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Novelty bullets: points that summarize the key findings in the work:	Energy intake increases during the second half of a 14-day expedition in the cold realized by French soldiers, Energy compensation was likely facilitated by providing participants with easy-to-eat palatable and familiar foods in excess., Hunger scores and explicit liking for energy- dense foods were associated with high energy intakes and low body mass changes.
Keyword:	energy intake, energy expenditure, arctic, raid, explicit liking, food preferences, FPQ-S16, military, rations
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21 Abstract

We assessed energy compensation, appetite and reward value of foods during a 14-day 22 military expedition in Greenland realized by 12 male French soldiers during which energy 23 compensation was optimized by providing them with easy-to-eat palatable foods in excess. 24 Although daily energy expenditure (estimated by accelerometry) stayed relatively constant 25 26 throughout the expedition $(15 \pm 9 \text{ MJ.d}^{-1})$, energy intake (EI estimated by self-reported diaries) was 17% higher during the D8-D14 than D1-D7 period, leading to a neutral energy 27 balance (EB). Body fat mass (BFM) significantly decreased (-1.0 ± 0.7 kg, p<0.001) but not 28 body mass (BM). Neither hunger scores (assessed by visual analog scales), nor components 29 30 of the reward value of food (explicit liking [EL] and food preference) were significantly altered. However, changes in EL at D10 positively correlated with changes in BM (r=0.600, p<0.05) 31 32 and BFM (r = 0.680, p < 0.05) and changes in hunger with the EI of the relevant period (*r*=0.743, p<0.01 for D1-D7, *r*=0.652, *p*<0.05 for D8-14). This study shows that the negative 33 34 EB and BM loss can be attenuated by an appropriate food supply and that subjective components of eating behaviour, such as hunger and EL, may be useful to predict the 35 magnitude of energy compensation. 36

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Keywords: energy intake, energy expenditure, arctic, raid, explicit liking, food preferences,
 FPQ-S₁₆, military, rations

41 Résumé

La compensation énergétique, l'appétit et la valeur de récompense de la nourriture ont été 42 évalués pendant une expédition militaire de 14 jours au Groenland réalisée par 12 soldats 43 français. Bien que la dépense énergétique était relativement stable pendant l'expédition 44 (15±9 MJ.j⁻¹), la prise énergétique (PE) était plus élevée de 17% pendant la période J8-J14 45 46 que la période J1-J7, conduisant à une balance énergétique (BE) neutre. La masse grasse (MG) a significativement diminué (-1.0±0.7 kg, p<0.001) mais pas la masse corporelle (MC). 47 Ni les scores de faim (évaluées par échelles analogiques visuelles), ni les composantes de 48 la valeur de récompense de la nourriture (explicit liking [EL] et préférence alimentaire) étaient 49 50 significativement modifiés. Cependant, des modifications d'EL à J10 étaient positivement corrélés avec des modifications de MC (r=0.600, p<0.05) et de MGC (r=0.680, p<0.05) et 51 52 des modifications de scores de faim avec la PE de la période correspondante (r=0.743, p<0.01 pour J1-J7, r=0.652, p<0.05 pour J8-J14). Cette étude montre que la BE négative et 53 la perte de MC peuvent être atténuées par l'approvisionnement de nourriture adaptée et que 54 les composantes subjectives du comportement alimentaire, telles que les scores de faim et 55 l'EL, peuvent être utiles pour prédire l'amplitude de la compensation énergétique. 56

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Mots-clef: prise énergétique, dépense énergétique, arctique, raid, explicit liking, préférences
 alimentaires, FPQ-S₁₆, militaires, rations

61 Introduction

Training or expeditions in cold environments (from 3 to 33 days) are generally associated 62 with decreased body mass (BM) (Campbell 1981, Morgan et al. 1988, Edwards and Roberts 63 1991, Edwards et al. 1992, Jones et al. 1993, King et al. 1993, Hoyt et al. 2001, Johnson et 64 al. 2017, Karl et al. 2017, Beals et al. 2019). This is mostly due to the loss of body fat mass 65 66 (BFM) (Kyrolainen et al. 2008, Tassone and Baker 2017), despite the availability of excess food. Thus, the increase in energy expenditure (EE) is not adequately compensated by 67 energy intake (EI) (Johnson et al. 2017, Beals et al. 2019). This inability to maintain energy 68 balance (EB) is likely to alter physical (Murphy et al. 2018, Church et al. 2019) and cognitive 69 70 performance (Cherif et al. 2016), and also mood (Karl et al. 2015), potentially jeopardizing the success of the mission/expedition (Organization. 2010, Day et al. 2012). Even the 71 72 incorporation of supplemental food packs only partially improves the energy deficit (Edwards and Roberts 1991, Margolis et al. 2016, Karl et al. 2017). Thus, certain mechanisms to match 73 El and EE do not operate when performing a high level of physical activity (PA) in cold 74 75 weather. The contribution of cold to this phenomenon is unclear. Observational studies conducted in athletes and soldiers, both populations that face frequent and regular periods of 76 77 high levels of PA-induced EE, show that the EB is regularly negative, even at neutral temperatures (Loucks 2004, Tharion et al. 2005, Richmond et al. 2014, McAdam et al. 2018). 78 79 This suggests that above a certain threshold of PA, spontaneous EI fails to match EE. Over time, decreased EE due to BM loss and a spontaneous increase in EI reduces the magnitude 80 of this negative EB. Indeed, modeling of energy compensation during exercise (Riou et al. 81 82 2015) shows that EI may progressively increase over the first weeks and eventually reach a 83 plateau.

In the short-term, cold has been shown to be an orexigenic environmental strain (White et al.
2005, Wasse et al. 2013, Crabtree and Blannin 2015, Charlot et al. 2017, Mandic et al.
2019). Therefore, the negative EB is expected to be less in cold than hot weather. Indeed,
Johnson and colleagues (Johnson et al. 2017) reported 36% greater El during a 4 to 5-day

Special Operations Forces field training exercise in cold as compared to hot and warm 88 weather, although EE (~4,500 kcal.d⁻¹) and the amount of available food were similar for both 89 conditions. However, these studies only reported mean EI and EE and not their day-to-day 90 91 variation. Furthermore, the modalities of such a negative EB were not assessed, notably important features of eating behaviour, such as appetite and hedonic factors, the latter often 92 being associated with the reward value of foods. They may provide useful information, as 93 they are strongly involved in the physiology of energy homeostasis (Chapelot and Charlot 94 95 2019) and may partially explain why humans fail to increase EI and maintain EB in a sustained cold environment. A classic model is that proposed by Kent Berridge and based on 96 the wanting and liking paradigm (Berridge 1996). Explicit liking (EL), implicit wanting (IW), 97 and food preferences (FP) have even been proposed to discriminate between individuals 98 99 who compensate for the increase in EE and those who do not (Finlayson et al. 2009, Finlayson et al. 2011, Buckland et al. 2019). 100

101 The aim of this study was to investigate the various dimensions of eating behaviour of this "loose coupling of daily EE and El" (Drenowatz 2015) during a 14-day cold weather 102 103 expedition in Greenland performed by French soldiers. We assessed daily EI, EE, appetite, and the reward value of food. Based on the available scientific evidence, we hypothesized 104 that 1) EI would progressively increase to reach EB by the end of the expedition, 2) appetite 105 106 and reward levels would be consistently associated with this increase in EI, and 3) increased appetite and reward levels would be higher in individuals who were the less inclined to lose 107 108 BM.

109 Methods

110 Design

111 French soldiers planned this expedition in Greenland as part of an extreme cold inoculation program. They travelled from the north of Liverpool Land in Greenland to the city of 112 Ittoggortoomiit in the south. The journey lasted two weeks. They skied most of the time but 113 sometimes had to walk with snowshoes. They brought food for 21 days that they towed with 114 a pulka, along with all their materials. In a paper notebook, they were requested to 1) 115 evaluate their appetite in the morning before breakfast and in the evening before dinner, 2) 116 117 report all food and beverages consumed during the day, and 3) assess the reward value of foods just before dinner on the day prior to the expedition (D0) and the first (D1) and tenth 118 days (D10) of the expedition. Each participant wore a wrist actigraph to estimate EE. Finally, 119 120 BM and body composition were measured before breakfast on the morning before D0 (D-1) 121 and the day following their arrival (D15).

122 Participants

The participants were 12 young males specialized in mountain environment activities (skiing, 123 climbing, and snowshoeing) and extreme conditions (cold and altitude). They were briefed 124 125 several months before leaving France and were informed of the benefits and risks of the investigation prior to giving their written consent, in accordance with the Declaration of 126 127 Helsinki. This study was performed at the request of the Armée de Terre and approved by the scientific leadership of the French Armed Forces Biomedical Research Institute. All 128 participants were screened by military physicians and required to be healthy. Maximal 129 oxygen uptake (VO_{2max}) was estimated using their last Cooper 12-min run test performance 130 (Cooper 1968) based on correlation coefficients between 0.897 and 0.920 (Cooper 1968, 131 Grant et al. 1995). Their individual and mean main characteristics are shown in Table 1. 132

133 Measurements

134 Body mass and composition

On the morning before leaving for Greenland (D0), the participants had their BM and body 135 composition assessed at a hotel in Reykjavik (Iceland). The measurements were performed 136 before breakfast, with an empty bladder. Their BM was measured to the nearest 0.1 kg using 137 a calibrated scale (Seca 877, Hambourg, Germany), with participants wearing only their 138 139 underwear. Absolute and relative BFM were estimated using skinfold thickness values according to the Durnin & Womersley method and standard equations (Durnin and 140 Womersley 1974). In brief, skinfolds were measured on the right side of the body using a 141 Harpenden skinfold caliper (British Indicators, West Sussex, UK) to the nearest millimeter in 142 143 triplicate at the four recommended sites: biceps, triceps, and the subscapular, and suprailiac regions. All measurements were performed by the same investigator, under the same 144 145 conditions, and at the same location, on the day following the end of the expedition to improve reproducibility. 146

147 Energy intake

Before the expedition, each participant packed 21 bags, each containing all the food 148 products necessary for their daily intake. The composition of the diet was similar in energy 149 content and food items for all bags. It was primarily based on the participants' eating habits 150 during prior similar expeditions and consisted of lyophilized muesli and cakes for breakfast; 151 152 energy bars, chocolate bars, jerky meat, soup, dried cheese, flat bread, candies, and cakes for the day while moving; and lyophilized dishes and dessert for dinner. Each bag provided 153 approximately 19 MJ (4,500 kcal) and participants were allowed to bring a supplementary 154 bag containing ready-to-eat foods (essentially bars) and to consume some or all of it if they 155 156 felt hungry or the need to. At the end of each day, prior to sleep, they had to complete a form 157 on which they accurately reported which foods they had consumed from the daily and supplementary bags. The daily energy and macronutrient intakes of each participant were 158 then calculated using the nutritional composition of the foods provided by the manufacturers. 159

160 Energy expenditure

Participants were outfitted with a wrist-worn tri-axial actigraph (MotionWatch 8, CamNTech, 161 Papworth Everard, UK) on the non-dominant arm to assess daily EE. This technology has 162 been found to be reliable for assessing EE during activities under 6 METs (Sirichana et al. 163 2017) and showed good reliability in assessing physical activity, albeit this was assessed in 164 165 older adults only (Landry et al. 2015, Chakravarthy and Resnick 2017). The highest intensity during the expedition was estimated to be approximately 6 METs. This specific device is 166 designed to record accelerations ranging in magnitude from 0.01G to 8G with a frequency of 167 3-11Hz. It is equipped with a filter that removes artifacts from movements with frequencies 168 169 higher than the typical range of human movements (vibration or tremor). Data were recorded using 60-s epochs, as recommended (Ward et al. 2005). The time spent in each class of 170 physical activities was determined using the device software (MotionWare 1.0.27, 171 CamNTech, Papworth Everard, UK): sedentary activities (< 1.5 MET), light activities 172 (between 1.5 and 3.0 METs), moderate activities (between 3.0 and 4.5 METs), and vigorous 173 activities (> 4.5 METs). After calculating the resting metabolic rate (RMR; i.e. 1 MET) using 174 the Mifflin-St Jeor equation (Mifflin et al. 1990), the daily EE was then estimated using the 175 176 following formula

177 EE (MJ.d⁻¹) = RMR.t_{SED} + 2.25 x RMR.t_{LIGHT} + 3.75 x RMR.t_{MOD} + 5 x RMR.t_{VIG}

Where t is the time in seconds associated with 1, 2.25, 3.75, and 5 METs for sedentary (SED), light (LIGHT), moderate (MOD), and vigorous (VIG) activities, respectively.

180 Energy balance was then calculated by subtracting EE from EI.

181 Appetite

Appetite was assessed by rating hunger on visual analog scales (VAS). The participant had to draw a vertical dash on a horizontal 10-cm scale preceded by the question: "How hungry do you feel?" and anchored at the left and right ends by "not at all" and "extremely", respectively. The distance from the extreme left to the participant's vertical dash represented the rating score, expressed in cm. Participants were asked to rate these VAS over the last two weeks prior to the expedition and familiarize themselves with the material and the appetite scales.

189 Reward value of food

Several years ago, Finlayson et al. (Finlayson et al. 2007, Finlayson et al. 2008) developed 190 191 the Leeds Food Preference Questionnaire (LFPQ). This questionnaire measures several components of food reward, *i.e.*, EL, IW, and FP (Dalton and Finlayson 2014). We recently 192 193 validated a shorter version of this questionnaire, called the Food Preference Questionnaire (FPQ-S₁₆), using 16 food items and adapted to the French context (Charlot et al. 2018). This 194 version was found to be reliable, with correlation coefficients between 0.83 and 0.88, and 195 196 less time-consuming, but only assesses EL and FP by choice-reaction time. Given the 197 difficulties of using a computer during the expedition, such as the weight of the equipment and the very low temperatures, the FPQ-S₁₆ was adapted to paper. Briefly, the questionnaire 198 is composed of 16 pictures of food items categorized according to their fat content (high-fat 199 [HF] or low-fat [LF]) and taste (sweet [SW] or savory [SA]). This results in four specific food 200 201 categories (HF, LF, SW, and SA) with eight food items in each, and four combined categories (HFSW, HFSA, LFSW, and LFSA) with four food items in each. First, to assess 202 EL, participants had to answer the question "How pleasant would it be to taste some of this 203 food now?" for each food on a VAS. Then, to assess FP, the 16 food items were presented 204 205 on the same page in a randomized order. Participants were asked to rank these items in four 206 groups, ranging from the one that contained the four food items that they "wanted to eat the 207 most now" (++), to the one that contained the four food items that they "wanted to eat the least now" (--). The number of food items from a specific (HF, LF, SW, or SA) or combined 208 209 (HFSW, HFSA, LFSW, or LFSA) category was multiplied by the group coefficient (3 for ++, 2 210 for +, 1 for -, and 0 for --) and then the scores from each group added. The score ranges for the specific (8 food items) and combined (4 food items) categories are therefore 4 to 20 and 211

212 0 to 12, respectively. Absolute scores were used to assess EL and bias scores were calculated for FP by subtracting a score from each category with its opposite one (e.g., HF vs 213 214 LF or HFSA vs LFSA). Thus, a positive or negative score indicates a preference for one 215 category over the other. This procedure was conducted in a hungry state prior to dinner, just before the beginning of the expedition (D0), just after (D1), and 10 days later (D10). As the 216 expedition was expected to last 21 days, we planned the FPQ- S_{16} at the midpoint (D10) and 217 218 end of the expedition (D20). However, it was shortened to 14 days (see part 3.1.) and the 219 D20 measurement was not performed.

220 Statistical analyses

Given the highly variable conditions of such expeditions, e.g., weather and distance travelled 221 per day (see part 3.1 for details), we divided the temporal analysis into two periods: D1-7 and 222 223 D8-14. Indeed, comparing day-to-day differences would have required highly conservative 224 corrections for multiple comparisons and would have been subjected to artifacts due to certain single-day events. After ensuring that the data were normally distributed using a 225 Shapiro-Wilk test, Student's t-tests were used for all outcomes, except EL and FP. EL and 226 FP were compared using a single mixed-model repeated-measures 3x1 ANOVA with day 227 228 (D0, D1, and D10) as the within-subject factor. Correlations between variables were tested using Pearson correlation coefficients. Data are presented as the means ± SD. Significance 229 was defined as p < 0.05. Analyses were performed using STATISTICA software (v10, 230 Statsoft, Tulsa, OK, USA). 231

232 **Results**

233 Details of the expedition

Meteorological conditions faced between D2 and D4 caused a modification of the initially 234 planned route. Indeed, a windstorm (maximal wind speed recorded 180 km.h⁻¹) prevented 235 236 the participants from leaving their tents on D3 and D4 and caused major material damage (mostly tent tears). The need to make repairs forced the soldiers to modify their itinerary and 237 to reach a shelter. The remainder of the expedition was therefore shortened by the 238 expedition chief. The details of the route are shown in Figure 1. They remained in the same 239 240 locations for a total of five days (D3 and D4: facing the windstorm, D6: repairing the equipment, D10: climbing near the base, and D14: waiting for jet skis to the reach airport). 241 They travelled 123 km (56 and 67 km in the first and second halves of the expedition, 242 243 respectively) for a mean daily distance of 8.79 km with +312 m and -318 m. The weather 244 became less windy and colder as the expedition progressed. Mean temperatures (relative humidity) were -8.7°C (77.5%) during the first half and -13.4°C (68.6%) during the second 245 half of the expedition, with mean wind speeds of 32.7 and 14.7 km.h⁻¹, respectively. 246

247 Energy intake and expenditure

Individual and mean EI, EE, and EB are shown in Figure 2. Time spent for sedentary, light, 248 249 moderate, and vigorous activities were 888 \pm 37, 176 \pm 31, 111 \pm 14, and 265 \pm 38 min.d⁻¹, 250 respectively. There was a statistically significant period effect for EI (p = 0.007) and EB (p =0.014). EI was $\sim 17\%$ higher for D8-14 than D1-7 (12.6 ± 2.1 vs 14.7 ± 3.4 MJ.d⁻¹). 251 Consequently, the EB was higher for D8-14 than D1-7 (-0.4 \pm 3.6 MJ.d⁻¹ vs -2.3 \pm 2.4 MJ.d⁻¹; 252 p = 0.014). The difference between EI and EE was only significant in the first half of the 253 expedition (D1-7; p = 0.007), indicating that the participants were in negative EB during this 254 period and in neutral EB during the second one. 255

Absolute and relative macronutrient intake is shown in Table 2. We observed a period effect for all absolute macronutrients (p = 0.005, 0.017, and 0.003 for CHO, fat, and protein, respectively), which was ~15, 14, and 16% higher, respectively, for D8-14 than D1-7.

259 Body mass and composition

Individual and mean changes in BM and body composition between the beginning and end of the expedition are shown in Figures 3A and 3B. Body mass was 76.1 ± 6.8 before and 75.0 ± 6.3 kg after the expedition, the difference (-1.1 ± 1.8 kg, -1.3 ± 2.2%) failing to reach statistical significance (p = 0.091). BFM and body fat-free mass (BFFM) were 15.8 ± 2.4 and 60.3 ± 6.0 kg, respectively, before the expedition and 14.8 ± 2.6 and 60.2 ± 5.8 kg, respectively, after the expedition. The change in BFM was significant (-1.0 ± 0.7 kg, -6.4 ± 4.7%, p < 0.001) but not the change in BFFM (-0.1 ± 1.5 kg, -0.1 ± 2.4%).

Individual changes in BM and EB are presented in Figure 3C, showing that there was a wide variation and a continuum of responses to the expedition-induced increase in EE. These two variables positively correlated with each other (r = 0.702, p = 0.011), indicating that the larger the energy deficit, the larger the loss of BM.

271 Appetite

ANOVA revealed no time effect for the morning and evening measurements of the hunger scores (Figure 4).

274 Explicit liking and food preference

The absolute scores (EL) for each specific and combined category and bias scores (FP) between specific and combined categories are shown in Table 3. ANOVA revealed no effect of the day for EL or FP, suggesting that the expedition did not alter the mean reward value of food.

279 Correlations

280 Meaningful correlations between all the variables measured in this study are shown in Table 4. First, changes in BM (in %) were positively associated with EI, EB, absolute fat and protein 281 282 intake, and relative fat intake, and negatively associated with relative CHO intake. Then, they were also positively associated with the EL score of the HFSW food items, but only at D10. 283 Second, changes in BFM (in %) were positively associated with the EL scores of HF foods at 284 D1 and D10, but not D0. Finally, the mean total EI was positively associated with mean total 285 286 hunger scores; this correlation was also significant between these variables during both 287 halves of the expedition *i.e.*, EI with hunger on D1-7 and EI with hunger on D8-14.

288 Discussion

One of the main differences between this expedition and others featuring in studies 289 assessing EB was the mean EE level. In our expedition, participants expended 14.9 MJ.d⁻¹, 290 whereas a mean of 20 MJ.d⁻¹ has been generally reported (range = 16.5 to 25.8 MJ.d⁻¹) 291 (Morgan et al. 1988, Edwards and Roberts 1991, Edwards et al. 1992, Jones et al. 1993, 292 293 King et al. 1993, Margolis et al. 2016). This is likely the result of differences in activities and their duration, objectives, and environment. The variety of activities was wider in the other 294 expeditions than this one, notably including highly demanding specific military tasks. For 295 example, some programs required "establishing a defensive position, constructing defensive 296 297 obstacles, and erecting camouflage tents" (Edwards et al. 1992), survival tasks ("compass training, ice fishing, and hunting" (Jones et al. 1993), "avalanche avoidance and rescue and 298 299 night land navigation" (Morgan et al. 1988)), or sports activities (6 km ski race and 10-km biathlon (Morgan et al. 1988)). Moreover, the duration of these activities was longer (5-13 300 301 h.d⁻¹ (Jones et al. 1993) $vs \sim 5$ h.d⁻¹ in the present study), with shorter sleep periods (4–6 h.d⁻¹ ¹ (Edwards and Roberts 1991, Edwards et al. 1992) vs 7-8 h.d⁻¹ in the present study). When 302 303 the activities were similar (only skiing), the objective was higher (51 km in 4 days (Margolis et al. 2016) vs 123 km in 14 days in the present study). Finally, although environmental 304 temperatures in the present study (between -19 and -6 °C) were in the usual reported range 305 306 (between -48 and +12 °C) (Morgan et al. 1988, Edwards and Roberts 1991, Edwards et al. 1992, Jones et al. 1993, King et al. 1993), they were not among the harshest. 307

Despite a relatively low EE, mean EI (13.6 MJ.d⁻¹) was in the upper range of similar studies (mean = 12.2 MJ.d⁻¹; range = 8.3 to 14.8 MJ.d⁻¹) (Morgan et al. 1988, Edwards and Roberts 1991, Edwards et al. 1992, Jones et al. 1993, King et al. 1993, Margolis et al. 2016). King *et al.* (King et al. 1992) stated that the total energy content of the provided rations, their palatability and acceptability, their ease of preparation, and their diversity may influence EI in the context of extreme cold. In the present study, the energy value of the rations (~19 MJ) largely exceeded EE. The selected foods were a mix of lyophilized rations and personal

items that participants had previously consumed and appreciated, although acceptability was 315 not specifically assessed. Moreover, apart from the lyophilized items that had to be 316 rehydrated, foods were consumable in their natural form. Finally, a supplementary bag of 317 318 easy-to-eat and highly palatable food items was always available for extra food consumption. 319 Thus, the conditions favored optimal energy compensation. Although a large negative EB (mean = -8.3 MJ.d^{-1} ; range = $-15.0 \text{ to } -4.1 \text{ MJ.d}^{-1}$) (Morgan et al. 1988, Edwards and Roberts 320 321 1991, Edwards et al. 1992, Jones et al. 1993, King et al. 1993, Margolis et al. 2016) and BM 322 loss (mean = -0.25 kg.d⁻¹; range = -0.06 to 0.72 kg.d⁻¹) (Campbell 1981, Morgan et al. 1988, Edwards and Roberts 1991, Edwards et al. 1992, Jones et al. 1993, King et al. 1993, Hoyt et 323 al. 2001, Johnson et al. 2017, Karl et al. 2017, Beals et al. 2019) seems unavoidable during 324 such an expedition in the cold, the EB was only negative for the first period (-2.3 \pm 2.4 MJ.d⁻¹) 325 and the slight decrease in BM (0.07 kg.d⁻¹) was not significant. 326

Long-term sustained high levels of EE are known to lead to equilibrium with EI, resulting in 327 328 the maintenance of a neutral EB and therefore a stable BM (Mayer et al. 1956, Beaulieu et al. 2018). However, the time required to reach this equilibrium is less documented. Whybrow 329 330 et al. (Whybrow et al. 2008) reported no modification of El in lean men during a 14-day daily training program eliciting an EE of 2 or 4 MJ.d⁻¹. Riou et al (Riou et al. 2015) used statistical 331 models and observed an increase in the degree of energy compensation during the first 20 332 333 weeks of a training program. However, the first four weeks were not considered in the models. The kinetics of EI during expeditions (more than 20 days) in mildly cold to hot 334 environments have shown discrepant results, with no modification (Edwards et al. 1992, 335 336 Booth et al. 2003) or a slight increase of ~1.0 MJ.d⁻¹ (Campbell 1981, DeLany et al. 1989) after the first two weeks. Given these scarce results, it is difficult to draw unequivocal 337 conclusions. It must be noted that the aforementioned studies were not designed to assess 338 modifications of EI throughout the period of measurements. Nevertheless, these results 339 340 suggest that energy compensation may require 14 days to be observable. Our results suggest that such compensation may occur more rapidly (from the second week) in a cold 341

environment and may be larger (+2.1 \pm 2.2 MJ.d⁻¹). It could be argued that once the storm was over (after D6), the soldiers would have been able to eat more comfortably, which could partially explain the increase in EI in the second period. Further studies are needed to confirm the kinetics of such compensatory behaviour, *i.e.* when compensation occurs and when it reaches a plateau.

347 Assessments of EI and EE during training or expeditions in the cold are most often performed to calculate the mean EB and subsequent changes in BM and body composition 348 (Tassone and Baker 2017). This concern resonates well with the armed forces. Indeed, 349 sustained energy deficit has been shown to lead to decreased physical and cognitive 350 351 performance, increasing individual and collective risks and therefore jeopardizing the success of an operative mission (Murphy et al. 2018, Church et al. 2019). One objective has 352 353 sometimes been to assess the efficiency of alternative meals (Morgan et al. 1988, Edwards and Roberts 1991, Edwards et al. 1992, King et al. 1993) or supplemental foods (Edwards 354 and Roberts 1991, Margolis et al. 2016) to improve energy compensation and reach a more 355 neutral EB. However, attempts to better understand the "loose coupling of daily EE and El" 356 (Drenowatz 2015) in identifying the kinetics of various components of eating behaviour are 357 missing. Therefore, we included tools that allowed us to assess two of the most determinant 358 components of eating behaviour, *i.e.* appetite and preferences. Subjective ratings of appetite 359 (the morning or evening prior to meals) were not altered, suggesting either that EI was 360 adequate or that the use of endogenous energy from body stores inhibited the motivation to 361 eat (Chapelot and Charlot 2019). In comparison, hunger scores increased during a four-day 362 363 arctic military training mission (Margolis et al. 2016). However, the energy deficit was much larger in this study than in ours (-13.9 vs -1.4 MJ.d⁻¹), suggesting that the magnitude of 364 appetite-inhibiting endogenous energy may be limited. 365

Analyses of the correlations in our study favour a putative role of the reward value of foods and the validity of the paper-version of the $FPQ-S_{16}$, as they revealed several positive interindividual relationships between this hedonic component and objective parameters. First,

changes in appetite positively correlated with EI, showing that, overall, among the 369 participants, the higher their hunger scores, the greater the increase in their EI. The fact that 370 371 these correlations were only significant within the same period (D1-7, D8-14 or D1-14) 372 suggests the validity of this coupling between subjective and objective outcomes of appetite. It must be noted that two recent reviews (Sadoul et al. 2014, Holt et al. 2017) reported that 373 the ability of pre-meal hunger scores to predict El is uneven. Our results suggest that this 374 375 relationship may improve if mean hunger scores recorded over several days are used. In 376 addition, EL for foods with high energy density (HFSW and HF) positively correlated with changes in BM and BFM. In other words, individuals who attributed a high reward value to 377 HF foods during the expedition were less likely to lose BM or BFM. It was previously 378 observed that individuals who compensated for the energy expended during a single 379 exercise or those who minimally responded to a 12-week training program (i.e. small 380 modifications in body composition) showed a higher preference for HFSW foods than non-381 compensators (Finlayson et al. 2009) and responders (Finlayson et al. 2011), respectively. 382 383 Overall, these results suggest that participants who display an "orexigen" profile (increase in appetite, increase in EL for HF foods) during an expedition in the cold may be more inclined 384 to compensate for high levels of EE and maintain their BM and body composition. Such 385 compensation may however have an upper threshold, as authors recently concluded from a 386 387 compilation of data that the "alimentary limit" (i.e. maximal EI) was reached for 2.5 fold the 388 basal metabolic rate (Thurber et al. 2019).

Any experiment under harsh environmental conditions is vulnerable to unexpected contingencies. In this expedition, participants were confronted with a storm on days 3 and 4 that altered the planned route. The main consequence was the impossibility to maintain a constant volume of physical activity over the 14 days of measurements. Another possible consequence was an alteration in food intake. It can be argued that participants voluntarily reduced their intake during the windstorm to spare food. However, they were informed about the storm on day 2 by a weather specialist based in France and knew that it would only last

two days. This is therefore unlikely and, indeed, was not reported by participants after the 396 397 expedition. The quality of self-reporting or EI itself may theoretically be modified by such adverse events. We were unable to evaluate their impact on our results. However, these 398 399 men were mentally prepared to face the consequences of extreme conditions, such as 400 spending two days in the tents because of the bad weather, repairing material after the storm, or having to change their route. After the expedition, the participants assured us that 401 402 they did not neglect the completion of their food diaries. Compromises were made to select 403 the most accurate tools that participants agree to use under self-sufficiency conditions and in extreme cold, without jeopardizing the mission. Thus, EE might have been assessed with 404 405 more accurate methods (e.g. the double labeled water technique (Margolis et al. 2016, Johnson et al. 2017) or individual HR-VO₂ regression (Beals et al. 2019)) and FPQ-S₁₆ might 406 407 have been preferentially completed on tablets, as under laboratory conditions, than on paper. Furthermore, it was not possible to infer IW from our data, as no time-reaction could be 408 measured in the FPQ-S₁₆ and thus this relationship is yet to be established. Then, we 409 410 acknowledge that the observations presented in the present study concern a specific sample 411 of participants. They were considered to have the fitness level of highly trained/elite athletes based on their usual volume of physical activity and estimated VO2max. In addition, their 412 relatively high levels of BFM relative to their high fitness level suggest that they may have 413 414 adopted a high-calorie diet during the weeks/months prior to the expedition to increase their 415 energy stores. Body composition assessments well before the expedition to verify this 416 hypothesis are not available. Nonetheless, it is certain that the results obtained with this sample are not generalizable to a broader group. Another limitation is that we did not assess 417 thirst, fluid intake, or hydration status. This is a concern, since an influence of dehydration on 418 419 various dimensions of eating behaviour has been reported (Engell 1988, Mattes 2010). Moreover, dehydration may alter the accuracy of BFM estimation. The effect of dehydration 420 421 has led to discrepant results in previous studies, which showed a small increase (Araujo et al. 2018) or decrease (Rodriguez-Sanchez and Galloway 2015) in BFM values. Thus, 422 423 although some studies conducted under similar conditions suggest that fluid intake is in 424 accordance with need (Edwards et al. 1992, King et al. 1993), it is possible that our results 425 may have been somewhat influenced by a certain state of dehydration. Nonetheless, for the 426 first time, several markers of eating behaviour were accurately recorded and further explored 427 how trained individuals adapt to a prolonged period of high EE, coupled with a continuous 428 extreme cold exposure and an abundance of palatable food items at their disposal.

429 Conclusion

430 We observed an increase in El after seven days during a 14-day expedition performed by French soldiers, in agreement with the first hypothesis and suggesting that when eating 431 432 conditions are optimized with the appropriate amount, quality, and conditioning of foods, total energy compensation may occur more rapidly than that generally described. Eating 433 behaviour components, such as hunger and the reward value of foods, were assessed for 434 435 the first time, and although they did not change during the expedition, in contradiction to our 436 second hypothesis, correlations show a certain amount of coupling between hunger and EI and between EL for HF foods and body changes. Finally, as stated by the third hypothesis, 437 some of these elite individuals will respond more adequately than others to the energy 438 homeostasis challenge and this difference is detectable by hunger and hedonic factors. 439

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				Body fat	Estimated	Physical
#		lleight (em)	Body mass	mass (% of	VO _{2max}	activity
participant	Age (y)	Height (cm)	(kg)	body	(ml.min ⁻	volume
				mass)	¹ .kg⁻¹)	(h.w ⁻¹)
1	30	173	77.0	23.0	60	3
2	29	183	78.1	13.9	60	3
3	24	177	86.5	22.6	60	7
4	26	173	78.0	20.9	64	7
5	29	180	81.5	18.6	61	10
6	35	177	72.0	25.1	59	15
7	32	178	74.8	20.9	58	10
8	30	173	73.4	21.6	62	10
9	32	181	78.3	19.9	58	30
10	31	186	83.5	20.7	58	10
11	45	173	69.0	20.5	61	20
12	33	163	60.9	21.1	75	13
Mean ± SD	31.3 ± 5.2	176.4 ± 6.0	76.1 ± 6.8	20.7 ± 2.7	61.5 ± 4.6	11.5 ± 7.5

619 **Table 1. Individual and mean participant characteristics (Means ± SD)**

620

621 Table 2. Absolute and relative macronutrient intake

	Days 1-7	Days 8-14	Mean Raid
CHO intake (g.d ⁻¹)	314 ± 49	370 ± 64**	342 ± 50
CHO intake (% of TEI)	43.3 ± 7.3	43.5 ± 6.0	43.4 ± 6.6
Fat intake (g.d ⁻¹)	151 ± 47	175 ± 59**	163 ± 51
Fat intake (% of TEI)	44.1 ± 5.9	43.7 ± 5.4	43.9 ± 5.6
Protein intake (g.d ⁻¹)	93 ± 34	110 ± 39**	102 ± 36
Protein intake (% of TEI)	12.1 ± 2.2	12.3 ± 1.8	12.2 ± 1.9
	12.1 ± 2.2	12.0 ± 1.0	16.6

622 Means \pm SD. **different from D1-7; p < 0.01.

623 Table 3. Explicit liking and food preference

	Day 0	Day 1	Day 10
	Explicit liking		
High-fat (HF)	4.4 ± 1.7	5.0 ± 1.3	4.6 ± 1.3
Low-fat (LF)	5.0 ± 1.9	5.4 ± 1.5	5.8 ± 1.5
Sweet (SW)	4.6 ± 1.8	4.8 ± 1.6	5.1 ± 1.6
Savory (SA)	4.9 ± 1.6	5.6 ± 1.1	5.3 ± 1.0
High-fat and sweet (HFSW)	4.1 ± 2.4	4.3 ± 1.7	4.3 ± 2.0
High-fat and savory (HFSA)	4.7 ± 1.6	5.7 ± 1.2	4.9 ± 1.4
Low-fat and sweet (LFSW)	5.0 ± 2.2	5.3 ± 2.1	5.9 ± 2.1
Low-fat and savory (LFSA)	5.0 ± 1.8	5.5 ± 1.5	5.7 ± 1.1
	Food preference		
HF minus LF	-1.0 ± 4.9	-1.2 ± 4.2	-3.7 ± 3.7
HFSW minus LFSW	-0.3 ± 4.2	-1.8 ± 2.8	-2.8 ± 3.5
HFSA minus LFSA	-0.8 ± 1.5	0.7 ± 2.2	-0.9 ± 1.4
SW minus SA	-1.8 ± 6.5	-3.3 ± 5.3	-0.5 ± 5.1
HFSW minus HFSA	-0.7 ± 3.8	-2.9 ± 2.6	-1.2 ± 3.4
LFSW minus LFSA	-1.2 ± 3.7	-0.4 ± 3.3	0.7 ± 3.0

Means \pm SD. Explicit liking is scored from 0 to 10 using a VAS. Food preference was based on the FPQ-S₁₆: scores in each category were subtracted to obtain a bias score comparing two categories, with a negative score indicating that food preference is higher in the latter than the former category.

628 **Table 4 – Correlation table**

Variables	r	Variables	r
Δ Body mass (%)		EI D1-7 (kcal.d ⁻¹)	
<i>vs</i> Mean EI (kcal.d⁻¹)	0.656*	<i>vs</i> Hunger D1-7 (cm)	0.743**
<i>vs</i> Mean EE (kcal.d ⁻¹)	-0.402	vs Hunger D8-14 (cm)	0.340
vs Mean EB (kcal.d ⁻¹)	0.702*	<i>vs</i> Mean Hunger (cm)	0.707**
vs Mean CHO intake (kcal.d ⁻¹)	-0.219	EI D8-14 (kcal.d ⁻¹)	
vs Mean fat intake (kcal.d ⁻¹)	0.780**	vs Hunger D1-7 (cm)	0.252
vs Mean protein intake (kcal.d ⁻¹)	0.656*	vs Hunger D8-14 (cm)	0.652*
vs Mean CHO intake (% of EI)	-0.795**	<i>vs</i> Mean Hunger (cm)	0.617*
<i>vs</i> Mean fat intake (% of EI)	0.765**	Mean EI (kcal.d ⁻¹)	
vs Mean protein intake (% of EI)	0.544	vs Hunger D1-7 (cm)	0.471
vs EL HFSW D0 (cm)	0.098	vs Hunger D8-14 (cm)	0.563
vs EL HFSW D1 (cm)	0.564	<i>vs</i> Mean Hunger (cm)	0.692*
vs EL HFSW D10 (cm)	0.600*	<pre>vs EL HF D10 (cm)</pre>	0.646*
Δ Body fat mass (%)			
vs EL HF D0 (cm)	0.232		
vs EL HF D1 (cm)	0.706**		
vs EL HF D10 (cm)	0.680*		

⁶²⁹ 'Mean' indicates the average value for the 14 days. Otherwise, the period is indicated (e.g. 630 D1-7). Significant correlations between two variables are highlighted in bold. *p < 0.05; **p <631 0.01. EI: energy intake; EE: energy expenditure; EB: energy balance; CHO: carbohydrate; 632 EL: explicit liking; HF: high-fat; SW: sweet.

633 Figure legends

- Figure 1. Details of the route of the expedition and meteorological conditions. Open
 circles indicate that they remained in the same location on the specific day.
- Figure 2. Daily (A, C, and E) energy intake, expenditure, and balance and their means
- 637 (B, D and F) for each half of the expedition. The doted lines indicate the mean value for
- 638 the entire expedition. *,**different from D1-7; *p < 0.05, ** $p < 0.01.^{\alpha\alpha}$ different from EE, p < 0.01.
- Figure 3. Individual (A) and mean (B) body mass and body composition and comparison between individual body mass and changes in energy balance (C).
- 642 ***different from before the expedition; p < 0.001.
- Figure 4. Daily (A and C) morning and evening hunger scores and their means (B and
- **D) for each half of the expedition.** The doted lines indicate the mean value over the entire
- 645 expedition.



Figure 1. Details of the route of the expedition and meteorological conditions. Open circles indicate that they remained in the same location on the specific day.



Figure 2. Daily (A, C, and E) energy intake, expenditure, and balance and their means (B, D and F) for each half of the expedition. The doted lines indicate the mean value for the entire expedition. *,**different from D1-7; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01.addifferent from EE, p < 0.01.

190x240mm (325 x 325 DPI)



Figure 3. Individual (A) and mean (B) body mass and body composition and comparison between individual body mass and changes in energy balance (C). ***different from before the expedition; p < 0.001.

190x179mm (410 x 410 DPI)



Figure 4. Daily (A and C) morning and evening hunger scores and their means (B and D) for each half of the expedition. The doted lines indicate the mean value over the entire expedition.

190x169mm (410 x 410 DPI)