

Manuscript Details

Manuscript number	FQAP_2019_572_R2
Title	Cross-national differences in child food neophobia: a comparison of five European countries
Article type	Research Paper

Abstract

Food neophobia (FN) has been extensively explored, especially in children. However, very few studies have compared this food behavior in children from different countries. Considering the clear diversity between European countries in feeding practices and food consumption, it is important to deepen the understanding of cross-national differences in child FN. The aim of this study was to explore and compare FN in five European countries (Finland, Italy, Spain, Sweden and UK) using a food neophobia scale specifically designed for children. Five hundred and twenty-nine children (54% girls) aged 9-12 years were recruited from schools in each country and were asked to complete the Italian Child Food Neophobia Scale (ICFNS, Laureati et al., 2015a), which was translated into each respective language. Parents (n≈300) completed a food consumption frequency questionnaire for their child, and provided background information. Reliability of the tool was assessed through internal consistency and temporal stability. Total internal consistency was 0.76. When calculated by country, internal consistency was satisfactory (Cronbach's alpha > 0.70) for all countries. FN was negatively associated to fruit and vegetable consumption, liking of wholegrain biscuits, and timing of introduction of semi-solid food. There were small but significant cross-national differences in FN with British and Swedish children being the most neophobic and significantly higher in FN than Finnish children, who were the most neophilic. Results indicate that the tool can be successfully used in all the tested countries with children in the age range of 9-12 years. The tool can be useful to measure the effects of interventions aiming at changing food behaviors, such as reducing FN, among children.

Keywords	childhood; cross-cultural differences; food rejection; healthy eating
Taxonomy	Applied Sensory Psychophysics, Cultural Studies in Food Consumer Research
Corresponding Author	Monica Laureati
Corresponding Author's Institution	Università degli Studi di Milano
Order of Authors	Cristina Proserpio, Valerie Almlı, Pernilla Sandvik, Mari Sandell, Lisa Methven, Marlies Wallner, Hannah Jilani, Gertrude Zeinstra, Begona Alfaro, Monica Laureati
Suggested reviewers	J�r�mie Lafraire, Annemarie Olsen, Jacqueline Blissett

Submission Files Included in this PDF

File Name [File Type]

Reply reviewers R2 DEF.docx [Response to Reviewers]

HighlightsR1.docx [Highlights]

Manuscript paper 2 - FNS EU - R2.docx [Manuscript File]

FiguresR2.docx [Figure]

TablesR2.docx [Table]

Author statement.docx [Author Statement]

To view all the submission files, including those not included in the PDF, click on the manuscript title on your EVISE Homepage, then click 'Download zip file'.

Research Data Related to this Submission

There are no linked research data sets for this submission. The following reason is given:
Data will be made available on request

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59

We compared food neophobia (FN) across Europe using a child-friendly tool

The ICFNS is a robust and efficient tool to measure FN in European young consumers

The tool was able to detect cross-national differences in FN

FN is linked to lower consumption of fresh fruits, vegetables, seeds and nuts, and wholegrain products

The tool can be useful in interventions aiming to change FN related behaviors among children

Cross-national differences in **child** food neophobia: a comparison of five European countries

C. Proserpio¹, V. L. Almlí², P. Sandvik³, M. Sandell⁴, L. Methven⁵, M. Wallner⁶, H. Jilani⁷, G.G. Zeinstra⁸, B. Alfaro⁹, M. Laureati^{1*}

¹University of Milan, Italy; ²Nofima, Norway; ³Uppsala University, Sweden; ⁴University of Turku, Finland; ⁵University of Reading, UK; ⁶University of Applied Sciences, Graz, Austria; ⁷Institute for Public Health and Nursing Science – IPP, University of Bremen and Leibniz-Institute for Prevention Research and Epidemiology – BIPS, Bremen, Germany; ⁸Wageningen Food & Biobased Research, The Netherlands; ⁹AZTI, Spain;

Abstract

Food neophobia (FN) has been extensively explored, especially in children. However, very few studies have compared this food behavior in children from different countries. Considering the clear diversity between European countries in feeding practices and food consumption, it is important to deepen the understanding of cross-national differences in child FN. **The aim of this study was to explore and compare FN in five European countries (Finland, Italy, Spain, Sweden and UK) using a food neophobia scale specifically designed for children.** Five hundred and twenty-nine children (54% girls) aged 9-12 years were recruited from schools in each country and were asked to complete the **Italian Child Food Neophobia Scale (ICFNS, Laureati et al., 2015a)**, which was translated into each respective language. Parents (n≈300) completed a food consumption frequency questionnaire for their child, and provided background information. Reliability of the tool was assessed through internal consistency and temporal stability. Total internal consistency was 0.76. When calculated by country, internal consistency was satisfactory (Cronbach's alpha > 0.70) for all countries. FN was negatively associated to fruit and vegetable consumption, liking of wholegrain biscuits, and timing of introduction of semi-solid food. There were small but significant cross-national differences in FN with British and Swedish children being the most neophobic and significantly higher in FN than Finnish children, who were the most neophilic. Results indicate that the tool can be successfully used in all the tested countries with children in the age range of 9-12 years. The tool can be useful to measure the effects of interventions aiming at changing food behaviors, such as reducing FN, among children.

Keywords: childhood; cross-cultural differences; food rejection; healthy eating

1. Introduction

It is widely recognized that following a balanced and varied diet is important for a healthy development throughout the life span (Foote et al., 2004). Considering that dietary habits formed in infancy often persist into later life (Nicklaus, Boggio, Chabanet, & Issanchou, 2004, 2005), it is desirable to establish healthy dietary patterns during childhood. A balanced diet includes a great variety of foods, whereas a reduced dietary variety is associated with poor micro-nutrient intake in adults and children (Foote et al., 2004; Evans et al., 2018). One factor that negatively influences dietary quality and variety is food neophobia (FN) (Falciglia, Couch, Gribble, Pabst, & Frank, 2000), which is the fear to try new and unknown foods (Pliner and Hobden, 1992). Children with higher neophobia may be more selective, leading to reduced dietary variety, which may contribute to inadequate nutrient intake (Falciglia et al., 2000). Thus, FN could potentially lead to important nutritional consequences (Zickgraf and Schepps, 2016; Jaeger et al., 2017). It is largely recognized that FN is negatively related to daily intake and liking of fruit and vegetables (Perry et al., 2015; Fletcher, Wright, Jones, Parkinson, & Adamson, 2017) as well as of food of animal origin, especially fish. Interestingly, literature indicates that this relation is the same over different countries and cultures (Knaapila et al., 2011; Zickgraf and Schepps, 2016; Jaeger et al., 2017; Laureati et al., 2018). Moreover, a positive association between FN and increased body mass index (BMI) has been observed in adults (Knaapila et al., 2015; Proserpio et al., 2018). Neophobic individuals may choose to eat familiar foods which are more energy dense than fruits and vegetables (Knaapila et al., 2011) or may be less willing to try healthy alternative versions of familiar products (Laureati et al., 2015b).

To tackle, prevent and try to decrease FN, it is necessary to deepen the understanding of factors associated with this eating behavior. In this context, standardized instruments are needed to measure FN across subjects with different ages and cultures. The Food Neophobia Scale (FNS) developed by Pliner and Hobden in 1992 (Pliner and Hobden, 1992) represents an established instrument to measure FN in adults across different cultures (Ritchey et al., 2003). There are different tools available for measuring FN in children (Damsbo-Svendsen et al., 2017). Some of them cannot be completed by children themselves but by a proxy (e.g., parent). Besides the fact that parents can only report about their children's behavior under their control/view, it has been shown previously that parents might pull the answers in the direction of parents'

119
120
121
122
123
124
125
126
127
128
129
130
131
132
133
134
135
136
137
138
139
140
141
142
143
144
145
146
147
148
149
150
151
152
153
154
155
156
157
158
159
160
161
162
163
164
165
166
167
168
169
170
171
172
173
174
175
176
177

55 behavior instead of their children's behavior (Mata et al., 2008). Laureati and collaborators (2015) adapted
56 the Pliner and Hobden's FNS into an instrument that can be answered by children themselves (Laureati et al.,
57 2015a). It is inspired from the 10-item questionnaire developed by Pliner and Hobden (1992) with some
58 adaptations made to make the tool more child-friendly (i.e., 8 items answered on a 5-point facial scale with
59 lexicon suitable to children). This instrument has been developed for Italian children and it has been found
60 to be valid and reliable from the age of 8 years. However, it is of interest to investigate FN in different
61 countries because feeding behavior and dietary habits differ between food cultures. These different practices
62 from various food cultures might be positively or negatively associated with FN. To our knowledge, there is
63 only one recent study in UK children that validated an instrument that was originally developed to assess
64 food rejections in French children (Rioux et al., 2019). This instrument was valid for both cultures and could
65 describe differences in food rejections among children from the two countries. Still, this instrument was
66 answered by parents and not by children themselves. Moreover, in a recent review of factors related to picky
67 eating and food neophobia in young children, Cole et al. (2017) highlighted that although there are a number
68 of studies across different countries exploring food rejections in children, few studies have compared these
69 behaviors in children from different cultural groups (Rioux et al., 2019).

70 In view of the above, the main aim of the present study was to apply a self-administered instrument
71 consisting of the Italian version of the Child Food Neophobia Scale (ICFNS, Laureati et al., 2015a) in five
72 European countries (Finland, Italy, Spain, Sweden and UK). The tool was used to compare food neophobic
73 traits among children aged between 9 and 12 years from different cultures, and to explore the relation of
74 this personality trait with a series of variables associated with food habits and consumption in children (i.e.,
75 age, gender, body mass index, weaning practices, food consumption frequency). Weaning practices were
76 explored since previous research (Coulthard et al., 2009) reported an association between time of
77 introduction of complementary food and food neophobia.

78 Moreover, as a secondary aim, the attitudinal measure obtained from the ICFNS was related to a behavioral
79 measure (i.e. food acceptance) through the liking evaluation of wholegrain biscuits. Despite the fact that
80 biscuits are well liked and familiar among children, we used formulations very high in fiber content, which
81 has been related to neophobic reactions in children (Proserpio et al., 2019), probably due to the fact that it

178
179
180 82 imparts dark color as well as bitter taste and lumpy texture to food (Laureati et al., 2016). The biscuits
181
182 83 provided to the children are available only in the Italian market and are targeted to adults thus, we assumed
183
184 84 they would be unlikely to be familiar to children.
185
186 85 We hypothesized that the ICFNS would be culturally appropriate and would be able to detect country-related
187
188 86 differences as well as associations between FN and background variables. Moreover, we expected that FN
189
190 87 would be negatively associated with healthy foods consumption (e.g. fruits and vegetables) as well as liking
191
192 88 of fiber-rich biscuits.
193
194
195 89

197 90 2. Material and Methods

199 91 2.1. Participants

201 92 Five hundred and twenty-nine children aged 9-12 years and their parents participated in a cross-sectional
202
203 93 study (Table 1). They were recruited via primary schools in five countries (Finland, Italy, Spain, Sweden and
204
205 94 United Kingdom) in order to include nations from Northern to Southern Europe with differences in food
206
207 95 culture, consumption and, potentially, FN. This age range was chosen to have a relatively homogeneous
208
209 96 group as these children have sufficient cognitive skills to understand most sensory tests and have sufficient
210
211 97 reading skills to complete simple questionnaires individually (Laureati et al., 2015c). Children were balanced
212
213 98 according to gender, except for Finland, which had a higher proportion of girls due to an imbalance in the
214
215 99 class composition at the school. On average, 64% (n=339) of the parents completed the parental
216
217 100 questionnaire. Occasionally, some parent did not reply to specific questions (e.g. parental age) thus, the
218
219 101 number of parental responses varied slightly across questions. Mothers (81.5% of the parental respondents)
220
221 102 more frequently completed the questionnaire than fathers. Parents were informed about the procedures
222
223 103 and were asked to sign an informed consent when they agreed on participation. Children without a signed
224
225 104 informed consent were excluded from the study. None of the enrolled children wished to withdraw from the
226
227 105 study. The study protocol was approved by the Ethical Committees of each country. In countries where data
228
229 106 collection was carried out after 28 May 2019 (General Data Protection Regulation enforceable), permission
230
231 107 to store and handle the data in the authors' respective countries was obtained.
232
233
234
235
236

237
238
239 108 INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE
240
241 109
242
243 110

2.2. Procedures

244
245 111 Questionnaires and procedures for both children and parents were translated in English, reviewed by a native
246
247
248 112 English speaker, and then translated in every language by two independent native speakers. The two
249
250 113 translated versions were compared to identify discrepancies and reach consensus for an updated version. To
251
252 114 improve comparability of the data collected in different cultures (Ares, 2018), procedures, experimental
253
254 115 design and instructions to children and parents were the same in all countries and all tests and re-tests were
255
256 116 carried out within a three-month period in the spring of 2018.
257

2.2.1. Tests completed by children

258 117
259
260 118
261
262 119 Children either performed the tests at their school or in a nearby facility, or their whole class visited the
263
264 120 researcher's university department. All children independently provided their answers directly onto tablets
265
266 121 or computers. The research team carefully explained the procedures to the children. Children were tested
267
268 122 by class or in smaller groups (4-5 children) depending on the availability of tablets/computers. Firstly, children
269
270 123 indicated their age and gender, then they self-completed the **ICFNS**, which was previously developed and
271
272 124 validated for Italian school-aged children (Laureati et al., 2015a). This tool consists of 8 items representing 4
273
274 125 neophobic and 4 neophilic food situations (Table 2). For each item, children were asked to provide an answer
275
276 126 using a **5-point scale with facial expressions (emoticons) representing different degrees of agreement (from**
277
278 127 **left to right, "Very false for me"= a frown face with both thumbs down; "False for me"= a frown face with**
279
280
281 128 **one thumb down; "So so"= a neutral face with no thumbs shown; "True for me"= a smiley face with one**
282
283 129 **thumb up; "Very true for me"= a smiley face with both thumbs up)**. Emoticons are familiar to children and
284
285 130 enable embedding the research task in a game-like situation, which is known to increase children's
286
287 131 motivation and attention span. Moreover, representing a non-verbal method, emoticons may offer a
288
289 132 standardized, universal way across countries to measure food behavior in children (Gallo et al., 2017).
290
291
292
293
294
295

296
297
298
299
300
301
302
303
304
305
306
307
308
309
310
311
312
313
314
315
316
317
318
319
320
321
322
323
324
325
326
327
328
329
330
331
332
333
334
335
336
337
338
339
340
341
342
343
344
345
346
347
348
349
350
351
352
353
354

133 In order to check reliability of the ICFNS, a sub-sample of children (N=65; 51% boys; Italy: n=22, Sweden: n=21
134 and UK: n=22) was re-tested within a period of approximately two months. They were asked to complete the
135 ICFNS following the same procedures as with the first test.

INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE

137 After the completion of the questionnaire, children were provided with a series of six biscuits varying in fiber
138 content (from 4.6% to 10%) and asked to rate their liking on a 7-point hedonic facial scale (Laureati et al.,
139 2015c). Depending on the organization of the experiment in each country, the liking test was performed on
140 the same day of the FN assessment, after a short rest, or a few days later. Children were tested by class or in
141 smaller groups (4-5 children) in the presence of the teacher and/or the experimenters who instructed them
142 to avoid any comment and not to share biscuits with other pupils. Children received the biscuits in random
143 order and were instructed to clean their mouth with a sip of water between tastings. The liking test on
144 biscuits served as a behavioral measure to be related to the attitudinal measure from the ICFNS. While biscuit
145 is a child-friendly product category, we assumed, according to previous research (Proserpio et al., 2019), that
146 wholegrain biscuits may generate different acceptance levels in neophobic and neophilic children. Moreover,
147 the biscuits used in this study could reasonably be considered unfamiliar to children, as they are only present
148 on the Italian market and even in this case are not targeted to children but to adult consumers.

2.2.2. Tests completed by parents

151 Parents provided information on their child's birthdate, height and weight. The Body Mass Index (BMI) was
152 calculated as the weight (kg) per height (m²). The gender-specific BMI-for-age percentiles were calculated
153 according to the International Obesity Task Force (IOTF) cut-offs (Cole et al., 2000). In UK, children's height
154 and weight were measured to the nearest 0.1 cm and 0.1 kg using a high-precision mechanical scale and a
155 stadiometer, respectively. BMI was expressed as kgm⁻².

156 In addition, parents completed a food frequency of consumption questionnaire (FFQ) based on the work of
157 Hedrick et al. (2010). The questionnaire is extensively described in the paper by Laureati et al. (2020). Briefly,
158 the FFQ consisted of 17 food categories, including conventional and whole grain versions of a series of bakery
159 products, pasta and rice, as well as fruits and vegetables. For each item, parents had to indicate how often

355
356
357 160 their child had eaten the food products during the last month choosing among the following options: less
358
359 161 than once a month or never, 1-3x per month, 1-3x per week, 4-6x per week, once a day, multiple times per
360
361 162 day along with the option 'I don't know for my child'. The consumption frequency of the food items was
362
363 163 converted to Daily Frequency Equivalentents (DFE) calculated by allocating proportional values to the original
364
365 164 frequency categories with reference to a base value of 1.0, equivalent to once a day (Daly et al., 2011; Ireland
366
367 et al., 1994; Jayasinghe et al., 2017). The scores were calculated as follows: DFE of 0 = less than once a month
368 165 or never, DFE of 0.07 = 1-3x per month, DFE of 0.28 = 1-3x per week, DFE of 0.71 = 4-6x per week, DFE of 1 =
369
370 166 once a day, DFE of 2.5 = multiple times per day.
371
372 167
373
374 168 Moreover, parents also provided information on their child weaning practices by reporting the age of
375
376 169 introducing semi-solid (e.g., yogurt, fruit/vegetable puree) and solid (e.g. pieces of bread) foods (before the
377
378 170 age of 4 months, between 4-6 months, between 7-9 months, later than 9 months, I don't know/ I don't
379
380 171 remember at all). Finally, parents reported on their own age, gender, their perceived socio-economic
381
382 172 situation on a 7-point scale ("1= difficult", "4=moderate" and "7=well-off", [Almli et al., 2011](#)) and highest
383
384 173 completed level of education for themselves.
385

386 174 387 388 175 **2.3. Data Analysis** 389

390 176 The answers to the 8 items of the ICFNS were summed up (with items 1, 4, 5 and 8 using reversed scoring;
391
392 177 see Table 2) to have a ICFNS score ranged from 8 to 40. A higher score indicates a higher level of FN. The
393
394 178 frequency distribution of FN scores was calculated over all countries and by country. According to Shapiro-
395
396 179 Wilk test, the distributions were always normal. Children were divided into 3 groups according to the 25th
397
398 and 75th percentiles calculated across total sample: "low food neophobia" (children in the lowest quartile,
399 180 scores ≤ 17), "high food neophobia" (children in the highest quartile, scores ≥ 24) and "medium food
400
401 181 neophobia" (children in the mid 50%, scores 18-23).
402
403 182

404
405 183 Reliability of the tool was assessed by calculating internal consistency (Cronbach's α) and temporal stability
406
407 184 by test-retest evaluation. Analysis of Cronbach's α with deleted variables was performed in order to
408
409 185 investigate whether all the items contributed in the same way to the construct. Temporal stability of each
410
411 186 item and of total FNS score in the test-retest evaluation was checked through Pearson's correlation and
412
413

414
415
416 187 paired t-tests. Consistent with previous studies (Fernandez-Ruiz et al., 2013; Laureati et al., 2015a; Laureati
417
418 188 et al., 2018), the relationship between each item was further evaluated with Principal Component Analysis
419
420 189 (PCA). Data were standardized (i.e., scaled to unit variance) prior to modeling and cross validation was chosen
421
422 190 as validation method.
423
424 191 The association between FN and FFQ was investigated using Pearson's correlation supported by two-way
425
426 192 ANOVA considering Country, FN level and their interactions as factors and consumption frequency (expressed
427
428 193 in DFE) as dependent variable. Three-way ANOVA considering Country, FN level, Biscuit and their interactions
429
430 194 as factors and liking scores as dependent variable was used to explore the association between FN and
431
432 195 biscuits liking.
433
434 196 The association between weaning practices and FN was tested with Spearman's correlation. The association
435
436 197 between FN, BMI, parental age and socio-economic status (SES) variables was investigated through Pearson's
437
438 198 correlation (i.e., BMI, parental age and perceived economic status) or through ANOVA (i.e., educational
439
440 199 level).
441
442 200 When the ANOVAs showed a significant effect, the Bonferroni test *post-hoc* comparison adjusted for multiple
443
444 201 comparison was used. A p-value of 0.05 was considered as threshold for statistical significance. A p-value
445
446 202 lower than 0.10 was also reported for tendencies.
447
448 203 The SAS/STAT statistical software package version 9.3.1 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, USA) and The Unscrambler
449
450 204 X software version 10.4.1 (CAMO Software AS, Oslo, Norway) were used for the data analysis.
451
452
453
454 205

455 206 **3. Results**

457 207 **3.1. Reliability of the tool in different EU countries**

459 208 **3.1.1. Internal validity: Cronbach's alpha**

461
462 209 Cronbach's alphas calculated over all countries and by country are reported in Table 3. Total internal
463
464 210 consistency was 0.76 (n=529), comparable to the suggested value of 0.70 given by Nunnally and Bernstein
465
466 211 (1988). When calculated by country, internal consistency was satisfactory for all countries as well (alpha >
467
468 212 0.70). Cronbach's alpha values were recalculated (both overall and by country) where variables were
469
470 213 removed in order to calculate the expected standardized alpha coefficient after removing one item at a time.
471
472

473
474
475
476
477
478
479
480
481
482
483
484
485
486
487
488
489
490
491
492
493
494
495
496
497
498
499
500
501
502
503
504
505
506
507
508
509
510
511
512
513
514
515
516
517
518
519
520
521
522
523
524
525
526
527
528
529
530
531

214 The standardized alpha coefficient provides information about how each item reflects the reliability of the
215 scale. If the standardized alpha decreases after removing an item from the construct, then this variable is
216 strongly correlated with other items in the scale. On the other hand, if the standardized alpha increases after
217 removing an item from the construct, then removing this variable from the scale makes the construct more
218 reliable (SAS Procedure Guide, version 9.4). In the present case, the standardized alpha coefficients did not
219 show a significant increase or decrease both overall and by country, suggesting there was no improvement
220 in removing some specific item from the scale.

INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE

222 The relationship between the items was further investigated through PCA (Fig. 1). PCA performed over all
223 countries and by country showed that PC1 accounted for a total explained variance ranged from 34% to 45%,
224 whereas PC2 explained a further 12%-15%. Total explained variance ranged from 49% to 57%. All items were
225 positively related on PC1, indicating that they were measuring the same construct, i.e. FN.

INSERTI FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

3.1.2. Temporal stability

229 Temporal stability of the ICFNS was investigated in 3 countries (Italy, Sweden and UK) due to practical
230 constraints. Total ICFNS scores and individual item scores by country in the test-retest evaluation are
231 reported in Table 4. Paired t-test analysis performed over all countries and by country showed no significant
232 differences between the total FNS scores and individual ICFNS items score across time, with the exception of
233 item 8 in UK, indicating temporal stability. This result was supported by an overall positive and significant
234 correlation between the two assessments (n=65, r=0.82, p<0.0001). The analysis by country also showed a
235 positive and significant correlation between the two assessments (Italy: n=22, r=0.71, p=0.002; Sweden:
236 n=21, r=0.89, p<0.0001; UK: n=22, r=0.90, p<0.0001).

INSERT TABLE 4 ABOUT HERE

3.2. Effect of child age, gender, country and BMI on food neophobia

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

550

551

552

553

554

555

556

557

558

559

560

561

562

563

564

565

566

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

240 Results from 3-way ANOVA with interactions showed that the only demographic factor that had a significant
241 effect on FN was country of origin ($F_{4,505}=2.44$, $p=0.05$), whereas neither age nor gender showed significant
242 effects. British ($M=21.7$) and Swedish ($M=21.4$) children were comparable and significantly more neophobic
243 than Finnish ($M=19.2$) children. Italy ($M=19.5$) and Spain ($M=20.5$) were comparable to all countries (Table
3). Although significant, country-related differences were very small. According to Pearson's correlation,
there was no significant association between FN and BMI.

3.3. Association between food neophobia and food consumption frequency

248 Considering all countries, FN correlated negatively and significantly with consumption frequency of fresh
249 fruits ($r=-0.17$, $p=0.003$), vegetables ($r=-0.14$, $p=0.01$), wholegrain biscuits ($r=-0.14$, $p=0.02$), seeds and nuts
250 ($r=-0.12$, $p=0.03$), and pasta ($r=-0.12$, $p=0.03$), whereas a negative tendency was seen for wholegrain cereals
251 ($r=-0.10$, $p=0.09$) and dried fruits ($r=-0.10$, $p=0.09$). When the analysis was conducted by country, there were
252 occasionally negative and significant correlations such as, for example, wholegrain bread in Sweden and
253 wholegrain biscuits and pasta in Spain (Table 5).

INSERT TABLE 5 ABOUT HERE

255 ANOVA confirmed a significant effect of the main factor FN on parent-reported fresh fruits ($F_{2,303}=3.23$,
256 $p=0.04$) and vegetables ($F_{2,303}=5.50$, $p=0.004$) consumption. In both cases, children with a low FN level
257 consumed the food items more frequently than the children with a high level of FN, while a medium FN was
258 associated with intermediate fruits and vegetables consumptions (Figure 2). The interaction FN*Country was
259 never significant indicating that this outcome was the same in all countries.

3.4. Association between food neophobia and wholegrain biscuits liking

262 The main factor FN was significant ($F_{2,2988}=21.21$, $p<0.0001$). Multiple comparison test showed that the three
263 FN groups differed significantly from each other, with the children with low FN level showing the highest
264 liking ratings ($M=5.7$; $SEM=0.05$), followed by the children with medium FN ($M=5.4$; $SEM=0.04$) and the
265 lowest liking rating for children with high FN ($M=5.1$; $SEM=0.05$) (Figure 3). The interactions FN*Country,

591
592
593
594
595
596
597
598
599
600
601
602
603
604
605
606
607
608
609
610
611
612
613
614
615
616
617
618
619
620
621
622
623
624
625
626
627
628
629
630
631
632
633
634
635
636
637
638
639
640
641
642
643
644
645
646
647
648
649

266 FN*biscuit and FN*country*biscuit were not significant, indicating that this **outcome** was the same in all five
267 countries independently of the biscuit type.

3.5. *Effect of weaning practices on food neophobia*

270 In general, semi-solid foods (e.g. yogurt, fruit/vegetable purée) were introduced into the children's diet
271 mainly at 4-6 months (63.2%), while a smaller proportion of parents did so at 7-9 months (21.1%) and before
272 4 months (7.9%). Concerning the introduction of solid foods (e.g. pieces of bread/biscuit) into the child's diet,
273 44.4% of parents started at 7-9 months and 27.8% later than 9 months. A non-negligible proportion (16.7%)
274 started at 4-6 months (Table 6). In this respect, Italy was somewhat different from the other countries
275 reporting a later timing of introduction of both semi-solid and solid foods in the child's diet.
276 Spearman's correlation analysis showed that, over all countries, FN was significantly and negatively ($\rho = -0.13$,
277 $p = 0.04$) correlated to the age of introduction of semi-solids in the child's diet. The analysis by country showed
278 that this association was significant ($\rho = -0.23$; $p = 0.03$) only for UK. However, no significant effect was found
279 between the start of fully solid foods and FN in children.

INSERT TABLE 6 ABOUT HERE

3.6. *Effect of parental age, perceived economic status and educational level on food neophobia*

283 Regarding parental age and economic status, no significant associations were found in the total sample.
284 When the analysis was performed by country, sporadic associations were found. In Finland, a negative and
285 significant relation between FN and parental age ($n = 32$, $r = -0.40$, $p = 0.02$) was seen, indicating that older
286 parents have more neophilic children. In Spain, a positive association between FN and perceived economic
287 status ($n = 89$, $r = 0.27$, $p = 0.01$) was found, indicating that the higher the perceived family economic situation,
288 the higher the child's FN level.

4. Discussion

291 Considering the clear differences between European countries in feeding practices and food consumption, it
292 is essential to deepen the understanding of cross-national differences in children's FN. This study is the first

650
651
652 293 to compare FN in a sample of school-aged children from five different European countries using the same
653
654 294 standardized and validated tool. As such, this study provides a relatively broad picture to the scarce literature
655
656 295 about cross-national differences in children's FN.
657
658 296 **The present study provided evidence that the ICFNS was a simple tool with age-appropriate vocabulary, items**
659
660
661 297 **and response format (facial expressions), which facilitated the self-completion and understanding of the**
662
663 298 **questionnaire in all tested countries.** In fact, we found that the ICFNS internal consistency and temporal
664
665 299 stability over all countries and by country were satisfactory and comparable to findings from previous
666
667 300 research on children (Loewen & Pliner, 2000; Reverdy et al., 2008; Laureati et al., 2015a; Gomes et al., 2018).
668
669 301 Moreover, ICFNS scores were negatively associated with liking of wholegrain biscuits and consumption
670
671 302 frequency of healthy foods such as fruits, vegetables and wholegrain products. However, the correlation
672
673 303 coefficients reflecting the association between FN and food consumption were weak, probably because, in
674
675 304 the present study, the ICFNS was related to more general dietary items present in the FFQ (e.g. fruit,
676
677 305 vegetable, pasta, and a cookie), and not to novel foods. An **unexpected** finding was that FN was related to
678
679 306 pasta, which is a starchy product with bland taste that usually does not elicit neophobic reactions (Cooke et
680
681 307 al., 2003; Laureati et al., 2018). This result may be due to the fact that in some countries pasta is eaten with
682
683 308 ingredients (e.g. vegetables, meat or fish) that may be responsible of the neophobic reaction.
684
685 309 Despite differences among FN scores being small, we found that British and Swedish children showed higher
686
687 310 FN compared to Finnish children. Differences in FN among different food cultures are not surprising and may
688
689 311 be ascribed to differences in feeding practices and different food availability. Research carried out on 11-
690
691 312 years-old children in nine European countries showed that the vegetable intake of European children differs
692
693 313 as a result of living country (Yngve et al., 2005). Unfortunately, only two of the five countries involved in the
694
695 314 present study (Spain and Sweden) were considered in the work of Yngve et al. (2005) so the comparison
696
697 315 between the two studies is difficult. Rioux et al. (2019) also found differences between French and British
698
699 316 children's (2-7 years of age) food rejection, with France being more selective than UK. In a cross-cultural
700
701 317 comparison of FN in adults, Ritchey et al. (2003) found that Swedish adults were less neophobic than their
702
703 318 American and Finnish counterparts. The fact that differences in FN scores among countries found in the
704
705 319 present study were not large may also be due to the fact that children tested in the present study were aged
706
707
708

709
710
711 320 9-12 years. At this age, FN is in a descending phase (Dovey et al., 2008; Nicklaus, 2009), thus it might be more
712
713 321 difficult to detect differences in food rejections compared to younger children. The specific age range may
714
715 322 also explain the lack of age-related differences in FN in the sample of children tested in the present study.
716
717
718 323 Additionally, we did not find gender-related differences in FN, whereas other studies have reported boys
719
720 324 being more neophobic than girls (Koivisto & Sjöden, 1996; Reverdy et al., 2008). Interestingly, Laureati et al.
721
722 325 (2014) found gender-related differences in FN level in children aged 6 and 7 years with boys being more
723
724 326 neophobic than girls. These differences, however, disappeared in children aged 8 and 9 years, suggesting
725
726 327 that with increasing age, differences in FN due to gender may decrease. In adults, gender-related differences
727
728 328 in FN are not found (Knaapila et al., 2015) or rarely found and when they are, the differences are marginal
729
730 329 (Koivisto Hursti & Sjödén, 1997; Tuorila et al., 2001; Siegrist et al., 2013; Laureati et al., 2018) supporting the
731
732 330 conclusion that gender effects are likely to be less important than many other variables related to food
733
734 331 rejection (Nordin, Broman, Garvill, & Nyroos, 2004).
735
736 332 FN was not related to BMI in the children in this study, in agreement with previous research on children of
737
738 333 similar age range (Laureati et al., 2015b). The link between FN and nutritional status might be bidirectional.
739
740 334 FN might manifest in a diet with a limited variety of foodstuffs, thus reducing the energy intake; in contrast,
741
742 335 food neophobics could prefer to consume traditional foods with a higher energy density compared with
743
744 336 healthier food, resulting in a higher BMI (Knaapila et al., 2011). A positive association between FN and BMI
745
746 337 has been highlighted in a couple of studies involving adults (Knaapila et al., 2015; Proserpio et al., 2018) but
747
748 338 rather few research exist on children (Laureati et al., 2015b). It is possible to hypothesize that the relationship
749
750 339 between FN and BMI becomes more evident with increasing age due to the fact that dietary habits
751
752 340 established in infancy, such as food neophobia, often persist into later life, as demonstrated by the high
753
754 341 percentage (up to 45%) of neophobic adults found in different countries (Meiselman et al., 2010; Jaeger et
755
756 342 al., 2017; Laureati et al., 2018).
757
758
759 343 A weak, negative association between FN and the age of introduction of semi-solids in children's diet was
760
761 344 seen in our data. In line with our finding, Robinson et al. (2007) showed that poorer-quality diets (i.e., less
762
763 345 fruit, vegetable and wholegrain products) of young children (6-12 months) were more common in families
764
765 346 where solid foods were introduced at an earlier age. The transition from an exclusive breast-feeding to a
766
767

768
769
770 347 mixed diet consisting of milk and semi-solid and solid foods is a crucial period as it is the first step toward
771
772 348 child's diet variety (WHO, 2003). Consequences of timing of complementary food introduction in terms of
773
774 349 food behaviour and acceptance are not very well documented (Nicklaus, 2011), and the arguments
775
776 350 supporting an early or late introduction are contradictory. Delaying complementary feeding too long or
777
778 351 starting too early may both have side effects (Costantini et al., 2019). For instance, if the introduction of
779
780 352 complementary foods begins too early (before 4 months) it might increase the risk of allergies (Muraro et al.,
781
782 353 2014). On the other hand, late introduction of complementary foods, especially of lumpy food, may lead to
783
784 354 later infant feeding problems and increased fussiness (Coulthard et al., 2009). In principle, early exposure to
785
786 355 a variety of food should favour child's later openness toward new food as repeated exposure is reported being
787
788 356 one of the strongest factors to overcome FN in children of different ages (Maier et al., 2007; Laureati et al.,
789
790 357 2014). In this context, our data seem to suggest rather that an early introduction of semi-solid food (but not
791
792 358 solid food) may be associated with later food neophobia in children. Based on the data acquired in the
793
794 359 present study, however, it is not possible to formulate a hypothesis about the variety of the child's diet when
795
796 360 parents started introducing semi-solids as we did not ask explicitly about the type of foods that were
797
798 361 introduced. Moreover, starting early with complementary feeding does not necessarily mean early diet
799
800 362 variety. Further research is needed to better understand the consequences of timing of complementray
801
802 363 feeding introduction on later child's eating behaviour.
803
804 364 Some limitations of the study should be highlighted. As previously mentioned, the association between FN
805
806 365 and food consumption frequency was explored using a questionnaire focused on general food products
807
808 366 (mainly refined vs. wholegrain products) and not novel food. Moreover, we used a liking test on wholegrain
809
810 367 biscuits as a behavioural measure of FN. Although the biscuits used were only present on the Italian market
811
812 368 and in any case not addressed to children, we cannot exclude that some of the Italian children may have
813
814 369 been familiar to some of the biscuits if theirs parents are consumers. Furthermore, although formulated with
815
816 370 a high fiber content, biscuit are usually very popular among children. Despite this, there were clear
817
818 371 differences related to the neophobic attitude of children towards whole-grain biscuits both on the total
819
820 372 sample of children and on each tested country.
821
822
823
824
825
826

827
828
829
830
831
832
833
834
835
836
837
838
839
840
841
842
843
844
845
846
847
848
849
850
851
852
853
854
855
856
857
858
859
860
861
862
863
864
865
866
867
868
869
870
871
872
873
874
875
876
877
878
879
880
881
882
883
884
885

373 Since we do not exclude that attitudinal measurements may have low predictive validity, future studies
374 should confirm the present results by combining questionnaires with actual behavioural measurements .

375

376 5. Conclusion

377 This study aimed at expanding the Italian Child Food Neophobia Scale (ICFNS), a self-administered
378 questionnaire targeted at school-aged children, to four additional European cultures. The tool was
379 successfully used in Sweden, Finland, UK and Spain. Our results indicate that the ICFNS is an easy-to-
380 administer, robust and efficient tool to measure FN in young consumers, even when translated in other
381 languages across different countries. Further, an investigation of FN scores and background variables
382 revealed that higher FN in our European sample of 9-12 year olds is linked to lower consumption of fresh
383 fruits, vegetables, seeds and nuts, pasta and wholegrain biscuits, to lower acceptance of wholegrain biscuits
384 and to earlier introduction of semi-solid foods. Finally, cross-national differences were revealed, where
385 children from Sweden and UK on average tended to be more neophobic than Italian and Spanish children,
386 and significantly more neophobic than Finnish children. Altogether, these results indicate that the tool was
387 able to detect cross-national differences and find associations with several background variables, which have
388 been reported to be linked with food rejection in children. The tool can be useful in interventions aiming to
389 change FN-related behaviors among European children.

390

391 Acknowledgements

392 This study was conceived and designed by M.L., V.L.A., M.S., H.J., and G.G.Z. Data collection in local schools
393 was performed by M.L., P.S., L.M., M.W., M.S., and B.A. M.L., C.P. and H.J. prepared the draft manuscript.
394 M.L., C.P., P.S. and V.L.A. analyzed and interpreted the data. All authors reviewed and approved the final
395 draft. This cross-national study was conducted by members of the European Sensory Science Society (E3S)
396 Children working group and was funded by the University of Milan (Project: Sensory and behavioral
397 determinants of childhood obesity: a role for personalized nutritional interventions). Additional funding
398 support was received from the Basque Government through CM Programme 2017-2018 "NUTRISEN project"
399 (Spain), the Crown princess Margarethas memorial foundation (Sweden), the Academy of Finland

886
887
888 400 (MS309408), and the Research Council of Norway through the project “Children and food preferences in the
889
890 401 light of the Norwegian Taste” (no. 233831/E50).
891
892 402 Mads Erling Pedersen is acknowledged for programming the surveys. Noelia Da Quinta, Saila Mattila, Tabitha
893
894 403 Reynolds, Raphaela Gruber and Annika Pichler are kindly acknowledged for their help in data collection.
895
896 404 All the teachers, children and their families are kindly acknowledged for participating in the study.
897

898
899
900
901
902
903
904
905
906
907
908
909
910
911
912
913
914
915
916
917
918
919
920
921
922
923
924
925
926
927
928
929
930
931
932
933
934
935
936
937
938
939
940
941
942
943
944

945
946
947 **References**
948

- 949
950
951
952
953
954
955
956
957
958
959
960
961
962
963
964
965
966
967
968
969
970
971
972
973
974
975
976
977
978
979
980
981
982
983
984
985
986
987
988
989
990
991
992
993
994
995
996
997
998
999
1000
1001
1002
1003
1. Almlí, V. L., Verbeke, W., Vanhonacker, F., Næs, T., & Hersleth, M. (2011). General image and attribute perceptions of traditional food in six European countries. *Food Quality and Preference*, 22(1), 129-138. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2010.08.008>
 2. Ares, G. (2018). Methodological issues in cross-cultural sensory and consumer research. *Food Quality & Preference*, 64, 253-263.
 3. Cole T.J., Bellizzi M.C., Flegal K.M., Dietz W.H. (2000). Establishing a standard definition for child overweight and obesity worldwide: international survey. *BMJ*. 320, 1240-3.
 4. Cole, N. C., An, R., Lee, S. Y., & Donovan, S. M. (2017). Correlates of picky eating and food neophobia in young children: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Nutrition Reviews*, 75(7), 516-532.<https://doi.org/10.1093/nutrit/nux024>.
 5. Cooke, L. J., Wardle, J., & Gibson, E. L. (2003). Relationship between parental report of food neophobia and everyday food consumption in 2-6 year old children. *Appetite*, 41, 205-206.
 6. Costantini, C., Harris, G., Reddy, V., Akehurst, L., Fasulo, A. (2019). Introducing Complementary Foods to Infants: Does Age Really Matter? A Look at Feeding Practices in Two European Communities: British and Italian. *Child Care in Practice*, 25(3), 326-341.
 7. Coulthard, H., Harris, G., & Emmett, P. (2009). Delayed introduction of lumpy foods during the complementary feeding period affects child's food acceptance and feeding at seven years of age. *Maternal and Child Nutrition*, 5, 75-85.
 8. Daly, A.M., Parsons, J.A., Wood, N.A., Gill, T.K. & Taylor, A.W. (2011). Food consumption habits in two states of Australia, as measured by a Food Frequency Questionnaire. *BMC Research Notes*, 4, 507.
 9. Damsbo-Svendsen, M., Frøst, M.B., Olsen, A. (2017). A review of instruments developed to measure food neophobia. *Appetite*, 113, 358-367.
 10. Dovey, T. M., Staples, P. A., Gibson, E. L., & Halford, J. C. G. (2008). Food neophobia and 'picky/fussy' eating in children: A review. *Appetite*, 50(2-3), 181-193.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2007.09.009>
 11. Evans, C.E.L., et al., Measures of low food variety and poor dietary quality in a cross-sectional study of London school children. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 2018. 72(11): p. 1497-1505.
 12. Falciglia, G. A., Couch, S. C., Gribble, L. S., Pabst, S. M., & Frank, R. (2000). Food neophobia in childhood affects dietary variety. *Journal of American Dietetic Association*, 100, 1474-1478.
 13. Fernández-Ruiz, V., Claret, A., & Chaya, C. (2013). Testing a Spanish-version of the food neophobia scale. *Food Quality and Preference*, 28, 222-225.
 14. Fletcher, S., Wright, C., Jones, A., Parkinson, K., & Adamson, A. (2017). Tracking of toddler fruit and vegetable preferences to intake and adiposity later in childhood. *Maternal Child Nutrition*, 13(2), <https://doi.org/10.1111/mcn.12290>.
 15. Foote, J.A., et al., Dietary Variety Increases the Probability of Nutrient Adequacy among Adults. *The Journal of Nutrition*, 2004. 134(7): p. 1779-1785.
 16. Gallo, K.E., Swaney-Stueve, M., and Chambers, D.H (2017). A focus group approach to understanding food-related emotions with children using words and emojis. *Journal of Sensory Studies*, 32, e12264. DOI: 10.1111/joss.12264
 17. Galloway, A.T., Fiorito, L.M., Francis, L.A., Birch, L.L. (2006). 'Finish you soup': Counterproductive effects of pressuring children to intake and affect. *Appetite*, 46, 318-323.
 18. Gomes, A.I., Barros, L., Pereira, A.I., Roberto, M.S. and Mendonça, M. (2018). Assessing children's willingness to try new foods: Validation of a Portuguese version of the child's food neophobia scale for parents of young children. *Food Quality and Preference*, 63, 151-158.

- 1004
1005
1006
1007
1008
1009
1010
1011
1012
1013
1014
1015
1016
1017
1018
1019
1020
1021
1022
1023
1024
1025
1026
1027
1028
1029
1030
1031
1032
1033
1034
1035
1036
1037
1038
1039
1040
1041
1042
1043
1044
1045
1046
1047
1048
1049
1050
1051
1052
1053
1054
1055
1056
1057
1058
1059
1060
1061
1062
19. Hedrick, Valisa E., Dana L. Comber, Paul A. Estabrooks, Jyoti Savla, und Brenda M. Davy. „The Beverage Intake Questionnaire: Determining Initial Validity and Reliability“. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association* 110, Nr. 8 (August 2010): 1227–32. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jada.2010.05.005>
 20. Ireland, P., Jolley, D., Giles, G., O’Dea, K., Powles, J., Rutishauser, I., Wahlqvist, M.L., Williams, J. (1994). Development of the Melbourne FFQ: a food frequency questionnaire for use in an Australian prospective study involving an ethnically diverse cohort. *Asia Pacific Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 3, 19–31.
 21. Jaeger, S. R., Rasmussen, M. A., & Prescott, J. (2017). Relationships between food neophobia and food intake and preferences: Findings from a sample of New Zealand adults. *Appetite*, 116, 410–422.
 22. Jayasinghe, S. N., Kruger, R., Walsh, D. C. I., Cao, G., Rivers, S., Richter, M., & Breierls, B.H. (2017). Is sweet taste perception associated with sweet food liking and intake? *Nutrients*, 9, 750.
 23. Knaapila, A., Silventoinen, K., Broms, U., Rose, R. J., Perola, M., Kaprio, J., et al. (2011). Food neophobia in young adults: Genetic architecture and relation to personality, pleasantness and use frequency of foods, and body mass index - a twin study. *Behavior Genetics*, 41, 512–521.
 24. Knaapila, A.J., Sandell, M., Vaarno, J., Hoppu, U. Puolimatka, T., Kaljonen, A., & Lagström, H. (2015). Food neophobia associates with lower dietary quality and higher BMI in Finnish adults. *Public Health Nutrition*, 18(12), 2161–2171.
 25. Koivisto Hursti, U.K., & Sjöden, P.O. (1997). Food and general neophobia and their relationship with self-reported food choice: familial resemblance in Swedish families with children of ages 7–17 years. *Appetite*, 29, 89–103.
 26. Koivisto, U.K., & Sjöden, P.O. (1996). Food and general neophobia in Swedish families: parent– child comparisons and relationships with serving specific foods. *Appetite*, 26, 107–118.
 27. Laureati, M. Conte, A., Padalino, L., Del Nobile, M.A., Pagliarini, E. (2016). Effect of fiber information on consumer’s expectation and liking of wheat bran enriched pasta. *Journal of Sensory Studies*, 31, 348–359. DOI: 10.1111/joss.12218
 28. Laureati, M., Bergamaschi, V., & Pagliarini, E. (2015a). Assessing childhood food neophobia: Validation of a scale in Italian primary school children. *Food Quality and Preference*, 40, 8–15.
 29. Laureati, M., Bergamaschi, V., Pagliarini, E. (2014). School-based intervention with children: peer-modeling, reward and repeated exposure reduce food neophobia and increase liking of fruits and vegetables. *Appetite*, 83, 26–32. DOI: 10.1016/j.appet.2014.07.031.
 30. Laureati, M., Bertoli, S., Bergamaschi, V., Leone, A., Lewandowski, L., Giussani, B., Battezzati, A., Pagliarini, E. (2015b). Food neophobia and liking for fruits and vegetables are not related to excess weight in Italian children. *Food Quality and Preference*, 40, 125–131.
 31. Laureati, M., Pagliarini, E., Gallina Toschi, T., & Monteleone, E. (2015c). Research challenges and methods to study food preferences in school-aged children: A review of the last 15 years. *Food Quality & Preference*, 46, 92–102.
 32. Laureati, M., Sandvik, P., Almlı, V. L., Sandell, M., Zeinstra, G.G., Methven, L., Wallner, M., Jilani, H., Alfaro, B., Proserpio, C. (2020). Individual differences in texture preferences among European children: Development and validation of the Child Food Texture Preference Questionnaire (CFTPQ). *Food Quality and Preference*, 80, 103828.
 33. Laureati, M., Spinelli, S., Monteleone, E., (...), Tesini, F., Pagliarini, E. (2018). Associations between food neophobia and responsiveness to “warning” chemosensory sensations in food products in a large population sample. *Food Quality and Preference*, 68, 113–124.
 34. Loewen, R., & Pliner, P. (2000). The Food Situations Questionnaire: a measure of children's willingness to try novel foods in stimulating and non-stimulating situations *Appetite*, 35, 239–250.

1063
1064
1065
1066
1067
1068
1069
1070
1071
1072
1073
1074
1075
1076
1077
1078
1079
1080
1081
1082
1083
1084
1085
1086
1087
1088
1089
1090
1091
1092
1093
1094
1095
1096
1097
1098
1099
1100
1101
1102
1103
1104
1105
1106
1107
1108
1109
1110
1111
1112
1113
1114
1115
1116
1117
1118
1119
1120
1121

35. Maier, A., Chabanet, C., Schaal, B., Issanchou, S., Leathwood, P. (2007). Effects of repeated exposure on acceptance of initially disliked vegetables in 7-month old infants. *Food Quality and Preference*, 18(8), 1023-1032
36. Mata, J., Scheibehenne, B., & Todd, P. M. (2008). Predicting children's meal preferences: How much do parents know? *Appetite*, 50(2-3), 367-375.
37. Meiselman, H. L., King, S. C., & Gillette, M. (2010). The demographics of neophobia in a large commercial US sample. *Food Quality and Preference*, 21, 893-897.
38. Muraro A., Halken S., Arshad S.H., Beyer K., Dubois A.E., Du Toit G., et al. on behalf of EAACI food allergy and anaphylaxis guidelines group. (2014). EAACI food allergy and anaphylaxis guidelines. Primary prevention of food allergy. *Allergy*, 69, 590-60. <https://doi.org/10.1111/all.12398>.
39. Nicklaus, S. (2009). Development of food variety in children. *Appetite*, 52(1), 253-255
40. Nicklaus, S. (2011). Children's acceptance of new foods at weaning. Role of practices of weaning and of food sensory properties. *Appetite*, 57(3), 812-815.
41. Nicklaus, S., Boggio, V., Chabanet, C., & Issanchou, S. (2004). A prospective study of food preferences in childhood. *Food Quality and Preference*, 15(7-8), 805-818.
42. Nicklaus, S., Boggio, V., Chabanet, C., & Issanchou, S. (2005). A prospective study of food variety seeking in childhood, adolescence and early adult life. *Appetite*, 44, 289-297.
43. Nordin, S., Broman, D.A., Garvill, J., and Nyroos, M. (2004). Gender differences in factors affecting rejection of food in healthy young Swedish adults. *Appetite* 43, 295-301.
44. Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1988). *Psychometric theory* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
45. Perry, R. A., Mallan, K. M., Koo, J., Mauch, C. E., Daniels, L. A., & Magarey, A. M. (2015). Food neophobia and its association with diet quality and weight in children aged 24 months: A cross sectional study. *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity*, 12(13). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12966-015-0184-6>.
46. Pliner, P., & Hobden, K. (1992). Development of a scale to measure the trait of food neophobia in humans. *Appetite*, 19, 105-120.
47. Proserpio, C., Laureati, M., Invitti, C., & Pagliarini, E. (2018). Reduced taste responsiveness and increased food neophobia characterize obese adults. *Food Quality and Preference*, 63, 73-79.
48. Proserpio, C., Lavelli, V., Gallotti, F., Laureati, M., & Pagliarini, E. (2019). Effect of vitamin D2 fortification using *Pleurotus ostreatus* in a whole-grain cereal product on children acceptability. *Nutrients*, 11(10), 2441.
49. Reverdy, C., Chesnel, H., Schlich, P., Köster, E.P., & Lange C. (2008). Effect of sensory education on willingness to taste novel food in children. *Appetite*, 51, 156-165.
50. Rioux, C., Lafraire, J., Picard, D., Blissett, J. (2019). Food rejection in young children: Validation of the Child Food Rejection Scale in English and cross-cultural examination in the UK and France. *Food Quality and Preference*, 73, 19-24.
51. Ritchey, P. N., Frank, R. A., Hursti, U. K., & Tuorila, H. (2003). Validation and cross national comparison of the food neophobia scale (FNS) using confirmatory factor analysis. *Appetite*, 40, 163-173.
52. Robinson, S.; Marriott, L.; Poole, J.; Crozier, S.; Borland, S.; Lawrence, W.; Law, C.; Godfrey, K.; Cooper, C.; Inskip, H. Dietary patterns in infancy: The importance of maternal and family influences on feeding practice. *Br. J. Nutr.* 2007, 98, 1029-1037
53. SAS, Statistical Analysis Software. Base SAS(R) 9.4 Procedures Guide: Statistical Procedures, Third Edition. http://support.sas.com/documentation/cdl/en/procstat/67528/HTML/default/viewer.htm#procstat_corr_examples09.htm (accessed 8th July 2019)

1122
1123
1124
1125
1126
1127
1128
1129
1130
1131
1132
1133
1134
1135
1136
1137
1138
1139
1140
1141
1142
1143
1144
1145
1146
1147
1148
1149
1150
1151
1152
1153
1154
1155
1156
1157
1158
1159
1160
1161
1162
1163
1164
1165
1166
1167
1168
1169
1170
1171
1172
1173
1174
1175
1176
1177
1178
1179
1180

54. Siegrist, M., Hartmann, C., & Keller, C. (2013). Antecedents of food neophobia and its association with eating behavior and food choices. *Food Quality and Preference*, 30, 293–298.
55. Tuorila, H., Lähteenmaki, L., Pohjalainen, L., & Lotti, L. (2001). Food neophobia among the Finns and related responses to familiar and unfamiliar foods. *Food Quality and Preference*, 12, 29–37.
56. WHO, World Health Organization (2003). Guiding principles for complementary feeding of the breastfed child. Pan American Health Organization, Washington, DC.
57. Yngve A, Wolf A, Poortvliet E, Elmadfa I, Brug J, Ehrenblad B, Franchini B, Haraldsdóttir J, Krølner R, Maes L, Pérez-Rodrigo C, Sjostrom M, Thórsdóttir I, Klepp KI. (2005). Fruit and vegetable intake in a sample of 11-year-old children in 9 European countries: The Pro Children Cross-sectional Survey. *Ann Nutr Metab*, 49(4):236-45.
58. Zickgraf, H. F., & Schepps, K. (2016). Fruit and vegetable intake and dietary variety in adult picky eaters. *Food Quality and Preference*, 54, 39 –50.

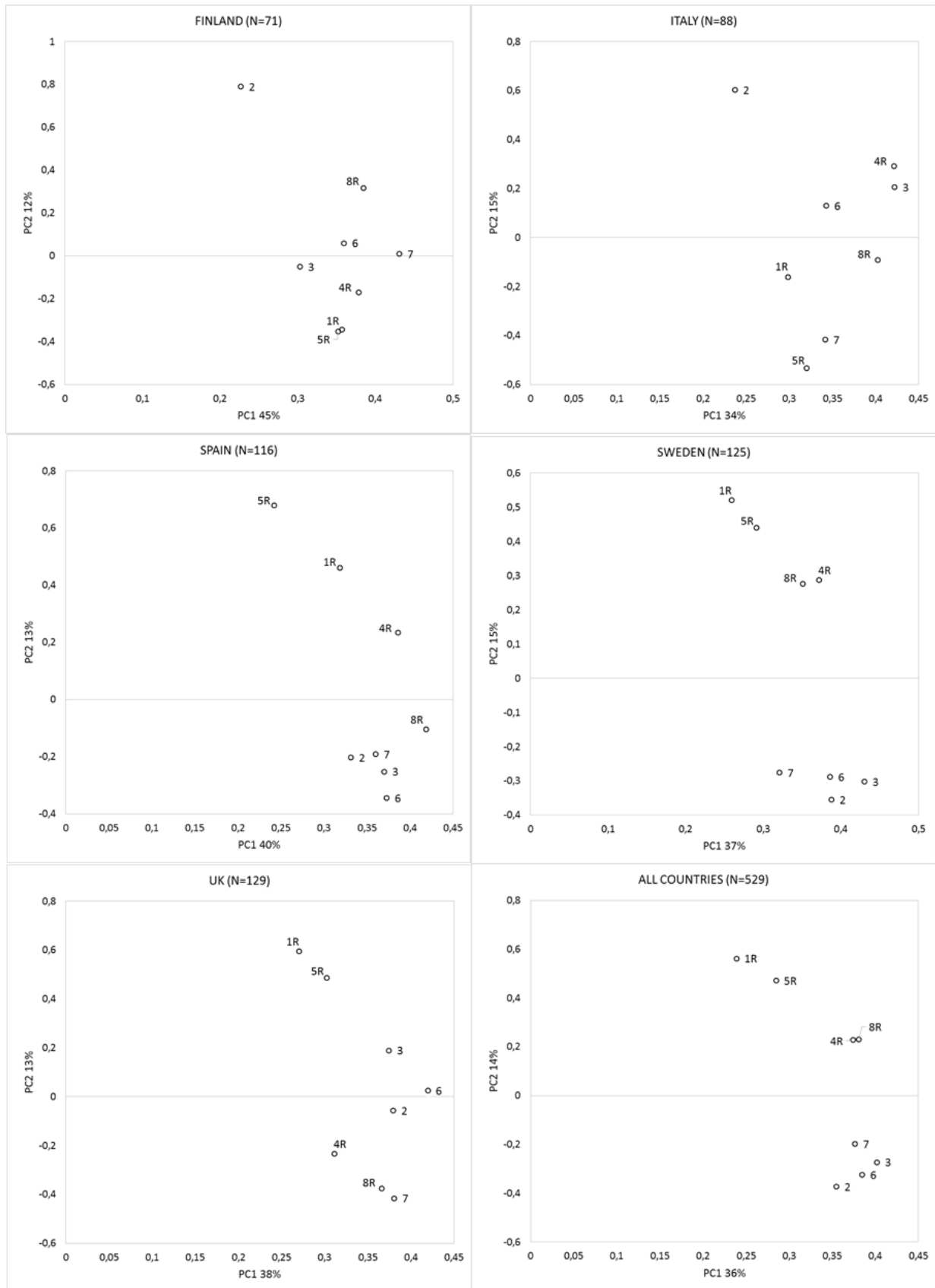


Figure 1. Loadings Plots obtained by PCA performed on scores of each item (R=reversed item) of the ICFNS overall and by country.

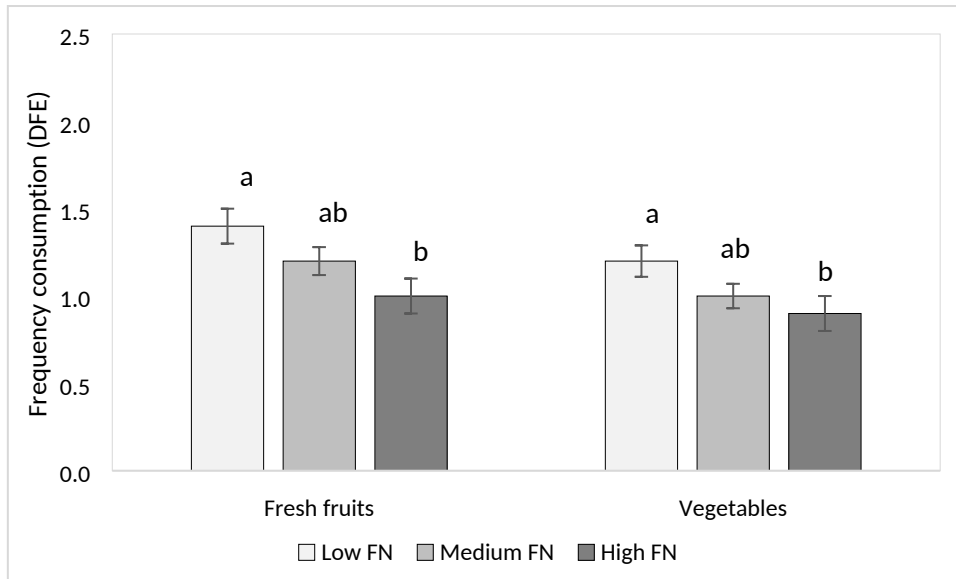


Figure 2. Consumption frequency (expressed in Daily Frequency Equivalents, DFE) of fresh fruits and vegetables in children with low, medium and high FN levels. Different letters indicate significantly different mean scores (*Fresh fruits: p=0.04, Vegetables: p=0.004*).

119
120
121
122
123
124
125
126
127
128
129
130
131
132
133
134
135
136
137
138
139
140
141
142
143
144
145
146
147
148
149
150
151
152
153
154
155
156
157
158
159
160
161
162
163
164
165
166
167
168
169
170
171
172
173
174
175
176
177

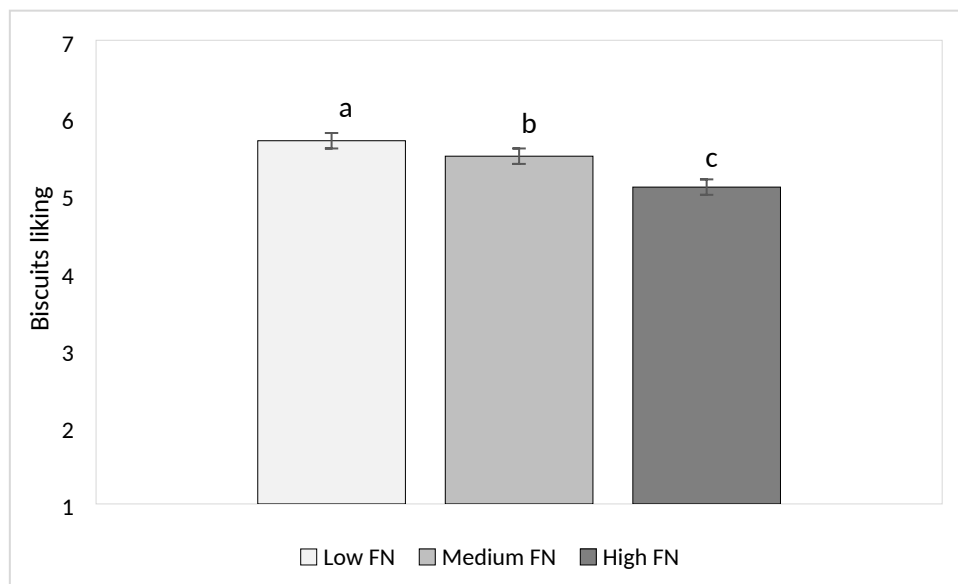


Figure 3. Mean biscuits liking scores in children with low, medium and high FN levels. Different letters indicate significantly different mean scores ($p < 0.0001$).

Table 1. Characteristics of the participants (SEM=standard error of the mean)

Participant	Variable	Finland	Italy	Spain	Sweden	UK	Total
Child	N	71	88	116	125	129	529
	Gender (% girls)	81.4	48.8	54.0	44.1	52.0	54.1
	Age (years: mean; SEM)	10.6; 0.1	10.1; 0.1	10.5; 0.1	10.3; 0.1	10.6; 0.1	10.4; 0.1
	Age range (years)	9-12	10-11	9-12	10-11	9-11	9-12
Parent	N	32	46	89	79	93	339
	Gender (% females)	93.8	82.6	80.2	74.7	83.9	81.5
	Age (years: mean; SEM)	42.1; 1.0	45.3; 0.8	45.7; 0.4	42.7; 0.6	41.8; 0.6	43.2; 0.3
	Age range (years)	33-55	29-59	36-60	29-56	31-63	29-63

Table 2. Translation of the ICFNS in the 5 languages

Items	English (UK)	Finnish	Italian	Spanish	Swedish
1	Almost every day I eat new and unusual foods	Syön uusia ja epätavallisia ruokia melkein joka päivä	Mangio quasi tutti i giorni cibi nuovi e diversi dal solito	Casi todos los días como alimentos nuevos e inusuales	Jag äter ny och ovanlig mat nästan varje dag
2	I don't trust new foods	En luota uusiin ruokiin	Non mi fido dei cibi nuovi	No confío en los nuevos alimentos	Jag litar inte på ny sorts mat
3	If a food is new, I don't try it	En kokeile minulle uutta ruokaa	Se un cibo è nuovo, non lo assaggio	Si un alimento es nuevo, no lo pruebo	Jag provar inte ny sorts mat
4	I like to try weird tastes and foods, which are unusual and coming from different countries	Tykkään kokeilla outoja makuja. Tykkään myös epätavallisista ja toisista maista tulevasta ruoasta.	Mi piace provare sapori e cibi strani, diversi dal solito e provenienti da altri Paesi	Me gusta probar sabores y comidas raras, que son inusuales y provienen de diferentes países	Jag tycker om att prova konstiga smaker och mat som är ovanlig och kommer från andra länder
5	When I am at a friend's party, I like to try new foods	Kun olen kaverin juhlassa, tykkään kokeilla uusia ruokia.	Quando sono alla festa di un amico mi piace assaggiare cibi nuovi	Cuando estoy en una fiesta con amigos, me gusta probar nuevos alimentos	När jag är på kalas hos kompisar så tycker jag om att prova ny sorts mat
6	I am afraid to eat food I have never had before	Pelkään kokeilla ruokaa, jota en ole syönyt aiemmin	Ho paura di assaggiare un cibo che non ho mai mangiato prima	Me da miedo comer alimentos que nunca antes había probado	Jag är rädd för att äta mat som jag aldrig provat tidigare
7	I am very fussy when it's a matter of food	Olen hyvin nirso ruuan kanssa	Sono molto schizzinoso quando si tratta di mangiare	Soy muy quisquilloso (tiquismiquis) con la comida	Jag är väldigt petig när det gäller mat
8	I really eat everything!	Syön ihan kaikkea!	Mangio tutto, ma proprio tutto!	¡En realidad como de todo!	Jag äter verkligen allt!

83
84
85
86
87
88
89
90
91
92
93
94
95
96
97
98
99
100
101
102
103
104
105
106
107
108
109
110
111
112
113
114
115
116
117
118
119
120
121
122
123
124
125
126
127
128
129
130
131
132
133
134
135
136
137
138
139
140
141

Table 3. Cronbach's alphas and ICFNS scores (mean \pm standard error) calculated over all countries and by country. Different superscripts indicate significantly different ICFNS mean scores according to ANOVA.

Country	N	Cronbach's	ICFNS
Finland	71	0.82	19.2 \pm 0.9 ^a
Italy	88	0.71	19.5 \pm 1.1 ^{ab}
Spain	116	0.76	20.5 \pm 0.5 ^{ab}
Sweden	125	0.77	21.4 \pm 0.5 ^b
UK	129	0.76	21.7 \pm 0.5 ^b
Total	529	0.76	20.7 \pm 0.2

142
143
144
145
146
147
148
149
150
151
152
153
154
155
156
157
158
159
160
161
162
163
164
165
166
167
168
169
170
171
172
173
174
175
176
177
178
179
180
181
182

Table 4. Mean value \pm standard error, Cronbach's alpha and significance of the difference of each ICFNS item score and total ICFNS scores by country in the test-retest evaluation. In the first column, R indicates the neophilic items for which the score was reversed (n.s.=not significant; $*=p<0.05$ according to paired t-tests).

Item	Italy (n=22)			Sweden (n=21)			UK (n=22)		
	Test $\alpha=0.79$	Retest $\alpha=0.83$	p-value	Test $\alpha=0.92$	Retest $\alpha=0.92$	p-value	Test $\alpha=0.86$	Retest $\alpha=0.74$	p-value
1R	3.8 \pm 0.9	3.6 \pm 1.1	n.s.	3.2 \pm 0.7	3.4 \pm 0.8	n.s.	3.3 \pm 0.8	3.5 \pm 0.8	n.s.
2	2.7 \pm 1.3	2.1 \pm 1.2	n.s.	2.4 \pm 0.9	2.4 \pm 1.1	n.s.	2.2 \pm 0.9	2.2 \pm 0.9	n.s.
3	1.9 \pm 1.1	2.2 \pm 1.0	n.s.	2.0 \pm 1.0	2.3 \pm 1.1	n.s.	2.2 \pm 0.9	2.1 \pm 0.8	n.s.
4R	2.2 \pm 1.2	2.2 \pm 1.4	n.s.	2.4 \pm 0.9	2.4 \pm 1.1	n.s.	2.6 \pm 1.0	2.6 \pm 1.0	n.s.
5R	2.0 \pm 1.0	1.8 \pm 0.9	n.s.	2.2 \pm 0.9	1.9 \pm 1.0	n.s.	2.3 \pm 0.7	2.4 \pm 1.0	n.s.
6	2.7 \pm 1.1	2.5 \pm 1.2	n.s.	2.4 \pm 0.9	2.6 \pm 1.1	n.s.	2.5 \pm 1.2	2.1 \pm 0.9	n.s.
7	2.3 \pm 1.2	2.4 \pm 1.2	n.s.	2.6 \pm 1.2	2.4 \pm 1.3	n.s.	2.8 \pm 1.3	2.7 \pm 1.1	n.s.
8R	3.1 \pm 0.9	2.9 \pm 1.1	n.s.	3.2 \pm 0.8	3.1 \pm 0.9	n.s.	3.5 \pm 1.1	3.2 \pm 1.1	*
ICFNS	21.7 \pm 3.6	19.7 \pm 6.2	n.s.	20.5 \pm 5.6	20.6 \pm 6.2	n.s.	21.4 \pm 5.3	20.7 \pm 4.6	n.s.

183
184
185
186
187
188
189
190
191
192
193
194
195
196
197
198
199
200
201
202
203
204
205
206
207
208
209
210
211
212
213
214
215
216
217
218
219
220
221
222
223
224
225
226
227
228
229
230
231
232
233
234
235
236
237
238
239
240
241

Table 5. Pearson's correlation coefficients between food consumption frequency and FN overall and by country. (*) trend $p < 0.10$; * significant $p < 0.05$; ** significant $p < 0.01$.

Food item	Total (n=317)	Finland (n=31)	Italy (n=43)	Spain (n=86)	Sweden (n=77)	UK (n=80)
White bread	-0.07	0.11	-0.15	-0.06	0.05	-0.02
Wholegrain bread	-0.02	0.10	-0.15	-0.05	-0.22*	0.09
Wholegrain porridge	-0.07	-0.14	-0.09	-0.06	-0.19	-0.04
Cornflakes	-0.03	0.01	-0.16	-0.04	-0.10	-0.06
Wholegrain cereals	-0.10 ^(*)	-0.09	0.02	-0.17	-0.21 ^(*)	-0.10
Biscuits	0.02	0.06	-0.06	-0.09	0.15	0.09
Wholegrain biscuits	-0.14*	0.05	-0.05	-0.26*	-0.05	0.02
Fresh fruits	-0.17**	-0.11	-0.14	-0.22*	-0.17	-0.06
Dried fruits	-0.10 ^(*)	-0.36*	-0.20	-0.03	-0.06	-0.16
Seeds/nuts	-0.12*	-0.41*	-0.15	-0.12	-0.08	-0.06
Vegetables	-0.14*	-0.12	-0.07	-0.33**	-0.26*	-0.05
Potatoes	-0.04	-0.01	-0.16	-0.12	-0.06	-0.03
Legumes	-0.03	-0.17	0.15	0.04	-0.10	-0.03
Rice	0.03	-0.01	-0.03	0.03	-0.01	0.02
Wholegrain rice	0.08	0.06	-0.19	-0.16	0.07	0.21
Pasta	-0.12*	-0.08	-0.18	-0.06	0.09	-0.04
Wholegrain pasta	-0.07	0.17	-0.23	-0.27*	-0.19	0.08

242
243
244
245
246
247
248
249
250
251
252
253
254
255
256
257
258
259
260
261
262
263
264
265
266
267
268
269
270
271
272
273
274
275
276
277
278
279
280
281
282

Table 6. Percentage of mothers introducing semi-solid and solid foods (in months, m) in the child's diet at different ages and Spearman's correlation coefficients (ρ) between FN and weaning practices (* significant for $p < 0.05$).

Country	N	ρ	Introduction of semi-solids (%)					N	ρ	Introduction of solids (%)				
			< 4 m	4-6 m	7-9 m	> 9 m	don't remember			< 4 m	4-6 m	7-9 m	> 9 m	don't remember
Finland	32	-0.13	12.1	63.6	21.2	3.0	-	32	-0.23	-	18.2	45.5	33.3	3.0
Italy	42	0.18	-	55.6	28.9	6.7	8.9	42	0.24	-	-	44.4	46.7	8.9
Spain	82	-0.15	8.8	57.1	25.3	-	8.8	80	0.05	2.2	17.6	34.1	36.3	9.9
Sweden	75	0.02	10.0	53.0	12.0	-	3.0	66	0.02	-	17.0	38.0	11.0	12.0
UK	86	-0.23*	5.4	68.5	18.5	-	7.6	84	-0.01	-	19.6	51.1	19.6	9.8
Total	318	-0.13*	7.9	63.2	21.1	1.2	6.7	304	-0.04	0.6	16.7	44.4	27.8	10.5

Authors statement

Conceptualization: MONICA LAUREATI, VALÉRIE LENGARD ALMLI, MARI SANDELL, HANNAH JILANI, GERTRUDE ZEINSTR

Methodology: MONICA LAUREATI, VALÉRIE LENGARD ALMLI, MARI SANDELL, HANNAH JILANI, GERTRUDE ZEINSTR, PERNILLA SANDVIK, LISA METHVEN, MARLIES WALLNER, and BEGOÑA ALFARO

Software: VALÉRIE LENGARD ALMLI

Validation: MONICA LAUREATI, VALÉRIE LENGARD ALMLI, PERNILLA SANDVIK, LISA METHVEN, MARLIES WALLNER

Formal analysis: MONICA LAUREATI, CRISTINA PROSERPIO, VALÉRIE LENGARD ALMLI and PERNILLA SANDVIK

Investigation: MONICA LAUREATI, CRISTINA PROSERPIO, VALÉRIE LENGARD ALMLI, MARI SANDELL, PERNILLA SANDVIK, LISA METHVEN, MARLIES WALLNER, and BEGOÑA ALFARO

Resources: MONICA LAUREATI, VALÉRIE LENGARD ALMLI, MARI SANDELL, PERNILLA SANDVIK, LISA METHVEN, MARLIES WALLNER, and BEGOÑA ALFARO

Data Curation: VALÉRIE LENGARD ALMLI

Writing - Original Draft: MONICA LAUREATI, CRISTINA PROSERPIO, and HANNAH JILANI

Writing - Review & Editing: all authors

Visualization: MONICA LAUREATI and CRISTINA PROSERPIO

Supervision: MONICA LAUREATI

Project administration: MONICA LAUREATI

Funding acquisition: MONICA LAUREATI, VALÉRIE LENGARD ALMLI, MARI SANDELL, PERNILLA SANDVIK, LISA METHVEN, MARLIES WALLNER, and BEGOÑA ALFARO