Effects of acute hypoxia and CO₂ inhalation on systemic and peripheral oxygen uptake and circulatory responses during moderate exercise

B. Schibye¹, K. Klausen¹, J. Trap-Jensen², J. O. Lund², and O. Hartling²

¹ Laboratory for the Theory of Gymnastics, August Krogh Institute, University of Copenhagen and

² Department of Clinical Physiology, Frederiksberg Hospital, Denmark

Summary. The effect of acute hypoxia and CO_2 inhalation on leg blood flow (LBF), on leg vascular resistance (LVR) and on oxygen supply to and oxygen consumption in the exercising leg was studied in nine healthy male subjects during moderate one-leg exercise. Each subject exercised for 20 min on a cycle ergometer in four different conditions: normoxia, normoxia +2% CO₂, hypoxia corresponding to an altitude of 4000 m above sea level, and hypoxia +1.2% CO₂. Gas exchange, heart rate (HR), arterial blood pressure, and LBF were measured, and arterial and venous blood samples were analysed for $P_{\rm CO_2}$, $P_{\rm O_2}$, oxygen saturation, haematocrit and haemoglobin concentration. Systemic oxygen consumption was 1.83 $1 \cdot \min^{-1}$ (1.48–2.59) and was not affected by hypoxia or CO₂ inhalation in hypoxia. HR was unaffected by CO₂, but increased from 136 beat \cdot min⁻¹ (111–141) in normoxia to 155 (139–169) in hypoxia. LBF was 6.5 $1 \cdot \min^{-1}$ (5.4-7.6) in normoxia and increased significantly in hypoxia to 8.4 (5.9-10.1). LVR decreased significantly from 2.23 kPa $\cdot 1^{-1} \cdot \min(1.89 - 2.99)$ in normoxia to 1.89 (1.53-2.52) in hypoxia. The increase in LBF from normoxia to hypoxia correlated significantly with the decrease in LVR. When CO_2 was added in hypoxia a significant correlation was also found between the decrease in LBF and the increase in LVR. In normoxia, the addition of CO₂ caused a significant increase in mean blood pressure. Oxygen consumption in the exercising leg (leg V_{O_2}) in normoxia was 0.97 $1 \cdot \min^{-1}$ (0.72-1.10), and was unaffected by hypoxia and CO_2 . It is concluded that the O_2 supply to the exercising leg and its V_{O_2} are unaffected by hypoxia and CO₂. The increase in LBF in hypoxia is caused by a decrease in LVR. These changes can be counteracted by CO_2 inhalation. It is proposed that the regulatory mechanism behind these changes is that change in brain P_{CO_2} causes change in the central regulation of vascular tonus in the muscles.

Key words: Moderate exercise - Hypoxia - CO₂ - Leg oxygen consumption - Leg blood flow - Leg vascular resistance

Introduction

During moderate exercise the acute cardiovascular response to decreased inspiratory oxygen pressure (hypoxic hypoxia) is characterized by an increased heart rate (HR) and cardiac output (\dot{Q}) (Asmussen and Nielsen 1955; Hartley et al. 1973; Klausen 1966; McManus et al. 1974; Pugh et al. 1964; Stenberg et al. 1966), and an unchanged systemic oxygen consumption (V_{O_2}) compared to sea level (normoxia) (Hartley et al. 1973; Klausen 1969; Knuttgen and Saltin 1973; Lundin and Strøm 1947; McManus et al. 1974; Pugh et al. 1964; Stenberg et al. 1966). The blood flow to exercising skeletal muscles seems to be increased, as judged by a decreased arterio-femoral venous oxygen difference (Doll 1973; Hartley et al. 1973).

One aim of the present experiments was therefore to investigate the effect of acute hypoxia on leg blood flow (LBF), leg vascular resistance (LVR), and oxygen supply to and oxygen consumption (leg V_{O_2}) in the exercising leg.

Another effect of acute hypoxia is pronounced hyperventilation during exercise. The effect of this hyperventilation is to decrease the CO_2 pres-

Offprint requests to: B. Schibye, School of Physiotherapy, Lersø Parkalle 38, DK-2100 Copenhagen Ø, Denmark

sure (P_{CO_2}) in blood and other body fluids. It is known from studies in animals and in man at rest that a decrease in P_{CO_2} causes a decrease in blood flow to the brain (Kety and Schmidt 1946) and that changes in P_{CO_2} influence blood flow to the skeletal muscles (Irving and Welch 1935; Kontos et al. 1965, 1968; Lennox and Gibbs 1932; Richardson et al. 1961).

Hence the second aim of this study was to investigate the effect of inhalation of small concentrations of CO_2 during moderate one-leg exercise in hypoxia, in order to clarify to what extent the physiological changes that take place in acute hypoxia are due to decreased P_{CO_2} in blood and other body fluids. One-leg exercise was chosen, as it is known that hyperventilation is more pronounced during this type of exercise.

Subjects and methods

Nine healthy male subjects age 26 years (24-29) height 184 cm (180-193), weight 79 kg (71-88) (median and range values), participated in this study, after their informed consent was obtained. The protocol was approved by the local ethical committee. None of the subjects were especially accustomed to bicycle exercise. The subjects exercised with the right leg on a modified Monark cycle ergometer at a moderate power output (110 W (84-140)) for 20 min. This test was repeated in exactly the same way four times, except that the fractional composition of the inspired air (F_1) was varied as follows: 1) normoxia, 2) normoxia +2% CO₂, 3) hypoxia ($F_1O_2 = 0.125$ corresponding to an altitude of about 4000 m above sea level) and 4) hypoxia +1.2% CO₂. The order of these four conditions was randomized, and the subjects were unaware of what gas mixture they inspired. The subjects performed the one-leg exercise procedure several times before the actual experiments in order to avoid the effects of adaptation. The four experiments were carried out on two days 14 days apart.

The subject was allowed a light breakfast before he reported to the laboratory at 7 a.m. Using the Seldinger technique, one catheter was inserted into the brachial artery and one 4F thermodilution catheter (Edwards Lab. 94 - 110 - 4F) and one 6F Teflon catheter for blood sampling were inserted into the right femoral vein. The tips of the two venous catheters were placed in the right iliac vein at the level of the right sacro-iliac joint under fluoroscopic control. The catheter-izations were performed under local anaesthesia and no premedication was given.

The subject then rested in the supine position for 1 hour. Arterial and venous resting blood samples were drawn anaerobically before the subject was seated behind the ergometer in such a way that he could exercise with the right leg in a horizontal position. He rested in this position for 30 min, inspiring one of the gas mixtures from a 2001 Douglas bag, in which dry gas from a high pressure cylinder was moistened. After this equilibration period a new set of blood samples was obtained.

Thereafter the subject exercised for 20 min at the preset power output. Blood samples were taken after 2, 6, 12, and 20 min. Expired air was collected in two Douglas bags from the 15th to 19th min. During the same period LBF was measured. HR and arterial blood pressure (BP) were recorded continuously during the exercise period.

After this period of exercise the subject rested supine for 1 hour. Then he was prepared for the second 20 min exercise period of the day by a $\frac{1}{2}$ h adaptation to the gas mixture in question.

Measurements. The blood samples were drawn simultaneously from the brachial artery and the iliac vein at rest and during the 20th min of exercise. The blood samples were analyzed for $P_{\rm CO_2}$, $P_{\rm O_2}$ (Radiometer microelectrode system), haematocrit, oxygen saturation $(S_{\rm O_2})$ (Holmgren and Pernow 1959), and haemoglobin concentration.

HR was continuously recorded from one precordial lead and the intraarterial BP was recorded from the catheter in the brachial artery using a pressure transducer (Elema-Schönander EMT 35). Mean blood pressure (MBP) was calculated as the diastolic pressure plus one third of the pulse pressure. LBF was measured by thermodilution technique (Jorfeldt et al. 1978). A bolus of 4 ml 0.9% saline solution at 0°C was injected into the thermodilution catheter. The injection port was situated 10 cm from the tip of the catheter, where the thermistor was placed. LBF was calculated by a cardiac output computer (Edwards Lab. model 9510). LBF was measured from the 15th to the 19th min of exercise. The value used for LBF in each subject was the mean of five single determinations in each experimental situation. The coefficient of variation for the determined LBF values was 10%. LVR was calculated by dividing MBP by LBF, assuming that the pressure on the venous side was zero in all situations.

The composition of the inspired gas mixtures was analyzed by the Scholander technique, and the expired air collected in Douglas bags was analyzed by a Servomex paramagnetic O_2 analyzer for oxygen content (F_EO_2) and a Beckman LB-2 infrared CO₂ analyzer for carbon dioxide (F_ECO_2). Bag volumes were measured in a Tissot spirometer (Collins).

The statistical analyses comprised a non-parametric test for paired samples (Wilcoxon), and a Spearman rank correlation test with a level of significance set at $p \le 0.05$. Seven subjects exercised in all 4 experimental conditions, while two subjects only performed experiments in hypoxia and hypoxia + 1.2% CO₂. Comparison of results from normoxia, normoxia + 2% CO₂ and hypoxia is based on data from seven subjects, while the comparison betweens hypoxia and hypoxia + 1.2%CO₂ is based on nine subjects.

Results

Unless otherwise stated, the results are given as median values and ranges. Table 1 shows the blood samples values at rest, and Tables 2 and 3 show the results from the last minutes of exercise.

At rest the composition of the blood samples in normoxia was the same on the two experimental days. The arterial and venous P_{CO_2} , P_{O_2} and S_{O_2} decreased significantly with hypoxia. By adding CO₂ to the inspired air, arterial CO₂ (P_aCO_2) and venous CO₂ (P_vCO_2) increased significantly in hypoxia. Adding CO₂ in normoxia produced significant decreases in P_vO_2 S_vO_2 % and C_vO_2 .

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Arterial	Normoxia	Normoxia +2% CO ₂	Hypoxia	Hypoxia $+1.2\%$ CO ₂
PaCO ₂ (kPa)	5.87 (4.94-6.53)	5.74 (4.94-6.80)	4.27* (3.47-4.80)	5.20** (4.13-5.60)
PaO_2 (kPa)	14.40 (13.20-16.67)	17.21(13.87 - 17.87)	7.47*(5.34-9.34)	8.00(6.67 - 10.40)
SaO_2 (%)	98.9 (98.1 - 99.8)	99.2(98.8-100.7)	88.5*(69.1-98.3)	86.8 (80.9–98.7)
Haematocrit	40.7(38.2 - 42.6)	40.7 (36.3-43.1)	41.7(38.7 - 44.1)	41.2 (37.2-43.1)
Haemoglobin ovdl ⁻¹	12.9 (11.9–13.8)	13.3 (11.2–14.2)	13.3 (12.2–14.5)	13.2 (12.1–13.9)
caO ₂ (vol%)	17.68 (16.02- 19.05)	$18.34\ (15.38-19.68)$	16.24 (12.10-19.35)	15.54 (14.55
Venous				
PvCO ₂ (kPa)	6.27 (5.60–6.40)	6.54 (5.60-7.20)	5.34* (4.27-5.87)	6.14*(4.40-6.54)
PvO_2 (kPa)	6.67 (5.34-6.94)	5.20^{**} (4.00-6.40)	4.13*(3.73-4.94)	4.40(3.60-5.20)
SvO_2 (%)	73.9 (56.5–90.1)	60.9^{**} (47.6—81.2)	48.9*(41.8-74.1)	56.0(48.7 - 80.2)
Haematocrit	39.7 (38.2-42.1)	41.2 (38.2-42.1)	42.1 (38.7-44.1)	40.7(37.2-43.1)
Haemoglobin	12.8 (12.0–13.7)	13.3(11.7-14.4)	13.2 (12.1–14.5)	13.2 (12.2-15.0)
g×ai · CvO ₂ (vn1%)	13 64 (10 05	13 08** (8 14 15 12)	0.06*77.00	10 10 10 26 15 201
Leg (a-v)O ₂ diff (ml/100 ml blood)	4.12 (2.00–5.41)	5.15^{**} (3.22-8.22)	5.10(3.60-8.00)	5.48 (2.54-7.05)
1 b Da - 7 50 mm H 2				
* Significant change from n ** Significant change by add	ormoxia to hypoxia			

Table 1. Arterial and venous blood values (medians and ranges) at rest, sitting

Significant change from normoxia to hypoxia Significant change by addition of CO_2 in normoxia or in hypoxia

Table 2. Respiratory and circulatory values (medians and ranges) measured during the 15th-19th min of exercise

	Normoxia	Normoxia +2% CO ₂	Hypoxia	Hypoxia $+1.2\%$ CO ₂
$\dot{V}_{\rm E_{\rm BTPS}}(l \times \min^{-1})$	48.27 (42.88–76.35)	62.92** (46.46-88.41)	73.86* (61.50—114.14)	80.22 (65.47-102.85)
V_{0_2} (1 × min ⁻¹)	1.83(1.48-2.59)	1.74^{**} $(1.35-2.15)$	1.79 (1.48 - 2.60)	1.78 (1.55–2.20)
HR (beats $\times \min^{-1}$)	$136\ (111-141)$	134 (109-144)	155* (139164)	146 (119-162)
MBP (kPa)	14.14 (12.80—16.27)	15.60^{**} (14.94—17.74)	15.47 (12.67-16.14)	15.47 (13.60-16.81)
LBF $(1 \times \min^{-1})$	6.5 (5.4–7.6)	6.5 (4.8–7.2)	8.4* (5.9—10.1)	7.1 (5.7–9.3)
LVR (kPa $\times l^{-1} \times min$)	2.23(1.89-2.99)	2.37^{**} ($2.20-2.97$)	1.89 (1.53-2.52)	2.17(1.69-2.71)
Leg V_{O_2} (l × min ⁻¹)	0.97 (0.72-1.10)	0.96(0.60 - 1.03)	0.89 (0.70-1.19)	0.88 (0.75-1.20)

1 kPa=7.50 mm Hg
* Significant change from normoxia to hypoxia
** Significant change by addition of CO₂ in normoxia or hypoxia

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Arterial	Normoxia	Normoxia +2% CO ₂	Hypoxia	Hypoxia +1.2% CO ₂
PaCO, (kPa)	5.20 (5.07-5.60)	5.60** (5.34-6.54)	3.87* (2.13—4.53)	4.53** (4.27-5.07)
PaO, (kPa)	13.47 (12.00-15.60)	15.47 * (14.81 - 17.34)	6.40*(5.06-7.34)	6.67* (6.14-7.34)
$\operatorname{SaO}_2(\%)$	98.1 (97.0 - 99.0)	99.0^{**} (98.2 -100.0)	79.0* (72.5—87.7)	$82.5^{**}(80.0-88.4)$
Haematocrit	43.1 (41.2-45.1)	42.1 (38.2-44.1)	44.5^{*} (41.7—46.6)	44.1 (39.7-47.5)
Haemoglobin	14.0 (12.8-15.1)	13.7 (12.5–14.5)	14.0 (13.4–15.4)	14.0 (13.0-15.4)
g × dl ^{- 1} CaO ₂ (vol%)	$19.11\ (17.40-20.59)$	18.97 (17.10-20.03)	16.30 (13.81–17.07)	16.05 (14.79—18.47)
Venous				
PvCO ₂ (kPa)	8.14 (7.60-8.40)	8.80** (8.14-9.34)	6.40^{*} $(5.74-7.47)$	7.34^{**} (6.54 -8.14)
PvO, (kPa)	3.07(1.87 - 3.33)	3.07 (2.00-3.33)	2.40^{*} ($2.00-2.67$)	2.53 (2.13-2.93)
$SVO_2(\%)$	23.3(18.8 - 37.3)	24.4 (21.2-35.1)	17.8* (12.0-19.4)	17.8(14.0-23.7)
Haematocrit	44.1 (42.6-46.1)	43.1 (38.7-45.1)	44.6 (41.7-48.5)	45.1(40.2 - 48.0)
Haemoglobin	14.2 (13.1–15.3)	14.0 (12.8—14.7)	13.9 (13.5-15.6)	14.2 (13.3–15.7)
g×dl ⁻¹				
CVO ₂ (vol%)	4.52 (4.00/.06)		3.43* (2.29—3.41) (10.00* (10.10* 10.10* 10.10* 10.10* 10.10* 10.10* 10.10* 10.10* 10.10* 10.10* 10* 10* 10* 10* 10* 10* 10* 10* 1	3.51 (2.82-4./4)
Leg $(a-v)P_2$ diff.	(86.01-04.11) (27-14.14)	(20.01-01.01) (14.24)	12.82* (10.43—14.21)	12.11 (11.22-13.13)

Significant change from normoxia to hypoxia Significant change by addition of CO_2 in normoxia or hypoxia = 7.50 mm Hg

kPa

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The calculated leg arterio-venous (a-v) oxygen difference increased significantly when CO₂ was added in normoxia. Assuming a constant leg $V_{\Omega_{\alpha}}$ this implies a decrease in LBF in this situation.

During exercise $\dot{V}_{\rm E}$ BTPS increased significantly with hypoxia (Table 2). By adding 2% CO₂ to the inspired air $V_{\rm E}$ BTPS increased significantly in normoxia, while in hypoxia +1.2% CO₂ $V_{\rm E}$ BTPS was unchanged as compared to hypoxia. The increase in $\dot{V}_{\rm E}$ from normoxia to hypoxia resulted in a significant decrease in P_aCO_2 . P_aCO_2 incrased significantly by adding CO₂ in both normoxia and hypoxia. \dot{V}_{O_2} was unchanged from normoxia to hypoxia and by adding CO2 in hypoxia, but was decreased significantly by the addition of CO₂ in normoxia.

There was a significant increase in HR from normoxia to hypoxia. Adding CO₂ dit not change HR significantly (Fig. 1). The invidual HR values showed a decrease by adding CO_2 in hypoxia in 6 subjects, unchanged HR in 2 subjects, and only 1 subject showed an increased HR. Systolic BP (SBP) and diastolic BP (DBP) were similar in all 4 experimental exercise conditions (about 22.7 and 11.3 kPa), although SBP tended to increase when CO_2 was added to the inspired air both in normoxia and hypoxia (5 subjects showed an increased SBP in both situations). MBP increased significantly with addition of CO₂ in normoxia (Fig. 1).

LBF increased significantly from normoxia to hypoxia but did not change significantly when CO_2 was added (Fig. 1). Individual values showed, however, that 6 of the 9 subjects had a decrease in LBF when CO₂ was added in hypoxia, whereas the LBF was unchanged in 2 subjects and increased in 1.

LVR decreased from normoxia to hypoxia in 5 subjects, while it was unchanged in 1 subject and increased in 1 subject. Addition of CO₂ increased LVR significantly in normoxia (Fig. 1) while in



Fig. 1. Circulatory mean values from exercise in normoxia $+CO_2$ (N⁺), hypoxia (H), and hypoxia $+CO_2$ (H⁺). Values are expressed as percentages of the values obtained in normoxia. * significant change from normoxia to hypoxia. ** significant change from normoxia to normoxia + CO_2

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hypoxia LVR increased in 7 subjects and decreased in 2.

The oxygen supply to the exercising muscles calculated by multiplying LBF and O₂ content in arterial blood (C_aO_2 Vol%) was the same in the four experimental conditions (about 1230 ml O₂ · min⁻¹).

The leg (a-v)O₂ difference decreased significantly from normoxia to hypoxia, but was unaffected by CO₂ addition in either situation (Fig. 1). However, the leg \dot{V}_{O_2} (calculated by use of Ficks principle) was not influenced by either hypoxia or the addition of CO₂ (Table 2). Leg \dot{V}_{O_2} amounted in all situations to about 50% of systemic \dot{V}_{O_2} (median values ranged between 48–49% (42–69%).

Discussion

The experiments have shown that during moderate exercise the systemic \dot{V}_{Q_2} , the O_2 supply to the exercising leg and the leg \dot{V}_{O_2} were all unaffected by acute hypoxia corresponding to an altitude of 4000 m, and further unaffected by the addition of CO₂ in hypoxia. The unchanged systemic \dot{V}_{O_2} from normoxia to hypoxia fits nicely with many other experiments (Hartley et al. 1973; Klausen 1969; Knuttgen and Saltin 1973; Ludin and Strøm 1947; McManus et al. 1974; Pugh et al. 1964; Stenberg et al. 1966), whereas there has only been indirect evidence that the O₂ supply to and the O₂ consumption in exercising human leg-muscles are unaffected by hypoxia (Hartley and Landowne 1973).

The finding that about 50% of the systemic \dot{V}_{O_2} is used in the exercising leg, and the relationship of LBF to systemic \dot{V}_{O_2} in normoxia are in accordance with previous studies in human subjects performing one-leg exercise in normoxia (Klausen et al. 1982).

As the O_2 content in arterial blood was decreased in hypoxia, the unchanged oxygen supply to the leg was maintained by a significant increase in LBF from 6.4 $1 \cdot \min^{-1}$ in normoxia to 8.4 $1 \cdot \min^{-1}$ in hypoxia. This increase in LBF in hypoxia correlates, significantly with the decrease in LVR from normoxia to hypoxia (Fig. 2). The latter can be explained by a dilatation of the arterioles in the working muscles. Since the decrease in LVR occurred concomitantly with decreases in P_{O2} and P_{CO_2} in arterial and venous blood the vasodilatation can be due to a decrease in one or both of these two gases. Figure 3 illustrates the effects of these changes. It is well established that decreased P_{O_2} in the muscles may cause vasodila-



Fig. 2. Changes in LBF in relation to changes in LVR. Individual values. \bullet = changes from normoxia to hypoxia. x = changes from hypoxia to hypoxia + CO₂

tation (Guyton et al. 1964; Gömöri et al. 1959). The centrally mediated effect of decreased P_aO_2 in the brain of animals at rest is an increase in sympathetic vasoconstrictor activity to the skeletal muscles (Gregor and Janig 1977), and hence an increase in peripheral resistance (Downing et al. 1963). A local decrease in P_{CO_2} causes vasoconstriction (Kontos et al. 1965) and an increase in $P_{\rm CO_2}$ causes vasodilatation (Kontos et a. 1968; Richardson et al. 1961; Wendling et al. 1977) whereas an increase in $P_a CO_2$ in the brain results in increased activity in the vasoconstrictor neurones to the muscles (Downing et al. 1963; Gregor and Janig 1977). Thus the enhanced dilatation in hypoxia, found in 6 of 7 subjects in the present experiments, cannot be explained by the centrally mediated effect of the decrease in P_aO_2 . Further, there is a positive, significant correlation between P_aO_2 in hypoxia and the decrease in LVR from normoxia to hypoxia, i.e. the subject with the lowest P_aO_2 has the smallest decrease in LVR





Fig. 4. Decrease in LVR during exercise in hypoxia as compared to normoxia, in relation to P_aO_2 in hypoxia. Individual values

(Fig. 4), which is the opposite of what would be expected from the local, peripheral effect of P_{O_2} . This last observation seems to indicate that a decrease in P_aO_2 leads to a centrally mediated vasoconstriction in working skeletal muscles. The further dilatation of the arterioles in the working muscles in hypoxia may be due to the central effect of the decreased P_aCO_2 and/or local effects of hormones and metabolites other than CO_2 . It may further be stressed that this eventual local production of metabolites is not brought about by hypoxia in the working muscles since, as mentioned earlier the greatest dilatation is seen in the subject having the highest P_aO_2 .

The influence of $P_a CO_2$ on the regulation of blood flow to exercising muscles gains further support from the finding that the addition of CO_2 to the inspired air in hypoxia counteracts the changes in hypoxia, and a significant correlation is found between the decrease in LBF and the increase in LVR (Fig. 2). These results are in line with Black and Roddie (1958), who found that an increased blood flow through the resting human arm in hypoxia caused by a decreased vascular resistance disappeared when 10% CO₂ was added to the inspired air.

The addition of CO_2 in normoxia increased LVR significantly, but no correlation was found between this increase and the change in LBF. On the other hand a significant increase was found in MBP. At rest the effects seems to be a decrease in LBF since the leg (a-v) O_2 difference increased significantly.

HR was increased from normoxia to hypoxia but was unaffected by the addition of CO_2 in normoxia and hypoxia. This is in line with previous experiments, where it has been observed that the addition of CO_2 to inspired air during exercise did not affect HR (Graham et al. 1980, 1982; Rizzo et al. 1976). Thus the increased HR in hypoxia seems not to be caused by a decrease in P_aCO_2 , but rather by a decrease in P_aO_2 which increases sympathetic activity.

To conclude, the changes seen during moderate exercise going from normoxia to hypoxia was an increase in HR primarily caused by a decrease in P_{O_2} . Further it is suggested that the vasoconstrictor activity going to the arterioles in the working muscles is decreased because of a decrease in P_aCO_2 in the brain. LBF was increased because of a decrease in LVR. This decrease in LVR in hypoxia can be counteracted by adding CO₂ to the inspired air. The effect of the increase in LBF from normoxia to hypoxia was a sufficient O₂ supply to the exercising muscles, resulting in an unchanged leg \dot{V}_{O_2} .

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