

1 Fluid needs for training, competition, and recovery in Track & Field athletes

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27 Running title: Fluid needs for training, competition and recovery

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Accepted author manuscript version reprinted, by permission, from *International Journal of Sport Nutrition and Exercise Metabolism*, 29 (2), pp. 175-180, <https://doi.org/10.1123/ijsnem.2018-0374>.
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29 **Abstract**

30 The 2019 IAAF Track & Field World Championships will take place in Qatar in the
31 Middle East. The 2020 Summer Olympics will take place in Tokyo, Japan. It is quite
32 likely that these events may set the record for hottest competitions in recorded history
33 of both the Track & Field World Championships and Olympic Games. Given the
34 extreme heat in which Track & Field athletes will need to train and compete for these
35 games, the importance of hydration is amplified more than in previous years. The
36 diverse nature of Track & Field events, training programs, and individuality of
37 athletes taking part inevitably means that fluids needs will be highly variable. Track &
38 Field events can be classified as low, moderate, or high risk for dehydration based on
39 typical training and competition scenarios, fluid availability, and anticipated sweat
40 losses. This paper reviews the risks of dehydration and potential consequences to
41 performance in Track & Field events. We also discuss strategies for mitigating the
42 risk of dehydration.

43

44 **Introduction**

45 Seasonal environmental changes can create unique challenges for year-long training
46 among Track & Field athletes. However, the competitive Track & Field season is
47 held in the summer months of the northern hemisphere and major international Track
48 & Field competitions such as the World Championships and the Olympic Games
49 culminate in hottest months of the year. The 2019 IAAF Track & Field World
50 Championships will take place in Qatar in the Middle East. The 2020 Summer
51 Olympics will take place in Tokyo, Japan. It is quite likely that these events may set
52 the records for the hottest Track & Field World Championships and Olympic Games
53 in recorded history. Serious caution is often warranted for hot weather Olympic
54 Track and Field events (Nielsen, 1996) and the safe preparation and conduct of
55 competitive hot weather exercise is of great international interest (Racinais et al.,
56 2015). Given the extreme heat in which training and competition is likely to take
57 place in Qatar, Tokyo, and other summer sporting venues of the future, the risks
58 associated with dehydration could be amplified more than in previous years. This
59 review focuses on the risks of dehydration and potential consequences to performance
60 in Track & Field events. We also discuss strategies for mitigating the risk of
61 dehydration.

62

63 The 2003 IOC consensus conference concluded the following with regards to
64 hydration in its consensus statement, which was recently updated in 2011 (“IOC
65 consensus statement on sports nutrition 2003,” 2004; “IOC consensus statement on
66 sports nutrition 2010,” 2011).

67

68 *“Dehydration impairs performance in most events, and athletes should be well*
69 *hydrated before exercise. Sufficient fluid should be consumed during exercise to limit*
70 *dehydration to less than about 2% of body mass. Sodium should be*
71 *included when sweat losses are high, especially if exercise lasts more than about 2h.*
72 *Athletes should not drink so much that they gain weight during exercise. During*
73 *recovery from exercise, rehydration should include replacement of both water and*
74 *salts lost in sweat.”*

75

76 Sports nutrition, and sports hydration in particular, is a widely discussed and
77 sometimes hotly debated topic (Cotter, Thornton, Lee, & Laursen, 2014). However,

78 several recent and comprehensive treatments on the topics of dehydration,
79 rehydration, and sports performance buttress existing IOC conclusions (Cheuvront &
80 Kenefick, 2014; Evans, James, Shirreffs, & Maughan, 2017; McDermott et al., 2017;
81 Savoie, Kenefick, Ely, Cheuvront, & Goulet, 2015; Wittbrodt & Millard-Stafford,
82 2018). In this review, up-to-date evidence for the potential impact of dehydration on
83 performance is described and applied to circumstances and events in Track & Field.
84 Proposed recommendations may be used by athletes and coaches to optimize
85 performance and health, and by governing organisations when considering the rules
86 and regulations of the sport or the timing of events.

87

88

89 **Everyday Hydration Assessment**

90 Optimal hydration reflects a physical state of having normal body water and
91 electrolytes and it is an assumed starting point for most of the strategies and
92 recommendations reviewed in this paper. The Venn Diagram in Figure 1 is designed
93 to simplify athlete self-assessment of day-to-day hydration status and can help ensure
94 an optimal starting point for training and competition (Cheuvront et al., 2005). A
95 daily loss of body weight (W) greater than 0.5 to 1.0 kg (1 to 2 lbs.), a small volume
96 of dark coloured urine (apple juice or darker) (U), and the noticeable sensation of
97 thirst (T) are all symptoms of dehydration. When two or more of these symptoms of
98 dehydration are present, it is likely that dehydration is evident. If all three markers are
99 present, dehydration is very likely. When it is important to account for hydration
100 status, all three WUT symptoms should be assessed upon waking each morning. If
101 dehydration is likely or very likely, greater attention should be given to 24 hour fluid
102 and electrolyte intakes. The use of WUT helps to establish deviations from an
103 optimal hydration baseline and becomes increasingly important when Track & Field
104 athletes travel to locations with warmer weather or higher terrestrial elevations, both
105 of which can increase body water losses beyond normal. Travel to locations with
106 limited potable water availability also require extra attention to water planning and
107 make WUT a useful tool for establishing adequacy of daily fluid intakes. More
108 advanced hydration assessment techniques are unlikely to be implemented in
109 competition, but are possible in advanced training venues. The interested reader can
110 also consult Maughan and Shirreffs (Maughan & Shirreffs, 2008) for practical

111 hydration assessment guidance or Armstrong and Casa (Armstrong & Casa, 2009) for
112 the application of more advanced assessment methods.

113

114

115 **Basic Sweat Science**

116 Physical activity requires the use of stored energy to perform work. In the process,
117 significant body heat is generated. Were it not for heat loss mechanisms, a 60 kg
118 runner racing 10 km at 27 min finishing pace would collapse from a lethal body
119 temperature after only 3.2 km (Nielsen, 1996; Dennis and Noakes, 1999)! In weather
120 that is temperate or warmer, sweating accounts for more than 50% of body heat
121 removal and close to 100% in very hot environments (Gagge and Gonzalez, 1996).
122 Millions of sweat glands become activated in response to exercise and the evaporation
123 of sweat from the skin carries away heat. In fact, the evaporation of 1 L of sweat
124 from the skin surface can carry away 83% of the heat produced during a 27 min 10
125 km race (Wenger, 1972).

126

127 The primary factors that influence total sweat loss (L, sweating rate x time) include
128 body size, exercise intensity, exercise duration, the environment, and choice of
129 clothing. These factors explain more than 90% of the widely different sweat losses
130 expected among athletes (Gagnon, Jay, & Kenny, 2013). Widely different factors
131 among different Track & Field athletes easily explain why observed athlete sweating
132 rates can range from 0.5 to 3.0 L/hr (Baker, Barnes, Anderson, Passe, & Stofan,
133 2016). Typical fluid needs for adults range from 2 to 4 L/d (Sawka, Cheuvront, &
134 Carter, 2005) and function to replace obligatory losses and dilute metabolic and
135 dietary waste products (Cheuvront & Kenefick, 2016). A typical 2-h/d Track & Field
136 training session could therefore increase daily fluid needs by 1 to 6 L/d due to the
137 range of anticipated sweat losses. Electrolyte losses in sweat (sodium, potassium)
138 amount to about 1 g/L (assuming 50 mmol/L) (Baker et al., 2016) which at the low
139 end is replaced by habitual dietary practices, but at the upper end could require special
140 attention to food electrolyte intakes (Maughan & Shirreffs, 2008). At minimum, Track
141 & Field athletes must replace body water and electrolyte losses daily. Failure to do so
142 can lead to dehydration, poor training and competition outcomes.

143

144

145 **Potential Body Water Balance Concerns for Track & Field Athletes**

146 Table 1 provides a composite picture of qualitative dehydration risk by Track & Field
147 event categories using sweat losses and fluid availability in training and competition.
148 The table also summarizes the risk that dehydration, if present or accrued, would
149 negatively affect performance. The table is meant as a guide for discussion of event-
150 specific risks only. Individual athletes are encouraged to personalize their fluid intake
151 practices (please see: Strategies to Optimize Hydration).

152

153

154 **Low Risk Events**

155 Track & Field events with a low dehydration risk include jumping (with exceptions),
156 throwing, sprints, and multi-events. The principle reasons for low risk are the types
157 of training performed (e.g., strength, power), the generally unlimited availability of
158 fluids in both training and competitions, and the small effects that dehydration has on
159 these types of performance even when present. While there are no published data on
160 sweating rates in low risk Track & Field events, it is anticipated that losses would be
161 lowest in these events because explosive events like these generate tremendous heat
162 for only very short periods followed by significant rest breaks both in training
163 (between sets) and competition (between rounds). For example, Watson et al. (2005)
164 monitored sweat volume losses in simulated sprint sessions. In these sessions the
165 subjects, who were experienced but not elite sprinters, warmed up for 15min then ran
166 either a 50 and 200m sprint separated by 40min or undertook vertical jumps and a
167 400m sprint. Each of these sessions was undertaken twice. The body mass reductions
168 averaged 0.8 and 1.3kg in the 50m/200m sessions over a 2h period, and averaged
169 0.5kg and 1.1kg over 45min in the 400m and vertical jump session. These reductions
170 are equivalent to approximately 1 to 1.5 % of the athletes' body mass and easily
171 replaceable during the training session.

172

173 Jumping performance has frequently been investigated as a means of assessing the
174 influence of a body water loss on muscle power: jump power and jump height have
175 been most frequently measured (Cheuvront et al., 2010; Gutiérrez et al., 2003;
176 Hoffman et al., 1995; Kraemer et al., 2001; Viitasalo et al., 1987; Watson et al., 2005).
177 In theory, intentional dehydration might be desired to try and improve jumping
178 performance by virtue of being "lighter." In fact, if dehydration did not impair

179 muscle force production in any way, then jump height improvements should reflect
180 the level of dehydration (i.e., 1% dehydration should improve jump height by 1%)
181 (please see appendix in: Chevront et al., 2010). The majority of studies investigating
182 the effects of dehydration on jump performance have used between 1 and 4%
183 dehydration (Chevront et al., 2010; Gutiérrez et al., 2003; Hoffman et al., 1995;
184 Watson et al., 2005) although a 6% body mass loss has been investigated when energy
185 restriction has been combined with dehydration (Kraemer et al., 2001; Viitasalo et al.,
186 1987). Yet the majority of these studies have found no significant effect of the body
187 mass reduction on jumping power or height. When Chevront et al. (2010) replaced
188 the water lost as weight worn ergonomically as a vest, jump performance decreased
189 when dehydrated. This suggests that the benefits of being lighter when dehydrated
190 are masked by the detrimental effects of dehydration on muscle function. When the
191 effects are combined, there are no “measurable” effects on performance.

192

193 The conclusion that dehydration impairs some aspect(s) of strength or power is
194 cautionary for throwing events which rely heavily on strength and power. Indeed, two
195 systematic reviews and one meta-analysis summarizing the effects of dehydration on
196 muscle strength, power and high-intensity anaerobic capacity (Chevront et al., 2014;
197 Judelson et al., 2007) (Savoie et al., 2015) determined that dehydration can impair
198 strength and power. However, it was concluded that a significant loss of body water
199 (3-4% body mass) was required to produce small, but significant effects on
200 performance. While small effects remain of utmost importance in elite sports
201 (Hopkins, Hawley, & Burke, 1999), the risk of achieving 3-4% dehydration in
202 sprinting, jumping, and throwing events is very low. Therefore, the risks to
203 performance are also low (Table 1). As a result, the main concern for hydration in
204 low risk Track & Field events is to ensure that training and competition are begun in a
205 state of optimal hydration. This is especially true for multi-event Track & Field
206 athletes who may be competing for many hours, but with ample opportunities for rest
207 and rehydration.

208

209

210 **Moderate Risk Events**

211 The middle distances for running (800 meters to 3 km) and some long distance
212 running events (5 km to 10 km) may be considered Track & Field events with

213 moderate risk for dehydration. Although the risk of dehydration is low in the events
214 themselves due to their short durations (< 2 min to < 30 min), moderate risk for these
215 events stems from daily high and sustained sweat losses which could carry over to
216 negatively affect training and performance from day-to-day. Fluid availability may
217 also be high (e.g., track training) or low (road training), depending on the training
218 season or phase of training. Moderate risk middle and long distance running events in
219 Track & Field are all contested entirely on a track. Therefore, as for the sprints, the
220 duration of the races are short enough to preclude fluid being taken during the events
221 and too short for significant dehydration to develop during the race, even when
222 sweating rates are very high. As with low risk events, the main concern for hydration
223 in low risk Track & Field events is to ensure that training and competition are begun
224 in a state of optimal hydration. However, given the endurance and interval training
225 frequently undertaken by these athletes, the volumes of sweat that may be lost and the
226 likelihood that drinking during training may frequently be limited for logistical or
227 stomach comfort reasons, dehydration during training for many middle and long
228 distance runners may be a common scenario. Deliberate rehydration strategies (please
229 see: Basic Science of Rehydration) may become necessary when a significant portion
230 of the training has yet to take place, particularly when the desire is to complete a high
231 quality training session with a “performance” element to it. The negative effects of
232 dehydration on the energy system relied upon for competitive middle and long
233 distance running is discussed below.

234

235

236 **High Risk Events**

237 Long distance running and walking events (20 km to 50 km) may be considered Track
238 & Field events with a high risk for dehydration. In comparison to the other Track &
239 Field events, there has been a considerable amount of both descriptive research into
240 sweat losses of runners during at least some of the long distance events (in particular
241 the marathon) and also intervention studies investigating the effects of dehydration on
242 endurance exercise performance. Training involves many hours of running and
243 walking where fluid availability / support must be planned in advance. During
244 competitions, fluid availability is minimal and the intensity of exercise may make it
245 difficult to prevent progressive dehydration from occurring, particularly late in a
246 competition when high levels of performance are required. Indeed, dehydration to

247 levels well beyond those associated with impaired performance ($> 2\%$ of body mass)
248 have been consistently reported at the finish of marathon races (Cheuvront & Haymes,
249 2001).

250

251 The effects of dehydration on endurance running or walking performance must be
252 viewed through the lens of both laboratory and field studies of endurance “exercise.”
253 The mode of test activity is often not running or walking and the caliber of athlete
254 tested is rarely elite. However, research outcomes are interpreted using the same
255 aerobic energy system and the knowledge that human performance responses to
256 stressors such as environmental heat vary only by degree when comparing elite and
257 recreational runners (Ely, Martin, Cheuvront, & Montain, 2008) or when comparing
258 laboratory outcomes to field observations (Casa et al., 2010), which permits
259 reasonable extrapolation of results.

260

261 Cheuvront and Kenefick (Cheuvront et al., 2014) reviewed 34 studies conducted
262 between 1961 and 2012 investigating the effects of dehydration on endurance exercise
263 performance. Of the 60 total performance observations, 41 (68%) showed a
264 statistically significant impairment in performance when dehydrated and 12 more
265 (88%) reported an overall group decrement in performance that did not reach
266 statistical significance. These findings are more impressive still when one considers
267 that most studies are undertaken with the minimal number of test volunteers necessary
268 to find statistical significance. Cheuvront and Kenefick (Cheuvront et al., 2014)
269 concluded that dehydration $\geq 2\%$ of body mass impairs endurance exercise
270 performance as measured primarily by a shortened time to exhaustion or reduction in
271 sustainable exercise intensity. Importantly, the effect is magnified in warmer
272 environmental temperatures (Kenefick et al., 2010). Additionally, partial rehydration
273 has been shown to dramatically enhance performance and physiological function
274 during running in the heat, and the effect is exacerbated if the exercise is intense
275 (Casa et al., 2010; Lopez et al., 2016). Whether programmed or thirst-driven drinking
276 strategies are more successful depends highly on the circumstances of the training and
277 competition (Kenefick, 2018). A more detailed discussion of this topic follows (please
278 see: Strategies for Optimizing Hydration). So long as dehydration is limited to $< 2\%$
279 of body mass, performance is likely to be sustainable in all Track & Field events.

280

281

282 Dehydration and Mental Readiness

283 The potential effects of dehydration on brain function could impact Track & Field
284 athlete performance by interfering with one or more aspects of concentration or
285 motivation. It is widely and consistently reported that dehydration has a negative
286 effect on mood state through one or more alterations in perceived tiredness, alertness,
287 confusion, fatigue, anger, or depression (Cheuvront et al., 2014). When dehydration
288 is $\geq 2\%$ body mass, it can also produce unpleasant and distractive symptoms such as
289 dry mouth, thirst, and headache (Cheuvront et al., 2014).

290

291 A meta-analysis by Wittbrodt and Millard-Stafford (Wittbrodt et al., 2018) examined
292 the impact of dehydration on cognitive performance from 33 studies that included
293 more than 400 test subjects. Wide variability was observed among studies, but the
294 authors concluded that dehydration $\geq 2\%$ body mass produced a small, but statistically
295 significant impairment in cognitive performance tasks involving attention, executive
296 function, and motor coordination (Wittbrodt et al., 2018). Since $\geq 2\%$ dehydration
297 appears to describe both physical and mental performance thresholds, it is likely that
298 the risks to attention, executive function, and motor coordination are primarily for
299 high risk Track & Field events that rely little on the mental performance measures
300 affected.

301

302 Basic Rehydration Science

303 Sweat is composed primarily of water (~99.9%). Although sweat electrolyte losses
304 can require special attention to dietary replacement (please see: Basic Sweat Science),
305 most fluids are consumed with meals and most meals generally provide ample
306 replacement of sweat electrolytes, particularly when energy consumption matches
307 energy utilization. However, when flavour is desired, timing between meals is

308 uncertain or extended, or training / competition is anticipated to be intense and
309 prolonged, a typical sports drink formulation can provide energy (4-6%
310 carbohydrate), contribute to the replacement of the electrolytes lost in sweat (20
311 mmol/L sodium, 4 mmol/L potassium), and generally be absorbed faster than water
312 alone (Baker & Jeukendrup, 2014; Leiper, 2015). For all Track & Field athletes,
313 optimal rehydration may best be sustained between training days by behaviourally-
314 driven ingestion of solid food and water (Maughan, Leiper, & Shirreffs, 1996).
315 However, between training sessions or events, beverages that contain macronutrients
316 or electrolytes are better retained than water and should be considered (Maughan et
317 al., 2016, 2018; Shirreffs, Taylor, Leiper, & Maughan, 1996; Sollanek, Tsurumoto,
318 Vidyasagar, Kenefick, & Chevront, 2018).

319

320

321 **Strategies for Optimizing Hydration**

322 It is clear that for all Track & Field events, optimal day-to-day hydration is most
323 important for optimizing training and competition. The concepts reviewed in Figure 1
324 are a simple but effective starting point for success. Other simple (Maughan &
325 Shirreffs, 2008) and more advanced techniques (Armstrong & Casa, 2009) may also
326 be adopted. For low and moderate risk Track & Field events, the daily use of Figure 1
327 and the use of thirst to guide drinking behaviour is probably sufficient for optimizing
328 hydration – particularly when training and competing in familiar settings and when
329 there is no limit to food or fluid access (Kenefick, 2018). But when training or
330 competing in high risk events – particularly when in unfamiliar settings or when
331 access to food and fluid may be limited, then a more programmed approach centered
332 around knowledge of personal sweat losses is recommended (Chevront & Kenefick,
333 2017; Kenefick, 2018).

334

335 Track & Field athletes train as they intend to compete; fluid replacement planning
336 should be part of the strategy. For example, in a marathon race, drink stations are

337 positioned at regular intervals. The absence of water stations during long training
338 runs means implementing a drink strategy by other means, such as with wearable
339 drink systems. A simple strategy such as this can accustom gastric tolerance and
340 optimize hydration for the most difficult training sessions. It appears that while >
341 90% of IAAF athletes have a fluid intake plan when competitions are forecasted to be
342 hot, the volumes planned may or may not reflect anticipated losses (Périard et al.,
343 2017).

344

345 The flip side of replacing sweat losses is to minimize sweat losses so that less
346 drinking is needed. Various kinds of thermal management scenarios are possible,
347 such as cold towels, ice vests, indoor (air conditioned) exercise, and early morning or
348 late evening exercise. Ingestion of ice slurry before exercise is an alternative
349 hydration strategy, but appears no more effective than cold water and may produce
350 untoward side effects (Jay & Morris, 2018). The practice of trying to delay
351 dehydration by expanding total body water using beverages with high salt
352 concentrations or glycerol is generally ineffective and carries its own risks
353 (McDermott et al., 2017). Approximately 50% of IAAF athletes practice some form
354 of thermal management before hot weather competitions (Périard et al., 2016). Table
355 2 summarizes strategies for optimizing hydration.

356

357 **Summary**

358 The impact of dehydration on training and performance outcomes in athletes remains
359 a much debated topic. Track & Field Athletes often train and compete in hot
360 environmental conditions, where fluid balance and hydration become essential daily
361 considerations. Given the individual nature of sweating responses with training and

362 competition, each athlete should assess their own individual fluid requirements and
363 determine if these are likely to be a cause for concern (e.g. if >2% body mass loss
364 observed). The risk of impairment in training or performance with levels of
365 dehydration of <2% body mass loss is LOW and applies to many Track & Field
366 events (particularly sprints, jumps, and throws). However, other Track & Field events
367 carry a HIGH risk, typically in the longer duration, and continuous activities such as
368 endurance events. For these events careful attention should be placed on
369 individualised and planned hydration practices to optimize training and performance
370 outcomes.

371

372 **Acknowledgements**

373 We would like to offer our sincerest gratitude to Robert Carter, who was an author on
374 the original manuscript. Additionally, we are grateful for the assistance of Yasuki
375 Sekiguchi, a doctoral student at the University of Connecticut in the USA for his
376 assistance with some technical aspects of this publication. The opinions or assertions
377 contained herein are the private views of the authors and should not be construed as
378 official or reflecting the views of the Army or the Department of Defense. Approved
379 for public release: distribution unlimited.

380

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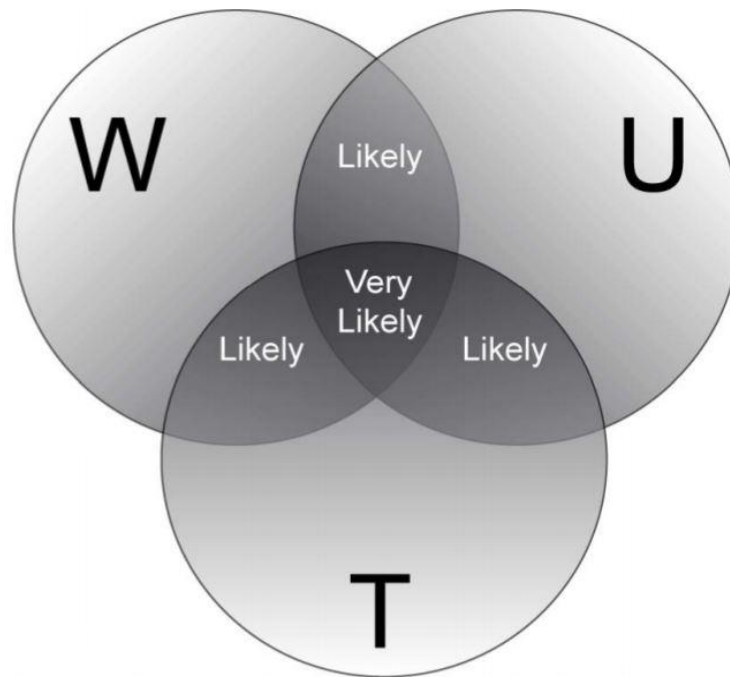
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532 **Figure 1.** The Venn Diagram for athlete self-assessment of day-to-day hydration
533 status (Cheuvront & Sawka, 2005). If two or more of the signs are present (W –
534 reduced body weight, U – dark urine colour, T – feeling thirsty) then correction of
535 fluid balance is required.

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Table 1. Potential body water balance concerns for Track & Field athletes.								
Event	Sweat Losses ¹		Availability of Fluids		Risk of Dehydration		Performance Risk	
	Training	Competition	Training	Competition	Training	Competition	Training	Competition
Jumping (high jump, long jump, triple jump, pole vault)	MOD	LOW	HIGH	HIGH	LOW	LOW*	LOW	LOW
Throwing (shot put, javelin, discus)	MOD	LOW	HIGH	HIGH	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW
Sprints (< 800 meters)	MOD	LOW	HIGH	HIGH	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW
Middle Distance Running (800 meters to 10 km)	HIGH	LOW	MOD	LOW	MOD	LOW	MOD	HIGH
Long Distance Running/Walking (> 10 km)	HIGH	HIGH	LOW	LOW	HIGH	HIGH	HIGH	HIGH
Multi-Events (Decathlon)	HIGH	MOD	HIGH	HIGH	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW

¹product of sweating rate and time; MOD = moderate; *assumes no purposeful dehydration

Table 2. Practical strategies to reduce dehydration for Track & Field athletes.	
Strategy	Details
WUT	First morning Weight, Urine colour, and Thirst sensation to guide day-to-day adequacy of water and electrolyte consumption.
Incorporate electrolytes	Rehydrate with meals and include sodium and potassium-rich foods
Personalize fluid needs	Estimate personal sweat losses from changes in body weight pre- to post-exercise
Train as you compete	Incorporate a competition drinking strategy into training (e.g., using wearable drinking systems as a substitute for water stations)
Improve thermal management	Train during the coolest times of day ¹ ; consider indoor air conditioned training in extreme heat; consider use of active cooling (e.g., cold towels, cold showers)
¹ except when deliberate heat acclimatization is desired	