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Manuscript Details

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Abstract

Children's vegetable consumption in the UK remains lower than national recommendations, presenting potential long-term health risks. It is known that repeated exposure promotes intake of novel vegetables and that offering children variety and choice can also encourage intake. The current study aimed to compare the impact of offering variety over simple repeated exposure as a strategy for increasing pre-school children's vegetable consumption. Children (N=95) aged 24 to 55 months were recruited through participating nurseries and assigned to receive repeated exposure (RE) to a single vegetable snack or a mixed snack consisting of five different vegetables (variety: V). A minimum of 5 (maximum 6) exposures were given for both RE and V conditions. Pre and post-intervention intake measures of both the RE and V snacks were taken for each child. Follow up measures took place 1 month post-intervention (n=40). Vegetable intake increased significantly from pre to post intervention for snacks congruent to the condition to which children were assigned. Magnitude of change was smaller for the variety condition. Follow up data revealed that snack intake remained significantly higher than baseline 1 month post-intervention ($p < 0.001$). In agreement with previous work this study confirmed that repeated exposure was effective in promoting children's vegetable intake but there was no additional benefit of variety in this context. It may be that for moderately familiar vegetables, serving them alone encourages intake and for this age group, avoids contamination fears or effects of neophobia.

Keywords	variety; vegetable intake; pre-school children; repeated exposure; choice
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Data will be made available on request

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3 The effects of repeated exposure and variety on vegetable intake in pre-school children.
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59 **1Abstract**
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62 2Children’s vegetable consumption in the UK remains lower than national recommendations,
63 3presenting potential long-term health risks. It is known that repeated exposure promotes intake of
64 4novel vegetables and that offering children variety and choice can also encourage intake. The
65 5current study aimed to compare the impact of offering variety over simple repeated exposure as a
66 6strategy for increasing pre-school children’s vegetable consumption. Children (N=95) aged 24
67 7to 55 months were recruited through participating nurseries and assigned to receive repeated
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69 9vegetables (variety: V). A minimum of 5 (maximum 6) exposures were given for both RE and V
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71 11for each child. Follow up measures took place 1 month post-intervention (n=40). Vegetable
72 12intake increased significantly from pre to post intervention for snacks congruent to the condition
73 13to which children were assigned. Magnitude of change was smaller for the variety condition.
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76 16exposure was effective in promoting children’s vegetable intake but there was no additional
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78 18alone encourages intake and for this age group, avoids contamination fears or effects of
79 19neophobia.
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27Introduction

28Given that vegetable intake is reported to be below current recommendations ^[1], effective
29strategies are required to facilitate vegetable acceptance and increase intake. A recent systematic
30review and meta-analysis has identified repeated exposure as the most successful means to
31encourage vegetable intake in children, particularly when the vegetable is unfamiliar ^[2].
32Repeated exposure is not the only strategy used to encourage intake, rather a number of methods
33are used including varying the ways vegetables are prepared and offered ^[3-6], the use of modelling
34or rewards for tasting the vegetables ^[7-9], pairing novel vegetables with familiar flavours or
35added energy ^[10-14]. A common finding across these studies is that repeated exposure is a simple
36and highly successful technique for increasing children's vegetable consumption, and no
37additional benefit is observed with adding sweetness or energy ^[10-12]. Repeated and frequent
38experience with new foods and flavours without negative consequence allow children to become
39familiar with these foods and recognise them as safe as described in the "learned safety
40hypothesis" ^[15]. Simply by increasing familiarisation with a food, preference also increases ^[16, 17]
41and familiarisation increases acceptance, liking and intake of vegetables in young children ^[18, 19].
42Serving an assortment of foods and flavours within a single meal increases intake in adults ^[20]
43and young children ^[21, 22] and is known as the variety effect. An absence of variety has been
44found to decrease intake ^[23]. To date, studies offering a variety of vegetables have produced
45promising results. In one study adult participants were presented with meals in which half the
46plate contained either a 600g portion of a single vegetable or 200g of three different vegetables
47 ^[24]. Their results demonstrated that vegetable intake was greater when participants were offered
48three different vegetables than when they were offered a single type. A subsequent study by Roe
49and colleagues ^[25] found similar results when offering pre-school children a variety of vegetables
50at snack time. Children ate more vegetables when presented with three different types of familiar
51vegetable compared to when they were offered a single vegetable snack. It is thought that variety
52operates by interfering with or delaying satiation ^[26], thus boredom with the sensory attributes of
53a single food or flavour is prevented with variety ^[27]. An alternative explanation, but which has

169
170
171 54not been tested systematically, may be that for children offering variety and choice provides the
172
173 55welcome opportunity to make autonomous decisions about what to eat as well as the chance to
174
175 56select a preferred vegetable among less preferred vegetables.

176
177 57Several studies exploring parental feeding practices have confirmed that offering children choice
178
179 58in the foods that they consume can influence subsequent food intake, particularly in the case of
180
181 59vegetables [28-30]. Parents who are excessively prescriptive in the foods that they offer their
182
183 60children may inadvertently promote undesirable dietary habits such as low fruit and vegetable
184
185 61intake while those who are excessively permissive in the types of choices children are able to
186
187 62make may produce the same outcome [28, 31]. The potential importance of offering choice is
188
189 63explained by self-determination theory which suggests that choice increases an individual's
190
191 64perception of control and intrinsic motivation [32]. In general, offering choice is appreciated by
192
193 65children [33] and can have a positive effect on acceptance and intake [34, 35]. The coincidence of
194
195 66choice and variety has been explored [36], and offering choice, both before and within the meal,
196
197 67led to an increase in vegetable intake when compared with a no choice condition. Interestingly,
198
199 68no difference was found between explicit choice offering at the beginning of a meal and offering
200
201 69choice via variety suggesting both methods are equally effective.

202
203 70The aim of the current study was to test the hypothesis that offering pre-school children repeated
204
205 71exposure to moderately familiar vegetables in the form of variety would produce greater overall
206
207 72vegetable consumption compared to offering a single vegetable. It was predicted that repeated
208
209 73exposure would increase intake of the target vegetables in both the single and variety conditions,
210
211 74but that variety would have an additive effect to repeated exposure by increasing overall
212
213 75vegetable intake.

214 215 216 217 218 219 220 221 222 223 224

76Method

77Participants

78Parents of pre-school children aged 24-60 months were recruited through local day care nurseries
79in the West and South Yorkshire areas, UK. Ten nurseries were initially contacted via telephone
80to ascertain whether they wished to take part. Those that expressed an interest in participating

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226
227 81were visited by a researcher and meetings were held with staff teams to discuss the purpose of
228 82the study. Further meetings were arranged with those staff that would be responsible for the day
229 83to day running of the study so that they were fully prepared for the intervention. Details of the
230 84intervention were then distributed to parents who were asked to inform nurseries if they preferred
231 85that their child did not take part.

236 86Of the ten nurseries approached, five agreed to participate. Children attending two of the
237 87nurseries were predominantly White British, while children at the remaining three were
238 88predominantly South Asian. All five nurseries served areas located within the 50% most
239 89deprived (small areas) in England according to the Index of Multiple Deprivation scores
240 90[<https://www.gov.uk/government/collections/english-indices-of-deprivation>]. In total 184
241 91children were recruited, screened for food allergies (as reported by parents) and assigned to one
242 92of the two clusters; the single vegetable or repeated exposure (RE) or variety (V) group. The aim
243 93of recruitment was to achieve at least 60 participants in each cluster. This number was guided by
244 94a previous within-subjects study with pre-school children (25; n = 61), and sensitivity analysis
245 95(G*Power) with intended N of 120, assuming alpha = 0.05, and power of 0.80, indicated that an
246 96effect size of $f = 0.25$ should be detectable, which is a medium effect size.

254
255 97This study was conducted according to the guidelines laid down in the Declaration of Helsinki
256 98and all procedures involving human subjects/patients were approved by the School of
257 99Psychology (University of Leeds) ethics committee (12-0240). Written informed consent was
258 100obtained from parents and caregivers of all participating children.

262 101Procedure

265 102Three vegetables were selected as targets for the intervention. Vegetables were identified as
266 103potential targets from a previous study ^[37]; namely vegetables that had been introduced to this
267 104age group of children (so were familiar), but were not typically eaten as snacks. Given that is
268 105was not possible to ascertain whether individual vegetables had been regularly offered as snacks
269 106to participating children prior to the start of this study, three target vegetables were selected.
270 107These were baby sweet corn, celery and red pepper. The target vegetables were offered as the
271 108single snacks (in the RE condition) and included in the mixed vegetable snack (in the V

281
282
283 109condition). To ensure variety, a further 2 vegetables, radish and green pepper, were also selected
284
285 110to be included in the mixed vegetable snack based on the same criteria (familiar, but were not
286
287 111typically consumed as snacks).

288
289 112A between subjects design was used. Given that children in each nursery class would be
290
291 113consuming snacks together during snack time, cluster randomisation was used for condition and
292
293 114vegetable assignment. Nursery classes were randomly assigned to a condition (RE or V) and then
294
295 115randomly assigned to a target vegetable (baby corn, red pepper, or celery) using a block
296
297 116approach. This was to ensure all children within the same class were offered the same snack.

298
299 117Pre -intervention intakes were measured two to five days prior to the intervention. All children
300
301 118were offered a bag containing slices of a single vegetable (their assigned target vegetable) and a
302
303 119bag containing a variety of sliced vegetables on two separate days and this was counterbalanced
304
305 120to avoid order effects. A summary of the procedure is shown in Figure 1.

306 **121Figure 1 about here**

307
308 122The exposure phase of the intervention began 2 to 5 days after pre-intervention intakes were
309
310 123measured. Children received between 5 and 6 exposures to either the single vegetable snack (RE
311
312 124condition) or the mixed vegetable snack (variety condition). Intake was measured after each
313
314 125exposure and post-intervention measures of intake of both the single and mixed vegetable snacks
315
316 126took place 2 to 5 days later. A further measure of intake of both snacks was taken 1 month post-
317
318 127intervention.

319 128All snack sessions were carried out by nursery staff although a researcher was present for the
320
321 129first session at each nursery. The single vegetable snack consisted of 100g of one of the three
322
323 130target vegetables (baby sweet corn, celery or red pepper). The variety snack was a mix of 20g of
324
325 131each of the five vegetables (baby sweet corn, celery, red pepper, green pepper and radish).

326 **132Study Foods**

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328
329 133The selected vegetables were purchased and prepared by the experimenter in the laboratory
330
331 134kitchen. The vegetables were bought whole, sterilised in Milton fluid and sliced in identical 3cm

337
338
339 135long pieces before being sealed in clear plastic bags that were labelled with the child's name.
340
341 136Each bag contained 100g of vegetables in total.
342

343 137Anthropometrics

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345
346 138Where consent had been given, the heights and weights of participating children were measured
347
348 139at the end of the intervention. Children were weighed using SECA digital scales and had height
349
350 140measured using a Leicester SMSSE portable stadiometer. BMI z-scores were calculated using
351
352 141the WHO anthropometric calculator (<http://www.who.int/childgrowth/software/en/>).
353

354 142Questionnaires

355
356 143Questionnaires were distributed to parents of participating children through their nurseries. These
357
358 144included a number of demographic questions, questions regarding milk feeding and
359
360 145complementary feeding, a parental Food Frequency Questionnaire (FFQ; [38]) and a parental
361
362 146measure of food neophobia (Food Neophobia Scale: FNS, [39]). A child FFQ, the Child Food
363
364 147Neophobia Scale (CFNS; [40]) and the Child Eating Behaviour Questionnaire [41] were also
365
366 148included.

367 149Statistical Analysis

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369
370 150Data were analyzed using SPSS version 19.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Since the aim of
371
372 151the study was to compare repeated exposure to a single versus a variety of vegetables on the
373
374 152change in intake of the vegetables offered data from children who consumed a large amount of
375
376 153the target vegetable (≥ 40 g; assuming a child's portion is half of an adult portion) at pre-test were
377
378 154excluded from the analysis ($n = 20$). This was done on the basis that consumption above 40g
379
380 155demonstrated an existing preference for this vegetable but they were not excluded from taking
381
382 156part in the study. All remaining children who completed the intervention were included in the
383
384 157analyses ($n=95$).

385
386 158In order to identify differences in the age, BMI and gender of the two groups a one way analysis
387
388 159of variance and also chi-square tests were conducted. Repeated measures ANCOVA were
389
390 160performed on intake data (both absolute and change in intake) with time (3 levels: pre-

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394
395 161intervention, post-intervention and 1 month post-intervention) as the within-subject factor and
396
397 162with condition (2 levels – RE vs V) and type of target vegetable (3 levels: baby sweet corn,
398
399 163celery and red pepper) included as between-subjects factors. The covariates were age and BMI-z
400
401 164scores since these differed by group (Table 1). The same analyses were then repeated with time
402
403 165(2 levels - first and last exposures) as the within subjects factor. Paired t-tests produced within
404
405 166group contrasts of intake and a further ANCOVA explored patterns of intake across the exposure
406
407 167period, including consumption of each of the component vegetables of the mixed vegetable
408
409 168snack. Pearson’s correlation analysis was performed to identify any relationships between pre
410
411 169and post-intervention intake for the two conditions (clusters) and snack types. In order to
412
413 170investigate whether the nursery conditions produced any clustering, the intra cluster correlation
414
415 171for the pre intervention intake was assessed by calculating a mixed model using lmer in R with
416
417 172only nursery as a random factor. This produced an ICC of 0.04, VIF = 1.72. In order to ensure
418
419 173this did not impact the result, all the main analyses were recalculated using multilevel models
420
421 174with nursery and child as random factors. This produced no change in the pattern of results
422
423 175reported, and for simplicity the simpler ANCOVA results are reported here.

420 176Results

423 177In total, 115 children received at least 5 of the 6 exposures and were present for all pre-
424
425 178intervention and post-intervention measures. Of these, twenty children consumed ≥ 40 g of the
426
427 179target vegetable pre-intervention. A summary of the remaining 95 participants can be found in
428
429 180Table 1. To control for significant differences in age and BMI z-scores, analyses included these
430
431 181factors as covariates. Age was first recalculated to be mean centred.

432 182Table 1 about here

435 183Intake pre and postintervention

437 184Pre-intervention intake (baseline)

440 185Pre-intervention intake did not differ by snack type (mixed 8 ± 1.3 g; single 6.1 ± 0.9 g, $p=0.16$).
441
442 186Considering the two group separately at baseline, children in the V condition consumed similar
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449
450
451 187amounts of both the variety and the single snack. However children in the RE condition ate
452
453 188significantly more of the mixed vegetable snack at baseline ($p<0.01$).
454

455
456 189While intake did not differ significantly by target vegetable assignment ($p=0.09$), children
457
458 190consumed more red pepper than either of the other two single vegetable snacks at pre-test (red
459
460 191pepper: 8.48 ± 1.81 g; baby sweet corn: 4.78 ± 1.23 g; celery: 4.22 ± 1.25 g). This may suggest that of
461
462 192the three target vegetables, red pepper was preferred at baseline. However, further examination
463
464 193of the mixed vegetable snack intake did not support this preference relative to the other
465
466 194vegetables offered (Figure 2a).

466 **195Figure 2a (upper panel) and b (lower panel) about here**

467
468
469 196Post-intervention intake

470
471
472 197The single vegetable snack intake was greater post-intervention than the mixed vegetable snack
473
474 198(single = 15.23 ± 2.32 g; mixed = 8.56 ± 1.56 g); $t(94) = 2.43$, $p<0.05$. Within group contrasts
475
476 199revealed that this difference was present for the RE group (single 18.9 ± 3.5 g, mixed 6.6 ± 1.4 g;
477
478 200 $p=0.001$) but not the V group ($p=0.58$). No effect of vegetable assignment was found on post-
479
480 201intervention intake. Post-intervention consumption of the three vegetables offered as single
481
482 202snacks was similar and no significant differences were found between vegetables in the mixed
483
484 203snack (Figure 2b).

485
486 204The ANCOVA revealed a main effect of time with overall snack intake increasing significantly
487
488 205pre to post-intervention ($F(1, 71) = 9.84$, $p<0.01$ ¹). Although no main effects of snack type or
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490 206condition were found, a significant snack type x time x condition interaction was observed ($F(1,$
491
492 20771) = 9.26 , $p<0.01$). Intake of the mixed vegetable snack increased significantly among the
493
494 208children assigned to the V group ($t(36) = 2.60$, $p<0.05$) pre to post-test but intake of this mixed
495
496 209snack decreased in the RE group ($p=0.08$). Single vegetable snack intake increased significantly

497
498
499 ¹ The F values for ANCOVA are presented with data from $n = 75$ children since BMI z scores were missing for 20
500 children.

210in the RE group ($t(57) = 4.18, p < 0.001$) but did not change for the V group ($p=0.17$) (Figure 4).
211No main effects or interactions involving age or BMI z-scores were found.

212**Figure 3 around here**

213**Changes in intake**

214Change in intake was calculated to give difference (delta) values. Analysis revealed that overall
215change in intake was significantly greater for the single snack when compared with the mixed
216vegetable snack ($t(94) = 2.80, p < 0.01$). Change in intake for both snack types from pre to post
217intervention was also found to differ significantly by condition (RE vs V; delta mixed $F(1, 93) =$
2189.81, $p < 0.01$; delta single ($F(1, 93) = 8.01, p < 0.01$). Further analysis revealed a significant
219difference in change in intake between the mixed and single snacks for children in the RE
220condition ($t(57) = 4.05, p < 0.01$) but not the V condition ($p=0.1$). No significant effect of target
221vegetable assignment was found on change in intake, however, magnitude of change was
222significantly greater for the single snack in the red pepper group ($t(37) = 2.88, p < 0.01$).

223**Intake across exposures**

224Since number of exposures differed between children, intake was also compared from first to last
225exposure. A significant main effect of time demonstrated that intake increased significantly from
226the start to the end of the exposure period, $F(1, 93) = 9.16, p < 0.01$, but this was not found to
227differ as a result of condition or target vegetable assignment. A main effect of exposures was
228found ($F(4.64, 308.04) = 3.90, p < 0.01$) and intake had increased significantly by exposure 3
229($p < 0.05$). There was no further significant increase after the third exposure (Figure 4). Intake of
230snack across the exposure period did not differ in terms of condition or target vegetable
231assignment. Further examination of children's intake of the mixed vegetable snack within the V
232condition then took place.

233**Intake at Follow Up**

234In all, 40 children from the original sample went on to complete measures of intake 1 month
235post-intervention. Analysis revealed that overall snack consumption increased significantly over

561
562
563 236time [F(2, 76) = 13.02, p < 0.001]. Bonferroni corrected post hoc comparisons revealed an
564
565 237increase in intake from pre-intervention to immediately post-intervention (p=0.001) and this was
566
567 238maintained at 1 month follow up (p=0.001). This was not affected by condition and no condition
568
569 239by time interaction was found. Overall snack intake at 1 month follow up was significantly
570
571 240greater than immediately post-intervention (p = 0.044). For children assigned to the V group
572
573 241intake of the two snacks did not differ significantly at any point during the intervention.
574
575 242However, post-intervention and follow up intake of the single vegetable snack was significantly
576
577 243greater than mixed vegetable intake in the RE condition (Figure 5). Again no effects of age or
578
579 244BMI z-score were found.

578 245Questionnaires

580
581 246Overall, only 22 parents of participating children completed and returned questionnaires, all of
582
583 247whom were mothers. This was less than 20% of the sample and therefore was considered too
584
585 248small for further analyses.

587 249Discussion

589
590 250The results of this study confirm previous findings that repeated exposure to a single vegetable
591
592 251can promote pre-school children's vegetable consumption [11, 14, 18, 42]. However, there was no
593
594 252additional benefit conferred by variety. Therefore the effect of repeated exposure to a specific
595
596 253vegetable seems to depend on how it is presented (alone or mixed with other vegetables) and
597
598 254what other vegetables are present. In this context, intake of the target vegetable increased when
599
600 255offered to children on its own, but no change in intake was found when this was offered as part
601
602 256of a mixed vegetable snack. This finding is of particular interest as it suggests that variety per se
603
604 257is not sufficient to boost repeated exposure. The results also showed a significant increase in
605
606 258intake from baseline was achieved by the third exposure, suggesting that only a small number of
607
608 259exposures is needed to increase intake.

609
610 260Children who were repeatedly exposed to a single vegetable snack did not increase their
611
612 261consumption of the 5-veg, mixed snack. Interestingly assignment to the single vegetable snack
613
614 262condition appeared to result in a decrease in intake of the vegetable mix, despite significantly

617
618
619 263higher intake of the mixed snack at baseline. This may suggest that children become familiar
620
621 264with the particular way that they have been introduced to this snack and it is familiarity of form
622
623 265rather than variety which stimulates intake.
624

625 266Existing research has demonstrated a variety effect using vegetables [25, 36]. In contrast our
626
627 267findings fail to support the variety/choice effect and might be attributable to the target vegetables
628
629 268selected which were familiar [37], but not highly liked and not typically offered as a snack. It is
630
631 269suggested that the novelty of providing the mixed vegetable snack mitigated against the
632
633 270predicted increase in intake by variety.
634

635 271The children included in this study were between the ages of two and five years old and evidence
636
637 272suggests that children experience food neophobia between two and six years of age [16].
638
639 273Characterised by the avoidance and rejection of new and unfamiliar foods the neophobic
640
641 274response is reduced through repeated experiences with food [16, 17]. However, it has been
642
643 275suggested that animals, including humans, prefer initial experiences with and ingestion of new
644
645 276foods individually to allow accurate associations to be made between the foods and any negative
646
647 277post-ingestive consequences and to ensure harmful foods are avoided in the future [43]. It follows
648
649 278that target vegetables selected for this experiment may have been novel and disliked by some
650
651 279children and so children were less willing to taste and consume the vegetables when they were
652
653 280offered mixed together compared with when they were offered separately. In addition Brown and
654
655 281colleagues [44] discuss the “contamination effect” whereby children will reject liked foods if they
656
657 282are presented with novel or disliked foods. This might contribute to explaining the low intake of
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659 283the mixed vegetables. The fact that children in the RE condition, who increased their intake of
660
661 284their target vegetable, failed to eat any more of that target when it was offered as part of the
662
663 285variety snack post-intervention offers support for a contamination effect. Brown et al. [44] were
664
665 286also able to demonstrate that contamination effects were more likely to be observed in the
666
667 287youngest children that participated in their study (aged 4 years). The current sample also fall into
668
669 288this age group and would be considered to be at the peak of the neophobic stage [45-47].
670

671 289As predicted, children assigned to the RE condition, who received no exposures to the mixed
672
673 290vegetable snack, did not increase consumption of the mixed vegetable snack. In addition to
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674
675 291building children’s familiarity with novel foods, the ‘learned safety’ hypothesis suggests that
676
677 292repeated exposure also allows individuals to trust that new foods are safe to consume [15]. It
678
679 293follows then that those children who were not exposed to the mixed vegetable snack did not
680
681 294increase intake, having lacked the opportunity to become familiar with the mixed format. It is
682
683 295assumed that the children in the RE condition were in fact surprised by the novel offering of 5
684
685 296vegetables and so variety in itself did not increase intake. Alternatively, variety offers the
686
687 297opportunity for children to avoid some of the vegetables offered, and presents competition
688
689 298between more or less liked vegetables. Therefore, children are more likely to seek out their
690
691 299favoured vegetable and leave the remainder and so overall intake does not increase.

692
693 300Children in the variety condition may not have consumed sufficient amounts of the individual
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695 301vegetables to benefit from the effects of repeated exposure or may have required a greater
696
697 302number of exposures to produce comparable increases in intake. For instance, children in the RE
698
699 303group were consuming around 20g of their target vegetable, whereas the other children were
700
701 304consuming around 1 – 5g of each vegetable in the mixed bag.

702
703 305In line with existing research, the results of this study suggest that the effects of repeated
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705 306exposure can be observed following a small number of experiences with novel vegetables [11, 48].
706
707 307To date the most notable shifts in vegetable consumption have been produced by studies which
708
709 308have employed soups and purees as target foods [11, 12, 49] with exposure to raw vegetables
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711 309producing less substantial increases [18, 50]. Such a distinction between intake of pureed or
712
713 310liquidised vegetables and that of vegetables in solid form is not surprising given the difference in
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715 311texture and the resulting effort involved in consumption. A recent study in adults demonstrated
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717 312that texture and viscosity can influence the speed and volume consumed [51]. Compared to
718
719 313vegetable soups and purees, consuming raw vegetables requires more effort and times to orally
720
721 314process, thus resulting in reduced intake. This might account for the relatively lower vegetable
722
723 315intake compared to other studies. It is possible that the combination of raw vegetables offered as
724
725 316snacks with the extra effort involved in consuming raw/solid vegetables may necessitate a
726
727 317greater number of exposures before comparable changes in intake are observed.
728

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730
731 318The absence of individual measures of vegetable familiarity and liking for participants presents a
732
733 319limitation of this study. For instance results suggest that repeated exposure may be more
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735 320effective for some vegetables (e.g. red pepper and celery) than others (e.g. baby sweet corn) but
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737 321without individual measures it is difficult to make inferences about why this might be the case.
738 322Another limitation of this study was the loss of data to follow-up at 1m after the intervention,
739
740 323with only 40 children participating at this time point. This was due to testing being conducted
741
742 324during summer, when fewer children attended nursery. However, an important strength is that
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744 325the experiment was conducted in nursery settings according to the usual snack time routine by
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746 326nursery staff familiar to participating children thus increasing ecological validity and
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748 327generalizability. The lack of a variety effect may have been related to the types of vegetables
749
750 328offered and to the age of the current sample, considered to be at the peak of the neophobic stage.
751
752 329Future studies might look to explore this effect further by broadening the sample to include both
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754 330younger and older age groups; and selecting vegetables which might be more acceptable (so
755
756 331providing a familiarization procedure before comparing variety and repeated exposure).

757
758 332The results of this study suggest that offering a variety of vegetables does not confer an
759
760 333advantage over simple, repeated exposure to a single vegetable. However, the results provide
761
762 334further evidence of the beneficial effects of repeated exposure and its effectiveness in promoting
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764 335vegetable consumption in preschool children. As a possible strategy for increasing intake, a
765
766 336simple repeated exposure technique is easy to implement and may be more effective than
767
768 337offering variety in view of its positive impact on preference. The current findings also suggest
769
770 338that for potentially food neophobic children, new vegetables may be best introduced separately in
771
772 339order to encourage ‘learned safety’ and to avoid possible contamination effects.

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Table 1. Participant characteristics (n=95)

	Condition			p-value
	Total (n = 95)	Variety (n = 37)	RE (n = 58)	
Age (months)	43.44 ± 0.87	40.00 ± 1.51	45.64 ± 0.94	0.001
Range (months)	25-55	25-54	25-55	-
Male/Female	53/42	21/16	32/26	0.53
BMI z-score	0.85±0.15 (n = 75)	1.25±0.14 (n = 32)	0.55±0.24 (n = 43)	0.02

Figure legends

Figure 1: Schematic overview of the study protocol: RE = repeated exposure to a single vegetable (baby sweet corn, celery or red pepper), Variety = repeated exposure to the 5-vegetable snack (baby sweet corn, celery, red pepper, green pepper and radish). E1 etc. denotes exposure number. Please note that the order of these exposures was counterbalanced.

Figure 2: Absolute intake (g) of each vegetable by snack type at baseline (pre-test, 2a) and post intervention (post-test, 2b). Values are means, with their standard errors represented by vertical bars. ***Mean value was significantly different from that at baseline ($p < 0.001$)

Figure 3: Absolute intake (g) at baseline (pre-test) and post-intervention (post-test) of the 1-veg and 5-veg snacks in each condition (RE vs variety). Values are means, with their standard errors represented by vertical bars. ***Mean values were significantly different from baseline to post-intervention ($p < 0.001$)

Figure 4: **Mean snack intake (g) across six exposures (both conditions combined).** Values are means, with their standard errors represented by vertical bars. * Mean value was significantly different from that at exposure number 1 ($p < 0.05$). ANCOVA demonstrated a main effect of exposures ($p < 0.01$) and intake increased significantly by exposure 3 ($p < 0.05$).

Figure 5: Mean snack intake (g) at baseline (pre-test), immediately post-intervention (post-test) and 1 month after intervention (follow-up) by condition (Variety/RE) and snack type (1-veg, 5-veg)

Figure 1

Day	Pre-test Week 1		Exposure period						Post-test Week 5		Follow-up Week 10			
	1	2	Week 2		Week 3		Week 4		9	10	11	12		
			3 (E1)	4 (E2)	5 (E3)	6 (E4)	7 (E5)	8 (E6)						
RE (n=87)	1-veg snack	5-veg snack	2-5 days						2-5 days		1-veg snack	5-veg snack	1-veg snack	5-veg snack
Variety (n=97)			1-veg snack	1-veg snack	1-veg snack	1-veg snack	1-veg snack	1-veg snack						

n= number of children recruited and assigned to each condition (total n=184)

Figure 2a (top panel) and 2b (bottom panel)

Figure 2a.

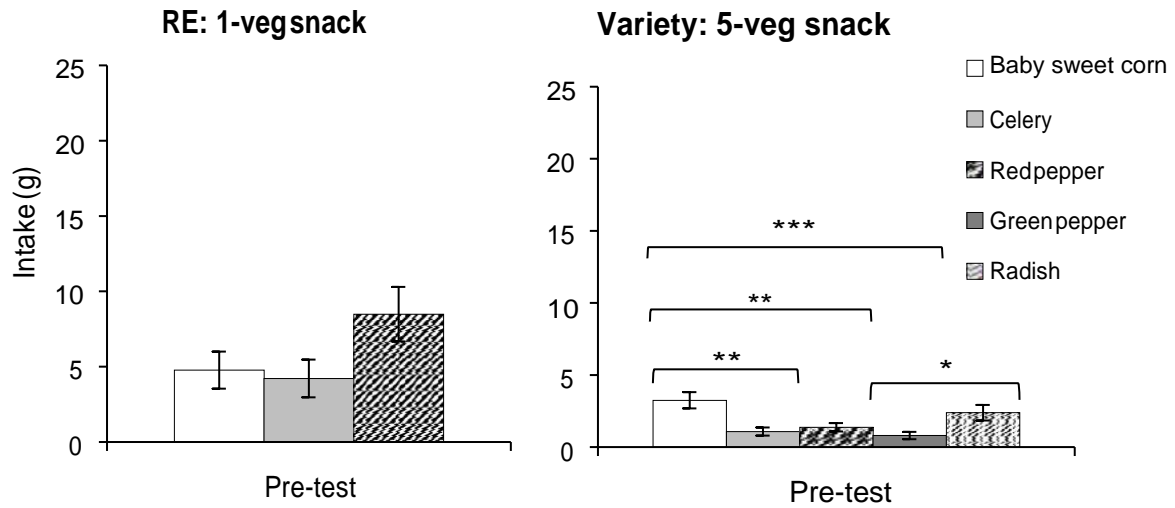


Figure 2b.

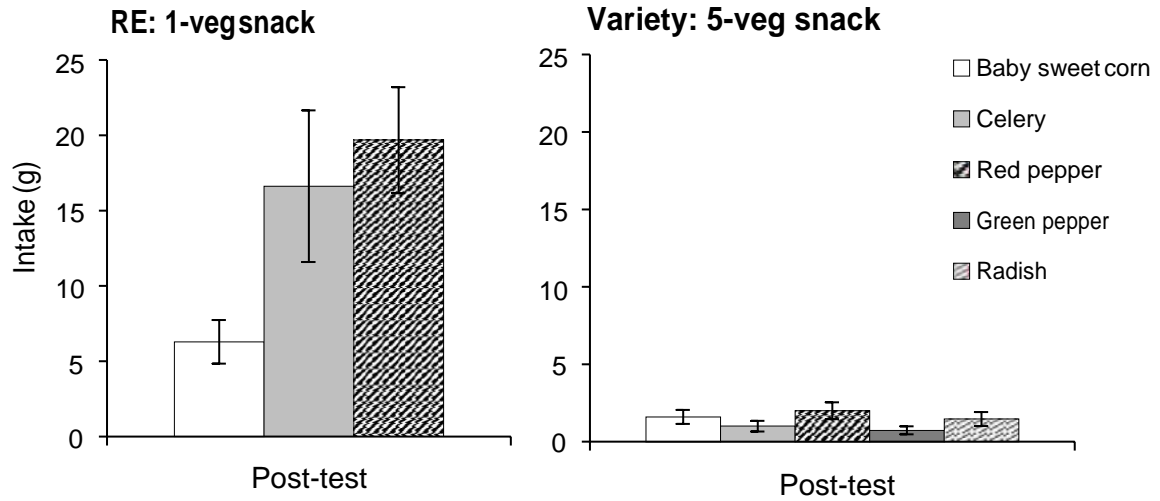


Figure 3

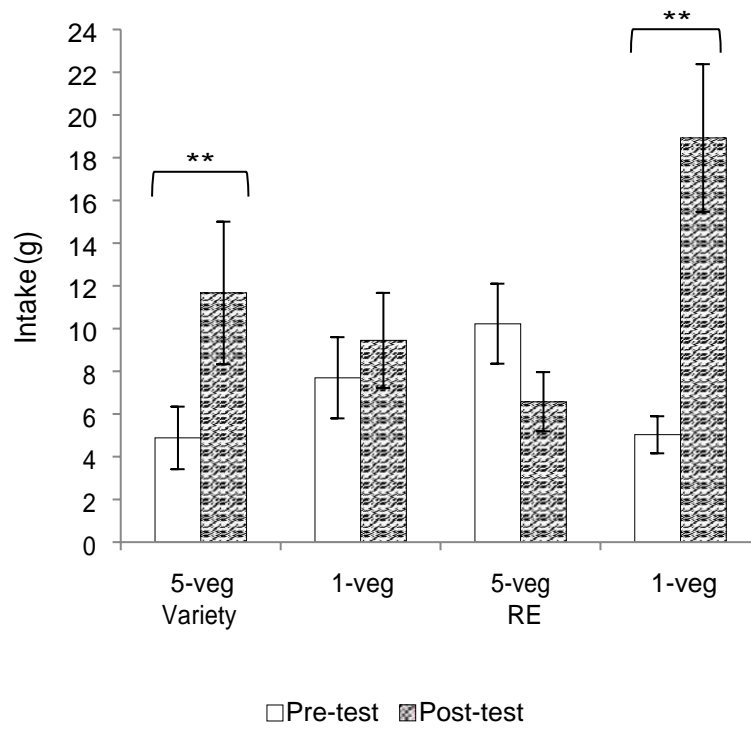


Figure 4

