

## **Review**

# **Hypoxic adaptation of the rat carotid body**

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**Summary.** Three types of hypoxia with different levels of carbon dioxide (hypocapnic, isocapnic, and hypercapnic hypoxia) have been called systemic hypoxia. The systemic hypoxic carotid bodies were enlarged several fold, but the degree of enlargement was different for each. The mean short and long axes of hypocapnic and isocapnic hypoxic carotid bodies were 1.6 (short axis) and 1.8-1.9 (long axis) times larger than normoxic control carotid bodies, respectively. Those of hypercapnic hypoxic carotid bodies were 1.2 (short axis) and 1.5 (long axis) times larger than controls, respectively. The rate of enlargement in hypercapnic hypoxic carotid bodies was lower than in hypocapnic and isocapnic hypoxic carotid bodies. The rate of vascular enlargement in hypercapnic hypoxic carotid bodies was also smaller than in hypocapnic and isocapnic hypoxic carotid bodies. Thus, the enlargement of hypoxic carotid bodies is mainly due to vascular dilation. Different levels of arterial CO<sub>2</sub> tension change the peptidergic innervation during chronically hypoxic exposure. The characteristic vascular arrangement was under the control of altered peptidergic innervation. During the course of hypoxic adaptation, the enlargement of the carotid bodies with vascular expansion began soon after the start of hypoxic exposure. During the course of recovery, the shrinking of the carotid bodies with vascular contraction also started at a relatively early period after the termination of chronic hypoxia. These processes during the course of hypoxic adaptation and during the course of recovery were under the control of peptidergic innervation. These findings may provide a standard for further studies of hypoxic carotid bodies.

**Key words:** Carotid body, Hypoxia, Adaptation, Recovery, Immunohistochemistry, Regulatory neuropeptides, Rat

## **Introduction**

It is generally accepted that the carotid bodies, which are the primary organs for sensing changes in arterial blood gases (PaO<sub>2</sub> and PaCO<sub>2</sub>) and hydrogen ion concentration, become enlarged in rats exposed to long term hypoxia. The volume of the carotid bodies increases several fold with increased vascularization (Heath et al., 1973; Laidler and Kay, 1975a,b; Barer et al., 1976; Kusakabe et al., 1993b, 1998a,b, 2000, 2002, 2003, 2004b), and the glomus cells (type I cells and chief cells) show hypertrophy and hyperplasia (Moller et al., 1974; Laidler and Kay, 1978; Pequignot and Hellström, 1983; Dhillon et al., 1984; McGregor et al., 1984; Pequignot et al., 1984; Pallot et al., 1990). As a result of enlargement with vascular expansion, the appearance of the rat hypoxic carotid bodies becomes similar to that of amphibians (Kusakabe et al., 1993b; Kusakabe, 2002), whose PaO<sub>2</sub> is generally low (Toews and Heisler, 1982; West et al., 1987).

In early studies, experimental animals were exposed to hypoxia equivalent to that of a high altitudes (3800-7500 m) in a hypobaric chamber (Blessing and Wolff, 1973; Heath et al., 1973; Moller et al., 1974; Laidler and Kay, 1975a,b, 1978; Barer et al., 1976), and in later studies, the animals were also exposed to hypoxia in a normobaric hypoxic chamber (10% O<sub>2</sub>) (Pequignot and Hellström, 1983; Dhillon et al., 1984; McGregor et al., 1984; Pequignot et al., 1984; Kusakabe et al., 1998a,b; 2000, 2002, 2003, 2004b).

Looking back on a number of previous hypoxic studies, we must emphasize that the condition and duration of experimental hypoxic exposure varied with each author, so that it is difficult to compare them. In brief, most studies on hypoxic exposure have not referred to carbon dioxide levels except in a few instances (Dhillon et al., 1984). Furthermore, some authors exposed the animals to hypoxia for short periods of 1-2 weeks, and other authors for long periods of 2-3 months. However, most authors use the term "chronic hypoxia" in their publications. When a number of previous findings are compared, the various hypoxic conditions and durations in each experiment will be in

danger of being misunderstood. In recent years, we have tried to examine the morphological changes in the rat carotid bodies in various hypoxic conditions and durations to provide a morphological standard (Kusakabe et al., 1998b, 2000, 2002, 2003, 2004b).

In this review, we first summarize the morphological changes in the rat carotid bodies in three types of hypoxia (hypocapnic, isocapnic, and hypercapnic hypoxia) with different levels of carbon dioxide to evaluate different levels of arterial CO<sub>2</sub> tension, and then

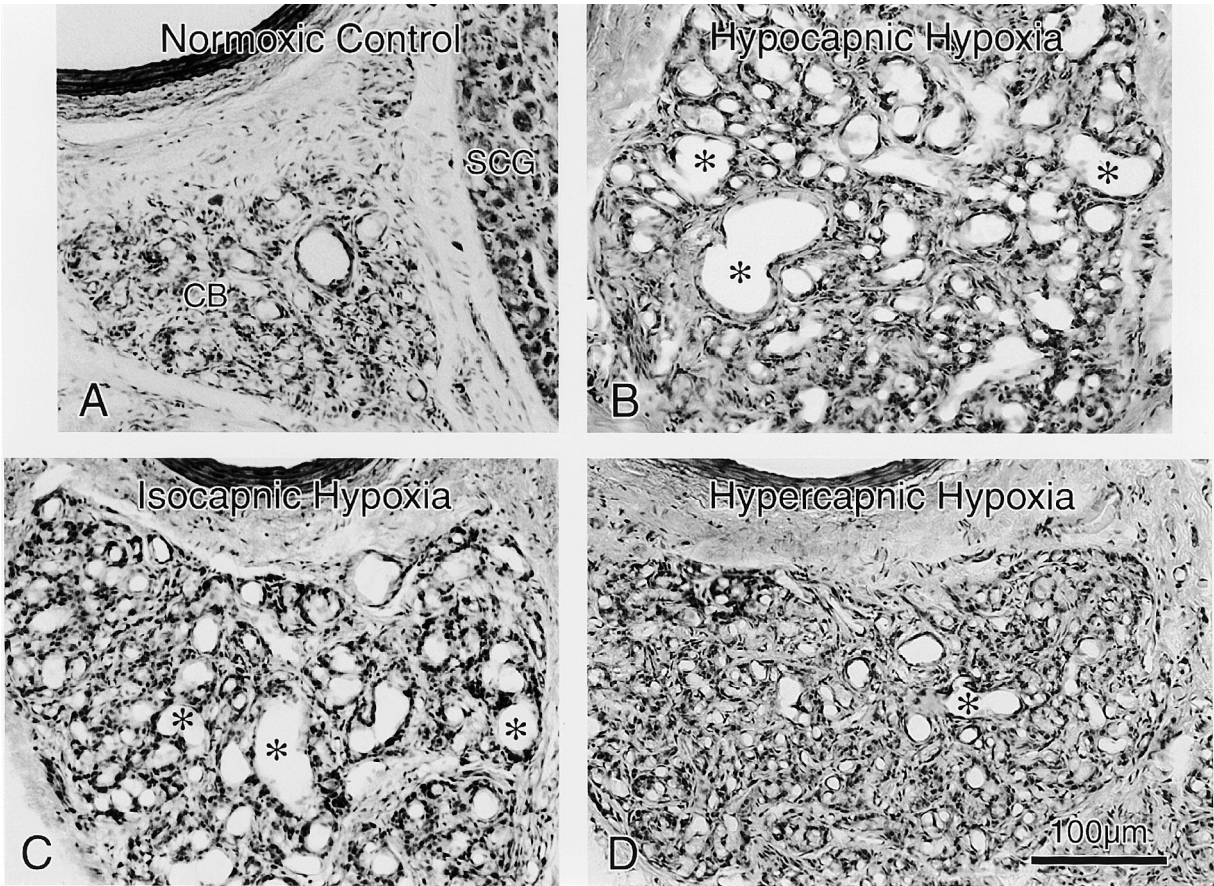
summarize the morphological changes in the rat carotid bodies during the course of hypoxic adaptation, and during the course of recovery to evaluate the different levels of acclimatization and deacclimatization. We also summarize the changes in the peptidergic innervation in systemic hypoxia and in the course of hypoxic adaptation and recovery.

**General morphology in rat carotid body in systemic hypoxia**

The modulating effect of CO<sub>2</sub> on the circulatory response to chronic hypoxia in sinoaortic denervated dogs assesses the arterial chemoreflex contribution (Koehler et al., 1980). Elevating PaCO<sub>2</sub> attenuated tachycardia during hypoxia. This may indicate the interaction between the modulating effects of increased CO<sub>2</sub> level on cardiovascular responses and the carotid body chemoreceptor reflex. It is meaningful to discuss the effects of hypoxia which could be induced by varying levels of carbon dioxide, because recently there has been much concern over global warming caused by

**Table 1.** Mean values of PaO<sub>2</sub>, PaCO<sub>2</sub>, and pH in the systemic hypoxic rats (n=6). (Hayashida et al., 1996).

	PaO <sub>2</sub> (mmHg)	PaCO <sub>2</sub> (mmHg)	pH
Control (n=6)	94.2	34.3	7.43
Hypocapnic hypoxia(n=6)	38.7	21.5	7.56
Isocapnic hypoxia (n=6)	50.5	35.4	7.43
Hypercapnic hypoxia (n=6)	56.4	45.0	7.33



**Fig. 1.** A comparison of hematoxylin-eosin stained sections of a normoxic control carotid body (CB) (A), and hypocapnic (B), isocapnic (C), and hypercapnic hypoxic carotid bodies (D). Asterisks (\*) indicate expanded blood vessels. SCG: superior cervical ganglion. (Kusakabe et al., 1998b, 2002, 2003).

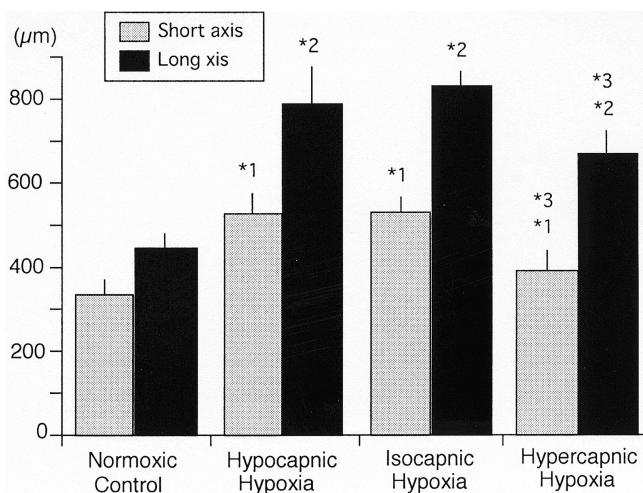


## Carotid body in hypoxia

increased levels of this gas.

Three types of hypoxia with different levels of carbon dioxide (hypocapnic, isocapnic, and hypercapnic hypoxia) have been called systemic hypoxia, and the mean values of  $\text{PaO}_2$ ,  $\text{PaCO}_2$ , and pH of the control and the three hypoxic groups are shown in Table 1 (Hayashida et al., 1996). Recently the changes in general morphology and those in peptidergic innervation in the carotid bodies of rats exposed to chronic (3 months) hypocapnic (10%  $\text{O}_2$  in  $\text{N}_2$ ), isocapnic (10%  $\text{O}_2$  and 2-3%  $\text{CO}_2$ ), and hypercapnic hypoxia (10%  $\text{O}_2$  and 6-7%  $\text{CO}_2$ ) were examined to evaluate the effect of arterial  $\text{CO}_2$  tension (Kusakabe et al., 1998b, 2000, 2002, 2004b).

In the control normoxic rats, the carotid bodies are oval and highly vascular (Fig. 1A) as widely demonstrated by a number of investigators. According to our morphometry, the mean short and long axes of the normoxic control carotid bodies are  $329.0 \pm 35.3 \mu\text{m}$  and  $439.7 \pm 28.5 \mu\text{m}$ , respectively (Fig. 2). The carotid bodies of systemic hypoxic rats were found to be enlarged several fold, but the degree of enlargement was different for each (Fig. 1B-D). The mean short and long axes of hypocapnic hypoxic carotid bodies were  $518.7 \pm 37.1 \mu\text{m}$  and  $782.7 \pm 92.2 \mu\text{m}$ , those of isocapnic hypoxic carotid bodies were  $525.8 \pm 24.4 \mu\text{m}$  and  $827.7 \pm 29.5 \mu\text{m}$ , and those of hypercapnic hypoxic carotid bodies were  $390.6 \pm 37.9 \mu\text{m}$  and  $664.5 \pm 59.6 \mu\text{m}$ , respectively (Fig. 2). The mean short and long axes of hypocapnic and isocapnic hypoxic carotid bodies were 1.6 (short axis) and 1.8-1.9 (long axis) times larger than control normoxic carotid bodies, respectively. Those of hypercapnic hypoxic carotid bodies were 1.2 (short axis) and 1.5 (long axis) times larger than controls,



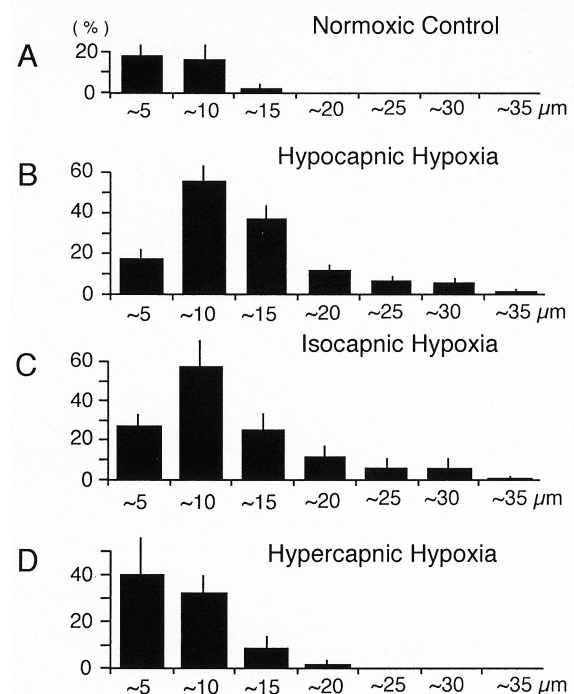
**Fig. 2.** Histograms comparing the diameter of normoxic control carotid bodies and systemic hypoxic carotid bodies. \*1:  $p < 0.005$ , \*2  $p < 0.005$  in comparison with the normoxic control column. \*3  $p < 0.005$  in comparison with the hypocapnic and isocapnic hypoxic column. (Kusakabe et al., 2004a).

respectively. Thus, the rate of enlargement in hypercapnic hypoxic carotid bodies was significantly lower than the rate in hypocapnic and isocapnic hypoxic carotid bodies (Fig. 2).

In the normoxic control carotid bodies, about 90% of blood vessels were small with diameters of less than  $10 \mu\text{m}$ , and blood vessels with diameters greater than  $15 \mu\text{m}$  were under 10% (Fig. 3). In the hypocapnic and isocapnic hypoxic carotid bodies, the percentage of small blood vessels less than  $5 \mu\text{m}$  was reduced to under 20%, and blood vessels with diameters greater than  $15 \mu\text{m}$  increased to about 40% (Fig. 3). In the hypercapnic hypoxic carotid bodies, the percentage of relatively small vessels and that of relatively large vessels were similar to that in normoxic control carotid bodies (Fig. 3), although the carotid bodies themselves were significantly larger than in normoxic controls.

It has been generally suggested that  $\text{CO}_2$  tension causes vasodilation in both central and peripheral vascular systems (Fenstermacher and Rapoport, 1984). In hypercapnic hypoxic carotid bodies, however, the percentage of vascular enlargement is small. This may indicate that high  $\text{CO}_2$  tension causes the carotid body vasculature to constrict. However, this finding may be restricted to the chronically hypoxic condition.

Recently we reported the contribution of the autonomic nervous system to the cardiovascular



**Fig. 3.** Histograms representing the percentage of blood vessels of seven ranges of diameter in normoxic control carotid bodies (A) and hypocapnic (B), isocapnic (C), and hypercapnic hypoxic carotid bodies (D). (Kusakabe et al., 2004a).

response to hypoxia with different levels of CO<sub>2</sub> in conscious rats (Hirakawa et al., 1997). Hypercapnic hypoxia causes an increase in arterial blood pressure, and a decrease in heart rate and renal sympathetic nerve activity, whereas hypocapnic hypoxia causes a decrease in arterial blood pressure, and an increase in heart rate and renal sympathetic nerve activity. Sino-aortic denervation and atropine abolished the bradycardic response during hypercapnic hypoxic exposure. On this basis, we suggested that hypercapnic hypoxia causes sympathetic and parasympathetic activation, while hypocapnic hypoxia causes sympathetic activation and parasympathetic inhibition. Furthermore, baroreflex function is affected by arterial CO<sub>2</sub> levels. From these findings, we suggested that cardiovascular responses during hypoxia are modified by arterial CO<sub>2</sub> levels, and mediated by the autonomic nervous system. Thus, different levels of arterial CO<sub>2</sub> tension may affect the autonomic nervous system.

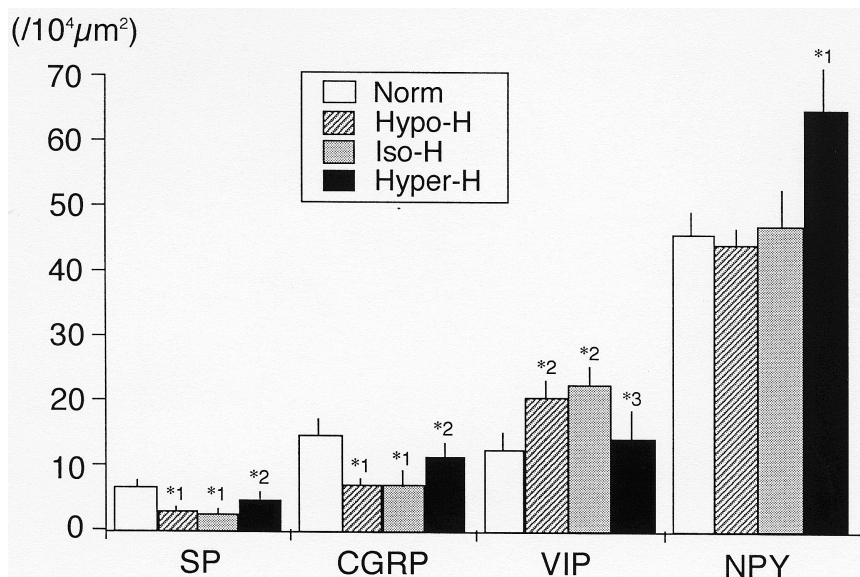
#### Peptidergic innervation in rat carotid body in systemic hypoxia

In various vertebrates, many kinds of regulatory neuropeptides, substance P (SP), calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP), vasoactive intestinal polypeptide (VIP), neuropeptide Y (NPY), somatostatin, enkephalin, galanin, and others have been recognized in the nerve fibers distributed throughout the parenchyma of the carotid body (Lundberg et al., 1979; Wharton et al., 1980; Jacobowitz and Helke, 1980; Kondo et al., 1986; Kondo and Yamamoto, 1988; Kusakabe et al., 1991, 1993a,c, 1994a,b, 1995a,b, 1998b). Because these peptidergic fibers appeared as thin processes with a number of varicosities, we can easily represent the

density of peptidergic innervation. In the normoxic control carotid bodies, the mean density of varicosities in SP, CGRP, VIP, and NPY immunoreactive fibers per unit area (10<sup>4</sup> μm<sup>2</sup>) was 6.5±1.0, 14.3±1.6, 12.5±1.8, and 45.6±5.3, respectively (Fig. 4).

In the rat carotid bodies in systemic hypoxia, immunoreactivity of SP, CGRP, VIP, and NPY was also recognized in the same way as in the normoxic controls, although there were some differences in the abundance of immunoreactive fibers (Kusakabe et al., 1998b, 2000, 2002). NPY immunoreactive varicose fibers were more numerous than SP, CGRP, and VIP immunoreactive fibers. Most immunoreactive fibers were associated with the vasculature and some fibers surrounded clusters of glomus cells. A histogram comparing the mean density of varicosities in these neuropeptide-containing fibers per unit area (10<sup>4</sup> μm<sup>2</sup>) is shown in Figure 4.

In the chronically isocapnic hypoxic carotid bodies, SP, CGRP, VIP, and NPY immunoreactive fibers were mainly associated with enlarged vasculature (Kusakabe et al., 1998b). In particular, most VIP fibers were found around the vasculature. When the mean density of varicosities per unit area (10<sup>4</sup> μm<sup>2</sup>) was compared in the same way, the density of VIP fibers was significantly increased from 12.5±1.8 to 22.6±1.6, although that of NPY fibers was unchanged (Fig. 4). The mean density of SP and CGRP fibers per unit area was significantly reduced from 6.5±1.0 to 2.2±0.3, and from 14.3±1.6 to 6.7±1.2, respectively (Fig. 4). The mean density of VIP fibers per unit area in chronically hypoxic carotid bodies was 1.8 (22.6/12.5) times higher than that of VIP fibers in normoxic carotid bodies, and the mean density of SP and CGRP fibers per unit area was 0.4 (2.2/6.5) and 0.5 (6.7/14.3) times higher than that of SP and CGRP fibers, respectively.



**Fig. 4.** Histograms comparing the density of varicosities of SP, CGRP, VIP, and NPY immunoreactive fibers per unit area in normoxic control and hypocapnic, isocapnic, and hypercapnic hypoxic carotid bodies. (Kusakabe et al., 2004a).



### Carotid body in hypoxia

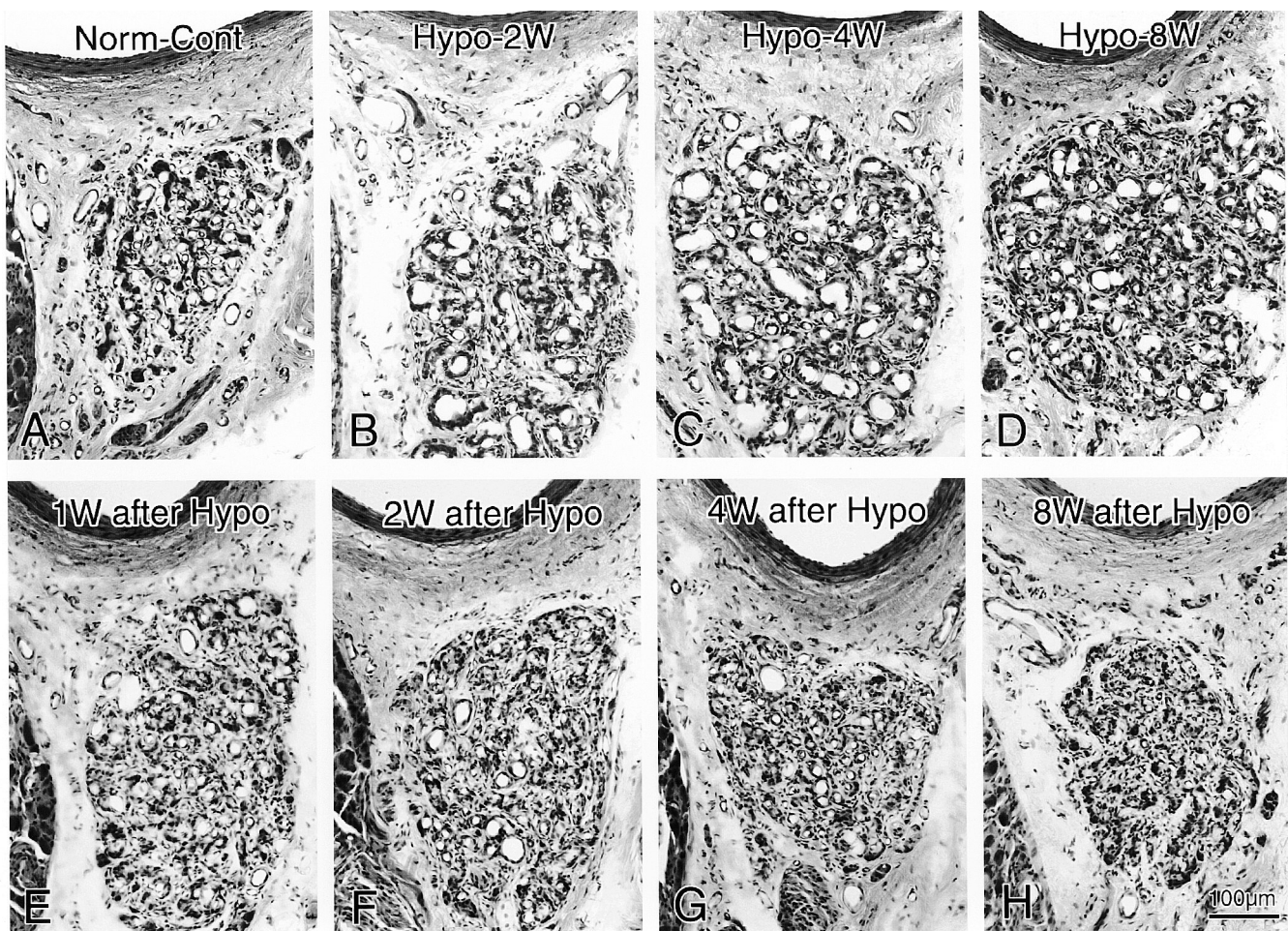
In chronically hypocapnic hypoxic carotid bodies, the density of VIP fibers was increased significantly 1.4 times, the density of SP and CGRP fibers was reduced significantly to under 50%, and the density of NPY was unchanged (Fig. 4) (Kusakabe et al., 2000). Thus, changes in peptidergic innervation in chronically hypocapnic hypoxic carotid bodies were similar to changes in chronically isocapnic hypoxic bodies.

In chronically hypercapnic hypoxic carotid bodies, however, the density of NPY fibers was significantly increased, and that of VIP fibers was unchanged (Fig. 4). Therefore, the changes in the density of VIP and NPY fibers were reversed. The mean density of NPY fibers per unit area was about 1.3 times higher than that of NPY fibers in controls. The mean density of SP and CGRP fibers per unit area was about 0.8 times higher than that of these fibers in controls (Fig. 4). Thus the

distribution pattern of peptidergic fibers in the chronically hypercapnic hypoxic carotid body was similar to that in the normoxic carotid body (Fig. 4).

No glomus cells with the immunoreactivity of these four neuropeptides were observed in the normoxic and chronically systemic hypoxic carotid bodies.

In the chronically hypercapnic hypoxic carotid bodies, the density per unit area of NPY immunoreactive nerve fibers was significantly increased, and that of VIP fibers was unchanged. However, in the chronically hypocapnic and isocapnic hypoxic rat carotid bodies, the density per unit area of NPY and VIP fibers was reversed (Kusakabe et al., 1998b, 2000). The difference in the density of NPY and VIP fibers between the hypercapnic and the isocapnic hypoxic carotid bodies may suggest the involvement of a high level of arterial CO<sub>2</sub> tension, although there was no difference in the



**Fig. 5.** Hematoxylin-eosin stained sections of a control normoxic carotid body (CB) (A), a carotid body after 2 (B), 4 (C), and 8 weeks (D) of hypoxic exposure, and a carotid body 1 (E), 2 (F), 4 (G), and 8 weeks (H) after the termination of chronically hypocapnic hypoxia. The hypoxic carotid bodies are enlarged with vascular enlargement in comparison with normoxic control. The carotid bodies after the termination of chronic hypoxia were diminished in size. SCG, superior cervical ganglion. (Kusakabe et al., 2003, 2004b).



density of these fibers between the isocapnic and the hypocapnic carotid bodies. VIP is thought to have a long acting vasodilatory effect (Larson et al., 1976; Heistad, et al., 1980; Wilson et al., 1981). On this basis, we suggested that at least part of the vascular expansion in the chronically hypocapnic and isocapnic hypoxic carotid bodies may be due to the vasodilatory effect of VIP (Kusakabe et al., 1998b). In addition, it has been thought that the vascular enlargement is at least to great extent due to structural changes rather than functional states because there is a true angiogenesis in the hypoxic carotid body. As a result of the vascular enlargement, the blood flow in the chronically hypoxic carotid body is increased. Accordingly we concluded that parenchymal VIP fibers, especially around the blood vessels, are indirectly involved in chemosensory mechanisms by controlling local carotid body circulation (Kusakabe et al., 1998b). In various mammalian vasculature systems, NPY is thought to have a vasoconstrictory effect (Lundberg et al., 1982; Edvinsson et al., 1983a,b; Brain et al., 1985). We speculate that a low percentage of vascular enlargement in the chronically hypercapnic hypoxic carotid body may be due to the vasoconstrictory effect of the increased NPY resulting from hypercapnia. However, this speculation may only be true of the chronically hypoxic rat carotid body. To make this clear, it is necessary to perform further morphological studies in the vasculature of various organs in hypercapnic hypoxic animals.

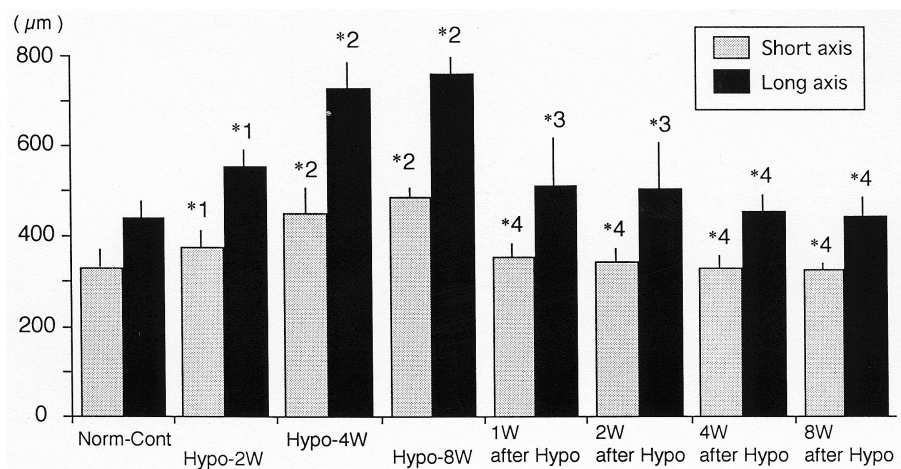
Some authors have reported an involvement of SP- and CGRP-containing fibers in chemoreceptor mechanisms (Helke et al., 1980; Jacobowitz and Helke, 1980; Wharton et al., 1980; Lundberg and Hökfelt, 1983) because SP and CGRP fibers in the carotid body originate from the sensory jugular and petrosal ganglia (Chen et al., 1986; Finley et al., 1992). Other authors have shown a dose-related increase in chemosensory discharge after SP injection into the carotid body (McQueen, 1980; Cragg et al., 1994). On the other hand,

some authors have suggested the possibility that the efferent component of the glossopharyngeal nerve possesses vasodilatory SP and CGRP (Hallberg and Pernow, 1975; Samnegard et al., 1978; Edvinsson et al., 1981; Edvinsson and Uddman, 1982; Brain et al., 1985) in addition to its sensory role. In the chronically hypercapnic hypoxic carotid body, the density of SP and CGRP immunoreactive fibers was significantly decreased, although that of SP and CGRP fibers in the chronically hypocapnic and isocapnic hypoxic carotid bodies was unchanged (Kusakabe et al., 1998b, 2000). This difference in the density of SP and CGRP may also be dependent on the high level of arterial CO<sub>2</sub> tension in chronically hypercapnic hypoxia.

Thus, the different levels of CO<sub>2</sub> tension change the peptidergic innervation in the carotid body during chronically hypoxic exposure. Altered peptidergic innervation may regulate vascular tone in the chronically hypoxic carotid body.

#### Changes in the rat carotid body during the course of hypoxic adaptation and during the course of recovery

As mentioned in the introduction, most authors use the term "chronic hypoxia" in their works, regardless of varying periods of experimental hypoxic exposure, from 1-2 weeks to 2-3 months. To avoid confusion, it is necessary to demonstrate an identical survey in the carotid body after different periods of hypoxic exposure. On the other hand, most previous studies on the hypoxic carotid bodies have referred to the changes after hypoxic exposure. It is also meaningful for high altitude exercise to make clear the morphological changes in the chemoreceptor organs during deacclimatization after chronic hypoxia is terminated. To evaluate the different levels of hypoxic exposure, the morphological changes in the rat carotid body, especially those in the vasculature, during each of the three periods of hypoxia



**Fig. 6.** Histogram comparing the short and long axes of normoxic control carotid bodies, those after 2, 4, and 8 weeks of hypocapnic hypoxic exposure, and those 1, 2, 4, and 8 weeks after the termination of hypoxia. \*1  $p < 0.01$ , and \*2  $p < 0.005$  in comparison with the normoxic control column. \*3  $p < 0.01$ , and \*4  $p < 0.005$  in comparison with the Hypo-8W column. (Kusakabe et al., 2003, 2004b).



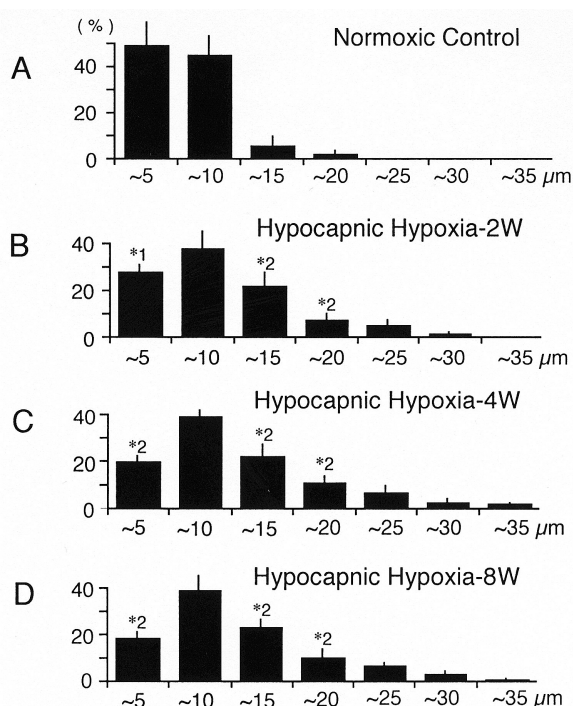
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were recently examined (Kusakabe et al., 2003). Those in the carotid bodies four periods after the termination of chronic hypoxia were also examined to evaluate the different levels of recovery (Kusakabe et al., 2004b).

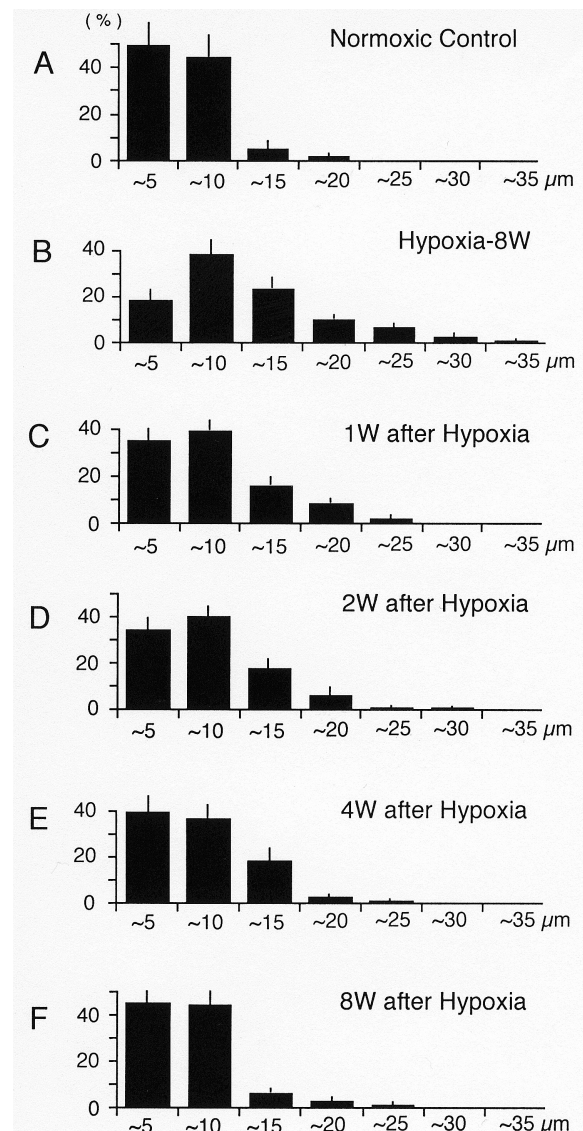
The carotid bodies of rats exposed to hypoxia for 2, 4, and 8 weeks were found to be enlarged several fold in comparison with those of normoxic control rats. The rate of enlargement was different for the carotid bodies exposed for three different periods (Fig. 5A-D). The mean short axis of the carotid bodies of the rats exposed to hypoxia for 2, 4, and 8 weeks was 1.2, 1.3, and 1.5 times longer than in normoxic controls, respectively (Fig. 6). The mean long axis was 1.3, 1.6, and 1.7 times longer than in normoxic controls, respectively (Fig. 6). With a prolonged hypoxic exposure, the percentage of blood vessels with relatively wide lumens, more than 21  $\mu\text{m}$ , increased, and the percentage of vessels with relatively narrow lumens, less than 5-10  $\mu\text{m}$ , decreased (Fig. 7). Thus, the enlargement of the hypoxic carotid bodies was mainly due to vascular dilation as suggested by Blessing and Wolff (1973), and Laidler and Kay (1975a,b). Pequignot and Hellström (1983) reported that vascular dilation is already evident in the rat carotid bodies after 1 week of exposure to hypoxia. It seems likely that the enlargement of the carotid bodies with vascular expansion begins soon after the start of hypoxic exposure. As far as enlargement of the carotid bodies is

concerned, the use of the term "chronic hypoxia" has little meaning as a general expression regardless of the duration of hypoxic exposure.

The carotid bodies 1 week after the termination of chronic hypoxia were significantly diminished in size in comparison with the carotid bodies of rats exposed to hypoxia for 8 weeks, and the carotid bodies 8 weeks after the termination of hypoxia were similar to the normoxic controls in size (Fig. 5E-H). This indicates that recovery in the carotid bodies had already started relatively early, i.e., 1 week after the termination of chronic hypoxia, and complete recovery occurred by 4-8



**Fig. 7.** Histograms representing the percentage of blood vessels of seven ranges of diameter in normoxic control carotid bodies (A) and those after 2 (B), 4 (C), and 8 weeks (D) of hypoxic exposure (Kusakabe et al., 2003).



**Fig. 8.** Histograms representing the percentage of blood vessels of seven ranges of diameter in normoxic control carotid bodies (A), those after 8 weeks of hypoxic exposure (B), and those 1 (C), 2 (D), 4 (E), and 8 (F) weeks after the termination of hypoxia (Kusakabe et al., 2004b).

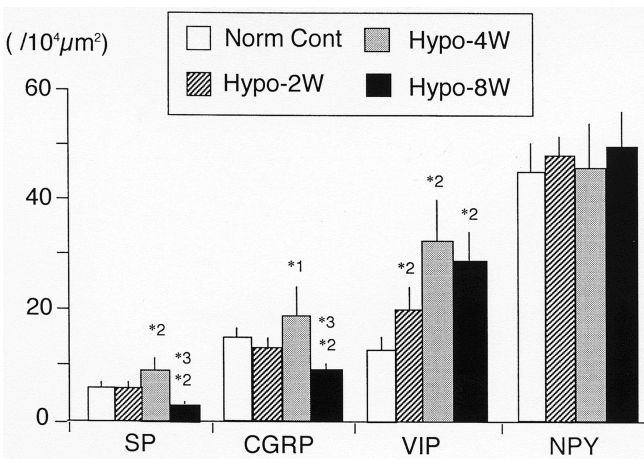
weeks after the termination of hypoxia (Fig. 6). In the carotid bodies 1, 2, and 4 weeks after the termination of chronic hypoxia, the percentage of large blood vessels with diameters greater than  $16\ \mu\text{m}$  decreased, and that of small vessels with diameters less than  $10\ \mu\text{m}$  increased (Fig. 8A-E). In the carotid bodies 8 weeks after the termination of hypoxia, the percentage of large vessels with diameters greater than  $16\ \mu\text{m}$  further decreased to 8.2%, and that of diameters less than  $5\ \mu\text{m}$  further increased to 89.6%, which was a condition similar to that in normoxic control carotid bodies (Fig. 8F). As stated above, the enlargement of chronically hypoxic carotid bodies is mainly due to vascular dilation (Blessing and Wolff, 1973; Laidler and Kay, 1975;

Pequignot and Hellström, 1984). Naturally, shrinking of the carotid bodies after the termination of hypoxia is also due to vascular contraction. In the course of recovery, vascular contraction is also evident in the carotid bodies 1 week after the termination of hypoxia. Thus, it seems likely that shrinking of the carotid bodies with vascular contraction begins soon after the termination of hypoxic exposure.

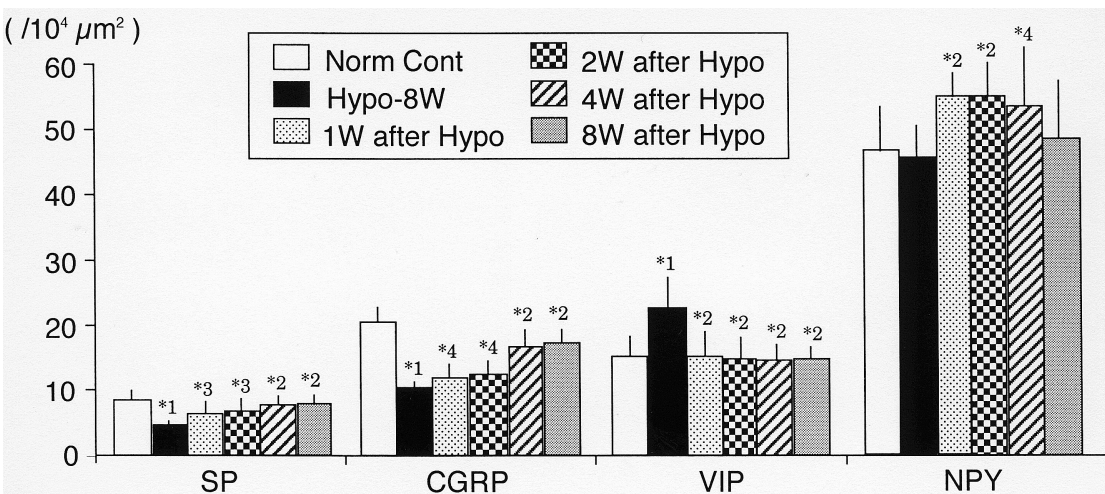
### Peptidergic innervation in the rat carotid body during the course of hypoxic adaptation and during the course of recovery

As stated above, the changes in the peptidergic innervation in systemic hypoxia have suggested that long term (3 months) hypoxic exposure changes the abundance of peptidergic fibers in the rat carotid body, and that the different levels of arterial  $\text{CO}_2$  tension also change the peptidergic innervation during chronic hypoxic exposure. Altered peptidergic innervation in the chronic hypoxic carotid bodies may show a completely acclimatized state. To show the precise distribution of the different levels of hypoxic exposure, the changes in the peptidergic innervation in the rat carotid body during each of the three periods of hypoxia were recently examined (Kusakabe et al., 2003). Those in the carotid bodies four periods after the termination of chronic hypoxia were also examined (Kusakabe et al., 2004).

SP, CGRP, VIP, and NPY immunoreactive fibers appeared as thin processes with many varicosities, and most of them were associated with the blood vessels, as mentioned in the former section. There were, however, some differences in the abundance of SP, CGRP, and VIP fibers in the carotid bodies after each of the three periods of hypoxic exposure (Fig. 9), and in those four periods after the termination of hypoxia (Fig. 10). Mean density per unit area of SP and CGRP immunoreactive fibers was transiently high in the carotid bodies after 4



**Fig. 9.** Histogram comparing the density of varicosities per unit area in normoxic control carotid bodies (Norm Cont), and those after 2, 4, and 8 weeks of hypoxic exposure. \*1  $p<0.01$ , and \*2  $p<0.005$  in comparison with the control column, and \*3  $p<0.005$  in comparison with the 4-week column (Kusakabe et al., 2003).



**Fig. 10.** Histogram comparing the density of varicosities per unit area in normoxic control carotid bodies (Norm Cont), those after 8 weeks hypoxic exposure, and those 1, 2, 4, and 8 weeks after the termination of hypoxia. \*1  $p<0.005$  in comparison with the normoxic control column, \*2  $p<0.005$ , \*3  $p<0.01$ , and \*4  $p<0.05$  in comparison with the Hypoxia-8W column. (Kusakabe et al., 2004b).



weeks of hypoxic exposure, and decreased significantly to nearly or under 50% after 8 weeks of hypoxic exposure (Fig. 9). Density of VIP immunoreactive fibers increased significantly in all periods of hypoxic exposure, and was especially high after 4 weeks of hypoxic exposure (Fig. 9). Density of NPY immunoreactive fibers was unchanged in the carotid bodies during hypoxic exposure (Fig. 9). SP and CGRP fibers in the carotid bodies after 4 weeks of hypoxic exposure may be involved in both chemosensory and vascular dilatory systems, although we previously reported that SP and CGRP fibers in carotid bodies after chronic hypoxic exposure may not be involved in chemosensory mechanisms because the density of immunoreactive fibers at this stage decreases to under 50% (Kusakabe et al., 1998b, 2000). It seems likely that VIP is more effective in the carotid bodies after 4 weeks of exposure than in carotid bodies after longer exposure, and that physiological involvement of NPY fibers is invariable from short to prolonged hypoxic exposure. Thus, the characteristic changes in the peptidergic innervation suggest that the role of peptidergic fibers may be different in the carotid bodies after each of three periods of hypoxic exposure, and that the peptidergic innervation after 8 weeks of hypoxic exposure may show an acclimatizing state.

After the termination of hypoxia, the most striking feature of the peptidergic innervation is immediately increased density of NPY fibers and immediately decreased density of VIP fibers in the carotid bodies 1-4 weeks after the termination of chronic hypoxia (Fig. 10). We previously speculated that at least part of the vascular dilation in the chronically hypoxic rat carotid bodies may depend on the vasodilatory effect of VIP, and concluded that VIP fibers are indirectly involved in chemosensory mechanisms by controlling local carotid body circulation (Kusakabe et al., 1998b). In various mammalian vasculature systems, NPY is thought to have a vasoconstrictory effect (Lundberg et al., 1982; Edvinsson et al., 1983; Brain et al., 1985). The percentage of blood vessels with relatively narrow lumens decreased in the carotid bodies 1 week after the termination of chronic hypoxia. It seems likely that shrinking of the carotid body with vascular contraction is caused by the increased density of vasoconstrictive NPY. At least part of the vascular constriction in the carotid bodies in recovery stages may depend on the vasoconstrictory effect of NPY. Thus, the morphological changes during recovery stages may be under the control of peptidergic innervation.

### Concluding remarks

Our recent projects on the carotid bodies of the rats exposed to systemic hypoxia clarified the relation between some morphological changes and the different levels of arterial CO<sub>2</sub> tension. The enlarged hypoxic carotid bodies contained a number of blood vessels whose diameter was larger than those in the normoxic

carotid bodies, and the percentage of vascular enlargement in the hypercapnic hypoxic carotid body was small in comparison with that in the hypocapnic and isocapnic hypoxic carotid bodies. This characteristic vascular arrangement was under the control of altered peptidergic innervation during chronically hypoxic exposure. As mentioned above, the vascular constriction in the hypercapnic hypoxic rat carotid body may be restricted to the organs in hypoxic conditions. More recently, we compared the morphological changes and those in the peptidergic innervation between the carotid bodies of the rats exposed to hypercapnic hypoxia and those exposed to normoxic hypercapnia (Kusakabe et al., 2005). In brief, we consider that CO<sub>2</sub> may have some additive effects on the chemoreceptor organs in hypoxic conditions, because high CO<sub>2</sub> tension in normoxic conditions does not cause morphological changes in the rat carotid body.

Through the observations during the course of hypoxic adaptation and during the course of recovery, the enlargement of the carotid bodies with vascular expansion and the shrinking of the carotid bodies with vascular contraction begin soon after the start of hypoxic exposure and soon after the termination of hypoxic exposure. All carotid bodies after 2, 4, and 8 weeks of hypoxic exposure were enlarged with vascular expansion although the amount of enlargement was different for each. As far as macroscopic findings such as the enlargement of the carotid body is concerned, the use of the term "chronic hypoxia" has little meaning as a general expression regardless of the duration of hypoxic exposure. In the case of microscopic findings such as the changes in the peptidergic innervation, it is necessary to be careful about the use of the term "chronic hypoxia", because some peptidergic fibers showed a transiently increased density during the course of hypoxic exposure.

Our recent studies may provide a morphological standard for further studies of the hypoxic carotid bodies. Finally we expect a wide application of this morphological standard when comparing with a number of findings under various hypoxic conditions.

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