

Running head: DEPLETION AND SNACKING

**Health behaviours and their facilitation under depletion conditions:
The case of snacking**

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Word Count (excluding figures and footnotes):

Abstract: 198 words

Body: 4,673 words

Abstract

Introduction: Previous research suggests that depletion (the state ensuing from self-control exertion) engenders lapses in health behaviours. The present study tested for that effect in relation to the health behaviour of limiting snacking, and investigated whether health goal-priming might facilitate such health behaviours even under depletion conditions.

Method: A laboratory study was conducted involving an analytic sample of 85 undergraduates (mean age = 20.08, $SD = 3.96$; female: $n = 63$). Depletion was manipulated by having participants watch a humorous video while suppressing their responses (depletion condition), or remaining natural (non-depletion condition). The activation of participants' health goals was then manipulated by subtly exposing (goal-priming condition) or not exposing (non-priming condition) participants to health-related words in a Scrambled Sentence Task. Finally, snacking was measured using a bogus taste-test.

Results and discussion: Controlling for initial hunger, snacking was higher among depleted compared to non-depleted participants. Snacking was lower among primed compared to non-primed participants. The interaction between depletion and goal-priming was not significant. These findings suggest that depletion should be recognised as a risk factor for lapses in health behaviours, and that health goal-priming may be a useful technique for facilitating such behaviours even when individuals are depleted.

Keywords: Self-control; Self-regulation; Depletion; Snacking; Eating; Goal priming

1 **Introduction**

2 The majority of deaths globally are due to non-communicable diseases such as
3 diabetes and cardiovascular disease, which are largely attributable to behavioural risk factors
4 (World Health Organisation, 2011). It is therefore important to identify factors associated
5 with lapses in health behaviours and to develop techniques for addressing such lapses, where
6 health behaviours include the performance of health-promoting behaviours (e.g., exercise)
7 and the avoidance of health-compromising behaviours (e.g., smoking).

8 Health behaviours often involve self-control: the process of overriding competing
9 internal reactions and behavioural tendencies in order to bring thoughts, feelings and
10 behaviour in line with long-term goals and behavioural standards (Baumeister, Vohs, & Tice,
11 2007; de Ridder & de Wit, 2006; Muraven, 2012). This is especially true of healthy eating
12 behaviours; in the current ‘obesogenic’ environment in which palatable but unhealthy foods
13 are highly visible and readily available, it is often necessary to override temptation to
14 overindulge in such foods in order to maintain a diet that is consistent with long-term health
15 goals (Johnson, Pratt, & Wardle, 2012). Indeed, relatively high dispositional self-control has
16 been associated with healthier eating patterns during a weight-loss program (Crescioni et al.,
17 2011) and in general (Gerrits et al., 2010; Junger & van Kampen, 2010; Sproesser, Strohbach,
18 Schupp, & Renner, 2011), as well as with concomitant health outcomes such as greater
19 success in a weight-loss program (Crescioni et al., 2011) and lower body mass index (BMI)
20 in general (Crescioni et al., 2011; Junger & van Kampen, 2010; Keller & Siegrist, 2014).
21 When individuals have recently exerted self-control, they are said to be ‘depleted’
22 (Baumeister & Alquist, 2009). Due to the high frequency of everyday self-control demands
23 (Hofmann, Baumeister, Förster, & Vohs, 2012), opportunities to perform health behaviours
24 could often be expected to arise when individuals are already depleted. This raises questions
25 about: (1) whether depletion impedes the exertion of further self-control in implementing

26 health behaviours, such as limiting snacking, and (2) how such health behaviours could be
27 facilitated under depletion conditions.

28 **Health behaviours under depletion conditions**

29 The performance of self-control behaviours under depletion conditions has been
30 widely investigated using Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, and Tice's (1998) sequential
31 task paradigm. Here, experimental group participants are depleted by completing a task
32 requiring high self-control (e.g., controlling their thoughts), while control participants instead
33 complete a task that requires minimal self-control (e.g., free thought). Subsequently, all
34 participants undertake a second, ostensibly unrelated task designed to measure performance
35 of self-control behaviours. Typically, a 'depletion effect' is observed such that performance
36 on the dependent self-control task is poorer among depleted compared to non-depleted
37 participants. In a meta-analysis of 83 sequential task studies, Hagger, Wood, Stiff, and
38 Chatzisarantis (2010) found a significant medium-to-large depletion effect across a wide
39 range of self-control outcomes. Regarding health behaviours, depletion has been associated
40 with fewer repetitions on exercise tasks (Dorris, Power, & Kenefick, 2012), increased
41 likelihood of smoking (Shmueli & Prochaska, 2009), increased ad-lib alcohol consumption
42 (Christiansen, Cole, & Field, 2012; Muraven, Collins, & Neinhaus, 2002), and increased
43 snacking among restrained eaters (Kahan, Polivy, & Herman, 2003; Vohs & Heatherton,
44 2000; studies 1 and 3) and individuals with high BMI (Hagger et al., 2013), where 'snacking'
45 refers to consumption of energy-dense foods of low nutritional value between meals.

46 Based on current evidence however, it remains unclear whether the depletion effect
47 on snacking holds among broader samples (i.e., without subdividing based on dietary
48 restraint or BMI). In one study it was found that depleted participants from a broader sample
49 ate more than non-depleted participants when offered snack foods (Zyphur, Warren, Landis,
50 & Thoresen, 2007; study 1), whereas other studies reported only a marginally significant
51 effect (Friese, Hofmann, & Wänke, 2008; study 2), or no significant depletion effect on

52 snacking (Stillman, Tice, Fincham, & Lambert, 2009; study 3). These divergent findings may
53 be accounted for by the lack of consideration given in these studies to the extent to which
54 participants held long-term health goals and were tempted by the proffered snacks. These are
55 important considerations since only if limiting snacking was consistent with participants'
56 goals, but also required overriding temptation to indulge, would that behaviour involve self-
57 control and hence be susceptible to a depletion effect on self-control behaviour.

58 Consequently, the first aim of the present study was to extend existing evidence
59 concerning the effects of depletion on health behaviours, by investigating whether limiting
60 snacking is compromised under depletion conditions among members of broader samples
61 when that behaviour more clearly involves self-control.

62 **Facilitating health behaviours under depletion conditions**

63 If depletion impedes the enactment of health behaviours such as limiting snacking,
64 this creates a need to develop effective techniques for facilitating health behaviours under
65 depletion conditions. Many well-established interventions for health behaviours target
66 explicit cognitions (e.g., health beliefs; Jones, Smith, & Llewellyn, 2014). The suitability of
67 these techniques in the context of depletion is challenged however, by evidence that the
68 influence of such explicit cognitions over self-control behaviour is attenuated under depletion
69 conditions (Friese et al., 2008; studies 2 and 3; Hofmann, Rauch, & Gawronski, 2007).
70 Accordingly, implicit techniques may be more useful in this context.

71 One implicit technique that is receiving increasing attention as a means of promoting
72 healthy eating behaviours is goal-priming (Papies, 2012). This involves subtly exposing
73 individuals to environmental cues (such as words or images) that are semantically related to a
74 particular goal. This exposure is expected to implicitly activate ('prime') the cognitive
75 representation of that goal, such that it proceeds to guide subsequent responses just as if it
76 had been consciously activated (Custers & Aarts, 2010). Goal-priming has been successfully
77 applied in relation to a range of eating behaviours. When health goals were primed through

78 subtle exposure to goal-related rather than goal-neutral cues, female restrained eaters snacked
79 less while watching a movie (Anschutz, Van Strien, & Engels, 2011), overweight individuals
80 purchased fewer snacks from a grocery store (Papies, Potjes, Keesman, Schwinghammer, &
81 Van Koningsbruggen, 2013), restrained eaters and current dieters made healthier meal
82 choices in a restaurant (Papies & Veling, 2012), and restrained eaters ate fewer product
83 samples in a butcher's shop (Papies & Hamstra, 2010).

84 Researchers have also begun to test the efficacy of goal-priming in bolstering self-
85 control performance under depletion conditions. Alberts, Martijn, Greb, Merckelbach, and de
86 Vries (2007) reported that participants primed with perseverance cues performed better than
87 non-primed participants on a subsequent physical endurance task, and that the extent of this
88 priming effect either did not differ depending on depletion (study 1), or was even stronger
89 among depleted compared to non-depleted participants (study 2). The authors suggested that
90 their priming technique affected behaviour through activating the behavioural construct of
91 perseverance. In their first study however, Alberts et al. utilised an adapted Scrambled
92 Sentence Task as their priming manipulation, and this paradigm has frequently been
93 interpreted as priming goals (e.g., Bargh, Lee-Chai, Barndollar, Gollwitzer, & Trötschel,
94 2001; experiment 2; Crone & Beike, 2012; Sheeran et al., 2005; experiment 2). An alternative
95 interpretation of these results might therefore contend that Alberts et al.'s Scrambled
96 Sentence Task affected behaviour through priming perseverance goals. On that interpretation,
97 this study provides preliminary evidence that priming a goal promotes responses consistent
98 with that goal, even under depletion conditions.

99 In the eating domain, two recent studies have examined the impact of health goal-
100 priming on snacking under depletion conditions. Boland, Connell, and Vallen (2013) found
101 that in the afternoon (but not in the morning), participants exposed to health cues consumed
102 less during an opportunity for snacking than those exposed to indulgence or neutral cues.
103 Boland et al. argued that since self-control demands accrue as the day progresses, individuals

104 are typically depleted by afternoon. Accordingly, they interpreted their findings as
105 demonstrating that health goal-priming affects snacking when individuals are depleted. Yet
106 while this proposed temporal pattern of depletion seems plausible, the time of day variable
107 may have been confounded with several uncontrolled variables (e.g., wakefulness, cognitive
108 load). Using more standard experimental manipulations, Walsh (2014) manipulated depletion
109 and health goal-priming, before having participants choose between a healthy and unhealthy
110 snack option in an imaginary shopping task. While goal-priming led to a higher proportion of
111 participants choosing the healthy option overall, it seemed to have no effect on snack choices
112 in the depletion condition.

113 Thus, results concerning the efficacy of goal-priming under depletion conditions have
114 been mixed. Since the dependent variable in Walsh's (2014) study was a hypothetical choice,
115 it remains to be seen whether health goal-priming can lead to reduction in actual snack
116 consumption under experimentally induced depletion conditions just as well as under non-
117 depletion conditions. The second aim of the present study was to conduct the first test of that
118 possibility.

119 **The Present Study**

120 A sequential task design comprising of: (1) a depletion manipulation, (2) a goal-
121 priming manipulation, and (3) a measure of snacking as a prototypical self-control behaviour,
122 was adopted here. Consistent with earlier evidence linking depletion with compromised self-
123 control performance (Hagger et al., 2010), and in view of the current study's measurement of
124 snack consumption as a manifestation of poor self-control performance, it was hypothesised
125 that consumption during the taste-test would be higher among depleted compared to non-
126 depleted participants. Following evidence that subtly priming goals that are inconsistent with
127 unhealthy eating promotes healthier eating behaviour (Papies, 2012), consumption was
128 expected to be lower among participants whose health goals were primed than among non-
129 primed participants. In view of previously mixed indications as to whether health goal-

130 priming is differentially effective under depletion and non-depletion conditions, no firm
131 prediction was made as to whether depletion and goal-priming would interact in their effects
132 on consumption.

133 **Method**

134 **Participants and design**

135 Ninety-one undergraduates from an Australian university volunteered in exchange for
136 course credit. The recruitment advertisement specifically targeted individuals holding long-
137 term health goals by only inviting participants who “value your health but don’t always lead a
138 healthy lifestyle”. Participants were randomly allocated to a 2 (depletion vs. non-depletion) x
139 2 (goal-priming vs. non-priming) between-subjects full factorial design. The study was
140 approved by the university’s human research ethics committee.

141 **Procedure**

142 Participants were tested individually in a laboratory. They were informed that the
143 session, which lasted approximately 45 minutes, would consist of three unrelated experiments
144 followed by questionnaires. Informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to
145 commencing the first experiment.

146 **Experimental materials**

147 **Depletion manipulation:** The ‘first experiment’ was introduced as an emotional
148 processing task, and consisted of a widely-used depletion task (e.g., Balliet & Joireman,
149 2010; Vohs, Glass, Maddox, & Markman, 2011). The stimulus consisted of a video (9
150 minutes duration) comprising three consecutive humorous clips, which have been shown to
151 elicit considerable self-reported amusement and facial expressivity (Simons, Pasqualini,
152 Reddy, & Wood, 2004). Participants viewed the video while seated in front of a computer
153 equipped with a webcam and headphones. They were informed that they were to focus on the
154 video, as well as receiving the following specific instructions: *Depletion condition:* “It is
155 important that you remain completely neutral. That is, please suppress internal emotional

156 reactions as well as any vocal or physical emotional expressions;” *Non-depletion condition:*
157 “It is important that you remain completely natural. That is, please watch just as you would in
158 the privacy of your own home.” To improve compliance with the instructions, participants
159 were told that their responses would be video-recorded.

160 **Goal-priming manipulation:** The ‘second experiment’ was introduced as a word
161 relationship task, and consisted of a computerised Scrambled Sentence Task. Scrambled
162 Sentence Tasks are designed to subtly expose participants in one condition to words that
163 share a common theme in order to activate, or ‘prime’, cognitions related to that theme (Srull
164 & Wyer, 1979). In the present Scrambled Sentence Task, 15 strings of five words each were
165 presented individually. The words in each string were presented in a scrambled order, and
166 participants were required to select and rearrange four of the five words to form a
167 grammatically correct sentence or phrase. Twelve of the 15 word-strings differed between the
168 two conditions on a critical word (Levesque & Pelletier, 2003), which in each case was
169 health-related in the goal-priming condition, and thus expected to prime health goals, but was
170 unrelated to health in the non-priming condition. The health theme was selected since it was
171 thought to represent a relatively abstract desirable state, and was therefore considered
172 especially likely to activate higher-order goals rather than lower-order behavioural constructs.
173 Critical words were matched between conditions on number of letters and lexical category.
174 For example, the word-string ‘to flowerpot be aiming healthy’ (‘aiming to be healthy’)
175 appeared in the health goal-priming condition, whereas ‘to flowerpot be aiming logical’
176 (‘aiming to be logical’) appeared instead as the corresponding word-string in the non-priming
177 condition. Two practice trials were included, and the order of the remaining word-strings was
178 randomised. Participants completed the task at their own pace.

179 **Bogus taste-test (dependent variable):** The ‘third experiment’ was introduced as a
180 product perception task. Participants were presented with three snack food samples: 125g of
181 candied chocolates, 80g of savoury biscuits, and 60g of potato chips. This diverse array of

182 snacks was selected to increase the likelihood of participants with disparate tastes being
183 tempted by the snacks. The samples were presented unwrapped in opaque plastic bowls. The
184 pre-consumption weights were specified such that the bowls were full upon presentation, and
185 a substantial amount could be consumed without leaving the bowls empty. Participants were
186 informed that they would have 7 minutes to taste the products and rate them using a
187 computerised questionnaire. In addition participants were informed (as though as an
188 afterthought): “By the way, feel free to help yourself to as much of the samples as you want;
189 we have heaps in the storeroom,” before the experimenter left the room. In keeping with the
190 taste-test cover story, the questionnaire asked participants to rate the extent to which they
191 found each product appealing in terms of appearance, taste, and texture, and liked the product
192 overall. Responses were made on a 5-point Likert scale (*strongly disagree – strongly agree*).

193 **Manipulation checks:** To check the effects of the depletion manipulation,
194 participants were asked to complete the Positive and Negative Affect Scales (PANAS;
195 Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), as well as rating how funny they found the video, and the
196 extent to which they experienced difficulty, fatigue, effort-exertion, and fighting of an urge
197 during the video task (each on a 7-point scale). The latter four questions were repeated to
198 check the effect of the goal-priming manipulation. In addition, participants rated how
199 important they had considered it to eat healthy food at the time of the taste-test (0: *not*
200 *important* to 7: *very important*). Participants also indicated how many hours it had been since
201 they last ate, and how hungry they had been on a unipolar scale from 0 (*not at all*) to 4 (*very*
202 *much*), when they first arrived at the laboratory. These latter two items were drawn from
203 Grand’s (1968) widely used Hunger Scale. Finally, participants reported their demographic
204 characteristics (age, sex, height, weight), and answered a free-response question to check for
205 suspicion of the research questions. They were then thanked and fully debriefed.

206 **Data preparation and analysis**

207 The weight of snack food remaining in each bowl was measured to the nearest gram,
208 and then subtracted from the pre-consumption weight. Those figures were summed to yield a
209 composite measure of total snack consumption (Ward & Mann, 2000). The liking ratings for
210 each of the three snack foods were summed to provide an index of overall liking (0 to 15;
211 higher scores indicate greater liking). Total positive affect and negative affect scores were
212 computed from the PANAS (higher scores indicate stronger affect; Watson et al., 1988).
213 Hunger scores were standardised and summed to provide an overall measure of initial hunger
214 (higher scores indicate greater hunger; Tapper & Pothos, 2010). Finally, body mass index
215 (BMI) was calculated.

216 Initially, chi-square tests of independence were performed to check for coincidental
217 between-group differences in sex and ethnicity; one-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs)
218 were conducted to test for differences in age, BMI, initial hunger, and overall liking of the
219 snack foods. Independent samples *t*-Tests were used to compare the experimental and control
220 groups on the manipulation check variables. Furthermore, Pearson product moment
221 correlation coefficients were calculated to investigate the relationships between participants'
222 self-reported snack-related attitudes (overall liking of the snack foods), motivations
223 (perceived importance of eating healthy food at the time of the taste-test), and initial hunger;
224 with total snack consumption.

225 The primary research questions were addressed by testing the main effects and
226 interaction between the depletion and goal-priming manipulations on total snack consumption
227 using an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). Based on evidence for the detrimental effect of
228 hunger on limiting food intake (Tomiyama, Mann, & Comer, 2009), and on self-control more
229 generally (Gailliot, 2013), initial hunger was included as a covariate. In the main analysis,
230 partial eta squared effect sizes were calculated for significant effects, while non-significant
231 effects were investigated using a sensitivity power analysis to reveal the minimum Cohen's *f*
232 effect size to which the test was adequately sensitive.

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Results

234 Sample characteristics and randomisation checks

235 After exclusions (suspicion of research question: $n = 4$; failure to comply with
236 instructions during the taste-test: $n = 2$), 85 participants (mean age = 20.08, $SD = 3.96$;
237 female: $n = 63$) remained in the final sample. The majority of the sample were in the normal
238 weight range ($n = 69$, overweight: $n = 7$, underweight: $n = 8$, obese: $n = 1$; mean BMI =
239 21.37, $SD = 2.65$), and most identified as either Caucasian ($n = 38$) or Asian ($n = 37$).

240 Participants were randomly allocated to the non-depletion/non-priming,
241 depletion/non-priming, depletion/goal-priming ($n = 21$ in each), or non-depletion/goal-
242 priming ($n = 22$) condition. There were no significant between-group differences on the
243 demographic, initial hunger, or overall liking of the snack foods variables (all $p > .05$).

244 Manipulation checks

245 Overall, participants appeared to like the snack foods (mean liking = 11.84, $SD =$
246 1.79; range = 0 - 15) and to consider it moderately important to eat healthy foods during the
247 taste-test (mean liking = 3.71, $SD = 1.84$; range = 0 - 7). The manipulation checks revealed
248 that depleted participants reported experiencing greater difficulty, effort-exertion, and
249 fighting of an urge than non-depleted participants during the depletion manipulation (all $p <$
250 $.01$). No other significant differences emerged between the experimental and control groups
251 on the variables in the manipulation checks (all $p > .05$). Total snack consumption was
252 positively correlated with overall liking of the snack foods ($r = .28$, $N = 85$, $p = .01$), and
253 negatively correlated with perceived importance of eating healthy foods during the taste-test
254 ($r = .40$, $N = 83$, $p = < .01$).

255 Main analysis

256 Initial hunger was significantly positively correlated with total snack consumption (r
257 = $.22$, $p = .047$). As a covariate, initial hunger was also significantly related to total snack
258 consumption in the ANCOVA, $F(1, 79) = 6.61$, $p = .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .08$. The main effect of depletion

259 was significant, such that consumption was higher in the depletion condition than in the non-
260 depletion condition, $F(1,79) = 4.36, p = .04, \eta_p = .05$ The main effect of goal-priming was
261 also significant, such that consumption was lower in the goal-priming condition than in the
262 non-priming condition, $F(1,79) = 4.57, p = .04, \eta_p = .06$. The interaction between the
263 depletion and goal-priming conditions was not significant, $F(1,79) = 0.74, p = .39$ (see Figure
264 1).¹ A sensitivity power analysis revealed that given the included sample of $N = 85$, a
265 significance level of $p = 0.05$, and minimum power of $1 - \beta = 0.8$, the test of the interaction
266 effect was sufficiently sensitive to detect effects of size $f = 0.31$ or larger.

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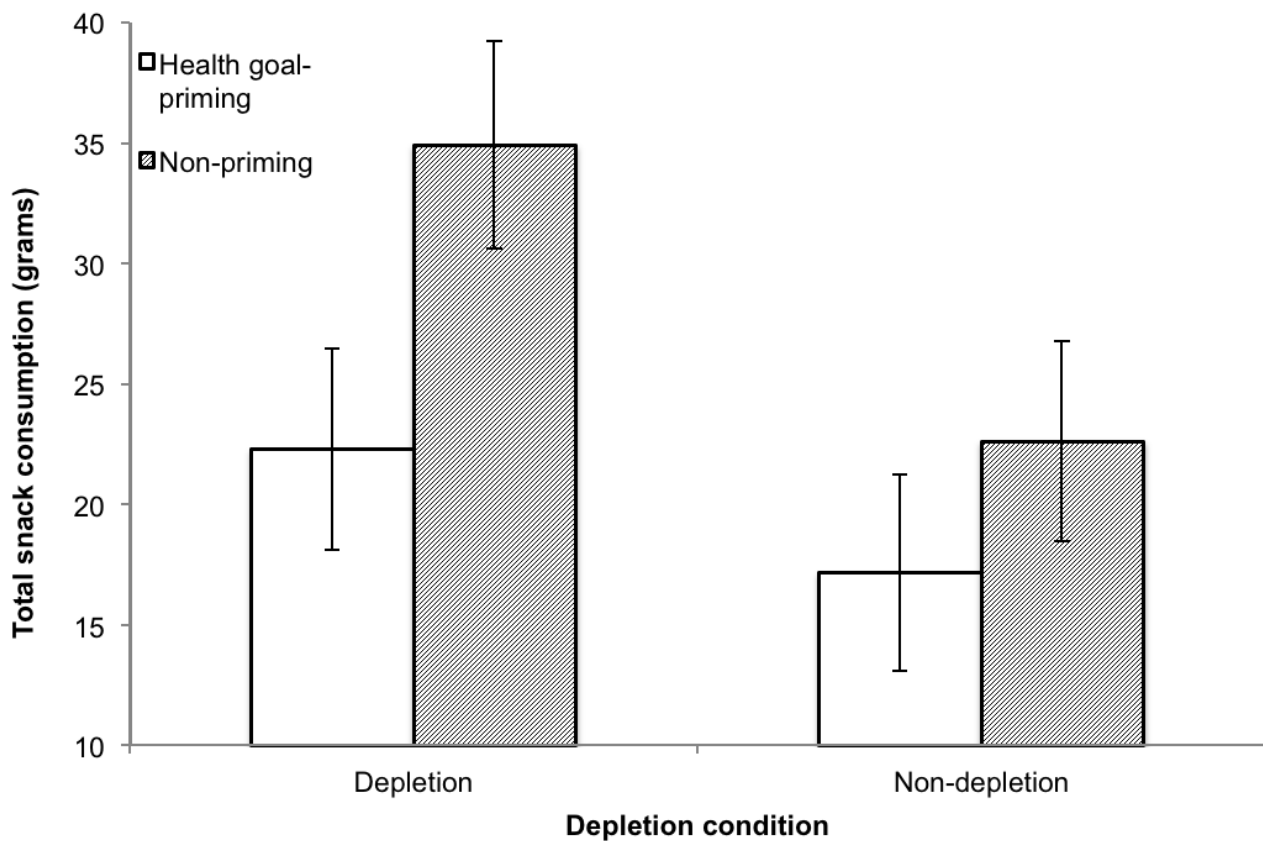
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¹ When the main analysis was repeated without controlling for initial hunger, the pattern of the group means for total snack consumption replicated that of the estimated marginal means in the original analysis. The depletion main effect became marginally significant ($F(1,81) = 3.90, p = .05, \eta_p = .05$), as did the goal-priming main effect ($F(1,81) = 3.03, p = .09, \eta_p = .04$). The depletion by goal-priming interaction remained non-significant ($F(1,81) = 0.66, p = .42$).



281 **Figure 1.** Mean total snack consumption during the bogus taste-test as a function
282 of depletion and goal-priming condition, after statistically controlling for initial hunger
283 ($N = 84$). Error bars show the standard error of the mean.

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Discussion

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The present study was concerned with whether depletion undermines success in enacting health behaviours, and with how health behaviours could be facilitated under depletion conditions. Specifically, it investigated: (1) whether depletion results in decreased ability to limit snacking among members of broader samples (i.e., without subdividing based on dietary restraint or BMI), and (2) whether health goal-priming is an effective technique for reducing snacking regardless of depletion. In support of the hypotheses, snacking was higher among depleted than non-depleted participants, and lower among primed than non-primed participants. No evidence for the depletion by goal-priming interaction was found.

294 Health behaviours under depletion conditions

295 Depleted participants' ratings on the depletion manipulation check were broadly
296 consistent with typical reports of the subjective experience of depletion (Hagger et al., 2010;
297 Muraven, 2012), indicating that the manipulation was successful. The significant main effect
298 of depletion is consistent with previous research showing the detrimental effect of depletion
299 on self-control outcomes in general (Hagger et al., 2010), and on health behaviours in
300 particular (Hagger, Wood, Stiff, & Chatzisarantis, 2009). Furthermore, the present findings
301 help to clarify previously mixed reports as to whether the specific health behaviour of
302 limiting snacking is compromised under depletion conditions, among members of broader
303 samples (Friese et al., 2008; study 2; Stillman et al., 2009; study 3; Zyphur et al., 2007; study
304 1). To overcome the limitations of previous studies, the present research only recruited
305 participants who held health goals, and included diverse foods in the taste-test in order to
306 appeal to divergent tastes. Thus, it was ensured that the study's taste-test fulfilled common
307 descriptions of self-control challenges (i.e., tasks requiring overriding competing internal
308 reactions and response tendencies: temptation to consume unhealthy but appealing snacks; in
309 order to direct behaviour towards long-term goals: health goals). The present findings
310 therefore suggest that when the health behaviour of limiting snacking involves self-control, it
311 is compromised under depletion conditions. Moreover, this effect appears to hold even in a
312 more broadly inclusive sample than depletion effects on snacking have typically been
313 observed in previously.

314 Practically, this implies that individuals may benefit from minimising exposure to
315 other depleting situations at times when limiting snacking is especially valued. For example,
316 it may be advisable to initiate the depleting lifestyle changes of improving one's diet and
317 quitting smoking at separate times rather than simultaneously (Shmueli & Prochaska, 2009).
318 Moreover, these findings highlight the need to develop interventions to facilitate health
319 behaviours under depletion conditions, especially in relation to snacking.

320 Facilitating health behaviours under depletion conditions

321 Mixed evidence for the success of the goal-priming manipulation was found: there
322 was no difference between the goal-priming and non-priming conditions on the manipulation
323 check asking about perceived importance of eating healthy foods during the taste-test, yet in
324 snacking less than non-primed participants the primed participants appeared to behave more
325 consistently with their health goals. In view of previous evidence that such behavioural
326 consequences of Scrambled Sentence Tasks are goal-driven (Chartrand & Bargh, 1996;
327 Chartrand, Huber, Shiv, & Tanner, 2008), it seems likely that the goal-manipulation was
328 successful though the manipulation check was insensitive to that effect. This insensitivity
329 may have ensued because the measure of perceived importance of eating healthy foods
330 consisted of a single item and would consequently have been disproportionately affected by
331 any item-specific biases, though further research is needed to explore this possibility.

332 The significant main effect of goal-priming is consistent with previous evidence that
333 priming health goals leads to healthier eating behaviours, including reduced snacking, among
334 individuals aiming to maintain healthy diets (Papies, 2012). Importantly, the present study
335 extended that evidence by providing one of the first tests of the efficacy of health goal-
336 priming under depletion compared to non-depletion conditions. The lack of an interaction
337 effect suggests that the beneficial effects of health goal-priming are not moderated by
338 depletion. This non-significant result should, however, be approached with some caution.
339 Although the post-hoc sensitivity analysis indicated that the sample was large enough to
340 detect a significant medium-sized interaction effect, the validity of post-hoc power analyses
341 has been debated (Hoenig & Heisey, 2001). A significant interaction may have emerged in a
342 higher-powered study. Based on the pattern of group means for snack consumption however,
343 such an interaction would have indicated that the goal-priming effect was stronger for
344 depleted compared to non-depleted participants. In any case then, the present results imply

345 that health goal-priming is *at least* as effective when individuals are depleted as when they
346 are not.

347 That conclusion mirrors Alberts et al.'s (2007) finding that the effects of priming
348 perseverance were either not moderated by depletion (study 1), or were stronger among
349 depleted participants (study 2). Whereas Alberts et al.'s outcome measure involved physical
350 endurance, the present study found similar evidence with respect to performance in a
351 different self-control domain: snacking. By contrast, Walsh (2014) recently found that the
352 effect of health goal-priming on snack choices was eradicated when participants were
353 depleted. These discrepant results may reflect the measurement of different outcomes:
354 whereas Walsh assessed a hypothetical snack choice, the present study measured actual snack
355 consumption. Depletion may diminish cognitive resources that are necessary to facilitate
356 goal-priming effects on hypothetical thinking, but are not required for goal-priming to
357 influence behaviour. Future research should clarify how specific cognitive and behavioural
358 effects of goal-priming are affected by depletion.

359 Practically, these findings build on previous recommendations of goal-priming as a
360 simple, low-cost, unobtrusive technique for facilitating health behaviours, and especially for
361 reducing snacking (Papies, 2012). The present research strengthens that argument by
362 demonstrating that goal-priming's beneficial effects may be harnessed even when individuals
363 are depleted. This augments the importance of this technique since depleted individuals are at
364 particular risk for lapses in health behaviours including snacking, and may be less able to
365 benefit from health interventions that target more explicit cognitions (Friese et al., 2008;
366 studies 2 and 3; Hofmann et al., 2007). In considering the applicability of this technique in
367 real-world contexts however, it must be remembered that goal-priming is thought to affect
368 individuals' behaviour without their conscious participation in, or even awareness of, this
369 process (Custers & Aarts, 2010). Accordingly, issues of public acceptability and the ethics of
370 consent should be explored with regard to such covert behaviour change techniques.

371 Limitations and conclusions

372 The present study had several potential limitations that should be considered when
373 interpreting the results. Firstly, the sample was comprised solely of university
374 undergraduates, and primarily of females in the normal weight range. The study needs
375 replication with a more diverse sample in order to investigate the generalisability of the
376 present conclusions to heterogeneous populations. Secondly, as with most experimental
377 studies in this field, for ethical reasons depletion was induced by imposing only brief and
378 relatively minor self-control demands. Consequently, the effects of depletion in this research
379 may not represent the effects of more chronic and intense depletion episodes. Future research
380 should investigate snacking and the effects of health goal-priming among individuals
381 undergoing such significant depletion episodes in their everyday lives. Thirdly, snacking was
382 also narrowly operationalised, as consumption of unhealthy foods presented to participants.
383 Accordingly, the present results may not generalise to all instances of snacking. Future
384 research should test the independent and multiplicative effects of depletion and health goal-
385 priming on other snacking-related behaviours, such as seeking out snacks that are not readily
386 available.

387 In view of high behavioural contributions to mortality worldwide, the present study
388 extended research invoking self-control factors to improve understanding of lapses in, and
389 facilitation of, health behaviours such as limiting snacking. The main novel conclusions are
390 that: (1) when limiting snacking requires self-control, snacking appears to be elevated under
391 depletion conditions. This effect seems to emerge in broader samples than has been
392 previously shown (i.e., without subdividing based on dietary restraint or BMI), and (2) health
393 goal-priming seems to facilitate reduced snacking, and this beneficial effect seems to be at
394 least as strong when individuals are depleted as when they are not. These conclusions
395 highlight the need to recognise and minimise the role of depletion as a risk factor for lapses in
396 health behaviours. Furthermore, they point to the considerable promise of health goal-

397 priming as a simple but effective means of facilitating health behaviours even under depletion
398 conditions, under which more explicit techniques may be expected to enjoy less success. It is
399 now important to plan and encourage the translation of such understandings and techniques
400 from the laboratory into everyday settings, such as homes and public spaces (e.g., through
401 health-related posters) and the media (e.g., through health-related television broadcasts).
402 Ultimately, these may constitute significant steps towards capitalising on self-control
403 research in order to reduce behavioural contributions to non-communicable diseases.

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Acknowledgements

406 The authors would like to thank members of the health psychology laboratory groups at The
407 University of Sydney and Curtin University, as well as two anonymous reviewers, for their
408 helpful comments on earlier drafts of this manuscript.

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