



ELSEVIER

REVIEW

Physiological limits to exercise performance in the heat

Mark Hargreaves

Department of Physiology, The University of Melbourne, VIC 3010, Australia

Received 14 August 2006; received in revised form 25 May 2007; accepted 10 July 2007

KEYWORDS

Exercise physiology;
Heat stress

Summary Exercise in the heat results in major alterations in cardiovascular, thermoregulatory, metabolic and neuromuscular function. Hyperthermia appears to be the key determinant of exercise performance in the heat. Thus, strategies that attenuate the rise in core temperature contribute to enhanced exercise performance. These include heat acclimatization, pre-exercise cooling and fluid ingestion which have all been shown to result in reduced physiological and psychophysical strain during exercise in the heat and improved performance.

© 2007 Sports Medicine Australia. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Contents

Introduction.....	66
Physiological and metabolic factors in fatigue.....	67
Metabolism.....	67
Cardiovascular function and fluid balance.....	68
Central nervous system function and motor drive.....	68
Strategies to enhance exercise performance in the heat.....	69
Acclimatization.....	69
Pre-cooling.....	69
Fluid ingestion.....	69
References.....	70

Introduction

The increased metabolic heat production associated with strenuous exercise, in combination with impairment of heat dissipation by elevated

environmental temperature and/or humidity, creates a major physiological challenge for the exercising athlete. The eminent cardiovascular physiologist Loring Rowell stated that “*Perhaps the greatest stress ever imposed on the human cardiovascular system (except for severe hemorrhage) is the combination of exercise and hyperthermia. Together these stresses can present*

E-mail address: m.hargreaves@unimelb.edu.au.

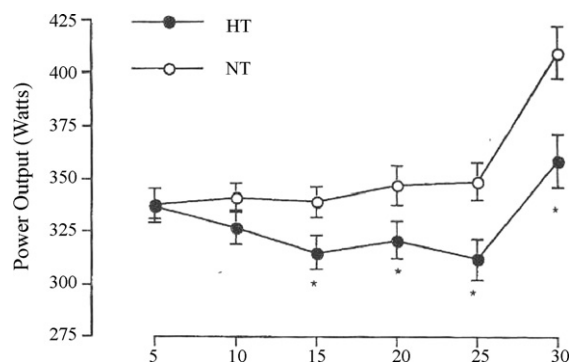


Figure 1 Power output during a 30 min cycling time trial at 32 °C (HT) or 23 °C (NT) in elite road cyclists. Values are means \pm S.E. ($n=11$). (*) Denotes different from NT, $P < 0.05$. From Tatterson et al. (2000).

life-threatening challenges, especially in highly motivated athletes who drive themselves to extremes in hot environments''.¹ Accordingly, exercise performance is reduced and the risk of heat injury is increased when environmental heat stress accompanies strenuous exercise. Laboratory-based studies have documented reduced endurance exercise capacity, as measured by time to fatigue,^{2,3} and performance (Fig. 1)⁴ under hot conditions. Furthermore, pre-exercise heating results in reduced endurance exercise tolerance.⁵ Similar heat-induced reductions in performance are observed during high intensity, sprint exercise.^{6,7} Fewer studies have been conducted under field conditions, but heat stress does contribute to reduced marathon running performance⁸ and a recent report suggested that marathon finishing times were increased by 2–3% when WBGT exceeded 20 °C.⁹

Physiological and metabolic factors in fatigue

There are potentially several physiological and metabolic factors contributing to the exaggerated fatigue experienced during exercise in the heat. These include alterations in energy metabolism, cardiovascular function and fluid balance, and central nervous system function and motor drive. While it is likely that they all contribute in some way, a common element in fatigue during exercise in the heat appears to be a critically high core temperature, perhaps secondary to an inability of a limited cardiac output to maintain cutaneous perfusion for heat loss.

Metabolism

Muscle glycogen depletion and hypoglycemia have long been associated with fatigue during prolonged, strenuous exercise. During exercise in the heat, the rate of muscle glycogen degradation is significantly increased (Fig. 2)^{3,10,11} with a concomitant increase in both carbohydrate oxidation and lactate accumulation. Mechanisms thought to be responsible for the enhanced muscle glycogenolysis include, but may not be limited to, elevated circulating adrenaline and increased muscle temperature.¹² There is an exaggerated hyperglycemia during exercise in the heat due to a greater liver glucose output, without any change in the exercise-induced increase in peripheral glucose uptake.¹³ Despite the greater mobilization and utilization of carbohydrate substrates during exercise, carbohydrate depletion is not the cause of fatigue during exercise in the heat since muscle glycogen stores remain high,³ and the total amount of carbohydrate oxi-

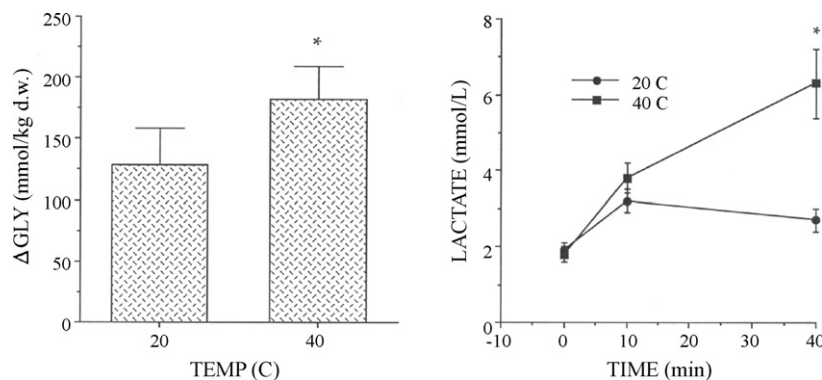


Figure 2 Net muscle glycogen utilisation (left panel) and blood lactate accumulation (right panel) during exercise at $\sim 70\%$ VO_2 peak in trained men at 20 and 40 °C. Values are means \pm S.E. ($n=6-13$). (*) Denotes different from 20 °C, $P < 0.05$. Data from Febbraio et al. (1994).

dized relatively low,¹⁴ when exercise is terminated. That said, increasing dietary carbohydrate intake is associated with enhanced exercise capacity in the heat, an outcome that cannot be explained by effects on either hyperthermia or substrate depletion.¹⁴ In addition, carbohydrate ingestion has also been shown to increase exercise capacity in the heat.¹⁵ In the absence of a clear metabolic explanation, these authors suggested that carbohydrate availability may have exerted ergogenic effects on the central nervous system. An important point to note is that while carbohydrate depletion may not directly contribute to fatigue during a single exercise bout in the heat, regular training on a daily basis in a hot environment, as might be undertaken to facilitate heat acclimatization, increases the reliance on carbohydrate reserves. Thus, athletes may need to increase their habitual dietary carbohydrate intake under such conditions to preserve their ability to continue hard training, although empirical evidence supporting such a suggestion is lacking.

Cardiovascular function and fluid balance

The major mechanism for heat loss during exercise in the heat is evaporation of sweat. This requires heat transfer to the skin via cutaneous vasodilation and the loss of fluid which, if not replaced, can result in dehydration. Skin blood flow at rest is increased markedly under hot conditions,¹ but the onset of exercise results in vasoconstriction. It has been suggested that the "circulatory conflict" between skin and active skeletal muscle during exercise in the heat results in reduced muscle blood flow;¹ however, this does not appear to be the case if exercise intensity and the degree of dehydration are not too severe.¹⁶ At high exercise intensities, heat stress accelerates the decline in stroke volume, cardiac output, muscle blood flow and oxygen delivery, thereby reducing maximal oxygen uptake.¹⁷ Furthermore, dehydration reduces stroke volume, cardiac output, mean arterial pressure¹⁸ and muscle blood flow¹⁹ and impairs the ability of athletes to tolerate hyperthermia.^{18,20} The combination of dehydration and hyperthermia has even greater negative effects.¹⁸ Thus, impaired central cardiovascular function with heat stress limits maximal exercise performance in the heat¹⁷ and contributes to the exaggerated hyperthermia during prolonged exercise with dehydration.¹⁹ The reduced blood flow observed during the latter stages of such exercise does not impair glucose or FFA delivery to, or lactate removal from, skeletal muscle²¹ and

although carbohydrate oxidation, muscle glycogen utilization and lactate production were increased, it was suggested that fatigue was due to hyperthermia rather than altered metabolism.²¹ Increases in core and skin temperatures to ~38 °C result in a leveling off in cutaneous blood flow,^{1,5} thereby reducing the ability for heat dissipation. In the face of ongoing skeletal muscle vasodilation, this reflects an inability of the cardiovascular system to simultaneously maintain arterial blood pressure and cutaneous vasodilation. As mentioned, with maximal exercise¹⁷ or dehydration during prolonged, submaximal exercise¹⁹ this cardiovascular limitation results in reduced skeletal muscle perfusion which may also contribute to the development of fatigue.

Central nervous system function and motor drive

Observations that fatigue during exercise in the heat is associated with attainment of a so-called "critical" level of body core temperature have led to suggestions that hyperthermia may be acting via effects on the central nervous system and motor activation. Such an hypothesis is teleologically appealing since a reduction in motor drive (and therefore exercise intensity) slows the rate of metabolic heat production. It has been demonstrated that both exercise-induced²² and passive²³ hyperthermia reduce force during sustained maximal voluntary contractions (MVC), effects that appear to be mediated by both "central fatigue" and temperature-related changes in muscle contractile properties.²³ The reduction in force production was not observed during brief MVCs, suggesting that hyperthermia may affect the ability to maintain voluntary activation.²³ There is evidence of neuromuscular fatigue during prolonged cycling exercise in the heat²⁴ and the power output during self-paced exercise is reduced when environmental temperature is increased (Fig. 1)^{4,25} Interestingly, body core temperatures during exercise were similar in the cool and hot trials, suggesting complex regulation and integration of the thermoregulatory and motor control systems. Indeed, a recent study has proposed that the rate of heat storage, possibly with input from skin and blood thermoreceptors, contributes to such regulation, thereby ensuring that exercise intensity is adjusted so as to prevent excessive heat production and accumulation under hot conditions.²⁶ Understanding the complex neural mechanisms underlying such regulation is a significant challenge for the future. There are a number

of changes in cerebral perfusion and metabolism and brain EEG activity that accompany fatigue during exercise-induced hyperthermia, although causal relationships are not well defined.²⁷ Hyperprolactinemia during exercise in the heat provides indirect evidence of the potential involvement of central serotonergic activity in the aetiology of fatigue under these conditions.²⁸ Furthermore, administration of a dopamine/noradrenaline reuptake inhibitor enhanced exercise performance in warm conditions.²⁹ Collectively, these studies implicate altered central nervous system function in hyperthermia-induced fatigue. Agents that alter the perception of fatigue may exert ergogenic effects via these mechanisms; however, they may also oppose inhibitory signals arising from hyperthermia and increase the risk of heat injury. Was the death of British cyclist Tom Simpson on the ascent of Mt. Ventoux in the 1967 Tour de France perhaps the terrible consequence of amphetamine-mediated inhibition of signals that might have otherwise prevented the development of fatal hyperthermia?

Strategies to enhance exercise performance in the heat

Since hyperthermia appears to be the major factor in fatigue during strenuous exercise in the heat, the primary goal of strategies to enhance exercise performance should be to attenuate the rise in body core temperature. Effective strategies include acclimatization, pre-cooling and fluid ingestion.

Acclimatization

Repeated bouts of exercise in a hot environment result in a number of physiological and metabolic adaptations that are associated with improved exercise performance.³⁰ These include an expanded plasma volume, increased stroke volume and cardiac output and enhanced sweat rate and sensitivity during exercise in the heat.³⁰ Muscle glycogen use during exercise in the heat is reduced following heat acclimatization,^{10,31} as a consequence of lower core temperature and plasma adrenaline levels.¹⁰ Interestingly, the rate of rise in core temperature during exercise in the heat was similar before and after acclimatization in trained subjects³⁰ and the increased exercise time to fatigue, which corresponded with attainment of a similar core temperature, was due to a reduction in resting body temperature.

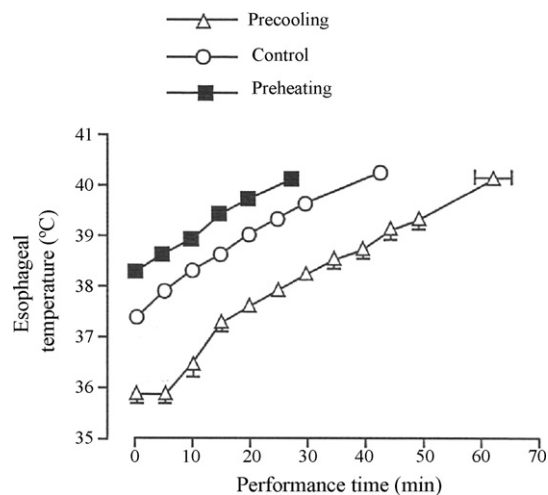


Figure 3 Esophageal temperature relative to cycling exercise time at 60% VO_2 max in trained men at 40°C following no intervention (control), precooling or preheating. Values are means \pm S.E. ($n=7$). Data from González-Alonso et al. (1999a) and reproduced from Coyle (1999).

Pre-cooling

Given the observation of reduced core temperature at rest following heat acclimatization and the concomitant increase in capacity for heat storage, it might be expected that cooling interventions that lower core temperature could increase exercise tolerance in the heat. Indeed, this has been shown to be the case in a number of studies (Fig. 3)^{5,32–34}. The benefits of pre-cooling include reductions in thermal, cardiovascular and psychophysical strain that all contribute to improved performance. Based on studies like these, many athletes engaged in strenuous exercise have adopted cooling strategies, notably cooling vests, to reduce thermal stress.

Fluid ingestion

The loss of body fluid due to sweating results in dehydration which has negative effects on cardiovascular, thermoregulatory and metabolic function, increasing the development of fatigue during exercise in the heat (see above). Ingestion of fluids is an effective strategy to attenuate many of these negative consequences of dehydration.³⁵ The inclusion of carbohydrate in rehydration beverages may provide additional benefits.¹⁵ The physiological benefits of fluid intake appear to be proportional to the volume ingested³⁶ and athletes are encouraged to replace fluids up to, but not exceeding, their sweating rate. In practical terms, this may be difficult due to large sweat losses, variations in gastrointestinal motility and fluid bioavailability and

access to appropriate fluids. There is debate as to whether “full” fluid replacement is necessary or even desirable.³⁷ Most studies examining the benefits of fluid ingestion on physiological and metabolic function have been laboratory-based and while they provide valuable insight, direct extrapolation to all athletic conditions in the field may be difficult. In a recent study there was no relationship between fluid intake and core temperature during outdoor running³⁸ and it has been observed that successful athletes are often significantly dehydrated at the end of endurance events.³⁷ That said, there is compelling evidence that fluid ingestion “ad libitum” enhances endurance exercise performance; whether ingestion of larger volumes is required in outdoor settings is contested.³⁷ Excessive over drinking resulting in an increase in body mass during exercise should be avoided since this can result in hyponatremia, a potentially fatal condition. Given these considerations, it is essential for athletes to develop drinking strategies that maximise physiological benefits, but prevent overhydration.

References

- Rowell LB. *Human circulation: regulation during physical stress*. New York: Oxford University Press; 1986.
- Galloway SDR, Maughan RJ. Effects of ambient temperature on the capacity to perform prolonged cycle exercise in man. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 1997;**29**:1240–9.
- Parkin JM, Carey MF, Zhao S, et al. Effect of ambient temperature on human skeletal muscle metabolism during fatiguing submaximal exercise. *J Appl Physiol* 1999;**86**:902–8.
- Tattersson AJ, Hahn AG, Martin DT, et al. Effects of heat stress on physiological responses and exercise performance in elite cyclists. *J Sci Med Sport* 2000;**3**:186–93.
- González-Alonso J, Teller C, Andersen SL, et al. Influence of body temperature on the development of fatigue during prolonged exercise in the heat. *J Appl Physiol* 1999;**86**:1032–9.
- Drust B, Rasmussen P, Mohr M, et al. Elevations in core and muscle temperature impairs repeated sprint performance. *Acta Physiol Scand* 2005;**183**:181–90.
- Morris JG, Nevill ME, Boobis LH, et al. Muscle metabolism, temperature, and function during prolonged, intermittent, high-intensity running in air temperatures of 33 and 17 °C. *Int J Sports Med* 2005;**26**:805–14.
- Trapasso LM, Cooper JD. Record performances at the Boston Marathon: biometeorological factors. *Int J Biometeorol* 1989;**33**:233–7.
- Ely MR, Chevront SN, Roberts WO, et al. Impact of weather on marathon-running performance. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2007;**39**:487–93.
- Febbraio MA, Snow RJ, Hargreaves M, et al. Muscle metabolism during exercise and heat stress in trained men: effect of acclimation. *J Appl Physiol* 1994;**76**:589–97.
- Fink WJ, Costill DL, Van Handel PJ. Leg muscle metabolism during exercise in the heat and cold. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 1975;**34**:183–90.
- Febbraio MA. Alterations in energy metabolism during exercise and heat stress. *Sports Med* 2001;**31**:47–59.
- Hargreaves M, Angus D, Howlett K, et al. Effect of heat stress on glucose kinetics during exercise. *J Appl Physiol* 1996;**81**:1594–7.
- Pitsiladis YP, Maughan RJ. The effects of exercise and diet manipulation on the capacity to perform prolonged exercise in the heat and in the cold in trained humans. *J Physiol* 1999;**517**:919–30.
- Carter J, Jeukendrup AE, Mundel T, et al. Carbohydrate supplementation improves moderate and high-intensity exercise in the heat. *Pflügers Arch* 2003;**446**:211–9.
- Nielsen B, Savard G, Richter EA, et al. Muscle blood flow and muscle metabolism during exercise and heat stress. *J Appl Physiol* 1990;**69**:1040–6.
- González-Alonso J, Calbet JAL. Reduction in systemic and skeletal muscle blood flow and oxygen delivery limit maximal aerobic capacity in humans. *Circulation* 2003;**107**:824–30.
- González-Alonso J, Mora-Rodríguez R, Below PR, et al. Dehydration markedly impairs cardiovascular function in hyperthermic endurance athletes during exercise. *J Appl Physiol* 1997;**82**:1229–36.
- González-Alonso J, Calbet JAL, Nielsen B. Muscle blood flow is reduced with dehydration during prolonged exercise in humans. *J Physiol* 1998;**513**:895–905.
- Sawka MN, Young AJ, Latzka WA, et al. Human tolerance to heat strain during exercise: influence of hydration. *J Appl Physiol* 1992;**73**:368–75.
- González-Alonso J, Calbet JAL, Nielsen B. Metabolic and thermodynamic responses to dehydration-induced reductions in muscle blood flow in exercising humans. *J Physiol* 1999;**520**:577–89.
- Nybo L, Nielsen B. Hyperthermia and central fatigue during prolonged exercise in humans. *J Appl Physiol* 2001;**91**:1055–60.
- Todd G, Butler JE, Taylor JL, et al. Hyperthermia: a failure of the motor cortex and the muscle. *J Physiol* 2005;**563**:621–31.
- Kay D, Marino FE, Cannon J, et al. Evidence for neuromuscular fatigue during high-intensity cycling in warm, humid conditions. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 2001;**84**:115–21.
- Tucker R, Rauch L, Harley YXR, et al. Impaired exercise performance in the heat is associated with an anticipatory reduction in skeletal muscle recruitment. *Pflügers Arch* 2004;**448**:422–30.
- Tucker R, Marle T, Lambert EV, et al. The rate of heat storage mediates an anticipatory reduction in exercise intensity during cycling at a fixed rating of perceived exertion. *J Physiol* 2006;**574**:905–15.
- Nielsen B, Nybo L. Cerebral changes during exercise in the heat. *Sports Med* 2003;**33**:1–11.
- Pitsiladis YP, Strachan AT, Davison I, et al. Hyperprolactinaemia during prolonged exercise in the heat: evidence for a centrally mediated component of fatigue in trained cyclists. *Exp Physiol* 2002;**87**:215–26.
- Watson P, Hasegawa H, Roelands B, et al. Acute dopamine/noradrenaline reuptake inhibition enhances human exercise performance in warm, but not temperate conditions. *J Physiol* 2005;**565**:873–83.
- Nielsen B, Hales JRS, Strange S, et al. Human circulatory and thermoregulatory adaptations with heat acclimation and exercise in a hot, dry environment. *J Physiol* 1993;**460**:467–85.
- King DS, Costill DL, Fink WJ, et al. Muscle metabolism during exercise in the heat in unacclimatized and acclimatized humans. *J Appl Physiol* 1985;**59**:1350–4.

32. Booth J, Marino F, Ward JJ. Improved running performance in hot humid conditions following whole body precooling. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 1997;**29**:943–9.
33. Cotter JD, Sleivert GG, Roberts WS, et al. Effect of pre-cooling, with and without thigh cooling, on strain and endurance exercise performance in the heat. *Comp Biochem Physiol Part A* 2001;**128**:667–77.
34. Lee DT, Haymes EM. Exercise duration and thermoregulatory responses after whole body precooling. *J Appl Physiol* 1995;**79**:1971–6.
35. Hamilton M, González-Alonso J, Montain SJ, et al. Fluid replacement and glucose infusion during exercise prevent cardiovascular drift. *J Appl Physiol* 1991;**71**:871–7.
36. Montain SJ, Coyle EF. Influence of graded dehydration on hyperthermia and cardiovascular drift during exercise. *J Appl Physiol* 1992;**73**:1340–50.
37. Noakes TD. Drinking guidelines for exercise: what evidence is there that athletes should drink “as much as tolerable”, “to replace the weight loss during exercise” or “ad libitum”? *J Sports Sci* 2007;**25**:781–96.
38. Byrne C, Lee JKW, Chew SAN, et al. Continuous thermoregulatory response to mass-participation distance running in the heat. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 2006;**38**:803–10.
39. Coyle EF. Physiological determinants of endurance exercise performance. *J Sci Med Sport* 1999;**2**:181–9.

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com

