

- **Abstract**
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 Regular exercise-induced acute inflammatory responses are suggested to improve the inflammatory profile and insulin sensitivity. As body temperature elevations partly mediate this response, passive heating might be a viable tool to improve the inflammatory profile. This study investigated the acute, and chronic effects of hot water immersion on inflammatory and 39 metabolic markers. Ten sedentary, overweight males (BMI:  $31.0 \pm 4.2$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>) were immersed in water set at 39°C for 1 h (HWI) or rested for 1 h at ambient temperature (AMB). Venous blood was obtained prior to, immediately post and 2 h post-session for assessment of monocyte intracellular heat shock protein 72 (iHsp72) and plasma concentrations of extracelullar heat shock protein 72 (eHsp72), interleukin-6 (IL-6), fasting glucose, insulin and nitrite. Thereafter, participants underwent a 2-week intervention period, consisting of 10 hot 45 water immersion sessions (INT). Eight BMI-matched participants (BMI:  $30.0 \pm 2.5$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>) were included as control (CON). Plasma IL-6 and nitrite concentrations were higher 47 immediately following HWI compared to AMB (IL-6  $p$ <0.001, HWI: 1.37±0.94 to 2.51±1.49 pg/ml; nitrite *p*=0.04, HWI: 271±52 to 391±72 nM), while iHsp72 expression was unchanged (*p*=0.57). In contrast to resting iHsp72 expression (*p*=0.59), fasting glucose (*p*=0.04, INT: 4.44±0.93 to 3.98±0.98 mmol/l), insulin (*p*=0.04, INT: 68.1±44.6 to 55.0±29.9 pmol/l) and eHsp72 (*p*=0.03, INT: 17±41% reduction) concentrations were lowered after INT compared to CON. HWI induced an acute inflammatory response and increased nitric oxide bioavailability. The reductions in fasting glucose and insulin concentrations following the chronic intervention suggest that hot water immersion may serve as a tool to improve glucose metabolism.

 Passive heating; chronic low-grade inflammation; heat shock protein; interleukin-6; glucose metabolism

# **New and noteworthy**



### **Introduction**

 Passive heating interventions have been linked to several positive health outcomes, such as improved vascular function (4), mental health (11), weight loss (33) and enhanced insulin sensitivity (42). Although observations of a lowering in fasting glycosylated haemoglobin and blood glucose concentrations following hot water immersion (HWI) in individuals with type 2 diabetes supports the notion of improved insulin sensitivity following HWI (33), the mechanisms that underlie this beneficial effect are currently unclear. Chronic low-grade inflammation has been implicated in the aetiology of insulin resistance (9), as evidenced by the positive association between pro-inflammatory proteins and insulin resistance (9, 39), while the body of evidence for a causal relationship of these proteins with insulin resistance is growing (35). Moreover, it is well documented that exercise training can counteract chronic low-grade inflammation (57) and improve insulin sensitivity (29). However, since it is not feasible for all populations to adhere to the recommended exercise guidelines due to a low physical capacity or health conditions that hinder exercise participation, the development of alternative strategies that can reduce chronic low-grade inflammation in populations without the capacity to engage in sufficient volumes of exercise is warranted to mitigate risk factors for insulin resistance and non-communicable diseases. The acute inflammatory response provoked by a physical stressor, such as exercise, can induce a subsequent protracted anti-inflammatory response. For instance, elevations in circulating interleukin (IL)-6 concentrations immediately following exercise activate the release of anti-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1ra and IL-10, typically 1 to 4 h following the exercise bout (57). In addition, recent studies have identified an enhanced acute

inflammatory response following exercise when body temperature is augmented (43).

Increasing body temperature therefore likely serves as an independent stressor able to induce

the acute inflammatory responses needed to reduce chronic low-grade inflammation in the

 long term. This is supported by Welc et al. (66), showing that passive heating for 1 h at 42.4℃ can activate heat shock factor 1, which in turn upregulates the production of IL-6 and intracellular heat shock protein 72 (iHsp72) in mice skeletal muscle.

113 In humans, 1-2 h of hot water immersion (HWI), at a temperature  $2-3\degree$ C higher than resting core temperature, has been reported to acutely elevate IL-6, IL-1ra (45), extracellular Hsp72 (eHsp72) (16) and monocyte intracellular Hsp72 (iHsp72) (54). Elevations in iHsp72 can block the inflammatory actions of c-jun amino terminal kinase (JNK) and nuclear factor κB (NF-κB), resulting in enhanced insulin sensitivity (31). In contrast to the beneficial functions of iHsp72, Hsp72 found in plasma (i.e. eHsp72) can activate circulating monocytes, resulting in an increase in pro-inflammatory cytokine release (1). Although the transient increase in eHsp72 following an acute bout of exercise is suggested to be part of the beneficial inflammatory response to exercise (67), a reduction in resting eHsp72 is suggestive of an improved inflammatory profile and may improve insulin sensitivity (41).

 In addition to modulating inflammation, an increase in body temperature has been linked to increased nitric oxide (NO) production through enhanced NO synthase (NOS) (4, 36), possibly mediated by an increased expression of Hsp90 (70). It is well documented that NO impacts a myriad of biological processes, including tissue glucose uptake (19, 20, 58, 60). Therefore, an increase in NO synthesis following HWI might contribute to changes in insulin sensitivity resulting from this intervention. Moreover, an acute increase in NO bioavailability exerts an anti-inflammatory effect on human leukocytes (58) and increases the iHsp72 expression in peripheral mononuclear blood cells (63), indicating cross-talk between NO and the immune system. However, the extent to which acute and chronic HWI influences NO synthesis and its role in chronic low-grade inflammation and insulin sensitivity is presently unclear.

 Although there is now evidence for the potential of HWI to induce an *acute* inflammatory response (16, 45, 54), *chronic* intervention studies in humans are scarce. Notwithstanding, the reduction in fasting blood glucose concentrations in patients with diabetes (33) and resting plasma IL-6 concentrations in patients with chronic heart failure (55) are promising initial results. These studies, however, focussed on clinical populations, did not address the mechanistic link between inflammatory and metabolic markers and provided little detail on the acute (thermo-)physiological responses to HWI. For instance, while animal studies have provided compelling evidence for the potential of HWI to chronically elevate basal iHsp72 levels (26, 6, 61), it is not known whether this holds true in humans. The smaller acute core temperature increases reported in human compared to animal studies might make HWI less effective as a strategy to elevate resting iHsp72 levels in humans (27).

 Therefore, the present study investigated the acute inflammatory response to a single HWI session as well as the potential of a chronic HWI intervention to improve the inflammatory and metabolic profile at rest. It is hypothesised that an HWI session induces acute increases in plasma IL-6 concentrations, NO bioavailability as well as iHsp72 expression in monocytes. Chronically, the 2-week HWI intervention is hypothesised to increase resting levels of iHsp72, while reducing IL-6 and eHsp72 concentrations. Finally, in line with Hooper et al. (33), the intervention period is expected to result in reductions in fasting glucose and insulin concentrations.

### **Methods**

*Participants*

 Participants were sedentary (<2 hours exercise/week), overweight (body mass index >27 156  $\text{kg/m}^2$ ), otherwise healthy males (Table 1). Exclusion criteria were the usage of anti-inflammatory medication and contra-indications to engage in HWI. The latter was assessed

 with a medical health questionnaire according to the American College for Sport and Exercise Medicine guidelines for exercise testing and prescription (32). Engagement in structured exercise was reported prior to and following the chronic intervention period, using the International Physical Activity Questionnaire (8). Participants gave informed consent after being instructed about the procedures of the study, which were approved by the Local Ethical Committee of Loughborough University, in accordance with the declaration of Helsinki.

*Procedures* 

 An outline of the procedures for the intervention group is given in Fig. 1. Participants 166 visited the laboratory for a HWI (HWI<sub>pre</sub>) and control trial (AMB) in a counterbalanced order, with a minimum of 72 h between the visits. Participants refrained from exercise, alcohol and caffeine and standardised their diet using a food diary in the 24 hours prior to the visits. All visits started between 8-10 am, with the starting consistently applied for each individual to account for a possible circadian rhythm in any of the outcome measures. After an overnight fast, nude body mass, height, hip and waist circumference were measured and skinfold thickness was assessed at four sites (biceps, triceps, subscapular and supra iliac) (14) for the estimation of body fat percentage.

\*\*\*\*\* Insert Figure 1 around here \*\*\*\*\*

175 Thereafter, participants underwent 15 min of seated rest in an environmental chamber (27<sup>o</sup>C,

40% humidity) for baseline measurements (21). Following the "pre" blood sample,

177 participants entered the water tank for the HWI<sub>pre</sub> or remained seated for another hour in the

same conditions as AMB. This control condition (instead of immersion in thermoneutral

water) was chosen because this study was designed to evaluate the effects of HWI as a stand-

alone health intervention rather than to investigate the effects of an increase in body

 temperature per se. Evidence suggests that the effects of hydrostatic pressure on inflammatory markers are negligible (43).



 during the intervention period. In all sessions the temperature of the water was set at 39°C and participants were immersed up to their neck. During the ten sessions, HR, tympanic temperature, thermal sensation, thermal comfort and basic affect were assessed every 15 min. Three days after completion of the last session of the intervention period, an acute trial (HWIpost) was conducted to study the effects of the intervention period on the acute 211 inflammatory response to HWI. The procedures during this session were identical to  $HWI<sub>pre</sub>$ . 212 The "pre" blood sample of the first session (either HWI<sub>pre</sub> or AMB) and HWI<sub>post</sub> were used to study the chronic effects of the intervention period. Eight individuals matched for body composition, age and physical activity levels were included as control for the chronic arm of 215 the study (CON). These participants visited the laboratory for two resting blood samples only, with the time between both samples held equal to the intervention group. In the intervention 217 group, an additional resting blood sample was taken one week following  $HWI_{\text{post}}$  to investigate whether any adaptations detected following the intervention period would remain after one week.

*Biochemical analyses*

221 Blood was collected in  $K_3EDTA$  (plasma markers) and sodium heparin (flow cytometry) 222 monovettes. The K<sub>3</sub>EDTA tubes were spun down immediately for 5 min at 1500 g and 4 °C, and plasma was stored at -80℃ until batch analysis. Flow cytometry was used to assess changes in iHsp72 in monocytes and the distribution in monocyte subsets. In addition, changes in the expression of iHsp72 in the respective monocyte subsets were assessed. Sixty 226 µL of whole blood was incubated together with 5 µL of PerCP-conjugated cluster of 227 differentiation (CD)14 and 2.5 µL of PE-conjugated CD16 antibodies in the dark at room temperature for 15 min. Thereafter, samples were lysed (750 µL; Facs lysing solution (BD biosciences, San Diego, US), washed (1.5 mL phosphate buffered saline) and fixed using

 Leucoperm (60 µL; BD biosciences). Following permeabilisation (60 µL; Leucoperm, BD 231 biosciences) samples were incubated with 4  $\mu$ L of FITC-conjugated Hsp70 antibody or isotype control for 30 min. Finally, samples were washed and resuspended in phosphate buffered saline prior to running through the Flow Calibur (BD biosciences). All antibodies except CD16 (BD biosciences) were purchased from Miltenyi Biotech (Teterow, Germany). Cell Quest software (BD biosciences) was used for the analysis, collecting 100,000 events per sample. Compensation of the flow cytometer prior to the study was performed manually using a whole blood sample of a male volunteer not participating in the study. Monocytes were selected based on positive CD14 expression, whereafter the percentage of monocyte subsets (CD14++CD16- classical monocytes, CD14+CD16+ intermediate monocytes and CD14- CD16++ non-classical monocytes) was determined using the trapezoid method (68). The iHsp72 expression in monocytes was determined using the geometric mean fluorescence intensity (GMFI) following subtraction of the isotype control GMFI.

 All glassware, utensils, and surfaces were rinsed with deionized water to remove residual NO intermediates prior to plasma [nitrite] analysis. Plasma samples were introduced to a gas- tight purge vessel via 200 uL injections into the septum at the top of the vessel. The [nitrite] of the undiluted (non-deproteinized) plasma was determined by its reduction to NO in the 247 presence of glacial acetic acid and aqueous sodium iodide (4% w/v). The spectral emission of electronically excited nitrogen dioxide, derived from the reaction of NO with ozone, was detected by a thermoelectrically cooled, red-sensitive photomultiplier tube housed in a Sievers gas-phase chemiluminescence nitric oxide analyzer (Sievers NOA 280i, Analytix Ltd, Durham, UK). The [nitrite] was determined by plotting signal (mV) area against a calibration plot of sodium nitrite standards. Interleukin-6 (High-sensitivity, RnD systems, Abington, UK), eHsp72 (Amp`d HSP70 high-sensitivity, Enzo life sciences, Farmingdale, US) and insulin (Mercodia AB, Uppsala, Sweden) were measured in plasma, in duplicate, using

 enzyme linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA). For the determination of eHsp72 concentrations, plasma samples were diluted 1:4 prior to running the ELISA. The intra-assay coefficients of variation were 7.0%, 6.2% and 2.5% for IL-6, eHsp72 and insulin, respectively. A Biosen C-line (Biosen, Barleben, Germany) was used to determine blood glucose concentrations in whole blood (52). A whole blood count was obtained using a Yumizen H500 cell counter (Horiba Medical, Montpellier, France) for the determination of leukocyte subsets, haematocrit and haemoglobin. The latter two were used to correct the post and post+2h plasma IL-6 and eHsp72 concentrations for changes in plasma volume (10).

*Statistical analyses*

264 All values are given as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation. Normality of the data was checked using the Shapiro-Wilk test and a log transformation was performed when non-normality was detected. Log transformation was performed on the eHsp72 data. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) with repeated measures where appropriate was used to detect differences in the 268 acute responses between AMB and HWI<sub>pre</sub>, HWI<sub>pre</sub> and HWI<sub>post</sub> as well as the effects of the intervention period on baseline measures compared to CON. Due to a difference in baseline 270 plasma nitrite concentrations between HWI<sub>pre</sub> and AMB, a one-way ANCOVA was employed to detect differences between HWI and AMB at "post" and "post+2h" using nitrite concentrations at "pre" as a covariate. *R*, the fold change in the eHsp72/iHsp72 ratio, was determined for the acute as well as chronic arm of the study (41). The homeostasis model assessment for insulin resistance (HOMA-IR) was determined using fasting glucose and insulin concentrations (47). For all analyses, a Bonferroni corrected post-hoc test was used for exploration of the differences at every time point when significance was detected. Effect sizes (ES) (Cohen`s *d*) and their 95% confidence intervals were calculated where appropriate, whereby an ES of 0.20, 0.50 and 0.80 refers to a small, moderate or large effect, respectively



285 **Results**

286

287 *Participants*

288 Baseline characteristics of the participants in the intervention group (INT) and CON can be

289 seen in Table 1. Apart from a trend towards a larger hip circumference in the control group,

290 there were no differences in anthropometrics and physical activity levels between the groups.

- 291 \*\*\*\*\* Insert Table 1 around here \*\*\*\*\*
- 292 *Acute responses to hot water immersion*

293 The physiological and perceptual responses during HWI<sub>pre</sub> and AMB are given in Table 2.

294 During HWI<sub>pre</sub>, rectal temperature increased from  $37.1\pm0.6^{\circ}$ C to  $38.7\pm0.4^{\circ}$ C (Fig 2).

295 Folllowing the intervention period, diastolic blood pressure was lower at the end of HWI<sub>post</sub>

296 when compared to  $HWI<sub>pre</sub>$  (F: 25.4,  $p = 0.001$ ). Thermal sensation at the end of  $HWI<sub>post</sub>$  was

297 lower than at the end of  $HWI_{pre}$  (F: 14.3,  $p = 0.01$ ) and sweat loss during HWI was increased

298 from  $1.1\pm0.6$  (HWI<sub>pre</sub>) to  $1.7\pm0.6$  L (HWI<sub>post</sub>) (F: 26.5, *p* = 0.001).

299 \*\*\*\*\* Insert Table 2 and Figure 2 around here \*\*\*\*\*

300 Plasma concentrations of IL-6 were higher compared to AMB immediately following 301 HWIpre, (T x C; F: 14.5, *p*<0.001, ES: 1.71 (1.31 – 2.07)). However, this was not accompanied

302 by a rise in either eHsp72 (T x C; F: 1.9,  $p = 0.16$ ) or iHsp72 in total monocytes (T x C; F:

- 303 0.5,  $p = 0.57$ ) directly post or 2 h post-HWI<sub>pre</sub> (Fig. 3). The same was true for the expression
- 304 of iHsp72 in classical monocytes (T x C: F: 1.7, *p* = 0.22), intermediate monocytes (T x C; F:
- 305 2.3,  $p = 0.19$ ) and non-classical monocytes (T x C; F: 1.5,  $p = 0.25$ ). *R* did not differ between
- 306 HWIpre and AMB (T x C; pre-post F: 0.6, *p* = 0.48; pre-post+2h F: 0.1, *p* = 0.76).
- 307 \*\*\*\*\* Insert Figure 3 around here \*\*\*\*\*

308 The distribution of monocyte subsets changed immediately after  $HWI<sub>pre</sub>$ , with an increase

309 of the intermediate (T x C; F: 9.0, *p* = 0.004, ES: 1.39 (0.36 – 2.03)) and non-classical

- 310 monocytes (T x C; F: 11.8, *p* = 0.001, ES: 1.34 (0.32 1.24)). The proportion of classical
- 311 monocytes, however, was not reduced (T x C; F: 2.5, *p* = 0.10) (Table 3). Lymphocyte
- 312 numbers increased to a larger extent directly following  $HWI<sub>pre</sub>$  compared to AMB (T x C; F:
- 313 11.0,  $p = 0.003$ , ES: 1.97 (0.84 2.94)). There was no difference between HWI<sub>pre</sub> and AMB
- 314 in the acute elevation of total monocyte (T x C; F: 0.8,  $p = 0.56$ ), leukocyte (T x C; F: 2.0,  $p =$
- 315 0.16) or neutrophil numbers (T x C; F: 2.7,  $p = 0.08$ ). The increase in plasma nitrite
- 316 concentration directly following  $HWI<sub>pre</sub>$  was larger compared to AMB (F: 11.2,  $p = 0.04$ ,
- 317 ES:1.82  $(0.71 2.77)$ ; Fig. 2).
- 318 \*\*\*\*\* Insert Table 3 around here \*\*\*\*\*
- 319 The IL-6, eHsp72 and iHsp72 response did not differ following HWI<sub>post</sub> when compared

320 with HWI<sub>pre</sub> (T x C; IL-6 F: 0.3,  $p = 0.80$ , eHsp72 F: 0.9,  $p = 0.45$ , iHsp72 F: 0.1,  $p = 0.71$ ).

- 321 The same was true for Hsp72 expression in classical (T x C; F: 1.7, *p* = 0.22), intermediate (T
- 322 x C; F: 2.2,  $p = 0.17$ ) and non-classical monocytes (T x C; F: 1.5,  $p = 0.25$ ). In contrast to
- $323$  HWI<sub>pre</sub>, the percentage of intermediate monocytes was not elevated following HWI<sub>post</sub> (Time;
- 324 F: 3.4,  $p = 0.06$ ; Table 3). There were no differences in the acute change between  $HWI<sub>pre</sub>$  and
- 325 HWI<sub>post</sub> for total leukocyte (T x C; F: 1.3,  $p = 0.36$ ), monocyte (T x C; F: 0.2,  $p = 0.92$ ),

326 lymphocyte (T x C; F: 1.9,  $p = 0.17$ ) and neutrophil (T x C; F: 0.8,  $p = 0.56$ ) numbers.

Finally, the acute change in plasma nitrite concentration was similar between  $HWI<sub>pre</sub>$  and

328 HWI<sub>post</sub> (T x C; F: 1.3,  $p = 0.30$ ) (Fig. 3).

*Chronic effects of the hot water immersion intervention period*

 Table 4 shows the physiological responses during the HWI sessions of the intervention 331 period. Body mass did not change in INT following the intervention period  $(92.1\pm9.2 \text{ kg to}$ 332 92.3±9.5 kg, F: 0.01,  $p = 0.92$ ). Both systolic (T; F: 5.1,  $p = 0.05$ , ES: 0.60 (0.34 – 1.44)) and diastolic blood pressure (T; F: 14.3, *p* = 0.003, ES: 0.64 (0.32 – 1.47)) were lowered 334 following the intervention period. Resting HR (T; F: 0.3,  $p = 0.54$ ) and Trec (T; F: 0.4,  $p =$  0.22) were not affected by the intervention period (Table 2). Physical activity levels were not different from habitual physical activity (as reported at the start of the intervention period) 337 during the intervention period (T; F: 0.2,  $p = 0.64$ ).

\*\*\*\* Insert Table 4 around here \*\*\*\*

 The effect of the intervention period on resting IL-6, iHsp72 and eHsp72 levels is presented in Fig. 4. Resting levels of IL-6 and iHsp72 in total monocytes were not altered following the intervention period (T x G; IL-6 F: 0.1, *p* = 0.87, iHsp72 F: 0.2, *p* = 0.59). The same was true for the expression of iHsp72 in the monocyte subsets (T x G; classical monocytes F: 1.8, *p* = 0.14; intermediate monocytes F: 1.2, *p* = 0.39; non-classical monocytes 344 F: 0.3,  $p = 0.78$ ). Extracellular Hsp72 was lowered in INT compared to CON (difference in fold change between groups; F: 6.8; *p* = 0.03, ES: 1.00 (0.73 – 1.26)). This resulted in a lower *R* in INT as compared to CON (G; F: 6.0, *p* = 0.04, ES: 0.34 (0.21 – 0.51)). The change in the distribution of monocytes subsets in the circulation at rest was not different in INT compared 348 to CON (T x G; classical monocytes F: 0.8,  $p = 0.52$ , intermediate monocytes F: 1.1,  $p = 0.23$ , non-classical monocytes F: 1.8, *p* = 0.14) (Fig. 4).

\*\*\*\*\* Insert Figure 4 around here \*\*\*\*\*

 Fasting blood glucose concentrations were lower in INT compared to CON following the intervention period (T x G; F: 5.0, *p* = 0.04, ES: 0.68 (0.42 – 0.97); Fig. 5). Fasting insulin 353 concentrations did not change in INT compared to CON (T x G; F: 1.3,  $p = 0.30$ , ES: 0.50 (-0.46 – 1.42)). However, following inspection of the individual data an outlier was detected (Fig. 5, grey line), which was confirmed using the methods for outlier detection postulated by Leys et al. (46). After removing the insulin data of this participant, there was a larger decrease 357 in fasting insulin in INT compared to CON (T x G; F: 4.8,  $p = 0.04$ , ES: 1.06 (0.02 – 2.00)). 358 HOMA-IR was also reduced to a larger extend in INT compared to CON (T x G; F: 5.5,  $p =$  0.03, ES: 1.07 (0.08 – 2.06)). Finally, there was no difference in the change of resting plasma nitrite concentrations between INT and CON (INT 321±69 nM to 234±64 nM; CON 230±57 361 nM to  $262\pm 77$  nM; T x G; F: 1.7,  $p = 0.17$ ).

- \*\*\*\*\* Insert Figure 5 around here \*\*\*\*\*
- One week following the post blood sample, resting iHsp72 (pre: 307±53 GMFI, post:
- 309±69, post+1week: 358±116; T; F: 1.8, *p* = 0.22), IL-6 (pre: 1.22±0.52 pg/ml, post:

365 1.31 $\pm$ 0.53, post+1week: 1.12 $\pm$ 0.65; T; F: 0.2,  $p = 0.67$ ), the percentage of classical monocytes

- (pre: 94.4±1.8%, post: 91.9±4.5%, post+1week: 94.1±1.3%; T; F: 1.7, *p* = 0.18), intermediate
- monocytes (pre: 1.25±0.38%, post: 1.69±0.73%, post+1week: 1.47±0.51%; T; F: 1.0. *p* =
- 368  $0.27$ ) and non-classical monocytes (pre:  $2.70\pm0.92\%$ , post:  $3.10\pm1.09\%$ , post+1week:
- 369 3.39 $\pm$ 1.35%; T; F: 1.0,  $p = 0.28$ ) were not changed compared to either pre or post. Resting
- concentrations of eHsp72 were elevated compared to post (fold change pre-post: 0.83±0.41,
- fold change pre-post+1 week: 1.28±0.34, T; F: 5.8, *p* = 0.03, ES: 0.83 (0.20 1.84)). The
- lowering of fasting blood glucose following the intervention period was still present at post+1
- week (pre: 4.44±0.93 mmol/L, post: 3.98±0.98 mmol/L, post+1week: 3.89±0.77 mmol/L, T;



382 *Correlations*

383 During HWI<sub>pre,</sub> there was no correlation between the peak core temperature attained and 384 the acute change in iHsp72 expression ( $r = -0.11$ ,  $p = 0.77$ ), plasma IL-6 ( $r = 0.23$ ,  $p = 0.55$ ) 385 or nitrite concentrations ( $r = 0.04$ ,  $p = 0.91$ ). Following the chronic intervention, there was a 386 negative correlation between plasma insulin concentration at baseline and its change 387 following the intervention ( $r = -0.45$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ). There was no relationship with insulin at 388 baseline and the change in blood glucose concentrations ( $r = 0.23$ ,  $p = 0.33$ ). No correlation 389 was observed between baseline blood glucose concentration and the chronic change in insulin 390  $(r = -0.28, p = 0.27)$  or glucose concentrations  $(r = 0.29, p = 0.25)$ . In addition, there was no 391 correlation between the fold change in eHsp72 following the intervention and the change in 392 insulin ( $r = 0.61$ ,  $p = 0.06$ ) or glucose concentrations ( $r = 0.03$ ,  $p = 0.94$ ). Finally, there was 393 no correlation between the chronic change in iHsp72 expression and the chronic change in 394 insulin ( $r = -0.16$ ,  $p = 0.66$ ) or glucose concentrations ( $r = 0.21$ ,  $p = 0.56$ ).

#### **Discussion**

 This study investigated the acute inflammatory response to HWI as well as the potential of chronic HWI to improve inflammatory and metabolic profiles at rest. Acute HWI evoked elevated plasma IL-6 and nitrite concentrations, and an increase in the percentage of intermediate and non-classical monocytes. This was however not accompanied by an increase in iHsp72 expression. Two weeks of chronic HWI reduced fasting glucose, insulin and eHsp72 concentrations. Together, this indicates that HWI may be a useful strategy to improve aspects of the inflammatory profile and glucose metabolism in individuals without the physical capacity to do so using exercise training.

*Acute responses to hot water immersion*

 Our observation that one hour of HWI in water set at 39℃ induced a significant increase in plasma IL-6 concentrations corroborates with the notion that increases in body temperature can serve as an independent stressor to induce an acute inflammatory response. Previous studies employing 1 h of HWI have shown comparable increases in plasma IL-6 concentrations to the current study (16, 45), while 2 h of HWI results in a more marked IL-6 response (43). Consistent with exercise studies (17), this suggests that the IL-6 response to HWI is dose dependent. In line with this, a more intense HWI protocol than used in the present study (i.e. longer duration or warmer water) may be required to induce changes in iHsp72 or eHsp72. Oehler et al. (54) reported an acute increase in iHsp72 following HWI of 2 h in water set at 39.5℃, while a session of 1 h did not result in elevated iHsp72 expression (50). On the other hand, Faulkner et al. (16) reported acute increases in eHsp72 following 417 immersion up to the waistline for 1 h in water set at  $40^{\circ}$ C, resulting in a ~1°C increase in core temperature. As the acute inflammatory response to HWI seems dose dependent, it is conceivable that there may exist a threshold in core or muscle temperature or time accrued

 above this threshold that needs to be reached in order to induce an iHsp72 response. Using exercise as a stressor, Gibson et al. (24) have suggested that at least ~27 min above a core temperature of 38.5℃ is needed to induce the upregulation of Hsp72 mRNA. In the current 423 study, participants` rectal temperature exceeded  $38.5^{\circ}$ C for ~15 min only. This may also explain why an acute increase in iHsp72 following passive heating is a consistent finding in animal studies (28, 64), but not in human studies (50), as the endogenuous heat stress imposed in the former is much higher compared with the present and other studies in humans. Of note, the required heat stress might need to be even higher to induce acute increases in circulating eHsp72 concentrations (23).

 Although the HWI protocol used in this study did not elevate iHsp72 expression, the acute increase in IL-6 concentrations indicates that in analogy to exercise, passive heating can also induce an acute inflammatory response, possibly leading to the circulating anti- inflammatory milleau postulated by Petersen and Pedersen as one of the benefits of exercise (57). While it is now widely acknowledged that contracting skeletal muscle is the main source of IL-6 during acute exercise (17), it is not clear whether this is also the case for HWI. However, skeletal muscle is suggested to secrete IL-6 in response to increases in local temperature (66). HWI for 1 h in water set at 40℃ leads indeed to a muscle temperature increase of ~2.5℃ (16). Suggested mechanisms for the acute inflammatory response following passive heating are the influx of calcium via the opening of the thermosensitive transient receptor potential 1 (53) and the activation of heat shock factor 1, which can both result in the production of IL-6 and Hsp72 (66). In addition, circulating monocytes are potent producers of cytokines and might be a source of IL-6 found in the circulation following HWI (1). The acute recruitment of intermediate and non-classical monocytes seen following HWI in this study could indeed have led to increased IL-6 secretion into the circulation as these subsets are known to release more IL-6 in response to an in-vitro stimulant such as

 lipopolysacharide (30). However, since monocytes only represent a small percentage of leukocytes, it is not known what the impact of acute changes in circulating monocyte subsets on circulating cytokines is (65). Nevertheless, since the proportion of relatively inflammatory monocytes (i.e. intermediate and non-classical monocytes) at rest are positively associated with the risk for a range of chronic diseases (69), the acute shift following HWI found in this study provides rationale for further research in the potential of HWI interventions to chronically alter the distribution of monocyte subsets in the circulation.

 While the interest in HWI to reduce chronic low-grade inflammation is a relatively recent phenomenon, its potential to increase blood flow and enhance vascular function is more established (13). Nevertheless, we show for the first time an acute increase in the bioavailability of the vasodilator NO in response to HWI in humans, possibly mediated by the enhanced activation of eNOS in response to the increase in shear stress and/or local temperature (19). Additionally, as Hsp90 acts as an agonist for NO production by eNOS, the acute increase in NO bioavailability may have been mediated by an increased expression of Hsp90 (22). Future studies are therefore needed to identify the potential of HWI to increase Hsp90 expression. Since the acute increase in NO following HWI has the potential to aid tissue blood flow and is implicated in the translocation of GLUT4 to the plasma membrane of skeletal muscle cells during exercise (59), HWI has the potential to facilitate glucose disposal in skeletal muscle and other tissues (2, 20). In support, animal studies suggest GLUT4 translocation (25) and enhanced insulin sensitivity in skeletal muscle (27) following an acute HWI session. Of note, in the current study the acute effects of HWI on glucose disposal were not assessed and the implications of an acute increase in NO bioavailability on glucose disposal are therefore only speculative. Indeed, the chronic reduction in fasting glucose and insulin found in the current study occured independently of changes in resting plasma nitrite concentrations.

 If passive heating is to be successfully introduced as a health promoting intervention in practice, it is important to assess perceptual responses to provide insight into its potential to influence adherence rates to the intervention (68). In the current study, the perceptual responses during 1 h of HWI of indicated profound feelings of discomfort similar to those reported during high-intensity interval training (32, 38). This implies that further increases in water temperature or session duration would result in an activity that is difficult to adhere to (15). Therefore, although more intense HWI sessions than the one used in the current study seems to be needed to induce an acute Hsp72 response, the practical application of HWI sessions such as the one applied in the study of Oehler et al. (54; 2 h at 39.5°C) in the general population is questionable. Moreover, the absence of more positive affective responses during  $HWI<sub>post</sub>$  as compared to  $HWI<sub>pre</sub>$  suggests that no short-term improvements in the perceptual responses can be expected as a result of regular engagement in HWI. Therefore, future studies could test different HWI protocols in an attempt to optimise the balance between delivering a HWI stimulus that evokes the neccessary inflammatory and metabolic benefits without eliciting negative affective responses that have the potential to limit adherence to the intervention. Finally, although HWI did not induce acute changes in Hsp72, we did observe acute elevations of nitrite and IL-6 in addition to chronic improvements in fasting glucose, insulin and eHsp72. This suggests that there may be no need to further increase the thermal load of the HWI sessions to improve metabolic health and that the focus could be directed towards the improvement of the perceptual responses during HWI. A titration study in which the thermal load is gradually reduced may be useful to gain insight in the minimal passive heat stress needed to induce acute changes in factors such as plasma IL-6 concentrations and NO bioavailability and its impact on the perceptual responses during HWI.



 have impacted on other factors implicated in glucose metabolism, as for instance passive lower-limb heating can chronically elevate peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma 521 coactivator 1-α (PGC-1α) expression (28).

 Despite no changes in resting iHsp72, eHsp72 concentrations were significantly lowered following the intervention period. When present in the circulation, eHsp72 can activate monocytes via the Toll-like receptor 4/CD14 complex, resulting in the secretion of 525 pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-6, tumour necrosis factor-α (TNF-α) and IL-β (1). As the latter cytokines can directly interfere with insulin sensitivity (35), it is suggested that the deletirious effects of eHsp72 on health are exhibited via this mechanism (37). Additionally, the positive change in *R* in INT might be indicative of an improved inflammatory profile following the intervention period, as suggested by Krause et al. (41). However, the influence of eHsp72 and changes in *R* on glucose metabolism needs to be studied in more detail.

 While previous studies have found changes in the inflammatory profile following short-term health interventions, the relatively short duration of the HWI intervention period might have been the reason for the absence of changes in resting levels of iHsp72, IL-6, monocyte subset distrubution and NO bioavailbility. On the other hand, it is striking that only 10 HWI sessions resulted in reductions in fasting glucose, insulin and blood pressure in males that were sedentary and overweight, but did not show signs of pre-diabetes or strongly elevated inflammatory markers at baseline. The positive correlation between baseline fasting insulin concentrations and the reduction in fasting insulin following the intervention suggests that those with more impaired metabolic health might benefit most from HWI. The lowered blood pressure following the intervention period supports recent findings by Brunt et al. (4), suggesting that HWI may also be a potent strategy to improve vascular health. While iHsp72- and NO-mediated mechanisms are suggested to play a role in this effect (5), the

 improvements in blood pressure in the present study were independent of changes in resting levels of both measures.

 Together, the current study provides a strong rationale to pursue further research on the potential of passive heating strategies to enhance (cardio)metabolic health. For instance, future studies should consider using more robust measures of insulin sensitivity (e.g. oral glucose tolerance testing), implementing longer-term interventions and explore its effectiveness and feasibility in populations that could benefit most from this alternative health intervention (e.g. individuals with a spinal cord injury, frail elderly or those with other conditions that interfere with exercise participation). Additionally, future studies in humans are needed to clarify the role of inflammatory markers in glucose metabolism. In this regard, the relatively modest heat stress imposed in the present study may be considered a limitation. Although here an applicable model of passive heating is presented, future mechanistic studies may consider increasing body temperature to a larger extent and for longer durations. For instance, a passive heating model that is more likely to elevate iHsp72 expression may aid our understanding on the importance of this marker for glucose metabolism in humans. Finally, although there was no acute iHsp72 response following HWI and resting iHsp72 expression in monocytes was not changed following the intervention, an elevated iHsp72 expression in skeletal muscle for up to 7 days has been reported following exercise (51). Therefore, the resting and post-immersion inflammatory and metabolic markers may have been influenced by the potentially elevated iHsp72 expression in skeletal muscle.

 In summary, a single HWI session induces an acute inflammatory response, indicated by acute elevations in IL-6, changes in the monocyte subset distribution, and increase in NO synthesis, indicated by increased plamsa nitrite concentrations. However, these responses were not accompanied by acute increases in iHsp72 or eHsp72. The 2-week HWI intervention period reduced fasting glucose and insulin, concomitant with lower resting eHsp72



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789 Fig. 1 Outline of the study procedures for the intervention group (INT). An acute HWI (HWI<sub>pre</sub>) and 790 control trial (AMB) were followed by ten HWI sessions within two weeks. A second acute HWI trial 791 (HWIpost) was conducted three days after completion of the intervention period and a resting blood 792 sample was taken seven days following HWI<sub>post</sub> (Post). For the control group (CON), a resting blood 793 sample was taken at the time-points corresponding to visit 1 and 13 of the intervention group. 794 795 Fig. 2 Rectal temperature during and following AMB,  $HWI<sub>pre</sub>$  and  $HWI<sub>post</sub>$  (n = 10). \* Significantly 796 different from AMB. 797 798 Fig. 3 The acute changes in plasma IL-6, eHsp72, iHsp72 and nitrite concentrations 799 following AMB,  $HWI_{pre}$  and  $HWI_{post}$ . Black lines represent individual data points, while the 800 bars represent the group mean  $(n = 10)$ . \*Significant time x trial interaction when compared

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801 with AMB.

803 Fig. 4 Resting levels of the inflammatory outcome measures before and after the HWI intervention 804 period. INT: intervention group ( $n = 10$ ), CON: control group ( $n = 8$ ). The black lines represent 805 individual data points, while the bars represent the group mean.  $\land$  Significant difference between 806 groups.

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808 Fig. 5 Fasting blood glucose and plasma insulin concentrations for the intervention and control group. 809 INT: intervention group ( $n = 10$ ), CON: control group ( $n = 8$ ). The black lines represent individual 810 data points, while the bars represent the group mean.  $\wedge$  Significant time x group interaction. Participant 811 with grey line does not contribute to the bar representing the group mean.

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Table 1. Participant characteristics at baseline. Data are presented as mean ± SD.

- Table 2. Physiological responses to the hot water immersion and control trial. Data are presented as 817 mean  $\pm$  SD.
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- Table 3. The distribution of monocyte subsets in whole blood following hot water immersion and the 820 control trial. Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SD.
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- Table 4. Physiological responses during the sessions of the 2-week intervention period. Data are
- 823 presented as mean  $\pm$  SD.



- *Blood sample(s)* ↑
- *Heart rate, perceptual responses, core temperature*
- *Oxygen uptake, blood pressure*  $\sim$   $\sim$











Table 1. Participant characteristics at baseline. Values are given in mean  $\pm$  SD

Abbreviations: BMI = body mass index;  $ES = Cohen's$  d effect size,  $INT =$  intervention group, CON = control group



Table 2. Physiological responses to the hot water immersion and control trial. Data are presented as mean ± SD.

Abbreviations: AMB = control trial; HWIpre = hot water immersion session prior to HWI intervention period; HWIpost = hot water immersion session following HWI intervention period;  $T_{\text{rec}}$  = rectal temperature;  $T_{\text{tymp}}$ : tympanic temperature; HR = heart rate;  $VO_2 = oxygen$  uptake; SBP = systolic blood pressure; DBP = diastolic blood pressure; TS = thermal sensation; TC = thermal comfort (higher TC scores reflect reduced feelings of thermal comfort),  $PV = plasma$  volume

\* Significantly different from AMB;  $^{\wedge}$  Significant difference between HWI<sub>pre</sub> and HWI<sub>post</sub>

Table 3. The distribution of monocyte subsets in whole blood following hot water immersion and the control trial.



Date are mean±SD. Abbreviations: AMB = control trial; HWIpre = hot water immersion session prior to HWI intervention period; HWIpost = hot water immersion session following HWI intervention period, p2h = 2 hours post hot water immersion

 $\rm^*$ Significantly different from AMB;  $\rm^{\wedge}$  Significant difference between HWI<sub>pre</sub> and HWI<sub>post</sub>

Parameter	Pre session 1-5		End session $1-5$ Pre session $6-10$ End session $6-10$	
Tympanic temperature $(°C)$	$35.3 \pm 0.4$	$37.5 \pm 0.2^*$	$35.1 \pm 0.3$	$37.5 \pm 0.3*$
TS(1 to 9)	$4.8 \pm 0.5$	$6.6 \pm 0.2*$	$4.9 + 0.4$	$6.7 \pm 0.2^*$
Basic affect $(-5 \text{ to } +5)$	$1.0 \pm 1.0$	$0.0+2.0$	$1.2 + 1.6$	$-0.7\pm1.8$
HR(bpm)	$67+13$	$105+2*$	$68+14$	$105 + 3*$

Table 4. Physiological responses during the sessions of the 2-week intervention period.

Abbreviations: TS = thermal sensation; HR = heart rate. Data are means of five sessions during INT. End = measurement taken in the final 30 s of the session. Session 1-5 lasted 45 min, while session 6-10 lasted 60 min.

\* Significantly different from Pre session.