

1 **Projective mapping with food stickers: a good tool for better understanding**  
2 **perception of fish in children of different ages**

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18 **Abstract**

19 The objective of this study was to better understand the perception of fish products  
20 among school children of three different age groups, 5-6 years, 7-8 years and 9-10  
21 years. In order to do so, we used Projective Mapping (PM) with food stickers and a  
22 word association task (WA). A total of 149 children from three public schools in the  
23 state of Parana, Brazil, have participated on this study. The age groups were  
24 interviewed (on 1-1 basis) by six monitors qualified to apply the sensory methods  
25 used. Ten stickers with drawings of *healthy* foods (sushi, salad, fruit, fish, chicken), and  
26 *less-healthy* foods (pizza, flan, cake, hamburger, french fries) were given to the  
27 children. They were then asked to stick them on an A3 sheet, in a way that the  
28 products they considered similar should be positioned close to each other, and those  
29 they considered very different should be kept apart. Afterwards, they were asked to  
30 describe the images and group of images (ultra flash profile). The PM was easily used  
31 and understood by all children, and the use of images may potentially have eased its  
32 application. Result analyses showed different perceptions from the different age  
33 groups. Hedonic perceptions in relation to fish products had a higher weight in the  
34 perceptual spaces of older children. WA technique proved to be an important tool to  
35 understand fish perception by children, and reinforced the results previously obtained by  
36 PM. These results may imply that there could be a window of opportunity in which  
37 younger children will be more open to eat fish.

38

39 **Keywords: children; perception; fish consumption; projective mapping; napping;**  
40 **word association**

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42

43 **1. Introduction**

44

45 Low fish consumption has been a concern in several studies around the world, Tomić,  
46 Matulić and Jelić (2015) in Croatia, Dijk, Fischer, Honkanen and Frewer (2011) in  
47 Russia, Grieger, Miller and Cobiac (2012) in Australia and even in Norway (Skuland,  
48 2015), where eating fish is a national tradition, this important source of protein has  
49 increasingly been given up. Such studies have been conducted because many  
50 researchers are aware of the health benefits provided by this food. Regular  
51 consumption is associated with lower chances of developing non-communicable  
52 diseases such as cardiovascular disease (Trondsen, Braaten, Lund, & Eggen, 2004).

53 Accordingly, Brazil seeks to encourage the consumption of fish nationwide. The  
54 Brazilian Government has adopted public policies to stimulate both aquaculture and the  
55 sustainable use of fish resources, in order to consolidate fisheries chain. Studies to  
56 understand the factors underlying the consumption of fish have been carried out and  
57 their positive results show that, although the Brazilian population does not have the  
58 habit of consuming fish, there is an intention to consume it (Mitterer-Daltoé, Carrillo,  
59 Queiroz, Fiszman, & Varela, 2013a; Mitterer-Daltoé, Latorres, Queiroz, Fiszman, &  
60 Varela, 2013b). This means that Brazilians are willing to consume fish in a daily basis,  
61 they say they want to consume (intention), but in fact, they do not eat fish (do not have  
62 the habit). Data show that Brazil is characterized by low fish consumption, 10.6 kg per  
63 capita (SNA, 2015), in contrast to the world average per capita consumption of 19.2 kg  
64 (FAO, 2014). Moreover, the consumption of fish range between Brazilian regions: in  
65 the extreme north region, 12 kg per capita; whereas in the southern region, fish  
66 consumption is three times lower (IBGE, 2011). Still, according to a forecast by the  
67 Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), by 2030 Brazil will become one of the largest

68 fish producers in the world, domestic production will be able to reach 20 million tons  
69 (MPA, 2014). Therefore, the Brazilian population can be seen as potentially major fish  
70 consumers, not only for their positive attitude towards consuming fish, but also by the  
71 abundant fish supply they will have.

72 Studies also show that the Brazilian government should use strategies to  
73 encourage the habit of consuming fish (Mitterer-Daltoé et al., 2013b). It is known that  
74 the promotion of a new habit is more effective than trying to change the frequency of an  
75 already established behavior (Riet, Sijtsema, Dagevos, & Bruijn, 2011). Therefore, an  
76 interesting Brazilian government policy would be to target campaigns at young people,  
77 since the acquisition of a habit takes time and occurs gradually through repeated  
78 experiments (Popper & Kroll, 2005; Wood & Neal, 2009). According to Donadini, Fumi  
79 and Porretta (2013) patterns of healthy diets that include fish consumption should be  
80 established in childhood.

81 Moreover, and considering the actual scenario in Brazil, the inclusion of fish in  
82 school meals becomes an important strategy to encourage younger Brazilians to  
83 develop the habit of eating fish. Previous studies have shown the potential of  
84 introducing fish derivatives in school meals in Southern Brazil. Mitterer-Daltoé,  
85 Latorres, Treptow, Pastous-Madureira and Queiroz (2013c) have assessed how  
86 students aged from 5 to 18 years old in public schools accepted the inclusion of fish in  
87 school meals, and found an average acceptance rate of 82%. Latorres, Mitterer-Daltoé  
88 and Queiroz (2016) have assessed the acceptance of fish meatballs among children  
89 aged from 6 to 14 years old, and found an 87% acceptance rate; this study aimed to  
90 further evaluate the holistic perception of this product by children through the cognitive  
91 word association methodology.

92 Although the studies cited above indicated positive results with regard to fish  
93 insertion in school meals, there is a need for studies applying holistic techniques to  
94 explore the spontaneous perception of food among children (Varela & Salvador, 2014)

95 and their feasibility, as food choice goes further than liking, and those techniques can  
96 shed light into non-sensory parameters that are important for consumers.

97         Few studies can be found in the literature with this focus. Varela and Salvador  
98 (2014) applied structured sorting as a tool for assessing the nutritional and hedonic  
99 perception of healthy and unhealthy foods to children aged 5, 7 and 9 years. The  
100 authors pointed out that the technique was easily understood and carried out by the  
101 three age groups, and that children are able to classify food according to the perception  
102 of healthiness. Results showed that the application of structured sorting using images  
103 proved to be a promising tool for the multi-dimensional perception assessment in  
104 children.

105         Within the descriptive sensory methodologies, Projective Mapping emerges as  
106 a promising tool to be explored with children (Laureati, Pagliarini, Toschi, &  
107 Monteleone, 2015; Varela & Salvador, 2014). Projective mapping and derived  
108 techniques are simple user-friendly procedures that have gained popularity within the  
109 field of sensory and consumer science. The technique allows consumers to express  
110 perceptual similarities/ dissimilarities and grouping sets of products by placing them on  
111 a two-dimensional surface (Dehlholm, 2014; Laureati et al., 2015). Descriptive mapping  
112 techniques are usually supplemented with descriptors, a step known as ultra-flash  
113 profile (Carrillo, Varela, & Fiszman, 2012a; Dehlholm, 2014; Miraballes, Fiszman,  
114 Gámbaro, & Varela, 2014; Varela & Ares, 2012).

115         With presentation on a two-dimensional plane, and of easy and fast application,  
116 Projective Mapping is potentially a methodology to be easily applied with children. The  
117 possibility of turning it into a game during the test makes it an attractive technique,  
118 which ultimately favors the focus of children (Dehlholm, 2014; Laureati et al., 2015).  
119 Kimmel, Sigma-Grant and Guinard (1994) and Varela and Salvador (2014) also  
120 indicate that the use of figures can be a good strategy so that children understand  
121 sensory tests.

122 Word association (Benthin et al., 1995) is a qualitative technique that has been  
123 used in food science in the last years, to gather information about consumers'  
124 spontaneous perception. It involves presenting subjects with a stimulus and asking  
125 them to provide the first thoughts or images that come to their minds. Latorres et al.  
126 (2016) applied the word association with children and found that it could be effectively  
127 used for cognitive assessment of food in children with regard to fish products.

128 The objective of this study was to better understand the perception of fish  
129 products among school children aged from 5 to 10 years old. For that, we used  
130 Projective Mapping (PM) with food stickers and a word association task (WA).

131

## 132 **2. Materials and Methods**

133

### 134 **2.1 Participants**

135

136 Students (n = 149) from public schools of the municipal education network in  
137 Pato Branco city, state of Paraná, Brazil, participated in the study. The city is located in  
138 southern Brazil and computers, electronics and agriculture industries dominate its  
139 economy. Three groups of children with 5 and 6 years (n = 51; 25 girls, 26 boys), 7 and  
140 8 years (n = 46; 24 girls, 22 boys) and 9 to 10 years (n = 52; 23 girls, 29 boys) were  
141 interviewed by six monitors with experience in the methodology applied. The interviews  
142 were conducted individually with each child for both Projective Mapping and for the  
143 word association technique.

144

### 145 **2.2 Projective Mapping Task**

146

147 When children were first introduced to the method, they were given geometrical  
148 figures of different colors (Carrillo, Varela, & Fiszman, 2012b; Miraballes et al., 2014).  
149 Students were asked to distribute the figures close together on the paper sheet

150 provided (A3, 42 x 29.7 cm) if they thought they were similar and apart from each other  
151 if they thought they were different (Carrillo, Varela & Fiszman, 2012a), according to  
152 their own criteria (color, shape, size, etc.).

153 Later on, ten stickers representing “healthy” and “unhealthy” foods were given  
154 to the children (Figure 1). The figures were presented all together and the children  
155 were requested to place them on the sheet in a way that the products they considered  
156 similar should be positioned close to each other, and those they considered very  
157 different should be kept apart. After defining the position of the figures on the sheet of  
158 paper, the children were told to stick them and explain the reasons why they placed  
159 each sticker or group of stickers as such. The monitors wrote their explanations  
160 alongside the figures.

### 161 **2.3 Word Association Test**

162

163 The word association technique was carried out after the completion of the  
164 Projective Mapping task, and following a break, with the same students. The following  
165 stimulus was read to the students: "Please tell me the first four words, sensations or  
166 feelings that come to your mind when you hear: “*Today you will have fish for dinner at*  
167 *home*” From their responses, monitors wrote the words or sentences in an identified  
168 sheet.

169

### 170 **2.4 Data analysis**

171

172 Projective Mapping (PM) data collection was based on Varela and Ares (2012); the  
173 coordinates of the location of the stickers were measured for each child in centimeters  
174 considering the bottom left corner of the paper sheet as the origin of the coordinates  
175 (0,0). The comments given for each of the figures are counted across children. The  
176 terms were grouped, taking into account synonymous and derived words, by  
177 consensus between three researchers participating in the study (Carrillo et al., 2012a).

178 Only terms that had been mentioned at least three times were used for the analysis  
179 and a table with the frequency of each term was built for each age group (Miraballes et  
180 al., 2014).

181 Data was analyzed by age group: 5-6yo , 7-8yo and 9-10yo. PM was analyzed  
182 by Multiple Factor Analysis (MFA) with XLStat system software (version  
183 2015.5.01.23106). It was applied on the matrix data formed by food items in the rows,  
184 and individual participants' x,y coordinates in the columns. The table containing the  
185 terms generated in the descriptive step and their frequencies was considered a set of  
186 supplementary variables and did not contribute to the construction of the MFA factors.  
187 Terms mentioned by at least 5% of the consumers were used for further analysis  
188 (Symoneaux, Galmarini, & Mehinagic, 2012).

189 Hierarchical cluster analyzes (HCA) with Euclidian distances, Ward's  
190 aggregation criterion and automatic truncation was used to identify food items with  
191 similar characteristics on the PM data within each age group.

192 The analysis of Word Association was based on Antmann, Ares, Salvador,  
193 Varela and Fiszman (2011). All the associations were included and terms with similar  
194 meaning were grouped. Three researchers performed the grouping procedure  
195 independently. After individually evaluating the data, they met to check and reach an  
196 agreement for their classifications. The final categories and their names were  
197 determined by a consensus between the researchers, considering their three  
198 independent classifications. Categories comprising terms mentioned by more than 5%  
199 of the participants of each age group were included in the analysis.

200 Global Chi-square was used for testing homogeneity of the contingency table of  
201 the terms generated in the descriptive step of the PM (product differences within each  
202 age group) and to test differences between age groups in the WA test (Symoneaux et  
203 al., 2012).



204 Correspondence analysis (CA) was used to determine the association between  
205 the age group and the words produced using the word association technique (Latorres  
206 et al., 2016). The data was analyzed using Statistica 12.7.

207

208

### 209 **3. Results**

210

#### 211 **3.1 Projective mapping task**

212

213 Figures 2, 3 and 4 show the MFA plots, displaying the first two dimensions, for  
214 each age group. The analysis of the graphs made it possible to observe that different  
215 perceptions of the food images emerged from the different age groups. In the MFA  
216 plots, the two first factors had similar weights to explain the variability of the data for the  
217 three age groups. Up to four dimensions were analyzed and interpreted for the three  
218 groups of children and data was discussed accordingly throughout the manuscript  
219 when relevant, however higher dimensional plots were not displayed.

220

#### 221 **Age 5-6**

222 The plot graph of the images corresponding to the group 5-6yo (Figure 2)  
223 suggested that these children classified foods by sweet (right-hand half of the map) or  
224 salty (left-hand part), represented by Factor 1 and by processed/prepared food (upper  
225 part of the map) and fresh vegetables and fruit (bottom part) represented by Factor  
226 two.

227 The food items present in quadrants 1 and 2 could be further subdivided by the  
228 HCA, forming two groups. Cluster 1, consisting of Flan and Cake, characterized by the  
229 attribute *sweet*. Cluster 2, included Fish food, Sushi, Chicken, Pizza, French fries and  
230 Hamburger, described as *meat, salty, fat, unhealthy, fishbones*, etc. Foods in quadrant

231 3 and 4, Salad and Fruits formed the third cluster and were described as *color*,  
232 *vegetables* and *healthy*.

233 When looking at the attribute plot, it is worth noting that the terms *like* and  
234 *dislike* appeared close to each other in the map; whereas *healthy* and *unhealthy*  
235 remained well separated. Also, *like* and *dislike* were not well correlated with the  
236 perceptual space represented by the first two factors of the MFA (towards the center of  
237 the plot), meaning that the associations made to those two terms were weak for this  
238 age group, when determining the main perceptual space. Chi-square by cell, applied to  
239 the terms generated by the descriptive step of the PM showed that there was not a  
240 significant difference in the frequency of *dislike* for the different images, with very low  
241 mention in all cases (less than 5). Also, *like* was significantly less mentioned, except for  
242 the Sushi drawing. The latter was highlighted in the third dimension of the MFA (not  
243 shown), where the Sushi image was separated from the rest, with *like* negatively  
244 associated with it. Another important point is the frequent use of the term *healthy*,  
245 significantly more linked to Fruits and Salads (26 and 24 mentions respectively), and  
246 significantly less used for the images of Hamburger, French fries, Pizza, Flan and Cake  
247 (one or two mentions). This is in accordance with the results from Varela and Salvador  
248 (2014), in which children of 5yo correctly classified healthy food under a pre-defined  
249 healthy category, via structured sorting. However, the present research goes further, as  
250 the descriptive step in PM gives a spontaneous description of the stimulus, verifying  
251 that they already have a “top of mind” perception associated to some healthy food  
252 categories. It is worth noting that fish was rarely regarded as *Healthy* in this age group.

253

254 Age 7-8

255 The analysis of the plot graphs of children aged 7 and 8 yo (Figure 3) showed  
256 that, again, at this age, the students separated desserts (at the left of the map) from the  
257 rest of the food items. But importantly, the second dimension separated “disliked” items  
258 such as Fish, Sushi, Salad and Fruit (in the upper part of the map), from “liked” items

259 (bottom part) where Pizza, Hamburger, French fries and Chicken were placed and  
260 perceived as *fried, salty, fat, eat out* and *unhealthy*. This behavior suggests that liking  
261 might start to be a more important factor for their food choice at this age. More  
262 concretely, the chi-square per cell on the PM description showed that the Sushi image  
263 was significantly more associated to *dislike*, and Pizza significantly more often  
264 associated to *like*. In addition, children in this group spontaneously mentioned the  
265 terms *healthy* and *unhealthy* more frequently than the smallest ones; Salad and Fruit  
266 images were more frequently associated to *healthy* (32 and 34 mentions), and  
267 significantly less used for the images of Hamburger, French fries, Pizza, Flan and Cake  
268 (with only one or two mentions). In addition, Hamburgers, French fries and Pizza were  
269 significantly more associated to the *unhealthy* term. The healthiness perception was  
270 also highlighted in the third dimension of the MFA (not shown), in which the Salad and  
271 Fruit images were separated from the rest of the images. It is also worth noting, that  
272 the 7-8yo kids have spontaneously mentioned a higher number of usage-related terms  
273 than the 5-6yo: *eat out, reheated, meal, fried, cooked, eat with sauce, garnish*; this  
274 shows the wider food-related vocabulary and higher capacity to articulate in this group.

275 By HCA the stickers of the food items could be subdivided in four groups.  
276 Cluster 4, included Flan and Cake were mainly described as *sweet*. Cluster 5,  
277 consisting of Salad and Fruit were characterized by *healthy* and *vegetables*. Cluster 6,  
278 composed of Sushi and Fish were associated to *fishbone, fried, dislike and never eat*; and  
279 Cluster 7 composed of other foods, represented by *salty, unhealthy, like, meat*.

280

281 Age 9-10

282

283 The liking dimension was correlated to *unhealthy* in the MFA plot (Figure 4).  
284 Food items more associated to *like* were Cake, Flan, French-fries, Pizza, Chicken and  
285 Hamburger. HCA separated those images into two distinct clusters, Cluster 8 formed  
286 by Cake and Flan, was associated to *sweet* and *birthday*. Cluster 9 formed by French

287 fries, Pizza, Hamburger and Chicken, was associated to the terms *fat, salty, family,*  
288 *unhealthy and pasta.* HCA highlighted a cluster (Cluster 10) formed by Fish and Sushi  
289 images described by the terms *fishbone, fried, never eat and oriental food.* In the other  
290 cluster, Salad and Fruits (Cluster 11) were associated to the terms *vegetable, healthy*  
291 *and always eat.*

292 The MFA plot pointed out that the older children (9-10yo) separated the food  
293 images mainly due to their healthiness perception; items more frequently described as  
294 *healthy* were fish, sushi, salad and fruits, located in the right part of the map and less  
295 healthy items on the left. This was also reflected in the analysis of the frequency of  
296 mention of the terms by chi-square, where salad and fruits images were spontaneously  
297 associated more often to healthy (almost all children used those terms, 45 and 51  
298 respectively). The images of the Hamburger, French fries, Chicken, Pizza, Flan and  
299 Cake were significantly less associated to the term *healthy*; the word *unhealthy* was  
300 mentioned significantly more often linked to the Hamburger, French fries, and Pizza.

301 The liking dimension was correlated to *unhealthy* in the MFA plot. Food items  
302 more associated to *like* were Cake, Flan, French-fries, Pizza, Chicken and Hamburger.  
303 HCA separated those images into two distinct clusters, Cluster 8 formed by Cake and  
304 Flan, was associated to *sweet* and *birthday*. Cluster 9 formed by French fries, Pizza,  
305 Hamburger and Chicken, was associated to the terms *fat, salty, family, unhealthy and*  
306 *pasta.* HCA highlighted a cluster (Cluster 10) formed by Fish and Sushi images  
307 described by the terms *fishbone, fried, never eat and oriental food.* In the other cluster,  
308 Salad and Fruits (Cluster 11) were associated to the terms *vegetable, healthy* and  
309 *always eat.*

310 As in the previous group, 9-10 yo children mentioned several usage and attitude  
311 related terms, such as *snack, cooked, garnish, family, fried, eat out, oriental food,*  
312 *ingredient,* and *birthday.* They also classified the foods regarding their categories or  
313 associated them to other categories: *fat, meat, pasta, snack, vegetable, cheese, fish,*  
314 *oriental food,* and *ingredient.*

315

### 316 **3.2 Word association task**

317

318 Table 1 shows the categories obtained from the results of the word association  
319 task using the stimulus "*Today you will have fish for dinner at home*". Seventeen  
320 categories were built from the terms mentioned by the children (n = 148) by consensus  
321 between the three researchers who participated in the present study. In total, 503  
322 terms were mentioned by the 148 children. Most frequent categories for all the age  
323 groups of children were *like*, representing 35% of the total produced terms, *fishbones*  
324 (20%), *healthy* (10%), *dislike* (7%), *fried* (5%) and *go fishing* (3%), respectively.  
325 According to Antmann et al. (2011), in the word association task, the most frequently  
326 mentioned terms may be regarded as those most relevant and top of mind to  
327 consumers.

328 Although not presenting significant difference between ages, the *dislike*  
329 category is more frequent for older children. This behavior can be best viewed in Figure  
330 5. In order to appreciate better the relationship between the ages groups and the words  
331 produced using the word association technique, a correspondence analysis was  
332 applied (Beh, Lombardo, & Simonetti, 2011).

333 Hedonic terms (Figure 5), particularly *dislike*, are more related to Group 9-10.  
334 These results corroborate data previously presented by the Projective Mapping  
335 technique; it was found that hedonic perceptions in relation to fish products had a  
336 larger weight in the perceptual spaces from the oldest children.

337

## 338 **4. Discussion**

339

340 Fish perception in the PM task across age groups produced differences in the  
341 perception of the presented food images and especially regarding fish could be noticed  
342 among the different age groups. Both groups with older children mapped Fish and

343 Sushi together, mainly associated to disliking, while the youngest children grouped Fish  
344 and Sushi with the rest of the savory foods, and liking/ disliking was less correlated to  
345 the main perceptual space. Hedonic perceptions in relation to fish products had a  
346 larger weight in the perceptual spaces from the older children.

347 Inverse relationship between age and acceptance of fish products was found in  
348 studies of Latorres et al. (2016) and Mitterer-Daltoé et al. (2013c). Latorres et al.  
349 (2016) analyzed the acceptance of fish meatballs with children aged 6 to 14 years and  
350 realized that age was significantly and inversely correlated with the acceptance. The  
351 same behavior was observed in the study by Mitterer-Daltoé et al. (2013c), in which the  
352 acceptance of breaded fish was evaluated with students from public schools, aged 5 -  
353 18 years, and again an inverse relation between acceptance and age was reported. In  
354 this study, the authors also identified the age 12 as the critical age where there is clear  
355 evidence of the falling of the acceptance rate of breaded fish. This result that was in  
356 accordance to that by Peterson, Christou and Rosengren (2006), where the authors  
357 aimed to determine the children age when the sensory information, represented by  
358 somatosensory, vision, vestibular and visual preference, is comparable to adults,  
359 suggesting that children do not demonstrate adult-like use of sensory information prior  
360 to age 12 years. Myrland, Trondsen, Johnston and Lund (2000) revealed that  
361 households with children under 12 have increased consumption of fish, because they  
362 did not have the influence of factors such as "unpleasant smell during preparation" and  
363 "flavor"; and opposite effect when there is the presence of adolescents (from 12 years)  
364 who indicate negative relation to fish consumption, for not appreciating the smell and  
365 taste of this food.

366 Another study conducted by Pagliarini, Gabbiadini and Ratti (2005) aimed to  
367 evaluate the acceptance of meals offered in the cafeterias of schools in Milan, Italy.  
368 They found that the preference for the majority of the dishes of younger children (7  
369 years old) differed from the older ones (10 years old) and younger children gave higher  
370 acceptability scores for most dishes than older children.

371 In all these studies, the conclusion is the same: children become increasingly  
372 aware of their preferences and critical in their choices with growing age. These results  
373 show that younger children are more receptive to the introduction of more varied food,  
374 including fish in their common diets. Thus, there are possibly opportunities that can  
375 provide unhealthy eating habits to be shifted in the very young population, since, habit  
376 formation occurs gradually over repeated experiences. According to Riet et al. (2011)  
377 promoting new behavior is more effective than changing frequently performed  
378 behavior. Within this context, school lunch should play an important role as it provides  
379 an opportunity to insert particular food consumption habits to reach younger children  
380 and in a continuous way. This a good strategy in an attempt to promote fish  
381 consumption habits, since healthy dietary patterns that include fish consumption are  
382 established early in childhood influence dietary habits during adult life with effects on  
383 health (Donadini et al., 2013; Kaar, Shapiro, Fell, & Johnson, 2016).

384 Perhaps, food neophobia could help explain as the inverse relationship between  
385 age and fish products acceptance or positive hedonic perceptions with children. Food  
386 neophobia is defined as the reluctance to eat, or the avoidance of new foods (Dovey,  
387 Staples, Gibson, & Halford, 2008; Kaar et al., 2016) and has been linked with parents  
388 food pattern (Kaar et al., 2016) and age (Fernández-Ruiz, Claret, & Chaya, 2013;  
389 Siegrist, Hartmann, & Keller, 2013). Kaar et al. (2016) revealed that similarities in  
390 parent-child food preferences could be related to food neophobia, and therefore, the  
391 food offered by parents to their children are also related. These authors also showed  
392 the relationship between food neophobia and the negative impact on food variety and  
393 the consumption of highly recommended foods, such as vegetables or fish. Another  
394 study with children revealed that the more frequently a lunch item was served at home,  
395 the less there were leftovers (Caporale, Policastro, Tuorila, & Monteleone, 2009).  
396 Though focusing adulthood, Fernández-Ruiz et al. (2013) reported a positive  
397 relationship between age and level of food neophobia.

398            Since fish is currently not part of the consumption habit of southern Brazil  
399 population (Mitterer-Daltoé et al., 2013b), low exposure might be a potential  
400 responsible for the rejection of fish in older children, since there is no supply of this  
401 food in their homes and since the older children are more critical in their choices. In this  
402 scenario, again, school lunch arises as a good opportunity to change this behavior.  
403 Even as Herman (2015) also highlights the social facilitation of eating, that is, people  
404 eating more in groups than when alone. Transposing to the context of school lunch,  
405 this may suggest that when a child eats some food that others are also eating, his/her  
406 behavior is facilitated toward food intake.

407            In the present work, the spontaneous association of some of the food images to  
408 healthy or unhealthy started already with the young children (5-6) and was even  
409 stronger in the bigger children. However, while Fruits and Vegetables were described  
410 as *healthy* and, Hamburger, French fries, Pizza, Flan and Cake were significantly less  
411 associated with healthiness by the three groups, the images of Fish and Sushi were not  
412 associated to the *healthy* in any of the groups. This suggests that they might not have a  
413 formed idea of fish nutritional characteristics, probably because of the low exposure of  
414 the children to fish at home and at school (so they do not discuss it characteristics).  
415 According to the menu presented by the School Feeding Division of Pato Branco city's  
416 Education Department, fish meats are seldom offered to children in school meals,  
417 predominating as protein source beef, chicken and eggs instead. As side dish it is  
418 usually offered rice, beans, pasta, with lettuce and tomato salad at lunch; also banana,  
419 orange, apple, milk and cake in the morning and afternoon snacks. Meals follow the  
420 Resolution of the National Fund for Education Development, which recommends the  
421 use of basic foodstuffs in order to respect the food habits and cultures of each region  
422 (FNDE, 2013). Therefore, the low frequency of fish consumption by the target group of  
423 children of the present study is confirmed, resulting in a low familiarity to this important  
424 food.



425 To get a general idea of the different age groups' ability to generate responses  
426 to questions about food and nutrition, Slaughter and Ting (2010) applied an open-  
427 ended interview to 100 Australian participants in five different age groups (5yo, 8 yo,  
428 10yo, 14yo, 20 yo), from preschool to university. The results of the study revealed that  
429 at 5 years, causal reasoning linking food and health was largely absent; that between 5  
430 and 8 years there has been significant increase in thinking about food and nutrition;  
431 and between 11 and 14 years responses that reflected physiological reasoning  
432 increased significantly. Another work aimed to document evaluation of the healthy food  
433 and drink with children (3-5 years) (Tatlow-Golden, Hennessy, Dean, & Hollywood,  
434 2013). The results showed that children at this age have the ability to identify healthy  
435 foods and relate them to the growth and health, but considerably less ability to reject  
436 unhealthy items.

437 In short, education programs in schools are important and can result in healthier  
438 habits in adulthood. Studies, such as those conducted by Mustonen and Tuorila (2010),  
439 showed positive results when applying sensory education with children. The  
440 researchers worked with children ranging from 8 to 12 years and reported that the  
441 effects of sensory education in phobia of new foods was more effective with younger  
442 children, including fish food, reinforcing the tendency of children to suffer changes in  
443 eating habits. Tatlow-Golden et al. (2013) even go beyond, and also show the  
444 importance to teach children about less healthy foods in the preschool years (5 years)  
445 and not only teach what is healthy.

446 The results obtained by word association technique highlighted the positive  
447 perception of fish by children. The fact that the category *like* having been frequently  
448 cited for the stimulus "Today you will have fish for dinner at home," indicated positive  
449 intention of fish consumption by all the groups of children, since there was no  
450 significant difference between age groups. In Latorres et al. (2016), the stimulus  
451 applied was the fish meatball received during school meals through the statement  
452 "Please write down the first four words that come to your mind when you remember the

453 meatball that you consumed at school today"; the authors verified that the hedonic  
454 dimension had the highest number of cited terms, and the most frequent category was  
455 tasty.

456 The category *like*, obtained by the word association suggested more positive  
457 perception by the older children when compared with the results revealed by projective  
458 mapping. This behavior may possibly be a result of differences in methodologies  
459 applied; in the Projective Mapping together with the assessment of fish products, the  
460 children had other foods that they could compare that were very attractive, suggesting  
461 that among the food, fish is possibly not the first choice. In a work by Pagliarini et al.  
462 (2005) fish stood behind roasted pork loin, roasted pork with apple sauce, cooked ham  
463 and dried salted beef in preference of school children aged between 7 and 10 years  
464 old. Thus, for fish insertion-strategy success in school meals, the food should be  
465 offered as a single main course and not as an option among other more "attractive"  
466 foods or fish cooked in several different ways. Not at least until the fish consumption  
467 habits are part of the behavior of children.

468 Fish can become more attractive to children through industrialized products  
469 such as nuggets, meatballs and hamburger (Latorres et al., 2016; Mitterer-Daltoé et al.,  
470 2013c) and this device becomes even more important by the category *bones* pointed  
471 out.

472 The *fishbones* category, highlights the concern of children with their presence.  
473 Smell and fishbones are considered one of the main fish consumption barriers (Leek,  
474 Maddock, & Foxall, 2000; Mitterer-Daltoé et al., 2013b), and these concerns show the  
475 offering other fish products (such as fingers, bites, hamburgers, etc.) would be an  
476 important fish insertion strategy in the school feeding and subsequent insertion of that  
477 food consumption habits in a population. Previous studies have revealed the  
478 importance of the of food appearance for children (Donadini et al., 2013; Latorres et al.,  
479 2016), and within that context fish products such as burgers, nuggets and meatballs

480 come with great potential for acceptance among school children (Latorres et al., 2016;  
481 Mitterer-Daltoé, et al., 2013c).

482 *Fried*, and *go fishing* categories showed the main fish preparation for  
483 consumption. The city in study, is not located in a coastal area, so the primarily activity  
484 in fish production and fish farming is known as fish and pay. Fish and pay are rural  
485 properties (smallholdings) characterized by a complex of artificial lakes where fishing is  
486 practiced as a leisure activity. In these places, there are also restaurants where there is  
487 a supply of fish, often served deep fried. Thus, for some of these children the  
488 relationships they have with fish is to go fishing and eat it fried.

489 **Based on the present results, future studies with bigger groups of children and**  
490 **families in this target group should focus in more detail on the influence of familiarity to**  
491 **different types of food in relation to fish perception, to further confirm our hypothesis; it**  
492 **would also be interesting when working with wider groups to look into potential gender**  
493 **differences.**

494

## 495 **5. Conclusion**

496

497 Results show that Projective Mapping methodology was easily understood by  
498 the three age groups, and the use of images might have facilitated the application of  
499 this technique with children. Different perceptions arose from the different age groups;  
500 an especially positive perception towards fish products was found in the youngest  
501 group of children. This fact suggests the need and potential for fish introduction in the  
502 early years of life. Within this context, school meals emerge as an important strategy to  
503 promote eating habits in childhood, especially for enhancing and promoting fish  
504 consumption habits.

505

506

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514

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