

1 **Structured sorting using pictures as a way to study nutritional and hedonic**
2 **perception in children**

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15 **Abstract**

16 A good insight about the development of food choice patterns and the reasons behind
17 eating healthy or unhealthy food is of particular importance as nutritional influences on
18 health can be established early in childhood. Sensory and consumer testing with
19 children can be very valuable for that aim but it requires appropriate protocols due to
20 their cognitive abilities and attention spans. In this work, structured sorting was
21 proposed as a tool to study children's nutritional understanding and hedonic perception
22 of various healthy and less healthy, «junk» foods. The task was well understood and
23 easily performed by the three studied age cohorts (5yo, 7yo, 9yo). The structured
24 sorting with the use of images appeared as a promising tool to study children holistic
25 perception of products considering multidimensional concepts, in this particular case
26 demonstrated by the fact that they were able to classify products taking into account
27 healthiness and hedonic perception at the same time.

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30 **Keywords:** *children; sorting; nutritional knowledge; hedonic perception*

31 **1. Introduction**

32 A good understanding of the early development of food choice patterns and the
33 reasons behind eating healthy or unhealthy food is of particular importance as
34 nutritional influences on health can be established in childhood, a time of potential
35 influence via educational programs. The growing awareness of the importance of a
36 healthy diet in early childhood has driven the attention to the study of children's
37 understanding of food nutritional properties (Tatlow-Golden, Hennessy, Dean, et al.,
38 2013). In particular, the fact that that children's diet could be linked to their food
39 knowledge (Kandiah & Jones, 2002), and the recent evidence of their sensitivity to
40 marketing of unhealthy food (Ferguson, Muñoz & Medrano, 2012) makes it very
41 important to better understand children's nutritional perception and its relation to food
42 preferences. Interestingly enough, the foods that children usually reject are those ones
43 which may have greatest importance for later health, as fruit or vegetables (Blisset &
44 Fogel, 2013). Children are born with some innate predisposition to like and dislike
45 certain flavours (Beauchamp & Menella, 2011), however, preferences are malleable
46 and could be modified responding to a number of social and environmental factors. For
47 instance, it is well known now that children who are pressured to eat certain foods may
48 show decreased preference for them in the future; conversely, social facilitation by
49 peers could reinforce the preference for a previously disliked item (Ventura & Worobey,
50 2013). Various intervention studies have been pursued in different countries trying to
51 shape children's preference through educational programs (Casson, 2001; Kandiah &
52 Jones, 2002; Powers, Struempfer, Guarino, et al., 2005; Baskale & Bahar, 2011), but
53 very little is known about pre-schoolers (under 6yo), a period where the development of
54 food knowledge is fast, and when food experiences would be central to later behaviour
55 towards food (Holub & Musher-Eizenman, 2010; Tatlow-Golden, et al., 2013).
56 Nguyen (2007) found that 3-year-olds, 4-year-olds, 7-year-olds, were able to
57 evaluatively categorize pictures of foods accurately as "junk" or "healthy", concluding
58 that their classifications corresponded to expert classifications to some degree by age

59 3y.o., and that children would start understanding the reasoning behind these
60 classifications by the age of 4y.o. Nevertheless, children's perception of nutritional
61 aspects cannot be isolated from their hedonic appreciation, being their actual food
62 choice influenced by multiple parameters. In this sense, Tatlow-Golden et al. (2013)
63 found that young children had very high levels of ability to identify healthy foods as
64 important for growth and health, but considerably less ability to reject unhealthy items,
65 showing that not only nutritional knowledge would be determinant of their behaviour but
66 hedonics would play a major role.

67 Understanding children's perception of complex concepts could be challenging,
68 particularly with younger ones. Literature suggests that children from 2-7yo only can
69 focus in one aspect of a product at a time, as they are limited in their centration and
70 also have a short attention span, what results in that children could be strongly affected
71 by irrelevant dimensions of complex stimuli (Bernard & Friedman, 1995; Resurreccion,
72 1998; Guinard, 2001; Popper & Kroll, 2004). Between the ages of 7 and 11 (the
73 "concrete operational stage") children start mastering logical and systematic thinking,
74 gain the ability to analyse products according to more than one dimension and learn
75 about classifications (Atik & Ozdamar Ertekin, 2013). Consequently, successful testing
76 with children must have into account their sensory and cognitive abilities, with the
77 careful selection of adequate tasks, the use of child-friendly wording of questions,
78 adapted scales and according duration of the test. Nguyen and Murphy (2003) stated
79 that children are precocious in dealing with food categories, because of the role food
80 plays in their lives and that they are quite flexible in the types of categories they form
81 and use, having the competence to appropriately form taxonomic, script, and
82 evaluative categories. Sorting methods are easy to understand and children friendly, as
83 many games are based on sorting of shapes, colours, etc. so it is a procedure familiar
84 for children. Children as young as 3-5yo could realise simple sorting tasks without
85 difficulty if well explained (Guinard, 2001). However, care must be taken, as even when
86 they understand it, their attention span may limit their ability to perform the task, as

87 Popper & Kroll explained (2004), a 3-year-old can understand a sorting task, but
88 he/she may have problems to remember the assignment because of lack of attention to
89 successfully complete the task. Otherwise, Kimmel et al. (1994) recommended that
90 pictures could be a good way of helping children to understand sensory tests. Other
91 authors have suggested that a good alternative for gathering liking information from
92 children could be through the rating of pictures instead of real products (Baxter,
93 Schroder & Bower, 1999; Olsen, Kildegaard, Gabrielsen et al., 2012).

94 The aim of this work was to explore structured sorting with the use of images as a
95 potential tool to study complex stimulus, in this case nutritional understanding and
96 hedonic perception of various healthy and less healthy, «junky» foods in children of 5,
97 7 and 9yo.

98

99 **2. Materials and methods**

100 **2.1 Participants**

101 Three groups of children of 5yo (n=45), 7yo (n=52) and 9yo (n=51) were interviewed in
102 a primary school, in their own classrooms. Three interviewers and one teacher
103 managed the tests. The task was self-administered, following the instructions and
104 examples given by the interviewers, who were then available for consultation.

105 **2.2 Tasks**

106 **Structured sorting**

107 The children performed what we would call a “structured sorting task”, where they had
108 to sort 12 food items in 4 pre-determined groups. They received altogether 12 stickers
109 with pictures of food products in random order: *fresh fruit, orange juice, fresh*
110 *vegetables, chocolate covered biscuits, nuts, crisps, coke, milk products, donuts,*
111 *chocolate candy bar, candy (gumdrops), and bread.* All the products could be
112 consumed as snacks and half of them were associated to a healthy diet, while the rest
113 were less healthy, «junky» options. They also received an A4 sheet separated in 4
114 equal quadrants labelled with 2 symbols each to convey the 4 groups. The symbols

115 used were a “yummy face” (a smiley figure with the tongue out), a “yuck face” (smiley
116 with a “do not like face”), a devil (meaning “bad for you” and an angel (meaning “good
117 for you”). The signs were combined representing the concepts of “healthy and I like it”
118 (L/H), “healthy and I don’t like it” (DL/H), “not healthy and I like it” (L/NH), “not healthy
119 and I don’t like it” (DL/NH) (Figure 1).

120 Children in the three groups were explained the sorting task by means of two examples
121 of foods different than the ones used in the test: *chocolate cake* and *cherry tomatoes*.

122 The explanation of the tasks was given to the whole group; children could raise their
123 hands and ask questions at that time, or individually once being handed out the test
124 sheets. The concepts of “it is good for you” and “it is bad for you” were explained as “a
125 food you can eat often, whenever you want, because it is good for your health” or “a
126 food you can only eat in certain occasions because frequently eating it could be
127 harmful for your health”. The interviewers explained the task using a big board
128 representing the A4 sheet and two pictures of the *chocolate cake* and *cherry tomatoes*,
129 and in discussion with the children and the teacher realised the exemplifying exercise.

130 **Overall liking rating**

131 After the sorting task, they were given a new ballot, where the 12 same pictures were
132 rated for overall liking with the use of 7-point hedonic smiley-scales (Chen et al., 1996)
133 without worded labels. Pictures were randomized in the questionnaire following a
134 balanced complete block experimental design (Williams’ design).

135 **2.3. Data analysis**

136 Multiple Factor Analysis (MFA) was used to analyse the data from the sorting task, on
137 the matrix of the individual consumers’ grouping (the products in the rows, the
138 consumers (children) in the columns, and allocating each product to the particular
139 chosen group, *i.e.* A, B, C or D).

140 MFA was used to study the relation between the three sorting tests realised by the
141 different age-groups. RV coefficients were also calculated for that purpose. The RV
142 coefficient is a multivariate statistic ranging from 0 (uncorrelated, orthogonal

143 configurations) to 1 (perfect agreement, homothetic configurations) (Robert &
144 Escoufier, 1976). MFA is a synthesis of PCA (Principal Component Analysis) and MCA
145 (Multiple Correspondence Analysis) that generalizes to enable the use of quantitative and
146 qualitative variables. In practise an MFA performed on K tables that contain each one qualitative
147 variable is equivalent to an MCA performed on the K variables (Escoufier and Pagès, 1984). In
148 this work the MFA approach was used as it allowed also comparing and superimposing the
149 different data sets. When reference is made to the individual sets it would be referred as to
150 MCA.

151 Two-way ANOVA (age, product and their interaction as factors) was used to analyse
152 the overall liking data. Least significant differences were calculated by Tukey's test (
153 $p < 0.05$).

154 Internal preference maps were built by applying principal component analysis (PCA) on
155 the correlation matrix of consumer individual liking data for each of the children group.

156 All data analyses were performed using XL-Stat 2009 (Insightful, New York, NY).

157

158 **3. Results and discussion**

159 The test was well understood by the 3 age cohorts. It took about 40-50 min per group
160 to accomplish both parts of the study (sorting and acceptability testing). The time was
161 not registered individually, but timings varied to a large extent among students even
162 within the same group. In general it can be said that the exercise took longer with the
163 younger children. **3.1. Sorting task**

164 The three age groups were capable of performing the sorting task after the
165 explanations and examples given by the interviewers. This is in accordance to what
166 Guinard (2001) suggested in his review of sensory and consumer testing with children,
167 that sorting was a task that could be understood by pre-schoolers (3-5 years old).

168 Although previous research has suggested that children from 5-7 would require one-to-
169 one, personal interviews for being able to understand the task (Kroll, 1990), the present

170 study showed that sorting would be simple enough for being understood by 5yo and
171 up, after being given an example.

172 The results for the three age cohorts were very similar. They were able to group the
173 products taking into account both healthiness and hedonic perception as instructed.
174 According to Piaget's theory of cognitive and affective development (Wadsworth, 1984;
175 Guinard, 2001) children below 7 would be limited in their logical thinking abilities
176 (defined as "pre-operational") meaning they could concentrate in one aspect of a
177 situation at a time. However, in the present study, children of the three groups (from 5
178 to 9 yo) were able to sort the food items taking into account two independent factors at
179 the same time, liking and healthfulness, suggesting that sorting is an easy task that
180 could allow the evaluation of complex concepts even for the pre-school children.

181 Nguyen and Murphy (2003) suggested that children do form abstract concepts and
182 they may be able to use simultaneously both categorical and other kinds of relations. In
183 their research they tested if children used multiple kinds of concepts by measuring
184 them independently and showed that children had the potential for conceptual
185 flexibility, as they were not restricted to a single form of categorization. The present
186 work goes a step further showing that children as young as 5yo can categorize using
187 more than one concept at the same time, being able to draw complex conclusions.

188 The fact of having used pictures for the sorting task, rather than real foods could have
189 simplified the understanding and categorization. Kimmel, Grant & Guinard (1994)
190 suggested that the use of pictures as examples in sensory tests with children might
191 simplify their understanding.

192 Table 1 shows the frequency of allocation of the 12 food items to each of the four pre-
193 selected groups for the three age cohorts. Almost all the products were categorized as
194 expected regarding their healthiness by the majority of the participants: *fresh*
195 *vegetables, orange juice, fresh fruit, bread and milk products* under the "healthy"
196 symbol and *crisps, candy, chocolate candy bar, donuts, chocolate biscuits and coke*
197 under the "not healthy" one. However, the opinions were divided regarding the product

198 *nuts*, a healthy snack that many of the children in the three cohorts had the perception
199 of being “not healthy”. Taking into account all the interviewed children, 81 of them
200 classified nuts as not healthy and 64 as healthy. In particular, in the 7yo group a big
201 majority of the children (40 vs 10) categorized them within the not healthy groups. This
202 perception might arise from the fact that they could be linking this food to other less
203 healthful snacks like crisps. Also, nuts are many times subjected to preconceptions of
204 being not very healthful because of their high caloric content, or being perceived as
205 less nutritious when associated to their fried/salted counterparts (Oakes, 2004), some
206 of these perceptions could be held by their parents and transmitted to the children for
207 example through being a restrained food item at home. Gracey, Stanley, Burke, et al.
208 (1996) observed that school children of lower socioeconomic levels consumed
209 significantly less nuts than those teenage children of higher levels, which might be
210 related to a probable lower nutritional knowledge in the household.

211 The Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA) for each of the age groups revealed the
212 separation of the products depending mainly on their healthiness in the first factor of the
213 MCA, while the liking was more associated to the second factor (Figure 2a). Figure 2b,
214 displays the sample plot for the 9yo group; in the example, “junk”, less healthy
215 products were grouped towards the positive side of the first factor (right) and the
216 healthy foods were associated to the negative part of it (left). *Nuts* were plotted middle-
217 way on the graph. *Fresh vegetables* were associated to the positive (upper) part of the
218 second factor, due to their more negative hedonic perception as compared to the rest
219 of the food items (Figure 2a). The “healthiness” of the sorted items seemed to have
220 had the most weight in the classification, correlated mainly to the first factor of the
221 MCA, which explained most of the variability.

222 To study the correlation between the three cohorts, an MFA was run on the three data
223 sets derived from the sorting (Figure 3). The superimposed representation of the
224 products in the Multi Factor Analysis (MFA) showed that the coordinates of each
225 product in each configuration were very close, highlighting the high correlation between

226 the perceptions in the three groups. This was also demonstrated by the obtained RV
227 coefficients (also displayed on figure 3) which were all close to one. RV depends on
228 the relative position of the points in the configuration and it is independent of rotation
229 and translation (Robert & Escoufier, 1976). An RV coefficient greater than 0.7 is
230 generally considered as a good level of agreement (Cartier et al., 2006).
231 The exception were the *fresh vegetables* that were not that well correlated between
232 groups, probably due to their differences in hedonic perception between the three
233 (further details in the next section). The *fresh vegetables* appeared well separated from
234 the rest of the healthy options in the second factor because of their low hedonic
235 perception in comparison to the rest of the tested food items.

236 It also can be observed how the consensus point for the *nuts* appeared middle way in
237 the map between the “healthy” and “not healthy” food items, because of the split of the
238 responses between those two categories The correlation between the 3 groups was
239 also less good for *nuts*, the balance between “healthy” and “not healthy” responses
240 was different in the 3 populations, what can be seen by the separation of the points on
241 the x axis. As discussed, a big percentage of the 7yo classified them as “not healthy”
242 (40 vs 10) more than half of the 5yo did the same (23 vs 21) and in the 9yo group the
243 categorization was more towards the “healthy” option (33 vs 18) (Table 1).

244 In general, the three groups of children showed a good knowledge of the nutritional
245 value of the tested foods, in agreement with Nguyen (2007) who found that even 3-
246 year-olds could categorize many foods into “healthy” or “junk”. In that research
247 however, there appeared to be some foods that were particularly difficult for most of the
248 children to categorize accurately, this seemed to be the case also with the *nuts* in the
249 present study.

250

251 **3.2. Overall liking and preference mapping**

252 The ANOVA showed significant differences in liking between the products, the age
253 groups and their interaction. Figure 4 displays the overall liking scores interaction chart

254 together with some of the ANOVA statistics. Although the hedonic reaction in the three
255 groups was rather similar, there were some particularities. In general, 5yo kids gave
256 significantly higher overall liking scores to all items. *Crisps* were the top liked product
257 for all ages, *fresh vegetables* were the less liked for the 7yo and 9yo, *coke* was the less
258 liked in the 5yo group. The *candy (gumdrops)* was less liked in the 9yo group.

259 The liking patters within each group were quite homogeneous, as revealed by the
260 internal preference maps (IPM) in the three cases. The consumer vectors covered only
261 one of the quadrants of the map, showing good accordance in the hedonic perception
262 towards the evaluated items within each group. Figure 5 shows as an example the IPM
263 for the 7yo age group. The fact that the hedonic response was similar in the tree
264 groups, and that the products were well discriminated, suggests that there was a good
265 understanding of the 7-point smiley hedonic scale in all of them, in agreement with the
266 literature, stating that the understanding of liking scales starts around 5yo (Kroll, 1990;
267 Kimmel et al., 1994; Chen, Resurreccion & Paguio, 1996; Guinard, 2001).

268 The obtained product configurations were very different to the ones obtained in the
269 sorting task, proving different perception was reflected by both results: liking was not
270 the only driver of the sorting, healthiness perception was also taken into account. In
271 this sense, the fact that children classified the foods attending primarily to the
272 healthiness of the foods rather than their liking is an interesting point. This could be
273 arising from an educational issue, as they are taught about nutrition and the fact of
274 realising the task in class could predispose them to pay more attention to that. Also,
275 they might have been involuntarily primed by the instructions given, as the interviewers
276 explained the concept of “healthy” and “unhealthy”, and they performed an example. It
277 would be interesting to repeat this experiment outside school, to being able to draw
278 more generalising conclusions regarding the weight of nutritional and hedonic aspects
279 in their categorization.

280 The potential application of structured sorting as a means to study complex concepts
281 around nutrition with pre-schoolers is anyway promising, as very little was previously

282 known in this topic regarding children under the age of 6 years (Tatlow-Golden et al.,
283 2013). It would be interesting to continue this line of research to examine the
284 capabilities of sorting regarding different aspects of children's perceptions about foods.
285 The use of simple images of very well-known foods in the present work was a first step.
286 It is still to be proved how well sorting would work on more complex stimulus (e.g.
287 meals/dishes) or when using less known food items. Also, it would be interesting to find
288 out the applicability of this approach with real foods, with tasting involved, as the
289 interaction between the healthiness and the actual hedonic response could be more
290 complex than the one highlighted by this work by the imagined or expected liking.
291 The use of pictures in the categorization exercise made it simple to fulfil and at the
292 same time "fun" for small children as it resembled a game. In terms of practicalities, in
293 this work the number of pictures utilised was not particularly large (12 pictures), but the
294 friendliness of the task and the understanding shown by the interviewees would
295 suggest it would be possible to use it with more items. In a previous work, Nguyen
296 (2007) utilised 70 pictures to be categorized by children 3-7yo with success, in that
297 case the pictures were also simple and the foods well known, but they just sorted them
298 in two groups (junk/healthy). The fact of categorizing using more than one criteria
299 could make the task more tiresome and complex, so it is expectable than such a large
300 number of items could be too many. More research would be needed to being able to
301 recommend a maximum amount of pictures to be included in a test like this.

302

303 **4. Conclusions**

304 The structured sorting task was well understood and easily performed by the three
305 studied age cohorts (5yo, 7yo, 9yo).

306 The structured sorting with the use of images appeared as a promising tool to study
307 children perception of multidimensional concepts, in this particular case demonstrated
308 by the fact that they were able to classify products taking into account healthiness and
309 hedonic perception at the same time.

310 In general, the three groups of children showed a good knowledge of the nutritional
311 value of the tested foods; the three cohorts presented some particularities regarding
312 liking, but the preference patterns were comparable.
313 Further research would be needed to assess the potential of this tool to assess
314 nutritional knowledge with more complex product sets, and in particular with tasting of
315 real products. Being that structured sorting was well understood, free sorting with a
316 description step would be another interesting tool to test with young children, probably
317 needing more support at the time of realising the task. Also, other more complicated
318 categorization tasks would be worthy of testing with children, as it can be napping, for
319 nutritionally related concepts or other sensory or non-sensory parameters.

320

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392

393 **Tables**

394

395 **Table 1- Frequency of allocation of the food products to each of the four pre-**

396 **selected groups for the three age cohorts**

	5yo				7yo				9yo			
	L/H	DL/H	L/NH	DL/NH	L/H	DL/H	L/NH	DL/NH	L/H	DL/H	L/NH	DL/NH
FRESH FRUIT	45	0	0	0	41	10	0	0	48	3	0	0
ORANGE JUICE	34	10	1	0	36	13	1	1	48	3	1	0
FRESH VEGETABLES	34	11	0	0	15	33	0	1	25	24	1	0
BREAD	39	3	1	1	36	11	1	2	44	6	2	0
NUTS	19	2	21	2	8	2	31	9	28	5	15	3
MILK PRODUCTS	38	2	2	3	41	10	0	0	48	3	0	0
CHOCOLATE BISCUITS	8	6	17	13	3	4	24	17	5	4	33	9
CRISPS	12	0	30	3	3	0	40	5	7	3	38	3
COKE	0	1	19	24	0	2	26	22	1	0	32	17
DONUTS	2	3	22	15	6	4	23	15	0	1	36	13
CHOCOLATE BAR	0	4	31	8	0	1	37	11	0	2	44	5
CANDY	0	1	30	13	1	0	42	7	0	1	35	14

397

398

399 **Figure captions**

400

401 Figure 1. Structured sorting ballot

402

403 Figure 2a – Variables plot of the two first factors of the Multiple Correspondence Analysis of the
404 sorting task data for the 9yo group.

405

406 Figure 2b – Product map of the two first factors of the Multiple Correspondence Analysis of the
407 sorting task data for the 9yo group. With triangles are shown the food items expected to be
408 sorted as “not healthy” and with circles the “healthy” options.

409

410 Figure 3 – Superimposed representation of the products in the Multi Factor Analysis (MFA) and
411 Rv coefficients. Each sample is represented using three points corresponding to each age
412 group (5yo, 7yo, 9yo), the consensus representation is depicted by the middle point. For the
413 chocolate bar, candy and coke only the consensus label was kept for clarity (the groups labels
414 were very close to the consensus). RV coefficients are included in the embedded table.

415

416 Figure 4 – Interaction plot from the ANOVA applied to the overall liking scores. ANOVA statistics
417 are also included in the embedded table

418

419 Figure 5 – Internal preference map based on the individual overall liking scores, example for the
420 5yo group. Products’ map (left) and consumers’ map (right)

421