

1 **Food neophobia and liking for fruits and vegetables are not related to Italian children's**  
2 **overweight**

3 Monica Laureati<sup>a\*</sup>, Simona Bertoli<sup>a,c</sup>, Valentina Bergamaschi<sup>a</sup>, Alessandro Leone<sup>a,c</sup>, Lidia  
4 Lewandowski<sup>a,c</sup>, Barbara Giussani<sup>b</sup>, Alberto Battezzati<sup>a,c</sup>, Ella Pagliarini<sup>a</sup>

5

6 <sup>a</sup>Department of Food, Environmental and Nutritional Sciences (DeFENS), University of  
7 Milan, via Celoria 2, 20133, Milan, Italy

8 <sup>b</sup>Department of Science and High Technology, University of Insubria, Via Valleggio 11, 22100  
9 Como, Italy

10 <sup>c</sup>International Center for the Assessment of Nutritional Status (ICANS), University of Milan,  
11 via Sandro Botticelli 21, 20133, Milan, Italy

12

13 \*Corresponding author: Monica Laureati, PhD. Department of Food, Environmental and  
14 Nutritional Sciences, University of Milan, Via Celoria 2, 20133 Milano, Italy

15 tel: +39-02-50319179, fax: +39-02-50319181, e-mail: monica.laureati@unimi.it

16

17 **Abstract**

18 Food acceptance and food choice are largely driven by taste preferences and liking,  
19 particularly among children. It is often assumed that overweight individuals differ from their  
20 normal-weight counterparts in that they prefer foods that are thought implicated in the  
21 development of obesity. Despite this, previous findings concerning the relationship between  
22 adults' adiposity and food liking are inconclusive, and there is limited research in children.  
23 We investigated the relationship among the body mass index (BMI), food neophobia and  
24 liking of fruits and vegetables (F&V) in a large cohort of Italian children (n=528, aged 6-9  
25 years) in an ecological environment. According to principal component analysis (PCA), the  
26 BMI was unrelated to either the food neophobia or the liking values. Food neophobia was  
27 negatively correlated with liking of both F&V, but liking of vegetables contributed more in  
28 discriminating children according to their neophobia level than fruits liking. This suggests that  
29 liking of vegetables is a better indicator of children's food neophobia than liking of fruits.  
30 This outcome was further confirmed as low, medium and highly neophobic children differed  
31 significantly for their vegetables liking but not for fruits liking. Food neophobia was higher  
32 in boys than in girls and decreased systematically with increasing age.

33

34 **Keywords:** Childhood; Willingness to taste; Obesity; Acceptability; Fruits and vegetables

35 **Abbreviations:** Fruits and vegetables, F&V Body mass index, BMI; Principal component  
36 analysis, PCA

## 37 1. INTRODUCTION

38 In the past few decades there has been a steep rise in childhood obesity worldwide, with one  
39 third of children becoming overweight or obese by the time they are 2 years old (Horne,  
40 Greenhalgh, Erjavec, Lowe, Viktor, & Whitaker, 2011). Childhood obesity can cause social,  
41 psychological and health problems and it is linked to obesity later in life (Dietz, 1998;  
42 Sandhu, Ben-Shlomo, Cole, Holly, & Smith, 2006). Given that childhood obesity and its  
43 health impacts track into adulthood (Van Duyn, & Pivonka, 2000), preventing obesity from an  
44 early age has become a major public health priority in the developed world (WHO, 2012). To  
45 deal effectively with this widespread obesity epidemic, it is important to identify its  
46 determinants. The origins and causes of obesity are manifold and complex: although there are  
47 some genetic causes, most of them are related to lifestyle and the dietary habits of the children  
48 and their families (Gortmaker et al., 2011). Food preferences are believed to play a central  
49 role in the prediction of human food choices (Drewnowski, 1997; Pilgrim and Kamen, 1963),  
50 particularly children's food choices (Birch, 1992). Although adult food and taste preferences  
51 have been relatively well documented, there have been few studies on children's preferences  
52 in daily life. Understanding the child population's food preferences and their determinants is  
53 important for progress in preventing overweight and obesity and improving children's poor  
54 food intake.

55 Food neophobia is one of the main factors influencing the quality of children's diets and the  
56 development of food preferences (Russell & Worsley, 2008). Food neophobia literally means  
57 "fear of new food". It is manifested in children as a reluctance to eat and/or the avoidance of  
58 novel food (Pliner & Hobden, 1992; Birch & Fisher, 1998). Although food neophobia has  
59 been evolutionarily useful, in a modern society where food safety is guaranteed, it can have a  
60 negative effect on food choices as food neophobic individuals avoid new food experiences  
61 and thus lack dietary variety (Cooke, Wardle, & Gibson, 2003). Evidence for a negative

62 relationship between food neophobia and dietary variety in children has been reported  
63 (Koivisto-Hursti & Sjöden, 1996; Falciglia et al., 2000; Skinner, Carruth, Bounds, & Ziegler,  
64 2002), being neophobic children less inclined to eat certain types of foods (*e.g.*, fruit,  
65 vegetables and foods of animal origin) than their more neophilic peers (Galloway, Lee, &  
66 Birch, 2003; Nicklaus, Boggio, Chabanet, & Issanchou, 2005; Cooke, Carnell, & Wardle,  
67 2006). Although the negative effects of food neophobia on children's everyday food intake  
68 are increasingly well documented, the role of food neophobia in children nutritional status  
69 remains unclear. Falciglia et al. (2000) showed a tendency toward a higher caloric intake in  
70 the neophilic children, while Zalilah, Khor, Mirnalini, & Sarina (2005) suggested that  
71 neophobic children had a greater prevalence of both overweight and underweight.

72 To the best of our knowledge, very few studies have investigated the relationships among  
73 food neophobia, food preferences and nutritional status in an ecological environment,  
74 particularly in children. In this context, Knaapila et al. (2011) conducted a multidisciplinary  
75 investigation of the origins of food neophobia and its relationship with a series of variables,  
76 among which were personality traits, the pleasantness of the food and the body mass index.  
77 However, this study did not involve children and was conducted in a laboratory context. In  
78 everyday life, the perceived danger of food may be greater than that in the safety of a  
79 laboratory, so that the effects of food neophobia may be underestimated. In addition, a  
80 limitation of the research on children that has been conducted to date is that both food  
81 neophobia and liking have often been assessed using parent reports. Information about their  
82 children's food behavior that is obtained from questionnaires provided to the parents may be  
83 misleading because it underestimates the role of the children in the process. In addition,  
84 parents may sometimes project their own behaviors onto those of their children (Mata,  
85 Scheibehenne, & Todd, 2007).

86 The aim of this study was to obtain a self-reported measurement of food neophobia and liking  
87 of F&V involving a representative sample of primary school children in an ecological  
88 environment (*i.e.*, at school) and to evaluate how food neophobia and liking are related to the  
89 children's nutritional status. We hypothesized that food neophobia is associated with a  
90 reduced liking of F&V, and that both food neophobia and liking are related to the children's  
91 body mass index (BMI). More specifically, we expect that high acceptance of healthy food,  
92 such as F&V, may be associated with a lower prevalence of excess weight among children.  
93 Finally, since in previous studies, age (Dovey, Staples, Gibson, & Halford, 2008; Pagliarini,  
94 Gabbiadini & Ratti, 2005) and gender (Dovey et al., 2008; Koivisto-Hursti and Sjöden, 1997)  
95 have been reported to play a role in children's food neophobia and liking, age- and gender-  
96 related differences were also investigated.

97

## 98 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

99

### 100 **2.1 Participants**

101 Five hundred and twenty-eight (267 boys and 261 girls) children aged between 6 and 9 years  
102 (mean age:  $7.8 \pm 1.1$  years) who attended three urban public primary schools participated in  
103 this cross-sectional study. The schools were selected in the center and the larger metropolitan  
104 area of Milan (Italy). Food neophobia, the liking of F&V and the BMI of all of the  
105 participants were assessed at school between October 2011 and February 2012.

106 The children were selected based on a consent form that was completed by the parents. The  
107 parents were asked to read a short explanation of the study and to complete a questionnaire in  
108 which they were asked to indicate whether their child had any food allergy or followed a  
109 specific diet. All of the children involved in the study met the following criteria: healthy, not  
110 on a specific diet, and not suffering from food allergies. The study was performed in

111 adherence with the principles established by the Declaration of Helsinki. The protocol was  
112 approved by the Institutional Ethics Committee at the study site.

113

## 114 **2.2 Nutritional status evaluation**

115 Anthropometric measurements were taken at the schools by trained technicians according to  
116 standardized procedures (Lohman, Roche, & Martorel, 1988). Height was recorded to the  
117 nearest 0.1 cm using a stadiometer and weight was measured to the nearest 0.1 kg using a  
118 high-precision mechanical scale. The BMI was calculated as the weight (kg) per height<sup>2</sup> (m<sup>2</sup>).  
119 The gender-specific BMI-for-age percentiles and Z scores were calculated using the 2000  
120 CDC Growth Charts (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2000). In accordance with  
121 CDC guidelines, a Z-score below the 5<sup>th</sup> percentile represented underweight, a score between  
122 the 5<sup>th</sup> and 85<sup>th</sup> percentile represented a normal weight, a score at or above the 85<sup>th</sup> percentile  
123 and below the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile represented overweight, and a score at or above the 95<sup>th</sup>  
124 percentile represented obesity (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2000).

125

## 126 **2.3 Evaluation of food neophobia**

127 The scale used was an Italian adaptation of the original food neophobia scale that was  
128 developed by Pliner and Hobden (1992). The original scale was reduced to 8 items, 4 related  
129 to neophilic attitudes and 4 related to neophobic attitudes. Specifically, the items “Ethnic food  
130 looks too weird to eat”, “I like trying new ethnic restaurants” and “I like foods from different  
131 countries”, which were present in the original food neophobia scale, were removed and  
132 replaced by the item “I like trying new food and tastes that are from other countries”. The  
133 modification was necessary because a preliminary test showed that children (n=30, 16 girls  
134 and 14 boys, age range of 6-10 years) did not understand the term “ethnic” properly. Internal  
135 consistency was evaluated using Cronbach’s alpha test ( $\alpha=0.77$ , n=8). The design and

136 validation of the food neophobia scale used in the present study is the subject of another  
137 publication (Laureati et al., submitted).

138 The adapted food neophobia scale was presented to the children in the classroom by the  
139 teacher and an experimenter who explained to them how to complete the questionnaire. For  
140 each item, the children were asked to indicate the degree to which they considered the  
141 statement to be true for them, using a 5-point facial scale (from left to right: “Very false for  
142 me”, “False for me”, “So and so”, “True for me”, and “Very true for me”). The administration  
143 method was the same across all age groups of children, except for 6-years-old children for  
144 whom the administration was simplified (e.g., questionnaires administered in small groups of  
145 5-6 children and questions read aloud by the experimenter). A neophobia score ranging from 8  
146 to 40 was calculated for each child (neophilic items scores were reversed).

147

#### 148 **2.4 Evaluation of liking**

149 The liking test was performed one week after the food neophobia evaluation. The children  
150 received small portions of F&V (fruit: apple, pear, grapes and miyagawa-citrus fruit);  
151 vegetables: fennel, radish, broccoli and carrot). A portion of approximately 40 g of each fruit  
152 and vegetable was served raw to the children immediately prior to their mid-morning snack.  
153 To increase ecological validity, children were tested in a familiar environment, namely their  
154 classroom because at midmorning snack Italian children usually eat there. FV were selected  
155 based on availability in season, ease of handle and storage. In addition, stimuli were chosen in  
156 order to have FV that were familiar for Italian children.

157 The F&V were fresh and were cut into standardized, uniform-sized pieces; they were  
158 presented to the children at room temperature in plastic cups encoded with the word “fruit” or  
159 “vegetable”. For each stimulus, the children were asked to rate their degree of liking using a  
160 7-point hedonic-facial scale (Pagliarini, Ratti, Balzaretto & Dragoni, 2003; Pagliarini et al.,

161 2005). Children were also asked whether they consider each stimulus to be familiar or not and  
162 whether they had already tasted it. All items were familiar for more than 93% of children,  
163 except for radish, which was known only by 60% of them. In addition, children reported  
164 having tasted frequently all items, except broccoli (11%) and radish (8%).

165

## 166 **2.5 Data analysis**

167 The food neophobia and liking data were first analyzed using an analysis of variance  
168 (ANOVA) test that considered the school (school 1-3), the age (6-9 years), the gender, and the  
169 stimulus (the F&V provided) as factors.

170 The relationship among the BMI, food neophobia and liking data was evaluated using  
171 principal component analysis (PCA). Autoscaling was performed on the data prior to any  
172 modeling. Cross validation was chosen as the validation method. To further interpret the  
173 relationship between liking of F&V and food neophobia, the children were divided according  
174 to their level of neophobia into 3 groups: 'low' (children with scores in the lower 25<sup>th</sup>  
175 percentile of food neophobia scores, score  $\leq 17$ , n=141), 'medium' (children with scores  
176 between the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles, score  $\geq 18$  and  $\leq 24$ , n=234) and 'high' (children with  
177 scores in the upper 25<sup>th</sup> percentile, score  $\geq 25$ , n=154). The data were subjected to a GLM  
178 ANOVA that considered the *Neophobia level* ('low', 'medium' and 'high'), *Stimulus category*  
179 (fruits and vegetables) and their interaction as factors and liking as a dependent variable.

180 All ANOVAs were conducted using SAS/STAT statistical software package version 9.3.1.  
181 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, USA). PCA modeling was performed using The Unscrambler X  
182 software (CAMO Software AS, Oslo Norway).

183

184

185



186 **3. RESULTS**

187

188 **3.1 Nutritional status evaluation**

189 The distribution of the socio-anagraphic (gender and ethnicity) and nutritional status (BMI  
190 classification) variables according to age is reported in Table 1. Age was not related to gender  
191 ( $p=0.81$ ) or to the BMI classes ( $p=0.76$ ). Of the total sample, 8 children (1.5%) were  
192 underweight, 369 (69.9%) were of normal weight, 132 (25.0%) were overweight and 19  
193 (3.6%) were obese. Only 5.3% of the entire sample was non-Caucasian.

194

195 **3.2 Evaluation of food neophobia**

196 Internal consistency was satisfactory (Cronbach's alpha:  $\alpha=0.73$ ). The mean food neophobia  
197 scores by school, age and gender are reported in Table 2. A significant difference in the food  
198 neophobia scores was found for gender ( $F=4.82$ ,  $p=0.03$ ) and age ( $F=8.67$ ,  $p<0.001$ ).  
199 According to the LSD post-hoc test, boys were more neophobic than girls and the four age  
200 classes differed significantly, with a reduction of the neophobic attitude with increasing age.  
201 The interaction of gender by age was not significant ( $F=0.77$ ,  $p=0.51$ ), with boys being more  
202 neophobic than girls regardless of the age class. However, the differences between the boys  
203 and girls were more pronounced at 6 and 7 years and vanished with increasing age. No  
204 differences ( $F=0.19$ ,  $p=0.83$ ) were detected in the food neophobia scores among the three  
205 schools. The food neophobia results did not change when the analysis was performed only on  
206 the Caucasian children.

207

208 **3.3 Evaluation of liking**

209 The mean hedonic scores by school, age, gender and stimulus are reported in Table 3. Age  
210 was found to have a significant effect on liking ( $F=6.66$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). According to the LSD

211 post-hoc test, nine-year-old children showed significantly lower liking scores than the  
212 younger children, which in turn were similar. Additionally, a significant effect for the type of  
213 stimulus ( $F=154.22$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ) and stimulus category ( $F=814.28$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ) was found.  
214 Overall, fruits were more liked than vegetables. According to the LSD post-hoc test, apple  
215 and grapes were the most favored stimuli, followed by carrot and pear. Carrot was the only  
216 type of vegetables that received a comparable or even higher liking score than the fruits.  
217 Miyagawa was the least liked type of fruits probably due to its sourness. Fennel received  
218 significantly lower liking scores than the fruits, whereas radish and broccoli received  
219 comparable and very low ratings. No significant differences in the liking scores were found  
220 for the school ( $F=1.60$ ,  $p<0.20$ ) or the gender ( $F=0.01$ ,  $p<0.94$ ). The same results were  
221 obtained when the analysis was performed only on Caucasian children.

222

### 223 **3.4 Relation among nutritional status, food neophobia and food liking**

224 The BMI, food neophobia and liking data were subjected to PCA to examine the results from  
225 a multidimensional point of view (Figures 1 a-b). The first two PCs explained 39% of the  
226 variance (Figure 2a). The BMI was unrelated to either the food neophobia or the liking values.  
227 Food neophobia was positioned in the positive part of PC1 (23% of the explained variance)  
228 and was negatively correlated with all of the liking values, which were in turn positioned in  
229 the negative part of PC1. The negative correlation between food neophobia and the liking for  
230 F&V was confirmed by the data shown in Table 4. The correlation coefficients were  
231 somewhat low (range: -0.11 to -0.28) but were significant ( $p<0.05$ ), considering the large  
232 number of individuals ( $n > 200$ ). Food neophobia also showed positive coordinates in PC2.  
233 The relation between food neophobia and the liking values could be further interpreted from  
234 examining Figure 1b. For this figure, PC2 was plotted against PC3, which explained a further  
235 11% of the variance. The BMI variable showed high loading on PC3 and low loading on PC2

236 thus confirming that this variable is unrelated to the food neophobia and liking scores. In  
237 addition, the liking values were distributed along PC2, with the vegetables liking values in the  
238 negative part of PC2 and the fruits liking values in the positive part. The distribution of the  
239 liking values along PC2 perfectly reflected the direction of the children's preference  
240 evidenced by the ANOVA results, with broccoli and radish being the least liked items,  
241 followed by fennel and carrots and then by all of the fruits. Food neophobia was positioned  
242 near to the fruits' liking values, but it was still opposite to vegetables' liking scores. To further  
243 interpret the relationship between liking of F&V and food neophobia, the children were  
244 divided according to their level of neophobia into 3 groups: 'low', 'medium' and 'highly'  
245 neophobic children. ANOVA results revealed that the interaction of *Neophobia level by*  
246 *Stimulus category* was significant ( $F=3.81$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). As shown in Figure 2, vegetables' liking  
247 scores significantly ( $p<0.0001$ ) decreased with increasing neophobia level, whereas fruits'  
248 liking scores remained stable whatever the level of the children's neophobia. In other words,  
249 vegetables liking contributed more in discriminating children according to their neophobia  
250 level than fruits liking. This result confirms PCA results and suggests that vegetables' liking is  
251 a better indicator of children's food neophobia than is fruits' liking.

252

#### 253 **4. DISCUSSION**

254 Food neophobia and food liking have been studied extensively in children, but the implication  
255 for the children's nutritional status is not well understood. It is widely agreed that food  
256 acceptance and food choice are largely driven by taste preferences and liking, particularly  
257 among the children in contemporary western environments (Bere & Klepp, 2005; Birch,  
258 1999). For this reason, it is often assumed that overweight individuals differ from their  
259 normal-weight counterparts in that they prefer foods that are thought implicated in the  
260 development of obesity. Despite this opinion, earlier findings on the relationship between

261 adiposity and food liking for common foods are inconclusive in adults and relevant research  
262 in children is limited (Hill, Wardle & Cooke, 2009).

263 The children involved in this study showed a prevalence of excess weight consistent with the  
264 last Italian survey of primary-school children (Ministero della Salute, 2012). The percentage  
265 of obese children was low (4%) compared with the mean Italian percentage (10.6% obese  
266 children) but coherent with the reduced prevalence of obese children generally observed in the  
267 north of Italy (6% in the Lombardia region).

268 One of the hypotheses proposed in the present paper was that neophobic behaviors may be  
269 associated with a higher risk of becoming overweight and attaining an obesity status in  
270 children. This assumption is based on the fact that neophobia is generally high for F&V  
271 among children. This attitude could lead to a higher consumption of energy dense foods that  
272 are high in sugar and fat at the expense of the consumption of healthier food. However, the  
273 results of the present study did not find any association between the BMI and food neophobia  
274 or food liking in children. This result is consistent with the findings of Hill et al. (2009), who  
275 did not find any relationship between adiposity and the reported liking for a series of foods,  
276 among which were F&V. Conversely, Knaapila et al. (2011) found a moderate but significant  
277 positive correlation between the BMI and food neophobia in women aged 20-25 years. In  
278 their study, Knaapila and colleagues speculated that the link between food neophobia and  
279 nutritional status might be bidirectional. Therefore, neophobia might manifest in a diet with a  
280 limited variety of foodstuffs, thus reducing the frequency of using foods overall, and in turn,  
281 the energy intake; in contrast, food neophobics could prefer to consume traditional foods with  
282 a higher energy density compared with healthier food, resulting in a higher BMI.

283 Our results confirm previous findings that high food neophobia is associated with low food  
284 liking (Russell & Worsley, 2008) and low consumption of F&V (Galloway et al., 2003; Cooke  
285 et al., 2003, 2004, 2006; Wardle, Carnell & Cooke, 2005). However, we found that liking of

286 vegetables was the best indicator of children's' food neophobia. Similar findings are reported  
287 by Knaapila et al. (2011), who found that in young adults, high levels of food neophobia are  
288 associated with low pleasantness of food in general and the reduced use of vegetables. It  
289 remains unclear why food neophobia is particularly high for certain categories of food. For  
290 instance, children food neophobia is highly related to F&V as well as to fish and meat but not  
291 to starchy, sweet or fatty snack foods (Cooke et al., 2003). Some authors suggested that this  
292 behavior may be due to personality traits (Dovey, Staples, Gibson, & Halford, 2008), whereas  
293 others reported perceptual (Coulthard & Blissett, 2009) and even genetic reasons (Knaapila et  
294 al., 2011). The fact that vegetables are less liked than fruits is well known and has been  
295 confirmed by previous reports indicating that vegetables are among the least favored food of  
296 children (Skinner et al., 2002; Perez-Rodrigo et al., 2003; Cooke & Wardle, 2005). This  
297 pattern of preferences is consistent with the evidence for innate tendencies to prefer sweet  
298 tastes and to dislike bitter tastes (Birch, 1999). Indeed, most fruits are sweet, whereas  
299 vegetables are often perceived as bitter due to compounds that are specifically found in  
300 cruciferous vegetables (*e.g.*, broccoli, cauliflower and kale) (Forestell & Mennella, 2007).  
301 Recent evidence has shown that this behavior, which is particularly prevalent among children,  
302 may be explained in part by genetic factors. Polymorphism in the TAS2R38 gene may lead to  
303 a variation in the perception of the bitterness of 6-n-propylthiouracil (PROP), which can in  
304 turn influence dietary patterns. In this context, it has been reported that PROP supertaster  
305 children are less likely than the nontasters to have tried/tasted cruciferous vegetables (Feeney  
306 et al., 2014).

307 Consistent with the literature, we observed a decrease in the food neophobia score with  
308 increasing age (Dovey et al. 2008; Koivisto-Hursti & Sjöden, 1996; Pliner & Loewen, 1997;  
309 Nicklaus et al., 2005; Rigal, Frelut, Monneuse, Hladik, Simmen, & Pasquet, 2006). It has  
310 been suggested that food neophobia occurs in all age groups and that its intensity depends on

311 inter-individual variability (Pliner & Salvy, 2006). In particular, it has been shown that after  
312 reaching a peak between 2 and 6 years (Pliner, 1994; Pelchat & Pliner, 1995; Pliner &  
313 Loewen, 1997), food neophobia generally decreases progressively throughout childhood and  
314 adolescence (Cashdan, 1994; Addessi, Galloway, Visalberghi, & Birch, 2005), becoming  
315 relatively stable during adulthood as a result of increased experiences with foods (Cooke &  
316 Wardle 2005). In particular, we found that the 9-year-aged children differed in terms of both  
317 food neophobia and liking from the younger children, indicating that this age is a critical  
318 period in a child's life with respect to food behavior development. Indeed, it has been reported  
319 that children around this age develop a different neophobic reaction due to different optimal  
320 levels of arousal (Loewen & Pliner, 1999) and a more critical attitude toward food as a  
321 consequence of exposure to a more varied diet (Pagliarini et al., 2005). Furthermore, the  
322 finding of a progressive decline in the food neophobia score according to age seems to  
323 support previous reports indicating that food neophobia may not be considered entirely as a  
324 personality trait but rather a state prone to changes, particularly in children (Mustonen &  
325 Tuorila, 2010).

326 In terms of gender differences in food neophobia scores, our data showed a significantly  
327 higher neophobic attitude for younger males than for females. The data in the literature on  
328 gender-related differences in food neophobia scores are scanty and contradictory, particularly  
329 for children. Some studies conducted with adults have found differences, with women being  
330 more neophobic than men (Frank & van der Klaauw, 1994) or men being more neophobic  
331 than women (Koivisto-Hursti & Sjöden, 1997; Tuorila, Lähteenmäki, Pohjalainen, & Lotti,  
332 2001). The few data available on gender-related differences in food neophobia considering  
333 children are in accordance with the findings of the present study and indicate more a  
334 neophobic behavior in boys than in girls (Koivisto-Hursti & Sjöden, 1996; Koivisto-Hursti &

335 Sjöden, 1997). The confusing results of these studies suggest that there is a complex interplay  
336 between gender and food neophobia that has yet to be revealed.

337

## 338 **5. CONCLUSION**

339 The present study investigated two important determinants of children's nutritional status,  
340 food neophobia and their liking of F&V. Most of the hypotheses we formulated were  
341 confirmed, as we found a negative relationship between food liking and food neophobia, with  
342 vegetables being the best predictor of children's food neophobia. Additionally, our data  
343 confirmed previously reported findings that food neophobia is more pronounced in boys than  
344 in girls and decreases with the children's age. Finally, we did not find any relationship  
345 between the BMI and either food neophobia or food liking. To our knowledge, no information  
346 exists about the associations among food neophobia, food liking and nutritional status in  
347 Italian children. Our results could expand the knowledge in an open research field, allowing  
348 better understanding of crucial behaviors in the pathogenesis of overweight and obesity in  
349 childhood.

350 One of the strengths of the present study is that it was conducted involving a relatively high  
351 number of children in an ecological setting during an actual mealtime situation. The  
352 naturalistic environment is an important point to consider when studying factors linked to  
353 food behavior. Food neophobia and food liking may indeed be underestimated when assessed  
354 in a laboratory setting, particularly for children. A limitation of the study is that only four  
355 items were considered within each food category. However, when conducting sensory testing  
356 with children providing a too wide range of stimuli is an option that should be considered  
357 with caution since other problems such as sensory and psychological fatiguing may arise. We  
358 believe that providing 8 food stimuli is a good compromise between children's fatigue and  
359 representativeness of stimuli. Finally, this study was cross-sectional. Therefore, we cannot

360 explore the onset and causality of these associations. Longitudinal studies are needed to  
361 examine the course of food neophobia and liking and its possible effect on nutritional status.

362

### 363 **Acknowledgments**

364 We thank principals and all of the teachers in the three schools who participated in this  
365 project. This study was funded by Regione Lombardia (project: "*FOOD AND FUN*":  
366 *Consumi alimentari dei bambini della scuola primaria. Analisi e ricerca su modelli di*  
367 *intervento per la prevenzione dell'obesità e sovrappeso, 2011-2012).*

368



369 **References**

- 370 Addressi, E., Galloway, A. T., Visalberghi, E., & Birch, L. L. (2005). Specific social  
371 influences on the acceptance of novel foods in 2-5 year old children. *Appetite, 45*, 264-  
372 271.
- 373 Bere, E., & Klepp, K.N. (2005). Changes in accessibility and preferences predict children's  
374 future fruit and vegetable intake. *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and*  
375 *Physical Activity, 2*, 15.
- 376 Birch, L.L. (1992). Children's preferences for high-fat foods. *Nutrition Review, 50*, 249-252.
- 377 Birch, L. L., & Fisher, J. P. (1998). Development of eating behaviors among children and  
378 adolescents. *Pediatrics, 101*, 539-549.
- 379 Birch, L.L., (1999). Development of food preferences. *The Annual Review of Nutrition, 19*,  
380 41-62.
- 381 Cashdan, E. (1994). A sensitive period for learning about food. *Human Nature, 5*, 279-291.
- 382 Centre for Disease Control and Prevention/National Centre for Health Statistics (2000). *CDC*  
383 *growth charts: The United States*. Hyattsville: Department of Health and Human  
384 Services.
- 385 Cooke, L. J., Wardle, J., & Gibson, E. L. (2003). Relationship between parental report of food  
386 neophobia and everyday food consumption in 2-6 year old children. *Appetite, 41*, 205-  
387 206.
- 388 Cooke, L.J., Wardle, J., Gibson, E.L., Sapochnik, M., Sheiham, A., Lawson, M. (2004).  
389 Demographic, familial and trait predictors of fruit and vegetable consumption by  
390 preschool children. *Public Health Nutrition, 7*, 295-302.
- 391 Cooke, L.J., & Wardle, J. (2005). Age and gender differences in children's food preferences.  
392 *British Journal of Nutrition, 93*, 741-746.

393 Cooke, L. J., Carnell, S., & Wardle, J. (2006). Food neophobia and mealtime food  
394 consumption in 4-5 year old children. *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition  
395 and Physical Activity*, 6, 3-14.

396 Coulthard H., & Blissett, J. (2009) Fruit and vegetable consumption in children and their  
397 mothers. Moderating effects of child sensory sensitivity. *Appetite*, 52, 410–415.

398 Dietz, W. H. (1998). Childhood weight affects adult morbidity and mortality. *The Journal of  
399 Nutrition*, 128 (2), 411S-414S.

400 Dovey, T. M., Staples, P. A., Gibson, E. L., & Halford, J. C. G. (2008). Food neophobia and  
401 ‘picky/fussy’ eating in children: A review. *Appetite*, 50, 181-193.

402 Drewnowski, A. (1997). Taste preferences and food intake. *Annual Review of Nutrition*, 17,  
403 237-253.

404 Falciglia, G. A., Couch, S. C., Gribble, L. S., Pabst, S. M., & Frank, R. (2000). Food  
405 neophobia in childhood affects dietary variety. *Journal of American Dietetic  
406 Association*, 100, 1474-1478.

407 Feeney, E.L., O’Brien, S.A., Scannell, A.G.M., Markey, A., Gibney, E.R. (2014) Genetic and  
408 environmental influences on liking and reported intakes of vegetables in Irish children.  
409 *Food Quality & Preference*, 32, 253-263.

410 Forestell, A. C., Mennella, J. A. (2007). Early Determinants of Fruit and Vegetable  
411 Acceptance. *Pediatrics*, 120, 1247-1254.

412 Frank, R. A. & van der Klaauw, N.J. (1994). The Contribution of Chemosensory Factors to  
413 Individual Differences in Reported Food Preferences. *Appetite*, 22, 101-123.

414 Galloway, A. T., Lee, Y., & Birch, L. L. (2003). Predictors and consequences of food  
415 neophobia and pickiness in young girls. *Journal of American Dietetic Association*, 103,  
416 692-698.

417 Gortmaker, S.L., Swinburn, B., Levy, D., Carter, R., Mabry, P.L., Finegood, D., Huang, T.,  
418 Marsh, T., & Moodie, M. (2011). Changing the Future of Obesity: Science, Policy and  
419 Action. *Lancet*, 378(9793): 838–847.

420 Hill, C., Wardle, J., & Cooke, L. (2009). Adiposity is not associated with children’s reported  
421 liking for selected foods. *Appetite*, 52, 603-608.

422 Horne, P.J., Greenhalgh, J., Erjavec, M., Lowe, C.F., Viktor, S., & Whitaker, C.J. (2011).  
423 Increasing pre-school children’s consumption of fruit and vegetables. A modelling and  
424 rewards intervention. *Appetite*, 56, 375–385.

425 Knaapila, A., Silventoinen, K., Broms, U., Rose, R. J., Perola, M., Kaprio, J., Tuorila, H. M.  
426 (2011). Food neophobia in young adults: genetic architecture and relation to  
427 personality, pleasantness and use frequency of foods, and body mass index—a twin  
428 study. *Journal of Behaviour Genetic*, 41, 512–521.

429 Koivisto-Hursti, U. K., & Sjöden, P. O. (1996). Food and general neophobia in Swedish  
430 families: parent–child comparisons and relationships with serving specific foods.  
431 *Appetite*, 26,107-118.

432 Koivisto-Hursti, U. K., & Sjöden, P. O. (1997). Food and general neophobia and their  
433 relationship with self-reported food choice: familial resemblance in Swedish families  
434 with children of ages of 7-17 years. *Appetite*, 29, 89-103.

435 Loewen, R. & Pliner, P. (1999). Effects of prior exposure to palatable and unpalatable novel  
436 foods on children’s willingness to taste other novel foods. *Appetite*, 32, 351–366.

437 Lohman, T. G., Roche, A. F., & Martorel, R. (1988). *Anthropometric standardization*  
438 *reference manual*. Champagne: Human Kinetics Books.

439 Mata, J., Scheibehenne, B., & Todd, P.M. (2007). Predicting children’s meal preferences:  
440 How much do parents know? *Appetite*, 50(2-3), 367-375.

441 Ministero della Salute. *Okkio alla salute survey*. Version current 2012. URL:  
442 <https://www.okkioallasalute.it/?q=node/74>.

443 Mustonen, S., & Tuorila, H. (2010). Sensory education decreases food neophobia score and  
444 encourages trying unfamiliar foods in 8–12-year-old children. *Food Quality and*  
445 *Preference*, *21*, 353–360.

446 Nicklaus, S., Boggio, V., Chabanet, C., & Issanchou, S. (2005). A prospective study of food  
447 variety seeking in childhood, adolescence and early adult life. *Appetite*, *44*, 289-297.

448 Pagliarini, E., Gabbiadini, N., Ratti, S. (2005). Consumer testing with children on food  
449 combinations for school lunch. *Food Quality and Preference*, *16*, 131-138.

450 Pagliarini, E., Ratti, S., Balzaretto, C., & Dragoni, I. (2003). Evaluation of a hedonic scaling  
451 method for measuring the acceptability of school lunches by children. *Italian Journal*  
452 *of Food Science*, *15*(2), 215–224.

453 Pelchat, M. L., & Pliner, P. (1995). “Try it. You’ll like it”: Effects of information on  
454 willingness to try novel foods. *Appetite*, *24*, 153-166.

455 Pérez-Rodrigo, C., Ribas, L., Serra-Majem, L., & Aranceta, J. (2003). Food preferences of  
456 Spanish children and young people: the enKid study. *European Journal of Clinical*  
457 *Nutrition*, *57*, 45–48.

458 Pilgrim, F.J., Kamen, J.M. (1963). Predictors of human food consumption. *Science*, *139*, 501-  
459 502.

460 Pliner, P., & Hobden, K. (1992). Development of a scale to measure the trait of food  
461 neophobia in humans. *Appetite*, *19*, 105-120.

462 Pliner, P. (1994). Development of measures of food neophobia in children. *Appetite*,  
463 *23*(2), 147-63.

464 Pliner, P. & Loewen, E. R. (1997). Temperament and food neophobia in children and their  
465 mothers. *Appetite*, *28*(3), 239-254.

- 466 Pliner, P., Salvy, S. J. (2006). The psychology of food choice. In Shepherd, R., & Raats, M.  
467 (eds.), *Food neophobia in humans* (pp. 75-92). Wallingford.
- 468 Rigal, N., Frelut, M. L., Monneuse, M. O., Hladik, C. M., Simmen, B., & Pasquet, P. (2006).  
469 Food neophobia in the context of varied diet induced by weight reduction program in  
470 massively obese adolescents. *Appetite*, *46*, 207-214.
- 471 Russell, C. G., Worsley, A. (2008). A Population-based Study of Preschoolers' Food  
472 Neophobia and Its Associations with Food Preferences. *Journal of Nutrition Education  
473 and Behavior*, *40*, 11-19
- 474 Sandhu, J., Ben-Shlomo J., Cole, T. J., Holly, J., & Smith, G. D. (2006). The impact of  
475 childhood body mass index on timing of puberty, adult stature and obesity: a follow-up  
476 study based on adolescent anthropometry recorded at Christ's Hospital (1936-1964).  
477 *International Journal of Obesity*, *30*, 14-22.
- 478 Skinner, J. D., Carruth, B. R., Bounds, W., & Ziegler, P. J. (2002). Children's food  
479 preferences: a longitudinal analysis. *Journal of American Dietetic Association*,  
480 *102*(11), 1638-1647.
- 481 Tuorila, H., Lähteenmäki, L., Pohjalainen, L., & Lotti, L. (2001). Food neophobia among the  
482 Finns and related responses to familiar and unfamiliar foods. *Food Quality and  
483 Preference*, *12*, 29-37.
- 484 Van Duyn, M. A. S., & Pivonka, E. (2000). Overview of the health benefits of fruit and  
485 vegetable consumption for the dietetics professional: selected literature. *Journal of the  
486 American Dietetic Association*, *100*, 1511-1521.
- 487 Wardle, J., Carnell, S., & Cooke, L. (2005). Parental control over feeding and children's fruit  
488 and vegetable intake: how are they related? *Journal of the American Dietetic  
489 Association*, *105*, 227-232.

- 490 WHO, World Health Organization (2012). Population-based approaches to childhood obesity  
491 prevention. WHO Document Production Services, Geneva, Switzerland.
- 492 Zalilah, M. S., Khor, G. L., Mirmalini, K., & Sarina, S. (2005). Food neophobia and nutritional  
493 outcomes in primary school-children. *Journal of Community Nutrition*, 7(3), 121-129.

494 **Table 1:** Children’s characteristic and association with age (Statistical differences between groups were determined by using the  $\chi^2$  test).

495

Variable		Age (Years)										496
		TOTAL		6		7		8		9		p Value
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
<b>Gender</b>	Boys	267	50.6%	70	50.7%	91	52.0%	70	51.5%	36	45.6%	0.806
	Girls	261	49.4%	68	49.3%	84	48.0%	66	48.5%	43	54.4%	
<b>BMI Classes</b>	Underweight	8	1.5%	2	1.4%	4	2.3%	1	0.7%	1	1.3%	0.763
	Normal weight	369	69.9%	95	68.8%	127	72.6%	97	71.3%	50	63.3%	
	Overweight	132	25.0%	37	26.8%	36	20.6%	34	25.0%	25	31.6%	
	Obese	19	3.6%	4	2.9%	8	4.6%	4	2.9%	3	3.8%	
<b>Ethnicity</b>	Caucasian	500	94.7%	130	94.2%	167	95.4%	133	97,8%	70	88.6%	0.22
	Other	28	5.3%	8	5.8%	8	4.6%	3	2.2%	9	11.4%	

497 **Table 2.** Mean food neophobia scores and standard error of the mean (SEM) by school, age  
 498 and gender with relevant significance for each factor. Mean values with different superscripts  
 499 by column and variable are significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ) according to LSD post-hoc test.

Variable	Food neophobia		
	Mean	SEM	F-value (p-value)
<b>School</b>			F=0.19 (p=0.83)
School 1	21.2	0.4	
School 2	20.8	0.4	
School 3	21.2	0.4	
<b>Age (years)</b>			F=8.67 (p<0.0001)
6	23.2 <sup>a</sup>	0.6	
7	21.5 <sup>b</sup>	0.4	
8	20.7 <sup>b</sup>	0.5	
9	18.8 <sup>c</sup>	0.6	
<b>Gender</b>			F=4.82 (p<0.03)
Boys	21.6 <sup>a</sup>	0.4	
Girls	20.5 <sup>b</sup>	0.4	
<b>Gender by Age</b>			F=0.77 (p<0.51)
Boys 6 y	24.1	0.8	
Boys 7 y	22.5	0.6	
Boys 8 y	20.9	0.6	
Boys 9 y	19.0	0.9	
Girls 6 y	22.4	0.8	
Girls 7 y	20.5	0.6	
Girls 8 y	20.5	0.7	
Girls 9 y	18.6	0.8	

500

501



502 **Table 3.** Mean liking scores and standard error of the mean (SEM) by school, age, gender and  
503 type of stimulus with relevant significance for each factor. Mean values with different  
504 superscripts by column and variable are significantly different ( $p<0.05$ ) according to LSD  
505 post-hoc test.  
506

Variable	Liking scores		
	Mean	SEM	F-value (p-value)
<b>School</b>			F=1.60 (p=0.20)
School 1	4.7	0.1	
School 2	4.7	0.1	
School 3	4.6	0.1	
<b>Age (years)</b>			F=6.66 (p<0.001)
6	4.8 <sup>a</sup>	0.1	
7	4.8 <sup>a</sup>	0.1	
8	4.6 <sup>a</sup>	0.1	
9	4.3 <sup>b</sup>	0.1	
<b>Gender</b>			F=0.01 (p=0.94)
Boys	4.6	0.1	
Girls	4.6	0.1	
<b>Stimulus</b>			F=154.22 (p<0.0001)
Apple	6.0 <sup>a</sup>	0.1	
Grapes	5.9 <sup>a</sup>	0.1	
Carrot	5.5 <sup>b</sup>	0.1	
Pear	5.4 <sup>b</sup>	0.1	
Miyagawa	5.0 <sup>c</sup>	0.1	
Fennel	4.3 <sup>d</sup>	0.1	
Radish	2.6 <sup>e</sup>	0.1	
Broccoli	2.4 <sup>e</sup>	0.1	
<b>Stimulus category</b>			
Fruits (overall, n=4)	5.6 <sup>a</sup>	0.1	F=814.28 (p<0.0001)
Vegetables (overall, n=4)	3.7 <sup>b</sup>	0.1	

507

508

509 **Table 4.** Pearson's correlation coefficients for BMI, food neophobia and liking of fruits and vegetables (\* significant for  $p < 0.05$ , \*\* significant  
 510 for  $p < 0.01$ ).

Variables	BMI	FN	Pear liking	Apple liking	Miyagawa liking	Grapes liking	Broccoli liking	Carrot liking	Fennel liking	Radish liking
BMI	1	-0.05	0.05	0.03	-0.01	0.00	0.00	0.05	-0.02	-0.01
Food neophobia	-0.05	1	-0.15 *	-0.16 *	-0.11	-0.11	-0.21 **	-0.28 **	-0.20 **	-0.12
Pear liking	0.05	-0.15 *	1	0.22 **	0.23 **	0.25 **	0.18 **	0.17 *	0.25 **	0.17 *
Apple liking	0.03	-0.16 *	0.22 **	1	0.28 **	0.25 **	0.24 **	0.23 **	0.21 **	0.11
Miyagawa liking	-0.01	-0.11	0.23 **	0.28 **	1	0.30 **	0.13	0.16 *	0.19 **	0.13
Grapes liking	0.00	-0.11	0.25 **	0.25 **	0.30 **	1	0.11	0.27 **	0.19 **	0.14 *
Broccoli liking	0.00	-0.21 **	0.18 **	0.24 **	0.13	0.11	1	0.18 **	0.22 **	0.40 **
Carrot liking	0.05	-0.28 **	0.17 *	0.23 **	0.16 *	0.27 **	0.18 **	1	0.41 **	0.15 *
Fennel liking	-0.02	-0.20 **	0.25 **	0.21 **	0.19 **	0.19 **	0.22 **	0.41 **	1	0.34 **
Radish liking	-0.01	-0.12	0.17 *	0.11	0.13	0.14 *	0.40 **	0.15 *	0.34 **	1

511

512

513 **Figures caption**

514

515 **Figure 1 (a-b).** PCA loadings plots (PC1 vs PC2, fig. 1a; PC2 vs PC3, fig. 1b) showing the  
516 relationship between food liking, food neophobia and BMI measurements.

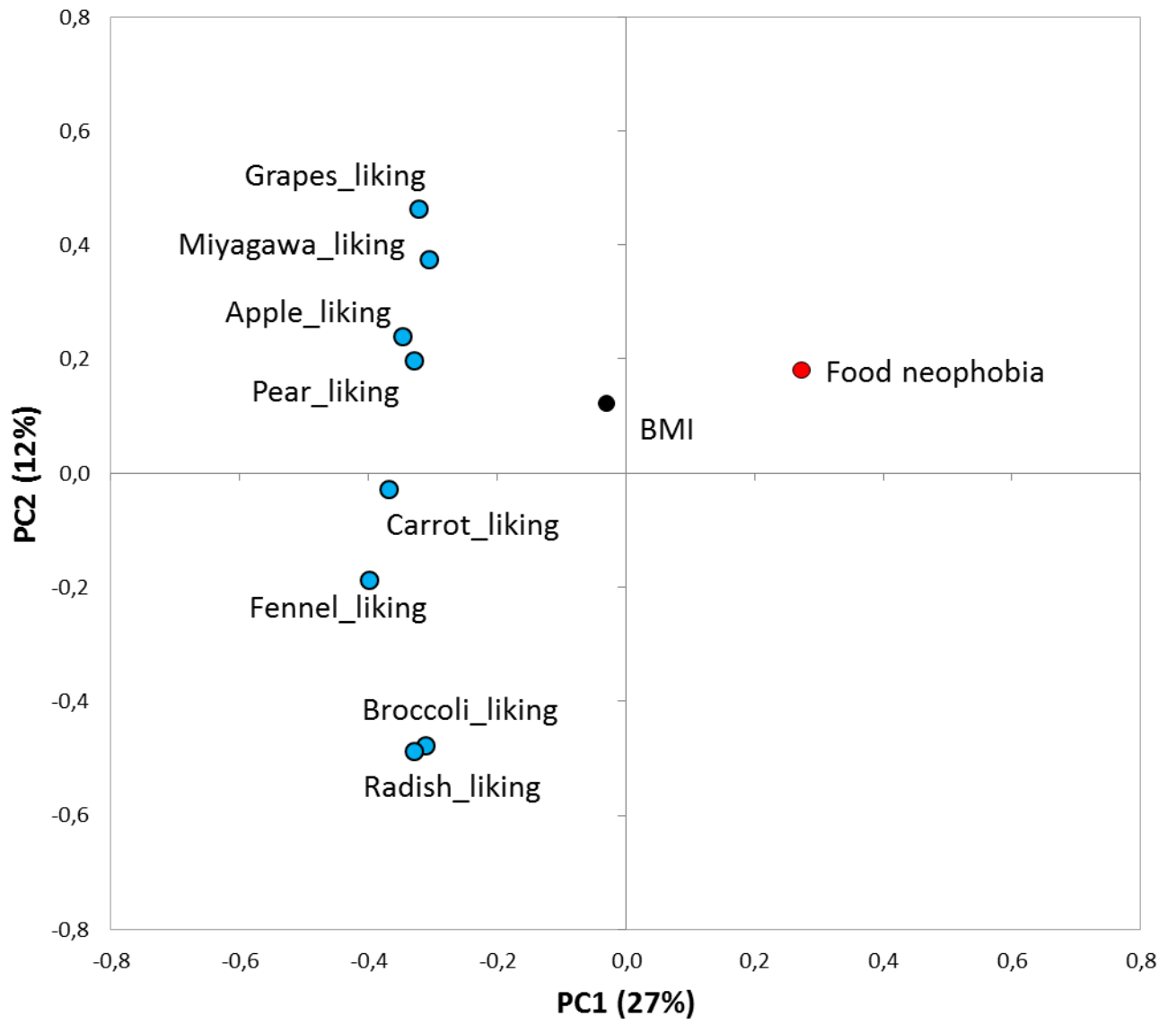
517

518 **Figure 2.** Liking measurements of fruits and vegetables according to children's food  
519 neophobia level (\*\*\*) significant for  $p < 0.001$ , n.s. not significant).

520

521 **Figure 1 (a-b).**

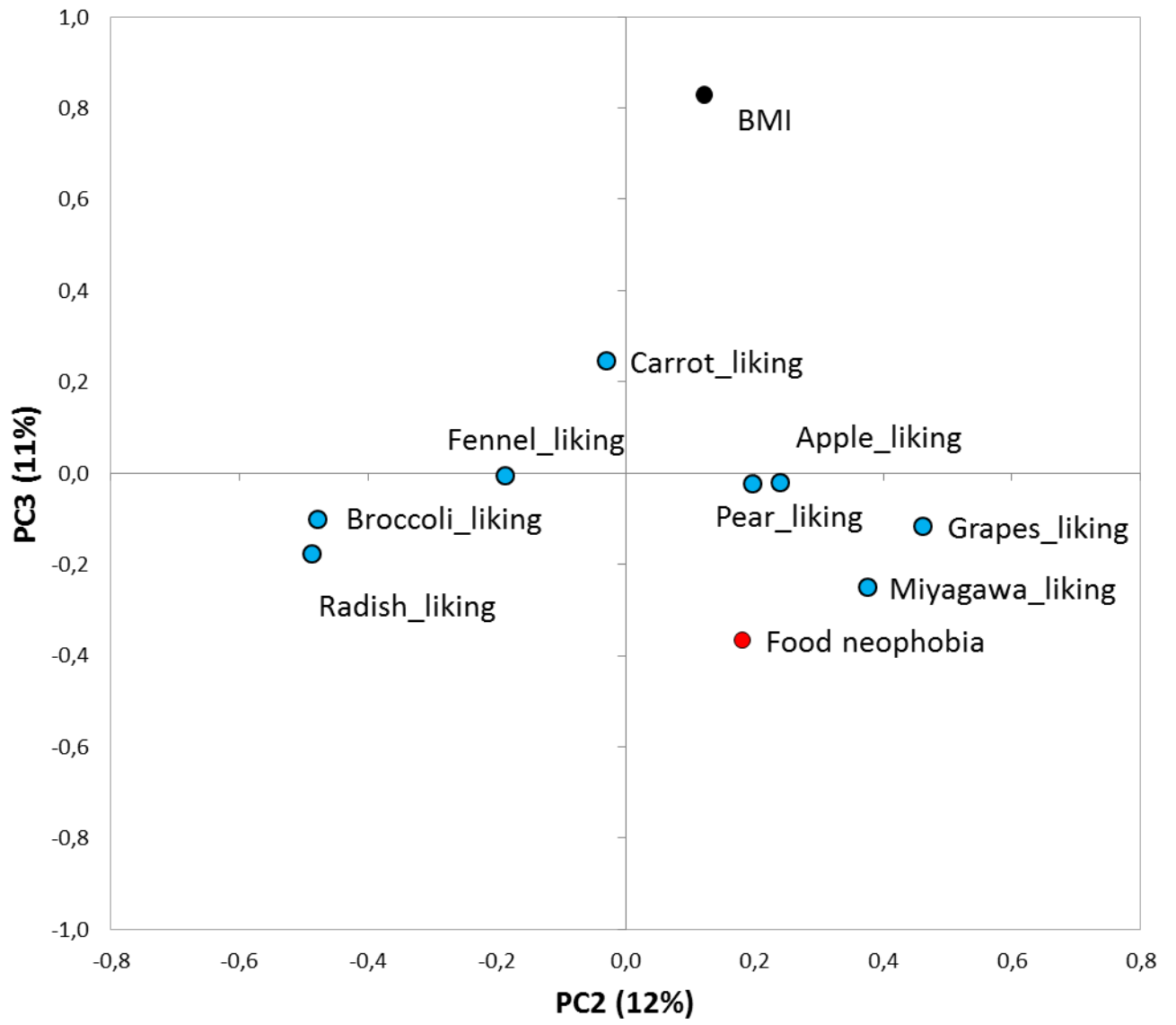
522 a)



523

524

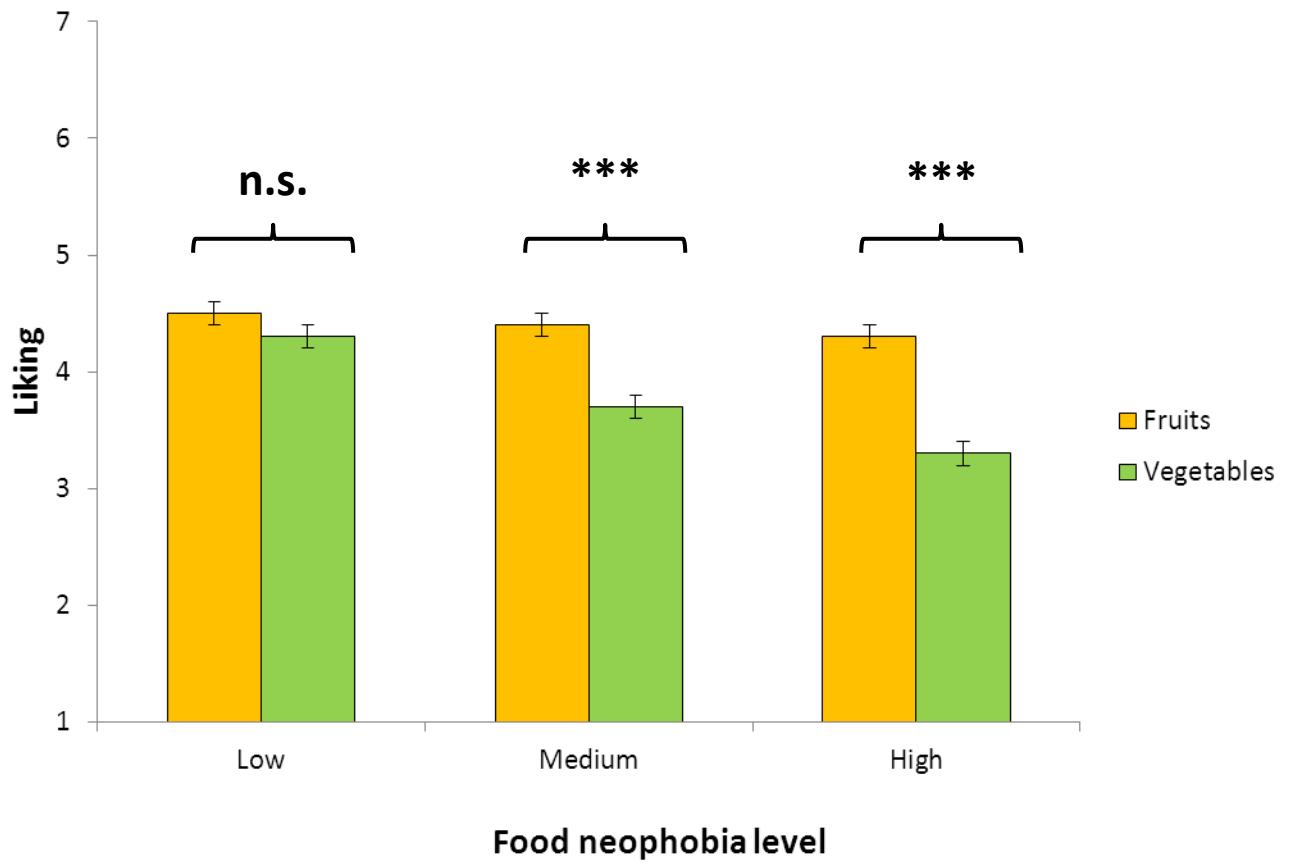
525 b)



526

527

528 Figure 2.



529

530

531

532