

13 **ABSTRACT**

14 Food pairing has been widely studied to understand the patterns that explain how people pair different
15 foods and ingredients and, therefore, to obtain successful pairings and good recommendations for
16 consumers. Social media has become a common way of exchanging information; therefore, we
17 proposed to use it as a tool for exploring beer-food pairing and eating behavior. Twitter and Instagram
18 were selected as they are among the most popular platforms. Although texts from Twitter could provide
19 an accurate verbal description of consumer's food experiences, Instagram could offer the possibility of
20 exploring the consumption context through images, leading to a better understanding of consumers'
21 eating behavior, with a focus on food and beverage combinations. We hypothesize that images from
22 Instagram will provide further information than texts from Twitter, regarding beer-food pairing and
23 consumption context. A social media study was performed in Mexico comparing texts vs. images,
24 selected from a one-year period, and manually classified through content analysis. Foods extracted
25 from images and texts were categorized into frequencies and analyzed using multiple correspondence
26 analysis (MCA) and hierarchical clustering (AHC). MCA showed the most frequently mentioned foods
27 paired with beer for each platform. Data extracted from images and texts about consumption context
28 was also analyzed and categorized into frequencies according to several themes: consumption
29 behavior, type of consumption, way of beer consumption, place of consumption, and consumption
30 occasion. Data extracted from the two platforms was compared by using a chi-square test per theme.
31 Several differences were found, depending on the social media platform, texts being the one with less
32 extracted and meaningful information. In general, while texts provided less extracted and meaningful
33 information, images offered more details regarding beer-food pairing and context of consumption, the
34 same as beer information such as type, color, brand, and style. Overall, images gave more information
35 on beer-food pairing compared to texts. The methods and results from this paper could be applied by
36 culinary professionals, sommeliers, and researchers in the gastronomy and food and hospitality areas.

37 **Keywords:** Food pairing, Context of consumption, Beer, Social media, Instagram, Twitter.

38

39

40

41

42

43 **1. Introduction**

44 Food pairing has been studied from different disciplines, such as gastronomy, sensory science, and
45 history, to create new successful food and meal combinations and understand why people combine
46 specific food and beverages. According to Paulsen et al. (2015), good pairing recommendations could
47 be crucial for the success of foods, and beverages; additionally, Scander et al. (2018) stated that
48 understanding the mechanisms behind beverage choice in different settings and cultural situations, and
49 lifestyle backgrounds are needed to describe the intake patterns. Therefore, the study of social media
50 could represent a valuable tool for exploring consumer food behavior, from which successful food and
51 meals- beverage pairings could be identified.

52 Social media is one of the most accessible tools for sharing information, its popularity has increased a
53 lot this past decade. Several studies reported that the use of this tool is now an integral part of the lives
54 of many people, where consumers can easily gather information on which to base some of their
55 decisions (Casaló et al., 2018), for example, helping consumers to decide what to buy or just to know
56 more about certain products or brands (Powers et al., 2012). According to Mangold and Faulds (2009),
57 consumers are turning away from traditional media such as television, magazines, and newspapers,
58 which makes social media a valuable tool in consumer research.

59 Across different social media platforms, two of the most popular are Instagram and Twitter. According
60 to Alexa's ranking web sites in Mexico (Alexa, 2021), which categorize by the number of visitors and
61 site views, Twitter is positioned in 18th place while Instagram is in 15th place. These platforms use
62 mainly text to share information in the case of Twitter and images for Instagram. Nowadays, and with
63 the constant growth of social media use, researchers should create and apply new techniques involving
64 social media analysis that could be used to better retrieve spontaneous responses of the consumers, in
65 real-life settings (Vidal et al., 2015).

66 **1.1 Twitter and Instagram**

67 The Twitter platform was launched in July 2006, and by 2018, the platform already hosted 326 million
68 active users, all over the world. This micro-blogging service encourage it users to publish anything that
69 they need and have to say, as they claimed on their own web site: "Twitter is what's happening in the
70 world and what people are talking about right now" (Twitter, 2021). As well as other micro-blogging
71 web sites, Twitter has an important effect on early product adoption because of the immediate
72 dissemination of post purchase quality evaluations (Hennig- Thurau et al., 2015).

73 Extensive research about food has been carried out using Twitter, such as describing Twitter
74 publications regarding different eating situations (Vidal et al., 2015), influence of environment on food
75 choices (Chen and Xining, 2014) and information sharing (Platania and Spadoni, 2018). In general,
76 this platform could be a good tool for gathering information regarding context and additionally, the
77 limit of characters that can be written in a tweet (280 characters) also facilitate the interpretation of the
78 data (Zhou and Chen, 2014). The platform allows to add images, videos, and emoticons; however, it
79 was originally created to connect and communicate people through texts, and it is still the main source
80 of information in the tweets.

81
82 On the other hand, Instagram is a social media platform launched in 2006 (Instagram-press, 2019).
83 This platform that has increased in popularity over the last years, has more than 1000 million active
84 users (Wearesocial, 2019). According to the app developers, the main objective of Instagram is “to
85 connect you with the people and things that matter to you” (Instagram, 2021). Instagram users are
86 encouraged to post images for each individual or social activity that they are performing, such as daily
87 activities, exercise, travel, parties, work, and food consumption, being this last the one that usually
88 attracts the attention of users. In other words, it is an image-based social media platform that as a
89 conventional wisdom, is mostly used for self-promoting and social networking with friends (Hu et al.,
90 2014).

91 In their study, Hu et al. (2014) categorized a sample of Instagram images and found out that the *food*
92 category contributed to more than 10% of the published images, only below *selfies* (24.2%), *friends*
93 (*22.4%*), and *activities* (15%) categories. Taking pictures of food has become widespread among
94 consumers and raises several questions, such as what kind of food images are posted (including the
95 most popular food-beverage combinations) and which are the consumer’s motivations to post them.
96 Sester et al. (2013) stated, that answering all the questions implies the observation of the context of a
97 specific situation of food consumption. In the present research, texts from Twitter and images from
98 Instagram are used as research tools to explore the context of consumption of users.

99 **1.2 Context of consumption and food pairing**

100 The consumption context, according to Meiselman (2006), is defined as the physical, social, and
101 situational conditions in which consumers eat food and beverages. Context of consumption is difficult
102 to observe within traditional consumer tests due to different aspects, in which time investment, cost,
103 recruitment of representative samples, and the simulation of a natural environment are the main issues.

104 Additionally, it is well reported that people do not “act normally” when they are aware of being
105 observed (or being interviewed) and consequently, the results could be biased. In fact, people could be
106 more honest when interacting with a computer rather than with a human interviewer (Gnambs and
107 Kaspar, 2015). So, when venturing into new techniques and tools for gathering information, such as
108 social media, researchers could observe real food behavior from people in their natural context. Social
109 media could offer instantaneous access to a large and representative consumer sample, as Meiselman
110 (2013) states, this aspect meets a real need for consumer science research.

111 Considering this social phenomenon, using social media as a source of information could be a useful
112 tool when exploring consumer behavior in real-life situations. According to Galiñanes et al. (2019),
113 almost all the research on human eating behavior has been focused on food items instead of food
114 combinations, which could contribute to misleading results. That is the case of food pairing, which has
115 been a popular topic in the last decades, in which researchers have been looking for a pattern that could
116 explain how people pair different ingredients, and consequently to find successful pairings for
117 consumers (Ahn et al., 2011; Varshney et al., 2013).

118 Food Pairing Theory states that the more aromatic compounds two foods have in common, the better
119 they taste together (Klepper, 2011). However, it is complicated to determine universal guidelines for
120 good pairings due to the complex nature of the sensory interactions between food and beverages
121 (Paulsen, 2015). Therefore, volatile compatibility is not the only answer to good pairings (Galmarini,
122 2020). In general, food pairing has been widely studied when pairing wine and cheese (King and Cliff,
123 2005; Bastian et al., 2010; Harrington and Seo, 2015), chocolate with different beverages (Donadini et
124 al., 2012), and the pairings of other foods such as olive oil (Cerretani et al., 2007) or banana (Traynor
125 et al., 2013). However, in the case of beer food pairing, little research can be found (Donadini et al.,
126 2008; Donadini et al., 2013; Eschevins et al., 2019; Paulsen et al., 2015; Martínez et al., 2017).

127 Galmarini (2020) stated that food-pairing field needs a consumer-oriented approach to better
128 understand what makes a good combination, and despite food pairing had been studied by using
129 traditional sensory methodologies, the usage of different social media has not been explored, which
130 arises an opportunity to gather beer food pairing information through images and texts. On our previous
131 paper entitled “Connecting flavors in social media: A cross-cultural study with beer pairing” (Arellano-
132 Covarrubias, A.; Gómez-Corona, C.; Varela, P., & Escalona-Buendía, H.B., 2019) we accessed the
133 structure of food pairing for beer through the analysis of social media platforms and mainstream data
134 in different countries. Results showed that the platforms with a more substantial number of mentions

135 were Twitter and Instagram. Facebook did not show high number of mentions due to the characteristics
136 of the platform, in which users usually made private their profiles so only their “friends” could access
137 to their publications, contrarily from Instagram and Twitter in which the profiles, in general, are public
138 so anyone could access to the user’s information/publications. In the present study, we research and
139 compare the information extracted from texts versus images (from Twitter and Instagram,
140 respectively), to understand which one provides a better understanding of beer-food pairing and more
141 information about context of consumption. We hypothesize that, in general, texts from Twitter are less
142 informative than images from Instagram in the case of beer food pairing and context of consumption.

143 **2. Materials & methods**

144 The data for the present study was extracted using Synthesio® (Synthesio® social media listening
145 platform, 2018). Twitter and Instagram publications related to beer and flavor/food combinations were
146 selected from a year’s base (July 18, 2016, to July 18, 2017) of our previous study. In this previous
147 research, all publications were searched from a list of sixty-five popular flavors/foods and words related
148 to beer (e.g., beer, beers) and associated with food consumption words (e.g., flavor, food, eat, food
149 combination, etc.). As a result, all kinds of posts from social media and mainstream data (related to
150 beer/food combinations) were extracted.

151 In the present research, to test the proposed methodological approach, the analysis of texts (from
152 Twitter) and images (from Instagram) was limited to Mexico, from January to December 2018. For
153 further information about the extraction procedure of the Twitter and Instagram data, see Arellano-
154 Covarrubias et al. (2019).

155 **2.1 Data selection**

156 From the Twitter and Instagram social media database, 200 tweets and 200 images from Instagram
157 were extracted, all related to beer and foods. According to Hough et al. (2006), the minimal number of
158 consumers necessary for sensory acceptability studies is 112, as we are dealing with consumers
159 publishing their food consumption, a higher number was selected for this purpose. For each randomly
160 selected social media publication, we accessed to the user profile who published, and the post was
161 discarded if it comes from companies and/or publicity to avoid data bias, so that only the information
162 published by consumers was selected. Re-tweet or re-post of images were also discarded (Vidal et al.,
163 2015). The randomized selection was performed until an original publication was chosen, and achieved
164 the target number of 200 Instagram posts, and 200 tweets. Only 13% of the selected tweets contained

165 an image. For the purpose of this research only the text of the tweets was analyzed, and only images
166 from Instagram.

167 **2.2 Content analysis**

168 Each text from the tweets and Instagram image related to beer were manually coded using qualitative
169 content analysis (inductive analysis) (Thomas, D.R., 2006). For understanding purposes, we will use
170 “text” when referring to the text from the tweets and “images” to the pictures from Instagram. To report
171 the user characteristics, the gender information was extracted, when available, by accessing to the
172 public profile of the user.

173 For beer-food pairing extraction, each text was analyzed and extracted all the food associated with
174 beer, where foods are represented by the food names mentioned in the publications. In the case of the
175 images, we accessed the original image and extracted all foods, also related to beer, that could be seen
176 in the picture. The frequency of occurrence was calculated for all foods and a contingency table from
177 both texts and images was created. For a better understanding of this research, we will use the word
178 “food” to refer to both food names extracted from texts and to the foods extracted from analyzing
179 images.

180 Regarding beer context of consumption, all images and texts were analyzed and classified according
181 to consumption behavior themes and subthemes. The election of themes and subthemes were
182 performed by one researcher, and then agreed by two additional researchers, until a consensus was
183 achieved. To perform the classification of the texts and images, each publication was assigned to a
184 *subtheme* of each theme according to the content analysis, and a percentage of occurrence table was
185 created. Additional information from texts and images, such as hashtags, text descriptions, or image
186 titles, was also considered to perform the classification.

187 For both texts and images, whether the publication belonged to a negative, neutral, or positive
188 consumption experience was registered. This classification was performed according to the context of
189 the post and the words used in the publications, in which some feelings (or words related) such as
190 happiness, excitement or pleasant, were classified as “positive”. In the case of complaints, bad moods,
191 or sadness, the posts were classified as “negative”, and finally, “neutral” classification included all
192 feelings that could not fit in positive or negative (indifference, lack of sympathy). If the intention of
193 the post was not clearly identified, then it was classified as “neutral”.

194 Finally, beer information (type, color, brand, and beer style) was also extracted if it could be identified
195 in the text or seen in the image.

196 **2.3 Data analysis**

197 Gender was categorized in a contingency table for texts and images and each category was compared
198 through multiple z-proportions tests. To obtain the beer pairings, a frequency table of foods was built
199 for both texts and images, categorizing the food names that were mentioned in the case of texts, or seen
200 in an image. Percentage of occurrence of each food per platform (text and image) was calculated, and
201 food with less than 1% of occurrence was discarded to avoid low-frequency data. For each food
202 frequency table, a multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) was performed followed by an
203 agglomerative hierarchical clustering (AHC) with Ward algorithm on the first two factors of the MCA,
204 and where the clusters were defined by the abrupt change in the similarity level (Lebart, 2006). An RV
205 coefficient analysis was performed to the first two factors between both MCA to test differences within
206 the coordinates.

207 All information regarding beer context of consumption was arranged in a percentage of occurrence
208 table for themes and subthemes. Chi-square tests were applied to compare each theme within platforms,
209 and multiple z-proportion tests were performed to test specific differences within subthemes.

210 Consumption experience (positive, negative, or neutral) and beer information (type and color), were
211 categorized in a contingency table for both platforms and each category was compared through chi-
212 square test, followed by multiple z-proportions tests within subcategories. Finally, regarding beer
213 brands and styles, the percentages of occurrence were calculated.

214 All statistical analyses were performed with XLSTAT software version 2012.5.02 (Addinsoft, 2019).

215 **3. Results**

216 The results obtained from the information extracted from texts and images will be interpreted in two
217 parts: beer food pairing and context of consumption. The first one focuses on the differences in the
218 available information from images versus texts regarding food pairing with beer, while the second part
219 provides an overview of the consumption context that could be extracted.

220 From the user's characteristics, the gender was categorized in a contingency table. In this research, the
221 results of multiple z-proportions tests for gender (Table 1) showed no significant difference within

222 platforms; however, considering that between 17.5% and 20% of the gender for each platform was
223 unknown, a conclusion about gender behavior cannot be done.

224 **Table 1**

225 Chi-square and z-proportion test results for gender. Values shown are percentages.

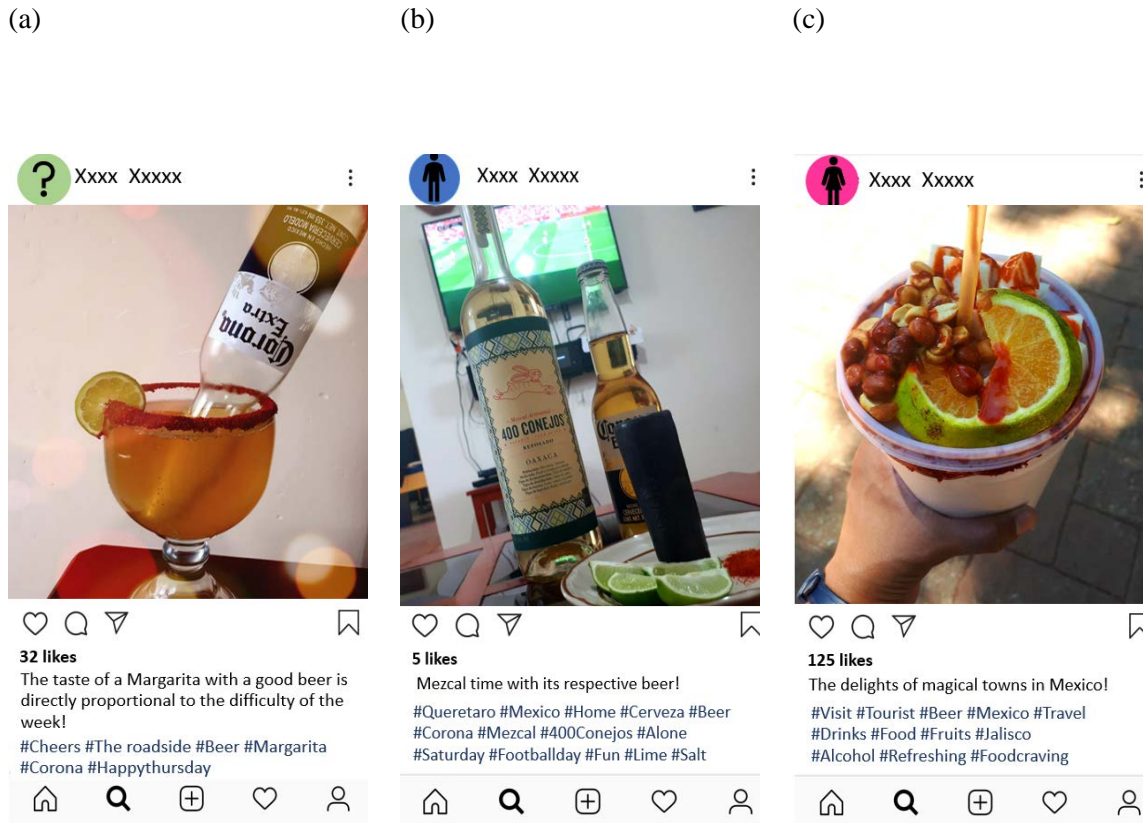
Category	Subcategory	Twitter	Instagram	P-value
Gender	Both gender	0	1	1.000
	Female	31.5	39	0.142
	Male	48.5	42.5	0.269
	Unknown	20	17.5	0.608

226 Bold numbers indicate the higher percentage of occurrence for the respective platform.

227 **3.1 Beer food pairing**

228 For beer-food pairings, the frequency of occurrence was calculated for each food identified from texts
229 and images. Some of the original translated texts are as follows, where the extracted food names and
230 the type of beer are in bold letters: “For a hangover, I recommend a **Corona beer** in a frosted glass
231 with ice, **salt, lime** and ready!”; “In summary: **coffee, whiskey, pizza, beer**, and a long series of
232 memories, but always with good company”.

233 In the case of images, all foods combined with beer that could be seen were extracted; for example,
234 from Figure 1a, chili and lime were extracted, in Figure 1b, lime, chili, and mezcal were extracted, and,
235 in Figure 1c, orange, peanut, jicama, and chili were extracted. Figure 1 includes the author’s pictures
236 recreation for illustrative purposes; the original images from the users are not shown due to privacy
237 issues.



238 Fig.1 Images created by the authors. Original publications are not shown to protect the privacy of consumers.
239 The images' comments are original; however, the identities of the consumers remain unknown.

240 The data retrieved from the content analysis of texts and images provided 85 foods that users paired
241 with beer. These foods were arranged in a frequency table of food per platform, and the percentage of
242 occurrence was calculated by using the number of total food mentions in each platform (for images:
243 1154, for texts 557). Finally, forty-nine foods with less than 1% of occurrence for both platforms were
244 discarded, and a new table was created for the remaining 36 foods (Table 2), representing the most
245 popular foods that consumers combined with beer. In general, images contained a higher number of
246 mentions, except for salty snacks, pizza, coffee, wine, and oats, which had higher frequencies of
247 occurrence for texts.

248 **Table 2**

249 Frequency of occurrence for foods per platform.

Food	Texts	Images
Chili	35	136
Salt	18	92
Lime	37	91

Spices	17	90
Cheese	39	64
Meat	28	60
Bread	26	49
Tortilla	18	48
Onion	7	41
Mezcal	6	33
Tequila	13	28
Potato	10	27
Tomato	0	24
Avocado	3	22
Peanut	5	18
Salty snacks	35	14
Shrimp	3	13
Cucumber	2	13
Pizza	21	8
Coffee	16	5
Wine	13	3
Oats	7	0
Clamato juice (tomato & clam)	11	19
Chicken	25	16
Orange	6	14
Chocolate	18	11
Burger & hot dog	6	11
Fish	10	11
Seafood	8	10
Pineapple	6	9
Maize	7	8
Butter	7	8
Sweet	7	7
Vodka	9	2
Rum	7	1
Whisky	6	1

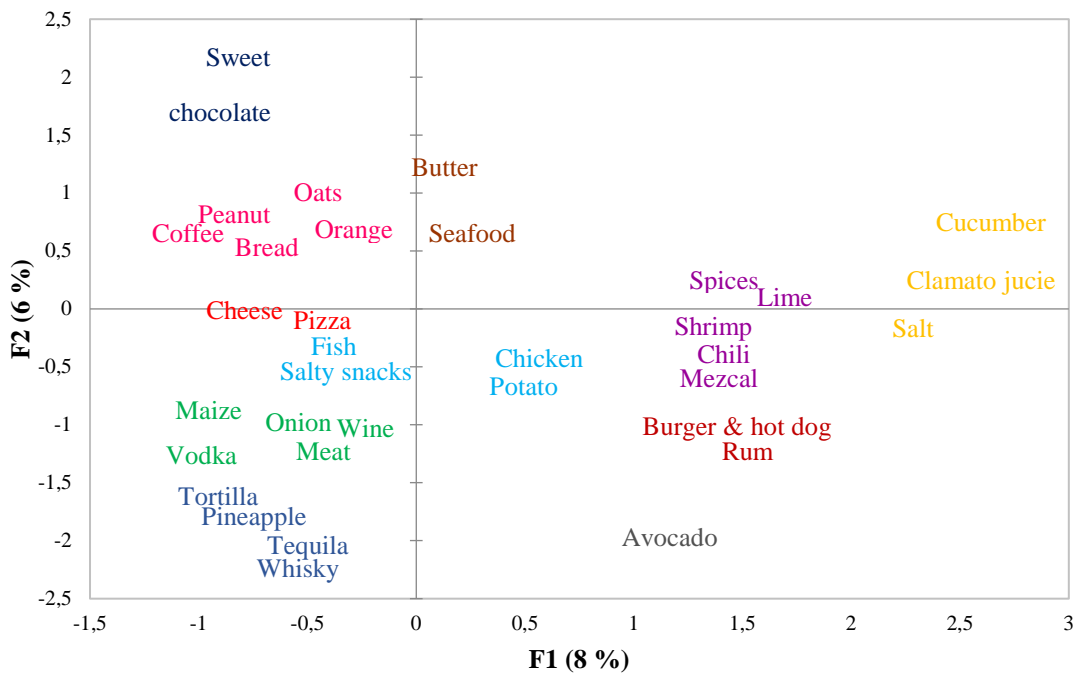
250 Bold numbers indicate the higher frequency of occurrence for the respective platform. (n texts= 200; n images
251 =200)

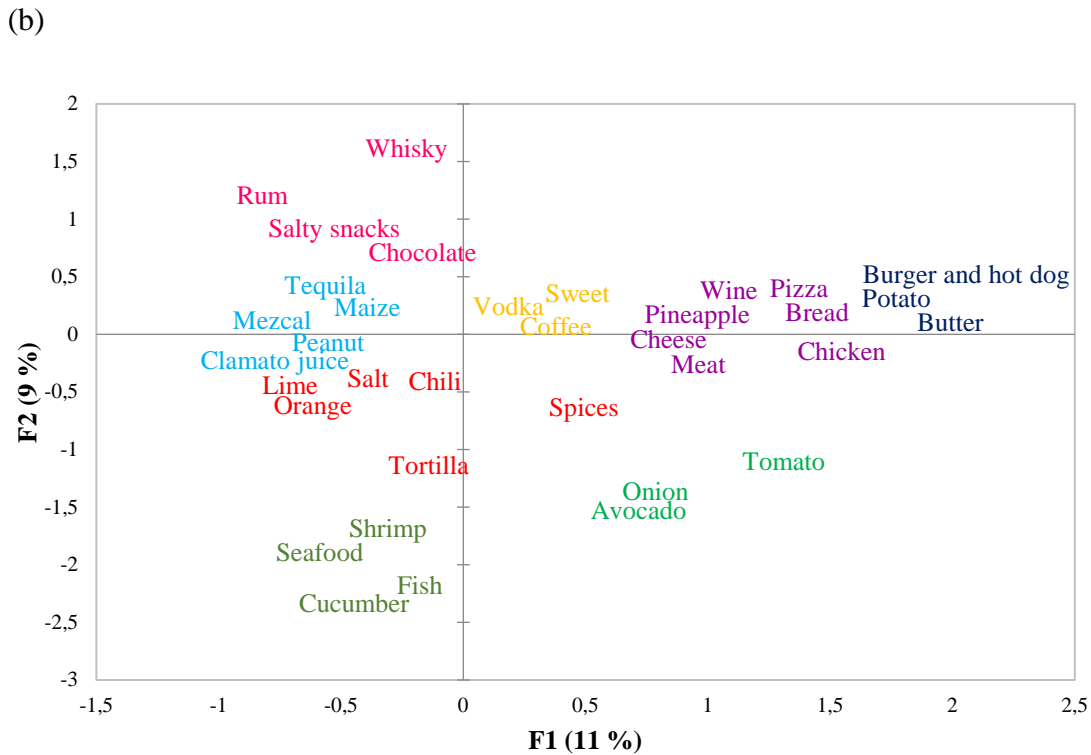
252 With the 36 foods with more than 1% of occurrence for each platform, a multiple correspondence
253 analysis (MCA) was performed to create beer-food pairings maps. The RV coefficient between the first
254 two factors of both MCA showed that the coordinates of the maps are not similar (RV=0.126; *p*-
255 *value*=0.067), and consequently, that the MCA structures are also different. Fig. 2 shows the food-
256 pairing maps, considering the first two factors of the MCA. The results of the hierarchical cluster
257 analysis (HCA) showed eleven clusters for texts and eight clusters for images, which illustrates the
258 beer-food pairing information retrieved from each platform.

259

260 Some patterns within the clusters from both food-pairing maps were identified: lime, chili, and spices
 261 were grouped in the same cluster on both platforms. Also, pizza and cheese were clustered together,
 262 and additionally for images, pineapple was also included in the same cluster. Regarding texts
 263 information, no other patterns could be found, but in the case of images, all seafood was clustered
 264 together (fish, shrimp, seafood), while in another cluster, all vegetables were grouped together, with
 265 the potato food exception, which was clustered along with butter, burger, and hot dogs. Additionally
 266 for images, wine, bread, and cheese were grouped in the same cluster; and finally, meat and chicken
 267 were also grouped together. In general, food pairings that combined well with beer could be extracted
 268 from the clusters of each food-pairing map.

(a)





269 Fig.2 Food pairing maps for (a) texts and (b) images. The hierarchical clustering of each MCA map is
 270 represented by similar colors, in which foods were clustered in 11 groups (a) and 8 groups (b).

271 **3.2 Context of consumption**

272 Regarding the beer context of consumption, several themes and subthemes were selected after the
 273 author’s consensus. The **themes** and *subthemes* were **consumption behavior** (subthemes: *consuming,*
 274 *craving, making plans, past consumption, and other/unknown*), **type of consumption** (subthemes:
 275 *individual, social, and unknown*), **way of beer consumption** (subthemes: *can, bottle, glass, and*
 276 *other/unknown*), **place of consumption** (subthemes: *restaurant/bar, home, other (beach/office), and*
 277 *unknown*) and **consumption occasion** (subthemes: *celebration, travel, frequent consumption, and*
 278 *other/unknown*).

279 Each image and text were categorized in one subtheme of each theme. For example, in Figure 1b, the
 280 user is consuming at the time of the post due to the title of the picture: “Mezcal time with its respective
 281 beer!”. Also, the user is drinking beer directly from the bottle in a place which seems to be home
 282 (#Home); the hashtags “#Saturday, #Footballday” may suggest that the user usually consumes these
 283 products on Saturdays while watching TV, and behind the beer, we could see the place of consumption
 284 (#home).

285 Regarding texts, the extraction of the information was performed in a similar process but extracting the
 286 written information that users posted. An example of the extracted text is as follows: “I will sit in the
 287 armchair at home, eating nachos with cheese, and drinking beer!”. In this case, the user is making plans,
 288 presumably for individual consumption (“I”) while staying at home. More information could not be
 289 identified.

290 Context of consumption data showed differences in chi-square tests for all themes, while z-proportion
 291 tests showed differences in almost all subthemes, except for home and other (theme: place of
 292 consumption) and celebration and frequent (theme: consumption occasion) (Table 3).

293 **Table 3**

294 Chi-square and z-proportion test results for context of consumption. Values show the percentage of occurrence
 295 of subthemes identified through content analysis for images and texts

Theme	Subtheme	Texts (%)	Images (%)	P-value
Consumption behavior ($\chi^2_{(4,400)} = 79.534, p < 0.0001$)	Consuming	25	67.5	<0.0001
	Craving	9	0	<0.0001
	Making plans	11	3.5	0.006
	Past consumption	20.5	11.5	0.016
	Other/unknown	34.5	17.5	0.0004
Type of consumption ($\chi^2_{(2,400)} = 27.143, p < 0.0001$)	Individual	56	40	0.002
	Social	21	46	<0.0001
	Unknown	23	14	0.028
Way of beer consumption ($\chi^2_{(3,412)} = 325.590, p < 0.0001$)	Can	0.5	5.7	0.0049
	Bottle	0.5	44.8	<0.0001
	Glass	10	48.1	<0.0001
	Other/unknown	89	1.4	<0.0001
Place of consumption ($\chi^2_{(3,400)} = 115.415, p < 0.0001$)	Restaurant/Bar	16	62.5	<0.0001
	Home	18	13.5	0.271
	Other (Sport games, Beach, Office)	4	8.5	0.097
	Unknown	62	15.5	<0.0001
Consumption occasion ($\chi^2_{(3,400)} = 32.998, p < 0.0001$)	Celebration	5.5	8.5	0.340
	Travel	3	20.5	<0.0001
	Frequent	39.5	34.5	0.365
	Other/unknown	52	36.5	0.002

296 Results of chi-square tests are shown for the respective theme. For z-proportions tests results, bold letters
 297 indicate the subthemes that were significantly different within platforms, while bold numbers indicate the higher
 298 percentage of occurrence for the respective platform. (n=200 for all themes for each platform, except for “way
 299 of beer consumption” theme for images, which n= 212 due to images showing more than one way of drinking
 300 beer).

301 Regarding the differences in beer consumption behavior theme, images showed more information
302 when people were consuming at the present time (consuming), while for texts, most of the consumption
303 behavior was unknown, while “craving”, “making plans”, and “past consumption” were found in lower
304 quantities. In the case of the type of consumption theme from images, information about social
305 consumption was obtained (e.g., “*Mezcal tastes better with a beer and good company*”), in which users
306 mostly share images of spending time with friends, partners, or family. For texts, only individual
307 consumption could be identified (e.g., “*My diet today: cake and coffee, cheese snack, beer, peanuts*
308 *and a cigar*”), as the posts were mainly referred to the user’s consumption.

309 For the way of beer consumption theme in images, it was able to identify if the users consume beer
310 from a can, bottle, or glass, while for texts, it was unable to identify the way of consumption in most
311 of the posts. Regarding the place of consumption for images users, most of them publish images while
312 consuming beer in restaurants/bars, while for texts, the place from which people are posting is
313 unknown. Regarding the consumption occasion theme, there was no significant difference for frequent
314 consumption within platforms; however, image users share more information when traveling.
315 Additionally, for text users, the highest percentage of occurrence for the consumption occasion was
316 unknown (e.g., “*My tacos with guacamole, beer, tequila and whisky*”; “*Chicken wings, onion rings and*
317 *beer, delicious!*”).

318 Experience (positive, negative, or neutral) and beer information (type and color) were categorized in a
319 contingency table, and each category was compared through a chi-square test (Table 4). Experience,
320 beer type, and beer color categories showed significant differences, and to test specific differences
321 within platforms, several z-proportions tests were performed for each subcategory. For the experience
322 category, significant differences were found in all subcategories where images users posted a higher
323 percentage of publications with a positive experience when compared to texts, and texts had higher
324 neutral and negative experiences than images; however, on both platforms, the percentages for positive
325 experiences were higher than the neutral or negative ones.

326 For beer type, significant differences were found for industrial and unknown types of beer, where
327 images users had the highest percentage of industrial beer consumption, while for texts, the highest
328 consumption of beer type is unknown. For beer color, significant differences were found for blond,
329 dark, two or more colors, and unknown color, in which images users obtained the highest percentage
330 of blond, dark, and two or more beer colors, while for texts, the highest percentage was for unknown
331 beer color.

332 **Table 4**

333 Chi-square and z-proportion test results for additional information. Values shown are percentages.

Category	Subcategory	Twitter (%)	Instagram (%)	P-value
Experience ($\chi^2_{(2,400)}=19.154, p<0.0001$)	Positive	72.5	89	<0.0001
	Neutral	18	9	0.012
	Negative	9.5	2	0.002
Beer type ($\chi^2_{(3,400)}=113.184, p<0.0001$)	Craft	9	14	0.157
	Industrial	12.5	58	<0.0001
	Both	0	1	0.477
Beer color ($\chi^2_{(5,400)}=179.597, p<0.0001$)	Unknown	78.5	27	<0.0001
	Amber	1.5	3	0.500
	Blond	11	53.5	<0.0001
	Dark	9.5	26	<0.0001
	Two or more	0.5	5	0.014
	Other	0	1	0.477
	Unknown	77.5	11.5	<0.0001

334 Results of chi-square tests are shown for the respective category. For z-proportions tests results, bold letters
 335 indicate the subcategories that were significantly different, while bold numbers indicate the higher percentage
 336 of occurrence for the respective platform.

337 Regarding beer brand and style, images provided, in general, more information than texts. In the case
 338 of beer brand, 43 brands were identified from images and only 18 from texts; however, the highest
 339 percentage of occurrence for both platforms was for an unknown brand (81% for texts versus 28% for
 340 images). In the case of beer style, 14 styles from images and only 11 from texts were identified. The
 341 highest percentage of occurrence on texts belonged to an unknown style (80%), and it was followed by
 342 Pilsner beer with 8.5% occurrence. For beer styles for images, only 31% occurrence belonged to an
 343 unknown style, while the highest percentage (44.5%) was identified as Pilsner beer. Table 5 shows the
 344 different brands and styles that were identified from both platforms.

345 **Table 5**

346 Beer brands and styles identified from texts and images. Values shown are percentages.

Beer brands				Beer styles			
Texts (%)		Images (%)		Texts (%)		Images (%)	
Bluemoon	0.5	Affligem	0.5	Bock	0.5	Altbier Imperial	0.5
Calavera	0.5	Allende	0.5	India Pale Ale	1.0	American Pale Ale	1.0
Corona	6.5	Allende	0.5	Lager	1.0	Belgian Dubbel	0.5
Dirty Bastard	0.5	Becerro	1.0	Multiple styles	0.5	English Brown	0.5
Guinness	1.0	Berber	0.5	Pilsner	8.5	Imperial Stout	0.5
Heineken	1.5	Bocanegra	0.5	Porter	1.5	India Pale Ale	0.5
Házmela Rusa	0.5	Bohemia	1.0	Scotch Ale	0.5	Kölsch	0.5

Indio	0.5	Bud Light	0.5	Stout	3.0	Lambic	1.0
Minerva	3.0	Budweiser	0.5	Tequila Ale	1.0	Multiple styles	4.5
Mocachela	0.5	Corona	22.5	Unknown style	80.0	Munich	2.5
Modelo	0.5	Cucapá	0.5	Vienna	2.0	Pilsner	44.5
Multiple brands	0.5	Foca Parlante	0.5	Witbier	0.5	Porter	0.5
Noche buena	0.5	Fortuna	0.5			Stout	4.0
Patito	0.5	Heineken	4.0			Unknown style	31.0
Sierra Nevada	0.5	Honey Pale Ale	0.5			Vienna	7.5
Unknown brand	81.0	Házmela Rusa	0.5				
Victoria	1.0	Indio	2.0				
XX	0.5	La Bestia	0.5				
		Lindemans	1.0				
		Mezcalito					
		Cococó	0.5				
		Michelob Ultra	1.5				
		Miller High Life	1.0				
		Minerva	2.0				
		Modelo	2.5				
		Modelo	0.5				
		Monolito	0.5				
		Multiple brands	5.5				
		Negra Modelo	2.0				
		Negra Modelo	0.5				
		Pacífico	2.0				
		Pulpo	0.5				
		Santta	0.5				
		Sol	1.0				
		Stella Artois	1.0				
		Tecate	2.0				
		Tecate	0.5				
		Tempus doble					
		malta	0.5				
		Unknown brand	28.0				
		Victoria	2.5				
		Vida Latina	0.5				
		Wasumara	0.5				
		XX	5.5				
		Young's Double	0.5				
		Chocolate					

347

 Bold letters and numbers indicate the highest percentage of occurrence of beer brand and style for each platform

348 **4. Discussion**

349 The discussion is divided into three sections. The first one focuses on beer-food pairing information,
350 while the second one focuses on the differences in the available information of the consumption context
351 from texts and images. Finally, a short discussion section comparing image and text is added to
352 highlight the importance of exploring both platforms as an information source of food-beverage
353 pairing.

354 In this research, gender was no significant different within platforms. According to wearesocial (2019),
355 the percentage of active women users for image platform (Instagram) is higher than active men users
356 (women: 55%; men: 45%), while for text platform (Twitter), the percentage of active women users is
357 lower than that of men (women: 35%; men: 65%). The results of multiple z-proportions tests showed
358 that there was no significant difference, suggesting that both women and men post about beer to the
359 same extent within platforms (and possibly also consume equally).

360 **4.1 Beer food pairing**

361 Table 2 showed the frequency of occurrence of foods that were combined with beer. The higher
362 frequency of occurrence of foods extracted from images could be due that the main objectives of the
363 platforms' usage are also different; while texts (Twitter) seem to be an opinion platform, images
364 (Instagram) is for sharing experiences (Twitter, 2019; Instagram, 2019), which could have a direct
365 impact on what kind of information people publish. Furthermore, the amount of registered information
366 could reflect the data extraction methodology, from which the graphical characters such as emoticons,
367 pictures, and videos were not considered for the analysis, in the scope of comparing the information
368 for beer-food pairing from only texts versus images.

369 Although images had more mentions for most of the foods, chili, salt, and lime were frequently
370 mentioned on both platforms combined with beer, and in accordance with our previous research, lime
371 and chili had more extracted mentions for Mexico (Arellano et al., 2019). These similar results reflect
372 how culture strongly influences beer-food pairing within the Mexican population. According to Lo
373 Monaco and Bonetto (2019), all food norms and practices are transmitted between individuals and
374 across generations over time, which could be the reason why some foods, such as chili, have been
375 popular among Mexican consumers across generations. According to Spence (2018), chili occurrence
376 has been widespread across many of the world's cuisines. Specifically for Mexico, Rozin (1990) and
377 Katz (2009) stated that chili is the main characteristic of Mexican cuisine, and as expected, it could be
378 reflected in their alcoholic beverage' consumption. In this sense, chili, salt, and lime foods could be
379 part of the Mexican gastronomic identity, which according to Harrington (2005a), is a concept that
380 arises because of environmental and cultural elements. A reflection of this behavior is the vast number
381 of both images and texts of users that consumed "Micheladas", which are defined (with some variants
382 according to specific regions in Mexico) as beer frosted with lime, salt, and chili, and which is widely
383 known and consumed among Mexican people.

384 The main findings regarding alcoholic beverages were that Mezcal and Tequila, which are
385 characteristics products of Mexico, were identified more frequently on images than texts. Wine was
386 more frequently identified on texts than images, despite the low sale of this beverage in Mexico (and
387 consequently a low consumption), where until 2013, the sales of wine were only 11.11% of total sales
388 of beer, in millions of liters (Euromonitor, 2014). However, even though wine is not a very popular
389 beverage among Mexican people, it has been reported a growth in their consumption in Mexico
390 (Euromonitor, 2014).

391 From both food and beverage maps, the clusters from texts were less informative than the clusters from
392 images. Within the patterns, pizza and cheese were joined in the same cluster on both platforms, and
393 additionally for images, pineapple was also included in the same cluster; in this line, Donadini et al.
394 (2008) mentioned that pizza is compatible with beer. For images, some foods were clustered by
395 categories, such as seafood and vegetables. Finally for images, wine, bread, and cheese were grouped
396 together, and despite wine and cheese are not commonly paired with beer, they are widely accepted to
397 consume together (Harrington & Hammond, 2005b; Harrington, 2008; Bastian et al., 2010; Harrington
398 et al., 2010). So, in general, the food and beverage maps from images provided the greatest amount of
399 information and a more meaningful interpretation regarding the combination of foods with beer.

400 **4.2 Context of consumption**

401 All information about the context of consumption and eating behavior was extracted from images and
402 texts. According to the results, and despite text users were classified as sharing individual
403 consumptions, some research has stated that Twitter users gratified the need to connect with other
404 people (Chen, 2011). On the other hand, images seem to match with social consumption, and according
405 to Thomé et al. (2017), this social interaction is perceived as a guide for beer consumption, that could
406 shape consumer behavior and actual purchase/brand choice. Therefore, social circumstances seem to
407 be highly relevant in how we consume our food or which food we decide to consume (Abbar et al.,
408 2015).

409 For the way of beer consumption theme in images, users share pictures of drinking beer in a glass or
410 directly from the bottle, while for texts, users do not specify the way of drinking, which could be due
411 to the limit of characters for text, in which users should communicate with shorter phrases. Regarding
412 the place of consumption, most of the images represented a consumption of beer in restaurants/bars, in
413 line with Lee et al. (2015), who stated that image platform (Instagram) users record their daily events
414 and traces (e.g., trips), creating a personal cyber documentary through fancy photos. In the case of the

415 consumption occasion theme, there was no significant difference for celebration and frequent
416 consumption within platforms, which agrees with Java et al. (2007), who found that daily routine posts
417 are among the most common uses of Twitter.

418 In the case of beer information for texts, it was challenging to identify all information about type and
419 color, while for images, in almost all posts, the information could be categorized with industrial and
420 blond and dark beer having higher percentages of occurrences. In general, we could infer that
421 consumers that posted images are (mostly) industrial beer consumers who like blond and dark beers.
422 However, given that texts do not give more information to clarify which products the users consume,
423 we cannot discuss it in greater depth.

424 Regarding beer brand and style, images provided an advantage over texts. It is a fact that not in all
425 images the users described the type of beer that they were drinking, but if the beer brand could be
426 identified in the image, the additional information was investigated in the official websites of the
427 products. In contrast, if some beer information was not given for texts, then all information remained
428 unknown. In general, more beer brands and styles were identified from images than texts; Corona beer
429 was the second brand with a higher percentage of occurrence for both text and image platforms.
430 Gómez-Corona et al. (2016), in their research on habits of beer consumption in Mexico, reported
431 Corona beer as the most frequently consumed beer brand; this popularity of Corona beer on social
432 media could be attributable to the fact that it is a leading brand of alcoholic beverage in the national
433 market (Grupo Modelo, 2019).

434

435 **4.3 Comparing text and image platform**

436 To better understand the amount and type of information extracted from image versus text platforms,
437 we must explore the usage of the original platforms. In the case of text, Twitter has been categorized
438 as a microblogging site, which fulfills a need for a faster mode of communication that lowers the user's
439 requirement of time (Java et al., 2007). On the other hand, Instagram is a photo-sharing mobile
440 application that allows users to take pictures and share them on the platform. The usage of photographs
441 highlights the importance of visual self-presentation of the users (Marwick, 2015).

442 Some differences between the platforms rely on the users' intentions/motives. In the case of Twitter,
443 Java et al. (2007) found that the main user intentions are: daily chatter, conversations, sharing
444 information, and reporting news. Twitter users usually share short messages, links, videos, and some
445 hashtags in their tweets; however, words and images are the main tools to share information, activities,

446 and experiences (García-León, 2019). So, in general, sharing information and social interaction are the
447 main intentions of using Twitter.

448 In the case of Instagram (image platform), Sheldon and Bryant (2016) found four motives for using the
449 platform: surveillance/knowledge about others, documentation, coolness, and creativity. Also, in 2015,
450 Lee et al. found that Instagram users have five primary social and psychological motives: social
451 interaction, archiving, self-expression, escapism, and peeking (Lee et al., 2015), while Baker and
452 Walsh (2018) concluded that Instagram has become popular for self-presentation and public display.
453 According to the previous research, social interaction, identity construction, and self-promotion are
454 strong factors for using Instagram.

455 Although social interaction motive is similar for using Twitter and Instagram, the differences (sharing
456 information for Twitter, and identity construction and self-promotion for Instagram) could explain that
457 with images we accessed to a higher amount of information than texts regarding beer-food pairing and
458 context of consumption, since pictures could reflect consumers lifestyles where capturing and sharing
459 pictures plays a core role.

460 Photography in consumer behavior could be an important source of information for gastronomy field,
461 from which researchers could access to users' daily activities and their food culture, such as Instagram
462 users utilize pictures of all sorts of things to present their personalities, lifestyles, and tastes. (Lee et
463 al., 2015). Analogously, the higher amount of available food images from social media is a
464 consequence of the taking pictures behavior, which has been widely spread among consumers, and it
465 is reflected by the user's obsession to take pictures before eating foods and meals. This behavior could
466 allow researchers to explore the context of consumption of the users and their preferred food and
467 beverage pairings by avoiding laboratory settings.

468 In general, this research could have significant implications for food and beverage researchers,
469 sommeliers, and chefs who try to understand food pairing, as this is the base of food product
470 development (Galmarini, 2020). In this study, although certain food and meal combinations may have
471 been identified due to tradition or culturally influenced, some food-food or food-beverage
472 combinations could be used to improve or develop new successful pairings.

473 In this research, images and texts were useful to explore food-food and food-beverage combinations.
474 Social media analysis revealed that text users shared concise and specific information but were also
475 less informative, while image information resulted more complete regarding a specific topic, such as

476 beer-food pairing. Our results propose that images could be a good source of information when
477 researchers investigate the gastronomic context of consumption. In general, any social media platform
478 which involves images could act as a good source of information when studying food and meal pairing,
479 as this research suggests that for consumers is easier to share experiences through photographs than
480 using texts in social media.

481 **5. Conclusions**

482 This study has great potential for informing food researchers about the importance of social media as
483 a tool for understanding food and meal pairing and consumer behavior, particularly regarding the
484 context of consumption in the gastronomic field. In general, images resulted in a more informative
485 source than text; also, texts mainly shared individual consumptions, while images shared more social
486 moments. However, more research should be done to improve the efficiency of the data analysis, to
487 facilitate and shorten the time invested in analyzing image by image. Integrating other disciplines
488 specialized in images, such as arts, design, and semiotics, could improve the way we use images for
489 consumer research. Additionally, the use and analysis of images bring a new range of possibilities to
490 better understand not only food pairing but food choice and consumption.

491 Some limitations of this research are that images from the Twitter platform were not analyzed, only
492 those from Instagram, to separate Twitter as a text (primary) based platform vs. Instagram as an image
493 (primary) based platform. Special attention must be taken in the content analysis when exploring
494 consumption behavior due that the displayed food and meals could not be frequently consumed by the
495 users but only on special occasions.

496 **Acknowledgments**

497 Authors wish to thank CONACYT-MEXICO for the scholarship (2017-2020 period) granted to Araceli
498 Arellano Covarrubias for her PhD at the Biotechnology Postgraduate Program at the Universidad
499 Autónoma Metropolitana (520074/574751).

500 The author P. Varela would like to thank funding to the Norwegian Fund for Research Fees for
501 Agricultural Products (FFL) through the project “FoodForFuture” (project number 314318).

502 Funding: This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public,
503 commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

504 **Author contributions**

505 **Carlos Gómez-Corona:** Conceptualisation, Supervision, and Writing-Reviewing and Editing.
506 **Héctor, B. Escalona-Buendía:** Conceptualisation, Supervision, and Writing-Reviewing and Editing.
507 **Paula Varela:** Conceptualisation, Supervision, and Writing-Reviewing and Editing.
508 **Araceli Arellano-Covarrubias:** Methodology, Formal Analysis, Investigation, and Writing-Original
509 draft preparation

510 **References**

511 Abbar, S., Mejova, Y. & Weber, I. (2015). You tweet what you eat: Studying food consumption
512 through Twitter. *Proceedings of the 33rd Annual ACM Conference on Human Factors in Computing*
513 *Systems*.

514 Addinsoft (2019). XLSTAT statistical and data analysis solution. Long Island, NY,
515 USA. <https://www.xlstat.com.q>

516 Ahn, Y.-Y., Ahnert, S. E., Bagrow, J. P., & Barabási, A.-L. (2011). Flavor network and the principles
517 of food pairing. *Scientific Reports*, 1, 196. <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep00196>.

518 Alexa (2021). <https://www.alexa.com> Accessed 12 May 2021.

519 Arellano-Covarrubias, A., Gómez-Corona, C., Varela, P., & Escalona-Buendía, H.B. (2019).
520 Connecting flavors in social media: A cross cultural study with beer pairing. *Food Research*
521 *International*, 115, 303-310. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2018.12.004>.

522 Baker, S.A. & Walsh, M.J. (2018). “Good Morning Fitfam”: Top posts, hashtags, and gender display
523 on Instagram. *New Media and Society*, 20, 4553-4570. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1461444818777514>.

524 Bastian, S. E. P., Collins, C., & Jhonson, T. E. (2010). Understanding consumer preferences for Shiraz
525 wine and Cheddar cheese pairings. *Food Quality and Preference*, 21, 668-678.
526 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2010.02.002>.

527 Casaló, L. V., Flavián, C., Ibáñez-Sánchez, S. (2018). Influencers on Instagram: Antecedents and
528 consequences of opinion leadership. *Journal of Business Research*, 117, 510-519.
529 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2018.07.005>

530 Cerretani, L., Biasini, G., Bonoli-Carbognin, M. & Bendini, A. (2007). Harmony of virgin oil and food
531 pairing: A methodological proposal. *Journal of Sensory Studies*, 22, 403-416.
532 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-459X.2007.00115.x>.

533 Chen, G.M. (2011). Tweet this: A uses and gratifications perspective on how active Twitter use
534 gratifies a need to connect with others. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 27, 755-762.
535 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2010.10.023>.

536 Chen, X., & Xining, Y. (2014). Does food environment influence food choices? A geographical
537 analysis through “tweets”. *Applied geography*, 51, 82-89.
538 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeog.2014.04.003>.

539 Donadini, G., Fumi, M. D. & Lambri, M. (2012). The hedonic response to chocolate and beverage
540 pairing: A preliminary study. *Food Research International*, 48, 703-711.
541 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2012.06.009>.

542 Donadini, G., Fumi, M. D. & Lambri, M. (2013). A preliminary study investigating consumer
543 preference for cheese and beer pairings. *Food Quality and Preference*, 30, 217-228.
544 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2013.05.012>

545 Donadini, G., Spigno, G., Fumi, M. D., Pastori, R. (2008). Evaluation of ideal everyday Italian food
546 and beer pairings with regular consumers and food and beverages experts. *Journal of Institute of*
547 *Brewing*, 114(4), 329-342. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2050-0416.2008.tb00777.x>.

548 Eschevins, A., Giboreau, A., Julien, P., Dacremont, C. (2019). From expert knowledge and sensory
549 science to a general model of food and beverage pairing with wine and beer. *International Journal of*
550 *Gastronomy and Food Science*, 17, 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijgfs.2019.100144>.

551 Euromonitor International (2014). Alcoholic drinks in Mexico. Retrieved from: *Euromonitor Passport*
552 *database*. London Euromonitor International.

553 Galiñanes, A., Delarue, J., Saulais, L. (2019). The pursuit of ecological validity through contextual
554 methodologies. *Food Quality and Preference*, 73, 226-247.
555 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2018.11.004>

556 Galmarini, M. V. (2020). The role of sensory science in the evaluation of food pairing. *Current opinion*
557 *in Food Science*, 33, 149-155. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cofs.2020.05.003>.

558 García-León, R.A. (2019). Twitter and Food well-being: Analysis of #SlowFood postings reflecting
559 the food well-being of consumers. *Global Media Journal*, 16, 91-112.
560 <https://doi.org/10.29105/gmjmx16.30-5>.

561 Gnamb, T. & Kaspar, K. (2015). Disclosure of sensitive behaviors across self-administered survey
562 modes: a meta-analysis. *Behavior Research Methods*, 47,4, 1237-1259.
563 <https://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-014-0533-4>.

564 Gómez-Corona, C., Escalona-Buendía, H. B., García, M., Chollet, S., & Valentin, D. (2016). Craft vs.
565 industrial: Habits, attitudes and motivations towards beer consumption in Mexico. *Appetite*, 96, 358-
566 367. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2015.10.002>

567 Grupo Modelo, (2019). Available at: <https://www.gmodelo.mx/es/marcas/corona-extra> Accessed 08
568 April 2019

569 Harrington, R. J. (2005a). Defining gastronomic identity. *Journal of Culinary Science & Technology*,
570 4, 2-3. https://doi.org/10.1300/J385v04n02_10.

571 Harrington, R. J. & Hammond, R. (2005b). The direct effects of wine and cheese characteristics on
572 perceived match. *Journal of Food Service Business Research*, 8,4, 37-54.
573 https://doi.org/10.1300/J369v08n04_04.

574 Harrington, R. J. (2008). *Food and wine pairing: A sensory experience*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley &
575 Sons, Inc.

576 Harrington, R. J., McCarthy, M. & Gozzi, M. (2010). Perceived match of wine and cheese and the
577 impact of additional food elements: A preliminary study. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*,
578 13,4, 311-330. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15378020.2010.524541>.

579 Harrington, R.J. & Seo, H-S (2015). The impact of liking of wine and food items on perceptions of
580 wine-food pairing. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 18,5, 489-501.
581 <https://doi.org/10.1080/15378020.2015.1093455>.

582 Hennig- Thurau, Wiertz, and Feldhaus (2015). Does Twitter matter? The impact of microblogging
583 word of mouth on consumer's adoption of new movies. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*,
584 43, 375-394. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-014-0388-3>

585 Hough, G., Wakeling, I., Mucci, A., Chambers IV, E., Méndez-Gallardo, I., Rangel-Alves, L., (2006).
586 Number of consumers necessary for sensory acceptability tests. *Food Quality and Preference*, 17 (6),
587 522-526. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2005.07.002>.

588 Hu, Y., Manikonda, L., & Kambhampati, S. (2014). What we Instagram: A first analysis of Instagram
589 photo content and user types. In *Proceedings of the 8th International Conference on Weblogs and Social
590 Media ICWSM 2014*. The AAAI Press.

591 Instagram (2019). *Help*. Available at: <https://help.instagram.com/1215086795543252> Accessed 13
592 May 2021.

593 Instagram-press (2019). Available at: <https://Instagram-press.com/our-story>. Accessed 06 April 2019.

594 Java, A., Song, X., Finin, T., & Tseng, B. (2007). Why we Twitter: Understanding microblogging
595 usage and communities. *Proceedings of the 9 WebKDD and 1st SNA-KDD 2007 workshop on Web
596 mining and social network analysis*.

597 Katz, E. (2009). Chili Pepper, from Mexico to Europe: Food, Imaginary and Cultural Identity. In
598 Medina, F.X., Avila, R., De Garine I. (Eds.). *Food, imaginaries and cultural frontiers: essays in honour
599 of Helen Macbeth*. (pp. 213-232).

600 King, M. & Cliff, M. (2005). Evaluation of ideal wine and cheese pairs using a deviation-from-ideal
601 scale with food and wine experts. *Journal of Food Quality*, 28, 3, 245-256.
602 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-4557.2005.00033.x>.

603 Klepper, M. (2011). Food pairing theory: A European fad. *Gastronomica*, 11(4), 55–58.
604 <https://doi.org/10.1525/gfc.2012.11.4.55>

605 Lebart, L., Piron, M., & Morineau, A. (2006). *Statistique exploratoire multidimensionnelle*.
606 *Visualisation et inférence en fouille de données*. Paris: Dunod.

607 Lee, E., Lee, J-A., Moon, JH., Sung, Y. (2015). Pictures speak louder than words: Motivations for
608 using Instagram. *Cyberpsychology, behavior, and social networking*, 18,9, 552-556.
609 <https://doi.org/10.1089/cyber.2015.0157>.

610 LO Monaco, G. & Bonetto, E. (2019). Social representation and culture in food studies. *Food Research
611 International*, 115, 474-479. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2018.10.029>.

612 Mangold, W. G. & Fauld, D.J., (2009). Social media: The new hybrid element of the promotion mix.
613 *Business Horizons*, 52, 357-365. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2009.03.002>.

614 Martínez, D. C., Hammond, R.K., Harrington, R.J. & Wiersma-Mosley, J. D. (2017). Young adult's
615 and industry expert's subjective and objective knowledge of beer and food pairings. *Journal of*
616 *Culinary Science & Technology*, 15,4, 285-305. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15428052.2016.1256243>.

617 Marwick, A. (2015). Instafame: Luxury selfies in the attention economy. *Public Culture*, 27, 137-160.
618 <https://doi.org/10.1215/08992363-2798379>.

619 Meiselman, H. L. (2006). The role of context in food choice, food acceptance and food consumption.
620 In R. Shepard & M. Raats. (Eds.) *The Psychology of Food Choice*. (pp. 179-199). London.

621 Meiselman, H. L. (2013). The future in sensory/consumer research: ... evolving to a better science.
622 *Food Quality and Preference*, 27, 208-214. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2012.03.002>.

623 Paulsen, M. T., Rognsa, G. H., & Hersleth, M. (2015). Consumer perception of food-beverage pairings:
624 The influence of unity in variety and balance. *International Journal of Food and Gastronomy Science*,
625 2, 83-92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijgfs.2014.12.003>.

626 Platania, M., & Spadoni, R. (2018). How people share information about food: Insights from tweets
627 regarding two Italian regions. *International Journal on Food System Dynamics*, 9(2), 149-165.
628 <https://doi.org/10.22004/ag.econ.277712>.

629 Powers, T., Advincula, D., Austin, M. S., Graiko, S. & Snyder, J. (2012). Digital and social media in
630 the purchase decision Process. A special report from the Advertising Research Foundation. *Journal of*
631 *Advertising Research*, 52 (4), 479-489. <https://doi.org/10.2501/JAR-52-4-479-489>.

632 Rozin, P. (1990). Getting to like the burn of chili pepper: Biological, psychological, and cultural
633 perspectives. In Green, B. G., Mason, J. R., Kare, M. R. (Eds.). *Chemical senses. Volume 2: Irritation*.
634 (pp. 231-269).

635 Scander, H., Monteagudo, C., Nilsen, B., Tellström, R., & Yngve, A. (2018). Food and beverage dinner
636 combinations, patterns among Swedish adults. *International Journal of Gastronomy and Food Science*,
637 14, 20-26. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijgfs.2018.08.003>.

638 Sester, C., Deroy, O., Sutan, A., Galia, F., Desmarchelier, J-F., Valentin, D. & Dacremont, C. (2013).
639 “Having a drink in a bar”: An immersive approach to explore the effects of context on drink choice.
640 *Food Quality and Preference*, 28, 23-31. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2012.07.006>.

641 Sheldon, P. & Bryant, K. (2016). Instagram: Motives for its use and relationship to narcissism and
642 contextual age. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 58, 89-97. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2015.12.059>.

643 Spence, C. (2018). Why is piquant/spicy food so popular? *International Journal of Gastronomy and*
644 *Food Science*, 12, 16-21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijgfs.2018.04.002>.

645 Synthesio® social media listening platform. (2018) <https://www.synthesio.com/> Accessed 18 July
646 2017.

647 Thomas, D.R. (2006). A general inductive approach for analyzing qualitative evaluation data.
648 *American Journal of Evaluation*, 27 (2), 237-246. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1098214005283748>.

649 Thomé, K., Pirangy, A. & Ventura, J. (2017). Social interaction and beer consumption. *Journal of Food*
650 *products Marketing*, 23 (2), 186-208. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10454446.2017.1244797>.

651 Traynor, M. P., Burke, R., O’Sullivan, M. G., Hannon, J. A. & Barry-Ryan, C. (2013). Sensory and
652 chemical interactions of food pairings (basmati rice, bacon and extra virgin olive oil) with banana.
653 *Food Research International*, 54, 569-577. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2013.07.050>.

654 Twitter (2021). *About*. Available at: <https://about.twitter.com> Accessed 13 May 2021.

655 Varshney, K.R., Varshney, L., Wang, J., & Myers, D. (2013). Flavor pairing in Medieval European
656 cuisine: A study in cooking with dirty data. arXiv:1307.7982.

657 Vidal, L., Ares, G., Machín, L., & Jaeger, S. R. (2015). Using Twitter data for food-related consumer
658 research: A case study on “what people say when tweeting about different eating situations. *Food*
659 *Quality and Preference*, 45, 58-69. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2015.05.006>.

660 Wearesocial, (2019). Available at: <https://wearesocial.com/global-digital-report-2019> Accessed 06
661 April 2019.

662 Zhou, X. & Chen, L (2014). Event detection over Twitter social media streams. *The VLDB Journal*,
663 23,3, 381-400. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00778-013-0320-3>.