

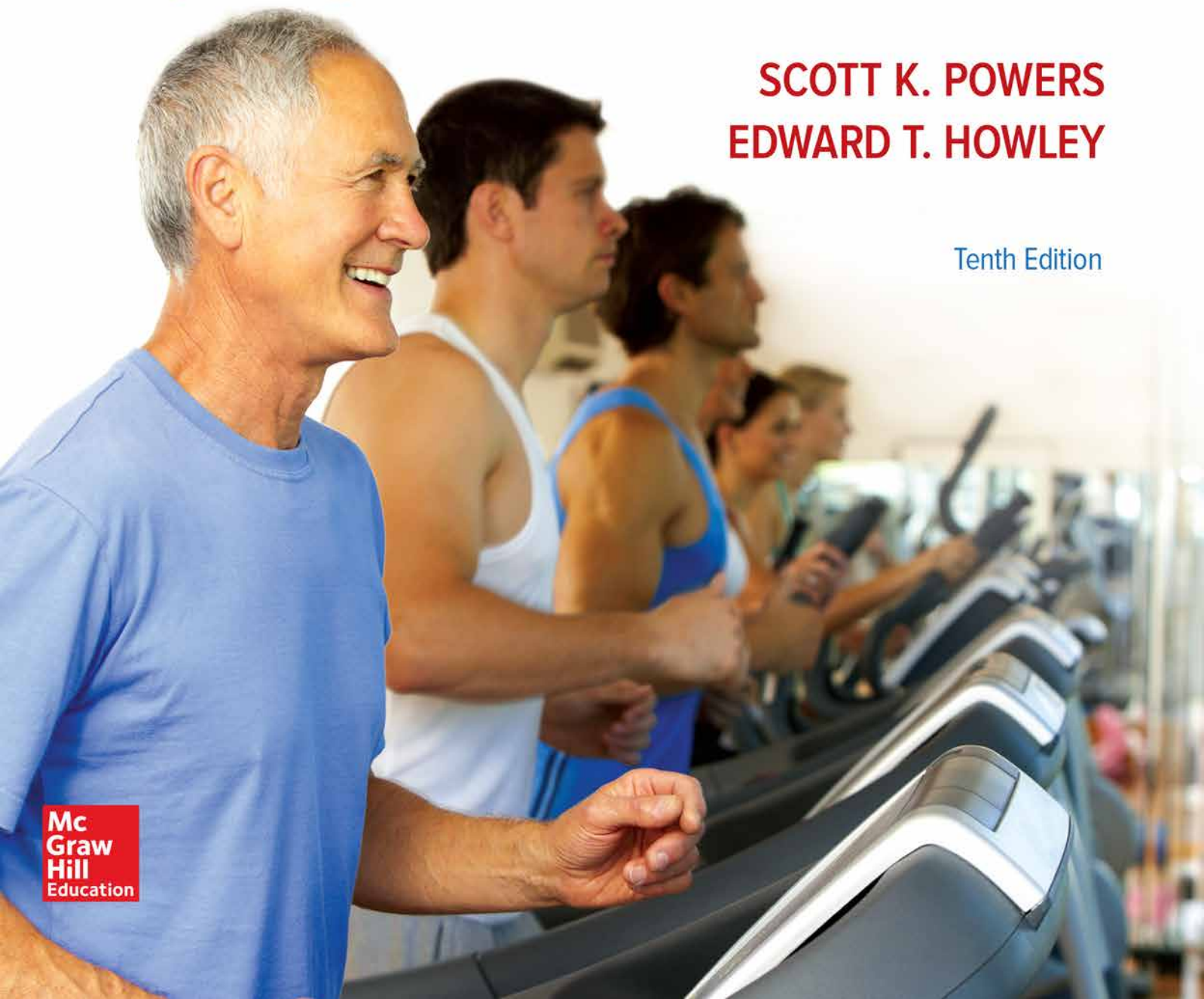


# EXERCISE PHYSIOLOGY

Theory and Application to Fitness and Performance

**SCOTT K. POWERS**  
**EDWARD T. HOWLEY**

Tenth Edition



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Fitness and Performance

TENTH EDITION

**Scott K. Powers**

*University of Florida*

**Edward T. Howley**

*University of Tennessee, Knoxville*





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TENTH EDITION

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**Dedicated to Lou and Ann  
for their love, patience, and support.**

# Brief Contents

## SECTION 1

### Physiology of Exercise 1

- 0 Introduction to Exercise Physiology 2
- 1 Common Measurements in Exercise Physiology 16
- 2 Control of the Internal Environment 30
- 3 Bioenergetics 40
- 4 Exercise Metabolism 68
- 5 Cell Signaling and the Hormonal Responses to Exercise 92
- 6 Exercise and the Immune System 127
- 7 The Nervous System: Structure and Control of Movement 140
- 8 Skeletal Muscle: Structure and Function 166
- 9 Circulatory Responses to Exercise 193
- 10 Respiration during Exercise 224
- 11 Acid-Base Balance during Exercise 256
- 12 Temperature Regulation 269
- 13 The Physiology of Training: Effect on  $\dot{V}O_2$  Max, Performance, and Strength 293

## SECTION 2

### Physiology of Health and Fitness 329

- 14 Preventing Chronic Disease: Physical Activity and Healthy Eating 330
- 15 Exercise Tests to Evaluate Cardiorespiratory Fitness 344
- 16 Exercise Prescriptions for Health and Fitness 367

- 17 Exercise for Special Populations 386
- 18 Nutrition and Body Composition for Health 411

## SECTION 3

### Physiology of Performance 441

- 19 Factors Affecting Performance 442
- 20 Laboratory Assessment of Human Performance 459
- 21 Training for Performance 480
- 22 Training for the Female Athlete, Children, Special Populations, and the Masters Athlete 507
- 23 Nutrition, Body Composition, and Performance 525
- 24 Exercise and the Environment 548
- 25 Ergogenic Aids 573

#### Appendices can be found in the Instructor's Resources within Connect

- Appendix A: Calculation of Oxygen Uptake and Carbon Dioxide Production A-1
- Appendix B: Dietary Reference Intakes: Estimated Energy Requirements A-5
- Appendix C: Dietary Reference Intakes: Vitamins A-6
- Appendix D: Dietary Reference Intakes: Minerals and Elements A-8
- Appendix E: Percent Fat Estimate for Men: Sum of Triceps, Chest, and Subscapula Skinfolts A-10
- Appendix F: Percent Fat Estimate for Women: Sum of Triceps, Abdomen, and Suprailium Skinfolts A-11

Glossary G-1

Index I-1

# Contents

Preface xiii

## SECTION 1

### Physiology of Exercise 1

#### Chapter 0 Introduction to Exercise

- Physiology 2
- Brief History of Exercise Physiology 3
  - European Heritage 3
  - Harvard Fatigue Laboratory 4
- Physiology, Physical Fitness, and Health 6
- Physical Education to Exercise Science and Kinesiology 8
- Graduate Study and Research in the Physiology of Exercise 9
- Professional and Scientific Societies and Research Journals 11
  - Training in Research 11
- Careers in Exercise Science and Kinesiology 12

#### Chapter 1 Common Measurements in Exercise

- Physiology 16
- Units of Measure 17
  - Metric System 17
  - SI Units 17
- Work and Power Defined 17
  - Work 17
  - Power 18
- Measurement of Work and Power 18
  - Bench Step 18
  - Cycle Ergometer 19
  - Treadmill 20
- Measurement of Energy Expenditure 21
  - Direct Calorimetry 21
  - Indirect Calorimetry 22
- Common Expressions of Energy Expenditure 23
- Estimation of Energy Expenditure 24
- Calculation of Exercise Efficiency 25
  - Factors That Influence Exercise Efficiency 26
- Running Economy 27

#### Chapter 2 Control of the Internal

- Environment 30
- Homeostasis: Dynamic Constancy 31

#### Control Systems of the Body 33

##### Nature of the Control Systems 33

- Negative Feedback 34
- Positive Feedback 34
- Gain of a Control System 34

##### Examples of Homeostatic Control 34

- Regulation of Body Temperature 34
- Regulation of Blood Glucose 35

##### Exercise: A Test of Homeostatic Control 35

##### Exercise Improves Homeostatic Control via Cellular Adaptation 35

##### Stress Proteins Assist in the Regulation of Cellular Homeostasis 37

#### Chapter 3 Bioenergetics 40

##### Cell Structure 41

##### Biological Energy Transformation 41

- Cellular Chemical Reactions 42
- Oxidation–Reduction Reactions 44
- Enzymes 45

##### Fuels for Exercise 48

- Carbohydrates 48
- Fats 49
- Proteins 49

##### High-Energy Phosphates 49

##### Bioenergetics 50

- Anaerobic ATP Production 51
- Aerobic ATP Production 54

##### Aerobic ATP Tally 61

##### Efficiency of Oxidative Phosphorylation 62

##### Control of Bioenergetics 62

- Control of ATP-PC System 63
- Control of Glycolysis 63
- Control of Citric Acid Cycle and Electron Transport Chain 64

##### Interaction Between Aerobic/Anaerobic ATP Production 64

#### Chapter 4 Exercise Metabolism 68

##### Energy Requirements at Rest 69

##### Rest-to-Exercise Transitions 69

##### Recovery from Exercise: Metabolic Responses 71

##### Metabolic Responses to Exercise: Influence of

- Duration and Intensity 75
- Short-Term, Intense Exercise 75
- Prolonged Exercise 75
- Incremental Exercise 76

Estimation of Fuel Utilization during Exercise	80	Autonomic Nervous System	161
Factors Governing Fuel Selection	81	Exercise Enhances Brain Health	162
Exercise Intensity and Fuel Selection	81		
Exercise Duration and Fuel Selection	82	<b>Chapter 8</b> Skeletal Muscle: Structure and Function	166
Interaction of Fat/Carbohydrate Metabolism	84	<b>Structure of Skeletal Muscle</b>	167
Body Fuel Sources	84	<b>Neuromuscular Junction</b>	170
<b>Chapter 5</b> Cell Signaling and the Hormonal Responses to Exercise	92	<b>Muscular Contraction</b>	171
<b>Neuroendocrinology</b>	93	Overview of the Sliding Filament/Swinging Lever-Arm Model	171
Blood Hormone Concentration	94	Energy for Contraction	173
Hormone-Receptor Interaction	95	Regulation of Excitation-Contraction Coupling	173
<b>Hormones: Regulation and Action</b>	98	<b>Exercise and Muscle Fatigue</b>	177
Hypothalamus and the Pituitary Gland	98	<b>Exercise-Associated Muscle Cramps</b>	177
Thyroid Gland	101	Exercise-Associated Muscle Cramps Are Not Caused by Dehydration or Electrolyte Imbalance	177
Parathyroid Gland	102	Exercise-Associated Muscle Cramps Are Likely Due to Changes in the Central Nervous System	178
Adrenal Gland	102	Exercise-Associated Muscle Cramps: Conclusions	178
Pancreas	106	<b>Muscle Fiber Types</b>	180
Testes and Ovaries	106	Overview of Biochemical and Contractile Characteristics of Skeletal Muscle	180
<b>Hormonal Control of Substrate Mobilization during Exercise</b>	111	Functional Characteristics of Muscle Fiber Types	181
Muscle-Glycogen Utilization	111	Fiber Types and Performance	183
Blood Glucose Homeostasis during Exercise	114	<b>Muscle Actions</b>	184
Hormone-Substrate Interaction	120	<b>Speed of Muscle Action and Relaxation</b>	185
<b>Chapter 6</b> Exercise and the Immune System	127	<b>Force Regulation in Muscle</b>	185
<b>Overview of the Immune System</b>	128	<b>Force-Velocity/Power-Velocity Relationships</b>	187
Innate Immune System	128		
Acquired Immune System	132	<b>Chapter 9</b> Circulatory Responses to Exercise	193
<b>Exercise and the Immune System</b>	133	<b>Organization of the Circulatory System</b>	194
Exercise and Resistance to Infection	133	Structure of the Heart	194
High-Intensity/Long-Duration Aerobic Exercise Increases the Risk of Infection	135	Pulmonary and Systemic Circuits	195
<b>Exercising in Environmental Extremes: Increased Risk for Infection?</b>	137	<b>Heart: Myocardium and Cardiac Cycle</b>	195
<b>Should You Exercise When You Have a Cold?</b>	138	Myocardium	196
		Cardiac Cycle	197
		Arterial Blood Pressure	199
		Factors That Influence Arterial Blood Pressure	201
		Electrical Activity of the Heart	202
		<b>Cardiac Output</b>	204
		Regulation of Heart Rate	204
		Heart Rate Variability	207
		Regulation of Stroke Volume	208
		<b>Hemodynamics</b>	210
		Physical Characteristics of Blood	210
		Relationships among Pressure, Resistance, and Flow	210
		Sources of Vascular Resistance	211
		<b>Changes in Oxygen Delivery to Muscle during Exercise</b>	212
		Changes in Cardiac Output during Exercise	212
		Changes in Arterial-Mixed Venous O <sub>2</sub> Content during Exercise	214
<b>Chapter 7</b> The Nervous System: Structure and Control of Movement	140		
<b>General Nervous System Functions</b>	141		
<b>Organization of the Nervous System</b>	141		
Structure of the Neuron	142		
Electrical Activity in Neurons	142		
<b>Sensory Information and Reflexes</b>	149		
Joint Proprioceptors	150		
Muscle Proprioceptors	150		
<b>Muscle Chemoreceptors</b>	153		
<b>Somatic Motor Function and Motor Neurons</b>	153		
<b>Vestibular Apparatus and Equilibrium</b>	155		
<b>Motor Control Functions of the Brain</b>	156		
Cerebrum	156		
Cerebellum	157		
Brain Stem	157		
<b>Motor Functions of the Spinal Cord</b>	159		
<b>Control of Motor Functions</b>	159		

Redistribution of Blood Flow during Exercise	214
Regulation of Local Blood Flow during Exercise	215
<b>Circulatory Responses to Exercise</b>	<b>216</b>
Emotional Influence	217
Transition from Rest to Exercise	217
Recovery from Exercise	217
Incremental Exercise	217
Arm Versus Leg Exercise	218
Intermittent Exercise	219
Prolonged Exercise	219
<b>Regulation of Cardiovascular Adjustments to Exercise</b>	<b>220</b>
<b>Chapter 10</b> Respiration during Exercise	<b>224</b>
<b>Function of the Respiratory System—The Big Picture</b>	<b>225</b>
<b>Structure of the Respiratory System</b>	<b>225</b>
Conducting Zone	227
Respiratory Zone	228
<b>Mechanics of Breathing</b>	<b>228</b>
Inspiration	229
Expiration	229
Airway Resistance	229
<b>Pulmonary Ventilation</b>	<b>231</b>
<b>Pulmonary Volumes and Capacities</b>	<b>232</b>
<b>Diffusion of Gases</b>	<b>234</b>
<b>Blood Flow to the Lung</b>	<b>236</b>
<b>Ventilation-Perfusion Relationships</b>	<b>237</b>
<b>O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> Transport in Blood</b>	<b>237</b>
Hemoglobin and O <sub>2</sub> Transport	237
Oxygen-Hemoglobin Dissociation Curve	238
O <sub>2</sub> Transport in Muscle	240
CO <sub>2</sub> Transport in Blood	240
<b>Ventilation and Acid-Base Balance</b>	<b>241</b>
<b>Ventilatory and Blood-Gas Responses to Exercise</b>	<b>242</b>
Rest-to-Work Transitions	242
Prolonged Exercise in a Hot Environment	242
Incremental Exercise	242
<b>Control of Ventilation</b>	<b>244</b>
Ventilatory Regulation at Rest	244
Respiratory Control Center	244
Input to the Respiratory Control Center	245
Ventilatory Control during Submaximal Exercise	247
Ventilatory Control during Heavy Exercise	248
<b>Do the Lungs Adapt to Exercise Training?</b>	<b>249</b>
<b>Does the Pulmonary System Limit Maximal Exercise Performance?</b>	<b>250</b>
<b>Chapter 11</b> Acid-Base Balance during Exercise	<b>256</b>
<b>Acids, Bases, and pH</b>	<b>257</b>
<b>Hydrogen Ion Production during Exercise</b>	<b>258</b>
<b>Importance of Acid-Base Regulation during Exercise</b>	<b>260</b>
<b>Acid-Base Buffer Systems</b>	<b>260</b>
Intracellular Buffers	260
Influence of Muscle Fiber Type and Exercise Training on Intracellular Buffer Capacity	261
Extracellular Buffers	261
<b>Respiratory Influence on Acid-Base Balance</b>	<b>262</b>
<b>Regulation of Acid-Base Balance via the Kidneys</b>	<b>264</b>
<b>Regulation of Acid-Base Balance during Exercise</b>	<b>265</b>
<b>Chapter 12</b> Temperature Regulation	<b>269</b>
<b>Overview of Heat Balance during Exercise</b>	<b>270</b>
<b>Temperature Measurement during Exercise</b>	<b>271</b>
<b>Overview of Heat Production/Heat Loss</b>	<b>272</b>
Heat Production	272
Heat Loss	272
Heat Storage in the Body during Exercise	275
<b>Body's Thermostat—Preoptic-Anterior Hypothalamus</b>	<b>276</b>
Shift in the Hypothalamic Thermostat Set Point Due to Fever	276
<b>Thermal Events during Exercise</b>	<b>277</b>
<b>Heat Index—A Measure of How Hot It Feels</b>	<b>279</b>
<b>Exercise in a Hot Environment</b>	<b>279</b>
Sweat Rates during Exercise	279
Exercise Performance Is Impaired in a Hot Environment	279
Gender and Age Differences in Thermoregulation	283
Heat Acclimation	284
Loss of Acclimation	286
<b>Exercise in a Cold Environment</b>	<b>287</b>
Physiological Responses to Exercise in the Cold	288
Cold Acclimation	289
<b>Chapter 13</b> The Physiology of Training: Effect on $\dot{V}O_2$ Max, Performance, and Strength	<b>293</b>
<b>Principles of Training</b>	<b>295</b>
Overload and Reversibility	295
Specificity	295
<b>Endurance Training and <math>\dot{V}O_2</math> Max</b>	<b>295</b>
Training Programs and Changes in $\dot{V}O_2$ Max	295
<b>Why Does Exercise Training Improve <math>\dot{V}O_2</math> Max?</b>	<b>297</b>
Stroke Volume	298
Arteriovenous O <sub>2</sub> Difference	299
<b>Endurance Training: Effects on Performance and Homeostasis</b>	<b>299</b>
Endurance Training-Induced Changes in Fiber Type and Capillarity	300
Endurance Training Increases Mitochondrial Content in Skeletal Muscle Fibers	301
Training-Induced Changes in Muscle Fuel Utilization	302
Endurance Training Improves Muscle Antioxidant Capacity	304
Exercise Training Improves Acid-Base Balance during Exercise	304
<b>Molecular Bases of Exercise Training Adaptation</b>	<b>305</b>



Training Adaptation—Big Picture	305
Specificity of Exercise Training Responses	306
Primary Signal Transduction Pathways in Skeletal Muscle	307
Secondary Messengers in Skeletal Muscle	307
<b>Signaling Events Leading to Endurance Training-Induced Muscle Adaptation</b>	<b>309</b>
<b>Endurance Training: Links between Muscle and Systemic Physiology</b>	<b>310</b>
Peripheral Feedback	311
Central Command	312
<b>Detraining Following Endurance Training</b>	<b>313</b>
<b>Muscle Adaptations to Anaerobic Exercise Training</b>	<b>314</b>
Anaerobic Training-Induced Increases in Performance	314
Anaerobic Training-Induced Changes in Skeletal Muscles	314
<b>Physiological Effects of Strength Training</b>	<b>315</b>
<b>Mechanisms Responsible for Resistance Training-Induced Increases in Strength</b>	<b>316</b>
Resistance Training-Induced Changes in the Nervous System	316
Resistance Training-Induced Increases in Skeletal Muscle Size	317
Resistance Training-Induced Changes in Muscle Fiber Type	317
Can Resistance Training Improve Muscle Oxidative Capacity and Increase Capillary Number?	317
Resistance Training Improves Muscle Antioxidant Enzyme Activity	318
<b>Time Course and Signaling Events Leading to Resistance Training-Induced Muscle Growth</b>	<b>318</b>
Time Course of Muscle Protein Synthesis	318
Signaling Events Leading to Resistance Training-Induced Muscle Growth	319
Role of Satellite Cells in Resistance Training-Induced Hypertrophy	321
<b>Detraining Following Strength Training</b>	<b>322</b>
<b>Concurrent Strength and Endurance Training</b>	<b>322</b>
Mechanisms Responsible for the Impairment of Strength Development during Concurrent Strength and Endurance Training	323

## SECTION 2

### Physiology of Health and Fitness 329

<b>Chapter 14</b> Preventing Chronic Disease: Physical Activity and Healthy Eating	330
<b>Risk Factors for Chronic Diseases</b>	<b>331</b>
Inherited/Biological	331
Environmental	331
Behavioral	331

<b>Risk Factors for Coronary Heart Disease</b>	<b>333</b>
Physical Inactivity as a Risk Factor	333
Physical Activity and Health	334
<b>Inflammation and Coronary Heart Disease</b>	<b>336</b>
Obesity, Inflammation, and Chronic Disease	336
Healthy Eating and Physical Activity to Combat Inflammation	338
<b>The Metabolic Syndrome</b>	<b>339</b>

<b>Chapter 15</b> Exercise Tests to Evaluate Cardiorespiratory Fitness	344
<b>Testing Procedures</b>	<b>345</b>
Screening	345
Resting and Exercise Measures	347
<b>Field Tests for Estimating CRF</b>	<b>348</b>
Maximal Run Tests	348
Walk Tests	350
Modified Canadian Aerobic Fitness Test	351
<b>Graded Exercise Tests: Measurements</b>	<b>351</b>
Heart Rate	352
Blood Pressure	352
ECG	352
Rating of Perceived Exertion	352
Termination Criteria	353
<b><math>\dot{V}O_2</math> Max</b>	<b>353</b>
Estimation of $\dot{V}O_2$ Max from Last Work Rate	354
Estimation of $\dot{V}O_2$ Max from Submaximal HR Response	354
<b>Graded Exercise Test Protocols</b>	<b>356</b>
Treadmill	357
Cycle Ergometer	359
Step Test	360

### Chapter 16 Exercise Prescriptions for Health and Fitness 367

<b>Prescription of Exercise</b>	<b>368</b>
Dose-Response	369
Physical Activity and Health	369
<b>General Guidelines for Improving Fitness</b>	<b>371</b>
Screening	373
Progression	373
Warm-Up, Stretch, and Cool-Down, Stretch	373
<b>Exercise Prescription for CRF</b>	<b>373</b>
Frequency	374
Intensity	374
Time (Duration)	376
<b>Sequence of Physical Activity</b>	<b>377</b>
Walking	378
Jogging	378
Games and Sports	378
<b>Strength and Flexibility Training</b>	<b>379</b>
<b>Environmental Concerns</b>	<b>380</b>

<b>Chapter 17</b> Exercise for Special Populations	386
<b>Diabetes</b>	<b>387</b>
Exercise and Diabetes	388

<b>Asthma</b>	<b>392</b>
Diagnosis and Causes	392
Prevention/Relief of Asthma	392
Exercise-Induced Asthma	392
<b>Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease</b>	<b>395</b>
Testing and Training	395
<b>Hypertension</b>	<b>396</b>
<b>Cardiac Rehabilitation</b>	<b>397</b>
Population	397
Testing	398
Exercise Programs	398
<b>Exercise for Older Adults</b>	<b>399</b>
Maximal Aerobic Power	399
Response to Training	400
Bone Health and Osteoporosis	402
Strength	403
<b>Exercise during Pregnancy</b>	<b>403</b>

## Chapter 18 Nutrition and Body Composition for Health 411

<b>Standards of Nutrition</b>	<b>412</b>
<b>Classes of Nutrients</b>	<b>413</b>
Water	414
Vitamins	414
Minerals	414
Carbohydrates	418
Fats	419
Protein	419
<b>Dietary Guidelines for Americans</b>	<b>420</b>
Healthy Eating Plans	421
Evaluating the Diet	422
<b>Body Composition</b>	<b>422</b>
Methods of Assessing Overweight and Obesity	423
Methods of Measuring Body Composition	423
Two-Component Model of Body Composition	424
Body Fatness for Health and Fitness	427
<b>Obesity and Weight Control</b>	<b>428</b>
Obesity	429
Causes of Obesity	429
<b>Diet, Physical Activity, and Weight Control</b>	<b>430</b>
Energy Balance	430
Diet and Weight Control	431
Energy Expenditure and Weight Control	432

## SECTION 3

## Physiology of Performance 441

<b>Chapter 19</b> Factors Affecting Performance	<b>442</b>
<b>Sites of Fatigue</b>	<b>443</b>
Central Fatigue	444
Peripheral Fatigue	445
Both Central and Peripheral Fatigue	448
<b>Factors Limiting All-Out Anaerobic Performances</b>	<b>450</b>
Ultra Short-Term Performances (Ten Seconds or Less)	450
Short-Term Performances (10-180 Seconds)	450

<b>Factors Limiting All-Out Aerobic Performances</b>	<b>452</b>
Moderate-Length Performances (3-20 Minutes)	452
Intermediate-Length Performances (21-60 Minutes)	452
Long-Term Performances (1-4 Hours)	453
<b>Athlete as Machine</b>	<b>456</b>

## Chapter 20 Laboratory Assessment of Human Performance 459

<b>Laboratory Assessment of Physical Performance: Theory and Ethics</b>	<b>460</b>
<b>What the Athlete Gains by Physiological Testing</b>	<b>460</b>
<b>What Physiological Testing Will Not Do</b>	<b>461</b>
<b>Components of Effective Physiological Testing</b>	<b>461</b>
<b>Direct Testing of Maximal Aerobic Power</b>	<b>462</b>
Specificity of Testing	462
Exercise Test Protocol	462
Determination of Peak $\dot{V}O_2$ in Paraplegic Athletes	464
<b>Laboratory Tests to Predict Endurance Performance</b>	<b>464</b>
Use of the Lactate Threshold to Evaluate Performance	464
Measurement of Critical Power	466
<b>Tests to Determine Exercise Economy</b>	<b>467</b>
<b>Estimating Success in Distance Running Using the Lactate Threshold and Running Economy</b>	<b>468</b>
<b>Determination of Anaerobic Power</b>	<b>469</b>
Tests of Ultra Short-Term Maximal Anaerobic Power	469
Tests of Short-Term Anaerobic Power	471
<b>Evaluation of Muscular Strength</b>	<b>473</b>
Criteria for Selection of a Strength-Testing Method	473
Isometric Measurement of Strength	473
Free-Weight Testing of Strength	474
Isokinetic Assessment of Strength	474
Variable-Resistance Measurement of Strength	475

## Chapter 21 Training for Performance 480

<b>Training Principles</b>	<b>481</b>
Overload, Specificity, and Reversibility	481
Influence of Gender and Initial Fitness Level	482
Influence of Genetics	483
<b>Components of a Training Session: Warm-Up, Workout, and Cool Down</b>	<b>483</b>
<b>Training to Improve Aerobic Power</b>	<b>485</b>
Interval Training	485
Long, Slow-Distance Exercise	487
High-Intensity, Continuous Exercise	487
Altitude Training Improves Exercise Performance at Sea Level	487
<b>Injuries and Endurance Training</b>	<b>488</b>

<b>Training to Improve Anaerobic Power</b> 489	Carbohydrate Intake prior to or during a Performance 528
Training to Improve the ATP-PC System 489	Carbohydrate Intake Post-Performance 532
Training to Improve the Glycolytic System 489	<b>Protein</b> 532
<b>Training to Improve Muscular Strength</b> 489	Protein Requirements and Exercise 532
Progressive Resistance Exercise 491	Protein Requirements for Athletes 534
General Strength-Training Principles 491	<b>Water and Electrolytes</b> 535
Free Weights Versus Machines 492	Fluid Replacement—Before Exercise 535
Gender Differences in Response to Strength Training 494	Fluid Replacement—During Exercise 536
<b>Concurrent Strength and Endurance Training Programs</b> 494	Fluid Replacement—After Exercise 538
<b>Nutritional Influence on Training-Induced Skeletal Muscle Adaptations</b> 495	Salt (NaCl) 538
Carbohydrate Availability in Skeletal Muscle	<b>Minerals</b> 540
Influences Endurance Training Adaptation 495	Iron 540
Protein Availability in Skeletal Muscle Influences	<b>Vitamins</b> 541
Muscle Protein Synthesis Following Exercise 496	<b>Precompetition Meal</b> 541
Supplementation with Mega Doses of Antioxidants 496	Nutrients in Precompetition Meal 542
<b>Muscle Soreness</b> 497	<b>Body Composition and Performance</b> 542
<b>Training to Improve Flexibility</b> 499	<b>Chapter 24</b> Exercise and the Environment 548
<b>Year-Round Conditioning for Athletes</b> 501	<b>Altitude</b> 549
Off-Season Conditioning 501	Atmospheric Pressure 549
Preseason Conditioning 501	Short-Term Anaerobic Performance 549
In-Season Conditioning 502	Long-Term Aerobic Performance 550
<b>Common Training Mistakes</b> 502	Maximal Aerobic Power and Altitude 551
<b>Chapter 22</b> Training for the Female Athlete, Children, Special Populations, and the Masters Athlete 507	Acclimatization to High Altitude 553
<b>Factors Important to Women Involved in Vigorous Training</b> 508	Training for Competition at Altitude 554
Exercise and Menstrual Disorders 508	The Quest for Everest 554
Training and Menstruation 509	<b>Heat</b> 557
The Female Athlete and Eating Disorders 509	Hyperthermia 557
Eating Disorders: Final Comments 510	<b>Implications for Fitness</b> 559
Bone Mineral Disorders and the Female Athlete 510	<b>Implications for Performance</b> 559
Exercise during Pregnancy 510	<b>Cold</b> 561
Risk of Knee Injury in Female Athletes 512	Environmental Factors 562
<b>Sports Conditioning for Children</b> 514	Insulating Factors 564
Training and the Cardiopulmonary System 514	Heat Production 565
Training and the Musculoskeletal System 514	Descriptive Characteristics 565
Progress in Pediatric Exercise Science 515	Dealing with Hypothermia 566
<b>Competitive Training for People with Diabetes</b> 516	<b>Air Pollution</b> 567
<b>Training for People with Asthma</b> 517	Particulate Matter 567
<b>Epilepsy and Physical Training</b> 517	Ozone 567
Does Exercise Promote Seizures? 517	Sulfur Dioxide 567
Risk of Injury Due to Seizures 518	Carbon Monoxide 567
<b>Exercise Performance and Training for Masters Athletes</b> 518	<b>Chapter 25</b> Ergogenic Aids 573
Age-Related Changes in Muscular Strength 518	<b>Research Design Concerns</b> 574
Aging and Endurance Performance 519	<b>Dietary Supplements</b> 575
Training Guidelines for Masters Athletes 521	<b>Aerobic Performance</b> 576
<b>Chapter 23</b> Nutrition, Body Composition, and Performance 525	Oxygen 577
<b>Carbohydrate</b> 526	Blood Doping 579
Carbohydrate Diets and Performance 526	<b>Anaerobic Performance</b> 581
	Blood Buffers 581
	<b>Drugs</b> 582
	Amphetamines 583
	Caffeine 583
	<b>Mechanical Ergogenic Aids</b> 586
	Cycling 586
	<b>Physical Warm-Up</b> 588

**Appendices can be found in the Instructor's Resources within Connect**

**Appendix A:** Calculation of Oxygen Uptake and Carbon Dioxide Production A-1

**Appendix B:** Dietary Reference Intakes: Estimated Energy Requirements A-5

**Appendix C:** Dietary Reference Intakes: Vitamins A-6

**Appendix D:** Dietary Reference Intakes: Minerals and Elements A-8

**Appendix E:** Percent Fat Estimate for Men: Sum of Triceps, Chest, and Subscapula Skinfolts A-10

**Appendix F:** Percent Fat Estimate for Women: Sum of Triceps, Abdomen, and Suprailium Skinfolts A-11

Glossary G-1

Index I-1

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# Preface

As with all previous editions, the tenth edition of *Exercise Physiology: Theory and Application to Fitness and Performance* is intended for students interested in exercise physiology, clinical exercise physiology, human performance, kinesiology/exercise science, physical therapy, and physical education. The overall objective of this text is to provide the student with an up-to-date understanding of the physiology of exercise. Moreover, the book contains numerous clinical applications including exercise tests to evaluate cardiorespiratory fitness and information on exercise training for improvements in health-related physical fitness and sports performance.

This book is intended for a one-semester, upper-level undergraduate or beginning graduate exercise physiology course. Clearly, the text contains more material than can be covered in a single 15-week semester. This is by design. The book was written to be comprehensive and afford instructors the freedom to select the material that they consider to be the most important for the composition of their class. Furthermore, if desired, the book could be used in a two-semester sequence of exercise physiology courses (e.g., Exercise Physiology I and II) to cover the entire 25 chapters contained in the text.

## NEW TO THIS EDITION

The tenth edition of our book has undergone *major* revisions and highlights the latest research in exercise physiology. Indeed, every chapter contains new and expanded discussions, new text boxes, new figures, updated references, and contemporary suggested readings.

### New Topics and Updated Content

The content of this new edition has been markedly updated. Specifically, each chapter has been revised and updated to include new and amended box

features, new illustrations, new research findings, and the inclusion of up-to-date references and suggested readings. The following list describes some of the significant changes that have made the tenth edition more complete and up-to-date:

- **Chapter 0:** Two new “A Look Back” features were added to highlight the careers of Elsworth Buskirk and Frances Hellebrandt.
- **Chapter 1:** New suggested readings and updated references were added.
- **Chapter 2:** Updated discussion on the role that heat shock proteins play in the cellular adaptation to stress.
- **Chapter 3:** New illustration and box feature added to highlight the structure and function of the two subpopulations of mitochondria found in skeletal muscle.
- **Chapter 4:** Several figures were upgraded along with the addition of a new section on measurement of  $\dot{V}O_2$  max.
- **Chapter 5:** Numerous new and improved figures were added along with a new table highlighting hormonal changes during exercise. New information added on the impact of both growth hormone and anabolic steroids on skeletal muscle size and function.
- **Chapter 6:** Update on the latest research findings on the impact of exercise on the immune system added.
- **Chapter 7:** Expanded discussion on muscle sense organs (i.e., Golgi tendon organ and muscle spindles). New information added about the exceptions to the size principle. Further, a new section was added discussing how central pattern generators control movement during exercise. Additionally, Clinical Applications 7.2 was expanded

to discuss the risk of chronic traumatic encephalopathy (CTE) in contact sports.

- **Chapter 8:** Updated information on the role that satellite cells play in exercise-induced skeletal muscle hypertrophy was added. Further, new information on how exercise training alters the structure and function of the neuromuscular junction was included in this chapter. Lastly, new research on the cause of exercise-related skeletal muscle cramps was added along with a new box feature discussing new pharmacological approaches to prevent muscle cramps.
- **Chapter 9:** Updated information on the prediction of maximal heart rates in older individuals. Expanded discussion highlighting new research on the regulation of muscle blood flow during exercise. Added a new A Closer Look 9.3 to discuss the impact of body position on stroke volume during exercise.
- **Chapter 10:** Updated with the newest research findings on control of breathing during exercise. Also, new research on sex differences in breathing during exercise was also added.
- **Chapter 11:** Several new and improved illustrations were added along with an expanded discussion on intracellular acid-base buffer systems. New section added about how buffering capacity differs between muscle fiber types and how exercise training impacts muscle buffer systems. Further, the chapter was improved by the addition of the latest information on nutritional supplements used to improve acid-base balance during exercise.
- **Chapter 12:** Several new illustrations were added along with a discussion on the impact of a hot environment on exercise performance. Further, a box feature was added to discuss the influence of precooling on exercise performance. Lastly, the discussion of exercise in a cold environment was expanded to discuss the latest research findings.
- **Chapter 13:** Numerous new illustrations were included in this greatly revised chapter along with the addition of two new box features that discuss (1) the impact of genetics on  $\dot{V}O_2$  max and (2) the influence of endurance exercise training on skeletal muscle mitochondrial volume and turnover. Moreover, a new section was also added to discuss muscle adaptations to anaerobic exercise. Finally, new and expanded information on the signaling events that lead to resistance training-induced muscle growth was included.
- **Chapter 14:** Major revision to this chapter provides more focus on the importance of physical activity in the prevention of chronic diseases. Section on metabolic syndrome was extensively revised to include an expanded discussion of how physical activity and diet impacts the inflammation that is linked to chronic disease.
- **Chapter 15:** Wide revision of the screening process for individuals entering a physical activity program along with new figures. Latest information regarding the new national standards for  $\dot{V}O_2$  max.
- **Chapter 16:** Updated references and suggested readings.
- **Chapter 17:** New information on ACSM's physical activity recommendations for all special populations. New figure added on effect of age on  $\dot{V}O_2$  max along with a new Clinical Application box discussing physical activity and risk of cancer.
- **Chapter 18:** Extensive revision to include new information on vitamins and minerals along with the new dietary guidelines for Americans. Widespread revision of the discussion on how to determine body composition along with a focused analysis of the causes and treatment for obesity.
- **Chapter 19:** New "A Look Back" on Brenda Bigland-Ritchie along with an expanded discussion on the linkages between central and peripheral fatigue. Update on the role that free radicals play in exercise-induced muscle fatigue and new information on why Kenyan runners are often successful in long distance races.
- **Chapter 20:** Chapter updated with latest research findings plus the addition of new suggested readings.
- **Chapter 21:** Three new box features added to address the following: (1) What are the physiological limits to the enhancement of endurance performance?; (2) Do compression garments benefit athletes during competition and recovery from training?; and (3) Treatment of delayed onset muscle soreness.
- **Chapter 22:** New illustration was added along with the latest research findings on the female athlete triad coupled with a discussion of the recent proposal to replace the term *female athlete triad* with new terminology.
- **Chapter 23:** Updated information from the 2016 ACSM position stand on nutrition and performance along with an expanded

discussion of the benefits and problems associated for athletes training with low levels of muscle glycogen. Expanded discussion of protein requirements for athletes along with a new discussion of the importance of consuming carbohydrates during long distance endurance events.

- **Chapter 24:** Updated discussion on the “Live High Train Low” training strategy. New recommendations for prevention and treatment of heat illnesses coupled with new information on how the WBGT Index fits into planning workouts in hot/humid environments.
- **Chapter 25:** Latest data on the prevalence and use of ergogenic aids. New information of dietary supplements for improving endurance performance along with additional information on the impact of stretching on performance.



The tenth edition of *Exercise Physiology: Theory and Application to Fitness and Performance* is now available online with Connect, McGraw-Hill Education's integrated assignment and assessment platform. Connect also offers SmartBook™ for the new edition, which is the first adaptive reading experience proven to improve grades and help students study more effectively. All of the title's website and ancillary content is also available through Connect, including:

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- A full Test Bank of multiple choice questions that test students on central concepts and ideas in each chapter. Also, new to this edition is the classification of test question difficulty using Bloom's taxonomy.
- Lecture Slides for instructor use in class.





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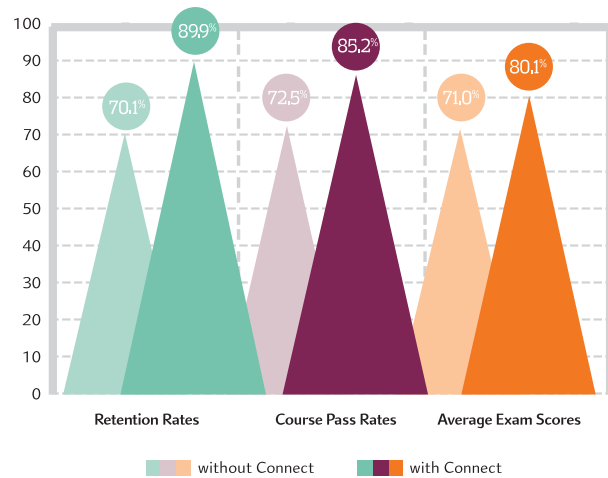
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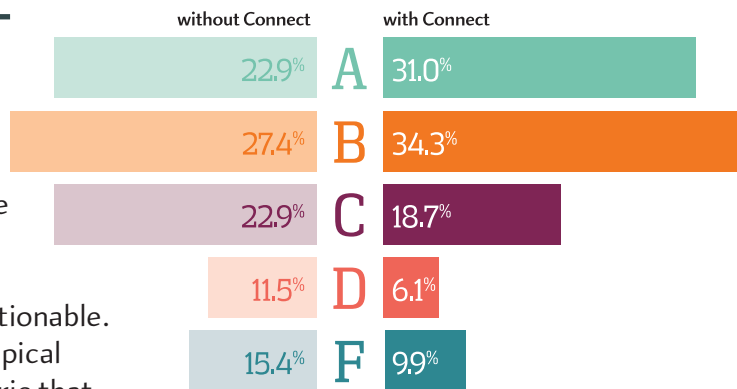
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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This text *Exercise Physiology: Theory and Application to Fitness and Performance* is not the effort of only two authors but represents the contributions of hundreds of scientists from around the world. Although it is not possible to acknowledge every contributor to this work, we would like to recognize the following scientists who have greatly influenced our thinking, careers, and lives in general: Drs. Bruno Balke, Ronald Byrd, Jerome Dempsey, Stephen Dodd, H. V. Forster, B. D. Franks, Steven Horvath, Henry Montoye, Francis Nagle, and Hugh G. Welch.

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The University of Tampa

# Engaging Presentation of Key Concepts Supported by the Latest Research

**RESEARCH FOCUS 10.1**

### Sex Differences in Breathing during Exercise

New evidence reveals that sex differences exist in anatomy of the respiratory system and that these anatomical differences impact the breathing response to exercise. Specifically, when matched for age and body weight, women have smaller airways compared to men (98). This is important because a smaller airway results in greater resistance to airflow, which could limit the maximal ventilatory capacity during high intensity exercise. Further, because women have smaller airways, the energy requirement for breathing during exercise is higher in women, compared to men (41). This is significant because an increased work of breathing can accelerate the respiratory muscle fatigue that occurs during prolonged or high intensity exercise. Moreover, evidence from a growing number of studies suggest that elite female endurance athletes are more likely to experience exercise-induced hypoxemia than their male counterparts (98). It is unclear if the increased incidence of exercise-induced hypoxemia in elite female endurance athletes is due to differences in airway diameter between the sexes. Together, these data indicate that sex differences exist in the ventilatory response to exercise and this could impact the cardiopulmonary response to exercise. For more details on sex differences in the pulmonary system, please see Shea et al. (2016) in the suggested reading list.

during intense exercise in elite athletes could occur due to a reduced amount of time that the RBCs spend in the pulmonary capillaries (34). This short RBC transit time in the pulmonary capillaries is due to the high cardiac outputs achieved by these athletes during high intensity exercise. This high cardiac output during high intensity exercise results in the rapid movement of RBCs through the lung, which limits the time available for gas equilibrium to be achieved between the lung and blood (30, 96, 123).

**IN SUMMARY**

- At the beginning of constant-load submaximal exercise, ventilation increases rapidly, followed by a slower rise toward a steady state value. Arterial  $\text{PO}_2$  and  $\text{PCO}_2$  are maintained relatively constant during this type of exercise.
- During prolonged exercise in a hot/humid environment, ventilation "drifts" upward due to the influence of rising body temperature on the respiratory control center.
- Incremental exercise results in a linear increase in  $\dot{V}_E$  up to approximately 50% to 70% of  $\dot{V}_{E\max}$ ; at higher work rates, ventilation begins to rise exponentially. This ventilatory inflection point is often called the ventilatory threshold.
- Exercise-induced hypoxemia occurs in 40% to 50% of elite, highly trained male and female endurance athletes.
- New evidence reveals that women have smaller airways than men, even when matched for lung size. This results in an increased work of breathing during exercise.

244 Section One Physiology of Exercise

## Research Focus

No matter what their career direction, students must learn how to read and think about the latest research. Research Focus presents new research and explains why it's relevant.

## A Closer Look

A Closer Look offers an in-depth view of topics that are of special interest to students. This feature encourages students to dig deeper into key concepts.

**MUSCLE FIBER TYPES**

Human skeletal muscle can be divided into major classes based on the histochemical or biochemical characteristics of the individual fibers. Specifically, muscle fibers are classified into two general categories: (1) slow type I fibers (also called slow twitch fibers) and (2) fast type II fibers (also called fast twitch fibers) (10, 26, 27). Only one type of slow muscle fiber type II exists in human muscle, whereas two subcategories of fast, type II fibers exist: (a) type IIa fibers and (b) type IIx fibers. Though some muscles are composed of predominantly fast or slow fibers, most muscles in the body contain a mixture of both slow and fast fiber types. The percentage of the respective fiber types contained in skeletal muscles can be influenced by genetics, blood levels of hormones, and the exercise habits of the individual. From a practical standpoint, the fiber composition of skeletal muscles plays an important role in performance in both power and endurance events (11, 70). How muscle fibers are "typed" is introduced in A Closer Look 8.2.

**Overview of Biochemical and Contractile Characteristics of Skeletal Muscle**

Before discussing the functional characteristics of specific muscle fiber types, let's discuss the general biochemical and contractile properties of skeletal muscle that are important to muscle function.

**Biochemical Properties of Muscle** The three primary biochemical characteristics of muscle that are important to muscle function are: (1) the oxidative capacity, (2) the type of myosin isoform, and (3) the abundance of contractile proteins within the fiber. The oxidative capacity of a muscle fiber is determined by the number of mitochondria, the number of capillaries surrounding the fiber, and the amount of myoglobin within the fiber. A large number of mitochondria provides a greater capacity to produce ATP aerobically. A high number of capillaries surrounding a muscle fiber ensures that the fiber will receive adequate oxygen during periods of contractile activity. Myoglobin is similar to hemoglobin in the blood in that it binds  $\text{O}_2$ , and it also acts as a "shuttle" mechanism for  $\text{O}_2$ .

**A CLOSER LOOK 8.2**

### How Are Skeletal Muscle Fibers Typed?

The relative percentage of fast or slow fibers contained in a particular muscle can be estimated by removing a small piece of muscle (via a procedure called a biopsy) and performing histochemical analysis of the individual muscle cells. A common method uses a histochemical procedure that divides muscle fibers into three categories based on the specific "isoform" of myosin found in the fiber. This technique uses selective antibodies that recognize and "tag" each of the different myosin proteins (e.g., type I, type IIa, and type IIx) found in human muscle fibers. Specifically, this method involves the binding of a high-affinity antibody to each unique myosin protein. This technique can then identify different muscle fibers due to color differences across the varying muscle fiber types. Figure 8.11 is an example of a muscle cross-section after immunohistochemical staining for a skeletal muscle myosin protein.

**Figure 8.11** Immunohistochemical staining of a cross-sectional area of a skeletal muscle. The red staining is dystrophin protein, which is located within the membrane that surrounds a skeletal muscle fiber. The blue cells are type I fibers, whereas the green cells are type IIa fibers. The cells that appear black are type IIx muscle fibers.

(dystrophin), as well as immunohistochemical staining for type I, type IIa, and type IIx skeletal muscle fibers (9, 10, 41, 45).

One of the inherent problems with fiber typing in humans is that a muscle biopsy is usually performed on only one muscle group. Therefore, a single sample from one muscle is not representative of the entire body.

A further complication is that a small sample of fibers taken from a single area of the muscle may not be truly representative of the total fiber population of the muscle biopsied (9, 71). Therefore, it is difficult to make a definitive statement concerning the percentage of muscle fiber types in the whole body based on the staining of a single muscle biopsy.

180 Section One Physiology of Exercise

**ASK THE EXPERT 12.1**

### Exercise Performance in a Hot Environment

Questions and Answers with Dr. Michael Sawka

**Michael Sawka, Ph.D.**, Professor of Physiology at the Georgia Institute of Technology, is an internationally recognized expert in human physiology and environmental physiology. He has authored more than 200 highly regarded research studies related to both exercise and environmental physiology. In particular, Dr. Sawka and his team have performed many studies investigating the impact of a hot environment on aerobic performance. In this feature, Dr. Sawka addresses three important questions related to exercise performance in a hot environment.

**QUESTION:** Your work has established that environmental heat stress has a negative impact on aerobic exercise performance. However, how does heat stress impact performance in team sports, such as soccer or American football?

**ANSWER:** The performance of a team is dependent upon the performance of the individual athletes. If the individual athlete's performance is impaired, then it is likely the team's performance will also be suboptimal. In addition, team sports are greatly dependent upon both cohesion and decision making, and there is evidence that heat stress and dehydration can degrade cognitive function, which will have a negative impact on decision making and team cohesion.

**QUESTION:** Your group has extensively studied the mechanisms to explain why environmental heat stress impairs aerobic performance. What are the primary explanations as to why a hot environment impairs aerobic performance?

**ANSWER:** Heat stress impairs aerobic exercise performance because of two primary reasons: (1) cardiovascular strain needed to support high skin blood flow, and (2) dehydration, which reduces plasma volume and thus increases cardiovascular strain. During exercise in a hot environment, the high skin blood flow and reduced plasma volume both act to reduce venous pressure and thus reduce cardiac filling. Despite a compensatory increase in heart rate and contractility, stroke volume will usually decline and thus make it difficult to maintain blood pressure and to sustain adequate blood flow to skeletal muscle and the brain. In addition, thermal discomfort and perceived exertion are elevated. The net effect is that heat stress degrades maximal aerobic power and that any submaximal work rate is performed at a greater relative work rate (i.e., percent of maximal aerobic power), which also increases perception of effort. Further, heat stress alters skeletal muscle metabolism (increased glycogen use and lactate accumulation) and may modify central nervous system function, which can contribute to impaired exercise performance.

**QUESTION:** Strong evidence indicates that heat acclimation improves exercise tolerance in hot environments. However, are there other strategies (e.g., precooling or hypohydration) that athletes can utilize to improve aerobic performance in a hot environment?

**ANSWER:** By far the most effective strategies to sustain performance during heat stress are to achieve heat acclimation and maintain adequate hydration. In addition, heat acclimation has recently been demonstrated to confer benefits to improve aerobic exercise performance in temperate environments. There is some evidence that precooling and hypohydration can improve performance in a hot environment, but in my opinion their benefits are marginal and if improperly used might be counterproductive.

Hypohydration can result in a small increase in blood volume and slightly delay developing dehydration; together, these changes help to support the cardiovascular system during exercise in a hot environment. Nonetheless, these benefits are marginal and, depending upon the methods employed, hypohydration could increase the likelihood of hyponatremia (i.e., low blood sodium levels), discomfort associated with increased urine output, or elevated risk of headache.

Precooling allows body temperature (skin and core) to be lower at the beginning of exercise, but the small benefits demonstrated in laboratory studies may be lost in real-life competition when athletes are exposed to the heat environment for a significant period before initiating competition. In addition, overcooling the skeletal muscles might initially impair muscle performance.

A key aspect of heat acclimation is an earlier onset of sweating and an increase in the sweat rate. An earlier onset of sweating simply means that sweating begins rapidly after the commencement of exercise; this translates into less heat storage at the beginning of exercise and a lower core temperature. In addition, heat acclimation can increase the sweating capacity (since threshold above the rate achievable prior to

after the first exposure (51, 70) (Fig. 12.13). A brief discussion of each of these physiological adaptations follows.

Heat acclimation results in a 10% to 12% increase in plasma volume (17, 47). This increased plasma volume maintains central blood volume, stroke volume, and sweating capacity, and allows the body to store more heat with a smaller temperature gain.

Chapter Twelve Temperature Regulation 285

## Ask the Expert

This question-and-answer feature lets you find out what leading scientists have to say about topics such as the effect of space flight on skeletal muscle and the effect of exercise on bone health.

# Practical Applications of Exercise Physiology

## Clinical Applications

Learn how exercise physiology is used in the clinical setting.

7.1
CLINICAL APPLICATIONS

### Benefits of Exercise Training in Multiple Sclerosis

Multiple sclerosis (MS) is a neurological disease that progressively destroys the myelin sheaths of axons in multiple areas of the central nervous system. Although the exact cause of MS is not known, the MS-mediated destruction of myelin has an inherited (i.e., genetic) component and is due to an immune system attack on myelin. Destruction of the myelin sheath prohibits the normal conduction of nerve impulses, resulting in a progressive loss of nervous system function. The pathology of MS is characterized by general fatigue, muscle weakness, poor motor control, loss of balance, and mental depression (62). Therefore, patients with MS often have difficulties in performing activities of daily living and suffer from a low quality of life. Although there is no known cure for MS, growing evidence indicates that regular exercise, including both endurance and resistance exercise, can improve the functional capacity of patients suffering from this neurological disorder (66, 62-63). For example, studies reveal that MS patients engaging in a regular exercise program exhibit increased muscular strength and endurance, resulting in an improved quality of life (9, 66). Importantly, regular exercise may also reduce the mental depression associated with MS (66, 62). However, because of limited research, the amount and types of exercise that provide the optimum benefits for MS remains unclear (1). Nonetheless, two recent reviews have discussed an evidence-based guideline for physical activity in adults with MS. See Lattines-Cheng et al. (2013) along with Moil and Sandoff (2015) in the suggested reading list for details.

Let's discuss the resting membrane potential in more detail. Cellular proteins, phospholipid groups, and other molecules are negatively charged (anion) and are fixed inside the cell because they cannot cross the cell membrane. Because these negatively charged molecules are unable to leave the cell, they attract positively charged ions (cations) from the extracellular fluid. This results in an accumulation of a net positive charge on the outside surface of the membrane and a net negative charge on the inside surface of the membrane.

The magnitude of the resting membrane potential is primarily determined by two factors: (1) the permeability of the cell membrane to different ions and (2) the difference in ion concentrations between the intracellular and extracellular fluids (64). Although numerous intracellular and extracellular ions exist, sodium, potassium, and chloride ions are present in the greatest concentrations and therefore play the most important role in generating the resting membrane potential (64). The intracellular (inside the cell) and extracellular (outside the cell) concentrations of sodium, potassium, chloride, and calcium are illustrated in Figure 7.6. Notice that the concentration of sodium is much greater on the outside of the cell, whereas the concentration of potassium is much greater on the inside of the cell. For comparative purposes, the intracellular and extracellular concentrations of calcium and chloride are also illustrated (Fig. 7.6).

The permeability of the neuron membrane to potassium, sodium, and other ions is regulated by proteins within the membrane that function as channels that can be opened or closed by "gates" within the channel. This concept is illustrated in Figure 7.7. Note that ions can move freely across the cell membrane when the channel is open, whereas closure of the channel gate prevents ion movement. A key point to remember is that when channels are open, ions move from an area of high concentration toward an area of low concentration. Therefore, because the concentration of potassium (K<sup>+</sup>) is high inside the cell and the concentration of sodium (Na<sup>+</sup>) is high outside the cell, a change in the membrane's permeability to either potassium or sodium would result in a movement of these charged ions down their concentration gradients. That is, sodium would

144 Section One Physiology of Exercise

11.1
THE WINNING EDGE

### Exercise Physiology Applied to Sports

**Nutritional Supplements to Buffer Exercise-Induced Acid-Rise**  
Disturbances and Improve Performance  
Because intramuscular acidosis is associated with muscle fatigue, numerous studies have explored nutritional supplements to increase buffering capacity in hopes of improving athletic performance during high-intensity exercise. Indeed, it appears that supplements including sodium bicarbonate, sodium citrate, and beta-alanine have the potential to improve buffering capacity and enhance exercise performance during high-intensity exercise. Let's discuss these supplement strategies to improve muscle buffering capacity in more detail.

**Sodium bicarbonate.** Bicarbonate is a buffer that plays an important role in maintaining both extracellular and intracellular pH despite its inability to freely cross the muscle membrane (i.e., sarcolemma). Although controversy exists (2), many studies conclude that performance during high-intensity exercise is improved when athletes ingest sodium bicarbonate prior to exercise (6, 7, 26, 30, 32, 34, 37, 40). Specifically, results from numerous studies reveal that boosting the blood buffering capacity by ingestion of sodium bicarbonate increases time to exhaustion during high-intensity exercise (e.g., 800 to 1200 W, max). For example, a recent survey of the scientific literature reveals that sodium bicarbonate is effective in improving a 6-second "all out" exercise bout by approximately 2% (3). Further, laboratory studies employing repeated bouts of high-intensity exercise (i.e., >100% V<sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub> max) have reported that ingestion of sodium bicarbonate prior to exercise can enhance performance by more than 10% (18). In addition to these laboratory studies, evidence exists that sodium bicarbonate is also beneficial to sport performance in activities where the metabolic demands are primarily anaerobic, such as judo, swimming, and water polo (18).

It appears that sodium bicarbonate improves physical performance by increasing the extracellular buffering capacity, which, in turn, increases the transport of hydrogen ions out of the muscle fibers (18). This would reduce the interference of hydrogen ions on

muscle ATP production and/or the contractile process itself.

In deciding whether to use sodium bicarbonate prior to a sporting event, an athlete should understand the risks associated with this decision. Ingestion of sodium bicarbonate in the doses required to improve blood buffering capacity can cause gastrointestinal problems, including diarrhea and vomiting (7, 37).

**Sodium citrate.** Similar to sodium bicarbonate, sodium citrate is another agent capable of increasing extracellular buffering capacity (18). The question of whether ingestion of sodium citrate can improve exercise performance during high-intensity exercise remains controversial because experimental results are often inconsistent. Nonetheless, a review of the research literature suggests that although low doses of sodium citrate does not improve performance, ingestion of high doses of sodium citrate (i.e., only grams/kg of body weight) improves performance during high-intensity cycling exercise lasting 120 to 240 seconds (18).

Unfortunately, similar to sodium bicarbonate, ingestion of high doses of sodium citrate can produce undesired side effects such as nausea, gastrointestinal discomfort, and headaches. Therefore, before deciding whether to use sodium citrate prior to competition, athletes should consider the negative side effects associated with the use of sodium citrate.

**Beta-alanine.** Recent evidence suggests that supplementation with beta-alanine can play a beneficial role in protecting against exercise-induced acidosis and improve performance during short, high-intensity exercise (19). Beta-alanine is a non-essential amino acid produced in the liver, gut, and kidney. However, fasting blood levels of beta-alanine are low indicating that endogenous synthesis of this amino is limited.

The link between beta-alanine and protection against acidosis is linked to the fact that beta-alanine is an important precursor for the synthesis of carnosine in skeletal muscle. As discussed in the text, carnosine is a

small molecule (dipeptide) found in the cytoplasm of excitable cells (i.e., neurons, skeletal and cardiac muscle fibers) (18). Carnosine has several important physiological functions including the ability to buffer hydrogen ions and protect against exercise-induced decreases in cellular pH (18). The availability of beta-alanine is the rate limiting factor for carnosine synthesis in muscle fibers. However, supplementation (2 to 3 grams/day) with beta-alanine for >2 weeks results in a 60% to 80% increase in muscle carnosine levels. Importantly, this increase in muscle carnosine levels is associated with a 3% to 5% increase in muscle buffering capacity (18). Theoretically, this increase in intracellular buffering capacity could translate into improvements in performance during high-intensity exercise. In this regard, growing evidence suggests that beta-alanine supplementation improves high-intensity exercise performance in both running and cycling events lasting 1 to 4 minutes (18). Interestingly, some of these studies have recorded performance improvements of 12% to 14% (18).

The only known side effect of beta-alanine supplementation is paresthesia (tingling of the skin); this sensation begins within 20 minutes after ingestion and lasts up to 60 minutes (18). Although harmless, paresthesia is unpleasant and, several investigations have reported that paresthesia can be avoided by staggering dosing throughout the day (18).

**Final words of caution on use of "supplement buffers" to improve exercise performance.** Regardless of the type of buffer ingested, extremely large doses of any buffer can result in severe alkalosis and pose negative health consequences. Another important consideration in the use of any ergogenic aid is the legality of the drug. In regard to the use of acid-base buffers, some sports regulatory agencies have banned the use of sodium buffers during competition. See Sablin (2014) and Junior et al. (2015) in Suggested Readings for detailed information about the possible ergogenic effects of sodium bicarbonate, sodium citrate, and beta-alanine.

Chapter Eleven Acid-Base Balance during Exercise 263

## The Winning Edge

How do athletes find the "extra edge" that can make the difference between victory and defeat? These features explain the science behind a winning performance.



EXERCISE PHYSIOLOGY

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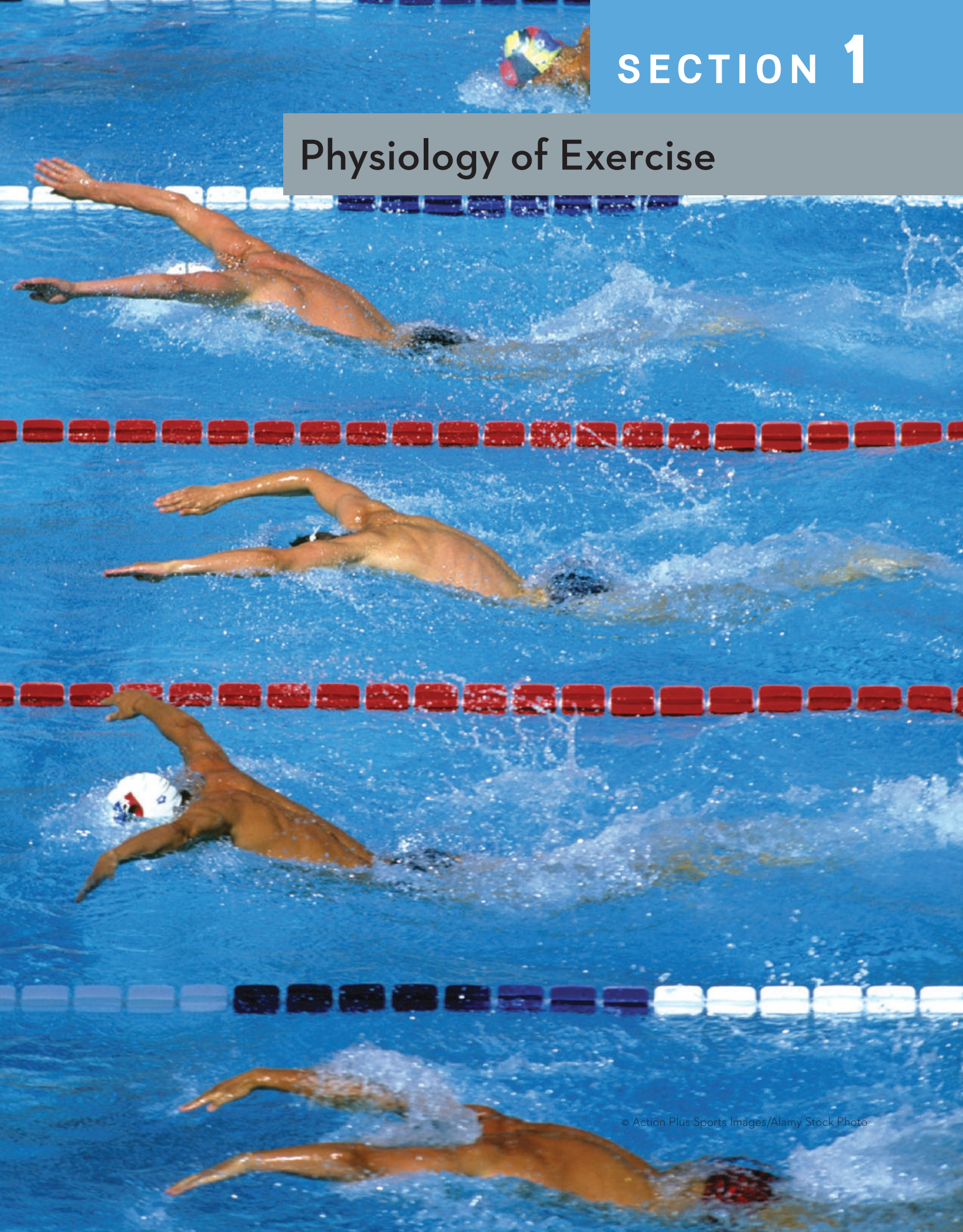
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# SECTION 1

## Physiology of Exercise



# O



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## Introduction to Exercise Physiology

### ■ Objectives

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By studying this chapter, you should be able to do the following:

1. Describe the scope of exercise physiology as a branch of physiology.
2. Describe the influence of European scientists on the development of exercise physiology.
3. Name the three Nobel Prize winners whose research work involved muscle or muscular exercise.
4. Describe the role of the Harvard Fatigue Laboratory in the history of exercise physiology in the United States.
5. Describe factors influencing physical fitness in the United States over the past century.
6. List career options for students majoring in exercise science or kinesiology.

### ■ Outline

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Brief History of Exercise Physiology	3	Graduate Study and Research in the Physiology of Exercise	9
European Heritage	3	Professional and Scientific Societies and Research Journals	11
Harvard Fatigue Laboratory	4	Training in Research	11
Physiology, Physical Fitness, and Health	6	Careers in Exercise Science and Kinesiology	12
Physical Education to Exercise Science and Kinesiology	8		



**D**oes one need to have a “genetic gift” of speed to be a world-class runner, or is it all due to training? What happens to your heart rate when you take an exercise test that increases in intensity each minute? What changes occur in your muscles as a result of an endurance-training program that allows you to run at faster speeds over longer distances? What fuel—carbohydrate or fat—is most important when running a marathon? Research in exercise physiology provides answers to these and similar questions.

Physiology is the study of the function of tissues (e.g., muscle, nerve), organs (e.g., heart, lungs), and systems (e.g., cardiovascular). Exercise physiology extends this to evaluate the effect of a single bout of exercise (acute exercise) and repeated bouts of exercise (i.e., training programs) on these tissues, organs, and systems. In addition, the responses to acute exercise and training may be studied at high altitude or in extremes of heat and humidity to determine the impact of these environmental factors on our ability to respond and adapt to exercise. Finally, studies are conducted on young and old individuals, both healthy and those with disease, to understand the role of exercise in the prevention of or rehabilitation from various chronic diseases.

Consistent with this perspective, we go beyond simple statements of fact to show how information about the physiology of exercise is applied to the prevention of and rehabilitation from coronary heart disease, the performances of elite athletes, and the ability of a person to work in adverse environments such as high altitudes. The acceptance of terms such as *sports physiology*, *sports nutrition*, and *sports medicine* is evidence of the growth of interest in the application of physiology of exercise to real-world problems. Careers in athletic training, personal-fitness training, cardiac rehabilitation, and strength and conditioning, as well as the traditional fields of physical therapy and medicine, are of interest to students studying exercise physiology. We will expand on career opportunities later in the chapter.

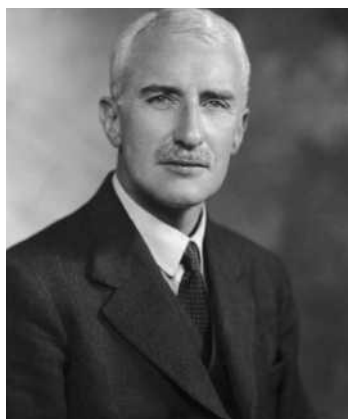
In this chapter, we provide a brief history of exercise physiology to help you understand where we have been and where we are going. In addition, throughout the text a variety of scientists and clinicians are highlighted in a historical context as subject matter is presented (i.e., muscle, cardiovascular responses, altitude). We hope that by linking a person to a major accomplishment within the context of a chapter, history will come alive and be of interest to you.

## BRIEF HISTORY OF EXERCISE PHYSIOLOGY

The history of exercise physiology represents a global perspective involving scientists from many different countries. In this section, we begin with the impact European scientists have had on the development of exercise physiology. We then describe the role of the Harvard Fatigue Laboratory in the growth of exercise physiology in this country.

### European Heritage

A good starting place to discuss the history of exercise physiology in the United States is in Europe. Three scientists, A. V. Hill of Britain, August Krogh of Denmark, and Otto Meyerhof of Germany, received Nobel Prizes for research on muscle or muscular exercise (13). Hill and Meyerhof shared the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine in 1922. Hill was recognized for his precise measurements of heat production during muscle contraction and recovery, and Meyerhof for his discovery of the relationship between the consumption of oxygen and the measurement of lactic acid in muscle. Hill was trained as a mathematician before becoming interested in physiology. In addition to his work cited for the Nobel Prize, his studies on humans led to the development of a framework around which we understand the physiological factors related to distance-running performance (6) (see Chap. 19).



A



B



C

A. Archibald V. Hill, B. August Krogh, C. Otto F. Meyerhof

(A) © Lafayette/Hulton Archive/Getty Images; (B) © Underwood And Underwood/LIFE Images Collection/Getty Images; (C) © Ullstein Bild/Getty Images

Although Krogh received the Nobel Prize for his research on the function of capillary circulation, he had a major impact on numerous areas of investigation. Furthermore, like many productive investigators, his influence was due not only to his own work but to that of his students and colleagues as well. Krogh's collaboration with Johannes Lindhard resulted in classic studies dealing with carbohydrate and fat metabolism during exercise, and how the cardiovascular and respiratory systems' responses are controlled during exercise (4). Three students in Krogh's lab, Erling Asmussen, Erik Hohwü-Christensen, and Marius Nielsen (called "the three musketeers" by Krogh), had a major impact on exercise physiology research throughout the middle of the twentieth century. These investigators, in turn, trained a number of outstanding physiologists, several of whom you will meet throughout this text. The August Krogh Institute in Denmark contains some of the most prominent exercise physiology laboratories in the world. Marie Krogh, his wife, was a noted scientist in her own right and was recognized for her innovative work on measuring the diffusing capacity of the lung. We recommend the biography of the Kroghs written by their daughter, Bodil Schmidt-Nielsen (see Suggested Readings), for those interested in the history of exercise physiology.

Several other European scientists must also be mentioned, not only because of their contributions to the exercise physiology but also because their names are commonly used in a discussion of exercise physiology. J. S. Haldane did some of the original work on the role of CO<sub>2</sub> in the control of breathing. Haldane also developed the respiratory gas analyzer that bears his name (16). C. G. Douglas did pioneering work with Haldane in the role of O<sub>2</sub> and lactic acid in the control of breathing during exercise, including some work conducted at various altitudes. The canvas-and-rubber gas collection bag

used for many years in exercise physiology laboratories around the world carries Douglas's name. A contemporary of Douglas, Christian Bohr of Denmark, did the classic work on how O<sub>2</sub> binds to hemoglobin. The "shift" in the oxygen-hemoglobin dissociation curve due to the addition of CO<sub>2</sub> bears his name (see Chap. 10). Interestingly, it was Krogh who did the actual experiments that enabled Bohr to describe his famous "shift" (4, 16).

#### IN SUMMARY

- A. V. Hill, August Krogh, and Otto Meyerhof received the Nobel Prize for work related to muscle or muscular exercise.
- Numerous European scientists have had a major impact on the field of exercise physiology.

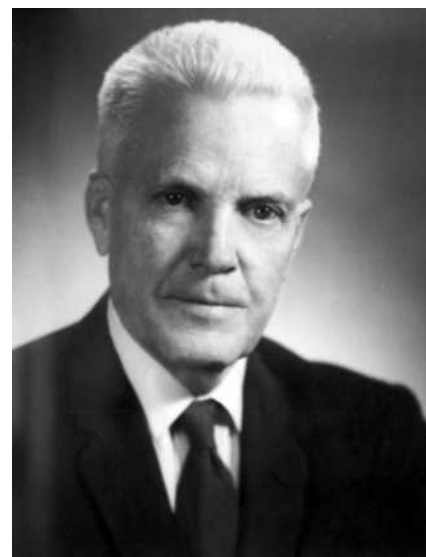
### Harvard Fatigue Laboratory

A focal point in the history of exercise physiology in the United States is the Harvard Fatigue Laboratory. Professor L. J. Henderson organized the laboratory within the Business School to conduct physiological research on industrial hazards. Dr. David Bruce Dill was the research director from the time the laboratory opened in 1927 until it closed in 1947 (19). Table 0.1 shows that the scientists conducted research in numerous areas, in the laboratory and in the field, and the results of those early studies have been supported over the years. Dill's classic text, *Life, Heat, and Altitude* (15), is a recommended reading for any student of exercise and environmental physiology. Much of the careful and precise work of the laboratory was conducted using the now-classic Haldane analyzer for respiratory gas analysis and the van Slyke apparatus for blood-gas analysis. The advent of computer-controlled equipment in the 1980s has



The "three musketeers": From left to right: Erling Asmussen, Erik Hohwü-Christensen, and Marius Nielsen

Courtesy of The Physiological Society



David Bruce Dill

Courtesy of American College of Sports Medicine

**TABLE O.1** Active Research Areas in the Harvard Fatigue Laboratory

Metabolism
Maximal oxygen uptake
Oxygen debt
Carbohydrate and fat metabolism during long-term work
Environmental physiology
Altitude
Dry and moist heat
Cold
Clinical physiology
Gout
Schizophrenia
Diabetes
Aging
Basal metabolic rate
Maximal oxygen uptake
Maximal heart rate
Blood
Acid-base balance
O <sub>2</sub> saturation: role of PO <sub>2</sub> , PCO <sub>2</sub> , and carbon monoxide
Nutrition assessment techniques
Vitamins
Foods
Physical fitness
Harvard Step Test

made data collection easier but has not improved on the accuracy of measurement (see Fig. 0.1).

The Harvard Fatigue Laboratory attracted doctoral students as well as scientists from other countries. Many of the alumni from the laboratory are recognized in their own right for excellence in research in the physiology of exercise. Two doctoral students, Steven

Horvath and Sid Robinson, went on to distinguished careers at the Institute of Environmental Stress in Santa Barbara and Indiana University, respectively.

Foreign “Fellows” included the “three musketeers” mentioned in the previous section (E. Asmussen, E. Hohwü-Christensen, and M. Nielsen) and the Nobel Prize winner August Krogh. These scientists brought new ideas and technology to the lab, participated in laboratory and field studies with other staff members, and published some of the most important work in the exercise physiology between 1930 and 1980. Rudolfo Margaria, from Italy, went on to extend his classic work on oxygen debt and described the energetics of locomotion. Peter F. Scholander, from Norway, gave us his chemical gas analyzer that is a primary method of calibrating tank gas used to standardize electronic gas analyzers (19).

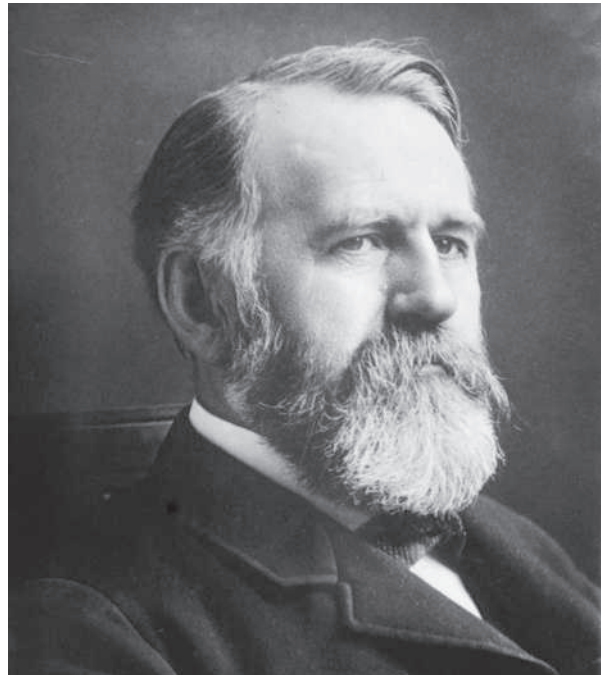
In summary, under the leadership of Dr. D. B. Dill, the Harvard Fatigue Laboratory became a model for research investigations into exercise and environmental physiology, especially as it relates to humans. When the laboratory closed and the staff dispersed, the ideas, techniques, and approaches to scientific inquiry were distributed throughout the world, and with them, Dill’s influence in the area of environmental and exercise physiology. Dr. Dill continued his research outside Boulder City, Nevada, into the 1980s. He died in 1986 at the age of 93.

Progress toward understanding any issue in exercise physiology transcends time, national origin, and scientific training. Solutions to difficult questions require the interaction of scientists from diverse disciplines and professions such as physiology, biochemistry, molecular biology, and medicine. We recommend *Exercise Physiology—People and Ideas* (see the Suggested Readings) to further your understanding of important historical connections. In this book, internationally known scientists provide a historical treatment of a number of important issues in exercise



Figure 0.1 Comparison of old and new technology used to measure oxygen consumption and carbon dioxide production during exercise. (Right: COSMED.)

(LEFT) © Ullstein Bild/Getty Images; (RIGHT) Photo courtesy of www.cosmed.com



A. Steven Horvath, B. Dudley Sargent

(A) Courtesy of Steven Horvath; (B) Library of Congress [LC-B2- 1121-5]

physiology, with an emphasis on the cross-continent flow of energy and ideas. We highlight several scientists and clinicians with our “Ask the Expert” boxes throughout the text, both to introduce them to you and for them to share their current ideas. In addition, A Look Back—Important People in Science is used to recognize well-known scientists who have influenced our understanding of exercise physiology. In this context, you will get to know those who have gone before and those who are currently leading the charge.

#### IN SUMMARY

- The Harvard Fatigue Laboratory was a focal point in the development of exercise physiology in the United States. Dr. D. B. Dill directed the laboratory from its opening in 1927 until its closing in 1947. The body of research in exercise and environmental physiology produced by the scientists in that laboratory formed the foundation for new ideas and experimental methods that still influence us today.

## PHYSIOLOGY, PHYSICAL FITNESS, AND HEALTH

Physical fitness is a popular topic today, and its popularity has been a major factor in motivating college students to pursue careers in physical education, exercise physiology, health education, nutrition,

physical therapy, and medicine. In 1980, the Public Health Service listed “physical fitness and exercise” as one of 15 areas of concern related to improving the country’s overall health (32). This was far from a new idea. Similar interests and concerns about physical fitness existed in this country more than 100 years ago. Between the Civil War and the First World War (WWI), physical education was primarily concerned with the development and maintenance of fitness, and many of the leaders in physical education were trained in medicine (14) (p. 5). For example, Dr. Dudley Sargent, hired by Harvard University in 1879, set up a physical training program with individual exercise prescriptions to improve a person’s structure and function to achieve “that prime physical condition called fitness—fitness for work, fitness for play, fitness for anything a man may be called upon to do” (35) (p. 297).

Sargent, D., *Physical Education*. Boston, MA: Ginn and Company, 1906.

Dr. Sargent was clearly ahead of his time in promoting health-related fitness. Later, war became a primary force driving this country’s interest in physical fitness. Concerns about health and fitness were raised during WWI and WWII when large numbers of draftees failed the induction exams due to mental and physical defects (18) (p. 407). These concerns influenced the type of physical education programs in the schools during these years, making them resemble premilitary training programs (40) (p. 484). Interestingly, whereas stunted growth and being underweight were major

reasons for rejecting military recruits in WWII, obesity is the major cause for rejecting recruits today (see “Still Too Fat to Fight” at <http://www.missionreadiness.org/2012/still-too-fat-to-fight/>).

The present interest in physical activity and health was stimulated in the early 1950s by two major findings: (1) autopsies of young soldiers killed during the Korean War showed that significant coronary artery disease had already developed and (2) Hans Kraus showed that American children performed poorly on a minimal muscular fitness test compared to European children (40) (p. 516). Due to the latter finding, President Eisenhower initiated a conference in 1955 that resulted in the formation of the President’s Council on Youth Fitness. The American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (AAHPER) supported these activities and in 1957 developed the AAHPER Youth Fitness Test with national norms to be used in physical education programs throughout the country. Before he was inaugurated, President Kennedy expressed his concerns about the nation’s fitness in an article published in *Sports Illustrated*, called “The Soft American” (24):

For the physical vigor of our citizens is one of America’s most precious resources. If we waste and neglect this resource, if we allow it to dwindle and grow soft, then we will destroy much of our ability to meet the great and vital challenges which confront our people. We will be unable to realize our full potential as a nation.

Kennedy, J., “The Soft American,” *Sports Illustrated*, 13, pp. 14–17, 1960.

During Kennedy’s term, the council’s name was changed to the “President’s Council on Physical Fitness” to highlight the concern for fitness. The name was changed again in the Nixon administration to the “President’s Council on Physical Fitness and Sports,” which supported fitness not only in schools but also in business, industry, and for the general public. The name was most recently changed by President Obama to the “President’s Council on Fitness, Sports, & Nutrition” to focus more attention on the obesity epidemic (see [www.fitness.gov](http://www.fitness.gov)). Items in the Youth Fitness Test were changed over the years, and in 1980, the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance (AAHPERD) published a separate *Health-Related Physical Fitness Test Manual* (1) to distinguish between “performance testing” (e.g., 50-yard dash) and “fitness testing” (e.g., skinfold thickness). This health-related test battery is consistent with the direction of lifetime fitness programs, being concerned with obesity, cardiorespiratory fitness, and low-back function. A parallel fitness test, Fitnessgram, was developed by The Cooper Institute in 1982, including software to support the scoring and printing

of reports (see <https://www.cooperinstitute.org/youth/fitnessgram>). The President’s Council now recommends that the Fitnessgram be used to evaluate fitness in children. For readers interested in the history of fitness testing in schools, we recommend Morrow et al.’s review in the Suggested Readings.

Paralleling this interest in the physical fitness of youth was the rising concern about the death rate from coronary heart disease in the middle-aged American male population. Epidemiological studies of the health status of the population underscored the fact that degenerative diseases related to poor health habits (e.g., high-fat diet, smoking, inactivity) were responsible for more deaths than the classic infectious and contagious diseases. In 1966, a major symposium highlighted the need for more research in the area of physical activity and health (33). In the 1970s, there was an increase in the use of exercise tests to diagnose heart disease and to aid in the prescription of exercise programs to improve cardiovascular health. Large corporations developed “executive” fitness programs to improve the health status of that high-risk group. While most Americans are now familiar with such programs and some students of exercise physiology seek careers in “corporate fitness,” such programs are not new. In fact, as early as 1923, *textbooks such as McKenzie’s Exercise in Education and Medicine* (27) showed businessmen participating in a dance exercise class. In short, the idea that regular physical activity is an important part of a healthy lifestyle was “rediscovered.” If any questions remained about the importance of physical activity to health, the publication of the Surgeon General’s Report in 1996 and the appearance of the first U.S. Physical Activity Guidelines in 2008 put them to rest (see “A Closer Look 0.1”).

## IN SUMMARY

- Fitness has been an issue in this country from the latter part of the nineteenth century until the present. War, or the threat of war, exerted a strong influence on fitness programs in the public schools. In WWII, being underweight and small of stature were major reasons for rejecting military recruits; today, obesity is a major cause for rejection.
- Recent interest in fitness is related to the growing concern over the high death rates from disease processes that are attributable to preventable factors, such as poor diet, lack of exercise, and smoking. Government and professional organizations have responded to this need by educating the public about these problems.
- Schools use health-related fitness tests, such as the Fitnessgram, to evaluate a child’s physical fitness.



## A CLOSER LOOK 0.1

By the early to mid-1980s, it had become clear that physical inactivity was a major public health concern (32). In 1992, the American Heart Association made physical inactivity a major risk factor for cardiovascular diseases, just like smoking, high blood pressure, and high serum cholesterol (3). In 1995, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and the American College of Sports Medicine published a public health physical activity recommendation that “Every U.S. adult should accumulate 30 minutes or more of moderate-intensity physical activity on most, preferably all, days of the week” (30). A year later, the *Surgeon General’s Report on Physical Activity and Health* was published (39).

This report highlighted the fact that physical inactivity was killing U.S. adults, and the problem was a big one—60% of U.S. adults did not engage

in the recommended amount of physical activity, and 25% were not active at all. This report was based on the large body of evidence available from epidemiological studies, small-group training studies, and clinical investigations showing the positive effects of an active lifestyle. For example, physical activity was shown to

- Lower the risk of dying prematurely and from heart disease
- Reduce the risk of developing diabetes and high blood pressure
- Help maintain weight and healthy bones, muscles, and joints
- Help lower blood pressure in those with high blood pressure and promote psychological well-being

In 2008, the first edition of the *U.S. Physical Activity Guidelines* was

published (<http://www.health.gov/paguidelines/guidelines/default.aspx>). This document was developed on the basis of an Advisory Committee’s comprehensive review of the research since the publication of the Surgeon General’s Report in 1996 (for the Advisory Committee Report, see <http://health.gov/paguidelines/report/>). Recently, a Midcourse Report focusing on strategies to increase physical activity among youth was published (<http://www.health.gov/paguidelines/midcourse/>). The *U.S. Physical Activity Guidelines*, along with the *Dietary Guidelines for Americans 2015* (<http://health.gov/dietaryguidelines/2015/guidelines/>), provides important information on how to address our problems of inactivity and obesity. (We discuss this in more detail in Chaps. 16, 17, and 18.)

## PHYSICAL EDUCATION TO EXERCISE SCIENCE AND KINESIOLOGY

Undergraduate academic preparation in physical education has changed over the past five decades to reflect the explosion in the knowledge base related to the physiology of exercise, biomechanics, and exercise prescription. This occurred at a time of a *perceived* reduced need for school-based physical education teachers and an increased need for exercise professionals in the preventive and clinical settings. These factors, as well as others, led some college and university departments to change their names from Physical Education to Exercise Science or Kinesiology. This trend is likely to continue as programs move further away from traditional roots in education and become integrated within colleges of arts and sciences or allied health professions (38). There has been an increase in the number of programs requiring undergraduates to take one year of calculus, chemistry, and physics, and courses in organic chemistry, biochemistry, anatomy, physiology, and nutrition. In many colleges and universities, little difference now exists between the first two years of

requirements in a pre-physical therapy or pre-medical track and the track associated with physical education/kinesiology professions. The differences among these tracks lie in the “application” courses that follow. Biomechanics, physiology of exercise, fitness assessment, exercise prescription, strength and conditioning, and so on belong to the physical education/kinesiology track. However, it must again be pointed out that this new trend is but another example of a rediscovery of old roots rather than a revolutionary change. Kroll describes two 4-year professional physical education programs in the 1890s, one at Stanford and the other at Harvard, that were the forerunners of today’s programs (25) (pp. 51–64). They included the detailed scientific work and application courses with clear prerequisites cited. Finally, considerable time was allotted for laboratory work. No doubt, Lagrange’s 1890 text, *Physiology of Bodily Exercise* (26), served as an important reference source for these students. The expectations and goals of those programs were almost identical to those specified for current kinesiology undergraduate tracks. In fact, one of the aims of the Harvard program was to allow a student to pursue the study of medicine after completing two years of study (25) (p. 61).

## GRADUATE STUDY AND RESEARCH IN THE PHYSIOLOGY OF EXERCISE

While the Harvard Fatigue Laboratory was closing in 1947, the country was on the verge of a tremendous expansion in the number of universities offering graduate study and research opportunities in exercise physiology. A 1950 survey showed that only 16 colleges or universities had research laboratories in departments of physical education (21). By 1966, 151 institutions had research facilities, 58 of them in exercise physiology (40) (p. 526). This expansion was due to the availability of more scientists trained in the research methodology of exercise physiology, the increased number of students attending college due to the GI Bill and student loans, and the increase in federal dollars to improve the research capabilities of universities (12, 38).

“The scholar’s work will be multiplied many fold through the contribution of his students.” This quote, taken from Montoye and Washburn (28, 29), expresses a view that has helped attract researchers and scholars to universities. Evidence to support this quote was presented in the form of genealogical charts of contributors to the *Research Quarterly* (29). These charts showed the tremendous influence a few people had through their students in the expansion of research in physical education. Probably the best example of this is Thomas K. Cureton, Jr., of the University of Illinois, a central figure in the training of productive researchers in exercise physiology and fitness. The proceedings from a symposium honoring Dr. Cureton in 1969 listed 68 Ph.D. students who completed their work under his direction (17). Although Dr. Cureton’s scholarly record includes hundreds of research articles and dozens of books dealing with physical fitness, the publications of his students in the areas of epidemiology, fitness, cardiac rehabilitation, and exercise physiology represent the “multiplying effect” that students have on a scholar’s productivity. For those who would like to read more about Dr. Cureton, see Berryman’s article (7).

Montoye, H., and Washburn, R., “Genealogy of Scholarship Among Academy Members,” *The Academy Papers*, 13: 94–101, 1980.

An example of a major university program that can trace its lineage to the Harvard Fatigue Laboratory is found at the Laboratory for Human Performance Research (Noll Laboratory) at Pennsylvania State University (see “A Look Back—Important People in Science”). However, it is clear that excellent research in exercise and environmental physiology is conducted in laboratories other than those that have a

tie to the Harvard Fatigue Laboratory. Laboratories are found in physical education/kinesiology departments, physiology departments in medical schools, clinical medicine programs at hospitals, and in independent facilities such as the Cooper Institute for Aerobics Research. The proliferation and specialization of research involving exercise is discussed in the next section.

It should be no surprise that the major issues studied by researchers in exercise physiology have changed over the years. Table 0.2, from Tipton’s look at the 50 years following the closing of the Harvard Fatigue Laboratory, shows the subject matter areas that were studied in considerable detail between 1954 and 1994 (38). A great number of these topics fit into the broad area of systemic physiology or were truly applied physiology issues. Although research continues to take place in most of these areas, Tipton believes that many of the most important questions to be addressed in the future will be answered by those with special training in molecular biology. Baldwin (5) supported Tipton’s viewpoint and provided a summary of important questions dealing with exercise and chronic disease whose answers are linked to functional genomics and proteomics, important new tools for the molecular biologist. However, he also noted the need for increased research to address physical activity and chronic diseases at the lifestyle and behavioral levels. This “integrated” approach, crossing disciplines and technologies, should be reflected in the academic programs educating the next generation of kinesiology students. We recommend the chapters by Tipton (38) and Buskirk and Tipton (12) for those interested in a detailed look at the development of exercise physiology in the United States.

### IN SUMMARY

- The increase in research in exercise physiology was a catalyst that propelled the transformation of physical education departments into exercise science and kinesiology departments. The number of exercise physiology laboratories increased dramatically between the 1950s and 1970s, with many dealing with problems in systemic and applied physiology and the biochemistry of exercise.
- In the future, the emphasis will be on molecular biology and its developing technologies as the essential ingredients needed to solve basic science issues related to physical activity and health.
- However, there is no question about the need for additional research to better understand how to permanently change the physical activity and eating behaviors of individuals in order to realize health-related goals.