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A Prospective Evaluation of the Acute Effects of High Altitude on Cognitive and Physiological Functions in Lowlanders

Marika Falla^{1,2*}, Costanza Papagno^{2,3}, Tomas Dal Cappello¹, Anna Vögele¹, Katharina Hübner⁴, Jenny Kim⁵, Elisabeth M. Weiss⁶, Bernhard Weber⁷, Martin Palma¹, Simona Mrakic-Sposta⁸, Hermann Brugger¹ and Giacomo Strapazzon¹

¹Institute of Mountain Emergency Medicine, Eurac Research, Bolzano, Italy, ²Center for Mind/Brain Sciences (CIMEC), University of Trento, Rovereto, Italy, ³Department of Psychology, University of Milano-Bicocca, Milan, Italy, ⁴Department of Psychiatry, Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics, University Hospital for Psychiatry II, Medical University of Innsbruck, Innsbruck, Austria, ⁵University of Texas at Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, TX, United States, ⁶Department of Psychology, University of Innsbruck, Innsbruck, Austria, ⁷Department of Psychology, University of Graz, Graz, Austria, ⁸Institute of Clinical Physiology, National Research Council (CNR), Milan, Italy

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Edited by:

Charles Limoli,
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Brazil

*Correspondence:

Marika Falla
marika.falla@unitn.it

Specialty section:

This article was submitted to
Environmental, Aviation and Space
Physiology,
a section of the journal
Frontiers in Physiology

Received: 20 February 2021

Accepted: 06 April 2021

Published: xx April 2021

Citation:

Falla M, Papagno C, Cappello TD, Vögele A, Hübner K, Kim J, Weiss EM, Weber B, Palma M, Mrakic-Sposta S, Brugger H and Strapazzon G (2021) A Prospective Evaluation of the Acute Effects of High Altitude on Cognitive and Physiological Functions in Lowlanders. *Front. Physiol.* 12:670278. doi: 10.3389/fphys.2021.670278

Cognitive function impairment due to high altitude exposure has been reported with some contradictory results regarding the possible selective cognitive domain involvement. We prospectively evaluated in 36 lowlanders, exposed for 3 consecutive days to an altitude of 3,269 m, specific cognitive abilities (attention, processing speed, and decision-making) required to safely explore the mountains, as well as to work at altitude. We simultaneously monitored also the physiological parameters. Our study provides evidence of a reduced processing speed in lowlanders when exposed to altitude in the first 24 h. There was a fairly quick recovery since it was no more detectable after 36 h of exposure. There were no clinically relevant effects on decision-making, while psychomotor vigilance was unaffected at altitude except for individuals with poor sleep. Significant changes were seen in physiological parameters (increased heart rate and reduced peripheral oxygen saturation). Our results may have practical implications suggesting that individuals should practice prudence with higher ascent when performing risky activities even at altitudes below 3,500 m, in the first 24–36 h due to an impairment of the cognitive performance that could worsen and lead to accidents.

Keywords: altitude, cognitive functions, speed-processing, decision-making, attention

INTRODUCTION

There is an increasing mountain attendance related to different recreational risky activities (e.g., mountaineering, skiing, and climbing), as well as for occupational purposes (e.g., mining, astrophysics) with consequently increasing accidents (Monasterio, 2005). Preserved cognitive functions, such as executive function, attention, and memory, are essential during such activities since a reduced efficiency of those abilities can provoke injury or even death in such environment. Severe acute hypoxia or anoxia was found to be related to impairment in executive function, attention, and memory (van Alem et al., 2004). Ascent to high altitude (HA) precipitates a drop in the barometric pressure and the atmospheric partial pressure of oxygen (O₂), a condition termed as hypobaric

115 hypoxia (HH; Taylor, 2011). The reduction of oxygen availability
116 induces physiological changes to maintain adequate oxygen
117 delivery especially into the brain. The acute exposure to HH
118 induces increased ventilation, an autoregulatory increase in cerebral
119 blood flow and an increased oxygen extraction at tissue/cell
120 level. Despite these changes, a reduction in the total amount
121 of oxygen available persists, producing a decrease in cognitive
122 performance and different HA illnesses, especially if ascent occurs
123 too rapidly with no acclimatization. Hornbein et al. (1989) found
124 a slight decline in verbal and visual long-term memory and
125 increased errors in the aphasia screening test in mountaineers
126 exposed to altitude between 5,488 and 8,848 m.

127 Current results are controversial, and it is not yet clear
128 whether cognitive abilities are selectively impaired or there is
129 a general cognitive impairment. McMorris et al. (2017) performed
130 a systematic review and meta-analysis on the acute effect of
131 hypoxia on cognition. They included 18 studies, and they
132 observed that hypoxia (both normobaric and hypobaric; arterial
133 partial pressure of oxygen range between 35 and 89 mmHg)
134 exerts a negative effect on cognition on both tasks investigating
135 central executive (working memory set-shifting, updating,
136 monitoring, inhibition, and planning) and non-executive
137 (perception, attention, and short-term memory) functions. In
138 a more recent review and meta-analysis, the effect of hypoxia
139 on cognition was further confirmed, but the authors observed
140 a selective effect: information processing seems to be enhanced
141 (mainly in female), whereas attention, executive function and
142 memory impaired (Jung et al., 2020). In the 18 studies, they
143 included the fraction of inspired oxygen ranged from 10 to
144 18%. Different altitude-exposure speed, duration and profile,
145 the way of ascent, study population, cognitive tests employed,
146 and test administration times at altitude (Li et al., 2000; Pavlicek
147 et al., 2005; De Bels et al., 2019; Loprinzi et al., 2019) can
148 explain discrepancies and prevent to draw definite conclusions
149 on the effects of altitude on cognition for recreationists.

150 Our aim was to prospectively evaluate specific cognitive
151 functions (attention, speed processing, and decision-making)
152 required to safely explore the mountains, as well as to work
153 at altitude. We wanted to assess whether acute HH exposure
154 impairs all these cognitive functions or produces selective effects
155 on specific ones in lowlanders exposed for 3 consecutive days
156 to an altitude of 3,269 m. At such altitude several mountain
157 huts, winter resorts, and different occupational infrastructures
158 are located worldwide. We also examined the correlation between
159 cognitive performances and other physiological parameters
160 evaluated at the same timeline.

162 MATERIALS AND METHODS

163 Participants

164 Participants were recruited among medical doctors or nurses
165 participating to a mountain medicine course held in the Northern
166 Italian Alps (Ortles-Cevedale group) at Casati hut (3,269 m).
167 All the participants had experience in trekking. Inclusion criteria
168 were male and female participants with an age between 18
169 and 60 years. Exclusion criteria were age outside that range.

172 The study and the informed consent procedure were approved
173 by the Institutional Review Board of Bolzano (Protocol Number
174 812020-BZ). The study was conducted according to the
175 Declaration of Helsinki (World Medical Association, 1997) and
176 reported in accordance with the START Data Reporting Guidelines
177 for Clinical High Altitude Research (Brodmann et al., 2018).

178 Study Protocol

179 A longitudinal study design was performed within 3 summer
180 days. Each participant underwent neurocognitive testing on a
181 dedicated personal computer (PC) overall four times plus a
182 familiarization session, along with the completion of several
183 questionnaires and physiological parameters' assessment
184 individually and quietly (see **Figure 1**). All participants were
185 asked to reach the baseline testing site staggered in groups of
186 four individuals and at different arrival times (between 8:00
187 and 12:00 AM). They were initially studied in the morning
188 for the baseline test nearby the trekking route (Ponte di Legno,
189 1,258 m; session 1, day 1, D1 S1). Participants then in groups
190 of four drove to the parking location (2,178 m) and then
191 trekked to the Casati hut on foot along the same route (around
192 3:30 h). Participants were further assessed three times at altitude
193 (3,269 m) upon arrival (session 2, day 1, D1 S2; between 6:00
194 and 10:00 PM), and early in the morning (between 6:00 and
195 8:00 AM) on the next 2 days (session 3, day 2, D2 S3, and
196 session 4, day 3, D3 S4; see **Figure 1**). Before each session
197 day (at least 2 h), participants were asked to avoid caffeine,
198 tea, or alcohol intake. During day 2, all participants attended
199 the mountain medicine course with minimal physical effort.

200 Measures

201 Demographical data (age, gender, education, height, weight,
202 the altitude of residency, pregnancy, and smoking), physical
203 activity, oral medication, or any disease (above all any neurological
204 or psychiatric disease) were recorded. Information on staying
205 at altitude in the 3 previous days/nights, trip >2,500 m during
206 the last 3 months, past altitude-illness events were recorded.
207 Physiological parameters, such as heart rate (HR) and peripheral
208 oxygen saturation (SpO₂), were measured in all the sessions
209 after a resting period and in a warm and comfortable environment.

210 Questionnaires on Mood, Sleep, Stress, 211 Resilience, and Mountain Sickness

212 All participants completed multiple questionnaires. The
213 administration timeline (session 1–4) of the different tests is
214 shown in **Figure 1**. Anxiety and depression were evaluated using
215 the hospital anxiety and depression scale (HADS; Zigmond and
216 Snaith, 1983) and the State Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI-Y1-
217 state and -Y2-trait; Spielberger et al., 1983). State anxiety is a
218 transient reaction to adverse events in a specific moment, and
219 the trait anxiety is a more stable personality characteristic. Sleep
220 quality was evaluated at baseline (session 1) using the Pittsburgh
221 Sleep Quality Index (PSQI; Buysse et al., 1989), a questionnaire
222 that assesses sleep quality and quantity over a month-long period.
223 Additionally, at sessions 2, 3, and 4 the Insomnia Severity Index
224 (ISI; Morin et al., 2011), a self-report measure that assesses
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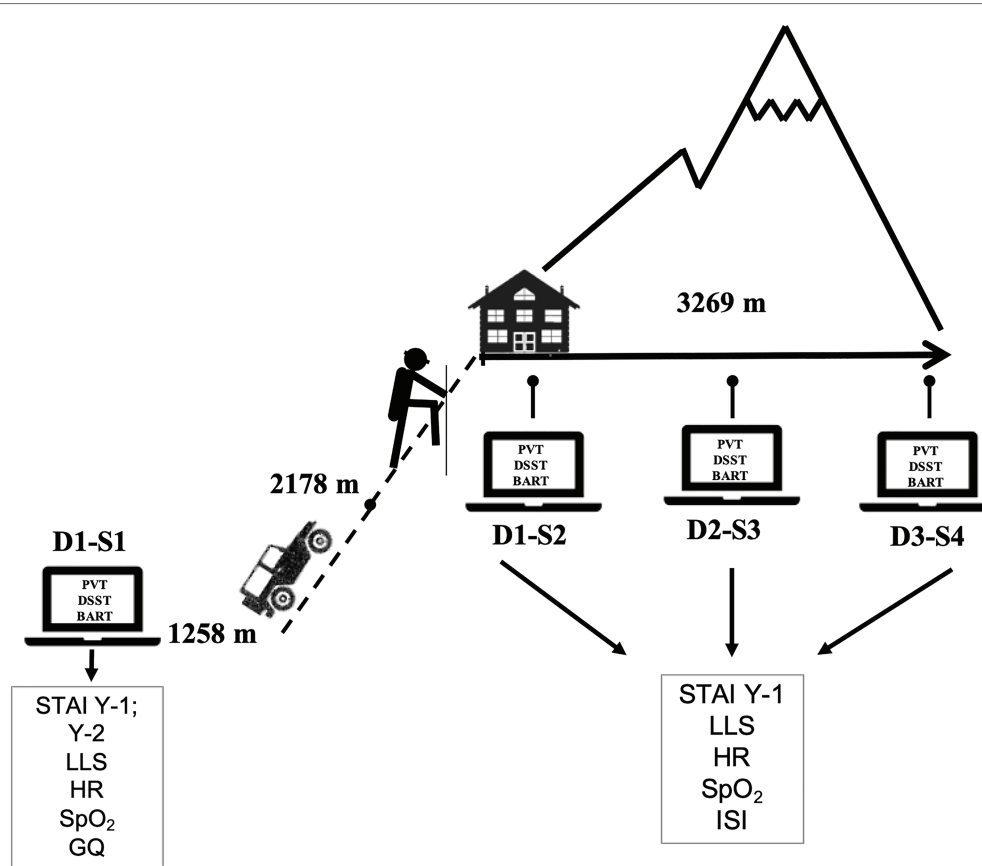


FIGURE 1 | Timeline of cognitive test, questionnaires administration, and physiological parameters recording. BART, Balloon Analogue Risk Task; D, day; DSST, Digit Symbol Substitution Test; GQ, general questionnaire; HR, heart rate; ISI, Insomnia Severity Index; LLS, Lake Louise Score; PVT, Psychomotor Vigilance Test; S, session; SpO₂, peripheral oxygen saturation; STAI, State and Trait Anxiety Inventory (Y1-state and Y2-trait).

participants' perceptions of their insomnia over the previous night was used. Stress was evaluated using the 10-item version of the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS-10; Cohen and Williamson, 1988), and resilience was investigated using the Wagnild and Young's scale (RS - 14; Wagnild and Young, 1993; Wagnild, 2009). Symptoms of acute mountain sickness (AMS) were evaluated using the Lake Louise Score (LLS; Roach et al., 2018).

Cognitive Tests

Three different cognitive tests on a portable personal computer were employed. The brief 3-min version of the Psychomotor Vigilance Test (PVT), similar to the one reported by Basner et al. (2011), evaluated sustained attention and response time (Table 1). The Balloon Analogue Risk Task (BART; Lejuez et al., 2002) evaluated the risky decision-making. The Digit Symbol Substitution Test (DSST) measures a range of cognitive performance including the speed of processing and low-level visual search, and parallel forms were used to avoid practice effects (Wechsler, 2008). Randomized test sequences were also used across the four sessions. The cognitive stimuli were presented using PsychoPy (version 3.1.0),¹ and the software

with the three cognitive tests was installed on four Eurac Research-issued laptops. To ensure that all laptops perform identically at various altitudes, laptop benchmark software (NovaBench) was run several times at different elevations.² The software achieved the same scores during all tests, leading to the conclusion that a difference in altitude has no impact on the laptop's performance.

Statistical Analysis

The Friedman test was used to compare LLS, STAI-Y1-state, HR, and SpO₂ during all four sessions and ISI during three sessions. Pairwise comparisons were analyzed by means of the Wilcoxon signed-rank test. The parameters of the cognitive tests (BART, DSST, and PVT) were analyzed by means of generalized estimating equations (GEE), considering the following factors: session (i.e., the time of exposure to altitude), gender, age (two groups, considering the median of 26 years as cut-off), cognitive tests sequence, whether LLS was ≥ 3 (i.e., in the presence of headache, it is considered diagnostic for AMS) either at sessions 2, 3, or 4, ISI (two groups, 0–7 and ≥ 8), SpO₂ (two groups, <90 and $\geq 90\%$), and the interaction of

¹www.psychopy.org

²https://novabench.com/

TABLE 1 | Description of the cognitive tests.

Tests	Cognitive domain	Description	Outcome measures
Digit Symbol Substitution Test (DSSST)	Processing speed and low-level visual search	At the bottom of the screen is presented a fixed legend showing blue boxes containing numbers (1–9) and on the top pairing nonsense symbols. One of the nine symbols appears randomly on the center of the screen, and the participant must select the corresponding number as quickly as possible using the keyboard numbers in a row.	Number of correct responses Number of incorrect responses
Psychomotor Vigilance Test (PVT)	Sustained and vigilant attention	Simple reaction time (RT) to visual stimuli that occur at random intervals presented on a screen.	Reaction time (RT) [ms] Lapses: number of omission errors or RT ≥ 355 ms False starts: errors of commission defined as a response without a stimulus or a RT < 100 ms
Balloon Analogue Risk Taking (BART)	Risky decision making	Participants inflate a series of virtual balloons pressing the enter button on a keyboard which increase balloon's size and will randomly explode. If a balloon popped, the value of that balloon is lost to the participant. Goal is to achieve the greater reward balancing the possible loss.	Total amount of money earned Total count of pumps (only successful trials)

TABLE 2 | Demographical data (36 participants).

Measures/Variables	Mean ± SD (range) or n (%)	Notes
Age, years	27.3 ± 4.1 (range 22–40)	
Females, n	18 (50%)	None pregnant
Education, years	18.9 ± 0.9 (range 16–21)	
Height, m	1.72 ± 0.09 (range 1.59–1.90)	
Weight, kg	63.8 ± 9.8 (range 48–85)	
Altitude of residence, m	238 ± 307 (range 0–1,200)	
Altitude of the 3 previous days/ nights, m	228 ± 301 (range 0–1,200)	
Sleep at >2,500 m during last 3 months, n	6 (16.7%)	
Daily trips >2,500 m during last 3 months:		
Number of trips, n	2.1 ± 4.0 (range 0–15)	
Number of participants, n	16 (44.4%)	
Past AMS, n	5 (13.9%)	
Past HACE, n	0 (0.0%)	
Past HAPE, n	0 (0.0%)	
Physical activity:		
Moderate level, n	18 (50.0%)	
High level, n	18 (50.0%)	
Smoker, n	5 (13.9%)	
Neurological or psychiatric disease:		
Migraine, n	1 (2.8%)	
Anxiety, n	1 (2.8%)	
Depression, n	1 (2.8%)	
Medication, n	11 (30.6%)	7 on demand

AMS, acute mountain sickness; HACE, high-altitude cerebral edema; HAPE, high-altitude pulmonary edema; n, number of participants/times; SD, standard deviation.

TABLE 3 | Baseline questionnaires (36 participants).

Questionnaires	Mean ± SD (range) or n (%)
STAI-Y2-trait	34.5 ± 7.7 (range 22–58)
Participants with STAI-Y2 above threshold for age/gender PSQI (cut-off > 5)	8 (22.2%)
PSQI (cut-off > 5)	4.4 ± 2.6 (range 1–12)
Participants with PSQI > 5	8 (22.2%)
HADS-A (cut-off ≥ 8)	4.2 ± 2.9 (range 0–10)
Participants with HADS-A ≥ 8	5 (13.9%)
HADS-D (cut-off ≥ 8)	1.5 ± 2.0 (range 0–7)
Participants with HADS-D ≥ 8	0 (0%)
PSS	11.2 ± 5.5 (range 3–25)
PSS low score (0–13)	24 (66.7%)
PSS moderate score (14–26)	12 (33.3%)
RS-14	82.5 ± 8.2 (range 65–97)

HADS, Hospital Anxiety Depression Scale; STAI-Y2-trait, State and Trait Anxiety Inventory; PSQI, Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index; PSS, Perceived Stress Scale; RS-14, Resilience Scale 14 items.

gamma distribution, and logarithm as link function were specified. The Holm-Bonferroni method was used to correct the values of *p* for multiple comparisons. SPSS version 25 statistical software (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY) was used. Tests were two-sided and *p* < 0.05 was considered as statistically significant. Values are reported as mean ± standard deviation and estimates of the GEE as mean (95% confidence interval, CI).

RESULTS

All 36 attendants of the mountain medicine course agreed to participate and were enrolled in the study. Demographical data are shown in **Table 2** (27.3 ± 4.1 years; 50% female; the years of education were 18.9 ± 0.9). All were lowlanders and had slept at low altitude the three nights before testing; six (16.7%) slept higher than 2,500 m, and 16 (44.4%) had made a daily trip above 2,500 m in the previous 3 months. While five

session with gender. In the GEE, for BART mean earnings, BART mean pumps and PVT mean reaction time, the normal distribution and identity as link function were specified, while for DSSST, the number of correct and incorrect responses and PVT number of lapses and of false starts, the specified distribution and link function were the Poisson and the logarithm, respectively; for BART, the total time of test execution the

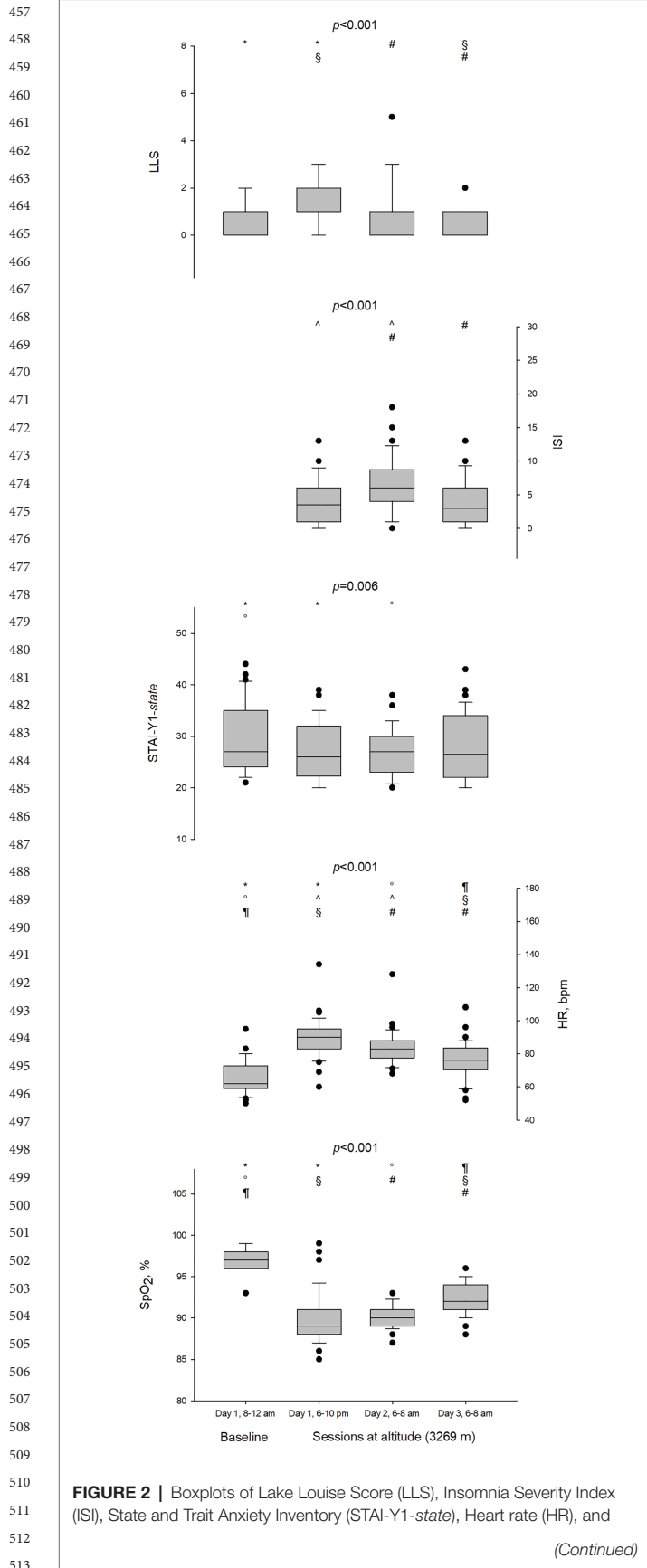


FIGURE 2 | peripheral oxygen saturation (SpO_2) at baseline and sessions at altitude (3,269 m). Test performed was Friedman test. Pairwise comparisons were analyzed by means of Wilcoxon signed-rank test and the values of p were adjusted by means of Holm-Bonferroni correction. Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) pairwise comparisons were denoted by the following symbols: *for session 1 (day 1, 8:00–12:00 AM) vs. session 2 (day 1, 6:00–10:00 PM), ^for session 1 vs. session 3 (day 2, 6:00–8:00 AM), #for session 1 vs. session 4 (day 3, 6:00–8:00 AM), ^ for session 2 vs. session 3, § for session 2 vs. session 4, and # for session 3 vs. session 4. bpm, beats per minute; •, outlier.

participants had experienced AMS in the past, no one reported high altitude cerebral oedema (HACE) or high-altitude pulmonary oedema (HAPE). Only three participants suffered neurological (one migraine) or psychiatric disturbances (one depression and one anxiety). Data about previous month sleep and mood, stress, anxiety trait, and resilience were obtained at baseline (Table 3). The mean score at STAI-Y2-trait was 34.5 ± 7.7 , which is in the normal range, but eight participants (22.2%) showed increased values above threshold according to age and gender (according to the Italian normative data, Pedrabissi and Santinello, 1989). Mean PSQI score was 4.4 ± 2.6 , nonetheless eight participants (22.2%) were poor sleepers (mostly related to the night shifts). Mean HADS-A (anxiety; 4.2 ± 2.9) and HADS-D (depression; 1.5 ± 2.0) scores were normal (<8), but five (13.9%) participants showed a value above threshold in HADS-A while no abnormal values were observed in the HADS-D. Moderate perception of stress was present in 12 participants (33.3%), and this was referred as related to the job workload. All the participants seemed to have a good resilience (the ability to recover quickly from difficult and potentially harmful situations; Fletcher and Sarkar, 2013). None of the participants dropped out.

Physiological Parameters, Questionnaires, and LLS

Physiological values (SpO_2 and HR) along with the LLS, ISI, and STAI-Y1-state obtained across all four assessments are shown in Figure 2. SpO_2 decreased and HR increased with acute HH exposure. LLS increased at altitude ($p = 0.015$) and four participants complained of AMS (LLS 5, 3, 3, and 3) after the first night at altitude. LLS decreased after the second night at altitude returning to the baseline level ($p < 0.001$). ISI was higher after the first night at altitude (3.9 ± 3.5 vs. 6.4 ± 4.1 , $p = 0.001$) but returned to the baseline level after the second night (6.4 ± 4.1 vs. 3.6 ± 3.6 , $p = 0.001$). Mean values for the anxiety state measured with STAI-Y1-state decreased at altitude; however, the reduction was significantly different from the baseline only at sessions 2 and 3 (29.3 ± 6.6 vs. 27.0 ± 5.4 , $p = 0.033$ vs. 26.9 ± 4.8 ; $p = 0.032$).

Cognitive Tests (DSST, BART, and PVT)

The number of correct responses on the DSST decreased during the first 12 h at altitude (48.4 ± 6.2 vs. 44.8 ± 8.0 , $p = 0.009$) and increased again after the second night at altitude (50.5 ± 6.7 in session 4, $p < 0.001$ for comparison with the session 2). GEE analysis showed no effect of altitude for the number of incorrect responses on DSST ($p = 0.253$; Table 4; Figure 3).

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TABLE 4 | Values of p of effects estimated by generalized estimating equations (GEE).

Test	Parameter	Session	Gender	Age	Test sequence	LLS \geq 3 at session2 or session 3	ISI	SpO ₂	Session * Gender
	Total time [#] , s	<0.001	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.083	1.000
BART	Mean earnings per balloon	0.044	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.668	1.000	1.000
	Mean pumps per balloon	0.055	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.790	1.000	1.000
DSST	Number of correct trials	<0.001	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
	Number of incorrect trials	0.253	1.000	1.000	0.194	1.000	0.395	0.263	0.607
	Number of trials with reaction time > 355 ms	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.843	1.000
	Number of false starts	0.103	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.205	0.045	0.420	1.000
PVT	Mean reaction time of correct trials \leq 355 ms, ms	1.000	0.627	0.105	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000

An asterisk between two factors indicates the effect of interaction of the two factors. BART, Balloon Analogue Risk Taking; DSST, Digit Symbol Substitution Test; ISI, Insomnia Severity Index; LLS, Lake Louise Score; PVT, Psychomotor Vigilance Test; SpO₂, peripheral oxygen saturation. [#]One case excluded from the analysis because outlier.

BART total time of test execution was faster during the last session (190.4 ± 39.0 ms) in comparison to the first three (218.4 ± 44.1 , 212.1 ± 52.6 , and 200.9 ± 34.3 ms; $p = 0.018$, $p = 0.001$, and $p = 0.035$, respectively). BART mean earnings per balloon were slightly higher after the second night at altitude in comparison to the first session at altitude (10.1 ± 0.9 vs. 9.8 ± 0.9 , $p = 0.011$) and to the session after the first night at altitude (10.1 ± 0.9 vs. 9.9 ± 0.9 , $p = 0.035$). BART mean pumps per balloon did not change during the four sessions.

There was no effect of altitude on the parameters of the PVT (mean reaction time, number of lapses and number of false starts) but GEE showed an effect of ISI on the number of false starts ($p = 0.045$) as individuals with ISI higher than 7 made more false starts [1.5 (95% CI 1.0–2.2) vs. 0.9 (95% CI 0.6–1.3)].

No effect of gender on the cognitive tests was detected.

DISCUSSION

The main finding of this study on lowlanders after ascent to 3,269 m is that the acute exposure to HH induced impairment in oxygen saturation and produced changes in speed of processing (DSST) at arrival at altitude. There was a fairly rapid recovery since there were no more detectable effects after 36 h of exposure to HH. Psychomotor vigilance was unaffected at altitude except for individuals with poor sleep, and the BART total time of execution was faster on the last session compared to the first three, but it was not associated with clinically relevant lower performance and therefore, likely due to a learning effect.

Exposure to HH reduced SpO₂ and increased HR due to the decreased of barometric pressure, which physiologically activates peripheral chemoreceptors and therefore sympathetic adrenergic response (Richalet, 2016). Simultaneously to physiological changes, our data provide evidence of minimal cognitive impairment after an acute exposure to altitude (3,269 m) up to 36 h in both men and women. This result is in line with other studies that showed an impaired performance on the DSST at higher altitudes and with different study designs (Evans and Witt, 1966; Berry et al., 1989; Wang et al., 2013;

Hu et al., 2016). Hu et al. (2016) showed a reduced score on DSST compared to the baseline score in 100 male military participants after one night at 3650 m; after 7 days they climb to 4,400 m and a further decrease of DSST score was observed after staying for 72 h at the same altitude (4,400 m). DSST increased again after 1 and 3 months of staying at altitude (Hu et al., 2016). This finding is in agreement with our results showing a cognitive impairment already after acute HH exposure (at arrival and after around 12 h). Wang et al. (2013) evaluated the effect of acetazolamide, used to prevent AMS, on neurocognitive performance in 21 male participants flying from Xianyang (402 m) to Lhasa (3,561 m). In this randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study, they observed a significant decline in the acetazolamide group in the DSST performed 6 h after arrival at altitude (but not 24 or 48 h later). Similar results were obtained by Berry et al. (1989) in 20 male individuals and by Evans and Witt (1966) in 16 male individuals using a hypobaric chamber (4,500 m). Our data suggest that even at altitudes below 3,500 m, there could be an increased risk in performing demanding activities the day after arrival at altitude due to a decreased processing speed. Differently from the other studies, we enrolled both male and female, but we did not find any difference based on gender.

We also observed a quick recovery within 36 h of the initial impairment on DSST while staying at altitude, suggesting a positive effect of acclimatization. Previous studies showed an improvement of such task even with a progressive gradual ascent at altitude. Harris et al. (2009) observed a significant improvement in the DSST in 26 individuals (female and male) after 18 days of ascent to 5,100 m, or Walsh et al. (2020) in 15 individuals after 7 days of trekking to altitude (4,240 m), with impairment after exercise at higher compared to lower altitude (Walsh et al., 2020). These results may be related to the ascent profile in-agreement with the recommended guidelines to prevent altitude illnesses (Luks et al., 2019), which allows for acclimatization and prevents any neurological effects of altitude. We showed that such adaptation can occur within 2/3 days at an altitude below 3,500 m.

DSST is a fairly unspecific task that, in general, evaluates speed of processing. As with all tests, it is subject to a learning

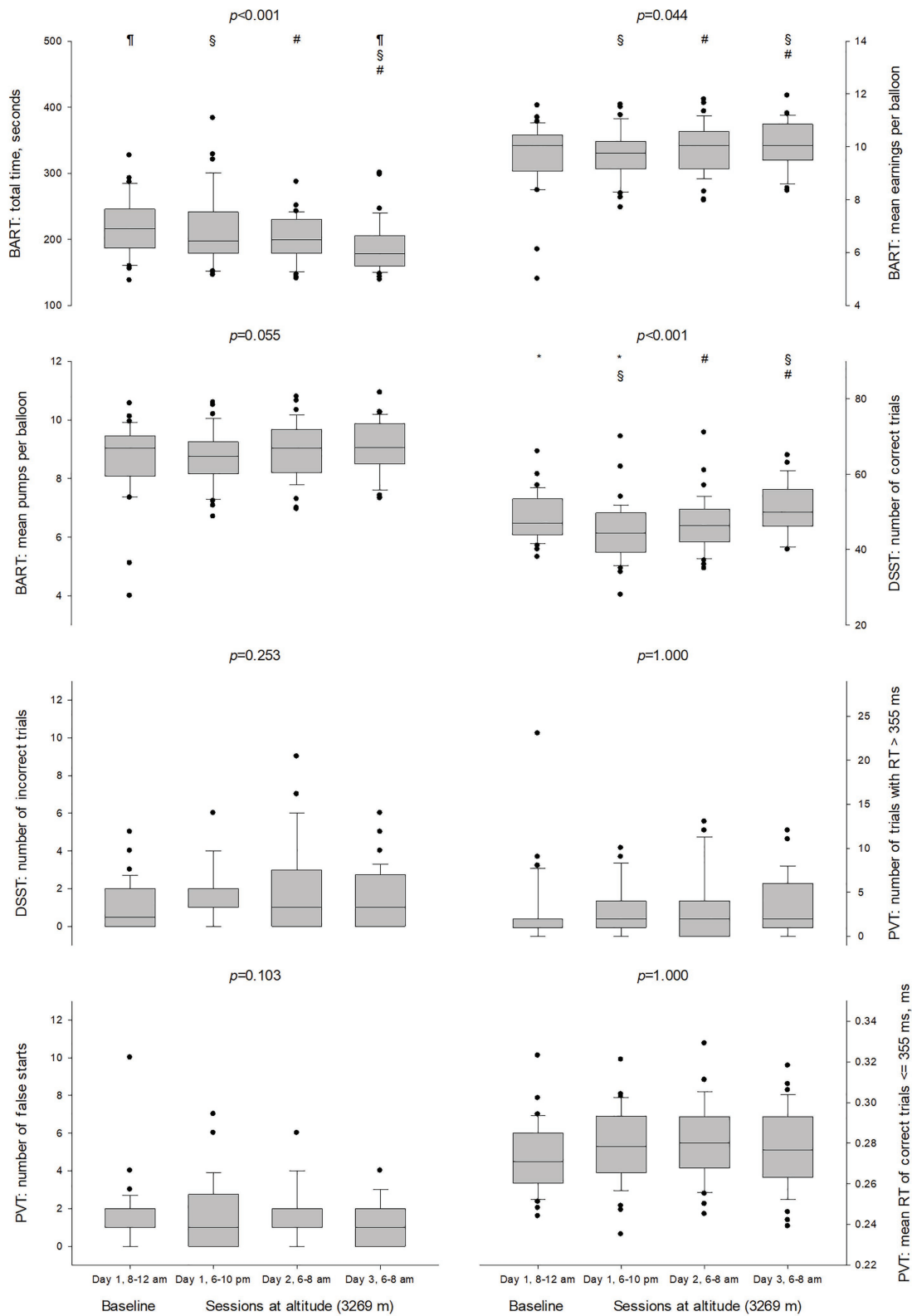


FIGURE 3 | Boxplots of cognitive test parameters at baseline and sessions at altitude (3,269 m). The values of *p* were calculated by means of generalized estimating equations (GEE) and adjusted by means of Holm-Bonferroni correction. Statistically significant (*p* < 0.05) pairwise comparisons were denoted by the (Continued)

FIGURE 3 | following symbols: *for session 1 (day 1, 8:00–12:00 AM) vs. session 2 (day 1, 6:00–10:00 PM), †for session 1 vs. session 4 (day 3, 6:00–8:00 AM), §for session 2 vs. session 4, and ¶for session 3 (day 2, 6:00–8:00 AM) vs. session 4. BART, Balloon Analogue Risk Task; DSST, Digit Symbol Substitution Test; PVT, Psychomotor Vigilance Test; RT, reaction time; •, outlier.

effect (improvement over repeated administrations). We used parallel forms across the repeated administration to minimize this, but the effect is not explicitly discussed in most of the studies. DSST is also sensitive to the age effect (Hoyer et al., 2004), but our sample only included relatively young and well-educated individuals. DSST is highly sensitive to detect impairment but has low specificity in determining which cognitive domain is primarily involved. In our study, the psychomotor speed and the sustained attention were also measured with the PVT; our results showed no impairment on the PVT after HH exposure. Therefore, our results suggest that the main problem of the altitude reached in our study is a reduction in general ability, namely speed of processing, so that the same tasks can be equally performed but requires a longer time of execution.

Our results showed no effects on decision-making under ambiguity. Such results are in contrast to previous studies that investigate decision-making with the BART (Heinrich et al., 2019; Pighin et al., 2020). One possible explanation is that our study sample included only health care providers (medical doctors and nurses) who engage in decision-making activities, under stress, on a daily basis. Further research should consider populations with different characteristics. Moreover, while Heinrich et al. (2019) performed an in-field study similar to us with an exposure to HH (3,800 m), Pighin et al. (2020) performed the study in a normobaric hypoxia simulated environment (3,000 m).

Our study showed preserved psychomotor vigilance after HH exposure in line with the results of other studies performed below 4,000 m (Thomas et al., 2007; De Bels et al., 2019; Heinrich et al., 2019) but is in contrast with those performed above 4,000 m (Roach et al., 2014; Davranche et al., 2016; Pun et al., 2018). However, more false start at the PVT were observed in individuals with a worse sleep quality measured with the ISI after the first night at altitude (ISI > 7).

Four individuals complained of AMS but there was no association with a worse cognitive performance compared to other individuals.

Our findings are important because a large number of lowlanders often ascend rapidly to an altitude above 3,000 m for recreational and occupational purposes. It is known that altitude illnesses can occur during travel to elevations above 2,500 m (Paralikir and Paralikir, 2010). AMS and HACE usually present detectable signs and symptoms, whereas the reduction of cognitive performance is less perceived (Neuhaus and Hinkelbein, 2014). We confirm that an impairment of selective cognitive performance can appear even after an acute exposure to 3,269 m, while other cognitive aspects are preserved (i.e., decision-making and psychomotor vigilance). Furthermore, the speed of processing impairment that was observed during the first 24 h at HA was followed by an improvement 36 h after arrival. This is an important finding that may help to

improve not only the safety of mountaineers, but also of altitude workers. We suggest a resting day before planning further ascent to higher altitudes or to perform risky activities for recreational or occupational purposes to prevent not only altitude illnesses, but also the risk of accidents.

Limitations

There are limitations worth noting. A limitation of this study was the absence of a time-matched low-altitude control group. Due to learning effects related to the repeated administration of cognitive tests, the inclusion of a control group would have been useful to isolate the altitude effect on cognitive function. Our sample was composed of relatively young individuals, and all were health-care providers, which may hamper the generalization of these findings to a broader population. However, we consider this group homogeneity selection as the strength of our study, which may broaden the application of these findings to health-care provider missions at this altitude (both rescue missions in wilderness environment reachable on foot and by helicopter). It is also uncertain whether the results would differ from those of other ethnic groups. Lastly, exhaustion was not evaluated, so we cannot say if the cognitive impairment after arrival at altitude was due solely to HH exposure or to a combination of physical effort and HH effect. Nevertheless, the persistence of the changes after a night of rest supports at least a partial effect of HH exposure per se.

CONCLUSION

Our study provides evidence of a reduced processing speed in lowlanders when exposed to altitude (3,269 m) in the first 24 h at altitude. There was a fairly quick recovery since it was no more detectable after 36 h of exposure to HH. There were no clinically relevant effects on decision-making, while psychomotor vigilance was unaffected at altitude except for individuals with poor sleep. Further investigation in populations with different ethnical background and ages are warranted to confirm this observation and potentially guide the implementation of safety procedures at altitude.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The raw data supporting the conclusions of this article will be made available by the authors, without undue reservation.

ETHICS STATEMENT

The studies involving human participants were reviewed and approved by Institutional Review Board of Bolzano (Protocol

Number 812020-BZ). The patients/participants provided their written informed consent to participate in this study.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

MF, AV, and GS contributed to the conception and designed the study. MF, AV, JK, SM-S, and GS performed the study. MF, JK, and TC organized the database. TC and MF performed the statistical analysis. MF, KH, EW, BW, MP, HB, and GS

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developed tools to perform the study. MF, CP, TC, JK, and GS drafted the manuscript. All authors contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are grateful to all subjects who participated at the experiments and to Alberti Family – Casati Hut (CAI Milano) in the Ortles Cevedale Group for logistic support.

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