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1 **Effect of a pleasure-oriented intervention conducted at home on the energy intake of**  
2 **mid-afternoon snacks consumed by children**

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29

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31

## 32 **Abstract**

33 The study assessed the impact of a hedonic intervention on the energy intake of mid-afternoon  
34 snacks consumed by children at home. Before the intervention (T1), after (T2), and two months  
35 later (T3), a booklet was sent to 187 children aged 7-11 y inviting them to describe their snack  
36 consumptions. After T1, children were randomly assigned to an experimental group (N=94)  
37 who received hedonic boxes to stimulate the sensory, psychosocial and interpersonal pleasure  
38 of consuming healthy foods, or to a control group (N=93) who received boxes targeting table  
39 decoration. Between T1-T2, a significant decrease in energy intake was observed in the  
40 experimental group but not in the control group; the intervention decreased the amount of food  
41 eaten but did not change their average nutritional quality. Effects among ‘heavy’ eaters were  
42 larger than among ‘light’ eaters. Promoting conscious sensory experiences may favor children’s  
43 epicurean pleasure, which could help reducing energy intake.

44

45 **Keywords:** home-based intervention, nutritional quality, energy intake, pleasure from eating

46

## 47 **1. Introduction**

48 In France, children's eating habits are excessive in fat and sugar, and 77% of children aged 6  
49 to 17 years do not reach the consumption of at least 5 servings of fruit per day (Santé publique  
50 France, 2017). The excessive consumption of high-fat/high-sugar foods is particularly true for  
51 French children's mid-afternoon snacks. Indeed, a food survey indicated that 17% of the total  
52 energy intake of children up to 10 years of age comes from mid-afternoon snacks and that the  
53 food items most consumed by them are fatty, sweet foods such as pastries, cakes and biscuits  
54 (Anses, 2017a). According to this survey, 25% of sugar consumed by children of this age range  
55 comes from mid-afternoon snacks (Anses, 2017a). Mid-afternoon snacking, defined as an  
56 eating occasion between lunch and dinner (Bellisle, 2014), is recommended for children  
57 because it contributes to diversifying their feeding, especially through the consumption of fruits  
58 and dairy products (Francou & Hébel, 2017). However, the real intake does not meet the  
59 nutritional recommendations (Francou & Hébel, 2017), and the most consumed foods are dense  
60 in energy and low in micronutrient content, which could lead to later health problems. In  
61 particular, dietary sugars are associated with an increase in obesity when consumed as an excess  
62 source of calories and with an increase in the risk of diet-related diseases (Prinz, 2019). In this  
63 context, it seems relevant to identify levers to guide children's mid-afternoon snack choices  
64 toward healthier foods of lower energy value.

65 One way to improve children's food choices consists of informing them about the health  
66 benefits of food products. Some studies showed that a nutritional message led 7-11-year-old  
67 children to choose healthier snacks (Marette et al, 2016; Poquet et al, 2019). However, health  
68 messages may have counterproductive effects on food choices (Miller et al., 2011). Some  
69 authors showed that children aged 9-11 y rated "a new health drink" as less pleasant and said  
70 they would be less likely to ask their parents to buy it than the same drink with a simple message  
71 "a new drink" (Wardle & Huon, 2000), suggesting that health and taste might be considered

72 contradictory by children (Baranowski et al., 1993). Using an experimental design, Poquet et  
73 al. (2019) showed that dyads of mothers and their child chose and consumed, for their mid-  
74 afternoon snack, healthier food items when they were labeled with the Nutri-Score (the French  
75 front-of-pack labeling system) than without any information. However, even if the nutritional  
76 quality of the snacks was significantly improved with the Nutri-Score, the liking decreased for  
77 the children as well as for the mothers, suggesting a “hedonic cost” associated with the change  
78 in favor of healthier choices, questioning the sustainability of the behavioral changes induced  
79 by nutritional labels.

80 Faced with the contrasting effects of health/nutrition information on children’s food choices  
81 and liking, some authors have investigated whether pleasure of eating could be an alternative  
82 lever to improve children’s appetite for healthier and lower energy-dense foods. It has been  
83 shown that pleasure from eating is not *per se* a threat to healthy food choices. In an experimental  
84 study involving French children aged 6-11 y, Marty et al. (2017) showed that children with  
85 hedonic-based attitudes toward foods were more likely to choose healthy food options (e.g.,  
86 fruits) from a buffet than children with more nutrition-based attitudes. Cornil & Chandon (2016)  
87 revealed that focusing on sensory pleasure through multisensory imagery led 5-year-old  
88 children to choose smaller portions of chocolate cake or soft drink than in a nonfood (control)  
89 sensory imagery condition. The reduction of the portion size was confirmed in another study  
90 with children aged 7-11 y, with a reduction for palatable food but not for healthier food (Lange  
91 et al., 2020). Food sensory imagery, which consists of creating a vivid mental image of the  
92 sensory experience of eating, may lead to the selection of smaller portions, acting as a reminder  
93 that eating pleasure does not increase with portion size. In a review, Marty et al. (2018)  
94 conceptualized three dimensions of pleasure from eating: the sensory dimension (e.g., pleasure  
95 from the sensory sensations), the interpersonal dimension (e.g., social context of eating) and  
96 the psychosocial dimension (e.g., cognitive representations). These authors argued that hedonic

97 interventions mobilizing these three dimensions (for instance, by focusing on sensory properties  
98 of healthy foods, by stimulating social re-appropriation of healthy foods through shared cooking  
99 recipes, and by creating positive expectations for healthy foods, respectively) may constitute  
100 alternative levers to promote healthy eating behaviors in children. Recently, a scoping review  
101 (Bédard et al., 2020) confirmed the potential of intervention strategies using eating pleasure,  
102 and highlighted the need for evidence-based interventions to more properly assess how eating  
103 pleasure may be an ally in healthy eating promotion.

104 Based on the literature, a home-based intervention targeting the three dimensions of pleasure  
105 from eating as defined by Marty et al. (2018) has been developed, and its impact on the  
106 nutritional quality of mid-afternoon snacks chosen by mother-child dyads in the laboratory has  
107 been tested (Poquet et al., 2020). One main result of this study revealed the relationship between  
108 food liking and perceived healthiness in children increased significantly and became positive  
109 after the hedonic intervention, suggesting higher positive attitudes toward healthy foods for the  
110 children who had received the hedonic intervention. Because food choices are based in part on  
111 whether someone evaluates a food positively or negatively (i.e., food attitude) (Aikman et al.,  
112 2006), this result may constitute the first step in a behavioral change in favor of healthier  
113 choices. The aim of the present study, which is the second part of the abovementioned study  
114 (Poquet et al., 2020), was to assess the impact of a home-based pleasure-oriented intervention  
115 on the nutritional value of mid-afternoon snacks spontaneously consumed by children in an  
116 ecological setting, i.e., at home in their familial environment. According to the previous results  
117 of Cornil & Chandon (2016), we hypothesized that the pleasure-oriented intervention would  
118 lead to a decrease in energy intake.

## 119 **2. Materials and methods**

### 120 **General design**

121 The study took place in Dijon (France) from February to June 2018. The full procedure has  
122 been described in detail in the previous paper by Poquet and collaborators (2020). This  
123 procedure aimed to examine the effect of a pleasure-oriented intervention on a mid-afternoon  
124 snack chosen within a predefined offer of food items in laboratory sessions (data reported in  
125 Poquet et al., 2020) and on snacks consumed at home (the present data). For the laboratory  
126 sessions, participants were asked to choose, among a set of 10 food items, two food items for  
127 their mid-afternoon snack. For home consumptions, they had to note the foods and beverages  
128 consumed at home in the afternoon by completing three snack record booklets, one in February  
129 before the intervention (T1), a second one in April after the intervention (T2) and a last one in  
130 June (T3) (see Section 2.2 below).

131 One snack record booklet was delivered to each child and to each mother. It is important to note  
132 that the children were asked to describe their consumption of mid-afternoon snacks as precisely  
133 as possible in their booklet, while the mothers were asked to describe their own consumption  
134 of mid-afternoon snacks in their booklet. Since the main focus of the study targeted the child's  
135 consumption, only data on children's consumption are reported in the results.

136 After T1, the participants (n=189) were randomly assigned to an experimental (n=95) or a  
137 control group (n=94) by an experimenter who was not present during the sessions (i.e., blind  
138 procedure). In the experimental group, the participants successively received three boxes at  
139 home, each mobilizing three dimensions of pleasure from eating to stimulate the pleasure of  
140 consuming healthy foods. The participants assigned to the control group successively received  
141 three boxes targeting the table decoration at home (see details in 2.3).

142 At T3, a questionnaire was also sent to each participant in which they were invited to indicate  
143 their weight and height and to answer questions about their perception and appreciation of the

144 content and the activities present in the separate boxes (results not presented here). Only results  
145 from booklets filled in by children are reported in the present paper.

### 146 *2.1. Participants*

147 Participants were recruited from a population registered in the Chemosens Platform's  
148 PanelSens database, an internal database gathering the contact information of adults having  
149 already participated and/or wishing to participate in scientific studies. This database has been  
150 declared to the relevant authority (Commission Nationale Informatique et Libertés – CNIL –  
151 n°1148039). Participants were also recruited from a consumer recruitment company. The  
152 inclusion criterion used for children was a grade level of 3rd, 4th, or 5th grade.

153 The study was reviewed and approved (Opinion number No 17-426) by the ethics evaluation  
154 committee of Inserm (IRB00003888). An information sheet was sent to each mother and each  
155 child, in which they were told that the study aimed to better understand the food choices of  
156 mothers and their child. The participants were informed that they would participate in two  
157 laboratory sessions to choose food products for their own mid-afternoon snacks (see Poquet et  
158 al., 2020 for details), that they would receive three boxes at home and that they would have to  
159 fill in different questionnaires at home and in the laboratory. Written informed consent was  
160 obtained from mothers and their child before their participation in the study.

### 161 *2.2. Snack record booklets*

162 In February (T1), April (T2) and June (T3), a snack record booklet was delivered to children  
163 and another one to mothers (results not shown here), inviting them to precisely describe each  
164 beverage and each food item consumed, respectively by children and by mothers, between the  
165 end of the lunch and up to the diner on the two weekend days following the receipt of the  
166 booklet. Saturday and Sunday were selected because during the week, many children in France



167 are involved in extracurricular activities after school, during which the mid-afternoon snack is  
168 provided by their local municipality, not by their family.

169 Among the 95 participants of the experimental group, 71 snack record booklets have been  
170 completed and returned at T1 (no return n=24), 70 at T2 (no return n=1), and 54 at T3 (no return  
171 n=16). Among the 94 participants of the control group, 63 snack record booklets have been  
172 completed and returned at T1 (no return n=31), 63 at T2 (no return n=0), and 53 at T3 (no return  
173 n=10). The attrition rate was similar in both groups (between recruitment and T1  $\chi^2=0.09$ ,  
174  $p=.76$ , T2  $\chi^2=0.09$ ,  $p=0.76$  and T3  $\chi^2=0.00$ ,  $p=1.00$  respectively).

175 In each booklet, participants were asked to indicate as precisely as possible when each beverage  
176 and food item were consumed. The instructions specified that the participants had the possibility  
177 to indicate “no consumption” if so. If an unusual event had disrupted the consumption, the  
178 participants had the possibility to specify the nature of this event. In the snack record booklet,  
179 participants were asked to report the quantities consumed. A guide was included in the snack  
180 record booklets to help them to precisely indicate the portion size of each product using  
181 photographs of a validated manual of portion sizes (Le Moullec et al., 1996). The guide was  
182 composed of pictures corresponding to 21 food items belonging to several categories of food,  
183 such as fruits, cereal products, dairy products, fatty-sweet products, and fatty-salty products.  
184 The guide’s instructions specified that the food items presented in the guide were examples to  
185 help them assess the portion size consumed. There were two or three different portion sizes for  
186 a given food. The participants could choose a portion size corresponding to one of the pictures,  
187 an intermediate portion between two pictures, or a portion size below the first picture or above  
188 the last picture. Thus, the value of the estimated portion size could range from 1 to 5 or from 1  
189 to 7. The instructions specified that the use of the guide was not required for food items  
190 available in individual portions (e.g., yogurt, apple). For those products, the participants were  
191 asked to indicate the number of portions consumed and their weight for solid foods (e.g., for

192 flask of stewed apple, yogurt) and the volume corresponding to beverages. For other food items,  
193 such as chocolate, it was asked to indicate the weight of the chocolate bar. Finally, for spread,  
194 jam or honey, the number and type of spoons (teaspoon, big spoon) had to be reported. At T1,  
195 it was indicated that the snack record booklets had to be filled in and returned before opening  
196 the first box. The fact that the mothers were also asked to complete their snack record booklets  
197 for their own consumption and to follow the procedure engaged them in the observance and the  
198 supervision of the instructions, notably for the return of the booklets using mail back. This last  
199 point clearly could not have been under the responsibility of the children.

### 200 *2.3. Description of the intervention*

201 The exhaustive content of the experimental and control boxes has been previously described  
202 (Poquet et al., 2020). In short, in the experimental group, the participants received at home three  
203 boxes targeting each of the three dimensions (sensory, interpersonal and psychosocial  
204 dimensions) of pleasure from eating to stimulate the pleasure of consuming healthy foods  
205 (Marty et al., 2018). The first box targeted fruits, the second cereal products, and the third dairy  
206 products of good nutritional quality. These three categories of foods have been chosen because  
207 they are highly recommended by the French National Nutrition and Health Program (PNNS)  
208 for children's mid-afternoon snacks (INPES, 2004). Each box contained one card about the five  
209 senses describing the sensations and feelings experienced through the different senses when  
210 consuming fruits, cereal products or dairy products. These cards referred to the sensory  
211 dimension of the pleasure from eating. Each box also contained one kitchen utensil and one  
212 recipe associated with a culinary challenge inviting the child, with the help of his or her mother,  
213 to use the kitchen utensil present in the box to make a cooking recipe and to post photographs  
214 of their culinary creation on a dedicated blog. The culinary challenge referred to the  
215 interpersonal dimension of pleasure from eating by involving the dyad in a common activity,  
216 which may act as a source of commensal pleasure. Each box finally contained two infographics

217 about the history and the origin of two foods belonging to the target category (e.g., banana and  
218 apple, wheat and oat, or milk and yogurt). At the bottom of each document, a quiz and a game  
219 (crossword puzzle and labyrinth) were proposed to engage children in the intervention while  
220 entertaining them. These infographics targeted the psychosocial dimension of pleasure from  
221 eating by bringing knowledge on foods to modify participants' representations by stimulating  
222 positive expectations and thus increase their attraction to fruits, cereal products and dairy  
223 products. It is worth noting that the content of these boxes never targeted nutritional or sanitary  
224 benefits related to the consumption of the recommended food categories for mid-afternoon  
225 snacks.

226 Each dyad of the control group also received three boxes at home. These boxes were aimed at  
227 involving participants in table decoration activities without any direct reference to foods. The  
228 content of each box was chosen according to the same scheme as for the experimental group,  
229 i.e., with an object (drinking straw, paper napkin, crumb collector, place mat, ice cube molds)  
230 and two infographics. The children were invited to participate in creative challenges and to post  
231 photographs of their activities on a dedicated blog, different from the blog dedicated for the  
232 experimental group.

#### 233 *2.4. Statistical analysis*

234 From the booklets, we considered that all food intakes that were recorded between 3:30 p.m.  
235 and 6:30 p.m. to be included in the present analysis. This time slot was selected because it  
236 overlaps what is usually reported for mid-afternoon snacks in French children (INPES, 2004).  
237 This actually represented 83.4% of children's consumption of snack booklets. A dietician  
238 entered the caloric value of each beverage and food item consumed by using the French national  
239 dietary database: the 2017 CIQUAL (Centre d'Information sur la Qualité des Aliments - Centre  
240 for Information on Food Quality) (Anses, 2017a). This table provides the energy content and

241 nutritional composition for more than 2800 foods representative of those consumed in France.  
242 When the children precisely indicated the brand of the food consumed, we used the nutritional  
243 values available on the labels. The energy brought by each beverage and food item consumed  
244 by the children was calculated according to the quantity consumed. For each day, the total  
245 energy intake (kcal), the total weight intake (g), and the percentage of total energy provided by  
246 fat, saturated fatty acids and sugars were thus calculated. Then, for each child, the median of  
247 each of these variables over the two days of recording was calculated at T1, T2 and T3.

248 Each variable, i.e., energy intake, weight, fat, saturated fatty acid and sugar, was considered  
249 separately. A mixed model was used to assess group, time and group x time interaction effects  
250 on each variable, and to account for repeated measurements. A decrease in energy intake of the  
251 snacks was expected only in the experimental group. Thus, significant group x time interactions  
252 were hypothesized.

253 To further examine the effects of the intervention and the role of baseline intake (i.e., energy  
254 intake/weight/fat/saturated fatty acid/sugar at T1), children were categorized into low and high  
255 initial levels of each outcome via a median split performed on the full sample at T1. This  
256 allowed us to examine the difference between subgroups of the effects of the intervention.  
257 Existing research on the effects of pleasure-based interventions has found that such  
258 interventions work better when people are hungry (Bédard et al., 2020; Lange et al., 2020).  
259 Therefore, a significant group x time x initial level interaction was expected, with an  
260 intervention effect particularly effective for ‘heavy’ eaters. Thus, interactions with the initial  
261 level (i.e., ‘light’ eaters and ‘heavy’ eaters) were added to the previous mixed model.

262 BMI was calculated and transformed into age- and sex-standardized z-scores (z-BMI) based on  
263 the WHO growth reference for school-aged children (de Onis et al., 2007).

264 Additional non-parametric analyses are also available in Web Appendix1.

265 Statistical analyses were performed using R version 3.6.1 (2019) and significance was set at  
266  $p < 0.05$ .

267

### 268 **3. Results**

#### 269 *3.1. Participants*

270 Table 1 summarizes the sociodemographic characteristics of the control and experimental  
271 groups. These characteristics were compared using either Student t tests or Chi-square tests.  
272 The two groups of children were balanced for gender, age and grade level. The BMI z score  
273 was marginally different between groups ( $p = 0.047$ ), with children in the experimental group  
274 having a slightly lower mean z-score than those in the control group. However, in both groups,  
275 the mean z-BMI was not different from 0, meaning that, on average, the groups were normal  
276 weight. There was no significant difference between the two groups in terms of mothers'  
277 educational level and household monthly net income.

278 *Insert Table 1 here*

279

280 *3.2. Effect of the intervention*

281 *Energy intake.* First, it was checked that the medians at T1 were not significantly different  
282 between experimental and controls groups (316 and 335 respectively, Wilcoxon test,  $p=0.27$ ,  
283 see Web Appendix 1) to rule out any potential randomization bias.

284

285

*Insert Figure 1 here*

286 As shown on the left panel of Fig.1 ('all children'), different patterns of energy intake can be  
287 described in the control group and in the experimental group. As expected, the mixed model  
288 showed a significant group x time interaction ( $p=0.03$ , see Table 2). Specifically, between T1  
289 and T2, a significant decrease in energy intake (mean= -69.1 kcal,  $se=24.2$ ) was observed in the  
290 experimental group ( $t=-2.83$ ,  $p=0.005$ ), whereas the variation in the control group was not  
291 significant ( $t=0.93$ ,  $p=0.35$ ), with a significant difference between control and experimental  
292 groups ( $t=-2.62$ ,  $p=0.01$ ). Between T1 and T3, a significant decrease (mean= -66.3 kcal,  
293  $se=29.9$ ) was also described in the experimental group ( $t=-2.59$ ,  $p=0.01$ ) and the variation was  
294 not significant in the control group ( $t=-0.63$ ,  $p=0.53$ ), with a non-significant difference between  
295 control and experimental groups ( $t=-1.36$ ,  $p=0.18$ ).

296 One outlier in the experimental group at T1 was found, with energy intake higher than 1300  
297 kcal. Additional analyses were conducted without this child, confirming that the conclusions  
298 were similar, with a marginal group x time interaction ( $F(2, 235)=2.78$ ,  $p=0.06$ ), resulting in a  
299 significant decrease between T1 and T2 and between T1 and T3 only in the experimental group  
300 ( $t=-2.40$ ,  $p=0.02$  and  $t=-2.17$ ,  $p=0.03$ ), and in a significant difference in decrease between  
301 groups between T1 and T2 ( $t=2.36$ ,  $p=0.02$ ) but not between T1 and T3 ( $t=1.05$ ,  $p=0.29$ ).

302 To go further, the role of baseline energy intake was examined. Interestingly, a significant  
303 interaction group x time x initial level of intake was observed ( $F(2, 232)=5.06, p=0.007$ ). As  
304 illustrated in Fig.1, for the ‘light’ eaters, no significant difference between experimental and  
305 control groups was found regarding the variation between T1 and T2 ( $t=0.15, p=0.88$ ). By  
306 contrast, for the ‘heavy’ eaters, a significant difference was observed ( $t=-2.73, p=0.007$ ), with  
307 a stronger decrease in energy in the experimental group than in the control group. No difference  
308 was found between ‘light’ eaters and ‘heavy’ eaters regarding difference between experimental  
309 and control groups in variation between T1 and T3 ( $t=0.17, p=0.86$ ).

310 *Insert Table 2 here*

311

312 *Weight, Fat, Saturated fatty acid and Sugar.* The medians for all children of the control group  
313 and the experimental group are illustrated in Fig.2. For weight, as indicated in Table 2, the  
314 interaction group x time was only marginal ( $p=0.09$ ), and the interaction group x time x initial  
315 level was not significant ( $p=0.18$ ). For the remaining outcomes, no interaction was significant,  
316 neither in the full sample nor after splitting according to the initial level of fat, saturated fatty  
317 acid, or sugar intake.

318 *Insert figure 2 here*

319

320

#### 321 **4. Discussion**

322 To the best of our knowledge, this study was the first attempt to assess the impact of a pleasure-  
323 oriented intervention implemented at home on global energy intake and on the energy

324 specifically brought by fat, saturated fatty acids and sugars of mid-afternoon snacks  
325 spontaneously consumed by children in their familiar environment. The originality of the  
326 present study was that it occurred in a natural setting: namely, the participants of both the  
327 experimental and the control groups received the boxes at home without supervisor, and the  
328 outcomes targeted (energy intake, weight intake and nutritional quality) were derived and  
329 assessed from the mid-afternoon snacks they spontaneously chose and consumed in their own  
330 family environment. In this context, we found that the hedonic intervention, by mobilizing  
331 different dimensions of pleasure from eating (Marty et al., 2018), had a significant effect on the  
332 caloric intake of the snacks spontaneously consumed by children. As expected, a significant  
333 decrease in energy intake was observed in the experimental group immediately after the  
334 intervention and two months later, and this decrease was significantly different than the  
335 variation observed in the control group, which was not significant. In sum, this study seems to  
336 highlight lower caloric intake for mid-afternoon snacks in children who received a hedonic  
337 intervention supposed to stimulate the pleasure of eating healthy foods, and not in children who  
338 received an intervention dealing with table decoration. Notably, the intervention decreased the  
339 amount of food eaten but not the average nutritional quality of the snacks, as no significant  
340 differential effect of the intervention was obtained in the control group and in the experimental  
341 group on the remaining outcomes (fat, saturated acid fat and sugar).

342 Interestingly, to go further, the results also indicated that a significant decrease in the energy  
343 intake was observed in the experimental group compared to the control group only for children  
344 with high initial caloric intake. This result is in line with recent studies on the effects of  
345 pleasure-based interventions, which found that such interventions work better when people are  
346 hungry and would have otherwise chosen a very large portion because these are the people who  
347 realize that eating a very large portion is not optimal from a purely hedonic standpoint (Bédard  
348 et al., 2020; Cornil & Chandon, 2016; Lange et al., 2021).



349 To shed light on the nature of the intervention effect, the main analysis on energy intake was  
350 completed by the analysis of weight intake and of the percentage of energy provided by fat,  
351 saturated fatty acid and sugar to disentangle whether the potential effect was explained by a  
352 decrease in the portion of the snacks eaten (potentially reflected in a weight decrease) or by the  
353 choice of healthier snacks (changes in the nutritional quality of the intake). The results indicated  
354 only a marginal interaction between group and time for weight. No significant effect was  
355 observed for the other variables. Thus, one could be tempted to conclude that the decrease in  
356 caloric intake observed in the experimental group and not in the control group might be due to  
357 a reduced intake or lower portion sizes after the intervention, more than a radical change in  
358 favor of healthier snacks. In sum, the intervention decreased the amount of food eaten but not  
359 the average nutritional quality of the snacks, with larger effects among ‘heavy’ eaters than  
360 among ‘light’ eaters. However, additional studies are clearly needed to confirm this.

361 How can we interpret the decrease in caloric intake in the experimental group? The decrease in  
362 caloric intake of snacks consumed by children observed after the hedonic intervention may be  
363 interpreted in connection with the theoretical framework of Cornil & Chandon (2016).  
364 Specifically, the authors found that 5-year-old children exposed to a food sensory imagery  
365 condition chose smaller portions of palatable food after being invited to imagine the  
366 multisensory pleasure derived from foods compared to children in a nonfood (control) sensory  
367 imagery condition. The authors suggested that this result may occur because sensory imagery  
368 prompts children to evaluate portions based on their expected sensory pleasure and to take better  
369 into account the phenomenon of “sensory-specific satiation”, corresponding to the gradual  
370 reduction of the pleasure derived from the consumption of food. Thus, sensory imagery would  
371 lead children to choose smaller portions because they would expect a higher pleasure with  
372 smaller portions than with larger portions. The reduction of the portion size of a palatable food  
373 after having imagined the multisensory pleasure derived from foods was confirmed in older

374 children aged from 7 to 11 years (Lange et al., 2020). In our study, one could argue that this  
375 phenomenon occurs in the children involved in the pleasure-oriented intervention whom  
376 sensory imagery could be stimulated by the different activities (i.e., the recipe, the culinary  
377 challenge and the infographics) present in the boxes and that the children would then put into  
378 practice during their mid-afternoon snack. As described by Cornil & Chandon (2016), we could  
379 assume that the anticipation of the pleasure of eating foods triggered by the hedonic intervention  
380 might encourage children to choose smaller quantities of mid-afternoon snacks, which in turn  
381 induced a global decrease in their caloric intake. In the present study, the point is that the  
382 hedonic intervention occurs in the natural setting of children respecting de facto their food  
383 habits/preferences. This is quite new since most of the previous studies were conducted in the  
384 laboratory, and food choices were made among a predefined list of products that may not be  
385 fully equivalent to children's food habits (i.e., Cornil and Chandon, 2016; Lange et al., 2020;  
386 Marette et al., 2016; Marty et al., 2017). Specifically, in the study of Poquet et al. (2020), the  
387 selection of snacks was predetermined by the experimenters in order to present snacks of  
388 various nutritional qualities (Nutri-Score ranging from A to E). The number of food items  
389 chosen by the participants was also predefined (2 per participant). This was radically different  
390 from what happened in the present study, where the children were simply asked to report what  
391 and how much was eaten at home during the afternoon if any. No additional instruction  
392 concerning the quantity or the quality of the snacks was given. The children were clearly free  
393 to eat what/how much they wanted to. Therefore, in these two-separate controlled versus  
394 spontaneous contexts (lab session in Poquet et al, 2020 versus. home protocol here), the  
395 conditions and the outcomes are not strictly comparable, and one can expect different effects of  
396 the hedonic intervention. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that we did not see any effect of the  
397 intervention on the quality of snacks consumed at home (i.e., qualitative dimension of snack  
398 intake) since no significant effect has been observed on the nutritional variables (fat, saturated

399 fatty acid and sugar percentage of total energy intake), which is in line with what was observed  
400 in the lab protocol (Poquet et al., 2020). One could argue that the hedonic intervention seems  
401 to act more on food intake (i.e., quantitative dimension), as reflected in the significant decrease  
402 in caloric intake observed here only in the experimental group, an aspect that could not be seen  
403 in the lab session (Poquet et al., 2020) as the food was prepackaged and therefore presented in  
404 fixed quantities. Nevertheless, in Poquet et al. (2020), a relevant effect of the hedonic  
405 intervention was observed on children's attitudes, resulting in more positive attitude towards  
406 healthy foods in children from the experimental group but not in the control group; this  
407 attitudinal shift was interpreted as the first step in a change in favor of healthier choices.

408 The results of our study seem to corroborate in a natural setting the hypothesis of Cornil and  
409 collaborators (2016) on the positive influence of anticipation of sensory pleasure from eating  
410 on the quantitative dimension of food choices in children. Another point is that the pleasure-  
411 oriented intervention, by emphasizing the pleasure from eating, avoids any stigmatization of *a*  
412 *priori* unhealthy foods but alternatively proposes caring guidance to stimulate pleasure of eating  
413 healthy foods. This guidance, by stimulating sensory awareness, may have favored children's  
414 sensitivity to her or his internal sensations and conscious sensory experience of eating, which  
415 may explain why children have consumed fewer calories for their mid-afternoon snacks.

416 As described above, the hedonic intervention was supposed to stimulate different dimensions  
417 of pleasure to favor, in turn, the enjoyment of eating healthy foods for mid-afternoon snacks in  
418 children. We have described just above how the sensory dimension of the intervention may  
419 have led children to consume lower energy intake for their snacks, by reconnecting the child to  
420 her or his internal sensations through the conscious sensory experience of eating, and thanks to  
421 the anticipation of food enjoyment which lead them to favor smaller portion size as shown  
422 before (Cornil & Chandon, 2016; Lange et al., 2020). Not only the sensory dimension but also  
423 the interpersonal and social dimensions may have been activated by the hedonic intervention.

424 Specifically, the different infographics about the history and origin of the foods, the activities  
425 (quiz, crossword puzzle and labyrinth, etc.) as well as cooking recipe cards, culinary challenges  
426 involving the co-participation of the parent and the child may have increased children's  
427 attraction to the foods targeted in the intervention. This interpretation is in line with a recent  
428 experimental study showing that images in which healthy food products are shared induced  
429 more enjoyment than images in which the same foods were eaten alone (Maldoy et al., 2020).  
430 Even if in the present study we did not actually observe a radical shift from unhealthy to healthy  
431 foods for the mid-afternoon snacks, it could be assumed that the commensality and  
432 interpersonal pleasure shared by the children and their mothers in the hedonic intervention  
433 group may have reinforced their attention toward foods and their sensory properties, which in  
434 turn may have strengthened the conscious sensory experience of eating and epicurean pleasure.

435 The present study has several limitations. First, we cannot exclude misreporting when children  
436 fill in the snack record booklets. However, there is no reason that these errors differed between  
437 groups and/or at the separate time points. To reduce the error risk while reporting the snacks  
438 consumed by the children, precise instructions were given in the snack record booklets. The  
439 vocabulary used and the presentation of the snack record booklets were chosen to be appropriate  
440 for children. Second, our sample consisted of children whose mothers had a quite high level of  
441 education (see Table 1). Thus, one can wonder if similar results would be obtained with children  
442 from lower socioeconomic levels. Third, we evaluated the nutritional value of the snacks with  
443 a limited number of variables. However, this focus was justified by nutritional quality data for  
444 mid-afternoon snacks mostly consumed by French children, showing that they are particularly  
445 high in sugars and energy (Anses, 2017b). Finally, only assumptions might be put forward on  
446 the exact nature of the mechanism of the hedonic intervention effect, since there were no  
447 process measures, and it is well known that effects may be multifactor determined. For instance,  
448 one could argue that it is difficult to conclude that any effects were brought about by an

449 increased focus on hedonic pleasure, as no measures of hedonic pleasure were taken. It is also  
450 possible that other aspects of the intervention were responsible for the effects. For example, a  
451 desire to experiment with the new recipe and utensil may have made children more likely to  
452 select snacks with a higher water or fiber content, which may have meant they filled up more  
453 quickly on fewer calories. Nevertheless, all things being equal, the fact that no significant  
454 decrease in caloric intake was observed in the control group strengthens the relevance of the  
455 hedonic intervention. Moreover, it is worth noting that the intervention never emphasized the  
456 nutritional quality of the foods or the healthy values of the food targeted in the intervention. The  
457 intervention was a hedonic intervention aimed at stimulating the different dimensions of  
458 pleasure of eating (Marty et al., 2018): by creating positive expectations, favoring  
459 commensality and stimulating curiosity, enthusiasm and taste for the targeted foods. Therefore,  
460 even if an effect of social desirability cannot be excluded, it may not be linked with health or  
461 nutritional considerations since these considerations were never explicitly highlighted in the  
462 intervention.

463 Further research is needed to confirm these effects and to more properly assess whether a  
464 pleasure-oriented intervention could be effective for children from low socioeconomic families  
465 and/or for children with different weight statuses. Again, the question of the relevance of a  
466 hedonic intervention for different eating situations (e.g., breakfast, lunch, etc.) and in different  
467 food cultures remains open.

468

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542 **Table 1** Sociodemographic characteristics of the participants in the control group and the  
 543 experimental group.

	Control <i>n</i> = 63	Experimental <i>n</i> = 70
<b>Child gender (%)</b> (Chi <sup>2</sup> =0.01, p=0.91)		
Female	47.6	48.6
Male	52.4	51.4
<b>Child age (years): mean (standard deviation)*</b>	9.3 (0.9)	9.5 (0.8)
<b>Child grade level (%)</b> (Chi <sup>2</sup> =1.59, p=0.45)		
3 <sup>rd</sup> grade	44.4	34.3
4 <sup>th</sup> grade	30.2	38.6
5 <sup>th</sup> grade	25.4	27.1
<b>Child's z-BMI (standard deviation)**</b>	0.2 (1.3)	-0.3 (1.1)
<b>Mothers age (years): mean (standard deviation)</b>	39.3 (4.4)	40.3 (4.5)
<b>Mother education (%)</b> (Chi <sup>2</sup> =0.16, p=0.92)		
Lower than advanced level (A-level) qualification	9.5	8.6
Advanced level (A-level) qualification	22.2	20.0
Higher than Master 2	68.3	71.4
<b>Household monthly net income (%)</b> (Chi <sup>2</sup> =2.06, p=0.56)		
< 2000 €	15.9	25.7
< 3000 €	28.6	25.7
< 4000 €	34.9	28.6
≥ 4000 €	20.6	20.0

544 \* Data were available for 58 children in the control group and for 69 children in the experimental group  
 545 due to incoherent values.

546 \*\* Data were available for 38 children in the control group and for 45 children in the experimental group  
 547 due to missing values for weight and height or age.

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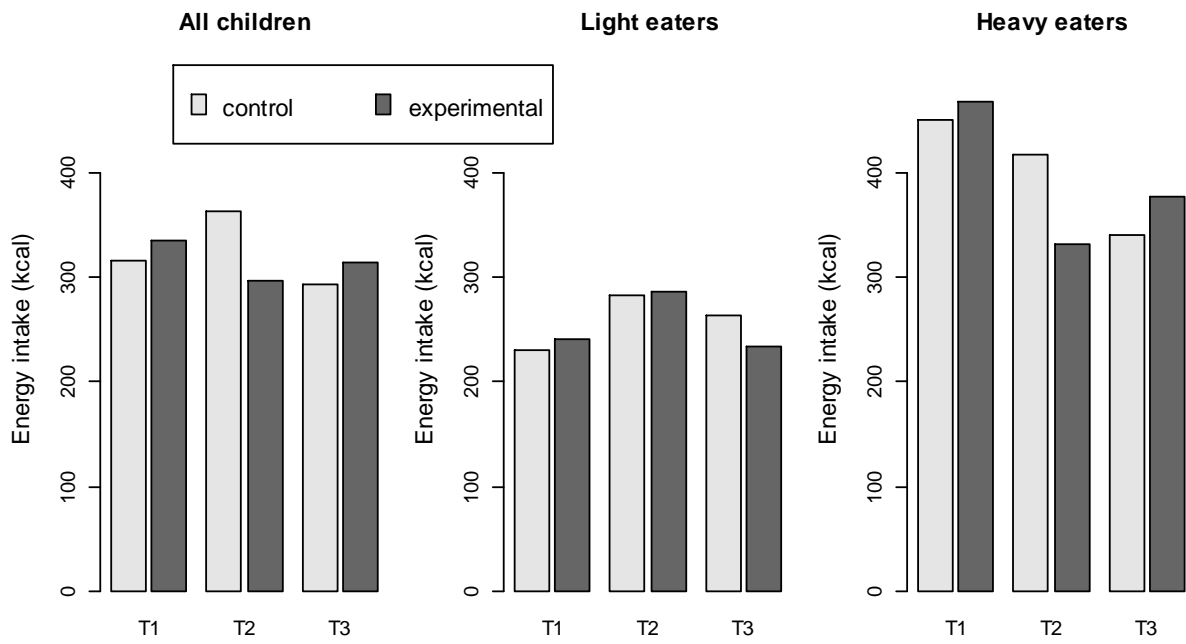
549 **Table 2** Mixed model for each outcome (energy intake, weight, percentage of total energy  
 550 provided by fat, saturated fatty acid and sugar): Fisher statistic (F) and p-value (p) for group  
 551 effect (gr), time effect (t), group x time interaction (gr x t), where initial level is the two-level  
 552 factor obtained by median split at T1. Fisher statistic and p-value for gr x t x level are obtained  
 553 in a second model where group x time x initial level interaction is added.

554

Outcome	gr		t		gr x t		gr x t x level <sup>a</sup>	
	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p
Energy intake	0.11	0.74	2.78	0.06	<b>3.44</b>	<b>0.03</b>	<b>5.06</b>	<b>0.01</b>
Weight	0.06	0.80	0.60	0.55	2.41	0.09	1.75	0.18
Fat	0.46	0.50	1.52	0.22	0.31	0.74	1.76	0.17
Saturated fatty acid	0.11	0.74	0.87	0.42	0.05	0.95	1.82	0.16
Sugar	0.05	0.82	4.18	0.02	1.14	0.32	0.81	0.45

555 <sup>a</sup> Interaction added in a second mixed model

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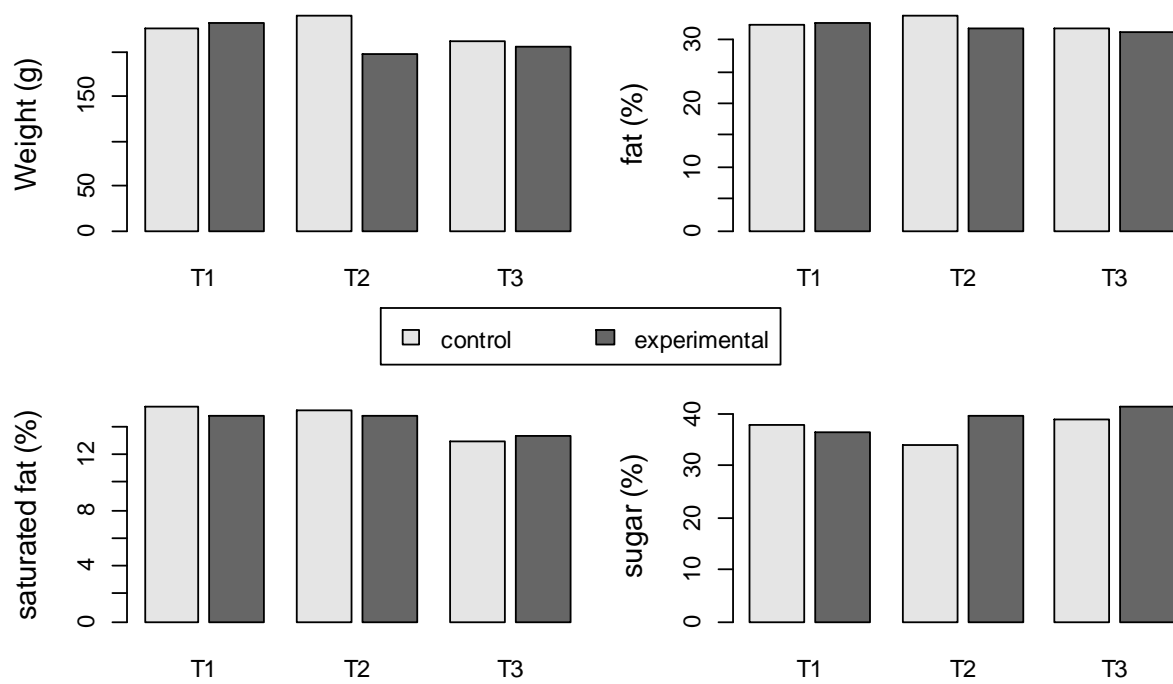


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558 **Figure 1.** Energy intake (medians), at T1, T2 and T3, in the control group and in the  
 559 experimental group, for the children taken together (all children), for the same children split  
 560 into two groups, low initial level (light eaters) and high initial level (heavy eaters), according  
 561 to a median split performed on energy intake at T1.

562

563



564

565 **Figure 2.** Weight, fat, saturated fat and sugar percentage of total energy (medians) in the control  
 566 group and in the experimental group at T1, T2 and T3 for all children.