

1 Title: **INCREASING VEGETABLE INTAKES: UPDATED SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF PUBLISHED**  
2 **INTERVENTIONS**

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24 **ABSTRACT**

25 Vegetable consumption is important for a variety of health reasons, yet intakes are typically lower than  
26 recommended. Interventions to improve fruit and vegetable consumption are available, but these  
27 interventions are typically more successful for fruit consumption, while vegetable intakes remain low.  
28 This chapter details the interventions currently available that focus specifically on improving vegetable  
29 intakes. A systematic review of the published literature was conducted in 2015, and this has been  
30 updated for this chapter. Databases - PubMed, PsychInfo and Medline were searched over all years of  
31 records until January 2017 using pre-specified terms. Our searches identified 119 studies, detailing 206  
32 interventions. Interventions aimed to use or change hedonic factors, such as taste, liking and familiarity  
33 (n=103), use or change environmental factors (n=54), use or change cognitive factors (n=28), or a  
34 combination of strategies (n=21). Increased vegetable acceptance, selection and/or consumption were  
35 reported to some degree in 186 (90%) interventions. Greatest success appears to be achieved in  
36 interventions that improve education, change the environment or use multiple approaches, but long-  
37 term success and cost-effectiveness are rarely considered. A focus on long-term benefits and sustained  
38 behaviour change is required.

39

40 **Keywords: vegetables, interventions, systematic review, published literature**

41 **INTRODUCTION**

42 The benefits of a high vegetable consumption for health are well reported (e.g.1-5), but vegetable  
43 intakes across Europe and the US remain lower than recommendations (e.g.6,7). These low intakes  
44 testify to a need for interventions and strategies specifically to increase vegetable intakes. We recently  
45 undertook and published a systematic review of the published literature investigating interventions to  
46 increase vegetable-specific intakes (8). This work updates this systematic review to identify from the  
47 published literature all studies to date reporting an intervention to increase vegetable intakes, where  
48 vegetables were considered as a separate and distinct food group.

49

50 **SYSTEMATIC REVIEW**

51 Only interventions that target vegetables as a separate food group are considered. Many interventions  
52 target fruit and vegetable intakes [eg. 9,10) or target vegetables and another food group, e.g.  
53 wholegrains (e.g.11,12), but many interventions that target several food groups demonstrate poor  
54 success for improving vegetable intakes compared to the improved success often found for improving  
55 fruit intakes or the intakes of other foods (13-15). Interventions are arguably more likely to achieve  
56 success if based on the specific barriers to consumption or determinants of low consumption, and the  
57 barriers to consumption of vegetables are different to those of fruit and other foods. Fruit particularly, is  
58 typically sweet in taste and soft in texture, while vegetables can taste bitter and are generally harder in  
59 texture (16-19). Fruit is also easily consumed raw, and is more frequently consumed and considered  
60 acceptable as a snack, a drink or as dessert (16-19), while vegetables are more often in need of  
61 preparation and cooking before consumption, and are typically consumed and considered more  
62 acceptable as part of a meal (16-20). The bitter taste and increased need for preparation and cooking  
63 are frequently cited barriers to the consumption of vegetables, and more so than for other foods.  
64 Studies investigating barriers specifically to fruit consumption and vegetable consumption report these  
65 differences. In an Australian sample, Glasson et al, 2011 (21), report fruit consumption to be largely  
66 prevented by cost, food preferences, quality, availability and wastage concerns, while vegetable  
67 consumption was more frequently prevented by food preferences, lack of time, cost and taste.  
68 Chapman et al, 2016 (22) report fruit consumption to be largely prevented by habit, preferences for  
69 other foods over fruit, concerns about perishability, cost and laziness, while vegetable consumption was  
70 more often prevented by beliefs that people already ate enough vegetables, preferences for other  
71 foods, habit, cost and concerns about perishability. Interventions were also only included in our review if  
72 they aimed to increase a vegetable-related behaviour – vegetable selection, vegetable purchasing or

73 vegetable intake. Many studies consider important correlates of behaviour as outcomes, such as liking,  
74 attitudes and nutritional knowledge (e.g.23-25), but it is only behaviour that will impact on health. While  
75 we appreciate the importance of these non-behavioural correlates of behaviour, this review only  
76 considers studies that involve behaviour as an outcome.

77

78 For the initial review (8), three databases: Pubmed, PsychInfo, and Medline were searched over all years  
79 of records until 28<sup>th</sup> April, 2015, for all studies published with the terms 'vegetable' or 'vegetables' in the  
80 'title'. Searches were conducted and then all titles and abstracts were screened for relevance  
81 independently by two review authors. For this update, records in the three databases were searched  
82 over 2015 and 2016 by one review author and checked by another. Studies were included only if they  
83 involved a relevant intervention. Studies were not included if they did not include an intervention, if the  
84 intervention targeted fruit and vegetable intakes (e.g.9,10), if the intervention targeted vegetables and  
85 other foods, e.g. vegetables and wholegrains (e.g.11,12); if the intervention involved changing  
86 consumption as opposed to increasing consumption (e.g.26), or if they did not include a measure of  
87 behavior (e.g.23-25). Studies measuring amount tasted or willingness to try a vegetable were included  
88 where tasting was voluntarily, where amount tasted was voluntary and where tasting/amount was  
89 measured, but studies where tasting was compulsory and/or pre-specified, e.g. to make hedonic  
90 judgements, were not included (e.g.27,28). Studies were included regardless of the use or not of a  
91 comparison for the intervention, or the type of comparison used. Relevant articles were also searched  
92 for other suitable studies. A number of reviews were also found in the update searches, and the  
93 reference lists for review articles were also searched for relevant articles. In searching review articles,  
94 we considered articles regardless of their inclusion of the terms 'vegetable' or 'vegetables' in the title.  
95 This resulted in the inclusion of several studies published earlier than 2015 that were previously  
96 unidentified but were of relevance.

97

## 98 **INTERVENTIONS**

99 Update searches were conducted on 9<sup>th</sup> January, 2017. Search updates resulted in the inclusion of 2,846  
100 new database entries, which resulted in the inclusion of 41 new studies in the review. Including those  
101 identified in the original review, a total of 119 studies are currently published that report the impacts of  
102 206 interventions aiming to increase vegetable intakes. These interventions are grouped for reporting  
103 based on the barriers or determinants they seek to address.

104

105 **Interventions aiming to change or use hedonic factors**

106 Taste, familiarity and hedonic factors such as preferences and likings, are key determinants of the  
107 majority of food consumption (29,30), and both the poor taste, low liking and low familiarity with  
108 vegetables are frequently reported barriers to the consumption of vegetables across the lifespan (21,31-  
109 35). Vegetable consumption is higher, for example, in families where vegetables are disguised or sauces  
110 are used to mask undesirable tastes (36-38), where vegetables are more often incorporated into  
111 composite foods as opposed to consumed alone to dilute negative tastes (36), and where meals are  
112 home cooked to accommodate individual preferences (37). Two interventions were found where intakes  
113 of familiar vegetables / vegetable dishes were compared to those of novel dishes (39,40), and ten  
114 interventions were found where the taste of a vegetable or vegetable dish was deliberately manipulated  
115 on a single occasion through the addition of salt (41,42), fat (41), condiments (43) or a dip (44). These  
116 interventions are described in Table 1. With the exception of the manipulation of additional fat, all  
117 studies demonstrated increased intakes for more familiar and more tasty vegetables or vegetable  
118 dishes. Increasing salt, sugar and fat intakes via the use of table salt and commercially available dips and  
119 sauces may be unwise, but herbs, spices and low-sugar or low-fat dips and sauces are alternatives that  
120 may add taste and not detrimentally impact on dietary profiles.

121

122 Table 1 about here

123

124 Eighty-two interventions were also found that focus on increasing familiarity and liking with repeated  
125 experience. These interventions are based on the premise that familiarity and liking increase with  
126 increasing experience and increasing positive experience respectively, thus aim to increase familiarity  
127 with, liking for and intakes of vegetables through repeated experience and repeated positive  
128 experience. Thirty-three interventions were found using repeated exposure, and forty-nine  
129 interventions were found that involved repeated positive experience of vegetables via pairing with liked  
130 flavours (n=12), pairing with beneficial nutrients (n=6), pairing with flavours and nutrients (n=9), pairing  
131 with foods usually consumed at the same time (n=1), pairing with external reinforcement or rewards  
132 (n=11). Nine interventions also used positive role models as a form of vicarious reinforcement, and one  
133 intervention used a combination of models and rewards. Studies using these interventions are described  
134 in Table 2. Many of these interventions demonstrate success by improving liking and/or consumption:  
135 26 of 32 (one protocol only) (81%) interventions using repeated exposure; 10 of 12 (83%) using pairing  
136 with liked flavours; three of six (50%) using pairing with nutrients; 7 of 9 (78%) using pairing with

137 flavours and nutrients; the one using pairing with usual foods; 9 of 11 (82%) using pairing with  
138 reinforcement, 7 of 9 (78%) using modelling, and the one using modelling and rewards. Effects, however  
139 are far from robust or consistent (ie. effects are often found in one measure, but not in others), effects  
140 are often small, and tend to be limited to the specific vegetable used during the exposure manipulation,  
141 and tend to remain only for a very limited period. Conditions within studies, furthermore, are often  
142 confounded, making mechanisms difficult to elucidate. In many studies that purport to investigate  
143 exposure, for example, the exposure is given in combination with other food components (e.g.54) which  
144 may be positive, or the exposure is combined with the positive experience of rewards in the form of  
145 praise or other positive interactions (e.g.74) or modelling (e.g.33). In many studies that purport to  
146 measure positive experiences, exposure is not controlled for (e.g.63,88). Many of these interventions  
147 furthermore also involve children's parents, and so may have benefits not just by allowing tasting and  
148 experience for the child, but also by improving parental perceptions of vegetables, improving attitudes  
149 towards vegetables in the home, and improving parental education and knowledge (e.g.33).  
150 Interestingly, some of the interventions included in Table 2 report parental opinions of the intervention  
151 (33,54), but as far as we can tell, none specifically tested parental knowledge or education as a result of  
152 the intervention for their children.

153

154 Table 2 about here

155

156 While largely successful, particularly over considerable exposures, exposure, however, is a relatively  
157 time-consuming practice that results in small changes, and typically only for the vegetable to which  
158 children have been exposed. Nine interventions have extended the use of exposure to consider  
159 exposure to vegetables via picture books and stories. Studies that use these interventions are detailed in  
160 Table 3. These procedures appear beneficial, although few studies have currently tested these ideas,  
161 and effects again appear small or unreliable, and typically only apply to the vegetable to which the child  
162 has been exposed. Little evidence suggests that effects generalise to other vegetables, so neither taste  
163 nor visual exposure appears to encourage consumption of a variety of vegetables. Repeated exposure to  
164 many vegetables may result in increased consumption of many vegetables, and some studies are  
165 beginning to demonstrate these effects (e.g.95,96), but generalization of exposure to non-exposed  
166 vegetables has not yet been demonstrated reliably either through the use of taste or visual stimuli. The  
167 potential for exposure to multiple as opposed to single vegetables, however, may be greater using visual  
168 as opposed to taste stimuli.

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Table 3 about here

The majority of the interventions based on taste and liking have been conducted in children. Early intervention will maximize health benefits of an increased vegetable consumption (15) and eating habits in childhood are likely to extend into adulthood (33,34). Children are also particularly likely to reject bitter tastes. Without the experience of a wide range of tastes as will be gained throughout the lifespan, children are known to rely more on primitive taste preferences. A reluctance to eat, or the avoidance of, novel foods, referred to as food neophobia (97)) also typically peaks at around 2-3 years of age, and can interfere heavily with young children's acceptance of vegetables (97-99). This neophobia typically results in the rejection of bitter tasting foods. Neophobic tendencies can also last well into adulthood, and typically correlate negatively with liking for and frequency of vegetable consumption in adulthood (100,101). The transfer of childhood eating habits and food preferences into adulthood is well known, and adult vegetable intake is often related to childhood experiences (34). Some studies using taste for increasing vegetable consumption have involved older children, and studies employing taste for encouraging the consumption of fruit and high protein foods have demonstrated success in adults and older adults (102-104), but as far as we are aware no studies have used these techniques specifically for increasing vegetable intakes in adults.

**Interventions based on changing the environment:**

A further key determinant of the majority of food consumption, and important in vegetable consumption also, is food availability or the ready and easy availability of food in the form in which it will be eaten (105-109). For adults, higher vegetable consumption is highly related to increased availability (105,108,109) and reduced cost (21,35,110,111), and low consumption is largely associated with lower socio-economic status (112,113), lower income (13,109), living in a more deprived area or lower income neighbourhood (13) and lower education (112,114). For children, the availability of food depends largely on adults and the home environment, and low vegetable consumption in children is frequently associated again with some socio-demographic factors and with various characteristics of the family environment (106,107,115-117). Relevant factors include low parental education and socio-economic status (106,115-117), low vegetable consumption and modelling by parents and caregivers (37,38,107,118), low availability of vegetables in the home (106,107,119) and a family environment that includes negative perceptions or is unsupportive of vegetable consumption (37,38,107,119,120). The

201 expression of neophobic behaviour towards vegetables also appears to be mitigated by high parental  
202 education and socio-economic status (97,121) and again by a positive and supportive environment  
203 (122,123). Low vegetable consumption in adolescents has again been associated with low parental  
204 education and socio-economic status (124), low vegetable consumption by the parents (125,126), low  
205 availability and a family environment that is unsupportive of vegetable consumption (124,126,127).  
206 Higher vegetable consumption was also associated with increased purchasing from supermarkets (128).  
207 Given the importance of adult consumption for children, many of the determinants of adult  
208 consumption will also impact on child consumption. For children and adults alike, the presentation of  
209 vegetables can also be important. Food neophobia has been found to result in the rejection of foods  
210 that do not "look right" (97), of which vegetables are good examples, and vegetable consumption with  
211 sauces and in composite dishes will not only disguise negative tastes, but may also mask undesirable  
212 appearances (36-38).

213  
214 Interventions that focus on changing the environment and increasing consumption through increasing  
215 the provision of vegetables, or improving the manner in which provision is implemented are given in  
216 Table 4. Fifty-four interventions were found. All of these, with the exception of two interventions  
217 increasing provision (142,155), two interventions increasing variety (54,131), and two interventions  
218 improving presentation (76,141), resulted in increased selection and/or consumption of vegetables,  
219 through the increased provision of vegetables (n=23), through the increased provision of a variety of  
220 vegetables (n=9), through improved presentation (n=9), through changing the texture (n=1), through  
221 changing the location of vegetables (n=1), through changing the order in which vegetables and other  
222 foods are served (n=2), and through changing the serving order, while also increasing availability (n=3).  
223 Increased consumption as a result of increased provision is unsurprising, but concerns have been raised  
224 regarding increased energy intakes as a result of increased consumption, and increased potential for  
225 food wastage (e.g.147,155,156). An absence of effects on overall energy intakes is reported in some  
226 studies (135), and concerns are mitigated if vegetables are substituted for other foods in the meal as  
227 opposed to simply added (135). Increased food waste has been reported (e.g.147), and suggestions to  
228 reduce potential food wastage include the use of family style serving dishes for individual meals  
229 (133,136) or allowing differential selection, but again the cost-effectiveness of interventions that can  
230 increase waste will be questioned. Strategies that improve the presentation of vegetables may offer a  
231 valuable alternative. These interventions typically change the salience or likely appeal of vegetables  
232 (e.g.76,142,143), and have again demonstrated success, but relatively few studies are currently

233 available. Exact mechanisms however are unclear – attractive labels may rely partly on modelling,  
234 effects due to serving order may rely partly on hunger and exposure, but the relative ease and low cost  
235 of these interventions add to their value.

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237 Table 4 about here

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### 239 **Interventions based on changing or using cognitive factors**

240 While food consumption in general is largely determined by hedonic factors and availability, cognitive  
241 factors are a major determinant of healthy food consumption (157,158). Vegetable consumption  
242 specifically has been associated in adults with a higher appreciation of health and the value of a healthy  
243 diet (34), and with greater nutritional knowledge, culinary knowledge and culinary confidence  
244 (110,159,160). Vegetable consumption has also previously been associated with several related food  
245 habits and eating practices (108,161), including usual consumption of meals as opposed to snacks  
246 (34,162), increased time and willingness to prepare and cook home-made meals (21,34,35,110), and a  
247 low consumption of fast food (34). Many of these determinants require not just an interest in health,  
248 but a willingness to commit time and resources to improving health. Vegetable consumption in  
249 adolescents has also been associated with an awareness and interest in health (127,128), self-efficacy  
250 regarding healthy eating (126,128), a willingness and ability to ask for vegetables from parents (127),  
251 and reduced purchasing by parents from fast food outlets (128).

252

253 Twenty-eight interventions were found that used information, education or other cognitive techniques  
254 to increase vegetable consumption. These interventions are described in Table 5. The majority of these  
255 interventions are aimed at older audiences (those where cognitive factors have a greater impact on  
256 vegetable consumption and non-consumption), and used a range of techniques from providing  
257 information and education on nutrition (n=8), providing information or education on nutrition-related  
258 skills (n=2), providing education plus a demonstration or gardening experience (n=3), providing tailored  
259 information (n=2), providing information on social norms (n=6), invoking choice (n=6) and invoking a  
260 memory (n=1). Our searches also identified one paper that demonstrates the importance of cognitions  
261 for vegetable consumption, but the effects demonstrated are yet to be translated into an intervention  
262 (178). This study demonstrated a reduced vegetable consumption following dissociation from unhealthy  
263 brand labels, as a result of the cognitive effort required for dissociating from unhealthy brand labels and  
264 for vegetable consumption, and suggests interventions using branding for increasing vegetable

265 consumption may be possible, but these are yet to be developed. This study thus, while identified in our  
266 searches, is not included in our tables. With the exception of one intervention that aimed to educate  
267 (33), and two interventions that utilised choice (162), all of the studies using cognitive strategies  
268 reported success to some degree, but multiple measures of impact are often taken, and success is not  
269 necessarily reported for all measures. The cost-effectiveness of these types of interventions can also be  
270 questioned. Educational interventions can be costly, particularly those involving classes or courses to be  
271 delivered by a professional, but the long term benefit of these interventions can also be difficult to  
272 assess. Knowledge accumulates over time and experience, and it can be difficult for individuals to  
273 pinpoint the exact source / sources of beneficial education.

274

275 Table 5 about here

276

#### 277 **Multi-component interventions:**

278 Finally, the majority of individuals fail to consume adequate quantities of vegetables for multiple  
279 reasons or differing reasons at multiple time-points, thus interventions are available that aim to tackle a  
280 number of determinants of poor consumption at one time. These multi-component interventions  
281 involve a combination of strategies. Twenty-one of these interventions were found as described in Table  
282 6. Again all the published reports evaluating these interventions report success, but again multiple  
283 measures are often taken, which demonstrate varying degrees of benefit. These types of intervention  
284 can also be time consuming and costly to implement. Success is furthermore not often easily  
285 attributable to the combination of many strategies as opposed to the use of any single one.

286

287 Table 6 about here

288

#### 289 **DISCUSSION**

290 A variety of interventions for increasing vegetable intakes are currently available, and many of these  
291 report success to some degree. Greatest success is reported currently from the interventions focusing  
292 on changing the environment, improving education and from the multi-component interventions using a  
293 combination of approaches. The majority of interventions published in the last two years utilise an  
294 increase in the provision of vegetables or the improved presentation of vegetables (see Table 4), or  
295 multiple strategies (see Table 6). The increase in publication of these types of intervention most likely

296 reflects a current interest in behavioural interventions based on automatic processing (nudging), and a  
297 quest by researchers to find interventions that work by combining a number of strategies.  
298 Evaluation periods, however, remain typically short, effect-sizes can be small, and the studies that use  
299 longer follow-up periods often report reductions in effect size as follow-up periods are extended. Cost-  
300 effectiveness is also rarely considered. Cost-effectiveness becomes an increasing concern in long lasting  
301 and multi-component interventions, but it can be difficult to assess the long term benefit of some  
302 interventions. Education, knowledge and experience, for example, will accumulate over time, and it can  
303 be difficult to attribute increased intakes to any particular gain in knowledge or intervention. Further  
304 work is clearly still required. A greater number and variety of intervention evaluations would increase  
305 the evidence base, and more reliably inform future policies. Longer term follow-ups for interventions  
306 are important, and consideration of more sustainable behaviours or the more sustainable elements of  
307 behaviour, such as habit formation, would be of value.

308  
309 The majority of studies so far, also target children or other easy-to-reach groups. Vegetable  
310 consumption is known to be particularly low in individuals of low education and of low socio-economic  
311 status (195), but few of the interventions published to date focus on or even include individuals with  
312 these demographic characteristics. Certain age groups are also noticeably absent from the list of current  
313 studies. Adolescents and older adults would benefit also from improved vegetable intakes for improved  
314 health. Many of the determinants of vegetable intakes also apply to many different demographic  
315 groups, thus interventions in one population group may benefit other groups also. Taste strategies to  
316 increase liking, for example, have been found to increase fruit consumption in older adults as well as  
317 children (102) and are currently being tested in adults for vegetable consumption (91). We recommend  
318 careful consideration of barriers however, and caution against a 'one size fits all' approach. While  
319 interventions may be successful across individuals and population groups, testing is clearly required.  
320 Comparisons of interventions could also be helpful. Multi-component interventions are rarely unpicked  
321 to investigate the successful component, yet comparing interventions, or the identification of more  
322 effective intervention components could contribute considerably to understanding, lasting impact and  
323 improved cost-effectiveness. Several types of broader population-based interventions have also not yet  
324 been considered specifically for vegetable consumption. Strategies such as pricing and marketing,  
325 improved product provision, government subsidies, and population-wide awareness and education  
326 campaigns (see 196-198) specifically for vegetables do not yet exist, or have not yet been evaluated as  
327 far as we are aware.

328

329 **CONCLUSION**

330 In conclusion, a variety of interventions for increasing vegetable intakes are currently available that have  
331 been tested and evaluated. Greatest success is currently achieved for interventions that focus on  
332 changing the environment, improving education and that use a combination of strategies. Considerable  
333 further work however is required to identify impacts over the long-term and establish cost-effectiveness  
334 and sustainability.

335

336 **CONTRIBUTIONS OF AUTHORS**

337 KMA led and undertook the systematic review and wrote the manuscript, AH and HH also undertook  
338 aspects of the systematic review and update. All authors reviewed and offered critical comments on the  
339 manuscript.

340

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344

345 **CONFLICTS OF INTEREST**

346 L Depezay and E Castagna are employees of Bonduelle, Villeneuve D'Ascq, France, a vegetable  
347 processing company. There are no other conflicts of interest.

348

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