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1 **Effect of exercise-meal timing on energy intake, appetite and food reward in adolescents**
2 **with obesity: the TIMEX study**

3
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19
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50 **Abstract**

51 The present study manipulated the delay between exercise and test meal to investigate its effect on
52 energy intake, appetite sensations and food reward in adolescents with obesity.

53 Fifteen adolescents with obesity randomly completed 3 experimental sessions: i) rest without exercise
54 (CON);ii) 30 minutes of exercise 180 minutes before lunch (EX-180); iii) 30 minutes of exercise 60
55 minutes before lunch (EX-60). Ad libitum energy intake was assessed at lunch and dinner, and food
56 reward (LFPQ) assessed before and after lunch. Appetite sensations were assessed at regular intervals.

57 Absolute energy intake was not different between conditions despite a 14.4% lower intake in EX-60
58 relative to CON. Lunch relative energy intake (REI: energy intake – exercise-induced energy
59 expenditure) was higher in CON compared with EX-60 ($p<0.001$). Lunch fat intake was lower in EX-
60 compared with CON ($p=0.01$) and EX-180($p=0.02$). Pre-lunch hunger in CON was lower than EX-
61 180 ($p=0.02$). Pre-lunch prospective food consumption and desire to eat were lower in CON compared
62 with both exercise conditions ($p=0.001$). A significant condition effect was found for explicit liking for
63 high-fat relative to low-fat foods before lunch ($p=0.03$) with EX-60 being significantly lower than EX-
64 180 ($p=0.001$). The nutritional and food reward adaptations to exercise might be dependent on the timing
65 of exercise, which is of importance to optimize its effect on energy balance in adolescents with obesity.

- 66 1. Exercising close to lunch decreases relative energy intake
67 2. Lipids and proteins intake at lunch are decreased at after EX-60
68 3. The timing of exercise might not impact appetite sensations

69
70 **Key words.** Exercise Timing, Appetite, Energy Intake, Food reward, Obesity, Adolescent

71 **Clinical Trial reference:** NCT03807609

72 **1. Introduction**

73 The rise of pediatric overweight, obesity and their metabolic complications calls for the development of
74 innovative, effective and integrative weight management strategies. Physical exercise is an essential
75 component of multidisciplinary weight loss interventions that is no longer considered as a simple source
76 of additional energy expenditure but is now recognized for its potential effects on energy intake (EI)
77 and appetite control in adults (Blundell et al., 2015; Donnelly et al., 2014; Hall et al., 2012; Schubert et
78 al., 2013) and youth with obesity (Carnier et al., 2013; Nemet et al., 2010; Thivel et al., 2011). Both
79 homeostatic and neurocognitive pathways have been implicated in the nutritional responses to exercise,
80 as recently reviewed and synthesized (Thivel et al., 2019a). Physiological responses to exercise such as
81 gastro-intestinal peptide responses have been proposed to explain the anorexigenic effect of intensive
82 exercise observed in adolescents with obesity (Hunschede et al., 2017; Prado et al., 2014) as well as
83 some neurocognitive and hedonic mechanisms (Fearnbach et al., 2017; Miguet et al., 2018).

84 While most of the studies available so far have focused on the role of exercise characteristics on
85 subsequent nutritional responses, such as its intensity (Thivel et al., 2011, 2012, 2014) or duration
86 (Masurier et al., 2018; Tamam et al., 2012), only few have questioned its timing in relation to meals.
87 Mathieu et al. recently examined whether exercising immediately before or after a lunch meal could
88 differently affect short term energy balance in children and adolescents (Mathieu et al., 2018). They
89 observed a lower energy balance when children exercised immediately before their meal, especially
90 when the exercise was performed at moderate-to-vigorous intensity (Mathieu et al., 2018). Additionally,
91 Albert et al. (2015) investigated the timing between exercise and the following meal on EI and subjective
92 appetite sensations in healthy young males. In their study, 15- to 20-year-old lean boys consumed a
93 standardized breakfast, then performed a 30-min exercise session of moderate-to-vigorous intensity
94 either 135 minutes or immediately before an ad libitum buffet-type meal (Albert et al., 2015). While
95 they did not observe any difference in hunger between conditions, the authors observed a significant
96 reduction in overall energy intake (11%) mainly explained by a lower energy ingested from lipids (-
97 23%), when exercise was performed immediately before the meal compared with the delayed condition.

98 Although the afternoon snack and dinner intakes were not different between conditions, this
99 demonstrates an absence of compensation for the observed acute reduction in food consumption.

100 Although later results confirmed the potential benefits of a shorter delay between exercise and meal on
101 energy intake and overall energy balance in lean children this remains to be elucidated in children and
102 adolescents with obesity in order to improve our physical activity prescriptions and then optimize our
103 weight loss strategies (Reid et al., 2019). Moreover, while recent studies have highlighted the role of
104 food reward in post-exercise energy intake in adolescents with obesity (Miguet et al., 2018; Thivel et
105 al., 2019b), the effect of exercise-meal timing on food reward is unknown. Food reward, as an hedonic
106 pathways, has been effectively recently shown to be an essential actor in the control of energy intake in
107 youth with obesity, potentially overpassing the influence of some physiological signals, especially in
108 response to exercise (Thivel et al., 2019b). It seems then today essential to consider food reward when
109 questioning the effect of acute exercise, in that context depending on its timing, on subsequent energy
110 intake and appetite.

111 Therefore, the aim of the present study (TIMEX for Timing Intake and Exercise) was to assess the
112 effect of the delay between exercise and subsequent meal on energy intake, appetite sensations and food
113 reward in adolescents with obesity.

114 **2. Methods**

115 **2.1. Population**

116 Fifteen adolescents with obesity (according to (Cole et al., 2000)) aged 12-15 years (Tanner stage 3-4)
117 participated in this study (6 boys (14 ± 0.7 years old); and 9 girls (12.6 ± 1.6 years old)). The adolescents
118 were recruited through the local Pediatric Obesity Center (Tza Nou, La Bourboule, France). To be
119 included in the study, participants had to be free of any medication known to influence appetite or
120 metabolism, not present any contraindication to physical activity, and to be classified as physically
121 inactive, taking part in less than 2 hours of physical activity per week (according to the International
122 Physical Activity Questionnaire –IPAQ (Craig et al., 2003)). This study was conducted in accordance
123 with the Helsinki declaration and all the adolescents and their legal representative received information

124 sheets and signed consent forms as requested by the local ethical authorities (Human Ethical Committee
125 authorization reference: 2018 A02161 54; Clinical Trial reference: NCT03807609).

126 **2.2. Design**

127 After a preliminary medical inclusion visit made by a pediatrician to control for the ability of the
128 adolescents to complete the study, they were asked to perform a maximal aerobic test and their body
129 composition was assessed by dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry (DXA). The adolescents were then
130 asked to complete a food preference questionnaire and the Three Factor Eating Questionnaire r17
131 (Bryant et al., 2018) in order to exclude children with high cognitive restraint (none of the volunteers
132 was excluded based on their TFEQr17 results). Afterwards, adolescents randomly completed the three
133 following experimental sessions (one week apart): i) a rest condition without exercise (CON); ii) an
134 exercise session set 180 minutes before lunch (EX-180); iii) an exercise session set 60 minutes before
135 lunch (EX-60). On the three occasions, participants received a standardized breakfast (08:00am) and
136 were asked to remain at rest (CON) or to cycle for 30 minutes either 180 (on EX-180) or 60 (on EX-60)
137 minutes before being served with an ad libitum lunch meal at 12:30pm. The adolescents were asked to
138 complete the Leeds Food Preference Questionnaire (LFPQ) (Finlayson et al., 2008) before and after the
139 lunch meal. Dinner energy intake was also assessed using an ad libitum buffet-style meal. Appetite
140 sensations were assessed at regular intervals through the day. Outside the experimental conditions and
141 between the two ad libitum test meals, the adolescents stayed in the laboratory, devoid of any food cues,
142 and were requested not to engage in any moderate-to-vigorous physical activity and mainly completed
143 sedentary activities such as reading, homework or board games.

144 **2.3. Anthropometric characteristics and body composition**

145 Body Mass and height were measured wearing light clothing while bare-footed, using a digital scale and
146 a standard wall-mounted stadiometer, respectively. Body mass index (BMI) was calculated as body mass
147 (kg) divided by height squared (m^2). Afterwards, BMI was calculated in the sex and age dependent
148 French reference curves to obtain the BMI percentile (WHO Multicentre Growth Reference Study
149 Group, 2006). Fat mass (FM) and fat-free mass (FFM) were assessed by dual-energy X-ray

150 absorptiometry (DXA) following standardized procedures (QDR4500A scanner, Hologic, Waltham,
151 MA, USA). These measurements were obtained during the preliminary visit by a trained technician.

152 **2.4. Peak oxygen uptake test ($\dot{V}O_{2peak}$) and Resting Metabolic Rate**

153 First the resting metabolic rate of each subject was measured while they were lying down for 20 minutes,
154 using indirect calorimetry (K4b2 COSMED, Neuve-Church, Italy). Then , each subject performed a
155 $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ test on a traditional concentric ergometer (Rowland, 1993) . The initial power was set at 30W
156 during 3 minutes, followed by a 15W increment every minute until exhaustion. The adolescents were
157 strongly encouraged by the experimenters throughout the test to perform their maximal effort. Maximal
158 criteria were: heart rate >90% of the theoretical maximum heart rate ($210 - 0.65 \times \text{age}$), respiratory
159 exchange ratio ($RER = \dot{V}CO_2/\dot{V}O_2$) > 1.1 and/or $\dot{V}O_2$ plateau. Cardiac electrical activity (Ultima
160 SeriesTM, Saint Paul, MN) and heart rate (Polar V800) were monitored and the test was coupled with a
161 measurement of breath-by-breath gas exchanges (BreezeSuite Software, Saint Paul, MN), that
162 determined $\dot{V}O_2$ and $\dot{V}CO_2$. Volumes and gases were calibrated before each test. The $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ was
163 defined as the average of the last 30 s of exercise before exhaustion.

164 **2.5. Experimental conditions**

165 Rest condition (CON): During this condition, the adolescents were asked to remain quiet and were not
166 allowed to engage in any physical activity. They were asked to stay seated on a comfortable chair (30
167 minutes) between 10:00am and 10:30am, not being allowed to talk, read, watch TV or to complete any
168 intellectual tasks. The 30-minute rest energy expenditure was calculated based on the results obtained
169 assessment of the adolescents' resting metabolic rate.

170 Exercise condition 180 minutes before lunch (EX-180): Between 09:00am and 09:30 am, the participants
171 performed a moderate intensity exercise bout ($65\% \dot{V}O_{2peak}$) on an ergo-cycle, for a total duration of 30
172 minutes. The intensity was controlled by heart rate records (Polar V800) using the results from the
173 maximal aerobic capacity testing. Exercise-induced energy expenditure was calculated based on the
174 results obtained during the maximal oxygen uptake evaluation.

175 Exercise condition 60 minutes before lunch (EX-60): The adolescents performed the same exercise bout
176 as on EX-180, but 60 minutes before the ad libitum lunch meal (between 11:00am and 11:30 am).

177 **2.6. Energy intake**

178 At 08:00am, the adolescents consumed a standardized calibrated breakfast (500kcal) respecting the
179 recommendations for their age (composition: bread (50 gr), butter (10 gr), marmalade (15g), yoghurt
180 (125 gr) or semi-skimmed milk (20 cl), fruit or fruit juice (20 cl)). Lunch and dinner meals were served
181 ad libitum using a buffet-type meal. The content of the buffets was determined using a food preference
182 and habits questionnaire filled in by the adolescents during the inclusion visit (as previously described
183 (Thivel et al., 2016a). Top rated items as well as disliked ones and items liked but not usually consumed
184 were excluded to avoid over-, under- and occasional consumption. Lunch menu was beef steak, pasta,
185 mustard, cheese, yogurt, compote, fruits and bread. Dinner menu was ham/turkey, beans, mashed potato,
186 cheese, yogurt, compote, fruits and bread. Adolescents were told to eat until sensations comfortably
187 satiated (“You can eat until feeling comfortably fed”). Food items were presented in abundance.
188 Adolescents made their choices and composed their trays individually before joining their habitual table
189 (5 adolescents per table). They had lunch in a quiet environment without being disturbed by music, cell-
190 phones or television. The experimenters weighed the food items before and after each meal. Energy
191 intake in kcal and macronutrient composition (proportion of fat, carbohydrate and protein) were
192 calculated using the software Bilnut 4.0. This methodology has been previously validated and published
193 (Thivel et al., 2016a). Lunch and total relative energy intake (REI) were calculated such as: energy
194 intake – exercise-induced energy expenditure.

195 **2.7. Subjective appetite sensations**

196 Appetite sensations were collected throughout the day using visual analogue scales (150 millimeters
197 scales) (Flint et al., 2000). Adolescents had to report their hunger, fullness, desire to eat and prospective
198 food consumption at regular intervals (before and immediately after breakfast, prior and after rest (CON)
199 or exercise (EX-180 and EX-60), before and immediately after lunch, 30 minutes and 60 minutes after
200 lunch, before and immediately after dinner). The questions were: i) “How hungry do you feel?” (hunger),

201 ii) “How full do you feel?” (fullness), iii) “How strong is your desire to eat?” (desire to eat; DTE), iv)
202 “How much do you think you can eat?”(prospective food consumption’ PFC).

203 The satiety quotients (SQ) for hunger, fullness, PFC and DTE have been calculated as follows (Drapeau
204 et al., 2007) :

205 Satiety quotient mm/kcal = [(pre meal AS mm) – (mean post meal and 60 minutes post meal AS mm)) /
206 energy content of the meal (kcal)] * 100.

207 **2.8. Food liking and wanting**

208 The Leeds Food Preference Questionnaire (described in greater methodological detail by Dalton and
209 Finlayson (Dalton and Finlayson, 2014) provided measures of food preference and food reward.
210 Participants were presented with an array of pictures of individual food items common in the diet. Foods
211 in the array were chosen by the local research team from a validated database to be either predominantly
212 high (>50% energy) or low (<20% energy) in fat but similar in familiarity, protein content, palatability
213 and suitable for the study population. The LFPQ has been deployed in a range of research (Dalton and
214 Finlayson, 2014) including a recent exercise/appetite trial in young French males (Thivel et al., 2018).

215 Explicit liking and explicit wanting were measured by participants rating the extent to which they like
216 each food (“How pleasant would it be to taste this food now?”) and want each food (“How much do you
217 want to eat this food now?”). The food images were presented individually, in a randomized order and
218 participants make their ratings using a 100-mm VAS. Implicit wanting and relative food preference were
219 assessed using a forced choice methodology in which the food images were paired so that every image
220 from each of the four food types was compared to every other type over 96 trials (food pairs).
221 Participants were instructed to respond as quickly and accurately as they could to indicate the food they
222 want to eat the most at that time (“Which food do you most want to eat now?”). To measure implicit
223 wanting, reaction times for all responses were covertly recorded and used to compute mean response
224 times for each food type after adjusting for frequency of selection. To measure food choice as a marker
225 of food preference, the mean frequency of selection for each food type was recorded.

226 Responses on the LFPQ were used to compute mean scores for high-fat, low-fat, sweet or savoury food
227 types (and different fat-taste combinations). Fat bias scores were calculated as the difference between
228 the high-fat scores and the low-fat scores, with positive values indicating greater liking, wanting or
229 choice for high-fat relative to low-fat foods and negative values indicating greater liking, wanting or
230 choice for low-fat relative to high-fat foods. Sweet bias scores were calculated as the difference between
231 the sweet and savoury scores, with positive values indicating greater liking or wanting for sweet relative
232 to savoury foods and negative values indicating greater liking or wanting for savoury relative to sweet
233 foods.

234 **2.9. Statistical analysis**

235 Statistical analyses were performed using Stata software, Version 13 (StataCorp, College Station, TX,
236 US). The sample size estimation was determined according to (i) CONSORT 2010 statement, extension
237 to randomised pilot and feasibility trials (Eldridge et al. CONSORT 2010 statement: extension to
238 randomised pilot and feasibility trials. *Pilot and Feasibility Studies* (2016) 2:64) and (ii) Cohen's
239 recommendations (Cohen, 1988) who has defined effect-size bounds as : small (ES: 0.2), medium (ES:
240 0.5) and large (ES: 0.8, “grossly perceptible and therefore large”). So, with 15 patients by condition,
241 an effect-size around 1 can be highlighted for a two-sided type I error at 1.7% (correction due to multiple
242 comparisons), a statistical power greater than 80% and an intra-class correlation coefficient at 0.5 to
243 take into account between and within participant variability. All tests were two-sided, with a Type I
244 error set at 0.05. Continuous data was expressed as mean \pm standard deviation (SD) or median
245 [interquartile range] according to statistical distribution. The assumption of normality was assessed by
246 using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Daily (total) and 60 minutes post meal Area Under the Curves (AUC) have
247 been calculated using the trapezoidal methods. Random-effects models for repeated data were
248 performed to compare three conditions (i) considering the following fixed effects: time, condition and
249 time x condition interaction, and (ii) taking into account between and within participant variability
250 (subject as random-effect). A Sidak's type I error correction was applied to perform multiple
251 comparisons. As proposed by some statisticians (Feise, 2002; Rothman and Greenland, 1998) a
252 particular focus will be also given to the magnitude of differences, in addition to inferential statistical

253 tests expressed using p-values. The normality of residuals from these models was studied using the
254 Shapiro-Wilk test. When appropriate, a logarithmic transformation was proposed to achieve the
255 normality of dependent outcome.

256 3. Results

257 Fifteen adolescents with obesity participated in this study. Their mean age was 13.1 ± 1.4 years, body
258 weight was 98.0 ± 25.8 kg, with a BMI of 34.7 ± 6.0 (z-BMI 2.3 ± 0.3), a percentage body fat mass of
259 36.5 ± 4.4 % and a FFM of 54.6 ± 14.7 kg.

260 The adolescents had a $\dot{V}O_{2peak}$ of 21.6 ± 5.7 ml/min/kg. Energy expenditure induced by the exercise
261 (total duration 30 min) was significantly higher compared to the 30-min resting energy expenditure (186
262 ± 52 kcal and 57 ± 4 kcal, respectively; $p < 0.001$).

263 Table 1 details the results related to absolute and relative energy intake. Lunch, dinner and total daily
264 absolute ad libitum energy intake were not significantly different between conditions. Lunch REI was
265 significantly higher in CON compared with EX-60 ($p < 0.001$). Total REI was not different between
266 conditions.

267

268Table 1.....

269

270 As shown in Table 2, while the dinner and total absolute (in g) ingestion of protein did not differ
271 significantly between conditions, the ANOVA showed a tendency at lunch ($p=0.07$) with a lower
272 ingestion on EX-60 compared with EX-180 ($p=0.027$). The relative energy ingested from proteins at
273 lunch was not different between conditions with however a lower relative intake of proteins at dinner
274 on CON compared with EX-60 ($p=0.02$). There was a tendency for the percentage of energy ingested
275 from proteins to be different between conditions ($p=0.06$) with CON lower than EX-180 ($p=0.04$) and
276 EX-60 ($p=0.04$). The absolute consumption of fat was significantly lower on EX-60 compared with both
277 CON ($p=0.01$) and EX-180 ($p=0.02$) at lunch. Dinner and total fat intake was not different between

278 conditions. While there was no difference between the three experimental sessions for dinner and total
279 relative intake of fat, it was significantly lower on EX-60 compared with CON ($p=0.02$) and EX-180
280 ($p=0.05$) at lunch. The absolute and relative intake of carbohydrates (CHO in g and %) did not differ
281 significantly between conditions.

282

283**Table 2**.....

284

285 Table 3 details the results related to appetite sensations. Fasting hunger, 60-minute post-meal AUC and
286 total daily hunger AUC were not different between conditions. However, there was a tendency for pre-
287 lunch hunger to be different between conditions ($p=0.08$) with CON lower than EX-180 ($p=0.02$).
288 Similarly there was a tendency for SQ hunger to differ between conditions ($p=0.06$) with CON lower
289 than EX-180 ($p=0.03$) and EX-60 ($p=0.04$). None of the fullness variables were significantly different
290 between conditions. Fasting, 60-min post-meal AUC and total daily AUC for PFC were not different
291 between conditions. Pre-lunch PFC was significantly lower in CON compared with both EX-180
292 ($p=0.003$) and EX-60 ($p=0.01$). SQ for PFC was significantly lower in CON compared with both EX-
293 180 ($p=0.006$) and EX-60 ($p=0.003$). Fasting and 60-min post-meal AUC for DTE were not different
294 between conditions. Pre-lunch DTE was significantly lower in CON compared with EX-180 ($p=0.001$)
295 and EX-60 ($p=0.004$). SQ for DTE was significantly lower in CON compared with EX-180 ($p=0.01$)
296 and EX-60 ($p=0.001$). Total daily AUC for DTE was significantly lower in CON compared with EX-
297 180 ($p=0.003$) and EX-60 ($p=0.008$).

298**Figure 1**.....

299**Table 3**.....

300

301 As detailed in Table 4, there were no main effects of condition or time (pre- to post-meal) on preference
302 (choice, liking or wanting) for high fat relative to low fat or sweet relative to savoury foods. We found

303 a significant time x condition interaction between CON and EX-180 for Implicit ($p=0.01$) and Explicit
304 Wanting ($p=0.05$) Taste bias. Post hoc analyses revealed a decrease in liking for high fat food in
305 response to the test meal in EX-180 while there was an increase in EX-60. A significant condition effect
306 was found for explicit liking for high fat food before the test meal ($p=0.03$) with liking for high-fat foods
307 in EX-60 being significantly lower than EX-180 ($p=0.001$). A significant condition effect was also
308 observed for explicit liking for sweet food post-meal ($p=0.005$), with CON having significantly lower
309 liking for sweet compared to EX-180 ($p=0.002$). Explicit liking for sweet was also significantly reduced
310 after the ad libitum test meal in CON ($p=0.001$).

311

312**Table 4**.....

313

314 **4. Discussion**

315 Based on the increasing prevalence of pediatric obesity, there is a growing interest and need for the
316 development of effective weight management strategies and interventions. This requires a clear
317 understanding of the regulation of energy balance and control over appetite in adolescents with obesity.
318 The current literature provides growing evidence regarding the effect of the intensity (Prado et al., 2015;
319 Thivel et al., 2011, 2012, 2014), duration (Hintze et al., 2019; Masurier et al., 2018; Schippers et al.,
320 2017; Tamam et al., 2012) and modality (Julian et al., 2019; Thivel et al., 2016b) of exercise as important
321 considerations in weight loss interventions. Although recently proposed as an essential component to
322 consider to improve interventions, the timing of exercise in relation to meals remains poorly explored
323 (Reid et al., 2019). In that context, the present work questioned the effect of the delay between exercise
324 and the following meal on energy intake, appetite sensations and food reward in adolescents with
325 obesity.

326 Although our results did not show any significant difference in absolute energy intake between
327 conditions (CON vs. exercise set 60 or 180 minutes before lunch), a mean reduction of approximately
328 170 kcal was observed when the exercise was performed closer to lunch (EX-60), which might be of

329 clinical interest. Indeed, lunch and total food consumption were reduced by 14.4% and 9.2% respectively
330 in EX-60 compared with the CON, which could be of importance for weight loss. This reduction of 170
331 kcal of the adolescents' energy intake, combined with the 186 kcal of energy expended on average
332 during the exercise, can propose a reduction of their daily energy balance of about 350 kcal, which can
333 definitely favor weight loss if repeated over time (the chronic effect remaining to be further studied).
334 Our results are in line with previously published studies showing reduced energy intake 30 minutes after
335 an acute exercise bout (Miguet et al., 2018; Prado et al., 2014; Thivel et al., 2012, 2014) while early-
336 morning and mid-morning exercise bouts were not found to impact subsequent food intake in
337 adolescents with obesity (Fearnbach et al., 2016; Tamam et al., 2012; Thivel et al., 2019b). The moderate
338 intensity of our exercise (65% VO_{2peak}) that has been selected based on the adolescents low fitness and
339 physical activity level, might explain why the observed decrease in EI did not reach statistical
340 significance since the anorexigenic effect of acute exercise has been mainly described after intensive
341 exercise (Prado et al., 2014; Thivel et al., 2012, 2016b). However, our results reinforced that moderate-
342 to-high intensity exercise could also have a beneficial, also suppressive, effect on subsequent food
343 consumption in adolescents with obesity, as previously proposed by Fearnbach et al. (Fearnbach et al.,
344 2016, 2017). Importantly, lunch REI was significantly lower in the EX-60 compared with CON,
345 underlying the importance of the observed decrease in energy intake that allows a negative energy
346 balance when combined with the energy expenditure induced by exercise, contrary to what is observed
347 in response to EX-180. We found only one study that examined the effect of the timing of exercise on
348 subsequent nutritional responses in lean adolescents (Albert et al., 2015). In their work, adolescents
349 cycled for 30 minutes either 135 minutes or immediately before a lunch test meal. Their results
350 corroborate the present study showing lower food intake at lunch when exercise is performed
351 immediately before the test meal compared with after a delay (Albert et al., 2015). Similarly, they did
352 not observe any compensation at the dinner test meal, which is also in line with our results.

353 While most of the studies conducted in the field have used specific buffet meals composed of single
354 items (such as pizzas or yogurts for instance), the present work used a balanced buffet meal offering
355 several items selected to avoid any over-, under- or occasional-consumption (as previously validated,

356 (Thivel et al., 2016a). This provides the opportunity to also assess the repartition of the macronutrient
357 intake. According to our results, the relative and absolute consumption of lipids was significantly
358 reduced at lunch during the EX-60 condition compared with both CON and EX-180. This is similar to
359 the 23% and 12% reductions observed by Albert et al. for the absolute and relative ingestion of lipids,
360 respectively, when the exercise is performed immediately before the meal compared to 135 minutes
361 before (Albert et al., 2015). Also in accordance with Albert et al., the consumption of carbohydrates
362 (relative and absolute) was not different between conditions. Although the consumption of proteins
363 remained unchanged in normal-weight adolescents regardless of the timing between exercise and the
364 test meal (Albert et al., 2015), in the current study, absolute intake decreased at lunch in EX-60
365 compared to EX-180 in adolescents with obesity. Moreover, the daily (total) relative energy ingested
366 through proteins appeared reduced after exercise independently from its timing (EX-60 or EX-180)
367 compared to control. This lower protein consumption is in line with previous studies investigating the
368 effect of an acute exercise bout performed 30 minutes before an ad libitum lunch meal in similar
369 populations (Miguet et al., 2018; Prado et al., 2014). Despite an increasing number of studies assessing
370 the nutritional responses to acute exercise in children and adolescents, as only a few have used buffet
371 meals to allow for the differentiation of macronutrient consumption, this makes it difficult to draw any
372 firm conclusions.

373 Regarding appetite sensations, despite PFC and DTE being higher immediately before lunch in both
374 exercise conditions (EX-180 and EX-60), hunger sensations were increased in EX-180 only.
375 Interestingly, this higher hunger sensation after EX-180 was not accompanied by increased energy
376 intake and similarly, the higher PFC and DTE observed after EX-60 appear contradictory with the
377 reduction in food intake. Such results strengthen once more the conclusions of previous studies
378 suggesting an uncoupling effect of exercise on subsequent subjective appetite and effective energy
379 intake in children and adolescents (for review see (Thivel and Chaput, 2014)).

380 In addition to an effect on appetite sensations, some recent studies also examined the effect of exercise
381 on the satiating effect of food by calculating SQ. This indicator of the satiating effect of food integrates
382 in its calculation both the caloric quantity of food ingested during a meal and the associated change in

383 appetite (Green et al., 1997). In adolescents with obesity, SQ has been found to be unchanged in response
384 to acute exercise (with or without post-exercise energy replacement strategy) (Thivel et al., 2019b).
385 Interestingly, in their study also investigating the effect of exercise timing, Albert and colleagues also
386 did not find any changes in SQ at their lunch meal, regardless of the delay from exercise (30 vs. 135
387 minutes) in lean adolescents (Albert et al., 2015). Contradictory, we found significant differences in SQ
388 for hunger, PFC and DTE between both exercise sessions versus CON. This difference in SQ might
389 suggest that, regardless of the timing, exercise could have an effect on the satiating effect of food in this
390 population. While it has been shown that SQ can be a predictor of subsequent energy intake (Drapeau
391 et al., 2007), we did not find any energy intake differences at dinner. The SQ results in the current study
392 should be interpreted with caution as they were calculated at an ad libitum meal and their validity and
393 reproducibility remain to be clarified, especially in adolescents with obesity.

394 Interestingly, the present study also examined the potential effect of exercise and its timing on food
395 reward. Using the Leeds Food Preference Questionnaire (LFPQ), our results mainly show a significantly
396 lower pre-meal explicit liking for high-fat relative to low-fat foods in EX-60 compared to EX-180 that
397 seems to be in line with the observed reduced energy intake in EX-60 and not EX-180. Moreover, we
398 observed a significant time (pre-post meal) x condition interaction for explicit liking for high-fat foods.
399 There was a decrease in liking in response to the test meal in EX-180 while there was an increase in EX-
400 60 leading to similar post-meal values, which might contribute to the observed similar energy intake at
401 dinner between conditions. These results are in line with recent studies showing reduced explicit liking
402 for high-fat foods only in response to acute exercise in adolescents with obesity (Thivel et al., 2019b).
403 The present results are however contradictory with those from Miguet and colleagues who observed
404 reduced relative preference for fat and sweet taste, and implicit wanting for high-fat foods (also using
405 the LFPQ) in response to an ad libitum meal set 30 minutes after a 16-minute cycling high intensity
406 interval exercise in a similar population (Miguet et al., 2018). Although these studies seem to indicate a
407 potential effect of acute exercise on food reward in adolescents with obesity, evidence remains limited
408 in this population and further investigations are required.

409 The present work is the first, to our knowledge, to examine the nutritional response to exercise by
410 varying the delay between exercise and the subsequent meal in adolescents with obesity. The well-
411 controlled nature of the present design and the use of an objective measurement of energy intake are the
412 two main strengths of the present study. However, the results must be interpreted in light of some
413 limitations. Mainly, these include the lack of a direct measurement of energy expenditure during
414 exercise, using indirect calorimetry, as well as the lack of a lean control group to examine a potential
415 weight status effect. Similarly, the IPAQ questionnaire has been used to assess the adolescents' initial
416 physical activity level while its validity remains uncertain in this population. Importantly, the fact that
417 some sample excluded adolescents presenting a high level of cognitive restriction must also be underlined.
418 Indeed, further studies should compare the appetite and energy intake responses to acute exercise
419 between children and adolescents with low or high level of cognitive restriction that might affect their
420 responses, as recently suggested (Miguet et al., 2019a, 2019b). It would have been also interesting to
421 extend the evaluation of energy intake over the following 24 to 48 hours (Thivel et al., 2012), which
422 was not possible for practical reasons. The laboratory-based nature of this study might also have affected
423 our results compared to free-living conditions, such as the school setting, as previously suggested by
424 Mathieu and collaborators in healthy lean adolescents (Mathieu et al., 2018).

425 **5. Conclusion**

426 To conclude, the present study highlights the importance of the exercise-meal timing to optimize its
427 effect on energy balance, showing a reduced energy balance (because of a sufficient, while not
428 significant, decrease in absolute energy intake and significantly reduced REI) when exercise is
429 performed close to a meal (compared with a longer delay). While food reward seems to be implicated,
430 further studies are needed in this field, comparing for instance different timings, the potential synergic
431 effect of the exercise-timing and intensity or considering this meal-exercise delay with the breakfast or
432 dinner; in order to improve future exercise prescriptions and implement efficient weight loss strategies.

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436

437 **Conflicts of interest**

438 None

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- 560

561 **Table 1:** Absolute and Relative Energy Intake in response the three conditions.

	CON	EX-180	EX-60	P	ES		
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)		CON vs. EX-180	CON vs. EX-60	EX-180 vs. EX-60
Energy Intake (kcal)							
Lunch	1204 (288)	1146 (288)	1031 (308)	0.13	-0.14[-0.65-0.36]	-0.54[-1.05- -0.04]	-0.41[-0.91-0.10]
Dinner	801 (183)	802 (259)	790 (210)	0.89	0.06[-0.45-0.56]	-0.02[-0.53-0.48]	-0.08[-0.58-0.43]
Total	2004 (430)	1948 (416)	1820 (459)	0.32	-0.07[-0.57-0.44]	-0.36[-0.87-0.14]	-0.30[-0.81-0.20]
Relative Energy Intake (kcal)							
Lunch	1146 (285)	976 (211)	855 (315)**	0.01	-0.51[-1.02-0.00]	-0.91[-1.41- -0.40]	-0.41[-0.91-0.10]
Total	1947 (428)	1779 (382)	1644 (446)	0.12	-0.31[-0.82-0.19]	-0.61[-1.12- -0.11]	-0.31[-0.81-0.20]

562

563 ****p<0.001 EX-60 versus CON ; CON: control condition; EX-60: Exercise 60 minutes before test meal; EX-180:**

564 **Exercise 180 minutes before test meal; SD: Standard Deviation**

565

566 **Table 2:** Macronutrient Intake in response the three conditions.

	CON	EX-180	EX-60	p	ES		
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)		CON vs. EX-180	CON vs. EX-60	EX-180 vs. EX-60
Proteins (g)							
Lunch	68 (18)	70 (19)	59 (19) ^a	0.07	0.10[-0.40-0.61]	-0.53[-1.03- -0.02]	0.64[-1.14- -0.13]
Dinner	43 (14)	48 (20)	47 (12)	0.19	0.45[-0.06-0.96]	0.36[-0.14-0.87]	-0.08[-0.59-0.42]
Total	111 (30)	117 (30)	105 (24)	0.15	0.38[-0.13-0.89]	-0.16[-0.67-0.34]	-0.55[-1.05- -0.04]
Proteins (%)							
Lunch	22.6 (1.5)	24.1 (3.5)	22.7 (2.9)	0.35	0.42[-0.09-0.92]	-0.01[-0.52-0.49]	-0.43[-0.94-0.08]
Dinner	21.2 (5.0)	23.8 (6.1)	24.6 (7.1) [*]	0.04	0.44[0.07-0.94]	0.54[0.03-1.04]	0.11[-0.40-0.61]
Total	22.0 (2.5)	24.1 (3.7)	23.5 (3.7) [*]	0.06	0.52[0.02-1.03]	0.37[0.14-0.88]	0.15[-0.66-0.35]
Lipids (g)							
Lunch	42 (16)	39 (13)	29 (11) ^{**a}	0.02	-0.13[-0.64-0.37]	-0.81[-1.31- -0.30]	-0.68[-1.19- -0.18]
Dinner	28 (13)	21 (12)	27 (18)	0.40	-0.40[-0.91-0.11]	-0.06[-0.57-0.44]	0.34[-0.17-0.84]
Total	70 (23)	60 (22)	56 (25)	0.30	-0.34[-0.84-0.17]	-0.51[-1.02- -0.01]	-0.18[-0.69-0.32]
Lipids (%)							
Lunch	30.6 (5.9)	30.1 (7.3)	24.6 (4.2) ^{*b}	0.05	-0.07[-0.57-0.44]	-0.77[-1.28- -0.26]	-0.71[-1.21- -0.20]
Dinner	30.8 (8.4)	22.4 (9.8)	29.2 (15.4)	0.21	-0.55[-1.06- -0.04]	-0.10[-0.61-0.40]	0.45[-0.06- 0.95]
Total	30.8 (4.8)	27.1 (7.0)	26.7 (8.1)	0.27	-0.43[-0.93-0.08]	-0.48[-0.99-0.02]	-0.06[-0.57-0.45]
CHO (g)							
Lunch	136 (30)	127 (26)	131 (43)	0.76	-0.19[-0.69-0.32]	-0.12[-0.63-0.38]	0.06[-0.44-0.57]
Dinner	94 (18)	106 (33)	90 (38)	0.13	0.37[-0.14-0.87]	-0.14[-0.64-0.37]	-0.51[-1.01-0.00]
Total	230 (38)	234 (49)	221 (65)	0.31	0.07[-0.43-0.58]	-0.15[-0.66-0.36]	-0.22[-0.73-0.28]
CHO (%)							
Lunch	45.8 (6.6)	45.3 (9.4)	50.5 (9.7)	0.35	-0.06[-0.57-0.44]	0.45[-0.05-0.96]	0.52[0.01-1.03]
Dinner	48.5 (9.7)	54.3 (11.5)	46.6 (16.2)	0.10	0.40[0.11-0.91]	-0.24[-0.75-0.26]	-0.65[-1.15- -0.14]
Total	46.9 (6.4)	48.7 (8.9)	49.0 (10.5)	0.78	0.16[-0.34-0.67]	-0.21 [-0.30-0.71]	0.05[-0.46-0.55]

567 EX-60: Exercise 60 minutes before test meal; EX-180: Exercise 180 minutes before test meal; SD: Standard Deviations;

568 *p<0.05 versus CON ; **p<0.01 versus CON ; ***p<0.001 versus CON ; ^ap<0.05 EX-60 vs EX-180 ; ^bp<0.01 EX-60 vs

569 EX-180 ; ^cp<0.001 EX-60 vs EX-180

570 **Table 3:** Appetite sensation and satiety quotient results.

	CON	EX-180	EX-60	P	ES		
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)		CON vs. EX-180	CON vs. EX-60	EX-180 vs. EX-60
Hunger							
SQ (mm/kcal)	6.5 (3.4)	8.5 (4.3)*	8.0 (5.0)*	0.06	0.74[0.23-1.25]	0.73[0.22-1.23]	0.03[-0.48-0.54]
AUC 60min post lunch (mm ²)	336 (292)	185 (177)	208 (349)	0.12	-0.61[-1.12- -0.10]	-0.04[-0.86-0.15]	0.23[-0.27-0.74]
Total AUC (mm ²)	29279 (12259)	28637 (14108)	27559 (15246)	0.52	0.08[-0.42-0.59]	0.24[-0.27-0.74]	0.17[-0.34-0.67]
Fullness							
SQ (mm/kcal)	-6.5 (4.3)	-7.4 (4.7)	-6.6 (3.8)	0.35	-0.14[-0.65-0.36]	-0.02[-0.53-0.48]	0.12[-0.39-0.62]
AUC 60min post lunch (mm ²)	6661 (2820)	6280 (2820)	5265 (3207)	0.24	-0.11[-0.62-0.39]	-0.36[-0.87-0.14]	-0.25[-0.76-0.25]
Total AUC (mm ²)	50993 (26460)	43929 (26341)	39070 (22711)	0.15	-0.37[-0.88-0.13]	-0.53[-1.04- -0.03]	-0.18[-0.69-0.32]
PFC							
SQ (mm/kcal)	4.2 (2.9)	7.6 (3.3)**	7.8 (3.3)**	0.006	0.86[0.35-1.37]	0.94[0.43-1.44]	0.10[-0.40-0.61]
AUC 60min post lunch (mm ²)	645 (848)	458 (524)	711 (1162)	0.35	-0.18[-0.68-0.33]	0.10[-0.40-0.61]	0.27[-0.23-0.78]
Total AUC (mm ²)	25864 (15508)	32451 (16219)	32169 (16941)	0.10	0.56[0.06-1.07]	0.69[0.19-1.20]	0.16[-0.35-0.67]
DTE							
SQ (mm/kcal)	5.1 (2.9)	7.8 (3.5)*	8.8 (3.7)**	0.004	0.81[0.31-1.32]	1.11[0.60-1.62]	0.34[-0.16-0.85]
AUC 60min post lunch (mm ²)	391 (407)	445 (450)	553 (713)	0.45	0.09[-0.41-0.60]	0.28[-0.23-0.78]	0.19[-0.32-0.70]
Total AUC (mm ²)	25490 (13109)	33632 (16315)**	31381 (17162)**	0.0063	0.86[0.35-1.36]	0.83[0.33-1.34]	0.02[-0.48-0.53]

571 **CON : rest condition ; EX-60: Exercise 60 minutes before test meal; EX-180: Exercise 180 minutes before test meal; SD: Standard Deviations; SQ : Satiety Quotient ; AUC : Area**
572 **Under the Curve ; PFC : Prospective Food Consumption ; DTE : Desire To Eat ; *p<0.05 versus CON ; **p<0.01 versus CON ; ***p<0.001 versus CON ; ^ap<0.05 EX-60 vs EX-180 ;**
573 **^bp<0.01 EX-60 vs EX-180 ; ^cp<0.001 EX-60 vs EX-180**

574 **Table 4:** Pre- and Post-test meal food reward on the three experimental conditions

	CON	EX-180	EX-60	p	Interaction time x condition		
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)		CON vs. EX-180	CON vs. EX-60	EX-180 vs. EX-60
Choice							
Fat Bias							
Before meal	4.0 (7.1)	4.4 (10.4)	1.6 (9.0)	0.38			
After meal	3.0 (8.1)	4.2 (10.2)	1.4 (6.5)	0.36	0.91	0.80	0.77
p before vs. after meal	0.64	0.83	0.92		0.03[-0.48-0.54]	0.06[-0.44- 0.57]	0.07[-0.43-0.58]
Taste Bias							
Before meal	0.6 (11.6)	1.8 (12.1)	2.3 (16.2)	0.96			
After meal	-0.2 (11.3)	0.2 (13.4)	0.4 (12.5)	0.88	0.94	0.73	0.95
p before vs. after meal	0.49	0.37	0.47		-0.02[-0.53-0.48]	-0.09[-0.59-0.42]	0.01[-0.49-0.52]
Implicit Wanting							
Fat Bias							
Before meal	8.3 (20.8)	17.0 (30.2)	-1.2 (32.8)	0.19			
After meal	6.7 (44.5)	1.7 (30.8)	3.7 (17.5)	0.93	0.44	0.74	0.09
p before vs. after meal	0.89	0.03	0.90		-0.20[-0.70-0.31]	0.09[-0.42-0.59]	-0.43[-0.94-0.07]
Taste Bias							
Before meal	-2.9 (26.7)	8.4 (32.5)	-0.9 (42.7)	0.40			
After meal	12.0 (34.6)	-4.7 (27.2)	-0.8 (39.1)	0.23	0.01	0.27	0.40
p before vs. after meal	0.01	0.13	0.99		-0.62[-1.13- -0.11]	-0.28[-0.79-0.22]	-0.22[-0.72-0.29]
Explicit Wanting							
Fat Bias							
Before meal	18.2 (16.2)	13.7 (11.2)	14.1 (10.7)	0.46			
After meal	13.5 (9.6)	12.4 (8.7)	8.1 (9.9)	0.41	0.53	0.86	0.42
p before vs. after meal	0.06	0.77	0.07		0.16[-0.35-0.67]	0.04[-0.46-0.55]	0.21[-0.30-0.71]
Taste Bias							
Before meal	22.8 (23.3)	16.5 (8.4)	22.5 (23.0)	0.40			
After meal	7.6 (8.3)	16.5 (21.7)	7.7 (6.2)	0.16	0.05	0.09	0.98
p before vs. after meal	0.01	0.13	0.99		0.51[00.0-1.01]	0.44[-0.07-0.94]	0.01[-0.50-0.51]
Explicit Liking							
Fat Bias							
Before meal	11.7 (13.2)	15.3 (12.3)	8.4 (6.9) ^c	0.03			
After meal	9.5 (7.5)	11.0 (10.7)	15.8 (15.4)	0.41	0.62	0.09	0.01
p before vs. after meal	0.62	0.30	0.02		-0.13[-0.63-0.38]	0.43[-0.08-0.94]	-0.63[-1.13- -0.12]
Taste Bias							
Before meal	17.4 (12.1)	13.8 (10.9)	19.2 (16.1)	0.47			
After meal	4.0 (3.9)	12.9 (20.5)**	10.4 (6.3)	0.005	0.52	0.25	0.07
p before vs. after meal	0.001	0.9	0.25		0.16[-0.34-0.67]	0.30[-0.21-0.80]	0.46[-0.05-0.96]

575

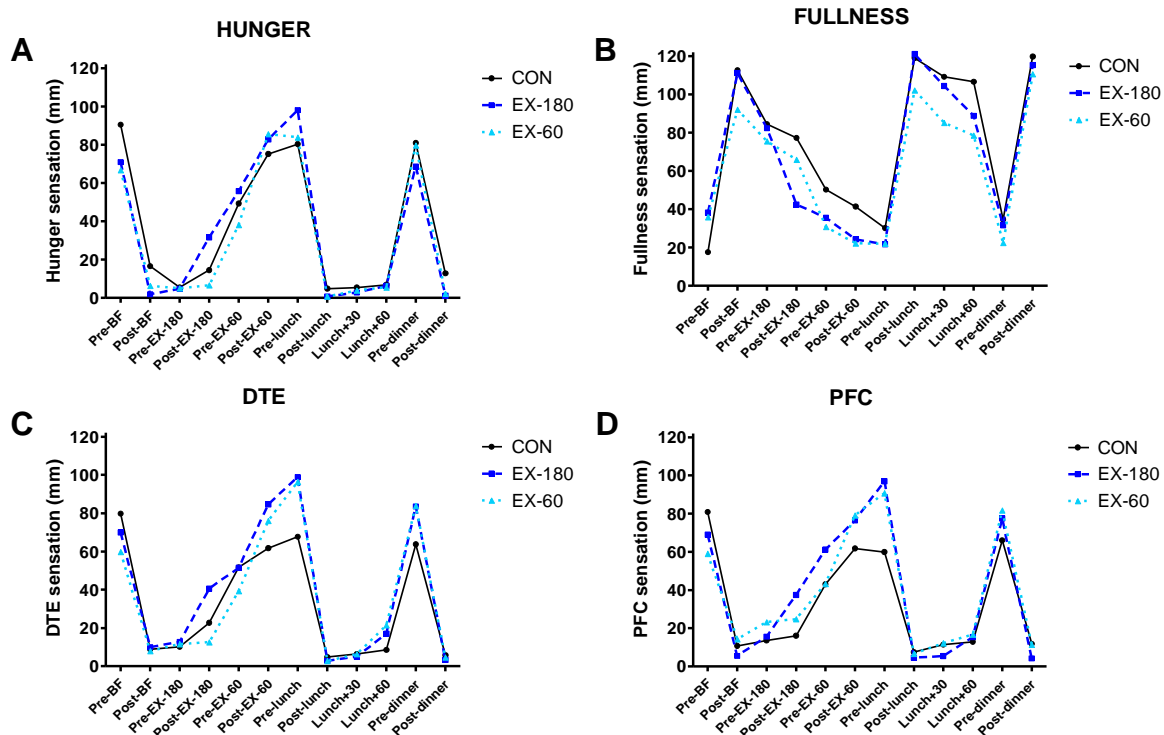
576 CON : rest condition ; EX-60: Exercise 60 minutes before test meal; EX-180: Exercise 180 minutes before test meal;

577 SD: Standard Deviations; *p<0.05 versus CON ; **p<0.01 versus CON ; ***p<0.001 versus CON ; ^ap<0.05 EX-60 vs

578 EX-180 ; ^bp<0.01 EX-60 vs EX-180 ; ^cp<0.001 EX-60 vs EX-180

579

580 **Figure 1:** Daily appetite sensations



581
 582 **Figure 1.** Daily Hunger (A); Fullness (B); DTE (C) and PFC (D) during the CON (black line), EX-180 (blue line) and
 583 EX-30 (light-blue line). DTE; Desire to Eat; PFC: Prospective Food Consumption; BF: Breakfast; CON: rest condition
 584 ; EX-60: Exercise 60 minutes before test meal; EX-180: Exercise 180 minutes before test meal; AUC EX-180 and AUC
 585 EX-60 > AUC CON for DTE ($p < 0.01$).