

1 **Sublingual microcirculatory blood flow and vessel density in Sherpas at**
2 **high altitude**

3 **AUTHORS**

4 Edward Gilbert-Kawai¹, Jonny Coppel¹, Jo Court¹, Jildou van der Kaaij¹,
5 Andre Vercueil¹, Martin Feelish^{1,3}, Denny Levett¹⁻³, Monty Mythen¹, Michael P
6 Grocott¹⁻³, and Daniel Martin¹ for the Xtreme Everest 2 Research Group.

7

8 **AFFILIATIONS**

9 1. University College London Centre for Altitude Space and Extreme
10 Environment Medicine, UCLH NIHR Biomedical Research Centre, Institute of
11 Sport and Exercise Health, First Floor, 170 Tottenham Court Road, London,
12 W1T 7HA, UK

13 2. Anaesthesia and Critical Care Research Area, NIHR Respiratory
14 Biomedical Research Unit, University Hospital Southampton NHS Foundation
15 Trust, CE93, MP24, Tremona Road, Southampton, SO16 6YD, UK

16 3. Integrative Physiology and Critical Illness Group, Clinical and Experimental
17 Sciences, Faculty of Medicine, University of Southampton, CE93, MP24,
18 Tremona Road, Southampton, SO16 6YD, UK

19

20 **RUNNING HEAD**

21 Sherpa microcirculation at high altitude

22

23 **CORRESPONDING AUTHOR:**

24 Edward Gilbert-Kawai
25 University College London Centre for Altitude Space and Extreme
26 Environment Medicine, UCLH NIHR Biomedical Research Centre, Institute of
27 Sport and Exercise Health, First Floor, 170 Tottenham Court Road, London,
28 W1T 7HA, UK
29 e.gilbert@ucl.ac.uk
30 Tel: +44 2034472838
31

32 **ABSTRACT**

33 Anecdotal reports suggest that Sherpa highlanders demonstrate extraordinary
34 tolerance to hypoxia at high altitude despite exhibiting lower arterial oxygen
35 content than acclimatised Lowlanders. This study tested the hypothesis that
36 Sherpas exposed to hypobaric hypoxia on ascent to 5300m, develop
37 increased microcirculatory blood flow as a means of maintaining tissue
38 oxygen delivery. Images of the sublingual microcirculation were obtained from
39 64 Sherpas and 69 Lowlanders using incident dark field imaging. Serial
40 measurements were obtained from participants undertaking an ascent from
41 baseline testing (35m or 1300m) to Everest base camp (5300m), and
42 following subsequent descent in Kathmandu (1300m). Microcirculatory flow
43 index and heterogeneity index were used to provide indices of
44 microcirculatory flow, whilst capillary density was assessed using small vessel
45 density. Sherpas, when compared to Lowlanders, demonstrated significantly
46 greater microcirculatory blood flow at Everest Base Camp, but not at baseline
47 testing or on return in Kathmandu. Additionally, Sherpa blood flow exhibited
48 greater homogeneity at 5300m and 1300m (descent) when compared to
49 Lowlanders. Sublingual small vessel density was not different between the
50 two cohorts at baseline testing or at 1300m, however, at 5300m Sherpas
51 capillary density was up to 30% greater. These data suggest that Sherpas can
52 maintain a significantly greater microcirculatory flow per unit time, and flow
53 per unit volume of tissue at high altitude, when compared to Lowlanders.
54 These findings support the notion that peripheral vascular factors at the
55 microcirculatory level may be important in the process of adaptation to
56 hypoxia.

57

58 **NEW & NOTEWORTHY**

59 Sherpa highlanders demonstrate extraordinary tolerance to hypoxia at high
60 altitude, yet the physiological mechanisms underlying this remain unknown. In
61 our prospective study, conducted on healthy volunteers ascending to Everest
62 Base Camp (5300m), we demonstrated that Sherpas have a higher sublingual
63 microcirculatory blood flow and greater capillary density at high altitude, when
64 compared to Lowlanders. These findings support the notion that the
65 peripheral microcirculation plays a key role in the process of long-term
66 adaptation to hypoxia.

67

68 **KEYWORDS**

69 Hypoxia, Microcirculation, Altitude, Sherpa, Capillary

70

71 **INTRODUCTION**

72 Anecdotal reports suggest that Sherpa highlanders exhibit extraordinary
73 tolerance to hypoxia at high altitude. Subjective demonstration of their
74 remarkable exercise and endurance abilities may be readily observed by
75 persons trekking and climbing in the Himalayan mountain regions. Having
76 resided at high altitude for the last 500 generations (2), it is likely that these
77 observations are underpinned by alterations in their genome, adapted through
78 the process of natural selection driven by lifelong environmental exposure to
79 hypobaric hypoxia. Whilst evidence of consequent downstream phenotypic
80 alterations remains limited, intriguingly it has been demonstrated that Sherpas

81 exhibit a lower arterial oxygen content (CaO_2) when compared to Lowlanders
82 who ascend to comparable altitudes (1, 4, 38, 44). It is thus conceivable that
83 through the comparison of Lowlander and Highlander genotype-phenotype,
84 one might uncover adaptive mechanisms that facilitate their apparent hypoxia
85 tolerance.

86 The delivery of oxygen to metabolising tissues is a process of both convective
87 flow within the systemic circulation, and diffusion along oxygen partial
88 pressure gradients within the tissues. To date, studies have predominantly
89 focused on the traditionally described aspects of acclimatisation, those
90 involving the restoration of CaO_2 and systemic oxygen delivery (DO_2) (4, 6,
91 15, 38). Whilst such studies have failed to provide a universally accepted
92 explanation for hypoxia tolerance, little attention has been paid to the tissue
93 components of the oxygen cascade. Within every tissue of the body, the
94 microcirculation (anatomically described as blood vessels $< 100 \mu\text{m}$ (26))
95 regulates localised blood flow to match micro-regional oxygen demand (9).
96 As the final step in the convective portion of the oxygen cascade, from where
97 oxygen diffuses into the surrounding tissues, alterations in the
98 microvasculature may disrupt the balance between oxygen supply and
99 demand at a cellular level, thereby acting as a 'bottleneck' in the oxygen
100 cascade. Accordingly, this potential limiting factor may be reduced or
101 obviated by maintaining adequate microcirculatory flow per unit time and / or
102 per unit volume of tissue (functional capillary density), and thus the
103 microcirculation should be considered important to the development of
104 hypoxia tolerance (25). This study tested the hypothesis that Sherpas
105 exposed to hypobaric hypoxia on ascent to 5300m, demonstrate increased

106 microcirculatory blood flow and vessel density as a means to maintain oxygen
107 delivery to the peripheral tissues.

108

109 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

110 **Participant selection**

111 Approval for this study was obtained both by the University College London
112 Research Ethics Committee, and the Nepal Health Research Council (NHRC)
113 as part of the Xtreme Everest 2 (XE2) research expedition (18). Healthy
114 Sherpa and Lowlander volunteers were recruited and written consent was
115 obtained from all participants. Sherpas were defined as being direct
116 descendants of Nepali Sherpas (for at least two generations), drawn from
117 communities in the Solukhumbu and Rolwaling valleys. Lowlanders were
118 recruited in the UK, they were not descendants from a native high altitude
119 population (e.g. Tibetan, Andean, Ethiopian), and all were born and lived
120 below 1000m.

121

122 **Study setting**

123 XE2 (29) was conducted from December 2012 to May 2013, and this was one
124 of the individual studies conducted on the research expedition. Sublingual
125 microcirculatory data were collected at three locations: 'Baseline testing' (BL),
126 'Everest Base Camp' (EBC) (5300m), and on descent in 'Kathmandu' (KTM)
127 (1300m). BL testing was conducted in London (LON) for Lowlanders (35m),
128 and in KTM (1300m) for Sherpas. Having departed from KTM, all participants
129 followed an identical ascent and descent profile. This consisted of a flight from

130 KTM to an altitude of 2800m, followed by an 11 day trek to EBC. A total of
131 three nights were then spent at 5300m, before descent to KTM in 5 days.

132

133 **Observation of the sublingual microcirculation**

134 The sublingual microcirculation was visualised using the Cytocam incident
135 dark field (IDF) imaging video-microscope (Braedius Medical, Huizen, The
136 Netherlands) (3). Prior to its use in the study, thorough assessment of this
137 new video-microscope and its automated analysis software was undertaken.
138 Results demonstrated that firstly the IDF-camera provided improved image
139 acquisition of human sublingual microcirculation when compared to the
140 sidestream dark field (SDF) video-microscope (17). The camera uses
141 polarised green light (wavelength 548nm) to illuminate the observed tissue.
142 This light corresponds to one of the isobestic points of oxy- and deoxy-
143 haemoglobin, and thus ensures optimal absorption by red blood cells within
144 the microvasculature regardless of oxygenation status (20). Absorption of
145 light by haemoglobin, but not by surrounding tissue, creates a distinct contrast
146 of dark and light colour respectively, and red blood cells moving through the
147 mucosal microcirculation thus appear as dark globules moving along the axis
148 of flow.

149 At each measurement point, participants were required to rest for ten minutes
150 in the supine position before any images were obtained. Images were
151 subsequently obtained following the standard operating guidelines of Trzeciak
152 et al. (41), whereby the investigator positioned and focused the IDF camera
153 under participant's tongue. Ten seconds of video footage was then digitally

154 recorded onto the computer where images were stored for later analysis. This
155 process was repeated on each participant until five good quality recordings
156 had been acquired from separate areas of the sublingual region. Studies were
157 conducted during the day, and subjects were sheltered from any extremes of
158 temperature. All images were obtained by one of three researchers, all of
159 whom were experienced in using the IDF video-microscope.

160

161 **Analysis and scoring of microcirculatory video images**

162 IDF data analysis was conducted by two researchers using the AVA 3.0
163 microcirculatory analysis software (MicroVision Medical, Amsterdam,
164 Netherlands) (10). To avoid observer bias during analysis of microcirculatory
165 films, investigators were blinded to both the study location and cohort identity
166 by assigning random codes to identify films. To assess for inter-observer
167 variability, the two observers evaluated a selection of IDF videos (30 films).
168 Each video was only deemed appropriate for analysis if it adhered to the
169 'microcirculation image quality scoring system' (31), whereby stability,
170 illumination, duration, focus, content, and pressure artefact are assessed.
171 Videos were subsequently corrected for background variation, image contrast
172 optimised, and to compensate for movement artefact, all video images
173 underwent image stabilisation by the analysis software. After initial automated
174 vessel detection, every film was checked visually, whereupon incorrectly
175 identified blood vessels were deleted, and undetected vessels were drawn
176 manually. Additionally, incorrectly disconnected segments of vessels were
177 'chained', and erroneously connected segments were 'unchained'.

178 In keeping with the consensus statement set out in 2007 (8), the mean score
179 from each of the five measurements recorded at each altitude was used. IDF
180 variables measured included the microvascular flow index, heterogeneity
181 index and vessel density.

182 i) Microvascular Flow Index (MFI). The magnitude of microvascular perfusion
183 is commonly evaluated by a semi-quantitative scoring system referred to as
184 the MFI (5, 12). The MFI is based on the determination of the average or
185 predominant flow type in the field of view at a given time point. It is quantified
186 using an ordinal scale as follows: 0 = no flow, 1= intermittent flow, 2 =
187 sluggish flow, 3 = continuous flow. The 'vessel by vessel' approach to MFI
188 calculation was utilised (11, 12) in this study, in which the mean value of the
189 MFIs in each individual vessel is calculated. This approach has been best
190 shown to correlate with both the erythrocyte velocity and the proportion of
191 perfused small vessels (36), and furthermore demonstrates the closest intra-
192 observer reliability for vessel detection and flow classification (35).

193 ii) Heterogeneity Index (HI). The flow HI provides information relating to the
194 presence of microcirculatory distributive alterations and shunting (13). It is
195 calculated as the highest site flow velocity (i.e. the MFI) minus the lowest site
196 flow velocity, divided by the mean flow velocity of all sublingual sites at that
197 time point (42).

198 iii) Vessel Density. Microcirculatory density is assessed as the vessel density.
199 The total length of the vessel is divided by the total surface of the analysed
200 vessel (mm/mm^2).

201 In each instance, both 'small vessel density' (<25 µm diameter) and 'large
202 vessel density' (>25 µm diameter) values are reported. Whilst the former
203 relates to capillaries (and thus contribute principally to organ perfusion and
204 are arguably the vessel of greatest significance), the latter are reported as
205 they are used as a quality control measure to ensure that excessive pressure
206 was not used in obtaining the videos.

207

208 **Physiological measurements**

209 Haemoglobin concentration (Hemocue AB, Hemocue, Sweden) and
210 haematocrit values (Sigma 1-14 microcentrifuge, Sigma, Germany) were
211 obtained from whole blood samples. Peripheral oxygen saturation (Nonin
212 Onyx 9500, Nonin Medical Inc, Minnesota, USA), heart rate, and blood
213 pressure (Omron M3H, Moron Healthcare, Japan) were recorded after ten
214 minutes seated at rest. Mean arterial pressure was calculated from the
215 systolic and diastolic values. Participant's tympanic temperature was
216 measured from the ear canal (Braun 4020, Kronberg, Germany).

217

218 **Statistical analysis**

219 All data were assessed for normality. A Shapiro Wilk's test ($P > 0.05$), and
220 visual inspection of their histograms, normal Q-Q plots, and box plots showed
221 that the data were not normally distributed. Non-parametric tests were
222 therefore used for statistical analysis with values summarised as median and
223 interquartile ranges. Related samples Friedman's Two-Way Analysis of
224 Variance by Ranks tests (more than two sites) and related samples Wilcoxon

225 Signed Rank Test (between two sites) with Bonferroni correction applied were
226 used to assess the effect of hypoxia on the peripheral microcirculation.
227 Sherpa and Lowlander cohorts were compared using the unpaired Mann
228 Whitney U test. Data were presented as Box-Whisker plots. The relationship
229 between microcirculatory flow and other physiological variables were
230 assessed individually using Spearman's Rank correlation coefficient (r). Inter-
231 observer variability for analysis of the IDF images was assessed by
232 calculating the intra-class correlation coefficient. All statistical calculations
233 were performed on SPSS version 21 (IBM, USA), and a p-value of <0.05 was
234 taken to indicate statistical significance.

235

236 **RESULTS**

237 Of the 133 participants (64 Sherpas and 69 Lowlanders) who underwent
238 baseline testing (BL) testing, 131 (63 Sherpas and 68 Lowlanders) completed
239 testing at Everest base camp (EBC), and 83 (17 Sherpas and 66 Lowlanders)
240 in Kathmandu (KTM). The demographics of the participants are shown in
241 Table 1, and the information relating to the laboratory environments in Tables
242 2 and 3. At each altitude, heart rate (HR), systolic blood pressure (SBP),
243 diastolic blood pressure (DBP), mean arterial pressure (MAP), haemoglobin
244 concentration (Hb), haematocrit (Hct), peripheral oxygen saturation (SpO₂),
245 and core temperature were similar between the two cohorts (Table 4).

246 MFI and HI were used to provide indices of microcirculatory flow. The MFI for
247 small vessels (<25µm diameter) did not differ between Sherpas and
248 Lowlanders at BL (2.81 [2.60–2.98] vs. LL 2.96 [2.62-3.00] respectively), or in
249 KTM (2.97 [2.75-3.00] vs. 2.84 [2.52-3.00]), however, at EBC Sherpas had a

250 significantly higher MFI (3.00 [2.88 -3.00] vs. 2.66 [2.45-2.97]); ($p < 0.001$)
251 (Figure 1). The MFI for large vessels ($>25\mu\text{m}$ diameter) did not differ between
252 Sherpas and Lowlanders at any of the three measurement points.

253 There was no difference in the small vessel HI between Sherpas or
254 Lowlanders at BL (0.386 [0.336-0.402] vs. 0.359 [0.336-0.667]), however,
255 Lowlander values were significantly greater than Sherpa values at both EBC
256 (0.408 [0.374-0.724] vs. 0.341 [0.333-0.390]); ($p < 0.001$), and on descent to
257 KTM (0.392 [0.352-0.667] vs. 0.333 [0.333-0.470]); ($p = 0.010$) (Figure 2).

258 Small vessel density ($<25\ \mu\text{m}$ diameter) was not different between the two
259 cohorts at BL, or in KTM, but Sherpas had a significantly greater small vessel
260 density at EBC (13.83 mm/m^2 [11.41-14.52] vs. 10.52 mm/m^2 [8.90-11.34]); p
261 = 0.047) (Figure 3). There was no difference between Sherpas' and
262 Lowlanders' large vessel density ($>25\ \mu\text{m}$ diameter) at any site.

263 There was no correlation between either small vessel MFI, HI, or vessel
264 density, and any of the measured physiological variables (Hb, Hct, HR, SBP,
265 DBP, MAP, and SpO_2).

266 Inter-observer variability in IDF image analysis was assessed between two
267 investigators using the intra-class correlation coefficient. A strong correlation
268 was demonstrated, 0.89 (95%CI 0.83-0.96).

269

270 **DISCUSSION**

271 This study demonstrated differences between Sherpa and Lowlander
272 microcirculatory responses to sustained hypobaric hypoxia at high altitude.
273 Whilst no difference in microcirculatory blood flow and capillary density was

274 seen between cohorts in normoxia (BL), upon exposure to hypoxia Sherpas
275 demonstrated significantly greater values for both indices. Hypoxia caused
276 Sherpas to increase both microcirculatory blood flow and capillary density,
277 whilst Lowlanders decreased flow, but increased density, however, to a lesser
278 extent than the Sherpas (Figure 4). On descent to KTM, the relative increase
279 in vessel densities for both cohorts persisted, however, blood flow returned to
280 previous baseline values.

281

282 Numerous studies have attempted to determine the genetic and physiological
283 differences between the indigenous high altitude Sherpa (and Tibetan)
284 people, and those who live at low altitude (19). Few of these studies however,
285 have revealed any marked differences that might explain how this high
286 altitude population not only live, but seemingly thrive, so effectively under
287 conditions of chronic environmental hypoxia. In 2007, Erzurum et al (14)
288 explored the possibility that peripheral blood flow was an important
289 determinant in long-term adaptation to hypoxia. Venous occlusion
290 plethysmography (VOP) was utilised to measure blood flow in the forearm of
291 88 Tibetans at 4200m and 50 sea level residents at 206m. Their results
292 demonstrated Tibetans to have more than double the forearm blood flow than
293 American controls. Whilst these results supported earlier works relating to
294 blood flow (39), and skeletal muscle capillary density (22), notably the data
295 obtained using VOP in Erzurum's study relates to total blood flow in the
296 forearm as opposed to that in the microcirculation per se. The first description
297 of in vivo microcirculatory changes on ascent to high altitude, coincided with
298 the introduction of sidestream dark field imaging (21). On ascent to 4900m,

299 blood flow in the sublingual vessel was seen to reduce significantly in 12
300 lowland subjects (30), and similar data were recorded in a further 24 lowland
301 subjects on ascent to 5300m (28).

302 The Lowlander MFI data presented supports the findings of Martin et al. (28,
303 30) whereby flow decreased upon ascent to high altitude. In these
304 manuscripts it was theorised that the slowing microcirculatory blood flow
305 demonstrated could in fact be an adaptive response, applied to increase the
306 erythrocyte tissue transit time and improve oxygen diffusion. This is
307 conceivable since a prolonged course through the capillary network may
308 enhance offloading of oxygen in the presence of a reduced partial pressure
309 gradient between the capillary and mitochondria, particularly when cardiac
310 output is high, as is the case during exercise. Sherpas by contrast, seem to
311 utilise brisk flow to maintain localised oxygen delivery. This in turn may
312 explain the lower Hb concentration that this population demonstrate after
313 prolonged exposure to hypobaric hypoxia (4). Undoubtedly, increased Hb
314 concentration augments CaO_2 , however, elevated Hct increases blood
315 viscosity, alters its rheology and at levels greater than 50% may decrease
316 cardiac output and oxygen delivery (43). Furthermore, elevated Hct
317 demonstrated in South American resident populations, are associated with an
318 increased prevalence of chronic mountain sickness and related embolic or
319 thrombotic events (33). In contrast, it seems Sherpas favour a blunted
320 erythropoetic response thereby allowing for brisk microvascular blood flow.

321 The speed of microcirculatory blood flow *per se* may also be less important
322 than its nature. Maintaining a homogenous microcirculatory blood flow,
323 irrespective of the speed at which the contained blood may flow, could be

324 crucial to tissue perfusion. In this study, ascent to EBC was associated with a
325 fall in the HI in Sherpas, and an increase in Lowlanders, such that a
326 significant difference is evident between cohorts at high altitude. A lower HI
327 equates to more homogenous flow, and the importance of this may be
328 highlighted in the clinical setting where dysregulated, heterogeneous
329 microvascular flow is a fundamental mechanism through which tissue hypoxia
330 occurs in sepsis (7). In either case, whether the important determinant of
331 tissue oxygenation relates to the speed of blood flow, and / or the
332 homogenous nature of its flow, Sherpas demonstrate superiority in both.

333 The descent data observed in this study are also novel. The fact that MFI
334 values were similar between the two cohorts at BL and KTM, suggests that
335 the physiological basis underpinning Sherpas' ability to maximise
336 microcirculatory blood flow at altitude is transient and hypoxia-dependent. We
337 do however appreciate that only a small number of Sherpas were studied on
338 their return to Kathmandu, and thus we are cautious in our interpretation of
339 these data.

340

341 The data presented illustrating the effects of hypoxic exposure on Sherpa
342 capillary density is the first of its kind. Whilst no difference in small vessel
343 density was evident between cohorts at BL, these data demonstrate that
344 Sherpas have a substantial capacity to increase their capillary numbers. An
345 increase in sublingual vessel density on ascent to altitude has been previously
346 reported by Martin et al (28). That said, in his study conducted on 21
347 Lowlanders ascending to 5300m, it was not the density of small vessels
348 (<25µm) which altered at high altitude, but rather that of the larger vessels

349 (>25 μm). Whilst the actual values reported by Martin et al for small vessel
350 density were similar to those seen above, our data contrast with prior data
351 where we found Lowlanders to increase their small vessel density on ascent
352 to 5300m (Figure 3) ($p=0.020$), whilst their large vessel density did not
353 change. Whilst both studies used a very similar ascent profile, the
354 discrepancy between our findings may be due to the increased statistical
355 power of this study, and / or the fact that we used an IDF video-microscope as
356 opposed to the SDF video-microscope (17).

357

358 Whilst both cohorts demonstrated increased capillary density on ascent to
359 high altitude, Sherpas did so to a much greater degree. At EBC, their
360 capillary network was approximately 30% denser than Lowlanders. Vessel
361 recruitment due to elevated Hb and Hct might have accounted for the rise in
362 capillary density in both groups (16, 34, 37, 45). These values however, were
363 similar between the two cohorts upon arrival at EBC, so it seems unlikely that
364 this explains the observed difference between them, unless Sherpas have a
365 much larger un-recruited (and thus unseen) reservoir in normoxia. This is
366 certainly plausible, and as with flow, it is likely that the difference is ultimately
367 underpinned by genetic differences.

368

369 This is the first study of Sherpa microcirculation on ascent to, and descent
370 from high altitude. A large number of participants were studied, and over 98%
371 successfully ascended to EBC following an identical ascent profile. This
372 matched ascent profile along with serial measurements controls for variability

373 of exposure to hypoxia, and thereby enables valid inter-individual comparison
374 of hypoxia responses whilst amplifying the signal to noise ratio (24). The
375 newly released Cytocam video-microscope was used to obtain images of the
376 sublingual microcirculation, and our assessment of it prior to the expedition
377 demonstrated its superior capabilities regarding image acquisition compared
378 its predecessor SDF imaging (17). Unfortunately, no validation of the camera
379 in a hypobaric hypoxic environment was performed prior to the expedition,
380 and this is a limitation of the study. Further limitations include potential
381 recruitment bias, confounding factors within laboratories, the different altitude
382 for baseline testing in Sherpas (1300m) and Lowlanders (35m), and the small
383 number of Sherpas tested on descent. Whilst recruitment was through open
384 advertisement and word of mouth, the participants were self-selecting by
385 virtue of this research expedition involving opportunistic observation of
386 individuals with a desire to visit the study environment, and thus may not be
387 truly representative of a 'normal' Sherpa or Lowlander population. The
388 demographic data (Table 1) demonstrates that approximately equal numbers
389 of participants were compared, with a similar gender ratio in each group,
390 however, the age of participants was markedly lower in the Sherpa cohort,
391 whilst the percentage of smokers was higher. Smoking is known to affect the
392 vasculature and could thus be a confounding factor in the results (32).
393 Despite our best efforts to minimise temperature differences between
394 laboratories, disparities were still seen. This could affect microvascular flow
395 due to cold-induced vasoconstriction (23, 40). There were, however, no
396 significant differences between the environmental temperatures both cohorts
397 were exposed to within each individual laboratory (Table 3). Additionally, as

398 the sublingual circulation is within the oral cavity, and as such it is regarded as
399 being at a similar temperature to one's core, the data demonstrated no
400 differences in the two cohorts' tympanic temperatures (Table 4). Other
401 potential confounding factors specific to the high altitude environment include
402 hydration status which in turn may affect Hct values, and thus alter blood
403 rheology. The effect of this potential confounding factor was minimised by
404 conducting studies at all altitudes after a period of overnight rest and ensuring
405 subjects had free access to oral fluids and were actively encouraged to drink
406 enough fluid to produce normal volumes of clear urine. Finally, ascent to
407 altitude may cause tissue oedema (27), which if occurring in the sublingual
408 mucosa could theoretically affect image quality and lead to false
409 measurements of flow and density. Baseline testing was conducted in London
410 for Lowlanders (35m), and in Kathmandu (1300m) for Sherpas due to
411 logistical restraints. The reasoning behind this was twofold. Firstly, it would
412 not have been pragmatic or financially viable to fly all Sherpas to London for
413 their baseline testing. Secondly, data from Caudwell Xtreme Everest 2007
414 (24) had failed to identify any significant differences in participants' physiology
415 between the sea level and Kathmandu (1300m) laboratories; thus we believed
416 it to be scientifically appropriate to use these two distinct locations for baseline
417 testing. Lastly the notable deficit in Sherpas tested on descent in Kathmandu
418 should be highlighted. Forty-six Sherpas were not tested in Kathmandu
419 having previously been tested at EBC. This was the result of logistical
420 constraints.

421

422 In conclusion, this study suggests that adaptation to hypoxia in the Sherpa
423 sublingual microcirculation involves increasing both microcirculatory blood
424 flow and capillary density. In turn, teleological reasoning would suggest that
425 this results in a greater oxygen delivery both per unit time, and per unit
426 volume of tissue. It remains unclear whether these microvascular alterations
427 are restricted to the sublingual microcirculation, or what underlying
428 biochemical and physiological factors facilitate the changes in blood flow and
429 vessel density, and further work is required to explore these questions.

430

431 **FOOTNOTES**

432

433 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

434 **Members of the Xtreme Everest 2 Research Group are as follows: S**

435 Abraham, T Adams, W Anseeuw, R Astin, B Basnyat, O Burdall, J Carroll, A

436 Cobb, J Coppel, O Couppis, J Court, A Cumptsey, T Davies, S Dhillon, N

437 Diamond, C Dougall, T Geliot, E Gilbert-Kawai, G Gilbert-Kawai, E Gnaiger, M

438 Grocott, C Haldane, P Hennis, J Horscroft, D Howard, S Jack, B Jarvis, W

439 Jenner, G Jones, J van der Kaaij, J Kenth, A Kotwica, R Kumar BC, J Lacey,

440 V Laner, D Levett, D Martin, P Meale, K Mitchell, Z Mahomed, J Moonie, A

441 Murray, M Mythen, P Mythen, K O'Brien, I. Ruggles-Brice, K Salmon, A

442 Sheperdigian, T Smedley, B Symons, C Tomlinson, A Vercueil, L Wandrag, S

443 Ward, A Wight, C Wilkinson, S Wythe.

444 **Members of the Xtreme Everest 2 Research Scientific Advisory Board: M**

445 Feelisch, E Gilbert-Kawai, M Grocott (chair), M Hanson, D Levett, D Martin, K

446 Mitchell, H Montgomery, R Moon, A Murray, M Mythen, M Peters.

447

448 **GRANTS AND DISCLOSURES**

449 Xtreme Everest 2 is a research project coordinated by the Xtreme Everest

450 Hypoxia Research Consortium, a collaboration between the University

451 College London Centre for Altitude, Space, and Extreme Environment

452 Medicine, the Centre for Human Integrative Physiology at the University of

453 Southampton and Duke University Medical Centre.

454 Xtreme Everest 2 was supported by the Royal Free Hospital NHS Trust
455 Charity, the Special Trustees of University College London Hospital NHS
456 Foundation Trust, the Southampton University Hospital Charity, the UCL
457 Institute of Sports Exercise and Health, The London Clinic, University College
458 London, University of Southampton, Duke University Medical School, the
459 United Kingdom Intensive Care Society, the National Institute of Academic
460 Anaesthesia, the Rhinology and Laryngology Research Fund, The
461 Physiological Society, Smiths Medical, Deltex Medical, Atlantic Customer
462 Solutions and the Xtreme Everest 2 volunteer participants who trekked to
463 Everest Base Camp.

464 Some of this work was undertaken at University College London Hospital-
465 University College London NIHR Biomedical Research Centre, which received
466 a proportion of funding from the United Kingdom Department of Health's
467 National Institute for Health Research Biomedical Research Centres funding
468 scheme. Some of this work was undertaken at University Hospital
469 Southampton-University of Southampton NIHR Respiratory Biomedical
470 Research Unit, which received a proportion of funding from the United
471 Kingdom Department of Health's National Institute for Health Research
472 Biomedical Research Units funding scheme.

473

474 **AUTHORS CONTRIBUTIONS**

475 EGK, MG and DM were involved in the conception and design of the study,
476 EGK, JC, JC, JVK, AND AV performed experiments; EGK and JC analyzed
477 data; EGK and DM interpreted results of experiments; EGK and DM prepared

478 figures; EGK, MG and DM drafted the manuscript; all authors approved final
479 version of manuscript.

480

481

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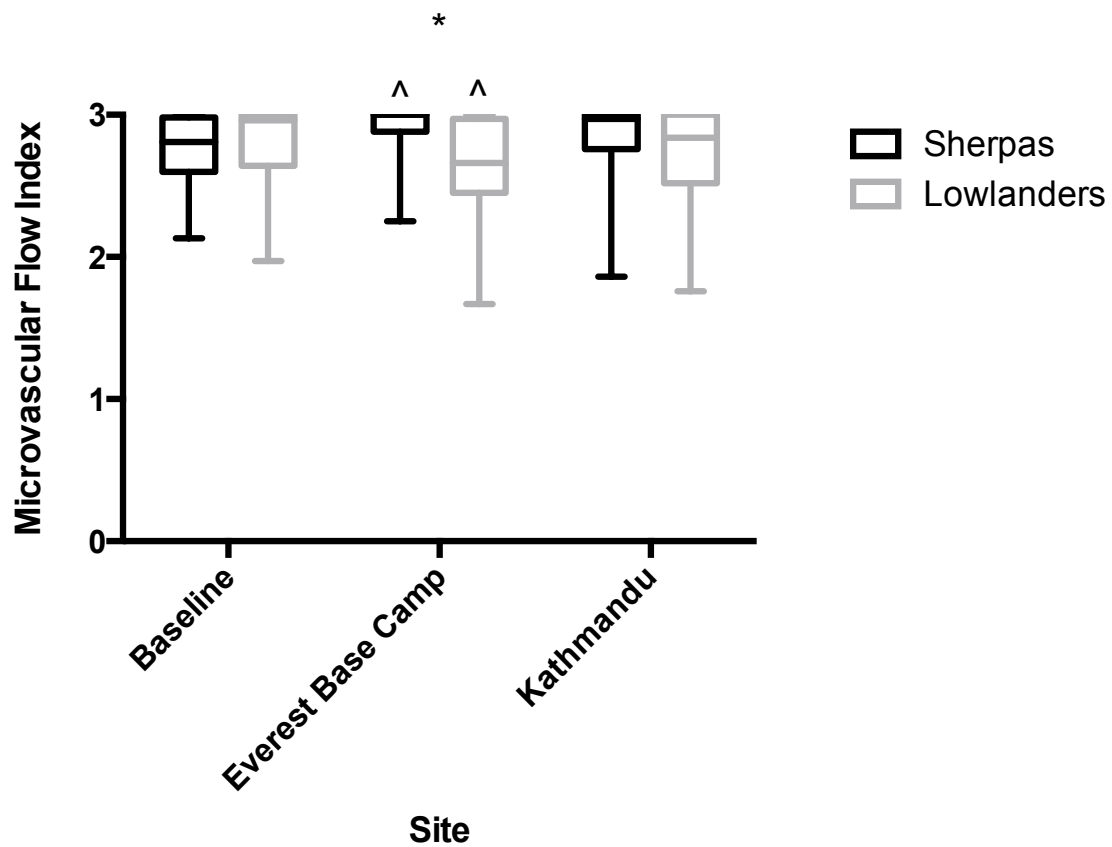
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Figure 1. Small vessel (<25µm) microvascular flow index (MFI) in Sherpas and Lowlanders on ascent to and descent from high altitude

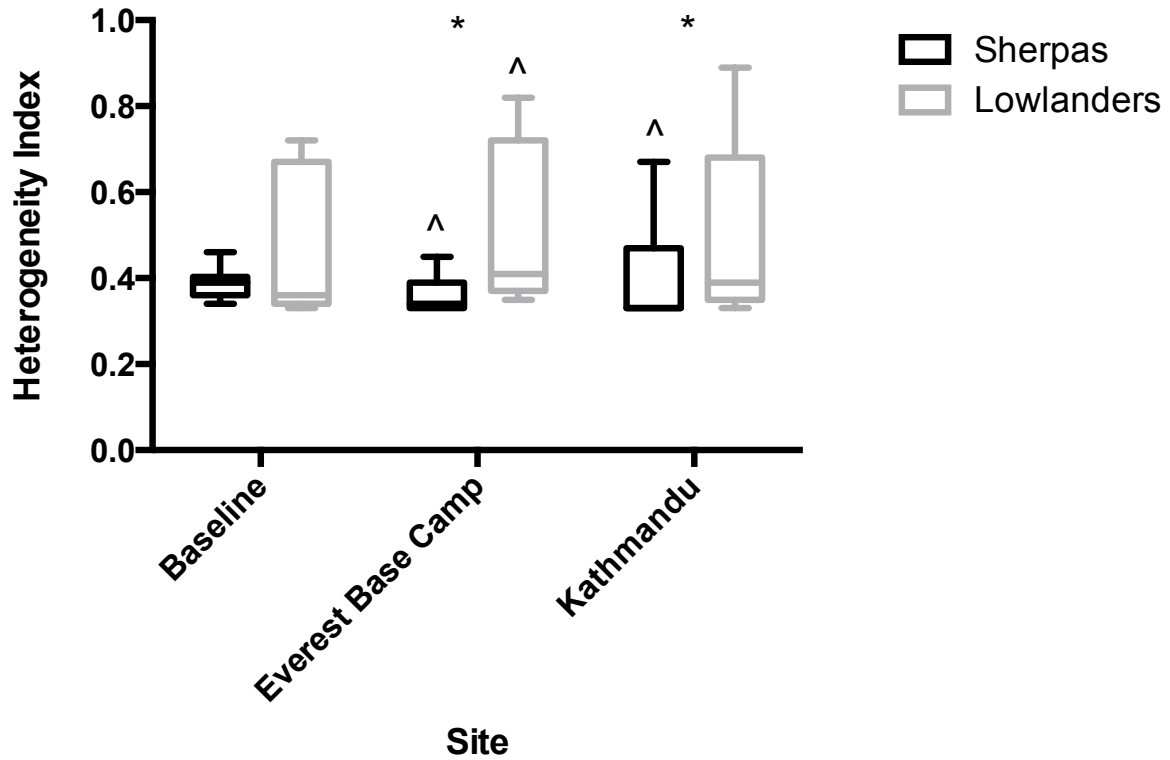


* = Significant difference demonstrated between cohorts at that site.

^ = Significant difference demonstrated for that cohort between relevant site and BL.

Fig 1. Ascent to high altitude caused Sherpa microvascular flow index (MFI) to increase from Baseline, whilst Lowlanders' decreased (^). A significant difference is demonstrated between Sherpa and Lowlanders small vessel MFI at Everest Base Camp (*).

Figure 2. Small vessel (<25µm) heterogeneity index in Sherpas and Lowlanders on ascent and descent from high altitude

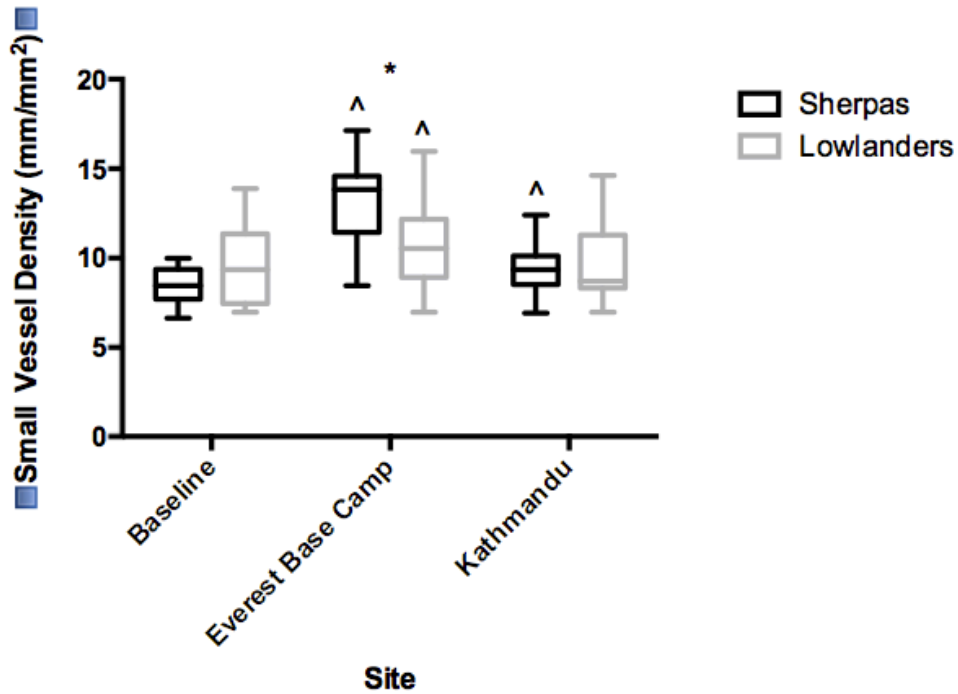


* = Significant difference demonstrated between cohorts at that site.

^ = Significant difference demonstrated for that cohort between relevant site and BL.

Fig 2. Sherpas heterogeneity index (HI) was seen to decrease at Everest Base Camp (EBC) and Kathmandu (KTM) compared to Baseline (BL), whilst Lowlanders increased at EBC (^). A significant difference was seen between cohorts HI at EBC and KTM (*).

Figure 3. Small vessel (<25 μ m) density in Sherpas and Lowlanders on ascent and descent from high altitude



* = Significant difference demonstrated between cohorts at that site.

^ = Significant difference demonstrated for that cohort between relevant site and BL.

Fig 3. Sherpas small vessel density (VD) can be seen to increase at Everest Base Camp (EBC), and remains higher than Baseline values on return to Kathmandu (KTM) (^).

Lowlanders VD increases at EBC (^), but then returns to Baseline values on return to KTM.

At EBC, Sherpas demonstrate a significantly larger VD compared to Lowlanders (*).

Figure 4: Depiction of the changes in sublingual small vessel density and microvascular flow occurring on ascent to, and descent from, high altitude.

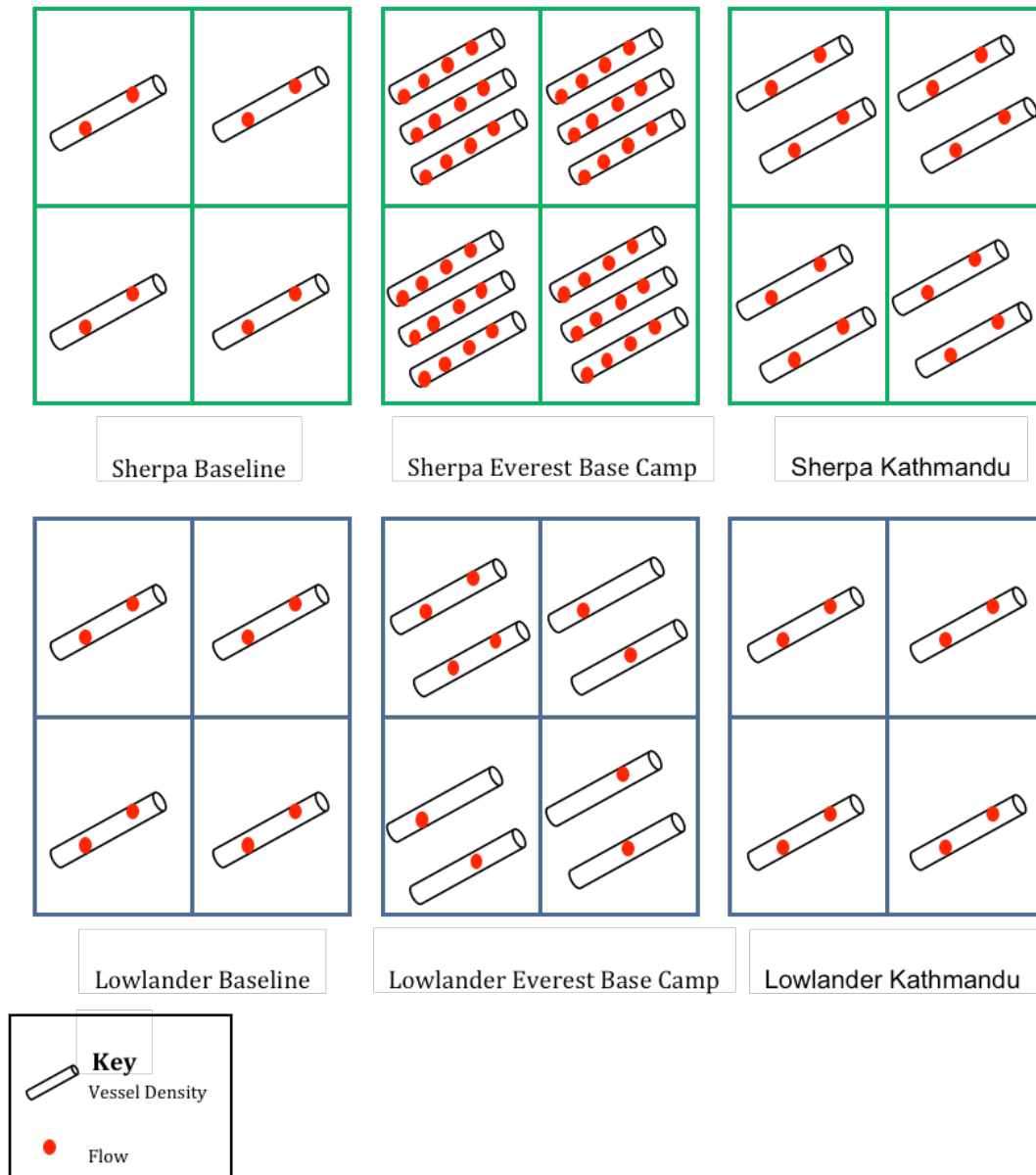


Fig 4. On ascent to high altitude, Sherpas are seen to increase dramatically both their small vessel density, and microvascular flow in a uniform and homogenous manner. On re-exposure to normoxia, flow returns to previous baseline values, but whilst vessel density decreases, it still remains greater than initial baseline values. Lowlanders also increase their small vessel density on ascent to high altitude but to a far lesser extent than Sherpas. Their microvascular flow decreases, however not in a uniform manner such that it has become heterogenous in nature. On re-exposure to normoxia, both vessel density and flow return to baseline values.

Table 1: Demographic summary of participants

	Sherpas	Lowlanders
Number	64	69
Gender (% male)	47%	39%
Age (years)	27.9 (\pm 6.9)	41.3 (\pm 13.9)
Height (cm)	160 (\pm 6)	171 (\pm 10)
Weight (kg)	71.1 (\pm 13.5)	61.3 (\pm 8.9)
Smokers	14 (\pm 21%)	6 (\pm 8.6%)

Values for age, height, weight and smokers are presented as mean value (\pm standard deviation).

Table 2: Laboratory environmental conditions

Laboratory	Altitude (m)	Barometric pressure (kPa)	Temperature (°C)	Humidity (%)	PO₂ (kPa)
London	35	100.6 (±0.2)	16.9 (±1.8)	35.4 (±6.5)	21.0
Everest Base Camp	5300	53.0 (±0.2)	12.9 (±8.2)	37.8 (±17.5)	11.0
Kathmandu	1300	86.8 (±0.4)	23.8 (±3.4)	47.4 (±15.7)	18.1

Barometric pressures, temperature and humidity are mean (± standard deviation) values recorded during laboratory testing in the field. PO₂ = calculated from barometric pressures assuming FiO₂ 0.209.

Table 3: Laboratory temperature and partial pressure of oxygen according to study cohort

	Baseline [^]		Everest Base Camp		Kathmandu (Descent)	
	Sh	LL	Sh	LL	Sh	LL
Laboratory temperature, °C	16.9 (±1.8)	22.6 (±3.2)	12.6 (±8.4)	12.9 (±7.9)	23.8 (±3.3)	24.1 (±3.1)
PIO₂, kPa	16.8	19.8	9.8	9.8	16.8	16.8

[^] Baseline testing for Lowlanders (LL) was in London, and baseline testing for Sherpas (Sh) was in Kathmandu. Both cohorts were tested in Kathmandu on descent. Values are mean (± standard deviation).

Table 4: Physiological variables for participants during the study

Laboratory	HR		SBP (mmHg)		DBP (mmHg)		MAP (mmHg)		SpO ₂ (%)		Hb (g/l)		Hct (%)	Core temperature (°C)		
	Sh	LL	Sh	LL	Sh	LL	Sh	LL	Sh	LL	Sh	LL	Sh	LL		
Baseline	69 (10)	64 (9)	121 (10)	127 (19)	81 (10)	79 (10)	94 (9)	95 (13)	97 (1)	98 (1.2)	137 (16)	141 (14)	43 (4.5)	43 (3.9)	36.3 (0.5)	36.3 (0.4)
Everest Base Camp	87 (10)	77 (14)	125 (13)	132 (16)	89 (11)	86 (8)	101 (11)	101 (10)	78 (5)	79 (5.3)	151 (17)	153 (20)	49 (4.5)	49 (5.7)	36.2 (0.6)	36.1 (0.7)
Kathmandu	75 (13)	68 (12)	112 (8)	122 (15)	75 (9)	80 (8)	87 (8)	95 (10)	95 (7)	97 (1.4)	140 (13)	145 (20)	43 (3.4)	46 (5.8)	36.1 (0.4)	36.2 (0.5)

Fig 4. The mean (\pm standard deviation) values for Sherpa (Sh) and Lowlander (LL) heart rate (HR), Systolic blood pressure (SBP), diastolic blood pressure (DBP), mean arterial pressure (MAP), peripheral oxygen saturations (SpO₂), haemoglobin concentration (Hb), haematocrit (Hct), and core temperature at each laboratory.

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