

1 **Eating with a smaller spoon decreases bite size, eating rate and *ad-libitum* food intake in**
2 **healthy young males**

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20 **Running Head:** Spoon size and eating behaviour

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26 **Abstract**

27 There is a paucity of data examining the effect of cutlery size on the microstructure of within-
28 meal eating behaviour or food intake. Therefore, the present studies examined how
29 manipulation of spoon size influenced these eating behaviour measures in lean young men. In
30 study one, subjects ate a semi-solid porridge breakfast *ad-libitum*, until satiation. In study two,
31 subjects ate a standardised amount of porridge, with mean bite size and mean eating rate
32 covertly measured by observation through a one-way mirror. Both studies involved subjects
33 completing a familiarisation visit and two experimental visits, where they ate with a tea spoon
34 (SMALL) or dessert spoon (LARGE), in randomised order. Subjective appetite measures
35 (hunger, fullness, desire to eat, and satisfaction) were made before and after meals. In study
36 one, subjects ate 8% less food when they ate with the SMALL spoon (SMALL 532 (SD 189) g;
37 LARGE 575 (SD 227) g; $P=0.006$). In study two, mean bite size (SMALL 10.5 (SD 1.3) g;
38 LARGE 13.7 (SD 2.6) g; $P<0.001$) and eating rate (SMALL 92 (SD 25) g/min; LARGE 108 (SD
39 29) g/min; $P<0.001$) were reduced in the SMALL condition. There were no condition or
40 interaction effects for subjective appetite measures. These results suggest that eating with a
41 small spoon decreases *ad-libitum* food intake, possibly via a cascade of effects on within-
42 meal eating microstructure. A small spoon might be a practical strategy for decreasing bite size,
43 and eating rate, likely increasing oral processing, and subsequently decreasing food intake, at
44 least in lean young men.

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53 **Key words:** appetite; energy balance; weight gain; obesity; portion size

54 Introduction

55 Obesity, the result of chronic positive energy balance, continues to rise^(1,2), representing a major
56 health and economic burden on society. Increases in portion size are believed to contribute to
57 excess energy intake (i.e. energy intake greater than energy expenditure), and recent evidence
58 suggests that reducing portion size can decrease food intake⁽³⁾. Manipulation of the eating
59 environment, and specifically tableware, is one strategy that has been used to reduce portion
60 size^(3,4). Whilst the impact of dishware size (i.e. plate or bowl size) on food intake has been
61 well studied, albeit with varied findings⁽⁴⁾, the role of cutlery size has received little attention.

62 Manipulating the microstructure of within-meal eating behaviour (e.g. bite size, eating rate etc.)
63 might independently or interactively influence food intake. A recent meta-analysis of
64 intervention studies reported that a faster eating rate was associated with increased *ad-libitum*
65 food intake compared eating more slowly⁽⁵⁾. Similarly, bite or sip size has been shown to
66 influence food intake, with smaller bites or sips decreasing *ad-libitum* intake⁽⁶⁻⁸⁾, possibly via
67 an interaction with eating rate^(9,10). Intuitively, manipulation of cutlery size might influence bite
68 size by altering the amount of food presented to the mouth, potentially influencing eating rate
69 and food intake. Indeed, Geier *et al.*⁽¹¹⁾ reported that increasing the size of a spoon used to serve
70 chocolate confectionary increased the amount of food served, but little is known about how
71 cutlery used to eat meals influences food intake.

72 Previous studies have used smaller cutlery (namely spoons) as part of a combined strategy
73 (including instructions to eat slowly, chew the food more, put the spoon down between bites
74 etc.) to reduce eating rate^(12,13). However, the combination of strategies used makes it difficult
75 to discern the specific effects of cutlery size on eating behaviour. Mishra *et al.*⁽¹⁴⁾ is, to our
76 knowledge, the only study to directly examine the effect of cutlery size on *ad-libitum* food
77 intake. Mishra *et al.*⁽¹⁴⁾ reported that in a controlled laboratory environment, eating with a small
78 fork decreased *ad-libitum* food intake, but the reverse was reported (i.e. a smaller fork increased
79 food intake) when meals were consumed in a habitual restaurant setting. The authors attribute
80 this disparity between settings to goal-effort links pertaining to the eating environment,
81 although interpretation of the results from the restaurant are complicated by the uncontrolled
82 conditions present (i.e. the different meals selected, starters eaten, variety of drinks available/
83 consumed, dessert planned, social interactions etc.), making firm conclusions difficult to make.
84 How manipulation of cutlery size influences the micro-structure of within-meal eating
85 behaviour is currently unknown.

86 Due to the paucity and inconsistency of data examining the influence of cutlery size on within-
87 meal eating behaviour, the present studies aimed to compare the effects of eating a semi-solid
88 breakfast with a tea spoon (small spoon) or dessert spoon (large spoon) on 1) *ad-libitum* food
89 intake (study one) and 2) the microstructure of within-meal eating behaviour including bite
90 size, eating rate and meal duration (study two). It was hypothesised that eating with a small
91 spoon would reduce *ad-libitum* food intake in study one, and that eating with a small spoon
92 would reduce bite size and eating rate, as well as increasing meal duration in study two.

93 **Methods**

94 *Overview of experimental protocol*

95 This investigation comprised two separate studies, which were conducted according to the
96 guidelines laid down in the Declaration of Helsinki and all procedures were approved by the
97 Loughborough University Ethics Approvals (Human Participants) Sub-Committee and
98 Sheffield Hallam University Faculty of Health and Wellbeing Ethics Committee (R13-P7;
99 C15-34). Data for study one were collected at both institutions, whilst data for study two were
100 only collected at Loughborough University. Written informed consent was obtained from all
101 subjects before participation. During both studies, subjects completed a familiarisation trial,
102 followed by two experimental trials completed in a randomised order and separated by ≥ 7 days.
103 Randomisation was undertaken before the start of data collection. During experimental trials,
104 subjects consumed an *ad-libitum* (study one) or a standardised (study two) breakfast meal with
105 a tea spoon (SMALL) or dessert spoon (LARGE). Spoons were from the same cutlery set
106 (Tesco Value, Tesco, Cheshunt, UK) and thus, except for size, were identical in appearance.
107 The SMALL and LARGE spoons were 146 mm and 194 mm in length, respectively and had
108 heads that were roughly oval in shape. The length and width of the SMALL spoon's head were
109 46 mm and 31 mm, respectively, whilst the length and width of the LARGE spoon's head were
110 61 mm and 42 mm, respectively. The estimated surface area of the SMALL spoon's head was
111 $\sim 39\%$ less than the LARGE spoon's head (i.e. $\sim 1230 \text{ mm}^2$ vs $\sim 2030 \text{ mm}^2$).

112 *Subjects*

113 Twenty-nine men (age 24 (SD 4) y, height 1.77 (SD 0.06) m, body mass 73.7 (SD 8.8) kg, BMI
114 23.5 (SD 2.4 kg/m^2), body fat 17 (SD 4) %) completed study one, whilst sixteen men (age 27
115 (SD 3) y, height 1.82 (SD 0.06) m, body mass 79.9 (SD 9.9) kg, BMI 24.0 (SD 1.9 kg/m^2), body
116 fat 15 (SD 3) %) completed study two. For inclusion subjects were required to be male, with a

117 BMI <30kg/m² and body fat <25%, be generally fit and healthy with no acute or chronic
118 morbidity known to influence appetite/ food intake and had to not score in the clinical range
119 for dietary restraint, disinhibition or hunger, as measured by the Three Factor Eating
120 Questionnaire⁽¹⁵⁾. Eight subjects had a BMI >25 kg/m² (range 25.2-27.9 kg/m²).

121 *Pre-trial standardisation*

122 In both studies subjects recorded all food and drink consumed, as well as any low intensity
123 habitual physical activity undertaken in the 24 h before the first experimental trial. They were
124 then asked to replicated these diet and activity patterns in the 24 h before the second
125 experimental trial. Subjects were asked to refrain from moderate or strenuous physical activity
126 and alcohol intake during this 24 h period. All trials commenced in the morning after an
127 overnight fast (07:00-10:00), with the time standardised for each subject.

128 *Familiarisation trials*

129 During both studies, subjects initially completed a familiarisation trial prior to experimental
130 trials. At this visit, subjects' height and body mass were determined, before subcutaneous
131 skinfold measurements were obtained from the triceps, biceps, subscapular and suprailiac for
132 estimation of body fat percentage⁽¹⁶⁾. Subjects were then familiarised with the methods used in
133 experimental trials, by undertaking a practice trial identical in procedure to the experimental
134 trials, during which the LARGE spoon was used to eat.

135 *The breakfast meal*

136 Porridge was used as a breakfast meal in both studies. In study one, three flavours of porridge
137 were available (plain, chocolate and golden syrup), with subjects choosing their preferred
138 flavour before the familiarisation trial and eating this flavour during all subsequent trials. The
139 meal was made by mixing a commercially available porridge oat mix (Ready Brek, Weetabix,
140 Kettering, UK) with semi-skimmed milk (Tesco, Cheshunt, UK) in a ratio of 90 g oats: 420
141 mL milk. In study two, all subjects were provided with the plain porridge, sweetened with sugar,
142 with a ratio of 72 g oats: 18 g sugar: 420 mL milk. In each study, all meals were prepared using
143 standardised operating procedures to ensure identical temperature, texture and flavour for each
144 participant for each trial, with bowls and spoons weighed before preparation, as well as before
145 and after eating to determine food consumption.

146 *Study one experimental protocol*

147 Subjects consumed an *ad-libitum* porridge breakfast in each trial, and were given standardised
148 instructions to ‘eat until you are comfortably full and satisfied’. The meal was served in a
149 custom-made eating booth to minimise external distractions and to allow experimenters to
150 supply food to subjects with minimal interaction. Subjects were provided with a bowl of
151 porridge and a spoon to eat with. They ate until they had consumed approximately $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ of
152 the bowl (time taken to do this was determined during the familiarisation trial), when another
153 bowl was supplied. This pattern continued until subjects were satiated. The eating booth was
154 situated inside a larger eating laboratory (still devoid of food cues) and subjects left the booth,
155 but remained inside the laboratory once satiated. They remained inside the laboratory for the
156 duration of the 30-min eating period, and could return to the eating booth and continue eating
157 if they desired. Each subject was in isolation in the eating laboratory during each 30 min eating
158 period, with only essential interaction between experimenter and subject for the delivery of
159 food and water at pre-determined time points. Water was available *ad-libitum* throughout the
160 meal, with glasses weighed before and after the meal to determine the amount consumed.
161 Before and after the 30-min eating period, subjects provided ratings of hunger, fullness, desire
162 to eat (DTE) and satisfaction.

163 To blind subjects to the true aim of the study they were told the purpose of the study was to
164 assess the reproducibility of the *ad-libitum* breakfast meal. This information was disseminated
165 to subjects through a written information sheet that they read prior to consenting to take part in
166 the study. This was reaffirmed by an experimenter verbally explaining the study design and the
167 purpose (i.e. to examine reproducibility of the meal). At the end of the study, subjects were
168 asked three exit questions: ‘Did you think the meals were similar in texture/ taste’, ‘Do you
169 think the eating environment was similar between trials?’, ‘Do you have any other comments?’.
170 These questions gave subjects the opportunity to indicate if they had noticed the difference in
171 spoon size between trials.

172 *Study two experimental protocol*

173 Subjects were provided with a standardised porridge meal providing 15% of estimated daily
174 energy requirements, which were determined using their predicted resting metabolic rate⁽¹⁷⁾
175 multiplied by a physical activity level of 1.5. The meal was consumed in an observation
176 laboratory, which included a section of one-way mirror, so an experimenter could observe the
177 subject whilst they ate. The meal was served in a single bowl and subjects were instructed to
178 ‘eat until you have finished the bowl’. During eating, the same experimenter recorded each

179 time the subject took a spoonful of porridge from the bowl and each time they took a mouthful
180 (bite) of porridge from the spoon. The total time taken to eat the meal was also recorded. Before
181 and immediately after finishing the meal, subjects provided ratings of hunger, fullness, DTE
182 and satisfaction, with a final rating taken 15 min after starting the meal. No water was
183 consumed during the meal. Again, each subject was in isolation in the eating laboratory during
184 each 15 min eating period, with only essential interaction between experimenter and subject
185 for the delivery of food and appetite questionnaires.

186 Mean eating rate (g/min) was determined by dividing the total weight of porridge consumed
187 by the time taken to eat the meal. Mean bite size (g) was determined by dividing the total weight
188 of porridge consumed by the number of bites taken to eat the porridge.

189 To blind subjects to the true aim of the study they were told the purpose of the study was to
190 assess the subjective appetite response to eating with different size spoons. Subjects were not
191 aware they were being observed.

192 *Subjective appetite sensations*

193 Subjects completed visual analogue scale questionnaires⁽¹⁸⁾ to assess their hunger ‘How hungry
194 do you feel now?’, fullness ‘How full do you feel now?’, desire to eat ‘how much would you
195 like to eat a meal now?’, and satisfaction ‘How satisfied do you feel now?’. Questions were
196 administered on a 100 mm lines, with the verbal anchors ‘not at all’ and ‘very’ at 0 mm and
197 100 mm, respectively.

198 *Sample size*

199 An α of 0.05 and a β of 0.2 were used to estimate the required sample size for each study. For
200 study 1, previous data from our laboratory⁽¹⁹⁾ was used to estimate food intake and a between
201 group correlation of 0.9 estimated 25 subjects would be required to detect an 8% difference in
202 food intake, providing an estimated effect size (dz) of 0.59. For study 2, approximate eating
203 rates and the between group correlation of 0.94 observed in study 1 were used to estimate 16
204 subjects would be required to detect an 8% difference in mean eating rate, providing an
205 estimated effect size (dz) of 0.77.

206 *Statistical analysis*

207 All data were analysed using IBM SPSS Statistics 23. All data was initially checked for
208 normality of distribution using a Shapiro-Wilk test. Subjective appetite data were analysed

209 using two-way repeated measures ANOVA. Where the assumption of sphericity was violated
210 the degrees of freedom were corrected using the Greenhouse-Geisser estimate. Data containing
211 one factor were analysed using paired t-tests (normally distributed data) or Wilcoxon signed-
212 rank tests (non-normally distributed data). Effect sizes (Cohen's d_z) were calculated for paired
213 comparisons. Relationships between variables were explored using Pearson's product-moment
214 correlation coefficient or Spearman's rank correlation coefficient, as appropriate. Differences
215 were accepted as being significant when $P \leq 0.05$ and all data are presented as mean (SD) unless
216 otherwise stated.

217 **Results**

218 *Study one*

219 *Ad-libitum food intake*

220 The amount of food consumed during the *ad libitum* meal was 8% less when subjects ate with
221 the small spoon compared to the large spoon (SMALL 532 (SD 189) g, LARGE 575 (SD 227)
222 g; $Z = -2.692$; $d_z = 0.55$; $P = 0.006$; Figure 1a), whilst water drunk with the meal was similar
223 between trials (SMALL (362 (SD 130) g; LARGE 325 (SD 129) g; $t = 1.454$; ; $d_z = -0.27$;
224 $P = 0.157$).

225 *Subjective appetite*

226 Due to an issue with one appetite questionnaire on one trial for one subject, the results for 28
227 subjects are presented. There were main effects of time for hunger ($F_{(1,27)} = 574.336$; $P < 0.001$;
228 Table 1), fullness ($F_{(1,27)} = 640.587$; $P < 0.001$; Table 1), DTE ($F_{(1,27)} = 688.796$; $P < 0.001$; Table
229 1) and satisfaction ($F_{(1,27)} = 312.917$; $P < 0.001$; Table 1), with hunger and DTE decreasing and
230 fullness and satisfaction increasing over the meal. However, there were no main effects of trial
231 (hunger $F_{(1,27)} = 0.547$; $P = 0.466$; fullness $F_{(1,27)} = 0.159$; $P = 0.693$; DTE $F_{(1,27)} = 0.939$; $P = 0.341$;
232 satisfaction $F_{(1,15)} = 1.191$; $P = 0.285$), or interaction effects (hunger $F_{(1,27)} = 0.005$; $P = 0.945$;
233 fullness $F_{(1,27)} = 0.473$; $P = 0.497$; DTE $F_{(1,27)} = 0.149$; $P = 0.703$; satisfaction $F_{(1,27)} = 0.989$;
234 $P = 0.329$).

235 *Study blinding*

236 Seven subjects (24%) identified that the spoons used in the two experimental trials were
237 different sizes during the exit questions. When the 7 subjects who reported an awareness of
238 the difference in spoon size between conditions were removed, *ad libitum* food consumption

239 was still ~8% less in the small spoon condition (SMALL 554 (SD 198) g, LARGE 599 (SD 238)
240 g; $t=-2.364$; $dz=0.54$; $P=0.028$; Figure 1b)

241 *Study two*

242 *Eating behaviour*

243 The amount of residual porridge remaining on the bowl and spoon at the end of the meal was
244 similar between trials ($Z=-0.085$; $dz=0.14$; $P=0.932$; Table 2), and consequently the amount
245 of porridge consumed was also similar between trials ($t=0.122$; $dz=0.03$; $P=0.904$; Table 2).

246 The number of spoonfuls ($Z=-3.520$; $dz=2.03$; $P<0.001$; Table 2) and bites ($Z=-3.519$; $dz=2.00$;
247 $P<0.001$; Table 2), as well as the total time ($t=4.078$; $dz=-1.05$; $P<0.001$; Table 2) taken to eat
248 the meal were all greater during the SMALL trial. In both trials there was a strong correlation
249 between the number of spoonfuls and bites used to eat the meal (SMALL $r=0.991$; $P<0.001$;
250 LARGE $r=0.968$; $P<0.001$), with 11 out of 16 subjects using an identical number of spoonfuls
251 and bites in both trials. Consequently, mean bite size ($t=-6.155$; $dz=1.59$; $P<0.001$; Figure 2a)
252 and eating rate ($Z=-3.258$; $dz=1.04$; $P=0.001$; Figure 2b) were lower during the SMALL trial.
253 There were positive correlations between the change in bite size and change in eating rate,
254 when represented as absolute ($r=0.612$; $P=0.012$; Figure 3) or relative ($r=0.613$; $P=0.012$)
255 values.

256 *Subjective appetite*

257 There were main effects of time for hunger ($F_{(1,094,16,403)}=66.761$; $P<0.001$; Table 1), fullness
258 ($F_{(1,193,17,902)}=116.390$; $P<0.001$; Table 1), DTE ($F_{(1,068,16,021)}=98.587$; $P<0.001$; Table 1) and
259 satisfaction ($F_{(1,116,16,737)}=106.283$; $P<0.001$; Table 1), with hunger and DTE decreasing and
260 fullness and satisfaction increasing over the meal. However, there were no main effects of trial
261 (hunger $F_{(1,15)}=0.010$; $P=0.923$; fullness $F_{(1,15)}=3.587$; $P=0.078$; DTE $F_{(1,15)}=0.037$; $P=0.851$;
262 satisfaction $F_{(1,15)}=2.402$; $P=0.142$), or interaction effects (hunger $F_{(2,30)}=0.911$; $P=0.413$;
263 fullness $F_{(2,30)}=0.661$; $P=0.524$; DTE $F_{(2,30)}=0.461$; $P=0.635$; satisfaction $F_{(2,30)}=1.437$;
264 $P=0.253$).

265 **Discussion**

266 These studies aimed to examine the effect of manipulating cutlery size (i.e. spoon size) on *ad-*
267 *libitum* food intake (study one) and the microstructure of within-meal eating behaviour
268 (specifically bite size, eating rate and meal duration; study two) using a semi-solid breakfast

269 food (porridge) in lean young men. The main finding from study one was that eating with the
270 small spoon resulted in a small, but statistically significant (~8%) decrease in *ad-libitum* food
271 intake. The main findings from study two were that subjects used more spoonfuls, used more
272 bites, and took more time to finish the standardised meal when they ate with the small spoon.
273 These findings meant that both mean bite size and mean eating rate were less when subjects
274 ate with the small spoon.

275 Prolonged positive energy balance (i.e. energy intake greater than energy expenditure) results
276 in accumulation of energy within the body, principally in adipose tissue, and ultimately leads
277 to obesity. As the prevalence of obesity continues to rise both in the UK⁽¹⁾ and around the
278 globe⁽²⁾, strategies that reduce energy balance become increasingly important. Clearly,
279 reducing energy intake by moderating portion size is one such strategy that might assist with
280 energy balance control. The results for *ad-libitum* food intake (i.e. study one) are consistent
281 with those of a similar controlled laboratory experiment, reporting that eating with a smaller
282 fork reduce

283 d food intake from an *ad-libitum* pasta meal⁽¹⁴⁾. Interestingly, Mishra *et al.*⁽¹⁴⁾ also reported the
284 reverse response in an uncontrolled restaurant setting (i.e. those who ate with the larger fork
285 ate less). The authors suggest the disparity in findings between laboratory and restaurant
286 settings relate to the presence of a well-defined goal-effort link in the restaurant setting.
287 However, the lack of control between groups (i.e. small/large fork) in the restaurant study for
288 the meal selected, starters eaten, variety of drinks available/consumed, dessert planned, social
289 interactions etc. make the findings difficult to interpret. It seems, when tested in a controlled
290 laboratory environment, that reducing cutlery size decreases food intake, but further work is
291 needed to explore other eating occasions and environments to better understand the effects.
292 None-the-less, the finding that *ad-libitum* food intake is reduced when the food is eaten with a
293 smaller spoon is intriguing as it suggests using smaller cutlery might offer a simple practical
294 strategy to help moderate daily energy intake.

295 In study two we investigated some of the potential mechanisms by which manipulating cutlery
296 size might influence *ad-libitum* food intake. Accumulating evidence suggests that oral
297 processing might represent an important factor governing food intake, with increased oral
298 processing (i.e. increased orosensory exposure) increasing satiation⁽⁹⁾. Two inter-related
299 elements of within-meal eating microstructure that might influence oral processing are bite size
300 and eating rate.

301 The results of study two demonstrate that eating with a small spoon increases the number of
302 spoonfuls used to eat the meal, consequently reducing bite size by ~24%. Although not a
303 universal finding⁽²⁰⁾, reducing bite/sip size of a food/liquid has been shown to decrease *ad-*
304 *libitum* intake⁽⁶⁻⁸⁾. For example, Zijlstra *et al.*⁽⁷⁾ reported an ~18% decrease in *ad-libitum* intake
305 of a chocolate custard when bite size was reduced from 15 g to 5 g (i.e. ~67% reduction).
306 Similarly, reducing sip size of soup by ~67% (i.e. 15 g vs. 5 g) decreased intake by ~30%⁽⁸⁾,
307 whilst reducing sip size of regular-energy and no-energy orangeade by 75% (i.e. 20 g vs 5 g)
308 decreased intake by ~29% and ~17%, respectively⁽⁶⁾. The result for *ad-libitum* food intake in
309 study one was more modest than these previous studies that have manipulated bite size (i.e. a
310 reduction of ~8% vs ~17-30%), but this is unsurprising given the reduction in bite size observed
311 in study two was also more modest (i.e. a reduction of ~24% vs 67-75%). These previous
312 studies used a peristaltic pump to deliver the food to the mouth, but study two demonstrates
313 that using a small spoon is a practical method of achieving a meaningful reduction in bite size,
314 and apparently food intake, without the requirement for the individual to consciously reduce
315 their bite size.

316 Previous studies have reported bite size is associated with eating rate^(9,10,20). In study two,
317 subjects took longer to eat the standardised meal when eating with the small spoon, facilitating
318 a reduction of ~14% in mean eating rate. A recent systematic review/meta-analysis reported
319 that eating more slowly was associated with a lower energy intake compared to faster eating⁽⁵⁾,
320 and that this was consistent across the various interventions used to alter eating rate. Whilst not
321 all studies that have experimentally manipulated eating rate report reduced energy intake with
322 slower eating^(13,21), the majority do^(12,21-25). The change in eating rate between trials was
323 positively associated with the change in bite size, suggesting that the decreased bite size
324 produced by eating with a small spoon may, at least partially, be responsible for the reduced
325 eating rate. Although oral processing time was not measured in the present study, previous
326 work has demonstrated that taking smaller bites leads to a larger number of chews per unit of
327 food^(19,26,27). Therefore, the increased number of bites, likely lead to more chewing/oral
328 processing of the food per unit weight, consequently reducing eating rate. Although these
329 elements of eating microstructure were not measured in study one, we propose the cascade of
330 effects observed in study two likely explain the reduction in *ad-libitum* food intake observed
331 in study one.

332 Interestingly, the manipulation of spoon size appeared to produce diminishing effects as this
333 cascade of eating behaviour responses progressed. The surface area of the small spoon was

334 ~39% less than the large spoon, which caused a decrease in mean bite size of ~24%, leading to
335 a reduction in mean eating rate of ~14%, and finally a decrease in *ad-libitum* food intake of
336 ~8%. As this intervention represented a relatively large reduction in the size of spoon used, the
337 utility of manipulating cutlery size might be limited to relatively small reductions in food intake
338 (i.e. <10%). It has been suggested that the discrepancy between energy intake and expenditure
339 causing weight gain is slight⁽²⁸⁾, and thus even a small difference induced by using smaller
340 cutlery might have a meaningful effect on weight maintenance/loss goals in the long-term. The
341 studies reported here only tested a relatively small homogenous sample of lean young males.
342 Hopefully these preliminary results will stimulate future research in a much larger and more
343 heterogenous sample including females, children, older adults and those with greater levels of
344 adiposity. Future studies should seek to explore these different groups as well as document
345 responses to repeated exposure to smaller cutlery to explore whether eating behaviour
346 responses are altered by increased exposure, as well as examining the effects of different
347 cutlery types (i.e. fork, knife etc.).

348 Manipulation of spoon size did not alter the subjective appetite response to either an *ad-libitum*
349 or a standardised meal. This is consistent with previous studies that have manipulated eating
350 rate, with Robinson *et al.*⁽⁵⁾ reporting that eating more slowly did not affect subjective appetite
351 for *ad-libitum* or standardised meals. The fact that hunger, fullness and desire to eat were
352 similar at the end of the meal in study one suggests that subjects terminated eating due to
353 satiation, as opposed to boredom or frustration from using the small spoon. Whilst subjects
354 were not specifically asked about their perceptions of using the different size spoons, ratings
355 of satisfaction were similar between trials in both study one and study two, possibly suggesting
356 subjects did not find the experience of eating with a small spoon a negative one. However,
357 these satisfaction ratings more likely represent subjects feeling of satisfaction related to their
358 appetite than how satisfied they were with the spoon they ate with. Future work should focus
359 more specifically on how subjects eating experience/ enjoyment is affected by manipulation of
360 cutlery size. None-the-less, given the similarity in sensations of hunger and fullness between
361 trials, it does not appear that subjects in this study terminated eating due to frustration with
362 eating with a small spoon. We attempted to control for demand characteristics in both studies
363 using cover stories and in study 1 tried to covertly understand who had noticed the difference
364 between conditions through the post-trial interview. Whilst removal of those subjects who
365 reported an awareness of the different spoon sizes did not influence the results for energy intake
366 (Figure 1b), more direct questions about the conditions would have given us a better picture of

367 the success of our cover story and the experience of eating with a small spoon. Interestingly,
368 perhaps future studies should look to blind investigators that interact with subjects too⁽²⁹⁾,
369 although this might be difficult in the context of the present studies.

370 The present study used methods that are consistent with literature exploring eating behaviour
371 responses in a controlled laboratory environment. Whilst this allows relatively small
372 differences between treatments to be detected, it must be acknowledged that the eating situation
373 is not representative of many naturalistic meal environments. Much food intake is planned in
374 advance of eating⁽³⁰⁾ or is served onto a plate in what the server (whoever that may be) deems
375 to be an appropriate portion. At least for self-served portions, food served is generally eaten in
376 its entirety⁽³¹⁾, meaning that in a naturalistic eating setting there may be no opportunity for
377 cutlery size to interact with *ad libitum* food intake. However, given study 2 presented here
378 suggests that reducing spoon size reduces bite size and eating rate, the manipulation of cutlery
379 might offer a simple method of manipulating these components of eating behaviour
380 microstructure. It is also worth noting that in some situations where increased energy intake or
381 increased intake of specific foods might be a goal, it may be advantageous to eat with a larger
382 spoon.

383 In conclusion, the results of these studies demonstrate that eating with a small spoon reduces
384 *ad-libitum* food intake, an effect that is likely caused by alterations in the microstructure of
385 within-meal eating behaviour in lean young men. Specifically, it appears that eating with a
386 small spoon decreases bite size, likely increasing oral processing time, and consequently
387 reducing eating rate. The data reported here suggests using a small spoon might represent a
388 simple practical strategy to reduce bite size, eating rate and *ad-libitum* food intake at a single
389 meal and might be a useful tool that could be used, possibly along with other interventions, to
390 aid in the prevention of weight gain and obesity. Given this study only examined the effect of
391 spoon size on eating behaviour at a single laboratory-based breakfast meal, future studies
392 should examine how different types of cutlery, or different eating occasions/environments
393 influence eating behaviour, as well as how chronic manipulation of cutlery size effects energy
394 intake and energy balance.

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404 collection. LJJ performed the data analysis, with assistance from DRB. LJJ wrote the
405 manuscript with assistance from JB, TM and DRB.

406 **Conflict of interest**

407 None.

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505 Table 1. Hunger (mm), fullness (mm) and satisfaction (mm) before and after the fixed meal
 506 periods for both study one (30 min) and study two (15 min), as well as immediately after
 507 finishing eating the standardised meal in study two. Data are presented as mean (SD).

	Before meal period		Immediately after eating		After meal period	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Study one: hunger (mm)						
SMALL	76	15	-	-	5	5
LARGE	75	15	-	-	4	5
Study one: fullness (mm)						
SMALL	17	13	-	-	89	8
LARGE	16	11	-	-	89	8
Study one: desire to eat (mm)						
SMALL	82	11	-	-	7	11
LARGE	81	13	-	-	5	6
Study one: satisfaction (mm)						
SMALL	22	13	-	-	86	16
LARGE	22	17	-	-	90	8
Study two: hunger (mm)						
SMALL	74	19	20	15	16	15
LARGE	75	21	18	14	17	15
Study two: fullness (mm)						
SMALL	19	15	78	9	78	14
LARGE	15	14	74	14	77	15
Study two: desire to eat (mm)						
SMALL	82	18	19	17	17	16
LARGE	78	17	20	13	19	15
Study two: satisfaction (mm)						
SMALL	25	17	81	16	82	14
LARGE	19	17	80	16	80	16

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510 Table 2. Food consumption and within-meal eating behaviour variables for study two. Data are
511 presented as mean (SD). † indicates significantly different between trials.

	SMALL		LARGE	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Food eaten (g)	375.5	27.4	375.6	29.1
Food left (g)	2.6	1.9	2.5	1.2
Spoons used	36	5	28 †	6
Bites used	36	5	28 †	6
Meal duration (min)	4.3	0.8	3.7 †	0.8

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525 **Figure legends**

526 Figure 1. A) *Ad-libitum* food consumed during study one for all subjects and B) for subjects
527 who did not report an awareness of the difference in spoon size between conditions. Bars are
528 mean values, with error bars representing SD. Lines are individual subject data. † indicates
529 significantly different between trials.

530 Figure 2. A) mean bite size and B) mean eating rate during study two. Bars are mean values,
531 with error bars representing SD. Lines are individual subject data. † indicates significantly
532 different between trials.

533 Figure 3. Change in mean bite size (g) vs change in mean eating rate (g/min) on the SMALL
534 trial relative to the LARGE trial during study two. Data points are individual subject values.
535 Dashed line represents linear line of best fit.

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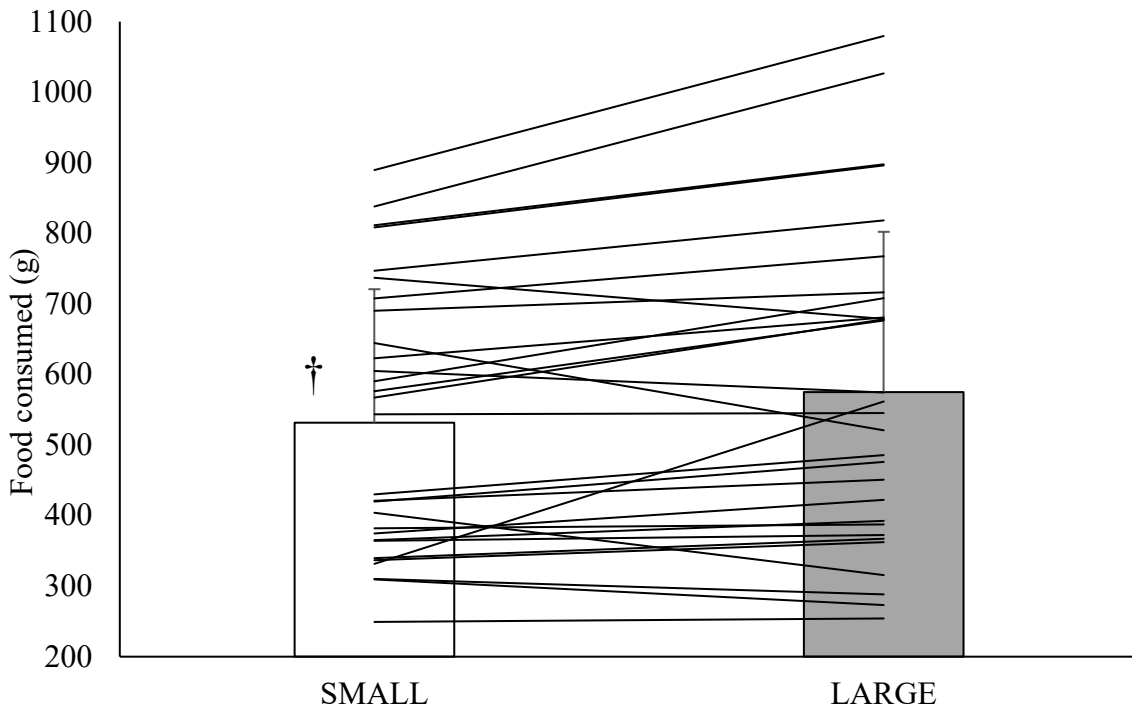
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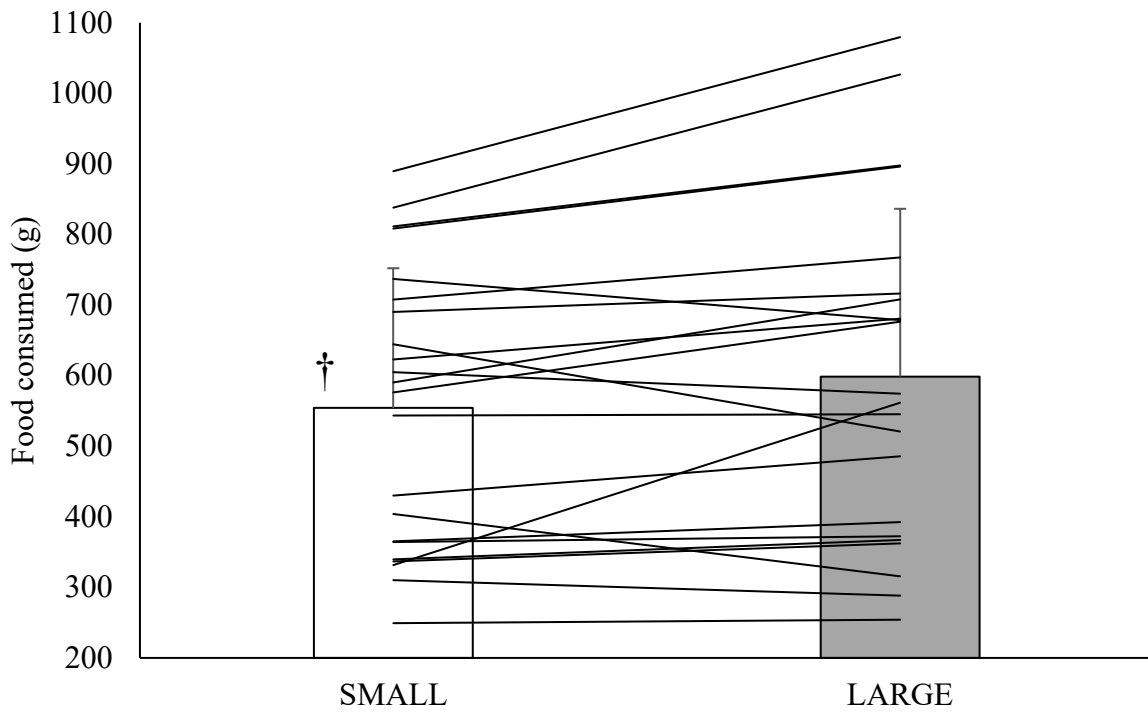
550 **Figure 1**

551 A)



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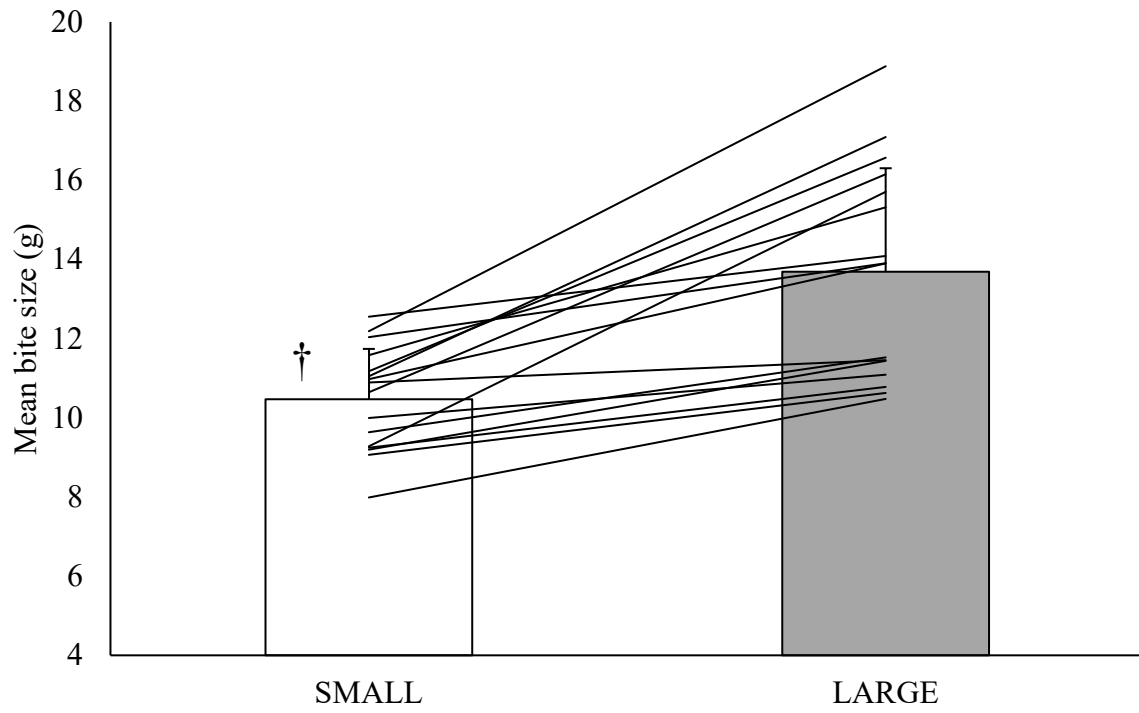
553 B)



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555 **Figure 2**

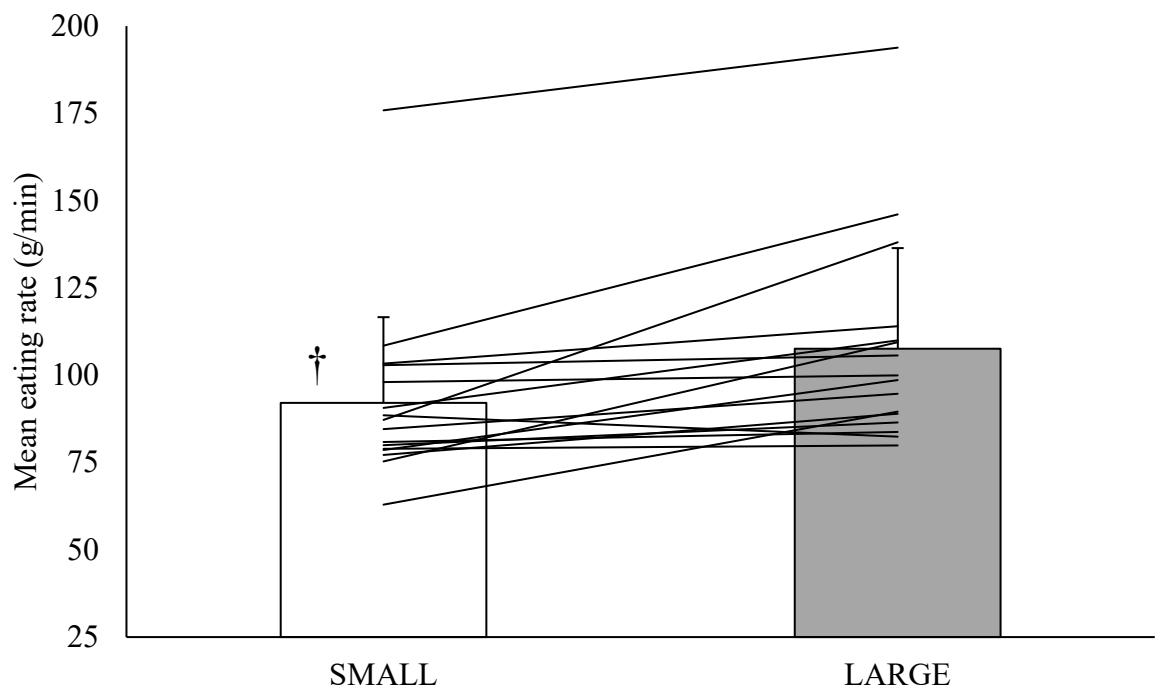
556 A)



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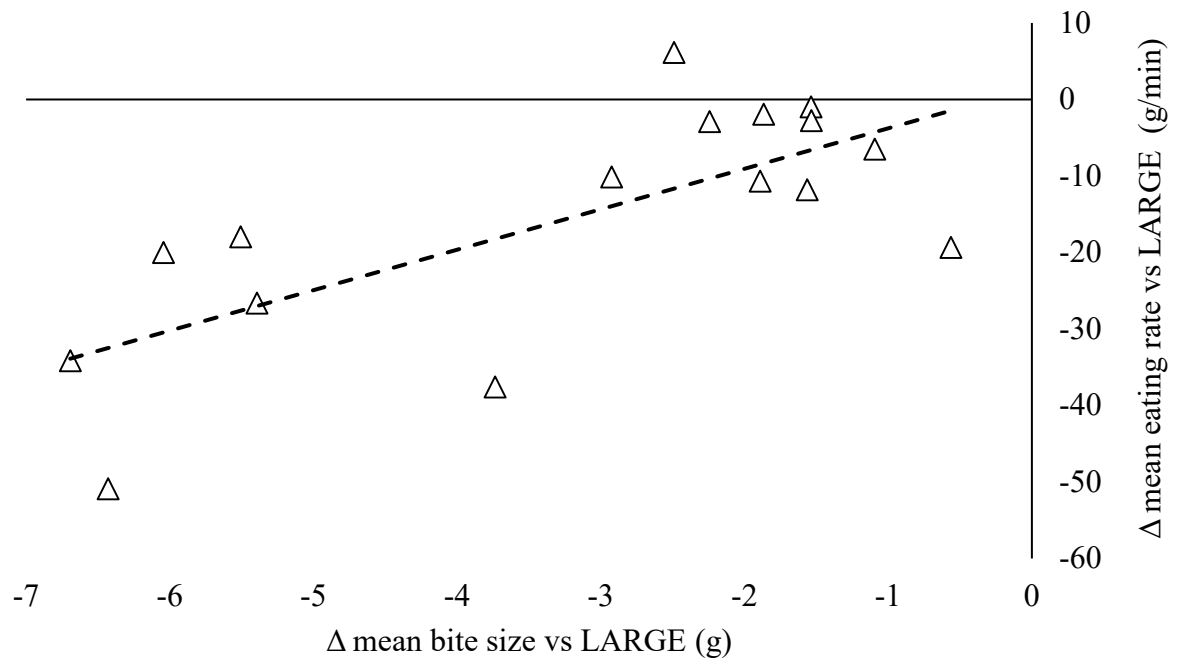
558 B)

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561 **Figure 3.**



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