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## **Preventing weight gain with calorie-labelling**

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**Running title:** Weight gain and calorie-labelling

What is already known

- Current published literature has only assessed calorie-labelling's impact on calories purchased on single occasions as a snapshot of consumers' purchases precluding the exploration of the effect of calorie-labelling on body-weight.

What this study adds

- Our study provides the first long-term evidence for an impact of calorie-labelling on body-weight. Regular consistent exposure to calorie-labelling of main meals was associated with halving the likelihood of young adults' gaining weight.

1

2

3

4 **Abstract** (Word Count = 197)

5 **Objective:** Calorie-labelling has been suggested as an anti-obesity measure but there is no  
6 evidence for its effect, to date. Early adulthood is a critical life-cycle period for unwanted  
7 weight gain and obesity development. This study examined whether providing calorie  
8 information would help young adults to avoid weight gain.

9

10 **Design and Methods:** Using a pragmatic interrupted time-series study design, weight-  
11 changes over 36-weeks were reported among two year-groups, each of 120 young adults,  
12 similar in age, gender and ethnicity, living in fully-catered accommodation. Year-1: subjects  
13 were observed without calorie-labelling, apart from a 5-week pilot. Year-2: calorie-labelling  
14 was present prominently and consistently at main meals for 30 of the 36 weeks.

15

16 **Results:** Mean weight changes over 36 weeks, per protocol, were +3.5kg (95% CI=2.8-4.1kg)  
17 (n=64) in year-1 and -0.15kg (95% CI=-0.7-0.3kg) (n=87) in year-2. Weight changes were  
18 significantly different between years, for males and females (both  $p < 0.001$ ). Intention-to-  
19 treat analysis showed similar results. Relative Risk for weight gain in year-2, compared to  
20 year-1, was 0.5 ( $p < 0.0001$ ).

21

22 **Conclusion:** Calorie-labelling was associated with a 3.5kg less weight gain, representing a  
23 low-cost 'nudging' approach to combat the rapid weight gain seen in young adults.

24

25

## 26 **Introduction**

27 Obesity is arguably the greatest global public problem, yet, to date, few low-cost but  
28 effective and sustainable obesity prevention interventions exist. Weight gain through body  
29 fat accumulation, potentially leading to obesity for many, is most rapid in early adulthood<sup>1</sup>.  
30 As most interventions to treat obesity have limited efficacy in the modern obesogenic  
31 environment<sup>2</sup>, obesity prevention by preventing unwanted weight gain in young adulthood  
32 appears an attractive solution.

33

34 ‘Nudging’ people towards less energy-dense food choices has been proposed to help people  
35 control their calorie intakes<sup>3</sup>. Calorie-labelling at catering outlets aims to alter the ‘food-  
36 choice architecture’, as a simple approach. It has been implemented in various geographic  
37 settings, such as New York City<sup>4</sup>, and sporadically in commercial and institutional settings  
38 elsewhere. Published evaluations of calorie-labelling initiatives, hitherto, report only  
39 differences in calories purchased on single occasions<sup>5-8</sup>. Devising a study to examine the  
40 effect of calorie-labelling on body weight is difficult under most free-living conditions, given  
41 the need for regular exposure to calorie-labelling over a sustained period, with potential  
42 opposition from food suppliers, and difficulties in assessing weight changes.

43

44 The present study tested the hypothesis that posting the calorie contents of meal  
45 components could ‘nudge’ the food choices of young adults, to regulate energy intakes and  
46 thereby avoid unwanted weight gain.

47

48

**49 Methods**

50 The study design, an interrupted time series was approved by the Ethics Committee of the  
51 College of Medicine, Veterinary and Life Sciences, University of Glasgow on 20/11/2010 and  
52 13/01/2012.

53

**54 Location and study sample**

55 The study was conducted in the only university residential hall, accommodating 120 young  
56 adults in full time education, located a 20-minute walk from the closest grocery shops or  
57 alternative catering.

58

59 A lifestyle questionnaire was circulated by internal email to each resident as part of a  
60 separate university-wide study, to collect information on weight, height, and age, at the  
61 beginning (September) and end (May) of both years, an interval of 36 weeks. Self-reported  
62 heights and weights data were validated against objectively measured data. For both years,  
63 measured data were available for a sub-sample against measurements recorded by nurses  
64 or doctors at General Practice (GP) surgeries, and for a second sub-sample against  
65 measurements made by a trained researcher within a month of self-reported data  
66 collection, as part of another research study. For both years, weights and heights were also  
67 available for students studying at the same university but not living in the residential hall.

68

**69 Catering and calorie-labelling intervention**

70 Two meals daily, breakfast and evening meal, were provided on a five-week menu-cycle,  
71 their cost incorporated in a single standard accommodation charge. The menu had been

72 developed by the catering staff, without any expert nutritional guidance. All dishes were  
73 prepared and cooked on site. The 5-week menu-cycles, and meal recipes, were identical in  
74 year-1 and year-2. Three-course evening meals, selected from 2-3 options, were served  
75 onto trays.

76

77 The calorie-labelling intervention, agreed by negotiation with the caterers, was limited to  
78 evening meals, the main meal of the day. Calorie-labels, identifiable as authentic with the  
79 university crest, and from a reliable source, the department of Human Nutrition, were  
80 posted prominently at the point of serving, and reinforced by posters in the dining hall.  
81 Neither blinding nor randomisation of the intervention was possible while retaining a  
82 realistic-setting pragmatic study design for long-term evaluation.

83

84 **Year 1 (2011-2012):** In order to pilot the process and assess acceptability to residents and  
85 staff, calorie-labels were posted in the dining room for one complete menu-cycle in the last  
86 five weeks of the academic year (April 2012).

87

88 **Year 2 (2012-2013):** Calorie-labels were posted for most of the academic year (for 30 weeks  
89 in total out of the 36 weeks of the academic year), starting September 2012. Calorie-labels  
90 were removed for six weeks, in the middle of the academic year in order to test the  
91 hypothesis that their removal would make any difference to the meals chosen by the  
92 students. They were in place for the first four 5-week menu-cycles (20 weeks), removed in  
93 the middle of the academic year (February 2013) for 6 weeks, and reinstated in April 2013  
94 for the remaining two menu-cycles (10 weeks). In this final period, additional information on

95 the estimated daily energy requirements of young adults was provided as A4-size posters in

96 the dining room.

97



**98 Ingredient orders**

99 Details of all the orders placed by the caterers with commercial suppliers for ingredients  
100 used in evening meals were provided by the catering staff for analysis, for eight-week  
101 periods, November-December 2011-2012, without calorie information, and November-  
102 December 2012-2013 when calorie information had been in place for 12 weeks.

103

**104 Meal selection recording**

105 From the 5-week evening-meal menu-cycle, 14 days were identified as including choices  
106 with wide calorie-ranges. The first 100 meals selected on those 14 days were observed, and  
107 all items on the trays recorded by the principal researcher, under each calorie-labelling  
108 condition (one menu-cycle with calorie information, one with no calorie information and  
109 one with calorie information plus daily energy requirements). The cut-off of 100 meals was  
110 chosen to avoid any confounding from forced meal choices for subsequent students, if the  
111 most popular choices had run out.

112

**113 Statistical Analysis**

114 Data analysis, using SPSS 19 (Chicago, IL), was performed per protocol and by intention-to-  
115 treat. Per protocol analysis used data only from participants who completed the study.  
116 Intention-to-treat analysis used imputed data for those with incomplete data for body  
117 weight, employing the mean weight-change observed among those who completed the  
118 study. Further Intention-to-treat analyses were performed across a range of imputed  
119 weight-changes, the means of the upper and lower thirds of the weight-change  
120 distributions, and also the mean weight-change of all subjects in both years combined.

121

122 After checking normality of distributions using Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, measurements  
123 made on the 2011-2012 and 2012-2013 populations residing in the hall and out of the hall  
124 were compared using independent t-tests. Paired t-tests were used to examine changes in  
125 weight, height and BMI between the beginning (September) and end (May) of each  
126 academic year, across equal time-intervals of 36 weeks. Differences between the meal  
127 contents of calories, fat, saturated fat, and selected micronutrients in the three time  
128 periods, for male and female participants separately were sought using one-way ANOVA  
129 and t-tests. Linear regression and Bland-Altman plots were used to assess agreement  
130 between methods assessing weight and height. Odds ratio and relative risk were calculated  
131 to quantify the association between exposure to calorie-labelling and the risk of gaining  
132 weight.

133

## 134 **Results**

135 The caloric contents of evening meals offered varied very widely; starters: 18-462 kcal; main  
136 courses: 115-1034 kcal; desserts 114-734 kcal. In principle, an individual could choose from  
137 247 to 2230 kcal from the three main components, plus any side dishes such as vegetables,  
138 rice, potatoes, and chips. These options were identical during years 1 and 2.

139

140 Participants' characteristics for year-1 and year-2 are shown in Table 1. Baseline  
141 characteristics did not differ between the two years for weight, height, body mass index, or  
142 proportions of smokers and alcohol drinkers (Table 1). The distributions of degree courses  
143 were similar in the two groups.

144

**145 Weight changes**

146 Data on body weight at both baseline and follow-up were available for 64 residents in 2011-  
147 2012 and for 87 in 2012-2013 (Figure 1). Weight changes over 36-weeks in the two years,  
148 2011-2012 and 2012-2013, are shown in Table 2, and Figure 2.

149

**150 Per Protocol Analysis**

151 *Year 1: 2011-2012.* Weight was gained by 89% (n=57) of the respondents, 4% (n=2) reported  
152 unchanged weight, and 8% (n=5) lost weight, over 36 weeks. Mean weight increased during  
153 the 36-week period from 66.0(SD12.9)kg to 69.6(SD14.3)kg, and mean BMI from  
154 22.0(SD3.1)kg/m<sup>2</sup> to 23.0(SD3.6)kg/m<sup>2</sup> (both p<0.001).

155

156 *Year 2: 2012-2013.* Weight was gained by 46% (n=40) of the respondents, while 36% (n=31)  
157 lost weight and 18% (n=16) remained the same weight. Mean weight was 66.1(SD11.6)kg,  
158 and BMI 22.3(SD3.2)kg/m<sup>2</sup> at baseline, and 66.0(SD12.0)kg, BMI 22.3 (SD3.4)kg/m<sup>2</sup> after 36-  
159 weeks (both NS).

160

161 *Comparison of weight changes in Year 1 and Year 2:* Weight changes across the 36 weeks  
162 observation periods differed between year-1, +3.5(SD2.6)kg, and year-2, -0.16(SD2.4)kg  
163 (p<0.001). The difference remained significant when data analysed by gender, with very  
164 similar changes for males and females; males +3.8(SD1.90)kg in year-1, and -0.4(SD2.7)kg in

165 year-2 ( $p=0.03$ ), females  $+3.1(\text{SD}3.0)\text{kg}$  in year-1, and  $+0.2(\text{SD}2.4)\text{kg}$  in year-2 ( $p<0.001$ ).  
166 Relative risk for any weight gain ( $>0\text{kg}$ ) in year-2, compared to year-1, was  $0.5$  (95% CI= $0.4-$   
167  $0.7$ ),  $p<0.0001$ . For weight gain $>1\text{kg}$ , relative risk  $0.6$  (95% CI  $0.4-0.7$ )  $p<0.0001$ . For weight  
168 gain $>2\text{kg}$ , relative risk  $0.4$  (95% CI  $0.3-0.5$ ),  $p<0.0001$ .

169

170 **Intention-to-treat analysis, using imputed weight-change values for subjects with**  
171 **incomplete data**

172 Since there were no significant differences between the weight changes observed in males  
173 and females, the mean weight change of both sexes combined was employed as the  
174 imputed value for subjects with incomplete data. Responders and subjects with incomplete  
175 data were not different at baseline for weight, height, BMI, or gender.

176

177 *Year 1: 2011-2012.* Mean weight increased from  $65.1(\text{SD}12.1)\text{kg}$  to  $68.7(\text{SD}13.4)\text{kg}$  and mean  
178 BMI from  $21.7(\text{SD}3.0)\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$  to  $22.8(\text{SD}3.3)\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$  ( $p<0.001$ ) during the 36-week period.

179

180 *Year 2: 2012-2013.* Mean weight was  $66.7(\text{SD}14.7)\text{kg}$ , BMI  $22.5(\text{SD}4.0)\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$  at the start of  
181 the year and  $66.6(\text{SD}15.0)\text{kg}$ ,  $22.4(\text{SD}4.0)\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$  after the 36-week period (both NS).

182

183 *Comparison of weight changes in Year 1 and Year 2:* Weight changes across the 36 weeks  
184 observation period were  $+3.4(\text{SD}2.4)\text{kg}$  in year-1 and  $-0.16(\text{SD}2.4)\text{kg}$  in year-2. Weight

185 changes for all subjects in year-1 were significantly greater than in year-2 ( $p < 0.001$ ). The  
186 difference remained significant when data analysed separately by gender (both  $p < 0.001$ ).  
187 The significant difference between the two years remained when the analysis was  
188 conducted across a wide range of imputed weight-changes, using the means of the upper  
189 third and the lower third of the weight-change distributions and also the mean weight  
190 change of all respondents in year 1 and 2 (1.4kg) (all  $p < 0.001$ ). Relative risk for any weight  
191 gain ( $>0$ kg) in year-2 compared to year-1 was 0.4 (95% CI=0.3-0.5)  $p < 0.0001$ . For weight  
192 gains  $>1$ kg and  $>2$ kg, relative risks were 0.4 and 0.3 (all  $p < 0.0001$ ).

193

194

### 195 **Validation of weights and heights**

196 Measured data allowing validation of self-reported data were available for 93 participants  
197 measured by GP surgery staff (females=62, males=32), and 19 participants measured by the  
198 principal researcher (females=12, males=7). Measured data available with both methods  
199 were available for 13 participants (females=8, males=5). There were high correlations  
200 between all three methods ( $r=0.999$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) for both weight and height. Mean  
201 underreporting biases were 0.1kg and -0.001m, with no difference between males and  
202 females. Bland-Altman analysis revealed a high level of agreement between methods,  
203 without evident bias (Figure 3).

204

### 205 **Weight changes between students-residents and students-non residents**

206 Weight-changes in students studying in the same university (non-residents) were available  
207 for 1,275 subjects in year-1 and 1,734 subjects in year-2. Students-residents and –non-  
208 residents had similar characteristics at baseline in terms of weight (Year-1: 65.8(14.5)kg,  
209 Year-2: 65.3(13.5)kg, height (Year-1: 1.72(0.1)m,Year-2:1.7(0.1)m, BMI (Year-1:  
210 22.3(4.6)kg/m<sup>2</sup>, Year-2: 22.3(4.5) kg/m<sup>2</sup> and age (Year-1: 20.0(3.8) years old, Year-2:  
211 19.9(2.8) years old . Non-resident-students during year-1 gained 1.8(SD2.6)kg and during  
212 year-2 2.1(SD 1.4)kg. Weights changes were significantly different between resident and  
213 non-resident students (Year-1, 3.5kg vs 1.8, Year-2 -0.15kg vs 2.1kg, both p<0.001).

214

### 215 **Ingredient orders and costs**

216 Orders for all main ingredients for meals and the total calorie contents of food items and  
217 ingredients ordered for evening meals during the 2-month periods analysed fell significantly,  
218 from 9,209,200 in year 1 to 7,600,320 kcal in year 2 when calorie-labelling had been in place  
219 for 10 weeks, a reduction of 18%. Ingredients used mostly for the preparation of desserts  
220 fell by 60% and oils used for frying fell by 35%. Total catering expenditure fell by about 33%  
221 (Table 3).

222

### 223 **Effect of calorie-labelling on the total calories and nutrients per meal chosen, across 3** 224 **study periods**

225 Mean kcal, fat, saturated fat, vitamin C, iron, and calcium contents of observed meal choices  
226 are shown in Table 4.

227

228 Mean calorie contents of meals chosen were significantly different between all study  
229 periods. The least calories per tray were observed in period 3, significantly lower than in  
230 period 2 both for females ( $p<0.001$ ) and males ( $p=0.01$ ), and significantly different from  
231 period 1 ( $p<0.001$ ) (Table 4). Among females, the mean calories per tray fell by 25%  
232 between the no-labelling period and the labelling plus nutritional requirements period.  
233 Among males, for the same study-periods, calories per meal fell by 15%.

234

235 A similar pattern was observed for the meal contents of fat and saturated fat (Table 4). Fat  
236 content was reduced during both labelling periods for both males ( $p<0.001$ ) and females  
237 ( $p<0.001$ ). Saturated fat also reduced for both males ( $p=0.009$ ) and females ( $p=0.002$ ).

238

239 There were no differences in the content of selected micronutrients of frequent concern  
240 among young people, vitamin C ( $p=0.309$ ), iron ( $p=0.452$ ), calcium ( $p=0.527$ ) in meals  
241 chosen.

242

### 243 **Reported Use of Labelling**

244 Calorie labelling was valued by the subjects, 35% and 48% (in year-1) reported using them  
245 for weight control, 65% and 52% (year-2) for 'healthier eating', and the differences between  
246 weight changes were large. Caterers were interviewed and welcomed the presence of  
247 calorie-labels as a useful tool.

248

### 249 **Discussion**

250 Hitherto, there has been no published evidence for any effective low-cost, sustainable,  
251 obesity-prevention programme directed at young adults. The present study looked at the  
252 effect of providing calorie information on body-weight and followed residents for two  
253 academic years in a location where there were few alternatives to in-house catering. During  
254 the second year, there was no change in body weight and BMI, which would not be  
255 expected on the basis of the evidence on similar student groups<sup>9</sup> and on weight-changes  
256 observed in students studying at the same university but living outside the residential hall.  
257 That result was significantly different from the weight gain observed in the first year without  
258 calorie-labelling. This difference of 3.5kg (about 7 pounds) remained, whether analysed per  
259 protocol for completers only, or by intention-to-treat with imputed weight changes for  
260 those with incomplete data. The significant avoidance of weight gain in the second year was  
261 an exciting new finding, which can plausibly be attributed to the change in food choices,  
262 with substantial reductions (by 15-25%) in energy contents of evening meals observed  
263 during calorie-labelling. The relative risk 0.5 is striking. Practical constraints in a real-life  
264 setting forced a study design which cannot claim absolute proof, but these data support a  
265 causal link between calorie-labelling and weight-gain prevention, through reduced calorie  
266 contents of meal-selections. We could not identify any other confounding environmental  
267 factors or health-promotion initiatives which might have been responsible for such a large  
268 difference in weight changes between the two years.

269

270 Recognising inherent uncertainties in dietary intake assessment, this study used  
271 independently observed and recorded food choices, and the effects of calorie-labelling were  
272 corroborated using a triangulation approach from data on ingredient purchasing, collected



273 routinely by the caterers. Guiding young adults towards less calorific choices provided an  
274 opportunity for caterers to consider improving the nutritional profile of the meals while  
275 keeping within budget. The substantial reduction in ingredient purchasing costs was seen as  
276 an important benefit, which should make the intervention sustainable and readily  
277 transferable to other settings.

278

279 Misreporting of body-weight is a frequent study limitation, and a particular problem among  
280 obese subjects, but the self-reported weights and heights of these young adults, mostly still  
281 of normal weight, were validated in two ways, and agreed closely with measurements made  
282 by a trained observer, and against measurements recorded by nurses or doctors at General  
283 Practice (GP) surgeries. In order to avoid biasing responses, students were not informed  
284 that the calorie-labelling study and the measurements of heights and weights were related.

285

286

287 There is little existing evidence for an effective obesity prevention strategy in young adults,  
288 partly because it has been so difficult to devise study designs aimed at long-term effects  
289 which can test transferable interventions in free-living 'realistic' settings. Calorie-labelling  
290 has the great advantage of its low cost, but previous studies have only been carried out in  
291 commercial settings on single meals, and none examined the relationship between calorie  
292 contents of foods bought and body weight change. Such data could only be snapshots of  
293 consumers' choices with and without calorie information, precluding any investigations on  
294 body weight. In England, under the 'Responsibility Deal', larger restaurant chains have

295 agreed to support a call to voluntarily provide calorie information on their menus<sup>10</sup>. There is  
296 no evidence as yet for any effect of this initiative on body weights or the obesity epidemic.

297

298 Several factors may have contributed to the success of the present study. The information  
299 was very prominent, sited close to the food, reinforced by posters in the dining hall, from a  
300 recognisable trusted source, and perhaps most importantly for generating behavioural  
301 change, as with commercial marketing messages, the calorie-labelling was present every  
302 day for long periods. Previous interventions in commercial settings, with little or no effect  
303 on purchases, have generally used less prominent calorie labels. The increase in the calorie-  
304 content of the meals chosen by the students, during the short no-labelling-period, may be  
305 another indication that calorie-labelling in order to be effective must be present daily and in  
306 all catering outlets. Calorie-labelling formatting might need to be adapted or supplemented  
307 with other educational materials in order to match the specific needs of other settings or of  
308 other populations such as those coming from a low socioeconomic or education  
309 background.

310

311 This study provides the first data on weight-changes, and much more detailed and longer-  
312 term information on consumer responses to calorie-labelling, than has been previously been  
313 reported. Importantly, it examined the impact of calorie-labelling among young adults, who  
314 are at the most vulnerable stage for weight gain<sup>11</sup>. The proportion of young adults currently  
315 attending higher education in the UK is high, including approximately 50% of all school-  
316 leavers<sup>12</sup>, therefore our study population represents a large proportion of all young adults,  
317 not an elite highly-educated sub-group. The residential setting afforded an opportunity to

318 measure weight-changes of consumers over a 36-week period. It was a 'realistic' study,  
319 with minimal interference from researchers, and all steps were taken to validate the data in  
320 several ways. Measuring food wastage would provide extra strength, but that was not  
321 possible in this study. The catered residential setting provided an opportunity to evaluate  
322 regular exposure to a controlled intervention whose effects are likely to apply to other  
323 catering settings if consumers are exposed to calorie-labelling on a daily basis.

324

### 325 **Conclusion**

326 In conclusion, this study has used a careful pragmatic approach to address a difficult  
327 research question of real importance for public health, as highlighted by the UK Academy of  
328 Royal Medical Colleges<sup>13</sup>. It presents valuable new evidence that regular daily exposure to  
329 prominent calorie-labelling may 'nudge' long-term alterations in food choices, sufficient to  
330 reduce the weight gain of young adults, in this case with a difference between the year-  
331 groups of about 3.5kg. Calorie labelling was associated with a halving of likelihood of weight  
332 gain. The data suggest that calorie-labelling may also lead to reduced food purchasing  
333 expenditure, and deserves support as a low-cost, transferable intervention for public health  
334 strategy.

335

336

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340 providing information on recipes and for posting the calorie-labels every day, and the  
341 students who participated.

342 **Conflict of interest**

343 No authors declare a conflict of interest.

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347 **Declaration of Interests**

348 Authors declare no financial or personal relationships with other people or organisations  
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**Table 1:** Participants' characteristics at baseline (October) for year-1 and year-2.

	<b>Year 1</b>	<b>Year 2</b>	<b>P value</b>
	<b>Mean (SD)</b>	<b>Mean (SD)</b>	
<b>Gender</b>	<b>F=54%</b>	<b>F=58%</b>	
<b>Age (years)</b>	19·1(2·3)	19·1(0·9)	0·101
<b>Weight (kg)</b>	66·1 (12·9)	66·1 (11·6)	0·065
<b>Height (m)</b>	1·73 (0·1)	1·70 (0·1)	0·079
<b>Body Mass Index (kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>	22·0(3·1)	22·3 (3·2)	0·064
<b>Smokers (%)</b>	15	13	-
<b>Alcohol consumers (%)</b>	63	65	-
<b>Course/Degree</b>			
Health Sciences (%)	45	43	-
Economics and Business (%)	33	29	
Social Sciences (%)	22	28	
<b>Ethnicity – British (%)</b>	98	97	-

**Table 2:** Weight and BMI changes over 36 weeks, for year 2011-2012 and 2012-2013, per protocol analysis and intention-to-treat-analysis (mean weight change observed in the respondents was imputed for participants who only provided baseline but not follow-up data).

	Year 1				Year 2			
	Baseline Mean(SD)	Follow up Mean(SD)	Change Mean(SD)	P value	Baseline Mean(SD)	Follow up Mean(SD)	Change Mean(SD)	P value
<b><i>Per Protocol Analysis</i></b>								
	n= 64 (F=54%)	n=64 (F=54%)			n= 87 (F=58%)	n= 87 (F=58%)		
Weight (kg)	66·1 (12·9)	69·6 (14·3)	3·4 (2·5)	<0·001	66·1 (11·6)	66·0 (12·0)	-0·15(2·4)	0·585
95% CI	62·9-69·4	68·9-73·2	2·8-4·1		63·6-68·6	63·4-68·5	-0·7-0·3	
<b><i>Intention-to-treat Analysis</i></b>								
	n=86 (F=65%)	n=86 (F=65%)			n=113 (F=56%)	n=113 (F=56%)		
Weight (kg)	65·3 (12·1)	68·8 (13·3)	3·5(2·2)	<0·001	66·7(14·7)	66·6(15·0)	-0·16(2·1)	0·407
95% CI	62·7-67·9	65·8-71·6	3·0-3·9		64·0-69·4	63·8-69·4	-0·55-0·2	



**Table 3:** Data from caterers' purchasing orders of main ingredients for two months in year 1, without calorie-labelling, and in year 2 when calorie-labelling was displayed.

Ingredients	Nov-Dec 2011			Nov-Dec 2012			% change	
	Number of Units	kcal	Cost (£)	Number of Units	kcal	Cost (£)	(units)	(£)
<b>Meat Products</b>	128	2,680,000	2,861.35	87	1,827,000	2,018.46	-32	-30
<b>Vegetables</b>	123	246,000	449.71	109	218,800	391.36	-11	-10
<b>Potatoes</b>	131	491,250	937.61	89	333,750	451.12	-32	-33
<b>Desserts</b>	61	195,200	342.23	50	160,000	255.99	-18	-18
<b>Oils</b>	19	2,052,000	326.46	13	1,404,000	214.66	-32	-35
<b>Fish Products</b>	51	1,020,000	1199.79	51	1,020,000	1107.18	0	-7
<b>Pasta Products</b>	17	1,774,800	54.26	22	2,296,800	72.04	+29	+32
<b>Other</b>	75	750,000	1194.5	34	340,000	486.69	-55	-60
<b>Total</b>	<b>605</b>	<b>9,209,200</b>	<b>7,432.55</b>	<b>455</b>	<b>7,600,350</b>	<b>5,038.82</b>	<b>-25</b>	<b>-33</b>

**Table 4:** Mean (SD) macro- and micro- nutrients chosen by participants (including side dishes) for 4,200 evening meals analysed, over the 14 days of the three study periods.

	Calorie- labels	No calorie- labels	Calorie- labels plus energy requirements	Calorie- labels	No calorie- labels	Calorie- labels plus energy requirements
	Females			Males		
<b>Calories (kcal)</b>	628 <sup>1,2</sup> (105)	709 (101)	534 <sup>1,2</sup> (116)	692 <sup>1,2</sup> (105)	734 (101)	622 <sup>1,2</sup> (116)
<b>Fat (g)</b>	29.2 <sup>1,2</sup> (8.7)	34 (8)	25 <sup>1,2</sup> (9)	33 <sup>1,2</sup> (9)	35 (8)	29 <sup>1,2</sup> (9)
<b>Saturated Fat (g)</b>	9.5 <sup>1</sup> (3)	11.5 (3)	7.5 <sup>1</sup> (3)	11 <sup>1,2</sup> (3)	12 (3)	9.5 <sup>1,2</sup> (3)
<b>Vitamin C (mg)</b>	77 (78)	89 (97)	67 (81)	73 (69)	86 (80)	82 (81)
<b>Iron (g)</b>	11.8 (10)	15 (15)	11 (12)	14 (13)	16 (15)	15 (15)
<b>Calcium (mg)</b>	243 (354)	356 (723)	250 (374)	319 (656)	440 (968)	303 (512)

Data mean (SD) for macronutrients

Data median (IQ) for micronutrients

(ANOVA and t-tests)

<sup>1</sup>= significant at  $p < 0.01$  vs Period 2

<sup>2</sup>= significant difference at  $p < 0.01$  between period 1 and period 3