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# **Magnesium sulfate for acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (Review)**

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## **T A B L E O F C O N T E N T S**







### **[Intervention Review]**

# **Magnesium sulfate for acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease**

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## **A B S T R A C T**

#### <span id="page-3-0"></span>**Background**

Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) is a chronic and progressive disease, often punctuated by recurrent flare-ups or exacerbations. Magnesium sulfate, having a bronchodilatory effect, may have a potential role as an adjunct treatment in COPD exacerbations. However, comprehensive evidence of its effects is required to facilitate clinical decision-making.

#### **Objectives**

To assess the effects of magnesium sulfate for acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in adults.

#### **Search methods**

We searched the Cochrane Airways Trials Register, CENTRAL, MEDLINE, Embase, ClinicalTrials.gov, the World Health Organization (WHO) trials portal, EU Clinical Trials Register and Iranian Registry of Clinical Trials. We also searched the proceedings of major respiratory conferences and reference lists of included studies up to 2 August 2021.

### **Selection criteria**

We included single- or double-blind parallel-group randomised controlled trials (RCTs) assessing magnesium sulfate in adults with COPD exacerbations. We excluded cross-over trials.

#### **Data collection and analysis**

We used standard methodological procedures expected by Cochrane. Two review authors independently selected trials for inclusion, extracted data and assessed risk of bias. The primary outcomes were: hospital admissions (from the emergency room); need for noninvasive ventilation (NIV), assisted ventilation or admission to intensive-care unit (ICU); and serious adverse events. Secondary outcomes were: length of hospital stay, mortality, adverse events, dyspnoea score, lung function and blood gas measurements. We assessed confidence in the evidence using GRADE methodology. For missing data, we contacted the study investigators.

## **Main results**

We identified 11 RCTs (10 double-blind and 1 single-blind) with a total 762 participants. The mean age of participants ranged from 62 to 76 years. Trials were single- or two-centre trials conducted in Iran, New Zealand, Nepal, Turkey, the UK, Tunisia and the USA between 2004 and 2018. We judged studies to be at low or unclear risk of bias for most of the domains. Three studies were at high risk for blinding and other biases.

### **Intravenous magnesium sulfate versus placebo**



Seven studies (24 to 77 participants) were included. Fewer people may require hospital admission with magnesium infusion compared to placebo (odds ratio (OR) 0.45, 95% CI 0.23 to 0.88; number needed to treat for an additional beneficial outcome (NNTB) = 7; 3 studies, 170 participants; low-certainty evidence). Intravenous magnesium may result in little to no difference in the requirement for non-invasive ventilation (OR 0.74, 95% CI 0.31 to 1.75; very low-certainty evidence). There were no reported cases of endotracheal intubation (2 studies, 107 participants) or serious adverse events (1 study, 77 participants)in either group. Included studies did notreportintensive care unit(ICU) admission or deaths. Magnesium infusion may reduce the length of hospital stay by a mean difference (MD) of 2.7 days (95% CI 4.73 days to 0.66 days; 2 studies, 54 participants; low-certainty evidence) and improve dyspnoea score by a standardised mean difference of -1.40 (95% CI-1.83 to -0.96; 2 studies, 101 participants; low-certainty evidence). We were uncertain about the effect of magnesium infusion on improving lung function or oxygen saturation. For all adverse events, the Peto OR was 0.14 (95% CI 0.02 to 1.00; 102 participants); however, the event rate was too low to reach a robust conclusion.

#### **Nebulised magnesium sulfate versus placebo**

Three studies (20 to 172 participants) were included. Magnesium inhalation may have little to no impact on hospital admission (OR 0.77, 95% CI 0.21 to 2.82; very low-certainty evidence) or need for ventilatory support (NIV or mechanical ventilation) (OR 0.33, 95% CI 0.01 to 8.20; very low-certainty evidence). It may result in fewer ICU admissions compared to placebo (OR 0.39, 95% CI 0.15 to 1.00; very lowcertainty evidence) and improvementin dyspnoea (MD -14.37, 95% CI -26.00 to -2.74; 1 study, 20 participants; very low-certainty evidence). There were no serious adverse events reported in either group. There was one reported death in the placebo arm in one trial, but the number of participants was too small for a conclusion. There was limited evidence about the effect of magnesium inhalation on length of hospital stay, lung function outcomes or oxygen saturation. Included studies did not report adverse events.

#### **Magnesium sulfate versus ipratropium bromide**

A single study with 124 participants assessed nebulised magnesium sulfate plus intravenous magnesium infusion versus nebulised ipratropium plus intravenous normal saline. There was little to no difference between these groups in terms of hospital admission (OR 1.62, 95% CI 0.78 to 3.37), endotracheal intubation (OR 1.69, 95% CI 0.61 to 4.71) and length of hospital stay (MD 1.10 days, 95% CI -0.22 to 2.42), all with very low-certainty evidence. There were no data available for non-invasive ventilation, ICU admission and serious adverse events. Adverse events were not reported.

#### **Authors' conclusions**

Intravenous magnesium sulfate may be associated with fewer hospital admissions, reduced length of hospital stay and improved dyspnoea scores compared to placebo. There is no evidence of a difference between magnesium infusion and placebo for NIV, lung function, oxygen saturation or adverse events. We found no evidence for ICU admission, endotracheal intubation, serious adverse events or mortality.

For nebulised magnesium sulfate, we are unable to draw conclusions about its effects in COPD exacerbations for most of the outcomes. Studies reported possibly lower ICU admissions and a lesser degree of dyspnoea with magnesium inhalation compared to placebo; however, larger studies are required to yield a more precise estimate for these outcomes. Similarly, we could not identify any robust evidence for magnesium sulfate compared to ipratropium bromide. Future well-designed multicentre trials with larger samples are required, including subgroups according to severity of exacerbations and COPD phenotypes.

### <span id="page-4-0"></span>**P L A I N L A N G U A G E S U M M A R Y**

#### **Is magnesium sulfate e5ective for chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) flare-ups?**

#### **Background**

COPD is a long-standing disease of the lungs that causes airway narrowing. COPD flare-ups are episodes of worsening symptoms in people diagnosed with COPD, described as exacerbations in this review. Magnesium sulfate is reported to be able to widen the airways to help breathing. Magnesium sulfate can be given as an infusion into the veins or as an inhalation via a device called a nebuliser. Some studies have shown it to be helpful as an add-on to usual care in people with COPD flare-ups. Therefore, we wanted to discover whether using magnesium sulfate was better or worse than other alternatives, such as usual care alone or placebo. Placebo is an infusion or inhalation of normal saline (salt water) through a nebuliser.

#### **Study characteristics**

We included 11 studies involving 762 people with COPD flare-ups. These studies were funded by local health authorities, researchers or universities where researchers work. Usually, neither the participants nor the people doing the research knew which treatment the participants were getting; although in one study, treatment was known to the people who were doing the research. Studies were done in one or two centres in many countries between 2004 and 2018. The average age of participants ranged from 62 to 76 years. Seven studies tested magnesium infusion, three studies assessed magnesium inhalation, and one study examined both. The evidence in this review is current to 2 August 2021.

#### **Key results**



People who received magnesium infusion may have fewer admissions to hospital from the emergency room. Seven people with COPD flare-ups would need to be treated with magnesium infusion to prevent one additional person being admitted to hospital. There was little to no difference in terms of breathing support without intubation (putting a tube into the windpipe to help a person to breathe). None of the participants required breathing support with intubation. Included studies did not report ICU admission or deaths. Only one trial reported on serious adverse events, but no-one in the study experienced any. Magnesium infusion may shorten the duration of hospital stay and reduce breathlessness. However, we were not clear about its effect on lung function, oxygen concentration in blood or adverse events.

Magnesium inhalation (nebuliser) had little or no effect on hospital admission or the need for breathing support (with or without intubation) compared to placebo. Nebulised magnesium may reduce ICU admission and improve breathlessness. However, we are not confident of these findings due to small number of participants and study limitations. There is no evidence of a difference for duration of hospital stay, lung function or oxygen saturation in blood. Serious adverse events were not reported. There is no available data for adverse events. One trial reported one death in the placebo group, but we are not confident to draw any conclusion as the trial had very few participants.

Only one study compared magnesium sulfate inhalation and infusion versus inhaled ipratropium bromide and placebo infusion. We could not identify any differences between the effects of these treatments.

### **Limitations of the evidence**

Magnesium infusion may reduce hospital admissions, shorten length of hospital stay and improve breathlessness compared to placebo. We are very uncertain about its effect on the need for breathing support, lung function or blood oxygen concentration because the studies were small. We do not have enough information to assess any effects on serious adverse events or deaths. The effects of magnesium inhalation compared to placebo or magnesium sulfate versus ipratropium bromide are unclear.

Magnesium sulfate infusion may be useful as an add-on treatment for COPD flare-ups. However, we cannot draw conclusions about whether magnesium sulfate inhalation is helpful for use in people with COPD flare-ups.

## **S U M M A R Y O F F I N D I N G S**

**Magnesium**

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**sulfate for acute**

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**obstructive**

<span id="page-6-0"></span>**pulmonary**

<span id="page-6-1"></span>**disease**

**(Review)**

## Summary of findings 1. Intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care compared to placebo + standard care for acute exacerbations of chronic **obstructive pulmonary disease**

Intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care compared to placebo + standard care for acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease

**Patient or population:** acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease

**Setting:** emergency department

**Intervention:** intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care

**Comparison:** placebo + standard care



<span id="page-7-0"></span>



\*The risk in the intervention group (and its 95% confidence interval) is based on the assumed risk in the comparison group and the relative effect of the intervention (and its 95% CI).

CI: confidence interval; FEV<sub>1</sub>: forced expiratory volume in 1 second; ICU: intensive care unit ; RCT: randomised controlled trial; SaO<sub>2</sub>: arterial oxygen saturation; OR: odds ratio; MD: mean difference; VAS: visual analogue scale

## **GRADE Working Group grades of evidence**

**High certainty:** We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect.

Moderate certainty: We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: the true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different.

**Low certainty:** Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: the true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect.

**Very low certainty:** We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: the true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect.

*a*Downgraded one level for study limitations (risk of selection and reporting bias)

bDowngraded two levels for study limitations (risk of selection, reporting bias and very small participant numbers)

cDowngraded two levels for very serious imprecision (few events and CI includes both appreciable benefit and harm)

dDowngraded one level for serious imprecision (few events or CI includes non-appreciable benefit and potential harm)

**6**

Summary of findings 3. Magnesium sulfate compared to standard care (ipratropium bromide) for acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive **pulmonary disease**

Magnesium sulfate compared to (standard care) ipratropium bromide for acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease

**Patient or population:** acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease

**Setting:** emergency department

**Intervention:** magnesium sulfate

**Comparison:** ipratropium bromide



\***The risk in the intervention group** (and its 95% confidence interval) is based on the assumed risk in the comparison group and the **relative effect** of the intervention (and its 95% CI).

CI: confidence interval; FEV<sub>1</sub>: forced expiratory volume in 1 second; ICU: intensive care unit ; RCT: randomised controlled trial; SaO<sub>2</sub>: arterial oxygen saturation; OR: odds ratio; MD: mean difference

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**Trusted Better**

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**evidence.**

## **GRADE Working Group grades of evidence**

**High certainty:** We are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect.

**Moderate certainty:** We are moderately confident in the effect estimate: the true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different.

**Low certainty:** Our confidence in the effect estimate is limited: the true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect. **Very low certainty:** We have very little confidence in the effect estimate: the true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect.

*a*Downgraded two levels for very serious imprecision (few events and CI includes both appreciable benefit and harm) bDowngraded one level for study limitations (risk of detection and other bias)



## <span id="page-11-0"></span>**B A C K G R O U N D**

## **Description of the condition**

Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) refers to a group of lung diseases characterised by airflow obstruction that interferes with normal breathing (American Lung [Association](#page-28-0) 2013). Clinical diagnosis of COPD is considered in people who experience breathlessness, chronic cough or sputum production, with a history of exposure to known risk factors ([WHO 2021](#page-32-1)). Smoking and ambient particulate matter are the main risk factors for COPD ([GBD 2017](#page-29-0)). Confirmation of COPD requires spirometry to demonstrate persistent airflow limitation according to the criterion of a postbronchodilator forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV<sub>1</sub>)/forced vital capacity (FVC) ratio of less than 0.7 ([GOLD 2021\)](#page-29-1).

There were an estimated 3.17 million COPD-related deaths, accounting for 5% of total deaths globally, in 2015 ([WHO 2021\)](#page-32-1). According to the Global Burden of Disease (GBD) study, 251 million people had COPD worldwide in 2016, and it caused 2.6% of disability-adjusted life years in 2015 alone [\(GBD 2017](#page-29-0)). In 2016, chronic respiratory diseases contributed to 8.96% of worldwide non-communicable disease deaths, of which 2.93 million deaths were due to COPD ([Ngahavi](#page-31-0) 2017). In the 1990s, COPD was the sixth leading cause of death; it has become the fourth leading cause since 2000 and is the third leading cause of death worldwide, causing 3.23 million deaths in 2019 ([GOLD 2021](#page-29-1); [Lopez-Campos](#page-30-0) [2016](#page-30-0); [WHO 2020](#page-32-2)). The principal causes of death in people with mild to moderate COPD are lung cancer(26.5%) and cardiovascular disease (21.6%), while acute respiratory failure (25.8%) is the main cause of death in people with very severe COPD, based on the analysis of 2826 deaths in 13 Spanish centres ([Soto-Campos](#page-31-1) 2013). Morbidity due to COPD is also high worldwide, with 29.4 million years lost due to disability in 2015 [\(Lopez-Campos](#page-30-0) 2016).

The chronic and progressive course of COPD is often punctuated by episodes of exacerbations. Exacerbations are defined as "an acute worsening of respiratory symptoms that result in additional therapy" ([GOLD 2021;](#page-29-1) [O'Donnell 2006;](#page-31-2) [Wedzicha 2017](#page-32-3)). COPD exacerbations are more frequent in the winter months for people living in temperate climates [\(Jenkins 2012](#page-30-1)), and are mainly triggered by respiratory infections ([Wedzicha 2007](#page-32-4)). Other noninfective causes, such as air pollution and pulmonary embolus, can also trigger the exacerbations ([Celli 2007\)](#page-28-1). People experience worsening symptoms, including breathlessness or cough with increased sputum volume or purulence, and require increased use of maintenance medications. Mild exacerbations can be treated with short-acting bronchodilators only, whereas more severe exacerbations require the addition of a course of systemic steroids or antibiotics, hospitalisation or an emergency room visit ([GOLD 2021](#page-29-1)). These exacerbations, especially when frequent, can compromise quality of life ([Connors](#page-29-2) 1996; [David 2012](#page-29-3); [Miravitlles](#page-31-3) 2004; [Seemungal](#page-31-4) 1998; [Spencer](#page-31-5) 2001), accelerate lung function decline (Anzueto 2009; [Celli 2008](#page-29-4); [Donaldson 2002\)](#page-29-5), reduce physical capacity [\(Donaldson 2005;](#page-29-6) Pitta [2006](#page-31-6)), result in hospital admissions [\(Mullerova](#page-31-7) 2015), and increase mortality ([Almagro](#page-28-3) [2002](#page-28-3); [Groenewegen](#page-30-2) 2003; [Soler-Cataluna](#page-31-8) 2005). In addition, severe COPD exacerbations that require hospital admission exert a direct and independent effect on survival, with a reported mortality rate of 50% within five years, similar to an oncologic mortality rate [\(Garcia-Aymerich](#page-29-7) 2011; [Nannini 2012](#page-31-9)).

Acute COPD exacerbations are reported to be more frequent in people with severe disease, with an annual exacerbation frequency of 3.43, compared with 2.68 for those with moderate disease [\(Anzueto](#page-28-4) 2010). Similarly, in the ECLIPSE (Evaluation of COPD Longitudinally to Identify Predictive Surrogate End-points) study, exacerbation rates in the first year of follow-up were 0.85, 1.34 and 2.00 per person for people with GOLD (Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease) stage 2, 3 and 4, respectively, while 22%, 33% and 47% were reported to have two or more exacerbations over the same period ([Hurst](#page-30-3) 2010). However, most of the COPD exacerbation data have been estimated in populations with moderate to severe COPD requiring hospital care, thus leading to the possibility of a higher number of less severe forms being under-diagnosed ([Borrell](#page-28-5) 2009).

## **Description of the intervention**

Magnesium is the second most common intracellular cation in the body, found principally in bone (53%), muscle (27%) and soft tissues (19%); less than  $1\%$  of total body magnesium is present in the blood ([Elin 1988](#page-29-8); [Fawcett](#page-29-9) 1999). It is involved in many biological actions, such as energy production, glycolysis (breakdown of glucose), synthesis of nucleic acids and proteins, transmembrane ion flux, regulation of adenylate cyclase, muscle contraction and neuronal activity [\(Costello](#page-29-10) 2016; [Grober](#page-29-11) 2015; [Romani](#page-31-10) 2013). It acts as aphysiological calciumchannel antagonist, stimulates prostacyclin and nitric oxide production, and diminishes vascular reactivity to a variety of pressor agents (drugs to increase blood pressure) ([Fawcett](#page-29-9) 1999; [Laires](#page-30-4) 2004). Magnesium prevents calcium ion movement into vascular and bronchial smooth muscle cells via voltage-dependent calcium channels, so it is believed to play a major role in vasodilatation and bronchodilatation [\(Gourgoulianis](#page-29-12) 2001; Kew [2014;](#page-30-5) [Spivey](#page-32-5) 1990). Magnesium also inhibits the release of acetylcholine from cholinergic nerve endings and histamine from mast cells, leading to possible anticholinergic and antihistamine effects [\(Del-Castillo](#page-29-13) 1954). Furthermore, some evidence suggests that magnesium may reduce the neutrophilic burst of inflammatory response with a possible beneficial anti-inflammatory effect ([Cairns 1996\)](#page-28-6).

Recent clinical guidelines advise that a single dose of intravenous magnesium sulfate can be considered for adults with severe lifethreatening asthma exacerbations, adults and children who fail to respond to initial treatment with persistent hypoxaemia, and children who fail to achieve 60% of predicted FEV<sub>1</sub> value after one hour of care. The recommended dosage of intravenous magnesium sulfate for adults is 1.2 g to 2 g, delivered by infusion over 20 minutes [\(BTS/SIGN](#page-28-7) 2019; [GINA 2018\)](#page-29-14). However, routine use of magnesium sulfate in acute exacerbations of asthma is not recommended [\(GINA](#page-29-14) [2018\)](#page-29-14). Similarly, nebulised magnesium sulfate is not routinely recommended for adults with acute asthma or children with mild to moderate asthma attacks, although 150 mg of nebulised magnesium sulfate can be considered as an adjunct to nebulised salbutamol and ipratropium in the first hour for children with severe asthma exacerbations ([BTS/SIGN](#page-28-7) 2019).

#### **How the intervention might work**

The characteristic response in COPD exacerbations is increased airway inflammation, hyperinflation and gas trapping, with reduced expiratory flow accounting for increased breathlessness. Treatment of acute exacerbation of COPD aims to minimise the negative impact of the episode and prevent subsequent events.

The current guidelines recommend the use of short-acting beta $_2$ agonists (SABA), muscarinic antagonists, systemic corticosteroids, antibiotics and non-invasive ventilation for COPD exacerbations [\(GOLD 2021](#page-29-1)).

Magnesium sulfate may have potential benefits as an adjunct therapy in acute exacerbations of COPD. This is because low serum magnesium levels are reported to be associated with an increased risk of exacerbation in people with COPD, according to a retrospective study ([Aziz 2005\)](#page-28-8), and a small prospective study ([Gumus 2014](#page-30-6)). Moreover, studies have reported that hypomagnesaemia (low serum magnesium level) is an independent predictor of frequent readmission for acute exacerbations of COPD ([Bhatt](#page-28-9) 2008), or exacerbation frequency in people with COPD ([Gumus 2014](#page-30-6)).

Intravenous magnesium sulfate, in addition to bronchodilators, reduces hospital admissions and improves lung function when the response to bronchodilators during acute asthma exacerbations is inadequate (Kew [2014](#page-30-5); [Rowe](#page-31-11) 2000). However, evidence for the use of inhaled magnesium sulfate during acute exacerbations of asthma, either alone or in addition to bronchodilators, does not demonstrate clinically important benefits, and further trials are needed to establish its usefulness ([Knightly 2017\)](#page-30-7).

Over the past few years, there has been a marked interest in a subset of people with airways disease who have features of both asthma and COPD, known as asthma-COPD overlap (ACO) ([Cosio](#page-29-15) [2018](#page-29-15)). People with asthma who smoke are reported to have more symptoms than people with asthma who do not smoke [\(Leung](#page-30-8) [2017](#page-30-8)). In the absence of a standard definition for ACO diagnosis, the prevalence estimates vary from 3.2% in the USA [\(Kumbhare](#page-30-9) [2016](#page-30-9)), to 11.1% in Italy [\(Sorino 2016](#page-31-12)). The prevalence of ACO ranges from 6% to 55% in cohorts of people with COPD, and from 10% to 31% in cohorts of people with asthma [\(Leung](#page-30-8) 2017). People with ACO have more severe and frequent exacerbations, and have thicker airway walls than people with COPD alone [\(Hardin](#page-30-10) 2014), leading to more hospitalisations and emergency department visits ([Kumbhare](#page-30-9) 2016). Furthermore, they have a significantly lower quality of life [\(Kauppi 2011](#page-30-11)), a more rapid decline in lung function ([Lange](#page-30-12) 2016), higher disease burden (including respiratory symptoms and activity limitation) ([Hines 2017\)](#page-30-13), and a higher mortality rate compared to people with asthma or COPD alone [\(Gibson 2009;](#page-29-16) [Sorino 2016\)](#page-31-12). As some people with COPD may also have asthmatic features, it is reasonable to assume there may be some benefits of magnesium sulfate for acute exacerbations of COPD, as well as for acute asthma. Moreover, bronchodilatation ([Spivey](#page-32-5) 1990), anticholinergic ([Del-Castillo](#page-29-13) 1954) and anti-inflammatory properties of magnesium ([Cairns 1996\)](#page-28-6) could lead to potential therapeutic effects for acute exacerbations of COPD.

### **Why it is important to do this review**

Exacerbations play a major role in the morbidity and mortality of people with COPD, resulting in a significant health burden. Therefore, a potentially effective add-on treatment would be useful for people with COPD and healthcare providers. The potential clinical benefits of intravenous or nebulised magnesium sulfate for acute exacerbations of COPD have been studied; however, published studies have found conflicting and inconclusive results for its effectiveness. A non-Cochrane systematic review on magnesium sulfate reported that it appeared

to potentiate the bronchodilatory effect of inhaled beta $_2$ -agonists,  $_3$ but did not find differences in dyspnoea scores, hospital admission rates, or emergency department readmission rates, compared to placebo [\(Shivanthan](#page-31-13) 2014). Another recent review demonstrated a reduction in hospital admissions in people with COPD exacerbations receiving magnesium sulfate infusion [\(Jahangir 2022](#page-30-14)). Currently, standard guidelines do not recommend magnesium sulfate as a treatment for acute exacerbation of COPD, but it is nonetheless used by some clinicians in practice. Therefore, we would like to establish evidence regarding its usage as an adjunct treatment for acute exacerbations of COPD in people not responding to conventional measures, based on current available data from randomised controlled trials.

## <span id="page-12-0"></span>**O B J E C T I V E S**

To assess the effects of magnesium sulfate for acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in adults.

#### <span id="page-12-1"></span>**M E T H O D S**

#### **Criteria for considering studies for this review**

## **Types of studies**

We included randomised controlled trials (RCTs) with a parallelgroup design, regardless of the language in which they were published. We included studies reported in full text, those published as an abstract only and unpublished data. We excluded studies with a cross-over design, due to the carry-over effects of the intervention.

### **Types of participants**

We included adults aged 35 years and over with acute exacerbations of COPD (defined as a worsening of a previously stable condition with increasing respiratory symptoms, particularly dyspnoea, cough, sputum production and increased sputum purulence). We included studies where diagnosis of COPD was physician-diagnosed or guideline-based, according to the criteria of the Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease (GOLD) [\(GOLD 2021\)](#page-29-1), the American Thoracic Society (ATS) and European Respiratory Society (ERS) ([ATS/ERS](#page-28-10) 2011), the Thoracic Society of Australia and New Zealand (TSANZ) (Yang [2019\)](#page-32-6), or the UK National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) [\(NICE 2019\)](#page-31-14).

We planned to include trials that assessed participants with mixed COPD and asthma features (asthma-COPD overlap, ACO), based on the consensus published by the Global Initiative for Asthma (GINA) and GOLD ([GOLD](#page-29-17) ACO 2015), provided that the trials reported outcomes separately for the different participant groups. We excluded participants with the following comorbidities or characteristics: pneumothorax, bronchiectasis, cystic fibrosis, other chronic lung diseases or heart failure.

If we found trials in which only a subset of participants had a diagnosis of COPD, we had planned to include these participants if we could obtain disaggregated data from the trial authors. We also planned to include studies that recruited participants with other pulmonary diseases, provided the results of a subset of participants with COPD were available to extract separately. However, we did not encounter such studies.

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## **Types of interventions**

We included studies that compared magnesium sulfate (irrespective of dose and route of administration, such as intravenous or inhalation), as an adjunct to standard therapy for acute exacerbation of COPD.

We compared magnesium sulfate with standard therapy (ipratropium bromide), or with a placebo. We allowed standard therapy as co-interventions, provided that they were not part of the randomised treatment: e.g. systemic corticosteroids; antibiotics; short-acting bronchodilators, such as salbutamol or ipratropium bromide; mucolytics; intravenous aminophylline or oxygen therapy.

For intravenous magnesium sulfate, we studied the following comparisons.

- 1. Intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care
- 2. Intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care versus standard care

For inhaled/nebulised magnesium sulfate, we studied the following comparisons.

- 1. Inhaled magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care
- 2. Inhaled magnesium sulfate + standard care versus standard care

### **Types of outcome measures**

Primary and secondary outcomes of this review are as follows.

#### *Primary outcomes*

- 1. Proportion of people with hospital admissions (from the emergency room)
- 2. Proportion of people requiring non-invasive ventilation (NIV), assisted ventilation or admission to intensive-care unit (ICU)
- 3. Proportion of people with serious adverse events

#### *Secondary outcomes*

- 1. Length of hospital stay (inpatients) or time to emergency room discharge (outpatients)
- 2. Proportion of people with all-cause mortality
- 3. Proportion of people with adverse events/side effects
- 4. Arterial-blood gas measurements: arterial partial pressure of carbon dioxide (PaCO<sub>2</sub>), arterial partial pressure of oxygen (PaO<sub>2</sub>) and pH
- 5. Lung function measurements: forced expiratory volume in the first second (FEV $_1$ ), if available, or peak expiratory flow rate (PEFR) if the trial did not report  $FEV<sub>1</sub>$
- 6. Symptom scores measuring breathlessness, cough and sputum production using validated scales; e.g. Exacerbations of Chronic Pulmonary Disease Tool (EXACT) total score

Ifthe trial measured arterial-blood gas, lung function and symptom scores at multiple time points, we used the data at (or as close as possible to) 60 minutes postbaseline for meta-analysis. We chose this time point as we expected that most participants will have a response to treatment within an hour, and to maximise

the homogeneity of pooled results. Reporting one or more of the outcomes listed here in the study was not an inclusion criterion for the review.

## **Search methods for identification of studies**

#### **Electronic searches**

We identified studies from searches of the following databases and trial registries up to 2 August 2021, with no restriction on language or type of publication:

- 1. Cochrane Airways Trials Register ([Cochrane](#page-29-18) Airways 2019), via the Cochrane Register of Studies, all years to date;
- 2. Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL), via the Cochrane Register of Studies, all years to date;
- 3. MEDLINE OvidSP, 1946 to date;
- 4. Embase OvidSP, 1974 to date;
- 5. US National Institutes of Health Ongoing Trials Register ClinicalTrials.gov [\(www.clinicaltrials.gov\)](http://www.clinicaltrials.gov);
- 6. World Health Organization International Clinical Trials Registry Platform ([apps.who.int/trialsearch\)](http://apps.who.int/trialsearch);
- 7. EU Clinical Trials Register;
- 8. Iranian Registry of Clinical Trials.

The search strategies for each database are in [Appendix 1.](#page-63-1) The Cochrane Airways Information Specialist developed and conducted the searches, in collaboration with the authors. We followed the Cochrane guidance for developing search strategies and applying study design filters ([Lefebvre](#page-30-15) 2021).

Searches of the Cochrane Airways Trials Register and the CENTRAL database incorporated handsearched conference abstracts and grey literature.

#### **Searching other resources**

We checked the reference lists of all primary studies and review articles for additional references. We also searched on PubMed for errata or retractions from included studies published in full text, on 8 November 2021.

## **Data collection and analysis**

## **Selection of studies**

Two review authors (HN and SZA) screened the titles and abstracts of the search results independently, and coded them as 'retrieve' (eligible or potentially eligible/unclear) or 'do not retrieve'. We retrieved the full-text study reports of all potentially eligible studies, and two review authors (HN and SZA) independently screened them for inclusion, recording the reasons for exclusion of ineligible studies. We resolved any disagreement through discussion or, if required, we consulted a third review author (CN). We identified and excluded duplicates and collated multiple reports of the same study so that each study, rather than each report, is the unit of interest in the review. We recorded the selection process in sufficient detail to complete a PRISMA flow diagram and characteristics of excluded studies table ([Moher 2009\)](#page-31-15).

#### **Data extraction and management**

We used a data collection form for study characteristics and outcome data, which we used as a pilot on one study in the review.

Two review authors (HN and SZA) extracted the following study characteristics from the included studies.

- Methods: study design, total duration of study, details of any 'run-in' period, number of study centres and location, study setting, withdrawals and date of study.
- Participants: N, mean age, age range, gender, severity of condition, diagnostic criteria, baseline lung function, smoking history, inclusion criteria and exclusion criteria.
- Interventions: intervention, comparison, concomitant medications and excluded medications.
- Outcomes: primary and secondary outcomes specified and collected, and time points reported.
- Notes: funding for studies and notable conflicts of interest of trial authors.

Two review authors (HN and SZA) independently extracted outcome data from included studies. We added notes in the characteristics of included studies table if a trial did not report outcome data in a usable way. We resolved disagreements by consensus as well as by involving a third review author (CN). One review author (HN) transferred data into the Review Manager file (Review [Manager](#page-31-16) 2020) or [RevMan](#page-31-17) Web 2022. We doublechecked that we entered the data correctly by comparing the data presented in the systematic review with the study reports. A second review author (SZA) spot-checked study characteristics for accuracy against the study report.

### **Assessment of risk of bias in included studies**

Two review authors (HN and SZA) assessed risk of bias independently for each study, using the criteria outlined in the *CochraneHandbook for SystematicReviews ofInterventions* [\(Higgins](#page-30-16) [2021](#page-30-16)). We resolved any disagreements by discussion as well as by involving another author (CN). We assessed the risk of bias according to the following domains:

- 1. random sequence generation;
- 2. allocation concealment;
- 3. blinding of participants and personnel;
- 4. blinding of outcome assessment;
- 5. incomplete outcome data;
- 6. selective outcome reporting;
- 7. other bias.

We judged each potential source of bias as high, low or unclear, and provided a quote from the study report together with a justification for our judgement in the risk of bias table. We summarised the risk of bias judgements across different studies for each of the domains listed. We considered blinding separately for different key outcomes where necessary (e.g. for unblinded outcome assessment, risk of bias for all-cause mortality may be very different from a participant-reported pain scale). Where information on risk of bias related to unpublished data or correspondence with a trialist, we included a note in the risk of bias table.

When considering treatment effects, we took into account the risk of bias for the studies which contributed to that outcome.

#### *Assessment of bias in conducting the systematic review*

We conducted the review according to the published protocol and justified any deviations from it in the Differences between protocol and [review](#page-65-2) section of this systematic review.

#### **Measures of treatment effect**

We analysed dichotomous data as odds ratios (OR) and continuous data as the mean difference (MD) or standardised mean difference (SMD). For rare events, we used Peto ORs. When we combined data from rating scales in a meta-analysis, we ensured that we entered these with a consistent direction of effect (e.g. lower scores always indicate improvement).

We undertook meta-analyses only where this was meaningful; that is, if the treatments, participants and the underlying clinical question were similar enough for pooling to make sense.

We described skewed data narratively (for example, as medians and interquartile ranges for each group).

If a trial reported both change-from-baseline and endpoint scores for continuous data, we used change-from-baseline data. If a study reported outcomes at multiple time points, we used the data collected at or as close as possible to 60 minutes postbaseline.

We used intention-to-treat (ITT) or 'full analysis set' analyses where trials reported these (i.e. those where trialists had imputed data for participants who were randomly assigned, but did not complete the study), instead of completer or per-protocol analyses.

#### **Unit of analysis issues**

For dichotomous outcomes, we used participants, rather than events, as the unit of analysis (i.e. the number of participants with a hospital admission rather than the number of admissions per participant). We planned to analyse on the basis of events rather than participants if a trial reported rate ratios; however, none of the included studies in this review used rate ratios.

Where a single study reported multiple trial arms, we included only the relevant arms. If we combined two comparisons in the same meta-analysis (e.g. intravenous magnesium sulfate versus placebo and inhaled magnesium sulfate versus placebo), we halved the control group to avoid double-counting.

#### **Dealing with missing data**

We contacted investigators or study sponsors in order to verify key study characteristics and obtain missing numerical outcome data where possible (e.g. when we only identified a study as an abstract). Where this was not possible, and we thought the missing data could introduce serious bias, we took this into consideration in theGRADE rating for affected outcomes.

#### **Assessment of heterogeneity**

We used the I<sup>2</sup> statistic to measure heterogeneity among the studies in each analysis, and interpreted this following [Higgins 2021](#page-30-16), as:

- 0% to 40%: might not be important;
- 30% to 60%: may represent moderate heterogeneity;
- 50% to 90%: may represent substantial heterogeneity;
- 75% to 100%: considerable heterogeneity.

When we identified substantial heterogeneity ( $1^2$  > 50%), we reported it and explored the possible causes by prespecified subgroup analysis.

### **Assessment of reporting biases**

We planned to create and examine a funnel plot to explore possible small study and publication biases if we were able to pool more than 10 studies [\(Higgins 2021\)](#page-30-16). Though we identified 11 included studies, most analyses in this review included only one or two studies.

### **Data synthesis**

We used a random-effects model, and performed a sensitivity analysis with a fixed-effect model. As we gathered data from a series of studies performed by different researchers operating independently, the studies were not all functionally equivalent with a common effect estimate. Therefore, the random-effects model was more justified than the fixed-effect model. We used a fixedeffect model for analyses using the Peto OR method as it required this type of model.

## **Subgroup analysis and investigation of heterogeneity**

We had planned to carry out the following subgroup analyses:

- 1. concomitant treatment with systemic corticosteroids (yes versus no);
- 2. blood eosinophil count ( $\geq$  300/ $\mu$ L versus < 300/ $\mu$ L);
- 3. COPD versus asthma-COPD overlap

In each subgroup analysis, we had planned to use the following outcomes:

- 1. need for admission to hospital (from the emergency department);
- 2. need for NIV, assisted ventilation or admission to ICU;
- 3. length of hospital stay (inpatients) or time to emergency room discharge (outpatients).

However, we were unable to carry out subgroup analyses as none of the included trials reported data separately for the planned subgroups.

### **Sensitivity analysis**

We included all trials, irrespective of risk of bias, in the primary analysis.

We had planned to carry out the following sensitivity analyses for the primary outcomes:

- 1. removing studies with unclear or high risk of performance or detection bias due to lack of appropriate blinding;
- 2. comparing the results from inclusion and exclusion of imputed data values;

3. comparing the results from a fixed-effect model with those from a random-effects model.

However, we did not carry out these sensitivity analyses as they were not applicable for this review.

## **Summary of findings and assessment of the certainty of the evidence**

We created three summary of findings tables, one for each comparison, using the following outcomes:

- 1. proportion of people with hospital admissions (from the emergency room);
- 2. proportion of people requiring non-invasive ventilation, endotracheal intubation, ventilatory support (NIV or assisted ventilation) or ICU admission;
- 3. proportion of people with serious adverse events;
- 4. length of hospital stay;
- 5. change in oxygen saturation (SaO<sub>2</sub>/SpO<sub>2</sub>);
- 6. change in dyspnoea score;
- 7. lung function: FEV1 at 60 min.

We used the five GRADE considerations (risk of bias, consistency of effect, imprecision, indirectness and publication bias) to assess the quality of the body of evidence in relation to the studies that contributed data for the prespecified outcomes. We used the methods and recommendations described in Chapter 14 of the *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* [\(Schünemann 2021](#page-31-18)), using GRADEpro software [\(GRADEpro](#page-29-19) GDT). We justified all decisions to downgrade the quality of studies using footnotes, and made comments to aid the reader's understanding of the review where necessary.

## <span id="page-15-0"></span>**R E S U L T S**

## **Description of studies**

Refer to [Characteristics](#page-32-7) of included studies; [Characteristics](#page-50-0) of [excluded](#page-50-0) studies and [Characteristics](#page-51-0) of ongoing studies for details.

#### **Results of the search**

We performed an initial search of the databases (Cochrane Airways Group Register of trials, CENTRAL, MEDLINE, Embase, ClinicalTrials.gov, WHO ICTRP) in December 2019, an updated search in April 2021, and authors updated the search in August 2021. We also searched the reference lists of all primary studies and reviewarticles. From the search,we identified a total of 376 records, of which 127 were duplicates. We screened the titles and abstracts ofthe remaining 249 records, out of which we excluded 207 reports. We assessed 42 full-text articles for eligibility and excluded 18 studies (23 references). One trial was ongoing, and 11 studies (18 references) met the inclusion criteria of our review. For details of the search results, see [Figure](#page-16-0) 1.



## <span id="page-16-0"></span>**Figure 1. Study flow diagram**





## **Figure 1. (Continued)**



#### **Included studies**

For details, see [Characteristics](#page-32-7) of included studies and [Table](#page-61-1) 1.

#### *Study Design*

Ten included studies were double-blind randomised controlled trials that assessed magnesium sulfate in COPD exacerbations, while one study was a single-blind RCT ([Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021). Eight studies were single-centre trials [\(Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021; [Comert 2016](#page-26-2); [Hogg 2004](#page-26-3); [Jahanian 2021;](#page-26-4) [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021; [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015; [Pishbin](#page-26-7) [2018](#page-26-7); [Solooki 2014\)](#page-27-0). These were conducted in Iran ([Jahanian 2021](#page-26-4); [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021; [Pishbin 2018;](#page-26-7) [Solooki 2014\)](#page-27-0), New Zealand ([Mukerji](#page-26-6) [2015](#page-26-6)), Nepal [\(Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021), Turkey ([Comert 2016\)](#page-26-2) and the UK [\(Hogg 2004](#page-26-3)). The other three trials were conducted at two centres in New Zealand [\(Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013), Tunisia ([Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014), and the USA [\(Skorodin](#page-26-10) 1995). The dates of study were not available forfourtrials [\(Hogg 2004](#page-26-3); [Pishbin 2018;](#page-26-7) [Skorodin](#page-26-10) 1995; [Solooki 2014\)](#page-27-0), while the other studies were performed between 2004 and 2018.

## *Participants*

The studies randomised a total of 762 participants; [Bajracharya](#page-26-1) [2021](#page-26-1) was the largest trial with 172 participants, while [Comert](#page-26-2) [2016](#page-26-2) was the smallest with only 20 participants. The studies included male and female adult participants over 35 years old, with a mean age range from 62 to 76 years. Participants had clinically diagnosed COPD and presented with an exacerbation, precipitated by either infection or non-infective causes. Definitions for acute exacerbations were mentioned in four studies [\(Comert](#page-26-2) [2016](#page-26-2); [Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013; [Jahanian 2021;](#page-26-4) [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014), while othertrials did not specify these (refer to [Characteristics](#page-32-7) of included studies for details). Participants presenting to the emergency department were included in all trials except [Hogg 2004,](#page-26-3) which included hospital inpatients. None of the trials classified the severity of COPD exacerbations.

### *Interventions*

Seven trials assessed intravenous magnesium sulfate infusion plus standard care versus placebo plus standard care [\(Hogg 2004](#page-26-3); [Jahanian 2021](#page-26-4); [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021; [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015; [Pishbin 2018](#page-26-7); [Skorodin](#page-26-10) [1995](#page-26-10); [Solooki 2014\)](#page-27-0). Three trials studied nebulised magnesium sulfate plus standard care versus placebo plus standard care [\(Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021; [Comert 2016;](#page-26-2) [Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013). [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014 studied nebulised magnesium sulfate plus intravenous magnesium sulfate versus nebulised ipratropium bromide plus intravenous normal saline. Participants in all trials received standard initial

treatment before allocation to intervention arms. The standard care included supplemental oxygen via nasal cannula, nebulised salbutamol or ipratropium bromide, or both. In eight trials they also received systemic corticosteroids ([Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021; [Comert 2016;](#page-26-2) [Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013; [Jahanian 2021;](#page-26-4) [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021; [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015; [Nouira](#page-26-9) [2014;](#page-26-9) [Solooki 2014\)](#page-27-0). Participants in four studies received antibiotics [\(Comert 2016](#page-26-2); [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021; [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014; [Solooki 2014](#page-27-0)).

The dose of magnesium sulfate was 1.2 to 2.0 g infused over 20 minutes, except in [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021 where 2.5 g was infused over 15 minutes. For inhaled magnesium sulfate, the dose administered was 150 mg per dose. Magnesium was administered 20 minutes after initial standard treatment with no improvement in lung function in four trials ([Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021; [Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013; [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021; [Skorodin](#page-26-10) 1995). It was administered concurrently or immediately after the standard therapy in three trials ([Mukerji](#page-26-6) [2015;](#page-26-6) [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014; [Solooki 2014\)](#page-27-0). [Jahanian 2021](#page-26-4) reported that magnesium was given within the first 60 minutes of standard therapy. There was no information on timing of magnesium administration in the remaining three studies [\(Comert 2016;](#page-26-2) [Hogg](#page-26-3) [2004;](#page-26-3) [Pishbin 2018](#page-26-7)).

#### *Comparison*

With the exception of [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014, all trials compared intervention to placebo, with both arms receiving standard care. [Nouira](#page-26-9) [2014](#page-26-9) compared magnesium sulfate (both nebulised and IV) with nebulised ipratropium bromide and IV normal saline.

#### *Primary outcomes*

Four trials reported the proportion of participants who needed hospital admission [\(Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013; [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015; [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014; [Skorodin](#page-26-10) 1995), and five reported the proportion of participants who need NIV, mechanical ventilation or ICU admission as one of their outcomes [\(Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021; [Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013; [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021; [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015; [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014).

#### *Secondary outcomes*

Length of hospital stay was reported in four trials [\(Hogg 2004;](#page-26-3) [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015; [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014; [Solooki 2014](#page-27-0)), while only two studies reported hospital death rate ([Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021; [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014). Arterial blood gas was one of the outcomes in four trials ([Comert](#page-26-2) [2016;](#page-26-2) [Jahanian 2021](#page-26-4); [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014; [Solooki 2014\)](#page-27-0). Most trials measured lung function as a primary outcome; five trials reported FEV<sub>1</sub> [\(Comert 2016](#page-26-2); [Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013; [Jahanian 2021;](#page-26-4) [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015; [Solooki 2014](#page-27-0)); and six reported PEFR ([Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021; [Comert](#page-26-2)

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[2016](#page-26-2); [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021; [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014; [Skorodin](#page-26-10) 1995; [Solooki 2014.](#page-27-0) The trials measured dyspnoea score in various ways: a visual analogue scale (VAS) dyspnoea score ([Comert 2016\)](#page-26-2); Borg dyspnoea score [\(Hogg 2004;](#page-26-3) [Jahanian 2021\)](#page-26-4); dyspnoea severity score (DSS) score [\(Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021) and unspecified ([Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014; [Skorodin](#page-26-10) 1995).

#### *Funding*

Included studies were funded by the researcher [\(Comert 2016\)](#page-26-2), affiliated universities [\(Jahanian 2021;](#page-26-4) [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021; [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014), or local health councils [\(Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013; [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015; [Skorodin](#page-26-10) [1995](#page-26-10)). There was no information on funding for the other four trials [\(Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021; [Hogg 2004](#page-26-3); [Pishbin 2018](#page-26-7); [Solooki 2014](#page-27-0)).

## **Excluded studies**

We excluded a total of 18 trials during the full-text review; six trials assessed the effect of magnesium in people with

stable COPD [\(ACTRN12608000502336;](#page-27-1) [Ahmed 2020](#page-27-2); [Amaral](#page-27-3) 2012; [NCT01118936](#page-27-4) 2010; [NCT02680769](#page-28-11) 2016; [Tagaya](#page-28-12) 2004), five studies were not RCTs ([CTRI/2018/01/011354](#page-27-5) 2018; [CTRI/2018/04/013309](#page-27-6) [2018;](#page-27-6) [Jenner 2004](#page-27-7); [Schenk 2001;](#page-28-13) [Sternfeld](#page-28-14) 1994), two trials were withdrawn [\(ISRCTN65174202](#page-27-8) 2006; [NCT02498496](#page-28-15) 2015), another two were of cross-over design [\(Abreu](#page-27-9) 2006; [Marino 1999\)](#page-27-10), one studied magnesium aspartate ([Friemann](#page-27-11) 1991), one trial had no magnesium monotherapy arm [\(Skorodin](#page-28-16) 1998), and another study assessed inhaled magnesium sulfate versus alpha chymotrypsin atomisation inhalation (Fan [2015\)](#page-27-12). See [Characteristics](#page-50-0) of excluded [studies](#page-50-0) for details.

## **Risk of bias in included studies**

Refer to [Figure](#page-19-0) 2 for an overview of risk of bias assessment for the included studies. Support for judgements for individual domains are presented in [Characteristics](#page-32-7) of included studies tables.



<span id="page-19-0"></span>

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### **Allocation**

Of the 11 included studies, we judged five to be of low risk of bias for random sequence generation ([Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013; [Jahanian](#page-26-4) [2021](#page-26-4); [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021; [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015; [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014); the remaining six studies had an unclear risk for this domain due to limited information about how the randomisation process was performed. Six studies reported allocation concealment methods ([Bajracharya](#page-26-1) [2021](#page-26-1); [Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013; [Jahanian 2021](#page-26-4); [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021; [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015; [Skorodin](#page-26-10) 1995). The other trials gave no further information, so we judged them to have an unclear risk for this domain.

#### **Blinding**

Ten included studies were double-blind RCTs, where participants and investigators were unaware of the intervention arm they were involved in (performance bias). However, only seven trials reported detailed process of blinding with low risk of performance bias. [Solooki 2014](#page-27-0) did not provide details, while [Hogg 2004](#page-26-3) and [Pishbin](#page-26-7) [2018](#page-26-7) were available as abstracts only, and we judged these to be at unclear risk. [Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021 was a single-blind study where the investigator was aware of the assignment; we judged this to be of high risk. Blinding of outcome assessors (detection bias) was at low risk of bias for four studies [\(Comert 2016;](#page-26-2) [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021; [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015; [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014), and unclear for seven studies due to limited information [\(Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021; [Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013; [Hogg 2004](#page-26-3); [Jahanian 2021](#page-26-4); [Pishbin 2018;](#page-26-7) [Skorodin](#page-26-10) 1995; [Solooki 2014\)](#page-27-0).

#### **Incomplete outcome data**

We rated eight studies to have a low risk of attrition bias: six studies had no dropouts ([Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021; [Comert 2016;](#page-26-2) [Jahanian](#page-26-4) [2021](#page-26-4); [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014; [Skorodin](#page-26-10) 1995; [Solooki 2014](#page-27-0)), and two had a low attrition rate ([Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013; [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015). We considered the remaining three studies to be at unclear risk due to limited information ([Hogg 2004;](#page-26-3) [Pishbin 2018](#page-26-7)), or no details about the breakdown of dropouts across the intervention arms though the total number lost to follow-up was reported [\(Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021).

#### **Selective reporting**

Three studies had a low risk of bias for selective reporting because the trial protocol was available on registries and all outcomes were reported as planned ([Jahanian 2021;](#page-26-4) [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021; [Mukerji](#page-26-6) [2015](#page-26-6)). We considered the other studies to be at unclear risk for reporting bias for various reasons: trial could not be identified on registry websites [\(Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021; [Comert 2016](#page-26-2); [Skorodin](#page-26-10) 1995; [Solooki 2014](#page-27-0)); only available as abstract ([Hogg 2004](#page-26-3); [Pishbin 2018\)](#page-26-7); registered on website with no outcomes provided in the protocol [\(Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014); and failed to report one ofthe outcomes stated in the trial protocol on the registry website ([Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013).

#### **Other potential sources of bias**

We assumed that the risk of other bias was likely to be high for [Hogg 2004](#page-26-3) and [Pishbin 2018,](#page-26-7) as there were no full-text publications available and the reason for not publishing was not clear. We did not identify any other potential sources of bias for the remaining studies

#### **E5ects of interventions**

See: **Summary of findings 1** [Intravenous](#page-6-1) magnesium sulfate + standard care [compared](#page-6-1) to placebo + standard care for acute [exacerbations](#page-6-1) of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; **Summary of findings 2** Nebulised [magnesium](#page-7-0) sulfate + standard

care compared to placebo + standard care for acute [exacerbations](#page-7-0) of chronic [obstructive](#page-7-0) pulmonary disease; **[Summary](#page-9-0) of findings 3** Magnesium sulfate compared to standard care [\(ipratropium](#page-9-0) bromide) for acute [exacerbations](#page-9-0) of chronic obstructive pulmonary [disease](#page-9-0)

See [Summary](#page-6-1) of findings 1; [Summary](#page-7-0) of findings 2 and [Summary](#page-9-0) [of findings 3.](#page-9-0)

#### **1. Intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care compared to placebo + standard care**

#### *Proportion of people with hospital admissions (from the emergency room)*

Three studies (170 participants) reported the number of participants who needed hospital admission from the emergency room. The result of the analysis suggests a reduction in hospitalisation with intravenous magnesium sulfate compared to placebo (OR 0.45, 95% CI 0.23 to 0.88;  $1^2 = 0\%$ ; [Analysis 1.1](#page-53-0)). In absolute terms, there was a reduction of 197 participants per 1000 with magnesium sulfate infusion compared to placebo for hospital admissions (95% CI 31 lower to 342 lower); the number needed to treat for an additional beneficial outcome (NNTB) is seven. Using GRADE, we judged the certainty of the evidence to be low due to serious concerns about study limitations and imprecision due to few events.

#### *Proportion of people needing non-invasive ventilation, assisted ventilation or admission to intensive care unit*

The need for NIV and endotracheal intubation was reported by [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021and [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015, but no trial assessed ICU admission. The pooled analysis for NIV indicated no evidence of a difference between magnesium and placebo arms (OR 0.74, 95% CI 0.31 to 1.75;  $1^2$  = 0%; [Analysis 1.2\)](#page-54-0). We graded the level of certainty as very low due to concerns over study limitations and imprecision. There were no people who needed endotracheal intubation in either the magnesium or placebo groups in either of the studies (107 participants).

#### *Proportion of people with serious adverse events*

There were no reported serious adverse events for magnesium and placebo groups in [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021 (77 participants). Other trials did not assess this outcome.

## *Length of hospital stay (inpatients) or time to emergency room discharge (outpatients)*

Two trials (54 participants) reported on the length of hospital stay for inpatients [\(Hogg 2004](#page-26-3); [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015), but no study assessed time to discharge from the emergency room. There was a mean difference in favour of magnesium infusion of -2.70 days (95% CI -4.73 to -0.66;  $I^2 = 0\%$ ; [Analysis 1.3](#page-54-1)). Using GRADE, we downgraded the certainty of evidence by two levels to low due to concerns over study limitations [\(Hogg 2004](#page-26-3) is available as abstract only) and imprecision (few events).

#### *Proportion of people with all-cause mortality*

No study reported this outcome.

#### **Proportion of people with adverse events/side effects**

[Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015 and [Skorodin](#page-26-10) 1995 reported on adverse events, with no adverse events in the magnesium group in either of the trials. However, four participants in the placebo arm reported adverse events; one had a flushing feeling in the hands and face ([Mukerji](#page-26-6) [2015](#page-26-6)), and three experienced nausea and weakness, dizziness and increased secretions ([Skorodin](#page-26-10) 1995). Though the Peto odds ratio was 0.14 (95% CI 0.02 to 1.00;  $l^2$  = 0%; 102 participants; [Analysis](#page-54-2) [1.4\)](#page-54-2), the small number of participants and low event rate limit our confidence in conclusions.

#### *Arterial-blood gas measurements*

No study measured arterial-blood gas (ABG) values. However, [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021 (77 participants) reported the change in oxygen saturation (SaO<sub>2</sub>). [Jahanian 2021](#page-26-4) <mark>also assessed oxygen saturation</mark> before and 45 minutes after the intervention, but change from baseline data values were not available to be included in the analysis. The mean difference was 0.32% (95% CI -1.53 to 2.17; [Analysis 1.5](#page-54-3)), indicating little to no difference between the groups. We graded the certainty of evidence as very low due to concerns over study limitations and very serious imprecision (few events and the confidence interval includes both appreciable benefit and appreciable harm).

#### *Lung function measurements*

[Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015 assessed change from baseline in  $FEV<sub>1</sub>$  at 60 minutes, whereas [Jahanian 2021](#page-26-4) reported post-intervention  $\mathsf{FEV}_1$  at 45 minutes. Two studies measured PEFR in L/min ([Skorodin](#page-26-10) 1995; [Solooki 2014\)](#page-27-0), and [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021 reported change in PEFR as percentage of predicted value.

There was a mean difference of 0.00 L (95% CI -0.04 to 0.05) for change in  $FEV_1$  at 60 minutes, indicating no evidence of a difference between the interventions ([Analysis 1.6\)](#page-55-0). Using GRADE, we downgraded the certainty of evidence two levels to low due to very serious imprecision as the confidence interval includes both appreciable benefit and appreciable harm and few events.

Post-intervention  $FEV_1$  was not different between intravenous magnesium and placebo at 45 minutes (MD 2.10 mL, 95% CI -0.89 to 5.09; [Analysis 1.7](#page-55-1)).

Similarly, no evidence of a difference was noted between magnesium and placebo for the change in PEFR (MD 9.12 L/min, 95% CI -6.20 to 24.44; I 2 = 56%; 102 participants; [Analysis 1.8\)](#page-55-2). However, for the change in PEFR % predicted, there was a mean difference of 10.64 % predicted (95% CI 8.38 to 12.90), in favour of magnesium sulfate infusion ([Analysis 1.9](#page-55-3)).

## *Symptom scores measuring breathlessness, cough and sputum production using validated scales*

Symptom score was measured in three trials using different validated scales; DSS score in [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021, and Borg dyspnoea score in [Hogg 2004](#page-26-3); [Jahanian 2021.](#page-26-4) Data for change in dyspnoea score from baseline for individual intervention arms was not available for [Jahanian 2021](#page-26-4) so we could not include it in the analysis. There was a reduction in dyspnoea score, with a standardised mean difference of -1.40 (95% CI -1.83 to -0.96;  $1^2$  = 0%; 101 participants; [Analysis 1.10\)](#page-56-0), indicating a difference in favour of magnesium infusion. We graded the level of certainty for this as low due to concerns over study limitations and imprecision (few events).

#### **2. Nebulised magnesium sulfate + standard care compared to placebo + standard care**

#### *Proportion of people with hospital admissions (from the emergency room)*

[Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013 reported hospital admissions in 109 participants. There was little to no difference between the groups (OR 0.77, 95% CI 0.21 to 2.82). We graded the certainty of evidence as very low due to concerns over study limitations and very serious imprecision as the confidence interval includes both appreciable benefit and appreciable harm ([Analysis 2.1](#page-57-0)).

#### *Proportion of people needing non-invasive ventilation, assisted ventilation or admission to intensive care unit*

Two studies reported ICU admissions ([Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021; [Edwards](#page-26-8) [2013\)](#page-26-8), with no events in the study by [Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013. With 281 participants, magnesium inhalation may be associated with fewer ICU admissions compared to placebo (OR 0.39, 95% CI 0.15 to 1.00; [Analysis 2.2\)](#page-57-1). However, the certainty of evidence was very low as the single-blinded study [Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021 had a high risk of performance bias, and there were few events.

There was little to no difference between nebulised magnesium and placebo in requirement for ventilatory support (either NIV or assisted ventilation) in [Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021 (OR 0.33, 95% CI 0.01 to 8.20; 172 participants; [Analysis 2.3](#page-57-2); very low-certainty evidence).

There were no reported cases of NIV requirement ([Comert](#page-26-2) [2016;](#page-26-2) [Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013; 129 participants) or endotracheal intubation [\(Comert 2016](#page-26-2), 20 participants) for magnesium and placebo groups.

#### *Proportion of people with serious adverse events*

There were no serious adverse events for magnesium and placebo groups [\(Comert 2016](#page-26-2), 20 participants).

#### *Length of hospital stay (inpatients) or time to emergency room discharge (outpatients)*

[Comert 2016](#page-26-2) reported length of hospital stay for inpatients, but no studies reported time to emergency room discharge for outpatients. There was little to no difference between magnesium and placebo groups for the length of hospital stay, with a mean difference of -0.80 days (95% CI -4.63 to 3.03; [Analysis 2.4](#page-57-3)). The certainty of evidence forthis outcome was very low due to concerns over study limitations and very serious imprecision (few events and the confidence interval includes both appreciable benefit and appreciable harm).

#### *Proportion of people with all-cause mortality*

[Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021 reported one death in the placebo arm and no deaths in the magnesium arm. However, the number of participants and the event rate are too small to reach a conclusion (OR 0.33, 95% CI 0.01 to 8.20; [Analysis 2.5](#page-58-0)). There was no report on this outcome in [Comert 2016](#page-26-2) and [Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013.

## **Proportion of people with adverse events/side effects**

There were no reported adverse events for either magnesium or placebo arms [\(Comert 2016;](#page-26-2) [Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013; 129 participants).



### *Lung function measurements:*

[Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013 reported  $FEV_1$  at 60 minutes for 109 participants. There was little to no difference between the groups, with a mean difference of -0.05 L (95% CI -0.17 to 0.07; [Analysis 2.6\)](#page-58-1). We graded the evidence as very low certainty due to study limitations and very serious imprecision (few events and the confidence interval includes both appreciable benefit and appreciable harm).

[Comert 2016](#page-26-2) reported change from baseline in PEFR at 60 minutes in 20 participants, with a mean difference of 7.60 L/min (95% CI -4.38 to 19.58) between magnesium and placebo groups, indicating little to no difference between the groups [\(Analysis 2.7\)](#page-58-2).

[Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021 assessed post-intervention PEFR at 60 minutes in 172 participants. Magnesium inhalation was associated with a higher PEFR compared to the placebo group, with a mean difference of 7.40 L/min (95% CI 1.81 to 12.99; [Analysis 2.8\)](#page-58-3). However, data were too limited for us to be able to reach a conclusion.

## *Symptom scores measuring breathlessness, cough and sputum production using validated scales*

[Comert 2016](#page-26-2) assessed improvement in symptoms using the VAS dyspnoea score in 20 participants, and revealed a mean difference in favour of nebulised magnesium of -14.37 points (95% CI -26.00 to -2.74; [Analysis 2.9\)](#page-58-4); the evidence had a very low level of certainty due to concerns over study limitations and small participant numbers. The effect estimate of 14.37 points lower is more than the minimal clinically important difference (MCID) of 10 units for the VAS dyspnoea score ([Ries 2005\)](#page-31-19). However, the numbers of participants and events were too small to reach a robust conclusion.

#### *Arterial-blood gas measurements:*

[Comert 2016](#page-26-2) reported change in  $SaO<sub>2</sub>$  in 20 participants, with a mean difference of -1.10 (95% CI -4.60 to 2.40), indicating little to no difference between magnesium and placebo [\(Analysis 2.10](#page-59-0)). We graded the certainty of evidence for this outcome as very low due to concerns over study limitations and very serious imprecision (few events and the confidence interval includes both appreciable benefit and appreciable harm).

#### **3. Magnesium sulfate compared to standard care (ipratropium bromide)**

## *Proportion of people with hospital admissions (from the emergency room)*

There was little to no difference between magnesium sulfate and ipratropium bromide for hospital admission (OR 1.62, 95% CI 0.78 to 3.37; [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014; 124 participants; [Analysis 3.1](#page-59-1)). The certainty of evidence for this outcome was very low due to very serious imprecision (the confidence interval includes both appreciable benefit and appreciable harm, and there were few events), as well as concerns over study limitations.

### *Proportion of people needing non-invasive ventilation, assisted ventilation or admission to intensive care unit*

[Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014 reported the need for endotracheal intubation in 124 participants. Analysis indicated little to no difference between the groups (OR 1.69, 95% CI 0.61 to 4.71; [Analysis 3.2](#page-60-0)). We graded the certainty of evidence for this outcome as very low due to very serious imprecision (the confidence interval includes both appreciable benefit and appreciable harm, and there were few events), as well as concerns over study limitations.

There was no report on non-invasive ventilation or admission to ICU.

#### *Proportion of people with serious adverse events*

There was no report on this outcome.

### *Length of hospital stay (inpatients) or time to emergency room discharge (outpatients)*

There was little to no difference in the length of hospital stay between the groups, with a mean difference of 1.10 days (95% CI -0.22 to 2.42; [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014; 124 participants; [Analysis 3.3\)](#page-60-1). The certainty of evidence for this outcome was very low due to very serious imprecision (the confidence interval includes both appreciable benefit and appreciable harm, and there were few events), as well as concerns over study limitations.

#### *Proportion of people with all-cause mortality*

There was little to no difference between magnesium and ipratropium in all-cause mortality (OR 0.51, 95% CI 0.05 to 4.97; [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014; 124 participants; [Analysis 3.4](#page-60-2)), but events were rare (1/62 in the magnesium arm and 2/62 in the control arm).

#### **Proportion of people with adverse events/side effects**

There was no report on this outcome.

#### *Arterial-blood gas measurements*

There was no report on this outcome.

#### *Lung function measurements*

Improvement in PEFR was reported, favouring ipratropium bromide with a mean difference of 32.00 L/min (95% CI 19.00 to 45.00; [Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014; 124 participants; [Analysis 3.5\)](#page-60-3). However, data were too limited for us to be able to reach a conclusion.

#### *Symptom scores measuring breathlessness, cough and sputum production using validated scales*

There was no report on this outcome.

#### <span id="page-22-0"></span>**D I S C U S S I O N**

This systematic review evaluated RCTs that assessed the effects of magnesium sulfate for acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in adults. We included a total of 11 RCTs (10 double-blind and one single-blind) conducted in Iran, New Zealand, Nepal, Turkey, the UK, Tunisia and the USA between 2004 and 2018. We judged these studies to be at low or unclear risk of bias for most of the domains. We considered three studies to be at high risk for blinding and other biases. There were a total of 762 participants, whose mean ages ranged from 62 to 76 years.

## **Summary of main results**

#### **Intravenous magnesium sulfate versus placebo**

We identified seven studies that assessed intravenous magnesium sulfate infusion versus placebo, with both arms receiving usual care. Low-certainty evidence from three trials indicates that a



smaller proportion of people required hospital admissions from the emergency room in the magnesium infusion group compared to the placebo group (170 participants, NNTB = 7). There was no clear difference in the need for non-invasive ventilation. None of the participants in either group required endotracheal intubation or ICU admission or experienced serious adverse events. From a pooled analysis of two trials, length of hospital stay was shorter with magnesium infusion than placebo in 54 participants; we graded this as low-certainty evidence. However, we could not be certain that the same benefit of reducing hospital admissions and the length of hospital stay would be observed in the larger population with COPD exacerbations.There was a lack of data on all-cause mortality. Two studies reported no adverse events in the magnesium group; however, four participants in the placebo arm reported adverse events, with no clinically important difference between the groups. No clear difference was observed for lung function between magnesium infusion and placebo, as measured by change from baseline in  $\mathsf{FEV}_1$  at 60 minutes, post-intervention  $FEV<sub>1</sub>$  and change from baseline PEFR at 45 minutes. In one trial, which reported change in PEFR as percentage predicted, magnesium infusion demonstrated a possible improvement compared to placebo. There was lowcertainty evidence indicating that magnesium infusion reduced dyspnoea score in two trials that used different tools (Borg score and DSS score). One other study assessed the Borg score, but the change from baseline score was not available for meta-analysis, which reduced our confidence in this finding. Magnesium infusion was no better than placebo in improving oxygen saturation.

### **Nebulised magnesium sulfate versus placebo**

Three trials studied nebulised magnesium compared to placebo in addition to standard care for acute COPD exacerbations. Magnesium inhalation was no better than placebo in reducing hospitalisation. ICU admission was lower in people who received magnesium inhalation than those in the placebo arm; however, the certainty of evidence was very low. The proportion of people who needed ventilatory support (NIV or assisted ventilation) and length of hospital stay were not different between nebulised magnesium and placebo groups. There were no reported serious adverse events in either of the groups. There was one reported death in the placebo arm; however, we were not confident to reach a conclusion due to the small number of participants. Little to no difference was observed in lung function in terms of post-intervention  $FEV<sub>1</sub>$ and change from baseline PEFR at 60 minutes. Post-intervention PEFR at 60 minutes was observed to be higher with nebulised magnesium compared to placebo in one trial, but data were too limited for us to be able to reach a conclusion. Likewise, very lowcertainty evidence demonstrated a reduction in dyspnoea with magnesium inhalation in a small trial with 20 participants. There was no clear difference in oxygen saturation between these two arms.

#### **Magnesium sulfate versus ipratropium bromide**

One trial assessed inhaled magnesium sulfate plus intravenous magnesium sulfate compared to inhaled ipratropium bromide plus intravenous normal saline. We could not determine a clear difference between these groups in terms of hospital admission, endotracheal intubation and length of hospital stay (very lowcertainty evidence). Similarly, all-cause mortality was not different for these two arms. However, change in PEFR was observed to be greater for the ipratropium and placebo arm compared to the

magnesium sulfate arm. Due to the small number of participants, few events and study limitations, we could not draw a robust conclusion.

#### **Overall completeness and applicability of evidence**

We identified a total of 11 RCTs eligible for this review: seven trials that investigated intravenous magnesium sulfate infusion compared to placebo; three trials on nebulised magnesium sulfate versus placebo; and one trial that assessed combined intravenous and nebulised magnesium sulfate versus nebulised ipratropium bromide plus placebo. All of these trials determined the efficacy of magnesium in COPD exacerbations as an adjunctive measure to the usual standard care including oxygen, antibiotics, bronchodilators and systemic corticosteroids.

The findings for magnesium infusion were based on analyses that involved one or two small studies with few participants, which is a limitation of the evidence. We could not determine any benefit of magnesium sulfate compared to ipratropium bromide, due to limited studies and relatively unreliable data. Based on a single trial, there was little to no difference between magnesium and ipratropium in hospital admission, length of hospital stay, all-cause mortality or the need for endotracheal intubation. The trial did not report on ICU admission, non-invasive ventilation, adverse events, serious adverse events, dyspnoea score or oxygen saturation.

Most studies were conducted in single- or two-centre settings with a small number of participants, which is the major limitation that impacts our ability to apply the evidence of this review to clinical practice in managing people with COPD exacerbations. The trials were based in middle- to high-income countries, which may limit the applicability of the findings to low-income countries. Current guidelines recommend the use of a single dose of magnesium sulfate infusion in acute exacerbation of bronchial asthma not responding to standard care. The trials in this review included adults over the age of 35 who were clinically diagnosed with COPD exacerbations. There were no specific criteria described for exclusion of people with overlap asthma features (asthma COPD overlap), except in the study by [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015 which excluded participants having asthma-type COPD. Thus, we could notrule out the possibility that the findings in this review are partly contributed by participants who had asthma COPD overlap features. We had planned to do subgroup analyses by blood eosinophil count to find out which group of people with COPD exacerbations would benefit from magnesium sulfate, but could not do so due to limited data. Similarly, none of the included studies reported the disease severity of participants, so we could not investigate the effects of magnesium sulfate in particular groups of people with COPD exacerbations.

#### **Quality of the evidence**

Studies that contributed to the outcomes ofthis review were singleortwo-centre double-blind RCTswith small number of participants, and one single-blind trial. The majority of studies were at unclear risk of bias in several domains due to lack of information, with the exception of [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015, in which reporting was sufficiently clear for us to make low risk judgements for every domain. Comparisons for the outcomes were direct and most of the outcomes were based on one or two trials without any significant heterogeneity. Reasons for downgrading were mainly due to study limitations and

imprecision of the pooled effect estimates (including wide or very wide confidence intervals, and small participant numbers).

We rated the certainty of evidence for intravenous magnesium sulfate infusion to be low for hospital admission, length of hospital stay, symptomatic improvement and lung function (FEV<sub>1</sub>); and very low for non-invasive ventilation and oxygen saturation. As for inhaled magnesium, the level of certainty was very low for all outcomes. Therefore, we have very little confidence in the effect estimates for magnesium inhalation compared to placebo. Similarly, the level of certainty was very low for the key outcomes (hospital admission, endotracheal intubation and length of hospital stay) for comparison between magnesium sulfate and ipratropium bromide.

Pooled effects for nebulised magnesium were based on data from three trials, which we judged to be of poor quality with unclear risk for selection, detection and reporting biases. One trial was a singleblinded study where investigators were unblinded, and another trial included only 20 participants (10 in each arm). The effects of nebulised magnesium sulfate on hospital admission, need for ventilatory support (NIV or assisted ventilation), length of hospital stay, lung function andoxygen saturationwere of very low-certainty evidence. No clear benefit could be demonstrated in improving these outcomes with the use of nebulised magnesium sulfate as an adjunctive therapy to usual standard care in COPD exacerbations compared to placebo. ICU admission was reportedly lower in participants who received magnesium inhalation compared to those in the placebo group. Likewise, dyspnoea measured by VAS score was observed to improve with nebulised magnesium compared to placebo in 20 participants. However, we are not confident of these findings, and data from larger multicentre trials are required to provide more robust evidence. We could not identify enough evidence to say that magnesium inhalation was not associated with important harms such as all-cause mortality, adverse events or serious adverse events. Similarly, there is very limited evidence to support the efficacy of nebulised magnesium sulfate as an adjunctive therapy for COPD exacerbations.

We planned to perform subgroup analyses if we found high levels of heterogeneity; however, this was not necessary as there was low heterogeneity. We could not investigate publication bias because of the small number of studies in analyses. Overall, we are not confident in the pooled effect estimates of this review, since the majority were calculated using data from one or two single/double centre trials that determined the effect of magnesium sulfate on a relatively small number of participants with COPD exacerbations. Additional information from further multicentre trials in a larger population is very likely to alter our confidence in these results and provide a better evidence for clinical practice.

## **Potential biases in the review process**

This review was based on a published protocol ([Ni 2020\)](#page-32-8), and any deviations from the published protocol were noted in Differences [between](#page-65-2) protocol and review. Incomplete identification of studies for this review is unlikely as we performed a comprehensive search of databases, websites, clinical trial registries and reference lists. However, there are areas which may have introduced bias into the review. We identified one trial registered in the Iranian Registry of Clinical Trials (IRCT) that planned to start in 2016. We contacted the trial investigators for its current status but received no reply. We also contacted the authors of included trials for details of study

characteristics and clarification on data. Only [Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021 replied and provided the necessary information about the trial. [Jahanian](#page-26-4) [2021](#page-26-4) assessed some outcomes relevant to this review, but only lung function data were available; dyspnoea score and oxygen saturation could not be included in the analyses. [Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021 was a single-blinded study, unregistered on a trial registry, with limited information on the conduct of the trial, which downgrades our confidence in its data. Moreover, two included trials were only available as abstracts with no full text publication [\(Hogg 2004;](#page-26-3) [Pishbin 2018](#page-26-7)), resulting in high risk of bias. In addition, assessment of publication bias through examination of funnel plots was not possible because only one or two trials were included in the analyses.

Recently, the European Respiratory Society issued a statement on core outcomes for clinical trials assessing AECOPD (acute exacerbations of COPD) management, which included mortality (any cause or due to COPD exacerbations), treatment success, need for higher level of care (hospital or ICU admission), arterial blood gases, patient-reported outcomes (breathlessness, quality of life, activities of daily living), disease progression, future exacerbations and hospital admissions, treatment safety (adverse events) and adherence ([Mathioudakis 2022](#page-31-20)). The intended outcomes of this review are included in this recommended outcome set, except for length of hospital stay and lung function improvement. However, we were not able to synthesise evidence for all the planned outcomes since most of the COPD exacerbation trials assessed lung function as the primary outcome and clinically relevant outcomes were usually not included. Therefore, it is likely that this review is lacking in evidence for patient-centred, clinically important outcomes.

## **Agreements and disagreements with other studies or reviews**

There is limited evidence for the role of magnesium sulfate in acute COPD exacerbations, with very few published reviews to date. We could only identify three similar published systematic reviews focusing on the effects of magnesium in COPD exacerbations [\(Alzaid](#page-28-17) [2021;](#page-28-17) [Jahangir 2022](#page-30-14); [Shivanthan](#page-31-13) 2014). Intravenous magnesium reduced hospital admission in our analysis with a NNTB of seven. Two of the earlier published reviews failed to detect this [\(Alzaid](#page-28-17) [2021;](#page-28-17) [Shivanthan](#page-31-13) 2014), possibly due to their searches predating the publication of the latest trial included in our analysis ([Moradi](#page-26-5) [2021,](#page-26-5) which had a relatively large number of participants.However, the recent review by [Jahangir 2022](#page-30-14) identified a reduction in hospital admissions with intravenous magnesium, reporting the same summary statistics as our review. Shortening of hospital stay and improvement in dyspnoea score with magnesium infusion were not detected in these reviews. Variable severity of COPD exacerbations in the included trials could affect our findings on hospital admissions and length of hospital stay; however, the available baseline characteristics are comparable across the intervention arms.

Low serum magnesium level is an important predictor of frequency of acute COPD exacerbations [\(Aziz 2005;](#page-28-8) [Gumus 2014;](#page-30-6) [Kshirsagar](#page-30-17) 2021). Furthermore, low serum magnesium level at the time of admission was reported to be an independent predictor of readmission for AECOPD ([Bhatt](#page-28-9) 2008). Since the participants in our analyses had normal serum magnesium levels, which were similar for both groups, we are quite confident that serum magnesium



level at the time of presentation to the emergency room had no significant impact on our finding of hospital admission.

Our review failed to yield a positive effect of magnesium infusion on lung function in terms of  $FEV<sub>1</sub>$  or oxygen saturation. This finding was shared by [Jahangir 2022,](#page-30-14) which also showed no significant change in FEV<sub>1</sub> using a random-effects model, though the fixedeffect analysis demonstrated a significant effect. In our review, there was a possible improvement in PEFR, calculated as change from baseline percentage of predicted value. A similar finding was reported by [Shivanthan](#page-31-13) 2014 as an increase in PEFR, with a mean percentage change of 24%. Due to considerable variability between  $FEV<sub>1</sub>$  and PEFR, especially when expressed as percentage of predicted value [\(Llewellin](#page-30-18) 2002), FEV $_{\rm 1}$  is the preferred measure of airway obstruction in COPD exacerbations ([Emerman 1996\)](#page-29-20). Thus, this finding is not strong enough for clinical use and requires further data for assessing the role of magnesium for lung function improvement.

None of the previous reviews supported the efficacy of magnesium sulfate inhalation in COPD exacerbations compared to placebo, which is not altered by the results of our review. Similarly, evidence for nebulised magnesium versus ipratropium bromide is limited, with only one available trial. This consolidates the need for further well-designed trials that extensively investigate the effects of magnesium sulfate, to yield better certainty evidence for its clinical use in COPD exacerbations.

## <span id="page-25-0"></span>**A U T H O R S ' C O N C L U S I O N S**

#### **Implications for practice**

We have limited confidence to conclude a possible beneficial effect of intravenous magnesium sulfate infusion in reducing the number of people admitted to hospital from the emergency room, shortening length of hospital stay and improving dyspnoea. We could not identify evidence for intensive care unit (ICU) admission or endotracheal intubation. We had very little confidence in the effect of magnesium infusion on the need for non-invasive ventilation (NIV), or for improving lung function and oxygen saturation. Since the data on adverse events, serious adverse events and mortality were limited, further safety data are required before using intravenous magnesium infusion as a routine addition to standard care in people with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) exacerbations.

Current evidence for inhaled magnesium sulfate is very uncertain, and could not demonstrate that it is beneficial in reducing hospital admissions, the need for ventilatory support, length of hospital stay or all-cause mortality, or in improving lung function and oxygen saturation. Fewer ICU admissions were noted with nebulised magnesium, and a small trial favoured inhaled magnesium over placebo in improving dyspnoea, though we graded both these outcomes as very uncertain evidence.

Similarly, evidence from a single trial was very uncertain and could not demonstrate a clear benefit of magnesium over ipratropium bromide on the need for hospital admission or endotracheal intubation, length of hospital stay or all-cause mortality.

Overall, the evidence in this review should be interpreted with caution as larger studies are required to demonstrate the effects of magnesium sulfate in COPD exacerbations.

#### **Implications for research**

Further research is indicated, including multicentre trials in larger populations with COPD exacerbations (better-powered trials) using robust methods, which should be reported transparently. Trialists should define and categorise participants according to severity of COPD exacerbations and, if possible, provide disaggregated data for different groups. It is also recommended to include COPD phenotypes of participants to delineate the possible impact of asthma/COPD overlap on the evidence. Further trials assessing the effects of magnesium sulfate with participant-related outcomes (e.g. ICU admission, need for NIV or mechanical ventilation, length of hospital stay and dyspnoea score) as primary endpoints rather than lung function improvement would be more appropriate for applicability to clinical practice in people with COPD exacerbations. Follow-up data would be beneficial, especially to identify any impact of magnesium sulfate on recurrent exacerbations and readmissions. Since currently available evidence did not identify any study on cost-effectiveness, future research on this outcome is also required.

### <span id="page-25-1"></span>**A C K N O W L E D G E M E N T S**

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We based the [Background](#page-11-0) and [Methods](#page-12-1) sections of this review on a standard template used by Cochrane Airways.

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## <span id="page-26-17"></span><span id="page-26-16"></span>**REFERENCES**

## <span id="page-26-13"></span><span id="page-26-12"></span><span id="page-26-11"></span><span id="page-26-0"></span>**References to studies included in this review**

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[\\*](#page-32-9)  Bajracharya M, Acharya RP, Neupane RP, Sthapit R, Tamrakar AR.Nebulized magnesium sulphate versus saline as an adjuvant in acute exacerbation of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in a tertiary centre of Nepal: a randomised control study. *Journal of Institute of Medicine Nepal* 2021;**43**(1):5-10. [DOI: [10.3126/jiom.v43i1.37461](https://doi.org/10.3126%2Fjiom.v43i1.37461)]

#### <span id="page-26-2"></span>**Comert 2016** *{published and unpublished data}*

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## <span id="page-26-15"></span><span id="page-26-8"></span>**Edwards 2013** *{published data only (unpublished sought but not used)}*

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Mathioudakis AG, Abroug F, Agusti A, Ananth S, Bakke P, Bartziokas K, et al.DECODE-NET. ERS Statement: A core outcome set for clinical trials evaluating the management of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) exacerbations. *European Respiratory Journal* 2022;**59**:2102006. [DOI: [10.1183/13993003.02006-2021](https://doi.org/10.1183%2F13993003.02006-2021)] [PMID: 34649975]

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Miravitlles M, Ferrer M, Pont A, Zalacain R, Alvarez-Sala JL, Masa F, et al. Effect of exacerbations on quality of life in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: a 2 year follow up study. *Thorax* 2004;**59**(5):387-95. [PMID: 15115864]

#### <span id="page-31-15"></span>**Moher 2009**

Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman D.Preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses: the PRISMA statement. *PLoS Medicine* 2009;**6**(7):e1000097. [DOI: [10.1371/](https://doi.org/10.1371%2Fjournal.pmed.1000097) [journal.pmed.1000097\]](https://doi.org/10.1371%2Fjournal.pmed.1000097)

#### <span id="page-31-7"></span>**Mullerova 2015**

Mullerova H, Maselli DJ, Locantore N, Vestbo J, Hurst JR, Wedzicha JA, et al.Hospitalised exacerbations of COPD: risk factors and outcomes in the ECLIPSE cohort. *Chest* 2015;**147**(4):999-1007. [PMID: 25356881]

## <span id="page-31-9"></span>**Nannini 2012**

Nannini LJ.Hospitalization due to COPD exacerbation. Chest 2012;**142**(6):1697. [PMID: 23208363]

#### <span id="page-31-0"></span>**Ngahavi 2017**

Naghavi M, Abajobir AA, Abbafati C, Abbas KM, Abd-Allah F, Abera SF, et al.Global, regional, and national age-sex specific mortality for 264 causes of death, 1980-2016: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2016. *Lancet* 2017;**390**:1151–210.

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National Institute for Health and Care Excellence.Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in over 16s: diagnosis and management. www.guidelines.co.uk/respiratory/nice-copdguideline/454912.article (accessed 8 December 2019).

### <span id="page-31-2"></span>**O'Donnell 2006**

O'Donnell DE, Parker CM.COPD exacerbations: pathophysiology. *Thorax* 2006;**61**(4):354-61. [PMID: 16565268]

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Pitta F, Troosters T, Probst VS, Spruit MA, Decramer M, Gosselink R.Physical activity and hospitalisation for exacerbation of COPD. *Chest* 2006;**129**(3):536-44. [PMID: 16537849]

## <span id="page-31-16"></span>**Review Manager 2020 [Computer program]**

Review Manager 5 (RevMan 5).Version 5.4. Copenhagen: Nordic Cochrane Centre, The Cochrane Collaboration, 2020.

### <span id="page-31-17"></span>**RevMan Web 2022 [Computer program]**

Review Manager Web (RevMan Web).Version 4.6.0. The Cochrane Collaboration, 2022. Available at revman.cochrane.org.

## <span id="page-31-19"></span>**Ries 2005**

Ries AL.Minimally clinically important difference for the UCSD Shortness of Breath Questionnaire, Borg Scale, and Visual Analog Scale. *COPD* 2005;**2**(1):105-10. [DOI: [10.1081/](https://doi.org/10.1081%2Fcopd-200050655) [copd-200050655](https://doi.org/10.1081%2Fcopd-200050655)] [PMID: 17136970]

## <span id="page-31-10"></span>**Romani 2013**

Romani AM.Magnesium in health and disease. *Metal Ions in Life Sciences* 2013;**13**:49-79. [PMID: 24470089]

#### <span id="page-31-11"></span>**Rowe 2000**

Rowe BH, Bretzlaff J, Bourdon C, Bota G, Blitz S, Camargo Jr CA.Magnesium sulfate for treating exacerbations of acute asthma in the emergency department. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2000, Issue 1. Art. No: CD001490. [DOI: [10.1002/14651858.CD001490\]](https://doi.org/10.1002%2F14651858.CD001490)

#### <span id="page-31-18"></span>**Schünemann 2021**

Schünemann HJ, Higgins JP, Vist GE, Glasziou P, Akl EA, Skoetz N, et al.Chapter 14: Completing 'Summary of findings' tables and grading the certainty of the evidence. In: Higgins JP, Thomas J, Chandler J, Cumpston M, Li T, Page MJ, Welch VA, editor(s). Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions Version 6.2 (updated February 2021). Cochrane, 2021. Available from training.cochrane.org/handbook.

## <span id="page-31-4"></span>**Seemungal 1998**

Seemungal TA, Donaldson GC, Paul EA, Bestall JC, Jeffries DJ, Wedzicha JA.Effect of exacerbation on quality of life in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine* 1998;**157**(5 Pt 1):1418-22. [PMID: 9603117]

## <span id="page-31-13"></span>**Shivanthan 2014**

Shivanthan MC, Rajapakse S.Magnesium for acute exacerbation of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: a systematic review of randomised trials. *Annals of Thoracic Medicine* 2014;**9**(2):77-80.

#### <span id="page-31-8"></span>**Soler-Cataluna 2005**

Soler-Cataluna JJ, Martinez-Garcia MA, Roman Sanchez P, Salcedo E, Navarro M, Ochando R.Severe acute exacerbations and mortality in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Thorax* 2005;**60**(11):925-31. [PMID: 16055622]

#### <span id="page-31-12"></span>**Sorino 2016**

Sorino C, Pedone C, Scichilone N.FiKeen-year mortality of patients with asthma-COPD overlap syndrome. *European Journal of Internal Medicine* 2016;**34**:72-7. [PMID: 27357368]

#### <span id="page-31-1"></span>**Soto-Campos 2013**

Soto-Campos JG, Plaza V, Soriano JB, Cabrera-Lopez C, Almonacid-Sanchez C, Vazquez-Oliva R, et al.Causes of death in asthma, COPD and non-respiratory hospitalised patients: a multicentric study. *BMC Pulmonary Medicine* 2013;**13**:73. [PMID: 24321217]

### <span id="page-31-5"></span>**Spencer 2001**

Spencer S, Calverley PM, Sherwood Burge P, Jones PW.Health status deterioration in patients with chronic obstructive



pulmonary disease. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine* 2001;**163**(1):122-8. [PMID: 11208636]

#### <span id="page-32-5"></span>**Spivey 1990**

Spivey WH, Skobeloff EM, Levin RM. Effect of magnesium chloride on rabbit bronchial smooth muscle. *Annals of Emergency Medicine* 1990;**19**(10):1107-12. [PMID: 1977337]

## <span id="page-32-4"></span>**Wedzicha 2007**

Wedzicha JA, Seemungal TA.COPD exacerbations: defining their cause and prevention. *Lancet* 2007;**370**(9589):786-96. [PMID: 17765528]

### <span id="page-32-3"></span>**Wedzicha 2017**

Wedzicha JA, Miravitlles M, Hurst JR, Calverley PM, Albert RK, Anzueto A, et al.Management of COPD exacerbations: a European Respiratory Society/American Thoracic Society guideline. *European Respiratory Journal* 2017;**49**(3):1600791. [PMID: 28298398]

### <span id="page-32-2"></span>**WHO 2020**

WHO Global Health Estimates: The top 10 causes of death; 2020. www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/the-top-10-causesof-death.

## <span id="page-32-0"></span>**C H A R A C T E R I S T I C S O F S T U D I E S**

<span id="page-32-7"></span>**Characteristics of included studies** *[ordered by study ID]*

### <span id="page-32-1"></span>**WHO 2021**

World Health Organization.Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) Fact sheets; 21 June 2021. www.who.int/en/ news-room/fact-sheets/detail/chronic-obstructive-pulmonarydisease-(copd) (accessed prior to 4 May 2022).

## <span id="page-32-6"></span>**Yang 2019**

Yang IA, Brown JL, George J, Jenkins S, McDonald CF, McDonald V, et al.The COPD-X Plan: Australian and New Zealand guidelines for the management of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease 2019. Version 2.59, August 2019. copdx.org.au/copd-x-plan/.

#### **References to other published versions of this review**

## <span id="page-32-8"></span>**Ni 2020**

Ni H, Naing C, Aye SZ.Magnesium sulfate for acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2020, Issue 1. Art. No: CD013506. [DOI: [10.1002/14651858.CD013506](https://doi.org/10.1002%2F14651858.CD013506)]

<span id="page-32-9"></span>\* Indicates the major publication for the study

#### **[Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021**







## All outcomes **[Bajracharya](#page-26-1) 2021**  *(Continued)*



## **[Comert 2016](#page-26-2)**











## **[Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013**  *(Continued)*

### Concomitant medications:

- Supplemental oxygen via nasal prongs during the nebuliser (1–2 L/min)
- Standard initial treatment with 2.5 mg salbutamol and 500 mg ipratropium bromide by jet nebulisation and 40 mg prednisone

Outcomes Primary outcomes

•  $FEV_1$  at 90 min

## Secondary outcomes

- $FEV_1$  at 30 and 60 min
- hospital admission
- episodes of NIV
- admission to ICU

Notes Funding for studies: The Health Research Council of New Zealand.

Conflicts of interest of trial authors: Declared "None"; trial registry: ACTRN12608000167369

#### *Risk of bias*



#### **[Hogg 2004](#page-26-3)**







*Risk of bias*





## **[Jahanian 2021](#page-26-4)**



## **[Jahanian 2021](#page-26-4)**  *(Continued)*



## *Risk of bias*



## **[Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021**







## **[Moradi](#page-26-5) 2021**  *(Continued)*

**Cochrane Library**



## **[Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015**







## **[Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015**  *(Continued)*



## **[Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014**





**[Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014**  *(Continued)*

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## **[Nouira](#page-26-9) 2014**  *(Continued)*



## **[Pishbin 2018](#page-26-7)**





## **[Pishbin 2018](#page-26-7)**  *(Continued)*

## *Risk of bias*







All outcomes



Selective reporting (reporting bias) Unclear risk Comment: unclear if all outcomes were reported as planned since trial protocol was not available.



## **[Skorodin](#page-26-10) 1995**  *(Continued)*

Other bias **Low risk** Comment: no other apparent biases identified.

## **[Solooki 2014](#page-27-0)**







ABG: arterial blood gas; AECOPD: acute exacerbations of COPD; ATS: American Thoracic Society; BP: blood pressure; bpm: beats per minute; COPD: chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; CXR: chest X-ray; DSS: Dyspnea Severity Score; ED: emergency department; ECG: electrocardiogram; FEV<sub>1</sub>: forced expiratory volume in one second; FVC: forced vital capacity; HR: heart rate; ICU: intensive care unit; MIP: maximal inspiratory pressure; MEP: maximal expiratory pressure; mmHg: millimetre of mercury; NIMV: noninvasive mechanical ventilation; NIV: non-invasive ventilation; PaO<sub>2</sub>: partial pressure of arterial oxygen; PaCO<sub>2</sub>: partial pressure of arterial carbon dioxide; PEFR: peak expiratory flow rate; PO: per oral; PR: pulse rate; RR: respiratory rate; SaO<sub>2</sub>: arterial oxygen saturation; SD: standard deviation; VAS: visual analogue scale.

## <span id="page-50-0"></span>**Characteristics of excluded studies** *[ordered by study ID]*







## <span id="page-51-0"></span>**Characteristics of ongoing studies** *[ordered by study ID]*

## **[IRCT2016012420024N3](#page-28-18) 2016**







## <span id="page-52-0"></span>**D A T A A N D A N A L Y S E S**

## **Comparison 1. Intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care**







## <span id="page-53-0"></span>**Analysis 1.1. Comparison 1: Intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 1: Proportion of people with hospital admissions (from the emergency room)**



## **Risk of bias legend**

(A) Random sequence generation (selection bias)

(B) Allocation concealment (selection bias)

(C) Blinding of participants and personnel (performance bias)

(D) Blinding of outcome assessment (detection bias)

(E) Incomplete outcome data (attrition bias)

(F) Selective reporting (reporting bias)

(G) Other bias

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## **Analysis 1.2. Comparison 1: Intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 2: Proportion of people with need for non-invasive ventilation (NIV)**

<span id="page-54-0"></span>

Test for subgroup differences: Not applicable

## **Analysis 1.3. Comparison 1: Intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 3: Length of hospital stay (days)**

<span id="page-54-1"></span>

## **Analysis 1.4. Comparison 1: Intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 4: Proportion of people with adverse events**

<span id="page-54-2"></span>

## **Analysis 1.5. Comparison 1: Intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 5: Change in SpO 2 (%)**

<span id="page-54-3"></span>

# **Cochrane Library**

## **Analysis 1.6. Comparison 1: Intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 6: FEV1 change from baseline at 60 min (L)**

<span id="page-55-0"></span>

## **Analysis 1.7. Comparison 1: Intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 7: FEV1 at 45 min (mL)**

<span id="page-55-1"></span>

## **Analysis 1.8. Comparison 1: Intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 8: Change in PEFR (L/min)**

<span id="page-55-2"></span>

## **Analysis 1.9. Comparison 1: Intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 9: Change in PEFR (% predicted)**

<span id="page-55-3"></span>

**Library**

## **Analysis 1.10. Comparison 1: Intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 10: Change in dyspnoea score**

<span id="page-56-0"></span>

## **Comparison 2. Nebulised magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care**





## <span id="page-57-0"></span>**Analysis 2.1. Comparison 2: Nebulised magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 1: Proportion of people with hospital admissions (from the emergency room)**



## **Analysis 2.2. Comparison 2: Nebulised magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 2: Proportion of people who need ICU admission**

<span id="page-57-1"></span>

## <span id="page-57-2"></span>**Analysis 2.3. Comparison 2: Nebulised magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 3: Proportion of people who need ventilatory support (non-invasive ventilation or assisted ventilation)**



## **Analysis 2.4. Comparison 2: Nebulised magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 4: Length of hospital stay (days)**

<span id="page-57-3"></span>



## **Analysis 2.5. Comparison 2: Nebulised magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 5: All-cause mortality**

<span id="page-58-0"></span>

## **Analysis 2.6. Comparison 2: Nebulised magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 6: FEV1 at 60 min (L)**

<span id="page-58-1"></span>

## **Analysis 2.7. Comparison 2: Nebulised magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 7: PEFR change from baseline at 60 min (L/min)**

<span id="page-58-2"></span>

## **Analysis 2.8. Comparison 2: Nebulised magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 8: PEFR at 60 min (L/min)**

<span id="page-58-3"></span>

## **Analysis 2.9. Comparison 2: Nebulised magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 9: Change in dyspnoea score**

<span id="page-58-4"></span>

## **Analysis 2.10. Comparison 2: Nebulised magnesium sulfate + standard care versus placebo + standard care, Outcome 10: Change in SaO 2 (%)**

<span id="page-59-0"></span>

## **Comparison 3. Magnesium sulfate versus standard care (ipratropium bromide)**



## **Analysis 3.1. Comparison 3: Magnesium sulfate versus standard care (ipratropium bromide), Outcome 1: Proportion of people with hospital admissions (from the emergency room)**

<span id="page-59-1"></span>



## **Analysis 3.2. Comparison 3: Magnesium sulfate versus standard care (ipratropium bromide), Outcome 2: Proportion of people with the need for endotracheal intubation**

<span id="page-60-0"></span>

## **Analysis 3.3. Comparison 3: Magnesium sulfate versus standard care (ipratropium bromide), Outcome 3: Length of hospital stay (days)**

<span id="page-60-1"></span>

## **Analysis 3.4. Comparison 3: Magnesium sulfate versus standard care (ipratropium bromide), Outcome 4: All cause mortality**

<span id="page-60-2"></span>

## **Analysis 3.5. Comparison 3: Magnesium sulfate versus standard care (ipratropium bromide), Outcome 5: Change in PEFR (L/min)**

<span id="page-60-3"></span>



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**decisions. health.**

**evidence.**



Abbreviation s: MgSO<sub>4</sub>: magnesium sulfate; NR: not reporte<mark>d</mark>

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হ John **sulfate for acute**

**exacerbations**

<u>ዒ</u> **chronic**

**obstructive**

**pulmonary**

**disease**

**(Review)**

**60**

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## <span id="page-63-0"></span>**A P P E N D I C E S**

## <span id="page-63-1"></span>**Appendix 1. Database search strategies**

#### **Cochrane Airways Register & CENTRAL (searched via Cochrane Register of Studies)**

#1 MeSH DESCRIPTOR Pulmonary Disease, Chronic Obstructive Explode All #2 MeSH DESCRIPTOR Bronchitis, Chronic #3 (obstruct\*) near3 (pulmonary or lung\* or airway\* or airflow\* or bronch\* or respirat\*) #4 COPD:MISC1 #5 (COPD OR AECOPD):TI,AB,KW #6 #1 OR #2 OR #3 OR #4 OR #5 #7 MESH DESCRIPTOR Magnesium #8 MESH DESCRIPTOR Magnesium Sulfate #9 magnesium\*:ti,ab,kw #10 (MgSO4 or MG SO4):ti,ab,kw #11 #7 OR #8 OR #9 OR #10 #12 #11 AND #6

### **MEDLINE (Ovid) ALL**

- 1 Lung Diseases, Obstructive/ 2 exp Pulmonary Disease, Chronic Obstructive/ 3 emphysema\$.tw. 4 (chronic\$ adj3 bronchiti\$).tw. 5 (obstruct\$ adj3 (pulmonary or lung\$ or airway\$ or airflow\$ or bronch\$ or respirat\$)).tw. 6 (COPD or AECOPD or AECB).ti,ab. 7 or/1-6 8 Magnesium/ 9 Magnesium Sulfate/ 10 magnesium\$.tw. 11 (MgSO4 or MG SO4).tw. 12 or/8-11 13 7 and 12 14 (controlled clinical trial or randomized controlled trial).pt. 15 (randomized or randomised).ab,ti. 16 placebo.ab,ti. 17 dt.fs. 18 randomly.ab,ti. 19 trial.ab,ti. 20 groups.ab,ti. 21 or/14-20 22 Animals/ 23 Humans/ 24 22 not (22 and 23) 25 21 not 24 26 13 and 25 **Embase (Ovid)** 1 exp chronic obstructive lung disease/ 2 obstructive airway disease/
	- 3 (obstruct\$ adj3 (pulmonary or lung\$ or airway\$ or airflow\$ or bronch\$ or respirat\$)).tw. 4 (chronic\$ adj3 bronchiti\$).tw. 5 emphysema\$.tw. 6 (COPD or AECOPD or AECB).ti,ab. 7 or/1-6 8 magnesium/ 9 magnesium sulfate/ 10 magnesium\$.tw. 11 (MgSO4 or MG SO4).tw. 12 or/8-11 13 7 and 12



 Randomized Controlled Trial/ randomization/ controlled clinical trial/ Double Blind Procedure/ Single Blind Procedure/ Crossover Procedure/ (clinica\$ adj3 trial\$).tw. 21 ((singl\$ or doubl\$ or trebl\$ or tripl\$) adj3 (mask\$ or blind\$ or method\$)).tw. exp Placebo/ placebo\$.ti,ab. random\$.ti,ab. ((control\$ or prospectiv\$) adj3 (trial\$ or method\$ or stud\$)).tw. (crossover\$ or cross-over\$).ti,ab. 27 or/14-26 exp animals/ or exp invertebrate/ or animal experiment/ or animal model/ or animal tissue/ or animal cell/ or nonhuman/ human/ or normal human/ or human cell/ 30 28 and 29 28 not 30 27 not 31 33 13 and 32

## **ClinicalTrials.gov**



## **WHO ICTRP**



## <span id="page-64-0"></span>**H I S T O R Y**

Protocol first published: Issue 12, 2019

## <span id="page-64-1"></span>**C O N T R I B U T I O N S O F A U T H O R S**

Han Ni (HN)*:* designed the work, conducted the literature search, screened articles, assessed risk of bias, extracted data from included studies, performed data analyses, wrote the review and revised the manuscript critically for important intellectual content.

Swe Zin Aye (SZA): conducted the literature search, screened titles, assessed risk of bias, extracted data from included studies, checked data entry and drafted the review.

Cho Naing (CN)*:* commented on the review, checked data analyses and revised the manuscript critically for important intellectual and statistical content.



All authors reviewed and agreed on the review prior to submission for editorial review.

## **Contributions of editorial team**

Emma Dennett (Deputy Co-ordinating Editor): co-ordinated the editorial process; advised on content; edited the review; signed off the review for publication with assistance from the contact editor.

Alexander Mathioudakis (contact Editor): edited the review, assisted with sign-off of the review.

Rebecca Fortescue (Co-ordinating Editor): edited the review; advised on methodology.

Chris Cates (Co-ordinating Editor): checked the data analyses.

Emma Jackson (Managing Editor): conducted peer review; edited the references and other sections of the review.

Elizabeth Stovold (Information Specialist): designed the search strategy, conducted the searches.

## <span id="page-65-0"></span>**D E C L A R A T I O N S O F I N T E R E S T**

Han Ni: none known. Cho Naing: none known. Swe Zin Aye: none known.

## <span id="page-65-1"></span>**S O U R C E S O F S U P P O R T**

## **Internal sources**

• Newcastle University Medicine, Malaysia

Allowed Han Ni to work on this systematic review during office hours

• QUEST International University Perak, Malaysia

Permitted Swe Zin Aye to work on this review during office hours

• International Medical University (IMU), Malaysia and The James Cook University, Queensland, Australia, Malaysia

Allowed CN to work on this systematic review during office hours.

CN was at the IMU during the data synthesis phase of study.

## **External sources**

• National Institute for Health Research (NIHR), UK

Cochrane Infrastructure funding to Cochrane Airways. [The views and opinions expressed therein are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect those of the Systematic Reviews Programme, NIHR, NHS or the Department of Health and Social Care.]

## <span id="page-65-2"></span>**DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PROTOCOL AND REVIEW**

In the protocol, we had defined adults as ≥ 40 years; however, three of the included studies in this review defined adults as ≥ 35 years [\(Edwards](#page-26-8) 2013; [Mukerji](#page-26-6) 2015; [Skorodin](#page-26-10) 1995).

We could not compare between intravenous magnesium sulfate + standard care versus standard care as we identified no studies reporting this comparison. We added the comparison of magnesium sulfate versus ipratropium bromide, which is the standard therapy of COPD exacerbations. In data analysis, we used Peto OR for rare events. We could not perform subgroup and sensitivity analyses as planned in the protocol as the trials did not report data on prespecified groups of people. We analysed oxygen saturation as both arterial (SaO<sub>2</sub>) and peripheral (SpO<sub>2</sub>).

We edited two of the outcomes in the Methods section 'Summary of findings and assessment of the certainty of the evidence' to be more specific: 'arterial blood gas measurements (e.g. PaCO2)' became oxygen saturation; and 'symptom scores, as measured by validated scales; e.g. EXACT total score' became dyspnoea.

## <span id="page-65-3"></span>**I N D E X T E R M S**

## **MedicalSubject Headings (MeSH)**

Disease Progression; Dyspnea [drug therapy] [etiology]; Ipratropium [therapeutic use]; Magnesium [therapeutic use]; \*Magnesium Sulfate [adverse effects]; \*Pulmonary Disease, Chronic Obstructive [drug therapy]; Randomized Controlled Trials as Topic

## **MeSH check words**

## Humans