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Caloric estimation of healthy and unhealthy foods in normal-weight,  
overweight and obese participants

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The author(s) declare that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of  
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**33 Abstract**

34 Individuals make dietary choices each time they consume food or drink, and assign  
35 labels to each item, such as un/healthy, high/low in calories, high/low in nutrients.  
36 These labels are thought to be snap judgments based on prior, and often limited  
37 nutritional knowledge. The aim of this study was to examine the perception of the  
38 caloric content of 'healthy' and 'unhealthy' foods. Participants (N=141) rated 53 food  
39 images on perceived healthiness/un-healthiness alongside the caloric content.  
40 Participants were subdivided into three groups: BMI (normal-weight, overweight,  
41 obese). Findings suggest that weight status impacts on participant's caloric estimation  
42 of foods perceived as healthy, but only marginally for unhealthy foods. However, not  
43 all foods were consistently labeled as healthy or unhealthy, on these occasions weight  
44 salience appears not to have influenced estimations of caloric content. Foods that  
45 confound the dichotomous labeling of healthy or unhealthy appear to gain a 'branding'  
46 that confers either greater or fewer calories than they actually contain, on these  
47 occasions weight salience does not appear to influence the labeling; implications are  
48 discussed.

49  
50 **Keywords:** Food; Obesity; Calories estimation; Food Perception; Food Labels

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**67 Introduction**

68 Information concerning food and drink confronts consumers on a daily basis (Carels,  
69 Harper, & Konrad, 2006). The information can come in the form of TV food  
70 commercials, government campaigns, and nutrition labels found on most packaged  
71 foods; the information concerning health and nutrition can be confusing and are often  
72 contradictory which inevitably leads to misperceptions about food (Carels et al., 2006;  
73 CDC, 2014; Kapil & Bhadoria, 2014; Kitahara et al., 2014; Volkow, Wang, Tomasi,  
74 & Baler, 2013; WHO, 2014).

75 Research on the evaluation and perceptions of food indicates that the general  
76 public is inclined to use dichotomous categorizations when labeling food, along the  
77 lines of good/bad, or healthy/unhealthy (Carels, Konrad, & Harper, 2007; Rozin,  
78 Ashmore, & Markwith, 1996). These categorizations tend to be based on heuristic  
79 judgments that influence the perceptions of other aspects of the food, such as the  
80 nutritional or caloric content (Carels et al., 2007). It would appear that as a  
81 consequence of these dichotomous labels, food that is judged to be 'bad' can be seen  
82 to possess more calories than it actually does whereas, 'good' foods are deemed to  
83 have fewer calories, (Carels et al., 2007) but the evidence for this observation is  
84 surprisingly scant given the robustness of the beliefs held regarding calorific content.

85 When an individual is given the name of a food (i.e., 'carrot' or 'grape') a  
86 judgment is made along the lines of 'good/healthy', but when the nutritional content is  
87 the only information available, the same food can be judged to be 'bad/unhealthy'  
88 (Oakes & Slotterback, 2005). The propensity to label foods as 'healthy' or 'unhealthy'  
89 has a carry-over effect on the judgment of the perceived vitamin, mineral and protein  
90 content of foods based primarily on reputation rather than nutritional knowledge  
91 (Oakes & Slotterback, 2001). Apples, carrots, and grapes for example, are judged to  
92 be healthy, but also perceived to contain many more vitamins, minerals and protein  
93 than they actually possess (Oakes & Slotterback, 2005). This therefore suggests that  
94 once a food achieves a 'healthy' reputation it gains an influential 'branding or bias'  
95 that can alter the perception of its nutritional properties. The results of these  
96 dichotomous categorizations may therefore influence the intake of calories and  
97 essential nutrients which could contribute to nutritionally poor, calorically dense diets  
98 (Oakes & Slotterback, 2005), and may even contribute to excessive weight gain.

99 Adding an unhealthy element (e.g., chocolate) to a healthy food (e.g., raisins)  
100 removes or negates the perceived nutritional and vitamin properties of healthy food

101 (Oakes, 2004). Adding butter (labeled unhealthy) to steamed carrots (labeled healthy)  
102 makes the carrots appear less healthy to consumers, ‘because butter is fat and fat is  
103 bad’, which is seen to lower the nutritional and vitamin content of the carrots (Oakes,  
104 2004).

105 The label of healthy/unhealthy also has a specific impact on the estimated  
106 caloric density of the food. Individuals tend to overestimate the calories of ‘unhealthy’  
107 foods, but underestimate the amount of calories of ‘healthy’ foods. This degree of  
108 discrepancy is routinely evident in individuals with a high BMI (Carels et al., 2006).

109 It is of concern that a dichotomous rubric of ‘healthy’/‘unhealthy’ in relation  
110 to food perception has entered the public consciousness. The evaluative judgment  
111 regarding food types and the use of ‘rule of thumb’ judgments may influence food  
112 perceptions. The ‘healthy’/‘unhealthy’ dichotomy, though a potential source of  
113 perceptual, and ultimately, behavioral influence, represents currently a disconnection  
114 between established methods of appraising food components and their nutritional  
115 composition and contribution to health and disease. Assessing the perceptual  
116 influence of this persistent dichotomous categorization is therefore important to  
117 anchor food science estimations of the healthiness of food to the lived experience of  
118 individuals in an everyday context. Consumers are more likely to routinely use a  
119 ‘healthy’/‘unhealthy’ food selection and appraisal strategy over a systemic and  
120 accurate evaluation of the food composition of every meal consumed (Carels et al.,  
121 2007).

122 The aim of the current investigation was to determine whether evaluations of  
123 the healthiness/unhealthiness status of foods influences caloric estimation accuracy.  
124 According to Carels et al. (2007) individuals evaluate foods for healthiness/  
125 unhealthiness, and caloric content as a factor of their weight. They report that  
126 individuals with a high body mass index show a greater discrepancy in their caloric  
127 estimations. Carels et al. (2007) however, draw participants from a pool of individuals  
128 known to have biased perceptions of food. Many of their participants were active  
129 dieters, and it had been shown that at the point of purchase dieters are inclined to rate  
130 fat content as the most important factor in their judgment of the foods healthiness,  
131 whereas non-dieters are different and attribute freshness as the most important  
132 attribute (Oakes & Slotterback, 2002). Carels et al. (2007) also compared older obese  
133 dieters with younger non-obese dieters. While weight status and age difference of  
134 participants has been shown to influence the perception of foods, there is limited

135 evidence for homogenous groups of non-dieters of a similar age. To our knowledge  
 136 associations between weight status and the characteristic that determine food  
 137 un/healthiness had not been examined within and across BMI categories.

138 It was hypothesized: Hypothesis 1: Relatively high body mass index  
 139 individuals would demonstrate greater discrepancy in food calorific estimations as a  
 140 function of food labeled as unhealthy/healthy compared to those with a relatively  
 141 lower body mass index. Hypothesis 2: Food calorie estimation would be  
 142 comparatively less influenced by body mass index when the healthiness status of the  
 143 food was ambiguous compared to those foods more readily classified as  
 144 ‘healthy’/’unhealthy’.

145 **Methods**

146 *Participants*

147 141 individuals (See Table 1 for specific subgroups) volunteered for this  
 148 study. The local research ethics approved this study. Participants received course  
 149 credit for participating and were recruited via the university’s research participation  
 150 scheme. Participants Body Mass Index (BMI) was calculated from their weight and  
 151 height ( $BMI = kg/m^2$ ) measured by Seca 799 column scales, and Seca 274  
 152 stadiometer.

154 Table 1 Somatotype characteristics

BMI Category	Mean Age (SD)	N = Male/Female	Mean BMI (SD)	BMI Range
Normal-weight	20.70 (1.39)	14/46	21.7 (1.74)	18.51 - 24.75
Overweight	22.33 (7.01)	21/24	27.1 (1.43)	25.22 - 29.83
Obese	22.83 (6.38)	18/18	34.6 (3.03)	30.65 - 42.60

155  
 156 *Study Design*

157 The study comprised of a 3x2 between participants design: Participants were  
 158 subdivided into three groups based on their BMI: normal-weight (18.5 - 24.9),  
 159 overweight (25 - 29.9), obese (>30). Participants were asked to label each item as  
 160 either healthy or unhealthy and estimated the caloric content of 53 food images. A list  
 161 of foods can be found in Table 2; compiled by pilot sampling of 153 students, and 2  
 162 health professionals.

163 *Pilot Data*

164 The 153 psychology students and 2 health professionals were asked to individually  
 165 compile a list of single item foods (excluding items like whole meals). All lists were  
 166 compared and foods items most frequently reported were added to the final food list  
 167 shown in Table 2. Foods reported less than 3 times and whole meals (e.g. McDonald’s  
 168 happy meal, or Subway Sandwiches) were excluded from the final list. The  
 169 healthiness/unhealthiness of each item was not a predetermined factor and no  
 170 assumptions were drawn at the design stage.

171

172 *Inclusion –exclusion criteria*

173 Participants needed to have either normal or corrected to normal visual acuity, with no  
 174 color perception deficits, have English as their first language and be 18+ years of age,  
 175 with a BMI greater than 18.5. Participants who reported to be actively dieting  
 176 (consciously restricting their dietary input for the purpose of weight loss) were  
 177 excluded from the study. Any participants not fulfilling all criteria were excluded  
 178 from the study (N=12).

179 Table 2. Foods, weight and description

Foods	Description	Foods	Description
Pasta Uncooked	54 grams plain straight	Pasta Cooked	145 grams plain straight
Mixed Nuts	33 grams Salted	Peanut Butter	34 grams
Peanut Crackers	39 grams Cookies	Baked Beans	212 grams
Yoghurt	196 grams Greek Style	Pretzels	50 grams Salted Twists
Grapes	290 grams White	Bagel	70 grams
Milk	333 ml Full Fat	Candies	40 grams Non Branded
Muffin	72 grams Strawberry	Ketchup	226 grams Non Branded
Butter	28 grams Unsalted	Kiwi	228 grams
Turkey Slices	204 grams Cooked	Kit Kat	1 bar
Bread Roll	66 grams	M&M	Almond 1 bar
Splenda	52 grams Powder	Melon	553 grams
Chocolate Bar	41 grams Mars Bar	Sausage	102 grams Sweet Italian
Candies	43 grams Non Branded	Candies	36 grams M&Ms
Peppers	740 grams (Large)	Apricots	85 grams
Breakfast Cereal	51 grams	French Fries	73 grams Cooked
Boiled Eggs	47 grams	French Bread	75 grams
Fried Corn Chips	37 grams Non Branded	Sweat Corn	290 grams
Soda Drink	496 ml Coke Cola	Chicken Sandwich	72 grams Plain
Donut	60 grams Plain	Cheese Puffs	42 grams Potato Chips
Carrots	580 grams uncooked	Canola oil	24 grams

Cheese Burger	78 grams McDonalds	Garden Peas	357 grams
Broccoli	590 grams	Spinach	857 grams
Salmon	134 grams Pink	Cod	190 grams Atlantic
Cheese	51 grams Cheddar	Bacon	34 grams Cooked
Apple	384 grams (whole)	Orange Juice	442 ml No Pulp
Avocado	125 grams	Onions	475 grams White
Potato Chips	35 grams Ruffles Original		

180

181 *Materials*

182 A professional photographer using a digital camera within a purpose-built  
 183 photographic studio created the food images specifically for this study. Food items  
 184 were measured and weighed in consultation with nutritionists and dieticians, to  
 185 contain precisely 200Kcals. The stimuli consisted 53 color images of food items, (e.g.,  
 186 cheeseburger, French fries, bagel etc.) sweets foods (M&M's, soft drinks, strawberry  
 187 muffin etc.) fruits and vegetables (kiwi fruit, apples, broccoli etc.). Images were  
 188 presented in color on a 21.5-inch iMac computer; images on screen measured 160mm  
 189 x 110mm. A caption-describing each item was displayed below the image (e.g.:  
 190 Potato Chips, Broccoli, Cooked Pasta etc.). Images were presented in a different  
 191 order for each participant.

192

193 *Procedure*

194 Based on previous research (Carels et al., 2006), the following procedures were  
 195 implemented in the same order for every participant. Participants provided informed  
 196 consent; BMI ( $\text{Kg/m}^2$ ) was calculated from the participants' height and weight.  
 197 Participants were seated in front a desktop computer at a distance of 50cm. Specific  
 198 instructions were displayed on screen; participants were asked to estimate the caloric  
 199 value (Kcals) and assign a label of either healthy or unhealthy to each food item,  
 200 participants were informed speed was a factor and to respond as rapidly as possible.  
 201 In general the experimental sessions lasted approximately 20 minutes.

202

203 *Data analysis*

204 Means and standard deviations were obtained for all study variables, and demographic  
 205 data were tabulated (see Table 3). Differences in caloric intake by condition (healthy  
 206 or unhealthy vs. BMI category) were examined by a multivariate analysis of variance

207 (MANOVA). Prior to the main analysis data were subjected to parametric  
 208 assumptions analysis. Preliminary analysis included screening data for missing values,  
 209 outliers, skewness, kurtosis, and equality of covariance matrices. There were no  
 210 missing values, or outliers, and data met the assumption of skewness and kurtosis (all  
 211 values <1.96).

212

213 Results

214 *Statistical analysis*

215 A series of Pearson correlations were performed between the two dependent  
 216 variables (healthy vs. unhealthy caloric estimations) in order to test the MANOVA  
 217 assumption that the dependent variables would be correlated with each other in a  
 218 moderate range, (Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2006) see Table 3.

219

220 Table 3

221 Pearson correlations, and means estimations for food images which contained 200Kcals and  
 222 Standard Deviations associated with weight status.

Weight Status	Correlations	Healthy Mean	Unhealthy Mean	Healthy SD	Unhealthy SD	N
Normal-weight	.730*	134.66	241.98	76.28	141.39	60
Overweight	.562*	116.70	244.31	54.48	115.0	45
Obese	.600*	96.81	218.93	53.31	116.5	36
Total		119.26	236.84	65.79	126.85	141

223 \* Correlation for healthy vs. unhealthy caloric estimations is significant at the .001 level.

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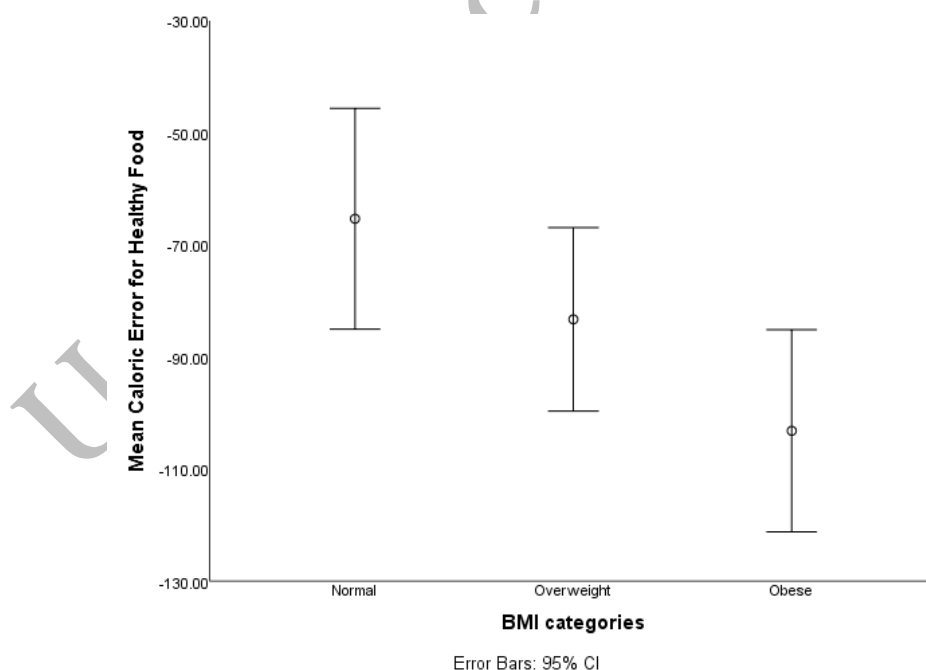
226 Box's M value of .143 was associated with the *p* value of .190, was interpreted as  
 227 non-significant based on Huberty and Petoskey (2000) guidelines (i.e., *p* <.005).  
 228 Therefore the covariance matrices between the groups were assumed to be equal for  
 229 the purposes of the MANOVA.

230 A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to test the  
 231 hypothesis that there would be one or more mean differences between BMI categories  
 232 (normal-weight, overweight and obese) and estimates of caloric content for un/healthy  
 233 foods. A statistically significant MANOVA effect was obtained, Pillai's Trace = .07  
 234  $F(4, 276) = 2.50, p = .043$ . The multivariate effect size was estimated at .035 which  
 235 implies that 3.5% of the variance in the canonically derive dependent variable was  
 236 accounted for by BMI.



237 Prior to conducting a series of follow-up ANOVA's, the homogeneity of  
 238 variance assumptions were tested, for both subscales. Levene's F test for the  
 239 homogeneity of variance assumption was satisfied ( $p > .05$ ). A small series of one-  
 240 way ANOVA's for each dependent variable was conducted as a follow-up to the  
 241 MANOVA which revealed a statistically significant main effect for Healthy Food  $F(2,$   
 242  $138) = 3.93, p = .02, \eta^2 = .05$ , but a non-significant effect for Unhealthy Food  $F(2,$   
 243  $138) = .48, p = .61$ . Finally, a series of post-hoc analyses (Fisher LSD) were performed  
 244 to examine the individual mean difference comparisons across all three levels of BMI,  
 245 and healthy food. The results reveal a statistically significant difference ( $p = .006, M$   
 246  $= 17.95 - 37.84, SD = 13.53 - 12.71$ ) for normal-weight and obese individuals when  
 247 estimating the caloric content of Healthy Food, no other significant differences were  
 248 found. Figures 1 and 2 illustrate the mean difference in caloric estimation for healthy  
 249 and unhealthy foods. From these results it would appear that healthy foods are  
 250 significantly more difficult to evaluate in terms of their caloric content particularly for  
 251 obese participants whereas the estimates for unhealthy foods are much more stable  
 252 across different BMI categories.

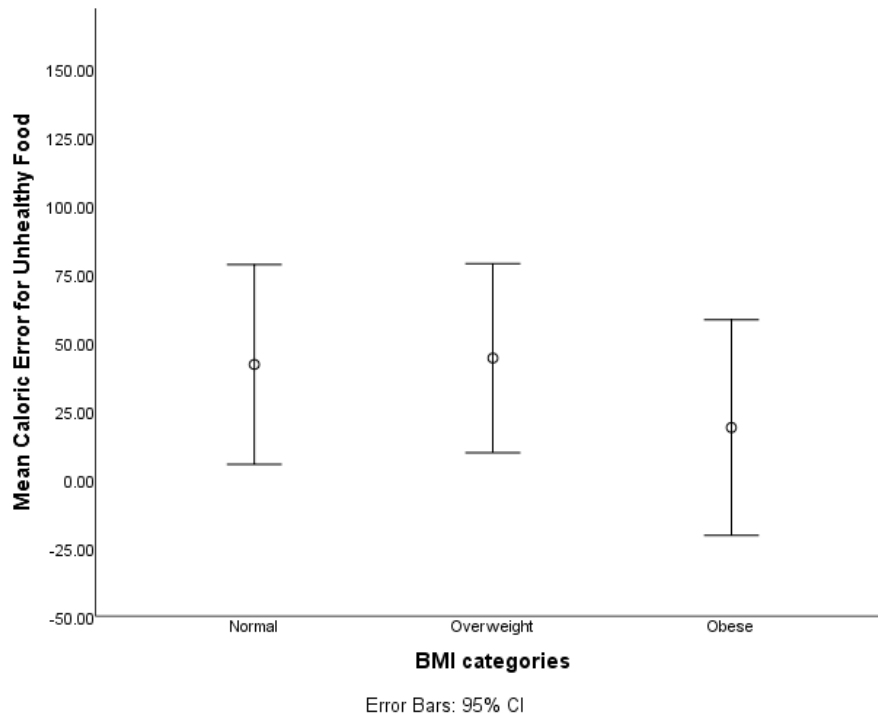
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Figure 1: Mean caloric error for perceived Healthy food images set against BMI category. Post-hoc analyses (Fisher LSD) reveal just one significant difference  $p = .006$  for Normal weight vs. Obese.

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265 Figure 2: Mean caloric error for perceived Unhealthy food images set against BMI category.  
266 Post-hoc analyses (Fisher LSD) revealed no significant difference for BMI category.

267

268 *Healthiness vs. Unhealthiness*

269 In a second task participants were asked to decide whether each item represented  
270 unhealthy or healthy foods. For the vast majority of foods there was approximately  
271 95% agreement, across all BMI categories. However, for a significant minority of  
272 foods, there was some disagreement on whether the image portrayed a healthy or  
273 unhealthy food, within and across BMI categories, illustrated in Table 4. These foods  
274 achieved both healthy and unhealthy labels and as such both healthy and unhealthy  
275 attributes. Data displayed in Table 5 indicate that calorie estimations were  
276 comparatively less influenced by body-mass index when the healthiness status of the  
277 food was ambiguous compared to those foods more readily classified as ‘healthy’ or  
278 ‘unhealthy’. Data clearly show that when foods are perceived as healthy they are  
279 attributed with far fewer calories than when perceived as unhealthy, even within a  
280 given BMI category. For example, Salted Mixed Nuts were estimated to contain a

281 group mean caloric content of 327.65Kcals when judged to be healthy but  
 282 448.06Kcals when judged to be unhealthy for those of normal weight. However,  
 283 obese individuals estimated the same food to contain just 126.88Kcals when healthy  
 284 and 414.30Kcals when thought to be unhealthy. This shows that regardless of weigh  
 285 status the label placed on foods will have a significant influence on the perceived  
 286 qualities of the food.

287

288 Table 4:

289 Un/healthy foods and percentage of dis/agreement on their perceived healthiness status

Food	Normal-weight		Overweight		Obese	
	Healthy	Unhealthy	Healthy	Unhealthy	Healthy	Unhealthy
Salted Mixed Nuts	46.6%	53.3%	42.2%	57.8%	44.4%	55.6%
Whole Milk	60.0%	40.0%	42.2%	57.8%	69.4%	30.6%
Turkey Slices	63.3%	36.7%	73.3%	26.7%	72.2%	27.8%
Splenda	38.3%	61.7%	55.6%	44.4%	58.3%	41.7%
Peanut Butter	30.0%	70.0%	22.2%	77.8%	16.7%	83.3%
Baked Beans	55.0%	45.0%	44.4%	55.6%	50.0%	50.0%
Bagel	21.7%	78.3%	33.3%	67.7%	30.6%	69.4%
French Bread	28.3%	71.7%	35.6%	64.4%	41.7%	58.3%
Chicken Sandwich	48.3%	51.7%	44.4%	55.6%	36.1%	63.9%
Canola Oil	41.7%	56.7%	46.7%	51.1%	19.4%	80.6%

290

291

292 Table 5: Foods images inconsistently perceived as either healthy or unhealthy. It should be

293 noted that each image contains foods of 200Kcals

294

Food	Weight Status	Mean Caloric Estimation	
		Healthy	Unhealthy
Salted Mixed Nuts	Normal-weight	327.65	448.06
	Overweight	116.32	434.42
	Obese	126.88	414.30
Whole Milk	Normal-weight	118.46	196.41
	Overweight	111.85	199.35
	Obese	111.88	174.00

	Normal-weight	124.87	308.04
Turkey Slices	Overweight	144.94	447.91
	Obese	300.69	387.00
	Normal-weight	36.61	169.71
Splenda	Overweight	41.08	130.68
	Obese	46.91	146.00
	Normal-weight	87.78	431.21
Peanut Butter	Overweight	98.50	432.85
	Obese	114.5	122.90
	Normal-weight	65.00	483.70
Pork and Beans	Overweight	171.00	465.76
	Obese	194.17	177.10
	Normal-weight	132.31	410.70
Bagel	Overweight	151.14	431.03
	Obese	122.64	177.88
	Normal-weight	226.37	338.77
Chicken Sandwich	Overweight	198.05	301.00
	Obese	192.39	486.39
	Normal-weight	65.32	439.41
Canola Oil	Overweight	74.86	438.69
	Obese	59.58	155.97

295

296

297 Discussion

298 The principal aim of the present study was to investigate the effects of the perceived  
 299 healthiness/unhealthiness of foods, and weight salience on the caloric estimation of 53  
 300 food images. We found that the healthiness/unhealthiness perception affected  
 301 participants' caloric estimations, as did the weight salience categorizations, which  
 302 both appear to influence the perceptions of various foods differently. Similar to  
 303 previous research overweight participants tended to underestimate the caloric content  
 304 of foods they perceived as healthy compared to normal-weight participants. Results  
 305 suggest that there is a linear relationship between weight status and the  
 306 underestimation of calories in foods perceived as healthy. This finding is consistent  
 307 with Carels et al. (2006); Carels et al. (2007); Oakes and Slotterback (2005); Rozin et  
 308 al. (1996) who found that participants were less accurate at estimating the amount of  
 309 calories in foods perceived as healthy; they report that weight status impacted on the  
 310 magnitude of the discrepancy. Obese individuals tended to underestimate healthy

311 foods by the greatest amount when compared to the normal-weight and overweight  
312 individuals. However, normal-weight and overweight individuals maintained an  
313 inclination to underestimate the caloric content of healthy foods, although the size of  
314 the discrepancy was considerably smaller than for the obese, but still not entirely  
315 accurate. Provencher, Polivy, and Herman (2009) made the observation that when a  
316 food is perceived as 'healthy', individuals are inclined to consume it in greater  
317 quantities. It is therefore logical to conclude that individuals may attempt to consume  
318 a healthy diet, but because there appears to be an inclination to underestimate the  
319 caloric content of healthy foods by as much as 100 calories per-portion, this could  
320 lead to over indulgence, and perpetuation of weight maintenance or gain.

321         Similar to previous research (Carels et al., 2006; Carels et al., 2007; Oakes &  
322 Slotterback, 2005; Rozin et al., 1996) the present study also found that participants  
323 inaccurately estimated the caloric content of foods perceived as unhealthy. The  
324 present study however established that obese participants tended to be less accurate,  
325 than the normal-weight or overweight, when judging caloric content of perceived  
326 healthy foods. Carels et al. (2006) report that their participants tended to over  
327 estimate healthy food by as much as 16%; within the current study we found an  
328 average over estimation of 17%.

329         Data shown in Table 3 illustrate that the standard deviation for unhealthy  
330 foods is more than twice the magnitude than for healthy foods, across all three BMI  
331 categories. What is revealed by these data, and what is hidden to some extent by the  
332 mean data, is that the estimations for foods perceived to be unhealthy vary widely. On  
333 an individual level the estimates for unhealthy food can vary by as much as 652 Kcals.  
334 This finding indicates that regardless of the perception of the food, and regardless of  
335 weight status, that accurately estimating the caloric content of these foods is  
336 extremely difficult and may even amount to ill-informed guesses.

337         In the present study fifty-three images of foods were shown to participants,  
338 many of which were consistently perceived to be either healthy or unhealthy. In  
339 general, participants had little trouble using the healthy, unhealthy classification  
340 however, not all foods were consistently perceived as either un/healthy. A significant  
341 number of foods gained the perception of being concurrently healthy and unhealthy,  
342 as some individuals perceived these foods as healthy while others perceived the same  
343 foods as being unhealthy. Previous research (Carels et al., 2007) has shown that obese  
344 individuals tend to underestimate the calories in foods perceived to be healthy; the

345 current research however has shown that this finding is not so straightforward, and  
346 that the health perception of a food can override weight salience, for particular foods.

347         What we found is that when foods were perceived as healthy they were  
348 estimated to contain considerably fewer than 200Kcals, whereas when perceived as  
349 unhealthy the same foods were estimated to contain many more than 200Kcals; this  
350 finding was consistent regardless of weight status. Translated this would mean that  
351 particular foods do not neatly fit the dichotomous labeling of healthy or unhealthy for  
352 all individuals, however, once labeled the foods assume a health bias or halo,  
353 therefore healthy foods equal fewer calories, unhealthy foods equal a greater number  
354 of calories. This finding is most likely to be a product of nutrition awareness, and  
355 knowledge, but this would need to be assessed in future studies.

356         This study has a small number of limitations that need to be addressed in  
357 future research endeavors. The homogenous nature of the sample (limited age range)  
358 limits the generalizability of the results. These individuals may have limited  
359 nutritional knowledge, and limited general knowledge concerning health benefits of  
360 certain foods. They also may have no general concerns about dietary composition that  
361 an older population may have. Young people are likely to view health in terms of  
362 body shape and appearance (Rozin & Fallon, 1988), however, there is an increasing  
363 trend of obesity among young adults (Ogden, Carroll, Kit, & Flegal, 2013) with over  
364 30% of 20-39 years old who are obese in the USA. CDC (2014) state that obesity  
365 among young adults has increased from just 5% to 21% in the last 30 years, with an  
366 increased risk of cardiovascular disease, and other weight related illnesses. It would  
367 therefore be beneficial in future research, to increase the age demographic to include  
368 more mature adults to allow the findings to encompass a wider population.

369         The present study has several potential implications. Like the suggestion made  
370 by Carels et al. (2006) it would be important to inform participants (regardless of  
371 weight status) of the general tendency to underestimate the calories in healthy foods  
372 and overestimate calories in foods perceived as unhealthy. Nutrition awareness is in  
373 important component to formulating choices concerning the characteristics that  
374 contribute towards healthy diets. An important clinical implication concerns those  
375 individuals with existing pathology and psychopathology where food choices may  
376 impact significantly on clinical outcomes and overall well-being. Patients within the  
377 two main non-communicable disease groups (cardiovascular disease and diabetes  
378 mellitus) may benefit significantly from educational interventions focused on

379 understanding the relationship between food groups and calorific value, interventions  
380 that takes into account the weight status-associated biases observed within the current  
381 study. Improving food selection strategies and decision-making in this group of  
382 patients while accommodating the weight status noted biases observed in the current  
383 investigation would likely be beneficial in the development of an effective and  
384 evidence-based intervention program.

385

386 Conclusion

387 This study provides support for the contention that healthy foods are perceived to  
388 have fewer calories than they actually contain, and that unhealthy foods a greater  
389 number of calories. Findings suggest that weight status impacts participant's calorie  
390 estimation of healthy food; however, weight status does not significantly impact on  
391 the caloric estimation of unhealthy foods. Foods that confound the dichotomous  
392 labeling of healthy or unhealthy appear to gain a 'branding' that confers either fewer  
393 or greater calories than they actually have. On these occasions weight status does not  
394 appear to have influenced the labeling. Why there should be such a significant  
395 'branding effect' is not immediately apparent, but is quite possibly a factor of  
396 nutritional awareness.

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