

Physiological and biophysical limits to work in the heat for clothed men and women

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KAMON, ELIEZER, BARBARA AVELLINI, AND JANET KRAJEWSKI. *Physiological and biophysical limits to work in the heat for clothed men and women*. J. Appl. Physiol.: Respirat. Environ. Exercise Physiol. 44(6): 918-925, 1978. — Heat-acclimated, lightly clothed men and women (four of each) walked on a treadmill at 25% and 43% $\dot{V}O_2$ max, respectively, ($M = 194 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$), under seven air temperatures (T_a) ranging from 36 to 52°C. Each experiment involved 1 h of fixed and a 2nd h of progressively increasing ambient vapor pressure (P_a). The relative steady state of rectal temperature (T_{re}), mean skin temperature (\bar{T}_{sk}), and heart rate (HR) reached in the 1st h were forced upward during the 2nd h by the rising P_a . The critical air vapor pressure (P_{crit}) was identified by the T_{re} point of inflection for each T_a . One man did not fully reach steady state, but inflection could be determined for his physiological responses. The mean values of all points of inflection were calculated for T_{re} , \bar{T}_{sk} , and HR. Significant sex difference in HR was found only by excluding the results of the one man. T_{re} and \bar{T}_{sk} showed no significant difference between men and women. The coefficient for evaporative heat transfer (h_e), which could be derived using the P_{crit} for the low T_a range, was $14.5 \pm 2.2 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-1} \cdot \text{Torr}^{-1}$.

thermoregulatory limits; rectal temperature; evaporative heat transfer coefficient

WHEN MEN AND WOMEN are newly exposed to heat they show a pronounced sex difference in thermoregulation (3, 5). This sex difference tends to diminish during heat acclimatization (8, 19) and in the nonacclimatized state the core temperature (T_c), mean skin temperature (\bar{T}_{sk}), and heart rates (HR) are markedly higher and sweat rate lower in the women than in the men. After acclimatization either no difference is observed, or the women show a slightly higher T_c and \bar{T}_{sk} . If sweating is considered alone, the foregoing studies as well as the study by Morimoto et al. (14) show that although the sex difference in sweating becomes smaller it is still markedly lower in the women.

Under high ambient air temperatures (T_a), where the gradient T_a to \bar{T}_{sk} adds to the metabolic heat (M) by radiation and convection ($R + C$), the limit of exposure is defined by the sweating capacity. Therefore, women's high T_a limits should be lower than men's, provided they work at equal metabolic rates. Under low T_a , where dry heat gain is small and the total heat load ($M + R + C$) is less than the cooling capacity of the total available sweat, the limit of exposure is defined by

the ambient vapor pressure (P_a). Under these conditions men's higher sweating rate is not beneficial. Therefore, the limits of P_a should be the same for men and women.

The most widely accepted criterion for heat strain is the rise in core body temperature (T_c) above an expected work specific level. The criterion was chosen because of the observation that over a wide range of environments, T_c equilibrates at levels proportional to the metabolic rate (15, 18). Indeed, several experiments were conducted in search for the ambient conditions of equal physiological strain (17), the "prescriptive zone" for heat exposure (12) and the limits set by the ambient evaporative capacity (1). These studies used as the main criterion the attainment of, or deviation from, the expected equilibrium in T_c . Although other physiological criteria were also used in these studies, a recent attempt to search for the evaporative limits set by the P_a was based on the deviation from equilibrium of \bar{T}_{sk} , HR, rate of weight loss, sensation of sweating, and thermal discomfort, rather than the deviation of T_c (2).

However, because in the past the empirical approach to the definition of these limits to prolonged work under hot ambient conditions was found tedious and time consuming, it was not fully explored. Instead, the information gathered from experiments under a limited number of ambient conditions were used to develop a theoretical basis for the extension of the limits to a wider range of ambient conditions. These limits were mostly described graphically on a psychrometric chart as isotherms (6), lines of expected skin wettedness (16), and isohids (11). Because these environmental limits were based on the balance between ($M + R + C$) and the ambient evaporative capacity (E_{max}), the use of the absolute value of M applied equally to all individuals. However, since M as a fraction of the maximal oxygen uptake ($\dot{V}O_{2max}$) determines the physiological, mostly cardiovascular, strain, working at the same M does not apply equally to all individuals. This constraint particularly applies to men and women whose $\dot{V}O_{2max}$ is significantly different.

The present study undertook two comparisons: 1) the physiological responses of acclimated and clothed men and women to exposure to similar ambient conditions and M levels; and 2) the psychrometric limits of exposure for the men and women. This undertaking was possible because of the use of the relatively quick technique of multiple exposures with stepwise increase in P_a at each T_a defining the limits at the point of the

inflection upward of T_{re} (1). Although the upward inflections seen in the physiological responses during the stepwise increase in $P_{a,i}$ were previously described by us (1, 9) and by others who adopted this method (2), we found it worthwhile to provide the results of this study in some detail because of the following reason. Since the expected sex differences in the physiological responses were not clearly seen in this study, there was reason to question the method of the identification of the rectal temperature (T_{re}) inflection and thus the definition of the $P_{a,i}$ limits.

METHODS

The physical characteristics of the participants who were paid volunteers are given in Table 1. The nature of the experiment was explained to them and their consent to participate was obtained. They were subsequently accepted for the experiments by a physician whose qualifying examination included exercise stress test to exhaustion. They were then subjected to a thorough heat acclimatization regimen.

Acclimatization involved daily treadmill walks up to 2 h at 30% $\dot{V}O_{2\max}$ under the following ambient conditions: 1) dry, 50°C dry bulb (db); 25°C wet bulb (wb) for the first 5 days; 2) humid, 45°C (db); 31°C (wb) for 2 days; 3) finally 2–4 days under the same conditions of the first 5 days. The exposure to high humidity was aimed at stimulating excessive sweating rates. Acclimatization was determined by the leveling off of rectal temperature and heart rate, observed on all the subjects during the last 3 days, except for *man 4* whose responses did not level off. Since his subjective feeling was good he was included in the experiments after an additional week of acclimatization.

During the experiments, the men walked on a level treadmill at 1.56 m·s⁻¹, a speed used in previous studies in this and other laboratories. The women could not sustain such a speed comfortably. Therefore, they walked 1.34–1.45 m·s⁻¹, but to obtain metabolic heat production similar to that obtained with the men the treadmill was upgraded 2–4%.

Heart rates were recorded by use of chest-skin elec-

trodes and two leads connected to a cardiograph, once every 10 min during the 1st h, and every 5 min during the 2nd h. Yellow Spring thermistors, inserted 10 cm beyond the sphincter, were used to measure T_{re} . Skin temperature was measured with thermocouples attached to the skin, but not covered, on the following six sites: forehead, back (scapula), chest, forearm, and two thighs. T_{re} and the temperatures for six sites on the skin were continuously recorded (5-s cycles between readings) on a strip chart (Esterline-Angus). \bar{T}_{sk} was derived by averaging the temperatures recorded for the six sites.

Oxygen consumption was determined by the open-circuit method. A 2-min sample of expired air was collected in a Douglas bag during the 40th min of each experiment. Air volume and O₂ concentrations were measured using a Cowan-Parkinson dry spirometer and E-2 Beckman analyzer, respectively.

Sweating was determined by loss of weight, adjusting for water intake. The scale was accurate to ±20 g. Respiratory weight and evaporative losses were considered negligible and were not taken into account. Drinking was encouraged. Water was at temperature range of 24–30°C.

The women were dressed in halter tops, long-sleeve shirts, underpants, trousers, cotton socks, and gym shoes. To match this clothing, the men wore only long-sleeve shirts, trousers, underpants, socks, and gym shoes. The shirts and trousers were military-type khaki cotton twill. Neither the men nor the women wore T-shirts; the clothes were worn loose fit.

Air movement (v) was at 1 m·s⁻¹.

The experiments sought the critical air vapor pressure (P_{crit}) for the upward inflection of the measured T_{re} for each of the following $T_{a,i}$: 36, 38, 40, 44, 46, 48, and 52°C. Each experiment started at a fixed $T_{a,i}$ and at $P_{a,i}$ thought to be subcritical by 3 Torr. After 60 min when HR and T_{re} were either at equilibrium, or at relative steady state, the $P_{a,i}$ was increased by 1–1.5 Torr every 10 min. This was described in detail elsewhere (1, 10).

Metabolic rate (M in watts) was derived from the measured O₂ uptake as; $M = 341 \dot{V}O_2$. External work (W) was subtracted for the uphill walking. Thus, heat

TABLE 1. Anthropometric measurements, maximal oxygen consumption, oxygen cost of walking, and metabolic heat production (less external work) for subjects

Subj No.	Age, yr	Wt, kg	Ht, cm	Surface Area, m ²	V̇O _{2 max} , l · min ⁻¹	Cost of Walking		(M	W), W · m ²
						V̇O ₂ l · min ⁻¹	% V̇O _{2 max}		
Men									
1	24	72.7	179.7	1.92	4.64	1.04	22		185
2	24	61.5	174.0	1.75	3.67	0.91	25		180
3	20	65.0	180.3	1.83	3.69	1.05	28		200
4	25	67.3	175.3	1.81	4.42	1.10	25		211
Mean ± SD	23.3 ± 2.2	66.6 ± 4.7	177.3 ± 3.1	1.83 ± 0.10	4.11 ± 0.50	1.03 ± 0.08	25 ± 2.5		194 ± 15
Women									
1	21	82.5	163.8	1.86	3.02	1.09	36		182
2	20	55.5	158.7	1.55	2.63	1.06	40		215
3	26	51.1	161.3	1.53	1.86	0.96	52		188
4	22	52.5	163.8	1.51	2.12	0.97	46		190
Mean ± SD	22.3 ± 2.6	60.4 ± 14.8	161.9 ± 2.4	1.61 ± 0.20	2.41 ± 0.52	1.02 ± 0.06	43.5 ± 7.0		194 ± 20

exchange was calculated using $(M - W)$ for metabolic heat production. Total sweat loss was derived from the nude weight difference before and immediately after each experiment. Heat equivalence of sweat was calculated using $0.67 \text{ W} \cdot \text{h} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ as latent heat.

The effective evaporative heat transfer coefficient h_e' was derived, similar to the previously described methods (1, 10) from the equation

$$h_e' = \frac{(M - W) + R + C}{P_s - P_{\text{crit}}} \quad [\text{W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \text{ Torr}^{-1}]$$

h_e' is for $v = 1 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, P_s is saturated vapor pressure at the measured \bar{T}_{sk} , and P_{crit} is the critical ambient vapor pressure, derived from T_{db} and T_{wb} at the T_{re} inflection.

Dry heat exchange $(R + C)$ was calculated in terms of the operative temperature (T_o)

$$(R + C) = h_o(T_o - \bar{T}_{\text{sk}}) \quad [\text{W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}]$$

Actually, $T_o = T_a$, since no radiant heat existed. The measured T_g was within 0.5°C of T_a .

In search for h_e' we first used $h_o = 12.5$ for seminude men (11, 13), but corrected for clothing by a factor of 0.65 (7). Thus $h_o = 8.8$. Later on, consideration had to be given to the clothing used in this study. This required a slight change in the h_o value for the construction of the isotherm which is explained in the results.

Isotherms were constructed on a psychrometric chart according to Hatch (6) and Kerslake (11), but on the basis of the \bar{T}_{sk} found in and the h_e' derived from this study. The portion of the straight line for fully wet skin was constructed using the anchor point of P_s at \bar{T}_{sk} , and $T_a = \bar{T}_{\text{sk}} - M/h_o$. The slope of the line was $-\psi = h_o/h_e'$. The portion of the curved line was constructed according to Kerslake (11, p. 92). The T_a for free evaporation was $T_a = \bar{T}_{\text{sk}} + (S - M)/h_o$, where S = heat equivalence for sweat loss; the mean values for the highest S measured were used separately for the men and the women. Sweat loss was assumed a fair representative of sweating rate.

All comparisons between men and women were carried out using noncorrelated t tests. The regression of T_{re} on time was computed by the least-squares method for the temperatures which, in this case, were taken every 5 min, from the 50th min on. The slopes of the regressions were compared by analysis of covariance. The h_e' values for the different T_a 's were treated using one factor analysis of variance with repeated measures and a Tukey post-hoc test to compare mean differences.

Procedures. Each subject was tested daily. If a subject could not be tested for 2 or 3 days, the first reexposure was used for reacclimatization under 50°C db, 25°C wb. The women were acclimatized and were tested throughout their menstrual cycles. None of them required special resting days because of menstrual difficulties. On arrival at the laboratory the subject rested 20–30 min and was then prepared for the test by determination of his nude weight and placement of the rectal probe, chest electrodes, and skin thermocouples. Thereafter, the dry clothing was weighed; the subject dressed and entered the heat chamber. Connections to the instrument and weighing lasted 5–10 min, after which the treadmill walking started. At the end of the experi-

ment, the subjects stepped on the scale for weighing and then walked to an adjacent room to undress quickly for nude weighing and weighing of the wet clothes.

RESULTS

Physiological responses. The oxygen consumption and the metabolic heat production are given in Table 1. The treadmill speed and the grade were adjusted to the subjective comfort of each woman, but with a yield of metabolic heat $(M - W)$ similar to that of the men. Consequently, the O_2 consumption relative to body weight and as percent of $\dot{V}\text{O}_{2\text{max}}$ was higher for the women than for the men.

Two typical examples of the time course of T_{re} are shown in Fig. 1A. It can be seen that, from about the 50th min, T_{re} started to level off. This trend to level off continued into the 2nd h at which time the P_a was increased. The 10-min step increase in P_a resulted in a departure of T_{re} from the steady state reached during the end of the 1st h. In most cases T_{re} completely equilibrated prior to the upward inflection, as shown for *woman 4* in Fig. 1A. In few cases T_{re} revealed a very slow rise prior to the upward inflection as shown for *man 1* in Fig. 1A. Such a slow rise was considered "steady state." An exception to these typical T_{re} responses was observed in *man 4*, whose T_{re} revealed a consistent rise with no clearly defined steady state (Fig. 1B). However, since a departure from this rise in T_{re} was noticed during the 2nd h and an upward inflection of T_{re} could be detected, the data obtained from *man 4* were included in the description of the results. The treatment of the data prior and after the inflection point is described below under the definition of the P_{crit} .

The mean values of T_{re} observed at the point of inflection were taken as the representatives of the steady-state values. These values are summarized in Table 2. Since no correlation was found between the steady-state T_{re} and T_a , the results of all seven exposures were averaged for each individual. There was no significant difference between the men and the women in the T_{re} value at the inflection point even when *man 4* was excluded from the statistical analysis.

Similar to T_{re} , HR, and \bar{T}_{sk} reached equilibrium, or relative steady state, during the 1st h. Unlike T_{re} , these two physiological responses tended to level off early in the 1st h (Fig. 1A). The typical steady-state responses continued into the 2nd h, but eventually revealed an upward inflection as a result of the step increase in the P_a . The upward inflection of HR and \bar{T}_{sk} did not always coincide with the inflection of T_{re} (Fig. 1A). *Man 4* was exceptional in that leveling off of his HR and \bar{T}_{sk} was not apparent during the 1st h, although an upward inflection could be defined during the 2nd h (Fig. 1B).

The HR and \bar{T}_{sk} values for the time of inflection of the T_{re} were averaged for each subject (Table 2). There was no significant difference between the men and the women in the mean HR and \bar{T}_{sk} . However, since *man 4* differed from the other men in the rate of rise of these responses prior to the upward inflection, sex differences were sought by excluding him from the statistical analysis. Indeed, the mean \pm SD of the HR for the three men was 111 ± 10 . Thus, without *man 4* there was a

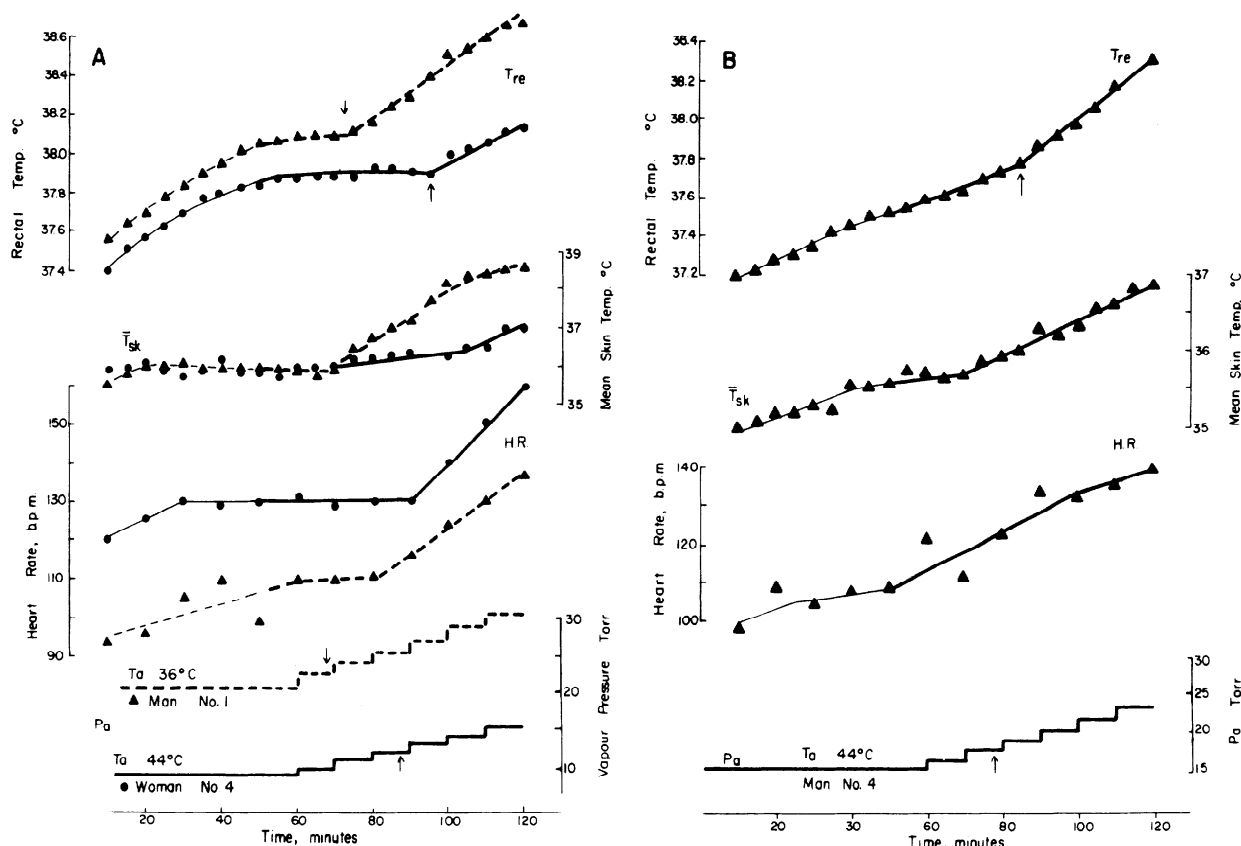


FIG. 1. A: typical example of the time course for rectal temperature, mean skin temperature, and heart rate and step increase in ambient water vapor pressure. Thick lines represent use of slopes to identify points of inflection; arrows indicate point of inflection of T_{re} .

significant difference in the HR ($P < 0.05$) between the men and the women (Table 2). However, even after excluding *man 4*, there was no significant difference in T_{sk} or in T_{re} .

The sweat loss was consistently higher for the men as compared to the women (Table 4). The differences were statistically insignificant for the T_a range of 36–44°C but the highest mean sweat loss was observed at 52°C and was equivalent to 380 and 450 $W \cdot m^{-2}$ for the women and men, respectively.

Definition of critical vapor pressure. The P_{crit} was defined by the upward inflection of the measured T_{re} . This was done graphically using the raw data from the recorder's strip chart. It should be noted that T_{re} was recorded once every 25 s. On the assumption that steady state was reached after the 50th min, a line was drawn between the data points, starting at the 50th min. A second line was drawn from the point of the departure of T_{re} from the first line. The lines were similar to those described in Fig. 1, A and B. The first line, describing the T_{re} rise between the 50th min and the point of the upward inflection, was straight. The second line was either straight, or it curved toward the end. The P_a one step prior to the point at which the second line departed from the first line (upward inflection of T_{re}) was defined as the P_{crit} . This procedure was assumed to make allowance for the 5- to 10-min lag in the T_{re} change-over time. To confirm the graphical identification of the upward inflection of T_{re} , the slopes of the two lines were

and identification of critical P_a . B: example of time course of rectal temperature, mean skin temperature, and heart rate for *man 4*. Lines and arrow are as in 1A.

TABLE 2. Heart rate, rectal temperature, and mean skin temperature averaged for each subject at point of T_{re} inflection

Subj No.	n	Heart Rate, beats \cdot min $^{-1}$	T_{re} , °C	T_{sk} , °C
<i>Men</i>				
1	7	106 \pm 4	38.12 \pm 0.14	36.30 \pm 0.37
2	7	123 \pm 10	37.99 \pm 0.38	36.16 \pm 0.36
3	7	105 \pm 6	37.59 \pm 0.07	35.80 \pm 0.46
4	7	133 \pm 11	38.11 \pm 0.29	36.40 \pm 0.32
Mean \pm SD	28	117 \pm 13	37.94 \pm 0.32	36.18 \pm 0.43
<i>Women</i>				
1	7	123 \pm 5	38.20 \pm 0.16	35.70 \pm 0.46
2	7	145 \pm 9	38.14 \pm 0.17	36.26 \pm 0.56
3	7	142 \pm 8	37.96 \pm 0.04	36.18 \pm 0.67
4	7	130 \pm 5	37.78 \pm 0.12	35.95 \pm 0.46
Mean \pm SD	28	135 \pm 10	38.02 \pm 0.21	36.03 \pm 0.56

compared using an analysis of covariance. The analysis was conducted separately for each exposure of each subject. The slopes of the two lines were significantly different for the majority of the exposures. The few insignificant differences between the two slopes were found in one exposure only, for each of *women 2* and *4* and *men 1* and *3*. Again *man 4* was exceptional in that insignificant difference between the two slopes was found in three of his exposures. These statistical results

This study was designed to separate, in part, the responses to ambient stress from the responses to the stress of work. During the 1st h, the ambient conditions were set at subcritical P_{a_i} , allowing T_{re} and HR to equilibrate at the work specific levels. Subsequently, to obtain a rise in these responses, the heat stress was increased by the stepwise increase in P_{a_i} . Assuming no sex difference in the time constant of T_{re} changes, this procedure was expected to reveal differences between the men and the women, primarily because of the difference in the relative work load. The failure to show such sex differences could be attributed to *man 4* whose responses did not approach a steady state during the exposures to the subcritical P_{a_i} . Thus, T_{re} and HR at the point of the T_{re} inflection were quite higher for him than for the other men. Excluding *man 4* from the comparison between the men and the women revealed a significant difference in HR only; the women's higher HR was proportional to their higher $\% \dot{V}O_{2\max}$. Similar proportional difference in HR was reported by Hertig and Sargent (8) for acclimated men and women working under two relatively dry-hot ambient conditions. However, Wyndham et al. (19) found no difference in HR for acclimatized men and women at levels requiring 1 liter $O_2 \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ (the same as in this study), and under very humid ambient conditions. These conflicting results and the difference that *man 4* made in this study seemed to indicate that the individual HR responses to heat could vary to such an extent that the expected differences due to relative work load were masked.

The T_{re} was expected to be higher in the women than in the men for two reasons. 1) As in the case of HR, under nonstressing ambient conditions, T_{re} equilibrated in proportion to $\% \dot{V}O_{2\max}$ (18). 2) With exposure to heat, the onset of sweating is delayed in women; thus their body temperature showed a greater increase as compared to men (3).

The expected difference in T_{re} was not apparent in the present study, even when *man 4* was excluded from the comparison. Sex differences in T_{re} could neither be found by Wyndham et al. (19), nor could they be concluded from the study of Hertig and Sargent (8). The T_{re} difference, due to the relative work load employed in these studies and in our experiments, was expected to be about 0.5°C (9; 11, p. 132). However, the evidence here and in the literature seemed to indicate that under stressing ambient conditions, T_{re} equilibrium was related to the absolute rather than to the relative metabolism. It should be noted that since drinking was encouraged, water deficit was negligible and was similar for the men and the women: $106 \text{ g} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ (mean).

\dot{T}_{sk} at the point of inflection was practically the same for all the seven exposures and it was not different in men than in women. Such a contrast value of \dot{T}_{sk} for all the T_{a_i} is in agreement with the accepted notion that acclimated men maintained constant \dot{T}_{sk} under stressing ambient conditions, as long as their heat balance was not impaired (1, 6, 17). The average \dot{T}_{sk} of 36°C was higher than the previously established 35°C for men (1) but was the same as that for women (10). The similarity of \dot{T}_{sk} in both sexes under all T_{a_i} exposures justified the

identification of the limit line along the P_{crit} as the isotherm.

The similarity in T_{re} and \dot{T}_{sk} meant that the core-to-surface temperature gradient was the same in both sexes, which, in terms of heat dissipation, was a disadvantage for the women. Since the women's total surface area was smaller, they had to transport more heat per their total area and were under more cardiovascular strain, compared to the men.

The maximal sweat loss obtained in this study was slightly higher, but in reasonably good agreement with the previously obtained values for women (10) and those obtained by others for men and women (4, 8). The men's consistently higher sweating rates were significant for the high T_{a_i} of $46\text{--}52^\circ\text{C}$ only. Judged by the insignificant difference in the P_{crit} at this T_{a_i} range, the additional sweating did not improve the men's exposure limits over the women's, in spite of being exposed to similar P_{a_i} range as the women. These irreconcilable results could be explained by the critical skin wettedness that, as will be shown later, was nearly constant (at about 70%) for the high T_{a_i} range and was practically the same for both sexes. This similarity in wettedness of the skin at the P_{crit} equally restricted evaporation for both sexes.

The sweat loss of *man 4* was the highest in his group; yet he had difficulties with thermoregulation, judged from his inability to reach steady-state HR and T_{re} . His difficulties were also apparent in the limits of exposure, in that the P_{crit} values for him were lower than the other men and were actually in the range of the values obtained for the women. This seemed to indicate that *man 4* was an example of difficulties of thermoregulation which resulted from circulatory rather than sweating insufficiencies (20). This was so despite the fact that he was active in sports and maintained a high level of physical fitness (Table 1).

Biophysical considerations. The results of this study confirm our previous observation (10) that the same evaporative heat transfer coefficient applies to men and women. The derivation of the coefficient h_e' was based on the assumption that at the P_{crit} a) the body was in thermal steady state, and b) the skin was saturated. In thermal equilibrium the total heat load ($M - W + R + C$) equaled evaporative heat loss E , which also meant that $E = E_{\max}$. At the P_{crit} , $(M - W + R + C) = E_{\max}$, or $E/E_{\max} = 1$. The ratio E/E_{\max} also reflected a fully wet skin $w = 1$. If the balance between E and E_{\max} was not satisfied, with $w < 1$, the P_c assumed for the prevailing \dot{T}_{sk} would be too high and the calculated h_e' would be low. This, indeed, was shown in Table 3; the h_e' values for $T_{a_i} > 40^\circ\text{C}$ in the men and the $T_{a_i} > 38^\circ\text{C}$ in the women were significantly lower compared to the respective h_e' values for $T_{a_i} < 40^\circ\text{C}$ and $< 38^\circ\text{C}$.

Similar to the approach taken previously (10) the E value averages for the 2 h and the calculated E_{\max} for P_{crit} were used to estimate the E/E_{\max} ratio for P_{crit} . These values were summarized in Table 4 for each T_{a_i} . It can be seen that, although $E/E_{\max} < 1$ was obtained for $T_{a_i} > 40^\circ\text{C}$ and $> 38^\circ\text{C}$ for the men and women, respectively, E/E_{\max} of about 1 was obtained for the lower T_{a_i} 's. It should be noted that because the method

TABLE 4. *Evaporation rate, ratio between evaporation and ambient maximal evaporative capacity, and sweat rates at each air temperature*

		$T_a, ^\circ\text{C}$						
		36	38	40	44	46	48	52
$E, \text{W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$	Men	207 ± 32	216 ± 24	222 ± 55	246 ± 38	346 ± 52	356 ± 56	366 ± 60
	Women	203 ± 8	266 ± 66	260 ± 48	322 ± 53	301 ± 39	300 ± 43	338 ± 22
E/E_{\max}^\dagger		1.00	0.95	0.95	0.77	0.91	0.89	0.71
		1.00	1.17	0.87	0.86	0.75	0.68	0.70
$S, \text{W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$	Men	355 ± 84	389 ± 35	359 ± 27	353 ± 27	448 \ddagger ± 25	447 \ddagger ± 70	449 \ddagger ± 19
	Women	298 ± 43	364 ± 85	304 ± 53	349 ± 44	335 ± 53	331 ± 51	379 ± 17

* Values are means \pm SD. $^\dagger E_{\max} = h_e (P_{sk} - P_a)$, where, $h_e = 14.5 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{Torr}^{-1}$ averaged from the individual h_e obtained for men at T_a 36–40°C and women at T_a 36–38°C (Table 3), P_a for T_{sk} at P_{crit} (Table 2). $^\ddagger P < 0.05$ vs. women.

called for a step increase in P_a during the 2nd h, the P_{crit} , used to compute E_{\max} , was obtained at the temporary point of inflection of T_{re} . E was averaged for the 2 h of exposure (the search for the T_{re} inflection prevented disruption of the test for weighing). Consequently, the calculated ratio E/E_{\max} could only be an approximation of the ratio expected at the P_{crit} . The fact that values close to 1 were obtained for the T_a range at which the h_e' values were similar, and a ratio of less than one was obtained for the rest of the T_a tested, was explained as follows. During the 1st h of exposure (at subcritical P_a), sweating lagged behind the required E for about 30–40 min, until the rising T_{re} equilibrated. During the 2nd h, two conditions prevailed. a) Under the low T_a , as the P_{crit} was approached and then surpassed, the progressive restriction of evaporation resulted in oversweating; the 2nd h sweat run-off, which was taken as E (weight loss), compensated for the insufficient sweating of the 1st h, to yield an average E close to that expected for the P_{crit} . b) Under the high T_a , evaporation could be achieved more readily, but sweating rate was insufficient. Consequently, the averaged E was lower than expected and, in addition, the P_a for the true E_{\max} was not reached, which resulted in a low E/E_{\max} ratio. This difference between low and high T_a was also noticed by observation. During the period of the rise in T_{re} (2nd h), the subjects were wet from head to toe with sweat dripping when under the low T_a , but seemed much less wet with no apparent dripping sweat when exposed to the high T_a .

S was expected to exceed E by about 50% for conditions where $w = 1$ (11). To confirm the approximated values suggested from this study for the P_{crit} (Table 4), few additional tests were conducted. One woman and two men were each exposed for 2 h to temperatures of 38, 40, 44, and 52°C. The P_{crit} was fixed at the level found at each of these temperatures for each subject. During each test, HR, T_{re} , and T_{sk} leveled off as expected. The average hourly values of S and E yielded the following mean S/E ratios: 1.51 for the women at 38°C and the men at 38 and 40°C; 1.29 for the women at 40 and 44°C and the men at 44°C; and 1.19 at 52°C for the men and women. Put differently, these tests showed

that under the air temperatures at which $w = 1$ was approximated for the P_{crit} , sweat exceeded evaporation by 51%; but under air temperatures at which the approximation for w was less than 1, sweat exceeded evaporation by 20–30% only.

Additional support to the partially wet skin ($w < 1$) for the high T_a range ($>38^\circ\text{C}$ for women, $>40^\circ\text{C}$ for men) was found in the isotherms.

The upper part of the isotherm confirmed the assumption of a fully wet skin at the low T_a range ($T_a < 38^\circ\text{C}$ for women and $T_a < 40^\circ\text{C}$ for men) for the following reason. This upper part of the isotherm was a straight line passing through the P_{crit} points, at the low T_a range, and through the anchor point at P_s for the saturated measured T_{sk} , and $T_a = T_{sk} - M/h_o$ (see METHODS and Fig. 2). Therefore, $h_e' = h_e$, where h_e is the evaporative heat transfer coefficient.

The lower part of the isotherm (the curved portion) represented the conditions of $w < 1$. The deviation of this portion of the isotherm from the straight upper part of the isotherm was limited by the sweating capacity and was in a very good agreement with the P_{crit} values for the high T_a range. Furthermore, the onset of the curved line at 39°C for the women and 43°C for the men agreed with the sex difference in the P_{crit} , found at T_a 40°C and also at T_a 44°C when *man 4* was excluded.

The sex differences in the P_{crit} and in the S implied that the wettedness should also differ. Judged by the magnitude of the observed higher S and P_{crit} in the men as compared to the women (Tables 3 and 4), the difference in w was most likely very small. A test specifically designed to measure w at each P_{crit} , using a large sample, is needed to establish the significance of the sex differences. Such a test was beyond the scope of this study.

The lower h_e' for the high T_a range could be taken to mean that $h_e' = w \cdot h_e$ and w could be derived for the high T_a range by the following reasoning. With the decrease in P_{crit} as T_a increased, h_e' also decreased. However, the h_e' values within the range of the high T_a ($>38^\circ\text{C}$ for women, $>40^\circ\text{C}$ for men) were not significantly different either between the sexes or for each sex within this T_a range. The mean \pm SD of h_e' was $10.3 \pm 0.71 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{Torr}^{-1}$. For $h_e' = 10.3$ and h_e 14.5, $w = 0.71$. This w value applied to all the P_{crit} within the high T_a range. This could be considered the critical w (w_{crit}) for the high T_a . The similarity in the P_{crit} for the men and the women and the linear regression which could be fitted to the data suggested that, for all practical purposes, starting from $T_a = 40^\circ\text{C}$, a regression with a slope of -1.28 applied quite well for both the men and the women. Such a straight line representing $w = 0.71$ could make simpler the psychrometrically defined limit of exposure for an M of about $200 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$. The line most likely could intercept the vertical line for $w = 0$. Unfortunately a search for the T_a at which $w = 0$ was not possible because of technical difficulties in maintaining the low P_a needed at the high T_a range at which $w = 0$.

A similar regression of P_{crit} on T_a and $w = 0.6$ was established for seminude women exposed to the high T_a

range (10). This close agreement between the decreased P_{crit} and the applicability of w_{crit} for unclothed as well as clothed individuals supports the observation made by Berglund and Gonzalez (2) that the estimated w_{crit} for clothed and unclothed individuals is almost identical at the same air velocity.

This method of seeking the P_{crit} at which the rise in T_{re} occurred was originally developed by Belding and Kamon (1) explicitly for the purpose of obtaining a physiologically based coefficient descriptive of evaporative cooling, with an emphasis on establishing a correction for clothing. In that study, the coefficient applicable to seminude men was $18.4 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{Torr}^{-1}$, in agreement with the values reported by others for men (13, 16) and in our previous observation on women (10). A correction of 0.65 was established for clothing, including T-shirt, cotton khaki long-sleeve shirt, trousers, socks, and gym shoes (1, 7). The coefficient ($h_e' = 14.5 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{Torr}^{-1}$) suggested in this study implies a correction of 0.79 over

seminude ($18.4 \div 14.5$), which was smaller than the previously established 0.65 value and the recently suggested correction for sedentary men similarly clothed (2). This difference was not unexpected because in this study the clothing did not include T-shirts and the shirts were worn loose at the sleeves and open halfway down the chest. This substantially reduced the insulative clothing value as compared to that for the clothing used in the previous study.

The sensitivity of this method to the changes in clothing demonstrated the merits of using a step increase in P_a a) to establish physiologically based limits of exposure to heat, and b) to measure directly the evaporative heat transfer properties of different types of clothing.

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