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Title of the article: Changes in gastrointestinal cell integrity after marathon running and exercise-associated collapse

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ABSTRACT:

Purpose

Endurance exercise and hyperthermia are associated with compromised intestinal permeability and endotoxaemia. The presence of intestinal fatty acid binding protein (I-FABP) in the systemic circulation suggests intestinal wall damage, but this marker has not previously been used to investigate intestinal integrity after marathon running.

Methods

Twenty-four runners were recruited as controls prior to completing a standard marathon and had sequential I-FABP measurements before and on completion of the marathon, then at four and 24 hours later. Eight runners incapacitated with exercise-associated collapse (EAC) with hyperthermia had I-FABP measured at the time of collapse and one hour later.

Results

I-FABP was increased immediately on completing the marathon (T_0 ; $2593 \pm 1373 \text{ ng}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$) compared with baseline ($1129 \pm 493 \text{ ng}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$; $p < 0.01$) in the controls, but there was no significant difference between baseline and the levels at four hours (1419 ± 1124 ; $p = 0.7$), or at 24 hours (1086 ± 302 ; $p = 0.5$). At T_0 , EAC cases had a significantly higher I-FABP concentration ($15389 \pm 8547 \text{ ng}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$) compared with controls at T_0 ($p < 0.01$), and remained higher at one hour after collapse ($13951 \pm 10476 \text{ ng}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$) than the pre-race control baseline ($p < 0.05$).

Conclusion

I-FABP is a recently described biomarker whose presence in the circulation is associated with intestinal wall damage. I-FABP levels increase after marathon running and increase further if the endurance exercise is associated with EAC and hyperthermia. After EAC, I-FABP remain high in the circulation for an extended period, suggesting ongoing intestinal wall stress.

KEY WORDS:

Athletes, gastrointestinal tract, fatty acid binding protein, heat stress.

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Competing interests

No authors declare any competing interests.

Ethics approval

Ethical approval was obtained from the London - South East Research Ethics Committee.

Consent to participate

Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

Consent for publication

Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

Availability of data and material

The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Code availability

Not applicable.

Authors' contributions

All authors contributed to the design of the work, and the acquisition and analysis of the data.

All authors were involved with the writing of the paper, and all have seen and approved the final version. OG provided further statistical analysis of the data.

ABBREVIATIONS

DBP	Diastolic blood pressure
EAC	Exercise-associated collapse
EHI	Exertional heat illness
EHS	Exertional heat stroke
GI	Gastro-intestinal
HR	Heart rate
I-FABP	Intestinal fatty acid-binding protein
MAP	Mean arterial pressure
SBP	Systolic blood pressure
SpO ₂	Peripheral oxygen saturation
T _{TYM}	Tympanic temperature

WORD COUNT: 3469

INTRODUCTION

1 Long-distance running is associated with gastro-intestinal (GI) disruption and disturbance,
2 which may affect one third of runners (Halvorsen 1990). After commencing endurance
3 exercise, the GI barrier integrity may become compromised, increasing permeability between
4 the GI tract and the systemic circulation (Smetanka 1999). Exercise-induced increases in gut
5 permeability (March 2017) may precede a pro-inflammatory response and endotoxaemia
6 (Camus 1997).

7 Exercise-associated collapse (EAC) has been estimated to affect 1.5 in every 1000 endurance
8 runners (Lüning 2019), and is often due to venous pooling in the lower limbs at the cessation
9 of exercise. More significant causes include cardiac conditions, heat illness and metabolic
10 derangements (Jaworski 2020). The definition of hyperthermia varies but has been defined as
11 a core temperature greater than 38.0°C (Niven 2016). Heat illness, and subsequent
12 inflammatory and endotoxaemic responses, whether due to exertional activity or due to
13 passive heat gain, carries a significant risk of morbidity and mortality. Heat stroke, the most
14 extreme form of heat strain on the EAC spectrum, is associated with a risk of multi-organ
15 failure (Walter 2016) and a high mortality rate. Exertional heat stroke (EHS), defined as a core
16 temperature greater than 40°C accompanied by central nervous system dysfunction
17 (Armstrong 2007), is among the leading causes of sudden death in athletes, with the incidence
18 of sports-related EHS deaths continuing to increase (Nichols 2014). As with endurance
19 exercise, heat strain also damages gut wall integrity (Koch 2019) and allows translocation of
20 intestinal bacteria or endotoxins into the systemic circulation (Lim 2017). Systemic
21 complications from heat strain are likely to be due to a combination of direct thermal injury
22 and intestinal bacterial endotoxin translocation. Direct thermal injury may account for around
23 63% of the variance in changes in intestinal permeability (Pires 2017). Reducing intestinal

24 bacterial endotoxin translocation with antibiotics against intestinal bacteria in animal models
25 of heat illness has shown some promise in improving cardiovascular dysfunction and mortality
26 (Walter 2020). The combination of heat and exercise causes higher levels of endotoxin than
27 exercise of equivalent intensity with lower temperature gain (Snipe 2018), suggesting that
28 intestinal permeability in exertional heat illness (EHI) is multi-factorial and may not be entirely
29 contingent on core temperature change alone (Laitano 2019). Increases in intestinal
30 permeability may additionally be related to reduction in splanchnic blood flow, which may
31 decrease by up to 60% in conditions of heat stress (Crandall 2015).

32 Intestinal fatty acid-binding protein (I-FABP) is a 15 kDa cytosolic protein involved in the
33 cellular uptake and metabolism of fatty acids. It is present in the mature enterocytes of the
34 small intestinal villi and is released once cell membrane integrity is compromised,
35 subsequently appearing in the circulation following enterocyte injury (Memet 2019). It is
36 gaining validity as a sensitive biomarker of intestinal injury (Funaoka 2010) and may have a
37 role in the detection of intestinal ischaemia (Kanda 2011), including during exercise (van Wijck
38 2011) and mirrors the bacterial translocation through a permeable intestinal wall in
39 pancreatitis (Coelho 2016). I-FABP serum levels increase after exercise and are associated
40 with changes in permeability (March 2017), suggesting that intestinal cell damage is partly
41 responsible for the increase in permeability. It is thought to have a short half-life in the
42 circulation of a few minutes (van Wijck 2011, van de Poll 2007). The effect of endurance
43 running and exertional heat strain on I-FABP levels, and whether this recently described
44 biomarker adds further understanding to GI wall damage after exercise and thermal stress is
45 unknown. We therefore sought to establish the I-FABP response to running a marathon
46 (Brighton Marathon) and compare and contrast the response between healthy finishers and
47 those where the initial clinical diagnosis was EHI. It was hypothesised that I-FABP would

48 increase following a marathon, and that greater increases would be observed in those
49 incapacitated during or at the end of the event.

50

51 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

52

53 **Participants**

54 Following favourable ethical approval from the London - South East Research Ethics
55 Committee, participants were recruited from entrants into the 2019 Brighton Marathon (14
56 April 2019, event start 9:45 am). The Brighton Marathon (Sussex, UK) is an annual event which
57 has run since 2010. Around 10,000 runners take part each year. A medical facility with sports
58 medicine and critical care doctors is provided at the finishing line to provide immediate
59 treatment to runners. All participants completed prospective or retrospective informed
60 consent for inclusion in the study.

61

62 **Experimental design**

63 Baseline anthropometric and physiological data and venous blood samples were collected
64 from control participants, between 10.00 and 19.00 on the day prior to the event (BASE).
65 Upon completion of the event, repeat measurements were made and a further blood sample
66 was drawn (T0; as soon as possible after crossing the finishing line), and at four (T4) and 24
67 hours (T24) after finishing.

68 Runners clinically diagnosed with incapacitation from EHI during or immediately after the
69 event, and managed clinically as such, provided equivalent physiological data to that of the
70 controls was collected as soon as possible after EAC (T0), and 60 minutes later (T1). For
71 incapacitated runners, a core (rectal) temperature measurement was taken. A clinical
72 diagnosis of EHI for the purposes of this study was defined as loss of consciousness or altered
73 mental status occurring spontaneously during or soon after marathon run, in combination

74 with core temperature elevation ($\geq 38.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ at the point of collapse) and failure to make a
75 prompt recovery, requiring medical care.

76

77 **Materials and Methods**

78 Anthropometric and physiological measurements

79 Unshod standing stature and minimally clothed body mass were recorded for each control
80 participant using a stadiometer and scales. Participants were then seated for around 10 min
81 prior to the measurements of resting heart rate (HR), systolic (SBP) and diastolic blood
82 pressure (DBP) and subsequent calculation of mean arterial pressure (MAP), and peripheral
83 oxygen saturation (SpO_2), all obtained with an integrated patient monitoring device (GE
84 Carescape V100, UK). Tympanic temperature (T_{Tym} ; Braun Thermoscan 3020, Kronberg,
85 Germany) was also assessed at this time.

86

87 Blood samples

88 Venepuncture was performed at the antecubital fossa. For the analysis of I-FABP, whole blood
89 (5 ml) was collected into EDTA vacutainers and inverted. Whole blood was immediately
90 centrifuged, and the plasma extracted and distributed between two aliquots. Samples were
91 immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -86°C until analysis. The analysis was
92 performed by a commercial analytical laboratory (Affinity Biomarker Labs, London, UK);
93 standards and samples were pipetted into a microplate well pre-coated with a monoclonal
94 antibody specific for, and which bound to, human I-FABP. After washing away any unbound
95 substances, an enzyme-linked polyclonal antibody specific for human I-FABP was added to
96 the wells. Following a wash to remove any unbound antibody-enzyme reagent, a substrate
97 solution was added to the wells and colour developed in proportion to the amount of bound

98 I-FABP. The intensity of the colour was measured. The lower limit of detection was 3.63 ng·l⁻¹;
99 ¹; levels exceeding 20,000 ng·l⁻¹, despite further dilution and re-analysis (n = 6) were assumed
100 to be 20,000 ng·l⁻¹ for statistical analysis, as described below. An intra-assay coefficient of
101 variation of between 2.9 and 4.1% was calculated.

102

103 Statistical analysis

104 No formal power calculation was undertaken, as sampling was subject to the availability of
105 runners (collapsed cases in particular) and reagents (I-FABP assay numbers limited due to
106 global logistical challenges associated with the pandemic). Nevertheless, in previous human
107 exercise studies conducted at moderate-severe relative intensity (60-80% VO₂peak) over 20-
108 120 minutes (March 2017, Snipe 2018, Van Vijck 2011), 18-20 healthy volunteers provided
109 adequate power to demonstrate significant elevation in I-FABP compared with rested
110 baseline (91-99% increase; March 2017, Van Vijck 2011). Comparison of 10 relatively
111 hyperthermic participants exercised in warm conditions with 10 participants terminating
112 exercise with core temperature approximately 0.5 °C lower also showed a significant
113 difference, approximately 45%, in I-FABP (Snipe 2018).

114

115 Paired samples t-tests were used to assess changes in physiological data before and
116 immediately after completing the marathon in controls. Data were assessed for normality
117 prior to analysis, and non-parametric tests used where data did not conform to a normal
118 distribution. A non-parametric Wilcoxon rank sign test was used to compare changes in I-
119 FABP between baseline and T0, T4 and T24 in controls, and between physiological data at T0
120 and T1 in cases. A non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare I-FABP levels
121 between controls and cases of heat illness. A Spearman's rank correlation test was used to

122 assess for correlation between time to complete marathon and I-FABP levels, and between
123 BMI and I-FABP levels. Statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

124

125 **RESULTS**

126

127 **Participants**

128 The ambient temperature at the start was 8°C, relative humidity 66%, pressure 1025 mbar,
129 and wind speed 14.5 km·h⁻¹. The ambient temperature at the mean finish time of controls
130 remained at 8°C, with humidity reducing to 64% and pressure to 1024 mbar. The peak city
131 temperature on the day was 10°C. Solar radiation data are not available. Twenty-four runners
132 volunteered for inclusion into this phase of the research study to serve as apparently healthy
133 controls, and all subsequently completed the marathon and provided a blood sample at T0. A
134 further eight participants were recruited from runners incapacitated with suspected EAC
135 during (n = 4; two at 14 miles, one at 21 miles, one at 25 miles) or immediately after the event
136 (n = 4).

137 Participant characteristics for the control group are described in table 1 with specific sample
138 sizes stated for each variable. Six participants returned four hours after completing the
139 marathon for an additional assessment (T4), and four participants volunteered for a further
140 assessment 24 hours after finishing (T24).

141 Of the cases, five (62.5%) were male and one (12.5%) was female, with the gender not
142 recorded in two (25.0%) and not retrievable following the event due to data protection. The
143 time to finish or collapse in the collapse group was 234 ± 63 min. Three of this cohort were
144 still in the medical tent receiving medical attention, and had a further blood sample taken 60
145 min after the initial blood sample (T1), with the remainder abstaining from further
146 participation due to recovery and fitness for discharge from the medical facilities.

147

148 **Physiological responses in control participants and cases**

149 A significant change in body mass ($p < 0.001$), HR ($p < 0.001$), SBP ($p < 0.001$), DBP ($p < 0.001$),
150 MAP ($p < 0.001$) and SpO₂ ($p = 0.031$) was observed between baseline and T0 in the controls;
151 see table 2.

152 The heart rate was significantly higher (121 ± 24 vs 87 ± 15 bpm, $p < 0.05$) but no difference
153 in blood pressure or oxygen saturation between the incapacitated cases and controls
154 respectively at T0. The core (rectal) temperatures of cases at T0 was $39.7 \pm 1.2^{\circ}\text{C}$, and
155 tympanic temperature of the controls at T0 was $36.2 \pm 0.8^{\circ}\text{C}$.

156 There were no significant differences in temperature ($p = 0.125$), systolic ($p = 0.685$), diastolic
157 ($p = 0.125$) or mean blood pressures ($p = 0.312$), or heart rate ($p = 0.125$) between the
158 collapsed cases at T0, and T1.

159

160 **I-FABP levels**

161 The I-FABP levels at baseline and after completing the marathon in the controls and EAC cases
162 are shown in table 3.

163

164 Healthy controls

165 A significant increase ($p < 0.01$) was observed in I-FABP concentration between baseline (1129
166 ± 493 ng·l⁻¹) and immediately on completing the marathon (T0) (2593 ± 1373 ng·l⁻¹) in the
167 controls (figure 1 and table 3). There was no significant difference between the baseline I-
168 FABP levels and the levels at four hours ($p = 0.7$), or at 24 hours ($p = 0.5$) (see table 3 and
169 figure 1). There was no correlation in the time taken to complete the marathon and I-FABP
170 rise ($p = 0.13$), or between BMI and I-FABP rise ($p = 0.8$).

171 Of the six controls who provided samples at four hours, the mean \pm SD I-FABP levels were
172 2096 ± 698 ng·l⁻¹ at T0, not significantly different to the complete T0 cohort ($p = 0.99$).

173

174 Cases with exercise-associated collapse

175 Post-hoc review of the eight collapsed cases indicated insufficient data to corroborate the
176 clinical diagnosis of EHI. These cases were therefore assigned EAC for purposes of data
177 interpretation.

178 All EAC cases were admitted to one of the two onsite medical centres for immediate medical
179 management of the collapse. No cases required advanced airway, ventilatory or
180 cardiovascular support. All patients underwent active cooling primarily by dowsing with cool
181 water, in order to achieve rapid reduction in core temperature, according to current
182 guidelines (Walter, 2018). Patients were discharged if the temperature and other
183 physiological parameters and point-of-care biochemistry results were not significant
184 deranged and were fully alert and orientated. After one hour, the core temperature had
185 reduced to $37.92 \pm 0.82^{\circ}\text{C}$. Seven patients were discharged from the medical centre, and one
186 patient was transferred to the local hospital.

187 Of the EAC cases, six of the T0 I-FABP were above the limit of the assay ($20,000 \text{ ng}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$), despite
188 serial dilution and re-analysis. Rank statistical analyses were therefore performed, as
189 described above, to compare the control with the heat illness cases without absolute values
190 of I-FABP. For descriptive statistics in table 3, values greater than $20,000 \text{ ng}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$ were assumed
191 to be equal to 20,000.

192 At the time of collapse (T0), cases demonstrated a significantly higher I-FABP concentration
193 in comparison to controls at the time of completion of the marathon (T0) ($15389 \pm 8547 \text{ ng}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$
194 1 vs $2593 \pm 1373 \text{ ng}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$ respectively; $p < 0.01$), as shown in figure 2 and table 3.

195 At one hour after collapse (T1), the average I-FABP concentration in the collapses remained
196 significantly higher than the pre-race baseline in the controls ($13951 \pm 10476 \text{ ng}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$ vs $1129 \pm$

197 493 ng.l⁻¹ respectively; p < 0.05). There were too few data to determine if a correlation exists
198 between I-FABP levels and the rise in temperature **in the EAC cases**.

199 **DISCUSSION**

200 This study is the first to show the existence of a raised I-FABP level immediately after
201 completing a marathon in controls and a much greater rise at the time of collapse in those
202 with EAC and hyperthermia.

203

204 **I-FABP levels after marathon running**

205 These data support the hypothesis that endurance exercise is associated with intestinal wall
206 damage, consistent with previous studies showing an increase in gastro-intestinal symptoms
207 and permeability of the GI wall, after endurance exercise (Costa 2017). I-FABP levels are not
208 significantly different to baseline four hours later suggesting that the compromised wall
209 integrity is reversed following cessation of the exertion. The tympanic temperature of control
210 runners before and immediately after completing the marathon was not different suggesting
211 that a moderate degree of intestinal damage may arise after prolonged endurance exercise
212 without sustained core temperature rise, although it is acknowledged that runners may have
213 displayed increased temperature during the run which subsequently returned to baseline by
214 the finish of the race. Damage to intestinal integrity with endurance exercise is at least partly
215 caused by a reduction in splanchnic blood flow. A reduction in splanchnic blood flow as
216 assessed by gastric tonometry correlates with the degree of intestinal damage (van Wijck
217 2011), and improvement in splanchnic blood flow, by administration of L-Citrulline, reduces
218 intestinal damage (van Wijck 2014).

219

220 **Levels of I-FABP after exercise-associated collapse**

221 Levels of I-FABP at the time of EAC were significantly elevated compared with controls
222 sampled within the same time window (<30 min of marathon completion or exertional

223 collapse). The primary cause of collapse was not determined, but the average core
224 temperature in the collapse group was above 39.5°C, with two meeting the criteria for EHS.
225 Whether the collapse is associated with increased intestinal permeability, leading to greater
226 endotoxin translocation and heat retention, or the raised temperature per se contributes to
227 greater intestinal damage and translocation in cases of collapse is not clear. Thermal stress,
228 in addition to and independent from normothermic endurance exercise, affects intestinal
229 integrity (Snipe 2018), as a result of direct thermal damage and microvascular damage,
230 vascular stasis and extravasation (Vlad 2010). Mesenteric blood flow is reduced by around
231 20% at 38°C compared with 37°C (Badoer 2010), suggesting that at even the milder degrees
232 of hyperthermia experienced in the EAC group, intestinal barrier function may be
233 compromised, and is consistent with dysfunction of other organs occurring at 1-2°C higher
234 than baseline (Walter 2016). The intestinal wall is sensitive to damage from exercise and from
235 hyperthermia (Lim 2018) and these data present more evidence that the combination of
236 multiple stressors are likely to cause cumulative damage. High temperatures appear to be
237 tolerated better by athletes after previous repeated exposure to hyperthermia, suggesting
238 that adaptations following repeated heat stress (i.e. acclimation/acclimatisation/acquisition
239 of the endurance athlete phenotype) mitigates against EHI (Stevens 2020, Racinais 2019) and
240 changes in intestinal permeability. This may be a result of increased heat shock proteins (in
241 particular HSP72), which are transcribed following elevations in core temperature during
242 interventions such as heat acclimation (Gibson 2015, Gibson 2016), ultimately leading to
243 increased basal protein production (Nava 2020), or due to increases in plasma volume
244 (Crandall 2015) and left ventricular end-diastolic volume, contributing towards reduced gut
245 ischaemia during heat stress (Périard 2016). The impact of training, finishing time and prior
246 heat exposure on levels of I-FABP rise was not assessed in this study, therefore further work

247 examining the impact of training, and prior heat exposure on thermal strain and gastro-
248 intestinal permeability changes following prolonged marathon running is required.

249 Levels of I-FABP remained substantially raised after one hour in cases of EAC, compared with
250 pre-race baseline in controls. The exact half-life of I-FABP is not known, but a closely related
251 isoform (L-FABP) present in the intestine has a half-life of only 11 mins (van de Poll 2007),
252 which suggests that there may have been ongoing intestinal cell damage and leak despite
253 cessation of exercise and a return to a normothermic core temperature (37.9°C), a reduction
254 of **around 2.0°C within** one hour. This is consistent with in vitro findings, suggesting a
255 deterioration in cellular resistance on exposure to high temperatures, which subsequently
256 improves over a few hours on return to around 37°C (Dokladny 2006). The substance I-FABP
257 appears to be excreted unchanged in urine (Thuijls 2011) but the authors recognise the
258 possibility that hepatic metabolism may occur, with the possibility of raised or prolonged
259 serum levels with hepatic dysfunction.

260 Two of the cases displayed T0 I-FABP levels not significantly different to the T0 levels in the
261 controls, **and the variation in I-FABP overall was large**. Both cases met the criteria for EAC for
262 this study, and in both, the core temperature at collapse was greater than the control group,
263 but corresponding I-FABP rise was not seen. **The cause of this, and the large variability, is not
264 clear. There is likely to be variation in the temperature at which an individual's cellular
265 integrity becomes compromised, so that the cases in whom IFABP levels were lower may have
266 been more resistant to heat stress. There is known to be a larger inter-person variation in
267 tolerance adaptation to hyperthermic conditions (Tyler 2016) The duration of hyperthermia
268 as well as the peak is known to affect organ damage (Vicario 1986) so the runners with a
269 higher IFABP may have been hyperthermic for longer. Alternatively, IFABP is a relatively new**

270 biomarker whose characteristics are not fully known, but may not fully correlate with
271 intestinal permeability (March 2017).

272

273 **Mechanisms of systemic damage**

274 The mechanisms of systemic damage after exercise and with EHI are incompletely understood
275 but are considered by some to be a combination of direct thermal damage, and translocation
276 of endotoxins through an intestinal wall rendered permeable by exercise or heat stress (the
277 so-called Dual Pathway Model (Lim 2018)). This study adds further evidence of intestinal wall
278 damage after exercise and heat illness, and in addition proposes a novel use of this biomarker
279 in investigating intestinal wall damage in exercise and heat illness.

280

281 **Limitations of study**

282 The authors acknowledge a number of practical limitations with the data and interpretation.
283 There are no baseline data for the runners who subsequently collapsed as it was not possible
284 to identify this group prospectively. It is assumed that the pre-race I-FABP levels between the
285 cases and controls were similar. The authors also acknowledge the significant logistical issues
286 of data collection from a large number of control and collapsed runners, presenting in a short
287 period of time, to different sites across the marathon in which clinical care was also being
288 administered. There was only a small number of collapsed cases for whom data were available
289 after one hour, limiting the robustness of the interpretation between T0 and T1. Dehydration,
290 especially in the EHI group, may have altered the plasma volume and subsequently the plasma
291 I-FABP concentrations. The authors consider that the plasma volume changes would be
292 insignificant compared with the large differences in I-FABP observed between the collapsed
293 and control runners. Tympanic thermometers may not accurately reflect core temperatures,

294 estimated to be on average 1°C lower than a rectal temperature during outdoor exercise in
295 the heat, less than oral axillary or temporal methods (Casa 2007), and making comparisons
296 with core temperatures unreliable

297 As discussed above, the impact of training status and heat acclimation was not assessed in
298 this study, which may have affected GI integrity and stability. The rate of cooling and impact
299 on I-FABP levels was also not assessed in either the control or collapse cohort. That the
300 permeability of an in vitro GI cell line changes with heating and subsequent cooling (Dokladny
301 2006), and the association between rapid cooling to below 38.9°C within 60 min in classical
302 heat stroke and improvement in mortality exists (Vicario 1986) suggests that systemic I-FABP
303 levels are likely to be associated with the temperature-time profile in endurance running.

304 **CONCLUSIONS**

305 Intestinal FABP is a recently described biomarker whose presence in the circulation is
306 associated with intestinal wall damage. This study has shown that I-FABP levels increase after
307 marathon running and increase further if the endurance exercise is associated with the
308 development of EAC and hyperthermia. After EAC, levels remain high in the circulation for an
309 extended period, suggesting ongoing intestinal wall damage. This may raise the possibility of
310 targeted therapies to prevent or mitigate incapacitation and endotoxaemia associated with
311 EAC and hyperthermia.

312

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314 The authors declare that the results of the study are presented clearly, honestly, and without
315 fabrication, falsification or inappropriate data manipulation.

316

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325

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423 **TABLES**424 **Table 1.** Participant characteristics of controls. Data are mean \pm SD [min, max].

Variable	Controls
Sex	M = 10 (41.6%) F = 10 (41.6%) Not recorded = 4 (16.7%)
Age (years)	39.3 \pm 9.6 [20, 63] (n = 23)
Height (cm)	175 \pm 12 [151, 196] (n = 23)
Mass (kg)	73.5 \pm 10.5 [48.0, 96.6] (n = 23)
Body surface area (m ²)	1.88 \pm 0.19 (n = 23)
Body mass index (kg.m ⁻²)	24.0 \pm 2.6 [23.2, 33.2] (n = 23)
Time to finish (min)	249 \pm 46 [166, 336] (n = 21)

425

426

427 **Table 2.** Physiological responses at BASE and T0 for controls, and upon incapacitation (T0) in
 428 cases. Data presented are mean \pm SD [min, max].

429 Note: * - difference between control at baseline and at T0 ($p < 0.05$); ** - difference
 430 between incapacitated cases at T0 and control at T0 ($p < 0.05$); ND – no data; T0 – time of
 431 completion or incapacitation; T1 – one hour after time of incapacitation (T0)

	Controls		Cases	
	Baseline	T0	T0	T1
Body temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	36.2 \pm 0.7 [34.4, 37.7] (n = 23)	36.2 \pm 0.8 [34.5, 38.0] (n = 21)	39.7 \pm 1.2 [38.5, 41.5] (n = 8)	37.9 \pm 0.8 [37.2, 39.5] (n = 5)
Heart rate (b.min ⁻¹)	60 \pm 14 [39, 92] (n = 22)	87 \pm 15 [60, 111]* (n = 21)	121 \pm 24 [93, 155]** (n = 5)	95.2 \pm 9.9 [82, 106] (n = 5)
Systolic blood pressure (mmHg)	137 \pm 17 (n = 23)	117 \pm 16* (n = 21)	117 \pm 14 (n = 5)	119 \pm 21 (n = 5)
Diastolic blood pressure (mmHg)	81 \pm 9 (n = 23)	69 \pm 9* (n = 21)	58 \pm 10 (n = 5)	79 \pm 17 (n = 5)
Mean arterial pressure (mmHg)	100 \pm 10 (n = 23)	78 \pm 26* (n = 21)	78 \pm 10 (n = 5)	92 \pm 17 (n = 5)

Peripheral oxygen saturation (%)	98 ± 1 (n = 21)	97 ± 1 (n = 19)	ND	ND
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433

434 **Table 3.** I-FABP concentrations over time for both controls, and incapacitated cases (mean \pm
 435 SD [min, max] (ng.l⁻¹)).

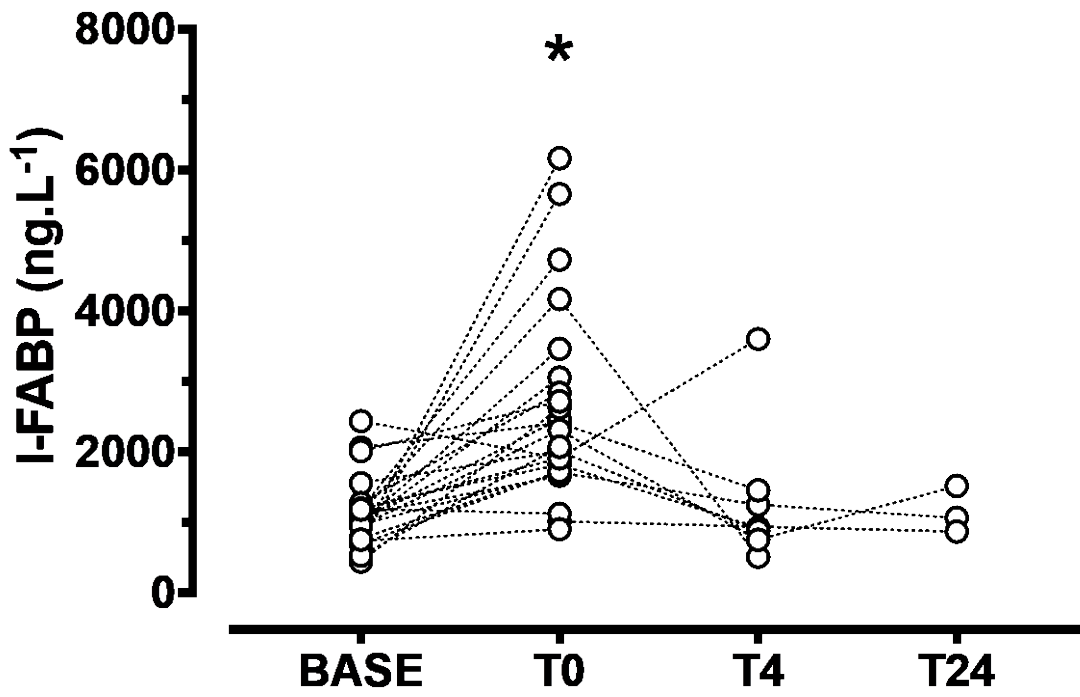
436 Note: * - difference in I-FABP concentrations between incapacitated cases at T0 and control
 437 at T0 (p < 0.05); ** - difference in I-FABP concentrations compared with baseline in controls
 438 (p < 0.05); ND - no data; †I-FABP levels greater than 20,000 ng.l⁻¹ are marked

	Controls	Cases
Baseline	1129 \pm 493 [443.9, 2443] (n = 23)	ND
T0	2593 \pm 1373 [905.7, 6174.2] (n = 24)**	15389 \pm 8547 [810.8, 20000†] (n = 8)*/**
T1	ND	13951 \pm 10476 [1854, 20000†] (n = 3)**
T4	1419 \pm 1124 [512.0, 3607] (n = 6)	ND
T24	1086 \pm 302 [872.1, 1518.3] (n = 4)	ND

439

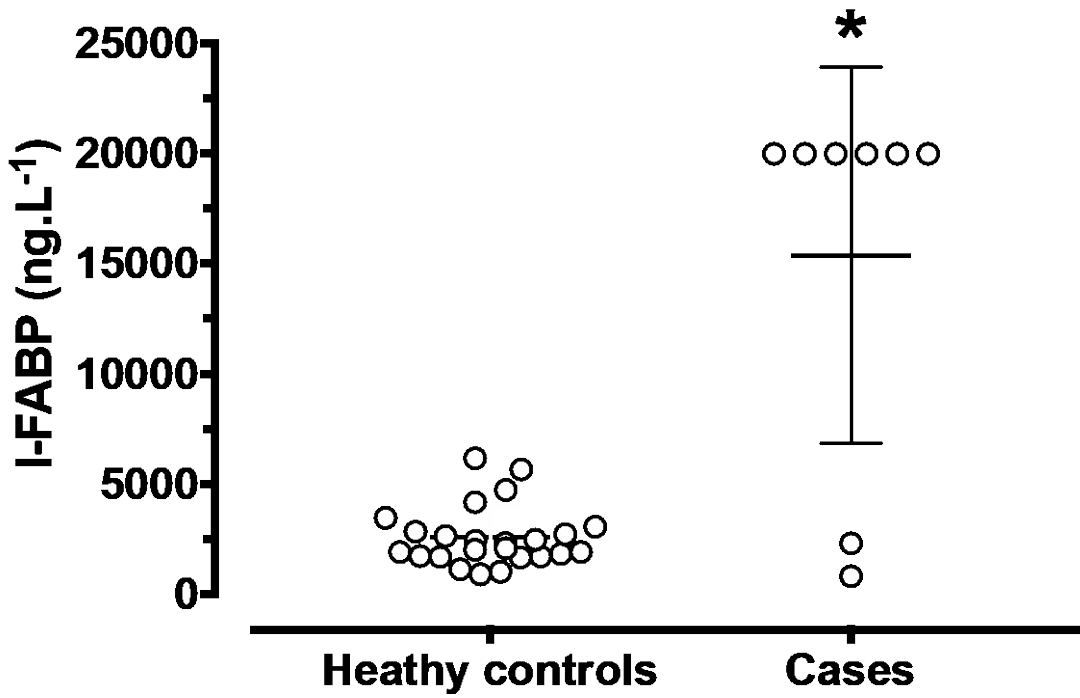
440 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

441 Figure 1. Individual I-FABP concentrations at BASE, T0, T4 and T24 for controls. Note: * -
442 difference from BASE ($p < 0.05$).



443

444 Figure 2. Individual, mean \pm SD I-FABP concentrations at T0 in controls and cases. Note: * -
445 significant difference ($p < 0.05$).



446

447

448 **APPENDICES**

449 Nil

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