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1 The influence of expected satiety on portion size selection is reduced when food is presented in
2 an ‘unusual’ meal context

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Abstract

Research shows that expected satiety is highly correlated with ideal portion size, however this correspondence has not been explored when a food is presented in an ‘unusual’ (incongruous) meal context. This study’s aim was to explore whether expected satiety influences portion selection to the same extent in both congruous and incongruous meal contexts. Forty participants completed two trials (one at breakfast and one at lunch) on separate days in a randomised counterbalanced order. They completed measures of expected satiety and ideal portion size for four typical breakfast foods and four typical lunch foods, using a bespoke computer program. Our results showed a significant difference between expected satiety and ideal portion size for lunch foods presented at breakfast time (an incongruous meal context; $t_{(39)} = 2.95, p = 0.02$). There was no significant difference between expected satiety and ideal portion size in the other incongruous meal context (breakfast foods at lunch; $t_{(39)} = 2.10, p = 0.17$) or in congruous meal contexts (breakfast foods at breakfast time, lunch foods at lunch time; both $t_{(39)} \leq -0.15, p > 0.999$). These results suggest that expected satiety does not have as strong an influence on portion selection when food is presented in an unusual context. Furthermore, in such contexts, smaller portions were selected 1) to stave off hunger until the next meal and 2) as ideal portions compared to in more usual meal contexts. Research is warranted to explore this finding further to understand its implications for weight management.

Keywords: Expected satiation, expected satiety, meal planning, energy intake, portion size.

47

1. Introduction

48

Recent work has shown that expected satiety plays an important role in portion selection

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(Brunstrom, 2014; Wilkinson et al., 2012). Expected satiety can be defined as the extent to which

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a food is expected to stave off hunger. Further research has shown that expected satiety is learned

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and refined after a food has been consumed one or more times (Brunstrom, 2014; Brunstrom,

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Shakeshaft, & Alexander, 2010). This learning is important because it enables us to 1) anticipate

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the satiety that might be expected after consuming a food or portion, and 2) select appropriate

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portion sizes before a meal begins. The importance of understanding how expected satiety is

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learned is highlighted by research showing that it is highly correlated with ideal portion size

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(Wilkinson et al., 2012) and that (pre-meal) portion selection is an excellent predictor of

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subsequent energy intake at a meal (Brunstrom, 2014; Fay et al., 2011).

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Pre-meal food selection is somewhat constrained by another learned factor – the meal

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context. For example, foods regularly eaten for lunch, and not at other meals, are considered

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‘lunch foods’, eaten at ‘lunch time’. Furthermore, meals throughout the day tend to differ in their

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typical size, e.g., in the UK, breakfast is a typically smaller meal (in terms of energy) than lunch

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(Clayton et al., 2016). Based on this, it is possible that a food’s expected satiety is learned and

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thus expressed in a specific meal context. A question, currently unanswered, that arises from this

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is: does expected satiety play a similar role (if any) in influencing portion selection when

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selecting a food portion in an incongruous meal context (e.g., pasta at breakfast time) compared

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to in a congruous meal context (e.g., pasta at lunch time)? Various findings bring credence to the

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possibility that context can moderate the role of expected satiety. For example, a study found that

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when choosing a food to consume, the influence of expected satiety on food choice was reduced

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in a context where only one bite of the selected food could be eaten, compared to a context

70 where unlimited food could be eaten with the knowledge that the next meal would be in around 6
71 hours' time (Brunstrom et al., 2016). Further work has also shown that portion size selection is
72 affected by the context of an individual's current mindset. For example, participants who ate with
73 the mindset of ensuring fullness was maintained until dinner time chose a larger portion size
74 compared to participants who could choose any portion they liked, for whatever reason (i.e., a
75 free choice context) (Hege et al., 2018). Furthermore, another study found that hunger led to
76 more positive attitudes towards foods when the attitude report was conducted in a congruous
77 meal context compared to an incongruous meal context (Aikman & Crites, 2005).

78 In this study, the context of interest was the specific mealtime at which a food is
79 consumed and the congruency of the food to the mealtime (food-to-mealtime congruency). In
80 incongruous meal contexts, we anticipated a difference between portions (in energy content)
81 selected to stave off hunger and those selected as ideal, whereas in congruous meal contexts we
82 anticipated a similarity between portions selected to stave off hunger and those selected as ideal.
83 Furthermore, we also wanted to explore whether the portion that is expected to stave off hunger
84 until the next meal changes depending on whether the food is presented in a congruous or
85 incongruous meal context. In order to investigate these ideas, we asked participants to select a
86 portion (for eight different foods, in turn) that best matched 1) the portion they perceived would
87 stave off hunger until their next meal (expected satiety), and, in a separate task, 2) their ideal
88 portion size (i.e., a free choice selection based on their current motivational state). They
89 completed these measures at breakfast time and lunch time on separate days. The relative role of
90 expected satiety in governing portion selection was determined by comparing expected satiety
91 and ideal portion size in congruous (breakfast foods at breakfast time, and lunch foods at lunch

92 time) and incongruous (breakfast foods at lunch time and lunch foods at breakfast time) meal
93 contexts.

94 This research aims to provide initial evidence about the relative role of expected satiety in
95 governing portion selection in congruous and incongruous meal contexts, and the impact this
96 might have on overall meal size. These findings are important in order to inform policymakers,
97 weight management practitioners and food manufacturers as to whether eating foods in unusual
98 meal contexts is beneficial or detrimental to acute energy intake and, ultimately, to supporting
99 healthy weight management.

100

101

2. Methods

102 2.1. Overview

103 This study used a repeated measures, crossed factors design. Participants were asked to
104 take part in two trials: breakfast time (08:00 h) and lunch time (13:00 h), on separate days in a
105 randomised counterbalanced order. Appetite measures (subjective feelings as well as measures of
106 expected satiety and ideal portion size) were obtained using a bespoke computer program
107 (written by J.M.B. in Visual Basic 6.0 (Microsoft Inc.)). Ethics was granted by the
108 Loughborough University Ethics Approvals (Human Participants) Sub-Committee and
109 participants gave informed consent before taking part in the study.

110 2.2. Participants

111 Although *a priori* research questions were established, this study was exploratory.
112 Therefore, a suitable sample size was determined by considering previous similar studies
113 exploring expected satiety. Irvine et al. (2013) recruited 44 participants to explore whether
114 expected satiety scores changed across two conditions. Using a repeated (within) measures

115 ANOVA, a medium effect size ($r = 0.38$) change in expected satiety scores was found, with 99%
116 statistical power. Wilkinson et al. (2012) recruited 30 participants and found a strong correlation
117 ($r = 0.60$) between expected satiety and ideal portion size, with 96% statistical power. Thus, we
118 determined that a sample size of 40 was appropriate for our study as a power calculation
119 (G*Power 3.1; Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007), using an α of 0.05 and a β of 0.2,
120 indicated that this sample would provide statistical power to detect medium to large effect sizes
121 in our analyses.

122 Both male and female participants, aged over 18 years, were recruited via the university
123 Participant Recruitment Scheme (whereby student participants received course credit in return
124 for their participation) and through opportunity sampling. Menstrual cycle phase was not
125 standardised for female participants. Vegans and vegetarians were excluded from the study and
126 only individuals who habitually ate breakfast (at least 5 days a week) were recruited. Participants
127 were told that breakfast is defined as “the first meal of the day, consumed within 2 h of waking”
128 (Clayton & James, 2016). To ensure hunger was controlled, participants were asked to refrain
129 from eating for 12 h prior to the breakfast trial, and for 4 h prior to the lunch trial (fasting periods
130 used in previous research; Clayton, Stensel & James, 2016). Participants were also asked to
131 avoid caffeine 12 h prior to each session and to refrain from exercise on the day of each test
132 session and for 24 h prior to each test day.

133 **2.3. Materials**

134 Participants completed portion-size selection tasks to assess appetite measures using a
135 bespoke computer program which presented pictures of eight different test foods presented to the
136 participants in a randomised order [Table 1]. These foods were selected because they are
137 regularly consumed in the UK for breakfasts and lunches and are considered to be congruous for

138 these mealtimes. The congruency of the test food to the mealtime was verbally confirmed with
 139 participants before completing the first computer task.

140 Table 1.

141 The eight test foods (and manufacturer) used in the computer-based trial.

Breakfast foods	Energy density (kcal/g)	Lunch foods	Energy density (kcal/g)
Porridge (Quaker)	3.74	Beef lasagne & peas (Sainsbury's)	1.44
Rice Krispies* (Kellogg's)	3.87	Spaghetti Bolognese (Sainsbury's)	1.41
Special K* (Kellogg's)	3.75	Chicken Salad (Sainsbury's)	0.98
Cheerios* (Kellogg's)	3.80	Fish, chips & peas (Bird's Eye)	1.72

142 * A semi-skimmed milk portion (200 ml, energy density = 0.5 kcal/g) was presented in a glass
 143 and remained unchanged in portion size at the back right of the photo.

144

145 For each meal, a set of photographs were taken using a high-resolution digital camera.

146 Each meal was photographed on the same white plate or transparent glass bowl with a consistent

147 lighting and viewing angle in each photograph. Each meal was photographed between 40-70

148 times depending on the total amount of food that could be positioned on the plate or in the bowl.

149 Each picture depicted a 20-kcal increase in the portion. These images were loaded into a bespoke

150 computer program written in Visual Basic (Microsoft Inc.). Participants were asked to increase or

151 decrease the size of the portion using the left and right arrow keys on the keyboard. Depression

152 of an arrow key caused the size to increase or decrease such that the change in portion appeared

153 animated. This validated, psychophysical method of adjustment has been used in previous

154 studies to quantify expected satiety and ideal portion size (Brunstrom, Brown, Hinton, Rogers, &

155 Fay, 2011; Brunstrom et al., 2010; Brunstrom & Shakeshaft, 2009; Oldham-Cooper, Wilkinson,
156 Hardman, Rogers, & Brunstrom, 2017; Wilkinson et al., 2012).

157 **2.4. Measures**

158 **2.4.1. Demographics.** Participants were asked to complete an online questionnaire in
159 their own time 1-7 d prior to starting the study. This questionnaire collected information on the
160 participant's sex, age, and dietary and eating behaviour traits (assessed via Three Factor Eating
161 Questionnaire; TFEQ, Stunkard & Messick, 1985). Height, weight and body composition (via
162 bioelectrical impedance) data were also taken at the end of the study (Tanita BC-418, Arlington
163 Heights, IL).

164 **2.4.2. Hunger.** Hunger was assessed using a digitally presented 100-mm visual-analogue
165 rating scale (VAS). Participants were asked: "How hungry do you feel right now?" They
166 indicated their current state from "Not at all" (0) to "Extremely" (100) by moving a cursor along
167 a line.

168 **2.4.3. Expected satiety and ideal portion size (method of adjustment).** Based on
169 previous research (Wilkinson et al., 2012), expected satiety was assessed by asking participants:
170 "How much would you need to eat to stop feeling hungry until your next meal? Imagine you are
171 offered this food right now and this is the only food available. Use the arrows [on the keyboard]
172 to show how much you would need to eat to stop you feeling hungry until your next meal (lunch
173 or dinner)." For ideal portion size, participants were asked: "What would be your ideal portion
174 size right now? Imagine you are offered this food right now and this is the only food available
175 until your next meal (lunch or dinner). Use the arrows [on the keyboard] to show how much you
176 would select right now." These tasks were completed for all eight test foods.

177 **2.4.4. Liking and desire to eat.** Participants rated their liking for and desire to eat each
178 test food in turn using a digitally presented 100-mm VAS. A picture of a 400-kcal portion of each
179 food was presented on the computer screen below the VAS. The liking scale was headed: “How
180 much do you like the taste of this food?” The left-hand end of each scale was anchored with the
181 words “I hate it” (0) and the right-hand end was anchored with “I love it” (100). The desire to eat
182 scale was headed: “How much would you like to eat this food right now?” The left-hand end of
183 each scale was anchored with the words “Not at all” (0) and the right-hand end was anchored
184 with “Extremely” (100). These tasks were completed for all eight test foods.

185 **2.5. Procedure**

186 Participants who expressed an interest in participating in the study were emailed a link to
187 an online information pack presented using the Online Surveys Platform (onlinesurveys.ac.uk).
188 From here, participants read the information sheet, gave their consent to participate by ticking a
189 box on the online form, before completing the demographics questionnaire.

190 Participants completed the trials in one of two ways: either on a computer in the
191 laboratory (n = 30) or remotely by online video call and screen-share software (n = 10). For
192 participants completing the study at the laboratory, they were seated at a computer upon arrival
193 and reminded of the procedure before starting the computer program. Firstly, participants were
194 asked to indicate their hunger levels using the method outlined above. Each of the eight test
195 foods was then presented in turn. For each test food, participants provided a measure of liking,
196 desire to eat, expected satiety and ideal portion size. Participants were free to leave the
197 laboratory after completing all measures. Each trial lasted no longer than 30 minutes.
198 Participants returned for the second trial after a minimum of one day and a maximum of seven
199 days. At the end of the second trial, participants had their height, weight and body composition

200 measured via bioelectrical impedance machine and a demand awareness check was conducted
201 (no participants were aware of the study's aims).

202 For participants completing the study remotely, participants logged on to an online video
203 call and screen-share service on their computer (Skype for Business, Microsoft, US). When
204 participants had accepted the video call, initiated by the researcher, they were reminded of the
205 procedure before the researcher shared and gave control of the computer screen to the
206 participant. The participants then completed the computer program as detailed above. At the end
207 of the second trial, participants self-reported their height and weight via Skype Messenger, and
208 BMI was subsequently calculated by the researcher.

209 **2.6. Data analysis**

210 Data were analysed using SPSS V24 software (SPSS Inc.). In all analyses, estimates of
211 expected satiety and ideal portion size were converted to kcal (the energy content of the food in
212 the selected picture; for the cereal-based breakfast foods this included the milk portion). From
213 the four breakfast foods and four lunch foods, two aggregated food groups were created
214 (breakfast foods and lunch foods) by averaging the values from the four breakfast foods and four
215 lunch foods, respectively. All analyses on expected satiety, ideal portion size, liking and desire to
216 eat data were conducted on the two aggregated food group scores unless otherwise stated. The
217 two aggregated food groups and the two mealtimes (breakfast time and lunch time), created four
218 meal contexts that were either congruous (breakfast foods at breakfast time; lunch foods at lunch
219 time) or incongruous (breakfast foods at lunch time; lunch foods at breakfast time). Visual
220 analogue scale rating scores were calculated automatically by the computer in mm. Significance
221 was accepted at $p < 0.05$ unless otherwise stated. All data was checked for normality using a
222 Shapiro-Wilk test and analyses were either parametric or non-parametric. As data analyses were

223 both parametric and non-parametric, r -values were calculated from F -, Z - and t -values to show
224 effect sizes using equations by Rosenthal (1994); effect size benchmarks were determined as
225 small ($r = |0.1|$), medium ($r = |0.3|$) and large ($r = |0.5|$) (Cohen, 1992). All data are presented as
226 means and standard deviations unless otherwise stated.

227 To test our main hypothesis regarding the influence of expected satiety on portion size
228 selection in congruous and incongruous meal contexts, a 3-way (2x2x2) ANOVA was used. This
229 analysis allowed us to explore the interaction between average expected satiety and average ideal
230 portion size (2 levels) across mealtimes (by 2 levels; breakfast time and lunch time) and food
231 groups (by 2 levels; breakfast foods and lunch foods). To explore a 3-way significant interaction
232 further, planned *post hoc* paired-samples t -tests were conducted subsequently to compare
233 average expected satiety scores with average ideal portion size scores in each food-to-mealtime
234 context. As four *post hoc* t -tests were conducted, we corrected for the increased likelihood of
235 Type 1 error by accepting a critical α value of $p = 0.0125$, calculated via the Bonferroni
236 method. All p -values for the four *post hoc* t -tests are presented with the Bonferroni correction
237 applied. It was deemed appropriate to include two different measures in a 3-way ANOVA since
238 they are scaled similarly and the method to collect the data is also similar. Furthermore,
239 associations between expected satiety and ideal portion size, and their respective correlation with
240 liking and desire to eat, in each food-to-mealtime context were assessed. Kendall's tau was used
241 to produce the correlation coefficients as these data were not normally distributed ($W_{(88)} \geq 0.843$,
242 $p \geq 0.0005$). Subsequently, the significant difference between correlation coefficients was
243 calculated by transforming r -values to Z -scores using Fisher's r -to- z transformation, before
244 Steiger's (1980) Equations 3 and 10 were used to compute the asymptotic covariance of the
245 estimates.

246 To explore the effect of congruency on expected satiety and ideal portion size
247 (separately), pairwise *t*-tests were used to compare the average total portion selected by each
248 participant in congruous (breakfast foods at breakfast time + lunch foods at lunch time) and
249 incongruous (breakfast foods at lunch time + lunch foods at breakfast time) meal contexts. To
250 analyse the influence of food group, mealtimes and food-to-mealtime congruency on liking,
251 desire to eat, ideal portion size and expected satiety separately, the main effects and interactions
252 were explored using a repeated measures 2x2 ANOVA.

253

254

3. Results

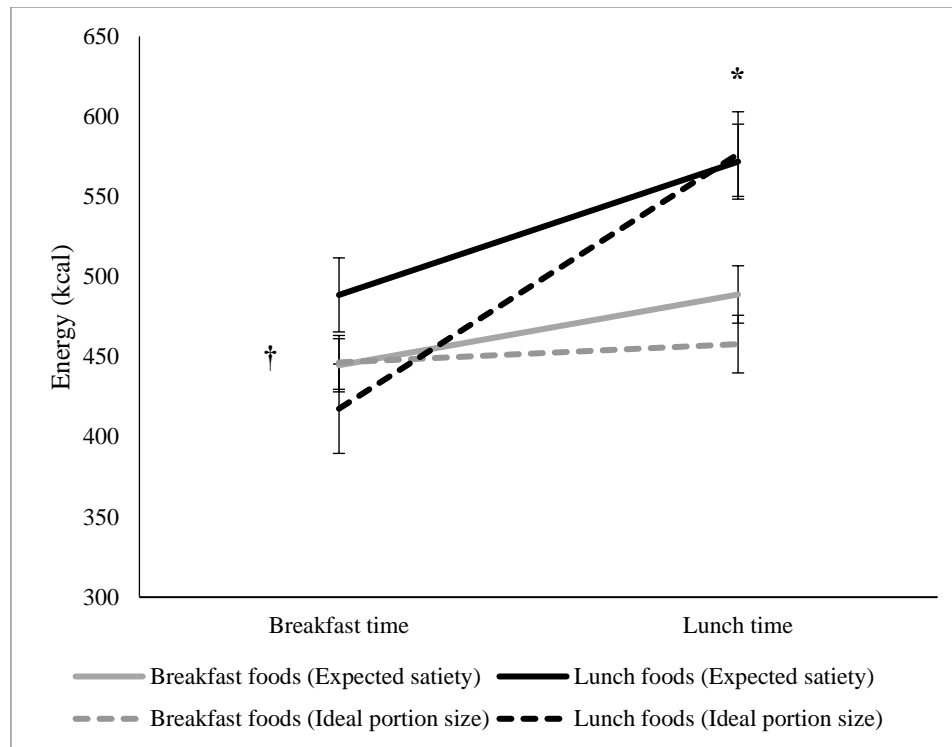
3.1. Participant characteristics

256 Forty participants (20 female, 20 male; age = 29.1 ± 14.3 y; BMI = 23.0 ± 14.3 kg/m²)
257 took part in the study. Participants had mean TFEQ scores of 7.5 ± 4.7 (restraint), 6.2 ± 3.3
258 (disinhibition) and 5.4 ± 3.3 (hunger).

3.2. Baseline hunger

260 Baseline hunger did not differ significantly between breakfast time and lunch time,
261 (breakfast time = 65.0 ± 19.3 mm; lunch time = 72.2 ± 17.8 mm; $Z = -1.86$, $p = 0.063$, $r = |0.21|$).

262



263

264 *Figure 1.* Mean (\pm SEM) meal size (kcal) scores for expected satiety and ideal portion size for
 265 breakfast foods and lunch foods (food group) at breakfast time and lunch time (mealtimes).

266 † Significant difference between average expected satiety and ideal portion size scores for lunch
 267 foods at breakfast ($p = 0.02$).

268 * Larger portions selected at lunch time compared to breakfast time for average expected satiety
 269 ($p = 0.002$) and ideal portion size scores ($p < 0.001$).

270

271 3.3. Expected satiety and ideal portion size comparison

272 Figure 1. shows average expected satiety and average ideal portion size scores in each
 273 meal context. The 3-way ANOVA (between expected satiety and ideal portion size across the
 274 mealtimes and food groups) revealed a significant interaction ($F_{(1,39)} = 10.22, p = 0.003, r = |0.46|$).
 275 To explore this interaction, paired samples t -tests found that for lunch foods presented at breakfast
 276 time (an incongruous meal context) ideal portion size was significantly smaller than expected

277 satiety ($t_{(39)} = 2.95, p = 0.02, r = |0.43|$). However, there was no significant difference for breakfast
 278 foods presented at lunch time (the other incongruous meal context) ($t_{(39)} = 2.10, p = 0.17, r = |0.32|$).
 279 There was also no significant difference found between expected satiety and ideal portion size for
 280 the two congruous meal contexts of breakfast foods at breakfast time ($t_{(39)} = -0.15, p > 0.999, r =$
 281 $|0.02|$) and lunch foods at lunch time ($t_{(39)} = -0.23, p > 0.999, r = |0.04|$).

282 3.4. Associations between liking, desire to eat, expected satiety and ideal portion size

283 A Kendall's tau analysis revealed that expected satiety and ideal portion size were
 284 correlated in each of the four meal contexts. A large effect size was found in the congruous meal
 285 contexts and a medium effect size was found in the incongruous food-to-mealtime contexts
 286 [Table 2]. Although congruency somewhat influenced the strength of the correlation, Steiger's
 287 calculations revealed that there was no significant difference between correlation coefficients for
 288 any meal context comparison ($Z \leq 1.29, p \geq 0.173$). No other variable significantly correlated
 289 with ideal portion size in all meal contexts or as strongly as expected satiety [Table 2].

290 Table 2.

291 Correlations (r) between expected satiety and ideal portion size and their respective
 292 correlation with liking and desire to eat, in each meal context.

Relationship	Breakfast foods at breakfast time	Breakfast foods at lunch time	Lunch foods at breakfast time	Lunch foods at lunch time
IP - ES	0.544***	0.485***	0.384**	0.564***
IP - DTE	0.217*	0.113	0.199	0.247*
IP - LIKING	0.277*	0.234*	0.154	0.220*
ES - DTE	0.183	0.131	0.142	0.194
ES - LIKING	0.308**	0.163	0.193	0.157

293 *** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; IP = Ideal portion size; ES = Expected satiety; DTE =
294 Desire to eat.

295

296 3.5. Expected satiety

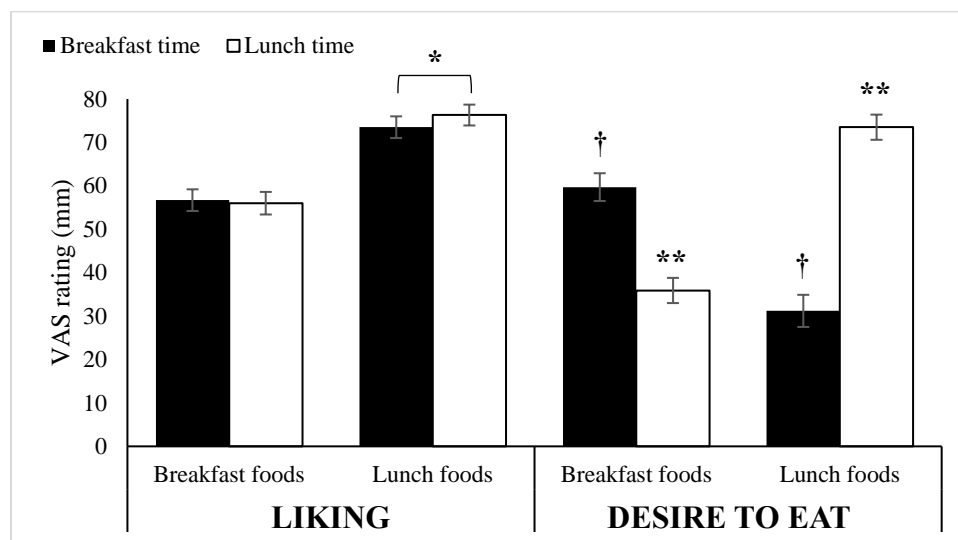
297 Figure 1. shows the average expected satiety scores for breakfast foods and lunch foods at
298 breakfast time and lunch time. The 2x2 ANOVA revealed that a larger portion size was chosen to
299 stave off hunger at lunch time (530 ± 131 kcal) compared to breakfast time (467 ± 126 kcal; $F_{(1, 39)} = 11.19, p = 0.002, r = |0.47|$). Overall, lunch food portions were larger than breakfast food
300 portions (lunch foods = 530 ± 147 kcal; breakfast foods = 467 ± 109 kcal; $F_{(1, 39)} = 12.47, p =$
301 $0.001, r = |0.49|$). A significant interaction between food groups and mealtimes ($F_{(1, 39)} = 4.59, p$
302 $= 0.038, r = |0.32|$) indicated that the portion size selected to stave off hunger until the next meal
303 increased from breakfast time to lunch time to a greater extent for lunch foods (change = 17.0%;
304 breakfast time = 489 ± 146 kcal; lunch time = 572 ± 148 kcal) compared to breakfast foods
305 (change = 9.9%; breakfast time = 445 ± 105 kcal; lunch time = 489 ± 146 kcal). Moreover,
306 participants chose a smaller overall portion to stave off hunger until the next meal in the
307 incongruous meal contexts (489 ± 101 kcal), compared to congruous meal contexts (508 ± 99
308 kcal) (kcal difference = 19 kcal; $t_{(39)} = -2.14, p = 0.039, r = |0.32|$).

310 3.6. Ideal portion size

311 Figure 1. shows the average ideal portion size scores for breakfast foods and lunch foods
312 at breakfast time and lunch time. The 2x2 ANOVA revealed that ideal portion size was
313 significantly larger at lunch time (517 ± 140 kcal) compared to breakfast time (432 ± 141 kcal;
314 $F_{(1, 39)} = 18.17, p < 0.001, r = |0.56|$). Furthermore, ideal portion size was larger for lunch foods
315 (497 ± 172 kcal) than for breakfast foods (452 ± 110 kcal; $F_{(1, 39)} = 5.101, p < 0.030, r = |0.34|$).

316 A significant interaction between food groups and mealtimes ($F_{(1, 39)} = 18.28, p < 0.001, r =$
 317 $|0.56|$) indicated that ideal portion size increased to a greater extent from breakfast time to lunch
 318 time for lunch foods (change = +38.0%; breakfast time = 418 ± 177 kcal; lunch time = 577 ± 167
 319 kcal) compared to breakfast foods (change = +2.5%; breakfast time = 447 ± 106 kcal; lunch time
 320 = 458 ± 114 kcal). Average ideal portion size was significantly smaller when the test foods were
 321 presented in incongruous meal contexts (438 ± 121 kcal), compared to congruous meal contexts
 322 (511 ± 105 kcal) (kcal difference = 74 kcal; $t_{(39)} = -4.27 p < 0.001, r = |0.56|$).

323



324

325 Figure 2. Mean (\pm SEM) ratings (mm) for liking and desire to eat the breakfast foods and lunch
 326 foods (food group) at breakfast time and lunch time (mealtimes).

327 * Lunch foods were liked significantly more than breakfast foods ($p < 0.001$).

328 ** Desire to eat was significantly higher at lunch time compared to breakfast time ($p = 0.002$).

329 † Congruous meal contexts (breakfast foods at breakfast time and lunch foods at lunch time) had
 330 significantly higher average desire to eat scores compared to the incongruous meal contexts
 331 (breakfast foods at lunch time and lunch foods at breakfast time) ($p < 0.001$).

332

333 3.7. Liking

334 Figure 2. shows that the average liking of the food groups did not differ significantly
335 between mealtimes ($F_{(1,39)} = 0.82, p = 0.372, r = |0.14|$) but that lunch foods were liked more
336 than breakfast foods ($F_{(1,39)} = 29.67, p < 0.001, r = |0.66|$). The non-significant interaction ($F_{(1,39)}$
337 $= 2.91, p = 0.096, r = |0.26|$) suggested that there was no significant difference in the change of
338 average liking scores for breakfast foods and lunch foods from breakfast time to lunch time.

339

340 3.8. Desire to eat

341 Figure 2. shows that average desire to eat scores were higher at lunch time compared to breakfast
342 time ($F_{(1,39)} = 11.49, p = 0.002, r = |0.48|$) but did not differ significantly between food groups ($F_{(1,39)}$
343 $= 1.47, p = 0.233, r = |0.19|$). The significant interaction ($F_{(1,39)} = 203.599, p < 0.001, r =$
344 $|0.92|$) indicated that the congruous meal contexts had higher average desire to eat scores
345 compared to the incongruous meal contexts.

346

347

4. Discussion

348 This study aimed to explore whether the influence of expected satiety on portion
349 selection is reduced when food is presented in an incongruous meal context. Our main finding
350 was that ideal portions were similar to the portions selected to stave off hunger until the next
351 meal (expected satiety) in congruous meal contexts (breakfast foods at breakfast time and lunch
352 foods at lunch time). In contrast, in the incongruous meal context of lunch foods presented at
353 breakfast time, ideal portions were smaller than those selected to deliver satiety. That said, in the
354 other incongruous meal context (breakfast foods at lunch time) there was no significant
355 difference between expected satiety and ideal portion size. We postulate that no significant
356 difference was found in the incongruous meal context of breakfast foods at lunch time because

357 the consumption of breakfast foods (e.g., cereals) at lunch time is a more common practice (less
358 'unusual' or incongruous), than the consumption of lunch foods (e.g., pasta) at breakfast time.
359 Furthermore, these correspondences between expected satiety and ideal portion size were
360 revealed while expected satiety correlated with ideal portion size (better than desire to eat and
361 liking) in all meal contexts. Although these results lead us to reject our hypothesis that only
362 congruous meal contexts would show a close correspondence between expected satiety and ideal
363 portion size, these results suggest that even though expected satiety is highly associated with
364 ideal portion size, the congruency of the meal context plays a role in determining the extent to
365 which this is the case. Future research should explore why the influence of expected satiety
366 varies in different meal contexts and recent work by Cheon, Sim, Lee and Forde (2019) may
367 highlight a direction for future work. Their research indicated that people may have different
368 satiety mindsets when choosing food portions such as choosing a food portion to 1) stop hunger,
369 2) obtain comfortable fullness, or 3) obtain complete fullness. In their study, the fullness mindset
370 was the most common and, crucially, the largest portions were selected by those with this
371 mindset. Notably, this work found that by explicitly activating another satiety mindset (e.g.,
372 eating to stop hunger instead of obtaining complete fullness) portion size selection was reduced.
373 Thus, future work should look to assess whether changes in the correspondence between
374 expected satiety and ideal portion size based on the congruency of the meal context are
375 associated with changes in the pre-meal satiety mindset.

376 A further question arises from these expected satiety and ideal portion size results; that is,
377 what factors determine when a meal context is congruous or incongruous? Although it might be
378 expected that changes in desire to eat in different meal contexts may play a role, no significant
379 correlations were found between desire to eat and ideal portion size or expected satiety in either

380 of the incongruous meal contexts. This suggests that other variables beyond the measures taken
381 in this study may help to explain how food-to-mealtime congruency is learned and expressed. A
382 study by Aikman and Crites (2005) found that the experience of eating a food at a specific
383 mealtime was more important than the general experience of eating food when they assessed
384 hunger-induced attitude changes towards foods. Based on this finding, we suggest that
385 familiarity of consumption within a specific meal context, rather than general familiarity of
386 consumption, may be a determining factor in explaining how food-to-mealtime congruency is
387 learned and expressed. That is, greater familiarity with consuming a food in a given meal context
388 leads to a close correspondence between expected satiety and ideal portion size *only* within that
389 meal context. However, it is also possible that congruency could be determined by the perceived
390 social appropriateness of a meal context, learned implicitly through social cues rather than
391 explicit food consumption. That is, an individual may not ever eat a specific food (e.g.,
392 porridge), but in knowing that it is an appropriate breakfast food, portion size heuristics
393 learned from other similar and meal context-appropriate foods may be applied to influence
394 portion selection. Unfortunately, while we did measure familiarity of consumption, the
395 measure was not precise enough to allow us to test this possibility directly. Thus, this idea
396 should be explored in future research.

397 Another aim of this study was to assess whether changes in expected satiety depend on
398 whether the food is presented in a congruous or incongruous meal context. Our results found that
399 the portion selected to stave off hunger until the next meal (expected satiety) decreased when
400 foods were presented in incongruous meal contexts. Although the difference in total portion
401 selection between congruous and incongruous meal contexts was only 19 kcal (a relatively small
402 change), these results suggest that foods are judged to be more filling when consumed in

403 incongruous meal contexts. If so, this could have implications for dietary regimes i.e., consuming
404 familiar and palatable foods at incongruous times of day may lead to smaller portions being
405 selected for the same level of satiety. This finding could be applied as a method of
406 counterconditioning to reset (and increase) the satiety expectations of a familiar food and,
407 ultimately, decrease portion size selection. If this is the case, the long-term implications need to
408 be explored, as increasing the variety of choice at different mealtimes has been shown to
409 compromise the control of food intake (Hardman, Ferriday, Kyle, Rogers, & Brunstrom, 2015).
410 In order to test the robustness of this finding, future work should use foods with similar expected
411 satiety, homogenous composition, and energy density. These factors limit the interpretation of
412 our current findings as the 19-kcal difference between the total portion selections in congruous
413 vs incongruous meal contexts may be due to the interaction between 1) different energy contents
414 of our food types and 2) the difference in meal sizes at breakfast time and lunch time. That is, 1)
415 standard portions of lasagne, spaghetti Bolognese and fish, chips and peas (three of our lunch
416 foods) may be higher in energy content than standard portions of Rice Krispies, Special K and
417 Cheerios (three of our breakfast foods), and 2) breakfast portions tend to be smaller than lunch
418 portions, as reported in other studies (Clayton et al., 2016; de Castro, 2009; Schusdziarra et al.,
419 2011). Thus, it may be that the interaction between these two factors masks the real portion size
420 selection patterns at play here.

421 A final point of note relates to our finding that expected satiety was influenced by
422 mealtimes (breakfast time and lunch time). That is, larger portions were chosen to stave off
423 hunger until the next meal at lunch time compared to breakfast time. This is an important finding
424 as it shows that satiety expectations are not learned for a food and applied kcal-for-kcal to all
425 situations where hunger needs to be alleviated and satiety achieved. Rather, it suggests that the

426 portion size expected to stave off hunger until the next meal changes relevant to the context in
427 which the decision is made, such as the mealtime. We surmise that larger portions were chosen at
428 lunch time because 1) lunch portions tend to be larger than breakfast portions (Clayton et al.,
429 2016; de Castro, 2009; Schusdziarra et al., 2011), and/or 2) that the interval between lunch time
430 and dinner time may typically be longer (~5-6 h) than between breakfast time and dinner time
431 (~4-5 h).

432 In conclusion, this study found that the influence of expected satiety on portion selection
433 is determined by the meal context in which the portion selection is made. Although we cannot
434 say with certainty that a correspondence between expected satiety and ideal portion size means
435 that ideal portion size is *caused* by expected satiety, where we see that similar amounts of food
436 are selected this would seem like the most likely explanation. However, in certain circumstances
437 where ideal portion size is less than the portion selected to stave off hunger until the next meal
438 (specifically, in incongruous meal contexts), there is an implication that people are considering
439 factors other than expected satiety in arriving at an ideal portion size. Further work should look
440 to assess whether eating food in incongruous contexts might be helpful in reducing overall
441 energy intake, how long this strategy might be effective before people adapt over time, and
442 whether there is subsequent energy intake compensation later in the day. This is an important
443 next step in this area of research as a concern that arises is that people might adapt to eating food
444 in an incongruous context and increase their portion size over time. This might limit the efficacy
445 of using this approach as an intervention method for healthy weight management. To determine
446 whether this occurs, we recommend that the chronic effects of eating foods in an incongruous
447 meal context should be studied over a longer period.

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450 **Conflict of interest**

451 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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453 **Author contributions**

454 Conceptualisation, writing (reviewing and editing) and methodology: C.J.M., L.J.J., J.M.B. and

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456 J.M.B.

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