TEMPERATURE AND HUMIDITY WITHIN THE CLOTHING MICROENVIRONMENT: DETERMINANTS OF HEAT STRAIN

Patrick J. Sullivan and Igor B. Mekjavic
School of Kinesiology
Simon Fraser University
Burnaby, British Columbia, Canada

INTRODUCTION

For workers employed in occupations ranging from deep mining to aerospace industries, elevated environmental temperatures cannot be avoided as it is either impractical or impossible to remove all or part of the excessive heat from the workplace and the active worker. Quantification of the heat stress to which the worker is exposed has in the past been attempted through the development in heat stress indices which are based primarily on measures of dry-bulb temperature, radiant temperature, relative humidity and velocity of the ambient air (1). Field studies in hot environments have demonstrated that there may be no universal index of heat stress which would predict the heat strain of workers for a wide range of conditions (2). The ineffectiveness of these indices is to a large extent due to the variety of thermal protective clothing worn and the difficulty in quantifying overall garment heat and water vapour resistance with variations in fabric characteristics and garment design (vents and openings).

For a fully suited worker with only the head exposed, 93% of the body surface area will be exposed to the suit microenvironment, the volume of air above the surface of the skin but directly beneath the suit. A reduction in the transfer of both heat and water vapour due to the addition of clothing may result in a build up of heat and water vapour within the clothing microenvironment, the level of which will depend on the characteristics of the fabric and the design of the garment. The present study was designed to investigate the changes in the temperature and vapour pressure of the microenvironment which may arise as a result of heat exposure when wearing a variety of thermal protective suits worn by helicopter personnel operating over Canadian coastal waters. The suits were designed to provide thermal protection in the case of emergency ditching but should not impair performance despite elevations in cockpit temperature.

METHODS

Before donning a suit, five physically active male university students were instrumented for measurement of rectal temperature ($T_r$), skin temperature ($T_s$) and microenvironment temperature and relative humidity 8 mm above the skin surface ($T_H$ and $R_H$) at three sites (upper arm, chest and thigh). In addition suits were instrumented for measurement of outer clothing temperature ($T_C$). Subjects then donned a helicopter personnel suit over cotton thermal underwear and were seated in an environmental chamber. Chamber temperature was then increased from 20°C to 40°C over a period of 90 minutes and then held constant at 40°C for an additional 90 minutes (total duration of exposure was 180 minutes). Throughout the exposure chamber relative humidity was uncontrolled, decreasing from 50% to a final value of 28%.

The suits utilized in this study were constructed of Cotton Ventile (CV), Gore-Tex (GT), Nomex/Insulite (N/I) and Nomex/Neoprene (N/N). Both the CV and GT suits were of the dry-suit design with airtight seals at the ankles, wrists and neck such that the exchange of microenvironment air could only occur through the fabric, which have reportedly low water vapour resistances. In contrast, the N/I and N/N suits were of the wet-suit design thus allowing some measure of ventilation through openings at the ankles, wrists and neck. The N/I suit consisted of a 3-6 mm insulite layer sandwiched between two layers of Nomex material throughout the entire garment, whereas the N/N suit consisted of a single layer of Nomex coverall worn over a neoprene shorty wet-suit (arms and legs not covered by neoprene). During the exposure subjects wore leather gloves, wool socks and heavy leather boots.

RESULTS

Increased environmental heat load was accompanied by increases in the temperature of air within the microenvironment (Figure 1a). Average $T_H$ for all suits increased from 31.4°C to 35.9°C with no significant differences observed between suits. In contrast, microenvironment vapour pressure ($V_P$), calculated from $T_H$ and $R_H$, displayed trends that appeared to be dependant on the type of suit worn (Figure 1b). Initial $R_H$ and $V_P$ values for the CV and GT suits were much lower than that of the N/I and N/N suits. Throughout the exposure the N/I and N/N consistently produced the highest $V_P$, achieving near saturation levels of $96.1 \pm 1.5\%$ and $97.7 \pm 0.7\%$ respectively. In contrast, the microenvironment air below the CV and GT suits achieved saturation levels of only $76.5 \pm 6.6\%$ and $88.4 \pm 4.1\%$ respectively. One way analysis of variance showed no difference in $R_H$ or $V_P$. 

between the N/I and N/N suits over the last 60 minutes of the exposure, whereas relative humidities and vapour pressures within the GT and CV suits were significantly lower (p<0.05).

Figure 1: A) Microenvironment temperature (Tm) and B) vapour pressure (VPm) within the Cotton Ventile, Gore-Tex, Nomex/Insulite and Nomex/Neoprene suits. Data are displayed at 5 minute intervals.

Similar elevations in Tsk were observed in subjects for all 4 suits tested throughout the exposure, whereas there were significantly greater increases in Tsk (12°C) when subjects wore the N/I suit compared to the CV (0.29°C), GT (0.23°C), and N/N (0.39°C) suits.

CONCLUSIONS

Despite the differences in suit design and construction, the temperature within the microenvironment was similar for all suits, suggesting that the resistance of the fabric and garment to dry heat transfer plays little role in the thermal status of the wearer during hot air exposures of this magnitude. However, analysis of the component thermal gradients indicates that the temperature of the microenvironment air may be 1.0 - 1.5°C higher than that of the skin and outer layer of the suit, particularly during transient increases in VPm. The liberation of heat observed in this study may be attributed to either condensation or absorption.

Most interesting in this study was the effect of suit design and construction on the microenvironment conditions. Although suits of the dry-suit design would limit the path of diffusion of water vapour to that of the fabric only, the dry-suits utilized in this study were both constructed of a water vapour permeable fabric (Cotton and Gore-Tex). As a result of its high vapour permeability the CV suit tended to maintain the lowest VPm throughout the duration of the exposure. Only the N/I suit, whose Insulite layer provides a water vapour barrier throughout the whole suit with exception of the neck, wrists, and ankles, demonstrated a significant elevation in rectal temperature (1.2°C). This is in contrast to the N/N suit which had a similar VPm value as the N/I suit, however, the ATsk developed by the wearers of this suit was minimal (0.39°C). It is assumed that the areas of the body not covered by the neoprene in the N/N suit (legs, arms, and head) were effective in permitting sufficient evaporative cooling to maintain body core temperature, as might be expected considering the lower water vapour resistance afforded by the Nomex fabric alone in these areas.

Since differing protective clothing assemblies will vary in their properties of insulation and water vapour permeability, it is proposed that assessment of conditions within the microenvironment of the suit may enhance predictions of heat strain as they reflect the true environment to which the individual is exposed.

REFERENCES