

Increasing consumption of a disliked vegetable 1

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6 **'Why don't you try it again?' A comparison of parent led, home based interventions**7 **aimed at increasing children's consumption of a disliked vegetable**

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21 Running head: Increasing consumption of a disliked vegetable

22

Abstract

23 Previous research suggests that the use of modelling and non-food rewards may be
24 effective at increasing tasting, and consequential liking and acceptance, of a previously
25 disliked food. Although successful school-based interventions have been developed, there is
26 a lack of research into home-based interventions using these methods. This study aimed to
27 develop and investigate the efficacy of a parent led home-based intervention for increasing
28 children's acceptance of a disliked vegetable. A total of 115 children aged 2-4 years were
29 allocated to one of four intervention groups or to a no-treatment control. The four intervention
30 conditions were: repeated exposure; modelling and repeated exposure; rewards and
31 repeated exposure; or modelling, rewards and repeated exposure. Children in all of the
32 intervention conditions were exposed by a parent to daily offerings of a disliked vegetable for
33 14 days. Liking and consumption of the vegetable were measured pre and post-intervention.
34 Significant increases in post-intervention consumption were seen in the modelling, rewards
35 and repeated exposure condition and the rewards and repeated exposure condition,
36 compared to the control group. Significant post-intervention differences in liking were also
37 found between the experimental groups. Liking was highest (>60%) in the modelling,
38 rewards and repeated exposure group and the rewards and repeated exposure group,
39 intermediate (>26%) in the modelling and repeated exposure and repeated exposure
40 groups, and lowest in the control group (10%). Parent led interventions based around
41 modelling and offering incentives may present cost efficient ways to increase children's
42 vegetable consumption.

43

44 **Key words:** role modelling; non-food rewards; repeated exposure; vegetable; parent led;
45 intervention

46 **'Why don't you try it again?' A comparison of parent led, home based interventions**
47 **aimed at increasing children's consumption of a disliked vegetable**

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49 Childhood obesity is one of the biggest public health challenges of the 21st century,
50 with more than 40 million children under the age of five being overweight or obese globally
51 (World Health Organisation, 2014). As part of a healthy lifestyle, adequate vegetable
52 consumption is known to provide numerous benefits including preventing obesity and
53 chronic disease (Heidemann et al., 2008; Maynard, Gunnell, Emmett, Frankel, & Davey
54 Smith, 2003; Vioque, Weinbrenner, Castelló, Asensio, & Garcia de la Hera, 2008). However,
55 many adults and children are failing to consume the recommended UK quota of five portions
56 of fruit and vegetables a day (e.g., Guenther, Dodd, Reedy, & Krebs-Smith, 2006; Lennox,
57 Olson, & Gay, 2011). Given that eating behaviours track through childhood into adulthood
58 (e.g., Lytle, Seifert, Greenstein, & McGovern, 2000; Mikkilä, Räsänen, Raitakari, Pietinen, &
59 Viikari, 2007), effective interventions aimed at increasing vegetable consumption early in
60 childhood are required.

61 The development of liking and acceptance of foods is influenced by numerous
62 factors, such as how palatable foods are, their nutritional content and their associated
63 emotional experience (e.g. party or reward foods versus everyday foods) (e.g., Birch,
64 Zimmerman, & Hind, 1980; Mikula, 1989; Mobini, Chambers, & Yeomans, 2007; Steiner,
65 1979). One theory behind acquisition of liking and acceptance of foods is 'learned safety',
66 where repeated ingestion of an unfamiliar food without negative gastro-intestinal
67 consequences leads to increased acceptance of that food (Kalat & Rozin, 1973).
68 Furthermore, if positive consequences are experienced (such as satiety), preference may
69 develop for that food (Kalat & Rozin, 1973). In this way, repeated exposure can be used to
70 transform disliked or unfamiliar foods into accepted (Pliner & Loewen, 1997) or even liked
71 (Lakkakula, Geaghan, Zanovec, Pierce, & Tuuri, 2010) foods. Previous research suggests
72 that in order to increase liking of novel foods in two year olds, between five and 10
73 exposures may be necessary (Birch, Birch, Marlin, & Kramer, 1982; Birch, Gunder, Grimm-

74 Tomas, Laing, & Grimm-Thomas, 1998) , while 15 exposures may be required to increase
75 preferences among 3-4 year olds (Sullivan & Birch, 1990). Vegetables are commonly
76 disliked by children (e.g., Cashdan, 1998; Skinner, Carruth, Bounds, & Ziegler, 2002) and a
77 body of evidence supports the use of repeated exposure to increase children's liking of
78 vegetables (e.g., Ahern, Caton, Blundell, & Hetherington, 2014; Caton et al., 2013; Hausner,
79 Olsen, & Møller, 2012; Wardle, Herrera, Cooke, & Gibson, 2003; Wardle et al., 2003).
80 Although this is promising evidence for the use of repeated exposure to transform children's
81 dislike of vegetables, persuading children to repeatedly try previously rejected vegetables
82 may prove difficult. Indeed, many parents do not continue to expose children to foods once
83 they have been rejected (Birch, McPhee, Shoba, Pirok, & Steinberg, 1987), where the
84 number of exposures necessary to alter a child's preferences is more than parents offer.
85 Combining other methods with repeated exposure may help to encourage parents to
86 repeatedly offer, in turn improving children's liking and acceptance of vegetables. With this in
87 mind, it would be valuable to explore techniques which may be used alongside repeated
88 exposure to facilitate tasting and improve the likelihood of increasing children's intake of
89 previously refused vegetables.

90 One technique that could be used alongside repeated exposure is modelling.
91 Modelling occurs through a process of observational learning, where encouragement and
92 facilitation of behaviours results in them becoming habitual (Bandura, 1977). Peer modelling
93 of eating behaviour has been shown to be effective at increasing children's acceptance of
94 novel healthy foods (Hendy, 2002) as well as altering children's food choices (Birch, 1980).
95 Parental modelling of healthy eating has also been associated with children's subsequent
96 consumption of fruits and vegetables (Draxten, Fulkerson, Friend, Flattum, & Schow, 2014;
97 Gregory, Paxton, & Brozovic, 2010; Palfreyman, Haycraft, & Meyer, 2012). Parental
98 modelling has been shown to significantly increase children's willingness to try an unfamiliar
99 food compared to when children were simply offered the unfamiliar food (Harper & Sanders,
100 1975), suggesting that parental modelling could indeed be a successful method for
101 increasing children's willingness to taste novel or disliked foods.

102 In addition, the use of contingent non-food rewards may be another strategy which
103 can be used to aid children's liking of new or previously refused foods. One contingent
104 reward or incentive that is often used with young children is a sticker. The use of stickers as
105 rewards has been shown to be successful at increasing consumption of healthy snack foods
106 in eight children aged between three and six (Stark, Collins, Osnes, & Stokes, 1986).
107 Furthermore, non-food rewards have proved to be a successful component of repeated
108 exposure interventions aimed at increasing children's consumption of disliked or novel
109 vegetables in both the school (Añez, Remington, Wardle, & Cooke, 2013; Cooke et al.,
110 2011; Hendy, Williams, & Camise, 2005) and home environments (Corsini, Slater, Harrison,
111 Cooke, & Cox, 2013; Remington, Anez, Croker, Wardle, & Cooke, 2012). Although these
112 programmes generally describe the rewards given as tangible rewards (e.g., stickers or a
113 small toy), such reward systems inevitably have a social reward element entrenched within
114 them (i.e. praise).

115 Previous research has investigated the use of these techniques (repeated exposure,
116 modelling and non-food rewards) in combination to increase children's liking and
117 consumption of vegetables. Interventions using these techniques within a school-based
118 setting have already generated successful results. For example, the Bangor Food Research
119 Unit's 'Food Dudes' programme (Lowe, Dowey, Horne, & Murcott, 1998), which combines
120 peer modelling, rewards and exposure, has been rolled out in schools across the UK and
121 Ireland. Although successful at increasing children's liking and consumption of vegetables in
122 the short term (e.g., Horne, Lowe, Bowdery, & Egerton, 1998; Horne et al., 2011; Lowe et
123 al., 1998; Lowe, Horne, Tapper, Bowdery, & Egerton, 2004; Tapper, Horne, & Lowe, 2003),
124 the 'Food Dudes' and other similar programmes rely on local government funding and whole
125 school sign-up, making such programmes inaccessible for many families. Home-based
126 parent led interventions provide an alternative to such programmes (Fildes, van Jaarsveld,
127 Wardle, & Cooke, 2013). Similar research about parent led interventions in the home setting
128 has been conducted (e.g., Añez et al., 2013; Corsini et al., 2013; Remington et al., 2012),
129 and these studies suggest that repeated exposures incentivised with rewards can be

130 effective at increasing children's consumption of a disliked vegetable. The current study
131 builds on this research by further investigating whether parental modelling can be used to
132 increase children's liking and acceptance, and how this may interact with rewards.

133 The present study concerns a home-based intervention, grounded in the principles of
134 rewards, modelling and repeated exposure. It aimed to evaluate the intervention's success
135 at increasing children's liking and consumption of a previously disliked vegetable. Four
136 intervention conditions were tested. All of these conditions used repeated exposure, with one
137 testing the effect of just repeated exposure (condition 1), one testing modelling paired with
138 repeated exposure (condition 2), one testing rewards paired with repeated exposure
139 (condition 3), and one comprising all of these methods (modelling, rewards and repeated
140 exposure-condition 4). The fifth condition was a no-treatment control group (condition 5). It
141 was predicted that children who participated in the all methods condition (comprising
142 modelling, rewards and repeated exposure; 4) would show significant increases in both liking
143 and consumption of a previously disliked target vegetable post-intervention when compared
144 to the control group (5). It was further predicted that increases in liking and consumption of
145 the target vegetable would be intermediate for children in the modelling and repeated
146 exposure condition (2), and the rewards and repeated exposure condition (3) and smallest in
147 the repeated exposure condition (1) relative to the control group (5).

148

149

Method

150 Participants

151 One hundred and thirty six parent-child pairs were recruited to take part in this study.
152 Children were aged from 25 to 55 months ($M = 38$ months; $SD = 7.75$ months). This age
153 group was selected as fussy eating and neophobia (avoidance of new foods) are commonly
154 seen around this age (Addessi, Galloway, Visalberghi, & Birch, 2005) and during this pre-
155 school period when children typically spend more time with their parents it may be easier for
156 parents to deliver a home-based intervention.

157

158 Procedure

159 Full ethical clearance for this study was obtained from Loughborough University's
160 Institutional Review Board. Informed consent was obtained from all parents before the onset
161 of the study, with parents fully advised of their right to withdraw themselves and their child at
162 any point.

163

164 Recruitment

165 Parents were recruited via 20 parent and toddler groups and childcare centres in the
166 East Midlands, UK. Following approval from the manager or group leader, mutually
167 convenient times were agreed for testing to take place. Parents were approached by the
168 researcher and invited to participate in a home-based study investigating methods which
169 parents can use to help their children eat vegetables. Parents who expressed an interest in
170 participating were then given an information sheet detailing the study before providing
171 consent for their own and their child's participation, with participation limited to one child per
172 family. Parents were not compensated for their participation in this study.

173

174 Target vegetables

175 In line with previous research (e.g. Remington et al., 2012), each child was assigned
176 a single target disliked vegetable. Assigning just one target vegetable also helped to keep
177 the intervention simple and minimised the chances of the participants being overwhelmed or
178 put-off by the intervention. Parents were asked to rank a list of six raw vegetables (baby
179 corn, celery, red pepper, cherry tomato, cucumber, and sugar snap peas) in order of their
180 own preference, with 1 being the one they liked best and 6 being the one they liked least.
181 Parents were told that if they did not know whether their child liked the vegetable (as the
182 vegetable was not familiar to the child) they should not rank the vegetable. This allowed
183 disliked vegetables to be assigned rather than novel ones. These six vegetables were
184 chosen as the research team deemed them to be commonly consumed by adults, readily

185 available, being simple to prepare, and keeping in the fridge for a number of days without
186 spoiling (thereby minimising waste). Parents were then asked to repeat this process
187 according to their child's preferences. The vegetable ranked fourth for the child was
188 allocated as the target vegetable for the intervention, avoiding those ranked fifth or sixth to
189 allow for both positive and negative shifts in liking (Cooke et al., 2011). Because some
190 conditions required parents to model eating the vegetable, if the child's fourth ranked
191 vegetable was ranked as fifth or sixth by parents, an alternative disliked vegetable was
192 selected to limit any confounding effects of parental preferences. Children's dislike of the
193 target vegetable was confirmed during a baseline session with the researcher (see *Baseline*
194 section below).

195 All target vegetables were presented at baseline and post intervention in their raw
196 form, washed, chopped into approximately 2.5g pieces (which were small enough to fit in the
197 mouth) and served in 30g portions, weighed using Salter dietary electronic scales 1250. This
198 weight was chosen as it represents more than an age-appropriate portion for children in this
199 age group (NHS Choices, 2009; Infant & Toddler Forum, 2013), thereby reducing the
200 possibility that any child would choose to eat the entire portion.

201

202 *Baseline*

203 During a baseline session, parent-child dyads were each tested separately from
204 other dyads. Parents were asked to provide demographic information for themselves and
205 their child including age, ethnicity, number of children and their highest level of education.

206

207 *Measures*

208 Children's liking of the target vegetable was measured using a 3-point smiley face
209 scale (Birch, Zimmerman, & Hind, 1980) which comprises three stylised, gender neutral
210 faces. One with a broad smile to represent 'yummy, I like it!', one neutral to represent 'ok'
211 and one with a down-turned mouth to represent 'yucky, I don't like it!'. The smiley faces
212 rating scale is seen as a more reliable measure of liking than pure verbalisations in children

213 of this age (Blissett, Haycraft, & Farrow, 2010; Weisberg & Beck, 2010). Children were
214 familiarised with this scale at a baseline session.

215

216 *Familiarisation*

217 Children were shown a brief child-friendly information sheet, which largely comprised
218 pictures, to familiarise them with the protocol of the session and the researcher talked to
219 them about what would be involved. Children were also familiarised with the 3-point smiley
220 faces scale. Each face was explained to them (with a description of how each of the faces
221 would reflect how much they liked a food) and their ability to correctly identify the expression
222 of each face's was verified in a procedure similar to Weisberg & Beck (2010). Here, each
223 child was asked to correctly identify which face represented "yucky", "yummy" or "just ok".
224 Next, children were shown and asked to name the target vegetable which had been
225 assigned to them, with it presented in its whole form. Children who could not name the
226 vegetable were told its name and the vegetable was placed on the table in front of them.

227

228 *Testing baseline consumption and liking*

229 Children were then given a small plastic pot containing 30g of their target vegetable.
230 The vegetable had been chopped into child-sized pieces (~2.5g). The children were asked
231 to remove the lid of the pot and tell the researcher what was inside. Again, children who
232 could not name the chopped vegetable were told its name. This process was chosen to
233 ensure that the children linked the chopped vegetable to what it looks like in its whole form,
234 aiming to minimise the effects of how the vegetable was later presented by parents. Children
235 were then asked to try a piece of the target vegetable. If reluctant, children were gently
236 encouraged by the researcher to first choose a piece to pick up with their fingers, then to lick
237 the piece and, if possible, to progress to biting or eating the piece. Children were not
238 encouraged to swallow the piece, so as to avoid causing stress to the children, and in an
239 effort to increase their willingness to try the vegetable. Whether or not each child tasted the

240 vegetable (defined as licking, sucking, biting or chewing) was then recorded by the
241 researcher.

242 Once the children had tried the vegetable (or after they had refused to try it) they
243 were asked “Do you like [name of vegetable]?”. They were then asked to rate their liking
244 using the 3-point smiley faces scale (‘yummy’, ‘ok’ or ‘yucky’). Children were then told that
245 they could eat as much as they wanted of the vegetable in the pot, and a free eating session
246 commenced. This session lasted a maximum of five minutes or was terminated when the
247 children said that they did not want any more or when they left the test table. The test portion
248 of the target vegetable was then removed and re-weighed (including pieces which were
249 tasted but not consumed - i.e. licked or chewed but rejected) in order to measure
250 consumption.

251

252 *Intervention groups and allocation*

253 Recruitment centre groups were systematically assigned by the primary investigator
254 to one of four experimental conditions: 1. repeated exposure; 2. modelling and repeated
255 exposure; 3. rewards and repeated exposure; or 4. modelling, rewards and repeated
256 exposure. This method of allocation was chosen to prevent discussion of the study methods
257 between parents in different intervention groups. Consecutive sampling was used, so that a
258 maximum number of dyads could be recruited from each centre. Centres were sequentially
259 allocated to each condition. If there was not space in the next condition in the sequence, the
260 centre was pragmatically assigned to an alternative condition, creating even sized
261 conditions. Parents in all of these conditions were instructed to offer their child a small piece
262 (~2.5g, which they were shown an example of during the baseline session) of the target
263 vegetable (which was provided for parents by the research team) each day for 14
264 consecutive days, using the protocol for the intervention condition to which they were
265 assigned. Parents were asked to conduct all offerings outside of a mealtime in line with
266 previous research (Fildes et al., 2013), in order to avoid adding any potential stress
267 associated with mealtimes. Parents in the repeated exposure condition (1) were instructed to

268 simply offer their child a small piece of the target vegetable without eating it themselves.
269 They were also asked to remain neutral in their responses to whether or not their child tasted
270 the piece. Parents in the modelling and repeated exposure condition (2) were instructed to
271 eat a small piece of the target vegetable in front of their child, expressing a positive response
272 such as “oh this [name of vegetable] is really nice!”. These parents were instructed to offer
273 their child a small piece of the vegetable immediately afterwards, but to remain neutral
274 regardless of whether their child tried a piece of the vegetable. Parents in the rewards and
275 repeated exposure condition (3) were asked to offer their child a small piece of the target
276 vegetable, telling them that if they try a piece they can choose a sticker from a sheet
277 provided for the study. Parents were further told that if their child did try a piece of the
278 vegetable, they should not only give them the sticker they chose but also praise them with a
279 phrase such as “well done, you tried your [name of vegetable]!” and to tell their child that
280 they were receiving a sticker because they tried the vegetable. Finally, parents in the
281 modelling, rewards and repeated exposure condition (4) were instructed to eat a piece of the
282 target vegetable in front of their child, saying how nice it was, and then to offer their child a
283 piece telling them they could choose a sticker if they tried it, and giving praise if the child did
284 indeed try a piece. Parents in all conditions were instructed to adhere to their assigned
285 method of offering for the entire 14 day period, and to record the success of the protocol in a
286 ‘tasting diary’. This diary asked parents to record whether they completed each daily
287 offering, and included a daily manipulation check (e.g., ‘Did you stay neutral?’ in the
288 repeated exposure group) as well as a record of whether each offering resulted in a tasting
289 (defined as contact with the child’s mouth, including licking, sucking, biting and chewing,
290 where swallowing was not necessary). During the baseline session, the researcher verbally
291 explained to parents how to offer the vegetable and how to use the diary, and written
292 instructions on how to complete the daily offerings were also provided. Parents were also
293 given the opportunity to ask any questions about the protocol, and given the researcher’s
294 contact information should they have any further queries.

295

296 *Fourteen day follow-up consumption and liking*

297 After the 14 day intervention period, parent-child dyads attended a follow-up session
298 at the toddler group they attended at baseline. This session was identical in format to the
299 baseline session, in order to allow for comparison of liking and consumption of the target
300 vegetable pre and post-intervention. Parent and child height (cm) and weight (kg; using
301 Salter 9059 SS3R ultra-slim scales) were measured. Parents also returned their completed
302 tasting diaries.

303

304 **Data analysis**

305 Sample size was calculated following Cohen's (1992) guidelines of adequate sample
306 size for statistical power. Based on these guidelines, a minimum of 16 dyads in each
307 condition was required in order to detect a small effect with power of 0.8 and $p < .05$. To
308 account for attrition across the study, participants were over-recruited by fifty percent,
309 meaning that a minimum of eight additional dyads were recruited to each condition. For
310 detailed information about attrition per condition please see Figure 1. Child height and
311 weight were converted into age and gender adjusted BMI z scores (Cole, Freeman, &
312 Preece, 1995; Freeman et al., 1995). Exploratory analyses were conducted to check
313 normality of the data. Parent BMI and child age and the total tastings achieved were non-
314 normally distributed. Consumption data both pre and post were also non-normally
315 distributed, with a floor effect of a large number of zero scores. For these reasons, data were
316 analysed using non-parametric tests where possible and parametric tests (ANOVAs) were
317 conducted where there was no suitable alternative. Repeated measures ANOVAs were used
318 to assess whether there were significant differences in any changes in consumption between
319 the groups across the intervention period. Kruskal-Wallis analyses were conducted to
320 investigate any potential differences between group consumption pre-intervention,
321 consumption post-intervention, and the total tastings achieved. Mann-Whitney U analyses
322 were then used to compare each experimental group's target vegetable consumption to that
323 of the control group and the total tastings achieved between experimental groups. This

324 allowed for assessment of whether, post-intervention, participants in each condition
325 consumed significantly more in comparison to the control group. Finally, chi-square analyses
326 were used to look for differences in liking of the target vegetable between groups, both pre
327 and post-intervention.

328

329

Results

330

Sample and attrition

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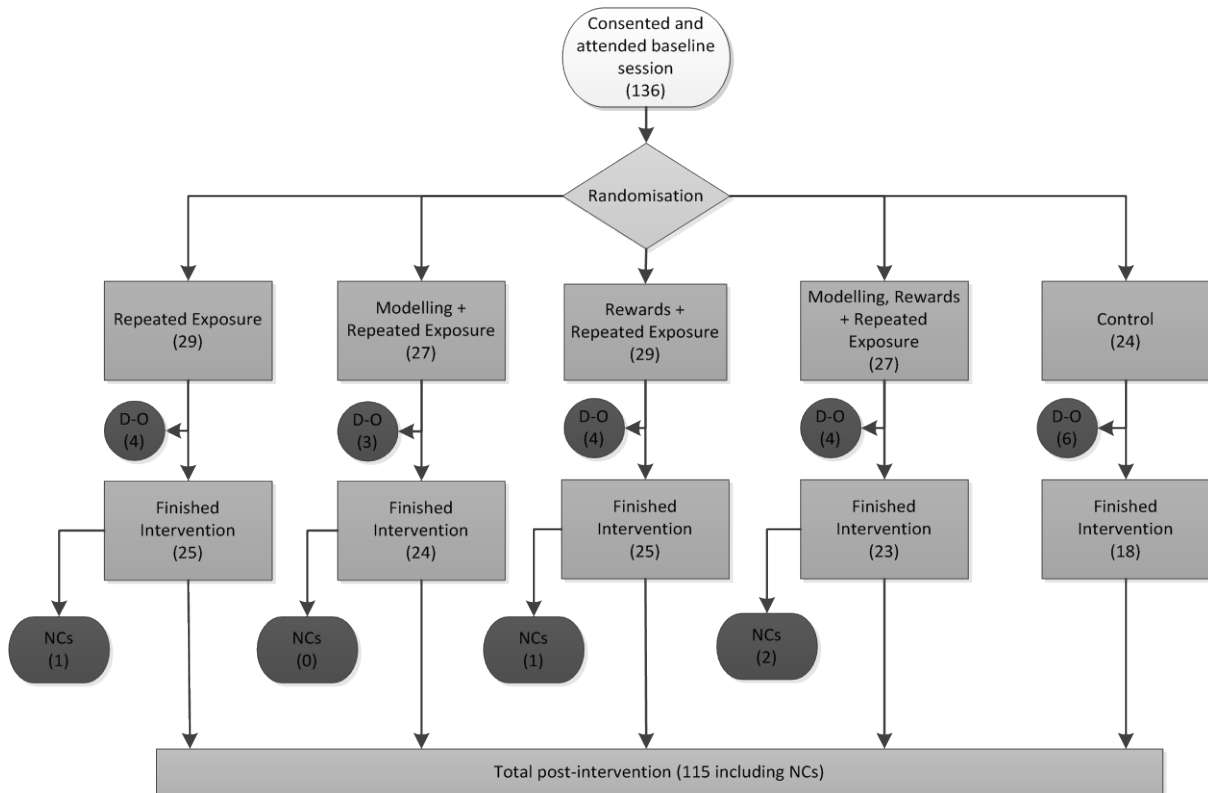
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Of the 136 participants who completed the baseline session, 21 families (14.8%) were unavailable for the 14 day follow-up or withdrew from the study (due to illness, work commitments, or other personal reasons), leaving a sample of 115 parent-child dyads. Of these participants, 98 parents identified themselves as White/Caucasian, six identified as Black/Black British, two identified as Asian/Asian British and nine parents did not provide this information. The flow of participants through the study is shown in Figure 1. Based on previous research suggesting that 10 tastings of a disliked food are necessary for children to acquire liking (Sullivan & Birch, 1990), all analyses were repeated for a subset of the sample whose tasting diaries indicated that they had achieved 10 or more offerings (and removing those classed as 'non-completers' who achieved fewer than 10 offerings). However, as the findings of these analyses were unchanged from those using the full sample, full sample analyses are reported.



343
344 D-O: Dropout

345 NCs: Non-completers - i.e. those children who received fewer than 10 offerings of the target
346 vegetable during the 14 day intervention period

347 Figure 1: Flow of parent-child dyads from baseline to post-intervention during a vegetable
348 intervention for each of five experimental conditions.

349
350 **Descriptive statistics**

351 All groups were compared for differences in child and parent characteristics,
352 including age, gender, parental education, and BMI. There were no significant differences
353 were found for these characteristics between groups and this information is displayed in
354 Table 1.

355 Table 1: Child and parent characteristics of the final sample by experimental group, and Chi-square/ANOVA tests of difference between
 356 conditions

	Repeated Exposure (1)	Modelling + Repeated Exposure (2)	Rewards + Repeated Exposure (3)	Modelling, Rewards + Repeated Exposure (4)	Control (5)	Group difference
Parent						
Parent Age [Years]	34.15 (4.74)	35.97 (5.11)	35.93 (5.71)	36.49 (3.64)	32.81 (4.03)	$F = 2.15$, n.s.
Parent BMI	25.5 (5.04)	26.03 (5.18)	25.43 (3.83)	25.59 (5.03)	22.72 (2.57)	$F = .58$ n.s.
Education Level [<i>n</i> (%)]						$\chi^2 = 2.88$ n.s.
Non-University graduate	14 (61)	12 (55)	10 (42)	9 (43)	9 (60)	
University level or higher	9 (39)	10 (45)	14 (58)	12 (57)	6 (40)	
Child						
Child Age [Months]	38.24 (8.82)	39.68 (9.01)	40.20 (6.58)	38.09 (8.16)	34.17 (6.17)	$F = .14$ n.s.
Child BMI Z score	0.29 (1.04)	0.27 (.77)	0.07 (.81)	0.19 (1.01)	0.50 (.58)	$F = .46$ n.s.
Child Gender [<i>n</i> (%)]						$\chi^2 = .99$ n.s.
Male	11 (46)	10 (42)	9 (38)	8 (38)	6 (33)	
Female	13 (54)	14 (58)	15 (63)	13 (62)	12 (67)	

357 Note: Mean (SD) displayed unless otherwise stated. Descriptive statistics are based on available data, with missing data in some categories.

358 * $p < .05$

359 **Exploring differences among intervention and control conditions on children's**
 360 **consumption of a disliked vegetable**

361 In order to examine group differences in consumption of the target vegetable across
 362 the study, repeated measures ANOVAs were conducted. Consumption of the target
 363 vegetable significantly increased over the intervention period in all groups, with a main effect
 364 of time ($F(1,110) = 25.80, p < .001$). However, there was not a significant group by time
 365 interaction ($F(4, 110) = .89, p = .48$). Pre and post-intervention consumption data per
 366 experimental group can be seen in Table 2.

367

368 Table 2: Mean pre and post-intervention consumption of the target vegetable (in grams) per
 369 intervention condition, including minimum and maximum values with significant group
 370 differences indicated.

Intervention condition	Pre Consumption			Post Consumption	
	N	Mean (g) (SD)	Min / Max	Mean (g) (SD)	Min / Max
Repeated Exposure (1)	25	0.28 (0.78)	0.00 / 3.60	2.90 (5.30)	0.00 / 19.35
Modelling + Repeated Exposure (2)	24	0.36 (0.60)	0.00 / 2.00	4.68 (8.37)	0.00 / 30.00
Rewards + Repeated Exposure (3)	25	0.48 (0.87)	0.00 / 2.50	3.65 ^a (6.83)	0.00 / 30.00
Modelling, Rewards + Repeated Exposure (4)	23	0.61 (1.06)	0.00 / 3.40	3.96 ^b (5.64)	0.00 / 22.15
Control (5)	18	0.25 (0.54)	0.00 / 2.15	1.14 ^{a,b} (1.92)	0.00 / 5.85

371 ^a Significant difference in post-intervention consumption between groups 3 and 5 ($p < .05$)

372 ^b Significant difference in post-intervention consumption between groups 4 and 5 ($p < .05$)

373

374 Kruskal-Wallis analyses revealed that pre-intervention, there were no significant
375 differences between the groups on children's consumption of the target vegetable ($H(4) =$
376 $3.29, p = .51$). A series of Mann-Whitney U tests revealed that pre-intervention there were no
377 significant differences in consumption of the target vegetable between any pairings of the
378 five groups. There were also no significant differences between the groups on children's
379 consumption of the target vegetable post-intervention ($H(4) = 5.07, p = .28$). However,
380 Mann-Whitney U tests revealed that post-intervention, consumption was significantly higher
381 for children in the modelling, rewards and repeated exposure group (4) (Mdn = 1.65, U =
382 137.00, $z = -1.98, p = .02, r = -.31$), and the rewards and repeated exposure group (3) (Mdn
383 = 50, U = 155.00, $z = -1.82, p = .03, r = -.28$) compared to the control group (Mdn = .00).
384 No significant differences were observed in post-intervention consumption amongst the
385 modelling and repeated exposure (2) (Mdn = .00, U = 176.00, $z = -1.14, p = .13, r = .18$) or
386 the repeated exposure group (1) (Mdn = .00, U = 198.00, $z = -.77, p = .23, r = .12$), when
387 compared to the control group (Mdn = .00).

388

389 **Exploring differences between the intervention conditions on the total number of** 390 **tastings achieved**

391 Previous research has shown that children need to try disliked foods a large number
392 of times for them to become liked (e.g., Sullivan & Birch, 1994). With this in mind, analyses
393 were used to explore whether there were significant differences in the number of tastings
394 achieved between the intervention groups. Tasting data were the total number of reported
395 tastings from the parent diaries. Kruskal-Wallis analysis revealed that there were significant
396 group differences in the number of tastings achieved across the intervention period ($H(3) =$
397 $15.53, p = .001$). A series of Mann-Whitney U tests revealed that the number of tastings
398 achieved was significantly higher in the modelling, rewards and repeated exposure group (4)
399 (Mdn = 12.00, U = 116.50, $z = -2.63, p = .004, r = -.06$) and rewards and repeated exposure
400 group (3) (Mdn = 11.00, U = 137.50, $z = -2.61, p = .004, r = -.06$) compared to the repeated
401 exposure group (1) (Mdn = 6.00). The modelling, rewards and repeated exposure group (4)

402 (Mdn = 12.00, U = 105.50, z = -2.90, p = .002, r = -.07) and rewards and repeated exposure
 403 group (3) (Mdn = 11.00, U = 125.00, z = -2.90, p = .002, r = -.06) also achieved significantly
 404 more tastings than the modelling group (2) (Mdn = 5.00). There were no significant
 405 differences in the number of tastings achieved between the modelling, rewards, and
 406 repeated exposure group (4) (Mdn = 12.00, U = 229.00, z = -.53, p = .30, r = -.01) and the
 407 rewards group (3) (Mdn = 11.00), or between the modelling and repeated exposure group
 408 (2) (Mdn = 5.00, U = 220.50, z = .00, p = .50, r = .00) and the repeated exposure group (1)
 409 (Mdn = 6.00).

410

411 **Exploring differences among the intervention and control conditions on children's**
 412 **liking of a previously disliked vegetable**

413 Of the 115 children who took part in the study, 39 did not appear to fully understand
 414 the smiley faces rating scale which was used to determine children's opinion of the target
 415 vegetable. These children could not correctly identify the "yummy" or "yucky" faces on
 416 request. Children who could not use the smiley faces rating scale were removed from the
 417 liking analyses, although it is noted that this resulted in uneven group sizes. The number of
 418 children able to use the smiley faces rating scale can be seen in Table 3, alongside the
 419 percentages of children within each condition who rated the target vegetable as "yummy"
 420 both pre and post-intervention.

421

422 Table 3: Number of children rating the target vegetable as "yummy" on the smiley faces
 423 rating scale pre and post-intervention per condition

Experimental Group	N	Yummy Pre	Yummy Post
Repeated Exposure (1)	20	0	7
Modelling + Repeated Exposure (2)	15	0	4
Rewards + Repeated Exposure (3)	16	1*	10
Modelling, Rewards + Repeated Exposure (4)	15	2*	9

Control (5)

10

0

1

424 * Children were only assigned this vegetable when they rated it as yummy but then only ate
 425 one small piece of it or less – i.e. where their response was considered incongruent with
 426 their true liking.

427

428 Chi-Square analyses revealed that pre-intervention, there was no significant
 429 difference in rated liking between the five groups ($\chi^2(8, N = 76) = 11.52, p = .16, V = .28$).
 430 However, post-intervention there was a significant difference between the groups on
 431 children's rated liking of the target vegetable ($\chi^2(8, N = 76) = 15.48, p = .05, V = .32$). Here,
 432 the proportion of children who rated the target vegetable as "yummy" was highest in the
 433 modelling, rewards and repeated exposure (4) and rewards and repeated exposure (3)
 434 groups (over 60%), intermediate in the modelling and repeated exposure (2) and repeated
 435 exposure (1) groups (over 26%), and lowest in the control group (5) (10%). For exact
 436 numbers of children who rated the vegetable as "yummy" refer to table 3.

437

438

Discussion

439 The aim of this study was to assess the effectiveness of a home-based rewards,
 440 modelling and repeated exposure intervention for increasing children's liking and acceptance
 441 of a disliked vegetable. It was predicted that children who participated in the all methods
 442 condition (4) would show significant post-intervention increases in both liking and
 443 consumption of a previously disliked target vegetable, compared to the control group (5). It
 444 was further predicted that there would be intermediate increases in liking and consumption
 445 of the target vegetable for children who were in the modelling and repeated exposure
 446 condition(2), or the rewards and repeated exposure condition (3). Finally, it was predicted
 447 that children in the repeated exposure group (1) would have the smallest post-intervention
 448 increases in liking or consumption of the target vegetable, in comparison to the control group
 449 (5). These hypotheses were partially supported.

450 In the current study, post-intervention consumption and liking of the previously
451 disliked vegetable was significantly greater amongst children who were in the all methods
452 condition (4) than the control group (5), suggesting that a combination of parental modelling,
453 rewards and repeated exposure is effective at increasing children's consumption and liking
454 of a previously disliked vegetable. This is consistent with previous research using mixed
455 methods interventions, such as the 'Food Dudes' (Horne et al., 2011; Lowe et al., 1998,
456 2004) and the 'Kids Choice' (Hendy et al., 2005) programmes. The current study adds to the
457 results of these school-based interventions by suggesting that, alongside rewards, parental
458 modelling could be an effective alternative to the peer modelling component of these
459 interventions. It also suggests that the home environment can be a suitable setting for such
460 interventions.

461 Greater consumption and liking of the disliked vegetable post-intervention was found
462 amongst children who were in the rewards and repeated exposure condition (3), as well as
463 the modelling, rewards and repeated exposure condition (4) when compared to those in the
464 control group (5). Moreover, the number of tastings achieved by the intervention groups
465 fitted the same pattern as was found for increases in liking and consumption. Specifically,
466 the all methods group (4) and the rewards and repeated exposure group (3) achieved
467 approximately twice as many tastes as children in the modelling and repeated exposure (2)
468 or repeated exposure alone (1) groups. Taste exposures are likely to be necessary for a
469 young child to accept and acquire a liking for novel or disliked foods (Birch et al., 1987), and
470 the combination of rewards and repeated exposure appears to be most effective at
471 increasing such tasting and subsequent consumption in this study. This finding is in line with
472 previous research suggesting that small tangible rewards can be effective when combined
473 with repeated exposure in both the school (Wardle et al., 2003) and home settings (Fildes et
474 al., 2013; Remington et al., 2012). Although this appears to contradict the over-justification
475 hypothesis of rewards (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999), where giving rewards in exchange for
476 consumption decreases liking for that food, it does support the current literature to date on
477 rewarding tasting disliked compared to liked foods. As Cooke, Chambers, Añez, and Wardle

478 (2011) discuss, rewarding children for consuming large amounts of already liked foods may
479 actually lower the intrinsic value attributed to such foods. However, if foods are not already
480 liked, then pairing such foods with a reward can result in increased liking via a process of
481 paired conditioning.

482 The current study found no significant differences in consumption or liking of the
483 disliked vegetable post-intervention between children in the modelling and repeated
484 exposure condition (2) when compared to those in the control group. This suggests that the
485 combination of modelling and repeated exposure alone, without rewards, may not be
486 effective at increasing liking or consumption of a previously disliked food. Although previous
487 research suggests that enthusiastic parental modelling can be a useful tool for increasing
488 vegetable consumption in children (e.g., Gregory et al., 2010; Harper & Sanders, 1975;
489 Palfreyman et al., 2012; Pearson, Biddle, & Gorely, 2009; Tibbs et al., 2001), to our
490 knowledge there are currently no successful interventions which use parental modelling. It is
491 possible that previous research showing modelling to be effective has had subtle elements
492 of rewards within the design, such as praise for tasting. In an effort to unpack the effects of
493 rewards and modelling, parents in the current study's modelling and repeated exposure
494 condition (2) were asked to enthusiastically model tasting of the food but were explicitly
495 asked to remain neutral regardless of whether their child tried the vegetable (i.e. not to
496 praise their child). Whilst previous research suggests that modelling is a relatively commonly
497 used practice (with approximately one third of parents in Musher-Eizenman and Holub's
498 2007 study); this may have resulted in the parents' modelling being unnatural, where they
499 were focused on remaining neutral or following the study instructions. It is also possible that
500 children in this condition found it strange that they were not praised for trying a food their
501 parent was enthusiastic about eating, as praise is thought to be a fairly common feeding
502 practice (with 30% of parents in Orrell-Valente et al.,'s 2007 study using praise). This in turn
503 may have reduced these children's enjoyment and subsequent liking of the vegetable.
504 Moreover, although parents were given instructions on how to model appropriately, they may
505 not have been sufficiently enthusiastic (see Hendy & Raudenbush, 2000) or their enthusiasm

506 may not have lasted for the duration of the intervention, thereby potentially reducing the
507 effectiveness of their efforts.

508 No significant differences in post-intervention liking or consumption of the target
509 vegetable were found between the repeated exposure group (1) and the control group. It is
510 likely that this is because children in the repeated exposure alone group did not achieve the
511 10-15 tastings necessary to increase liking and consumption of the target vegetable (Birch et
512 al., 1982; Sullivan & Birch, 1990). Although repeated taste exposures are vital to encourage
513 children to taste disliked foods, repeatedly offering in a neutral way did not appear to ensure
514 tastings in this study. These findings suggest that additional methods are necessary to
515 achieve the taste exposures needed to induce liking and acceptance of a disliked vegetable.

516 Overall, this study has made a valuable contribution to the knowledgebase about
517 successful methods which can be used to encourage children to eat, and like, more
518 vegetables. By gathering data concerning tasting, liking and consumption and including a
519 control group as well as a repeated exposure group, we are able to build on previous
520 research (e.g., Lowe et al., 2004; Remington et al., 2012) to compare the effects of each
521 component of the intervention. Nevertheless, the study does have limitations. Firstly, this
522 study sample has limited ethnic diversity, which must be considered. Due to the parent led
523 nature of the study we were unable to fully control parents' reactions when offering the
524 vegetable or their response to children tasting. While this means that fidelity to the
525 intervention cannot be guaranteed for all participants, this is a wholly necessary part of
526 developing a home-based intervention which results in high ecological validity. We also do
527 not know whether parents offered the target vegetable at other times during the intervention,
528 and future studies should aim to control for this. It is also important to acknowledge that
529 some children ate the disliked food at baseline, however these children were only assigned
530 the vegetable as their target vegetable if they ate a very small quantity, such as only the first
531 piece they were asked to try. It is also possible that some of the target vegetables which
532 were assigned were not strictly disliked, and may have in fact been novel, although this was
533 controlled for wherever possible with information from parents.

534 These findings indicate that parent led home-based interventions comprised of
535 repeated exposure and rewards, with or without the addition of parental modelling, are
536 successful at increasing children's consumption and liking of a previously disliked vegetable.
537 These results also suggest that in home-based interventions, neither parental modelling nor
538 repeated exposure are sufficient for increasing children's liking and consumption of a
539 disliked vegetable without the use of rewards. Although this finding is contrary to what was
540 initially expected, it could be promising that parental modelling is not vital to increase liking
541 and consumption, especially for parents who do not eat vegetables themselves or do not
542 often eat meals with their child. Such interventions have minimal economic burden and may
543 prove to be a viable alternative to school programmes which tend to be costly and exclusive.
544 Further research is required to identify whether increases in liking and consumption of a
545 previously disliked vegetable are maintained over time.

546

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