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1 **The importance of capillary distribution in supporting muscle function, building on Krogh's**
2 **seminal ideas**

3
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12
13 **Abstract**

14
15 Krogh's Nobel prize for insightful studies into the physiology of capillaries heralded a
16 revolution in understanding that continues today. The view of passive conduits has been
17 replaced by capillaries recognised as a key element in haemodynamic control, offering both
18 a site where changes in tissue demand are sensed and a driver of integrated vascular
19 responses. In addition, the capillary bed is known to play an important role in metabolic,
20 hormonal and immune homeostasis. Not surprisingly, therefore, microvascular dysfunction
21 is a hallmark of many central and peripheral diseases, leading to widespread morbidity and
22 mortality. Consequently, there is growing interest in how best to specifically target this
23 organ-system by means of effective angiotherapies. Underpinning a lot of our current
24 understanding of capillary physiology has been a recognition of functional heterogeneity
25 among different microvascular beds. In addition, there is increasing awareness of the role
26 that spatial heterogeneity plays in determining both physiological and pathological
27 outcomes that has led to an appreciation that quality, rather than just quantity of
28 microvascular supply is important. This has required a re-appraisal of the methods used to
29 determine both the extent and topology of the capillary network, with the benefit of
30 facilitating new ways of exploring dynamic regulation of capillary supply and its potential
31 consequences.

32
33 **Key words**

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35 Capillary supply; skeletal muscle; oxygen delivery; morphometry; modelling

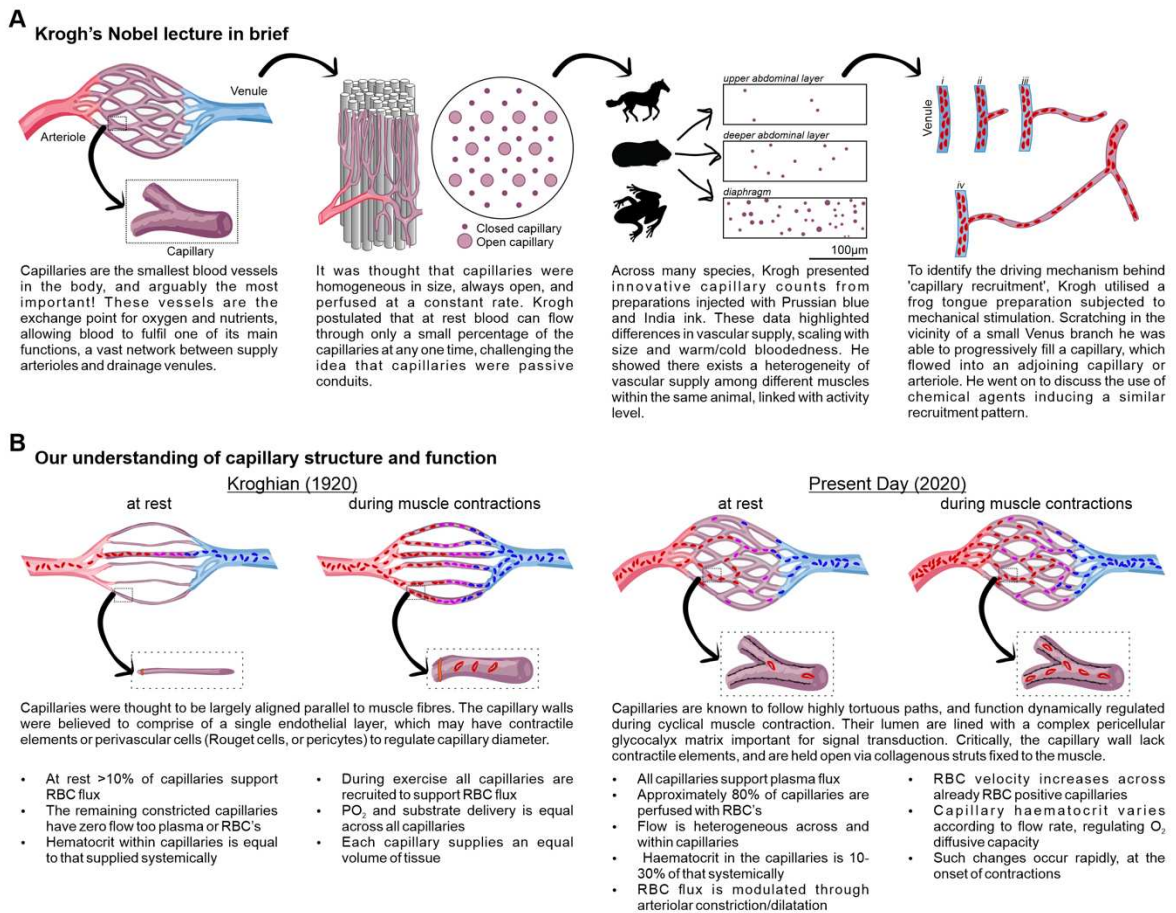
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38 **Dynamic variability in capillary perfusion**

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40 Building on the work of early microscopists such as Malpighi and Leeuwenhoek, August
41 Krogh explored the organisation of capillary networks and their functional plasticity. These
42 exchange vessels act as the diffusive interface between blood and tissue, and he reasoned
43 that they were the most important element of the cardiovascular system. He was the first to
44 calculate the often-quoted fact that if all the capillaries in an adult human were joined end
45 to end the length would be twice the earth's circumference. The role of Krogh's conceptual
46 tissue cylinder in defining our understanding of peripheral oxygen transport is mentioned in
47 a companion article, but it is important to understand what observations lay behind its

48 formulation. Even at relatively low power it is possible to observe the meandering pathway
 49 of individual capillaries down the length of muscle fibres, thus increasing the surface area
 50 for exchange in the segment between arterioles and venules. His great insight on the
 51 dependence of muscle oxygen uptake and its potential regulators, such as the partial
 52 pressure of oxygen in blood (PO_2) and muscle activity, was to realise that this relationship
 53 could not be reconciled with the general opinion of the time that blood vessels were passive
 54 conduits of blood, but that perfusion was regulated in a dynamic fashion (Angleys &
 55 Østergaard 2020). His estimates of perfused capillary density in various tissues and animals
 56 showed a) a very large range of values, b) not all were perfused at any one time, c) that the
 57 number of perfused vessels increased with tissue demand, and d) that the distribution of
 58 perfused capillaries was 'always fairly regular' (Fig. 1).

59
 60 We must applaud one final insight from the master of description that was ahead of its
 61 time. He realised that dynamic regulation of capillary perfusion had to involve the
 62 microvessels themselves, as arterial dilatation improved perfusion pressure and hence red-
 63 cell flux, but did little to affect the distribution of perfused capillaries. It took many decades
 64 before the mechanisms allowing feedback regulation along different elements of the
 65 vascular network, and the importance of oxygen sensing by haemoglobin saturation at the
 66 level of capillaries, provided experimental justification for his opinion (Elsworth et al. 2009,
 67 Bagher & Segal 2011, Poole et al. 2020).

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72 **Figure 1. The legacy of Krogh in the understanding of microvascular form and function.**

73 (A) Krogh's Nobel lecture presented work across his four seminal Journal of Physiology
74 papers. (B) Microvascular form and function as described by Krogh, and what we know
75 today [various sources].

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78 **Informative quantification of capillary supply**

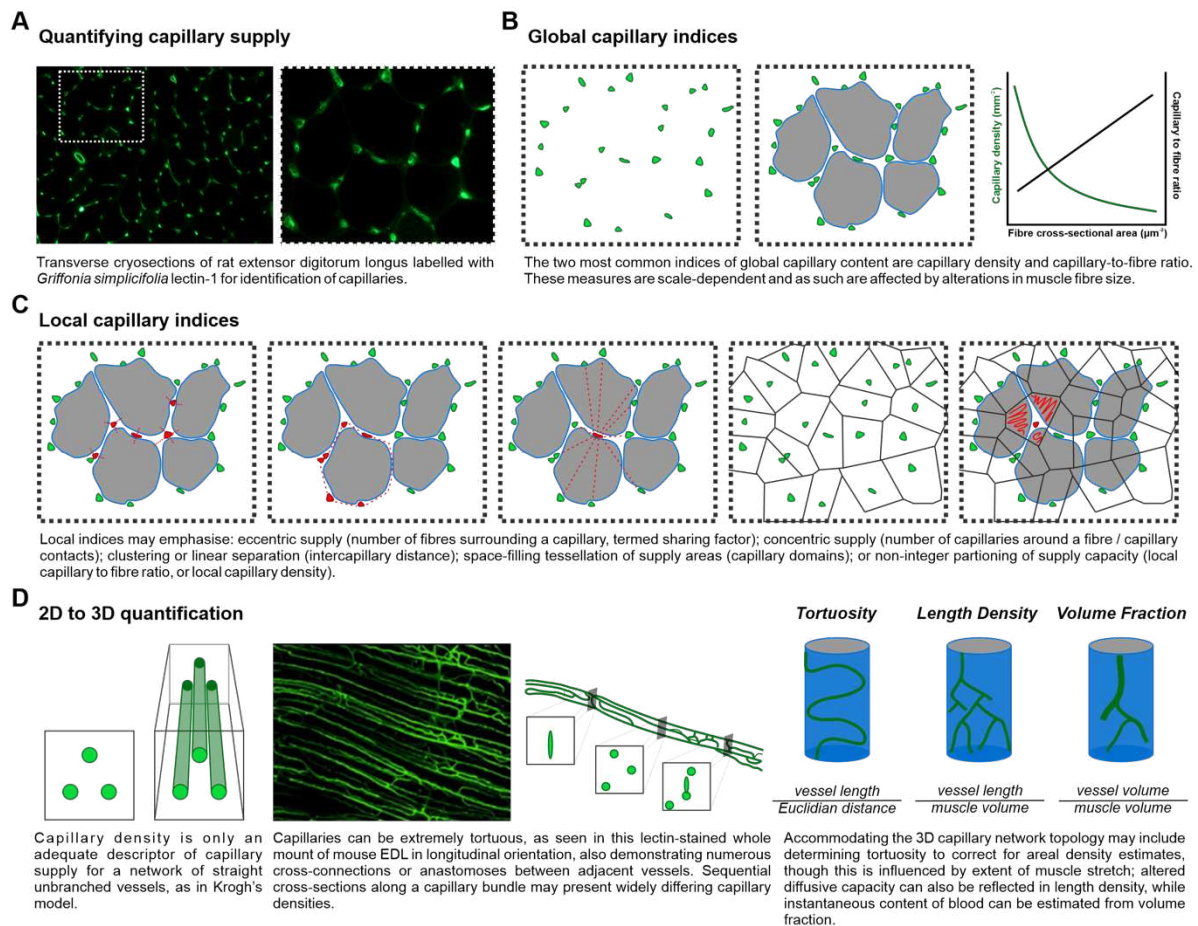
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80 Before discussing implications of capillary distribution for the efficiency of muscle
81 oxygenation, and analytical advances that provide for more detailed exploration of capillary
82 function than possible with Krogh's cylinder approach, we need to summarise the
83 quantitative methods used. Any reader new to the topic may be confused about which
84 measure of capillarity most effectively describes the microvascular content and functional
85 consequences of changes in vascular supply during adaptive remodelling of muscle in
86 healthy individuals, in response to varied pathologies that affect muscle function, and
87 during ontogenetic development when muscle phenotype is adjusting to new demands and
88 innervation patterns. New indices regularly appear in the literature that purport to offer
89 insights not previously available. In general, while superficially attractive these often lack
90 physiological relevance or adequate sensitivity to changes under investigation, and hence
91 have limited utility (Egginton 1990).

92

93 The type of analysis depends on aims of the study; indices of capillarity can be divided into
94 those describing gross structure, i.e. averaged values across a muscle, and those describing
95 local interaction between capillaries and muscle fibres (Fig. 2). The former may adequately
96 describe the integrated responses, and with appropriate interpretation may illustrate the
97 presence of capillary growth/rarefaction (capillary to fibre ratio, C:F), or changes in diffusive
98 capacity of the network (capillary density, CD). Some evident influences need to be
99 accounted for, e.g. allometric scaling, while heterogeneity of endothelial phenotype
100 requires careful selection of markers (Corliss et al. 2019). One obvious limitation, however,
101 is that they are unable to account for the spatial heterogeneities discussed above. Linear
102 analyses may be used to determine the extent of clustering or variability in intercapillary
103 distances. However, indices describing local interaction between capillaries and the muscle
104 fibres they serve have the potential for improved descriptive power over such global
105 approaches. These have taken varied forms, usually involving a ratiometric formulation
106 attempting to express the extent of capillary coverage relative to fibre size (Egginton 1990).
107 These include capillaries around a fibre/capillary contacts (CAF/CC), sharing factor (SF),
108 capillary-fibre perimeter exchange (CFPE) index etc. Major limitations with these indices
109 include use of integer values, individual capillaries being counted more than once, and
110 difficulty in assessing neighbouring influences such as different fibre types or sub-adjacent
111 capillaries. It is likely that oxygen transport to tissue, particularly the diffusion-limited
112 component, requires a true planar analysis (i.e. assessing structural interactions in the plane
113 of sectioning, ignoring the relatively unimportant longitudinal O₂ diffusion gradients) in
114 order to account for such interactions (Fig. 2). Finally, there have been a number of
115 impressive attempts to quantify 3D microvascular topology (Zeller-Plumhoff et al. 2019), but
116 some technical challenges remain (Al-Shammari et al. 2019).

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Figure 2. Developments in quantifying microvascular supply to improve descriptive power.

There are numerous indices of capillarity described in the literature that aim to improve the descriptive power over the simple counts made by early histologists. Depending on the question posed, their varied analytical limitations may be acceptable (or ignored).

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Implications of variable capillary distribution

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The Krogh-Erlang cylinder describing radial oxygen efflux from a capillary has been widely used, and in some areas still finds utility as evidenced by regular updates and appearance in recent primary research articles (Poole et al. 2013). Indeed, an independent derivation of the process of oxygen diffusion from vascular elements, leading to the generation of a Krogh cylinder-type solution, provided an adequate explanation for oxygenation in submerged plant stems (Beckett & Armstrong 1992). However, there are up to 20 assumptions underlying this idealised, theoretical approach; many are evidently inappropriate under a range of biologically relevant conditions (Kreuzer 1982).

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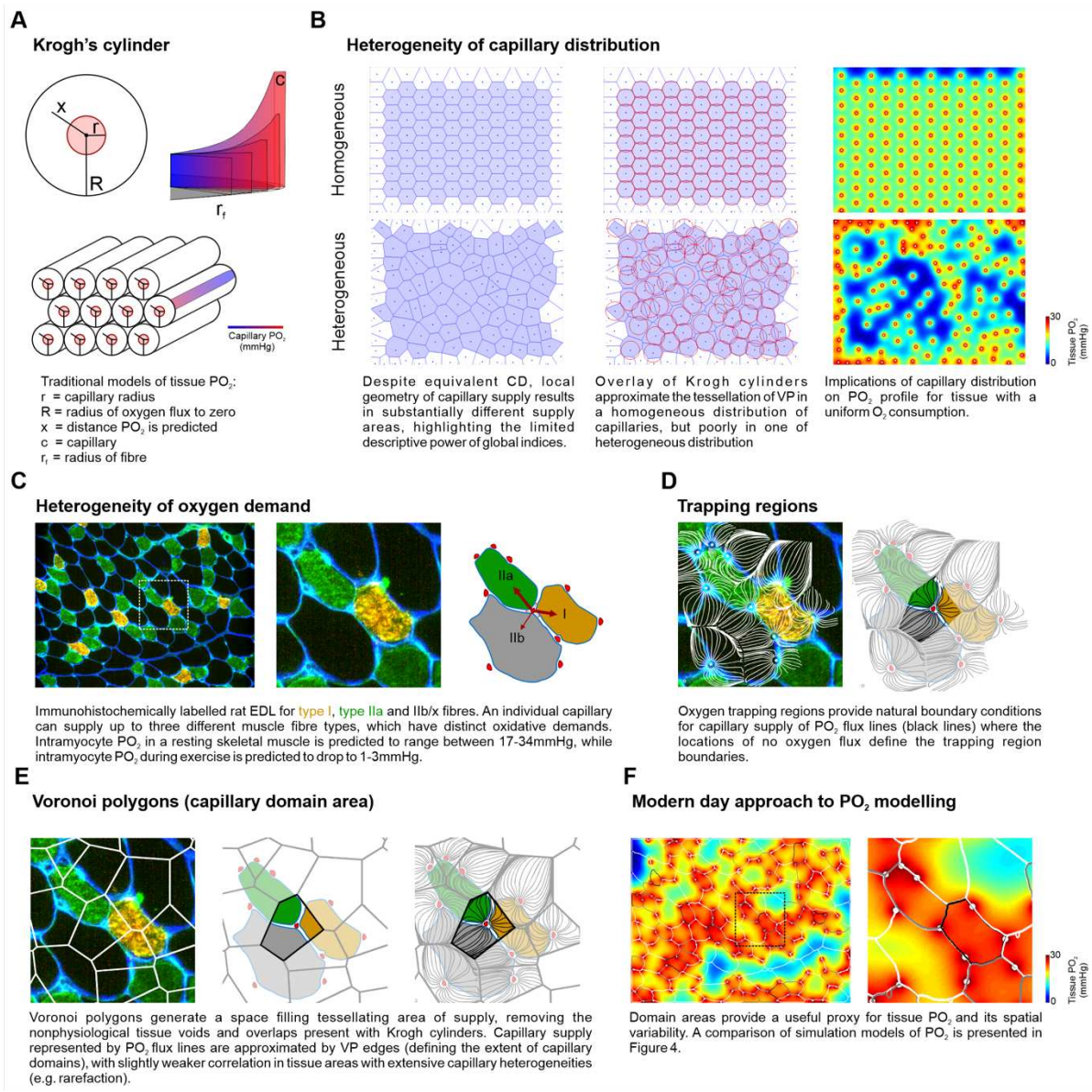
The key limitation of most modelling studies (whether using the Kroghian approach or not) is representation of the capillary network as a regular pattern of supply points, serving tissue with a homogeneous demand. Both these principles are evidently gross simplifications, but accommodating such spatial heterogeneity has taken a great deal of development in the analyses currently available (Al-Shammari et al. 2019). An additional

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142 complication is the temporal heterogeneity in flow patterns observed within the
 143 microcirculation, which requires variation in distribution of both functional and structural
 144 elements to be integrated.

145
 146 The construction of Krogh cylinders was based on an assumption of a perfect spatial
 147 symmetry of capillaries (Fig. 3A). This geometrical simplicity permitted an elegant and
 148 mathematically tractable description of oxygen diffusion (Krogh-Erlang formula). However,
 149 capillary distribution is variable and can be highly asymmetric (Hoofd 1985), in addition to
 150 the impossibility of close-packing cylinders to account for O₂ delivery to all areas of tissue.
 151 Equivalent Krogh cylinders are sometimes used in an attempt to account for this apparent
 152 variability. Nonetheless, the radial symmetry of Krogh cylinders still undermines the effort
 153 to capture the influence of capillary variability (Fig. 3). These observations suggest that the
 154 numerical value of mean diffusion area is not an adequate description for potential
 155 microvascular contribution to muscle performance.

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159 **Figure 3. Microvascular distribution and implications of tissue PO₂.** (A) A tubular supply area
160 around the capillary, where R denotes the Krogh cylinder radius, r the capillary radius and x
161 the distance from the capillary of which the equation predicts PO₂. (B) Stacking supply
162 cylinders as described by Krogh provides a modest approximation of capillary supply area for
163 tissue with a homogeneous distribution of capillaries, though there still exists inevitable
164 overlapping supply regions or anoxic voids, emphasised by more physiologically appropriate
165 heterogeneous distributions. (C) Intramuscular distribution of PO₂ is influenced by the spatial
166 heterogeneity of supply (capillary distribution) and demand (fibre type heterogeneity). (D) A
167 computationally intensive estimation of O₂ flux lines produces boundaries (oxygen trapping
168 regions) that align with those of the more tractable capillary domains, to a first
169 approximation. (E) Capillary domains offer a space-filling alternative to Krogh cylinders, that
170 allows the effect of heterogeneous distributions to be quantified. (F) Using this approach, we
171 can readily visualise the predicted effects of *in vivo*, or *in silico*, experimental interventions on
172 muscle PO₂. Content based on the authors' studies.

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174

175 **Quantifying O₂ flux**

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177 Radial symmetry of oxygen efflux may be a reasonable approximation in close proximity of
178 the capillary wall but interaction with neighbouring capillaries may influence its validity
179 (Titcombe 2000), suggesting that a natural boundary condition must depend on the
180 distribution of nearby microvessels. Incorporating the influence of adjacent/sub-adjacent
181 capillaries can be naturally achieved by assuming that the supply area between two
182 neighbours is bisected by a line of symmetry. Connecting these supply bisectors leads to a
183 natural polygonal tessellation (Voronoi polygons or VPs) of the tissue plane (Fig. 3E),
184 thereby forming a natural polygonal extension to Krogh's cylinder, sometimes referred to as
185 a capillary domain (Hoofd et al. 1985; Egginton & Ross 1992). Importantly, this construct
186 captures both the immediate tissue area and the influence of neighbouring vessels, and
187 automatically characterises the variability in spatial distribution of capillaries (Al-Shammari
188 et al. 2014). Indeed, recent results indicate that equivalent Krogh cylinders largely
189 overestimate tissue PO₂ (Fig. 4). As an extension, VPs are less sensitive to such variabilities
190 (Al-Shammari et al. 2012) given their close approximation to the boundary of physiological
191 supply areas (oxygen trapping regions). Hence, VPs allow sensible boundary conditions to
192 tissue PO₂ while also retaining some geometric simplicity. But more generally, oxygen
193 trapping regions provide a modern version of Krogh cylinder and VPs (Al-Shammari et al.
194 2014b), and are ultimately the most robust to capillary variability, particularly in rarefied
195 capillary networks (e.g. diabetes).

196

197 In addition to spatial heterogeneity of microvascular O₂ supply, spatial variability is also
198 observed in tissue demand (Fig. 3C). In skeletal muscle, a capillary can be surrounded by a
199 range of fibre types (I, IIa, IIb/x), which have distinct oxidative demands as well as
200 myoglobin and lipid content. This implies oxygen demand is spatially variable nearby
201 individual capillaries, suggesting capillary supply of oxygen is additionally influenced by the
202 variability of the surrounding tissue demand (Zeller-Plumhoff et al. 2019) and permeability
203 (Al-Shammari et al. 2014a). Such influence is automatically captured by Voronoi polygons
204 through their aforementioned boundary conditions. Indeed, these boundaries allow for a
205 natural overlap between nearby muscle fibres and the Voronoi polygon of the 'central'

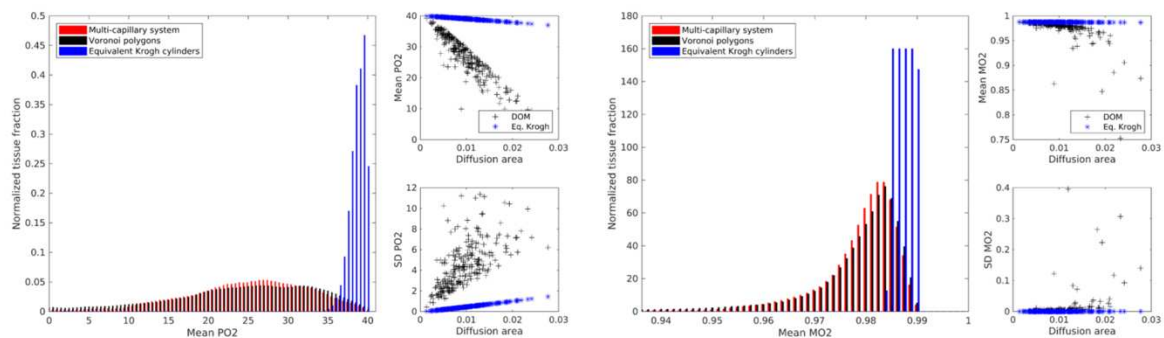
206 capillary. Hence, just as Krogh and Erlang were able to give spatial estimates of PO₂ around
 207 a central capillary, with VPs one can do the same for every individual capillary while also
 208 accounting for the influence of nearby fibre types and capillaries. Moreover, such estimates
 209 can be further improved by considering oxygen trapping regions (Al-Shammari et al. 2014a,
 210 2019). Finally, using the capillary domain approach offers an objective way of calculating
 211 non-integer indices of local capillary supply, which are more sensitive to physiological or
 212 pathological changes in capillarisation than more traditional indices (Egginton 1990,
 213 Egginton & Turek 1990).

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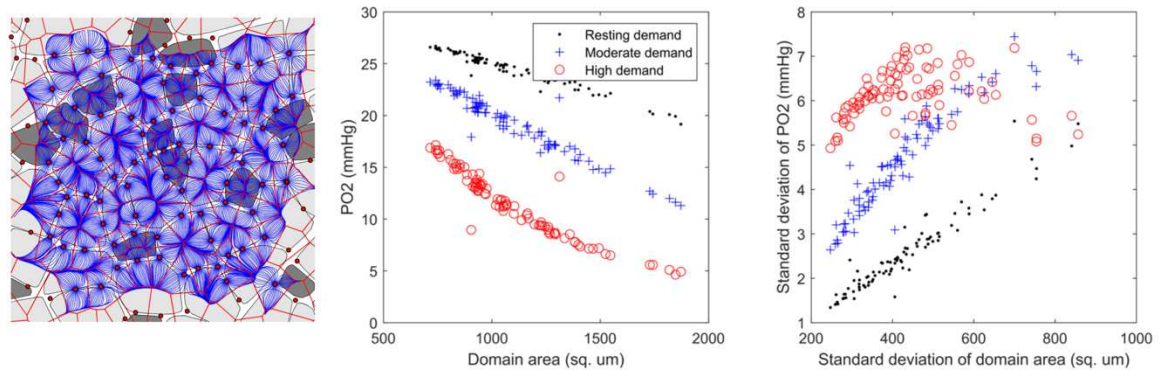
A comparison of simulation models of PO₂ modelling

Simulated oxygenation: Under high demand



B

Correlation between oxygenation and domains



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218 **Figure 4. A comparison between models simulating muscle PO₂.** (A) Krogh cylinders are
 219 based on highly symmetrical supply and only account for the numerical value of the area of
 220 supply, leading to symmetrical and peaked distribution of PO₂ (blue). In contrast, modelling
 221 PO₂ based on capillary domains (a realistic generalization of Krogh cylinder, black) accounts
 222 for the capillary diffusion/supply area, local capillary interaction and the spatial
 223 arrangement of capillaries. Although simple in their geometrical construction, these
 224 domains allow simulation models to capture the intricate details of the spatial distribution
 225 of PO₂ as predicted in multi-capillary model models (red). This is a direct result of their very
 226 good approximation of the ‘natural’ boundary conditions of capillary supply. (B) Capillary
 227 domains (red lines) overlaid on a digitised image of a skeletal muscle section (grey outlines),
 228 containing fast (light grey fill) and slow (dark grey fill) fibres. Using values of muscle
 229 metabolism under varying conditions of activity demonstrates an inverse relationship
 230 between the amount of tissue supplied by an individual capillary (domain area) and

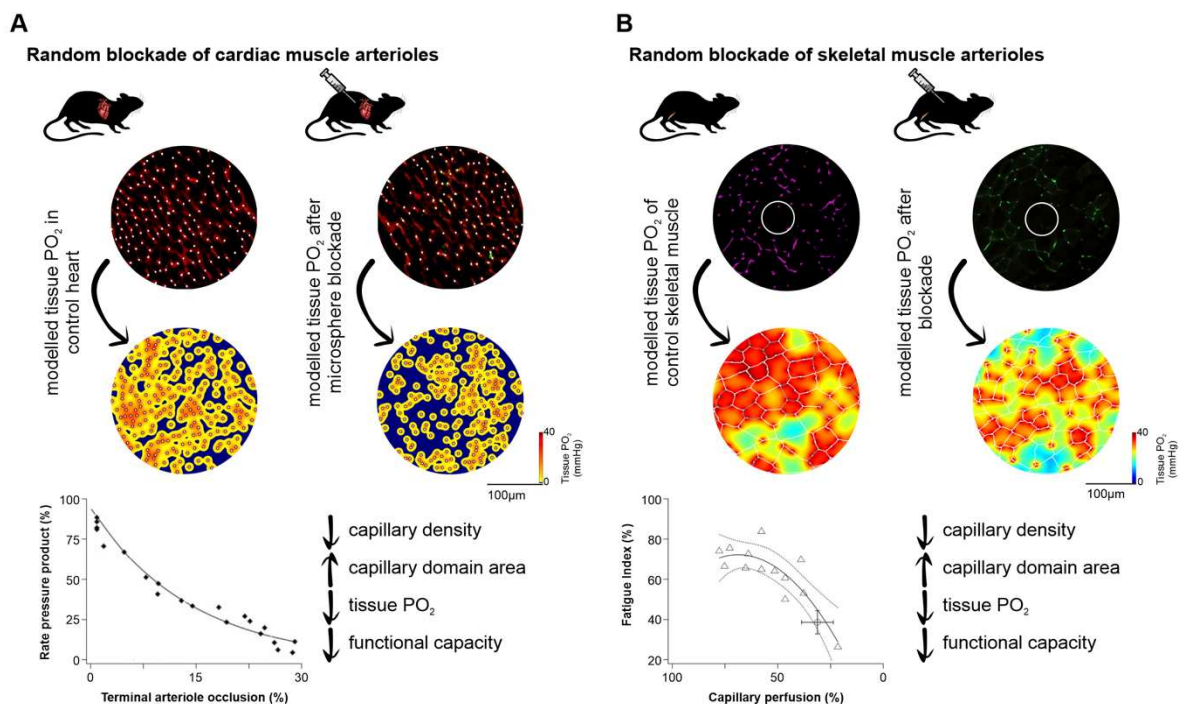
231 resultant O₂ tension, with the tight association breaking down only in the largest supply
 232 areas at highest demand. Content based on the authors' studies.

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235 Functional consequences of heterogeneity

236

237 It can be shown mathematically that any degree of asymmetry in location of a capillary
 238 supplying a given volume of tissue will disturb oxygen flux, irrespective of varied extraction
 239 within that domain, but the implications for individual capillary dropout in the integrated
 240 supply has until recently be difficult to prove (Egginton & Gaffney 2010). This is largely due
 241 to the fact that where capillary rarefaction occurs naturally, e.g. with diabetes or
 242 hypertension, the attendant comorbidities make it difficult to ascertain the proximal cause
 243 of any tissue dysfunction. So, in addition to interest in resolving this issue from a better
 244 mechanistic understanding of fundamental physiological principles, there are many practical
 245 reasons for pursuing this line of enquiry. An example would be in the case of heart failure,
 246 where both cardiac and skeletal muscle show impaired function (Fig. 5), and exercise
 247 intolerance is a hallmark of the condition. However, the extent to which this is due to
 248 microvascular as opposed to macrovascular insufficiency is a matter of current debate.
 249



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 251

252 **Figure 5. Functional capillary rarefaction leads to reduced cardiac and skeletal muscle**
 253 **performance.** Recent work by Hauton *et al.* (2015) (A) and Tickle *et al.* (2020) (B) demonstrate
 254 the profound impact of random arteriole blockade (and subsequent lack of downstream
 255 capillary perfusion) on muscle function. Through injection of microspheres into the
 256 circulation, dose-response curves show the deterioration in cardiac and skeletal muscle
 257 function with decreasing capillary perfusion, accompanied by a progressive increase in area
 258 of muscle expected to develop hypoxia.

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 260

261 **Conclusions**

262

263 We consider here the influence of fine scale heterogeneity of capillary supply for peripheral
264 O₂ supply, but of course other levels of organisation may have a significant influence on
265 functional outcomes, e.g. the relative influence of perfusion-metabolism heterogeneity in
266 skeletal muscle in response to differing physiological challenges (Piiper, 2000). Such
267 considerations may help to optimise targetted angiotherapies, by e.g. focussing on
268 macrovascular (perfusion) or microvascular (diffusion) impediment to muscle performance.

269

270

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272

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277

278 **Declaration of interests**

279

280 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
281 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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