

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25

Evaporative heat loss insufficient to attain heat balance at rest in individuals with a spinal cord injury at high ambient temperature

Griggs KE^{1,2}, Havenith G³, Price MJ⁴ and Goosey-Tolfrey VL^{1,*}.

¹Peter Harrison Centre for Disability Sport, School of Sport, Exercise and Health Sciences, Loughborough University, Loughborough, UK

²Department of Engineering, School of Science and Technology, Nottingham Trent University, Nottingham, UK

³Environmental Ergonomics Research Centre, Design School, Loughborough University, Loughborough, UK

⁴School of Life Sciences, Centre for Sport, Exercise and Life Sciences, Coventry University, Coventry, UK

***Corresponding author:** Prof Victoria L. Goosey-Tolfrey

Peter Harrison Centre for Disability Sport
School of Sport, Exercise and Health Sciences
National Centre for Sport and Exercise Science
Loughborough University
Loughborough

LE11 3TU

Email: v.l.tolfrey@lboro.ac.uk

Telephone: 01509 226386

26

27 **Running head**

28 Evaporative heat loss insufficient to attain heat balance

29 **ABSTRACT**

30 The aim of the study was to determine whether climatic limits for achieving heat balance at
31 rest are affected by spinal cord injury (SCI). Twenty-three males (8 able-bodied (AB), 8 with
32 paraplegia (PP) and 7 with tetraplegia (TP)) rested in 37°C and 20% relative humidity (RH)
33 for 20 mins. With the ambient temperature held constant, RH was increased by 5% every 7
34 mins, until gastrointestinal temperature (T_{gi}) showed a clear inflection or increased by $>1^{\circ}\text{C}$.
35 T_{gi} , skin temperatures, perceptual responses and metabolic energy expenditure were measured
36 throughout. Metabolic heat production (AB: 123 (21) W, PP: 111 (15) W, TP: 103 (29) W) and
37 required rate of evaporative cooling for heat balance (E_{req} , AB: 113 (20) W, PP: 107 (17) W,
38 TP: 106 (29) W) were similar between groups ($p = 0.22$ and $p = 0.79$). Compared to AB, greater
39 increases in T_{gi} were observed in TP ($p = 0.01$), with notable increases in mean skin temperature
40 (T_{sk}) for TP and PP ($p = 0.01$). A T_{gi} inflection point was demonstrated by 7 AB, only 3 out of
41 8 PP and none of TP. Despite metabolic heat production (and E_{req}) being similar between
42 groups evaporative heat loss was not large enough to obtain heat balance in TP, linked to a
43 shortfall in evaporative cooling potential. Although PP possess a greater sweating capacity, the
44 continual increase in T_{gi} and T_{sk} , in most PP, while lower than for TP, implies that latent heat
45 loss for PP is also insufficient to attain heat balance.

46 **NEW AND NOTEWORTHY**

47 In the absence of convective heat loss, at temperatures around 37°C, evaporative heat loss is
48 insufficient to attain heat balance at rest in individuals with paraplegia and tetraplegia. This
49 finding was directly linked to a shortfall in evaporative cooling potential compared to required
50 evaporative cooling. In this environment, both individuals with paraplegia and tetraplegia

51 cannot subjectively determine the magnitude of their thermal strain, thus perceptual responses
52 should not be relied upon for this population group.

53

54 **Keywords:** Tetraplegia, Paraplegia, Heat Balance, Passive Heat, Heat loss

55

56 **INTRODUCTION**

57 To prevent an accumulation of heat within the body and maintain a stable core temperature
58 (T_{core}), individuals primarily rely on evaporative heat loss in warm and hot environments. Over
59 a wide range of environments, T_{core} is able to equilibrate at levels proportional to metabolic
60 rate known as the “prescriptive zone” (27), whilst being independent of ambient conditions. At
61 thermal environments above this prescriptive zone T_{core} is forced out of equilibrium resulting
62 in a continuous rise in T_{core} and the attainment of a critical environmental limit (23).

63

64 Individuals with a spinal cord injury (SCI) have a complete or partial loss of central control of
65 the sympathetic nervous system, resulting in a loss of sweating capacity and vasomotor control
66 below the lesion level. The higher the lesion level the smaller the body surface area of sensate
67 skin (14, 29) resulting in a reduction in sweating capacity and hence evaporative heat loss
68 potential. Most of the SCI literature investigating thermoregulation has involved exercise.
69 Although these studies, typically using upper body exercise, have not matched heat production
70 between groups, the premise of the exercise used within these studies was to replicate sporting
71 scenarios or provide an appropriate exercise stimulus for this population group (13, 33, 34).
72 However, to gain a deeper understanding of the effects an SCI has on heat dissipation, studies
73 need to be conducted at rest too (i.e. removing the additional metabolic heat production from
74 exercise), in environments considered compensable for the able-bodied (AB).

75

76 The lesion level of an individual with an SCI, determining the amount of remaining
77 sympathetic innervation, is likely to play an important role in the dissipation of heat through
78 sweating and the subsequent attainment of heat balance. An impairment or loss of motor and/or
79 sensory function of the cervical segments of the spinal cord results in tetraplegia (TP).
80 Whereas, an impairment or loss of motor and/or sensory function of the thoracic, lumbar or
81 sacral segments of the spinal cord results in paraplegia (PP). Both individuals with PP and TT
82 have a lower body surface area of sensate skin than AB individuals, with the amount of sensate
83 skin related to an individual's lesion level. Thus, TP have a lower body surface area of sensate
84 skin than PP. While all groups may be able to attain heat balance within a "prescriptive zone",
85 it is expected that PP and TP may reach a critical thermal environmental limit prior to AB, i.e.
86 a leftward shift in temperature and/or relative humidity (RH) of the prescriptive zone, with the
87 size of the shift related to their lesion level.

88

89 The aim of this study was to determine the effect the lesion level of an SCI has on the attainment
90 of a critical environmental limit. Experimental sessions were conducted at rest, in hot
91 conditions (37°C) using a stepwise increase in RH, based on the experimental design of
92 previous studies (5, 21–23). The experimental design aimed to minimise heat loss from dry
93 heat loss by removing the skin to air temperature gradient and then progressively reducing the
94 water vapour pressure gradient from the skin to the environment, increasing the thermal stress
95 of the environment and hindering evaporative heat loss. Based on sweat rate capacity data from
96 pilot work, all groups were expected to have sufficient thermoregulatory capacity in the climate
97 chosen as the starting point of the protocol. It was hypothesised that critical environmental
98 limits would occur at high RH for AB. Whereas, in individuals with PP and TP it was
99 hypothesised that heat balance would be attained initially but a critical environmental limit

100 would be reached prior to AB, with TP potentially experiencing a continual increase in T_{core}
101 from the early stages of the protocol.

102 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

103 *Participants.* Twenty-three recreationally active male participants, consisting of eight AB
104 individuals, eight individuals with PP (T3-T12) and seven individuals with TP (C5/6-C6/7)
105 volunteered for the study. In PP, five had complete and three had incomplete injuries, whilst
106 in TP two had complete and five had incomplete injuries (Table 1). An individual with a
107 complete injury has no motor and/or sensory function preserved in the lowest sacral segments
108 of the spinal cord (S4-S5), whilst a motor or sensory incomplete injury refers to the
109 preservation of motor and/or sensory function in the lowest sacral segments (S4-S5, (24)).
110 Health and heat tolerance questionnaires were completed by all participants. All procedures
111 were approved by the University Ethical Advisory Committee and conformed to the
112 principles defined in the Declaration of Helsinki. Participants were fully informed of the
113 experimental protocols before providing written consent to participate.

114 *Insert Table 1 here*

115 *Procedures.* Participants were instructed to refrain from alcohol, caffeine and strenuous
116 exercise 24 h prior to testing. All trials were conducted at the same time of day to negate
117 circadian variation. Prior to arrival at the laboratory, participants ingested a telemetric pill (HQ
118 Inc, Palmetto, Florida), for the measurement of gastrointestinal temperature (T_{gi}), 6-8 hours
119 prior to experimental sessions to avoid the influence of ingested food or fluid on the
120 temperature reading, in accordance with previous recommendations (6).

121

122 Upon arrival at the laboratory, skinfold measurements (Harpenden Skinfold Callipers, Baty
123 International, West Sussex, UK) were taken from the biceps, triceps, subscapular and

124 suprailliac sites to calculate a sum of skinfolds (mm). Body fat percentage, using the Durnin
125 and Wormsley four site method, plus fat and fat free mass were calculated using age dependent
126 equations (9). To standardise clothing, all participants were given a pair of shorts and a short-
127 sleeved t-shirt to wear during testing. Participants wore their own socks and sports shoes, with
128 an estimated clo value of 0.4 for the overall clothing ensemble (including wheelchair). Prior to
129 instrumentation, euhydration was confirmed for all participants (urine specific gravity <1.025,
130 Meta Scientific Ltd, Surrey, UK) and participants were weighed (Mettler Toledo KCC 150,
131 Leicester, UK, accuracy ± 5 g, resolution 1g) before entering the climatic chamber (T.I.S.S.
132 Peak Performance, Series 2009).

133

134 Skin temperature was measured throughout the protocol at 10 sites using iButtons (DS1922T,
135 Maxim Integrated Products, Inc., Sunnyvale, CA, USA), which were applied to the forehead
136 and on the right side of the body at the forearm, upper arm, chest, abdomen, upper back, thigh,
137 calf, hand and foot. Mean skin temperature (T_{sk}) was calculated in accordance with the formula
138 by Ramanathan (35).

139

140 During the protocol, PP and TP remained in their own daily wheelchair, whilst AB remained
141 seated in a similar wheelchair provided. The climatic chamber was initially set at 37°C and
142 20% RH (water vapour pressure in the ambient air (P_a) = 1.26 kPa). Participants were
143 informed that the RH would increase during the protocol but were not told the initial starting
144 RH or when the RH was being increased. Participants sat for an initial 20 min stabilisation
145 period, after which the RH was increased by 5% steps ($\Delta P_a = 0.314$ kPa) every 7 minutes,
146 whilst the ambient temperature was kept constant (37.2°C \pm 0.2°C throughout all trials). By
147 the end of the 7 minutes the climatic chamber had just reached the desired humidity resulting
148 in a steady ramp in humidity. Air velocity was measured as 0.12 \pm 0.07 m·s⁻¹ throughout all

149 trials. Based on sweat rate capacity data from pilot work, all groups were expected to have
150 sufficient thermoregulatory capacity during the stabilisation period. The ambient temperature
151 and RH inside the climatic chamber were measured next to the participant (Testo 435, Testo
152 AG, Germany). Participants were withdrawn from the climatic chamber after a clear
153 inflection point in T_{gi} had been observed (critical RH limit, (26)), or T_{gi} increased by 1°C
154 from the initial value upon entering the chamber (Figure 1).

155 *Insert Figure 1*

156 Heart rate (HR, Polar PE 4000, Kempele Finland) and T_{gi} were measured throughout.
157 Perceptual measures of thermal comfort, thermal sensation and wetness sensation were taken
158 during the last minute of each step increase in RH. The thermal sensation scale comprised of
159 categories ranging from 0 (“unbearably cold”) to 8 (“unbearably hot”) in 0.5 increments (42).
160 The thermal comfort scale ranged from 1 (“comfortable”) to 4 (“very uncomfortable”) in
161 increments of 1 (12). The wetness sensation scale ranged from 0 (“dry”) to 6 (“dripping wet”)
162 in increments of 1 (modified scale from (15)).

163 *Fluid balance.* Participants could drink water *ad libitum*, except during the last minute of each
164 7 min stage to prevent interference with respiratory measures. Fluid consumption was recorded
165 and was kept at the same temperature of the chamber to prevent any cooling effect of the fluid
166 on the participant. Upon removal from the climatic chamber and towel drying their skin, if
167 required, participants were re-weighed and provided another urine sample, which was analysed
168 for urine specific gravity. The towel was subsequently weighed and any sweat trapped in the
169 towel added to the participant’s end weight. Sweat loss was adjusted for respiratory mass loss
170 (Table 3). In addition to the percentage change in body mass ($(\text{Mass}_{\text{pre}} - \text{Mass}_{\text{post}}) /$
171 $\text{Mass}_{\text{pre}} \cdot 100$), the change in body mass adjusted for fluid consumed (total mass loss) was also
172 calculated ($(\text{Mass}_{\text{pre}} - \text{Mass}_{\text{post}}) + \text{fluid consumed}$).

173 *Ventilatory data and heat balance calculations.* Expired gas was recorded continuously
 174 throughout the test using a calibrated online gas analysis system in breath by breath mode
 175 (Metamax, Cortex Biophysik GmbH, Leipzig, Germany). Saturated water vapour pressure
 176 (P_{sa}), saturated skin vapour pressure (P_{sk}) and P_a were calculated using the following equations
 177 (30).

$$P_{sa}(kPa) = \frac{e^{(18.956 - (4030.18 \div T_a + 235))}}{10} \quad (1)$$

$$P_{sk}(kPa) = \frac{e^{(18.956 - (4030.18 \div T_{sk} + 235))}}{10} \quad (2)$$

$$P_a(kPa) = (\Phi \cdot 0.01) \cdot P_{sa} \quad (3)$$

178 Where: T_a is the ambient temperature ($^{\circ}C$) and Φ is the relative humidity.

179 Metabolic energy expenditure (M) was obtained from minute-average values for $\dot{V}O_2$ in litres
 180 per minute and respiratory exchange ratio (RER) collected with the metabolic cart. Metabolic
 181 energy expenditure was calculated using the equation below:

$$M (W) = \dot{V}O_2 \frac{\left(\frac{RER - 0.7 \cdot e_c}{0.3}\right) + \left(\frac{1 - RER \cdot e_f}{0.3}\right)}{60} \cdot 1000 \quad (4)$$

182 Where: e_c is the caloric equivalent per litre of oxygen for the oxidation of carbohydrates (21.13
 183 kJ), and e_f is the caloric equivalent per litre of oxygen for the oxidation of fat (19.62 kJ). Since
 184 the rate of external work (W) was assumed to be zero (i.e. any work on surrounding objects
 185 was negligible), metabolic heat production ($M-W$) was taken to be equal to metabolic energy
 186 expenditure. Dry heat exchange (radiative (R) and convective (C)), evaporative (E_{res}) and
 187 convective respiratory heat exchange (C_{res}) and required rate of evaporative cooling (E_{req}) were
 188 calculated using the following equations. E_{res} enabled the calculation of mass loss via the
 189 respiratory system (M_{res}).

$$\text{Dry (W)} = \frac{T_{sk} - T_a}{I_{cl} + \left(\frac{f_{cl}}{h_c + h_r}\right)} \cdot \text{BSA} \quad (5)$$

$$f_{cl} = 1.0 + 0.31 \cdot I_{cl} \quad (6)$$

$$C_{res} + E_{res} \text{ (W)} = (0.0014 \cdot M \cdot (34 - T_a) + 0.0173 \cdot M \cdot (5.87 - P_a)) \quad (7)$$

$$M_{res} \text{ (g} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}\text{)} = E_{res} \cdot \frac{3600}{2430} \quad (8)$$

$$E_{req} \text{ (W)} = M - W - (C + R + C_{res} + E_{res}) \quad (9)$$

190 Where: I_{cl} is the intrinsic clothing insulation (estimated to be 0.4 clo) and f_{cl} is the clothing area
 191 factor, which is the ratio of the clothed surface area of the body to the nude surface area of the
 192 body. h_c is the convective heat transfer coefficient (estimated at $3.1 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1}$ when air velocity
 193 is less than $0.2 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$), (28) and h_r is the radiative heat transfer coefficient (estimated at 4.7
 194 $\text{W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1}$) for typical indoor conditions, (1). Body surface area (BSA) was calculated using
 195 the Dubois formula (8).

196

197 *Statistical analyses.* All data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences
 198 (version 19, SPSS Chicago, IL) and are presented as mean (SD). An *a priori* power analysis,
 199 conducted in G*Power 3.1, revealed a minimum sample size of 6 participants was required per

200 group, with 90% power and an α of 5%, based on findings from (31). Given the heterogeneity
201 of the population group, additional participants were recruited to increase statistical power.

202

203 Delta HR, T_{gi} , T_{sk} and individual skin temperatures were calculated as the change from the last
204 minute of the 20 min stabilisation period. Statistical analysis was conducted for repeated
205 measures up to 65% RH ($n = 23$), thereafter several participants from PP and TP were removed
206 due to a $\geq 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ change in T_{gi} or the participant had reached a critical RH limit. To account for
207 the reduced number of participants tested at 70-90% RH, predicted lines were calculated for
208 the change in T_{gi} and T_{sk} to indicate the expected trend (Figure 2). To calculate the predicted
209 delta data the difference between each time point for each remaining individual were
210 calculated. The average differences for each time point were then added to the previous time
211 point to estimate data points for 70-90% RH where dropouts were present. For ventilatory data
212 and the heat balance calculations, data from two AB participants were excluded due to missing
213 data as a result of equipment error.

214

215 For all groups a critical RH was determined graphically from the raw data. A line was drawn
216 between the data points of T_{gi} starting from an initial equilibrium phase. When the T_{gi} slope
217 started to deviate upward from the equilibrium slope, a second line was drawn from the point
218 of deviation from the first line. The RH before the point at which the second line deviated from
219 the first was defined as the critical RH, a method previously used in (23).

220 Distribution and normality of data were assessed using the Shapiro–Wilk test. For data
221 violating normality and homogeneity assumptions, logarithmic or square-root conversions
222 were applied. For one way analysis of variance (ANOVA), if these conversions failed to correct
223 the skew and heterogeneity, a Kruskal-Wallis test was used. To analyse any between group
224 differences at both the start and at 65% RH a one way ANOVA was used, whilst for between

225 group differences during the protocol a mixed method ANOVA was used. Where significance
226 was obtained, post hoc pairwise comparisons with a Bonferroni correction were conducted.
227 Main effects and interactions were accepted as statistically significant when $p \leq 0.05$. A main
228 effect of time corresponded to a step increase in RH. Confidence intervals (95% CI) for
229 differences are presented, alongside effect sizes (ES) to supplement significant findings. Effect
230 sizes were calculated as the ratio of the mean difference to the pooled standard deviation of the
231 difference. The magnitude of the ES was classed as trivial (<0.2), small (0.2–0.6), moderate
232 (0.6–1.2), large (1.2–2.0) and very large (≥ 2.0) based on previous guidelines (4).

233

234 **RESULTS**

235 *Participant characteristics.* Individuals with PP were older than both AB and TP ($p < 0.01$).
236 Compared to AB, sum of skinfolds and percentage body fat were greater in PP and TP ($p \leq$
237 0.04), whilst fat mass was greater ($p < 0.001$) and fat free mass smaller ($p = 0.04$) in PP.

238

239 *Thermoregulatory responses.* No significant differences in T_{gi} between groups were observed
240 at the start ($p = 0.18$, AB: 37.22 (0.29) $^{\circ}$ C, PP: 36.91 (0.40) $^{\circ}$ C and TP: 37.23 (0.45) $^{\circ}$ C) or
241 during the 20 min stabilisation period ($p = 0.08$). The change in T_{gi} during the last 5 minutes
242 of the stabilisation period was not significantly different between groups ($p = 0.26$, AB: 0.03
243 (0.03) $^{\circ}$ C, PP: 0.06 (0.06) $^{\circ}$ C and TP: 0.05 (0.03) $^{\circ}$ C). Absolute T_{gi} at 65% RH was
244 significantly cooler in AB (37.43 (0.25) $^{\circ}$ C, $p < 0.001$, ES = 2.6) and PP (37.53 (0.45) $^{\circ}$ C, $p =$
245 0.01, ES = 1.5) than in TP (38.16 (0.37) $^{\circ}$ C). The change in T_{gi} was smaller in AB than for TP
246 ($p = 0.01$, 95% CI = 0.07 to 0.47, ES = 1.5, Figure 2) from 30% to 65% RH. The critical RH
247 determined graphically for the groups are shown in Table 2.

248

Insert Table 2 and Figure 2 here

249 No significant differences in T_{sk} between groups were observed at the start ($p = 0.91$, AB: 34.34
250 (0.65) $^{\circ}\text{C}$, PP: 34.27 (0.90) $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and TP: 34.14 (1.05) $^{\circ}\text{C}$) or during the stabilisation period ($p =$
251 0.07). Mean skin temperature at 65% RH was significantly cooler in AB (36.25 (0.36) $^{\circ}\text{C}$) than
252 in PP (36.91 (0.56) $^{\circ}\text{C}$, $p = 0.05$, ES = 1.3) and TP (37.45 (0.58) $^{\circ}\text{C}$, $p < 0.001$, ES = 2.5). The
253 change in T_{sk} was significantly smaller in AB compared to PP ($p = 0.01$, 95% CI = 0.14 to 0.98,
254 ES = 1.5) and TP ($p = 0.01$, 95% CI = 0.29 to 1.03, ES = 2.0) across all RH stages (Figure 2).

255

256 There was a main effect of time at all individual skin temperature sites (all $p < 0.001$), with
257 responses shown in Figure 3. There were no differences between groups for the change in chest,
258 hand and foot skin temperature (all $\geq p = 0.07$, \leq ES = 0.4) across all RH stages. The change
259 in forearm, upper back and abdomen skin temperature were smaller in AB and PP than TP (all
260 $p \leq 0.02$, \geq ES = 1.2) across all RH stages. The change in upper arm skin temperature was
261 smaller in AB than TP across all RH stages ($p = 0.01$, ES = 1.5). The change in forehead skin
262 temperature was smaller in AB than TP from 45% to 65% RH ($p = 0.04$, ES = 0.2). The change
263 in thigh and calf skin temperatures were smaller in AB than both PP ($p < 0.01$, ES = 1.6) and
264 TP ($p < 0.01$, ES = 1.6 -1.7) across all RH stages.

265

Insert Figure 3 here

266 No significant difference in HR was observed between groups at the start ($p = 0.18$; AB: 62 (7)
267 $\text{b}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$, PP: 74 (19) $\text{b}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ and TP: 71 (4) $\text{b}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$), during the 20 min stabilisation period (p
268 = 0.16) or during the protocol ($p = 0.43$). The change in HR during the last 5 minutes of the
269 stabilisation period was not significantly different between groups ($p = 0.33$, AB: -5 (3) $\text{b}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$,
270 PP: 0 (4) $\text{b}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ and TP: -5 (10) $\text{b}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$). Heart rate at 65% RH was not significantly
271 different between groups, though, compared to AB (68 (10) $\text{b}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$), ES were moderate for PP
272 (86 (26) $\text{b}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$, $p = 0.16$, ES = 0.9) and very large for TP (89 (8) $\text{b}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$, $p = 0.09$, ES = 2.3).
273 T_{gi} , T_{sk} , skin temperatures and HR all significantly increased over time ($p < 0.001$).

274

275 *Perceptual responses.* No significant differences were observed between groups for thermal
276 sensation or thermal comfort ($p > 0.05$). Participants became hotter and developed greater
277 thermal discomfort throughout ($p < 0.001$). Wetness sensation was significantly higher in AB
278 at 30-35% and 50-65% RH ($p < 0.001$) than TP and significantly increased over time ($p <$
279 0.001).

280

281 *Fluid balance.* Urine specific gravity was not significantly different between groups at the start
282 ($p = 0.67$) but was significantly greater in AB compared to PP ($p = 0.02$) and TP ($p = 0.04$) at
283 the end of the protocol. PP and TP gained body mass compared to AB ($p = 0.10$) and AB and
284 PP tended to consume more fluid than TP ($p = 0.31$), but neither were significant. Total mass
285 loss and sweat rate were significantly greater in AB than PP ($p < 0.001$, ES = 1.4 - 1.7) and TP
286 ($p < 0.001$, ES = 1.7 - 2.0, Table 3).

287

Insert Table 3 here

288 *Heat balance parameters.* Metabolic heat production was not significantly different over time
289 ($p = 0.46$) or between groups ($p = 0.22$, AB: 123 (21) W, PP: 111 (15) W and TP: 103 (29))
290 (Table 4). Dry heat exchange ($R + C$) was significantly different between AB and TP ($p =$
291 0.01). C_{res} , E_{res} ($p = 0.17$) and E_{req} ($p = 0.79$) were not significantly different between groups
292 (Table 4). Evaporative cooling potential, based on observed sweat rates was significantly lower
293 for PP and TP compared to AB ($p < 0.01$), and fell short of E_{req} for both PP and TP.

294

295

Insert Table 4 here

296 *Complete and incomplete lesion responses.* Figure 4 shows mean and individual responses for
297 the change in T_{gi} and T_{sk} , respectively. Statistical analysis was not conducted on this data due
298 to the small sample size.

299 *Insert Figure 4 here*

300 **DISCUSSION**

301 The hypothesis of this study was that critical relative humidity limits would differ between
302 groups, with AB having the highest critical limit, TP the lowest and PP in between, linked to
303 their respective areas of sensate skin. While the decision on the climate settings was based on
304 pilot work with a TP participant, both PP and TP participants in the actual experiment struggled
305 to attain heat balance from the start of the experiment. Thus, it is evident that the response of
306 the participant used in the pilot study was not representative of the groups studied; an
307 unfortunate reflection of the large variability in physiological responses in individuals with an
308 SCI. Nevertheless, the order of the groups in terms of their T_{gi} response was as expected. While
309 7 out of 8 AB showed stable T_{gi} at the start and a defined threshold where T_{gi} stability was lost,
310 only 3 out of 8 PP and none of TP achieved this. This result was directly linked to a shortfall
311 in evaporative cooling potential (Table 3) in PP and TP, compared to required evaporative
312 cooling (E_{req}).

313 Metabolic heat production is the primary determinant of E_{req} , hence the similar metabolic heat
314 production (and metabolic energy expenditure) between the three groups in the present study
315 infers similar values for E_{req} . Yet neither PP nor TP attained a steady T_{gi} response (Figure 2),
316 and hence heat balance during the protocol. For instance, at 65% RH, the change in T_{gi} for PP
317 and TP was 0.29°C and 0.51°C greater than AB, respectively. For AB T_{gi} was stable, up until
318 a mean critical RH of 79% RH. The results therefore indicate that, evaporative capacity was
319 insufficient from the start for TP and at the limit for PP in the studied conditions where
320 evaporation was the primary pathway for heat dissipation.

321 The attenuation in evaporative heat loss in individuals with an SCI is further depicted by the
322 greater change in T_{sk} and smaller total mass loss in PP and TP compared to AB. Both the change
323 in thigh and calf skin temperature, i.e. skin sites below the lesion level, were significantly
324 greater in PP and TP than AB throughout the protocol (Figure 3), contributing to the greater
325 T_{sk} response. These results further support the notion that latent heat loss is greatly reduced and
326 insufficient to attain heat balance at rest for TP and most PP in the absence of convective heat
327 loss.

328

329 *Body composition.* Historically body fatness was considered an important parameter for
330 thermoregulatory response. Though it was later shown that fat percentage is only a relevant
331 predictor of individual T_{core} and sweating responses to exercise when cool climates are
332 considered, and skin blood flow is low (16–18). This has been confirmed more recently (7)
333 showing that heat production and E_{req} are the main driving factors in explaining most of the
334 variance in T_{core} and whole body sweat loss in the heat. Whether body fatness explains a similar
335 amount of variance in T_{gi} in individuals with an SCI is unclear. It could be argued that the
336 reduced skin blood flow to the body regions below the lesion level would make heat transfer
337 from core to skin more sensitive to the thickness of the fat layer insulation, similar to what
338 happens in AB in the cold. In the present study, given the close to isothermal conditions, this
339 would however not have affected outcomes. Individuals with an SCI, due to skeletal muscle
340 denervation and inactivity of their lower limbs, have adverse changes to their overall body
341 composition. These include a greater fat mass of their legs and trunk not only compared to their
342 upper limbs but also in comparison to AB (20, 39, 40). Hence a large proportion of fat mass in
343 individuals with an SCI is below the lesion level, which for these individuals are body regions
344 not considered to be an effective body surface area (area of skin that can partake in heat
345 dissipation). In relation to methodology, the Durnin and Wormsley four site method has been

346 shown to under-predict body fat percentage compared to dual energy x-ray absorptiometry in
347 wheelchair athletes by 4.2% (44). Thus, actual differences in body fat percentage between AB
348 and both PP and TP are likely to be greater than reported. Nevertheless, in the current study
349 the greater percentage of body fat of PP and TP compared to AB should have had minimal
350 influence on the amount of evaporative heat loss, while due to the chosen minimal temperature
351 difference between air and skin, a negligible effect on convective heat loss is expected.

352

353 Although PP were significantly older than both AB and TP, this is likely to have had a minimal
354 effect on the findings. Previous research has shown that the capacity to dissipate heat reduces
355 with age, with a decrease in evaporative heat loss of 4-11% in humid conditions (35°C, 65%
356 RH) and 4-6% in dry conditions (35°C, 25% RH) in 40-50 year olds compared to 20-30 year
357 olds (26). These findings are related to exercise in the stated conditions and are therefore likely
358 to be even less in resting conditions. In addition, an individual's $\dot{V}O_{2\max}/\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$ is likely to
359 play a larger role regarding an individual's T_{core} and sweat response to a warm humid
360 environment than the individual's age (16, 17). Thus, in the current study despite PP being
361 significantly older than AB and TP, the actual difference in age between the groups is unlikely
362 to have a major influence on heat dissipation. The presence, level and completeness of an SCI
363 and the individual's cardiovascular fitness, which will correspond to the individual's lesion
364 level, i.e. lowest cardiovascular fitness for TP, is likely to have a much larger influence.

365

366 *Lower body skin temperatures.* In individuals with an SCI, T_{sk} is likely to mask regional skin
367 temperature differences, in particular skin temperatures above and below the lesion level (32).
368 The change in thigh and calf skin temperatures were greater in both PP and TP than AB, due
369 to the disrupted blood flow, vascular atrophy, lack of sweating response and skeletal muscle
370 denervation below the level of the lesion (19). In individuals with an SCI, thigh and calf skin

371 temperatures (28-31 °C) have been shown to be cooler at rest than the upper body (32-34°C)
372 and compared to AB (32, 38). Hence, the lower body may be a potential site for heat storage
373 in hot conditions (32), due to the combination of a reduced capacity to dissipate heat and cooler
374 initial skin temperatures, leading to a greater thermal gradient between the skin and
375 environment.

376

377 *Upper body skin temperatures.* For upper body skin temperatures of the upper back and forearm
378 in PP and TP, the magnitude of the change in skin temperature reflected the preservation of the
379 sweating capacity of these regions. Yet, large standard deviation in chest skin temperature
380 within SCI groups (Figure 2), potentially due to differences in lesion completeness, could have
381 masked a statistically significant finding. The chest skin temperature site is below the lesion
382 level for TP so one would expect a greater increase in chest skin temperature compared to AB
383 and PP. Compared to other regions of the torso, the chest has a lower regional sweat rate (37),
384 thus the sweat response of AB and PP may have had a lower evaporative cooling effect, leading
385 to a similar skin temperature for all three groups.

386

387 At the forehead, though the magnitude of the effect was small (ES = 0.2), the change in skin
388 temperature was significantly greater in TP than AB (Figure 3). Individuals with TP have a
389 small surface area of sensate skin and exhibit little to no sweat response above the lesion
390 level. Incomplete injuries and thus intact neural pathways may however lead to some
391 individuals still exhibiting a small sweat response. Nevertheless, given the resulting small
392 surface area of sensate skin this sweat response would not be large enough to provide
393 effective evaporative heat loss, in conditions where heat loss is solely dependent on the
394 evaporation of sweat, clearly demonstrated by this study.

395

396

397 *Perceptual responses.* In the able-bodied, thermal sensation is largely dictated by skin
398 temperature, independent of T_{core} (36). In the present study, despite a higher T_{sk} in PP and TP,
399 thermal sensation was not significantly different between the groups suggesting that PP and TP
400 may not be able to perceive the magnitude of thermal strain compared to AB. These results
401 imply that the role of skin temperature for reporting thermal sensation may be limited for
402 individuals with an SCI, in particular TP, as a result of the small body surface area of sensate
403 skin (2). For thermal comfort, T_{core} and T_{sk} have been reported to contribute equally in AB (11).
404 Despite similar thermal comfort scores, TP had a greater change in T_{gi} and T_{sk} suggesting they
405 should have been in greater thermal discomfort than AB. Alternatively, this finding may
406 suggest that their tolerance to thermal discomfort is in fact greater, though this cannot be
407 confirmed by the results of this study. Wetness sensation was lower in TP compared to AB and
408 PP, due to the small body surface area of sensate skin and minimal sweating capacity. The
409 upper body has a greater proportion of high sweat rate regions than the lower body (37). Thus,
410 despite a lower total mass loss and sweat rate in PP, perceived wetness of the sensate areas of
411 PP led to a similar wetness sensation score to AB.

412

413 *Complete and incomplete lesion responses.* As noted earlier, the large variance in
414 thermoregulatory responses in SCI is further complicated by the completeness of the lesion.
415 Individuals with incomplete lesions potentially having a greater amount of sensory information
416 and a greater body surface area available for sweating (43). The T_{gi} data grouped by lesion
417 completeness supports this notion (Figure A), yet individually there was disparity between the
418 T_{gi} of PP with incomplete lesions (all of which had a lesion below T8). Lesion completeness
419 did also not dictate which individuals with PP obtained a stable T_{gi} , i.e. prescriptive zone, and
420 a clear critical environmental limit. If complete lesions lead to a lower sweating capacity, one
421 would expect a complete lesion to have a greater T_{sk} response than incomplete lesions. Yet this

422 was not the case in the present study, suggesting how completeness of the lesion influences
423 thermoregulatory responses is still not fully understood.

424 *Limitations*

425 Gastrointestinal temperature has been previously reported to demonstrate a temporal lag
426 when used by able-bodied individuals (25, 41). Thus in the present study a lag in T_{gi} could
427 suggest the critical humidity limits reported could be higher than if oesophageal temperature
428 had been used. Yet if the lag was consistent between the three groups the differences in
429 evaporative heat loss between the groups would still be correct. A recent study by Au et al.
430 (3) investigated the comparison between oesophageal and T_{gi} during exercise in AB and
431 individuals with an SCI. Their results demonstrated that both methods provided similar
432 elevations in T_{core} in both AB and PP. Unfortunately there was no increase in T_{core} in TP in
433 their study, but this was most likely attributed to their lower heat production in TP of the
434 exercise undertaken. Therefore the study suggests that the lag is similar between AB and PP,
435 yet it is difficult to conclude whether a similar pattern is apparent for TP. However, a recent
436 study by Forsyth et al. (10) reported that the use of telemetric pills was appropriate for both
437 high and low level PP and TP during both exercise and recovery with a close relationship
438 between T_{gi} and oesophageal temperature reported. In addition, practically due to the limited
439 ability to grip, TP (especially high level lesions) would also likely struggle to self-insert the
440 oesophageal probe.

441 Unfortunately, we did not measure the coverage of each wheelchair (seat and back rest) on
442 each participant, which is likely to differ depending on the level of support required.

443 However, it is important to note that for TP any sensate skin above the lesion is mostly nude
444 skin, so would not be affected by the coverage of the wheelchair or clothing. In PP, the
445 sensate skin areas of participants with the lowest lesion levels would be covered by the t –
446 shirt and back rest, whereas for participants with high level PP only half of their torso would

447 be active in convective and evaporative heat loss. In AB both the t-shirt, shorts, seat and back
448 rest will cover skin surface areas active in convective and evaporative heat loss. Thus the
449 coverage of clothing and the wheelchair is likely to have the greatest effect on AB and
450 presents the best case scenario for this group in the current study. As a result of these
451 differences in clothing and wheelchair coverage between and within groups, in our heat
452 balance calculations we have not taken into account the amount of skin surface covered by
453 the clothing and wheelchair.

454 As is evident from the results obtained, the chosen starting environmental conditions for TP
455 were too high to ensure the environment was compensable for all participants. In part this was
456 due to the pilot test results not matching the main experiment outcomes. A second factor is the
457 speed of the air flow in the chamber during the actual testing. The air flow of the climatic
458 chamber is usually 0.3 m/s given the settings used, however for this study it was recorded at
459 $0.12 \pm 0.07 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. Using the usual climatic chamber air flow and a maximum skin wettedness
460 value of 0.25 for TP, the starting environment would have been just compensable for these
461 individuals. Therefore upon reflection of the results a lower ambient temperature in the range
462 of 33 to 35°C for all trials would have ensured the starting environmental conditions were
463 compensable for all three groups, while still minimising convective heat losses.

464

465 *Conclusion.* The current study demonstrates that despite producing similar low levels of
466 metabolic heat and thus requiring the same low rate of evaporative cooling for heat balance,
467 TP had a heightened T_{gi} and T_{sk} response throughout the protocol compared to AB. Thus, even
468 at rest, in the absence of convective heat loss, evaporative heat loss in TP is not large enough
469 to balance the heat load at 37°C in an environment without solar radiation. Despite possessing
470 a greater sweating capacity and a smaller increase in T_{gi} than TP, the continual increase in both
471 T_{gi} and T_{sk} for a number of the PP participants and the too low evaporative cooling potential

472 observed, signifies evaporative heat loss capacity is also insufficient in PP, compared to AB.
473 Lastly, in the studied conditions, both PP and TP were unable to subjectively determine the
474 magnitude of their thermal strain and hence perceptual responses should not be relied upon for
475 this population group.

476

477

478 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

479 The authors would like to thank the participants for their time and support during this study in
480 addition to the students from the School of Sport, Health and Exercise Sciences for their
481 assistance during data collection and the Peter Harrison Foundation for financial support.

482 **DISCLOSURES**

483 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

484 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

485 K.E.G., G.H., M.J.P and V.L.G.T conceived and designed the research. K.E.G performed
486 experiments, analysed the data and prepared figures. K.E.G., G.H., M.J.P and V.L.G.T
487 interpreted the results of the experiments and drafted, edited, revised and approved the final
488 manuscript.

489 **REFERENCES**

- 490 1. **ASHRAE**. Thermal comfort. In: *ASHRAE Handbook of Fundamentals*. Atlanta, USA:
491 1997.
- 492 2. **Attia M, Engel P**. Thermoregulatory set point in patients with spinal cord injuries
493 (spinal man). *Paraplegia* 21: 233–248, 1983.
- 494 3. **Au JS, Kamijo Y, Goosey-Tolfrey VL, Leicht CA, Macdonald MJ, Mukai Y,**

- 495 **Tajima F.** Comparison between esophageal and intestinal temperature responses to
496 upper-limb exercise in individuals with spinal cord injury. *Spinal Cord* 57: 586 -593,
497 2019.
- 498 4. **Batterham AM, Hopkins WG.** Making meaningful inferences about magnitudes. *Int*
499 *J Sport Physiol Perform* 1: 50–57, 2006.
- 500 5. **Belding, HS, Kamon E.** Evaporative coefficients for prediction of safe limits in
501 prolonged exposures to work under hot conditions. *Fed Proc* 32: 1598–1601, 1973.
- 502 6. **Byrne C, Lim CL.** The ingestible telemetric body core temperature sensor: a review
503 of validity and exercise applications. *Br J Sports Med* 41: 126–133, 2007.
- 504 7. **Cramer MN, Jay O.** Explained variance in the thermoregulatory responses to
505 exercise: the independent roles of biophysical and fitness/fatness-related factors. *J*
506 *Appl Physiol (Bethesda, Md 1985)* 119: 982–989, 2015.
- 507 8. **Dubois D and Dubois EF.** A formula to estimate surface area if height and weight are
508 known. *Arch Intern Med* 17: 863, 1916.
- 509 9. **Durnin JV, Womersley J.** Body fat assessed from total body density and its
510 estimation from skinfold thickness: measurements on 481 men and women aged from
511 16 to 72 years. *Br J Nutr* 32: 77–97, 1974.
- 512 10. **Forsyth P, Pumpa K, Miller J, Thompson KG, Jay O.** Response characteristics of
513 esophageal and gastrointestinal temperature in athletes with a spinal cord injury
514 exercising in the heat. In: *International Conference of Environmental Ergonomics.*
515 Amsterdam, Holland: 2019.
- 516 11. **Frank SM, Raja SN, Bulcao CF, Goldstein DS.** Relative contribution of core and

- 517 cutaneous temperatures to thermal comfort and autonomic responses in humans. *J Appl*
518 *Physiol (Bethesda, Md 1985)* 86: 1588–1593, 1999.
- 519 12. **Gagge AP, Stolwijk JA, Saltin B.** Comfort and thermal sensations and associated
520 physiological responses during exercise at various ambient temperatures. *Environ Res*
521 2: 209–229, 1969.
- 522 13. **Griggs KE, Leicht CA, Price MJ, Goosey-Tolfrey VL.** Thermoregulation during
523 intermittent exercise in athletes with a spinal-cord injury. *Int J Sports Physiol Perform*
524 10: 469–475, 2015.
- 525 14. **Guttman L, Silver J, Wyndham CH.** Thermoregulation in spinal man. *J Physiol*
526 142: 406–419, 1958.
- 527 15. **Ha M, Yamashita Y, Tokura H.** Effects of moisture absorption by clothing on
528 thermal responses during intermittent exercise at 24 degrees C. *Eur J Appl Physiol*
529 *Occup Physiol* 71: 266–271, 1995.
- 530 16. **Havenith G, Coenen JM, Kistemaker L, Kenney WL.** Relevance of individual
531 characteristics for human heat stress response is dependent on exercise intensity and
532 climate type. *Eur J Appl Physiol Occup Physiol* 77: 231–241, 1998.
- 533 17. **Havenith G, Inoue Y, Lutikholt V, Kenney WL.** Age predicts cardiovascular, but
534 not thermoregulatory, responses to humid heat stress. *Eur J Appl Physiol Occup*
535 *Physiol* 70: 88–96, 1995.
- 536 18. **Havenith G, van Middendorp H.** The relative influence of physical fitness,
537 acclimatization state, anthropometric measures and gender on individual reactions to
538 heat stress. *Eur J Appl Physiol Occup Physiol* 61: 419–427, 1990.

- 539 19. **Hopman MT.** Circulatory responses during arm exercise in individuals with
540 paraplegia. *Int J Sports Med* 15: 126–131, 1994.
- 541 20. **Inukai Y, Takahashi K, Wang DH, Kira S.** Assessment of total and segmental body
542 composition in spinal cord-injured athletes in okayama prefecture of japan. *Acta Med*
543 *Okayama* 60: 99–106, 2006.
- 544 21. **Kamon E, Avellini B.** Physiologic limits to work in the heat and evaporative
545 coefficient for women. *J Appl Physiol* 41: 71–76, 1976.
- 546 22. **Kenney WL, Mikita DJ, Havenith G, Puhl SM, Crosby P.** Simultaneous derivation
547 of clothing-specific heat exchange coefficients. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 25: 283–289,
548 1993.
- 549 23. **Kenney WL, Zeman MJ.** Psychrometric limits and critical evaporative coefficients
550 for unacclimated men and women. *J Appl Physiol* 92: 2256–2263, 2002.
- 551 24. **Kirshblum SC, Burns SP, Biering-Sorensen F, Donovan W, Graves DE, Jha A,**
552 **Johansen M, Jones L, Krassioukov A, Mulcahey MJ, Schmidt-Read M, Waring**
553 **W.** International standards for neurological classification of spinal cord injury (revised
554 2011). *J Spinal Cord Med* 34: 535–546, 2011.
- 555 25. **Kolka MA, Quigley MD, Blanchard LA, Toyota DA, Stephenson LA.** Validation
556 of a temperature telemetry system during moderate and strenuous exercise. *J. Therm.*
557 *Biol* 18: 203-210, 1993.
- 558 26. **Larose J, Kenny GP, Hardcastle S, Wright-Beatty HE, Sigal RJ, Boulay P.** Age-
559 related differences in heat loss capacity occur under both dry and humid heat stress
560 conditions. *Med. Sci. Sport. Exerc* 117: 69-79, (2017).

- 561 27. **Lind AR.** A physiological criterion for setting thermal environmental limits for
562 everyday work. *J Appl Physiol* 18: 51–56, 1963.
- 563 28. **Mitchell D.** Convective heat transfer from man and other animals. In: *Heat Loss from*
564 *Animals and Man*, edited by Monteith JL, Mount LE. London, Butterworth, 1974, p.
565 59–76.
- 566 29. **Normell LA.** Distribution of impaired cutaneous vasomotor and sudomotor function in
567 paraplegic man. *Scand J Clin Lab Investig* 138: 25–41, 1974.
- 568 30. **Parsons KC.** Human thermal physiology and thermoregulation. In: *Human Thermal*
569 *Environments: The effects of hot, moderate and cold environments on human health,*
570 *comfort and performance.* London: Taylor & Francis, 2003, p. 31–49.
- 571 31. **Price M, Goosey-Tolfrey V.** Heat flow of the paraplegic and able-bodied lower limb
572 during resting heat exposure. *J Therm Biol* 33: 255–260, 2008.
- 573 32. **Price MJ, Campbell IG.** Thermoregulatory responses of paraplegic and able-bodied
574 athletes at rest and during prolonged upper body exercise and passive recovery. *Eur J*
575 *Appl Physiol Occup Physiol* 76: 552–560, 1997.
- 576 33. **Price MJ, Campbell IG.** Thermoregulatory responses during prolonged upper-body
577 exercise in cool and warm conditions. *J Sports Sci* 20: 519–527, 2002.
- 578 34. **Price MJ, Campbell IG.** Effects of spinal cord lesion level upon thermoregulation
579 during exercise in the heat. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 35: 1100–1107, 2003.
- 580 35. **Ramanathan NL.** A New Weighting System for Mean Surface Temperature of the
581 Human Body. *J Appl Physiol* 19: 531–533, 1964.
- 582 36. **Schlader ZJ, Simmons SE, Stannard SR, Mündel T.** The independent roles of

- 583 temperature and thermal perception in the control of human thermoregulatory
584 behavior. *Physiol Behav* 103: 217–224, 2011.
- 585 37. **Smith CJ, Havenith G.** Body mapping of sweating patterns in male athletes in mild
586 exercise-induced hyperthermia. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 111: 1391–1404, 2011.
- 587 38. **Song YG, Won YH, Park SH, Ko MH, Seo JH.** Changes in body temperature in
588 incomplete spinal cord injury by digital infrared thermographic imaging. *Ann Rehabil*
589 *Med* 39: 696–704, 2015.
- 590 39. **Spungen AM, Adkins RH, Stewart CA, Wang J, Pierson Jr RN, Waters RL,**
591 **Bauman WA.** Factors influencing body composition in persons with spinal cord
592 injury: a cross-sectional study. *J Appl Physiol (Bethesda, Md 1985)* 95: 2398–2407,
593 2003.
- 594 40. **Sutton L, Wallace J, Scott M, Reilly T, Science E, Kingdom U, Science E,**
595 **Kingdom U, Sciences E, Kingdom U, Science E, Moores LJ.** Body composition of
596 female wheelchair athletes. *Int J Sports Med* 30: 259–265, 2009.
- 597 41. **Teunissen LP, de Haan A, de Koning JJ, Daanen HA.** Telemetry pill versus rectal
598 and esophageal temperature during extreme rates of exercise-induced core temperature
599 change. *Physiol Meas* 33: 915–924, 2012.
- 600 42. **Toner MM, Drolet LL, Pandolf KB.** Perceptual and physiological responses during
601 exercise in cool and cold water. *Percept Mot Skills* 62: 211–220, 1986.
- 602 43. **Webborn N, Price MJ, Castle P, Goosey-Tolfrey V.** Cooling strategies improve
603 intermittent sprint performance in the heat of athletes with tetraplegia. *Br J Sports Med*
604 44: 455–460, 2010.

605 44. **Willems A, Paulson TA, Keil M, Brooke-Wavell K, Goosey-Tolfrey VL.** Dual-
606 energy x-ray absorptiometry, skinfold thickness, and waist circumference for assessing
607 body composition in ambulant and non-ambulant wheelchair games players. *Front*
608 *Physiol* 6: 356, 2015.

609

610

Table.1 Participant characteristics for able-bodied individuals (n = 8), individuals with paraplegia (n = 8) and individuals with tetraplegia (n = 7).

	Age (years)	Height (m)	Body mass (kg)	Sum of four skinfolds (mm) ^a	Body fat (%) ^b	Fat mass (kg)	Fat free mass (kg)	Body surface area (m ²) ^c	Lesion level (range)	Completeness of lesion ^d (number of participants)	Motor or sensory incompleteness' (number of participants)
Able-bodied	28 (5)	1.88 (0.07)	75.99 (2.86)	31.5 (9.4)	14.4 (3.3)	11.0 (2.9)	65.0 (2.0)	1.96 (0.05)	n/a	n/a	
Paraplegia	45 (7) ^{§#}	1.77 (0.06)	77.41 (7.26)	61.8 (28.20) [§]	25.5 (7.3) [§]	17.5 (9.8) [§]	57.1 (4.6) [§]	1.94 (0.11)	T3-T12	Complete (5), Incomplete (3)	Sensory (1), Motor and sensory (2)
Tetraplegia	32 (3)	1.80 (0.09)	73.78 (12.24)	58.3 (13.7) [*]	21.5 (2.1) [*]	16.0 (3.8)	57.8 (8.6)	1.92 (0.20)	C5/6-C6/C7	Complete (2), Incomplete (5)	Sensory (3), Motor and sensory (2)

Data are mean values with SD in parentheses. All participants were male. [§] = significant difference between individuals with paraplegia and able-bodied individuals, [#] = significant difference between individuals with tetraplegia and individuals with paraplegia, ^{*} = significant difference between individuals with tetraplegia and able-bodied individuals. ^a Sum of skinfolds from biceps, triceps, subscapular and suprailliac sites. ^b Body fat percentage, was calculated using the Durin and Wormsley four site method (9). ^c Body surface area was calculated using the Dubois formula (8). ^d An individual with a complete injury has no motor and/or sensory function preserved in the lowest sacral segments of the spinal cord (S4-S5), whilst a motor or sensory incomplete injury refers to the preservation of motor and/or sensory function in the lowest sacral segments (S4-S5, (24))

Table 2 Mean critical relative humidity for able-bodied individuals and individuals with paraplegia. The number of participants a critical relative humidity could be determined for and the level and completeness of lesion for those individuals with a spinal cord injury is also shown.

Group (n)	Mean critical relative humidity (%)	Number of participants showing a critical relative humidity limit	Lesion level/ Completeness of spinal cord injury
Able-bodied (8)	77 (6)	7	-
Paraplegia (8)	53 (14)	3	T4/5 complete, T8 incomplete sensory, T12 incomplete motor and sensory

Data are mean values with SD in parentheses. All participants were male.

Table 3 Fluid balance and evaporative cooling potential during the stepwise protocol for able-bodied individuals, individuals with paraplegia and individuals with tetraplegia.

	Able-bodied	Paraplegia	Tetraplegia
Urine specific gravity (pre)	1.018 (0.009)	1.016 (0.006)	1.019 (0.006)
Urine specific gravity (post)	1.025 (0.008)	1.015 (0.006) [§]	1.016 (0.003)*
Body mass loss (%)	0.06 (0.44)	-0.37 (0.39)	-0.19 (0.28)
Amount of fluid consumed (L)	0.41 (0.36)	0.46 (0.27)	0.24 (0.21)
Total mass loss (kg)	0.45 (0.05)	0.18 (0.11) [§]	0.11 (0.12)*
Sweat rate (L·h ⁻¹)	0.22 (0.03)	0.09 (0.06) [§]	0.06 (0.07)*
Potential cooling power (W)	147 (21)	63 (41) [§]	43 (46)*

Data are mean values with SD in parentheses. All participants were male., [§] = significant difference between individuals with paraplegia and able-bodied individuals, * = significant difference between individuals with tetraplegia and able-bodied individuals. Sweat rate was adjusted for respiratory mass losses (M_{res}). Percentage of body mass loss was calculated using the following formula $((Mass_{pre} - Mass_{post}) / Mass_{pre} \cdot 100)$. Total mass loss was calculated using the following formula: $((Mass_{pre} - Mass_{post}) + \text{fluid consumed})$.

Table 4 Heat balance parameters during the stepwise protocol for able-bodied individuals, individuals with paraplegia and individuals with tetraplegia.

	Able-bodied	Paraplegia	Tetraplegia
M (W)	123 (21)	111 (15)	103 (29)
Dry (W)	-2 (1)	-1 (2)	0 (2)*
C _{res} + E _{res} (W)	6 (2)	5 (2)	5 (2)
E _{req} (W)	113 (20)	107 (17)	106 (29)

Data are mean values with SD in parentheses. All participants were male. M = metabolic energy expenditure/heat production, Dry = radiative (R) and convective heat exchange (C), E_{res} = evaporative respiratory heat exchange, C_{res} = convective respiratory heat exchange, E_{req} = required rate of evaporative cooling. * = significant difference between individuals with tetraplegia and able-bodied individuals.

Figure 1 Two methods for removing participants from the climatic chamber. Participants were withdrawn from the climatic chamber after a clear inflection point in T_{gi} had been observed (critical RH limit, (26)), or T_{gi} increased by 1°C from the initial value upon entering the chamber. Note: To ensure a clear inflection in T_{gi} participants may not have been immediately removed from the climatic chamber following an initial rise in T_{gi} .

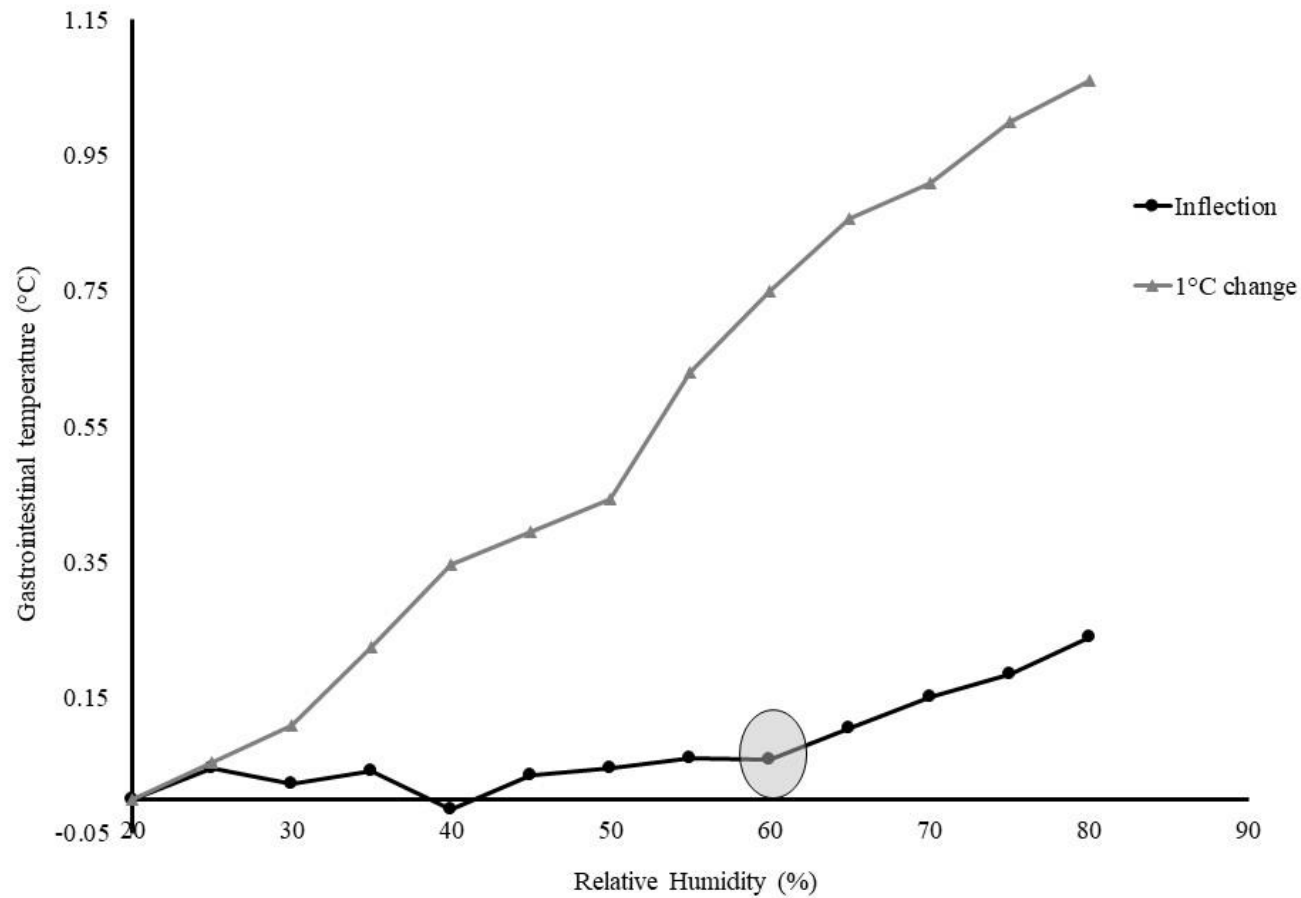


Figure 2 Change in gastrointestinal and mean skin temperature at rest in constant environmental temperature (37°C) and increasing humidity for able-bodied individuals (AB), and those with paraplegia (PP) and tetraplegia (TP). * = significant difference between individuals with tetraplegia and able-bodied individuals, § = significant difference between individuals with paraplegia and able-bodied individuals, † = statistical analysis was not conducted on these data, due to a reduced number of participants. The number of participants in each group for each time point are listed underneath the x axis. To calculate the predicted data, the difference between each time point (up till 65% RH) for each individual was calculated. The average differences for each time point were then added to the previous time point to estimate data points for 70-90% RH.

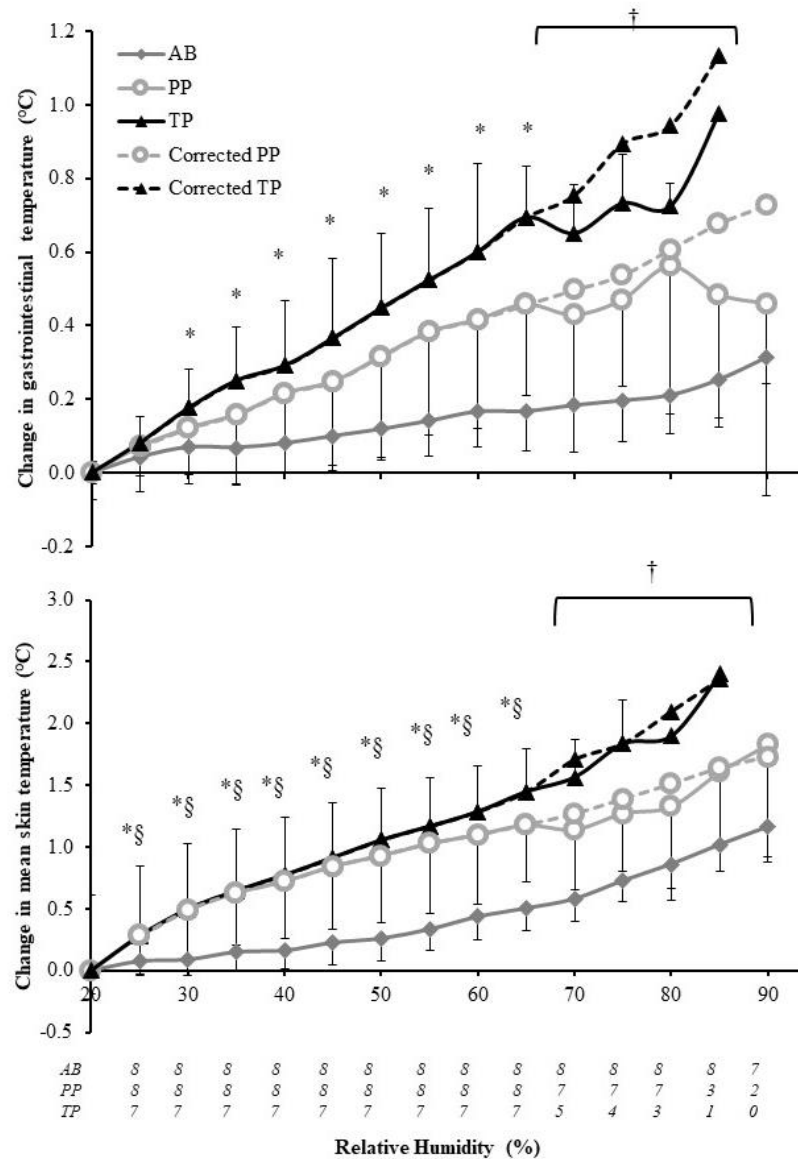


Figure 3 Change in upper arm, upper back, forehead, chest, calf and, thigh skin temperature at rest in constant environmental temperature (37°C) and increasing humidity for able-bodied individuals (AB), and those with paraplegia (PP) and tetraplegia (TP) upto 65% relative humidity. § = significant difference between individuals with paraplegia and able-bodied individuals, # = significant difference between individuals with tetraplegia and individuals with paraplegia, *= significant difference between individuals with tetraplegia and able-bodied individuals.

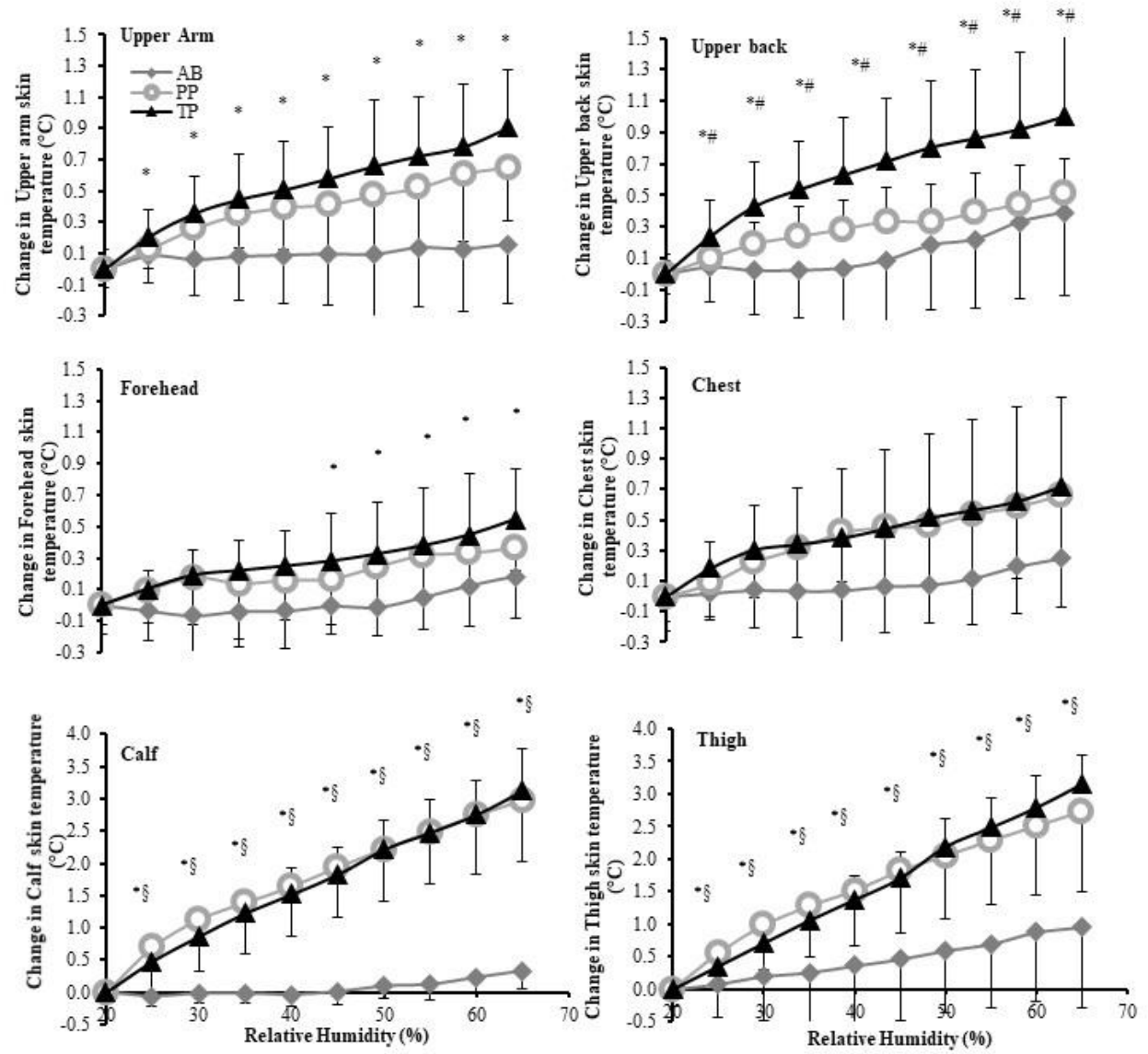


Figure 4 (A) The change in gastrointestinal and mean skin temperature for individuals with paraplegia (PP) and individuals with tetraplegia (TP) with complete and incomplete lesions compared to able-bodied individuals (AB). (B) Individual responses for the change in gastrointestinal and mean skin temperature for complete and incomplete lesions for PP and TP. Note: five individuals with paraplegia had complete lesions and three with incomplete lesions. Two individuals with tetraplegia had complete lesions and two with incomplete lesions

