

Is the caloric midpoint associated with food cravings and food intake in pregnant women?

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Abstract

The chrononutrition area suggests that mealtime can influence the food intake. Studies on this topic have associated caloric midpoint –time at which 50% of the daily energy is consumed– with different aspects of food consumption, but its relationship with food craving is still little explored. This cross-sectional study investigated the association of caloric midpoint with food craving and food consumption in pregnant women. The study included 233 pregnant women categorized in early eaters (caloric midpoint \leq 1:00pm) and late eaters (caloric midpoint $>$ 1:00pm). Food craving were collected by Food Craving Trait and State Questionnaires. Energy and nutrient intake and mealtimes were assessed using a 24-hour food recall. No association between caloric midpoint and food craving was found. However, late eaters consumed more calories (2039.47 kcal vs 1843.44 kcal; $p < 0.001$), carbohydrates (255.06g vs 211.12g; $p=0.002$), total fat (73.1g vs 64.8g; $p=0.003$), monounsaturated fat (21.33mg vs 18.59mg; $p=0.002$) and saturated fat (24.37mg vs 22.21mg; $p=0.01$) and had a higher consumption of calories and macronutrients in the first (calories: 275.63 vs 213.41, $p=0.007$; carbohydrate: 170.42 vs 142.54, $p=0.01$; total fat: 56.49 vs 50.17, $p=0.04$) and second (calories: 213.21 vs 151.59, $p=0.04$; carbohydrate: 130.44 vs 96.6, $p=0.04$; protein: 15.17 vs 13.71, $p=0.03$) afternoon snack, dinner (calories: 576.89 vs 412.4, $p<0.001$; carbohydrate: 230.76 vs 169.45, $p<0.001$; protein: 80.48 vs 68.9, $p=0.02$; total fat: 212.77 vs 147.12, $p<0.001$) and late night snack (calories: 135.75 vs 68.3, $p=0.04$; total fat: 13.23 vs 22.45, $p=0.04$) than early eaters. We conclude that pregnant women who concentrate their meals at later times consumed more calories, macro and micronutrients throughout the day and in the night meals when compared to early eaters.

keywords: food craving, caloric midpoint, mealtime, pregnancy, chrononutrition.

1. INTRODUCTION

During the gestational period, weight gain occurs to accommodate the growing fetus (Rogozínska et al., 2019), however, excessive gestational weight gain contributes to some complications in the health of pregnant women and newborns, such as gestational hypertension (Simko et al., 2019), child obesity (Schack-Nielsen et al., 2009), preeclampsia, cesarean delivery (Hung et al., 2015). Therefore, given the potential of the gestational period to increase women's weight and increase the risk of obesity in women, studies that seek a better understanding of the factors related to the food consumption of pregnant women appear as a priority.

Chrononutrition is an emerging area that shows that not only what and how much we eat, but also when we eat has a significant effect on diet quality and nutritional status (Gontijo et al., 2020). Growing evidence on this topic has shown that eating late is associated with markers of poor eating (Gontijo et al., 2020; Gontijo et al., 2018; Aljuraiban et al., 2015) and obesity (Baron et al., 2011, Wang et al., 2014, Maukonen et al., 2019) and such associations have also been observed in pregnant women (Gontijo et al., 2020). These studies have shown that the timing of eating seems to impact the quality of food (Gontijo et al., 2020; Gontijo et al., 2018) and also increase gestational weight gain (Gontijo et al., 2020).

An important factor that can influence eating behaviour during pregnancy is food craving (Tierson et al., 1985), defined as an intense desire to eat a specific food that is difficult to resist (Preedy et al., 2011; Weingarten & Elston, 1991. According to Gendall et al. (1997) although most women have a history of pre-pregnancy food cravings, a portion of these women have food cravings exclusively during pregnancy. Therefore, our hypothesis is that food craving, which is quite prevalent during the gestational period (Teixeira et al., 2019b), may be increased in pregnant women with a later caloric midpoint, and lead to an increased energy and macronutrient intake. The caloric midpoint reflects the time at which 50% of the daily energy is consumed (McHill et al. 2017) and has been used as a marker of food temporality, which indicates whether a population or an individual tends to be early or late in terms of food consumption (Teixeira et al., 2019b). A recent study by our group (Teixeira et al., 2019a) evaluated the distribution of food intake using the caloric midpoint and the results show that individuals who eat at later times consume more calories throughout the day and after 9 pm. This is an emerging topic and more studies are needed to better understand this during pregnancy. Furthermore, to

34 the best of our knowledge it is still unclear in the scientific literature if mealtime is
35 associate with food craving in pregnant women. Thus, the aim of the present study was
36 to evaluate the association of caloric midpoint with food craving and food consumption
37 in pregnant women.

38

39 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

40

41 **2.1 Participants and Ethics**

42 The study comprised a cross-sectional study conducted with 233 pregnant women,
43 attending the prenatal clinics in the public health service in the city of Uberlandia, Minas
44 Gerais, Brazil, that agreed to participate and formalized with written consent.

45 The present study included pregnant women aged 18 years or older in different
46 gestational trimesters. Those women who did not provide the necessary information for
47 the development of the study were excluded, as well as those who reported using illicit
48 substances or previously diagnosed with acquired immunodeficiency syndrome,
49 toxoplasmosis or syphilis.

50 The present study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Federal
51 University of Uberlandia (CAAE: 43473015.4.0000.5152/2015).

52

53 **2.2 Evaluations**

54

55 *2.2.1 Preliminary questionnaire*

56 An initial questionnaire was applied by the researchers to evaluate age, education
57 level, physical activity habits, menarche age, previous pregnancy, gestational data, and
58 clinical conditions such as vomiting, nausea, heartburn and food desire.

59

60 *2.2.2 Food intake*

61 Food intake and mealtimes were assessed using a 24-hour food recall applied by
62 a trained team. Volunteers were instructed to provide as much detail as possible about the
63 food and liquids consumed the day before the interview, including brand names and
64 homemade food recipes. Portion sizes were estimated using common household
65 measurements such as cups, glasses, teaspoons, and tablespoons, in addition to individual
66 food items/units. For the definition of each meal (breakfast, lunch, snacks or dinner) and
67 mealtimes, the participants reports were considered according to their individual

68 perceptions (Trancoso et al., 2010) and the type of food frequently consumed by the
69 Brazilian population at every meal (Gambardella et al., 1999). The eating duration was
70 defined according to the interval between the first and the last meal of the day (Gill &
71 Panda, 2015), and diurnal variation intake was determined by caloric midpoint, that
72 reflects the time at which 50% of the daily energy was consumed (McHill et al. 2017).

73

74 *2.2.3 Food craving*

75 Food craving was assessed by Food Craving Questionnaire Trait (FCQ-T) and
76 Food Craving Questionnaire State (FCQ-S) validated for the Brazilian population by
77 Cepeda-Benito et al. (2000). The FCQ-T consists of 39 statements grouped according to
78 categories that cause food craving and was developed to access aspects of the intense
79 desire for food over time and in various situations, considering them as a usual (trait)
80 behaviour of the respondent. Items are scored on a six-point scale from never/not
81 applicable (1) to always (6). Thus, sum scores can range between 39 and 243, with higher
82 scores indicating more frequent and intense food cravings. The FCQ-T is grouped into
83 the subscales: (i) intentions and plans to consume food; (ii) anticipation of positive
84 reinforcement that may result from eating; (iii) anticipation of relief from negative states
85 and feeling as a result of eating; (iv) lack of control over eating; (v) thoughts and
86 preoccupations with food; (vi) craving as a physiological state; (vii) emotions that may
87 be experienced before or during food craving or eating; (viii) cues that may trigger food
88 craving; and (ix) guilt from craving and/or for giving into them (Cepeda-Benito et al.,
89 2000). The FCQ-S is composed of 15 statements and is an instrument sensitive to changes
90 in contextual, psychological and physiological states in response to specific situations
91 (e.g., stressful events or food deprivation), considering the intense desire for food as a
92 sporadic behaviour of the respondent. Higher scores in this questionnaire are associated
93 with increased food deprivation, negative experiences related to eating and increased
94 susceptibility to triggers that lead to eating. The FCQ-S contains 15 items to form five
95 subscales: (i) an intense desire to eat; (ii) anticipation of positive reinforcement that may
96 result from eating; (iii) anticipation of relief from negative states and feelings as a result
97 of eating; (iv) lack of control overeating; and (v) craving as a physiological state (Cepeda-
98 Benito et al., 2000).

99

100 *2.2.4 Anthropometric variables*

101 Height and current weight were measured and the body mass index (BMI) was
102 calculated. The pre-pregnancy weight was obtained from the pregnant woman's medical
103 record. The collected data were used to calculate the pre-pregnancy and current body
104 mass index (BMI). Current BMI was classified according to the gestational week
105 suggested by Atalah et al. (2017).

106

107 *2.2.5 Sleep patterns*

108 Pregnant women were asked to report their usual bedtimes and waking times on
109 weekdays and weekends, as described previously by Gontijo et al. (2018). Chronotype
110 was assessed via mid-sleep time (MSFsc) on free days with correction for calculated sleep
111 debt, which was assessed as the difference between average sleep duration on the
112 weekends and the average sleep on weekdays (Roenneberg et al., 2007). Those women
113 with MSFsc chronotype ≤ 03.59 a.m were classified as morning type, pregnant women
114 with MSFsc chronotype between 04.00 h and 04.59 a.m were classified as intermediate
115 type, and women with MSFsc chronotype ≥ 05.00 a.m were classified as evening type
116 (Roenneberg et al., 2012).

117 Social jetlag is defined as a behavioral indicator of circadian misalignment and
118 was calculated based on the absolute difference between midsleep time – moment that
119 individual reaches 50% of total sleep time – on weekdays and weekends (Wittmann et al.
120 2006).

121 Sleep quality was assessed via a self-reported sleep quality scale, which ranges
122 from 0 to 10, with 0 being very poor and 10 being very good.

123

124 **2.3 Statistical analysis**

125

126 First, Kolmogorov–Smirnov normality test was performed. Then, we determined
127 the caloric midpoint median and this value was used to classify the participants into two
128 groups: early eaters (caloric midpoint $\leq 1:00$ pm) and late eaters (caloric midpoint $> 1:00$
129 pm). Kruskal-Wallis and Chi-square tests were performed to compare linear and
130 proportion variables between groups, respectively. Generalized linear models (GzLM)
131 were used to determine the association between caloric midpoint and food intake and
132 mealtimes. Linear regression was used to determine the association between caloric
133 midpoint and food craving. All analysis were adjusted for age, gestational trimester,

134 vomiting, nausea, heartburn, physical activity, chronotype score and sleep quality. P-
135 value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

136

137 **3. RESULTS**

138 The sample characterization data according to caloric midpoint are presented in
139 table 1. The groups were the same for most of the variables analysed. However, early
140 eaters had higher values for weight (p=0.03), current BMI (p=0.01) and frequency of
141 vomiting (p=0.04) compared to late eaters. In addition, the frequency of morning type
142 and intermediate type of pregnant women is higher among early eaters (p=0.01) and the
143 late eaters group had a higher frequency of evening chronotype (Table 1).

144 Mealtime data according to caloric midpoint are also shown in table 1. As
145 expected, pregnant women with midpoint $\leq 1:00$ pm perform first meal (p <0.001), last
146 meal (p =0.01), breakfast (p <0.001), lunch (p <0.001), dinner (p=0.03) and late night
147 snack (p = 0.03) earlier than those with caloric midpoint > 1:00 pm (Table 1).

148 Table 2 shows that pregnant women who present caloric midpoint after 1:00 pm
149 consume more total calories (p < 0.001), more total carbohydrates (p = 0.002), total fat
150 (p = 0.003), monounsaturated fat (p = 0.002) and saturated fat (p=0.01) compared to
151 pregnant women who present caloric midpoint before 1:00 pm (Table 2).

152 Regarding the consumption of calories and macronutrients for each meal, early
153 eaters have a higher consumption of calories in the morning snack (p=0.03) and late eaters
154 have a higher consumption of calories (p=0.007), carbohydrates (p=0.01) and fats
155 (p=0.04) in the first afternoon snack, higher consumption of calories (p=0.04),
156 carbohydrates (p=0.04) and proteins (p=0.03) in the second afternoon snack, higher
157 consumption of calories (p<0.001), carbohydrates (p<0.001), proteins (p=0.02) and fats
158 (p<0.001) at dinner and higher consumption of calories (p=0.04) and fats (p=0.04) at late
159 night snack compared to early eaters (Table 3).

160 The analysis of the usual food craving and the sporadic food craving according to
161 the caloric midpoint is shown in table 4. The groups did not differ for the total score and
162 for all the subscales analysed.

163

164 **4. DISCUSSION**

165 The present study investigated whether the caloric midpoint is associated with
166 food craving and food intake in pregnant women. Our results showed that there was no
167 relationship between caloric midpoint and food craving. However, higher consumption
168 of total calories, carbohydrate, total fat, monounsaturated fat and saturated fat was found
169 among pregnant women with a caloric midpoint after 1:00 pm (late eaters). In addition, a
170 lower consumption of calories in the morning snack and higher consumption of calories
171 and macronutrients in the first and second afternoon snack, dinner and late night snack
172 were found among late eaters. Our results partially corroborate our initial hypothesis,
173 since pregnant women who concentrate their meals at later times of the day consume
174 more calories and macronutrients. However, food craving does not seem to be associated
175 with these results.

176 Mealtimes are closely linked to health markers (Gallant et al., 2012) and can
177 promote an important circadian misalignment in physiological, endocrine, metabolic and
178 behavioural aspects (Garaulet & Gómez-Abellán, 2014). In this perspective, eating at
179 later times has been related to dysregulation of the hunger and satiety mechanism (McHill
180 et al., 2017). A study developed with 867 individuals found that food consumption at
181 morning promotes greater satiety throughout the day, reducing total calorie intake (De
182 Castro, 2004). In this same line, a clinical trial developed with 32 individuals found that
183 those who ate at later times showed an increase in ghrelin secretion and a decrease in
184 satiety signalling (Carnell et al., 2017). In addition, Jakubowicz et al. (2012) and Berti et
185 al. (2015) demonstrated that eating at night and daily energy distribution are related to
186 energy distribution throughout the day. In this way, a higher energy intake in the morning
187 and at midday can promote a lower consumption of food at night. Another possible
188 explanation predicts that greater habitual food intake during the night, provides a greater
189 probability of altering the energy distribution pattern, since after a large night meal, the
190 individual may not be in a fully post-absorptive state the next morning (Goo et al., 1987),
191 which may result in skipping breakfast or lower consumption at this meal and a
192 consequent increase in energy intake at evening meals (Fong et al., 2017). These previous
193 studies support and help explain our results, which show a greater consumption of calories
194 and macronutrients in the first and second afternoon snack, dinner and late night snack of
195 pregnant women who present later midpoint, reinforcing the importance of a better
196 distribution of energy throughout the day.

197 Evidence has shown that later eating is also associated with eating disorders,
198 stronger emotional eating tendencies, and more frequent food cravings (Meule et al.,

199 2014; Konttinen et al., 2014). Pelchat (1997), in a study carried out with 98 participants,
200 found that, although intense cravings varied according to age and sex and did not present
201 a uniformity of occurrence, they tended to occur in the late afternoon or early evening.
202 More recently, it was found that pregnant women with the evening chronotype have
203 greater food cravings as usual behaviour (Teixeira et al, 2019b). However, our study
204 showed no association between the caloric midpoint and the usual food craving in
205 pregnant women. The lack of association between these variables may be due to hormonal
206 changes inherent to the gestational period (Boden, 1996), which can trigger food cravings
207 in women who did not have intense cravings in the pre-pregnancy period (Gendall et al.,
208 1997), attenuating the influence of mealtimes, as well as the caloric midpoint, on food
209 craving. Thus, further studies are needed to confirm these findings.

210 There are some limitations to the present study. The experimental design of this
211 exploratory study was cross-sectional, which limits its ability to establish causal
212 relationships, although we performed analyses that removed the effects of possible
213 confounding factors. In addition, some evaluations were performed using questionnaires
214 that are subjective and dependent on the memory and motivation of participants. Lastly,
215 our results are based on only 233 pregnant women who had regular consultations in the
216 public health care system, and the generalisation of results for all pregnant women cannot
217 be made.

218 We concluded that there were no differences between caloric midpoint groups
219 regarding habitual and sporadic food cravings. However, pregnant women who
220 concentrate their meals at later times (caloric midpoint >1:00 pm) consume more calories,
221 carbohydrates and fats throughout the day and have a higher consumption of calories and
222 macronutrients in the first and second afternoon snacks and dinner, compared to pregnant
223 women with caloric midpoint before 1:00 pm.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

The authors' responsibilities were as follows: CAC, YCPM, CAG and LCTB designed the study. CAG, LCTB, WMF and GPT collected the data. CAP, GPT and SGM analysed and interpreted the data. SGM and GPT wrote the initial manuscript. CAP, YCPM, CAG, LCTB, WMF revised the manuscript. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript submitted for publication.

FUNDING SOURCES

The authors would like to thank the Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq), Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES) and Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa de Minas Gerais (FAPEMIG).

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Table 1: Descriptive data of pregnant women according to caloric midpoint (n = 233).

	Early eaters Median [interquartile range]/ Frequency % (n) (n = 117)	Late eaters Median [interquartile range]/ Frequency % (n) (n = 116)	p-value
Age (years)	27.5 [19 – 42]	25.5 [18 – 45]	0.14
Menarche age (years)	13 [9 – 17]	12 [9 – 15]	0.14
Gestational age (weeks)	27.5 [4 – 40]	25 [4 – 40]	0.61
Gestational trimester			0.98
First trimester	24.8 (29)	24.1 (28)	
Second trimester	28.4 (33)	27.4 (32)	
Third trimester	47.4 (55)	47.9 (56)	
Previous pregnancy (yes)	59.8 (70)	55.1 (64)	0.51
Weight pre-pregnancy (kg)	67 [44 – 115]	63 [44.5 – 140]	0.07
BMI pre-pregnancy (kg/m²)	25 [18 – 42.2]	24 [16 – 46]	0.05
Underweight	2.5 (3)	7.7 (9)	0.14
Normal	44.4 (52)	48.2 (56)	
Overweight	32.4 (38)	22.4 (26)	
Obese	17.9 (21)	18.9 (22)	
Current Weight (kg)	74.3 [45 – 122]	69.5 [51 – 145]	0.03
Current BMI (kg/m²)	28.4 [18 – 44.8]	26 [12.8 – 47.36]	0.01
Underweight	3.4 (4)	12 (14)	0.05
Normal	35.8 (42)	37.9 (44)	
Overweight	35.8 (42)	25 (29)	
Obese	22.2 (26)	18.1 (21)	
Education level			
Primary incomplete/complete	13.6 (16)	8.5 (10)	0.62
Secondary incomplete/complete	52 (61)	55.9 (65)	
Higher incomplete/complete	32.4 (38)	31.8 (37)	
Marital status			
Married	45.2 (53)	48.2 (56)	0.85
Living with partner	33.3 (39)	30.1 (35)	
Single	17.9 (21)	17.2 (20)	
Work (yes)	63.2 (74)	60.3 (70)	0.42
Heartburn (yes)	64.7 (75)	65 (76)	0.82
Nausea (yes)	56.4 (66)	45.6 (53)	0.11
Vomit (yes)	47.4 (55)	33.6 (39)	0.04
Food desire (yes)	32.4 (38)	33.6 (39)	0.81
Physical activity (yes)	18.8 (22)	15.5 (18)	0.52
Chronotype			
Morning	55.5 (65)	42.2 (49)	0.01
Intermediate	23 (27)	22.4 (26)	
Evening	15.3 (18)	31.8 (37)	
Social jetlag > 30min	66.6 (78)	49.1 (57)	0.006
Meal timing			
First meal (h:min)	8:00 [7:30 – 8:40]	9:00 [7:55 – 9:45]	<0.001
Last meal (h:min)	20:30 [20:00 – 22:00]	21:00 [20:00 – 22:05]	0.01
Eating duration (h:min)	12:30 [11:30 – 14:00]	12:30 [11:00 – 13:45]	0.89
Breakfast (h:min)	8:00 [7:30 – 8:35]	8:47 [7:40 – 9:30]	<0.001

Morning snack (h:min)	10:00 [9:30 – 10:20]	10:00 [9:30 – 10:30]	0.15
Lunch (h:min)	12:00 [11:45 – 12:30]	12:30 [12:00 – 13:15]	<0.001
First afternoon snack (h:min)	15:35 [15:00 – 16:10]	15:42 [15:00 – 16:20]	0.57
Second afternoon snack (h:min)	17:30 [17:00 – 18:00]	17:50 [17:00 – 18:07]	0.24
Dinner (h:min)	20:15 [19:30 – 21:00]	20:30 [20:00 – 21:30]	0.03
Late night snack (h:min)	22:00 [21:05 – 22:30]	22:30 [22:00 – 24:00]	0.03

Note: Kruskal-Wallis test was perform to linear variables and Chi-square test was perform to categorical variables.

Table 2: Energy and nutrients intake according to caloric midpoint (n = 233).

	Early eaters Median [interquartile range] (n = 117)	Late eaters Median [interquartile range] (n = 116)	Wald X ²	df	p-value
Energy (kcal/day)	1843.44 [1313.78 – 2314.09]	2039.47 [1473.55 – 2632.33]	15.02	1	<0.001
Carbohydrate (g/ day)	211.12 [154.84 – 291.68]	255.06 [185.07 – 338.74]	9.26	1	0.002
Protein (g/ day)	57.51 [42.33 – 81.55]	59.6 [43.32 – 87.98]	1.70	1	0.10
Total fat (g/ day)	64.8 [44.46 – 91.2]	73.1 [55.11 – 103.22]	8.73	1	0.003
Fiber (g)	18.24 [13.34 – 29.08]	19.04 [13.55 – 27.99]	0.34	1	0.55
Cholesterol (mg)	194.38 [111.96 – 317.53]	223.18 [132.35 – 358.51]	0.053	1	0.81
Monounsaturated fat (mg)	18.59 [13.49 – 25.84]	21.33 [13.88 – 34.85]	9.34	1	0.002
Poly-insaturated fat (mg)	17.86 [13.88 – 34.85]	20.19 [12.81 – 32.02]	2.87	1	0.09
Saturated fat (mg)	22.21 [15.24 – 30.89]	24.37 [15.15 – 36.01]	5.80	1	0.01

Note: Generalized linear models adjusted for age, gestational trimester, vomit, nausea, heartburn, physical activity, chronotype score and sleep quality.

Table 4: Linear regression between caloric midpoint and food craving questionnaires according to caloric midpoint (n = 233)

	All (n = 233)		Early eaters (n = 117)		Late eaters (n = 116)	
	β (95% CI)	p-value	β (95% CI)	p-value	β (95% CI)	p-value
FCQ-T total	0.008 (-1.21 – 1.35)	0.9	0.019 (-5.67 – 6.87)	0.8	0.030 (-1.81 – 2.42)	0.7
Subscale 1 FCQ-T	0.032 (-0.10 – 0.16)	0.6	-0.089 (-0.94 – 0.36)	0.3	0.46 (-0.18 – 0.29)	0.6
<i>Intentions and plans to consume food</i>						
Subscale 2 FCQ-T	0.033 (-0.17 – 0.28)	0.6	-0.021 (-1.18 – 0.96)	0.8	0.14 (-0.36 – 0.42)	0.8
<i>Anticipation of positive reinforcement that may result from eating</i>						
Subscale 3 FCQ-T	-0.061 (-0.19 – 0.07)	0.3	0.017 (-0.58 – 0.69)	0.8	-0.12 (-0.25 – 0.22)	0.9
<i>Anticipation of relief from negative states and feelings as a result of eating</i>						
Subscale 4 FCQ-T	-0.023 (-0.27 – 0.19)	0.7	-0.12 (-1.19 – 1.05)	0.9	0.65 (-0.26 – 0.51)	0.5
<i>Lack of control overeating</i>						
Subscale 5 FCQ-T	-0.014 (-0.25 – 0.20)	0.8	0.012 (-0.99 – 1.11)	0.9	-0.37 (-0.47 – 0.32)	0.7
<i>Thoughts and preoccupations with food</i>						
Subscale 6 FCQ-T	0.092 (-0.06 – 0.30)	0.2	0.076 (-0.55 – 1.18)	0.4	0.72 (-0.20 – 0.42)	0.4
<i>Craving as a physiologic state</i>						
Subscale 7 FCQ-T	-0.034 (-0.23 – 0.14)	0.6	0.043 (-0.70 – 1.07)	0.6	-0.005 (-0.33 – 0.31)	0.9
<i>Emotions that may be experienced before or during food craving or eating</i>						
Subscale 8 FCQ-T	0.049 (-0.11 – 0.23)	0.4	-0.005 (-0.88 – 0.84)	0.9	0.19 (-0.27 – 0.32)	0.8
<i>Cues that may trigger food craving</i>						
Subscale 9 FCQ-T	-0.041 (-0.15 – 0.08)	0.5	0.122 (-0.25 – 1.03)	0.2	0.71 (-0.12 – 0.24)	0.5
<i>Guilt from craving and/or for given into them</i>						
FCQ-S total	-0.001 (-0.63 – 0.62)	0.9	0.37 (-2.51 – 3.66)	0.7	0.164 (-0.18 – 1.84)	0.1
Subscale 1 FCQ-S	-0.024 (-0.14 – 0.10)	0.7	-0.031 (-0.68 – 0.50)	0.7	0.052 (-0.16 – 0.26)	0.6

<i>Intense desire to eat</i>						
Subscale 2 FCQ-S	-0.003 (-0.13 – 0.13)	0.9	-0.019 (-0.69 – 0.55)	0.8	0.088 (-0.13 – 0.31)	0.4
<i>Anticipation of positive reinforcement that may result from eating</i>						
Subscale 3 FCQ-S	-0.115 (-0.20 – 0.02)	0.1	0.10 (-0.54 – 0.59)	0.9	-0.021 (-0.19 – 0.16)	0.8
<i>Anticipation of relief from negative states and feelings as a result of eating</i>						
Subscale 4 FCQ-S	-0.080 (-0.17 – 0.05)	0.2	0.93 (-0.30 – 0.77)	0.3	-0.182 (-0.34 – 0.02)	0.09
<i>Lack of control over eating</i>						
Subscale 5 FCQ-S	-0.040 (-0.47 – 0.27)	0.5	0.10 (-0.91 – 2.66)	0.3	-0.179 (-1.18 – 0.74)	0.08
<i>Craving as a physiologic state</i>						

Note: adjusted for age, gestational trimester, vomit, nausea, heartburn, physical activity, chronotype score and sleep quality. FCQ-T: Food Craving Questionnaire Trait. FCQ-S: Food Craving Questionnaire State.

