

## COLOUR AS A CUE TO EAT: EFFECTS OF PLATE COLOUR ON SNACK INTAKE IN PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN

Sharon A. Carstairs<sup>1</sup>, Samantha J. Caton<sup>2</sup>, Marion M. Hetherington<sup>3</sup>, Barbara J. Rolls<sup>4</sup>, Joanne E. Cecil<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Population and Behavioural Sciences, School of Medicine, University of St Andrews, St Andrews KY16 9TF, UK; [sc295@st-andrews.ac.uk](mailto:sc295@st-andrews.ac.uk) (SAC); [jc100@st-andrews.ac.uk](mailto:jc100@st-andrews.ac.uk) (JEC)

<sup>2</sup> School of Health and Related Research (SchARR), University of Sheffield, S1 4DA, UK; [s.caton@sheffield.ac.uk](mailto:s.caton@sheffield.ac.uk) (SJC)

<sup>3</sup> School of Psychology, University of Leeds, LS2 9JT, UK; [m.hetherington@leeds.ac.uk](mailto:m.hetherington@leeds.ac.uk) (MMH)

<sup>4</sup> Department of Nutritional Sciences, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA 16802, USA; [bjr4@psu.edu](mailto:bjr4@psu.edu) (BJR)

\*Correspondence: [sc295@st-andrews.ac.uk](mailto:sc295@st-andrews.ac.uk); Tel.: +44-1334461895

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Environmental cues, such as the colour of food and dishware, have been shown to influence food and  
3 drink consumption in adult populations. This proof of concept study investigated whether plate colour  
4 could be utilised as a strategy to reduce intake of high energy density (HED) snacks and increase intake  
5 of low energy density (LED) snacks in pre-school children. In a between and within-subjects design,  
6 children were randomly assigned to either a control group (no colour message) or intervention group  
7 (received a colour message: red = stop, green = go) and were provided a snack at nursery on three  
8 occasions on differently coloured plates (red, green, white), for each snack type (HED, LED). Snack  
9 intake, colour preference, colour association, and anthropometrics were recorded for each child. The  
10 results showed that there was no effect of group (control vs intervention) on HED ( $p=0.540$ ) and LED  
11 intake ( $p=0.575$ ). No effect of plate colour on HED ( $p=0.147$ ) or LED snack intake ( $p=0.505$ ) was  
12 evident. Combining red and green plates for a chromatic versus achromatic comparison showed that  
13 there was no significant effect of chromatic plate on HED ( $p=0.0503$ ) and LED ( $p=0.347$ ) intakes.  
14 Despite receiving a brief learning intervention, the use of plate colour was found in the present study  
15 to be an ineffective strategy to control snack food intake in pre-school aged children. Rather, we  
16 suggest that food intake in young children may best be predicted by portion size, energy density and  
17 eating behaviour traits.

18

19 **Keywords:** Colour; Food Intake; Children; Visual Cue; Dishware

20

21 **Highlights**

- 22 • Plate colour did not influence snack intake in this group of pre-school children
- 23 • No significant effect of chromatic vs white plate colour on snack intake was found
- 24 • Colour association or preferences did not impact intake from different coloured plates
- 25 • Pre-schoolers may be too young, or require repeated exposure, for colour associated  
26 learning in the context of food consumption
- 27 • Portion size and eating traits are predictors of snack intake in 3-5yr olds

28

29

30 **1. INTRODUCTION**

31 The sensory experiences of sight, smell, texture and taste each play an important role in eating and  
32 drinking behaviour (Delwiche, 2004). In particular, the modifying role of visual cues on food and drink  
33 appeal, preference and taste perception has been an area of interest over the past four decades  
34 (Donadini, Fumi, & Faveri, 2011; Spence, Levitan, Shankar, & Zampini, 2010; Stillman, 1993; Tuorila-  
35 Ollikainen, 1982; Zampini, Sanabria, Phillips, & Spence, 2007). In their review, Wadhera *et al* (2014)  
36 concluded that visual cues associated with food itself, such as the proximity of food items on the plate,  
37 surface area, variety, colour, size, shape and number of food items, can influence consumption and  
38 the eating experience. External visual cues directly associated with food (e.g. altered dishware and  
39 utensils) have been manipulated in recent investigations of portion control (Benton, 2015; DiSantis *et*  
40 *al.*, 2013; English, Lasschuijt, & Keller, 2015; Rolls, 2014) and have the potential to change  
41 consumption. In the present study, we investigated the effect of plate colour on food intake in pre-  
42 school children.

43

44 Previous research has examined the effect of dishware colour on an individual's perception of the  
45 sensory attributes of food (Harrar, Piqueras-Fiszman, & Spence, 2011; Piqueras-Fiszman & Spence,  
46 2012; Spence, Harrar, & Piqueras-Fiszman, 2012) and on food and drink consumption in adults within  
47 laboratory or opportunistic settings (Bruno, Martani, Corsini, & Oleari, 2013; Geier, Wansink, & Rozin,  
48 2012; Genschow, Reutner, & Wanke, 2012; Reutner, Genschow, & Wänke, 2015). The colour red is  
49 associated with signals for warning and danger (e.g. its use in traffic lights and road signs) due to its  
50 high contrast to natural colours in the environment, and has been shown to elicit avoidance behaviour  
51 (Mehta & Zhu, 2009). In an opportunistic experiment conducted with university students, Genschow  
52 *et al* (2012) showed that consumption of food and drink was reduced when offered on red compared  
53 with blue or white dishware. The authors surmised that the colour red functioned as a subtle  
54 avoidance signal motivated through learned and embedded cultural associations with danger and  
55 stop. Based on these findings, Reutner *et al* (2015) expanded on this experiment by investigating the  
56 effect of a red plate on both 'healthy' and 'unhealthy' snack intakes in adults and found that when  
57 presented on a red plate, lower amounts of 'unhealthy' snacks were consumed compared with the  
58 'healthy' snacks, a finding not evident when presented on white plates. The authors suggested that  
59 red dishware could be used to limit intakes of high-energy dense (HED), nutrient poor foods without  
60 affecting intakes of low-energy, nutrient dense (LED) foods, such as fruits and vegetables. However,  
61 contrary to these and previous colour manipulation studies (Bruno *et al.*, 2013; Genschow, Reutner,  
62 & Wanke, 2012), a recent cross-over study (Akyol, Ayaz, Inan-Eroglu, Cetin, & Samur, 2018) failed to  
63 find an inhibitory effect of red dishware on food consumption, and found no difference between

64 chromatic colours in an adult population, raising some uncertainty about the effect of plate colour on  
65 food consumption. What is also unclear is whether colour, and particularly the colour red with its  
66 'avoidance' association, can influence consumption in pre-school aged children.

67

68 Nutrition labels using traffic lights to categorise foods have been developed and used in school-aged  
69 children to help promote understanding of the frequency of consumption recommended for different  
70 food and drinks (Ellis & Ellis, 2007; Stamos, Lange, & Dewitte, 2019). However, whether the colour  
71 concept 'red = stop and green = go' is understood or evaluated in children is uncertain. The aim of this  
72 study was to investigate whether the visual cue of colour could be used to influence intake of HED and  
73 LED snack foods in pre-school aged children as a method of portion control. We hypothesised that  
74 children would consume less HED snack foods when presented on a red coloured plate in comparison  
75 to when presented on white or green plates following a message on traffic light colour meanings (red  
76 = stop, green = go). In addition, we hypothesised that children would consume more LED snack foods  
77 when presented on a green plate in comparison to when presented on a white or red plate, following  
78 the same message on traffic light colour meanings. Children's food consumption can also be  
79 influenced by behavioural factors, such as individual differences in eating traits (e.g. satiety  
80 responsiveness) (Kral & Hetherington, 2015) and parental feeding practices (e.g. pressure to eat) (Yee,  
81 Lwin, & Ho, 2017). Thus, we explored the potential influence of child eating traits on HED and LED  
82 snack intake.

83

## 84 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 85 **2.1 Experimental Design**

86 In a between and within-subjects (2x3) design with six weekly conditions (Table 1), children were  
87 offered a snack at nursery during a normal snack-time setting. The research was conducted in four  
88 nurseries. Child participants were grouped in nurseries according to cognate attendance days. Each  
89 group of children within nurseries was randomly assigned to either the control (no message) or the  
90 learning intervention (a colour message: red = stop, green = go). Children were provided a HED snack  
91 (defined as >2.5 kcal/g as per Albar *et al* (2014)) and a LED snack on two separate days across the  
92 week. Each snack was presented to the children on a different coloured plate: white, red, green.  
93 White plate was included as a standard comparator. The plate colour order of the experimental  
94 conditions across the 3-week experimental period was counterbalanced using Latin squares assigned  
95 for each nursery group and by alternating the starting snack type. The plate colour was consistent per  
96 week. Testing was conducted by the same researchers across nurseries.

97

108 During the pre-test and familiarisation session, children’s favourite colour was recorded. Pre- and  
 109 post-test, children’s association with the colours red and green, and whether they showed an  
 100 indication for colour confusion were recorded. Children in the learning intervention group were  
 101 additionally presented once to a colour message during the pre-test session, this included a song with  
 102 an accompanying image of a traffic light which indicated that ‘red means stop’ and ‘green means go’  
 103 (see Supplementary Material).

104

105 **Table 1:** Experimental design

		Experimental Condition					
Group	Week 1	Week 2		Week 3		Week 4	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7*
<b>Control</b>	Pre-test &	Plate Colour 1		Plate Colour 2		Plate Colour 3	
	familiarisation without message	HED# snack	LED snack	HED snack	LED snack	HED snack	LED snack
<b>Intervention</b>	Pre-test &	Plate Colour 1		Plate Colour 2		Plate Colour 3	
	familiarisation with colour message	HED snack	LED snack	HED snack	LED snack	HED snack	LED snack

106 Snack order was counterbalanced between nursery groups and plate colour weekly order was randomised for  
 107 each nursery group using Latin squares. \* Post-test colour association was conducted on the last of the 6  
 108 conditions following snack provision. # HED defined as >2.5 kcal/g as per Albar et al (2014).

109

110 **2.2 Participants**

111 Pre-school aged children (3-5 years) were recruited by distributing letters to parents of children in  
 112 hosting nurseries located within Fife and Tayside (Northeast Scotland). Power calculations with 80%  
 113 power to detect a moderate difference in means (effect size  $f=0.2$ ) at a critical alpha (0.05), assuming  
 114 a correlation of 0.5 between repeated measures, identified that approximately 42 children should be  
 115 recruited. Parents provided written, informed consent for their own and their child participation into  
 116 the study. Children with allergies to any of the foods used in the study (following identification from  
 117 screening questionnaire) were excluded from participation. The study was reviewed and approved by  
 118 the University of St Andrews School of Medicine Ethics Committee (MD13093).

119

120 **2.3 Test foods and procedures**

121 The test foods served to the children during the studies were HED snacks (cheese cubes and mini  
 122 breadsticks) and LED snacks (peaches and pears). The snacks presented to children were selected on  
 123 the basis that they met guidelines for a balanced snack provision for early years childcare providers in

124 Scotland (NHS Health Scotland, 2015). These snacks are commonly consumed (Public Health England  
 125 and Food Standards Agency 2014) and adhere to recommended snacks offered together for children  
 126 in nursery and educational institutions (NHS Health Scotland, 2015) (nutritional information shown in  
 127 Table 2). Within the HED and LED snack types, foods were matched for energy density. Children were  
 128 provided 150% of the recommended portion (NHS Health Scotland, 2015) of each of the two foods  
 129 within the HED and LED snacks.

130  
 131 Children were asked to rate their liking of each of the foods provided in the test meal during a single  
 132 familiarization session (Table 1). Liking was assessed using cartoon images of faces, a method  
 133 previously used with children of this age-group (Birch, 1979). Children were asked whether they  
 134 thought each food was “yummy”, “just okay” or “yucky”. Liking data were utilised to confirm  
 135 acceptance of the test foods used in this study by the participating children (Table 3).

136  
 137 The colour of the foods selected for this experiment was chosen to avoid the use of red and green  
 138 coloured foods and control colour across HED and LED snacks. The plates used in this study were  
 139 purchased with no available detail of colour parameters; colour hue, saturation and lightness (HSL).  
 140 Utilising an online tool hspicker.com (Mathis, 2012), the HSL colour models for the red and green  
 141 plates were identified (red - 345:95:40; green - 95:90:60). To control for contrast of the plate against  
 142 the nursery tables, a white tablecloth was placed on the table prior to serving the snacks to the  
 143 children.

144

145 **Table 2:** Characteristics of the test meal provided at snack time

<b>Snack Type</b>	<b>Food Item*</b>	<b>Energy Density (kcal/g)</b>	<b>Weight of Food Offered (g)</b>	<b>Total Snack Energy (kcal)</b>
HED	Cheese (medium cheddar)	4.2	60.0	252.0
	Mini Breadsticks	4.1	11.0 <sup>#</sup>	45.1
	<b>Combined Snack Offered</b>	4.2	71.0	297.1
LED	Peaches (canned in natural juice <sup>†</sup> )	0.4	60.0	24.0
	Pears (canned in natural juice <sup>†</sup> )	0.3	60.0	18.0
	<b>Combined Snack Offered</b>	0.4	120.0	42.0

146 All food items were Morrisons© own brand  
 147 <sup>#</sup> portion for mini-breadsticks is provided as a number of units and not weight-based, as per recommendations  
 148 (NHS Health Scotland, 2015) (i.e. 150% portion = 6 mini breadsticks, weight 11.0g)  
 149 <sup>†</sup> peaches and pears were drained of the natural juice when presented on plate  
 150

151 Snacks were presented at a table where children sat in groups of 2-6 and were advised by the  
152 researchers that “they could eat as much or as little as they liked”. During the snack, children were  
153 observed by the researchers to ensure that they did not share foods and to ensure any dropped foods  
154 were recovered.

155 **Table 3:** Ratings for liking of snack foods served to children

Food		Liking Rating															
		Yummy				Just Okay				Yucky				Undecided			
		Control		Intervention		Control		Intervention		Control		Intervention		Control		Intervention	
		<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
HED	Cheese	11	68.8	15	75.0	1	6.3	1	5.0	1	6.3	2	10.0	3	18.8	2	10.0
	Breadsticks	9	56.3	15	75.0	2	12.5	3	15.0	2	12.5	1	5.0	3	18.8	1	5.0
LED	Peaches	9	56.3	12	60.0	0	0.0	1	5.0	3	18.8	6	30.0	4	25.0	1	5.0
	Pears	8	50.0	10	50.0	0	0.0	3	15.0	4	25.0	6	30.0	4	25.0	1	5.0

156



157 **2.3 Assessment/Measures**

158 **2.3.1 Colour confusion (colour vision deficiency) and colour association**

159 Pre-test colour related measures were conducted with children on an individual basis at a separate  
160 area to the rest of the children and the snacking table. Children were provided 10 different coloured  
161 pencils (red, orange, yellow, blue, green, purple, pink, brown, black and white). Using a second set of  
162 identical 10 pencils, researchers asked children ‘to pick the colour of pencil that matches’ the pencil  
163 selected by the researcher to test for colour confusion (note this method is used in place of Ishihara  
164 plates (Ishihara, 1972) which require children to be able to articulate numbers or images). The children  
165 were also asked to select the coloured pencil ‘they like best’, a method previously used for children of  
166 this development stage (Zentner, 2001) to establish colour preference. All children were individually  
167 asked the question ‘*what does the colour red/green mean?*’ to provide a pre- and post-test colour  
168 association. Children in nurseries assigned to the intervention group were provided a short message  
169 in the form of a song about traffic light colour meanings (red = stop, green = go) and shown an image  
170 of a traffic light (Supplementary Material).

171

172 **2.3.2 Child height and weight**

173 During the familiarisation session, child height (cm) was measured to the nearest cm using a portable  
174 stadiometer (Seca: Hamburg, Germany) and body weight (kg) was measured to the nearest 0.1 kg  
175 using a portable digital scale (Leicester SMSSE-0260: Leicester, UK; Seca: Hamburg, Germany). Child  
176 height and weight data were used to derive BMI (wt kg/ht m<sup>2</sup>).

177

178 **2.3.3 Snack intake**

179 The amount of HED and LED snack food consumed was calculated as the difference between pre- and  
180 post-snack weights and recorded using digital scales (Ohaus-NV511: Parsippany, NJ, USA).

181

182 **2.3.4 Feeding practices and eating traits**

183 Parents were asked to complete questionnaires on general demographic information, eating traits,  
184 parental feeding practices and frequency of eating particular foods. Four validated child eating trait  
185 and parental feeding practice questionnaires were included: Food Neophobia Scale (Pliner & Hobden,  
186 1992); Child Food Neophobia Scale (Pliner, 1994); Child Eating Behaviour Questionnaire (CEBQ)  
187 (Carnell & Wardle, 2007; Wardle, Guthrie, Sanderson, & Rapoport, 2001); Comprehensive Feeding  
188 Practices Questionnaire (CFPQ). Parents were additionally asked to rank the frequency their child self-  
189 served themselves food on a 5-point scale (1= never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = always)  
190 and complete a food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) (Hammond, Nelson, Chinn, & Rona, 1993).

191 **2.5 Data analysis**

192 Analyses were carried out using SPSS (IBM SPSS Statistics v22, Armonk, NY, USA). Mixed design  
193 repeated measures analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) models (2(group) x 3(colour)) were conducted to  
194 investigate a between-subjects comparison of group (control vs intervention) and a within-subjects  
195 comparison of snack intake across plate colours (red, green, white) for each snack type (HED (g) and  
196 LED (g)). Plate colour was included as a fixed factor in the model, and group was included as a between-  
197 subjects factor. Child's age and BMI were added as covariates and the child's favourite colour was  
198 also added as covariate, as previous research has indicated children's selection of food and drink  
199 product packaging is associated with their colour preferences (Marshall, Stuart, & Bell, 2006). Planned  
200 contrasts were conducted to compare snack intakes across plate colours driven by our study  
201 hypotheses. Thus, consumption from red plate was compared with consumption from white and also  
202 from green for the HED snack intake model and consumption from green plate was compared with  
203 consumption from white and also from red for the LED intake model.

204

205 Pearson's correlation for linear bivariate relationships was used to explore associations between mean  
206 HED and mean LED snack intakes, child BMI, eating traits and parental feeding practices. From these  
207 analyses, linear regression analysis (stepwise method) was conducted to determine which variables  
208 predicted HED and LED snack intakes. Data are presented as means  $\pm$  standard error of the mean.  
209 Results were considered statistically significant at  $p < 0.05$ .

210

211 **3. RESULTS**

212 **3.1 Participant characteristics**

213 Thirty-eight responses from parents for their child to participate were received. Two children were  
214 excluded based on eligibility (non-attendance at the nursery on agreed days of testing). A final total  
215 of 36 children aged 3-5 years were enrolled in the study from September 2017 to May 2018. Due to  
216 absences, one child did not complete all HED conditions and 3 children did not complete all LED  
217 conditions, thus analyses were based on a sample of  $n=35$  for HED and  $n=33$  for LED. Mean child age  
218 was 46.4 months; mean child BMI was  $16.6 \text{ kg/m}^2$  (Table 4). In this sample, 27.8% ( $n=10$ ) of children  
219 were categorised as overweight or obese (sex-specific BMI-for-age).

220 **Table 4:** Characteristics of children participating in the study

	All				Group			
	Girls (n=19)		Boys (n=17)		Control (n=16)		Intervention (n=20)	
	Mean ± SEM	Range	Mean ± SEM	Range	Mean ± SEM	Range	Mean ± SEM	Range
Age (months)	48.1 ± 1.7	35.0 – 60.0	44.5 ± 1.8	35.0 – 57.0	42.4 ± 6.4	35.0 -57.0	49.6 ± 7.0	37.0-60.0
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	16.4 ± 0.3	14.7 – 19.4	16.9 ± 0.3	15.1 – 18.8	17.3 ± 1.1	15.6 – 18.8	16.1 ± 1.2	14.7 – 19.4
% with overweight*	26.4		29.4		50		10	

221 \*Age and sex specific classification according to Cole et al (2012; 2000)

222

223 **3.2 Effects of individual plate colour and group on HED snack intake**

224 Analyses conducted combining the two snack items within each snack type (HED, LED) representing  
225 the recommended provision of the snacks i.e. cheese with breadsticks, and peaches with pears, are  
226 presented.

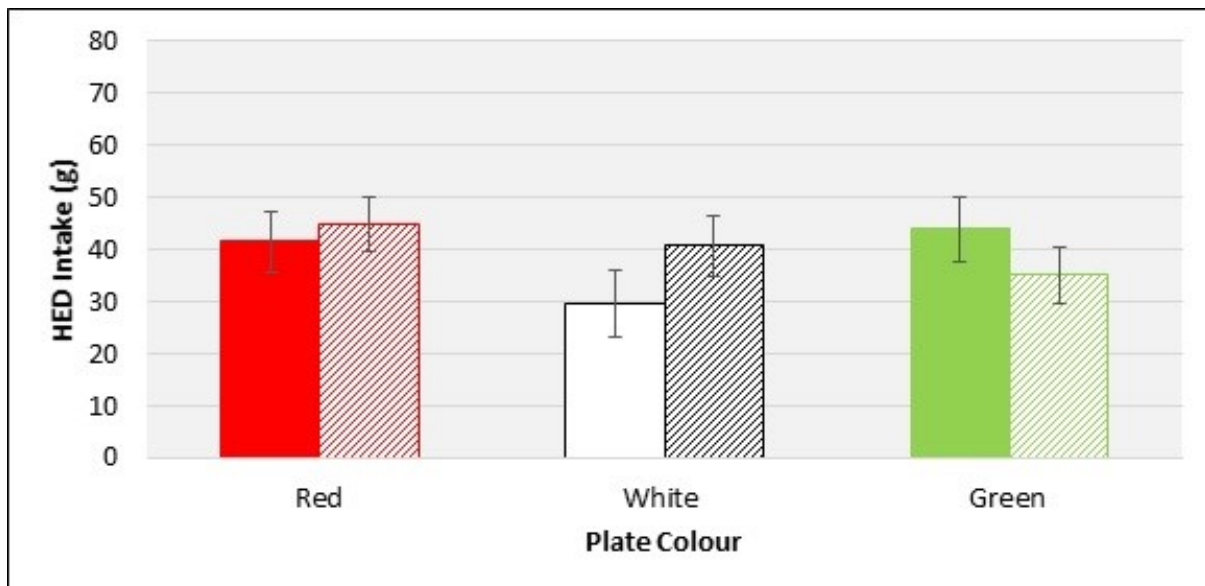
227

228 Repeated measure ANCOVA revealed no significant between-subjects effect for group (control vs  
229 intervention) ( $F(1,30) = 0.39, p=0.540$ ). There was no main effect of plate colour on HED intake  
230 ( $F(2,60) = 1.98, p=0.147$ ) (Figure 1). Mean HED intake on the red plate was 43.1g ( $\pm 3.8$ ), on white  
231 plate was 35.0g ( $\pm 4.3$ ) and 39.4g ( $\pm 4.1$ ) on green.

232

233 Despite finding no main effect of plate colour on HED intake, an interaction effect of plate colour and  
234 group (control vs intervention) ( $F(2,60) = 3.61, r = 0.06, p=0.033$ ) was evident. HED intake on a red  
235 plate was higher in the intervention group than control but on green plates intake was higher in the  
236 control group than in intervention ( $F(1,30) = 5.37, r = 0.15, p=0.027$ ). An interaction effect of plate  
237 colour and child's BMI was also evident ( $F(2,60) = 3.25, r = 0.05, p=0.046$ ). HED snack intake on a white  
238 plate was reduced as BMI increased, whilst HED intake on a red plate increased with an increase in  
239 BMI ( $F(1,30) = 5.12, r = 0.15, p=0.031$ ). No interaction effect of plate colour and child's favourite colour  
240 ( $F(2,60) = 0.40, p=0.671$ ) or with child's age ( $F(2,60) = 0.61, p=0.547$ ) was found.

241



242

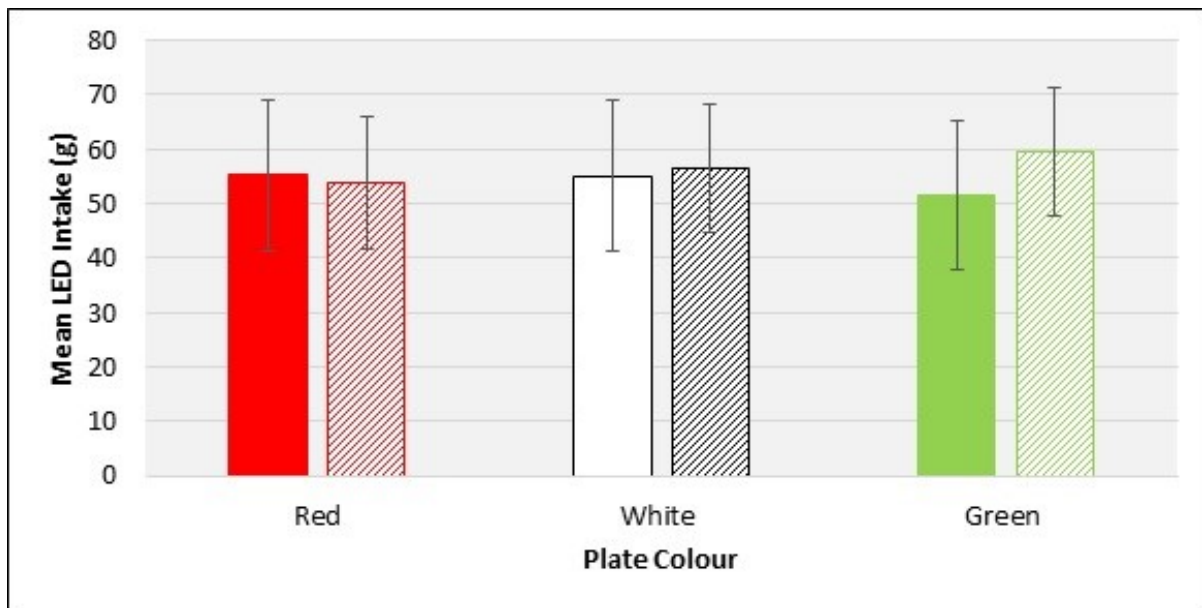
243 **Figure 1:** HED ( $\pm$  SEM) intake across colour plate conditions for control (n=16) and intervention  
244 groups (n=19). Solid colour represents control group, patterned colour represents intervention  
245 group.

246

247

248 **3.3 Effects of individual plate colour and group on LED snack intake**

249 No between-subject effect on LED intake was evident for group ( $F(1,28) = 0.32, p=0.575$ ). Mauchly's  
250 test of sphericity was violated ( $p=0.020$ ) thus, the Greenhouse-Geisser correction was utilised in this  
251 model. No significant main effect of plate colour was found on LED intake ( $F(1.6,44.8) = 0.63, p=0.505$ )  
252 (Figure 2) and no interaction effects were evident ( $p\geq 0.214$ ). Mean LED intake on the green plate was  
253  $55.4 \pm 9.0g$ , on the white plate was  $55.8 \pm 9.1g$ , and on the red plate intake was  $54.5 \pm 9.2g$ .



254  
255 **Figure 2:** Mean ( $\pm$  SEM) LED intake across colour plate conditions for control ( $n=14$ ) and  
256 intervention ( $n=19$ ) groups. Solid colour represents control group, patterned colour represents  
257 intervention group  
258  
259

260 Individual analyses for each food item within the HED and LED snacks were conducted and no changes  
261 to the outcomes were found. Furthermore, removal of non-eaters of each individual food item i.e.  
262 consumed  $<10\%$  of food provided across all 3 plate conditions, from the analyses resulted in no  
263 changes to the outcome.

264  
265 **3.4 Comparing combined chromatic plate versus white plate**

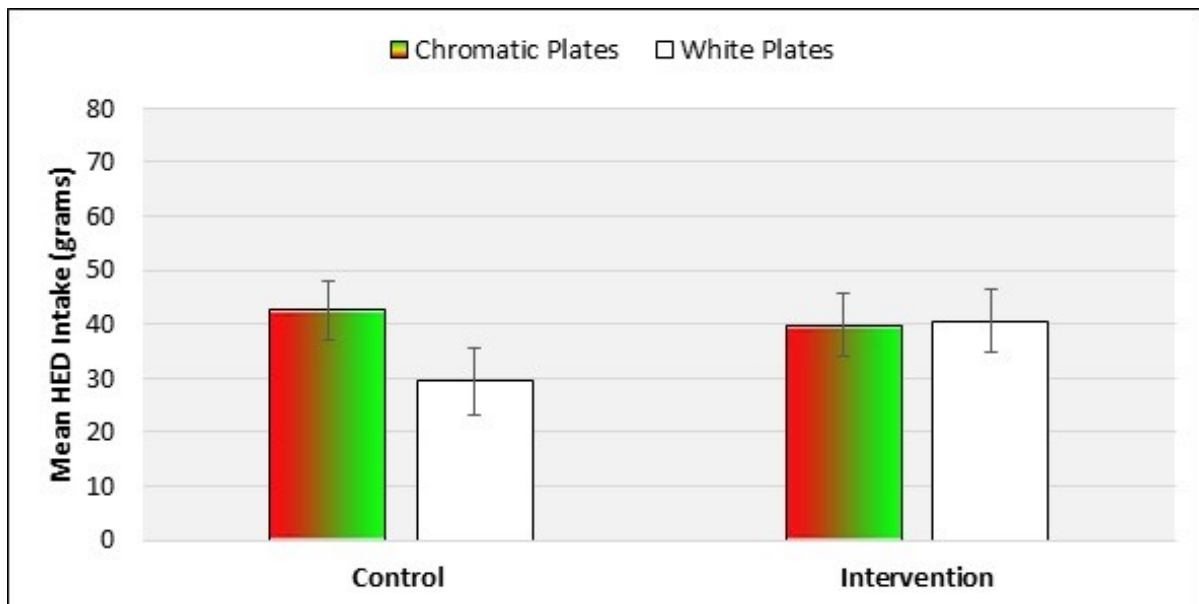
266 The findings above indicate that our hypotheses (less HED food would be consumed on a red plate  
267 compared each with white and green plates; more LED food would be consumed on a green plate  
268 compared each with white and red plates) were not supported. Akyol *et al* (2018) also revealed no  
269 significant differences in intake presented on two coloured plates (red and black plates), thus we  
270 explored whether there was any effect of colour in general (chromatic) versus white plate on snack  
271 intake in these children. Mean intake from green and red plate conditions for both HED and LED snacks

272 were calculated and compared with intake from white plates to investigate any chromatic vs white  
273 (achromatic) effect on intake.

274

275 No between-subjects effect was evident for group (control vs intervention) on HED intake ( $F(1,30) =$   
276  $0.54, p=0.468$ ). No significant main effect of plate (chromatic vs white) was found on HED intake  
277 ( $F(1,30) = 4.16, p=0.0503$ ) (Figure 3). Mean HED snack intake was  $41.2 \pm 3.7g$  on a chromatic plate  
278 compared with  $35.0 \pm 4.3g$  on a white (achromatic) plate. An interaction effect of plate colour and  
279 child BMI ( $F(1,30) = 6.82, p=0.014$ ) was found, indicating that the HED intake increased as BMI  
280 increased on the chromatic plate but HED decreased as BMI increased on white plate ( $F(1,30) = 6.82,$   
281  $p=0.014$ ). No interaction effects between plate colour and group ( $F(1,30) = 1.63, p=0.212$ ), plate colour  
282 and child's favourite colour ( $F(1,30) = 0.69, p=0.411$ ) and plate colour and child age ( $F(1,30) = 0.03,$   
283  $p=0.873$ ) were found for HED intake.

284



285

286

**Figure 3:** Mean ( $\pm$  SEM) HED intake between chromatic and white plate conditions for control (n=16) and intervention (n=19) groups.

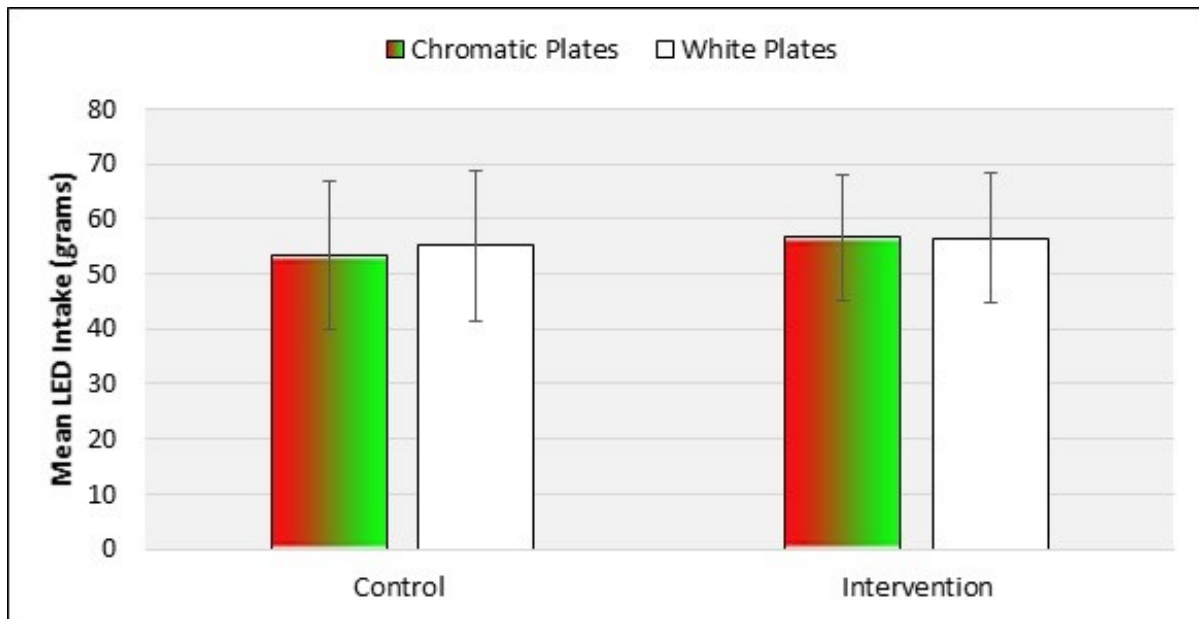
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288

289

290 No between-subjects effect was evident for group (control vs intervention) on LED intake ( $F(1,28) =$   
291  $0.32, p=0.578$ ). No main effect of plate colour was found on LED intake ( $F(1,28) = 0.92, p=0.347$ ) and  
292 no interaction effects were evident ( $p \geq 0.373$ ) (Figure 4). Mean LED snack intake was  $56.5 \pm 8.8g$  on a  
293 chromatic plate and  $57.3 \pm 9.1g$  on a white plate.

294



295

296 **Figure 4:** Mean ( $\pm$  SEM) LED intake between chromatic and white plate conditions for control  
 297 (n=14) and intervention (n=19) groups.

298

299

### 300 **3.5 Child BMI, trait eating behaviour factors and HED and LED snack intake**

301 No significant correlations were found for mean HED or mean LED snack intake and child BMI  
 302 ( $p \geq 0.554$ ) and child age ( $p \geq 0.223$ ). No association between child's satiety responsiveness and snack  
 303 intakes ( $p \geq 0.356$ ) were found in the present study. Mean HED snack intake was negatively correlated  
 304 to CEBQ food fussiness score ( $r = -0.400$ ,  $p = 0.023$ ). Regression analyses showed that CEBQ food  
 305 fussiness scores predicted HED snack intake. Food fussiness significantly contributed to the model  
 306 accounting for 40% of the variance in HED intake ( $R^2 = 0.160$ ,  $F(1,31) = 5.71$ ,  $p = 0.023$ ). An increase in  
 307 CEBQ food fussiness score by 1 unit (i.e. child is more food fussy) decreased HED intake by  $8.7 \pm 3.7g$   
 308 ( $p = 0.023$ ).

309

310 Positive correlations were found between child mean LED snack intake and CEBQ enjoyment of food  
 311 ( $r = 0.402$ ,  $p = 0.025$ ), food responsiveness ( $r = 0.566$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ) and CFPQ environment ( $r = 0.365$ ,  
 312  $p = 0.047$ ). A negative correlation was found between LED intake and child food neophobia ( $r = -0.493$ ,  
 313  $p = 0.010$ ), CEBQ slowness of eating ( $r = -0.454$ ,  $p = 0.010$ ) and food fussiness ( $r = -0.475$ ,  $p = 0.007$ ).  
 314 Regression analysis showed that child food fussiness significantly contributed to the model ( $R^2 = 0.335$ ,  
 315  $F(1,24) = 11.59$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ) accounting for 58% of the variance in LED intake. An increase in child's food  
 316 fussiness score by 1 unit (i.e. child is more food fussy) decreased LED intake by  $29.9 \pm 8.8g$  ( $p = 0.002$ ).

317

318

319 **4. DISCUSSION**

320 The current study investigated the effect of plate colour on pre-school children's snack food intake at  
321 a nursery snack-time setting. The results of this novel proof of concept study suggest that overall, plate  
322 colour did not significantly influence HED or LED snack intake in 3-5-year old children. Our data show  
323 some evidence to suggest that children with an increased BMI consume more HED snack from  
324 chromatic versus achromatic plates. Furthermore, the results show no significant difference in snack  
325 intakes between those children assigned to a learning intervention (traffic light colour message: red =  
326 stop, green = go) and those in the control group. In the present study, and under these circumstances,  
327 children's HED snack intake was not reduced (via red stop cue) when presented on a red plate  
328 compared with both the white and green plates, and LED snack intake was not increased (via green  
329 go cue) when presented on a green plate compared with both the red and white plates, independently  
330 of receiving the colour message (red stop/ green go).

331

332 The results from our preliminary study are in contrast to between-subject plate colour manipulation  
333 studies conducted in adults where the colour red is reflective of an avoidance cue and led to reduced  
334 intakes of food and drink (Bruno et al., 2013; Genschow, Reutner, & Wanke, 2012; Reutner et al.,  
335 2015). This discrepancy in findings could be due to differences in study design. For example, previous  
336 colour manipulation studies (Bruno et al., 2013; Genschow, Reutner, & Wänke, 2012; Reutner et al.,  
337 2015) provided individual participants with only one plate colour (between-subject manipulation), and  
338 included a distractor type task, where participants' attention was focussed on an unrelated (non-food  
339 consumption) activity. Thus, the design of these prior studies provided an opportunity to explore plate  
340 colour as a subtle cue, one that functions outside of conscious awareness. In our study, each child  
341 experienced eating the snack from 3 differently coloured plates without working on any other task.  
342 Instead, their focus was on the snack consumption task, representing how snacks are consumed within  
343 the nursery setting. Interestingly a recent cross-over study (Akyol et al., 2018) which blinded the adult  
344 participants to the aim of the study, also failed to support the findings of these laboratory and  
345 opportunistic between-subject studies (Bruno, Martani, Corsini, & Oleari, 2013; Genschow, Reutner,  
346 & Wänke, 2012; Reutner, Genschow, & Wänke, 2015) and showed that meal intake was increased  
347 when consumed from a red plate compared with a white plate. Akyol *et al's* (2018) findings and the  
348 lack of plate colour effect found in the present study highlight that evidence for utilising an  
349 environmental cue such as plate colour to influence food and drink consumption across population  
350 ages is inconclusive.

351

352 It is possible that young children may not yet have made associations between the colour red and



353 'avoidance' or 'threat', as evidenced in adult populations (Mehta & Zhu, 2009; Reutner et al., 2015),  
354 who will have established such associations through multiple repetitions throughout their lives. We  
355 included a learning intervention into the study design to introduce and emphasise this association,  
356 where children were randomly assigned to a control group or exposed to a one-off colour message  
357 which communicated the concept of 'red = stop, green = go'. However, this one-off exposure to the  
358 colour association message may not have been sufficient for development of the children's learned  
359 association, and repeated exposure to the colour association prior to the study may have been  
360 required. During our pre-test measures, we observed that the children sometimes found answering  
361 our pre- and post-test measure of colour association challenging (often repeating the colour name).  
362 Thus, it is possible that these young children may be aware of an association between the colour red  
363 with 'stop' and the colour green with 'go', as learned for traffic light signals, but were unable to clearly  
364 verbalise this knowledge. Any learned associations, and the ability to articulate such knowledge, may  
365 also differ across developmental stage. Alternatively, the children in our study may not have  
366 internalised the colour associations with the concept of eating per se. Furthermore, recent findings  
367 suggest that there may be heterogeneity to colour effects and their associations with behaviour in the  
368 wider field of colour psychology (Lehmann & Calin-Jageman, 2017). For example, the effect of the  
369 colour pink on reducing prisoners aggression (Schauss, 1979) was not replicated in a more recent study  
370 (Genschow, Noll, Wänke, & Gersbach, 2015). Thus, colour associations may not be as strong and  
371 generalizable as previously assumed.

372

373 Young children may be exposed to coloured plates, both in the home and in childcare settings, and  
374 thus it is possible any subtle cue of the plate colour may be attenuated through exposure. In a recent  
375 study investigating plate colour preference, children below the age of 10 years showed first choice  
376 preferences for food images on chromatic plates compared with achromatic plates (Brunk & Møller,  
377 2019). It is possible that adults may be more familiar with standard white plates than chromatic plates  
378 and that any effects of colour on reduced food intake (Bruno et al., 2013; Genschow, Reutner, &  
379 Wanke, 2012; Reutner et al., 2015) may be a consequence of novelty in this population rather than  
380 colour association acting as a cue per se. In support of this notion, Brunk and Moller (2019) showed  
381 that adults perceived coloured plates as novel compared with achromatic plates and that their first  
382 choice preference was for food on achromatic compared with chromatic plates. Notably in our study,  
383 we adjusted our analyses for child's colour preference, and we did not see any effects on snack food  
384 intake, so despite having preferences for bright colours (Walsh, Toma, Tuveson, & Sondhi, 1990) and  
385 previous research indicating children's selection of food and drink product packaging is associated  
386 with their colour preferences (Marshall et al., 2006), differences between colours did not impact on

387 child's food intake. Moreover, our findings revealed that there was no difference in snack intake when  
388 children were presented snacks on chromatic plates (combined colour conditions) compared with an  
389 achromatic plate suggesting that young children may be less susceptible to subtle colour cue  
390 manipulations than their adult counterparts.

391

392 The findings of the current study suggest that individual characteristics and traits play a role in snack  
393 consumption in young children. Children with a higher BMI had a tendency to consume more HED  
394 snack when eaten from a chromatic plate compared with achromatic plates. It is possible that these  
395 children may have experienced heightened stimulation when food was presented on coloured plates.  
396 Presenting HED, nutrient poor foods on an achromatic white plate could therefore facilitate controlled  
397 intake in these children. Irrespective of plate colour, eating behaviour traits were found to predict  
398 both mean HED and LED snack food intake. Children identified as 'fussy' consumed lower amounts of  
399 both types of snack foods. These findings support work by Gibson and Cooke (2017) who found  
400 associations between children's fruit and vegetable intake and food fussiness and neophobia. We  
401 have also shown that young children can be influenced by other environmental/visual cues, such as  
402 food portion size. When children were presented snack portions greater (150%) than recommended  
403 for their age requirements, they consumed a quantity greater than the recommended portion of LED  
404 snack (40g), supporting previous portion size studies conducted in young children (Carstairs et al.,  
405 2018; Fisher, Liu, Birch, & Rolls, 2007; Kling, Roe, Keller, & Rolls, 2016; Rolls, Engell, & Birch, 2000;  
406 Savage, Fisher, Marini, & Birch, 2012; Smethers et al., 2019). These findings, together with the lack of  
407 effect of plate colour on intake found in the present study, highlight that portion size, energy density  
408 and individual eating behaviour traits may be stronger predictors of consumption behaviour, and thus  
409 should be included in control strategies for young children's food intake.

410

411 This was a small proof of concept study, conducted with children of a young cognitive and  
412 developmental age, recruited from nurseries. The small sample size, which fell below the sample  
413 target, and homogeneity of participants in this preliminary study are acknowledged as limitations.  
414 Thus, future studies would require a larger sample size and more participant diversity. Nonetheless,  
415 this is the first study to investigate effects of colour as a visual cue on snack intake in pre-school aged  
416 children whilst mirroring recommended snack provision in a nursery/childcare setting. The study  
417 tested a limited selection of foods, despite including HED and LED snack types commonly presented  
418 to children as a snack in an ecological childcare setting and thus the findings may not be generalizable  
419 to other snack foods. Additionally, whereas the snack foods were liked by the majority of children in  
420 our study (and therefore included as test foods), some children described the LED foods as 'yucky',

421 and we acknowledge this might be a limitation. Furthermore, our study design did not test child  
422 perception of the snack foods according to differences in energy density or according to differences  
423 in perceived healthfulness. It is possible that colour effects may be more likely in experimental studies  
424 where the perceived healthfulness of the food has been established and or within populations who  
425 have an increased cognitive awareness and understanding of the 'healthfulness' of differing food  
426 types (Reutner et al., 2015). Furthermore, the effect of colour may be heterogeneous in that  
427 perceptions of 'healthfulness' may differ across the developmental ages and between individuals. The  
428 within-subjects repeated measures design and the natural snack setting are strengths that extend the  
429 laboratory-based plate colour manipulation studies conducted to date (Bruno et al., 2013; Genschow,  
430 Reutner, & Wanke, 2012; Reutner et al., 2015). We assigned children to either a control or intervention  
431 group to explore the impact of learning the association of red to 'stop' and green to 'go'; however, it  
432 is possible that the exposure to the colour association message, and the measure to assess this colour  
433 association, were insufficient. Increased exposure to the intervention colour message might result in  
434 a stronger learned colour association in these young children. How best to assess children's  
435 associations of colour at a young age and understand if and when strong associations are developed  
436 however, requires further consideration. Future studies should investigate effects of dishware colour  
437 on food intake in a broader developmental age group, including school-aged children and young adults  
438 (5-18 years), and should test a wider range of foods.

439

#### 440 **CONCLUSION**

441 The findings of this preliminary study showed that despite receiving a brief learning intervention  
442 (colour message), plate colour did not influence children's HED or LED snack food intake during a  
443 natural childcare snack setting. Thus, in the present study, using the visual cue of plate colour was not  
444 an effective strategy to control snack food intake in pre-school children. Rather we suggest that food  
445 intake in young children may be best predicted by portion size, energy density and eating behaviour  
446 traits.

447

448

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452

453 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

454 Conceptualization, JEC, SAC; Data curation, SAC, JEC; Formal analysis, SAC, JEC; Funding acquisition,  
455 MMH, SJC. JEC; Investigation, SAC, JEC; Methodology, SAC, SJC, BJR, MMH, JEC; Project administration,  
456 SAC, MMH, JEC; Validation, SAC, JEC; Visualization, SAC, JEC; Writing—original draft, SAC, JEC; Writing—  
457 review & editing, SAC, SJC, BJR, MMH, JEC.

458

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461

462 **CONFLICTS OF INTEREST**

463 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

464

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 596  
 597

598 **Supplementary Material**

599

600

SONG: To Twinkle Twinkle Little Star

601

602

*Twinkle, twinkle traffic light*

603

*On the corner shining bright*

604

*Red means stop*

605

*Green means go*

606

*Amber means go very slow*

607

*Twinkle, twinkle traffic light*

608

*On the corner shining bright*

609

610

611

Note: point to colours on the laminated traffic light picture below

612

613

614

