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Relations between daily events, coping strategies and health during a British Army ski expedition across Antarctica

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1	Relations between daily events, coping strategies and health during a British Army ski
2	expedition across Antarctica

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Abstract

5	Expedition teams operating in Polar environments are exposed to a range of environmental,
6	psychological and social challenges. How a person responds to these demands has
7	implications for their physical and psychological health. In the present study, we examined
8	relations between the daily events encountered, coping strategies used and markers of
9	physical and psychological health in a team of six British Army soldiers (one serving and five
10	reservists) completing a 68-day ski-traverse of the Antarctic continent. In general, daily
11	reports indicated a largely adaptive response to the expedition. There were fluctuations in the
12	events encountered, coping strategies used, and experiences of physical and psychological
13	health throughout the endeavor. Reported daily events and coping strategies explained
14	variability in the positive and negative fluctuations of physical and psychological health.
15	Findings from this study can inform health decision-making of groups operating in Polar
16	environments, and others living and working under similar constraints.
17	Keywords: daily events, coping strategies, health monitoring, Antarctic expedition,
18	military
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Relations between daily events, coping strategies and health during a British Army ski expedition across Antarctica

25 Expedition teams operating in Polar environments face a range of physical hazards, including severe temperatures, unrelenting terrain and unpredictable weather. There are also 26 psychosocial challenges. For instance, task demands can result in feelings of monotony and 27 boredom, sleep deprivation, fatigue and fear of injury. Proximity with others and separation 28 29 from friends and family can lead to feelings of interpersonal stress (Palinkas, 2003; Smith, Kinnafick, & Saunders, 2017). While some people succumb to these task and environmental 30 31 demands and experience poor physical and psychological health (Wood et al., 2005), others cope well and derive benefits from their expedition experience (Leon, Sandal, & Larsen, 32 2011; Palinkas & Suedfeld, 2008). Research on these different dynamics of stress, coping and 33 health in Polar settings can be used to understand and ensure the survival, performance and 34 optimal function of other expeditioners, as well as individuals and groups operating under 35 similarly challenging conditions (Smith & Barrett, 2018; Suedfeld, 2018). 36

Although researchers have previously examined the physical and psychological 37 function of Polar travelers (e.g., Anton-Solanas, O'Neill, Morris, & Dunbar, 2016; 38 Blackadder-Weinstein et al., 2019; Gifford et al., 2018; Leon, Sandal, Fink, & Ciofani, 2011), 39 few studies have explored the situational or day-to-day dynamics that may explain variability 40 in their experience. Studies conducted to date have rarely explored the interrelations between 41 the events encountered, the reaction to those events and the consequent impact upon physical 42 and psychological health (for exceptions, see Kahn & Leon, 1994 and Leon, Kanfer, 43 Hoffman, & Dupre, 1991). Knowledge of these relationships is crucial for monitoring 44 purposes, understanding when health might be at risk and for recommending strategies to 45 facilitate coping and optimize individual (and team) function. In the present study, we 46 address this gap in the literature by examining the relations between the daily events 47

48 encountered, coping strategies used and experiences of physical and psychological health in a
49 team of British Army soldiers completing an unassisted ski expedition across the Antarctic
50 continent.

The safe and successful completion of a Polar ski expedition is more likely when 51 individuals maintain a healthy physical and psychological state. This means staying 52 physically fit, by avoiding injuries and ensuring appropriate calorific intake, and regularly 53 54 experiencing positive mood and emotions (Palinkas & Suedfeld, 2008). Studies of Polar expedition teams suggest that in general individuals do tend to maintain good levels of 55 56 physical and psychological health (Atlis, Leon, Sandal, & Infante, 2004; Blackadder-Weinstein et al., 2019; Gifford et al., 2018; Leon, Sandal, Fink et a., 2011). Weekly ratings of 57 positive affect, for instance, tend to be scored higher than negative affect across time spent in 58 the field (see Leon, Sandal, & Larsen, 2011). Collectively, existing findings suggest a degree 59 of stability in Polar expeditioners' physical and psychological health. However, recent 60 evidence indicates that the stability observed in week-by-week or month-by-month 61 measurements may mask changes that occur at a more granular level (e.g., day-to-day; Smith, 62 2018). These changes may be affected by daily experiences such as getting injured, feeling 63 fatigued or lacking sleep (Anton-Solanas et al., 2016; Smith, Barrett, & Sandal, 2018). To 64 effectively support expeditioners, further research is needed to understand the situational 65 health changes they experience and the events that precede them. 66

In the past, diaries (e.g., Suedfeld, Shiozaki, Archdekin, Sandhu, & Wood, 2017) and weekly reports (e.g., Leon, Sandal, Fink et al., 2011) from Polar expeditioners have provided valuable data on expedition experiences. Expeditioners commonly highlight rewarding aspects of their journeys, including enjoying the Polar environment (Atlis et al., 2004), feeling a sense of camaraderie with team mates (Kjaergaard, Leon, & Fink, 2015), feeling able to cope (Leon, Sandal, Fink et al., 2011b) and taking satisfaction from making progress towards goals (Atlis et al., 2004). Such positive experiences are likely to stimulate more
positive emotions, foster team cohesion, engender a sense of control and build confidence,
thereby contributing to the safe and successful achievement of expedition goals (Suedfeld,
2001).

Despite expeditions often being marked by positive features, Polar expeditioners have 77 also referred to experiencing a range of harmful and threatening incidents during their travels. 78 79 This includes injuries and illnesses (Leon & Venables, 2015), poor weather conditions (Smith et al., 2017), equipment loss and malfunction (Suedfeld et al., 2017) and experiencing tension 80 81 with teammates (Blackadder-Weinstein et al., 2019). Such negative events have been associated with decrements in performance and health, including impaired decision-making 82 (Atlis et al., 2004), interpersonal conflict (Corneliussen, Leon, Kjærgaard, Fink, & Venables, 83 2017) and irritation and mood disruption (Leon, Sandal, Fink et al., 2011; Suedfeld et al., 84 2017). It is these events, and associated health impacts, that may signal acute periods of risk. 85 If not effectively dealt with, such events could lead to mistakes and the eventual abortion of 86 an expedition or mission, or more serious consequences such as injury or death (Leon & 87 Venables, 2015). 88

How a person adjusts and copes with the challenges posed by the Polar environment 89 90 has been linked to a range of individual difference factors, such as personality, habitual coping approaches and a person's current health status (Leon, 1991; Leon, Sandal, & Larsen, 91 2011; Sandal, Leon, & Palinkas, 2006; Sandal & Smith, 2017). In general, personality traits 92 93 linked to effective coping in Polar contexts include being higher than average on measures of conscientiousness, agreeableness and openness, and being emotionally stable (Kjaergaard et 94 al., 2015; Leon, Sandal, & Larsen, 2011; Palinkas & Suedfeld, 2008). Habitual coping 95 approaches, including active problem-solving and using comforting self-talk, are broadly 96 considered to be adaptive for coping with extreme stress (Leon, Sandal, & Larsen, 2011). 97

Good pre-departure emotional health, characterized by high levels of positive affect, is also
likely to be protective of health when entering extreme settings (Maguen et al., 2008;
Wagstaff & Leach, 2015). While it remains important to examine how individual differences
affect adjustment and adaptation to extremes, dynamic factors such as the strategies that
individuals use to cope during an expedition are likely to be an immediate determinant of
their physical and psychological health (Palinkas & Suedfeld, 2008; Smith et al., 2018).

Coping strategies can be conceived of as either problem-focused or emotion-focused 104 (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Problem-focused strategies aim to resolve a stressful encounter 105 106 directly, whereas emotion-focused strategies are mobilized when a person appraises that nothing can be done to change the situation. Common problem-focused strategies used by 107 Polar expeditioners include actively solving problems as they occur (Suedfeld et al., 2017) 108 and engaging in more effortful behavior (Blackadder-Weinstein et al., 2019). Emotion-109 focused methods that are regularly endorsed include trying to relax (Leon, Sandal, Fink et al., 110 2011b), emotion suppression (Wagstaff & Weston, 2014), sharing concerns and seeking 111 support (Blackadder-Weinstein et al., 2019; Devonport, Lane, & Lloyd, 2011), viewing the 112 situation in a positive way (Kjaergaard et al., 2015) and relying on humor (Corneliussen et 113 al., 2017). 114

Though there have been numerous studies on coping in Polar contexts, few have 115 focused on the situational determinants of the strategies that individuals use to regulate their 116 daily experience (Leon et al., 1991; Smith et al., 2017). Our understanding of the links 117 between the daily use of coping strategies at the point when a demand is faced and indicators 118 of physical and psychological health during Polar expeditions is thus limited. Results from a 119 study with an Antarctic mountaineering expedition team suggest that certain strategies, such 120 as positive reappraisal, may be effective for regulating the psychological experience 121 (Wagstaff & Weston, 2014). However, there is likely to be significant intra- and inter-122

individual variability in how people cope. Indeed, other Polar researchers have suggested that 123 regulatory flexibility (the capacity to select the most appropriate coping strategies based on 124 the demand(s) faced; Bonnano & Burton, 2013) is likely to be needed to maintain 125 performance and health and to deal with the changing situational demands in these extreme 126 and unpredictable settings (Kjaergaard et al., 2015). Examining relationships between daily 127 coping strategies and physical and psychological health, while accounting for person-level 128 variations, will provide a more nuanced understanding of coping in these hazardous, 129 unremitting environments. 130

The overall aim of the current study was to examine the daily events encountered, coping strategies used and markers of physical and psychological health during a Polar ski expedition across the Antarctic continent. Primarily, we were interested in how daily events and coping strategies impacted upon physical and psychological health. A secondary aim was to explore how expeditioners adjusted to the environment and how the reported events and coping strategies used changed over time.

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Method

138 The Expedition

Participants were members of the South Pole Expedition Army Reserves 2017 (SPEAR17) expedition, an unassisted ski journey from Antarctica's Hercules Inlet to the Ross Ice Shelf via the South Pole (approximately 1100 miles). During the expedition, the team averaged 14.42 nautical miles (Range = 0 - 19.10 nm) and 9.16 hours skiing (Range = 0- 11 hours) each day. On five days the team made no progress: because of illness (day 32), taking on new supplies at the South Pole (days 41-43) and bad weather (day 62). At the South Pole the team completed a dynamic risk assessment resulting in one team member withdrawing from the expedition due to health concerns. The five remaining team memberscontinued, arriving at their final location and being picked up from the ice after 68 days.

148 **Participants**

The SPEAR17 team included six male members of the British Army (age range 26 – 149 47 years; Mdn = 32 years). The expedition leader was a career soldier with over 20 years of 150 service. The others were Army reservists: three medical doctors, a paramedic and a web 151 developer. All had experience of operating in challenging and demanding environments but 152 had varying degrees of expedition experience and exposure to Polar settings. The expedition 153 leader had previously completed a self-supported Polar ski expedition. Other team members 154 had participated in expeditions (ocean rowing) and endurance activities (ultramarathons) in 155 remote environments but had no previous experience of Polar ski expeditions. 156

157 **Procedure**

After institutional ethical approval, we provided members of the expedition with 158 information on the nature and purpose of the study. Given the small number of participants, 159 the unique route followed and the expedition's international profile, it was unrealistic to 160 conceal the identity of the expedition team. Therefore, as part of the research consent process, 161 162 expeditioners were asked to confirm that we could name the expedition under the proviso that individual identities would be protected. All participants provided signed consent. 163 Approximately six weeks prior to leaving the UK for Antarctica, the first author visited the 164 team at one of their training camps and administered a multi-section pre-departure 165 questionnaire. As part of this pre-expedition meeting the team members were also briefed on 166 how to complete the structured daily diary that would be used to collect data during the 167 expedition. Once the expedition had started, team members were asked to complete one diary 168 entry at the end of each expedition day. 169

170 Measures

171 **Pre-expedition questionnaire.**

Personality. Personality was assessed using the Big Five Inventory (BFI; John, 172 Donahue & Kentle, 1991). Expeditioners responded to 44 items tapping into five subscales of 173 personality: Conscientiousness (nine items; e.g., "does a thorough job"), Agreeableness (nine 174 items; e.g., "is helpful and unselfish with others"), Openness (ten items; e.g., "has an active 175 imagination"), Extraversion (eight items; e.g., "is talkative") and Neuroticism (eight items; 176 e.g., "worries a lot"). Participants were asked about the extent to which each item was like 177 them and responded on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (disagree strongly) to 5 (agree 178 strongly). The psychometric properties of the BFI have been evidenced in previous research 179 (Soto & John, 2009). 180

Typical coping strategies. Coping strategies were examined using the Utrecht Coping 181 List (UCL; Schreurs, Tellegen, Van der Willige & Brosshot, 1988). The UCL includes 47 182 items reflecting seven subscales related to how a person generally copes with stress: Active 183 problem solving (seven items; e.g., "Making a direct intervention when problems occur"), 184 Palliative reactions (eight items; e.g., "Trying to relax"), Avoidance (eight items; e.g., 185 "Giving in, in order to avoid difficult situations"), Social support (six items; e.g., "Sharing 186 one's worries with someone"); Depressive reactions (seven items; e.g., "Isolating oneself 187 totally from other people"), Sharing emotions (three items; e.g., "Showing one's annoyance") 188 and Comforting cognitions (five items; e.g., "Telling oneself that things could be worse"). 189 When responding, participants were asked to think about how they react when confronted 190 with a problem and answer on a four-point scale ranging from 1 (seldom or never) to 4 (very 191 often). The UCL has demonstrated adequate validity and reliability in prior studies (Sandal et 192 al., 2018; Sandal, Endresen, Værnes. & Ursin, 1999). 193

194 *Health and wellbeing.*

Affect. Affect was reported using the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; 195 196 Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988). The 20-item PANAS includes two subscales (ten items each), one for positive affective states (e.g., interested, enthusiastic) and the other for 197 negative affective states (e.g., upset, scared). When completing the baseline pre-expedition 198 questionnaire, we added the stem "During the past month I have felt..." to each item. 199 Participants responded using a five-point scale ranging from 1 (very slightly or not at all) to 5 200 (extremely). The PANAS is widely used as a measure of affect and has shown good validity 201 202 and reliability in many studies (see Crawford & Henry, 2004).

Wellbeing. We examined pre-expedition well-being using the Subjective Vitality
Scale (SVS; Ryan & Frederick, 1997). The SVS includes seven items that indicate the extent
to which a person feels alive and vital (e.g., I have energy and spirt). To each item, we added
the stem "In general, in everyday life...". Participants were asked to respond using a sevenpoint scale ranging from 1 (Not at all true) to 7 (Very true). The SVS has shown acceptable
psychometric properties when used as a measure of well-being (Bostic, Rubio, & Hood.,
2000).

Mood. The Centre for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale-Revised (CESD-R; 210 Eaton, Muntaner, Smith, Tien, & Ybarra, 2004) was used as a baseline assessment of mood. 211 The CESD-R includes 20 items targeting nine different depression symptom groups (e.g., 212 Concentrating – "I had trouble keeping my mind on what I was doing"; Sadness – "I felt 213 depressed"). The total CESD-R score is used by clinicians to categorize mood disruption and 214 depression according to varying levels of severity. We added the stem "During the past 215 month..." to each item and participants provided a rating on a four-point scale ranging from 1 216 (Rarely or none of the time/less than 1 day) to 4 (Most or all the time/5 - 7 days). Scores 217

lower than 16 suggest there are no clinical issues. Total scores above 16 may indicate signs of
mood disruption and mental health difficulties. The CESD-R has been demonstrated as a
valid and reliable measure of mood disruption and depression in previous work (Van Dam &
Earleywine, 2011).

222 Daily experience. Each participant used a structured diary to record their daily 223 experiences during the expedition. The diary included 66 items tapping into perceptions of 224 health and fitness, events experienced and coping strategies used. Diary content was based on 225 a version of the diary used in several published expedition studies (Atlis et al., 2004; Leon, 226 Sandal, Fink et al., 2011; Smith et al., 2018). To minimize their weight, we worked with the 227 team to integrate the rating form into their general-purpose expedition diaries.

Three single-item indicators were used to rate physical and psychological aspects of 228 health: scaled questions on fitness (i.e., how physically fit you feel), exertion (i.e., how hard 229 you are working) and perceived stress (i.e., current level of stress). Daily affect, assessed via 230 the 20-item PANAS, was used as the primary measure of psychological health. The 231 occurrence of positive and negative experiences during the day was recorded on a 24-item 232 rating checklist. A 19-item coping strategy checklist, derived from work with military 233 personnel (Ben-Porath, Leon, Rinehart, Gupton, & Sineps, 1991), was used to examine the 234 methods team members used to cope. 235

The diaries took approximately five minutes to complete at the end of each expedition day. We received completed daily diaries from five of the six team members. We did not receive a diary from the team member who had to withdraw from the expedition and his daily reports are not included in our analysis.

240 Data analysis

Although consent was provided to name the expedition being studied, we have taken measures to protect individual participants' identities. Data is presented at the team level to ensure anonymity but range and standard deviation scores are meaningful and indicative of team member individual differences.

Descriptive statistics (Mean, SD, Range, Min., and Max.) were computed for all questionnaire subscales and the three single-item indicators (fitness, exertion, stress) in the daily diary. The resulting values were used to create a pre-expedition profile and to examine day-to-day fluctuations in and interrelations between expeditioners' reports of health. Responses to the event and coping checklists were treated as categorical (e.g., event encountered yes = 1 or no = 0). Separately, each of the events encountered and coping strategies reported during the expedition were summed to create an overall frequency rating.

A series of linear mixed models (LMMs) were tested to examine the interrelations 252 between fluctuations in the daily events reported, coping strategies used and indicators of 253 physical and psychological health (fitness, exertion, affect and stress). We considered LMMs 254 the most appropriate form of analysis given the nested data structure (311 daily diary entries 255 nested within 5 participants). This approach allowed us to examine interrelations between 256 variables while controlling for person-level variability. LMMs have previously been used 257 effectively in other small sample extreme environment studies (e.g., Basner et al., 2014; 258 Smith et al., 2018). 259

Finally, we used standardized residual scores and chi-square analyses (Clarke & Crossland, 1985; Keatley, 2018) to examine how the events reported and coping strategies used changed during the expedition and whether these changes were greater or fewer than would be expected by chance alone. Given there was a natural midpoint in the expedition (arriving at the South Pole on day 41), which also coincided with a major event (a team 267

Results

Pre-expedition survey information is presented in Table 1. Expeditioners reported 268 higher scores on conscientiousness and agreeableness, and lower scores on neuroticism when 269 compared to a general population sample (Noftle & Robins, 2007). Variation was observed in 270 extraversion scores (Min = 2.50; Max = 4.50). All team members reported a tendency to use 271 problem-focused techniques and comforting cognitions when dealing with stress. All 272 demonstrated good pre-departure emotional health (positive affect scores higher than 273 negative affect scores), high levels of subjective wellbeing and low mood disruption and 274 depression (scores <16). One participant had lower positive affect and wellbeing scores and 275 higher mood disruption. This participant reported issues related to sleep difficulties during 276 the assessment period, which is likely to account for their slightly different profile. 277

Daily diary data suggest that the team members generally maintained good overall 278 physical and psychological health throughout the expedition (see Table 2). Perceived fitness 279 (M = 6.95; SD = 1.14) and exertion (M = 3.98; SD = 1.03) scores were moderate. Positive 280 affect remained high (M = 4.03; SD = 0.69) and negative affect low (M = 1.10; SD = 0.20) 281 across the expedition period. Reports of perceived stress were low on average (M = 0.88; SD 282 = 1.34). Interrelations between daily markers of physical and psychological health are 283 presented in Table 2. Perceptions of fitness were positively correlated with positive affect. 284 Exertion, negative affect and stress were all positively correlated. Fitness was negatively 285 correlated with negative affect and stress and positive affect was negatively correlated with 286 negative affect and stress. 287

The most frequently reported events and their relation to physical and psychological health are presented in Table 3. Expeditioners regularly reported feelings of being able to cope, camaraderie with teammates, enjoying the environment and satisfaction in making progress. Daily reports of being able to cope, enjoying the environment, making progress and equipment working were associated with feeling physically fit, higher levels of positive affect, lower negative affect and lower reports of stress.

Although recorded less frequently, participants also reported harmful and threatening events including muscle and joint pain, lack of sleep, problems with gear and fear of injury. Muscle and joint pain, fear of injury, loneliness, headaches and tension with teammates were associated with lower reports of fitness, increased ratings of exertion, lower positive affect, higher negative affect and higher stress scores.

The most frequently reported coping strategies and their associations with physical 299 and psychological health are presented in Table 4. Expeditioners regularly reported writing a 300 journal, thinking of something pleasant, keeping the goal in sight, maintaining a positive 301 attitude and using humor and trying to see the situation in a positive way. There were no 302 reported instances of outright arguments, but participants did report having negative feelings 303 about the self and others and having to discuss personal and task concerns. Daily reports of 304 305 coping strategies, such as trying to have pleasant thoughts and seeing the situation in a positive way, were associated with higher scores of positive affect and lower perceptions of 306 stress. Writing in a journal, prayer, discussing task concerns and having negative feelings 307 about the self were associated with lower ratings of fitness, lower positive affect, higher 308 negative affect and higher perceived stress scores. Reports of relaxing and meditating were 309 linked to lower ratings of negative affect. Trying to take it one day at a time and solve 310 problems were associated with elevated perceptions of stress. 311

Daily variability was observed in physical and psychological health during the expedition. A wide range of scores were provided for fitness (Range = 7; Min = 2; Max = 9), which coincided with team member injuries. There was a marked increase in stress and negative affect and decrease in positive affect around day 41, which was when the team reached the South Pole.

Time changes in the events experienced and coping strategies used are reported in 317 Table 5. Lacking privacy, sleep deprivation, muscle and joint pain, concern for teammate 318 wellbeing and concerns over team effectiveness were reported more often than would be 319 320 expected by chance in the first half and less often than would be expected by chance in the second half of the expedition. In contrast, gear problems, fear of injury and loneliness were 321 reported less than would be expected by chance in the first half and more than would be 322 expected by chance in the second half of the expedition. Alongside these changes, individuals 323 also reported enjoying the environment and being able to cope more often in the second half 324 compared to the first half of the expedition. 325

Expeditioners reported using task immersion, active problem-solving and discussing personal and task concerns more in the first than second half of the expedition. Individuals were also more likely to report keeping feelings to themselves, having negative feelings about themselves and having negative feelings about others in the first compared to second half of the expedition. In contrast, expeditioners were more likely to report taking the expedition one day at a time in the second compared to first half of the expedition.

332

Discussion

The present study focused on events encountered, coping strategies used and experiences of physical and psychological health during a successful military ski-expedition across Antarctica. Findings suggest that team members had a largely positive experience.

However, daily fluctuations in indicators of both physical and psychological health were 336 observed. These fluctuations were predicted by the daily events encountered and coping 337 strategies used. The withdrawal of one of the team members at the South Pole was a 338 particularly difficult period and resulted in less positive and more negative reports of physical 339 and psychological health. After overcoming this difficulty, the remaining individuals 340 appeared to function well and successfully completed their ski traverse. Study results offer 341 new insight into the situational experience of expeditioners operating in extreme Polar 342 environments and factors that might influence their safety, health and wellbeing. 343

344 Pre-expedition profiles suggest that the expeditioners were well-adjusted for adaptation to extreme and stressful settings (Leon, Sandal, Fink et al., 2011; Palinkas & 345 Suedfeld, 2008; Sandal & Smith, 2017). The configuration of personality traits (high 346 agreeableness, high conscientiousness and low neuroticism) and typical ways of coping (high 347 active problem-solving, high comforting cognitions) are in keeping with findings of other 348 Polar and extreme environment research (Leon, Sandal, & Larsen, 2011; Leon, Sandal, Fink 349 et al., 2011; Kjaergaard et al., 2015; Sandal et al., 2006). These individual difference factors 350 are likely to contribute to resilience and protect physical and psychological health when 351 operating under conditions of chronic stress (Lazarus, 1991; Maguen et al., 2008; Sandal et 352 al., 2006). 353

In common with results from similar Polar expedition studies, we found positive affect generally higher than negative affect across the entire expedition period (Blackadder-Weinstein et al., 209; Kjaergaard et al., 2015; Leon, Sandal, Fink et al., 2011). Daily reports of physical and psychological health were correlated (e.g., higher fitness scores were associated with lower reports of negative affect), highlighting the interdependency of the physical and psychological experience. Variability observed in expeditioners' daily reports of

- health underlines the value of day-to-day monitoring of people in extreme settings (Smith etal., 2018).
- 362 Daily events and physical and psychological health

Reported positive experiences (e.g., enjoying the environment, feeling able to cope 363 and taking satisfaction from progress) were associated with more adaptive physical and 364 psychological health responses. In extreme Polar environments, nourishment of physical and 365 psychological health is likely to help individuals and teams maintain their performance under 366 conditions of chronic stress (Driskell, Salas, & Driskell, 2018; Wagstaff & Leach, 2015). The 367 pattern of relationships observed in the present study may be explained by theories of human 368 motivation. For example, self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Vansteenkiste 369 & Ryan, 2013) suggests that individuals will function optimally and experience better health 370 when their basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness are met. 371 Being able to cope and taking satisfaction from making progress should generate feelings of 372 autonomy and competence, which, according to SDT, would then result in adaptive health 373 responses (Goemaere, Vansteenkiste, & Van Petegen, 2016). 374

As expected, negative experiences, even those rated infrequently, had an adverse 375 impact upon health and wellbeing. This is consistent with previous research that suggests 376 diverse negative experiences are likely to have a greater impact upon group dynamics, 377 performance and health than positive experiences, despite the latter being more common 378 (Wagstaff & Weston, 2014; Wood, Hysong, Lugg, & Harm, 2000). In particular, reports of 379 loneliness predicted multiple negative health responses, suggesting that isolation and 380 separation from established social networks in expedition environments (even when part of a 381 cohesive expedition team) can have a damaging impact on health (Smith & Barrett, 2018). 382

In contrast to positive events, negative events are more likely to thwart an individual's 383 basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness (Goemaere et al., 2016; 384 Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). Loneliness, for instance, is likely to thwart a person's sense of 385 relatedness. While, muscle and joint pain is likely to impair task performance and hinder 386 progress, thereby frustrating autonomy and competence. The frustration of the psychological 387 needs has recently been linked to a range of adverse health responses in isolated and extreme 388 teams and may explain the health impact of negative events in the present work (Goemaere et 389 390 al., 2016). Interestingly, individuals who were not experiencing pain but were nevertheless concerned about the effectiveness of teammates might have experienced an increased sense 391 of competence because of taking on additional responsibility (in the present case, taking 392 weight from another team member's pulk) and therefore having an increased status within the 393 team. This may explain why concerns for teammate wellbeing were associated with higher 394 perceptions of fitness. 395

396 Coping strategies and physical and psychological health

Bonnano and Burton (2013) suggest that how a person copes will depend on the 397 context, the repertoire of strategies they have available and whether these strategies are, or 398 have previously been, effective for mitigating experiences of stress. In the present study, 399 writing a journal was the most frequently reported coping strategy used by team members. 400 Journal-keeping on Polar expeditions has a long history (Mocellin & Suedfeld, 1991). 401 Creating a narrative of the experience, documenting important milestones and encounters and 402 recording private thoughts about the expedition is likely to serve multiple coping functions, 403 offering an outlet to vent frustration and fill time during periods of low activity. Participants 404 also reported emotion-focused coping strategies, such as focusing on positive thoughts, 405 keeping a positive attitude, using humor and trying to see the situation in a positive way. 406 Such approaches are likely to help individuals deal with persistent and largely uncontrollable 407

issues (e.g., lack of sleep, muscle pain) faced in Polar settings (Kjaergaard et al., 2015; Leon,
Sandal, & Larsen, 2011). Avoidance coping approaches (e.g., keeping feelings to self) may
help avoid arguments and minimize tension in small interdependent expedition teams
(Corneliussen et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2017; Wagstaff & Weston, 2014). However,
overreliance on avoidance strategies could potentially result in less functional communication
and cooperation between members of a team and have an overall adverse impact on team
performance (Sandal et al., 2006).

Pleasant thoughts and seeing the situation in a positive way were associated with 415 416 higher positive affect scores. Such emotion-focused strategies help people identify the enjoyable and satisfying aspects of an experience by distracting them from unpleasant 417 features and re-focusing attention on areas that are more agreeable (Folkman & Morowitz, 418 2004). Techniques including writing a journal, prayer, active problem solving and discussing 419 concerns were associated with less adaptive health responses, including lower fitness, lower 420 positive affect and higher stress scores. Coping approaches such as problem-solving and 421 discussing task and personal concerns may be mobilized in response to specific stressful 422 events, which may explain these associations. 423

424 Time-based changes

A notable example of the temporal changes in events, coping and health is the marked increase in negative affect and perceived stress and reduction in positive affect upon reaching and after leaving the South Pole. The expedition leader decided that a team member who was struggling with his physical health should not continue beyond the South Pole. This meant that the team had to carry on without one of their comrades. The change in health reports at this time may reflect this loss as well as the reality of facing several more weeks of physical effort and isolation with a diminished team. During this difficult period, team members tended to rely on emotion-focused techniques, including summoning up pleasant thoughts,
trying to keep the goal in sight, maintaining a positive attitude and seeing the situation in a
positive way. The expedition leader, who was responsible for the safety of the group, also
reported using problem-solving strategies, discussing task concerns and keeping feelings to
himself. These techniques may have helped him explain and rationalize his decision to
withdraw the struggling team member.

In the second half of the expedition participants generally reported fewer concerns, 438 suggesting that the team actually became more comfortable with the task and environmental 439 440 demands (Sandal, Bergan, Warncke, Værnes, & Ursin, 1996; Smith et al., 2018). Changes in the type of events and coping strategies reported may also reflect the team becoming more 441 functional after the withdrawal of the struggling team member. Negative events commonly 442 reported later in the expedition included having problems with gear, which was starting to 443 break due to overuse, and fearing injury, maybe due to fatigue and prolonged exertion. 444 Reports of loneliness increased, although reports of camaraderie with teammates also rose 445 from the first to the second half of the trip, indicating that loneliness may be more likely to be 446 caused by separation from friends and family than by issues within the expedition team. 447

Our results emphasize coping as a dynamic process. Early in the expedition, as the 448 team was adjusting to the environment, individuals were more likely to cope by restricting 449 their emotional sharing and by using more active strategies, such as task immersion, active 450 problem solving and putting in more effort. Restricting emotional sharing, particularly during 451 the early phases of an expedition, may be due to concerns about over-burdening teammates, 452 which has previously been observed in other isolated Polar groups (Leon, Sandal, & Larsen, 453 2011). After adjusting to the environment, reliance on active problem-focused coping 454 approaches reduced. In the second half of the expedition, individuals used more positively 455 framed emotion-focused techniques, for instance, 'trying to see the situation in a positive 456

way', 'taking it one day at a time' and 'keeping the goal in sight'. Such approaches help
motivate people towards their goals and foster a sense of control and competence by
providing small but regularly achievable targets, which should help maintain a sense of
purpose during long, repetitive and arduous expeditions (Smith et al., 2017).

461 Limitations

Daily data from the individual who withdrew from the expedition at the South Pole was not available for analysis. Their data, particularly their reports of events and use of coping strategies, would have added to our understanding of the psychosocial processes of interest to the present work. Although difficult to study in situ, the psychosocial factors underpinning individual and team failures in extreme expedition settings warrant further attention (Leon & Venables, 2015).

Small sample sizes are common in the extreme environment literature and remain a challenge, including in the present study. We made efforts to address this by adopting an intensive sampling procedure. Although repetitive sampling can sometimes lead to response fatigue, the daily variability we observed in the expeditioner scores suggest that this was not an issue in our study. Nevertheless, the small number of participants does necessitate caution when considering the generalizability of these findings to other individuals and groups operating in extreme settings.

From a conceptual and methodological perspective, we still need to unpack the antecedents and outcomes of daily expedition events and coping strategies. The question stem we used for the event and coping checklists ("identify the events you experienced during the day/identify the methods you used to cope during the day") was worded in a way that meant responses logically preceded reports of physical and psychological health ("how do you feel right now?"). However, because the diary was completed at only one time-point and

responses to all items were provided concurrently (i.e., events and coping were reported at 481 the same time as health), we cannot be certain of the direction of the observed relationships. 482 Separating reports of events and coping strategies from the end-of-day reports of health, 483 perhaps by collecting responses at several points throughout an expedition day, would help to 484 determine the role of events and coping strategies as antecedents of health. Asking 485 expeditioners to report on their perceptions of the effectiveness of coping strategies used 486 would advance our understanding of regulatory flexibility and the dynamic nature of effective 487 coping in extreme settings (Bonnano & Burton, 2013). 488

489 Implications for practice

If certain events and coping strategies contribute to more positive physical and 490 psychological health responses, finding ways to promote or train these methods could 491 contribute to expeditioner resilience (Maguen et al., 2008; Tice, Baumeister, Shmueli, & 492 Muraven, 2007). Findings might also inform dynamic risk assessments in the field. For 493 instance, if an expedition leader is aware of how a person is likely to react following certain 494 daily events, and the health responses that accompany their selected coping methods, they 495 might choose to reassign tasks, adjust individual and team goals, make efforts to optimize 496 team interactions, or, in the worst case, call for help. 497

498 Conclusions

The present study extends prior work by offering a more contextualized view of the expedition experience. Specifically, we identify relations between daily events encountered, coping strategies used and their links to physical and psychological health in an extreme expedition context. Understanding daily experiences is critical to providing effective support and informing the design of appropriate health countermeasures for individuals and teams operating in environmental extremes. 505

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689 Table 1

690 *Descriptive statistics on pre-departure individual differences*

	Category	Variable	Mean	SD	Range	Min	Max			
	Personality	Extraversion	3.75	.74	2.00	2.50	4.50			
		Agreeableness	4.06	.54	1.22	3.56	4.78			
		Conscientiousness	4.28	.49	1.44	3.44	4.89			
		Neuroticism	1.75	.52	1.50	1.00	2.50			
		Openness	3.68	.43	1.20	3.20	4.40			
	Coping Strategies	Active Problem Solving	3.19	.41	1.00	2.57	3.57			
Pre-expedition		Palliative Reactions	2.29	.38	.88	1.88	2.75			
		Avoidance	2.00	.52	1.38	1.13	2.50			
		Social Support	2.22	.48	1.17	1.67	2.83			
		Depressive Reactions	1.33	.21	.52	1.14	1.67			
		Sharing Emotions	2.11	.50	1.33	1.33	2.67			
		Comforting Cognitions	3.27	.45	1.00	2.80	3.80			
	Health & Wellbeing	Positive Affect	4.32	.71	1.80	3.20	5.00			

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DAILY EVENTS, COPING & HEALTH DURING AN ANTARCTIC EXPEDITION

	Negative Affect	1.52	.31	.80	1.00	1.80
	Wellbeing	5.43	.44	1.29	4.57	5.86
	Mood (Depression)	5.33	4.89	12.00	.00	12.00
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698 Table 2

699 *Relations between daily markers of physical and psychological health*

Fitness Exertion	Mean 6.95	SD 1.14	Range	Min	Max	Fitness	Exertion	Positive	Negative	Stress
	6.95	1.14						Affect	Affect	
Exertion			7.00	2.00	9.00	1				
	3.98	1.03	4.00	1.00	5.00	02	1			
Positive Affect	4.03	0.69	3.30	1.70	5.00	.55**	.09	1		
Negative Affect	1.10	0.20	1.40	1.00	2.40	43**	.16**	50**	1	
Stress	0.88	1.34	10.00	0.00	10.00	26**	.15*	36**	.75**	1
0 <i>Note:</i> * p <.05; ** p<	<.01									
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707 Table 3

708 *Frequency scores and linear mixed models predicting physical and psychological health from daily events reported*

Health Indicato	r	Fitr	ness	Exer	tion	Positive	e Affect	Negative	e Affect	Str	ess
Event Reported	Total reports	Est.	Sig.	Est.	Sig.	Est.	Sig.	Est.	Sig.	Est.	Sig.
	_										
Able to cope	230	.76**	<.01	05	.72	.23**	.01	11**	<.01	99**	<.01
Camaraderie with teammates	223	14	.49	.23	.21	19	.07	.03	.42	.20	.38
Enjoyed the environment	221	.20	.13	03	.81	.27**	<.01	02	.34	33*	.02
Satisfied in making good progress	205	.16	.19	.11	.33	.26**	<.01	06**	.01	13	.34
Muscle and joint pains	163	.00	.99	.51**	<.01	04	.49	.05*	.01	.33*	.01
Equipment was working	115	.02	.88	12	.37	.15*	.04	03	.21	35*	.03
Lack of sleep	102	08	.59	.42**	<.01	.03	.70	.00	.87	.08	.48
Had gear problems	97	.00	.98	.04	.72	.07	.28	.00	.98	.04	.77
Feared injury	75	32*	.02	.03	.79	14*	.04	03	.20	14	.38
Hygiene concerns	73	.61*	.03	.30	.22	.00	1.00	05	.29	11	.72
Teammate wellbeing concerns	72	.18	.21	.40**	<.01	03	.63	03	.24	13	.40

DAILY EVENTS, COPING & HEALTH DURING AN ANTARCTIC EXPEDITION

Loneliness	53	36*	.04	.18	.26	10	.28	.10**	<.01	.60**	<.01
Worried about bad weather	50	.15	.36	32*	.02	.04	.61	.01	.65	24	.17
Worried about friends or family	49	39	.07	24	.21	08	.48	.07	.07	14	.56
Lacked privacy	32	.00	.99	.03	.86	.13	.23	10**	.01	39	.10
Team effectiveness concerns	31	.47*	.03	27	.15	04	.74	02	.68	13	.58
Headache	13	59*	.03	.06	.80	27*	.05	.05	.31	.23	.43
Tension with teammates	12	01	.98	.38	.13	15	.31	.12*	.02	.11	.35
Worried about safety decisions	6	.62	.11	.24	.48	.36	.07	02	.82	94*	.03
Down/stressed because teammate is	6	27	.54	.30	.43	18	.41	.02	.77	.22	.65
<i>Note:</i> * p <.05; ** p<.01											

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716 Table 4

717	Frequency scores and linear mixed models predicting physical and psychological health from coping strategies use	гd

Health Indicate	or	Fitı	ness	Exer	tion	Positive	e Affect	Negativ	e Affect	Str	ess
Coping Strategy	Total reports	Est.	Sig.	Est.	Sig.	Est.	Sig.	Est.	Sig.	Est.	Sig.
Wrote in a journal	292	30	.24	19	.38	39**	<.01	.02	.57	.17	.48
Thought about something pleasant	268	.23	.21	.30	.06	.24**	.01	02	.48	25	.16
Kept the goal in sight	231	19	.27	.24	.09	15	.07	.03	.23	.25	.12
Kept a positive attitude, used humor	231	.05	.14	.20	.10	.06	.39	.01	.61	.04	.78
Saw the situation in a positive way	221	.12	.47	01	.95	.30**	<.01	05	.08	51**	<.01
Relaxed or meditated	197	.32	.07	18	.23	.01	.95	09**	<.01	33	.06
Took it one day at a time	177	.18	.22	.16	.22	12	.10	.03	.22	.56**	<.01
Immersed self in the task	146	.10	.47	.22	.06	.06	.40	01	.64	.05	.69
Tried harder	145	22	.24	.39*	.02	.17	.06	05	.09	26	.18
Kept feelings to self	115	35	.09	07	.59	03	.65	.02	.35	.09	.49
Tried to solve problems	92	10	.47	.20	.08	05	.41	.03	.25	.33*	.01

DAILY EVENTS, COPING & HEALTH DURING AN ANTARCTIC EXPEDITION

Discussed task concerns	91	09	.55	10	.39	08	.26	.05*	.04	.24	.09
Prayer	72	84*	.04	48	.17	73**	<.01	.38**	<.01	1.79**	<.01
Had negative feelings about teammate	60	.26	.10	05	.72	05	.50	01	.75	.03	.84
Discussed personal concerns	31	39*	.04	.13	.43	.05	.58	.03	.31	.13	.49
Had negative feelings about myself	27	35	.09	.54**	<.01	23*	.02	.12**	<.01	.94**	<.01
Cried	4	74	.12	1.00*	.01	29	.22	.05	.54	17	.72
Yelled	0	0	•	0		0	•	0		0	

Note: * p <.05; ** p<.01

725 Table 5

726 Indicator wave analysis demonstrating change in events and coping strategy use between 1st and 2nd half of expedition

Events				Coping strategies			
	1st	2nd	Δ		1st	2nd	Δ
Able to cope	30	.40	+	Wrote in a journal	60	.90	+
Camaraderie with teammates	30	.40	+	Thought about something pleasant	20	.30	+
Enjoyed the environment	70	1.0	+	Kept the goal in sight	-1.00	1.40	+
Satisfied in making good progress	40	.50	+	Kept a positive attitude, used humor	60	.80	+
Muscle and joint pains	1.00	-1.3	-	Saw the situation in a positive way	-1.00	1.30	+
Equipment was working	.40	60	-	Relaxed or meditated	30	.40	+
Lack of sleep	1.40	-1.90	-	Took it one day at a time	90	1.20	+
Had gear problems	-1.80	2.50	+	Immersed self in the task	1.40	-1.90	-
Feared injury	70	.90	+	Tried harder	.30	40	-
Hygiene concerns	10	.20	+	Kept feelings to self	.50	70	-
Teammate wellbeing concerns	2.50	-3.50	-	Tried to solve problems	1.20	-1.70	-

DAILY EVENTS, COPING & HEALTH DURING AN ANTARCTIC EXPEDITION

Loneliness	90	1.30	+	Discussed task concerns	.20	30	-
Worried about bad weather	-1.10	1.50	+	Prayer	50	.70	+
Worried about friends or family	1.20	-1.60	-	Had negative feelings about teammate	.90	-1.30	-
Lacked privacy	1.70	-2.40	-	Discussed personal concerns	.10	30	-
Team effectiveness concerns	1.90	-2.60	-	Had negative feelings about myself	.40	50	-
Headache	.50	70	-	Cried	.20	30	-
Tension with teammates	.40	60	-	Yelled	.00	.00	
Worried about safety decisions	.00	.00					
Down/stressed because teammate is	1.00	-1.40	-				

727 *Note:* Numeric values are standardized residual scores. + indicates an increase from 1^{st} to 2^{nd} half of expedition and – indicates decrease from 1^{st}

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728 to 2^{nd} half of the expedition