

Hemoglobin Oxygen Saturation with Mild Hypoxia and Microgravity

Johnny Conkin; James H. Wessel, III; Jason R. Norcross; Omar S. Bekdash; Andrew F. J. Abercromby; Matthew D. Koslovsky; Michael L. Gernhardt

- INTRODUCTION:** Microgravity (μG) exposure and even early recovery from μG in combination with mild hypoxia may increase the alveolar-arterial oxygen (O_2) partial pressure gradient.
- METHODS:** Four male astronauts on STS-69 (1995) and four on STS-72 (1996) were exposed on Earth to an acute sequential hypoxic challenge by breathing for 4 min 18.0%, 14.9%, 13.5%, 12.9%, and 12.2% oxygen–balance nitrogen. The 18.0% O_2 mixture at sea level resulted in an inspired O_2 partial pressure ($P_{i\text{O}_2}$) of 127 mmHg. The equivalent $P_{i\text{O}_2}$ was also achieved by breathing 26.5% O_2 at 527 mmHg that occurred for several days in μG on the Space Shuttle. A Novamatrix CO_2 SMO Model 7100 recorded hemoglobin (Hb) oxygen saturation through finger pulse oximetry ($S_{p\text{O}_2}$, %). There were 12 in-flight measurements collected. Measurements were also taken the day of (R+0) and 2 d after (R+2) return to Earth. Linear mixed effects models assessed changes in $S_{p\text{O}_2}$ during and after exposure to μG .
- RESULTS:** Astronaut $S_{p\text{O}_2}$ levels at baseline, R+0, and R+2 were not significantly different from in flight, about 97% given a $P_{i\text{O}_2}$ of 127 mmHg. There was also no difference in astronaut $S_{p\text{O}_2}$ levels between baseline and R+0 or R+2 over the hypoxic challenge.
- CONCLUSIONS:** The multitude of physiological changes associated with μG and during recovery from μG did not affect astronaut $S_{p\text{O}_2}$ under hypoxic challenge.
- KEYWORDS:** oxygen dissociation curve, pulmonary edema, gas exchange, spaceflight.

Conkin J, Wessel JH III, Norcross JR, Bekdash OS, Abercromby AFJ, Koslovsky MD, Gernhardt ML. Hemoglobin oxygen saturation with mild hypoxia and microgravity. *Aerosp Med Hum Perform.* 2017; 88(6):527–534.

Early in human space exploration there were concerns that exposure to microgravity (μG) would lead to hypoxemia since cardiopulmonary physiology was disrupted. Any potential disruptions did not impact performance or operational success in short-duration flights, so detailed investigation into pulmonary gas exchange was delayed until experiments were devised and longer duration flights were possible. For example, there was no indication at the time that pulmonary gas exchange in μG was impeded in the normoxic Skylab atmosphere of 70% oxygen (O_2) at 5.0 psia, an inspired O_2 partial pressure ($P_{i\text{O}_2}$) of 148 mmHg. But there were concerns about gas exchange efficiency, given the mildly hypoxic atmosphere of the shuttle staged denitrogenation protocol. The implementation of the shuttle staged denitrogenation protocol in 1984 allowed for safe and effective extravehicular activity (EVA).³ The challenge was to reduce the risk of decompression sickness (DCS) to an acceptable level on going from the 14.7 psia air atmosphere to the 4.3 psia 100% O_2 atmosphere in the spacesuit

without lengthy in-suit denitrogenation (prebreathe) time. The solution was to stage the depressurization at 10.2 psia while breathing 26.5% O_2 for about 2 d before the first EVA. Tissue nitrogen (N_2) tension was assumed to approximate inspired N_2 partial pressure at 10.2 psia, about 353 mmHg, after about 2 d. Several competing flammability, materials, and medical constraints culminated in an acceptable mildly hypoxic atmosphere at 10.2 psia with a $P_{i\text{O}_2}$ of 127 mmHg; the staged condition was equivalent to breathing air at 1220 m (4000 ft) altitude.

Waligora et al.²¹ in 1982 evaluated the combination of hypoxia and simulated μG exposure in two small groups of

From the NASA Johnson Space Center, Houston, TX.

This manuscript was received for review in December 2016. It was accepted for publication in March 2017.

Address correspondence to: Johnny Conkin, KBRwyle, 2400 NASA Parkway, Houston, TX 77058; johnny.conkin-1@nasa.gov.

Reprint & Copyright © by the Aerospace Medical Association, Alexandria, VA.

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.3357/AMHP:4804.2017>

subjects with an 8-h exposure to 2440 m (8000 ft) in an altitude chamber with ($N = 4$) and without ($N = 3$) 28 h of 6° head-down bed rest. The expected hemoconcentration was observed in the bed rest group, with hematocrit increasing from 43 to 47%, but there was no indication that the simulated μG reduced arterial oxygenation below the decrease expected while breathing a $P_{\text{I}}\text{O}_2$ of 108 mmHg at 2440 m altitude. With bed rest, mean arterial blood oxygen ($P_{\text{a}}\text{O}_2$) and carbon dioxide ($P_{\text{a}}\text{CO}_2$) partial pressures were 61 and 35 mmHg, respectively, and without bed rest were 59 and 36 mmHg, respectively. Arterial blood hemoglobin (Hb) oxygen saturation ($S_{\text{a}}\text{O}_2$) was about 90% for each group (estimated from figures). One source shows alveolar oxygen ($P_{\text{A}}\text{O}_2$) at approximately 69 mmHg and alveolar CO_2 ($P_{\text{A}}\text{CO}_2$) at 36 mmHg for an acute exposure to 2440 m altitude.⁵ The difference in alveolar-arterial oxygen partial pressure (A-aDO₂) with and without bed rest was about 9 mmHg, normal for resting young men at sea level.⁵ Loepky *et al.*^{12,13} in 1993 concluded that 5° head-down bed rest and hypoxic exposure for 8 d accentuated the loss of fluids and electrolytes, thus reducing plasma volume, but there were no negative impacts from these fluid changes on pulmonary mechanics or gas exchange, suggesting no evidence of pulmonary interstitial edema. We concede that bed rest and head-down bed rest are imperfect analogs to μG exposure. Uncertainty about a widening A-aDO₂ in μG persisted, particularly following a 1990 report of a large decrease in plasma oxygen partial pressure (P_{O_2}) from blood taken from the fingers of three cosmonauts after 171 d on the Mir space station and the slow recovery of P_{O_2} postflight.⁷ Without corroboration of these P_{O_2} values with true arterial blood samples or even indirect pulse oximetry, these data remain questionable.

In response, and before results from Spacelab experiments on pulmonary function in μG were readily available from Prisk *et al.*,¹⁵ investigators in the Environmental Physiology Laboratory (EPL) at the Johnson Space Center (JSC) developed a Detailed Supplemental Objective (DSO), designated 494, to collect basic cardiopulmonary data in μG . We report here on an experiment titled, “Pulmonary Oxygen Exchange in Microgravity” conceived in early 1990, implemented on two shuttle missions from 1995 to 1996, but not described in the scientific literature until now. Our conclusions have particular relevance to NASA. The next generation of exploration missions will likely use a mildly hypoxic atmosphere at 8.2 psia with 34% O_2 and a $P_{\text{I}}\text{O}_2$ of 128 mmHg to facilitate safe and effective EVAs by reducing prebreathe time while maintaining an acceptably low risk of DCS.¹⁴

Efficient gas exchange across the lung dictates $P_{\text{a}}\text{O}_2$. Hypoxemia results when there is a decrease in $P_{\text{I}}\text{O}_2$, hypoventilation, diffusion limitation, shunt, or ventilation-perfusion ($\dot{V}_{\text{A}}/\dot{Q}$) heterogeneity. Changes in the last three variables increase A-aDO₂. One could posit that exposure to μG might lead to hypoxemia through any number of mechanisms, but this communication is not a review of that vast literature; see Prisk *et al.*^{16,17,18} for current findings about pulmonary gas exchange in μG . We focused on mild hypoxia during exposure to μG on the Space Shuttle and recovery from μG combined with an acute

sequential hypoxic challenge. Our measure of Hb oxygen saturation was through indirect finger pulse oximetry, designated $S_{\text{p}}\text{O}_2$. Our first null hypothesis was that exposure to μG did not change $S_{\text{p}}\text{O}_2$ compared to what was measured when breathing a $P_{\text{I}}\text{O}_2$ of 128 mmHg in 1 G. Our second null hypothesis was that recovery from μG did not change $S_{\text{p}}\text{O}_2$ during an acute sequential hypoxic challenge with $P_{\text{I}}\text{O}_2$ s of 128, 106, 96, 92, and 87 mmHg as compared to what was measured preflight.

METHODS

Subjects

Eight male astronauts volunteered and provided written informed consent to participate after the protocol was approved by the JSC Institutional Review Board. The eight astronauts, four on each flight of the Shuttle *Endeavor* (STS-69 in 1995 and STS-72 in 1996), had height, weight, and ages of $182.6 \text{ cm} \pm 7.8$, $78.0 \text{ kg} \pm 5.3$, and $40.9 \text{ yr} \pm 3.6$ (mean \pm SD), respectively.

Measurements

Between 5 and 45 d before launch, astronauts reported to the EPL at JSC, in Houston, TX. They submitted to a 20-min seated acute sequential hypoxic challenge by breathing for 4 min 18.0%, 14.9%, 13.5%, 12.9%, and 12.2% O_2 at sea level, all within $\pm 0.1\%$ of specified concentration with $\pm 0.02\%$ analysis. Longer intervals of hypoxic breathing were evaluated during the design phase, but were found to elicit unwanted symptoms in some subjects, including tingling sensations, light headedness, and lethargy. Nominal $P_{\text{I}}\text{O}_2$ for the bottle concentrations at 760 mmHg was 128, 106, 96, 92, and 87 mmHg, respectively, with ± 1.4 mmHg for the extreme of the specified concentration. $P_{\text{I}}\text{O}_2$ is computed from $[(P_{\text{B}} - 47) \times F_{\text{I}}\text{O}_2]$, where P_{B} is ambient pressure (mmHg), 47 is vapor pressure (mmHg) of water at 37° centigrade, and $F_{\text{I}}\text{O}_2$ is the dry-gas decimal fraction of oxygen in the breathing gas. Barometric pressure on the day of testing was not measured and was assumed to be 760 mmHg at JSC and at the Kennedy Space Center (KSC).

A Novametrix CO_2 /SMO ET CO_2 / $S_{\text{p}}\text{O}_2$ Model 7100 was used to measure and display Hb- O_2 saturation through finger pulse oximetry ($S_{\text{p}}\text{O}_2$, %), heart rate (HR, bpm), end-tidal CO_2 partial pressure ($P_{\text{ET}}\text{CO}_2$, mmHg), and respiration rate (RR, breaths \cdot min⁻¹). $S_{\text{p}}\text{O}_2$ and HR were measured using red and infrared wavelength light emitting diodes beamed into a finger. Heart rate was calculated by taking the inverse of the time interval between the peaks of the infrared light waveform. The capnograph measured CO_2 concentration and RR with a solid-state sensor, designated Capnostat II. The Capnostat II sensor was placed onto an airway adapter. The astronauts breathed through the adapter (bidirectional flow). Infrared light generated in one leg of the “U” shaped sensor was beamed through the window of the airway adapter to a detector in the other leg of the sensor. Some of this light is absorbed by the CO_2 as a result of respiration. Respiration rate was calculated by taking the inverse of the time interval between peaks of the CO_2 waveform.

While seated, the astronauts were fitted with a nose clip and then breathed through an on-demand scuba regulator (U.S.

Divers Octopus, Vista, CA) each of five hypoxic mixtures, starting with 18% O₂. They briefly held their breath until the new mixture was made available. Between the mouth piece and the scuba regulator was the Capnostat II sensor mounted onto the airway adapter. S_pO₂, P_{ET}CO₂, RR, and HR were digitally displayed with whole number resolution on the Novamatrix. These data were transcribed each minute for 4 min per gas mixture by lab personnel to a data collection sheet. The same process was followed postflight. On R+0 and R+2, data from the sequential hypoxic challenge were collected by lab personnel with astronauts resting and seated at the KSC in Titusville, FL.

Following launch, between 17 to 95 h, the astronauts also breathed for 10 min the shuttle atmosphere at 10.2 psia with 26.5% O₂, which was an equivalent P_IO₂ of 128 mmHg as the 18.0% O₂ mixture at sea level. The Novamatrix device was removed from an equipment locker on the middeck and prepared by an astronaut for use by the test astronaut. Then the device was returned to locker by the test astronaut until needed for another measurement. In total, 12 measurements were collected from 8 astronauts at various times during their exposure to a P_IO₂ of 128 mmHg. One astronaut on STS-72 had 4 measurements, another had 2, and the remaining 2 on STS-72 and 4 on STS-69 had a single measurement. No on-demand regulator was required in flight, just bidirectional breathing through the Capnostat II sensor mounted onto the airway adapter. The in-flight data were transcribed each minute for 10 min to a data collection sheet by the astronaut during quiet breathing. Lab personnel computed means for the 4-min pre/post data and the 10-min in-flight data and then transferred the means to an electronic datasheet for later statistical analysis.

Shuttle Environment

The STS-69 mission lasted 10.8 d and 8.9 d for STS-72. The atmospheric conditions at 14.7 psia for both missions combined were PO₂ of 3.16 ± 0.10 psia with PCO₂ of 3.03 ± 0.72 mmHg. The atmospheric conditions at 10.2 psia for the combined missions were PO₂ of 2.72 ± 0.07 psia (P_IO₂ of 128 mmHg) with PCO₂ of 3.29 ± 0.60 mmHg (P_ICO₂ of 3.0 mmHg). Inspiring even a small concentration of CO₂ caused a large instrument error in the measurement of P_{ET}CO₂, so in-flight P_{ET}CO₂ was not available for analysis. Both shuttle flights included EVAs and required the use of the staged 10.2 psia denitrogenation protocol with astronauts living at 10.2 psia while breathing 26.5% O₂ before EVA. This condition persisted for 170 h in STS-69 and 51 h in STS-72 before the first EVA. The mean time at 10.2 psia on STS-69 before data collection was 20.4 h (ranged from 19 to 22 h) and 41.4 h (ranged from 17 to 95 h) for STS-72. The partial tissue denitrogenation at 10.2 psia allowed for a subsequent short 40 to 70-min 100% O₂ prebreathe period in the suit to further reduce the risk of DCS during about a 6-h EVA at 4.3 psia. The P_IO₂ during the EVA was slightly hyperoxic at 175 mmHg.

Statistics

We fitted linear mixed effects regression models¹⁹ to account for correlation between the unbalanced, repeated measures data collected on each astronaut to test our two research

hypotheses. First, a main effects only model was estimated using maximum likelihood and compared to a model that additionally included potential interaction terms using a likelihood ratio test (LRT). Any influential interaction terms were then included in a final model that was fit using restricted maximum likelihood (REML), as maximum likelihood underestimates variance components by ignoring uncertainty attributable to fixed effects' estimation. We incorporated a random intercept term in each model, which accommodated random heterogeneity in astronauts' S_pO₂ levels that persisted throughout the study. We treated F_IO₂, RR, HR, and P_{ET}CO₂ as continuous covariates, and condition (baseline, in-flight, R+0, R+2) as a categorical covariate. Condition entered each model using indicator variables for each level. Interaction terms were generated by taking the product of each continuous covariate and condition level.

We first tested the hypothesis that S_pO₂ was not different between baseline, in-flight, R+0, and R+2 measures while breathing a P_IO₂ of 128 mmHg using the main effects only, mixed effects model in Eq. 1:

$$S_pO_{2ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times (\text{Baseline})_{ij} + \beta_2 \times (R+0)_{ij} + \beta_3 \times (R+2)_{ij} + \beta_4 \times HR_{ij} + \beta_5 \times RR_{ij} + b_{0j} + \varepsilon_{ij}, \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

where

$$b_{0j} \sim N(0, \sigma_{Astro}^2) \text{ and } \varepsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma^2).$$

Eq. 1 models the response S_pO_{2ij} at the *i*th measurement for the *j*th astronaut, where β₀ is the overall population intercept, β₁, ..., β₅ are the fixed effects for each covariate, and ε_{ij} is an independent error term. The random intercept takes the form of b_{0j} in this model's formulation, which allows for deviation from the population intercept for astronaut *j*. Here, we set the reference category for condition to in-flight to compare from μG. Additionally, we controlled for RR and HR in the event they influenced S_pO₂. Note that P_{ET}CO₂ was not available for in-flight measurements. In a secondary model, we compared the model in Eq. 1 to one that incorporated interaction terms between RR (HR) and condition level.

To answer our second research question, we again fitted a linear mixed effects model to S_pO₂ data to investigate if Hb-O₂ saturation during an acute sequential hypoxic challenge with F_IO₂s of 18.0, 14.9, 13.5, 12.9, and 12.2% in 1 G differed following spaceflight. Specifically, Eq. 2 is the main effects only, mixed effects model:

$$S_pO_{2ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times (R+0)_{ij} + \beta_2 \times (R+2)_{ij} + \beta_3 \times HR_{ij} + \beta_4 \times RR_{ij} + \beta_5 \times P_{ET}CO_{2ij} + \beta_6 \times F_I O_{2ij} + \beta_7 \times F_I O_{2ij}^2 + b_{0j} + \varepsilon_{ij} \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

This model takes a similar form to that presented in Eq. 1. Eq. 2 includes a curvilinear relationship between F_IO₂ as percentage

and measured S_pO_2 by incorporating a squared term for $F_{I}O_2$, an acceptable approximation for the upper portion of the Hb- O_2 desaturation curve. As there was no sequential hypoxic challenge in spaceflight, we compared baseline (reference category) measures to those collected at R+0 and R+2. We were able to control for $P_{ET}CO_2$ in this model, in addition to RR and HR. Similar to our first approach, we compared Eq. 2 to a model including interactions between RR (HR, $P_{ET}CO_2$) and condition level.

RESULTS

Assessment of Change in S_pO_2 After Breathing $P_{I}O_2$ of 128 mmHg

Table I shows the means (M) and standard deviations (SD) for measurements taken at each time point. **Fig. 1** is a box and whisker plot of S_pO_2 for astronauts in each condition. **Table I** and **Fig. 1** show an S_pO_2 of about 97%, regardless of the measurement time. **Fig. 2** is a scatter plot of S_pO_2 for astronauts in each condition, providing a visual assessment of within- and between-subject variability in S_pO_2 at a $P_{I}O_2$ of 128 mmHg. With the exception of the astronaut indicated with a ° symbol at R+0, we found that S_pO_2 levels remained relatively constant for each astronaut, regardless of measurement time.

Comparing the model presented in Eq. 1 to a model that additionally incorporated interaction terms using a LRT, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (interaction term's regression coefficients = 0) at the 0.05 α -level with a P -value = 0.24. Thus, we found no evidence to suggest a need to include interactions between condition and HR or RR in the final model. Results from the final model for our first research question are shown in **Table II**.

We conclude from **Table II** that there is not a statistically significant difference (0.05 α -level) in S_pO_2 at baseline, R+0, and R+2 conditions compared to in flight for the typical astronaut ($b_{0j} = 0$), holding all else constant (P -values = 0.582, 0.099, and 0.100, respectively). By typical astronaut we mean the random intercept term is zero so there is no astronaut-specific modification of estimated S_pO_2 . Thus, there is not enough evidence in the data to claim S_pO_2 changed across baseline, in-flight, R+0, and R+2 measures after breathing $P_{I}O_2$ of 128 mmHg for the typical astronaut.

Assessment of Acute Sequential Hypoxic Challenge

Table III summarizes the data collected during the hypoxic challenge at baseline, R+0, and at R+2. Note that as mean S_pO_2

decreases as $F_{I}O_2$ decreases the SD roughly increases fivefold. There is a slight increase in mean HR as $F_{I}O_2$ decreases, little change in RR, and slight increase in $P_{ET}CO_2$ on R+2 (see **Table IV** for statistical significance).

Comparing the model presented in Eq. 2 to a model that additionally incorporated interaction terms using a LRT, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (interaction term's regression coefficients = 0) at the 0.05 α -level with a P -value = 0.25. Thus, we found no evidence to suggest a need to include the interactions effect between condition and HR, RR, or $P_{ET}CO_2$ in the final model. Results from the final model for our second research question are shown in **Table IV**.

We conclude from **Table IV** that there is no statistically significant difference (0.05 α -level) in S_pO_2 from baseline to R+0 or R+2 for the typical astronaut ($b_{0j} = 0$), holding all else constant (P -values = 0.873 and 0.052, respectively). Thus, there is not enough evidence in the data to claim that recovery from μG changes S_pO_2 saturation compared to what is measured during an acute sequential hypoxic challenge with $P_{I}O_2$ s of 128, 106, 96, 92, and 87 mmHg in 1 G.

DISCUSSION

Our contribution appears after much has been learned about gas exchange physiology in μG .¹⁸ Pulmonary diffusion capacity (D_{LCO}) from single-breath carbon monoxide breathing and membrane diffusing capacity (D_m) both increase to parallel the increase in pulmonary capillary blood volume (V_c) in μG . The persistent increase in D_{LCO} and D_m is evidence that pulmonary edema does not occur in μG . In addition, gravity imposes a degree of matching between ventilation and perfusion. Prisk *et al.*¹⁸ concluded that, "... the increases (D_{LCO} , D_m , and V_c) rapidly revert to preflight levels on return to 1g. This in-flight increase was attributed to a transition of the pulmonary circulation from a 1g configuration (ie, zones 1, 2, 3) to a situation in which the lung vasculature is entirely zone 2 or 3. This would result in more uniform filling of the pulmonary capillary bed and an attendant increase in the surface area available for gas exchange". So an otherwise normal lung with no change in the apparent range of \dot{V}_A/\dot{Q} in μG ¹⁵ is expected to have no impediment to gas transfer. Hypoxemia is just attributable to breathing a mildly hypoxic $P_{I}O_2$, assuming normal red blood cell (RBC) function. This conclusion is supported here and by earlier efforts^{12,13,21} to address the issue by combining bed rest with hypoxic altitude exposure.

Table I. Results After Breathing $P_{I}O_2$ of 128 mmHg.

MEASUREMENT	MEASUREMENT TIME			
	BASELINE (N = 8)	IN-FLIGHT (N = 12)	R+0 (N = 8)	R+2 (N = 8)
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
S_pO_2 (%)	96.8 (0.7)	97.0 (0.5)	96.8 (1.0)	97.1 (0.9)
$P_{ET}CO_2$ (mmHg)	39.5 (4.6)	not available	39.1 (4.5)	39.3 (6.0)
RR (breaths · min ⁻¹)	8.6 (2.5)	15.2 (4.4)	9.6 (4.4)	8.5 (2.8)
HR (bpm)	68.5 (10.0)	65.7 (4.9)	75.5 (8.0)	68.7 (7.5)

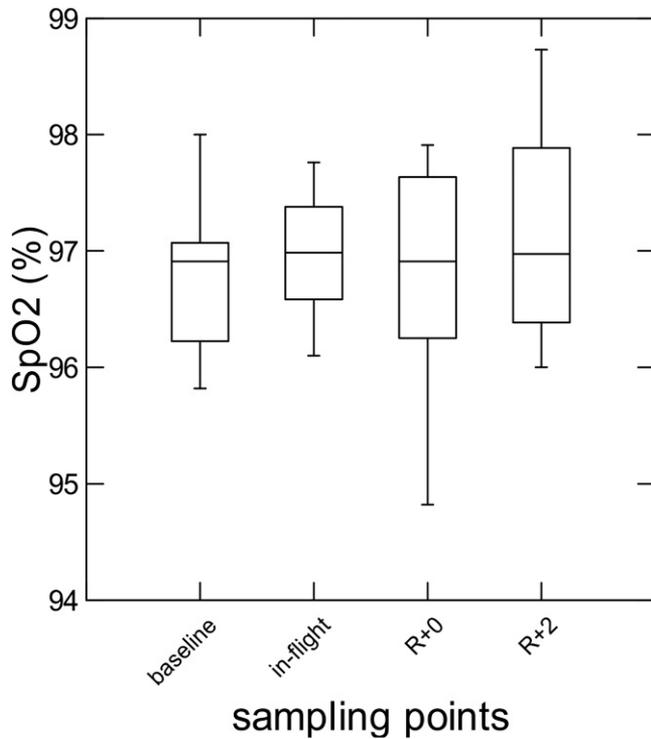


Fig. 1. Box and whisker plots of S_{pO_2} at P_{iO_2} of 128 mmHg from baseline, in-flight, R+0, and R+2.

No two humans are exactly the same, so the same response to hypoxic challenge is not expected. S_{pO_2} is the final integrated result of O_2 transport from the environment to RBCs. Multiple coupled events through time dictate how O_2 from the environment finally binds to Hb, so it is not surprising that we measured large subject-specific variations in S_{pO_2} during the acute, sequential hypoxic challenge across conditions. A similar conclusion about subject-specific factors was reached after an extensive review of the Hypoxic Ventilatory Response in mammals.²⁰ When O_2 supply is limited, certain subject-specific factors influence S_{pO_2} whereas when O_2 supply is not limited those factors have lesser effect. Subject variations in hypoxia-induced arteriovenous shunting,⁹ ventilatory response,²⁰ or modifications of \dot{V}_A/\dot{Q} in response to hypoxia⁶ are a few such considerations.

We did observe that no two astronauts responded in the same way to the repeated hypoxic challenges, except all

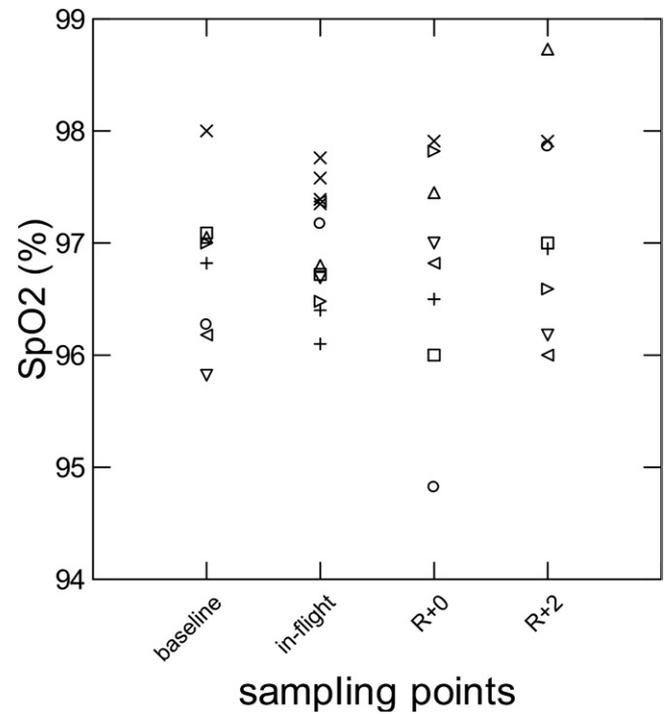


Fig. 2. Scatter plot of S_{pO_2} at P_{iO_2} of 128 mmHg from baseline, in-flight, R+0, and R+2. Each different symbol represents each of the eight astronauts. Note that during the in-flight measurements one astronaut (x) provided four measurements and a second (+) provided two, all others provided one. The plot is useful to visualize variations within and between astronauts across time points.

showed some decrease in S_{pO_2} while breathing reduced F_{iO_2} s. For example, Table III records a sevenfold increase in SD for S_{pO_2} while breathing 12.2% O_2 compared to breathing 18.0% O_2 for the baseline condition. Horiuchi et al.⁸ shows that even when the hypoxic intervals are extended to 60 min in 11 males there was an eightfold increase in SD for S_{pO_2} while breathing 12% O_2 compared to breathing 18% O_2 (see their Table 1). In contrast, Laurie et al.⁹ show in 12 subjects a 3.5-fold increase in SD for S_{pO_2} while breathing 10% O_2 for 30 min compared to breathing 16% O_2 (see their Table 3). Replacing P_{iO_2} with P_{AO_2} would likely reduce the within- and between-subject variability in S_{pO_2} to a progressive hypoxic challenge as defined by P_{AO_2} . P_{AO_2} reflects the integrated ventilatory response to an increasing hypoxic dose while P_{iO_2} does not change in response to ventilatory drive.

Transition to μG initiates many adaptive changes in physiology that then revert on return to 1 G. There are adjustments to RBCs and the plasma volume they occupy due to μG exposure,^{1,2} not even considering mild hypoxia at 10.2 psia that could induce a small increase in 2,3-Diphosphoglycerate (2,3-DPG) within the RBCs⁴ or the chronic inspiration of about 3 mmHg CO_2 . And then there

Table II. Mixed Effects REML Regression for P_{iO_2} of 128 mmHg Across Four Conditions.

FIXED EFFECT	COEFFICIENT (95% CI)	STANDARD ERROR	z-SCORE	P-VALUE
Intercept, β_0	100.61 (98.49, 102.73)	1.082	92.97	<0.001
Condition				
Baseline, β_1	0.195 (-0.500, 0.891)	0.355	0.55	0.582
R + 0, β_2	0.617 (-0.117, 1.351)	0.374	1.65	0.099
R + 2, β_3	0.587 (-0.112, 1.286)	0.357	1.64	0.100
HR, β_4	-0.062 (-0.093, -0.032)	0.016	-4.01	<0.001
RR, β_5	0.029 (-0.032, 0.091)	0.031	0.94	0.349
RANDOM EFFECT	ESTIMATE (95% CI)	STANDARD ERROR		
σ_{Astro}	0.156 (0.011, 2.151)	0.209		
σ	0.619 (0.468, 0.819)	0.089		

Table III. Physiological Responses to Three Acute Sequential Hypoxic Challenges.

F _I O ₂ (%)	S _p O ₂ (%)	P _{ET} CO ₂ (mmHg)	RR (breaths · min ⁻¹)	HR (bpm)
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Baseline				
18.0	96.7 (0.7)	39.5 (4.6)	8.6 (2.5)	68.5 (10.0)
14.9	94.8 (1.6)	38.0 (5.1)	7.5 (2.4)	67.6 (8.9)
13.5	93.1 (2.5)	36.4 (5.5)	7.6 (2.4)	68.9 (9.2)
12.9	90.3 (3.7)	36.2 (4.8)	7.3 (2.4)	70.5 (9.7)
12.2	87.5 (5.0)	35.2 (6.1)	7.4 (3.0)	71.7 (10.8)
R+0				
18.0	96.8 (1.0)	39.1 (4.5)	9.6 (4.4)	75.5 (8.0)
14.9	94.2 (2.3)	38.6 (5.5)	9.9 (4.8)	78.3 (8.2)
13.5	91.3 (3.2)	38.6 (5.3)	10.0 (4.5)	80.1 (10.2)
12.9	88.8 (4.2)	37.6 (4.9)	9.9 (4.4)	80.4 (10.2)
12.2	88.0* (4.3)	35.6* (4.5)	9.7* (5.0)	82.5* (10.1)
R+2				
18.0	97.1 (0.9)	39.3 (5.9)	8.5 (2.8)	68.7 (7.5)
14.9	94.9 (1.9)	39.2 (5.4)	8.2 (2.8)	71.2 (7.1)
13.5	92.6 (2.1)	39.4 (5.8)	8.0 (3.0)	72.2 (7.2)
12.9	91.7* (1.6)	38.8* (5.6)	7.7* (3.6)	73.9* (9.2)
12.2	87.6! (2.3)	38.6! (4.7)	6.8! (3.4)	72.8 [†] (6.7)

* N = 7, [†]N = 6.

are physiological readjustments on return to 1 G. We entertained the possibility that changes in RBCs and the plasma environment of the RBCs during or after μ G exposure could have modified Hb affinity for O₂, and yet astronaut S_pO₂ was no different in μ G with a P_IO₂ of 128 mmHg compared to baseline, R+0, or R+2. Also, there was no difference in astronaut S_pO₂ following μ G exposure between baseline, R+0, or R+2 during the acute sequential hypoxic challenge.

Future studies about S_pO₂ and hypoxic challenge before, during, and after μ G exposure would benefit by measuring variables that influence S_pO₂, like P_AO₂, Hb, and 2,3-DPG concentrations in RBCs from venous blood. These additional explanatory variables in combination with the mixed effects regression model would reduce the large within- and between-subject variability in S_pO₂ at increasing hypoxic dose, as defined by P_AO₂. Our sample size was not dictated by an a priori power analysis; this was a pilot, exploratory study. The absence of additional explanatory variables limited our ability to account for the variability in S_pO₂ and so limited our ability to detect all but the greatest impediment to O₂ transfer onto Hb. A future study design is enabled by the few data collected in this pilot study.

Table IV. Mixed Effects REML Regression for Hypoxic Challenge Across Three Conditions.

FIXED EFFECT	COEFFICIENT (95% CI)	STANDARD ERROR	z-SCORE	P-VALUE
Intercept, β_0	2.384 (-24.267, 29.035)	13.598	0.18	0.861
CONDITION				
R + 0, β_1	-0.087 (-1.151, 0.977)	0.543	-0.16	0.873
R + 2, β_2	0.918 (-0.009, 1.846)	0.473	1.94	0.052
HR, β_3	-0.065 (-0.127, -0.003)	0.032	-2.05	0.041
RR, β_4	0.111 (-0.059, 0.282)	0.087	1.28	0.201
P _{ET} CO ₂ , β_5	-0.252 (-0.389, -0.135)	0.060	-4.22	<0.001
F _I O ₂ , β_6	12.464 (8.953, 15.975)	1.791	6.96	<0.001
F _I O ₂ ² , β_7	-0.360 (-0.475, -0.246)	0.058	-6.17	<0.001
RANDOM EFFECT				
σ_{Astro}	0.627 (0.227, 1.727)	0.324		
σ	2.000 (1.742, 2.292)	0.140		

We showed that exposure to and recovery from μ G did not significantly alter the gas exchange process that dictates S_pO₂ response to mild hypoxia in 8 astronauts. We now discuss the association between HR and exposure to μ G. Changes in HR are potentially attributable to recovery from μ G but are superimposed on the hypoxic challenge. For example, postflight tachycardia is a common response to decreased plasma volume associated with orthostasis.^{2,17} However, this study added a stimulus to potentially increase HR as part of the postflight hypoxic challenge. We reanalyzed the data from the hypoxic challenge to investigate changes

in HR across condition levels. In this supplemental analysis, we fitted a linear mixed effects model, similar to Eq. 2, but only controlled for a linear effect of F_IO₂. We also evaluated a potential interaction between F_IO₂ and condition level to see if F_IO₂ moderated the association between μ G recovery and the HR response. We found a significant difference in HR during the hypoxic challenge on R+0 ($\beta_1 = 10.0$, $P < 0.001$) and R+2 ($\beta_2 = 2.95$, $P = 0.024$) compared to baseline. Recall that the value of the β coefficient is the magnitude of the difference of the outcome variable for the condition R+0 or R+2 referenced to baseline. This difference was not unexpected since HR is increased following exposure to μ G¹⁷ but recovers to normal in the ensuing days. The interaction between condition level and F_IO₂ was not significant ($P = 0.49$); therefore, we conclude the change in HR (Δ HR / Δ F_IO₂) at R+0 and R+2 compared to baseline was not moderated by changes in F_IO₂ during the hypoxic challenge. We posit that the offset increases in HR on R+0 and R+2 compared to baseline are attributable to recovery from μ G associated with orthostasis and not increased sensitivity of the HR response to the sequential hypoxic challenge. We do not have the appropriate data to support a full discussion

about the ventilatory response to hypoxia during and after exposure to μ G, see Prisk *et al.*¹⁶

The middeck of the *Endeavor* was less than an ideal controlled laboratory setting. There are more stressors in spaceflight (confinement, disrupted sleep, anxiety, elevated P_{CO}₂) than just μ G and mild hypoxia while breathing 26.5% O₂ at 10.2 psia, which apparently did not dominate our results. There were few in-flight data samples (12

samples with 8 astronauts), and missing data on R+0 and R+2 with our lowest O₂ concentrations. Unfortunately, pre/post measurements while breathing air at sea level (an F₁O₂ of 20.9% with a P₁O₂ of 149 mmHg) were not collected. A reasonable value for S_pO₂ at sea level is 98%, which compares closely to two in-flight S_pO₂ measurements of 97.8% and 97.4% taken under normoxic conditions. These values dropped by 1 to 96.7% and 96.5% while exposed to a P₁O₂ of about 127 mmHg in the shuttle. Table I shows pre/post results compared to in-flight results where P₁O₂ was about 127 mmHg. But the pre/post results are after breathing 18.0% O₂ at sea level for 4 min whereas the in-flight results are after breathing 26.5% O₂ at 10.2 psia for 19 to 95 h. We contend that our comparisons are valid but would have preferred more time breathing 18% O₂. The original experiment design was to include an in-flight hypoxic challenge. However, the cost and potential hazard to launch the five pressurized hypoxic mixtures was prohibitive, leaving only the results from breathing 18% O₂ for 4 min to compare with in-flight results.

Our assumption of a “nominal” in-flight environmental condition of 10.2 psia with 26.5% O₂ appears valid. The atmospheric conditions at 10.2 psia were maintained at a P_{O₂} of 2.72 ± 0.07 psia, which at 10.2 psia provides a P₁O₂ of 128 mmHg when F₁O₂ is 26.6%. But the mean P_{CO₂} of 3.29 ± 0.60 mmHg combined with the mild hypoxia may have contributed to the in-flight increase in RR. There is a long history about the challenge to control ambient P_{CO₂} in spaceflight and the health and performance consequences if not maintained below about 8 mmHg.^{10,11} However, Prisk et al.¹⁵ attributes an increase in in-flight RR to factors other than just increased P_{CO₂}. Also, the absence of the on-demand regulator in-flight, which was used to deliver the hypoxic breathing gases pre- and postflight, makes comparison of RRs problematic. It was decided not to build and launch a pressurized breathing system with 26.5% O₂ with the same on-demand regulator to provide a P₁O₂ of 128 mmHg while at 10.2 psia since the ambient conditions in the shuttle at 10.2 psia with 26.5% O₂ provided the equivalent hypoxia, even if comparisons of RR would be problematic.

In summary:

- 1) There was no difference in astronaut S_pO₂ (about 97%) after breathing 18% O₂ for 4 min at 760 mmHg before and after spaceflight and breathing 26.5% O₂ at 527 mmHg for 10 min after days in μG, both at a P₁O₂ of about 128 mmHg.
- 2) There was no difference in astronaut S_pO₂ between baseline, R+0, or R+2 during the acute, sequential hypoxic challenge.
- 3) We conclude that there was no acclimatization to mild hypoxia during spaceflight that alters S_pO₂ levels upon return to 1 G.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank James M. Waligora and Randy B. Morris for gathering valuable details about DSO-494 that flew on the Shuttle *Endeavor* from 1995–96. Steven

S. Laurie provided valuable discussion and editing of the manuscript. This work was made possible through the Human Health and Performance Contract (NNJ15HK11B) between the National Aeronautics and Space Administration and KBRwyle. Funding for this research was provided by the NASA Human Research Program. Conclusions are those of the authors and are not necessarily endorsed by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration.

Authors and affiliations: Johnny Conkin, Ph.D., M.S., James H. Wessel, III, M.S., B.S., Jason R. Norcross, M.S., B.S., Omar S. Bekdash, M.S., B.S., and Matthew D. Koslovsky, Ph.D., M.S., KBRwyle, Houston, TX; and Andrew F. J. Abercomby, Ph.D., M.S., and Michael L. Gernhardt, Ph.D., M.S., NASA Johnson Space Center, Houston, TX.

REFERENCES

1. Alfrey CP, Udden MM, Leach-Huntoon C, Driscoll T, Pickett MH. Control of red blood cell mass in spaceflight. *J Appl Physiol* (1985). 1996; 81(1):98–104.
2. Buckley JC Jr. *Space physiology*. New York: Oxford University Press, Inc; 2006:139–168.
3. Conkin J. Preventing decompression sickness over three decades of extravehicular activity. Houston, TX: Johnson Space Center; June 2011. NASA Technical Publication NASA/TP-2011-216147.
4. Cymerman A, Maher JT, Cruz JC, Reeves JT, Denniston JC, Grover RF. Increased 2,3-diphosphoglycerate during normocapnic hypobaric hypoxia. *Aviat Space Environ Med*. 1976; 47(10):1069–1072.
5. DeHart RL, Davis JR, eds. *Fundamentals of aerospace medicine*, 3rd ed. Baltimore (MD): Lippincott Williams and Wilkins; 2002:34–35.
6. Faiss R, Pialoux V, Sartori C, Faes C, Deriaz O, Millet GP. Ventilation, oxidative stress, and nitric oxide in hypobaric versus normobaric hypoxia. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2013; 45(2):253–260.
7. Haase H, Baronov VM, Asyamolova NM, Polyakov VV, Yu G, et al. First results of P_{O₂} of arterialized capillary blood of cosmonauts during long-term flight in the space station “Mir”. [Abstract IAF/IAA-90-518.] Paper presented at the 41st Congress of the International Astronautical Federation; October 6–12, 1990; Dresden, Germany. Paris (France): International Astronautical Federation; 1990.
8. Horiuchi M, Endo J, Dobashi S, Kiuchi M, Koyama K, Subudhi AW. Effect of progressive normobaric hypoxia on dynamic cerebral autoregulation. *Exp Physiol*. 2016; 101(10):1276–1284.
9. Laurie SS, Yang X, Elliott JE, Beasley KM, Lovering AT. Hypoxia-induced intrapulmonary arteriovenous shunting at rest in healthy humans. *J Appl Physiol* (1985). 2010; 109(4):1072–1079.
10. Law J, Van Baalen M, Foy M, Mason SS, Mendez C, et al. Relationship between carbon dioxide levels and reported headaches on the International Space Station. *J Occup Environ Med*. 2014; 56(5):477–483.
11. Loeppky JA. The effects of low levels of CO₂ on ventilation during rest and exercise. *Aviat Space Environ Med*. 1998; 69(4):368–373.
12. Loeppky JA, Roach RC, Selland MA, Scotto P, Greene ER, Luft UC. Effects of prolonged head-down bedrest on physiological responses to moderate hypoxia. *Aviat Space Environ Med*. 1993; 64(4):275–286.
13. Loeppky JA, Roach RC, Selland MA, Scotto P, Luft FC, Luft UC. Body fluid alterations during head-down bedrest in men at moderate altitude. *Aviat Space Environ Med*. 1993; 64(4):265–274.
14. Norcross J, Norsk P, Law J, Arias D, Conkin J, et al. Effects of the 8 psia/32% O₂ atmosphere on the human in the spaceflight environment. Houston (TX): NASA Johnson Space Center; 2013. NASA Technical Memorandum NASA/TM-2013-217377.
15. Prisk GK, Elliott AR, Guy HJB, Kosonen JM, West JB. Pulmonary gas exchange and its determinants during sustained microgravity on Spacelabs SLS-1 and SLS-2. *J Appl Physiol* (1985). 1995; 79(4):1290–1298.
16. Prisk GK, Elliott AR, West JB. Sustained microgravity reduces the human ventilatory response to hypoxia but not to hypercapnia. *J Appl Physiol* (1985). 2000; 88(4):1421–1430.

17. Prisk GK, Fine JM, Cooper TK, West JB. Vital capacity, respiratory muscle strength, and pulmonary gas exchange during long-duration exposure to microgravity. *J Appl Physiol* (1985). 2006; 101(2):439–447.
18. Prisk GK, Fischer CL, Duncan JM. Pulmonary function. In: Risin D, Stepaniak PC, editors. *Biomedical results of the space shuttle program. NASA/SP-2013-607, Chapter 4.5.* Washington (DC): U.S. Government Printing Office; 2013:118–119.
19. STATA Corp. *Stata Statistical Software: Release 14.* College Station (TX): StataCorp LP; 2016.
20. Teppema LJ, Dahan A. The ventilator response to hypoxia in mammals: mechanisms, measurement, and analysis. *Physiol Rev.* 2010; 90:675–754.
21. Waligora JM, Horrigan DJ Jr, Bungo MW, Conkin J. Investigation of combined effects of bedrest and mild hypoxia. *Aviat Space Environ Med.* 1982; 53(7):643–646.