Experimental Physiology

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EP-RP-2018-086887

Title: UBC-Nepal Expedition: The use of oral antioxidants does not alter cerebrovascular function at sea-level or high-altitude

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Author Conflict: No competing interests declared

Running Title: Cerebrovascular function with antioxidants at 344 m and 5050 m

Abstract: There is evidence, albeit limited, that elevations in oxidative stress lead to impairments in cerebrovascular function in humans. The administration of antioxidants attenuates oxidative stress and may provide a mechanism of improving vascular function in situations where free radical production is excessive. One such scenario is exposure to hypoxia, where free radicals are elevated and vascular function is impaired; however, it remains to be determined if excessive oxidative stress is a relevant

mechanism underpinning hypoxia-mediated impairments of cerebrovascular function.
Thus, the purpose of the current study was to examine the influence of orally ingested antioxidants at clinically relevant doses (vitamin C, E, and alpha-lipoic acid) on
cerebrovascular regulation at sea-level (344 m; n=12 participants) and at high altitude (5050 m; n=9) in a randomized, placebo-controlled and double-blinded crossover
design. Hypercapnic and hypoxic cerebrovascular reactivity tests [internal carotid (ICA) and middle cerebral artery] were conducted at sea level while global and regional cerebral blood flow [ICA and vertebral artery flow (VA)] were assessed after 10-12 days following arrival at 5050 m. At sea level, acute administration of antioxidants did not alter cerebral vascular reactivity (hypoxic; pre vs post [1.50.7 vs 1.20.8 %ΔCBF/-%ΔSpO2; P=0.96] or hypercapnic; pre vs post [5.72.0 vs 5.81.9 %ΔCBF/ΔmmHg;
P=0.33]). Furthermore, global cerebral blood flow (P=0.43) as well as cerebral vascular conductance (ICA CVC P=0.08; VA CVC P=0.32) were unaltered at 5050 m following antioxidant administration. In conclusion, oral administration of antioxidants does not influence cerebrovascular function or blood flow at sea-level or high altitude.

New Findings: What is the central question of the study? Does the use of antioxidants alter cerebrovascular function and blood flow at sea-level (344 m) and/or high-altitude (5050 m)? What is the main finding and importance? This is the first study to investigate whether antioxidant administration alters cerebrovascular regulation and blood flow in response to hypercapnia, acute hypoxia and chronic hypoxia in healthy humans. We demonstrate that an acute dose of antioxidants does not alter cerebrovascular function and blood flow at sea-level (344 m) or following 12 days at high-altitude (5050 m).

Dual Publication: No

Funding: Canadian Research Chair in Cerebrovascular Physiology: Philip N Ainslie, 950-230970

UBC-Nepal Expedition: The use of oral antioxidants does not alter cerebrovascular function at sea-level or high-altitude

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20	Running Head: Cerebrovascular function with antioxidants at 344 m and 5050 m
21	
22	Keywords: Cerebral blood flow, oxidative stress, antioxidants
23	
24	Total word Count: 5310
25	Total mumber of unforce once 45
26 27	1 otal number of references: 45
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47 New Findings

49 What is the central question of the study?

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- 52 and/or high-altitude (5050 m)?

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- 54 This is the first study to investigate whether antioxidant administration alters cerebrovascular
- regulation and blood flow in response to hypercapnia, acute hypoxia and chronic hypoxia in
- 56 healthy humans. We demonstrate that an acute dose of antioxidants does not alter
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Abstract 84

85 There is evidence, albeit limited, that elevations in oxidative stress lead to impairments in 86 cerebrovascular function in humans. The administration of antioxidants attenuates oxidative 87 stress and may provide a mechanism of improving vascular function in situations where free 88 radical production is excessive. One such scenario is exposure to hypoxia, where free radicals are 89 elevated and vascular function is impaired; however, it remains to be determined if excessive oxidative stress is a relevant mechanism underpinning hypoxia-mediated impairments of 90 91 cerebrovascular function. Thus, the purpose of the current study was to examine the influence of 92 orally ingested antioxidants at clinically relevant doses (vitamin C, E, and alpha-lipoic acid) on 93 cerebrovascular regulation at sea-level (344 m; n=12 participants) and at high altitude (5050 m; 94 n=9) in a randomized, placebo-controlled and double-blinded crossover design. Hypercaphic and 95 hypoxic cerebrovascular reactivity tests [internal carotid (ICA) and middle cerebral artery] were 96 conducted at sea level while global and regional cerebral blood flow [ICA and vertebral artery 97 flow (VA)] were assessed after 10-12 days following arrival at 5050 m. At sea level, acute 98 administration of antioxidants did not alter cerebral vascular reactivity (hypoxic; pre vs post [1.5±0.7 vs 1.2±0.8 % \[\Delta CBF/-% \[\Delta SpO_2; P=0.96 \] or hypercaphic; pre vs post [5.7±2.0 vs 5.8±1.9 99 100 $\Delta CBF/\Delta mmHg$; P=0.33]). Furthermore, global cerebral blood flow (P=0.43) as well as 101 cerebral vascular conductance (ICA CVC P=0.08; VA CVC P=0.32) were unaltered at 5050 m 102 following antioxidant administration. In conclusion, oral administration of antioxidants does not 103 influence cerebrovascular function or blood flow at sea-level or high altitude. Words: 247 104 105 106 107

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110 Introduction

Oxidative stress refers to the imbalance between the production of pro-oxidants (e.g. free radicals) and available antioxidants (e.g. vitamin C). The physiological effect of oxidative stress is determined by the magnitude of this imbalance; homeostasis consists of low levels of oxidative stress (Trinity et al., 2016) while high-levels – albeit as of yet not precisely defined concentrations – are pathological and have been implicated in the structural damage and vascular dysfunction observed in multiple disease states (Ives et al., 2014; Lavi et al., 2006; Rossman et al., 2015; Ting et al., 1996).

118 Elevated markers of oxidative stress are evident in both acute (Irarrázaval et al., 2017) 119 and chronic hypoxia (Lewis et al., 2014), which may lead to a reduction in nitric oxide (NO) 120 bioavailability through the interaction of NO and superoxide (i.e. free radical $[O_2]$) to form peryoxynitrite $(O_2^{-} + NO = ONOO^{-})$ (Meli et al., 2002; Thomas et al., 2008). This reduction in 121 122 NO bioavailability may ultimately decrease peripheral vascular function (Green et al., 2011) as well as cerebrovascular CO₂ (Smith et al., 1997) and hypoxic (Bailey et al., 2009) reactivity. 123 124 Thus, as administration of antioxidants reduces overall total oxidative stress concentrations 125 (Richardson et al., 2007) this may improve cerebrovascular function. Excessive increases in 126 oxidative stress have been observed in clinical populations with impaired cerebrovascular 127 reactivity to CO_2 such as diabetes (Lavi et al., 2006; Ting et al., 1996) and acute ischemic stroke 128 (Kotur-Stevuljevic et al., 2015; Reinhard et al., 2004).

While animal studies have demonstrated no effect of elevated oxidative stress on cerebrovascular CO₂ reactivity (e.g., experimental increases in the hydroxyl radical) (Leffler et al., 1991; Rosenblum, 1983) the limited studies conducted to date in humans indicate oxidative stress may in fact impair cerebral reactivity (Hartmann et al., 2015; Hartmann et al., 2012). 133 Nevertheless, the paucity of data in humans (especially healthy humans) is quite surprising given 134 the susceptibility of the brain to changes in the redox balance. Further, studies conducted to date 135 have been methodologically limited as only data on intra-cranial cerebral blood velocity 136 responses to antioxidants using transcranial Doppler (TCD) ultrasound have been collected. For 137 example, in 2015, Hartmann and colleagues reported that intravenous infusion of vitamin C 138 (three grams) reduced cerebral blood velocity during acute hypoxia in young healthy individuals. 139 There are, however, methodological issues associated with TCD as the technique assumes the 140 diameter of the insonated intra-cranial vessel (e.g. middle cerebral artery, [MCA]) remains 141 constant in hypoxia (Hartmann et al., 2015). Given the recent criticisms of this assumption 142 [reviewed in: (Hoiland & Ainslie, 2017)], further assessment of the role of antioxidants in 143 cerebrovascular regulation is warranted where both diameter and velocity are both assessed. 144 Using a previously validated antioxidant cocktail (Richardson et al., 2007; Wray et al.,

145 2012) combined with high resolution duplex ultrasonography, in two separate studies, we

146 investigated if oral administration of antioxidants alters cerebral hemodynamics: (1) during acute

147 exposure to hypercapnia and normobaric hypoxia, and (2) following a 9-day trekking ascent and

subsequent12-days at high-altitude (5050 m). Both studies employed a double blinded,

randomized, placebo controlled design at sea level (Study 1) and high altitude (Study 2). In

150 Study 1, we hypothesized that the cerebral vascular response to hypercapnia and hypoxia would

151 be reduced after the administration of oral antioxidants in young healthy subjects at sea-level. In

152 Study 2 we anticipated that global cerebral blood flow (gCBF) would be increased following

administration of oral antioxidants in young healthy subjects at high-altitude.

154 Methods

155 Ethical Approval

All experimental procedures were approved by University of British Columbia Clinical Research Ethics Board (CREB ID: H16-00101) and the Nepal Health Research Council, and conformed to the standards set by the *Declaration of Helsinki*. Verbal and written consent were obtained from all participants.

160 Study 1 – Sea-level testing (344 m):

161 **Participants**

Twelve healthy young individuals (age: 24 ± 3 years of age; two females; body mass index 24 ±2 kg/m²) volunteered to participate in Study 1. Participants were screened to ensure reliable ultrasound measurements of the internal carotid artery (ICA). All participants were free of cardiovascular, respiratory & cerebrovascular diseases, were non-diabetic, and were not taking any prescription drugs (other than oral contraceptives n=2) at the time of participation. A dietary food restriction sheet was given to all participants so that they could avoid foods high in antioxidants and nitrates (Kapil et al., 2014).

169 Protocol design

Figure one illustrates the protocol design for studies 1 & 2. Study 1 required two separate laboratory visits that were separated by at least 48 hrs to account for adequate antioxidant washout (Bailey & Davies, 2001; Richardson et al., 2007). Participants arrived at the laboratory having abstained from caffeine for 12 hours, exercise and alcohol for 24 hours, and had fasted for 2 hours following a light meal. Upon arrival, participants were asked to lie in the supine position for 15-minutes while they were instrumented (see 'Experimental Measures' below).

After the 15-minute rest period, baseline ventilatory, cardiovascular, and cerebrovasculardata were recorded during five minutes of room air breathing. Participants then breathed on an

178 end-tidal forcing system (see 'Experimental Measures' below) where their room air partial 179 pressures of end-tidal carbon dioxide and oxygen ($P_{ET}O_2$ and $P_{ET}CO_2$) (e.g. $P_{ET}O_2 = 91.1 \pm 13.0$ mmHg & $P_{ET}CO_2 = 42.4 \pm 2.3$ mmHg) were held constant for two-minutes. Following the two-180 181 minute room air baseline period, the participants underwent five minutes of iso-oxic hypercapnia 182 (+9 mmHg P_{ET}CO₂). Cerebral blood flow (CBF) and cerebral blood velocity of the ICA and 183 MCA, respectively, were recorded during baseline and the last minute of hypercapnia. A five-184 minute recovery period followed the hypercapnia stage, before a second baseline was recorded for two-minutes followed by 10-minutes of isocapnic hypoxia ($P_{ET}O_2 = 45mmHg$) with the 185 186 P_{ET}O₂ targeted to mimic the level of P_{ET}O₂ at 5000 m based on a previous investigation by our 187 group (Lewis et al., 2014). Ultrasound images were recorded throughout the two-minute baseline 188 and the ten-minute trial, with the final minute used for analysis. After all measurements and 189 recordings were completed, the participant ingested either a placebo (appearance and weight 190 matched sugar pills) or antioxidant dose of vitamin C (500 mg), vitamin E (400 IU), and alpha 191 lipoic acid (300 mg). A second dose (antioxidant or placebo) containing vitamin C (500 mg), 192 vitamin E (200 IU), and alpha lipoic acid (300 mg) was ingested approximately 30-minutes after 193 the first antioxidant dose. The use of this specific oral antioxidant dose has been previously 194 established showing increased antioxidant levels within the blood and decreased systemic free 195 radical-mediated lipid peroxidation (Richardson et al., 2007; Wray et al., 2012). Postdrug/placebo experimentation resumed exactly 60-minutes after the second dose of either 196 197 placebo or antioxidants (Bailey & Davies, 2001; Richardson et al., 2007).

198 Study 2 - High altitude testing (5050 m):

199 Participants

Nine healthy young individuals (age: $24\pm4yrs$; two females; body mass index: 23 $\pm2kg/m^2$) volunteered for Study 2. All participants were born and lived close to sea-level (<1500 m). Participants were screened to ensure reliable ultrasound measurements of the ICA. All participants were free of cardiovascular, respiratory & cerebrovascular diseases, were nondiabetic, and were not taking any prescription drugs or antioxidant supplements (other than oral contraceptives n=1, and IUD n=1) at the time of or prior to participation.

206 High-altitude protocol design (Figure 1)

207 Similar to Study 1, the design was double blinded, randomized and placebo controlled. 208 Each laboratory visit was separated by 48 hrs to ensure adequate antioxidant washout 209 (Richardson et al., 2007). Each trial was completed within the Ev-K2-CNR Pyramid laboratory located in Khumbu Valley, Nepal (5050 m), and this study was a part of a larger research 210 211 expedition conducted between September and November of 2016 which is currently under 212 review. In brief, ascent to the Pyramid Laboratory took place over a slow and safe 9-day trekking 213 protocol without the use of any acute mountain sickness prophylactics (e.g., acetazolamide). 214 Participants spent one night in Monjo (2800 m), three nights in Namche Bazaar (3400m), one 215 night in Deboche (3820 m), and then three nights in Pheriche (4371 m) followed by the final 216 trekking day to the Pyramid laboratory (5050 m), and 12 days after initial arrival. While at the 217 Pyramid laboratory, participants took part in several studies that were conducted throughout the 218 three-week period, but careful consideration of washout times and recovery meant there was no

crossover between studies. Moreover, the *a priori*, primary research questions addressed in thecurrent paper are novel and are exclusively dealt with in this study alone.

Participants were examined after refraining from caffeine for 12 hours, exercise and 221 222 alcohol for 24 hours, and were fasted for at least two hours. Participants were instrumented and 223 cardiorespiratory measures were taken at the start of both the pre- and post-testing trials. 224 Participants were requested to lie quietly in the supine position for 15-minutes upon arrival. 225 Following the collection of the cardiorespiratory variables detailed below, two-minute ultrasound 226 recordings of both the ICA and vertebral artery (VA) were obtained. Immediately following 227 these CBF measures, similar to the study 1, participants ingested two doses of either placebo or 228 antioxidants (vitamin C, E, alpha-lipoic acid).

229 Experimental measures

230 Study 1- sea-level

231 All cardiorespiratory variables were sampled continuously throughout the protocol at 232 1KHz via an analogue-to-digital converter (Powerlab, 16/30; ADInstruments, Colorado Springs, 233 CO, USA). Heart rate (HR) was measured by a 3-lead electrocardiogram (ADI bioamp ML132; 234 ADInstruments, Colorado Springs, CO, USA), and beat-to-beat blood pressure by finger 235 photoplethysmography (Finometer PRO, Finapres Medical Systems, Amsterdam, Netherlands). 236 The Finometer reconstructed brachial waveform was used for the calculation of mean arterial 237 pressure (MAP) after values were back calibrated to the average of three automated brachial 238 blood pressure measurements made over 5-minutes at rest (Tango+; SunTech, Morrisville, NC, 239 USA). Participants' P_{ET}CO₂, and P_{ET}O₂ were sampled at the mouth, and recorded by a calibrated 240 gas analyzer (model ML206; ADInstruments, Colorado Springs, CO, USA). Ventilation (V_E), 241 tidal volume, and breathing frequency were measured by a pneumotachograph (model HR 800L,

HansRudolph, Shawnee, KS, USA) connected in series to a bacteriological filter. Peripheral
oxyhemoglobin saturation (SpO₂), was measured using a pulse-oximeter. All data measurements
were displayed on LabChart (version 7.1; ADInstruments, Colorado Springs, CO, USA), and
analyzed offline. Analysis and collection of all data were performed blinded to the condition
(i.e., placebo vs antioxidants).

247 Blood velocity and vessel diameter of the ICA were measured using a 10MHz multi-248 frequency duplex ultrasound (Terason T3200, Teratech, Burlington, MA, USA). Arterial 249 diameter was assessed with B-mode imaging while pulse-wave mode was used to simultaneously 250 measure peak blood velocity. Measures of ICA blood flow (Q_{ICA}) were made ipsilateral to 251 MCA. Blood vessel diameter and velocity of ICA were measured at least 1.5 cm distal from the 252 common carotid bifurcation to eliminate measures of turbulent and retrograde flow. Blood 253 velocity through the right MCA (MCAv) was measured using a 2MHz transcranial Doppler 254 ultrasound (TCD; Spencer Technologies, Seattle, WA, USA). The TCD probes were secured in 255 place using a specialized headband (model M600 bilateral head frame, Spencer technologies, 256 Redmond, WA, USA) using standardized techniques (described in Willie et al., 2011).

257 In Study 1, both P_{ET}CO₂ and P_{ET}O₂ were controlled using a dynamic end-tidal forcing 258 system. The system uses independent gas solenoid valves for O₂, CO₂, and nitrogen (N₂) and 259 controls the volume of each gas delivered into a reservoir through a mixing and humidification 260 chamber. The P_{ET}O₂, P_{ET}CO₂, expiratory and inspiratory tidal volume, frequency of breathing, 261 and minute ventilation were determined for each participant on a breath-by-breath basis in real 262 time using custom designed software (Labview 13.0, National Instruments, Austin, TX, USA). 263 The operation and use of our dynamic end-tidal forcing system has been previously described in 264 detail (Tymko et al., 2016; Tymko et al, 2015). Cerebral reactivity to hypercapnia was calculated using the baseline cerebral blood flow measure subtracting the final minute of cerebral blood flow measures during hypercapnia, then dividing by the overall change in $P_{ET}CO_2$. Similarly, the following formula was used for the calculation of hypoxic reactivity = $\%\Delta CBF/\%\Delta SpO_2$.

268 *Study* 2 – *high-altitude*

Systolic, diastolic and MAP were recorded along with HR from an automated blood
 pressure cuff (HEM-775CAN, Omron Healthcare, Bannockburn, IL, USA). Respiratory rate and
 P_{ET}CO₂ were measured from a portable device (EMMA, Mainstream Capnometer, Danderyd,
 Sweden), and SpO₂ from a finger pulse oximeter (Vacu-med, Ventura, California, USA).

In Study 2, ICA flow was assessed as described above. In addition, the diameter and velocity of the vertebral artery (VA) were also measured between C4-C5, C5-C6, or proximal to entry into the vertebral column. These locations were determined on an individual basis, with the same location repeated in each participant to acquire reproducible measures. The use of TCD to assess MCAv was not used in the high-altitude protocol.

278 At high-altitude and sea-level volumetric blood flow was calculated using the following formula:

279
$$Q_{ICA}$$
, or $Q_{VA} = \frac{\text{Peak Envelope Velocity}}{2} * [\pi (0.5*\text{Diameter})^2]$

280 For the high-altitude study, gCBF was calculated using the following formula:

$$gCBF = (Q_{ICA} + Q_{VA}) \cdot 2$$

281 Cerebrovascular conductance (CVC) was determined to account for differences in MAP 282 during analysis of CBF responses. This was calculated for both ICA and VA (e.g., Q_{ICA}/MAP 283 and Q_{VA}/MAP). Screen capture software was used for ultrasound recordings, and video files 284 were stored for offline analysis. Analysis videos of both the ICA and VA were recorded and 285 analyzed while blinded to the protocol (placebo vs antioxidant). Edge detection and walltracking software were used to determine measures of vessel diameter and peak blood velocity, at least twelve consecutive cardiac cycle were used to determine Q_{ICA} and Q_{VA} (Woodman et al., 2001).

289 Data Analysis

290 Statistical analysis for both sea-level and high-altitude were performed using IBM SPSS 291 (Version 24, IBM statistics), and are reported as mean \pm standard deviation (SD). Statistical 292 significance was assumed at P < 0.05. Data analysis was separated via the two different studies. 293 For study 1, a two-way (Study 1: drug/placebo x time) repeated measures analysis of variance 294 (ANVOA) were used to compare CBF and cardiovascular variables either pre/post antioxidant or 295 placebo for both the hypoxia and hypercapnic trials. For study 2, a two-way (Study 2: drug x 296 time) repeated measures ANOVA was used to compare CBF and cardiovascular variables with 297 the antioxidant and placebo trial as a function of pre versus post intervention. For both studies, 298 when interaction effects were detected pairwise comparisons were made using Bonferroni-299 corrected t-tests.

300 **Results**

301 *Study 1- Acute hypercapnia and hypoxia*

302 Cardiovascular and cerebrovascular baseline variables for placebo and antioxidant with 303 iso-oxic hypercapnia (+9 mmHg $P_{ET}CO_2$) and isocapnic hypoxia (45 mmHg $P_{ET}O_2$) are 304 presented in Table 1 and 2, respectively. Both hypercapnia and hypoxia elevated MAP, HR, and 305 V_E (P<0.05 for both trials). During the hypercapnic trials, $P_{ET}O_2$ was maintained at each 306 participant baseline levels ($P_{ET}O_2 = 92.5$ vs 93.2 mmHg; P=0.77) for each testing trial. Similarly, 307 during the hypoxic trials $P_{ET}CO_2$ was maintained at each participant baseline levels ($P_{ET}CO_2 = 92.5$ vs 93.2 mmHg; P=0.77) for each testing trial.

308 43.0 vs 42.7 mmHg; P=0.67) for each testing trial. There were no significant differences in the 309 magnitude of end-tidal gas manipulations between placebo and antioxidant. Hypercapnia 310 increased Q_{ICA} (P<0.001), ICAv (P=0.01), ICA diameter (P=0.001), ICA CVC (P<0.001), and 311 MCAv (P<0.001). Similarly, Q_{ICA} (P=0.01), ICAv (P=0.01), ICA diameter (P=0.001), ICA CVC 312 (P=0.03), and MCAv (P=0.001) all increased during isocapnic hypoxia. There were no between-313 trial (i.e., placebo vs. antioxidant) differences for any cerebrovascular variables. Figure 2 shows 314 individual data of both hypoxic and hypercapnic reactivity within the ICA pre and post in 315 placebo and antioxidants.

316 Study 2- Chronic Hypoxia

Cardiovascular and cerebral vascular variables are presented in Table 4. There were no significant differences in MAP or SpO₂ pre-versus post administration of either antioxidants or placebo. Similarly, there was no significant changes in Q_{ICA} (P=0.22), ICAv (P=0.83), ICA diameter (P=0.19), ICA CVC (P=0.07), Q_{VA} (P=0.26), VAv (P=0.20), VA diameter (P=0.11), and VA CVC (P=0.32). Figure 3 demonstrates that there were no significant alterations in gCBF

following placebo or antioxidant treatment (P=0.43).

323 Discussion

This is the first study to investigate whether antioxidant administration alters cerebrovascular regulation and blood flow in response to hypercapnia, acute hypoxia, and chronic hypoxia in healthy humans. The primary findings from our study were that the administration of oral antioxidants did not alter (i) hypercapnic or hypoxic cerebrovascular reactivity at sea-level (344 m) or (ii) gCBF at high-altitude (5050 m). Collectively, these findings highlight that at both sea-level and high-altitude, acute antioxidant administration does not alter cerebral vascular function in young healthy humans.

332 Cerebrovascular function, reactive oxygen species and antioxidants

333 We found no significant change in either MCAv or ICA flow reactivity to hypoxia at 334 sea-level. A previous study performed by Hartmann et al., (2015) reported a decrease in MCAv 335 reactivity to isocapnic hypoxia in young healthy participants following intravenous infusion of 336 vitamin C (three grams) (Hartmann et al., 2015). Differences between the findings of Hartmann 337 et al. (2015) and the present study may be explained by their use of TCD to obtain velocity and 338 not flow, as recent evidence has suggested that the MCA dilates in hypoxia (Verbree et al., 339 2014), and that just using MCAv would ultimately underestimate cerebral blood flow (Hoiland & 340 Ainslie, 2017). In the current study, we observed dilation within the ICA during both 341 hypercapnia and acute hypoxia trials. Although, the physical properties (i.e. anatomical size and 342 compliance) between intracranial and extracranial compartments differ, these data alone are 343 consistent with previous reports of dilation of the ICA as well as the MCA during changes in 344 arterial blood gases (Hoiland, et al., 2017; Imray et al., 2014; Wilson et al., 2011). Another 345 consideration is that Hartmann and colleagues (2015) utilized a supra-physiological intravenous 346 dose of vitamin C (three grams vs. the upper recommended limit for daily intake of two grams). 347 This dose was speculated to have a pro-oxidant effect, instead of antioxidant effect (Hartmann et 348 al., 2015). The dosing strategy used within the current study is likely more physiologically 349 relevant. Further, the use of only a water-soluble antioxidant (i.e. vitamin C), as was utilized by 350 Hartmann and colleagues (2015), reduces aqueous superoxide and alkoxyl radicals (Bailey & 351 Davies, 2001), but has a reduced ability to scavenge peroxyl radicals and related chain-breaking 352 abilities (Regoli & Winston, 1999). In contrast, lipid-soluble antioxidants target peroxyl radicals 353 (Burton & Ingold, 1989). Therefore, our current study used an antioxidant cocktail that contained

water (e.g. vitamin C) and lipid (e.g. α -tocopherol) soluble chain-breaking antioxidants in combination with α -lipoic acid, a unique "ideal" antioxidant that is both water and lipid soluble (Packer et al., 1997). This dosing combination allows for greater oxidative stress scavenging, as well as previously stated this dosing has been proven to reduce oxidative stress levels within humans (Richardson et al., 2007).

359 Similar to the hypoxia data, we found no significant change in either MCAv or ICA flow 360 reactivity to hypercapnia at sea-level after the administration of oral antioxidants. However, there 361 may be an equal or greater influence of other redundant and compensatory mechanisms 362 influencing vasomotor tone within the cerebral arteries during increased alterations of arterial 363 CO₂ other than strictly NO-mediated signal transduction (Smith et al., 1997) such as 364 prostaglandins which up-regulate cAMP causing vasodilation (Hoiland et al., 2016; Pelligrino & 365 Wang, 1998; St Lawrence et al., 2002), cerebral autoregulation (Ogoh et al., 2010), and sympathetic activity (Peebles et al., 2012). In relation, in COPD patients, it was demonstrated 366 using statistical covariate analysis that the elevated oxidative stress characteristic of COPD 367 368 patients may underpin their impaired CO₂ reactivity when compared to controls (Hartmann et al., 369 2012). However, this study only assessed cerebral blood velocity via TCD. Thus, the lack of 370 experimental manipulation of oxidative stress and limited technique for CBF measurement make 371 it difficult to draw strong inferences.

372 High altitude, cerebrovascular function, and antioxidants

The novelty of this current study was that it is the first to assess gCBF after acclimatization to altitude with and without the use of antioxidants. There are well reported elevations in oxidative stress with normobaric (Irarrázaval et al., 2017) and hypobaric hypoxia (Bailey et al., 2013; Lewis et al., 2014). Therefore, it is reasonable to hypothesize that this 377 increase in oxidative stress may, in part, be responsible for the alternations in cerebral vascular 378 function at high altitude (Jensen et al., 1996). Within Study 2, we reported the same consistent 379 gCBF values that were previously reported following ~ one week of acclimatization at the same 380 altitude [e.g. 815 ± 50 ml/min (Willie et al., 2014)]. Resting CBF remained unchanged at altitude 381 after the administration of acute oral antioxidants. As subjects were acclimatized and CBF had 382 returned to sea-level values (650 ± 68 ml/min) the antioxidant intervention may have had no 383 effect as CBF was already "normal". Whether or not chronic antioxidant supplementation 384 throughout the overall ascent or an increased dose may have resulted in different results remains 385 to be established.

386 *Methodological considerations*

387 Large quantities of peroxidizable polyunsaturated fatty-acid side chains and a limited 388 antioxidant defense leave the brain highly susceptible to high levels of oxidative stress (Bailey 389 et al., 2009). Furthermore, there are high concentrations of iron stores (McCord & Day, 1978) in 390 which interactions with oxidative stress may potentially lead to lipid peroxidation (Gutteridge et 391 al., 1983). Collectively, these mechanisms may leave the brain more susceptible to oxidative 392 stress and consequent dysfunction. Thus, it is somewhat surprising antioxidants had no effect; 393 however, this dosage has been demonstrated to reduce oxidative stress in peripheral venous 394 blood samples which may not be fully reflective of the cerebral vascular environment 395 (Richardson et al., 2007).

This current study was able to examine the effects of oral antioxidant supplementation on cerebrovascular regulation at both sea-level and high-altitude. As well, it implemented a doubleblinded, placebo controlled experimental design to account for any between-day variability unlike previous studies. There are, however, a number of limitations related to our altitude study 400 we must acknowledge. First, with any high-altitude field study comes a number of potential 401 confounders (e.g. altitude illness, increased sympathetic nervous activity, and subject physical 402 conditions). Second, while the measures applied in Study 1 provide greater insight into 403 cerebrovascular regulation, we were not able to replicate the design due to logistical issues 404 associated with high altitude field research and only quantified resting gCBF at HA. Third, we 405 were only able to recruit a relatively small sample size at altitude (n=9). Lastly, this study did not 406 measure blood samples to track changes in oxidative stress both at sea-level and high-altitude; however, we chose an identical dosing strategy previously shown to increase antioxidant levels 407 408 and reduce oxidative stress (Richardson et al., 2007).

409 Conclusion

410 In conclusion, oral administration of antioxidants does not influence cerebrovascular411 function and blood flow at sea-level or high altitude, respectively.

412 Author contributions

Conception and design of experiments: ABH, PNA. Data Collection: ABH, RLH, NSCL, MMT,
JCT, HHC, DNF, MS, PNA. Data analysis and interpretation: ABH, RLH, MMT, MS, NSCL,
PNA. Manuscript first draft: ABH, PNA. Critical revisions of manuscript for important
intellectual content: ABH, RLH, MMT, NSCL, JCT, MS, DNF, HHC, DMB, PNA. Approval of
final draft: ABH, RLH, NSCL, MMT, JCT, MS, DNF, HHC, DMB, PNA.

418 Disclosure

- 419 The authors disclose no conflicts of interests
- 420 Funding

421	This research was supported by Canadian Research Chair in Cerebrovascular Physiology (950-
422	230970; PNA). DMB is a Royal Society Wolfson Research Merit Award Holder (#WM170007).
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588 Tables:

Table 1. Cerebral vascular, hemodynamics, and respiratory variables at baseline and during iso-oxic hypercapnia following placebo or antioxidants. All data are presented as mean \pm SD.

_		Placebo		Antioxidant	
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post
P _{ET} CO₂ (mmHg)	Baseline	42.4 ± 2.3	42.3 ± 2.0	43.4 ± 2.1	$\textbf{42.9} \pm \textbf{2.2}$
	CO ₂	$52.3\pm2.4^{\star}$	$51.8 \pm 1.8^{\ast}$	$52.8 \pm 1.8^{\star}$	$52.7\pm2.2^{\ast}$
P value	Pre vs Post P	=0.89; CO ₂ P<0.05; Interaction P<0.05		Pre vs Post P=0. Interactio	89; CO ₂ P<0.05; n P=0.58
VE (L∙min⁻¹)	Baseline	13.1 ± 3.5	14.5 ± 5.3	13.8 ± 4.8	14.1 ± 4.5
	CO ₂	$40.0\pm15.1^{\ast}$	$37.6 \pm 16.1^{*}$	$\textbf{38.2} \pm \textbf{13.0}^{*}$	$39.9 \pm \mathbf{13.2^*}$
P value	Pre vs Post P:	=0.84; CO ₂ P<0.05;	Interaction P=0.40	Pre vs Post P=0. Interactio	36; CO ₂ P<0.05; n P=0.44
MAP (mmHg)	Baseline	89.2 ± 11.8	88.6 ± 9.8	91.5 ± 8.1	91.7 ± 13.4
	CO ₂	$97.8 \pm 14.0^{\star}$	$96.7\pm9.4^{*}\infty$	$96.6\pm6.3^{\star}$	$97.4\pm8.7\infty$
P value	Pre vs Post P	<0.05; CO ₂ P<0.05;	Interaction P<0.05	Pre vs Post P=0. Interactio	64; CO ₂ P<0.05; n P=0.86
HR (beats⋅min ⁻¹)	Baseline	63.7 ± 10.9	59.5 ± 10.4	59.9 ± 9.4	$\textbf{61.2} \pm \textbf{11.9}$
	CO ₂	74.0 ± 13.2	68.6 ± 16.0	$68.0\pm9.0^{\ast}$	$68.1 \pm 12.7^{*}$
P value	Pre vs Post P:	=0.09; CO ₂ P=0.09;	Interaction P=0.79	Pre vs Post P=0. Interactio	70; CO ₂ P<0.05; n P=0.63
SpO ₂ (%)	Baseline	96.4 ± 2.8	97.7 ± 1.2	97.8 ± 0.7	96.4 ± 3.7
	CO2	96.3 ± 2.8	97.3 ± 0.9	97.8 ± 0.7	96.9 ± 0.9
P value	Pre vs Post P:	=0.05; CO ₂ P=0.98;	Interaction P=0.85	Pre vs Post P=0. Interactio	19; CO ₂ P=0.67; n P=0.48
Q _{iCA} (mL∙min ⁻¹)	Baseline	266.8 ± 61.2	257.6 ± 71.1	$\textbf{274.5} \pm \textbf{57.2}$	$\textbf{269.1} \pm \textbf{65.4}$
	CO2	$415.3 \pm 86.3^{*}$	$418.4 \pm 93.1^{*}$	$416.8 \pm 88.7^{*}$	$413.9 \pm 87.8^{*}$
P value	Pre vs Post P	=0.17; CO ₂ P<0.05;	Interaction P=0.25	Pre vs Post P=0. Interactio	37; CO ₂ P<0.05; n P=0.22
ICAv (cm⋅s⁻¹)	Baseline	45.4 ± 14.8	40.7 ± 9.5	42.8 ± 8.2	42.2 ± 9.6
	CO ₂	$62.6 \pm \mathbf{10.7^{*}}$	$60.0\pm13.7^{\ast}$	$60.0\pm11.8^{\ast}$	$60.0\pm10.7^{\ast}$
P value	Pre vs Post P:	=0.07; CO ₂ P<0.05;	Interaction P=0.64	Pre vs Post P=0. Interactio	88; CO ₂ P<0.05; n P=0.81
ICA diameter (mm)	Baseline	5.2 ± 0.54	5.2 ± 0.95	5.2 ± 0.56	5.0 ± 0.42
	CO2	$5.3\pm0.46^{\ast}$	$5.4\pm0.49^{\ast}$	$5.5\pm0.53^{\ast}$	$5.4 \pm 0.51^{*}$
P value	Pre vs Post P	=0.99; CO ₂ P<0.05;	Interaction P=0.08	Pre vs Post P=0. Interactio	50; CO ₂ P<0.05; n P=0.13
ICA CVC (mL·min ⁻¹ ·mmHg ⁻¹)	Baseline	3.5 ± 1.6	3.0 ± 0.9	$\textbf{2.9}\pm\textbf{0.8}$	2.9 ± 1.1
	CO2	$4.3 \pm 0.9^{*}$	$4.3 \pm 1.2^{*}$	4.1 ± 1.1*	$4.3 \pm 1.2^{*}$
P value	Pre vs Post P	=0.21; CO ₂ P<0.05;	Interaction P=0.19	Pre vs Post P=0. Interactio	24; CO ₂ P<0.05; n P=0.47
MCAv (cm⋅s⁻¹)	Baseline	62.8 ± 10.2	61.5 ± 9.9	60.9 ± 7.7	59.8 ± 8.6
	CO ₂	86.8 ± 19.0*	84.0 ± 14.3*	84.7 ± 14.3*	83.3 ± 14.1*
P value	Pre vs Post P	=0.29; CO ₂ P<0.05;	Interaction P=0.67	Pre vs Post P=0. Interactio	35; CO₂ P<0.05; n P=0.82

For both between-trial placebo or antioxidant. Significance for CO_2 as a function of group is indicated by * (P < 0.05), significant difference for pre vs post as a function of group is indicated by ∞ (P < 0.05). abbreviations. Note. - $P_{ET}CO_2$ = end-tidal partial pressure of carbn dioxide; VE = ventilation; MAP = mean arterial pressure; HR = heartrate; SpO₂ = peripheral capillary saturation of oxygen; Q_{ICA} = blood flow through the internal carotid artery; ICA_V = velocity of blood through the internal carotid artery; ICA CVC = internal carotid artery cutaneous vascular conductance; MCAv = blood velocity through the middle cerebral artery.

		Placebo		Antioxidant		
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post	
P _{ET} O ₂ (mmHa)	Baseline	93.5 ± 5.5	94.9 ± 4.0	93.3 ± 6.5	93.7 ± 5.1	
(Hypoxia (45mmHq)	$50.1\pm4.3^{\star}$	$50.4\pm4.2^{\star}$	$56.3\pm4.0^{\star}$	$50.4\pm4.1^{\star}$	
P value		Pre vs Post P= Interactio	0.22; O ₂ P<0.05; on P=0.41	Pre vs Post P=0.36; C P=0	Pre vs Post P=0.36; O_2 P<0.05; Interaction P=0.30	
VE (L·min ⁻¹)	Baseline	13.7 ± 3.6	13.6 ± 3.8	12.6 ± 3.8	$15.7\pm3.3\infty$	
()	Hypoxia (45mmHq)	$28.1\pm7.4^{\star}$	$26.9\pm8.7^{\star}$	$24.4 \pm 10.4^{\star}$	28.8 ± 11.4*∞	
P value		Pre vs Post P= Interactio	0.51; O ₂ P<0.05; on P=0.53	Pre vs Post P<0.05; C P=0	Pre vs Post P<0.05; O_2 P<0.05; Interaction P=0.55	
MAP (mmHg)	Baseline	93.8 ± 11.4	93.8 ± 10.7	91.8 ± 9.6	92.3 ± 11.0	
	Hypoxia (45mmHg)	$98.1 \pm 13.4^{\star}$	$99.3 \pm 13.7^{\ast}$	$95.6\pm10.4^{\star}$	$\textbf{97.3} \pm \textbf{9.1}^{\star}$	
P value		Pre vs Post P= Interaction	0.85; O₂ P<0.05; on P=0.50	Pre vs Post P=0.83; C P<0	D ₂ P<0.05; Interaction	
HR (beats⋅min ⁻¹)	Baseline	60.2 ± 10.5	$\textbf{60.9} \pm \textbf{11.7}$	59.5 ± 8.8	60.0 ± 8.9	
	Hypoxia (45mmHg)	$73.2\pm16.8^{\ast}$	$70.6 \pm 17.6^{*}$	72.2 ± 14.7*	75.1 ±14.2*	
P value		Pre vs Post P= Interactio	0.60; O₂ P<0.05; on P=0.13	Pre vs Post P=0.16; C P=0	D ₂ P<0.05; Interaction	
SpO ₂ (%)	Baseline	97.5 ± 1.2	97.8 ± 0.9	97.7 ± 0.9	97.9 ± 1.1	
	Hypoxia (45mmHg)	$82.7\pm4.9^{*}$	$82.4\pm4.8^{\star}$	$82.7\pm4.8^{\star}$	$82.5\pm4.9^{\star}$	
P value		Pre vs Post P= Interactio	0.94; O ₂ P<0.05; on P=0.72	Pre vs Post P=0.86; C P=0	re vs Post P=0.86; O_2 P<0.05; Interaction P=0.19	
Q _{ICA} (mL∙min⁻¹)	Baseline	$\textbf{224.8} \pm \textbf{81.4}$	247.5 ± 78.8	244.9 ± 77.5	249.4 ± 78.6∞	
	Hypoxia (45mmHg)	281.8 ± 96.1*	310.2 ± 103.0*	298.1 ± 83.8*	294.7 ± 84.0 *∞	
P value		Pre vs Post P=0 Interactio	0.05; O₂ P<0.05; on P=0.34	Pre vs Post P<0.05; O ₂ P<0.05; Interaction P=0.91		
ICAv (cm⋅s⁻¹)	Baseline	33.6 ± 9.7	39.4 ± 13.7	34.7 ± 12.0	37.3 ± 10.7	
	Hypoxia (45mmHg)	40.8 ± 13.4	43.8 ± 14.3	43.1 ± 17.7*	45.4 ± 15.2*	
P value		Pre vs Post P=0.06; O ₂ P=0.05; interaction P=0.26		Pre vs Post P=0.06; C P=0	$D_2 P<0.05$; interaction	
ICA diameter (mm)	Baseline	5.2 ± 0.59	5.2 ± 0.50	5.2 ± 0.44	5.1 ± 0.50	
	Hypoxia (45mmHg)	5.4 ± 0.57*	5.4 ± 0.53*	5.4 ± 0.49*	5.3 ± 0.45*	
P value		Pre vs Post P=0.75; O ₂ P<0.05; Interaction P=0.96		Pre vs Post P=0.17; C P=0	$D_2 P<0.05$; Interaction	
ICA CVC (mL⋅min ⁻¹ ⋅mmHg ⁻¹)	Baseline	2.4 ± 0.9	2.7 ± 1.0	2.5 ± 1.1	2.6 ± 1.2	
	Hypoxia (45mmHg)	2.9 ± 0.9	3.0 ± 0.9	3.2 ± 1.4*	3.2 ± 1.2*	
P value		Pre vs Post P=0.33; O ₂ P=0.08; Interaction P=0.06		Pre vs Post P=0.62; C P=0	$D_2 P < 0.05$; Interaction	
MCAv (cm⋅s⁻¹)	Baseline	60.2 ± 9.7	58.3 ± 9.2	60.9 ± 6.7	57.9 ± 7.1	
	Hypoxia (45mmHg)	67.8 ± 12.7*	65.0 ± 14.1*	66.8 ± 10.2*	69.0 ± 9.8*	
P value		Pre vs Post P=0	0.23; O₂ P<0.05; n P=0 25	Pre vs Post P= 0.83 ; O ₂ P< 0.05 ; Interaction P< 0.05		

Table 2. Cerebral vascular, hemodynamic, and respiratory variables at baseline and during isocapnic hypoxia following placebo or antioxidants. All data are presented as mean \pm SD.

For both between-trial placebo or antioxidant. Significant difference with O_2 is indicated by *. Significant difference between pre versus post is indicated by ∞ . Note. - $P_{ET}O_2$ = end-tidal partial pressure of oxygen; VE = ventilation; MAP = mean arterial pressure; SpO₂ = peripheral capillary saturation of oxygen; Q_{ICA} = blood flow through the internal carotid artery; ICA v = velocity of blood through the internal carotid artery; ICA CVC = internal carotid artery cutaneous vascular conductance; MCAv = blood velocity through the middle cerebral artery.

	Bro	Placebo	A	Dro	Antioxidant	*
ICA (ml /100g/min/mmHg)	58+20	68+21	$\frac{\Delta}{-1.0 \pm 1.7}$	57+20	5 8 + 1 0	-0.1 + 2.0
P value	5.0 ± 2.0	Condition	P=0.25: Pre v	5.7 ± 2.0 /s Post P=0.34: Ir	5.0 ± 1.9	-0.1 ± 2.0
ICA	15.1 ± 4.5	16.9 ± 4.6	1.7 ± 4.9	15.1 ± 5.3	15.0 ± 4.3	-0.1 ± 5.0
(%∆CBF/%∆P _{ET} CO₂)						
P value		Condition	P=0.40; Pre v	/s Post P=0.52; Ir	nteraction P=0.45	
	1.8 ± 0.6	1.6 ± 0.5	-0.3 ± 0.7	1.5 ± 0.7	1.2 ± 0.8	-0.3 ± 0.5
		Condition	n P=0.46: Pre v	vs Pot P=0.12: In	teraction P=0.96	
Note. – ICA = internal carotid arte	ery; CBF = cereb	ral blood flow; S	$SpO_2 = periphe$	eral capillary satu	ration of oxygen.	

 Table 3. Hypercapnic and hypoxic reactivity for ICA following placebo or antioxidants.
 Delta change between pre and post

 within both placebo and antioxidant is displayed.
 Data are presented as mean ± SD.

placebo or antioxidants.	All Gala p	siesenteu in mean	± 0D.	
		Placebo	Antioxidant	P value
PetCO ₂ (mmHg)	Pre	29.7 ± 3.1	29.2 ± 2.6	Condition P=0.78; Pre-vs Post P=0.58; Interaction P=0.41
	Post	29.2 ± 3.0	29.3 ± 2.3	
MAD	Dura			
(mmHg)	Pre	103.5 ± 10.8	103.2 ± 13.1	Condition P=0.29; Pre-vs Post P=0.77; Interaction P=0.29
	Post	102.0 ± 10.3	105.8 ± 10.3	
SpO₂ (% oxyhemoglobin)	Pre	84.5 ± 3.1	83.7 ± 1.8	Condition P=0.90; Pre-vs Post P=1.00; Interaction P=0.11
	Post	83.6 ± 3.3	84.6 ± 3.0	
Q _{ICA} (mL∙min⁻¹)	Pre	$\textbf{364.1} \pm \textbf{64.6}$	393.3 ± 93.4	Condition P=0.73; Pre-vs Post P=0.86; Interaction P=0.27
	Post	$\textbf{377.4} \pm \textbf{73.7}$	$\textbf{361.9} \pm \textbf{84.7}$	
	_			
ICAv (cm⋅s ⁻¹)	Pre	39.6 ± 7.1	39.7 ± 7.8	Condition P=0.87; Pre-vs Post P=0.14; Interaction P=0.83
	Post	$\textbf{37.5} \pm \textbf{8.1}$	38.0 ± 8.1	
ICA diameter (mm)	Pre	4.9 ± 0.6	5.0 ± 0.5	Condition P=0.97; Pre-vs Post P=0.63; Interaction P=0.18
	Post	5.1 ± 0.4	$\textbf{4.9} \pm \textbf{0.6}$	
ICA CVC (mL·min ⁻¹ ·mmHg ⁻¹)	Pre	3.6 ± 0.5	3.8 ± 1.0	Condition P=096; Pre vs post P=0.76; Interaction P=0.08
	Post	$\textbf{3.7}\pm\textbf{0.9}$	3.5 ± 0.9	
Q _{VA} (mL⋅min ⁻¹)	Pre	$\textbf{228.6} \pm \textbf{199.1}$	181.0 ± 155.1	Condition P=0.97; Pre-vs Post P=0.56; Interaction P=0.26
	Post	$\textbf{210.7} \pm \textbf{181.9}$	$\textbf{253.9} \pm \textbf{149.0}$	
VAv (cm·s ⁻¹)	Pre	19.3 ± 4.0	18.1 ± 3.9	Condition P=0.78; Pre-vs Post P=0.42; Interaction P=0.20
	Post	19.1 ± 3.3	20.7 ± 4.9	
VA diameter (mm)	Pre	$\textbf{6.2} \pm \textbf{2.6}$	6.0 ± 2.5	Condition P=0.96; Pre-vs Post P=0.54; Interaction P=0.11
. ,	Post	6.3 ± 2.5	6.9 + 2.2	
VA CVC (mL·min ⁻¹ ·mmHg ⁻¹)	Pre	4.0 ± 3.9	3.1 ± 3.0	Condition P=0.82; Pre vs post P=0.78; Interaction P=0.32
	Post	3.6 + 3.3	4.0 + 2.4	
aCBE	Pro	805 6 + 365 7	835.0 + 332.7	Condition P-0.65: Pre-vs Post P-0.07
(mL⋅min ⁻¹)		033.0 ± 303.7	000.9 ± 002.1	Interaction P=0.43
	Post	875.6 ± 379.5	944.1 ± 323.1	

Table 4. Cerebral vascular, hemodynamics, and respiratory	variables upon chronic exposure to high altitude following
placebo or antioxidants. All data presented in mean \pm SD.	

For both between-trial placebo and antioxidant. Note. – $P_{ET}O_2$ = end-tidal partial pressure of oxygen; MAP = mean arterial pressure; SpO₂ = peripheral capillary saturation of oxygen; Q_{ICA} = blood flow through the internal carotid artery; ICA_V = velocity of blood through the internal carotid artery; ICA CVC = internal carotid artery; vare blood velocity through vertebral artery; VA_V = blood velocity through vertebral artery; VA CVC = vertebral artery cutaneous vascular conductance; gCBF = 624 625 626 627 628 629 global cerebral blood flow.

Figures:

635 636 637 638 639 640 641 642 Figure 1. A) Schematic of the experimental protocol for Study 1 representing sea-level (Kelowna, 344 m) measurements & B) Study 2 representing during chronic hypoxia exposure (Evr-K2-CNR pyramid laboratory, 5050 m). Q_{ICA} = blood flow through the internal carotid artery. For hypercapnia end-tidal CO₂ was increased 9 mmHg above baseline resting values. For hypoxia end-tidal O₂ was decreased to 45 mmHg (to simulate arterial PO₂ at precisely 5000m). Resting CV = cardiovascular measurements peripheral capillary saturation of oxygen (SpO₂), end-tidal partial pressure of carbon dioxide (P_{ET}CO₂), heart rate (HR), and mean arterial pressure (MAP). Resting CBF = resting cerebrovascular measurements of internal carotid artery (ICA) and vertebral artery (VA). 643

644 645 646 Figure 2. A) Relative CBF reactivity to hypoxia in the ICA at all experimental trials at sea-level. There was no significant differences in all experimental trials at sea-level (P=0.96). B) Relative CBF reactivity to hypercapnia in the ICA at all experimental trials at sea-level. There was no significant differences in al hypercapnic experimental trials at sea-level (P=0.33).

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648 649 650 Figure 3. Global cerebral blood flow (gCBF) in all experimental trials after chronic exposure to high-altitude. The combination of both ICA and VA blood flow after chronic exposure to high-altitude. There was no significant differences in all experimental trials at high-altitude (P=0.43).



651 652 Figure 1.





Figure 2.



