



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

This is a repository copy of *The portion size effect: Women demonstrate an awareness of eating more than intended when served larger than normal portions.*

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:
<http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/130661/>

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Keenan, GS, Childs, L, Rogers, PJ et al. (2 more authors) (2018) The portion size effect: Women demonstrate an awareness of eating more than intended when served larger than normal portions. *Appetite*, 126. pp. 54-60. ISSN 0195-6663

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2018.03.009>

© 2018 Elsevier Ltd. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>

Reuse

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs (CC BY-NC-ND) licence. This licence only allows you to download this work and share it with others as long as you credit the authors, but you can't change the article in any way or use it commercially. More information and the full terms of the licence here: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.

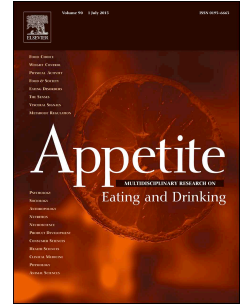


eprints@whiterose.ac.uk
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/>

Accepted Manuscript

The portion size effect: Women demonstrate an awareness of eating more than intended when served larger than normal portions

Gregory S. Keenan, Louise Childs, Peter J. Rogers, Marion M. Hetherington, Jeffrey M. Brunstrom



PII: S0195-6663(17)30383-5

DOI: [10.1016/j.appet.2018.03.009](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2018.03.009)

Reference: APPET 3818

To appear in: *Appetite*

Received Date: 12 March 2017

Revised Date: 15 February 2018

Accepted Date: 10 March 2018

Please cite this article as: Keenan G.S., Childs L., Rogers P.J., Hetherington M.M. & Brunstrom J.M., The portion size effect: Women demonstrate an awareness of eating more than intended when served larger than normal portions, *Appetite* (2018), doi: 10.1016/j.appet.2018.03.009.

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

1 **The portion size effect: women demonstrate an awareness of**
2 **eating more than intended when served larger than normal**
3 **portions**

4
5
6 Gregory S. Keenan ^a, Louise Childs ^a, Peter J. Rogers ^a, Marion M. Hetherington ^b

7 Jeffrey M. Brunstrom ^a

8
9
10
11
12 ^a Nutrition and Behaviour Unit, School of Experimental Psychology, University of Bristol,
13 12a Priory Road, Bristol, BS8 1TU, UK.

14
15 ^b School of Psychology, University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT, UK.

16
17 Running header: Individuals appear aware of the impact larger portions have on their
18 intake.

19
20 * corresponding author currently at the University of Liverpool

21 E-mail address: gregory.keenan@liverpool.ac.uk

22
23 Telephone number: +44 (0)151 794 3938

24 **Abstract**

25 Large portion sizes lead to increased intake. Some studies suggest that individuals are
26 unaware that they consume more when served larger portions. In a between-subjects
27 design we asked female participants ($N= 48$) how much pasta and tomato sauce they
28 intended to consume for lunch prior to eating. We then provided a smaller or a larger
29 portion of the same food and invited participants to self-serve a portion into a second bowl
30 (same size in both conditions). After eating until comfortably full, participants were shown
31 an image of the amount they had selected at the beginning of the meal. They were then
32 asked whether they perceived having eaten more or less than this amount, and by how
33 much more or less they had eaten. In total 46 responses were analysed. Of the participants
34 who received the large portion and who ate more than intended, 77% ($p = .029$) correctly
35 identified eating more. However, when participants were asked to indicate by how much
36 they had eaten above or below their intended amount, those who ate more after receiving a
37 larger portion underestimated their intake by 25% ($p = .003$). These findings suggest that
38 greater intake from a larger portion is associated with an awareness of having eaten a large
39 quantity combined with a failure to register the actual amount consumed (in the direction
40 of underestimation). The latter might be attributed to an error associated with the visual
41 estimation of volume.

42

43 **Keywords:** Portion size effect; Awareness; Energy intake; Food intake; Eating behaviour;

44 Introduction

45 In recent years the portion size of foods has increased (Nielsen & Popkin, 2003;
46 Schwartz & Byrd-Bredbenner, 2006; Young & Nestle, 2002), and larger portions are
47 associated with an increase in energy intake (Diliberti, Bordi, Conklin, Roe, & Rolls, 2004;
48 Duffey & Popkin, 2011; Rolls, Morris, & Roe, 2002; Rolls, Roe, Halverson, & Meengs, 2007;
49 Rolls, Roe, Kral, Meengs, & Wall, 2004; Wansink & Cheney, 2005; Wansink & Park, 2001).
50 This 'portion size effect' persists even when food remains uneaten at the end of a meal
51 (Rolls et al., 2002), suggesting that the phenomenon is not simply due to plate clearing. The
52 amount served influences intake of amorphous foods (*e.g.*, pasta bake) (Rolls et al., 2002),
53 foods served in discrete units, such as sandwiches (Rolls, Roe, Meengs, & Wall, 2004), pre-
54 packaged snacks (Raynor & Wing, 2007) and even unpalatable foods, such as stale popcorn
55 (Wansink & Kim, 2005).

56 The mechanisms underlying the portion-size effect are not well understood.
57 Determining whether individuals are aware of having consumed a large meal after being
58 offered a large portion would aid our understanding of these mechanisms. If individuals
59 unknowingly eat more than intended, then this would suggest the involvement of a process
60 that operates outside conscious awareness (*e.g.*, visual illusion or increased bite size). By
61 contrast, if they are aware then this would imply a role for a form of decision-making that is
62 potentially under volitional control (*e.g.*, a desire to obtain value for money and/or a
63 consumption norm).

64 Several avenues of research suggest that individuals are unaware of their intake
65 when served large portions. Firstly, participants report relative insensitivity to the effects of
66 larger portions on levels of post-meal satiety (*e.g.*, Levitsky & Youn, 2004; Rolls et al., 2002).
67 For example, Wansink, Painter, and North (2005) found that participants who ate from a

68 self-refilling soup bowl consumed 73% more than participants who ate from an
69 unmanipulated bowl, but both groups estimated consuming similar amounts. Secondly,
70 individuals often report that they believe they have consumed their 'typical' portion after
71 consuming large amounts (*e.g.*, Wansink & Sobal, 2007; Wansink, Van Ittersum & Painter,
72 2006; Vartanian, Reily, Spanos, Herman, & Polivy, 2017). In a series of four experiments,
73 Wansink & Sobal (2007) found that altering portion-relevant cues (*e.g.*, food packaging,
74 serving bowl, and plate size) led to participants consuming 31% more food than in the
75 control conditions, where standard sized portion cues were provided. When participants in
76 large portion-cue conditions were asked how much they believed they had eaten, most
77 believed they had consumed their 'typical' amount. The majority of those in large portion-
78 cue conditions attributed their intake to elevated hunger and seemed unwilling to
79 acknowledge that they had been influenced by portion size. Similarly, Wansink, Van
80 Ittersum & Painter (2006) found that health specialists who served themselves ice-cream
81 into either a small or a large bowl estimated selecting roughly equal calorie amounts ,
82 despite individuals in the large bowl condition having selected 31% more ice-cream.

83 Notwithstanding these results, there are also several findings that are consistent
84 with an account based on portion awareness. Rolls et al., (2004) gave individuals different
85 sized sandwiches on separate days and found that most recognised that the portions
86 provided had increased in size. The same result has been observed using both amorphous
87 foods (Kral, Roe, & Rolls, 2004) and liquids (Flood, Roe, & Rolls, 2006). Although not direct
88 evidence for a role for awareness in the portion size effect, this does suggest that individuals
89 recognise an increase in the portion sizes served (accounts based on lack of awareness
90 suggest the converse). In a different paradigm, Van Kleef et al., (2012) found that
91 participants served a larger portion consumed 77% more than those in a small-portion

92 condition, but estimated consuming 67% more calories than did participants in the small-
93 portion condition. More recently, Vartanian, Reily, Spanos, Herman, & Polivy (2017) found
94 that participants who believed they had eaten more than their typical amount had eaten
95 larger quantities than those who believed they had eaten the same as normal or less. Also,
96 those individuals who believed they had eaten more were also more likely to identify
97 portion size as an influencing factor. This was interpreted as motivated denial, whereby
98 individuals will acknowledge the influence of portion size when it suits them; for example,
99 to justify increased consumption.

100 In the present study we focused on perceptions about intake after a meal has been
101 consumed. Specifically, we tested the proposition that participants are aware that they have
102 consumed a larger (than intended) meal after being offered a large portion to consume. We
103 reasoned that if participants are aware that portion size influences intake, then i) the
104 number who accurately report having consumed more / less than the amount they intended
105 to eat should be greater than chance and ii) participants will be able to estimate accurately
106 the degree to which their intake deviated from their initial intended amount.

107 Methods**108 Design**

109 Participants initially provided measures of the amount of food they could
110 comfortably consume ('intended intake') of the test meal (pasta and sauce) and two
111 'distractor' foods. Measures were obtained using a psychophysical procedure that does not
112 involve overt selection of ideal portions. In a between-subjects design, participants then
113 received either a smaller or larger portion of pasta (100% difference in portion size) and
114 were asked to eat ad-libitum. After eating, participants were shown the food image which
115 most closely matched their initial intended intake portion of pasta. They were then asked to
116 identify whether they perceived having consumed more or less than this amount.
117 Participants who answered correctly (congruence between behaviour and perceptions)
118 were labelled 'aware' and participants who answered incorrectly were labelled 'unaware.'
119 To establish whether they were aware of how much they had consumed, participants were
120 then asked to spoon out the amount extra or less that they perceived consuming relative to
121 their intended intake.

122

123 Participant characteristics

124 The participants were 48 female undergraduates studying at the University of Bristol
125 in the UK (mean age = 20.6 years, SD= 2.2). The BMI of participants ranged from 17.5 to 33.1
126 kg/m² (mean BMI = 22.3, SD= 3.0 kg/m²). Two participants in each condition reported
127 currently dieting to lose weight. Participants assisted with the study as part of an
128 undergraduate course requirement and all provided informed written consent. Participants
129 were excluded if they were pregnant or lactating, taking medications that may affect

130 appetite or in athletic training. The study protocol was approved by the University of Bristol
131 (Faculty of Science) Research Ethics Committee.

132

133 **Measures:**

134 **Establishing intended intake**

135 Estimates of intended intake were obtained using an adapted version of ‘a method of
136 constant stimuli’ (for more details of this method see Brunstrom, Rogers, Pothos, Calitri, &
137 Tapper, 2008; Brunstrom, Shakeshaft, & Scott-Samuel, 2008), whereby participants were
138 shown an image of a meal on a computer screen and instructed to “Think about whether
139 this portion is ‘more’ or ‘less’ than the amount that would leave you comfortably full.”
140 Respectively, they pressed the left and right arrow key to indicate whether the portion was
141 less or more than ideal. Probit analysis was used to calculate a point of subjective equality.
142 This represents the point at which there is 50% likelihood that the amount will be selected
143 as ‘too much’ or ‘too little’ and was taken to represent the amount each individual intended
144 to consume. Participants were also shown this image to confirm that these were
145 representative of the amounts that would leave them feeling comfortably full if eaten at
146 that time. Participants completed the same task for three different meals; the ‘test food’
147 (Penne pasta a Dolmio sauce) and two that acted as distractors (scrambled egg with potato
148 fries and baked beans; sponge cake). Forty-one images were taken of each food/meal,
149 spaced with an increment of 20 kcal (range: 20 kcal to 800 kcal). The three meals were
150 presented in a set of three trials and each set was repeated 56 times, yielding 56 responses
151 to each food (168 trials in total). There are several advantages to this approach. First, the
152 large number of trials increases the precision of the estimated point of subjective equality.
153 Second, participants were never explicitly asked to identify their prospective portion size –

154 this information was extracted from their responses. This reduces the likelihood that they
155 altered their responses to make them more desirable (*e.g.*, selecting an amount that makes
156 them look as though they typically eat small portions). Third, at this stage the participants
157 were unaware that they would be asked to consume food later in the study. The presence of
158 distractor foods helps to detract attention away from the test food. Data from the distractor
159 foods were not used in any further part of the study.

160

161

162 **Test foods**

163 The test food (eaten and photographed for the intended intake task) consisted of
164 pasta ('Barilla penne 73', per 100g: 359 kcal: roughly 180 kcal when cooked) and tomato
165 sauce (Dolmio Original Bolognese sauce, 52 kcal/100 g). The combination of pasta and sauce
166 had an energy density of 1.33 kcal/g. The same proportions of pasta and tomato sauce were
167 used each time and the cooking process for the pasta and tomato sauce was standardised
168 across all participants. Participants were provided with either a smaller or larger portion of
169 pasta and tomato sauce. In the 'smaller condition', 300 g of dry pasta (approximately 600 g
170 when cooked) was prepared, to which 350 g of tomato pasta sauce (Dolmio Original, Mars
171 UK) was added (950 g total / 1259 kcal). In the 'larger condition', 600 g of dry pasta was
172 cooked (approximately 1200 g when cooked) and mixed with 700 g of pasta sauce (1900 g
173 total / 2518 kcal). In both conditions, the pasta and sauce was served in the same bowl (26
174 cm diameter and 3.8 L volume). Participants served themselves using a serving spoon (29
175 cm long, scoop volume of 180 ml) and ate from bowls 18 cm in diameter, 0.3 L in volume.
176 Participants were asked to serve the amount they would need to consume in order to leave
177 them feeling comfortably full into a second smaller bowl (18 cm diameter, 300 ml volume)

178 using a large serving spoon. The amount participants selected was weighed in front of them.
179 Participants were then told they could eat as much or as little of the portion they had served
180 themselves. They were also told that if they wanted more, they could serve themselves
181 more but should let the researcher know so that the amount could be weighed again. The
182 final amount consumed was used to estimate whether participants had consumed more or
183 less than their intended intake amount.

184

185 **INSERT TABLE 1 HERE**

186

187 **Awareness of eating less or more than intended**

188 To establish whether participants were aware of having eaten less or more than their
189 intended amount, they were asked immediately after eating: “today, upon seeing the pasta,
190 but before you began to scoop, did you have a rough idea in mind how much you wanted to
191 eat? This may have been in terms of scoops or a visualisation in the bowl.” This was in the
192 form of a yes / no response with a text box below for any additional comments they felt
193 relevant. This question was included to establish whether participants had pre-meal plans
194 before they began to eat. At this point they were shown an image of the portion that they
195 had individually intended to consume in the initial computer-based task. The bowl they had
196 eaten from was visible on the table upon arrival. They were then asked if they thought they
197 ‘ate less’ or ‘ate more’ than the amount represented in the picture. Responses to whether
198 participants perceived they had eaten less or more than intended were coded for accuracy.
199 The number 1 represented an accurate response (e.g., ate more and perceived they ate
200 more, or ate less and perceived they ate less) and a 0 represented an inaccurate response
201 (e.g., ate more but perceived they ate less, or ate less but perceived they had eaten more).

202

203 **Awareness of exact amount consumed**

204 Participants were provided with the same sized bowl as the one they had eaten from during
205 the meal, the same sized spoon, and the same sized serving spoon. They were then asked to
206 spoon out from a bowl of pasta and tomato sauce, the amount that they perceived
207 corresponded with the difference between their actual consumption and the amount
208 depicted on the computer screen (their intended amount). The amount spooned out was
209 then weighed so it could be used to calculate how much each participant perceived they
210 had consumed relative to their initial intended amount. If participants perceived they had
211 consumed more than their intended amount, and were correct, the amount spooned out
212 was added to the amount (in grams) equated / associated with the image selected for their
213 intended intake. If they reported perceiving they had consumed less, and were correct, the
214 amount spooned out was subtracted from the picture image. As noted, it was only possible
215 to calculate estimated intake for those participants who correctly perceived they had eaten
216 less or more than their plan – it would not make sense to add the amount scooped out if
217 they had consumed less, and vice versa. Because of this, not all participant responses were
218 included in this analysis – 33 responses were retained with 8 removed.

219

220 **Procedure**

221 Testing took place between 11:00 and 14:00 and participants were instructed to
222 abstain from eating for three hours prior to their scheduled visit. Upon arrival they were
223 seated in a partitioned booth. To avoid demand characteristics, participants were told that
224 the purpose of the study was to explore changes in sweetness perception before and after a
225 meal. Consistent with the cover story, at the beginning of the experiment participants were

226 given a list of 33 foods and instructed to rate (from memory) their sweetness on a five-point
227 scale.

228 In the first phase of the study, participants completed the intended intake task on a
229 computer. This generated an estimate of their intended pre-meal amount. In the second
230 phase, participants were allocated to either the smaller or a larger-portion condition and
231 served themselves the amount they would need to eat to leave them feeling comfortably
232 full. Allocation was based on placing each person alternately to each condition, thus
233 ensuring a level of randomisation. They then ate, and the amount consumed recorded.

234 After eating, participants completed the awareness of amount eaten task. This
235 incorporated questions about whether they knew if they had eaten less or more than they
236 initially intended, and by how much. These were the key outcome variables. Each task
237 followed on from each other without a break between them.

238 Before leaving, participants completed a second sweetness awareness questionnaire
239 to maintain the cover story. They then completed the revised Restraint Scale (Herman &
240 Polivy., 1975) and the Dutch Eating Behaviour questionnaire (van Strien et al., 1986). This
241 was followed by a question about whether they found the food to be more or less pleasant
242 than initially anticipated (“Did the food taste more or less pleasant than you had
243 anticipated?” where a 1 represents “very much less pleasant” and a 5 “very much more
244 pleasant”, with “about right” as the midpoint). Participants were then weighed and their
245 height recorded.. All participants received a written debriefing and were thanked for their
246 assistance.

247

248

249 **Data analysis**

250

251 Before beginning the main analyses, independent samples *t*-tests were used to check
252 for baseline differences between groups in: age, BMI, dietary restraint, how pleasant
253 participants found the food and intended intake. To determine evidence of a portion size
254 effect, amounts consumed in the smaller portion and the larger portion condition were
255 compared with an independent samples *t*-test. To test the hypothesis that the majority of
256 participants would be aware of the amount eaten, the distributions of accurate responses
257 were compared to null distributions via chi-square tests. If participants were aware of how
258 much they have eaten, then the number who accurately reported consuming less or more
259 than intended should be greater than chance. An initial chi-square was run with all data
260 included to test accuracy across both conditions. To determine accuracy within each
261 condition, separate chi-square tests were run on the data from the smaller and larger
262 portion conditions. To test whether participants who received a larger portion and ate more
263 than intended were aware of this, a further chi-square test was run on those that met these
264 criteria. This test is important, because it assesses whether participants were aware that
265 they had consumed a larger portion than they had initially planned, after receiving a larger
266 portion.

267 To test the hypothesis that participants would be aware of the quantity of food
268 consumed, an initial 2 (larger vs. smaller portion) x 2 (perceived vs. actual intake) mixed
269 ANOVA was run. A significant interaction between ratings (perceived and actual) and
270 portion condition was then explored using paired-samples *t*-tests to identify where the
271 differences in expected versus actual intake existed within the two conditions. If
272 participants were aware of the amount eaten, then the difference between the two
273 amounts should be small and non-significant. A final *t*-test was used to test accuracy among

274 those participants who received a larger portion and consumed more than they intended. If
275 there was a non-significant difference in amounts within this group, this would support the
276 idea that participants know how much they are consuming when they eat in response to
277 larger portions. As these interactions were explored using three separate *t*-tests, a
278 Bonferonni adjustment was applied to the *p*-value ($p = .05/3 = .017$) to control for the
279 multiple comparisons.

280 We noticed that scores for two participants were recorded differently in separate
281 spreadsheets. Without being able to identify which one was correct, the data for both
282 participants were removed from further analysis. One of these belonged to the smaller
283 portion condition and another to the larger portion condition. The removal of these data
284 points had little effect on any of the main findings reported below. Results with these data
285 points retained are provided in footnote 1. There were no responses on the demand
286 characteristics questionnaire that required data to be excluded.

287

288 **Results**

289

290 ***Participant characteristics***

291 Participants assigned to the smaller and larger portion conditions were similar in:
292 age, BMI, cognitive restraint, and the amount that they initially intended to consume (see
293 Table 2).

294

295 ***Food pleasantness***

296 The mean rating of food pleasantness relative to expectations was 3.54 (out of a
297 possible 5.0) (S.D = .72). Only one participant reported that the food was less pleasant than
298 anticipated, with the remaining participants responding that they found the food about
299 right or more pleasant than anticipated. See table 2 for a breakdown of responses by
300 portion condition.

301

302 INSERT TABLE 2 HERE

303

304 ***Amount consumed by those in the smaller and larger portion conditions***

305 Participants in the larger portion (n = 23) condition consumed significantly more
306 food (mean = 338.3 g, SD +/-120.7 g) than those in the smaller portion (n = 23) condition
307 (mean = 265.7 g, SD +/- 86.3 g) ($t(44) = 2.35, p = .024$), confirming the expected portion-size
308 effect.

309 ¹ As noted in the data analysis section of the methods, two participant scores were removed. With all 48

310 participants included, there was still a significant difference in the amount eaten by those who received the

311 smaller versus larger portion ($t(46) = -2.15, p = .038$). The number of people who correctly reported eating less
312 or more than initially intended was 71% (34/48), which was significantly different to the null distribution ($\chi^2(1)$
313 = 8.33, $p = .004$). In the larger portion condition, 75% (18/24) correctly identified eating less or more than
314 intended ($\chi^2(1) = 6.00, p = .014$). Of the 18 participants in the larger portion condition who consumed more
315 than their intended amount, 78% (14/18) were correct ($\chi^2(1) = 5.56, p = .018$). In the smaller portion condition,
316 67% (16/24) were correct about eating less or more than intended ($\chi^2(1) = 2.67, p = .102$). In terms of
317 accuracy about the amount consumed, there was a significant interaction between portion size and
318 actual/estimated intake $F(1,32) = 9.16, p = .005$. In the smaller portion condition, a subsequent t -test on the
319 amount participants believed they had consumed and actual intake revealed a non-significant difference $t(15)$
320 = 1.35, $p = .198$. No additional analyses were completed on the accuracy data for the larger portion condition.
321 This is because the participant in the larger condition removed from the main analysis due to a mis-coding
322 issue did not respond correctly to whether they perceived having eaten less or more than intended. Therefore,
323 the results for this analysis did not differ from those explained in the main analyses above.

324

325 ***Awareness of amount consumed relative to intended intake***

326 Across both conditions, 72% (33/46) of participants responded correctly to the
327 binary question of whether they perceived they had consumed less or more than initially
328 intended. This distribution of responses deviated significantly from chance ($\chi^2(1) = 8.70, p =$
329 $.003$). See Table 3 for the percentage of participants in each condition who were correct or
330 incorrect about eating less or more than intended across both conditions. When the larger
331 portion condition was analysed separately, 78% (18/23) of participants correctly reported
332 consuming less or more than intended. This level of accuracy was significantly above chance
333 ($\chi^2(1) = 7.35, p = .007$). Moreover, of the 17 individuals who consumed more than intended,
334 77% (13/17) correctly reported consuming more ($\chi^2(1) = 4.77, p = .029$). In the smaller
335 portion condition, 65% (15/23) of participants correctly identified whether they had eaten

336 less or more than intended, but this was not significantly different from chance ($\chi^2 (1) =$
337 2.13, $p = .144$).

338

339 INSERT TABLE 3 HERE

340

341

342 ***Accuracy in estimating the difference between 'intended' and actual consumption***

343 Only data for participants who correctly perceived having eaten less or more than
344 intended were included in this analysis (see above). This left 33 scores with 13 removed (8
345 from the smaller portion and 5 from the larger portion conditions were removed).

346 Across participants, there was no significant difference in the amount of pasta and
347 tomato sauce that participants perceived consuming relative to their actual intake ($F(1,31) =$
348 $.85, p = .364$). However, there was a significant difference in perceived and actual intake
349 based on which portion of food participants had received ($F(1,31) = 9.33, p = .005$). See
350 Figure 1 for the perceived versus actual intake in each condition.

351 Participants in the smaller portion ($n = 15$) condition did not appear to perceive
352 having consumed significantly less or more than their actual intake ($t(14) = -1.42, p = .117$).
353 By contrast, participants in the larger portion condition ($n = 18$) tended to perceive that their
354 meal was smaller than the actual amount ($t(17) = -2.99, p = .008$). This tendency to
355 underestimate meal size was especially evident in participants ($n = 13$) who received a larger
356 portion and who also consumed more than they intended ($t(12) = -3.78, p = .003$). That is,
357 participants who receive a larger portion of food and consumed more than initially intended

358 systematically underestimate their intake, suggesting that they are not aware of the amount
359 they have eaten².

360

361 INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE

362

363 **Discussion**

364 The purpose of the current study was to establish whether individuals are aware of
365 consuming more than intended after receiving a larger portion of food. We found that: i)
366 after self-selecting an intended portion, most participants who received a fixed larger
367 portion could identify if they had consumed more or less than intended, but; ii) participants
368 who received the larger portion could not accurately estimate the quantity of food
369 consumed relative to their initial intended intake. These findings are considered in separate
370 sections below.

371

372

373 **Are subjects aware of eating less or more than a pre-defined amount?**

374 Across both conditions, 72% of participants responded correctly to the question of
375 whether they had eaten less or more than intended. From this we conclude a tendency for
376 participants to be aware of how their intake compared to a pre-selected amount, or at least
377 become aware when prompted. More importantly, accuracy was 77% in those who received
378 the larger portion and who consumed more than initially intended. This suggests that
379 participants who eat more when receiving a larger portion are generally aware of having

² The 5 participants who received a larger portion and ate less than intended, perceived they had eaten slightly more (279.1 g, SD = 88.4) than their actual intake (265.8 g, SD = 90.0), but this sample was considered too small to perform any meaningful statistical tests.

380 done so. However, we also note that accuracy levels were lower (65 %) in the smaller
381 portion condition and were not significantly different from the null distribution.

382 The finding that participants who received the larger portion appeared able to
383 identify consuming more than intended challenges the claim that individuals are unaware
384 that they eat more when served larger portions (Wansink & Sobal, 2007; Wansink et al.,
385 2006). It is not entirely clear why this is the case, but it could be attributable to differences
386 in study design. Wansink, van Ittersum, & Painter (2006) gave participants a small or large
387 bowl and asked them to serve themselves ice-cream. They found no significant difference in
388 participant estimates of the number of calories selected between those who received small
389 and large bowls, concluding that participants who received the large must have been
390 unaware that they had selected a larger portion. However, estimating the energy content of
391 a portion of food is a relatively abstract and difficult task. We note that Van Kleef et al.,
392 (2012) used a similar design and found a different result: individuals in the large-bowl
393 condition estimated consuming significantly more than those in the small-bowl condition.
394 Thus, estimating intake in terms of energy content appears to render inconsistent results. In
395 the current study, participants were asked to make visual comparisons between the amount
396 consumed and an amount they had previously selected themselves, under the same
397 conditions. This reduces the likelihood that responses were affected by difficulties in
398 estimating quantities using abstract units of measurement. Another approach has been to
399 ask participants how the amount consumed compares to their typical portion (*e.g.*, Wansink
400 and Sobal, 2007). Participants in the large portion conditions often report believing that
401 they have consumed their 'typical' portion amount, so it is assumed that they must be
402 unaware of their increased intake. A problem with this approach is that these claims cannot
403 be verified and may reflect response bias. This is highlighted by Vartanian, Reily, Spanos,

404 Herman, & Polivy (2017) who recently found that participants were more willing to
405 acknowledge being influenced by the presence of a large portion, when they believed they
406 had eaten large amounts. Possibly because it is self-serving and offers an opportunity to
407 justify overeating. The current approach of asking participants the binary question of
408 whether they believe they had eaten less or more than an intended amount seems a logical
409 extension as this seemed less susceptible to motivated responses. However, without having
410 asked for their certainty in responses, we cannot rule out the possibility that some
411 individuals may have guessed.

412 The low levels of apparent awareness (65 %) in the smaller portion condition was
413 unexpected. We note that at 950 g the portion in the smaller portion condition was still
414 relatively large and three times greater than mean intake in this condition. It was necessary
415 to provide an amount of food that enabled for ad-libitum intake, but the null result in this
416 condition represents a situation where participants who have received a relatively large
417 portion have shown a low level of awareness. It is possible that this result might be due to
418 the forced choice nature of the question that was posed. The difference between planned
419 and actual intake was 22.9 g in the smaller and 52 g in the larger portion condition. If
420 someone consumes an amount that is close to their intended intake, they might perceive
421 there to be equal chance of them having eaten less or more than intended. This increases
422 the potential for error in their responses. By comparison, someone who is aware that they
423 have eaten considerably more than intended does not face the same difficulty in responding
424 (there is no longer an equal chance that they have eaten less or more). Allowing a third
425 option of 'about the same' might have resolved this issue. Another possibility is that
426 awareness might only be prompted when very large portions are provided. However,
427 Vartanian, Reily, Spanos, Herman, & Polivy (2017) found evidence of awareness using

428 smaller portions (600 g of pasta and tomato sauce in the large portion condition) making
429 this seem unlikely.

430

431

432 **Are subjects aware of the amount consumed?**

433 When asked to indicate how much participants perceived consuming above or below
434 their intended intake amount, participants in the smaller portion condition provided
435 accurate estimations. However, those who received the larger portion, and who ate more
436 than intended, underestimated their intake by 25%. This suggests that when individuals eat
437 more than they intended in response to receiving a larger portion, they may be aware that
438 they have done so but underestimate by how much.

439 The underestimation of intake by those served a larger portion replicates previous
440 research (Chandon & Wansink, 2007; Harnack, Steffen, Arnett, Gao, & Luepker, 2004;
441 Wansink & Chandon, 2006). In two separate studies, Wansink & Chandon (2006) found that
442 individuals served a large portion underestimated their intake by 38% (study 1) and 23%
443 (study 2). Those who received a small portion were almost perfectly accurate. Chandon and
444 Wansink (2007) have shown that this inaccuracy in estimation follows a power function,
445 whereby portion estimates become increasingly inaccurate as a function of larger portion
446 sizes.

447 Difficulties in estimating the quantity of food present with larger portions suggests
448 perceptual processes might also influence meal size. Individuals often pre-plan how much to
449 consume prior to eating, and after serving themselves a portion of food follow-through with
450 these plans (Brunstrom, 2014; Fay et al., 2011). Any underestimation of amount present is
451 likely to result in eating more than intended. This increased intake is unlikely to be

452 constrained by physiological signals related to energy balance, because meal-to-meal acute
453 fluctuations have negligible impact (Rogers and Brunstrom, 2016). Furthermore, modest
454 additional fullness probably provides only weak added inhibition of food intake because
455 normal meal sizes are generally much smaller than would be needed to induce discomfort –
456 in other words, there is usually ‘room for more’ (Rogers and Brunstrom, 2016). We also
457 note that perceptions about amount eaten are often stronger predictors of satiety than
458 actual intake amount consumed (Brunstrom et al., 2012; Wansink, Painter, & North, 2005).

459

460 **Limitations**

461 The sample size for this study was not based on a power calculation. However, while
462 the effect size of larger portions on intake is well established, no other studies have tested
463 whether participants can identify eating less or more than a pre-defined amount, so
464 performing an *a-priori* calculation would have been difficult. A retrospective power
465 calculation on the chi-square analysis (72% accurate vs. 28% inaccurate overall) revealed
466 that the study was 84.7% powered ($w = .44$, $\alpha = .05$). We therefore believe that the study is
467 sufficiently powered for this analysis.

468 We acknowledge that asking participants to indicate how much they intended to
469 serve themselves prior to eating might have influenced their later intake. Distractor foods
470 were included for this reason, making it less likely that participants would not have known
471 which food would be used as the test food, but we cannot be certain that this had some
472 influence. Participants were also not given the opportunity to eat the same amount as their
473 plan. The amount of food selected by participants was also weighed in front of them, which
474 may have influenced intake. A difference was still observed in the amount individuals
475 consumed in the smaller and larger portion conditions, suggesting that this did not strongly

476 affect behaviour. The percentage difference in intake (21.5 %) is also broadly consistent with
477 amounts observed in a recent meta-analysis (*e.g.*, Zlavetska, Dubelaar, & Holden, 2014).
478 Finally, only females were tested, so we do not yet know whether the same set of results
479 would occur in males. These preliminary results must be interpreted with caution and would
480 encourage attempts to replicate and extend this study by addressing the limitations
481 outlined above.

482

483 **Concluding remarks**

484 Participants who received a larger portion appeared able to identify whether they
485 had consumed more or less than an initial planned amount. This awareness of occasions
486 when participants eat more than intended suggests an opportunity to introduce behavioural
487 strategies that mitigate the effect of large portions on food intake. However, we also note
488 that when participants were asked to provide estimates of the exact amount eaten, those
489 who received the larger portion tended to markedly underestimate their intake relative to
490 their original plan. This apparent absence of awareness of additional intake suggests that
491 interventions aimed at modifying responses to larger portions might only achieve partial
492 success and that concern about the availability of large servings and large pre-packaged
493 portion sizes might only be fully addressed by down-sizing current product offerings.

494 **References**

- 495 Brunstrom, J. M. (2014). Mind over platter: pre-meal planning and the control of meal size in
496 humans. *International Journal of Obesity*, *38* (1), S9-12. doi: 10.1038/ijo.2014.83
- 497 Brunstrom, J. M., Burn, J. F., Sell, N. R., Collingwood, J. M., Rogers, P. J., Wilkinson, L. L., . . . Ferriday,
498 D. (2012). Episodic Memory and Appetite Regulation in Humans. *Plos One*, *7*(12). doi: ARTN
499 e5070710.1371/journal.pone.0050707
- 500 Brunstrom, J. M., Rogers, P. J., Pothos, E. M., Calitri, R., & Tapper, K. (2008). Estimating everyday
501 portion size using a 'method of constant stimuli': in a student sample, portion size is
502 predicted by gender, dietary behaviour, and hunger, but not BMI. *Appetite*, *51*(2), 296-301.
503 doi: 10.1016/j.appet.2008.03.005
- 504 Brunstrom, J. M., Shakeshaft, N. G., & Scott-Samuel, N. E. (2008). Measuring 'expected satiety' in a
505 range of common foods using a method of constant stimuli. *Appetite*, *51*(3), 604-614. doi:
506 10.1016/j.appet.2008.04.017
- 507 Burger, K. S., Fisher, J. O., & Johnson, S. L. (2011). Mechanisms Behind the Portion Size Effect:
508 Visibility and Bite Size. *Obesity*, *19*(3), 546-551. doi: 10.1038/oby.2010.233
- 509 Chandon, P., & Wansink, B. (2007). Is obesity caused by calorie underestimation? A psychophysical
510 model of meal size estimation. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *44*(1), 84-99. doi: DOI
511 10.1509/jmkr.44.1.84
- 512 Diliberti, N., Bordi, P. L., Conklin, M. T., Roe, L. S., & Rolls, B. J. (2004). Increased portion size leads to
513 increased energy intake in a restaurant meal. *Obesity Research*, *12*(3), 562-568. doi:
514 10.1038/oby.2004.64
- 515 Duffey, K. J., & Popkin, B. M. (2011). Energy density, portion size, and eating occasions: contributions
516 to increased energy intake in the United States, 1977-2006. *PLoS Med*, *8*(6), e1001050. doi:
517 10.1371/journal.pmed.1001050

- 518 Fay, S. H., Ferriday, D., Hinton, E. C., Shakeshaft, N. G., Rogers, P. J., & Brunstrom, J. M. (2011). What
519 determines real-world meal size? Evidence for pre-meal planning. *Appetite*, *56*(2), 284-289.
520 doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2011.01.006>
- 521 Fisher, J. O., Rolls, B. J., & Birch, L. L. (2003). Children's bite size and intake of an entree are greater
522 with large portions than with age-appropriate or self-selected portions. *American Journal of*
523 *Clinical Nutrition*, *77*(5), 1164-1170.
- 524 Flood, J. E., Roe, L. S., & Rolls, B. J. (2006). The effect of increased beverage portion size on energy
525 intake at a meal. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, *106*(12), 1984-1990. doi:
526 [10.1016/j.jada.2006.09.005](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jada.2006.09.005)
- 527 Harnack, L., Steffen, L., Arnett, D. K., Gao, S., & Luepker, R. V. (2004). Accuracy of estimation of large
528 food portions. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, *104*(5), 804-806. doi:
529 [10.1016/j.jada.2004.02.026](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jada.2004.02.026)
- 530 Herman, C. P., & Polivy, J. (1980) Restrained eating. In: Stunkard A, (ed.) *Obesity*.
531 Philadelphia, PA: WB Saunders (pp. 208–25).
- 532 Herman, C. P., Polivy, J., Pliner, P., & Vartanian, L. R. (2015). Mechanisms underlying the portion-size
533 effect. *Physiology & Behaviour*, *144*, 129-136. doi: [10.1016/j.physbeh.2015.03.025](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.physbeh.2015.03.025)
- 534 Hermans, R. C., Larsen, J. K., Herman, C. P., & Engels, R. C. (2012). How much should I eat?
535 Situational norms affect young women's food intake during meal time. *British Journal of*
536 *Nutrition*, *107*(4), 588-594. doi: [10.1017/S0007114511003278](http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0007114511003278)
- 537 Ittersum, K. V., & Wansink, B. (2012). Plate Size and Color Suggestibility: The Delboeuf Illusion's Bias
538 on Serving and Eating Behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *39*(2), 215-228. doi:
539 [10.1086/662615](http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/662615)
- 540 Kral, T. V., Roe, L. S., & Rolls, B. J. (2004). Combined effects of energy density and portion size on
541 energy intake in women. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, *79*(6), 962-968.
- 542 Levitsky, D. A., & Youn, T. (2004). The more food young adults are served, the more they overeat.
543 *The Journal of Nutrition*, *134*(10), 2546-2549.

- 544 Nielsen, S. J., & Popkin, B. M. (2003). Patterns and trends in food portion sizes, 1977-1998. *JAMA*,
545 289(4), 450-453.
- 546 Raynor, H. A., & Wing, R. R. (2007). Package unit size and amount of food: do both influence intake?
547 *Obesity*, 15(9), 2311-2319. doi: 10.1038/oby.2007.274
- 548 Robinson, E., te Raa, W., & Hardman, C. A. (2015). Portion size and intended consumption. Evidence
549 for a pre-consumption portion size effect in males? *Appetite*, 91, 83-89. doi:
550 10.1016/j.appet.2015.04.009
- 551 Rogers, P. J., & Brunstrom, J. M. (2016). Appetite and energy balancing. *Physiology and Behaviour*,
552 164, 465-471.
- 553 Rolls, B. J., Morris, E. L., & Roe, L. S. (2002). Portion size of food affects energy intake in normal-
554 weight and overweight men and women. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 76(6), 1207-
555 1213.
- 556 Rolls, B. J., Roe, L. S., Halverson, K. H., & Meengs, J. S. (2007). Using a smaller plate did not reduce
557 energy intake at meals. *Appetite*, 49(3), 652-660. doi: 10.1016/j.appet.2007.04.005
- 558 Rolls, B. J., Roe, L. S., Kral, T. V., Meengs, J. S., & Wall, D. E. (2004). Increasing the portion size of a
559 packaged snack increases energy intake in men and women. *Appetite*, 42(1), 63-69. doi:
560 10.1016/S0195-6663(03)00117-X
- 561 Rolls, B. J., Roe, L. S., Meengs, J. S., & Wall, D. E. (2004). Increasing the portion size of a sandwich
562 increases energy intake. *Journal of American Dietetic Association*, 104(3), 367-372. doi:
563 10.1016/j.jada.2003.12.013
- 564 Schwartz, J., & Byrd-Bredbenner, C. (2006). Portion distortion: Typical portion sizes selected by
565 young adults. *J Am Diet Assoc*, 106(9), 1412-1418. doi: 10.1016/j.jada.2006.06.006
- 566 Steenhuis, I. H. M., & Vermeer, W. M. (2009). Portion size: review and framework for interventions.
567 *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity*, 6. doi: Artn 58
568 10.1186/1479-5868-6-58

- 569 Stunkard, A. J., & Messick, S. (1985). The 3-Factor Eating Questionnaire to Measure Dietary
570 Restraint, Disinhibition and Hunger. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 29(1), 71-83. doi:
571 Doi 10.1016/0022-3999(85)90010-8
- 572 van Ittersum, K., & Wansink, B. (2007). Do children really prefer large portions? Visual illusions bias
573 their estimates and intake. *Journal of American Dietetic Association*, 107(7), 1107-1110. doi:
574 10.1016/j.jada.2007.05.020
- 575 van Kleef, E., Shimizu, M., & Wansink, B. (2012). Serving bowl selection biases the amount of food
576 served. *Journal of Nutrition Education & Behaviour*, 44(1), 66-70. doi:
577 10.1016/j.jneb.2011.03.001
- 578 van Strien, T., Fritjers, J. E. R., Bergers, G. P. A., & Defares, P. B. (1986). The Dutch Eating Behavior
579 Questionnaire (DEBQ) for assessment of restrained, emotional and external eating
580 behaviour. *International Journal of Eating Disorders*, 5, 295– 315.
- 581 Vartanian, L. R., Reily, N.M., Spanos, S., Herman, C.P., & Polivy, J. (2017). Self-reported overeating
582 and attributions for food intake. *Psychology & Health*, 32(4), 483-492.
- 583 Wansink, B., & Chandon, P. (2006). Meal size, not body size, explains errors in estimating the calorie
584 content of meals. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, 145(5), 326-332.
- 585 Wansink, B., & Cheney, M. M. (2005). Super Bowls: serving bowl size and food consumption. *JAMA*,
586 293(14), 1727-1728. doi: 10.1001/jama.293.14.1727
- 587 Wansink, B., & Kim, J. (2005). Bad popcorn in big buckets: portion size can influence intake as much
588 as taste. *Journal of Nutrition Education & Behaviour*, 37(5), 242-245.
- 589 Wansink, B., Painter, J. E., & North, J. (2005). Bottomless bowls: why visual cues of portion size may
590 influence intake. *Obes Res*, 13(1), 93-100. doi: 10.1038/oby.2005.12
- 591 Wansink, B., & Park, S. B. (2001). At the movies: how external cues and perceived taste impact
592 consumption volume. *Food Quality and Preference*, 12(1), 69-74. doi: Doi 10.1016/S0950-
593 3293(00)00031-8

- 594 Wansink, B., & Sobal, J. (2007). Mindless eating - The 200 daily food decisions we overlook.
595 *Environment and Behavior*, 39(1), 106-123. doi: 10.1177/0013916506295573
- 596 Wansink, B., van Ittersum, K., & Painter, J. E. (2006). Ice cream illusions bowls, spoons, and self-
597 served portion sizes. *American Journal of Preventative Medicine*, 31(3), 240-243. doi:
598 10.1016/j.amepre.2006.04.003
- 599 Young, L. R., & Nestle, M. (2002). The contribution of expanding portion sizes to the US obesity
600 epidemic. *American Journal of Public Health*, 92(2), 246-249.
- 601 Zlavetska, N., Dubelaar, C., & Holden, S. S. (2014). Sizing up the effect of portion size on
602 consumption: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Marketing*, (78), 140-154.

603

604 **Table 1: Macronutrient composition of the pasta and tomato sauce**

605

Nutrition

	Dolmio tomato sauce	Pasta	Pasta
	per 100g	Per 100g (uncooked)	Per 100g (cooked – estimated)
Energy (Kcal)	52	359	180
Protein (g)	1.7	12	6
Carbohydrate (g)	8.7	71.7	35.9
Fat (g)	1.2	2.0	1.0

606

607

608

609 **Table 2 :** Participant demographics, mean food pleasantness ratings and amount individuals

610 intended to consume by portion condition. Values in brackets in the columns for the smaller and

611 large portion conditions represent standard deviations.

	Smaller portion (n = 23)	Larger portion (n = 23)	Significance testing of differences between the smaller and larger groups
Age (years)	20.6 (1.1)	20.7 (3.0)	$t(44) = -.13, p = .90$
BMI (kg/m ²)	22.8 (3.4)	21.8 (2.5)	$t(44) = 1.16, p = .25$
Dietary restraint	2.7 (.9)	2.6 (.8)	$t(44) = .41, p = .68$
Food pleasantness (1-5 scale)	3.5 (.7)	3.6 (.7)	$t(44) = -.61, p = .55$
Intended intake (grams)	288.6 (135.0)	286.3 (184.4)	$t(44) = .05, p = .96$

612

613

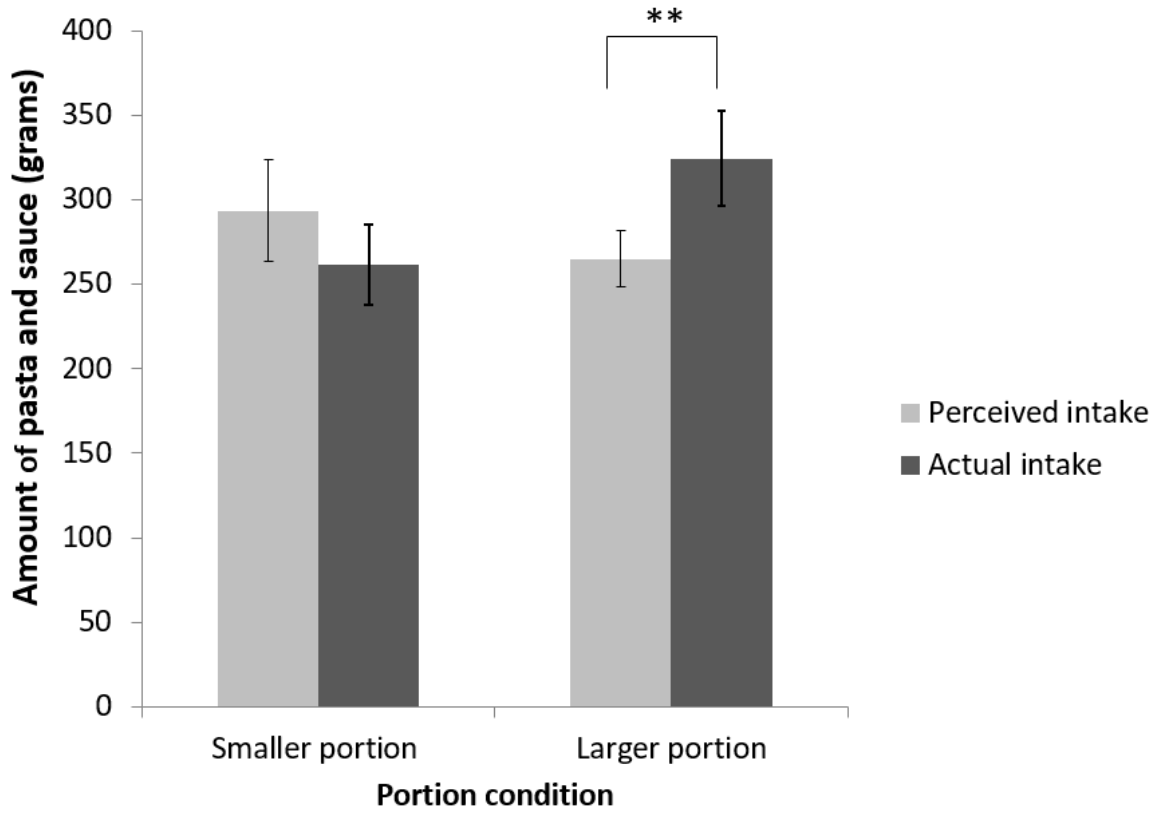
614

615

616

617 **Table 3:** The number and percentage of participants in each condition who correctly reported
 618 consuming less or more than they initially intended. The χ^2 values represent the distribution of
 619 scores versus the null distribution

Portion condition	Actual consumption	Estimated Amount		Totals	Comparison of values against null
		Correct	Incorrect		
Larger portion	Ate more	13 (76.5 %)	4 (33.3 %)	17	
	Ate less	5 (83.3 %)	1 (16.7 %)	6	
Total		18 (78.2 %)	5 (21.7 %)	23	$\chi^2 (1) = 7.35, p =$.007
Smaller portion	Ate more	7 (58.3 %)	5 (41.7 %)	12	
	Ate less	8 (66.7 %)	3 (27.3%)	11	
Total		15 (65.3 %)	8 (34.8 %)	23	$\chi^2 (1) = 2.13, p =$.144
Overall totals		33 (71.7 %)	13 (28.3%)	46	$\chi^2 (1) = 8.70, p =$.003



620

621 **Figure 1:** The amount that individuals in the smaller and larger portion conditions perceived
622 consuming versus their actual intake (** $p < .01$). Error bars represent standard error.

623

624