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In Control of Variety: High Self-Control Reduces  
the Effect of Variety on Food Consumption

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**Abstract**

9 The presence of variety increases the quantity of food a person wants and consumes. A recent  
10 review of past literature (Remick, Polivy, & Pliner, 2009) concludes that although external  
11 factors influence this effect of variety, internal factors do not seem to affect it. We identify  
12 general self-control as an internal factor that moderates the effects of variety in food. A series of  
13 three studies demonstrates that lower trait self-control makes one more susceptible to the variety  
14 effect, showing both greater increases in choice regarding the quantity of consumption and desire  
15 for more food in the presence of variety. Compared to those with low self-control, people with  
16 high self-control experience reduced enjoyment for a variety of foods following consumption of  
17 one food. This increased satiation would serve to diminish the variety effect and facilitate  
18 positive health outcomes over time.

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20 *Keywords:* Variety, Self-Control, Dietary Intake, Hedonic Consumption, Satiation

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23           There always seems to be room for dessert. Because desserts are highly desirable and  
24 offer sensory properties quite different from the main course, people often “find room” to  
25 consume them even if their meal has already led them to experience “fullness”. In fact, beyond  
26 tempting desserts, variety increases food intake even for less dramatic shifts in food types such  
27 as different flavors of yogurt (Rolls, van Duijvenvoorde, & Rolls, 1984), or colors of M&M’s  
28 (Kahn & Wansink, 2004). A recent comprehensive review of the effects of variety on food intake  
29 refers to this general phenomenon as the *variety effect* (Remick et al., 2009). Our research  
30 explores whether individuals with low trait self-control show greater susceptibility to the effects  
31 of variety.

32           We suggest that those higher in self-control are both more sensitive to total consumption,  
33 and enjoy the variety of other foods less after eating a particular food. As such, introducing  
34 variety is less likely to lead to detrimental consumption patterns for those with higher self-  
35 control. Identifying this moderator is insightful for theory, as well as the development of  
36 interventions to combat obesity, given variety is a contributing factor to excessive consumption  
37 and weight gain (Levitsky, 2005). Our research proposes trait self-control as a component that  
38 contributes to the variety effect. Therefore, we provide contributions to previous research on  
39 both the effects of variety, as well as a deeper understanding of how self-control plays a role in  
40 the influence of the environment on eating behavior.

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### **The Variety Effect**

43           The effect of variety on food consumption has been well established both within and  
44 across meals. Raynor and Epstein (2001) review prior literature to support a simple yet pervasive  
45 finding: humans consume more when different foods are available in a meal than when only one

46 food is available. This phenomenon is often attributed to sensory-specific satiety whereby eating  
47 a food decreases liking for that food (and others with similar sensory aspects) more so than for  
48 foods not consumed (Rolls, Rolls, Rowe, & Sweeney, 1981). This sensory-specific satiety occurs  
49 within a few minutes of eating (Hetherington, Rolls, & Burley, 1989) and contributes to the  
50 amount of food consumed (Rolls et al., 1981). Although sensory-specific satiety occurs during a  
51 meal, its lingering effects can also still affect the amount eaten a week later (Epstein, Carr,  
52 Cavanaugh, Paluch, & Bouton, 2011), and the flavors and brands subsequently purchased  
53 (Inman, 2001). Individuals even learn to anticipate the effects of variety in meal planning by  
54 decreasing the meal size for two courses of the same food versus two different foods (Wilkinson,  
55 Hinton, Fay, Rogers, & Brunstrom, 2012). In sum, to the extent that greater variety reduces  
56 experienced or expected satiation, it promotes greater consumption.

57         Remick et al. (2009) examined potential moderators of the variety effect and concluded  
58 that although there are reliable external moderators (e.g., food properties and environmental  
59 cues), internal individual moderators were not supported. The one exception was some evidence  
60 that the variety effect diminishes with age (Hollis & Henry, 2007), which accords with the fact  
61 that older people exhibit slower sensory-specific satiety (Rolls & McDermott, 1991). Of specific  
62 relevance to our research, past work has not found that the variety effect depends on one's body  
63 weight, body mass index (BMI), or efforts at eating restraint (Remick et al., 2009). This is  
64 somewhat surprising in that these theoretical constructs would seemingly predict an increased  
65 susceptibility to the variety effect for those with higher BMI or lower eating restraint, yet the  
66 empirical evidence has not supported them as moderators. For example, Brunstrom and Mitchell  
67 (2006) found that dieters and non-dieters, assessed using the Herman and Polivy (1980) Restraint  
68 Scale, were equally affected by variety. These authors also found that restrained eating, as

69 captured by the Dutch Eating Behavior Questionnaire (van Strien, Frijters, Bergers, & Defares,  
70 1986), similarly did not moderate the variety effect. More generally, eating-related constructs  
71 that reflect restraint and dieting do not seem to make a difference in how much variety increases  
72 food consumption (Remick et al., 2009).

73         Why might prior research have shown that eating-related constructs such as eating  
74 restraint do not moderate the variety effect? We suggest that the lack of findings for these eating-  
75 related constructs reflects the abnormal behaviors often engaged in by those who feel a need to  
76 restrain their food consumption. In fact, there is significant debate about what measures of eating  
77 restraint capture, as many seem to assess failed dieting more than anything else (Lowe, 1993,  
78 1995). For instance, both normal weight and obese participants can score high on eating restraint  
79 (Herman & Mack, 1975), and yet clearly the former is likely better at limiting the effects of  
80 environmental cues on how much they eat. Heatherton et al. (1988) suggest that, in fact, dieters  
81 were as often characterized by their lapses in restraint as their successful restraint, and the type  
82 of person identified by such restrained eating measures remains ambiguous. Thus, at times a  
83 given dieter may be less susceptible to the effects of variety (when successfully displaying  
84 restraint), and other times be more susceptible to variety (when having a lapse in restraint). The  
85 same logic also applies to body weight (or BMI) in that overweight individuals have a greater  
86 need for restrained eating, but they are also likely to have more frequent problems with  
87 overeating. Thus, perhaps it is not surprising that past research found that body weight and BMI  
88 did not influence the effect of variety on food consumption (Pliner, Polivy, Herman, &  
89 Zakalusny, 1980; Spiegel & Stellar, 1990). Even so, many researchers still expect that these  
90 differences *should* impact responses to variety (Remick et al., 2009).

91

## 92 **Self-Control and the Variety Effect**

93 Past work has reported that several internal factors including gender, BMI, and dietary  
94 restraint did not influence the variety effect (Remick et al., 2009). However, it still seems  
95 plausible that some individuals would be more susceptible to the influence of variety than others.  
96 We propose that general trait self-control is such a moderator in that those who have naturally  
97 higher levels of self-control are influenced by variety less than those lower in self-control. Self-  
98 control as an individual difference variable has been linked with numerous long-term positive  
99 life outcomes including better grades and job performance, increased impulse control, and higher  
100 self-esteem (de Ridder, Lensvelt-Mulders, Finkenauer, Stok, & Baumeister, 2012; Duckworth &  
101 Seligman, 2005; Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004). Part of the reason why those high in  
102 trait self-control experience such adaptive outcomes is because they are able to recognize threats  
103 (Hofmann, Baumeister, Förster, & Vohs, 2012), and disregard cues that conflict with their goal  
104 (Haws, Bearden, & Nenkov, 2012). In fact, individuals who are more effective self-regulators  
105 automatically activate counteractive control processes when encountering a potential threat,  
106 leading them to effortlessly increase focus on their goals (Fishbach, Friedman, & Kruglanski,  
107 2003). However, prior research has not examined the ability of general self-control to limit the  
108 effect of variety in the food domain. Of course, given the pervasiveness of variety in our daily  
109 food options, successful self-control would seem to require one to temper the effect of variety.

110 Another critical aspect of successful self-control is enhanced monitoring of one's  
111 behavior (Baumeister, 2002). For example, Redden and Haws (2013) demonstrated that people  
112 with greater self-control attend more to the quantity of unhealthy foods consumed, which in turn  
113 led to faster satiation while eating a single snack. We propose that people with higher self-  
114 control will more readily utilize their superior monitoring to realize that the intake of one food

115 should affect their satiety of other foods compared to those with lower self-control. As a result,  
116 they will satiate more in the presence of variety, and accordingly adjust their enjoyment of the  
117 different foods. Relatedly, Poynor and Haws (2009) show that motivated categorization leads  
118 people with higher trait self-control to rely on more inclusive categorizations of unacceptable  
119 options. That is, they seem to readily recognize that a broader range of potential alternatives are  
120 counterproductive to their goal pursuit. Thus, various snacks seen as unhealthy would be more  
121 likely to be mentally grouped together by those higher in self-control. We predict that these  
122 differences lead those higher in self-control to have greater expected and actual satiation across a  
123 variety of foods, and greater spreading of satiation across the variety of foods. The net result is  
124 our prediction that variety increases the desire to have more food for those with low self-control  
125 more than those with high self-control.

126 Overall, we predict that a general assessment of self-control over one's behaviors is more  
127 likely to reveal the influence of variety, as compared to one's BMI or responses to restrained  
128 eating questions. In a series of three studies, we tested our predictions and consistently find that  
129 the effects of food variety attenuate as people have greater general self-control. Study 1 shows  
130 this basic moderation effect for choice in planned consumption quantities. Study 2 extends the  
131 findings by using an alternative approach to assess the desired consumption quantity, and also  
132 demonstrates the role of anticipated satiation in driving these differences. Finally, Study 3  
133 examines in more detail the underlying process contributing to differences in the variety effect  
134 by investigating the effects of variety on enjoyment. Specifically, we demonstrate that  
135 consumption of a single food decreases liking for other foods more for those higher versus lower  
136 in self-control. This underscores the importance of satiation in understanding differences in the  
137 variety effect.

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### Study 1: Quantity Choice

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#### Method

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Study 1 provides a first look into our core predicted interaction between food variety and self-control. Participants are asked to choose how many hedonic snacks (potato chips) they want to consume. We predict that the variety effect on planned consumption will be stronger for those low versus high in trait self-control.

Members ( $n = 245$ ) from Amazon's Mechanical Turk online panel completed this study in exchange for \$0.25 by responding to a "Decision Making Study" posting for all U.S. members over the age of 18. This panel has been shown to be a demographically diverse population that provides data that is at least as reliable as that from traditional methods (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). Participants were asked to imagine that it was early in the afternoon and they were hungry for a snack. They were then randomly assigned to one of two treatments. Participants in the *Variety* condition were presented with photos and names of three different chips (Doritos, Lay's Classic Potato Chips, and Cheetos). Participants in the *No Variety* condition were presented only one of these three chips (counterbalanced). All participants indicated the total number of pieces they would eat of the available snack assortment. Participants then completed the 13-item general trait self-control scale (Tangney et al., 2004). This scale includes items such as "I am good at resisting temptation" and "I refuse things that are bad for me".

#### Results

161 We first created an index of general self-control ( $\alpha = .88$ ) by averaging the 13 items after  
 162 appropriate reverse coding. To test our predictions, we performed an ANCOVA on the total  
 163 quantity desired with the presence of variety as a between-subjects factor and self-control (mean  
 164 centered) as a continuous covariate. There was an unsurprising main effect of variety,  $F(1, 241)$   
 165  $= 4.71, p < .04, \eta^2 = .02$ , as participants given a variety of chip snacks indicated they would eat  
 166 more. There was also a main effect of self-control,  $F(1, 241) = 10.20, p < .01, \eta^2 = .04$ , as those  
 167 with higher self-control indicated that they would eat fewer of the chips. More importantly, there  
 168 was the predicted interaction of variety and self-control,  $F(1, 241) = 4.37, p < .04, \eta^2 = .02$ .

169 We used a spotlight analysis on self-control ( $M = 4.34, SD = 1.09$ ) to confirm our specific  
 170 predictions (see Figure 1). As suggested by Irwin and McClelland (2001) and Fitzsimons (2008),  
 171 the spotlight method reveals the nature of an interaction by running separate regression models at  
 172 different levels of interest for the continuous variable (typically  $\pm 1$  SD). At a self-control score  
 173 one standard deviation below the mean, the presence of variety increased the desired quantity by  
 174 10.26 for those with low self-control ( $M_{NoVariety} = 19.8$  vs.  $M_{Variety} = 30.1$ ),  $t(241) = 2.99, p < .01$ ,  
 175  $\eta^2 = .04$ . There was no such difference for those with higher self-control scores one standard  
 176 deviation above the mean ( $M_{NoVariety} = 17.2$  vs.  $M_{Variety} = 17.3$ ),  $t < 1, ns$ . As such, those low in  
 177 self-control were the only participants to demonstrate the variety effect.

178 --Insert Figure 1--

179 As an additional test of our theory, we also performed separate regression analyses for  
 180 each treatment condition. For participants presented with only a single chip snack, there was no  
 181 relationship between the quantity chosen and self-control,  $\beta = -1.22, t < 1, ns$ . In contrast, for  
 182 those given a variety of chips, the quantity chosen decreased with greater self-control,  $\beta = -5.86$ ,  
 183  $t(122) = 3.30, p < .01, \eta^2 = .08$ . This pattern of results confirms our predictions as high self-



184 control people had more consistent planned consumption quantities whether there was variety or  
185 not, and the differences between this group and those with low self-control emerged only when  
186 variety was present.

187

## 188 **Discussion**

189 Overall, Study 1 provided clear evidence for the anticipated effect of variety such that the  
190 presence of variety increased the chosen consumption quantity, consistent with past research  
191 (Remick et al., 2009; Rolls et al., 1981). Beyond this well-known result, we demonstrated that  
192 this variety effect was moderated by differences in underlying trait self-control. Those lower in  
193 self-control were more susceptible to the consequences of variety than those with higher self-  
194 control.

195

## 196 **Study 2: Quantity Choice and Expected Satiation**

197 Study 2 was designed to extend the results of Study 1 in several important ways. First,  
198 this study included the restraint component of the Dutch Eating Behavior Questionnaire (van  
199 Strien et al. 1986), which is a commonly used measure of eating restraint. Each participant also  
200 reported their height and weight so we could calculate their Body Mass Index (BMI). This  
201 allowed us to simultaneously test our prediction that general trait self-control would moderate  
202 the variety effect even though the DEBQ and BMI might not. Second, this study added a  
203 measure of expected satiation to better understand the underlying process. We posit that expected  
204 satiation will mediate the effects we find as participants with higher self-control better recognize  
205 the satiation that will arise as they consume multiple snacks. Third, to further generalize our  
206 findings, this study used a conservative test of the effect of variety by always presenting each

207 participant their favorite snack in the no variety condition. We also extended the number of  
208 options available in the variety condition from three (as in Study 1) to five to rule out any  
209 idiosyncratic effects related to three options. Finally, we collected gender and age information to  
210 ensure that these did not systematically influence our results.

211

## 212 **Method**

213 Members ( $n = 149$ ; 51% female;  $M_{age} = 33.4$ ,  $range = 18$  to 75) from Amazon's  
214 Mechanical Turk completed this study in exchange for \$0.50. They did so by responding to a  
215 "Decision Making Study" posting for all U.S. members over the age of 18. The gender and age  
216 factors had no effect in our analyses, all  $p > .52$ , so we do not discuss them further. Participants  
217 began by indicating their favorite of five options among three different sets of food or beverage  
218 options (favorite chip, candy bar, and soft drink). Of particular note, the candy question assessed  
219 their favorite candy bar out of a set of five candies subsequently used in this study. Participants  
220 were then automatically redirected to what was ostensibly a different study.

221 Participants were next asked to imagine that it was early in the afternoon and they were  
222 hungry for a snack. They were then presented with the candies available to them along with a  
223 photo of each candy next to its description. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two  
224 treatments. Participants in the *Variety* condition were presented five different candies (Hershey  
225 Kisses, Kit Kat Miniatures, Reese Miniatures, Twix miniatures, and Snickers miniatures) that  
226 were each approximately the same size and weight. Participants in the *No Variety* condition were  
227 presented only one of the five candies, specifically, the one that they had previously indicated  
228 was their favorite. The use of their favorite provides a more conservative test for the variety  
229 effect as participants without variety will likely want to eat the most when the candy is their

230 favorite. Participants then indicated the number of pieces they would eat of the available candy  
231 for their afternoon snack.

232 To capture expected satiation, we asked participants to also indicate how much they  
233 wanted to eat more of their snack (1 = *not at all*; 9 = *very much so*). Participants provided this  
234 rating at two points in time: after imagining they had eaten the first and the fifth piece<sup>1</sup>. This  
235 allowed us to calculate a change in desire after eating a fixed quantity, which can serve as our  
236 measure of expected satiation in that larger declines from the same quantity reflect greater  
237 expected satiation. This measure of satiation was based on past research on the variety effect that  
238 has asked participants to rate their enjoyment after imagining a single bite of food ((Redden &  
239 Haws, 2013; Wilkinson et al., 2012), and scenarios studies in satiation research that have asked  
240 the desire to continue at multiple points in time (Galak, Kruger, & Loewenstein, 2011; Nelson &  
241 Meyvis, 2008; Redden, 2008). After a brief unrelated task in which participants evaluated a set  
242 of five nature pictures, participants finished by providing their height and weight, the 13-item  
243 short form of Tangney et al.'s (2004) general self-control scale, and the ten items from the  
244 restraint component of the DEBQ (van Strien et al., 1986).

245

## 246 **Results**

247 We first created a self-control index ( $\alpha = .89$ ) as the mean of the 13 items on the self-  
248 control scale after appropriate reverse coding, and a restraint index ( $\alpha = .94$ ) as the mean of the  
249 ten DEBQ items. We also computed each participant's BMI as 703 multiplied by their weight in  
250 pounds divided by the square of their height in inches.

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<sup>1</sup> We chose five pieces because this was the mean response in a pretest ( $n = 58$ ) that asked how many pieces of miniature candy bars would make a reasonable snack.

251 To test our predictions, we performed an ANCOVA on the total quantity desired with the  
 252 presence of variety as a between-subjects factor and self-control (mean centered) as a continuous  
 253 covariate. There was a main effect of self-control,  $F(1, 148) = 13.18, p < .01, \eta^2 = .08$ , as  
 254 participants with higher self-control indicated that they would eat less of the candy. There was  
 255 only marginal evidence of a main effect of variety,  $F(1, 148) = 2.69, p < .11$ . More importantly,  
 256 there was the predicted interaction of variety and self-control,  $F(1, 148) = 11.09, p < .01, \eta^2 =$   
 257  $.07$ .

258 --Insert Figure 2--

259 Figure 2 uses a spotlight analysis on self-control ( $M = 4.36, SD = 1.09$ ) to show the  
 260 nature of the interaction. At low self-control scores one standard deviation below the mean, the  
 261 presence of variety increased the desired quantity by 4.8 ( $M_{NoVariety} = 3.4$  vs.  $M_{Variety} = 8.2$ ),  
 262  $t(148) = -3.21, p < .01, \eta^2 = .07$ . In contrast, at high self-control scores one standard deviation  
 263 above the mean, variety failed to have a statistically significant effect on quantity ( $M_{NoVariety} = 4.7$   
 264 vs.  $M_{Variety} = 4.2$ ),  $t(148) = 1.26, p > .21$ .

265 To more directly test our predictions, we also performed separate regression analyses for  
 266 each of the two treatment conditions. For participants presented with only a single candy, there  
 267 was no relationship between the quantity chosen and self-control,  $\beta = .11, t < 1, ns$ . In contrast,  
 268 for those given a variety of candies, the quantity chosen decreased with greater self-control,  $\beta = -$   
 269  $2.28, t(74) = -4.42, p < .01, \eta^2 = .21$ . This pattern of results confirms our prediction as  
 270 participants with greater self-control were affected less by the presence of variety than those with  
 271 low self-control. In fact, self-control affected the desired quantity only when variety was present,  
 272 and not when there was a single type of candy.

273 We also performed the previous analysis using the DEBQ eating restraint measure ( $M =$   
274  $5.00$ ,  $SD = 1.01$ ) instead of self-control. The ANCOVA on the quantity desired found no  
275 significant effects for eating restraint as a main effect,  $t < 1$ ,  $ns$ , or as an interaction with the  
276 variety condition,  $t < 1$ ,  $ns$ . Next, we conducted the same analysis using BMI ( $M = 25.2$ ,  $SD =$   
277  $6.14$ ,  $range = 14.12$  to  $46.80$ ) as an independent factor, and we again found no evidence that  
278 BMI interacted with the variety condition,  $t < 1$ ,  $ns$ . Not surprisingly, there was a main effect of  
279 BMI,  $t(148) = 2.98$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $\eta^2 = .06$ , such that participants with a higher BMI tended to request  
280 more candy. Even so, we found no evidence that the measures of eating restraint or BMI  
281 moderated the effect of variety on the desired consumption quantity, though self-control was  
282 negatively correlated with both eating restraint,  $r = -.26$ ,  $p < .01$ , and BMI,  $r = -.28$ ,  $p < .01$ . Trait  
283 self-control captured a susceptibility to the variety effect that these other constructs did not.

284 We next examined whether, as we have proposed, expected satiation could help account  
285 for our findings. We specifically tested the effect on desired quantities for mediated moderation  
286 in which the interaction between self-control and variety condition would be mediated by  
287 expected satiation. We calculated expected satiation as the rated desire for more of the candy  
288 after eating the first bite minus the rated desire after the fifth bite (i.e., the drop in desire)  
289 (Redden & Haws, 2013) (Redden & Haws, 2013) (Redden & Haws, 2013) (Redden & Haws,  
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301 (Redden & Haws, 2013) (Redden & Haws, 2013) (Redden & Haws, 2013) (Redden & Haws,  
302 2013) (Redden & Haws, 2013). This change in liking resembles the measure typically found in  
303 sensory-specific satiety research (Rolls et al., 1981). We next performed a regression to verify  
304 that the interaction of the self-control and variety factors influenced expected satiation, and it  
305 did,  $t(148) = -2.17, p < .03, \eta^2 = .03$ . We then used bootstrapping and the PROCESS macro  
306 (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) to test whether expected satiation indeed mediated our findings for the  
307 desired quantity. The analysis included the interaction between self-control and the variety  
308 condition as the independent variable, self-control and the variety condition as covariates,  
309 expected satiation as the mediator, and the desired quantity as the dependent variable. The total  
310 effect of the interaction between self-control and the variety condition was attenuated when  
311 controlling for expected satiation. The overall model bootstrap estimate was .33, 95% CI [.05,  
312 .69], which differed from zero to establish the presence of mediation. As we proposed,  
313 participants with higher trait self-control showed less of a variety effect because they expected to  
314 get more satiated than those with low self-control.

315

## 316 **Discussion**

317 This study replicated our previous findings as trait self-control moderated the effect of  
318 variety on the chosen quantity. This key result held even when participants were given their

319 favorite snack in the single case condition, and the extent of variety was nearly doubled from the  
320 previous study. We found that general self-control successfully moderated the variety effect, but  
321 we failed to find any moderating effects of either BMI or the restraint component of the DEBQ.

322 We propose that these other measures may not act as moderators because they do not  
323 discriminate between high restrainers who successfully restrain themselves on a regular basis, or  
324 try to do so now because of a tendency to fail in the past. In contrast, general trait self-control  
325 unambiguously reflects one's ability to consistently exhibit self-control in their behavior and not  
326 be overly influenced by environmental factors, such as the presence of variety. In addition, this  
327 study provided initial evidence that high self-control people show less susceptibility to the  
328 variety effect because they appreciate the satiation that will inevitably come with eating more  
329 food even if it is varied. In contrast, those lower in self-control did not seem to recognize that  
330 increasing the quantity of consumption would still lead to satiation in the presence of variety. In  
331 our final study, we used a different set-up to more explicitly examine the underlying role of  
332 satiation for the moderation of the variety effect based on differences in self-control.

333

### 334 **Study 3: Responses to Variety with Consumption**

335 Study 2 provided initial evidence that expected satiation contributes to differences in how  
336 people respond to variety. This study sought to provide further evidence for the proposed role of  
337 satiation in attenuating the variety effect for those higher in trait self-control. In particular,  
338 participants rated their liking of a variety of foods as they ate them. Our theory predicts that  
339 satiation will spread more across a variety of foods for people with high self-control versus those  
340 with low self-control. Such a finding would suggest that the presence of variety increases the  
341 desired quantity less for those higher in self-control as they experience greater satiation

342 compared to those lower in self-control. Our prediction is rooted in prior work showing that  
343 those higher in self-control better monitor their intake of unhealthy foods ((Redden & Haws,  
344 2013) as well as group together items inconsistent with their goals to encourage a broader  
345 general view (Poynor & Haws, 2008). As a result, those higher in self-control will attend more to  
346 the overall consumption experience, which can increase satiation ((Brunstrom & Mitchell, 2006;  
347 Higgs & Woodward, 2009; Redden & Haws, 2013), thereby lessening the effects of variety.

348 Study 3 tested our predictions using the standard setup in sensory-specific satiety  
349 research (Rolls et al., 1981). Here, participants first taste a focal food and multiple non-focal  
350 foods, and then indicate how much they like each food. They then eat enough of the focal food to  
351 induce satiation before re-sampling and re-rating their liking of the same set of foods as before.  
352 This setup allows us to gauge satiation separately for the focal food apart from a more general set  
353 of non-focal foods. The notion is that satiation will not reflect a general hunger, rather it will be  
354 greatest for the focal food (that has been eaten more). Consistent with sensory-specific satiety  
355 research, rather than focusing on the desired quantity as our previous studies have done, this  
356 study kept the quantity consumed roughly equivalent for everyone to focus on the drop in liking  
357 as the critical dependent measure.

358

## 359 **Method**

360 Participants ( $n = 81$ ; 75% Male;  $M_{BMI} = 24.96$ ,  $range = 17.75$  to  $45.72$ ) completed this  
361 study for undergraduate course credit. No effects of gender or BMI were found in the analyses,  
362 all factors had  $p > .05$ , so we do not discuss them further. Participants were told they would eat  
363 snacks and evaluate them. They were then given a plate with small samples of seven common  
364 snack foods. In order to test the effects of variety, we used a much wider range of snacks than the



365 two previous studies that included chocolate chip cookies, animal crackers, pretzels, goldfish  
366 crackers, cheese balls, gummy bears, and M&M's candies. We chose those snack foods because  
367 they were commonly available, generally well liked, and not perceived to be particularly healthy  
368 by our participant population in pretesting<sup>2</sup>. Participants were then instructed to eat each sample  
369 one at a time and rate how much they enjoyed it, how tasty it was, and how much they wanted  
370 more of it on three scales (1 = *not at all*; 9 = *very much so*). They repeated this for each of the  
371 seven snacks in an order randomized for each participant.

372         After sampling the last snack, participants received a plate with three chocolate chip  
373 cookies to eat, and we encouraged them to eat as many of the cookies as possible. Our goal was  
374 to ensure similar levels of consumption across participants, such that changes in liking could not  
375 be solely attributable to differences in quantity of consumption of the eaten food. Participants  
376 were told to enjoy these cookies while watching an animated cartoon video for approximately  
377 five minutes. After the video finished, the plate of cookies was removed and participants  
378 received another plate with the same seven snacks that they previously tasted. Participants then  
379 tasted each snack again and rated it on the same three nine-point scales previously used.  
380 Participants finished by completing the 13-item short form of Tangney et al.'s (2004) general  
381 trait self-control scale.

382

### 383 **Results**

384         Before testing our predictions, we removed any participant ( $n = 5$ ) who did not eat a  
385 single one of the cookies as satiation largely emerges only with some consumption. We found

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<sup>2</sup> A separate sample ( $n = 124$ ) rated these snacks for general liking on a 1 “would not enjoy at all” to 7 “would enjoy very much” scale, and the means ranged from 5.35 (2.39) for cheese balls to 7.43 (1.79) for chocolate chip cookies. Similarly, perceptions of healthiness were assessed on a 1 “very unhealthy” to 7 “very healthy” scale, and the means ranged from 1.76 (1.44) for the M&M's to 4.16 (1.21) for the pretzels.

386 that 58% of the participants ate all of the cookies, and the average quantity eaten was 73%.  
387 Therefore, the participants consumed most of the snack as we intended, and this did not differ by  
388 self-control,  $r = -.08$ ,  $t < 1$ , *ns*.

389 We next created several indices. After appropriate reverse coding, we calculated a self-  
390 control index that had acceptable consistency ( $\alpha = .87$ ). We then created an index of initial liking  
391 for each of the six non-focal foods as the mean of the three scale ratings taken before eating the  
392 cookies. We similarly created an index of final liking for each of the six non-focal foods using  
393 the ratings taken after eating the cookies. Satiation was then calculated for the six non-focal  
394 items, as well as the focal cookies, as the change in liking (final minus initial rating) such that a  
395 more negative number indicates greater satiation. The index for the non-focal foods showed  
396 acceptable consistency across the six foods ( $\alpha = .75$ ) so we collapsed them for analysis, but we  
397 still report the individual means in Figure 3.

398 The indices of satiation for the focal and the non-focal foods were then submitted to a  
399 repeated-measures ANCOVA with the snack type (focal snack; non-focal snacks) as a within-  
400 subjects factor, and self-control (mean centered) as a continuous covariate.<sup>3</sup> The model indicated  
401 a main effect of food type,  $F(1, 74) = 7.77$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $\eta^2 = .10$ , as participants became more  
402 satiated on the chocolate chip cookies they had eaten, consistent with sensory-specific satiety.  
403 There was no evidence of a main effect of self-control,  $F < 1$ , *ns*. Rather, as predicted, there was  
404 a marginal interaction between snack type and self-control,  $F(1, 74) = 3.45$ ,  $p < .07$ ,  $\eta^2 = .04$ .

405 --Insert Figure 3--

---

<sup>3</sup> We also analyzed the results with the quantity consumed as a covariate and no factors with it were significant, all  $t < 1$ , *ns*. The quantity consumed was also not correlated with satiation on the focal food,  $r = .02$ ,  $p > .85$ , or non-focal foods,  $r = -.04$ ,  $p > .74$ . This is likely because most people could not differ on the quantity consumed because they ate everything they were given (as part of our intended control to keep the quantity consumed similar across participants).

406 Figure 3 shows the nature of the interaction using a spotlight analysis on self-control ( $M$   
 407 = 3.90,  $SD = .97$ ). At lower self-control scores one standard deviation below the mean, there was  
 408 a difference in satiation across the two snack types,  $t(74) = 3.28$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $\eta^2 = .13$ . Those with  
 409 low self-control experienced satiation on the chocolate chip cookies they had eaten ( $M = -1.09$ ),  
 410  $t(74) = 3.22$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $\eta^2 = .12$ , but not the other non-focal snacks ( $M = -.11$ ),  $t < 1$ ,  $ns$ . In  
 411 contrast, at high self-control scores one standard deviation above the mean, there was a non-  
 412 significant difference in satiation across the two snack types,  $t < 1$ ,  $ns$ . Enjoyment dropped a  
 413 similar amount for both the focal chocolate chip cookies ( $M = -.87$ ),  $t(74) = 2.55$ ,  $p < .02$ ,  $\eta^2 =$   
 414  $.08$ , as well as the other non-focal snacks ( $M = -.67$ ),  $t(74) = 3.92$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .17$ . Those with  
 415 high self-control seem to transfer their satiation for the cookies onto all of the variety of foods  
 416 sampled, while those with low self-control satiated only on the food they consumed an entire  
 417 serving of.<sup>4</sup> The net result was that self-control influenced satiation only on the non-eaten foods,  
 418  $\beta = -.29$ ,  $t(74) = 2.32$ ,  $p < .03$ , and not the focal food,  $\beta = .12$ ,  $t < 1$ ,  $ns$ .

## 419 Discussion

420 This study provides evidence that people with high self-control show greater spreading of  
 421 satiation to a range of other non-focal snacks after eating a focal snack. Importantly, while low  
 422 self-control people expressed the expected reduced liking for the food they had just eaten  
 423 (cookies), this decrease in liking did not transfer over to the non-focal foods. In contrast, for  
 424 those with high self-control, the decrease in liking extended to the non-focal foods as well, which  
 425 would presumably also reduce subsequent intake of those foods.

426

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<sup>4</sup> The cheeseballs showed an increase in liking for those with low self-control scores, but this result was not significantly different from zero,  $t = 1.61$ ,  $p > .11$ . We conducted the analyses without cheeseballs and the conclusions did not change. At low self-control levels, satiation was greater on the focal food than the non-focal food,  $t = 2.98$ ,  $p < .01$ . At high self-control levels, satiation did not differ between the two snack types,  $t < 1$ ,  $ns$ .

**General Discussion**

427  
428           Although variety may add spice to life, in the domain of food consumption, it can also  
429 add inches to one’s waistline. Remick et al. (2009) noted that “It is only in the current  
430 environment that the variety effect has become a threat to humans’ health,” (p. 447), and Rolls et  
431 al. (1982) suggest that it is variety that leads us to still want dessert after we are satiated with a  
432 main meal. As such, identifying populations most susceptible to the effects of variety is  
433 important for understanding how to combat the variety ever-present in our homes, restaurants,  
434 and grocery stores. Our research establishes general trait self-control as one important factor that  
435 moderates the influence of variety on patterns of food selection. Three empirical studies, using  
436 both choice of the quantity to eat and satiation measures during actual consumption, demonstrate  
437 that variety promoted increased food quantities less for people with high self-control, and that  
438 this was driven by differences in expected or experienced satiation in the presence of variety.  
439 These effects may help explain positive health outcomes over time, as those with higher self-  
440 control are less susceptible to dramatically increasing their consumption in the presence of  
441 variety, a seemingly ubiquitous reality in today’s society.

442           Our findings are significant for several reasons. First, past work has found little evidence  
443 of internal moderators of the variety effect (Remick et al., 2009), including measures of eating  
444 restraint. We provide empirical evidence that trait self-control is a moderator, underscoring the  
445 importance of being less susceptible to environmental conditions like variety that are  
446 counterproductive to one’s healthier behavioral intentions. Specifically, people with low self-  
447 control responded to variety by choosing a larger quantity to consume, expecting less satiation,  
448 and indeed satiating less across the variety of foods as they ate. Our studies either had  
449 participants choose a quantity to consume or fixed the quantity consumed to gain a purer

450 measure of satiation. However, it is easy to imagine these effects would lead to the greater intake  
451 that is often part of variety effect studies ((Wansink, 2004; Wilkinson et al., 2012). Future  
452 research could test this extension of our findings when participants are instructed to eat a variety  
453 of foods. In addition, future research should examine whether differences in self-control  
454 similarly moderate other environmental and perceptual effects documented in the literature that  
455 include: vertical-horizontal illusion (Wansink & van Ittersum, 2003); size and shape (P. Chandon  
456 & Ordabayeva, 2009); background music (Stroebele & de Castro, 2006); and serving size (Pierre  
457 Chandon & Wansink, 2006; Scott, Nowlis, Mandel, & Morales, 2008; Wansink, 1996). We  
458 expect that self-control may prove fruitful in better understanding these phenomena, as it did for  
459 the variety effect in the present studies.

460         Second, theories of self-control generally predict that those with high self-control should  
461 be able to better monitor their consumption and limit intake in the presence of variety. We  
462 suggest that this linkage did not emerge in prior work because it often focused on eating restraint  
463 (which may increase with poor restraint in the past) rather than general self-control. As  
464 suggested by Remick et al. (2009), restrained eating can lead to strange food behaviors, and it is  
465 not necessarily linked to overall healthy consumption patterns. Our results using a measure of  
466 eating restraint in Study 2 further support the lack of a link between restrained eating and  
467 responses to variety. It could be that a restrained eater has now become restrained precisely  
468 because self-control attempts have chronically failed in the past. In contrast, as we theorized and  
469 the results subsequently confirmed, the general self-control construct was unambiguously linked  
470 to a reduced effect of variety on the quantity people chose to eat as well as the rate at which they  
471 satiated. Future research should more carefully examine the types of behaviors that restrained

472 eating is associated with versus those that might be more clearly linked to a general level of self-  
473 control.

474         We show that higher self-control diminishes the effect of variety for a set of foods.  
475 However, it may be noted that the decrease in liking while eating M&M's in Study 3 seemed to  
476 happen regardless of self-control (see Figure 3), and this food was most similar to the focal  
477 chocolate chip cookies. The decrease in liking here did in fact seem to spread to the M&M's to  
478 some degree even for those low in self-control. Ostensibly, the shared sensory property of  
479 chocolate might account for this effect, but further research is needed to understand what types  
480 of variety will require greater self-control. As well, although people may prefer more variety for  
481 multiple reasons, seemingly one of these would be a belief that they will enjoy the variety more.  
482 Yet, as shown in Study 3, whether this belief holds true partially depends on one's inherent level  
483 of self-control. Future research will need to explore how well predictions of enjoyment from  
484 variety accurately reflect experienced enjoyment during subsequent consumption, and how this  
485 relates to differences in individuals.

486         Additional explanations for our effects should also be considered. For instance, prior  
487 research has demonstrated that restrained eaters are more likely to have hedonic goals activated  
488 in the presence of palatable food primes (Papies, Stroebe, & Aarts, 2007). Those high in self-  
489 control may similarly show less responsiveness to the appetitive effects of a variety of palatable  
490 food cues. They may also have a stronger association between food and the dieting goal similar  
491 to restrained eaters who show this relationship more than unrestrained eaters (Papies, Stroebe, &  
492 Aarts, 2008). Here, variety may cue the dieting goal more for those with high self-control,  
493 making them more aware that they need to carefully monitor the quantity to be consumed.  
494 Although we have suggested that people with high self-control may better incorporate the overall

495 quantity of food being eaten, other work on restrained eating suggests that selective attention  
496 may be particularly strong for hedonic foods (Papies et al., 2008). This suggests our effects may  
497 grow stronger as the foods become more palatable and unhealthy, which future research will  
498 need to test. Of course, such unhealthy foods typically pose a greater threat to one's health and  
499 BMI, so they are likely of more interest to consumers, researchers, and policy makers. As well,  
500 our findings hint that variety in unhealthy foods may hurt people much more than unhealthy food  
501 itself, but future research will need to further test this notion.

502         In the current studies, we always assessed self-control after the snack choice or liking  
503 ratings. We used this order because of concern that asking self-control questions first would bias  
504 the results by explicitly highlighting the need for controlling one's behavior, while our chosen  
505 quantity and liking measures would have less influence on a subsequent trait measure of general  
506 self-control. Although we included distractor tasks in some studies to reduce concerns about the  
507 order of our measures, future research should collect the dependent measures and self-control  
508 scale at two different points in time (ideally separated by several days or even weeks). Future  
509 research should also explore the moderation of the variety effect across a range of consumption  
510 scenarios. Our studies employed pictures of food and desired consumption as in previous  
511 research on the variety effect (Wilkinson et al., 2012), as well as the sampling paradigm typical  
512 in sensory-specific satiety research (Rolls et al., 1981). Future research could further extend our  
513 findings to other common consumption contexts.

514         Although we generally used related foods in our studies, we broadened the snack  
515 selection considerably in Study 3. The result was novel evidence that the liking of a variety of  
516 foods decreased more for those higher in self-control, as compared to those lower in self-control,  
517 following consumption of a tempting food. This intriguing finding not only helps to explain the

518 process underlying our present results, it also suggests that people high in self-control may  
519 naturally extend satiating properties of snack foods more broadly beyond the food consumed  
520 with significant implications for overall consumption patterns. Further research should test the  
521 boundaries of this spreading of satiation effect, especially over time and across contexts.

522         In conclusion, although prior research has found little evidence of internal moderators of  
523 the variety effect (Remick et al., 2009), we demonstrated that general self-control is likely an  
524 overlooked moderator of this relationship. Our findings indicate that those lower in self-control  
525 are more likely to increase their planned consumption in response to variety, compared to those  
526 with higher self-control, and mediation evidence shows that anticipated satiation contributes to  
527 this effect. Understanding these relationships may help illuminate how those with high self-  
528 control successfully manage their food consumption, and how others can do the same.

529



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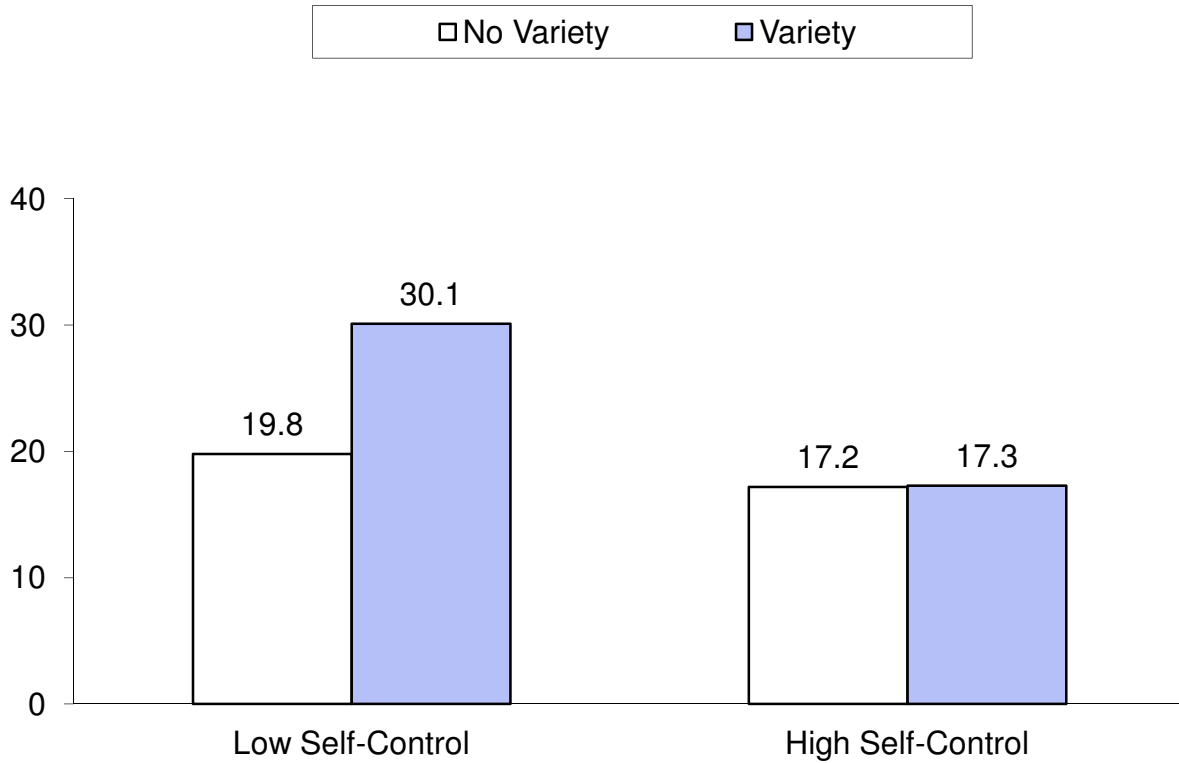
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642 *Figure 1. Total Quantity of Chips Chosen by Presence of Variety in Study 1.*

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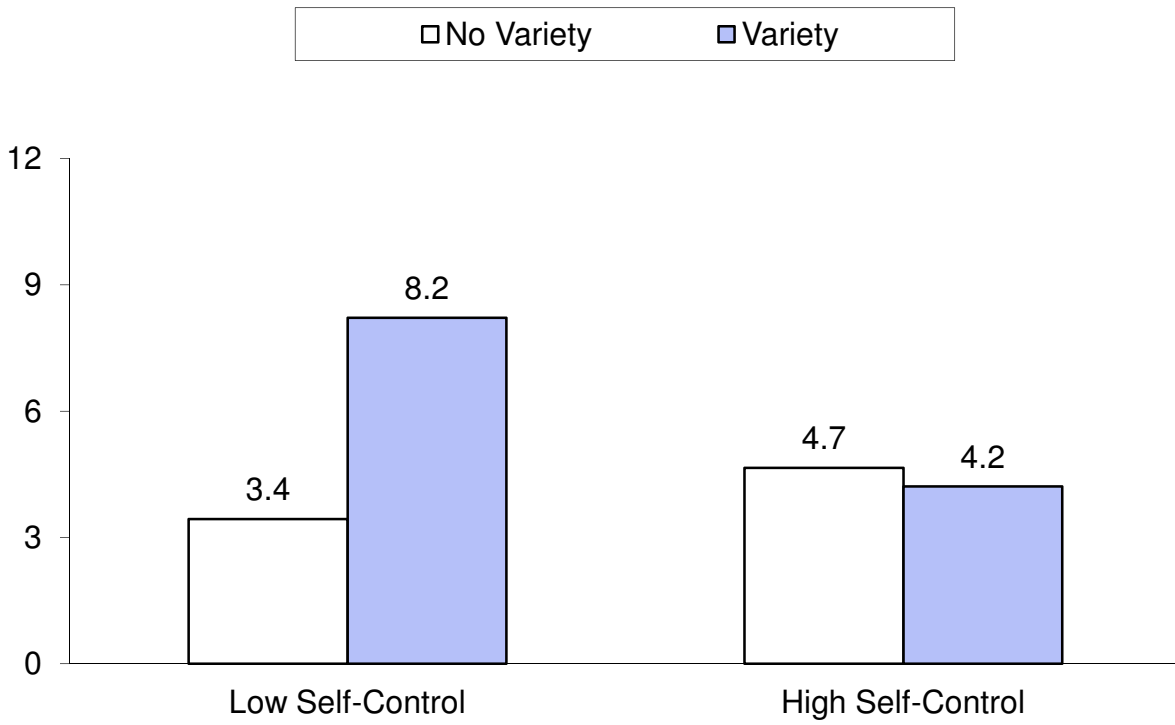
647 NOTE. — This figure (and subsequent figures) was created from analyses using continuous  
648 scores on the self-control measure. Self-control scores were graphed at one SD above the mean  
649 to represent high scores on the self-control measure, and one SD below the mean to represent  
650 low scores on the self-control measure (per procedures recommended in Aiken & West, 1991).

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653 *Figure 2. Total Quantity of Candies Chosen by Presence of Variety in Study 2*

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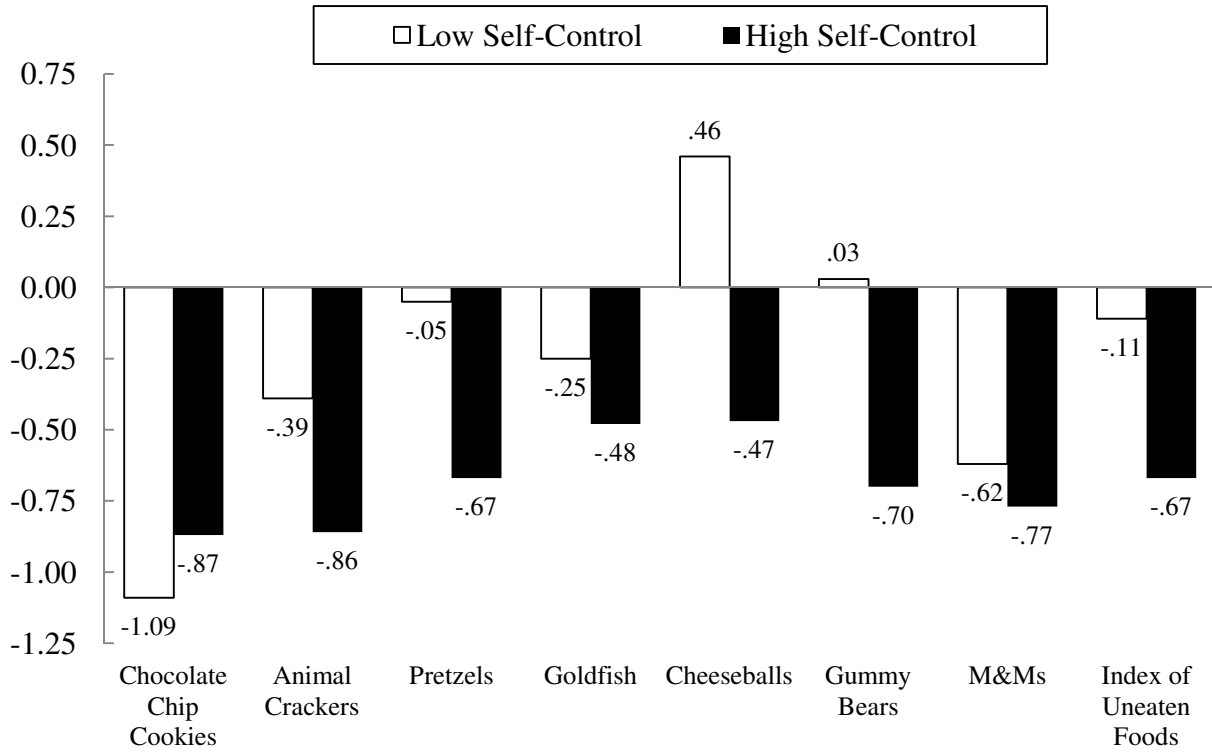
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657 NOTE. — See note from Figure 1.

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659 *Figure 3. Change in Liking Index by Food Type and Self-Control in Study 3*  
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 665 NOTE. — See note from Figure 1.

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