

Cross acclimation between heat and hypoxia: Heat acclimation improves cellular tolerance and exercise performance in acute normobaric hypoxia

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Provisional

1 **Cross acclimation between heat and hypoxia: Heat acclimation**
2 **improves cellular tolerance and exercise performance in acute**
3 **normobaric hypoxia**

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30 **Abstract**

31 **Background.** The potential for cross acclimation between environmental stressors is not well
32 understood. Thus the aim of this investigation was to determine the effect of fixed-
33 workload heat or hypoxic acclimation on cellular, physiological and performance
34 responses during post acclimation hypoxic exercise in humans. **Method.** Twenty-one
35 males (age 22 ± 5 years; stature 1.76 ± 0.07 m; mass 71.8 ± 7.9 kg; $\dot{V}O_2$ peak $51 \pm$
36 7 mL \cdot kg $^{-1}$ \cdot min $^{-1}$) completed a cycling hypoxic stress test (HST) and self-paced 16.1km
37 time trial (TT) before (HST1, TT1), and after (HST2, TT2) a series of 10 daily 60 min
38 training sessions (50% N $\dot{V}O_2$ peak) in control (CON, n = 7; 18°C, 35%RH), hypoxic
39 (HYP, n = 7;) or hot (HOT, n = 7; 40°C, 25% RH) conditions. **Results.** TT
40 performance in hypoxia was improved following both acclimation treatments, HYP (-
41 $3:16 \pm 3:10$ mins:sec; p = 0.0006) and HOT (- $2:02 \pm 1:02$ mins:sec; p = 0.005), but
42 unchanged after CON (+ $0:31 \pm 1:42$ mins:sec). Resting monocyte heat shock protein
43 72 (mHSP72) increased prior to HST2 in HOT ($62 \pm 46\%$) and HYP ($58 \pm 52\%$), but
44 was unchanged after CON ($9 \pm 46\%$), leading to an attenuated mHSP72 response to
45 hypoxic exercise in HOT and HYP HST2 compared to HST1 (p < 0.01). Changes in
46 extracellular hypoxia-inducible factor 1- α followed a similar pattern to those of
47 mHSP72. Physiological strain index (PSI) was attenuated in HOT (HST1 = $4.12 \pm$
48 0.58 , HST2 = 3.60 ± 0.42 ; p = 0.007) as a result of a reduced HR (HST1 = 140 ± 14
49 $b\cdot$ min $^{-1}$; HST2 131 ± 9 b.min $^{-1}$ p = 0.0006) and T_{rectal} (HST1 = $37.55 \pm 0.18^\circ$ C; HST2
50 $37.45 \pm 0.14^\circ$ C; p = 0.018) during exercise. Whereas PSI did not change in HYP
51 (HST1 = 4.82 ± 0.64 , HST2 4.83 ± 0.63). **Conclusion.** Heat acclimation improved
52 cellular and systemic physiological tolerance to steady state exercise in moderate
53 hypoxia. Additionally we show, for the first time, that heat acclimation improved
54 cycling time trial performance to a magnitude similar to that achieved by hypoxic
55 acclimation.

56 **Key words.** Heat, hypoxia, cross-acclimation, cycling, heat shock proteins

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60

61 **Introduction**

62 Adaptation to one environmental stressor can induce protective responses upon exposure to
63 other stressors as long as they share common adaptive responses (Fregly, 2011). This
64 phenomenon is termed cross-acclimation, when physiological strain is attenuated (Ely et al.,
65 2014), or cross-tolerance, when improved cellular protection is observed (Kregel, 2002). At a
66 cellular level acute heat (Fehrenbach et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2014a; Périard et al., 2015) and
67 hypoxic stress (Taylor et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2014a) induce the heat shock response (HSR;
68 Morimoto 1998), characterized by a transient post exposure increase in the cytoprotective
69 heat shock protein 72 (HSP72). Additionally, acclimation to either heat or hypoxia induces
70 phenotypic alterations that increased expression of genes encoding for cytoprotective HSPs
71 (Maloyan et al., 1999; McClung et al., 2008; Gibson et al., 2015c), leading to greater cellular
72 resilience in the face of subsequent stressful insults (Levi et al., 1993; Hutter et al., 1994).

73

74 Enhanced HSP72 following heat acclimation is associated with delayed tissue injury during
75 acute heat stress (Horowitz et al., 2004) and contributes to cross tolerance between heat and
76 ischemic stressors (Maloyan and Horowitz, 2005). In humans supplemented with quercetin -
77 a potent inhibitor of the heat shock response, post heat acclimation thermotolerance was
78 reduced (Kuennen et al., 2011). This was characterized by a diminished cellular stress marker
79 response alongside an attenuated physiological adaptation characterized by physiological
80 parameters, illustrating the functional role of the HSR at a whole body level. However, Hom
81 et al., (2012) demonstrated a heat acclimated phenotype in the absence of HSP72 elevation,
82 suggesting that increased HSP72 alone may not always be present in heat acclimation. In
83 rodent models, increased hypoxia-inducible factor 1- α (HIF1- α), the master regulator of
84 oxygen-regulated genes, and downstream indicators of HIF-1 α expression such as
85 erythropoietin (EPO) receptor, EPO and vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), have
86 been observed after acute heat stress (Na'ama et al., 2005) and heat acclimation (Maloyan et
87 al., 2005; Tetievsky et al., 2008; Assayag et al., 2012; Umschweif et al., 2013) suggesting an
88 interaction between HIF-1 α and the HSR during heat acclimation.

89

90 Few studies have investigated the potential for heat acclimation to confer cross acclimation
91 and tolerance to acute hypoxic exposures in a human model (Heled et al., 2012; Lee et al.,

92 2014a;Lee et al., 2014b;Gibson et al., 2015c), with no study examining the response ofHIF1-
93 α to a heat acclimation regimen. Both acute exercising exposures to heat and heat combined
94 with hypoxia have been shown to attenuate physiological strain during hypoxic exercise
95 conducted 24 hours following the initial heat exposure (Lee et al 2014a). The same authors
96 also observed reduced exercise heart rates and rectal temperatures, and increased exercise
97 SpO₂ during hypoxic exercise that was preceded by three days of heat acclimation (Lee et al.,
98 2014b). Longer term heat acclimation programs have also led to a reduction in hypoxic
99 exercise HR alongside increased SpO₂ (Heled et al., 2012; Gibson et al., 2015c), and an
100 improved cardiac efficiency ($\dot{V}O_2$ /HR referred to as O₂ pulse; Gibson et al., 2015c). In
101 addition to the improvements seen in systemic function, an increase in resting peripheral
102 blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) HSP72 protein (Lee et al., 2014a, 2014b) and HSP72
103 mRNA (Gibson et al., 2015c) have been observed following heat acclimation. Subsequently,
104 the post hypoxic exercise induced increases in the HSP72 response have been shown to be
105 attenuated in heat-acclimated individuals (Lee et al., 2014b; Gibson et al., 2015c). These data
106 support the existence of both cross-acclimation and cross-tolerance in humans.

107

108 While each of these studies included matched load control groups (Lee et al., 2014b;Gibson
109 et al., 2015c), no study has examined cross-acclimation and cross-tolerance in relation to a
110 matched period of hypoxic acclimation. Neither has the effect of heat acclimation on hypoxic
111 exercise performance been determined. Therefore the aim of the present study was to
112 compare the impact of a period of heat acclimation versus hypoxic acclimation on
113 physiological cross-acclimation and cellular cross-tolerance, and exercise performance during
114 a subsequent exposure to acute normobaric hypoxia. It was hypothesized that a prior period
115 of either heat or hypoxic acclimation would reduce physiological strain and improve physical
116 performance when exercising in moderate normobaric hypoxia, with the effects being
117 greatest following hypoxic acclimation. It was also hypothesized that both heat and hypoxic
118 acclimation would increase resting levels of both mHSP72 and eHIF-1 α post acclimation.

119

120 **Methods**

121 **Participant characteristics**

122 Participants ($n = 21$ males; Figure 1) provided written informed consent to take part in the
123 study, which was approved by the Coventry University Ethics review panel. Established
124 confounding variables of smoking, caffeine, glutamine, quercetin, alcohol, and prior thermal,
125 hypoxic and hyperbaric exposures were all controlled in line with previous work (Taylor et
126 al. 2011; Gibson et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2014). Participants were asked not to undertake any
127 other exercise training in the 72 hours leading up to a testing bout and throughout the
128 intervention period. All data collection was conducted in accordance with the standards set
129 out in the Declaration of Helsinki of 1996.

130

131 **Experimental design**

132 All participants attended the laboratory on 17 separate occasions, as outlined in Figure 1.
133 Two preliminary visits enabled height, body mass, estimated body fat via skinfold
134 measurements, and normoxic (N) and hypoxic (H) $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$ tests, separated by at least 5
135 days, to be conducted. Thereafter participants were split into 3 experimental groups (control,
136 CON; heat acclimation, HOT; hypoxic acclimation, HYP) that were matched for N $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$
137 and training experience (Figure 1). After both N and H $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$ tests had been conducted all
138 participants undertook two hypoxic stress test (HST) familiarisation (FAM) sessions
139 (described below) at least 4 days apart (Lee et al., 2014a; Lee et al., 2014b). To avoid any
140 confounding acclimation to acute hypoxia FAM was conducted under normoxic conditions.
141 At least 7 days after the final FAM session participants completed the first HST.

142

143 **Preliminary visit measurements**

144 Height was measured in the Frankfurt plane using a Harpenden stadiometer (Harpenden
145 Instruments, Burgess Hill, UK), nude body mass determined on an electronic scale (Seca
146 Body, Cranlea and Company, Birmingham, UK) and sum of skinfolds determined from 4
147 sites using a skinfold caliper (Harpenden Instruments, Burgess Hill, UK) as described by
148 Durnin and Womersley (1974).

149 Peak $\dot{V}O_2$ was determined in both N and H conditions on separate days (preliminary visits 1
150 and 2) using an incremental exercise test to volitional exhaustion on a calibrated SRM cycle

151 ergometer (Schoberer Rad Meßtechnik, Welldorf, Germany). Hypoxia was generated via a
152 Hypoxicator unit (Hypoxico HYP123 Hypoxicator, New York, USA), that was used to fill a
153 reservoir of three 1000L Douglas bags in series. Participants inspired via a mouthpiece
154 attached to a two-way non-rebreathable valve (Harvard Ltd, Eldenbridge, UK) connected to
155 the gas reservoir with clear ethylene vinyl tubing.

156 Resting blood lactate (BLa; Biosen C-Line analyser, EKF Diagnostics, Sailauf, Germany)
157 was determined from a finger capillary whole blood sample following a 10-min seated rest
158 period. The test began at a workload of 70 W for 4 min and was then increased by 35 W
159 every 4 min until a blood lactate value of $>4 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ was reached. Thereafter, workload
160 increased 35 W every 2 min until volitional exhaustion. A cadence of $70 \text{ rev}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ was
161 maintained throughout. Expired gases were collected using 200 L Douglas bags (Cranlea &
162 Co, Birmingham, UK) during the final minute of each stage. Heart rate (Polar FT1, Polar
163 Electro OY, Kempele, Finland) and perceived exertion (Borg, 1976) were recorded at the end
164 of each gas collection. Respiratory gas analysis was completed as previously described (Lee
165 et al., 2014a; Lee et al., 2014b).

166

167 **Familiarisation, hypoxic stress testing (HST) and acclimation procedures**

168 On each FAM and HST session, as well as throughout the acclimation period, participants
169 reported to the laboratory after an overnight fast to consume a set breakfast 2 hours prior to
170 the exercise bout. The energy content of the breakfast was 386kcal, made up of 15.6g protein,
171 44.4g carbohydrate and 16.4g fat. Participants drank 400ml of water with the breakfast.

172

173 Each FAM, HST and acclimation session was preceded by 15 min of seated normoxic rest
174 (after instrumentation) to collect baseline data and an additional 15 min of seated rest within
175 the defined environment (N or H). The FAM and HST sessions consisted of 40 min of cycle
176 exercise at 50% $\dot{V}\text{O}_2\text{peak}$, a 5 min recovery in which instruments were removed from
177 participants, followed by a 16.1km cycling time trial. The time trial has a CV and TEM of
178 0.63% and 36 seconds respectively following 2 FAM sessions. The smallest worthwhile
179 change in TT time using this protocol is therefore a 46 second difference (Lee et al., 2015).
180 The 10-day acclimation protocol consisted of once daily exposures of cycle ergometer

181 exercise within the defined environment, either CON (18°C, 35% RH), HOT (40°C, 25%
182 RH) or HYP (18°C, 35% RH, F₁O₂ = 0.14%) at 50% N $\dot{V}O_2$ peak for 60 minutes (Castle et al.,
183 2011).

184

185 **Physiological measurements**

186 Prior to each testing session participants provided a urine sample for the assessment of urine
187 specific gravity (USG; Atago Refractometer, Jencons Pls, Leighton Buzzard, UK) and urine
188 osmolality (U_{OSMO}; Advanced 3300 Micro-Osmometer, Advanced Inc, Massachusetts, USA),
189 determined their nude body mass (Seca, Bodycare, UK) and inserted a rectal thermistor
190 (Grant Instruments, UK) to a depth of 10cm. Heart rate (HR) was monitored throughout each
191 trial via telemetry (Suunto, T6c, Finland). Blood lactate (Biosen C-Line analyser, EKF
192 Diagnostics, Sailauf, Germany) was determined from a finger capillary whole blood sample
193 at the end of the resting period and at the end of exercise for both HST and acclimation
194 sessions. Heat strain was calculated using the physiological strain index (PSI; (Moran et al.,
195 1998) as follows:

196

$$197 \text{ PSI} = 5(T_{\text{rectalT}} - T_{\text{rectal0}}) \times (39.5 - T_{\text{rectal0}})^{-1} + 5(\text{HR}_T - \text{HR}_0) \times (180 - \text{HR}_0)^{-1}$$

198

199 Where T_{rectal0} and HR₀ are the initial T_{rectal} and heart rate respectively, and T_{rectalT} and HR_T
200 were obtained at 10 minute intervals during acclimation sessions or HST with the mean
201 exercise value reported, and at each 1km measurement point throughout the TT. The PSI
202 classifies physiological strain between 0 and 10 units, where 0 represents no or very little
203 strain and 10 represents very high strain (Moran et al., 1998).

204

205 During all hypoxic sessions, arterial oxygen hemoglobin saturation (S_PO₂) was measured
206 throughout via a pulse oximeter (WristOx, Nonin Medical Inc, Minnesota, USA).

207 Hemodynamic indices of stroke volume (SV) and cardiac output (\dot{Q}) were estimated via
208 arterial waveform measurements obtained from a pneumatic finger cuff attached to the index

209 finger of the right hand (Portapres Model-2, Finapres Medical Systems, Hogehilweg,
210 Amsterdam). The right arm was supported throughout using a sling, and the index finger
211 positioned at a height equivalent to the aorta via palpation of the third intercostal space.
212 Measurements were taken at the end of each resting phase, and for 120 sec every 10 min
213 during the exercise phase, and calibrations performed at the beginning of the rest period and
214 at 8 minute intervals throughout the HST. Ratings of perceived exertion (RPE; (Borg, 1976)
215 and thermal sensation (TS) were collected at 10 min intervals during the 40 min exercise
216 tolerance phase of the test session with the mean exercise value reported.

217

218 The self-paced 16.1km time trial was completed using the SRMwin software's open-ended
219 mode (Version 6.4.2). Participants were instructed to complete the course as quickly as
220 possible and were given no verbal encouragement during the TT. Participants were only able
221 to see the distance they had covered. Measures of HR, SpO₂, T_{rectal}, and power output were
222 collected every kilometer and a fingertip BLa sample collected immediately upon completion
223 of the TT.

224

225 **Blood sampling**

226 Venous blood samples (~7mL) were collected from an antecubital vein into an EDTA treated
227 vacutainer (Vacuette, Greiner Bio-One, Stonehouse, UK) following the 15 min seated
228 stabilization period before each HST, and on day 1 and 10 of the acclimation period. Post
229 exercise samples were collected immediately after the exercise phase of the 60 min HST
230 exposure was completed, and immediately upon completion of the aforementioned
231 acclimation sessions. Whole venous blood was used to determine hemoglobin via a calibrated
232 B-Haemoglobin Photometer (Hemocue Ltd, Angleholm, Sweden) and heparinized capillary
233 sample tubes were centrifuged (Hawksley Micro Haematocrit Centrifuge, Hawksley and Son,
234 Lancing, UK) to establish haematocrit using a micro haematocrit reader (Hawksley Micro).
235 Both haemoglobin and haematocrit were assessed in triplicate with the mean value reported.
236 These samples were collected to calculate corrected plasma volumes according to the
237 equations of Dill and Costill (1974). A 100µL aliquot was used for the immediate assessment
238 of monocyte HSP72 (mHSP72; described below). The remaining whole blood was
239 centrifuged at 5000rpm for 10 min and plasma aliquots stored at -80°C until assessment of

240 plasma glucose and lactate (Randox Daytona Rx, County Antrim, Ireland), and extracellular
241 HIF-1 α (eHIF-1 α ; Cusabio, BIOTEK, Newark, New Jersey).

242

243 **mHSP72 determination**

244 An IgG1 isotype and concentration-matched FITC-conjugated negative control were used in
245 order to assess non-specific binding. Briefly, cells obtained after red cell lysis were fixed and
246 permeabilised (AbD Serotec, Kidlington, UK) and a negative control (FITC, AbD Serotec,
247 Kidlington, UK) or anti-HSP72 antibody (SPA-810, Enzo lifesciences, Exeter, UK) was
248 added to a final concentration of 100 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$, this was used to label 1×10^6 cells according to
249 the manufacturer's instructions and then incubated for 30 min in the dark. Samples were then
250 analysed on a BD FACSCalibur (BD Biosciences, Oxford, UK) by flow cytometry with
251 monocytes gated for forward/side scatter properties and further discriminated by CD14
252 expression (Selkirk et al., 2009). Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) was then calculated using
253 CellQuest Pro software (BD Biosciences, Oxford, UK) with a total of 15000 cells counted.

254

255 **Extracellular HIF-1 α**

256 Extracellular HIF-1 α , in EDTA plasma, was measured using a pre-prepared sandwich
257 enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) technique (Cusabio BIOTEK, Newark, New
258 Jersey). 100 μL of standards and samples were added to each pre-coated well and incubated
259 for 2 hours at 37 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. Standards and samples were then aspirated and 100 μL of biotin-antibody
260 and incubated at 37 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 1 hour. After three 200 μL washes with sodium azide-free wash
261 buffer, 100 μL of horse radish peroxidase-avidin was added to each well and incubated for 1
262 hour at 37 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. Following a further three wash steps 90 μL of TMB substrate was added and
263 incubated at 37 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ in the dark before 50 μL of stop solution was added. The plate was then
264 read at 570nm and 450nm to enable wavelength correction. The assay's detection range is
265 62.5 – 4000 $\text{pg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ and limit of detection is 15.6 $\text{pg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$. The intra-assay precision was
266 determined from duplicates of standards within the same plate (6.4%) and inter-assay
267 precision determined from standards assessed across plates (8.2%).

268

269 **Statistical analysis**

270 The primary outcome measures of this study were an assessment of whole body
271 cardiovascular, thermoregulatory, metabolic and mHSP72 and eHIF-1 α responses to the
272 HST. Time trial completion time was the main variable of interest during the performance
273 component of the HST. In order to control for the false discovery rate and correct for multiple
274 comparisons four families of hypothesis were tested according to the method of Benjamini
275 and Hochberg (1995); 1) Physiological responses to acclimation; 2) Physiological responses
276 to the hypoxic stress tests; 3) Cellular stress responses; 4) Time trial performance responses.

277 All data were checked for normal distribution prior to analysis and tests employing repeated
278 measures were checked for sphericity before analysis with Mauchly's sphericity test. Where
279 sphericity was broken, p -values were corrected using the Huynh-Feldt method. Resting and
280 mean exercise data from day 1 and day 10 of the acclimation period, and HST1 and HST2
281 were analyzed using a 2 (time) x 3 (group) mixed effects linear model, with fixed effects for
282 acclimation day.

283 To enable an exploration of pacing strategies during the TT following the acclimation period
284 power output was averaged over each km of the TT and analysed using linear effects mixed
285 models with fixed effects for time and group. HR, T_{rectal} and PSI during the TT were analysed
286 using the same method. Data are reported as mean \pm standard deviation for $n = 7$ in each
287 experimental group, unless otherwise stated. Precise p -values are reported, and both Cohen's
288 D (with 95% confidence intervals) and partial eta squared ($P\eta^2$) effect sizes are presented to
289 indicate the magnitude of observed effects (Colquhoun, 2014). Cohens D effect sizes of 0.2,
290 0.5 and 0.8 and partial eta squared ($P\eta^2$) effect sizes of 0.01, 0.06 and 0.13 are considered
291 small, medium and large respectively.

292

293 **Results**

294 **Heat acclimation, hypoxic acclimation and exercise control interventions**

295 Physiological and thermoregulatory variables for each experimental group before and after
296 day 1 and day 10 of acclimation are displayed in Table 1. Participants were hydrated prior to
297 each acclimation session, with no between-day or between group differences observed for

298 pre-trial body mass, U_{osmo} or USG. On day 1 of acclimation, mean exercise HR was greater in
299 HOT ($p = 0.01$) and HYP ($p = 0.02$) compared to CON. Additionally, HOT induced a greater
300 mean exercise T_{rectal} and corresponding PSI compared to HYP (both $p < 0.05$) and CON (both
301 $p < 0.001$), with no difference observed between HYP and CON (Table 1).

302 On day 10 of acclimation an interaction effect was observed for resting plasma volume ($f =$
303 12.336 , $p < 0.0001$, $\eta^2 = 0.58$) which increased in HOT ($d = 3.8$, 95% CI = 1.9 to 5.2),
304 decreased in HYP ($d = -1.7$, 95% CI = -3.2 to -0.6) and remained unchanged in CON ($d =$
305 0.7 , 95% CI = -0.5 to 1.7). No main effect for time ($f = 3.346$, $p = 0.084$, $\eta^2 = 0.16$) or time
306 x group interaction ($f = 2.293$, $p = 0.13$, $\eta^2 = 0.20$) was observed for resting HR, although a
307 large effect size was noted for HOT ($d = -0.73$, 95% CI = -1.86 to 0.31). Resting T_{rectal} was
308 lower following acclimation in both HYP ($d = -0.72$, 95% CI = -1.69 to 0.45) and HOT ($d = -$
309 2.17 , 95% CI = -2.3 to -0.1; $p < 0.05$ for both).

310 Following acclimation PSI was reduced in both HYP ($p = 0.001$, $d = -1.0$, 95% CI = -2.2 to
311 0.1) and HOT ($p = 0.005$, $d = -1.95$, 95% CI = -3.4 to -0.8) and was unchanged in CON ($d = -$
312 0.1 , 95% CI = -1.2 to 0.9). The reduction in PSI was mediated by a lower mean exercise HR
313 in HYP ($p = 0.01$, $d = -1.1$, 95% CI = -2.3 to 0.0), and a lower mean exercise HR ($p = 0.04$, $d =$
314 -1.3 , 95% CI = -2.3 to 0.0) and T_{rectal} ($p = 0.001$, $d = 4.9$, 95% CI = -5.0 to -1.7) in HOT.
315 No change in these variables was observed in CON. A large effect for rate of T_{rectal} change
316 was observed for HOT ($d = -1.8$, 95% CI = -2.6 to -0.3), and not for CON ($d = -0.3$, 95% CI
317 = -1.4 to 0.8) or HYP ($d = -0.1$, 95% CI = -1.1 to 1.0), with no main effect for time ($F =$
318 4.240 , $p = 0.05$, $\eta^2 = 0.19$) or group x time interaction ($f = 1.526$, $p = 0.244$, $\eta^2 = 0.15$)
319 observed.

320

321 **Monocyte HSP72 before and after acclimation**

322 No between group difference was observed for mHSP72 prior to acclimation (Figure 2A).

323 Following exercise on day 1, mHSP72 was increased in HOT ($p = 0.0015$, $d = 3.8$, 95% CI =
324 1.9 to 5.2) and HYP ($p = 0.0009$, $d = 1.5$, 95% CI = 0.1 to 2.4), but not CON ($p = 0.14$, $d = -$
325 0.3 , 95% CI = -0.5 to 0.7; Figure 2A). An inverse relationship between resting mHSP72 and
326 the magnitude of after exercise expression was observed for HOT ($r = -0.88$, $p = 0.009$), with
327 a weaker relationship observed for HYP ($r = -0.52$, $p = 0.23$).

328 Prior to day 10 of acclimation, resting mHSP72 was increased in HOT ($p = 0.0006$, $d = 4.1$,
329 95% CI = 1.4 to 4.4) and HYP ($p = 0.013$, $d = 1.5$, 95% CI = 0.04 to 2.3), and unchanged in
330 CON ($p = 0.21$, $d = -0.4$, 95% = -1.4 to 0.7; Figure 2 B). As a result of the increased resting
331 concentrations of mHSP72, no further after exercise changes in mHSP72 were observed in
332 HOT ($p = 0.53$) or HYP ($p = 0.24$) on day 10 (Figure 2 B). Consequently, the before
333 acclimation relationship between resting mHSP72 and magnitude in after exercise change
334 was reduced in HOT ($r = -0.05$, $p = 0.924$), although similar in HYP ($r = -0.55$, $p = 0.20$).

335

336 **Extracellular HIF-1 α before and after acclimation**

337 Figure 3 illustrates eHIF1- α concentrations before and after day 1 and day 10 of acclimation.
338 Following exercise on day 1 of acclimation eHIF-1 α was increased in HYP (256 ± 290 %, p
339 = 0.011, $d = 1.1$, 95% CI = -0.2 to 2.0) and HOT (103 ± 162 %, $p = 0.076$, $d = 0.8$, 95% CI = -
340 0.4 to 2.0), and unchanged in CON (8 ± 29 %, $p = 0.95$, $d = 0.0$, 95% = -1.1 to 1.0, Figure
341 3A). Prior to day 10 of acclimation eHIF-1 α was increased in both HYP (292 ± 360 %, $p =$
342 0.02, $d = 1.2$, 95% CI = -0.2 to 2.0) and HOT (165 ± 66 %, $p = 0.031$, $d = 0.80$, 95% = -0.4 to
343 1.8), and unchanged in CON (5 ± 29 %, $p = 0.55$, $d = -0.1$, 95% -1.1 to 1.0, Figure 3B). On
344 day 10 of acclimation eHIF-1 α was no different from rest after exercise in HYP (21 ± 79 %, p
345 = 0.628) HOT (19 ± 33 %, $p = 0.112$) or CON (-5 ± 17 %, Figure 3B).

346

347 **Hypoxic tolerance tests**

348 Following acclimation and immediately prior to the beginning of the HST trial, plasma
349 volume remained elevated in HOT ($p = 0.022$, $d = 1.0$, 95% CI = -0.3 to 1.9), depressed in
350 HYP ($p = 0.056$, $d = -1.1$, 95% CI = -1.9 to 0.3) and unchanged in CON ($p = 0.41$, $d = -0.2$,
351 95% CI = -1.2 to 0.9). Resting physiological and thermoregulatory parameters are displayed
352 in Table 2. No resting physiological variable was affected as a result of the intervention
353 period ($p > 0.05$, Table 2). Table 3 presents the cardiovascular, metabolic, thermoregulatory
354 and perceptual responses to the HST before and after acclimation. HR was lower in HST2
355 compared to HST1 in HOT ($p = 0.006$, $d = -0.6$, 95% CI = -1.8 to 0.4), and unchanged in
356 CON ($p = 0.44$, $d = 0.2$, 95% CI -0.9 to 1.2) and HYP ($p = 0.38$, $d = -0.1$, 95% CI = -1.1 to
357 1.0). Moderate and large effects were observed for an increased SpO₂ in HOT ($p = 0.0015$, d

358 = 0.70 95% CI = -0.5 to 1.8) and HYP ($p = 0.023$, $d = 0.50$, 95% CI = -0.7 to 1.4), with no
359 effect observed in CON ($p = 0.36$ $d = 0.0$), neither was an interaction effect observed ($f =$
360 1.69 , $p = 0.212$). A moderate effect was observed for SV in HOT ($p = 0.06$, $d = 0.40$, 95% CI
361 = -0.7 to 1.40) but no effect was observed for CON ($p = 0.29$, $d = -0.1$, 95% CI = -1.1 to 1.0)
362 or HYP ($p = 0.11$, $d = -0.4$, 95% CI = -1.5 to 0.7), and no interaction effect was evident ($f = 2.79$, p
363 $= 0.08$). As a result of the increased SV and decreased HR in HOT, and no changes in either
364 component variable for CON and HYP, no interaction effect was observed for cardiac output
365 ($f = 0.50$, $p = 0.65$), with small effects observed for CON ($d = -0.1$, 95% = -1.2 to 1.0), HYP
366 ($d = -0.4$, 95% CI = -1.5 to 0.7) and HOT ($d = -0.2$, 95% CI = -1.3 to 0.8). Cardiac efficiency,
367 as determined by O_2 pulse, was improved in HOT ($p = 0.01$, $d = 0.5$, 95% CI = -0.6 to 1.5),
368 and unchanged for CON ($p = 0.50$, $d = 0.0$, 95% CI = -1.1 to 1.1) and HYP ($p = 0.34$, $d = -$
369 0.1 , 95% CI = -1.12 to 0.98), although no interaction effect was observed ($f = 3.32$, $p =$
370 0.059). No differences were observed between HST1 and HST2 for \dot{V}_{Emin} , $\dot{V}O_2$, $\dot{V}CO_2$ or RER
371 (Table 3).

372 An interaction effect was observed for T_{rectal} ($f = 5.58$, $p = 0.013$), with T_{rectal} lower during
373 HST2 for HOT ($p = 0.002$, $d = -0.6$, 95% CI = -1.7 to 0.5), and unchanged for CON ($p =$
374 0.28 , $d = 0.1$, 95% CI = -0.9 to 1.20) and HYP ($p = 0.17$, $d = -0.2$, 95% CI = -1.2 to 0.9). The
375 attenuated HR and T_{rectal} observed in HOT resulted in a reduced PSI during HST2 ($p = 0.007$,
376 $d = -0.9$, 95% CI = -2.1 to 0.2). PSI was unchanged from HST1 to HST2 in CON ($p = 0.30$, d
377 $= -0.1$, 95% CI = -1.2 to 0.9) and HYP ($p = 0.47$, $d = 0.02$, 95% CI = -1.0 to 1.1).
378 Additionally, the rate of T_{rectal} change was attenuated in HST2 following HOT ($p = 0.026$, $d =$
379 -0.44 , 95% CI = -1.4 to 0.7) but similar to HST1 in CON ($p = 0.26$, $d = -0.1$, 95% = -1.1 to
380 1.0) and HYP ($p = 0.49$, $d = -0.2$, 95% CI = -1.2 to 0.9).

381

382 **Monocyte HSP72 responses to acute hypoxia**

383 Figure 4 illustrates the mHSP72 response to hypoxia before (HST1) and after (HST2) the
384 acclimation intervention. An acute bout of hypoxic exercise lead to increased mHSP72 MFI
385 in all groups prior to acclimation (main effect for time, $F = 16.65$, $p < 0.0001$; Figure 4, A),
386 and the inverse relationship between resting mHSP72 and post exercise mHSP72 was
387 observed ($r = -0.51$, $p = 0.019$ for the combined cohort, $n=21$). Following acclimation resting
388 mHSP72 was increased in HYP ($58 \pm 52\%$, $p = 0.014$, $d = 1.2$, 95% CI = -0.02 to 2.2) and

389 HOT ($63 \pm 46\%$, $p = 0.008$, $d = 3.8$, $95\% \text{ CI} = 0.7 \text{ to } 3.2$), remaining unchanged in CON (10
390 $\pm 46\%$, $p = 0.83$, $d = -0.1$, $95\% \text{ CI} = -1.1 \text{ to } 0.1$; Figure 4B). Consequently, the mHSP72
391 response following HST2 was blunted for HOT ($p = 0.26$) and HYP ($p = 0.18$), and was
392 comparable to HST1 in CON (Figure 4B).

393

394 **Extracellular HIF-1 α responses to acute hypoxia**

395 Figure 5 illustrates the eHIF-1 α response to hypoxia before (HST1) and after (HST2) the
396 acclimation intervention. Prior to acclimation the HST induced a $171 \pm 247\%$, $197 \pm 125\%$
397 and $266 \pm 192\%$ increase in eHIF-1 α in CON, HYP and HOT respectively (main effect for
398 time, $F = 34.59$, $p < 0.0001$; Figure 5A). Following the 10 day acclimation period resting
399 eHIF-1 α was elevated in HYP ($220 \pm 128\%$, $p = 0.002$, $d = 1.2$, $95\% \text{ CI} = -0.2 \text{ to } 2.0$) and
400 HOT ($98 \pm 92\%$, $p = 0.017$, $d = 0.8$, $95\% \text{ CI} = -0.4 \text{ to } 1.8$), and unchanged in CON ($15 \pm$
401 76% , $p = 0.62$, $d = 0.0$, $95\% \text{ CI} = -1.1 \text{ to } 1.0$) (Figure 5 B). Therefore, after acclimation eHIF-
402 1 α increased during exercise from rest in CON ($241 \pm 193\%$, $p = 0.003$, $d = 2.3$, $95\% \text{ CI} =$
403 $0.3 \text{ to } 2.7$) and HOT ($76 \pm 101\%$, $p = 0.07$, $d = 1.8$, $95\% \text{ CI} = -0.1 \text{ to } 2.2$), however this
404 response was attenuated in HYP in comparison to HST1 ($33 \pm 83\%$, $p = 0.30$, $d = 0.4$, 95%
405 $\text{CI} = -0.7 \text{ to } 1.4$) (Figure 5B).

406

407 **Time trial performance**

408 Table 4 illustrates performance changes for TT1 and TT2. There was no difference in TT
409 times following the intervention in the CON group (TT1, 43:05 min:sec, $95\% \text{ CI} = 40:18 \text{ to}$
410 $45:51 \text{ min:sec}$; TT2, 43:27 min:sec, $95\% \text{ CI} = 40:54 \text{ to } 45:58 \text{ min:sec}$; $d = 0.09$). The HYP
411 group were quicker in TT2 (41:32 min:sec, $95\% \text{ CI} = 39:01 \text{ to } 44:03 \text{ min:sec}$) compared to
412 TT1 (44:48 min:sec, $95\% \text{ CI} = 42:02 \text{ to } 47:33 \text{ min:sec}$; $p = 0.006$, $d = -1.14$). The HOT group
413 were also quicker in TT2 (40:41 min:sec, $95\% \text{ CI} = 38:10 \text{ to } 43:12 \text{ min:sec}$) compared to
414 TT1 (42:43 min:sec, $95\% \text{ CI} = 39:58 \text{ to } 45:29 \text{ min:sec}$, $p = 0.05$, $d = -0.70$).

415 Power output during TT2 was increased from TT1 in the HYP and HOT groups ($p < 0.05$,
416 Figure 6). Specifically PO was greater during each kilometer in HYP (Figure 6B), and greater
417 between 1-8km and 14-16km in HOT (Figure 6C). HR and T_{rectal} were no different during the

418 TT pre to post intervention in any experimental group ($p > 0.05$, Table 4). PSI was higher in
419 the post intervention TT in the CON ($p = 0.02$) and HYP groups ($p = 0.03$).

420 Upon completion of acclimation, HST2 and TT2, normoxic $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ was unchanged from
421 pre-intervention values in all groups (CON: pre $51.4 \pm 10.0 \text{ mL.kg}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$, post 51.9 ± 8.6
422 $\text{mL.kg}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$; HYP, pre $50.7 \pm 4.7 \text{ mL.kg}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$, post 51.4 ± 5.4 ; HOT, pre 52.3 ± 7.1
423 $\text{mL.kg}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$, post $53.4 \pm 6.5 \text{ mL.kg}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$). Additionally, peak power output and power at
424 lactate threshold also remained unchanged between groups upon completion of the
425 experimental period.

426

427 **Discussion**

428 **Summary of main findings**

429 The main finding of this study is that fixed-work heat acclimation reduces physiological
430 strain, as assessed by exercising HR and T_{rectal} , and improves cycling TT performance in
431 acute normobaric hypoxia. Moreover this effect was comparable to the decreased
432 physiological strain and enhanced performance achieved with hypoxic acclimation and
433 occurred despite no post acclimation improvement in $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ or lactate threshold in any
434 experimental group. Therefore, the hypothesis pertaining to heat acclimation resulting in
435 improved systemic hypoxic tolerance is accepted. At a cellular level both HOT and HYP
436 increased resting mHSP72 prior to the second HST, supporting the hypothesis that both heat
437 and hypoxic acclimation would enhance cellular tolerance. As a result the cellular stress
438 response to hypoxia was blunted in the HYP and HOT groups. Interestingly, eHIF-1 α was
439 elevated in both HYP and HOT immediately post exercise after the initial acclimation
440 session. Thereafter an increased resting concentration was only noted following HYP (48
441 hours post HST). Increased baseline eHIF-1 α led to a blunted post hypoxic exercise eHIF-1 α
442 response in the HYP group, whereas data from the HOT group was equivocal, indicating that
443 further study on eHIF-1 α and related downstream markers regulated by this oxygen sensing
444 gene following heat acclimation are warranted.

445 **Heat and hypoxic cross-acclimation**

446 Heat acclimation induced a greater adaptive stimulus at lower levels of metabolic strain, and
447 in a shorter time frame compared to hypoxic acclimation. This occurred despite the HYP
448 group completing sessions at a higher relative intensity ($61 \pm 0.5\%$ of $H \dot{V}O_2\text{peak}$). Exercise
449 durations of up to 90 min, as frequently utilized in acclimation protocols (de Castro
450 Magalhães et al., 2010; Gibson et al., 2015b; Gibson et al., 2015c) increase the variability in
451 trial duration between hypoxia and heat stress (Lee et al., 2014a). Therefore matching both
452 cardiovascular strain and exercise duration during the initial phase of acclimation was
453 achieved by using a workload of 50% $N \dot{V}O_2\text{peak}$ for 60 min (Lee et al., 2014a). While
454 cardiovascular strain in the HOT and HYP groups were each higher than CON during the
455 initial phases of acclimation, the total physiological strain was greatest in the HOT group as a
456 result of the elevated T_{rectal} (Table 1).

457 It is accepted that the sudomotor and cardiovascular adaptations to heat stress are completed
458 within 7 – 10 days of daily exposure (Garrett et al., 2009; Castle et al., 2011). The typical
459 indicators of heat acclimation, such as reduced exercising HR and T_{rectal} and increased PV
460 and sweat rate were observed in the present study and were similar in magnitude to previous
461 work using an identical heat acclimation protocol (Castle et al., 2011). We are confident
462 therefore that participants attained a heat acclimated state. Mechanistically, an increased
463 vascular filling time mediated by PV expansion is thought to improve cardiovascular stability
464 during exercise-heat stress (Patterson et al., 2004). The observed PV expansion in the present
465 study was maintained until the second HST (+4%, 48 hours after the final acclimation
466 session). Although causality cannot be determined, it is feasible that the greater PV in HST2
467 mediated the increase in exercise SV thereby reducing HR as observed in the HOT group.
468 Additionally, exercise T_{rectal} and PSI were reduced during HST2, likely as a result of the
469 increased sweat rate. While a reduction in exercise heat gain may improve perceptions of
470 exercise difficulty it is unlikely to impact on exercise performance when conditions are
471 compensable (Cheung et al., 2000). Instead, a reduced exercise T_{rectal} induces a leftward shift
472 in the oxyhemoglobin dissociation curve, theoretically enhancing oxygen saturation during
473 exercise (White et al., 2014; Gibson et al., 2015c), which is a more crucial aspect of hypoxic
474 exercise tolerance than maintaining thermal balance in the compensable hypoxic conditions
475 used in the present study. Our results show an improved exercise SpO_2 in the HOT group
476 post acclimation, occurring alongside greater cardiac stability. Both the reduction in HR, and
477 the reduced blood viscosity (PV expansion) allows for a longer pulmonary system red
478 corpuscle transit time, thereby allowing for a more complete hemoglobin re-saturation

479 (Dempsey et al., 1984). An enhancement in PV prior to an altitude sojourn may also mitigate
480 against the carotid-chemoreceptor dependent diuresis, and subsequent reduced PV and
481 associated reductions in left ventricular filling pressure, stroke volume and cardiac output
482 observed during the initial weeks spent at moderate altitude (Dempsey and Morgan 2015).

483 Our results are comparable to those previously observed following a period of isothermic
484 heat acclimation (Gibson et al., 2015c). Isothermic methods of acclimation are suggested to
485 offer a more complete adaptation because session by session workloads are imposed to
486 achieve a target $T_{\text{rectal}} > 38.5^{\circ}\text{C}$, thereby maintaining the adaptive stimulus (Fox et al.,
487 1964; Patterson et al., 2004; Taylor and Cotter, 2006; de Castro Magalhães et al., 2010; Gibson
488 et al., 2015a; Gibson et al., 2015b; Gibson et al., 2015c). However, both fixed work and
489 isothermic models of acclimation have been shown to offer comparable levels of acclimation
490 at a systemic (Gibson et al., 2015b) and gene expression level (Gibson et al., 2015a),
491 indicating each method possesses cross-acclimation and cross-tolerance potential.

492 We observed no change in absolute $\dot{V}O_2$, in addition to a reduction in hypoxic exercise HR 48
493 hours after acclimation, indicating an improvement in gross efficiency as determined from
494 oxygen pulse (O_2 pulse). Gibson et al., (2015c) noted similar improvements in O_2 pulse
495 during hypoxic exercise completed 24 hours after the final isothermic acclimation session.
496 Together these data illustrate that both fixed load and isothermic acclimation methods induce
497 a heat acclimated phenotype which also induces similar reductions in cardiovascular and
498 thermoregulatory strain upon exposure to subsequent normobaric hypoxic exercise. We
499 observed no post acclimation change in $N \dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$ in all experimental groups, thus the
500 possibility that improved physiological strain occurred as a result of an improved post heat
501 acclimation $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$ and subsequent reduction in relative exercise intensity can be
502 discounted (Lorenzo et al., 2010). Unfortunately we did not conduct a post-acclimation
503 hypoxic $\dot{V}O_{2\text{peak}}$ test, so the role heat acclimation has on hypoxic aerobic capacity could not
504 be determined.

505 The duration, frequency and total number of intermittent normobaric hypoxic exposures
506 required to acclimate to later normobaric hypoxia is unclear. Our present data indicates that
507 while SpO_2 was increased during exercise in parallel with a decrease in exercising HR on day
508 10 of acclimation, full hypoxic acclimation was unlikely to have been achieved. The time
509 course required to achieve a more complete adaptation to normobaric hypoxia may therefore

510 require either additional exposures, or an extended daily hypoxic exercise duration. For
511 example, intermittent hypobaric hypoxic exposures have reported a 2-3% increase in exercise
512 SpO₂, a 9-20 bpm drop in heart rate, and a 150-160mL drop in $\dot{V}O_2$, and a 6.1 minute (16%
513 improvement) in TT performance following 7 daily 4-hour resting exposures (Beidleman et
514 al., 2008). In contrast, the same authors reported no change in performance following a
515 matched experimental approach utilizing normobaric methods (Beidleman et al., 2009). The
516 discrepancy in results was attributed to a loss of ventilatory acclimation during the 60 hour
517 period between the last acclimation session and follow up testing (Beidleman et al., 2009). In
518 the present study it is possible a loss of ventilatory adaptation occurred during the 48 hour
519 period between the last acclimation session and second HST, accounting for the lack of
520 improved physiological tolerance during HST2. The results suggest that heat acclimation
521 offers a more persistent and time efficient means of improving cardiac stability during
522 subsequent normobaric hypoxic exercise. Furthermore, this was attained at a lower level of
523 metabolic strain compared to when the same absolute exercise intensity was conducted in
524 normobaric hypoxia. The optimal duration and frequency required to elicit adaptation to
525 normobaric hypoxia requires further study to enable additional comparisons between
526 environments.

527 **Heat and hypoxic cross-tolerance**

528 Our data show that a 10 day period of fixed-work exercise acclimation in both heat and
529 hypoxic conditions enhances basal mHSP72 (Figure 2B). Interestingly, the magnitude of
530 mHSP72 accumulation was similar between HYP and HOT despite the greater total
531 physiological strain accrued during heat acclimation (Figure 2C). The time course of HSP72
532 accumulation throughout a period of heat or hypoxic acclimation has not been studied.
533 Therefore, it cannot be determined whether the different levels of physiological strain
534 observed between conditions in the early phase of acclimation leads to a more rapid or more
535 gradual induction of protective cellular processes. An enhanced reserve of HSP72 is one of
536 the hallmarks of cross tolerance observed in rodent models (Maloyan et al., 1999;Horowitz,
537 2007;Horowitz and Robinson, 2007). In humans, acclimation to both heat and hypoxia has
538 been shown to elicit increases in basal HSP72 (McClung et al., 2008;de Castro Magalhães et
539 al., 2010;Taylor et al., 2011;Taylor et al., 2012) suggesting cross-tolerance potential exists.
540 Increased post exercise mHSP72 is likely mediated by an increase in thermal and
541 physiological strain in conditions of heat stress (Lee et al., 2014a;Périard et al., 2015), and a

542 transient increase in oxidative stress under hypoxic stress (Taylor et al., 2011; Taylor et al.,
543 2012). The results from the HOT group are similar to those reported by others using either
544 fixed workload (Yamada et al., 2007; McClung et al., 2008; Hom et al., 2012) or isothermic
545 heat acclimation methods (de Castro Magalhães et al., 2010). Additionally, we observed
546 increases in resting mHSP72 following HYP acclimation, a response also previously
547 observed following 10 daily resting exposures to a similar magnitude of hypoxia (Taylor et
548 al., 2012). However, we are unable to determine whether the increase in mHSP72 observed
549 following hypoxic acclimation was a result of hypoxia *per se*, and the known increases in
550 oxidative stress that occur in such conditions, or whether the increased relative work-load
551 experienced in HYP was the main driver of the enhanced basal mHSP72. The physiological
552 and cellular strain induced in our control group was not sufficient to induce any changes in
553 mHSP72, which may be due to no substantial exercise induced changes in T_{rectal} , nor any
554 exercise induced increase in oxidative stress.

555 It is well established that the regulation of HSP synthesis is dependent on the levels existing
556 within the cell (Kregel, 2002). Consequently, prior to acclimation we observed an inverse
557 relationship between basal mHSP72 and the magnitude of post exercise increase in this
558 protein. After acclimation this relationship was no longer present as a result of the increased
559 presence of mHSP72 within the cell. Under non-stressed conditions HSP72 is bound to
560 HSF1. When the cell is exposed to one of the myriad of stressors that require HSP72
561 chaperone function, HSP72 binds to denatured proteins, freeing HSF1 to migrate to the
562 nucleus and bind with the heat shock element (HSE). More HSP72 protein is then
563 transcribed, and continues to bind with denatured proteins until equilibrium is restored.
564 Excess HSP72 then binds with the HSF1 and transcription is halted (Morimoto, 1998).
565 Therefore, as acclimation progresses and basal HSP72 is accumulated, the cell becomes more
566 robust to the daily challenge to homeostasis imparted via a fixed model of acclimation. As a
567 result, the stress required to sequester HSP72 from HSF1, to begin further transcription, has
568 to cross a new threshold. It is this mechanism of HSP72 action that makes the constant daily
569 strain imparted by isothermic methods of acclimation an attractive model for imparting
570 cellular tolerance (Taylor and Cotter, 2006; Gibson et al., 2015c). However, as our data show,
571 mHSP72 protein is enhanced after 10 days acclimation using a simple fixed workload model,
572 in agreement with the elegant work of Gibson et al., (2015, 2015a). Furthermore, the elevated
573 basal mHSP72 persisted for at least 48 hours after removal from the heat and hypoxic
574 acclimation stimuli, suggesting achievement of a persistent phenotypic shift towards an

575 acclimated state. Subsequently, basal mHSP72 was higher before HST2 compared to HST1
576 in both the experimental groups and the post exercise increase in mHSP72 was attenuated in
577 both HOT and HYP. The role of increased cellular tolerance on physiological function
578 requires greater scrutiny, as we show that while both modes of acclimation enhance cellular
579 reserves of mHSP72, only the heat acclimated group demonstrated improved physiological
580 function in later hypoxic exercise. Our data support previous observations pertaining to
581 improved cellular tolerance following heat and hypoxic acclimation (Levi et al.,
582 1993;Maloyan and Horowitz, 2005;Taylor et al., 2012;Lee et al., 2014b;Gibson et al., 2015c).

583 HIF-1 α , the global regulator of cellular and systemic oxygen homeostasis, has also been
584 suggested to play an important role in heat and hypoxic cross tolerance in rodent models (
585 Maloyan et al., 2005), with increased concentrations and related gene transcripts observed
586 following heat acclimation (Maloyan et al., 2005). However the role of HIF-1 α during
587 acclimation in humans has not been studied. We show that hypoxic acclimation induced a
588 doubling of HIF-1 α in the circulation, an increase that was maintained until the second HST.
589 Subsequently, the post HST2 eHIF-1 α response was blunted in HYP. We also show an
590 increase in eHIF-1 α after the initial heat acclimation session, suggesting that this pathway
591 may be an important mechanism for both heat acclimation and cross-tolerance in humans.
592 However we acknowledge that the source, function and relationship eHIF-1 α has with
593 intracellular HIF-1 α (iHIF-1 α) is presently unknown. Therefore while these results are novel,
594 caution is required in their interpretation. Further research is required to determine the
595 relationship between eHIF-1 α and iHIF-1 α and other HIF-1 α associated genes and circulating
596 markers of hypoxic adaptation (e.g. erythropoietin). Doing so will establish the utility of
597 eHIF-1 α as a biomarker of acclimation and cross-acclimation.

598 **Hypoxic time trial performance before and after acclimation**

599 We show, for the first time, that heat acclimation can improve exercise performance under
600 conditions of acute normobaric hypoxia to levels that were comparable to those observed
601 following hypoxic stress. TT performance may have been enhanced following heat
602 acclimation as a result of greater metabolic efficiency and glycogen sparing during the initial
603 40-minute steady-state pre-load trial (Febbraio et al., 2002;Lorenzo et al., 2010).
604 Unfortunately no measurements of muscle glycogen content were possible in the present
605 investigation. The reduced post exercise BL Δ in the absence of a change in $\dot{V}O_2$ peak or lactate
606 thresholds, in combination with improved exercise efficiency (O_2 pulse) indicates a more

607 efficient aerobic profile. Heat acclimation is known to reduce BLa concentrations for a given
608 intensity (Young et al., 1985;Febbraio et al., 1994). In the present study, mean exercise blood
609 lactate was lower in HST2 following both heat and hypoxic acclimation. It has been
610 suggested that an increase in plasma volume following heat acclimation may have an effect
611 on BLa via an increase in blood flow through the splanchnic circulation, thereby enhancing
612 lactate removal and delaying accumulation (Lorenzo et al., 2010). It is possible that such an
613 effect during HST2 may have led to glycogen sparing via a reduced rate of glycogenesis prior
614 to the TT, thereby preserving glycogen reserves and facilitating a greater maintenance of
615 power output during the TT. Alternatively, the increased TT performance may have occurred
616 as a result of a learning effect following the multiple exercise sessions. However, we took
617 care to ensure that participants were familiarized to the TT protocol in advance. In addition,
618 we validated the pre-loaded TT in our laboratory prior to testing using participants with
619 similar characteristics (Lee et al, 2015). Finally, if performance changes were a result of a
620 learning effect we would expect to see a similar effect in the control group. Instead it appears
621 that the experimental groups had an altered pacing strategy as a result of the acclimation
622 period, with systematic kilometer by kilometer increases in power output, HR, and
623 physiological strain observed in the HYP group, and an altered starting and finishing strategy
624 adopted by the HOT group (Figure 6).

625 **Study limitations**

626 The results of the present investigation are relevant only to those individuals with a moderate
627 aerobic capacity and should not be applied to those with elite physiology. However, the
628 maintenance of SpO₂ following either HOT or HYP acclimation is likely of more importance
629 for more well trained individuals, as they typically experience reduced haemoglobin
630 saturation due to typically larger cardiac outputs and reduced time for gas exchange at higher
631 work-rates (Powers et al., 1989). However, examining physiological responses to hypoxia
632 following acclimation to heat is of interest to athletes that undergo hypoxic training camps.
633 The potential use of heat acclimation to increase ability to tolerate greater work-rates upon
634 arrival to altitude could allow for the maintenance of training volumes and intensities during
635 the initial sessions. However, the role prior acclimation to heat has on longer term hypoxic
636 adaptation has yet to be explored. Additionally, our data only examined normobaric hypoxia.
637 It is possible that responses under ecologically valid hypobaric hypoxic conditions could be
638 different thus future study is required.

639 **Wider application of our results**

640 Our data indicate that heat based exercise offers a more efficient systemic acclimation
641 response to hypoxia in the time frame examined than normobaric hypoxic training offers,
642 which may have relevance to athletes and military personnel requiring a time-effective means
643 of increasing work capabilities in conditions of moderate hypoxia. An enhancement in
644 cardiac efficiency following repeated heat exposures may be desirable in military populations
645 or individuals sojourning to moderate altitude for short durations without the means or time
646 to fully acclimatize before completing work tasks. Additionally, implementing a
647 hyperthermic stimulus to elicit cross-acclimation responses can be achieved with little
648 specialist equipment compared to the chambers or sojourns required to enable altitude
649 adaptation.

650 **Conclusion**

651 We show, for the first time, that heat acclimation can improve exercise performance under
652 conditions of acute normobaric hypoxia to levels that were comparable to those observed
653 following hypoxic acclimation. Fixed work heat acclimation is shown to be an effective
654 intervention when improvements in hypoxic exercise tolerance or endurance performance are
655 required. It was demonstrated that heat acclimation was a more effective and longer term (48
656 hours post acclimation) means of improving systemic hypoxic tolerance, as quantified by
657 exercise HR and SpO₂, than a matched duration and work period of hypoxic acclimation.
658 Both heat and hypoxic acclimation elicit similar changes at the protein level, with each
659 increasing basal HSP72 and eHIF-1 α , along with attenuation of post HST HSP72 and eHIF-
660 1 α responses to an acute bout of hypoxic exercise. These data confirm previous findings
661 using isothermic models of acclimation and illustrate that increasing physiological strain via
662 exercise-heat stress is an effective, and simple to administer, intervention for invoking both
663 cross-acclimation and cellular cross-tolerance in humans.

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Provisional

841 **Table 1.** Cardiovascular, thermoregulatory and perceptual responses at rest and during
 842 exercise for day 1 and day 10 of the acclimation period. Data are means \pm SD for all 21
 843 participants.

Variable	Day 1			Day 10		
	CON	HYP	HOT	CON	HYP	HOT
USG	1.004 \pm 0.01	1.020 \pm 0.01	1.020 \pm 0.01	1.010 \pm 0.01	1.010 \pm 0.01	1.020 \pm 0.01
U _{OSMO} (mOsm \cdot kg ⁻¹)	553 \pm 254	465 \pm 239	444 \pm 234	320 \pm 105	331 \pm 176	463 \pm 217
Haemoglobin (g/dL ⁻¹)	15.1 \pm 0.9	14.9 \pm 0.6	15.5 \pm 1.0	14.9 \pm 1.0	15.4 \pm 0.4	14.8 \pm 0.9*
Haematocrit	0.44 \pm 0.01	0.45 \pm 0.02	0.44 \pm 0.02	0.44 \pm 0.02	0.43 \pm 0.02	0.45 \pm 0.01
Plasma volume (%)	55.8 \pm 1.2	55.6 \pm 2.3	55.9 \pm 2.3	56.9 \pm 2.0	53.3 \pm 1.1	59.3 \pm 2.2#
HR rest (bts \cdot min ⁻¹)	71 \pm 11	71 \pm 13	78 \pm 15	70 \pm 10	71 \pm 14	67 \pm 11
T _{rectal} rest (°C)	37.04 \pm 0.19	37.09 \pm 0.18	37.19 \pm 0.12	37.09 \pm 0.12	36.96 \pm 0.21	36.93 \pm 0.26#
Mean HR (bts \cdot min ⁻¹)	135 \pm 11	151 \pm 13 ⁺	151 \pm 11 [^]	135 \pm 12	137 \pm 9 [#]	137 \pm 12 [*]
Mean T _{rectal} (°C)	37.76 \pm 0.25	37.86 \pm 0.45	38.26 \pm 0.11 ^{+ψ}	37.73 \pm 0.22	37.70 \pm 0.21	37.72 \pm 0.18 [#]
Mean PSI (AU)	4.39 \pm 0.84	5.14 \pm 0.78	5.91 \pm 0.66 ^{^ψ}	4.26 \pm 0.85	4.35 \pm 0.61 [#]	4.62 \pm 0.48 [#]
Δ T _{rectal} (°C)	0.72 \pm 0.30	0.77 \pm 0.44	1.08 \pm 0.17 ^{^ψ}	0.63 \pm 0.25	0.77 \pm 0.25	0.78 \pm 0.22 [*]
Δ Body mass (kg)	0.76 \pm 0.36	0.84 \pm 0.38	1.01 \pm 0.60 ^{^ψ}	0.70 \pm 0.31	0.87 \pm 0.34	1.90 \pm 0.31 ^{#ψ}
Mean RPE	12 \pm 1	12 \pm 2	12 \pm 2	11 \pm 1	10 \pm 2	11 \pm 2
Mean TS	4.8 \pm 0.2	4.7 \pm 0.6	6.3 \pm 0.4 ^{+ψ}	4.4 \pm 0.5	4.1 \pm 0.6	5.4 \pm 0.4 [*]

844 * different from acclimation day 1 (p < 0.05) within group.

845 # different from acclimation day 1 (p < 0.01) within group.

846 + different from CON (p < 0.05)

847 ^ different from CON p (< 0.01)

848 ψ different from HYP (p < 0.05)

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860 **Table 2.** Cardiovascular and thermoregulatory measurements at the end of the resting period
 861 during HST1 and HST2. Data are means \pm SD for all 21 participants.

Variable	HST 1			HST 2		
	CON	HYP	HOT	CON	HYP	HOT
Haemoglobin (g.dL ⁻¹)	15.2 \pm 0.70	14.5 \pm 0.3	15.5 \pm 1.4	15.2 \pm 0.9	15.2 \pm 0.8	15.1 \pm 1.3
Haematocrit (%)	0.44 \pm 0.02	0.45 \pm 0.01	0.46 \pm 0.03	0.45 \pm 0.02	0.44 \pm 0.02	0.46 \pm 0.02
Plasma volume (%)	55.2 \pm 2.3	55.2 \pm 2.31	53.9 \pm 2.1	55.6 \pm 2.1	52.7 \pm 3.4*	55.8 \pm 2.5*
HR (bts.min ⁻¹)	79 \pm 8	81 \pm 11	82 \pm 16	82 \pm 12	79 \pm 18	79 \pm 11
Plasma lactate (mmol ⁻¹)	1.51 \pm 0.36	1.73 \pm 0.52	1.55 \pm 0.47	1.57 \pm 0.41	1.44 \pm 0.29	1.49 \pm 0.57
Plasma glucose (mmol ⁻¹)	5.01 \pm 0.97	4.81 \pm 1.36	5.40 \pm 0.99	4.87 \pm 0.80	4.62 \pm 0.52	4.54 \pm 0.63
Stroke Volume (mL.bt ⁻¹)	79.9 \pm 9.0	78.2 \pm 14.8	78.1 \pm 15.0	78.1 \pm 11.5	77.2 \pm 12.2	78.0 \pm 18.2
Cardiac Output (L.min ⁻¹)	6.3 \pm 1.0	6.3 \pm 1.1	6.3 \pm 1.1	6.4 \pm 1.6	6.1 \pm 1.5	6.2 \pm 1.8
SpO ₂ (%)	89 \pm 2	89 \pm 2	89 \pm 3	89 \pm 4	89 \pm 3	91 \pm 2
\dot{V}_E (L.min ⁻¹)	15.4 \pm 4.0	13.7 \pm 2.0	16.0 \pm 2.5	15.4 \pm 3.2	14.3 \pm 1.6	16.5 \pm 2.7
$\dot{V}O_2$ (L.min ⁻¹)	0.36 \pm 0.11	0.30 \pm 0.07	0.36 \pm 0.06	0.36 \pm 0.11	0.32 \pm 0.06	0.38 \pm 0.12
T _{rectal} (°C)	37.14 \pm 0.15	37.02 \pm 0.15	37.11 \pm 0.20	37.19 \pm 0.17	37.14 \pm 0.16	37.08 \pm 0.15

862 * different from HST1 (p < 0.05) within group.

Provisional

863 **Table 3.** Mean exercise cardiovascular, metabolic, thermoregulatory and perceptual measurements
 864 during HST1 and HST2. Data are mean \pm SD for all 21 participants.

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Variable	HST 1			HST 2		
	CON	HYP	HOT	CON	HYP	HOT
HR (bts \cdot min ⁻¹)	139 \pm 5	145 \pm 15	140 \pm 14	140 \pm 8	144 \pm 16	131 \pm 9 [#]
Stroke volume (mL \cdot bt ⁻¹)	104 \pm 12	112 \pm 13	99 \pm 10	103 \pm 11	107 \pm 8	103 \pm 11
Cardiac output (L \cdot min ⁻¹)	14.5 \pm 1.8	16.1 \pm 1.9	13.8 \pm 1.3	14.3 \pm 1.9	15.8 \pm 1.4	13.5 \pm 1.1
SpO ₂ (%)	82 \pm 4	82 \pm 2	83 \pm 3	82 \pm 3	83 \pm 3*	85 \pm 2 [#]
Oxygen pulse (mL \cdot bt ⁻¹)	12.6 \pm 2.3	11.8 \pm 1.3	11.5 \pm 1.4	12.6 \pm 2.1	11.7 \pm 1.4	12.2 \pm 1.4*
VE BTPS (L \cdot min ⁻¹)	60.8 \pm 10.4	63.2 \pm 10.1	60.8 \pm 5.0	59.2 \pm 12.6	65.0 \pm 9.0	58.8 \pm 3.2
$\dot{V}O_2$ (L \cdot min ⁻¹)	1.76 \pm 0.34	1.71 \pm 0.26	1.60 \pm 0.10	1.77 \pm 0.35	1.68 \pm 0.22	1.60 \pm 0.14
$\dot{V}CO_2$ (L \cdot min ⁻¹)	1.69 \pm 0.31	1.71 \pm 0.23	1.57 \pm 0.13	1.65 \pm 0.38	1.66 \pm 0.28	1.52 \pm 0.12
RER	0.96 \pm 0.06	1.00 \pm 0.06	0.98 \pm 0.06	0.93 \pm 0.08	0.98 \pm 0.09	0.95 \pm 0.06
Plasma lactate (mmol ⁻¹)	3.44 \pm 1.42	3.88 \pm 2.08	3.25 \pm 1.56	3.31 \pm 1.39	3.03 \pm 1.09	2.50 \pm 0.87
Plasma glucose (mmol ⁻¹)	4.87 \pm 1.13	5.07 \pm 0.71	4.50 \pm 0.98	4.65 \pm 1.08	4.90 \pm 1.16	4.77 \pm 0.68
T _{rectal} ($^{\circ}$ C)	37.61 \pm 0.14	37.72 \pm 0.18	37.55 \pm 0.18	37.63 \pm 0.11	37.69 \pm 0.20	37.40 \pm 0.14 [#]
ΔT_{rectal} ($^{\circ}$ C)	0.46 \pm 0.19	0.70 \pm 0.12	0.44 \pm 0.36	0.44 \pm 0.20	0.68 \pm 0.20	0.32 \pm 0.20*
PSI (AU)	4.2 \pm 0.5	4.8 \pm 0.6	4.1 \pm 0.6	4.1 \pm 0.6	4.8 \pm 0.6	3.6 \pm 0.4 [#]
RPE	13 \pm 1	12 \pm 2	12 \pm 2	12 \pm 1	10 \pm 2	11 \pm 1
TS	3.9 \pm 0.5	4.2 \pm 0.8	4.3 \pm 0.8	3.7 \pm 0.4	4.0 \pm 0.4	4.0 \pm 0.4

866 * different from HST1 to HST2 (p < 0.05) within group

867 ‡ different from HST1 to HST2 (p < 0.01) within group

868 **Table 4.** Individual data and mean \pm SD data for performance variables during TT1 and TT2.

	Performance Time (mins)		Percent change	Heart rate (bts.min ⁻¹)		T _{rectal} (°C)		PSI (AU)	
	TT1	TT2		TT1	TT2	TT1	TT2	TT1	TT2
CON									
1	42.06	42.08	0.05%	161	160	37.94	38.14	4.94	5.73
2	41.03	40.46	-1.39%	159	165	37.73	38.10	5.52	6.20
3	51.21	50.59	-1.21%	140	156	37.94	37.74	4.14	4.91
4	39.41	38	-3.58%	178	183	38.22	38.23	6.62	7.57
5	41.44	44	6.18%	148	153	38.03	38.61	4.79	6.14
6	41.54	41	-1.30%	173	173	38.00	38.00	6.41	6.25
7	45	48.11	6.91%	177	175	38.01	38.04	6.48	6.48
Mean + SD	43.1 \pm 4.2	43.5 \pm 4.3	0.8 \pm 3.3	162 \pm 15	166 \pm 11	37.98 \pm 0.14	38.12 \pm 0.26	5.56 \pm 0.97	6.18 \pm 0.80
HYP									
8	43	42.47	-1.23%	131	136	37.83	37.70	5.28	4.76
9	47.48	41.32	-12.97%	127	126	37.80	37.95	4.84	6.58
10	41.34	39.3	-4.93%	166	170	38.32	38.74	7.06	8.27
11	45.21	41.36	-8.52%	154	154	37.94	37.97	5.46	5.94
12	41.55	39.09	-5.92%	137	160	37.66	38.31	4.71	5.53
13	51.59	43.19	-16.28%	158	157	38.25	38.25	5.57	6.49
14	43.46	44.1	1.47%	171	173	38.03	38.12	5.83	6.19
Mean + SD	45.0 \pm 4.0	41.5 \pm 1.7	-6.9 \pm 5.5	157 \pm 13	162 \pm 15	37.98 \pm 0.24	38.15 \pm 0.33	5.54 \pm 0.78	6.25 \pm 1.09
HOT									
15	39	37.35	-4.23%	168	170	38.08	38.04	6.94	6.86
16	41.12	40.12	-2.43%	174	175	38.05	37.92	6.37	6.27
17	43.4	42	-3.23%	162	157	38.23	37.90	6.72	5.82
18	46.45	43.26	-6.87%	149	147	38.03	37.93	4.88	5.37
19	45.45	44.25	-2.64%	176	184	38.12	38.11	6.26	7.01
20	40.46	38.32	-5.29%	151	156	37.80	37.80	4.31	5.35
21	43.25	39.55	-8.55%	172	173	38.18	38.33	5.97	6.72
Mean + SD	42.7 \pm 2.9	40.7 \pm 2.8	-4.8 \pm 1.7	164 \pm 11	166 \pm 13	38.07 \pm 0.14	38.00 \pm 0.17	5.92 \pm 0.97	6.20 \pm 0.70

869 **Figure Legends**

870 **Figure 1.** Schematic of the experimental design, anthropometric and physiological characteristics of
871 participants, indicating the typical days on which specific tests were undertaken.

872 **Figure 2.** Monocyte HSP72 responses before and after the acclimation period. **A:** mHSP72 is
873 increased post exercise on day 1 of HYP and HOT, but not CON. **B:** Resting mHSP72 was
874 unchanged in CON and increased in HYP and HOT on day 10 of acclimation compared to day 1 of
875 acclimation. Subsequently, the post exercise mHSP72 response in HYP and HOT was attenuated
876 compared to post exercise on day 1. **C:** The magnitude of change in resting mHSP72 on day 10 of
877 acclimation was no different between HYP and HOT (C). Open bars and shaded bars represent pre
878 and post exercise, respectively. Lines (A and B) and dots (C) represent individual participant
879 responses (n = 21) and bars show the mean group response. The dashed line (C) represents baseline
880 mHSP72. * different from day 1 pre-exercise (p < 0.01). # different from control (p < 0.01).

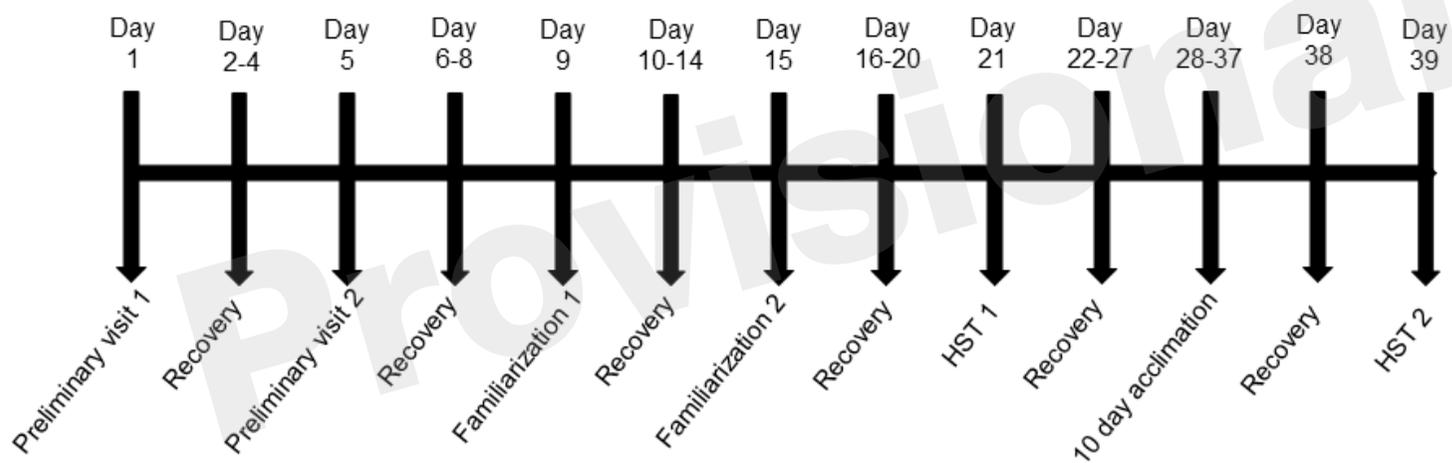
881 **Figure 3.** Extracellular HIF-1 α responses before and after the acclimation period. **A:** eHIF-1 α is
882 increased following an acute period of hypoxic exercise and is more variable following HOT. No
883 post exercise changes in eHIF-1 α were seen in CON **B:** Resting eHIF-1 α was elevated after 10 days
884 of HYP and HOT acclimation, blunting the post exercise response on day 10 of acclimation. No
885 changes in eHIF-1 α were observed in CON. **C:** The magnitude of change in resting eHIF-1 α on day
886 10 of acclimation was no different between HYP and HOT. Open bars and shaded bars represent pre
887 and post exercise, respectively. Lines (A and B) and dots (C) represent individual participant
888 responses (n = 21) and bars the mean group response. The dashed line (C) represents baseline HIF-
889 1 α . + different from day 1 rest (p < 0.05). # different from control (p < 0.01). ^ different from day 1
890 pre exercise (p < 0.10).

891 **Figure 4.** Monocyte HSP72 before and after HST1 and HST2. **A:** mHSP72 is increased after a HST
892 in 20 of 21 participants. **B:** Resting mHSP72 was increased prior to onset of HST2 in HYP and HOT.
893 The post exercise increase in mHSP72 was subsequently only observed in CON. **C:** The magnitude
894 of change in resting mHSP72 prior to HST2 was not different between HYP and HOT and were each
895 elevated in comparison to CON. Lines (A and B) and dots (C) represent individual participant
896 responses and bars the mean group response (n = 21). The dashed line (C) represents baseline
897 mHSP72. † different from pre-exercise (p < 0.01). ‡ different from HST1 pre-exercise (p < 0.05). *
898 different from HST1 pre-exercise (p < 0.01).

899 **Figure 5.** Extracellular HIF-1 α responses before and after HST1 and HST2. **A:** eHIF-1 α increased in
900 response to exercise in HST1 in all experimental groups. **B:** Prior to HST2 resting levels of eHIF-1 α
901 were elevated in HYP when compared to pre HST1, and showed a varied individual response in HOT
902 .eHIF-1 α increased in response to exercise in HST2 in CON, but was unchanged in both HYP and
903 HOT, although individual variation in the data is present. **C:** The magnitude of change in resting
904 eHIF-1 α was not different between HYP and HOT prior to HST2, and each were elevated in
905 comparison to CON. Lines (A and B) and dots (C) represent individual participant responses and bars
906 the mean group response. The dashed line (C) represents baseline HIF-1 α . Different from rest (p <
907 0.01) within trial * different from HST1 pre-exercise (p < 0.01). ‡ different from HST1 pre-exercise
908 (p < 0.05). † different from HST2 pre-exercise (p < 0.10).

909 **Figure 6.** Mean power output during each kilometer of the 16.1km time trial for CON (A), HYP (B)
910 and HOT (C). * difference from TT1 (p < 0.05).

Figure 1.TIF



Group	Age (years)	Height (m)	Body mass (kg)	N VO ₂ peak (mL.kg.min ⁻¹)	H VO ₂ peak (mL.kg.min ⁻¹)	Weekly training (hours)
CON	22 ± 3	1.74 ± 0.08	72.5 ± 11.4	51.4 ± 10.0	41.7 ± 9.8	8.5 ± 3.3
HYP	22 ± 5	1.75 ± 0.06	71.2 ± 2.8	52.3 ± 7.1	40.3 ± 7.1	8.8 ± 3.6
HOT	25 ± 6	1.78 ± 0.08	71.7 ± 9.2	50.7 ± 4.7	41.9 ± 5.7	8.5 ± 3.1

Figure 2.TIF

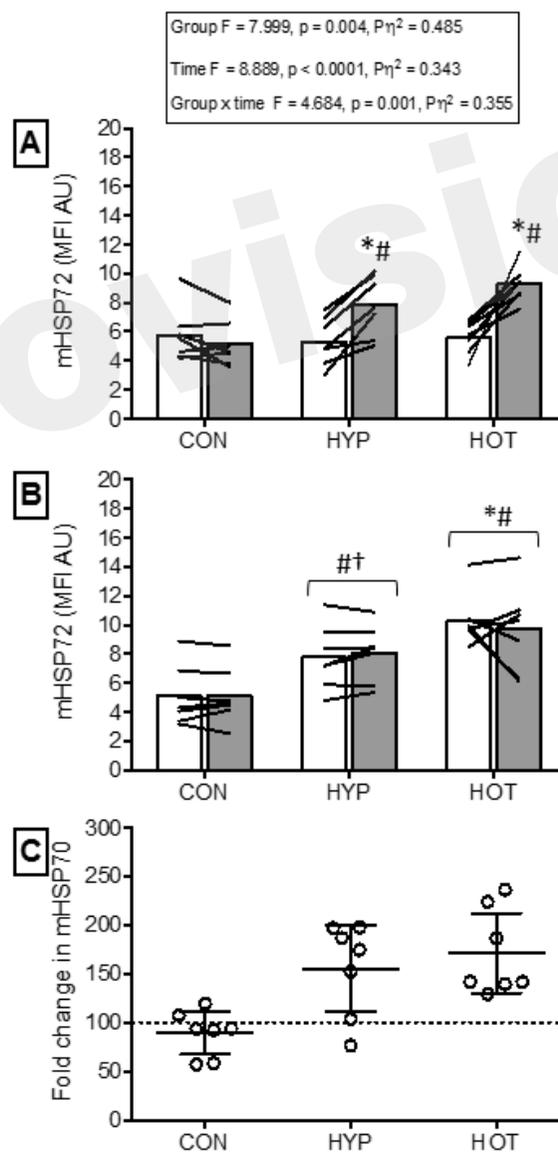


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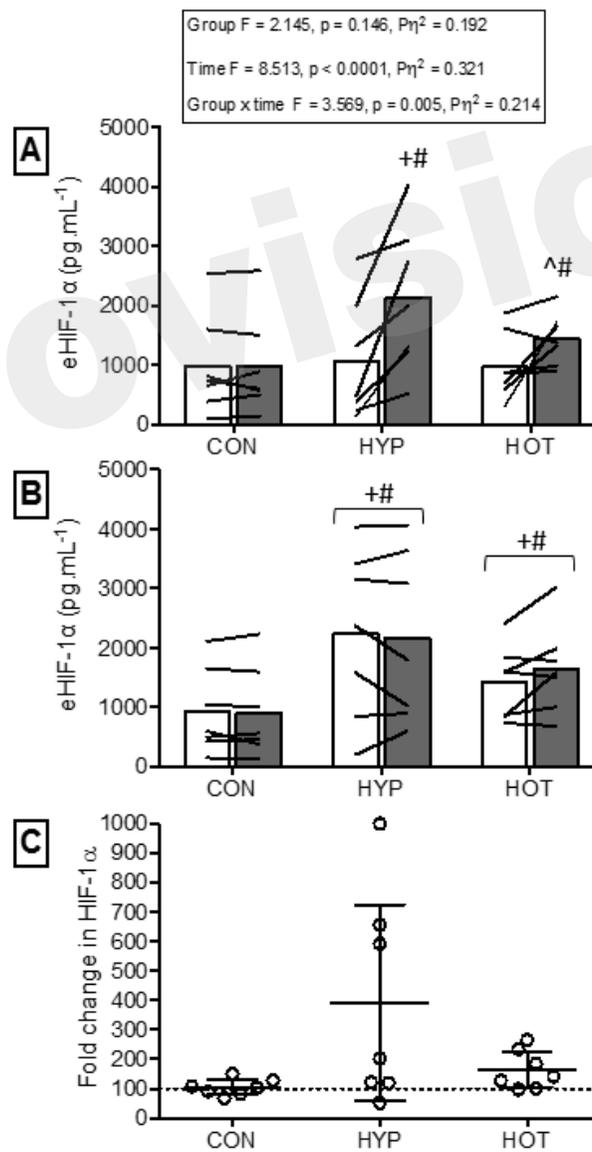


Figure 4.TIF

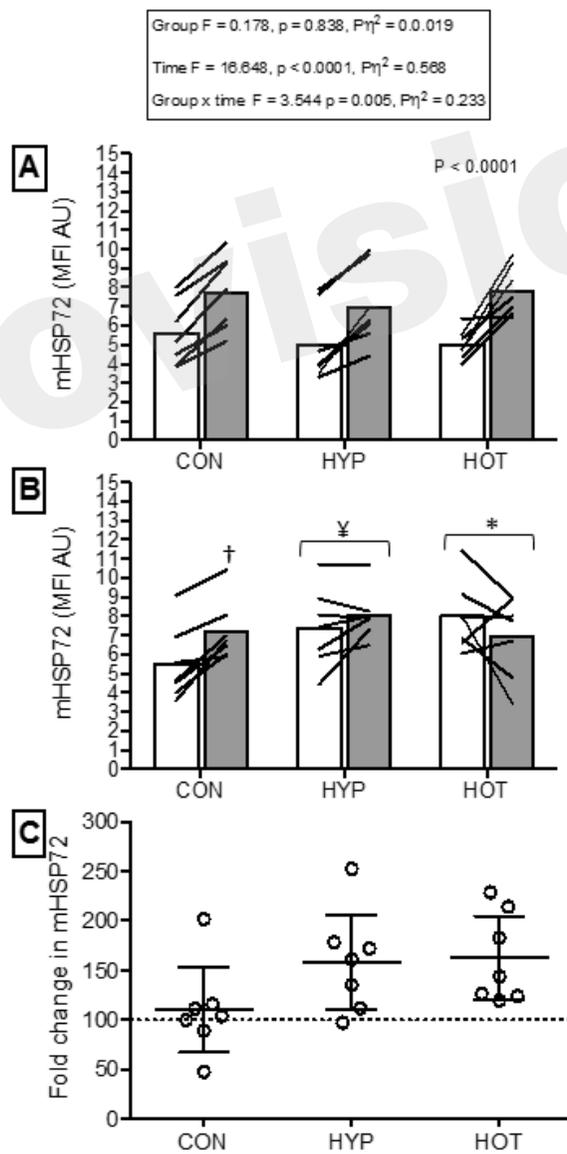


Figure 5.TIF

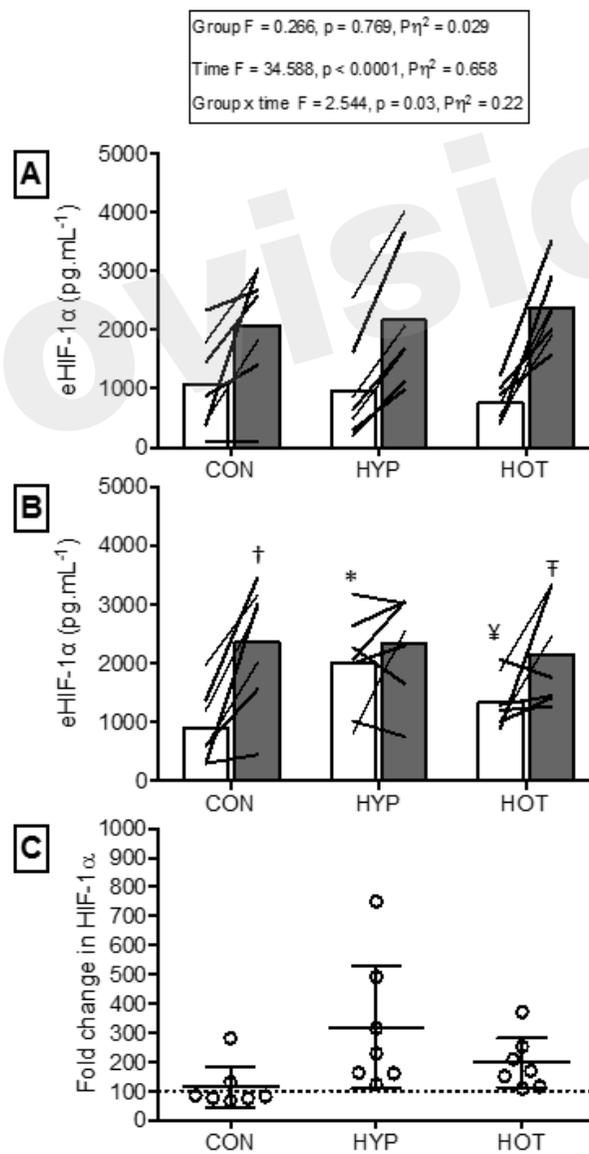


Figure 6.TIF

