventilation and of cerebral blood volume (CBV) to acute changes in carbon dioxide tension in arterial blood (PₐCO₂) was measured in 17 chronic hypercapnic (PₐCO₂ > 6.0 kPa) and 16 normocapnic (PₐCO₂ ≤ 6.0 kPa) COPD patients, who were matched for degree of airway obstruction (forced expiratory volume in one second 27% predicted). Results were compared with 15 age-matched healthy subjects. CBV was measured using near infrared spectroscopy during normo- and hypercapnia and related to inspired minute ventilation (V̅₁) and mouth occlusion pressure (PₐO₂). Hypercapnia (end-tidal pressure of carbon dioxide (ΔPₐETCO₂) > 1 kPa) was induced by giving adequate amounts of CO₂ in the inspired air.

During normocapnia, CBV (mL·100 g⁻¹) was 2.41 ± 0.66 and 2.90 ± 0.60 (mean ± SD) in the normocapnic and chronic hypercapnic patients, respectively, which was significantly lower compared to healthy subjects (3.53 ± 0.77). All slopes of CO₂ responsiveness (ΔCBV/ΔPₐCO₂, ΔV̅₁/ΔPₐCO₂, ΔPₐO₂/ΔPₐCO₂) were significantly lower in both COPD groups relative to healthy subjects, but were not significantly different between the COPD groups. A poor but positive correlation between ventilatory and cerebrovascular CO₂ responsiveness (ΔCBV/ΔPₐCO₂ and ΔV̅₁/ΔPₐCO₂) was found in COPD patients and healthy subjects.

The findings do not support the hypothesis of abnormal cerebrovascular responses to carbon dioxide in hypercapnic chronic obstructive pulmonary disease patients.

*Dept of Pulmonology Dekkerswald, University of Nijmegen, Groesbeek, and #Dept of Physiology, Faculty of Medical Sciences, University of Nijmegen, Nijmegen, The Netherlands.

Correspondence: M.J.T. Van de Ven, Dept of Pulmonology Dekkerswald, University of Nijmegen, PO Box 9001, 6560 GB Groesbeek, The Netherlands. Fax: 31 246859290

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Patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) frequently show a blunted ventilatory response to hypercapnia. This diminished response has been ascribed to either mechanical limitations imposed by the disease process itself ("can’t breathe") or to reduced sensitivity of the respiratory centres to the carbon dioxide (CO₂) stimulus ("won’t breathe") [1]. Both will result in CO₂ retention and hypercapnia. Furthermore, the carbon dioxide tension in arterial blood (PₐCO₂) values are often used as the input parameter for measuring ventilatory responsiveness. As the central chemoreceptors represent ~80% of the total CO₂ chemosensitivity [2], it might be conceived that the stimulus to these central chemoreceptors, brain interstitial fluid (ISF)-pH, is neither adequately processed, nor adequately reflected by the PₐCO₂ value in the hypercapnic COPD patients. The latter may occur when the control of cerebral blood flow (CBF) and cerebral blood volume (CBV) and their responses to changes in PₐCO₂ are abnormal.

The importance of CBF as a crucial link in stimulus-response studies of ventilatory control was first pointed out by the classical study of Kety and Schmidt [3]. Since then, CBF was thought to modify the apparent ventilatory responses to changes in PₐCO₂. Variations in blood flow will alter the relationship between PₐCO₂ (the stimulus that can be measured) and the CO₂ tension of brain tissue at the central chemoreceptors (the true stimulus). Simultaneous measurements of cerebrovascular and of ventilatory reactivity are therefore important [4].

As reviewed by Feihl and Perret [5], both cerebral resistance vessels (arterioles) and capillaries/venules are dilated by hypercapnia. However, a chronic hypercapnia is associated with a blunted cerebrovascular reactivity to acute PₐCO₂ variations [6]. As a result, only minor alterations in CBF and CBV can be expected, not able to attenuate the acute hypercapnic stimulus to the central chemoreceptors, and leading to an elevated PₐCO₂ in the ISF (true stimulus). Consequently, an elevated ventilatory drive could be expected. However, the opposite, a lowered ventilatory drive is found [7, 8].

According to Ponten and Siesjö [9] and others [4], a
high CBF (and CBV) washes out tissue CO₂ and lowers Pa₄CO₂ in the ISF, leading to a low chemoreceptor stimulus and a low ventilatory drive. An inverse relationship between cerebrovascular and ventilatory responsiveness to acute hypercapnia in COPD patients was hypothesized. Relatively high vasodilating cerebrovascular responses were hypothesized in hypercapnic patients, leading to a wash-out from CO₂ and a lowered Pa₄CO₂ in the ISF. This would result in a low chemoreceptor stimulus and a low ventilatory drive and sustained systemic hypercapnia. Normocapnic patients, however, may be thought to show a lowered cerebrovascular response and thus an adequate ventilatory drive, leading to systemic normocapnia.

In the present study, cerebrovascular CO₂ responsiveness was expressed as the slope of CBV/CO₂ plot (ΔCBV/ΔPa₄CO₂) and ventilatory CO₂ responsiveness was expressed as the slope of inspired minute ventilation (V̇')/CO₂ (ΔV̇' ΔPa₄CO₂). CBV was measured using a noninvasive technique of near-infrared spectroscopy (NIRS). Mouth occlusion pressure (P₀.1) and its response to changes in Pa₄CO₂ (ΔP₀.1 ΔPa₄CO₂) were measured in order to approximate the ventilatory drive independent of airway resistance.

Materials and methods

Subjects

The study was performed on 33 patients with COPD as defined by the American Thoracic Society. Ten males and six females, aged (mean ± sd) 60 ± 11 yrs, were normocapnic (Pa₄CO₂ ≤ 6.0 kPa) and 15 males and two females, aged 63 ± 8 yrs were hypercapnic (Pa₄CO₂ > 6.0 kPa). Patients were excluded if they: 1) had evidence of obstructive sleep disorders or restrictive pulmonary function; 2) had an exacerbation in the 6 weeks before enrollment; 3) had a history of cardiopulmonary, cerebrovascular or other chronic diseases; and 4) took medications other than pulmonary bronchodilating agents, theophyllines and systemic corticosteroids. Three normocapnic and two hypercapnic patients were current smokers, all other patients stopped smoking for > 6 months. An age-matched healthy control group (56 ± 10 yrs, six males, 10 females) was also studied. None of them were on medication. A description of the patients is presented in table 1.

At least 2 h prior to the experiments, all participants were asked to abstain from caffeinated drinks and cigarettes, but were allowed to continue their pulmonary medication. All volunteers gave informed consent. The study was approved by the ethical committee of the Department of Pulmonology Dekkerswald, University of Nijmegen.

Measurements

Ventilation measurements. The subjects were in a comfortable, reclining position. They were breathing through a face mask with low-resistance valves for inspiratory and expiratory gas mixture. First, dead space ventilation (V̇D/V̇T) was measured using the Bohr equation. Expiratory air was collected in a Douglas bag for 10 min for measurements of expiratory PCO₂ (capnograph N1000, Nellcor Puritan Bennet, MO, USA). Next, the inspiratory port of the mask was connected via a Fleisch pneumotachograph (Phipps & Bird, Richmond, VA, USA) to an inspiratory reservoir (fig. 1). The flow signal was integrated into V′. Air was sampled from the expiratory port of the mask to a capnograph to monitor end-tidal CO₂ (PETCO₂, kPa) and respiratory rate (RR, min⁻¹). Changes in inspiratory gas mixture of oxygen (O₂), nitrogen (N₂) and CO₂ were induced by means of a computer-controlled mass flow system (Bronchhorst, Hitec, Veendael, the Netherlands). The fraction of inspired O₂ (FI,O₂) was monitored continuously using an oxygen analyser (OM-11, Beckman Inc., CA, USA). Fast changes in the inspiratory gas mixture could be induced; the aimed changes were reached within one breath. Hypercapnia (ΔPETCO₂ > 1 kPa) was induced by giving adequate amounts of CO₂ (FI,CO₂ 3 –5%) in the inspired air.

Table 1. – Characteristics of normocapnic patients, chronic hypercapnic patients and control subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Normocapnic COPD</th>
<th>Hypercapnic COPD</th>
<th>Controls*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age yr</td>
<td>59.8 ± 10.7</td>
<td>62.8 ± 8.4*</td>
<td>56 ± 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMI kg·m⁻²</td>
<td>22.9 ± 2.54</td>
<td>21.5 ± 2.4**</td>
<td>24.2 ± 3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV₁ % pred</td>
<td>28.8 ± 9.6***</td>
<td>24.3 ± 7.5***</td>
<td>88.7 ± 8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEP % pred</td>
<td>87.9 ± 39.9</td>
<td>77.2 ± 29.8</td>
<td>59.4 ± 25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V₀/VT %</td>
<td>48 ± 11</td>
<td>53 ± 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ht vol %</td>
<td>41.6 ± 3.6</td>
<td>42.0 ± 3.4</td>
<td>40.8 ± 3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pa₄CO₂ kPa</td>
<td>5.26 ± 0.27</td>
<td>6.27 ± 0.45***</td>
<td>5.14 ± 0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P₀.1 kPa</td>
<td>9.05 ± 0.59</td>
<td>8.31 ± 0.99***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pH</td>
<td>7.42 ± 0.02***</td>
<td>7.39 ± 0.02**</td>
<td>7.45 ± 0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HCO₃⁻ mEq·L⁻¹</td>
<td>25.2 ± 1.2</td>
<td>28.0 ± 1.6***</td>
<td>25.6 ± 1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE mEq·L⁻¹</td>
<td>0.8 ± 1.2***</td>
<td>2.4 ± 1.3***</td>
<td>2.1 ± 1.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data are presented as mean ± std. COPD: chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; BMI: body mass index; MEP: maximal inspiratory pressure; MIP: maximal expiratory pressure; Ht: haematocrit; BE: base excess; FEV₁: forced expiratory volume in one second; V₀: dead space volume; V₄: tidal volume; Pa₄CO₂: carbon dioxide tension in arterial blood; P₀.1: oxygen tension in arterial blood; HCO₃⁻: bicarbonate. *: p < 0.05; **: p < 0.01; ***: p < 0.001. COPD group compared to control group; * control group: arterialized capillary blood gas sampling (control group of arterialization capillary blood sampling).
Fig. 1. – Experimental set-up. Flow of oxygen (O₂), nitrogen (N₂), and carbon dioxide (CO₂) are regulated with a mass-flow controller. Arterial oxygen saturation (Sₐ,O₂) and heart rate (HR) are measured with pulse-oximetry. NIRS: near-infrared spectroscopy; PET,CO₂ and RR: end-tidal CO₂ and respiratory rate measured by capnograph. For safety reasons, a back-up volume of 10 L was created. Arterial blood was sampled from the left brachial artery.

Cerebral blood volume measurements. NIRS has been developed to monitor brain oxygenation and dynamics [10]. The theory of NIRS has been described extensively [11]. The technique is based on oxygenation-dependent absorption changes in the blood caused by chromophores, mainly oxy- and deoxyhaemoglobin ([O₂Hb] and [HHb], respectively). Near-infrared light was carried to and from a pulsed continuous-wave NIRS instrument (Oxymon, Depts of Physiology and Instrumentation, University of Nijmegen, the Netherlands) through two fibreoptic bundles (optodes) on the left side of the forehead. One optode emits near-infrared light at three different wavelengths, which penetrates through the skull/brain. The receiving optode is positioned at a distance of 5.5 cm apart from the emitting optode. This distance ensures that most of the extracranial circulation is excluded from the detected signal [12].

Calculation of CBV was described by Elwell et al. [13]. A slight change of saturation (~ 5%) is necessary to quantify CBV. The change of saturation is related to the difference in concentration of haemoglobin chromophores at two levels of saturation. CBV can be calculated taking the individual haemoglobin concentration into account and a fixed constant. The constant accounts for molecular weight of haemoglobin, cerebral tissue density and the cerebral-to-large vessel haematocrit ratio.

Mouth occlusion pressure measurements. Ventilatory effort during inspiration was determined by P₀.₁ after the start of inspiration. A solenoid valve was positioned in the inspiratory line of the circuit [14]. Closure of the valve during expiration was manually controlled, and the valve automatically opened after the first 100 ms of the occluded inspiration. Five repeated measurements of P₀.₁ were averaged during each CO₂ condition. P₀.₁ was expressed both as absolute value (cmH₂O) and as percentage of maximal inspiratory pressure (MIP), in order to normalize P₀.₁ for the individual differences in inspiratory muscle strength [15].

Protocol

All patients underwent routine spirometry and blood analysis of haemoglobin, haematocrit and resting arterial blood gases to assign the individual patients into the normocapnic and chronic hypercapnic COPD group. A canula was introduced in the left brachial artery to collect arterial blood samples. Arterial oxygen saturation (Sₐ,O₂) and heart rate (HR) were monitored with a pulse-oximeter (N200; Nellcor Puritan Bennett, MO, USA), with the sensor attached to the right-frontal forehead (fig. 1).

Hypercapnia was induced by giving adequate amounts of CO₂ in the inspired air. Duplicate measurements of CBV and P₀.₁ during normo- and hypercapnia were performed after a period of 10-min equilibration. Arterial pressure was measured manually during each CO₂ condition. Mean arterial blood pressure (MABP) was calculated as: diastolic pressure + 1/3 × (systolic-diastolic) pressure. All data (except MABP) were linked directly to the NIRS computer for real time display and simultaneous storage with the NIRS data.

Statistics

During the whole experiment, time-averaged values of V′₁, PET,CO₂, Sₐ,O₂, HR and RR were recorded, expressed as mean ± SD during each CO₂ challenge. Anthropometric characteristics, pulmonary function, MABP and arterial blood gas values were compared between the three groups by the Mann-Whitney U-test for two independent samples. Within the groups, values during normocapnia were compared to values during hypercapnia using a paired t-test. Between the groups, unpaired t-tests were used to compare outcome variables. For each individual, CBV, V′₁ and P₀.₁ was plotted against corresponding Pₐ,CO₂ values and subjected to linear regression analysis. The individual slopes of CBV, V′₁ and P₀.₁ responses to acute CO₂ changes were calculated using linear regression analysis. Mean slopes of the three groups were compared with an unpaired test. The level of statistical significance was set at p < 0.05. All tests should be regarded as explorative due to the multiplicity of tests.

Results

The anthropometric characteristics and respiratory function data of the patients are summarized in table 1. Both COPD groups showed the same degree of airway obstruction (forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV₁)), maximal voluntary ventilation (MVV) and MIP. Acute hypercapnia was attained by
Table 2. – Outcome parameters before (start) and during hypercapnia when taking carbon dioxide responses in normocapnic patients, chronic hypercapnic patients and control subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Normocapnic COPD</th>
<th>Hypercapnic COPD</th>
<th>Controls</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Start</td>
<td>Hypercapnia</td>
<td>Start</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBV mL 100 kg−1</td>
<td>2.41 ± 0.66**</td>
<td>3.36 ± 0.73(***)</td>
<td>2.90 ± 0.60(***)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V̇I L min−1</td>
<td>9.7 ± 2.5**</td>
<td>16.6 ± 4.2***</td>
<td>9.0 ± 2.0*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P0.1 cm H2O</td>
<td>5.12 ± 2.57</td>
<td>7.14 ± 3.44***</td>
<td>5.31 ± 2.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P0.1 MIP %</td>
<td>7.72 ± 4.53</td>
<td>11.42 ± 7.19***</td>
<td>8.14 ± 4.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pa CO2 kPa</td>
<td>5.26 ± 0.27</td>
<td>6.08 ± 0.24***</td>
<td>6.27 ± 0.45**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MVV % pred</td>
<td>33.1 ± 12.7</td>
<td>55.0 ± 16.7</td>
<td>33.3 ± 10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RR min−1</td>
<td>16 ± 4</td>
<td>19 ±4(***</td>
<td>19 ±5*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V̇I mL</td>
<td>640 ± 210</td>
<td>920 ± 225(***</td>
<td>520 ± 200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR min−1</td>
<td>83 ± 11**</td>
<td>79 ± 19</td>
<td>82 ± 12**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MABP mmHg</td>
<td>106 ± 12***</td>
<td>108 ± 18</td>
<td>111 ± 14***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data are presented as mean ± SD. CBV: cerebral blood volume; V̇I: inspired ventilation; P0.1: mouth occlusion pressure; MIP: maximal inspiratory pressure; MVV: maximal voluntary ventilation; RR: respiratory rate; V̇I: tidal volume; HR: heart rate; MABP: mean arterial blood pressure; PaO2: oxygen tension in arterial blood; PaCO2: carbon dioxide tension in arterial blood; *: p < 0.05; **: p < 0.01; ***: p < 0.001. COPD group compared to control group (normocapnia compared to acutely induced within the group) [normocapnic COPD group compared to hypercapnia COPD group].

means of a ΔPaCO2 of 0.83 ± 0.19, 0.65 ± 0.18 and 0.52 ± 0.27 kPa in the normocapnic, chronic hypercapnic and healthy (control) group, respectively. The degree of (necessary) transient desaturation to measure absolute values of CBV was 6 ± 2, 7 ± 2 and 8 ± 2% for the same groups.

Hypercapnia induced significant changes (p < 0.01) in all variables except for HR, RR and MABP, within the three groups (table 2). In addition, only normocapnic COPD patients showed a different RR during hypercapnia (p < 0.01), compared to the other two groups. MABP was significantly higher in COPD patients compared to healthy subjects (p < 0.001), but did not increase further during hypercapnia. In healthy subjects, MABP increased during induction of hypercapnia (p < 0.001).

Ventilation and ventilatory responses

Both COPD groups had significantly higher resting values of V̇I compared to healthy subjects (table 2). The ventilatory response to CO2 (ΔV̇I/ΔPaCO2) was lower in both COPD groups compared to the controls, but was only significantly different (p < 0.01) in the hypercapnic group compared to controls (table 3). When both COPD groups were compared and the median rather than the average value of ΔV̇I/ ΔPaCO2 was taken, a significant, different slope of ΔV̇I/ΔPaCO2 between the two COPD groups was found (p < 0.05). Average responses (V̇I: L min−1; PaCO2: kPa) are displayed in figure 2b.

In contrast to COPD patients, V̇I is a good parameter for neuromuscular output of ventilatory drive in healthy subjects. Both absolute values of P0.1 (table 2) and its reactivity (ΔP0.1/ΔPaCO2, table 3) were not significantly different between the COPD groups, even after correction for MIP.

Table 3. – Linear regression of cerebral blood volume (CBV), minute ventilation (V̇I) and mouth occlusion pressure (P0.1) to hypercapnia in normocapnic patients, chronic hypercapnic patients and control subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Normocapnic COPD</th>
<th>Hypercapnic COPD</th>
<th>Controls</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Slope</td>
<td>y-intercept r</td>
<td>Slope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBV P0.1 cm H2O mL 100 g−1 kPa−1</td>
<td>1.59 ± 0.91</td>
<td>-5.18 ± 5.27</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V̇I P0.1 cm H2O L min−1 kPa−1</td>
<td>8.2 ± 4.9*</td>
<td>-33.4 ± 26.2*</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P0.1 cm H2O P0.1 kPa−1</td>
<td>2.65 ± 1.84</td>
<td>-8.67 ± 9.3</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data are presented as mean ± SD. PaCO2: carbon dioxide tension in arterial blood; COPD: chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; *: p < 0.05; **: p < 0.01; ***: p < 0.001. COPD group compared to control group. y-intercept: CBV, V̇I and P0.1 value at a PaCO2 of 0 kPa.
A poor correlation was seen in the control group between the individual CBV and $V'/I$ responses to acute hypercapnia ($\Delta CBV/\Delta Pa_{CO_2}$ and $\Delta V'/\Delta Pa_{CO_2}$). A low, but significant correlation was found for all COPD patients (fig. 3). When the COPD group was subdivided, the normocapnic patients tended to show a steeper slope ($\Delta V'/\Delta Pa_{CO_2}$ vs. $\Delta CBV/\Delta Pa_{CO_2}$) as compared to the hypercapnic patients (fig. 4). However, the latter correlations were poor and not significant. In addition, when $V'/I$ was related to MVV% and $V'/I$ (MVV%)$/\Delta Pa_{CO_2}$ was correlated to $\Delta CBV/\Delta Pa_{CO_2}$ (not displayed), correlations remained poor. Nevertheless, the slope of these correlations was positive, showing that high cerebrovascular responses were accompanied by high ventilatory responses to $CO_2$.

Correlations between the individual CBV and $P_{O_2}$ slopes ($\Delta CBV/\Delta Pa_{CO_2}$ and $\Delta P_{O_2}/\Delta Pa_{CO_2}$) were poor and not significant in both COPD groups ($r=0.28$ and $0.04$ in the normocapnic and hypercapnic COPD group, respectively). In order to evaluate CBV with respect to parasympathetic tone, CBV and HR were correlated. There was no correlation between absolute values of CBV and HR in normocapnic ($r=0.1$) and hypercapnic COPD patients ($r=0.2$) and controls ($r<0.1$).

**Discussion**

Cerebrovascular responses were studied and correlated with ventilatory reactivity in healthy subjects and both normo- and hypercapnic COPD patients. Acute hypercapnia gave rise to significant changes of CBV and ventilatory ($V'/I$ and $P_{O_2}$) outcome parameters in all investigated subjects. Healthy subjects showed the highest CBV- and $V'/I$-responsiveness, whereas hypercapnic COPD patients showed the poorest responsiveness among the three groups. A wide inter-individual variability of cerebrovascular and ventilatory reactivity to acute changes in $Pa_{CO_2}$ was found between the investigated subjects. However, the present study showed a tendency of high cerebrovascular responses being accompanied by high...
ventilatory responses to CO₂, thus refuting the hypothesi-

sion of an inverse relationship between ∆CBV/∆Pa,CO₂ and ∆V'/∆Pa,CO₂ in COPD patients.

Ventilatory and ventilatory responses

Ventilatory responsiveness to CO₂ were highest in

healthy subjects and lowest in hypercapnic COPD

patients. The results are in line with those of others [1,
8, 16], although the present study measured higher

absolute values of responsiveness. The latter can be

explained by various causes. Firstly, the present study

used Pa,CO₂ instead of PET,CO₂ as an independent

variable. Secondly, the (significantly) increased value

of Pa,CO₂ during hypercapnic challenge may have

resulted in an overestimated value of ventilatory

CO₂ responses, as previous reports found a reduced

CO₂ sensitivity during hyperoxia in healthy subjects
[17]. Thirdly, chronic hypercapnic patients were

exposed to chronic hypoxaemia (mean Pa,O₂ value
8.31 kPa). Superimposed desaturation changes to

obtain absolute CBV values may have led to greater

values of ventilation under both baseline conditions
and during hypercapnic challenge, possibly leading to

higher values of ventilatory slopes. Finally, all COPD

patients have inhaled β₂-adrenergic agonists, resulting

in additional increases in ventilatory responses to

hypercapnia, presumably by central chemoreceptor

stimulation [18].

The sex ratio in healthy controls’ and patients’
groups is different. As all the subjects investigated

were postmenopausal, this study is not predominantly

biased by sex.

To ascertain whether and to what extent the

reduced ventilatory response to a hypercapnic stimu-

lus in COPD patients depends on a blunted chemo-

responsiveness of central origin or to mechanical

impairment, Scanò et al. [8] measured rebreathing

CO₂ responses in normocapnic and hypercapnic

COPD patients with similar degrees of airway

obstruction and hyperinflation. Their study popula-

tion was comparable to the present investigated group

on pulmonary mechanics and arterial blood gas

parameters. In contrast to Gellb et al. [16] and the

present study, they found a lower P0.1 responsiveness
(cmH₂O·kPa⁻¹) in hypercapnic (1.08 ± 0.43) relative
to normocapnic (2.72 ± 2.08) and healthy controls
(2.57 ± 0.49). Conversely, when the normalization of
P0.1 for individual differences in muscle strength was
performed by expressing P0.1 as a percentage of MIP
[15], a significant difference between the two groups
did not occur, which is in line with the present results.

Cerebral blood volume and cerebrovascular responses

Cerebrovascular responsiveness was expressed as a
change of CBV over a change in Pa,CO₂. It is impor-
tant to consider the advantages of measurements of

CBV over CBF measurements. Firstly, there is a close
relationship (r = 0.9) between CBV and CBF that has
been extensively investigated [19]. Secondly, the use of

CBV instead of CBF eliminates the problems related
to the mean cerebral transit time [20]. Finally, near-
infrared absorption changes reflect changes in the
oxygenation of blood in the microvasculature, and
thus the CBV of the brain tissue [21]. Changes of CBV
also reflects capillary recruitment, which are con-

sidered a better reflection of cerebrovascular responses
than CBF responses to acid-base stimuli [20].

CBV was measured in the frontal cortex, which may
not react in the same way as the brain-stem region,
where the central chemoreceptors are located [22].
However, Hida et al. [23] used transcranial Doppler to
determine changes in blood flow velocity and could
not find any differences in CO₂ responses between
the brain-stem artery and the middle-cerebral artery
using transcranial Doppler. The latter paper would support
the present measurements of frontal-lobe vasorespon-
siveness to be representative of overall CBV changes.
However, since there is no general agreement on
cerebrovascular CO₂-responsiveness, one has to be
cautious to draw this conclusion.

Prior to this study, the reproducibility of CBV
measurements during resting conditions using NIRS

Fig. 4. – Correlation between ventilatory and cerebrovascular carbon dioxide (CO₂)-responsiveness in normocapnic and chronic hypercapnic chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) patients. The relationship between a) the individual ventilatory/CO₂ tension in arterial blood (∆V'/∆Pa,CO₂) and cerebrovascular (∆CBV/∆Pa,CO₂) CO₂-responsiveness in normocapnic and b) chronic hypercapnic patients. The regression equation, describing the inter-individual relationship between a) ∆V'/∆Pa,CO₂ and ∆CBV/∆Pa,CO₂ is ∆V'/∆Pa,CO₂ = 2.66 × ∆CBV/∆Pa,CO₂ + 5.22 (r = 0.20; p = 0.47) and b) ∆V'/∆Pa,CO₂ = 1.43 × ∆CBV/∆Pa,CO₂ + 3.79 (r = 0.21; p = 0.41). V': inspired ventilation (L·min⁻¹); CBV: cerebral blood volume (mL·100 g⁻¹).
was evaluated; an intra-individual coefficient of variation of $\pm 10\%$ was found [24]. These results are in agreement with others [25]. CBV values of the present study during normocapnia (range 1.60 – 4.30 mL·100 g$^{-1}$) are consistent with other studies using NIRS: 2.85 – 0.97 mL·100 g$^{-1}$ [25].

Absolute values of CBV were lower in both COPD groups, relative to healthy subjects. Increased age [26], haematocrit [27] and HR may lower CBF and, therefore, CBV. HR was significantly increased in both COPD groups. HR responses primarily test the parasympathetic system. STEWART et al. [28] showed a parasympathetic autonomic dysfunction in 93% (28 out of 30) of severe hypoxaemic, hypercapnic COPD patients and in 65% (39 out of 60) of moderately to severely hypoxic, normocapnic COPD patients. Only 18% (four out of 22) of the control group had evidence of an age-related autonomic dysfunction. However, a correlation between absolute values of CBV and HR was not found in the present study. Additionally, no correlation was found between absolute values of CBV and age.

Medication, like theophyllines and systemic corticosteroids, may reduce CBV [29, 30]. Theophylline was chronically used by nine of 16 (56%) normocapnic and 11 of 17 (64%) hypercapnic patients, which may have contributed to the low CBV in both COPD groups. Systemic corticosteroids were used in four out of 16 normocapnic and four out of 17 hypercapnic patients. To assess the effect of medical intervention, average CBV was recalculated after subdividing both COPD groups in users and nonusers of theophyllines and/or oral corticosteroids. In contrast to others [29, 30], CBV was slightly, but not significantly higher in the group of theophylline users, relative to the nonusers in both COPD groups. In addition, CBV values measured in corticosteroid-users and nonusers were not different. Both the small size of the subgroups and the high variation of CBV values among the subjects may mask the well-documented effects of theophyllines. Intravenous salbutamol (1 $\mu$g·kg$^{-1}$) leads to an increased CBV in rats [31]. Since the present study showed a low CBV in all COPD patients, it is unlikely that the inhaled salbutamol (≤400 $\mu$g) of the patients affected the CBV values substantially.

MABP was relatively higher in all COPD patients and remained unchanged during hypercapnia. Although their MABP values fell well within the range of autoregulation, pressure-dependent sensors may dominate flow-dependent sensors in the cerebral circulation during chronic elevated blood pressure, leading to a lowering of CBF and CBV. This might partly explain a blunted cerebrovascular responsiveness in both COPD groups, compared to healthy subjects.

There are only a few studies describing CBV reactivity in adults using NIRS. GUPTA et al. [32] used the same method as the present study to calculate CBV and found a higher mean CBV of 5.38 mL·100 g$^{-1}$ and a lower CBV reactivity of 1.25 mL·100 g$^{-1}$·kPa$^{-1}$, in young adults. However, they induced deeper desaturations (A10 – 15%, instead of ~5%), assumed equal Hb values for each individual and used the fractional concentration of CO$_2$ in inspired gas to correlate with CBV. As they suggested, a deeper desaturation possibly gives rise to concomitant hypoxic vasodilation and thereby, a higher CBV and different CBV reactivity. Other studies applied the same "O$_2$-desaturation-method" in neonates [33], or used O$_2$Hb derived reactivity values, and are therefore not comparable with this study [34].

Conclusions

Normocapnic and chronic hypercapnic COPD patients had lower absolute values of CBV relative to healthy subjects; autonomic dysfunction was suggested as a possible reason for this difference. There was a poor, but positive correlation between ventilatory and cerebrovascular CO$_2$ responsiveness ($\Delta$CBV/$\Delta$PaCO$_2$ and $\Delta$V$^1$/PaCO$_2$) in COPD patients and healthy subjects, thus refuting the hypothesis concerning an inverse relationship between cerebrovascular and ventilatory responses to PaCO$_2$.

As compared to healthy subjects, both chronic obstructive pulmonary disease groups showed lower ventilatory as well as cerebrovascular carbon dioxide-responses, with significantly lower responses in the chronic hypercapnic group. Since similar mouth occlusion pressure reactivity was measured in both chronic obstructive pulmonary disease groups and cerebral blood volume- and inspired minute ventilation-reactivity were not significantly different, the present study was not able to elucidate why some patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease become hypercapnic, whereas others with the same degree of airway obstruction remain normocapnic.

References