

Chapter Six

THE CRITICAL ROLE OF CARBON DIOXIDE

Healing the Forgotten Gas

"It is not so much that there is less oxygen in the blood when we are sick, but that the tissues are unable to use it."

— Yandell Henderson, Yale physiologist, 1940

The Misunderstood Molecule

If I asked you to name the most important gas for vision, you would probably say oxygen. And you would not be wrong—the retina consumes more oxygen per gram than any other tissue in the body, and oxygen deprivation is central to the disease process we have been examining throughout this book.

But there is another gas, often dismissed as mere metabolic waste, that may be equally important for retinal health: carbon dioxide.

This claim may seem counterintuitive. We have all been taught that oxygen is the good gas—the vital, life-giving molecule we breathe in—while carbon dioxide is the bad gas, the toxic byproduct we exhale. This framing is not merely oversimplified; it is profoundly misleading. And when it comes to understanding and potentially treating age-related macular degeneration, this misunderstanding may have cost us decades of progress.

Carbon dioxide is not waste. It is a regulatory molecule of extraordinary importance, one that determines how much of the oxygen in your blood actually reaches your tissues, including the retina. Without adequate CO₂, you can have perfectly oxygenated blood and still have hypoxic tissue. The cells can be starving for oxygen while surrounded by it.

This chapter explains why carbon dioxide matters for retinal health, how modern life systematically depletes it, and what can be done to restore it. The implications may fundamentally change how you think about treating—and preventing—macular degeneration.

The Oxygen Paradox: Why More Is Not Always Better

In 1904, the Danish physiologist Christian Bohr made a discovery that should have transformed our understanding of oxygen delivery but was largely forgotten in the rush to focus on oxygen supplementation. Bohr discovered that hemoglobin—the molecule in red blood cells that carries oxygen—does not release its oxygen cargo evenly. Instead, the release of oxygen from hemoglobin is regulated by the local concentration of carbon dioxide.

This phenomenon, now called the Bohr effect, works as follows: when CO₂ levels are high (as they are in metabolically active tissue), hemoglobin releases oxygen more readily. When CO₂ levels are low, hemoglobin holds onto its oxygen more tightly. The molecule essentially uses CO₂ as a signal to determine where oxygen is needed most.

The implications are profound: you cannot optimize oxygen delivery to tissue without adequate carbon dioxide. Simply breathing more oxygen—or even having fully saturated hemoglobin—does not guarantee that oxygen will reach the cells that need it. If CO₂ is too low, hemoglobin will not release its cargo efficiently, and the tissue remains hypoxic despite abundant oxygen in the blood.

This is not theoretical biochemistry. Studies have directly measured the effect of CO₂ on retinal blood flow. When subjects hyperventilate—blowing off CO₂ by breathing rapidly—retinal blood flow decreases by approximately 8% within minutes [1]. The blood vessels constrict, and less blood reaches the retina. The retina becomes hypoxic not because there is less oxygen available, but because the delivery system has been disrupted.

Now consider what happens when someone is chronically stressed, anxious, or living in a state of low-grade metabolic suppression. Their breathing pattern tends toward the shallow and rapid. Their CO₂ levels remain chronically depressed. And their retinal blood flow—along with blood flow to the brain and other vital organs—is chronically reduced.

We have already established that AMD is, at its core, a disease of hypoxia—of inadequate oxygen reaching the retina. Now we can add an important piece to that puzzle: the hypoxia may not be due primarily to insufficient oxygen in the blood, but to insufficient carbon dioxide to facilitate its release.

Carbon Dioxide: The Master Regulator

The Bohr effect is remarkable, but it is only part of the story. Carbon dioxide affects tissue oxygenation through multiple additional mechanisms, each of which has direct relevance to retinal health.

Vasodilation: Opening the Blood Vessels

Carbon dioxide is a potent vasodilator—it relaxes the smooth muscle in blood vessel walls, allowing vessels to widen and blood flow to increase. This effect operates through several pathways, including the stimulation of nitric oxide (NO) release and the activation of endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factor (EDHF) [2].

When CO₂ levels rise locally, blood vessels dilate to increase blood flow to that area. When CO₂ levels fall, vessels constrict. This is why hyperventilation causes lightheadedness—the rapid loss of CO₂ causes cerebral blood vessels to constrict, reducing blood flow to the brain.

The same constriction occurs in the retinal and choroidal vessels that supply the eye. Chronic CO₂ depletion means chronic vasoconstriction—a persistent reduction in the blood supply to retinal tissue. Over time, this reduced supply contributes to the metabolic crisis that drives AMD progression.

Inflammation Reduction

Research has demonstrated that carbon dioxide therapy reduces inflammation in multiple tissue types [2]. While the mechanisms are still being elucidated, CO₂ appears to modulate inflammatory signaling pathways, reducing the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines.

This is directly relevant to AMD, which is increasingly recognized as an inflammatory disease. The drusen deposits that characterize AMD contain inflammatory proteins, and complement activation plays a key role in disease progression. Any intervention that reduces chronic inflammation may help slow the disease process.

Mitochondrial Biogenesis

Perhaps most remarkably, adequate CO₂ appears to support the creation of new mitochondria through a pathway involving PGC-1 α , the master regulator of mitochondrial biogenesis [2]. This creates the potential for a virtuous cycle: more mitochondria produce more CO₂ through oxidative metabolism, which in turn supports the creation of additional mitochondria.

For the metabolically starved retina, the ability to generate new mitochondria could be transformative. Rather than simply trying to preserve existing function, this mechanism offers the possibility of restoring cellular energy capacity.

Why Modern Life Depletes Carbon Dioxide

If carbon dioxide is so important, why would our bodies have too little of it? The answer lies in understanding that CO₂ is not just something we breathe out—it is a product of cellular metabolism. The more actively our cells burn glucose for energy, the more CO₂ they produce.

This is where the metabolic framework we have been developing becomes crucial. In Chapter Five, we explored how modern dietary patterns—particularly the chronic consumption of polyunsaturated fatty acids—may suppress mitochondrial function and reduce metabolic rate. When metabolism is suppressed, less CO₂ is produced. The body enters a low-CO₂ state that further compromises oxygen delivery.

Chronic stress compounds this problem. The stress response triggers rapid, shallow breathing—a pattern that expels CO₂ faster than the body can produce it. This is appropriate as an acute response to danger, when rapid breathing prepares the body for fight or flight. But when stress becomes chronic, the pattern persists, and CO₂ levels remain chronically depressed.

Yandell Henderson, the Yale physiologist quoted at the beginning of this chapter, understood this nearly a century ago. He recognized that many diseases attributed to oxygen lack were actually diseases of CO₂ depletion—that the problem was not getting oxygen into the blood but getting it from the blood into the tissues. His insights were largely forgotten in the enthusiasm for oxygen therapy, but they deserve reconsideration.

Carbonic Anhydrase: The Enzyme That Controls CO₂

To understand the interventions that can increase CO₂ levels, we need to understand the enzyme that controls CO₂ metabolism: carbonic anhydrase.

Carbonic anhydrase (CA) is one of the fastest enzymes in the human body. It catalyzes the reversible conversion of carbon dioxide and water into bicarbonate and hydrogen ions. This reaction is essential for regulating blood pH, but it also determines how quickly CO₂ is converted and cleared from tissues.

Here is the key insight: by inhibiting carbonic anhydrase, we can slow the breakdown of CO₂, allowing local tissue levels to rise. This is the mechanism by which carbonic anhydrase inhibitors (CAIs) work—and it explains their therapeutic potential for conditions involving tissue hypoxia.

Carbonic Anhydrase Inhibitors in Ophthalmology

Ophthalmologists have been using carbonic anhydrase inhibitors for decades—primarily for treating glaucoma, where they reduce intraocular pressure by decreasing the production of aqueous humor. But researchers have noticed additional effects that may be even more relevant to macular degeneration.

Dorzolamide (Trusopt), a topical CAI used for glaucoma, has been shown to increase retinal and choroidal blood flow and improve oxygen delivery to the retina [3]. This makes physiological sense: by inhibiting carbonic anhydrase, the drug allows CO₂ to accumulate locally, promoting vasodilation and enhancing oxygen release from hemoglobin.

Even more intriguing are the clinical observations from ophthalmologists who have noticed improvements in macular function in AMD patients treated with CAIs for concurrent glaucoma [4]. These are not controlled trials—they are clinical observations that have prompted calls for more rigorous investigation. But they align perfectly with the metabolic framework we have been developing.

In related conditions like retinitis pigmentosa and cystoid macular edema, CAIs have shown consistent benefits for retinal function [5]. A meta-analysis of CAI use in retinitis pigmentosa found significant improvements in visual function, supporting the hypothesis that increasing local CO₂ levels can enhance retinal health.

Thiamine and Benfotiamine: Natural Carbonic Anhydrase Inhibitors

While pharmaceutical CAIs like dorzolamide require prescriptions, nature provides its own carbonic anhydrase inhibitors. Perhaps the most significant is thiamine—vitamin B₁—which has been demonstrated to inhibit carbonic anhydrase at physiologically relevant concentrations [6, 7].

This discovery adds a new dimension to our understanding of thiamine's role in health. We have long known that thiamine is essential for carbohydrate metabolism and energy production. Now we can add carbonic anhydrase inhibition to its list of functions.

Thiamine and the Eye

The retinal pigment epithelium (RPE)—the cell layer that supports photoreceptors and is critically involved in AMD—actively takes up thiamine through specific transport mechanisms [8]. This suggests that the retina has evolved to require and utilize significant amounts of this vitamin.

Thiamine deficiency causes well-documented visual problems, including optic neuropathy and potentially macular changes [9]. Epidemiological studies have found that higher dietary vitamin B1 intake is associated with reduced prevalence of late-stage AMD [10]. While these associations do not prove causation, they are consistent with a protective role for thiamine.

Benfotiamine: Enhanced Thiamine Delivery

Benfotiamine is a synthetic derivative of thiamine with dramatically improved bioavailability. While standard thiamine is water-soluble and poorly absorbed at higher doses, benfotiamine is fat-soluble and achieves tissue levels 5-25 times higher than equivalent doses of thiamine.

The research on benfotiamine in eye disease is compelling. In diabetic retinopathy—a condition that shares metabolic features with AMD—benfotiamine has been shown to block three major pathways of hyperglycemic damage and prevent experimental retinopathy [11]. The mechanisms include activating transketolase (a thiamine-dependent enzyme), reducing advanced glycation end products (AGEs), and inhibiting protein kinase C activation.

In uveitis models, benfotiamine demonstrated significant anti-inflammatory effects, reducing inflammatory markers and protecting retinal tissue [12]. Given the inflammatory component of AMD, these findings are directly relevant.

Clinical trials in Alzheimer's disease—another condition with metabolic features similar to AMD—have shown that benfotiamine improves clinical outcomes [13]. While AMD and Alzheimer's affect different tissues, both involve metabolic dysfunction, oxidative stress, and inflammatory damage.

Breathwork: The Drug-Free Approach to CO₂ Optimization

Before exploring pharmaceutical options, there is an intervention that costs nothing, requires no prescriptions, and can be practiced anywhere: intentional breathing practices designed to optimize CO₂ levels.

The basic principle is simple: by breathing more slowly and allowing CO₂ to accumulate slightly, we can improve oxygen delivery to tissues. This is the opposite of hyperventilation, which blows off CO₂ and reduces tissue oxygenation despite increasing oxygen intake.

The Buteyko Method

The Buteyko method, developed by Ukrainian physician Konstantin Buteyko, is specifically designed to normalize breathing patterns and increase CO₂ tolerance. The method emphasizes nasal breathing, which provides more resistance than mouth breathing and naturally slows the breathing rate.

Key principles include breathing through the nose at all times (including during sleep and exercise), reducing breathing volume to create a slight air hunger, and gradually extending the comfortable pause between breaths.

Research has shown that restricted breathing patterns—similar to those taught in the Buteyko method—can increase macular blood flow and leucocyte velocity [14]. This provides direct evidence that breathing practices can affect retinal circulation.

Nasal Breathing and Nitric Oxide

Nasal breathing offers benefits beyond CO₂ retention. The nasal sinuses produce nitric oxide (NO), a potent vasodilator. When you breathe through your nose, this locally produced NO is carried into the lungs, where it helps to improve oxygen uptake and distribution.

Mouth breathing bypasses this natural NO delivery system. It also tends to promote faster, more shallow breathing patterns that deplete CO₂. Simply switching from mouth to nasal breathing—especially during sleep—may help to maintain higher CO₂ levels and improve tissue oxygenation.

Aspirin: An Unexpected Carbonic Anhydrase Inhibitor

Recent research has revealed that aspirin, one of the oldest and most widely used medications, is also a carbonic anhydrase inhibitor [15]. This adds yet another mechanism to aspirin's already complex pharmacology, which includes anti-inflammatory, antiplatelet, and potentially anti-cancer effects.

For those already taking low-dose aspirin for cardiovascular protection, this provides an additional potential benefit. However, aspirin is not without risks—particularly gastrointestinal bleeding—and decisions about its use should be made in consultation with healthcare providers.

Practical Applications

Based on the evidence reviewed in this chapter, here are practical approaches to CO₂ optimization organized by accessibility and evidence level:

Tier 1: Foundational Practices (Safe, Accessible, Evidence-Supported)

Nasal breathing: Commit to breathing through your nose during waking hours and, if possible, during sleep. Mouth tape can help maintain nasal breathing during sleep.

Slow, relaxed breathing: Practice breathing at 5-6 breaths per minute for 10-20 minutes daily. This naturally increases CO₂ levels.

Stress reduction: Address sources of chronic stress that promote rapid, shallow breathing patterns.

Physical activity: Regular exercise increases metabolic rate and CO₂ production. Even gentle walking can be beneficial.

Tier 2: Nutritional Support

Benfotiamine: 150-300 mg daily is a commonly used dose. Higher doses (up to 600 mg) have been used in clinical trials. This provides both carbonic anhydrase inhibition and metabolic support.

Standard thiamine: If benfotiamine is unavailable, high-dose thiamine (100-300 mg) may provide some benefit, though tissue levels will be lower.

B-vitamin complex: Thiamine works synergistically with other B vitamins, particularly B2 (riboflavin) and B3 (niacinamide). A comprehensive B-complex may be more effective than thiamine alone.

Tier 3: Pharmaceutical Options (Requires Medical Supervision)

Dorzolamide eye drops: This requires a prescription and should be discussed with an ophthalmologist. While approved for glaucoma, its use for AMD would be considered off-label. The clinical observations suggesting benefit in AMD are intriguing but require confirmation in controlled trials.

Systemic CAIs: Acetazolamide is generally reserved for more serious conditions due to its side effect profile. It would only be considered for AMD under close medical supervision.

Connecting the Dots: CO₂ and the Metabolic Cascade

Let us step back and see how carbon dioxide fits into the larger metabolic framework we have been developing.

In Chapter Three, we explored how modern dietary patterns—particularly the chronic consumption of polyunsaturated fatty acids—may suppress mitochondrial function and metabolic rate. This suppressed metabolism produces less CO₂.

In Chapter Five, we examined how mitochondrial dysfunction leads to reduced ATP production and increased oxidative stress. Damaged mitochondria are less efficient at oxidative metabolism, again reducing CO₂ production.

Now we see that low CO₂ causes vasoconstriction and reduced oxygen release from hemoglobin, creating retinal hypoxia. This hypoxia damages mitochondria further, which produces even less CO₂—a vicious cycle of declining function.

Intervening at the level of CO₂ offers a way to break this cycle. By increasing CO₂ through carbonic anhydrase inhibition, breathwork, or metabolic support, we can restore vasodilation and oxygen delivery, potentially reversing the hypoxic environment that drives AMD progression.

This is not about any single intervention but about understanding the system and addressing multiple points of dysfunction simultaneously. CO₂ optimization complements the mitochondrial support strategies discussed in Chapter Five and sets the stage for the additional oxygen-delivery interventions we will explore in Chapter Six.

Summary

Carbon dioxide is not waste—it is a critical regulatory molecule that determines how much oxygen reaches your tissues. Without adequate CO₂, you can have fully oxygenated blood and still have hypoxic tissue.

Modern life systematically depletes CO₂ through chronic stress, rapid breathing, and metabolic suppression. This creates an environment of chronic tissue hypoxia that contributes to AMD progression.

Carbonic anhydrase inhibitors—both pharmaceutical and natural—offer a way to increase local CO₂ levels, restore vasodilation, and improve oxygen delivery to the retina. Thiamine and benfotiamine are particularly interesting because they combine carbonic anhydrase inhibition with metabolic support through multiple pathways.

Breathwork provides a drug-free approach to CO₂ optimization that anyone can implement. By simply breathing more slowly and through

the nose, it is possible to maintain higher CO₂ levels and improve tissue oxygenation.

The evidence for these approaches in AMD specifically is still emerging—we have provocative clinical observations, strong mechanistic rationale, and supporting evidence from related conditions, but not yet the large randomized trials that would definitively establish efficacy.

Nevertheless, the potential benefits are substantial, the interventions are generally safe, and they address a fundamental aspect of the metabolic dysfunction underlying AMD.

Key Takeaways

- Carbon dioxide is not waste but a critical regulator of oxygen delivery. Through the Bohr effect, CO₂ determines how readily hemoglobin releases oxygen to tissues.
- Low CO₂ causes vasoconstriction and reduced oxygen delivery—contributing to the retinal hypoxia that drives AMD progression.
- Carbonic anhydrase inhibitors increase local CO₂ levels. Clinical observations suggest potential benefit in AMD, though controlled trials are needed.
- Thiamine and benfotiamine are natural carbonic anhydrase inhibitors with dual mechanisms—they both inhibit CO₂ breakdown and increase CO₂ production.
- Breathwork offers a drug-free approach to CO₂ optimization. Slower, nasal breathing helps maintain CO₂ levels and improve tissue oxygenation.
- CO₂ optimization is one component of a comprehensive metabolic approach—it complements mitochondrial support and sets the stage for further oxygen-delivery interventions.

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Disclaimer

The information in this chapter is for educational purposes only and is not intended as medical advice. Always consult with qualified healthcare providers before starting any new supplements, medications, or treatment protocols. Individual responses vary significantly. Carbonic anhydrase inhibitors, whether pharmaceutical or natural, should be used under medical supervision, particularly in individuals with respiratory conditions, kidney disease, or those taking other medications.