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1 **Goal orientation is a key determinant of healthy dietary behaviour change in European**
2 **adults receiving personalised vs non-personalised nutrition advice**

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33 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

34 The analysis was conceived by MA and the plan for analysis devised by MA, BS-K and BPB.
35 The data analysis undertaken by BPB. The intervention study was designed by JM, and KL
36 (who was also involved in data collection). BS-K drafted the manuscript with input from MA.
37 LF, JM and KL commented on the draft manuscript.

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40 The authors know of no conflict of interest that could impact upon the integrity of these results.
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45 **Goal orientation is a key determinant of healthy dietary behaviour change in European**
46 **adults receiving personalised vs non-personalised nutrition advice**

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47 **Abstract**

48 Although personalised nutrition is more effective than generic approaches to dietary health
49 promotion, effect sizes tend to be small. Behaviour change theory implies the importance of
50 goal setting to successful health intervention. This secondary analysis of the Food4Me
51 personalised nutrition intervention study (N=1480) sought to understand the role of goal
52 orientation and habit strength in determining dietary change. Latent class analysis (LCA)
53 identified three groups distinguished by degree of goal orientation (low; moderate; high) at
54 baseline. Data were analysed using multigroup binary channel coding (BCH) models with
55 auxiliary variables. Differences in healthy eating indices (HEI) between treatment (randomised
56 to personalised nutrition advice) and control (generic dietary advice) groups at 6-months post-
57 intervention were compared within latent classes distinguished by goal orientation. A second
58 model included habit strength, measured by the self-report habit index (S-RHI), as an outcome
59 and compared treatment and control groups within classes defined on goal orientation. The
60 results indicated that HEI increased significantly in response to treatment (compared with
61 controls) post-intervention only among those participants with high baseline goal orientation
62 ($P<.0001$). S-RHI at baseline was associated with higher HEI at 6-months within all three
63 classes defined on goal orientation but did not alter the initial result indicating higher HEI only
64 in the high goal-oriented group. These findings indicate the importance of goal orientation to
65 success of personalised nutrition and reinforce previous research linking habit strength to
66 dietary behaviour change. Personalised interventions should include goal setting at the outset,
67 monitor progress towards goals and encourage strong healthy eating habits.

68 **Key words:** personalised nutrition; behaviour change; healthy eating index (HEI); habit
69 strength (S-RHI); RCT; goal orientation; Food4Me goals; digital health



70 1. Introduction

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71 Personalised, digitally delivered intervention is considered important to the successful
72 promotion of population dietary health now and in the future ¹. Systematic reviews ^{2,3} and
73 narrative literature reviews ^{4,5} of Randomised Control Trials (RCTs) have concluded that
74 participants in intervention groups who receive personalised nutrition advice are more likely
75 to increase consumption of fruit and vegetables ^{2,6} and to be at lower risk of being overweight
76 or of developing type 2 diabetes ⁴. Personalised nutrition may also be more effective than
77 generic advice (which is the same for all participants) in bringing about long-term dietary
78 changes ⁷. Despite evidence to suggest that genetic testing for personalised nutrition elicits
79 healthy dietary behaviour change ⁵, genotype-based dietary advice appears to be no more
80 effective than phenotype and/or lifestyle-based advice in changing dietary behaviours ^{8,9}. This
81 implies that it is the *personalised* nature of advice rather than the *type* of advice offered that
82 influences dietary responses. Effect sizes, however, tend to be small ¹⁰. To explain these results,
83 and to improve the efficacy of personalised advice, recent research has focussed upon
84 understanding how psychological factors determine behaviour change in personalised nutrition
85 interventions ^{3,6,11,12,13}.

86 Individual characteristics associated with behaviour change may be important to the
87 success of personalised healthy eating interventions ^{14,15,16}, yet few intervention studies have
88 considered individual differences in psychology and responses to personalised nutrition
89 interventions ^{10,13}. Psychological characteristics may influence how different types of advice
90 impact upon behavioural responses to personalised nutrition ^{12,17}. Psychological factors that
91 motivate behaviour change such as goal orientation may also influence the success of
92 personalised nutrition interventions ^{18,19}. Goal setting is considered important to adapting
93 personalised nutrition to individual psychological needs and in determining responses to
94 different types of personalised advice ^{19,20}. There is growing interest in adaptive personalised



95 nutrition advice systems (APNASs) that incorporate goal preferences into personalised
96 nutrition advice, monitoring, feedback and service delivery ^{10,21,22}. Goal setting as part of
97 nutrition counselling has been associated with healthy dietary behaviour change ^{23,24}.

98 Habit is another influential psychological motivating factor associated with food choice
99 and dietary behaviour. Habits are cognitive structures that preserve responses to recurring
100 situations ²⁵ and responses to dietary health intervention have been linked to habit strength ¹⁴.
101 Habit strength (related to eating behaviour) has been associated with greater improvement in
102 healthy eating indices (HEI) ¹⁸, more frequent intake of fruit and vegetables ²⁶ and less
103 consumption of unhealthy snack foods ^{27,28,29}. Habit is thought to mediate intention to make
104 dietary changes as well as actual change in behaviour ^{26,30}. Although goals and habit both
105 explain behaviour and may be related, it has been argued that they represent different
106 underlying processes and mechanisms ²⁵. Ideally habits should align with the goals driving
107 behaviour so that, once established, habits can keep goals on track ³¹. The formation of strong
108 habit may be crucial where a behaviour serves an important goal.

109 The Food4me intervention trial established that personalised advice was more effective
110 than generic advice in producing healthy dietary change but did not establish why
111 individualised advice was better than generic. Previous research ¹⁶ which considered the
112 potential impact of psychological factors in explaining the Food4Me results found that
113 although neither self-efficacy nor health locus of control had any effect upon HEI, habit
114 strength was stronger in the treatment (personalised) group than the control (generic advice)
115 group at six months post intervention. Another factor not considered in the Food4Me
116 intervention study's primary analysis was the impact of individual dietary goals upon behaviour
117 ³² and could explain the small effect sizes observed. This study will therefore seek to establish
118 how goal orientation at baseline determined change in overall healthiness of the diet, measured
119 as the healthy eating index (HEI), among participants in the Food4me study in response to



120 generic versus personalised nutrition advice. Given the previous finding that habit strength
121 determined HEI in those who received personalised advice, habit strength has been considered
122 as part of a second model, along with goal orientation, as a potential co-determinant of progress
123 toward individual dietary goals. Given current theory²⁵ we hypothesised that goals and habit
124 strength will both explain behaviour, but independently of each other. This analysis will
125 consider if dietary related goals and habit strength at baseline determine change in HEI in
126 response to either generic dietary advice (controls) or personalised nutrition advice (treatment)
127 derived from information on individual lifestyle, phenotypic and/or genetic factors. Our
128 research question is, given individual goal orientation (the degree to which dietary goals are
129 considered important), which type of nutrition advice produces the greatest improvement in
130 overall diet? Based on previous research on goal setting and dietary behaviour change, it is
131 predicted that clusters of consumers defined on their goal orientations will differ in HEI in
132 response to personalised *versus* generic nutrition advice and that goal orientation and/or habit
133 strength will determine individual responses to personalised dietary intervention.

134

135 2. Method

136 2.1. Ethical Statement

137 Secondary analysis was conducted using anonymised data collected previously as part of the
138 Food4Me four-arm, web-based, randomised controlled trial (RCT) (NCT01530139) conducted
139 across seven European countries³². The protocol for this secondary analysis was pre-registered
140 on the Open Science Framework <https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/KRH4P>. The original trial,
141 which was conducted according to the guidelines laid down in the declaration of Helsinki,
142 compared the effects of different levels of personalised nutrition upon eating behaviour. Ethical
143 approval was granted by the research ethics committee of each recruiting centre (University
144 College Dublin; Maastricht University; University of Navarra; Harokopio University;



145 University of Reading; National Food and Nutrition Institute; Technische Universität
146 München). For a detailed account of the recruitment, sampling and procedure and the original
147 CONSORT document, please see Celis-Morales and colleagues (2015b)³².

148

149 2.2. Sampling

150 Volunteers aged 18+ years were recruited to the 6-month online nutrition intervention study.
151 Exclusion criteria were being pregnant or lactating; following a prescribed diet; having a
152 dietary-related metabolic condition; or having no or limited internet access. Volunteers
153 completed a screening questionnaire which enquired on biological sex which has been referred
154 to throughout using the terms 'male/s' and 'female/s'. Following screening³³, eligible
155 volunteers were stratified by biological sex (at birth), age and country (UK, Greece, Spain,
156 Poland, Ireland, Germany and Netherlands) so that the resultant sample (N=1607) comprised
157 slightly more females (61%) than males, with a spread in age range and nationality^{32,34}.

158

159 2.3. Procedure

160 All participants were required to provide written informed consent before being randomly
161 allocated to one of four treatment conditions using an urn randomisation scheme. In
162 randomising individuals to condition, it was assumed that individual characteristics would be
163 evenly distributed across conditions. Treatment conditions were personalised on the type of
164 advice issued and based on: i) current diet assessed on healthy eating guidelines and
165 anthropometry (n=414); ii) current diet and anthropometry plus phenotype (blood glucose, total
166 serum cholesterol, carotenes and n-3 index) (n=404); iii) current diet and anthropometry plus
167 phenotype plus genotype (specific variants of the following genes: *MTHFR*, *FTO*, *TCF7L2*,
168 *APOE ε4* and *FADS1*) (n=402). The Control group (n=387) received non-personalised healthy
169 eating advice based upon European recommendations to reduce fat and salt intake and



170 encouraging consumption of fish, fruit and vegetables. The trial was single-blinded so that
171 participants were unaware of the treatment group to which they had been allocated.

172

173 2.4. Measures

174 At baseline, participants were requested to provide demographic details and to complete a
175 questionnaire *via* an email link. Questionnaire content included psychological measures of
176 behaviour change the selection of which was informed by prior qualitative research^{19,35}.

177 2.4.1. Goal Orientation

178 Goals were assessed using seven items which asked what motivated participants to volunteer
179 to take part in the personalised nutrition intervention study: “prevent illness”; “improve sport
180 performance”; “improve wellbeing”; “improve their health”; “improve their family’s health”;
181 or, “to know what foods were best for them”. Responses were dichotomous (yes/no) with
182 positive responses assigned 1 and negative responses 0.

183 2.4.2. Habit Strength

184 Habit strength was assessed using four items previously employed by Honkanen and colleagues
185³⁶ and taken from the Self-Report Habit Index (S-RHI)³⁷. Answers were on a 5-point Likert
186 scale ranging from 1 = ‘Completely disagree’ to 5 = ‘Completely agree’, in response to the
187 following statements: “Eating healthily is something I do frequently”; “I eat healthily without
188 having to consciously think about it”; “I feel weird if I don’t eat healthily”; “Eating healthily
189 is something I do without having to think about it”. Each item was scored and summed on four
190 dimensions: frequency of behaviour; awareness; lack of control; and mental efficiency.
191 Reliability was satisfactory Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.73$.

192 2.4.3. Healthy Eating Index (HEI)

193 Dietary quality was assessed using a 157-item food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) developed
194 and validated for the study^{38,39,40} completed on-line to assess dietary intakes at baseline and 6-



195 months post-intervention. The healthy eating index (HEI) updated (2010) version ⁴¹ was
196 computed from FFQ responses as reported previously ⁹ and used as a measure of overall
197 healthiness of habitual diet. The HEI-2010 comprises 12 food groups, 9 of which assess
198 adequacy of the diet, including 1) total fruit; 2) whole fruit; 3) total vegetables; 4) greens and
199 beans; 5) whole grains; 6) dairy; 7) total protein foods; 8) seafood and plant proteins; and 9)
200 fatty acids. The remaining 3 items assessed refined grains, sodium, and empty calories (i.e.,
201 energy from solid fats, alcohol, and added sugars), which were reverse scored. Scores on the
202 12 components were summed to yield a total score ranging from 0-100 so that higher HEI
203 scores reflected better diet quality. The HEI (2010) has been shown to have good validity ⁴¹.

205 2.5. Data Analysis

206 Given evidence that it is the personalised nature of advice rather than the type of information
207 used to personalise content that determines response ^{9,7,18}, the treatment (personalised) groups
208 were combined and compared with the control group (generic advice) in the subsequent
209 analysis.

210 2.5.1. Goal Orientation: Latent Class Analysis (LCA)

211 LCA was undertaken on dichotomous (yes/no) data relating to goals that were collected at
212 baseline and prior to randomisation (N=1607). Taking the diagonal probability value of 0.8 for
213 class membership, was assumed that there was sufficient distinction between the groups. The
214 three latent class model provided a good description for these data as shown by the model fit
215 statistics. The VUONG-LO-MENDELL-RUBIN ADJUSTED LRT TEST was significant for
216 3 classes = 113.012; $P < 0.001$ but not for 4 classes = 26.969; $P = 0.3041$). Three groupings were
217 established using LCA which showed good model strength. The indicator means were
218 computed and estimates on a probability scale plotted graphically to determine the pattern of



219 scores between the classes. The LCA clearly distinguished between three latent classes of
220 individuals. Descriptive labels reflecting the pattern of scores on the goal items between groups
221 were then agreed by the authors (BS-K; MA; BPB) and assigned to the classes. The three-class
222 solution indicated three clear latent classes of individuals who were highly likely (high goal
223 orientation), moderately likely (moderate goal orientation) or less likely (low goal orientation)
224 to have selected each of the goals (Figure 1). Individuals in the high goal orientation group
225 were those who selected more personal and health goals from the available list of options in
226 comparison to those who fell into the low goal orientation group. All three classes rated
227 'knowing what foods are best for me' highest among the goals. A large proportion of those in
228 the high goal orientation class also selected 'prevent illness', 'improve my health' and 'improve
229 my wellbeing'. None of those in the low orientation class (class 1) selected 'improve my health'
230 and only a very few selected 'improve my family's health' or 'improve my wellbeing' (see
231 supplementary file 1).

232 Goal orientation was inferred from latent class membership and used as the main
233 independent variable in this analysis. The three latent classes distinguished by their goal
234 orientation then served as independent variables in subsequent analyses to determine
235 differences in healthy eating indices (HEI) and habit strength (S-RHI) following intervention,
236 both between latent classes (defined on goal orientation) and between treatment versus control
237 groups within the classes. HEI and S-RHI scores were continuous variables taken as the
238 outcomes in the analyses. Treatment and control conditions were then compared within and
239 between clusters (defined on motivations/goals) taking HEI and S-RHI at 6 months as
240 outcomes and compared between clusters taking $P < 0.05$ significance level. Data were analysed
241 using *Mplus*⁴².

242 **Insert Figure 1 here**

243 2.5.2. Goal Orientation, Habit Strength and Healthy Eating Indices

244 To establish relationships between the latent classes and the distal outcome measure of HEI, a
245 multigroup binary channel BCH coding strategy with auxiliary variables was implemented
246 using *Mplus* Version 8.11^{42,43}. The procedure was undertaken in two steps to estimate a distal
247 outcome model⁴⁴ of HEI. In the first stage, estimates were obtained for the LCA solution and
248 auxiliary variables saved. BCH latent class weights were included in the revised dataset. Data
249 use was maximised by adopting a full information maximum likelihood strategy. Missing data
250 (non-completers) were treated using listwise deletion. An intention-to-treat approach was
251 adopted.

252 2.5.3. Model 1. Goal Orientation (Latent Class) and Healthy Eating Indices (HEI)

253 Multigroup regression analyses (Distal Outcome Models) were undertaken to determine the
254 degree to which goal orientation (low/moderate/high) was associated with HEI scores between
255 the treatment and control groups within the latent classes post intervention. The outcome was
256 HEI at 6 months post-intervention. This was conducted in the context of a 3-class multi-group
257 model. The parameters related to HEI at baseline and at 6-months were constrained to be equal
258 across latent classes and this provided a parsimonious description of these data. HEI at 6-
259 months were regressed onto their baseline values. The regressions with effects from the
260 baseline were employed as statistical controls, before undertaking an examination of the
261 interventions. HEI scores for the treatment versus control conditions were entered into the
262 model as an interaction. A BCH strategy⁴² was then employed to determine associations
263 between the three latent classes (high, moderate and low goal orientation) and the HEI outcome
264 and any interaction between conditions (treatment/control) within classes.

265 2.5.4. Model 2. Goal Orientation (Latent Classes), Healthy Eating Indices (HEI) and Self- 266 Reported Habit Strength (S-RHI)



267 A secondary hypothesis was tested to determine if nutritional habit strength provided an
 268 explanation for any association between goal orientation and healthy eating indices (HEI)
 269 within the goal orientated latent classes in the context of the intervention. An indirect ‘effect’
 270 was introduced as a separate (mediator) variable from baseline to six-months post intervention.
 271 Multigroup regression analyses (Distal Outcome Models) were then undertaken for each latent
 272 class to determine the degree to which goal orientation (low/moderate/high) was associated
 273 with HEI and self-reported habit (S-RHI) in response to the intervention, whilst randomised to
 274 a treatment or control group. The outcomes were HEI and S-RHI at 6 months post intervention.
 275 Missing data (non-completers) were treated using listwise deletion. Relationships between HEI
 276 at baseline and HEI at 6-months and between S-RHI at baseline and S-RHI at six-months, were
 277 constrained to be equal across latent classes and this provided a parsimonious description of
 278 these data. An indirect effect was introduced from the baseline score on S-RHI to healthy eating
 279 indices at 6-months post intervention. In the next step HEI and S-RHS at 6-months were
 280 regressed onto their baseline values. An indirect effect was introduced from the baseline HEI
 281 on S-RHS at 6-months (Figure 2). Direct effects were then introduced from baseline HEI and
 282 S-RHI to these measures at 6 months. To optimise the relationships, a BCH strategy ⁴² was
 283 employed to examine the effect of the three latent classes (goal orientation) on the healthy
 284 eating (HEI) and habit (S-RHI) outcomes.

285

286 3. RESULTS

287 3.1. Composition of Latent Classes

288 **Table 1:** Characteristics of the latent classes at baseline (N=1480).

	LC1	LC2	LC3
	High Goal Orientated	Moderate Goal Orientated	Low Goal Orientated



	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
HEI	439	48.33	10.27	796	49.23	9.78	245	50.59	9.45
S-RHI	476	3.19	.79	865	3.32	.756	266	3.44	.76
Age Yrs	476	40.01	12.03	865	39.17	13.13	266	40.18	14.45
Female	293	-	-	514	-	-	147	-	-

HEI=Healthy Eating Index; S-RHI=Self-Reported Habit Index LC=Latent Class

3.2. Model 1. Goal Orientation (Latent Class) and Healthy Eating Index (HEI)

3.2.1. Latent Class 1 (**High** Goal Orientation)

HEI at baseline was positively associated with HEI at 6 months (Est: 0.588; SE: 0.024; $P < 0.001$). There was an interaction between latent class and dietary (HEI) response within LC 1 (high goal orientation) among the treatment group within the high goal-oriented class. This one modification, which was the key test for the implicit potential role of goal orientation, indicated a relationship between the intervention condition and higher HEI only in those with a high goal orientation. The intervention group within the **high goal orientation class** showed a significantly greater increase in HEI at 6-months post-intervention compared with controls (Est: 4.588; SE: 1.315; $P < 0.001$) (Figure 2).

Insert Figure 2 here

3.2.2. Latent Class 2 (**Moderate** Goal Orientation)

HEI scores at baseline were positively associated with HEI scores at 6-months post-intervention in latent class in **LC 2 - moderate goal orientation** (Est: 0.589; SE: 0.024; $P < 0.001$). There was no difference in HEI between the control and intervention group within **LC 2 - moderate goal orientation** at 6-months post-intervention (Est: 0.199; SE: 0.783; $P = 0.799$).



3.2.3. Latent Class 3 (Low Goal Orientation)

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HEI scores at baseline were positively associated with HEI scores at 6-months post-intervention in latent class in **LC 3 - low goal orientation** (Est: 0.589; SE: 0.024; $P < 0.001$). The experimental intervention (CONVSINT) was not statistically significant and there was no difference in HEI between the control and intervention group within **LC 3 - low goal orientation** at 6-months post-intervention (Est: -0.206; SE: 1.516; $P = 0.892$).

3.3. Model 2. Goal Orientation (Latent Class), Healthy Eating Index (HEI) and Habit Strength (S-RHI)

Having established the effectiveness of the intervention in the presence of higher goal orientation, a secondary hypothesis was tested to determine if nutritional habit strength contributed independently and/or additionally to change within the goal-oriented latent classes and between treatment versus controls within classes.

A higher score on the HEI was observed at six months post-intervention among the high goal orientation group within the intervention (treatment) condition. This interaction within the relationship between the HEI and the treatment/control group, only showed statistically when the subpopulation (latent class) of scores on goal orientation was brought into the model (See supplementary file Table 2).

3.4.1. Latent Class 1 (High Goal Orientation)

HEI at baseline was positively associated with HEI at 6 months (Est: 0.548; SE: 0.026; $P < 0.001$) and S-RHI at 6-months post-intervention (Est: 1.640; SE: 0.366; $P < 0.001$) in **LC 1 (high goal orientation)** S-RHI at baseline was positively associated with S-RHI at 6-months



330 (Est: 0.519; SE: 0.030; P<0.0001). Baseline HEI was positively associated with S-RHI at 6
331 months (Est: 0.012; SE: 0.002; P<0.001).

332 Latent class 1 (high goal orientation) differed from both the other classes (low and
333 moderate goal orientation) in that the intervention group showed a greater increase than
334 controls in HEI at 6-months post-intervention. There was an interaction between latent class
335 and dietary (HEI) response within LC 1 (high goal orientation), whereby the control group
336 scored significantly lower than the treatment group on HEI at 6-months post-intervention (Est:
337 4.638; SE: 1.297; P<0.001) (Figure 2).

338 3.4.2. Latent Class 2 (Moderate Goal Orientation)

339 HEI scores at baseline were positively associated with HEI scores at 6-months post-
340 intervention in latent class in **LC 2 - moderate goal orientation** (Est: 0.548; SE: 0.026;
341 P<0.001). HEI at baseline was positively associated with S-RHI at 6-months (Est: 0.012; SE:
342 0.002; P<0.001) **in LC 2 – moderate goal orientation**. S-RHI at baseline was positively
343 associated with S-RHI at 6-months (Est: 0.519; SE: 0.030; P<0.001) **in LC 2 – moderate goal**
344 **orientation**.

345 S-RHI at 6-months was positively associated with HEI scores at 6-months in **LC 2 –**
346 **moderate goal orientation** (Est: 1.640; SE: 0.366; P<0.001). There was no difference (at the
347 P<0.05 level) in HEI scores between the control and intervention group within **LC 2 -**
348 **moderate goal orientation** at 6-months post-intervention (Est: 0.111; SE: 0.784; P=0.887).

349 3.4.3. Latent Class 3 (Low Goal Orientation)

350 HEI scores at baseline were positively associated with HEI scores at 6-months post-
351 intervention in latent class in **LC 3 - low goal orientation** (Est: 0.548; SE: 0.026; P<0.0001).
352 HEI at baseline was positively associated with S-RHI at 6-months (Est: 0.012; SE: 0.002;



353 P<0.001) in **LC 3 – low goal orientation**. S-RHI at baseline was positively associated with S-
354 RHI at 6-months (Est: 0.519; SE: 0.030; P<0.001) in **LC 3 – low goal orientation**.

355 S-RHI at 6-months was positively associated with HEI at 6-months in **LC 3 – low goal**
356 **orientation** (Est: 1.640; SE: 0.366; P<0.001). There was no difference in HEI scores between
357 the control and intervention group within **LC 3 - low goal orientation** at 6-months post-
358 intervention (Est: -0.268; SE: 1.508; P=0.859).

359

360 4. Discussion

361 Previous research has underlined the importance of goal setting in personalised nutrition in
362 bringing about healthy dietary change^{10,19,23}. Accordingly, knowing people's goals in relation
363 to why they enlisted in the study has potential to enrich our understanding and explanation of
364 the Food4Me intervention results. LCA of responses to goal items at baseline indicated that
365 people recruited to the study were well-differentiated with respect to goal orientation. This
366 secondary analysis therefore compared responses to either the personalised intervention or
367 control at 6-months post-intervention among participants grouped according to their goal
368 orientation at baseline. Given the initial Food4Me intervention study found that those who
369 received personalised advice (irrespective of content/level) showed greater increase in HEI
370 than controls⁹, we compared HEI between the control and the treatment groups combined
371 within each of the three classes defined on goal orientation.

372 The results indicated that the effect of the intervention (treatment vs control) upon HEI
373 was only significant within the class of people who had a high goal orientation. That provision
374 of personalised nutrition advice increased HEI compared to controls within the high goal-
375 oriented class, upholds our non-directional hypothesis that goal orientation would be associated
376 with HEI indices. It could be argued that those who were more highly goal orientated were



377 already more motivated to establish healthy eating habits when exposed to the intervention.
378 Individual differences in goal orientation at baseline could also explain why there was no
379 differential response in the primary intervention to advice based on the various types of
380 personalisation (lifestyle, phenotypical or genotypical) ⁹. Those with a high goal orientation
381 may have responded irrespective of the type of advice provided. That there were no differences
382 in HEI between the three goal-oriented groups at baseline, however, implies that neither was
383 the case, and that goal orientation operated independently of initial HEI. These results agree
384 with previous qualitative research ¹⁹ implying the importance of goals in motivating people to
385 adopt personalised nutrition and add to a growing body of literature suggesting the importance
386 of goal setting in motivating healthy dietary behaviour change ^{10,21,22,23,45}. Our findings concur
387 with previous research that suggests that goal setting could be an effective tool for promoting
388 healthy dietary change ⁴⁶.

389 Previous analysis of the Food4Me intervention dataset indicated that habit strength was
390 important in determining response to the individualised intervention ¹⁸. This analysis therefore
391 also sought to determine if differences in response to the intervention between the three classes
392 defined on goal orientation was related to their habit strength. The results showed that both
393 HEI and habit strength (S-RHI) at baseline were associated with HEI at six-months post-
394 intervention in all three classes. Habit strength, however, only influenced the relationship
395 between treatment groups versus controls and HEI at six months among those with a high goal
396 orientation. The addition of habit to the model, while potentially strengthening theoretical
397 understanding of healthy dietary change, therefore, had little effect upon the healthy eating
398 indices between the different latent classes.

399 Our finding that habit strength was independent of goals and healthy eating indices,
400 concurs with previous research that suggests that while goal setting can be an effective tool for
401 promoting habit change, their impact was independent of habits and the specific behaviour



402 targeted⁴⁶. From the outset of the intervention, a strong healthy eating habit may have enabled
403 people with a high goal orientation to act on the information provided. Establishing strong
404 habits may therefore be important, even in the presence of defined goals. Meanwhile, these
405 results support the theory that goals and habits operate independently in influencing healthy
406 dietary behaviour change²⁵ and that dietary related goal setting may be more effective in
407 changing behaviour if accompanied with the establishment of associated dietary habits. That
408 habit strength increased with the personalised intervention substantiates previous findings
409 indicating the need for personalised plans to seek to enhance healthy eating habit strength^{14,18}.
410 Our findings also support those of previous studies implying that habit is important to goal
411 attainment and healthy dietary behaviour change^{25,26,30}.

413 **4.1. Strengths and Limitations**

414 This analysis used data from the Food4Me study which is one of the largest randomised
415 controlled studies investigating personalised nutrition conducted to date. This secondary
416 analysis is novel in that it has considered how dietary goals and habit strength distinguish
417 between groups of people who show a differential response to personalised nutrition. The study
418 reflects the current interest in goal setting and habit formation for dietary health improvement.

419 Among potential limitations of this study is that the goals from which responses were
420 generated were all pre-defined. This approach did not allow for free responses that may have
421 generated a wider range of goals sought in adopting personalised nutrition. The goals that were
422 included were specific and individual (“lose weight”, and “increase sport performance” as well
423 as more generic (“improve my family’s health”). Whether this may have impacted the results
424 is not clear. Further research is required to establish how participants would prioritize the goals.



425 That the measures were self-reported may have affected the accuracy of the results. The
426 employment of electronic dietary assessment, such as that employed in this study, however,
427 tends to be more accurate and produces better compliance than ‘paper and pencil’ versions ⁴⁷.
428 It is also probable that any errors in dietary assessment would be distributed randomly across
429 treatments and so is unlikely to bias the outcomes of the current study.

430 Another potential limitation was that sample attrition affected the control group to a
431 greater degree than the treatment group ³³ and the dropout rate was highest in those with lower
432 goal orientation (27%), especially among male participants. This highlights the importance of
433 goal setting from the outset in helping people, particularly males, to commit to a personalised
434 regimen.

435 Unlike previous dietary interventions that have sampled clinical populations ⁴⁸, our
436 sample was recruited from the wider European Union (EU) population. That the volunteers
437 were self-selected, however, may have biased the sample towards those who were more health
438 oriented. Although the sample reflected the EU adult population on certain demographic
439 characteristics ³³, the inherent lack of ethnic diversity, could limit the degree to which findings
440 can be generalised to other populations.

441

442 4.2. Implications

443 These results support the notion that goal orientation could prove a useful tool in motivating
444 and guiding people successfully through the personalised nutrition process to healthier eating.
445 Those who have low goal orientation may benefit from counselling and specific dietary goal
446 setting at the outset of the intervention and in tailoring dietary advice. Those with higher goal
447 orientation, who bring pre-existing goals to the intervention, may benefit more from targeted
448 adherence to these goals in the design of personalised nutritional advice. Advances in



449 development of machine learning algorithms and greater potential utility in digital health
450 intervention ^{21,49}, should facilitate taking account of individual dietary related goals and goal
451 orientation and in matching them to the type of personalised advice that would be most
452 effective in bringing about healthy dietary change. Habit strength, whilst similar between the
453 classes at baseline and independent of goal orientation, may be an important mechanism in the
454 achievement of goals. A possible implication of these results is that goal orientation and habit
455 strength should be viewed together when setting goals at the start of a personalised nutrition
456 plan as well as in assessing response in achieving individualised goals.

458 4.3. Conclusion

459 This secondary analysis illustrates how dietary goals and habit strength distinguish between
460 groups of people who demonstrate a differential response to personalised nutrition
461 interventions. Personalised nutrition advice compared to generic advice, was most effective in
462 individuals with high goal orientation, which along with habit strength, may have utility in
463 promoting healthy eating. Low effect sizes observed in previous personalised nutrition RCTs
464 ¹⁰, therefore, may be improved through consideration of mutually agreed individualised goals
465 and habit strength. Although our model is strong and the sample size sufficient for a
466 randomised controlled trial, these results will need confirmed in larger more representative
467 population samples.

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Figure 1. Latent class membership on goals selected at baseline (goal orientation) (N=1607)

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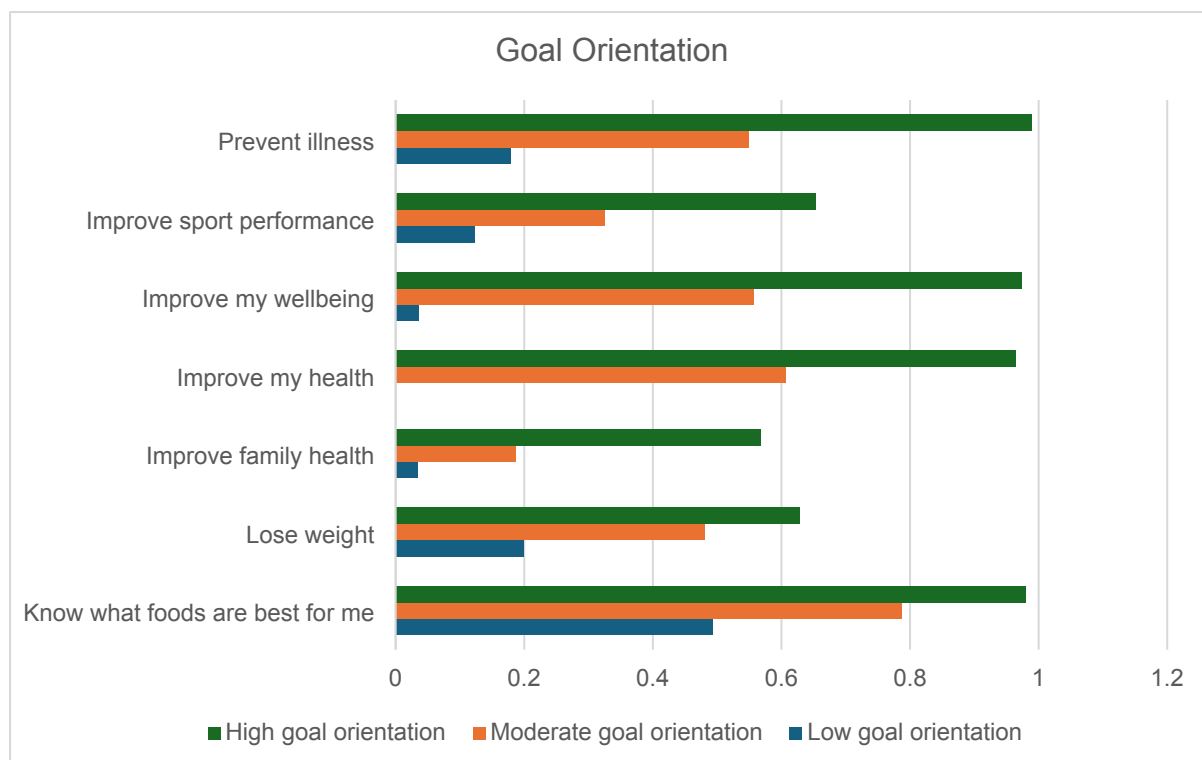
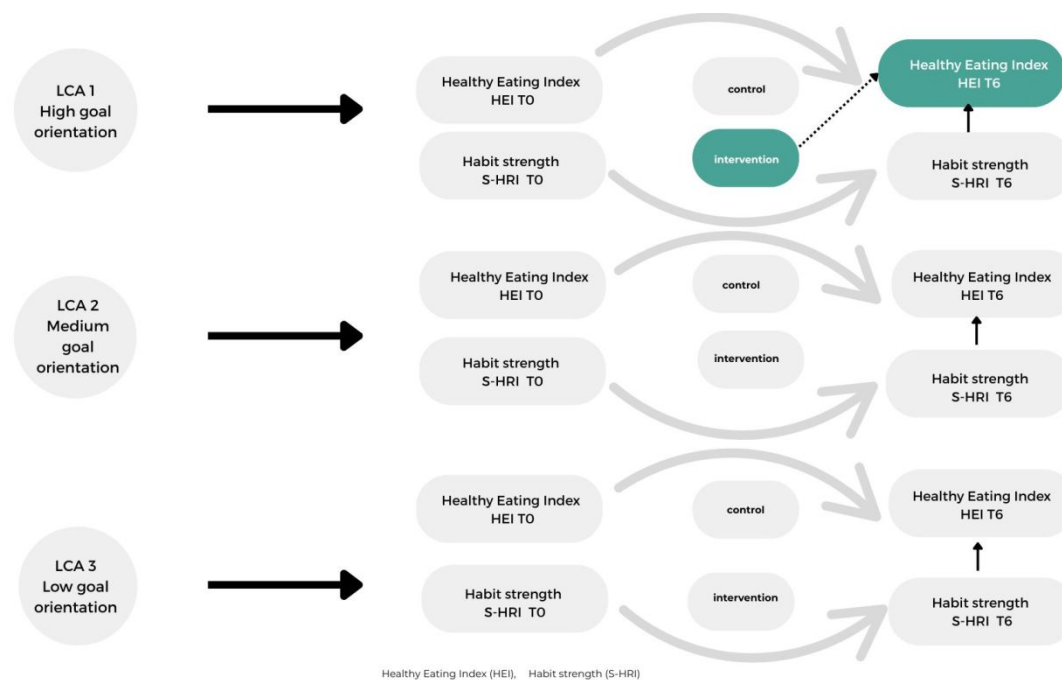


Figure 2: Association between each of the three latent classes defined on goal orientation (high/moderate/low) depicted as three layers with habit strength (S-RHI), healthy eating indices (HEI) and treatment versus control condition at baseline versus six-months post-intervention (N=1476). The figure illustrates that HEI in response to the intervention increased in the treatment (personalised) arm of the high goal-oriented group. The figure also shows that HEI at baseline was associated with HEI at 6 months post-intervention, that Habit strength (S-RHI) at baseline was associated with S-RHI at 6 months and that S-RHI at 6 months was associated with HEI at 6 months (for output see supplementary file 2).



Abbreviations: LCA = Latent Class Analysis; CONvsINT = Control vs Intervention; Habit0 (Habit Strength at baselines); Habit6 (habit Strength at 6-months); HEISCOT0 = Healthy Eating Index at baseline; HEISCOT6= Healthy Eating Index at 6 months



Data Availability Statement

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The full data set will be made available on request and with publication. Note that the raw outputs have been supplied as supplementary files along with the submitted manuscript.

