

1 **Title:**

2 The reliability of a heat acclimation state test prescribed from metabolic heat production intensities

3 **Running Title:**

4 Reliability of a heat acclimation state test

5 **Authors:**

6 A.G.B. Willmott, M. Hayes, J. Deckerle, N.S. Maxwell

7 **Address for all authors:**

8

9 Centre of Sport and Exercise Science and Medicine (SESAME)

10 Environmental Extremes Laboratory

11

12 School of Sport and Service Management

13 University of Brighton

14 Welkin House, Denton Road

15 Eastbourne

16 BN20 7SN

17 UK

18 **Email Correspondence:**

19 Corresponding author - Ashley Willmott [A.Willmott@brighton.ac.uk](mailto:A.Willmott@brighton.ac.uk)

20 **Word count:**

21 4560

1 **Abstract**

2 Acclimation state indicates an individual's phenotypic response to a thermally stressful environment,  
3 where changes in heat dissipation capacity are determined during a heat acclimation state test  
4 (HAST). Variations in thermoregulatory and sudomotor function are reported while exercising at  
5 intensities relative to maximal oxygen uptake. This inter-individual variation is not true when  
6 intensity is prescribed to elicit a fixed rate of metabolic heat production ( $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$ ). This study  
7 investigated the reliability of peak  $T_{\text{re}}$  and two composite measures (sweat gain and sweat setpoint)  
8 derived from indices of thermosensitivity during a HAST prescribed from  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  intensities.

9 Fourteen participants (mean  $\pm$  SD; age  $23 \pm 3$  years, stature  $174 \pm 7$  cm, body mass  $75.0 \pm 9.4$  kg,  
10 body surface area  $1.9 \pm 0.1$  m<sup>2</sup>, peak oxygen consumption [ $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$ ]  $3.49 \pm 0.53$  L.min<sup>-1</sup>) completed a  
11 lactate threshold- $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$  test and two duplicate  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  HASTs on a cycle ergometer. The HAST  
12 consisted of three, 30-minute periods of exercise at fixed  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  intensities relative to body mass (3,  
13 4.5 and 6 W.kg<sup>-1</sup>), within hot dry conditions ( $44.7 \pm 1.8^\circ\text{C}$  and  $18.1 \pm 4.7\%$  relative humidity).

14 Peak  $T_{\text{re}}$  ( $38.20 \pm 0.36$  vs  $38.16 \pm 0.42^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $p = 0.54$ ), sweat setpoint ( $36.76 \pm 0.34$  and  $36.79 \pm 0.38^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $p$   
15  $= 0.68$ ) and sweat gain ( $0.37 \pm 0.14$  and  $0.40 \pm 0.18$  g.sec<sup>-1</sup>.°C<sup>-1</sup>,  $p = 0.40$ ) did not differ between  
16 HASTs. Typical error of measurement (TEM), coefficient variation (CV) and intra-class coefficient of  
17 correlation (ICC) were  $0.19^\circ\text{C}$ , 0.5% and 0.80 for peak  $T_{\text{re}}$ ,  $0.21^\circ\text{C}$ , 0.6% and 0.65 for sweat setpoint  
18 and  $0.09$  g.sec<sup>-1</sup>.°C<sup>-1</sup>, 28% and 0.68 for sweat gain, respectively.

19 The use of fixed  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  intensities relative to body mass is a reliable method for measuring  $T_{\text{re}}$  and  
20 ascertaining sweat setpoint during a HAST, whereas, sweat gain displays greater variability. A  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$   
21 HAST appears sufficiently reliable for quantifying heat acclimation state, where TEM in peak  $T_{\text{re}}$  and  
22 sweat setpoint are small enough to identify physiologically meaningful improvements post  
23 intervention.

24 **Key words:**

25 Metabolic heat production, Thermosensitivity, Reliability, Heat acclimation state, Heat, Heat  
26 Acclimation

27

1 **Abbreviations:**

- 2 Body surface area (BSA)
- 3 Change in rectal temperature ( $\Delta T_{re}$ )
- 4 Coefficient variation (CV)
- 5 Heart rate (HR)
- 6 Heat acclimation state tests (HAST)
- 7 Intra-class correlation coefficient (ICC)
- 8 Limits of agreement (LOA)
- 9 Maximal oxygen uptake ( $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ )
- 10 Metabolic heat production ( $\dot{H}_{prod}$ )
- 11 Nude body mass (NBM)
- 12 Peak oxygen consumption ( $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ )
- 13 Peak ratings of perceived exertion ( $RPE_{peak}$ )
- 14 Peak thermal sensation ( $TSS_{peak}$ )
- 15 Ratings of perceived exertion (RPE)
- 16 Rectal temperature ( $T_{re}$ )
- 17 Relative humidity (RH)
- 18 Respiratory exchange ratios (RER)
- 19 Standard deviation (SD)
- 20 Standard error (SE)
- 21 Sweat rate ( $\dot{m}_{sw}$ )
- 22 Thermal sensation (TSS)
- 23 Typical error of measurement (TEM)
- 24 Urine osmolality ( $U_{osm}$ )
- 25 Urine specific gravity ( $U_{sg}$ )

## 1 1. Introduction

2 An individual's primary phenotypic response to a thermally stressful environment is indicated by  
3 acclimation state (Havenith and Middendorp, 1990). Acclimation state changes are determined  
4 during an incremental, sub-maximal heat acclimation state test (HAST). HASTs are predominantly  
5 used to pre-screen individuals to determine changes in heat dissipation capacity under fixed heat  
6 stress and evaluate the effectiveness of heat alleviating strategies, such as heat acclimation  
7 protocols. Previously, HASTs (Havenith and Middendorp, 1986, 1990), have identified two composite  
8 measures of sweat setpoint and sweat gain, derived from indices of thermosensitivity including,  
9 sudomotor (sweat rate [ $\dot{m}_{sw}$ ]) function and thermoregulatory (rectal temperature [ $T_{re}$ ]) responses to  
10 exercise. Figure 1 demonstrates the linear  $\dot{m}_{sw}$ - $T_{re}$  relationship for slope to provide a measure of  
11 sweat gain (an assessment of sudomotor sensitivity), and the x-intercept represents the point of  
12 sweating above baseline, known as the sweat setpoint (Havenith and Middendorp, 1990). When  
13 comparing between-individuals, a greater magnitude in sweat gain and a lower sweat setpoint may  
14 permit effective regulation in body temperature within thermally challenging environments.  
15 Superior sweat gains and reductions in sweat setpoint after an intervention may indicate a greater  
16 change in heat acclimation state, demonstrating improved adaptive responses in thermoregulation  
17 and sudomotor function at rest and during exercise under thermal stress. Therefore, the improved  
18 body temperature regulation would reduce physiological strain and improve aerobic performance  
19 (Sawka et al., 2011).

20 Individuals with larger aerobic capacities are thought to be partially heat acclimated by exhibiting  
21 lower resting and exercising heart rate and core temperatures, and superior sudomotor capacities  
22 within hot-dry conditions (Havenith and Middendorp, 1986; Pandolf, 1998). However, these trained  
23 individuals exercise at greater intensity compared to untrained individuals, when exercising at  
24 similar percentages of maximal oxygen uptake ( $\% \dot{V}O_{2max}$ ), thus generating greater metabolic heat  
25 due to larger absolute oxygen uptake (Gagnon et al., 2008; Mora-Rodriguez et al., 2010).  
26 Consequently, Jay et al. (2011) demonstrated how large variations in  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$  between-groups  
27 matched for body mass and body surface area (BSA) may induce greater changes in  $T_{re}$  ( $\Delta T_{re}$ ) during  
28 relative intensity exercise. Conversely, improving exercise intensity prescriptions between-  
29 independent groups by using fixed rates of metabolic heat production ( $\dot{H}_{prod}$ ) provided similar  
30 thermoregulatory responses between trained and untrained individuals (Jay et al., 2011). Previous  
31 HASTs have prescribed exercise intensities relative to  $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ , therefore, researchers might have  
32 observed greater  $T_{re}$  in individuals with a larger aerobic capacity (Jay et al., 2011), indicating a lower  
33 acclimation state, yet superior sweat gains, indicative of high acclimation state. Consequently,  
34 prescribing intensity of exercise using  $\dot{H}_{prod}$  per unit mass ( $W \cdot kg^{-1}$ ) may reduce systematic bias in  $\Delta T_{re}$

1 between-independent groups of varying biophysical characteristics or fitness levels (Jay et al., 2011;  
2 Cramer and Jay, 2014). Thus, previous studies may be confounded by methodological limitations,  
3 including exercising at different  $\dot{H}_{prod}$  as well as failure to control for body mass and BSA, which in  
4 turn generated type 1 errors. If previous HASTs were performed between-independent groups, pre  
5 to post intervention (i.e. heat acclimation), where alterations in body mass or training status may  
6 occur, the changes within  $T_{re}$  and local sweat rates may have been misinterpreted and at risk of  
7 being considered practically meaningful, instead of being attributed to the intervention itself and not  
8 a difference in exercise intensity.

9 A new HAST must prescribe  $\dot{H}_{prod}$  intensities, which elicit reliable changes in core temperature and  
10 thermosensitivity, while minimising measurement error within biological variations and instrument  
11 noise (Atkinson and Nevill, 1998). A reliable test would also promote greater confidence in  
12 thermosensitive adaptations within- and between-groups, after acute and chronic heat acclimation  
13 protocols. Previous studies report coefficient variation (CV%) for sudomotor (11% local [Hayden et  
14 al., 2004] and 4.7% whole-body sweat rates [Brokenshire et al., 2009]),  $T_{re}$  (0.3% [Hayden, et al  
15 2004], 0.6% [Brokenshire et al., 2009] and 0.34% [Mee et al., 2015]), and heart rate (3.9% [Hayden,  
16 et al 2004], 3% [Brokenshire et al., 2009] and 1% [Mee et al., 2015]) variables during running and  
17 cycling heat stress tests, respectively. However, it is difficult to make comparisons between studies  
18 of different magnitudes of heat stress, duration, mode and intensity of exercise.

19 While acknowledging the pioneering work of Havenith and Middendorp (1986, 1990), recent  
20 methodologies by Jay et al. (2011) and Cramer and Jay (2014), have included the prescription of  $\dot{H}_{prod}$   
21 ( $W.kg^{-1}$ ) exercise intensities. This may enable accurate and reliable measures of core temperature  
22 and thermosensitivity between individuals to determine heat acclimation state, evaluate pre to post  
23 intervention efficacy between-independent groups and further support the proposal that  $\dot{H}_{prod}$  may  
24 be an optimal method to prescribe heat acclimation (Gibson et al., 2015). However, the reliability of  
25  $T_{re}$ , sweat gain and sweat setpoint is unknown while exercising at variable  $\dot{H}_{prod}$  exercise intensities  
26 within a HAST, but is required for confident interpretations to be made regarding heat acclimation  
27 state. The aim of this study was to examine the reliability of a new HAST which prescribes  $\dot{H}_{prod}$   
28 intensities relative to body mass. It was hypothesised there would be agreement and no significant  
29 difference in (1) the  $T_{re}$  or composite measures of sweat gain and sweat setpoint, and (2)  
30 physiological and perceptual measures between both  $\dot{H}_{prod}$  HASTs.

## 1 2. Methods

### 2 2.1 Participants

3 Fourteen active, moderately trained ( $\dot{V}O_{2peak} >45 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ) male participants (mean  $\pm$  standard  
4 deviation [SD]; age  $23 \pm 3$  years, stature  $174 \pm 7$  cm, nude body mass [NBM]  $75.0 \pm 9.4$  kg, BSA  $1.9 \pm$   
5  $0.1 \text{ m}^2$  and peak oxygen consumption [ $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ ]  $3.49 \pm 0.53 \text{ L}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ) volunteered and provided written  
6 informed consent for the study. The study was approved by the Institution Research Ethics and  
7 Governance Committee and conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki of 1975, as  
8 revised in 2008. Participants had not been exposed to hot conditions ( $>25^\circ\text{C}$ ) in the 3 months prior  
9 to the investigation. Participants abstained from caffeine, alcohol and prolonged strenuous activity  
10 for 24 hours prior to testing. They also refrained from food 2 hours before exercise and arrived in a  
11 euhydrated state indicated by a urine osmolality  $<700 \text{ mOsm}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  and specific gravity  $<1.020$  (Sawka  
12 et al., 2007).

### 13 2.2 Experimental design

14 After completing an incremental cycling lactate threshold (LT) to  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$  test, participants completed  
15 two  $\dot{H}_{prod}$  HASTs, separated by 48 hours.

### 16 2.3 Measurements and equipment

17 All tests were completed on a cycle ergometer (Monark 620 Ergomedic, Varberg, Sweden). During  
18 each visit, participants produced fresh, mid-flow urine samples to determine hydration indices of  
19 urine osmolality ( $U_{osm}$ ) and specific gravity ( $U_{sg}$ ), assessed using a Pocket Pal-Osmo (Vitech Scientific,  
20 Ltd) and hand-held refractometer (Atago Co., Tokyo, Japan), respectively. Stature and NBM were  
21 measured using physician (Detecto Scale Company, USA) and weighing scales (Adam Equipment Co  
22 LTD., Milton Keynes, UK).  $T_{re}$  was assessed continuously and displayed on logging monitors (YSI, 4600  
23 series, YSI, Hampshire, UK), using a single use rectal probe (449H, Henleys Medical, Hertfordshire,  
24 UK), placed  $\sim 10\text{cm}$  past the anal sphincter. Once heart rate (HR) monitors (Accurex+, Polar Electro,  
25 Oy, Kempele, Finland) were attached a 15-min rest period occurred to obtain baseline measures.  
26 During cycling exercise, HR,  $T_{re}$ , perceptual ratings of perceived exertion (RPE) (Borg, 1982) and  
27 thermal sensation (TSS) (Toner et al., 1986) were recorded at 5 minute increments.

28 Peak perceptual scores ( $RPE_{peak}$  and  $TSS_{peak}$ ) were recorded during each HAST. Non-urine fluid loss  
29 was estimated to the nearest gram for each period of exercise using scales placed in the corner of  
30 the environmental chamber. Difference between pre and post exercise, towel-dried NBM

1 determined non-urine fluid loss, which was corrected for urine output (zero incidences), but not for  
2 insensible respiratory water and metabolic losses, which was assumed to be similar between tests.

### 3 2.4 Peak oxygen uptake test

4  $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$  was determined during an incremental LT- $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$  test within temperate conditions ( $21.6 \pm$   
5  $0.9^\circ\text{C}$  and  $30.8 \pm 3.2\%$  relative humidity [RH]). The test started with a 5 min warm-up at 95 W and  
6 increased by 24 W every 3 min, with blood samples taken within the final 30 s of each 3 min stage.  
7 Blood samples were collected into lithium-heparin coated microvette tubes and analysed using an  
8 automated analyser (YSI 2300 Plus, Yellow Springs Instruments, Ohio, USA). This was calibrated  
9 immediately before each test using the manufacturers  $5 \text{ mmol.L}^{-1}$  standard, set to self-calibrate  
10 every 45 min and verified after each test using the same manufacturer standard (YSI 2427; CV =  
11 5.5%). When LT turnpoint was reached, determined by a sudden and sustained increase in blood  
12 lactate concentration around  $2\text{-}5 \text{ mmol.L}^{-1}$  (Bourdon, 2000), no further samples were taken and  
13 intensity was increased  $24 \text{ W.min}^{-1}$  until volitional exhaustion (Hayes, et al., 2014). Expired air was  
14 collected to measure oxygen uptake using open-circuit spirometry for approximately 45 s during the  
15 final minute of each stage. Pulmonary gases (oxygen [ $\text{O}_2$ ] and carbon dioxide [ $\text{CO}_2$ ]), temperature  
16 and expired air volume were sampled using a Servomex 4100 xentra gas analyser (Servomex  
17 International Ltd, Crowborough, UK; CV;  $\text{O}_2 = 1.5\%$ ;  $\text{CO}_2 = 1.9\%$ ). A two-point calibration occurred  
18 using nitrogen and a mixture of gases of known  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  quantities (BOC, UK) prior to each test.  
19 Both HR and RPE were continuously monitored throughout and recorded within the final 15 s of  
20 each stage.

### 21 2.5 Heat acclimation state test (HAST) protocol

22 HASTs were completed within an environmental chamber (TISS, Hampshire, UK) under hot-dry  
23 conditions ( $44.7 \pm 1.8^\circ\text{C}$  and  $18.1 \pm 4.7\%$  RH,  $29.9 \pm 1.1^\circ\text{C}$  wet bulb globe temperature). Participants  
24 were aware they could stop exercising at any time and were removed from the chamber if  $T_{re}$   
25 reached  $39.7^\circ\text{C}$  (zero incidences). The  $\dot{H}_{prod}$  HAST simulated the protocol of Havenith and  
26 Middendorp (1986), consisting of three 30 min exercise blocks. The intensity across blocks was  
27 increased by a fixed rate of  $\dot{H}_{prod}$  relative to body mass (3, 4.5 and  $6 \text{ W.kg}^{-1}$ ) and set as an external  
28 mechanical power output (W). Each 30 min block was designed to enable  $T_{re}$  to reach steady state  
29 and was separated by a short (<3 min) break period, where NBM and non-urine fluid loss were  
30 recorded. The relationship between  $\dot{m}_{sw}\text{-}T_{re}$  was modelled using a linear regression (method of least  
31 squares). The x-intercept and slope represent a  $T_{re}$  setpoint for the onset of sweating and a sweat  
32 gain respectively (Figure 1). The  $\Delta T_{re}$  was calculated for each block of exercise.

## 1 2.6 Metabolic heat production intensities

2 In accordance with the recommendations of Jay et al. (2011) and Cramer and Jay (2014),  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  was  
3 prescribed as an external mechanical power output (W). Metabolic energy expenditure ( $M$ ) was  
4 estimated from known values of  $\text{O}_2$  uptake and respiratory exchange ratios (RER) during sub-  
5 maximal cycling within the LT test, using the equation of Nishi (1981):

$$6 \quad M = \dot{V}\text{O}_2 \frac{\left(\frac{\text{RER}-0.7}{0.3} \text{ec}\right) + \left(\frac{1-\text{RER}}{0.3} \text{ef}\right)}{60} \times 1000 \text{ Watts}$$

7 where: the caloric equivalents per litre of oxygen consumed for the oxidation of carbohydrates and  
8 the oxidation of fat are ec (21.13 kJ) and ef (19.62 kJ), respectively.  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  was determined by the  
9 difference between  $M$  and the external mechanical power output (W) and divided by body mass  
10 (BM) to obtain a relative measure ( $\text{W}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ ):

$$11 \quad \dot{H}_{\text{prod}} = (M - W) / \text{BM}$$

## 12 2.7 Statistical analyses

13 All data are reported as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD). Data were assessed for normality and  
14 sphericity prior to statistical analysis. Between-test comparisons of sweat gain, sweat setpoint and  
15 physiological responses during both HASTs were analysed using a paired samples *t-test*. Non-  
16 parametric datasets, including  $\text{RPE}_{\text{peak}}$  and  $\text{TSS}_{\text{peak}}$  were analysed using a Wilcoxon signed-rank test  
17 with Bonferroni correction applied. A composite battery of reliability statistics including relative  
18 (Pearson's correlation coefficients and ICC) and absolute (CV and limits of agreement) measures  
19 were implemented within this study to improve the scientific robustness when evaluating  
20 thermosensitive measures (Atkinson and Nevill, 1998; James et al., 2014). Standard (SEM) and  
21 typical error of measurement (TEM) were calculated from the SD of the mean difference between  
22 the two  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  HAST,  $\sqrt{1}$  then subtracted by the ICC (SEM, Atkinson and Nevill, 1998) or divided by  $\sqrt{2}$   
23 (TEM, Hopkins, 2000), and expressed as a mean CV (%). Meaningful differences between related  
24 samples during both HASTs were evaluated using Cohen's *d* and confidence intervals (CI) (Lakens,  
25 2013). Effect size was categorised as small (0.2), medium (0.5) and large (0.8) (Cohen, 1988). Pearson  
26 product moment correlation coefficient and ICC were calculated and categorised as small (<0.3),  
27 moderate (0.3-0.6) and large (>0.6). Bias and 95% limits of agreement (LOA) were determined from  
28 Bland-Altman plots, which investigated systematic and random error trends. Adjusted  $r^2$  and  
29 standard error (SE) of the slope were identified within the  $\dot{m}_{\text{sw-Tre}}$  linear regression relationship.  
30 Statistical significance was accepted as  $P \leq 0.05$ . Data were analysed using SPSS (version 20.0).



## 1 3. Results

### 2 3.1 Physical characteristics

3 All participants arrived in a similar physiological state for both HASTs, with no difference in resting  
4 HR ( $67 \pm 12$  and  $66 \pm 12$  b.min<sup>-1</sup>,  $t = 0.47$ ,  $p = 0.64$ ),  $T_{re}$  ( $37.28 \pm 0.32$  and  $37.27 \pm 0.31^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  $t = 0.07$ ,  $p =$   
5  $0.95$ ),  $U_{osm}$  ( $300 \pm 247$  and  $387 \pm 212$  mOsm.kg<sup>-1</sup>,  $t = 0.38$ ,  $p = 0.71$ ),  $U_{sg}$  ( $1.008 \pm 0.007$  and  $1.010 \pm$   
6  $0.007$ ,  $t = 0.04$ ,  $p = 0.97$ ) or pre exercise NBM ( $75.0 \pm 9.8$  and  $75.0 \pm 9.5$  kg,  $t = 0.10$ ,  $p = 0.92$ ).

### 7 3.2 Criteria of heat acclimation state

8 No difference was found in the goodness of fit of the linear model through the sets of  $\dot{m}_{sw}$  and  $T_{re}$   
9 data with adjusted  $r^2$  and SE of 0.89 and 9.1% for HAST 1, and 0.85 and 13.1% for HAST 2. No  
10 differences were found in  $T_{repeak}$  ( $38.20 \pm 0.36$  vs  $38.16 \pm 0.42^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  $t = 0.63$ ,  $p = 0.54$ ) or pre to post  $\Delta T_{re}$   
11 ( $0.93 \pm 0.35$  vs  $0.88 \pm 0.32^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  $t = 0.77$ ,  $p = 0.45$ ) within both HASTs (Table 1). Bland-Altman plots  
12 presented in Figure 2 display bias ( $\pm 95\%$  LoA) for  $T_{repeak}$  ( $0.04 \pm 0.53^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and pre to post  $\Delta T_{re}$  ( $0.05 \pm$   
13  $0.47^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). Sweat setpoint ( $36.76 \pm 0.34$  vs  $36.79 \pm 0.38^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  $t = 0.43$ ,  $p = 0.68$ ) and sweat gain ( $0.37 \pm$   
14  $0.14$  vs  $0.40 \pm 0.18$  g.sec<sup>-1</sup>.°C<sup>-1</sup>,  $t = 0.87$ ,  $p = 0.40$ ) did not differ between the HASTs. Cohen's d (95%  
15 CI) was 0.08 (-0.15, 0.21) and 0.19 (-0.05, 0.11) for sweat setpoint and sweat gain, respectively. TEM  
16 (CV) was  $0.21^{\circ}\text{C}$  (0.6%) and  $0.09$  g.sec<sup>-1</sup>.°C<sup>-1</sup> (28%) for sweat setpoint and sweat gain, respectively.  
17 Large correlations were observed for sweat gain ( $r = 0.69$  and ICC = 0.72) and sweat setpoint ( $r =$   
18  $0.62$  and ICC = 0.65). Bland-Altman plots presented in Figure 3 display bias ( $\pm 95\%$  LoA) for sweat  
19 setpoint ( $0.03 \pm 0.60^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and sweat gain ( $0.03 \pm 0.26$  g.sec<sup>-1</sup>.°C<sup>-1</sup>), respectively. Plotted regression lines  
20 through data points within Figure 3 display a slope close to zero (-0.03) and no correlation  
21 coefficient ( $r = 0.03$ ) in sweat setpoint, whereas, a statistically significant ( $p < 0.01$ ), small correlation  
22 coefficient ( $r = 0.29$ ) and a larger slope (-0.27), may therefore display the presence of  
23 heteroscedasticity in sweat gain.

### 24 3.3 Sudomotor function, thermoregulatory and cardiovascular measures

25 No differences were found between the HASTs for total non-urine fluid losses ( $t = 0.17$ ,  $p = 0.87$ ) or  
26  $HR_{peak}$  ( $t = 1.76$ ,  $p = 0.10$ ) (Table 1). Nor were differences found between the HASTs for mean  
27 average  $T_{re}$ , non-urine fluid loss or HR between block 1, 2 and 3. HAST data during individual blocks  
28 are displayed within Table 2.

### 29 3.4 Perceptual measures

- 1 RPE<sub>peak</sub> ( $14 \pm 2$  vs  $14 \pm 3$ ,  $Z = -0.318$ ,  $p = 0.75$ ) and TSS<sub>peak</sub> ( $7 \pm 1$  vs  $7 \pm 1$ ,  $Z = -1.342$ ,  $p = 0.18$ ) did not
- 2 differ between HASTs, and presented low variability (TEM [CV], 1 [7.3%] and 0 [4.9%]) and large
- 3 correlations ( $r = 0.85$  and  $0.76$ ), respectively.

## 1 4. Discussion

### 2 4.1 Overview

3 The aim of this study was to determine the reliability of a HAST, prescribed from fixed rates of  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$   
4 relative to body mass. The main findings from the current study present small bias, acceptable and  
5 strong correlations between the repeated HASTs. This was apparent within the mean average  $T_{\text{re}}$ ,  
6  $\Delta T_{\text{re}}$  and composite measures of sweat gain and sweat setpoint, which determine heat acclimation  
7 state. Traditional markers of heat acclimation adaptation, such as rectal temperature, heart rate and  
8 non-urine fluid loss presented similar findings. Finally,  $T_{\text{re}}$  and sweat setpoint provides more accurate  
9 and reliable measures, compared to sweat gain, displayed by low within-participant variability and  
10 typical error.

### 11 4.2 Core temperature

12 As thermosensitive measures are a control property of  $T_{\text{re}}$  and not the prescription of fixed  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$   
13 during exercise, the reliability of peak, pre to post changes and mean average  $T_{\text{re}}$  were assessed.  
14  $T_{\text{repeak}}$  and pre to post  $\Delta T_{\text{re}}$  presented no statistically significant test re-test difference ( $p = 0.54$  and  $p$   
15  $= 0.45$ ), large correlation (ICC = 0.80 and 0.74), low TEM (0.19°C and 0.17°C) and a CV of 0.5% and  
16 24%, respectively.  $T_{\text{repeak}}$  was found to be greater than those reported in other heat stress tests  
17 (0.13°C [0.34%] and 0.93, Mee et al., 2015), while pre to post  $\Delta T_{\text{re}}$  presented moderate variation  
18 when expressed as a percentage of the mean score. Mean average  $T_{\text{re}}$  during each 30-min block of  
19 the HAST which contributes to the derivative calculation of sweat setpoint, presented small levels of  
20 within-participant variation for block 1 (TEM [CV] = 0.16°C [0.4%]), block 2 (0.14°C [0.4%]) and block  
21 3 (0.14°C [0.4%]), and large correlations (ICC = 0.75, 0.81 and 0.86, respectively) between HASTs.  
22 These data are in agreement with Hayden et al. (2004), who reported TEM (CV) in  $T_{\text{re}}$  of 0.20°C  
23 (0.3%) during cycling at relative intensities for 60 minutes and Brokenshire et al. (2009), who  
24 reported aural temperatures of 0.10°C (0.6%) during cycling at relative intensities for three 20  
25 minute blocks separated by a rest period, both within hot and humid conditions (36°C and 60% RH,  
26 and 35°C and 46% RH, respectively). However, all the aforementioned studies set relative or generic  
27 intensities which present various biophysical complications (Cramer and Jay, 2014) and validity  
28 issues if tested between-independent groups or post interventions, where training adaptations and  
29 body mass changes are expected. Therefore, prescribing fixed  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  intensities may ensure fair  
30 comparisons in thermosensitive criteria across independent groups, irrespective of intervention,  
31 training status or anthropometric characteristics. Furthermore, this thermoregulatory data may aid

1 the interpretations of meaningful changes and evaluate the efficacy of an intervention, if repeated  
2 after a heat acclimation protocol.

### 3 4.3 Sweat setpoint

4 Sweat setpoint demonstrated no statistically significant test re-test difference ( $p = 0.68$ ), alongside a  
5 low TEM ( $0.21^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and a CV of 0.6%, which fall within predefined acceptable and reliable limits  
6 (Atkinson and Nevill, 1998). Brengelmann et al. (1994) suggested the reproducibility and therefore  
7 the smallest worthwhile change in sweat setpoint to be less than  $0.10^{\circ}\text{C}$ . However, Brengelmann et  
8 al. (1994) determined reproducibility by externally cooling then heating skin temperature, over  
9 extended periods on multiple occasions to identify difference in two sweat thresholds, whilst using  
10 live sweat rate data recordings. More recently, Chevront et al. (2009) identified mean range in  
11 sweat setpoint of  $+0.50$  to  $-0.25^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and sweat gain of  $+0.15$  to  $-0.30 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}\cdot^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$ , due to  
12 various physiological effects such as dehydration, heat acclimation, sleep deprivation and exercise  
13 intensity. Although the TEM in the present study is higher than that reported ( $>0.10^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) within  
14 Brengelmann et al. (1994), there are vast differences within study methods. Nonetheless, the TEM  
15 obtained in the present study does fall well within the LOA found by Chevront et al. (2009).  
16 Consequently, it is within reason to suggest that the sweat setpoint in the present study  
17 demonstrates an acceptable standard of reliability for a HAST that prescribes  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  intensities set  
18 relative to body mass. Previous studies investigating sweat setpoint reductions after intervention  
19 strategies have reported improvements ranging from  $-0.1$  to  $-0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Gonzalez et al., 1974; Nadel et  
20 al., 1974; Roberts et al., 1977; Havenith and Middendorp, 1986). Although these tests were used to  
21 evaluate the changes in sweat setpoint post intervention, they were undertaken using relative  
22 intensities and therefore may present inherent validity issues if tested between-independent groups  
23 of varying fitness levels and biophysical characteristics pre to post interventions. The large between-  
24 study differences are attributed to the nature and design of the intervention, i.e. training in  
25 temperate conditions (Nadel et al., 1974; Roberts et al., 1977), passive heat exposure (Nadel et al.,  
26 1974; Roberts et al., 1977) or a combination of training and heat acclimation (Nadel et al., 1974;  
27 Gonzalez et al., 1974; Roberts et al., 1977; Havenith and Middendorp, 1986). Furthermore, it may be  
28 suggested that for improvements in sweat setpoint post intervention to be meaningful they must be  
29 greater than the TEM ( $0.21^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) in this study when prescribing  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  intensities within- or between-  
30 groups. The intra-individual variability within chronic adaptations in thermosensitive variables, which  
31 determine heat acclimation state (signal) are largely dependent on measurement variability (signal  
32 to noise ratio) (Chevront et al., 2009). It has been observed that sweat onset is a more favourable,  
33 sensitive variable when measuring changes in thermosensitivity, as displayed within this study and

1 by a lower within-individual CV (9.6%) compared to sweat rate (22.3%) within Kenefick et al. (2012).  
2 However, the sensitivity of the HAST with  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  intensities after an intervention such as heat  
3 acclimation is still required.

#### 4 4.4 Sweat gain

5 To the authors' knowledge no previous studies report reliability data on sudomotor sensitivity,  
6 defined as the slope of the linear  $\dot{m}_{\text{sw}}-T_{\text{re}}$  relationship (Cheuvront et al., 2009). As opposed to sweat  
7 setpoint results, sweat gain presented poorer reliability ( $p = 0.40$ , TEM =  $0.09 \text{ g}\cdot\text{sec}^{-1}\cdot^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$ , CV = 28%  
8 and ICC = 0.72). These results are contributed by the sensitivity of sweat gland activity and sweat  
9 output (Kondo et al., 2001), and are dependent upon the responses towards the  $\Delta T_{\text{re}}$  while exercising  
10 at low and moderate  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  intensities. The variability in sudomotor function is displayed within the  
11 non-urine fluid loss comparisons in mean bias and CV during low intensity exercise within block 1 (22  
12 mL and 22%) and moderate intensity exercise within block 3 (4 mL and 10%). The appearance of  
13 heteroscedasticity and larger variations (CV = 28%) observed in the second criterion of heat  
14 acclimation state can also be attributed to the inter-individual variances in the  $\Delta T_{\text{re}}$  from pre to post  
15 exercise. The two indices of thermosensitivity that contribute to the calculation of sweat gain,  
16 presented smaller variability of 8.5% for total non-urine fluid loss, yet the  $\Delta T_{\text{re}}$  presented far higher  
17 variations of 24% between HASTs. Furthermore, it is evident that the reliability of  $T_{\text{re}}$  and non-urine  
18 fluid loss measures during each 30-min block improves as exercise intensity increases within the  
19 HAST, as opposed to the overall  $\Delta T_{\text{re}}$  from pre to post (Table 2). Therefore, the greater variability  
20 within sweat gain, appears to be a consequence of the sources of error associated with measuring  
21  $T_{\text{re}}$  pre to post exercise and the variability in non-urine fluid loss during earlier stages of the HAST, as  
22 the associated slow responses to thermal transients whilst using rectal temperatures (Sawka and  
23 Wenger, 1988) are presumed similar within-individuals between-trials.

#### 24 4.5 Mean average responses to incremental metabolic heat production intensities

25 It is recognised that large differences within study methodologies prevent direct comparisons,  
26 however, TEM (CV) for mean average HR during blocks 1, 2 and 3 were; 5 (4.9%), 6 (5.5%) and 8  
27  $\text{b}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$  (6.5%), are greater than those previously reported during submaximal exercise in temperate  
28 (6.1%, Wilmore et al., 1998), and hot (3.9% and 3%, Hayden et al., 2004 and Brokenshire et al., 2009,  
29 respectively) conditions. Moreover,  $\text{HR}_{\text{peak}}$  ( $10 \text{ b}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$  [7.1%]) was also greater than those reported  
30 ( $2 \text{ b}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$  [1%]) within a running heat tolerance test by Mee et al. (2015). This study presents low  
31 within-participant variability in physiological and perceptual responses towards incremental exercise  
32 intensities, set at a fixed rate of  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  relative to body mass, under hot-dry conditions. The peak

1 measures of  $T_{re}$ , HR, RPE and TSS, and overall non-urine fluid loss, known to change with  
2 interventions such as heat acclimation, presented high correlation coefficients ( $>0.7$ ) and low CV  
3 ( $<10\%$ ). Moreover, this was also observed for mean average  $T_{re}$ , HR and non-urine fluid loss during  
4 the individual blocks of increasing exercise intensities of 3, 4.5 and 6  $W \cdot kg^{-1}$  within the HAST.  
5 However, it must be acknowledged that some measures were more variable at lower intensities  
6 such as fluid loss, whereas mean average  $T_{re}$  remained consistent throughout. When testing within-  
7 or between-individuals, these responses would not be confounded by differences in protocol and  
8 therefore may be useful for practitioners investigating pre to post intervention changes in  
9 physiological and perceptual adaptations when changes in body mass or training status are  
10 expected.

#### 11 4.6 Inter-individual variances

12 Results from this study highlight a large range of inter-individual heat acclimation states, contributed  
13 by varied sudomotor function and thermoregulatory measures within the sample tested. Sweat  
14 setpoint ranged from 36.27 to 37.48°C, and sweat gain from 0.16 to 0.80  $g \cdot sec^{-1} \cdot ^\circ C^{-1}$ , which reflects  
15 inter-individual variability in thermosensitivity within a homogenous sample of similar fitness, age  
16 and anthropometric characteristics. The authors suggest these ranges in sweat setpoint and sweat  
17 gain may define ( $\pm 2.5\%$ ) low (37.5°C and 0.20  $g \cdot sec^{-1} \cdot ^\circ C^{-1}$ ) and high (36.3°C and 0.80  $g \cdot sec^{-1} \cdot ^\circ C^{-1}$ )  
18 acclimation states within similar populations. Therefore, such variances in HAST criteria and  
19 physiological responses, suggest exercise intensity when prescribed at a fixed rate of  $\dot{H}_{prod}$  and  
20 expressed relative to body mass, underpins and provides an equal physiological response to thermal  
21 stress without systematic differences, as similarly found by Cramer and Jay (2014).

#### 22 4.7 Limitations

23 The linear regression model to determine thermosensitivity and heat acclimation state criteria only  
24 includes three data points. Therefore, future studies should consider increasing the number of  
25 exercise bouts and associated data points to improve the robustness of heat acclimation state  
26 determination. In addition to adopting new methods of technical absorbent material or live  
27 ventilated capsule monitoring to determine local sweat rate. Furthermore, SE within both of the  
28 linear regression models presented larger variability in HAST 2 compared to HAST 1, which may have  
29 contributed to the variability observed in  $\Delta T_{re}$  and sweat gain measures. Variable sensitivity  
30 responses of sweat gland activity and output may inhibit the determination of sweat gain and sweat  
31 setpoint (Cheuvront et al., 2009), whilst using the linear regression model within this study. It has  
32 been observed that a late phase of sweating onset causes a biphasic and flatter slope, which may

1 display lower values for sweat setpoint, therefore warranting continuous monitoring of sudomotor  
2 function to better quantify thermosensitivity. Although the environmental conditions within this  
3 study appear uncompensable, where those with a larger aerobic capacity have distinct physiological  
4 advantages during exercise (Pandolf, 1979; Cheung and McLellan, 1998; Selkirk and McLellan, 2001;  
5 Selkirk et al., 2008), the population were of similar aerobic fitness and comparisons were made  
6 within-individuals, where results presented highly reliable measures. Furthermore, no correlations  
7 appear between fitness level and sweat setpoint ( $r = -0.1$ ) or sweat gain ( $r = 0.2$ ).

## 8 5. Conclusion

9 This study is the first to assess the reliability of a HAST which prescribes exercise intensity at a fixed  
10 rate of  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  relative to body mass. The  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  HAST appears reliable, presenting low typical error and  
11 good agreement for core temperature and sweat setpoint. Sweat gain however, shows far greater  
12 between-test variability which may further warrant the sole use of sweat setpoint when heat  
13 acclimation state is to be determined. This study also demonstrates the reliability and variability  
14 displayed within physiological and perceptual responses towards exercise of varying  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  intensities,  
15 although future studies are required to test the  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  HAST post intervention. While investigating  
16 sweat setpoint and thermoregulatory improvements after heat acclimation protocols, experimenters  
17 can be confident that an observed change above  $0.21^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $0.19^{\circ}\text{C}$ , respectively, are a result of the  
18 intervention and not error. This is applicable when healthy, moderately trained populations exercise  
19 within hot-dry conditions during a HAST, that is prescribed at a fixed rate of  $\dot{H}_{\text{prod}}$  relative to body  
20 mass.

1 6. References

- 2 Atkinson, G. and Nevill, A.M. (1998). Statistical methods for assessing measurement error (reliability)  
3 in variables relevant to sports medicine. *Sports Medicine* 26, 217-238.
- 4  
5 Borg, G. (1982). Psychophysical bases of perceived exertion. *Medicine and Science in Sports and*  
6 *Exercise*, 14 (5), pp. 377-381.
- 7 Bourdon, P. (2000). Blood lactate transition thresholds: concepts and controversies. In: Gore CJ, ed.  
8 *Physiological Tests for Elite Athletes*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics: 50–65.
- 9
- 10 Brengelmann, G. L., Savage, M. V., & Avery, D. H. (1994). Reproducibility of core temperature  
11 threshold for sweating onset in humans. *Journal of Applied Physiology*, 77(4), 1671-1677.
- 12 Brokenshire, C. S., Armstrong, N., & Williams, C. A. (2009). The reliability of adolescent  
13 thermoregulatory responses during a heat acclimation protocol. *Journal of sports science &*  
14 *medicine*, 8 (4), 689.
- 15 Cheung, S. S. and McLellan, T. M. (1998). Heat acclimation, aerobic fitness, and hydration effects on  
16 tolerance during uncompensable heat stress. *Journal of Applied Physiology*, 84 (5), 1731-1739.
- 17 Cheuvront, S. N., Bearden, S. E., Kenefick, R. W., Ely, B. R., DeGroot, D. W., Sawka, M. N., & Montain,  
18 S. J. (2009). A simple and valid method to determine thermoregulatory sweating threshold and  
19 sensitivity. *Journal of Applied Physiology*, 107(1), 69-75.
- 20 Cramer, M. N., and Jay, O. (2014). Selecting the correct exercise intensity for unbiased comparisons  
21 of thermoregulatory responses between groups of different mass and surface area. *Journal of*  
22 *Applied Physiology*, 116(9), 1123-1132.
- 23 Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence  
24 Erlbaum Associates.
- 25 Gagnon, D., Jay, O., Lemire, B., & Kenny, G. P. (2008). Sex-related differences in evaporative heat  
26 loss: the importance of metabolic heat production. *European journal of applied physiology*, 104(5),  
27 821-829.
- 28 Gibson, O. R., Mee, J. A., Tuttle, J. A., Taylor, L., Watt, P. W., and Maxwell, N. S. (2015a). Isothermic  
29 and fixed intensity heat acclimation methods induce similar heat adaptation following short and  
30 long-term timescales. *Journal of Thermal Biology*, 49, 55–65.



- 1 Gonzalez, R. R., Pandolf, K. B., and Gagge, A. P. (1974). Heat acclimation and decline in sweating  
2 during humidity transients. *Journal of applied physiology*, 36 (4), 419.
- 3 Hayden, G., Milne, H. C., Patterson, M. J., and Nimmo, M. A. (2004). The reproducibility of closed-  
4 pouch sweat collection and thermoregulatory responses to exercise–heat stress. *European journal of*  
5 *applied physiology*, 91(5-6), 748-751.
- 6 Hayes, M., Castle, P. C., Ross, E. Z., and Maxwell, N. S. (2014). The influence of hot humid and hot dry  
7 environments on intermittent-sprint exercise performance. *International journal of sports physiology*  
8 *and performance*, 9(3), 387-396.
- 9 Havenith, G., and van Middendorp, H. (1986). Determination of the individual state of  
10 acclimatization. Report Institute for Perception IZF 1986-27.
- 11 Havenith, G., and van Middendorp, H. (1990). The relative influence of physical fitness,  
12 acclimatization state, anthropometric measures and gender on individual reactions to heat  
13 stress. *European journal of applied physiology and occupational physiology*, 61 (5-6), 419-427.
- 14 Hopkins, W.G. (2000) Measures of Reliability in Sports Medicine and Science. *Sports Medicine* 30, 1-  
15 15.
- 16 James, C. A., Richardson, A. J., Watt, P. W., and Maxwell, N. S. (2014). Reliability and validity of skin  
17 temperature measurement by telemetry thermistors and a thermal camera during exercise in the  
18 heat. *Journal of thermal biology*, 45, 141-149.
- 19 Jay, O., Bain, A. R., Deren, T. M., Sacheli, M., and Cramer, M. N. (2011). Large differences in peak  
20 oxygen uptake do not independently alter changes in core temperature and sweating during  
21 exercise. *American Journal of Physiology-Regulatory, Integrative and Comparative Physiology*, 301  
22 (3), R832-R841.
- 23 Kenefick, R. W., Cheuvront, S. N., Elliott, L. D., Ely, B. R., and Sawka, M. N. (2012). Biological and  
24 analytical variation of the human sweating response: implications for study design and  
25 analysis. *American Journal of Physiology-Regulatory, Integrative and Comparative Physiology*, 302(2),  
26 R252-R258.
- 27 Kondo, N., Shibasaki, M., Aoki, K., Koga, S., Inoue, Y., and Crandall, C. G. (2001). Function of human  
28 eccrine sweat glands during dynamic exercise and passive heat stress. *Journal of Applied*  
29 *Physiology*, 90 (5), 1877-1881.

1 Lakens, D., (2013). Calculating and reporting effect sizes to facilitate cumulative science: a practical  
2 primer for t-tests and ANOVAs. *Frontiers in psychology*, 4, 863-874.

3 Mee, J. A., Doust, J., and Maxwell, N. S. (2015). Repeatability of a running heat tolerance  
4 test. *Journal of thermal biology*, 49, 91-97.

5 Mora-Rodriguez, R., Del Coso, J., Hamouti, N., Estevez, E., and Ortega, J. F. (2010). Aerobically  
6 trained individuals have greater increases in rectal temperature than untrained ones during exercise  
7 in the heat at similar relative intensities. *European journal of applied physiology*, 109(5), 973-981.

8 Nadel, E. R., Pandolf, K. B., Roberts, M. F., and Stolwijk, J. A. (1974). Mechanisms of thermal  
9 acclimation to exercise and heat. *Journal of Applied Physiology*, 37 (4), 515-520.

10 Nishi, Y. (1981). Measurement of thermal balance in man. In: *Bioengineering, Thermal Physiology*  
11 *and Comfort*, edited by Cena K and Clark J. New York, NY: Elsevier, p. 29–39.

12 Pandolf, K. B. (1979). Effects of physical training and cardiorespiratory physical fitness on exercise-  
13 heat tolerance: recent observations. *Medicine and Science in Sports* 11: 60–65.

14

15 Pandolf, K. B. (1998). Time course of heat acclimation and its decay. *International journal of sports*  
16 *medicine*, 19, S157-60.

17

18 Roberts, M. F., Wenger, C. B., Stolwijk, J. A. J., and Nadel, E. R. (1977). Skin blood flow and sweating  
19 changes following exercise training and heat acclimation. *J Appl Physiol* 43: 133–137.

20

21 Sawka, M. N., Burke, L. M., Eichner, E. R., Maughan, R. J., Montain, S. J., and Stachenfeld, N. S.  
22 (2007). American College of Sports Medicine position stand. Exercise and fluid  
23 replacement. *Medicine and science in sports and exercise*, 39 (2), 377-390.

24 Sawka, M. N., and Wenger, C. B. (1988). *Physiological responses to acute exercise-heat stress* (No.  
25 USARIEM-M-14/88). ARMY RESEARCH INST OF ENVIRONMENTAL MEDICINE NATICK MA.

26 Sawka, M. N., Leon, L. R., Montain, S. J., and Sonna, L. A. (2011). Integrated physiological  
27 mechanisms of exercise performance, adaptation, and maladaptation to heat stress. *Comprehensive*  
28 *Physiology*. 1:1883-1928.

29 Selkirk, G. A., and McLellan, T. M. (2001). Influence of aerobic fitness and body fatness on tolerance  
30 to uncompensable heat stress. *Journal of Applied Physiology*, 91(5), 2055-2063.

- 1 Selkirk, G. A., McLellan, T. M., Wright, H. E. and Rhind, S. G. (2008). Mild endotoxemia, NF-κB  
2 translocation, and cytokine increase during exertional heat stress in trained and untrained  
3 individuals. *American Journal of Physiology-Regulatory, Integrative and Comparative Physiology*, 295  
4 (2), R611-R623.
- 5 Toner, M. M., Drolet, L. L., and Pandolf, K. B. (1986). Perceptual and physiological responses during  
6 exercise in cool and cold water. *Perceptual and motor skills*, 62 (1), 211-220.
- 7 Wilmore, J.H., Stanforth, P.R., Turley, K.R., Gagnon, J., Daw, E.W., Leon, A.S., Rao, D.C., Skinner, J.S.  
8 and Bouchard, C. (1998). Reproducibility of cardiovascular, respiratory, and metabolic responses to  
9 submaximal exercise: The HERITAGE Family Study. *Medicine and science in sports and*  
10 *exercise*, 30(2), 259-265.
- 11

1 **Vitae**

2 **Mr Ashley Willmott**

3 Ash completed his BSc (Hons.) undergraduate degree in Sport and Exercise Science in 2012 at the  
4 University of Brighton. He continued his academic studies at the University by starting an MPhil in  
5 October 2012, which is examining the effects of short and long term heat acclimation protocols on  
6 the interplay between heat acclimation state, training status and inflammatory markers in hot and  
7 humid conditions. Ash is currently working within the Sport and Exercise Science Consultancy Unit  
8 (SESCU), undertaking physiology support to athletes and is an active member of British Association  
9 of Sport and Exercise Science (BASES).



10

11 **Dr Mark Hayes**

12 Mark studied a BSc (Hons.) Sport and Exercise Science Degree at the University of Brighton, before  
13 moving to a full-time lecturing position at Sussex Downs College, Eastbourne. Mark then returned to  
14 the University of Brighton as a lecturer in sport and exercise science in 2011, where he completed  
15 his PhD, entitled "*The effect of progressive heat acclimation on games players performing*  
16 *intermittent-sprint exercise in the heat*", in 2014. He teaches in the areas of sport and exercise  
17 physiology, environmental and expedition physiology, and was awarded one of the University of  
18 Brighton's Excellence in Facilitating and Empowering Learning Awards in 2013.

19



1 **Dr Jeanne Dekerle**

2 Jeanne's research interest is exercise tolerance with a particular focus on the power - endurance  
3 relationship, exercise intensity domains, training adaptations and neuromuscular fatigue. She has a  
4 publication record of over 30 peer reviewed papers in the area whether investigating exercise  
5 tolerance in cycle ergometry or in swimming. Jeanne's applied work in swimming physiology is  
6 internationally recognized with regular invitations to speak at several overseas conferences.

7



8

9 **Dr Neil S. Maxwell**

10 Neil joined the University of Brighton as a lecturer in sport and exercise science in 1997, where he  
11 lectures undergraduate and postgraduate students, predominantly in the areas of exercise and  
12 environmental physiology and research methods. Neil is research active, an approved higher degrees  
13 supervisor with MPhil/PhD completions and a bank of existing postgraduate research students. He  
14 has published extensively in the international, scientific literature in areas allied to thermal and  
15 hypoxic stress and how the body tolerates each, particularly during exercise. He also leads  
16 the Environmental Extremes Laboratory which sits within the Centre for Sport and Exercise Science  
17 and Medicine.

18

