

1 **Consumer’s categorization of food ingredients: Do consumers perceive**  
2 **them as ‘clean label’ producers expect? An exploration with projective**  
3 **mapping**

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8

9 **Abstract**

10 Consumers are said to increasingly assess processed food in terms of whether or not they  
11 perceive it to be ‘clean label’ food. This term refers to what is seen as little processed and  
12 ‘natural’ or ‘free from’ negatively associated ingredients, or even organic food. However, it is  
13 difficult for food producers to predict how their product ingredients will be perceived, and  
14 how they should position new products. The present study aimed at exploring how consumers  
15 perceive and categorize food ingredients, and testing this under different communication  
16 frames. These frames are positioning the product in relation to different consumer choice  
17 motives. Potato protein as a replacement for negatively associated ingredients was used a  
18 case study. Ninety consumers participated in a projective mapping task in Denmark that  
19 consisted of placing and characterising ingredients on a bi-dimensional surface. In a between-  
20 subjects design, three groups of consumers had to map the ingredients of four products  
21 (dairy-free ice cream, vegetarian candy, plant-based sausage, and a protein drink). In each  
22 group products were presented as either sustainable, healthy, or plant-based. The results  
23 showed that consumers categorized ingredients in terms of firstly and secondly, objective  
24 type of ingredient or its function, and thirdly, subjective individual assessment of its value.  
25 Communicational framing had little impact, but ingredient-level differences emerged from  
26 the comparison of the frames. Despite product-related differences, a similar pattern emerged  
27 for the different food categories. Findings confirm that consumers perceive ingredients  
28 according to a ‘known-natural-good’ vs. the opposite category. Implications for food industry  
29 are discussed.

30 **Keywords**

31 Projective mapping, potato protein, clean label, consumer perception, framing

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51

52 **1. Introduction**

53 Consumers are increasingly interested in both health and sustainability aspects of their way of  
54 living in general (Euromonitor International, 2017; Aschemann-Witzel, 2015; Verain,  
55 Sijtsema, & Antonides, 2016) and their diet in specific. They demand foods which are more  
56 natural (Hemmerling, Asioli, & Spiller, 2016; Román, Sánchez-Siles, & Siegrist, 2017) and  
57 organic (Janssen, 2018), are less processed and ‘free from’ ingredients which are perceived  
58 negatively in various ways, such as, for example, allergen-related ingredients or additives  
59 (Ingredion, 2014). Conceptually, these are different trends on the food market, driven by  
60 different motives, as, for instance, health, sustainability, or risk avoidance (Grunert, 2013),  
61 but it is expressed in the phenomenon of a trend to consume more plant-based food products.  
62 Food producers are increasingly striving to meet these trends by offering ‘clean label’ foods  
63 (Ingredion, 2014). Such clean label foods are based on the assumption that consumers  
64 classify ingredients according to whether they appear natural and known, or processed and  
65 un-natural, and that they favourably perceive the first and avoid the latter.

66 Many clean label products are reformulated products with rephrased ingredient descriptions,  
67 or new product developments. With many relaunched or new food products failing on the  
68 market (Stewart-Knox & Mitchell, 2003), it is particularly important to address potential  
69 consumer concerns early on (van Kleef, van Trijp, & Luning, 2005). This can be achieved by  
70 studying consumer behaviour using diverse and combined methods (Asioli et al., 2017), or  
71 involving consumers in consumer-led new product involvement (Costa & Jongen, 2006) and  
72 co-creation (Banović, Krystallis, Guerrero, & Reinders, 2016).

73 To identify success factors of the clean label trend, it is important to understand consumers’  
74 perception of individual ingredients in the context that they are presented in. That is, to have  
75 an in-depth understanding of firstly, how consumers categorize ingredients as such or in the  
76 context of the product category in question, and secondly, and to have an understanding of  
77 which is the best positioning of the food product in relation to one of the market trends and  
78 consumer benefits communicated. However, there is limited research on consumer

79 categorisation of food ingredients, even though food producers have assumptions about how  
80 consumers go about interpreting the ingredient lists. In particular, little is known about how  
81 categorisation of clean label food ingredients might be affected by the benefit communication  
82 of the product concept. Given the diversity of ingredients, food categories, trends and  
83 motives, a more in-depth understanding of consumers' categorisation behaviour and  
84 ingredient perception is needed to prepare the market entry of new ingredients or the launch  
85 of new clean label foods.

86 On this backdrop, the aim of the current research was to explore the following research  
87 questions, using plant-based products with potato protein as a new substitute ingredient as a  
88 case and a projective mapping approach:

- 89 1. How do consumers perceive and categorize ingredients of products from the 'clean  
90 label' trend?
  - 91 a. Which ingredients are categorized together or apart, indicating perceived  
92 similarity or difference?
  - 93 b. Which descriptors are applied to ingredient groups, indicating underlying  
94 distinctions that consumers use and the perception of the ingredient?
  - 95 c. Are descriptors positively or negatively perceived?
- 96 2. Which differences in categorisation and perception are observed when the product is  
97 presented with different communicational framing as either a) more sustainable, b)  
98 healthier, or c) with a focus on the specific plant source?

99

## 100 **1.1 Clean label consumer trend**

101 There is no commonly accepted definition of a 'clean label' product (Asioli et al., 2017), but  
102 clean label products are typically understood as products which consumers prefer due to the  
103 absence of negatively perceived ingredients in the ingredient list. These can be allergenic  
104 ingredients, additives, industrially processed ingredients, or those perceived as unfamiliar and  
105 chemical-sounding. Instead, clean label products are characterised by the presence of  
106 ingredients perceived as natural, harmless and simple and which consumers know and use  
107 themselves ('kitchen cupboard ingredients') (Busken, 2013; Ingredion, 2014; Varela &  
108 Fiszman, 2013). In its strict sense, 'clean label' products can be understood as foods  
109 exhibiting an ingredient list which is characterised by being "short, simple, no artificial  
110 ingredients, not 'chemical-sounding', with 'kitchen cupboard ingredients' that are expected

111 and familiar” (Asioli et al., 2017, p. 61). Some market research companies use a broader  
112 definition and position organic, natural and ‘free from’ jointly under the umbrella term of  
113 ‘clean label’ (Ingredion 2014).

114 The basic driver of the trend is consumers’ increasing desire to avoid certain ingredients and  
115 seek ‘naturalness’ (Euromonitor International, 2016). This trend also triggers consumers to  
116 turn to products such as certified organic food (Janssen, 2018) and food positioned as natural  
117 (Burdock & Wang, 2017). In fact, it has been found that organic food choice appears to be  
118 driven by modern health concerns (Devcich, Pedersen, & Petrie, 2007), negative associations  
119 with chemicals (Dickson-Spillmann, Siegrist, & Keller, 2011) as well as scepticism about  
120 functional food developments (Aschemann-Witzel, Maroscheck, & Hamm, 2013) and  
121 unknown ingredients (Evans, Challemaison, & Cox, 2010). Naturalness in food is sought  
122 because of associations of more traditional and ‘authentic’ processing, leading to assumptions  
123 about favourable health effects (Amos, Pentina, Hawkins, & Davis, 2014). Consequently,  
124 food producers respond by altering their ingredient lists in order to move closer to the idea of  
125 ‘clean label’ foods.

126

## 127 **1.2 Communicational framing**

128 Consumer interest in understanding ingredients and preferring certain ingredients over others  
129 may have a number of underlying drivers. These may include healthy eating motivations,  
130 concern for the environment or sustainability impact of supply chain practices, preference for  
131 local food, or avoidance of risks (Sautron et al., 2015). Food choice motives are related to the  
132 various dimensions of food quality (Grunert, 2005; Oude Ophuis & van Trijp, 1995). Which  
133 one of the aspects is most salient when a consumer inspects a product’s ingredient list thus  
134 also depends on the accompanying information: While perceiving the product and arriving at  
135 an assessment, both internal and external information is retrieved and used. In line with  
136 framing theory (Scheufele, 2004), the context in which information – in this case the  
137 ingredient list – is embedded in, is crucially relevant. The context leads to the activation of  
138 respectively related previous knowledge or ‘schema’ in the consumer’s mind (Nordfalt,  
139 2010). When the context differs, the assessment and evaluation also differ. In the case of the  
140 same ingredient presented on differently positioned food products, this might lead to a  
141 different understanding of the ingredient’s role in the product, and consequently a potentially  
142 different categorisation of the ingredient or association or attitude towards the ingredient. For

143 example, in accordance with the reasoning of framing theory, naturalness claims on foods  
144 have been found to be more favourably received when presented at points of purchase which  
145 are in line with ‘naturalness’, e.g. in a farmer’s market (Lunardo & Saintives, 2013). Health  
146 claims have been found to be preferred more when embedded in information that underlines  
147 the product’s naturalness (Aschemann-Witzel & Grunert, 2015). Our study applies framing in  
148 terms of different product concepts, communicating the product as either more sustainable,  
149 healthier or with a focus on the new substitute ingredient, potato protein.

150

### 151 **1.3 Consumer perception and categorisation of ingredients**

152 Given ‘clean label’ is among other things defined by ‘free from’, consumer perception of  
153 ingredients regarded as ‘added’ are of particular interest, and this holds for the ingredient  
154 category of additives. Moreover, the perception of protein ingredients is of particular interest  
155 in this study due to the focus on plant-based products with a new alternative protein.

156 Additives are defined as substances added to the food for functional-technological or sensory  
157 purposes, and they can be of either natural or synthetic origin (Bearth, Cousin, & Siegrist,  
158 2014). Food additives, or any ingredient interpreted and perceived as such, tend to be found  
159 as an ingredient consumers strive to avoid (Aoki et al., 2010). Such a consumer focus on  
160 avoidance reaction has also been called a ‘negativity bias’ (Rozin & Royzman, 2001) in  
161 consumer behaviour. Expert assessments and consumer perception have been found to differ,  
162 given that experts assess the increased food safety due to the use of additives, while consumer  
163 attitude is also influenced by their personal values and affective evaluation (Hansen, Holm,  
164 Frewer, Robinson, & Sandøe, 2003). Additives can be categorised according to either their  
165 application (e.g. preservation, colour, taste) or their origin (natural or synthetic) (Bearth et al.,  
166 2014).

167 An important influencing factor on the perception of ingredients overall and of synthetic food  
168 additives in particular is the perception of risk (Bearth et al., 2014), and further, the  
169 experience of food scandals related to such additives (Chen, 2017). Consequently, also the  
170 trust in processors has shown to be relevant (Szucs et al., 2014). The role of trust is not  
171 surprising given that consumers neither have sufficient knowledge about the ingredients nor  
172 would they notice whether they are correctly displayed (Cheung et al., 2016). Song and  
173 Swartz (2009) found that consumers perceived additives as more harmful when the additives  
174 had names that were difficult to pronounce, which means that there is a lack of familiarity:

175 this creates a greater risk perception. In line with the general tendency of consumers to prefer  
176 ‘naturalness’ (Román et al., 2017), a research review has shown that consumers prefer natural  
177 food additives as compared to synthetic additives (Carocho, Morales, & Ferreira, 2015). The  
178 avoidance of artificial ingredients can be understood on the background of the fact that  
179 consumers are found to be sceptical towards new technologies in food processing overall  
180 (Hung, Kok, & Verbeke, 2016). In addition, that consumers seek naturalness and avoid the  
181 opposite can also be understood as the application of a simplified heuristic in reading and  
182 interpreting ingredient lists or claims (Chalamon & Nabec, 2016). Overall, there is a further  
183 need for research on consumer perception of food ingredients in specific food contexts, which  
184 is why we use an explorative approach in this study.

185

#### 186 **1.4 Protein and potato protein as a favourable clean label ingredient**

187 Protein ingredients have been suggested as a potential ‘clean label’ ingredient (Alting & van  
188 de Velde, 2012) and are investigated in relation to consumer trends towards both health and  
189 sustainability characteristics of food (Lazzarini, Zimmermann, Visschers, & Siegrist, 2016).  
190 However, they may also be interesting because of their associated benefit perception of  
191 satiation (Fizman, Varela, Díaz, Linares, & Garrido, 2014). In line with research on the  
192 question of ‘adding’ something to a food (Rozin & Royzman, 2001), however, it has been  
193 found that some consumers might be more sceptical towards foods where protein has been  
194 added (Banović et al., 2018).

195 So far, little research has looked into the perception of various sources of plant-based  
196 proteins. It can be assumed that the knowledge about the plant source majorly impacts the  
197 perception of the protein as an ingredient. Potato protein can be a valuable alternative protein  
198 source given it provides a favourable amino acid combination and a similarly good  
199 contribution to nutrition as egg or soy-based protein (Waglay & Karboune, 2016, Ju, Mu, &  
200 Sun, 2017). Apart from the nutritional benefit of the protein, selected potato protein fractions,  
201 i.e. patatin and protease inhibitors, can have a functional use in a food due to its gelling,  
202 foaming or emulsifying properties (Schmidt, Damgaard, Greve-Poulsen, Larsen, &  
203 Hammershøj, 2018)<sup>1</sup>. The only potential negative association for potatoes in particular

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<sup>1</sup> Chemically, the protein in potato – contained in the 2-5% solids of the potato fruit juice which is a side-stream of potato starch production – consists of protease inhibitor, patatin, and oxidative or starch synthesis enzymes (Schmidt et al., 2018).

204 known from the literature is the perception of potatoes as high in carbohydrates (Clarke &  
205 Best, 2017), which is suggested to explain the decrease in potato consumption (Wood,  
206 Carragher, & Davis, 2017). Another potential explanation might be that potatoes may have an  
207 image as a traditional, old-fashioned staple food, given they make up the low-cost and  
208 satiating share of many traditional dishes in, e.g., north-western European countries, that fed  
209 poor industrial workers in the past centuries (Reader, 2011). However, new developments  
210 such as the new Nordic kitchen (Bech-Larsen, Mørk, & Kolle, 2016; Micheelsen, Havn,  
211 Poulsen, Larsen, & Holm, 2014) could rejuvenate that image. In addition, potatoes do not  
212 entail the risk of allergies as linked to beans (Vanga & Raghavan, 2018). Furthermore, they  
213 might be favoured by consumers in countries that grow potatoes, because they can be sourced  
214 as a local ingredient (Lazzarini, Visschers, & Siegrist, 2017).

215

## 216 **1.5 Projective mapping**

217 Research has looked into what consumers associate with certain ingredients using different  
218 techniques, as, for example, word association tasks and free listing (Varela, Ares, & Fiszman,  
219 2013; Varela & Fiszman, 2013) or qualitative methods of association (Amos et al., 2014). So  
220 far the potential of the projective mapping method for studying ingredient perception is  
221 under-explored. Projective methods are essentially defined by triggering consumers to project  
222 their internal, unobservable thoughts and network of associations on something external. This  
223 can be done via imagining another person's thoughts (thus projecting one's own thoughts on  
224 the other being, and answering indirectly) (Catterall & Ibbotson, 2000) or projecting own  
225 thoughts onto a surface on a screen or paper following certain instructions (e.g. drawing a  
226 map, or a net) (Dehlholm, 2014). The goal is to make these thoughts observable to  
227 researchers (Boddy, 2005). Such methods can be used as creative and brainstorm techniques  
228 for new product development (Banović, et al., 2016) to describe product perceptions (Vidal,  
229 Ares, & Giménez, 2013) or to express a sensory experience (Antúnez, Vidal, Saldamando,  
230 Giménez, & Ares, 2017).

231 Projective mapping (Risvik, McEwan, Colwill, Rogers, & Lyon, 1994) is a method which  
232 aims at mapping the perceived similarities and differences between studied objects on a two-  
233 dimensional space. Objects closer in the map will share more similarities, while dissimilar  
234 ones will be further away. This method allows studying the spatial categorisation of a large  
235 number of items (in this case ingredients) as well as analysing the associations that these



236 ingredients trigger in consumers' minds, as consumers can describe their mapping in a second  
237 step (Valentin, Chollet, Lelievre, & Abdi, 2012; Varela & Ares, 2012). In the current study,  
238 projective mapping was applied to 'map' consumers' thoughts on how similar or dissimilar  
239 ingredients are as well as which associations these ingredients trigger while sorting them. The  
240 method thus allows to explore whether the consumers' way of 'seeing' ingredient lists  
241 matches with food producers' assumptions, as they are underlying the clean label product  
242 formulation. We study consumers' perceptions of ingredients across different product  
243 categories of plant-based food products, as these fall into the clean label trend, and explore  
244 the impact of different communicational framing.

245

## 246 **2. Materials and methods**

### 247 **2.1 Recruitment and sample**

248 The recruitment goal was to only include consumers with an interest in plant-based food  
249 products. Thus, recruitment screened for young or middle-aged (up to 50 years of age)  
250 consumers in Denmark (having lived at least one year in the country) with an interest in  
251 reducing the share of meat in their diet. Inclusion criteria for the latter answering at least  
252 'somewhat agree' to the screening statements of 'I have considered or am considering eating  
253 less meat' or 'I have bought at some point / sometimes buy vegetarian products'.

254 90 consumers in Denmark were invited to participate in a laboratory study about 'consumer  
255 perceptions of plant-based food products'. They were quota-sampled to balance the sample in  
256 terms of age, gender, and presence of children in the household. Half of the participants were  
257 recruited via the university's lab participant pool, and the other half via social media posts or  
258 leaflets at local sports clubs, schools and day-care institutions. Depending on the respondents  
259 in question, study instructions were given in Danish or English. The respondents were subject  
260 to a between-subjects design: 29 respondents participated in the projective mapping task in  
261 the experimental condition of 'sustainability framing', 30 participants in the condition of  
262 'health framing', and 31 in the condition of 'plant-based potato protein'. Of the 90  
263 consumers, 53% were students, 47% were of Danish nationality, 63% were female and the  
264 mean age was 28.2 years. Due to missing data, the information from eight respondents had to  
265 be discarded, resulting in a data set based on 82 respondents. The sample size can be regarded  
266 adequate for a projective mapping task (Vidal, Cadena, Antúnez, et al., 2014).

267

## 268 **2.2 Stimuli**

269 The stimuli consisted of product concept descriptions varying between-subjects in its  
270 communicational framing (see table 1), and the ingredient lists of the four example products  
271 (see table 2).

### 272 *2.2.1 Communicational framing*

273 The product concepts were introduced as text on laminated cards which remained present  
274 through the projective mapping task; also, the concepts were introduced orally. The product  
275 was introduced in different ways and thus ‘framed’ through communication in the  
276 experimental groups and presented to the consumers as follows (see Table 1 for the  
277 description of the product concept):

- 278 1) plant-based products being more sustainable (called “sustainable group” later on)
- 279 2) plant-based products being healthier (“healthy group”), or
- 280 3) plant-based products with potato protein (“potato group”).

281 Insert Table 1

282

### 283 *2.2.2 Example products*

284 All product examples were plant-based food products. They were chosen so that potato  
285 protein could replace another ingredient to turn the product into a purely plant-based  
286 alternative. In addition, the replaced ingredient was considered to be a potential allergen,  
287 thereby qualifying the product to follow the clean label trend. Four categories were selected:  
288 two hedonic products – ice cream and candy – and two utilitarian products (plant-based  
289 sausage and protein drink). One of the products was available in Danish supermarkets, the  
290 other products were available in other countries.

291 Insert Table 2

292

## 293 **2.3 Projective mapping task procedure**

294 For each of the projective mappings, the ingredients for each of the four products were  
295 provided on small pieces of paper. Respondents were instructed to sort the ingredients in

296 terms of perceived similarities and differences. Using the whole space provided on a DIN A3  
297 sheet of paper, they were able to group ingredients of similar type (see Table 3 for the  
298 instructions). Tape was provided to fix the ingredients to the spot chosen. Respondents were  
299 also asked to note down words to describe the groups or ingredients on the sheet of paper, or  
300 the reason why they mapped them in that particular way. It was stressed that their own  
301 personal view was of relevance, and there were no right or wrong views. A sample projective  
302 map – showing the categorisation of objects differing in colour and shape on a sheet – was  
303 provided as a help to explain and understand the task.

304 Insert Table 3

305

## 306 **2.4 Analysis**

307 For all respondents in the three experimental groups and all four product categories, the  
308 projective maps resulted in DIN A3 paper sheets, which were digitalised. To analyse the  
309 similarities and differences, the distance to each ingredient was measured from the lower left  
310 corner, and the x and y coordinates were recorded for each ingredient on each individual  
311 map. For each experimental group and product category, these distances were entered into an  
312 excel worksheet as recommended (Dehlholm, 2014). The ingredient x and y coordinates were  
313 measured in centimetres, and frequencies of mention of the attributes were counted across the  
314 consumer panel. The resulting table had the products in the rows and the x,y coordinates and  
315 attribute frequencies as columns (as many x, y tables as consumers). To analyse the  
316 descriptors that respondents wrote down to explain the location and their thoughts about the  
317 ingredient or cluster of ingredients they had formed, these descriptors were also entered into  
318 an excel file, indicating the ingredient and the related descriptor. The coding process involved  
319 all three researchers (two of the authors and a research assistant) who explored the descriptors  
320 separately. In coding, text containing various meanings was first coded into various  
321 descriptors, and second, descriptors with a synonymous meaning summarized under one joint  
322 descriptor. Results were compared to agree on a similar coding approach. To reduce the  
323 number of descriptors, the only ones used in the final analysis were those that had been  
324 applied by at least 10% of respondents of each experimental group. Projective mapping data  
325 was analysed via MFA using the XLStat 2015 software pack (Addinsoft, UK). Coordinates  
326 (x,y) of the ingredients on the individual maps were used as active variables, and attributes  
327 generated in the descriptive step were over-imposed as supplementary variables and did not

328 contribute to the construction of the MFA factors (Pages, 2015). Solutions were inspected  
329 and when relevant, interpreted until the third dimension. For further details on coding, word  
330 processing and data analysis of projective mapping data, see Varela and Ares (2012). MFA  
331 was also carried out to compare the ingredient positions on the maps generated in the three  
332 framings, providing a superimposed representation of the three framings in the same  
333 perceptual space.

334 Global Chi-square was used for testing the homogeneity of the contingency table of the  
335 frequencies of mention of the attributes in the three experimental groups (framings) in the  
336 descriptive step of the projective mapping (Symoneaux et al., 2012). When the initial Chi-  
337 square was significant, a Chi-square per cell was done within each cell identifying the source  
338 of variation of the global Chi-square. The Chi-square per cell analysis was run with an XL  
339 macro as in Symoneaux et al. (2012).

340

### 341 **3. Results**

342 In section 3.1., the results concerning research questions 1a – 1c are presented by product  
343 category in a set of different figures. Due to similarity of results for question 1, the results are  
344 presented for all experimental groups jointly. The left panel in each figure displays the  
345 consensus map for the ingredient sorting. The right panel displays the descriptors that  
346 consumers applied to the respective ingredients. For example, a group of ingredients in the  
347 lower left corner in the left panel was described by descriptors in the lower left corner of the  
348 right panel. In section 3.2, the results concerning research question 2 are presented across  
349 categories, comparing the effect of framing in the different experimental groups.

350

### 351 **3.1 Perception and categorisation of ingredients**

#### 352 *3.1.1 gelatine-free candy*

353 Consumer categorisation showed a clear distinction into three groups of ingredients, which  
354 are set apart from each other in the first two dimensions of the MFA (Figure 1a). The first  
355 group (left panel, in the upper left quadrant) contained flavour-related ingredients such as  
356 elderberry juice concentrate and citric acid. The second (lower left quadrant) contained  
357 ingredients of sugar and syrup, and the third (lower right quadrant) contained the remaining

358 ingredients ranging from starch, thickener, to gum and protein. From these, when inspecting a  
359 third dimension, it can be seen that proteins are perceived as a fourth group (Figure 1b, in the  
360 upper right). The descriptors (right panel) show that the flavour-related ingredients were  
361 described by terms related to the function of taste and flavour, but also assessed as basic,  
362 harmless, and natural. Sugars and syrups were grouped with the function of sweetening in  
363 mind, perceived as unhealthy. The third, larger and more heterogeneous group of ingredients  
364 is described with descriptors explaining the function – as, for example, consistency, texture or  
365 appearance – but also words that express lack of knowledge – unknown, weird – or an  
366 association with risks, with processing and with negative thoughts, as, for instance,  
367 dangerous, processed, chemical, unnatural, unnecessary. The fourth group containing proteins  
368 and emerging in the third dimension is described more positively, however, with words such  
369 as healthy, plant, protein, harmless and natural. Thus, the first and fourth groups are  
370 positively perceived while the second and third are negatively associated.

371 Insert Figures 1a and 1b

### 372 *3.1.2 Dairy-free ice cream*

373 The categorisation of ice cream ingredients again resulted in three clearly distinct and  
374 separated groups (left panel, Figure 2). The first (in the upper left quadrant) contains  
375 ingredients of sugar and syrup, the second (to the right) various stabilisers, the third (lower  
376 left) water and lime juice. The descriptors (right panel) show that the first group is described  
377 with terms related to the function as a sweetener and with descriptors naming the ingredient  
378 category, while the second group is associated with words describing both the function such  
379 as consistency and glue, and the ingredient category such as stabiliser or protein. In addition,  
380 there are also words expressing lack of knowledge such as ‘unknown’, and in particular  
381 words expressing an assessment and attitude towards the ingredient using descriptors such as  
382 artificial, unnatural, harmless. The words unhealthy and processed are positioned in-between  
383 the first and the second group, indicating that they had been given to both groups. The third  
384 group is described in terms of the function of providing taste and flavour, describing the  
385 category such as water and lime, and expressing an opinion such as basic, healthy and  
386 natural. Thus, the first and second appear to contain more negatively perceived ingredients,  
387 while the third is more positively associated.

388 Insert Figure 2

### 389 *3.1.3 Soy-free protein drink*

390 The categorisation of the protein drink ingredients showed three groups of ingredients (left  
391 panel, Figure 3). The first group (in the upper left quadrant) contains oat base and potato  
392 protein, the second (upper right) juices, and then the third group is ginger extract and natural  
393 flavour as single ingredients (in the lower half). Descriptors (right panel) of the first group  
394 name the function, such as filling or consistency, or ingredient type, such as protein, but they  
395 also express an assessment such as basic. The second group emerges with descriptors  
396 describing the kind of ingredient, such as juice, liquid, fruit, or plant, as well as an  
397 assessment, such as healthy, good, or natural, but the function for sweetening is also  
398 commented on. The two other ingredients forming the third group, ginger extract and natural  
399 flavour, appear to be understood by its function for taste and flavour in the first case, and  
400 described by an assessment as processed and unknown in the second case. Thus, the second  
401 group appears to be perceived positively, and the first and third neutral or tentatively  
402 negative.

403 Insert Figure 3

#### 404 *3.1.4 Meat-free sausage*

405 The categorisation of the ingredients for the meat-free sausage did not result in as clear  
406 ingredient groups as for the other product categories, but it nevertheless shows roughly three  
407 groups (left panel, Figure 4). There is a first group of ingredients (in the upper left)  
408 composed, for example, of salt, onions and herbs, while there is a second group (in the upper  
409 right) containing stabilisers and starches. Caramel, glucose and rapeseed oil are situated  
410 towards the middle, less correlated to the perceptual space. There is a third group (in the  
411 lower half) containing gluten, wheat, and potato ingredients, with tap water situated above it.  
412 The descriptors (right panel) show that the first group is described by its taste and flavour  
413 functions, described with the kind of ingredient such as vegetable and spices, and assessed as  
414 natural and healthy. The second and larger group is described with words expressing lack of  
415 knowledge, such as unknown, of the function, such as texture, consistency and glue, but  
416 primarily with words expressing opinion and assessment, such as unhealthy, avoid,  
417 processed, unnecessary, and even dangerous or bad. The ingredients in the third group are  
418 denominated by its type, such as potato, wheat, fibre or starch, its function, such as filling,  
419 thickening, and substitute, and by an assessment, such as good or basic. Thus, the first and  
420 third group appeared more positively, while the second group appeared to be perceived more  
421 negatively.

422 Insert Figure 4

423

### 424 **3.2 Differences depending on communication framing**

425 Results from the superimposed MFA maps for the groups with differing communicational  
426 framing show that between the experimental groups, there were no important differences in  
427 the categorisation and perception of the ingredients. Figures 5 and 6 visualize this for the two  
428 products with a larger amount of ingredients (gelatine-free candy and meet-free sausage). For  
429 the other two product categories, differences were too small to visualise them in this way as  
430 the three evaluation points fell in the same place in the superimposed maps.

431 Differences between the experimental groups were further inspected with Chi-square tests per  
432 cell; this showed some interesting differences for the frequency with which certain  
433 descriptors were mentioned. This suggests that consumers perceived the ingredients similarly  
434 in terms of groupings and distance, but there were some differences when explaining those  
435 groups. In the following, only significant differences at  $p < 0.001$  are described.

436 Insert figures 5 and 6

437 For the *gelatine-free candy* (see Table 4), the descriptors ‘additive, artificial, taste, plant’ are  
438 used more often when the product was presented as contributing to sustainability, while the  
439 terms ‘flavouring, candy, syrup, unhealthy’ were used less often. Meanwhile, when the  
440 product was presented as healthy, the associations of ‘processed, hardener, extract, function,  
441 weird’ were used more often, while ‘taste’ was used less frequently. In the experimental  
442 group presenting the product as potato based, the descriptors ‘consistency, healthy,  
443 unhealthy, unnatural’ emerged more frequently compared to the other groups, and the word  
444 ‘plant’ less often.

445 For the *meat-free sausage* (see Table 4), the terms ‘modified, taste’ were used more  
446 frequently by respondents in the experimental condition presenting the products as  
447 sustainable, while respondents were less likely to use ‘fibre, flavouring, unhealthy’. In the  
448 experimental group presenting the product as more healthful, the descriptors ‘extract, other,  
449 processed, spices, unhealthy’ emerged more often, while ‘consistency’ was mentioned less  
450 often. Finally, in the group framing the product as potato based, the words ‘consistency, fibre,  
451 flavouring, and unnecessary were used more frequently and the descriptors ‘taste, unknown’  
452 less frequently.

453 For the *dairy-free ice cream* and the *soy-free protein drink*, given the lower number of  
454 descriptors and the differences between the experimental groups not being particularly  
455 marked, a smaller number of significantly (in-)frequent descriptors are observed (see Table  
456 4). For the ice cream, ‘artificial’ was mentioned more often in the experimental group with  
457 products presented as sustainable, while ‘lime’ was more frequently mentioned in the group  
458 with products presented as healthy. For the protein drink, ‘healthy’ appeared more often in  
459 the experimental group with products described as potato based.

460 Insert Table 4

461 Overall with regard to research question 2, the results thus show that only minor differences  
462 emerge. Thus, the product’s ingredients are perceived and categorised in a similar way no  
463 matter how the product is presented in terms of the benefit that it entails. There are, however,  
464 significant differences in the frequency of certain descriptors. Comparing across the product  
465 categories (e.g. only taking into account observations that hold for more than one product  
466 category, see Table 4), it appears that in the sustainability framing, the words ‘taste’ and  
467 ‘artificial’ are used more, while ‘flavouring’ and ‘unhealthy’ are used less frequently. In the  
468 health framing, the descriptors ‘processed’ and ‘extract’ are used more frequently, and in case  
469 of mentioning the potato source of the protein, the word ‘consistency’ is likely to appear than  
470 in the other communicational framing. Thus, the different communicational framing of  
471 products as sustainable, healthy or potato based had only a minor impact on categorisation  
472 and perception of ingredients, but some differences that are common across product  
473 categories indicate differences in consumer consideration of taste function in the  
474 sustainability framing, degree of processing in the health framing, and the function of  
475 providing consistency when potato as a source of protein is made explicit.

476

#### 477 **4. Discussion**

478 The findings confirm a number of observations from previous research. Firstly, a particularly  
479 important distinction for categorising ingredients appeared to be the specific function of the  
480 ingredient in the product. More concretely, the function of providing flavour was used most  
481 frequently and resulted in an own category of ingredients, typically positively associated.  
482 Thus, the flavour function is perceived as positive – as long as it is not sweetness as such.  
483 This observation might be explained by the importance that taste as a food product quality  
484 has for consumers, despite the increasing interest in credence attributes of food such as



485 sustainability and health (Grunert, 2002; Grunert, 2005): Quite often taste is the most  
486 important driver of consumer food choice and purchase motives. Interestingly, the flavour-  
487 providing ingredients in the four product categories tended to be perceived as natural and  
488 healthy. However, the latter might be due to the fact that the product examples were chosen  
489 to be from among cases of plant-based and ‘free-from’ products.

490 Secondly, the results confirm that protein is indeed an ingredient with a rather positive image  
491 (Alting & van de Velde, 2012). It is regarded as a natural ingredient serving the function of  
492 ‘filling’ and is assessed as rather harmless and basic, not resulting in any negative  
493 associations. Possibly this is due to it being understandable and mentioned in connection with  
494 other plant-based ingredients, at least in the ingredient list of the products studied.  
495 Interestingly, no association of potato as being high in carbohydrates emerged, as some  
496 research into potato protein in specific would suggest (Clarke & Best, 2017; Wood et al.,  
497 2017). However, the communication framing presenting products as potato protein based led  
498 consumers to use the word ‘consistency’ more often, which might show that they speculated  
499 about the function of potato protein in this context.

500 Thirdly, the study findings support previous research showing that consumers frequently have  
501 negative associations towards certain nutrient groups which they regard as unhealthy, and  
502 that they are avoiding certain groups more than they seek others in what might be a  
503 ‘negativity bias’ (Rozin & Royzman, 2001; Scarborough et al., 2015). In accordance with  
504 Song and Swartz (2009), consumers perceived ingredients as more risky when they were not  
505 familiar with the ingredient. The ingredient group of sugar and syrups was assessed  
506 negatively and primarily unhealthy. It appears to be an ingredient group well understood and  
507 categorised as distinct by consumers as it showed a clear distance to other groups and  
508 homogeneity in the descriptors.

509 Fourthly and as an overall observation, the underlying assumption of ‘clean label’ as a trend  
510 (Ingredion, 2014) is found to be mirrored in the results. Thus, unknown ingredients are  
511 perceived negatively and are regarded dubious or as potentially risky; there is an apparent  
512 connection between ingredient groups described as unknown and also denoted as processed,  
513 artificial, chemical, dangerous, unnatural and unnecessary (Asioli et al., 2017). Avoidance of  
514 chemically perceived ingredients (Dickson-Spillmann et al., 2011), the ‘modern health  
515 worries’ of consumers (Devcich et al., 2007) and the preference for natural and avoidance of  
516 added ingredients (Scott & Rozin, 2017) seem to be underlying drivers of this negative

517 perception of ‘un’-ingredients (e.g. ingredients that receive descriptors starting with un-, such  
518 as unknown, unnatural, unnecessary, etc.). Interestingly, the results indicate that under a  
519 health frame, consumers especially focus on the degree of processing across product  
520 categories, given they used the descriptors ‘processed’ more often.

521 Fifth and finally, some differences in frequency of use of descriptors emerge. The exact  
522 reasons for the differences triggered by the different communicational framing can only be  
523 speculated and leave room for future research. However, it might show that the sustainability  
524 benefit leads consumers to consider whether the product is tasty nevertheless (thus using a  
525 descriptor on ‘taste’ more often, but the assessment as ‘unhealthy’ less often). The health  
526 benefit, in turn, underlined in the communication might trigger consumers to inspect whether  
527 ingredients are healthy or not, using in particular the degree of processing as a cue (thus using  
528 the respective descriptor ‘processed’ more often). Finally, when the focus was on the plant-  
529 based substitute ingredient, more descriptors related to the ingredient function were  
530 mentioned (using the descriptor ‘consistency’ more often).

531

#### 532 **4.1 Implications for food producers and policy makers**

533 A number of strategies could avoid that ingredients are negatively associated. One of the  
534 strategies could be to remove words from the ingredient name that are not well understood (in  
535 the current study e.g. ‘modified’ from starches, given starches are perceived neutral to  
536 positive, or ‘stabiliser’ from potato protein, as the word seems to make an ingredient appear  
537 mixed rather than positive). The second strategy could be adding words to the ingredient  
538 name which positions the ingredient more positively (in the current study, e.g., ‘potato’ to  
539 starches, or ‘pea protein’ to hydrolysate). This is in line with findings from previous research  
540 on very similar ingredient wordings showing that ‘modified potato, tapioca or corn starches’  
541 are rated more favourably than the generic term ‘modified starch’ (Varela & Fiszman, 2013).  
542 In particular specifying an ingredient as a known plant-based ingredient that consumers are  
543 likely to categorize and perceive as known and natural would be a good strategy (as for  
544 example specifying or exchanging ‘natural flavour’, which is perceived as processed, for a  
545 known, plant-based ingredient providing natural flavour). The third strategy could be to make  
546 ingredients, which consumers – once they become familiar with the ingredient– would very  
547 likely perceive as harmless, known and natural, more known by communication efforts or an  
548 explanation on the package (as, for example, the ingredients of carob seed and carob bean).

549 Such a strategy has been suggested for food hydrocolloids yet unknown, but in fact natural in  
550 their origin (Varela & Finszman, 2013).

551 A fourth strategy might entail ensuring that the ingredients indicate a consumer-oriented  
552 benefit rather than a producer-oriented benefit. This observation has emerged previously in  
553 qualitative research on perception of innovative technologies in food processing (De  
554 Barcellos et al., 2010; Hung et al., 2016). It might be explained on the background of  
555 consumers' anti-profit beliefs, assuming that company endeavours have negative  
556 consequences (Bhattacharjee, Dana, & Baron, 2017). The observation in this study that  
557 'known' ingredients are perceived more favourable might ultimately be related to that greater  
558 interest and attention is paid to ingredients which have a benefit for the consumer. The  
559 implication is that ingredients which are negatively perceived by consumers but needed in the  
560 product, should be explained in a better and more convincing manner and ideally with a focus  
561 on the consumer benefit. This would improve acceptance of such an ingredient and ensure its  
562 acceptance as 'clean' on the label.

563 For the case of potato protein as a new alternative ingredient, the findings imply that  
564 consumers categorize it as protein and perceive it as favourable. Communicating the potato  
565 origin of the protein more clearly to the consumer does not entail any negative perceptions  
566 according to the study findings. Consumers appear to explain the role of the potato protein  
567 with providing consistency to the food.

568 For policy makers, the results highlight consumer scepticism towards any ingredient  
569 perceived as unknown or unnatural. This underlines that nutritional education is important.  
570 However, it might be even more impactful to secure the legal use of ingredient names which  
571 consumers perceive as harmless, in particular for ingredients for which it is scientifically  
572 substantiated that they are in fact harmless. Ensuring a good understanding of the type of  
573 ingredient in question and in particular the function that it plays in the product would help to  
574 avoid that safe and harmless ingredients fall into the 'un'-perception and downward spiral  
575 from unknown to unnatural to unnecessary.

576

## 577 **4.2 Limitations and future research**

578 It should be noted, of course, that the categorisation consumers apply might entail  
579 misunderstandings or a lack of knowledge on the function of an ingredient. In addition, that a

580 natural-sounding ingredient in fact has undergone less processing than some other, strangely  
581 sounding ingredient which seems to receive associations of being chemical and artificial, is  
582 only an assumption consumers make. Also, consumers perceive natural as better and less  
583 risky, but it does not necessarily mean it is (Burdock & Wang, 2017).

584 Overall, the study represents a sample of the potential target group, but nevertheless a limited  
585 group of consumers on the Danish market – possibly results in other cultural contexts and  
586 food market environments are different (Ares, 2018). Further variables of relevance – as, for  
587 example, health concern or sustainability interest – ought to explain individual differences in  
588 greater depth. The findings pertain to plant-based ‘clean label’ ingredients, for which food  
589 producers likely select ingredients in a similar fashion. For example, the finding of flavour  
590 ingredients perceived as favourable has a lot to do with these flavour ingredients being  
591 naturally sounding. It can thus not be generalised to non-‘clean-label’ foods. Future research  
592 might compare food products from other and contrasting groups of foods, as, for instance, an  
593 unhealthy, processed convenience food with no clean-label positioning to identify how  
594 consumer categorisation of ingredients differs as compared to clean label foods. Furthermore,  
595 future studies could quantify the findings for a more generalizable sample, or across different  
596 countries.

597

## 598 **5. Conclusions**

599 From the exploratory results it can be concluded that consumer categorisation and perception  
600 of ingredients appear largely in line with what the clean label trend leads food producers to  
601 expect. This applies to the four plant-based products which are ‘free-from’ a certain  
602 ingredient, thus part of the clean label trend. The explorations show that consumers  
603 categorise into roughly three groups of ingredients, and they use three underlying distinctions  
604 in doing so, i.e. the category type to which the ingredient belongs, the function that it has in  
605 the product, and how the consumer assesses it, e.g. as positive or negative. More specifically,  
606 it can be concluded that sugar and syrups are ingredients which are grouped jointly and  
607 perceived as unhealthy, while flavour-providing ingredients are grouped by their taste  
608 function and perceived as basic, natural and often as healthy as well. Protein, which was the  
609 focus of this study, is primarily perceived as harmless, basic and natural.

610 Just as the clean label definition suggests, there is a clear tendency to group the ‘remaining’  
611 ingredients into a heterogeneous cluster. This heterogeneous cluster is then described with a

612 variety of functions of ingredients to the extent that consumers can identify them, but a  
613 particularly frequent assessment is that the ingredients are unknown. We conclude that the  
614 exploratory research findings show that consumers tend to follow a 'line of reasoning' from  
615 the unknown to unnatural and unnecessary, and ultimately often to the unhealthy. We  
616 conclude that based on our findings, different communicational framing appears to have only  
617 a minor impact on consumer categorisation and perception, most notably in terms of healthy  
618 products inspected more closely with regard to the processing of ingredients, and potato-  
619 containing foods assessed with regard to the consistency function of ingredients.

620 In sum, the study shows that a closer exploration of consumers' categorisation and perception  
621 of ingredients can help to understand how consumers perceive products within the 'clean  
622 label' trend. The categorisation into 'known-natural-good' versus the opposite is found to  
623 hold true for the consumers represented in this study, and for the products explored.

624 **Tables and figures**

625

626 **Table 1. Communicational framing of the product concepts towards sustainability,**  
627 **health and plant-based products containing potato protein.**

628

Group 1:

“Plant-based food products, which means products that do not contain any ingredients from animals, are increasingly demanded in the market place, because they contribute to a more sustainable lifestyle. By eating less animal-based products, we can contribute to reducing greenhouse gas emissions and thereby reduce our own negative impact on climate change.”

Group 2:

“Plant-based food products, which means products that do not contain any ingredients from animals, are increasingly demanded in the market place, because they contribute to a healthier lifestyle. By eating less animal-based products, we consume less saturated fatty acids, which has been found to prevent cardiovascular diseases and some forms of cancer.”

Group 3:

“Plant-based food products, which means products that do not contain any ingredients from animals, are increasingly demanded in the market place. Potato proteins have been found to be a useful substitute for animal-based ingredients in a range of products.”

629

630  
631

**Table 2. Stimuli used in the task: ingredient lists of the food products**

<b>Product</b>	<b>Ingredient list</b>
gelatine-free candy	glucose syrup, white sugar, glucose fructose syrup, modified starches, liquorice root extract juice, brown sugar syrup, thickening agents (carob bean gum, xanthan gum), vegetable protein (potato protein), flavouring substances, citric acid, elderberry juice concentrate, salt, pea protein hydrolysate, sunflower seed oil, glazing agents (beeswax, beeswax)
dairy-free ice cream	water, peeled lime juice (27%), sugar, corn glucose syrup, invert sugar syrup, stabilisers (carob seed flour, pectin, potato protein)
soy-free protein-drink	oat base (water, oat (11%)), apple juice (33%), beetroot juice (23%), potato protein, lemon juice, natural flavour, ginger extract
meat-free sausage	tap water, wheat protein, onion, rapeseed oil, peppers, potato starch, inulin, gluten, spices (mustard flour), glucose, salt, potato flake, modified starches, potato fibre, potato protein, stabiliser (calcium chloride, sodium alginate), caramel III, herbs

632

633 **Table 3. Projective mapping instructions**

634

“We would like you to do a sorting task of ingredients. For this task, there are no right and no wrong answers, and we are interested in your spontaneous groupings.

I will now show you four lists of ingredients of plant-based products and I would like you to take the ingredients and sort them as you see fit. Group those ingredients together that you feel are closest related. Place them on the piece of paper according to the strategy that two ingredients placed closer to each other are more alike than two ingredients placed further apart. The criteria for how to sort the ingredients just have to make sense to you. In this way, there are only right solutions. Please use the tape to stick the ingredients on to the paper.

When you are done with the sorting task, please write down a few words describing why you placed these ingredients together.

For example, on this map, there are different shapes and one possible way to group them is like this (show solution 1) – or one could also group the shapes like this (show solution 2) or in another way. Again, there are no right or wrong solutions, we are interested in your subjective perception of the ingredients.

Do you have any questions?  
Please begin.”

635

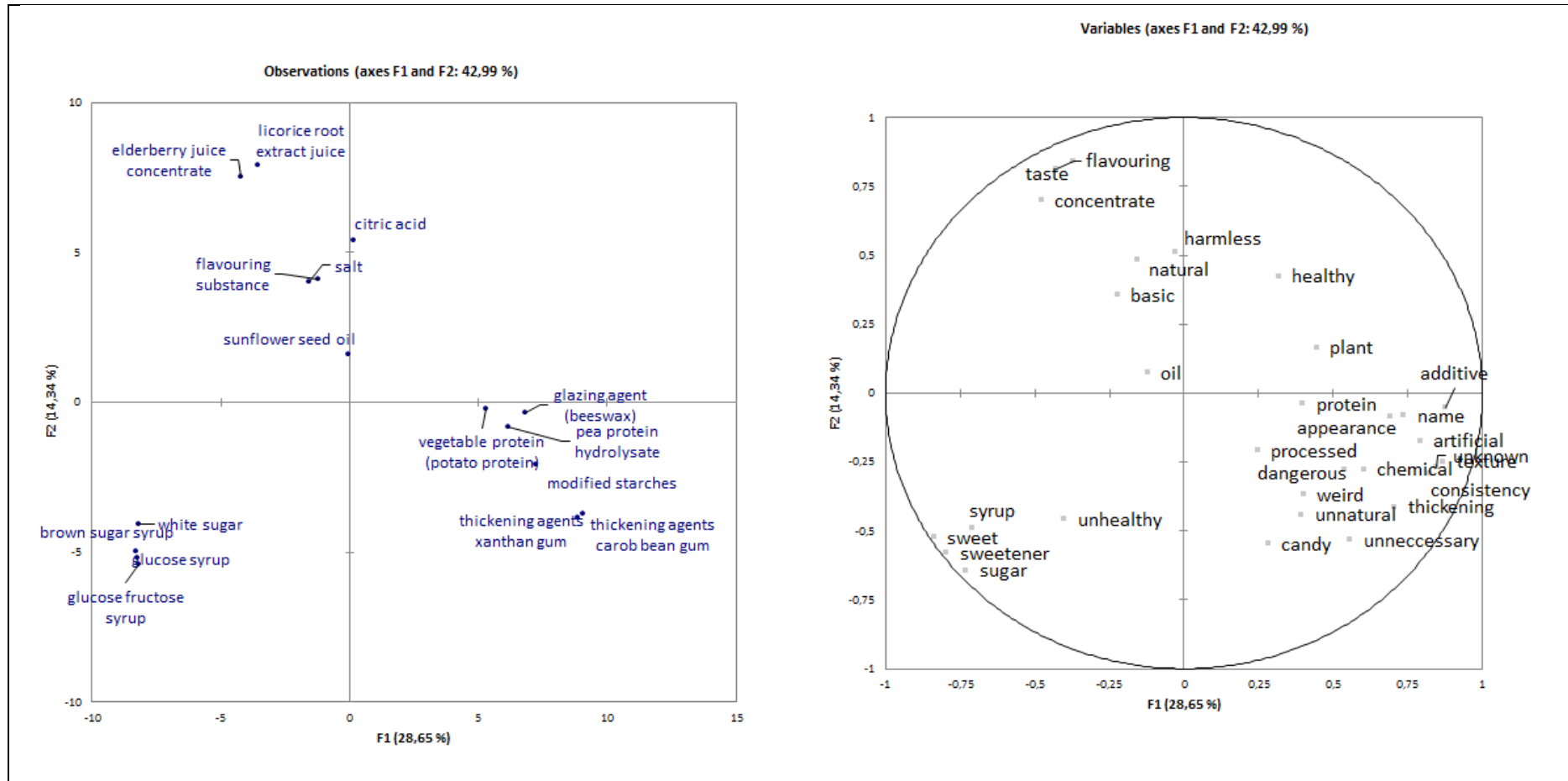


636 **Table 4. Descriptors used more or less frequently (than the expected theoretical value, coming from Chi-square per cell analysis, with p**  
 637 **< 0.001).**

<b>Gelatine-free candy</b>		
	<b>More frequent descriptors</b>	<b>Less frequent descriptors</b>
<b>Sustainable group 1</b>	additive, artificial, taste, plant	flavouring, candy, syrup, unhealthy
<b>Healthy group 2</b>	processed, hardener, extract, function, weird	taste
<b>Potato group 3</b>	consistency, healthy, unhealthy, unnatural	plant
<b>Meat-free sausage</b>		
	<b>More frequent descriptors</b>	<b>Less frequent descriptors</b>
<b>Sustainable group 1</b>	modified, taste	fibre, flavouring, unhealthy
<b>Healthy group 2</b>	extract, other, processed, spices, unhealthy	consistency
<b>Potato group 3</b>	consistency, fibre, flavouring, unnecessary	taste, unknown
<b>Dairy-free ice cream</b>		
	<b>More frequent descriptors</b>	<b>Less frequent descriptors</b>
<b>Sustainable group 1</b>	artificial	
<b>Healthy group 2</b>	lime	
<b>Potato group 3</b>		
<b>Soy-free protein drink</b>		
	<b>More frequent descriptors</b>	<b>Less frequent descriptors</b>
<b>Sustainable group 1</b>		
<b>Healthy group 2</b>		
<b>Potato group 3</b>	healthy	
<b>Emerging in two product categories</b>		
	<b>More frequent descriptors</b>	<b>Less frequent descriptors</b>
<b>Sustainable group 1</b>	taste, artificial	flavouring, unhealthy
<b>Healthy group 2</b>	processed, extract	
<b>Potato group 3</b>	consistency	

638

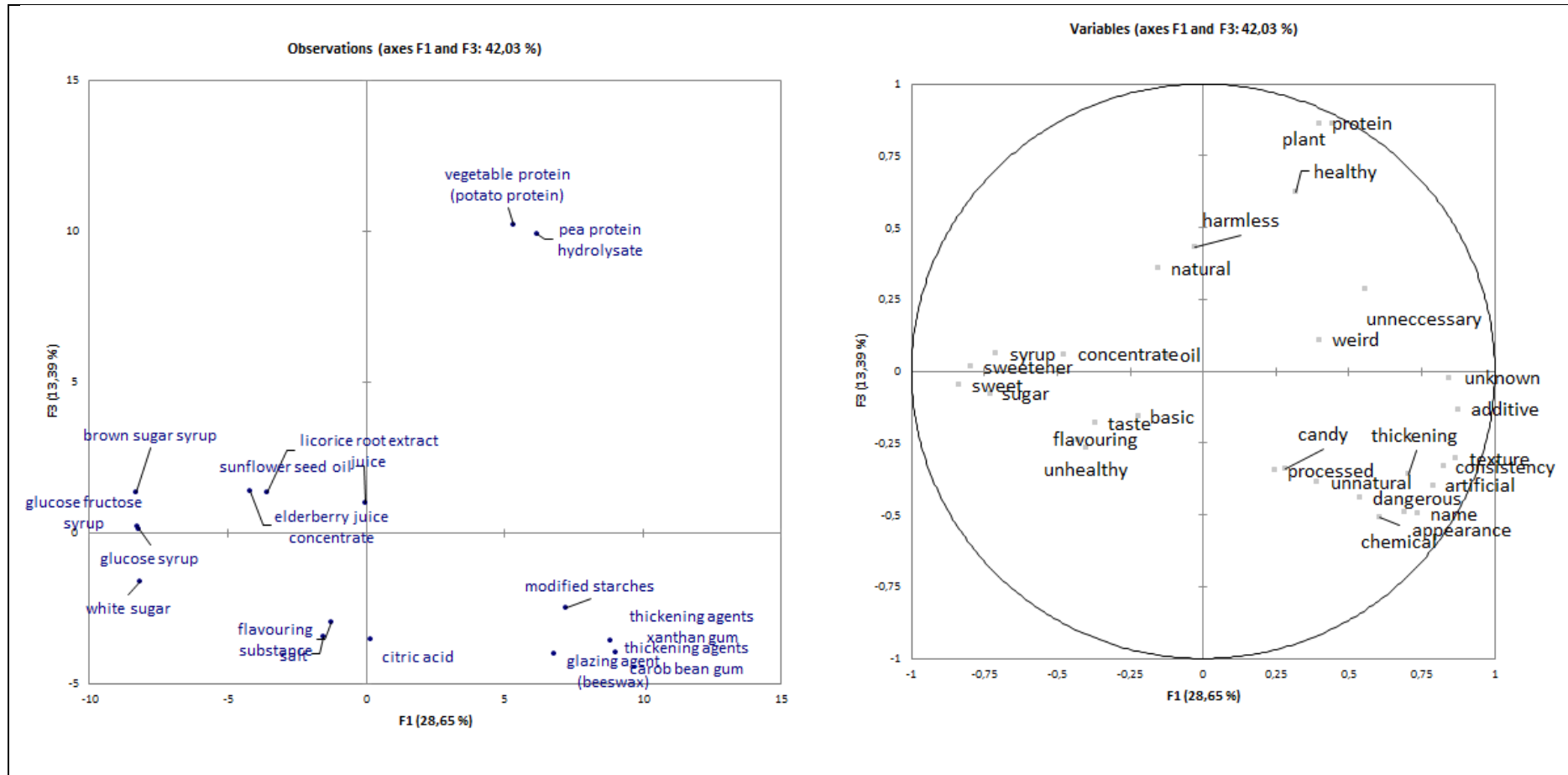
639 **Figure 1 a). Perceptual space determined by the first two factors of the MFA in the projective mapping task (consensus plot – all**  
 640 **consumers) gelatine-free candy**



641

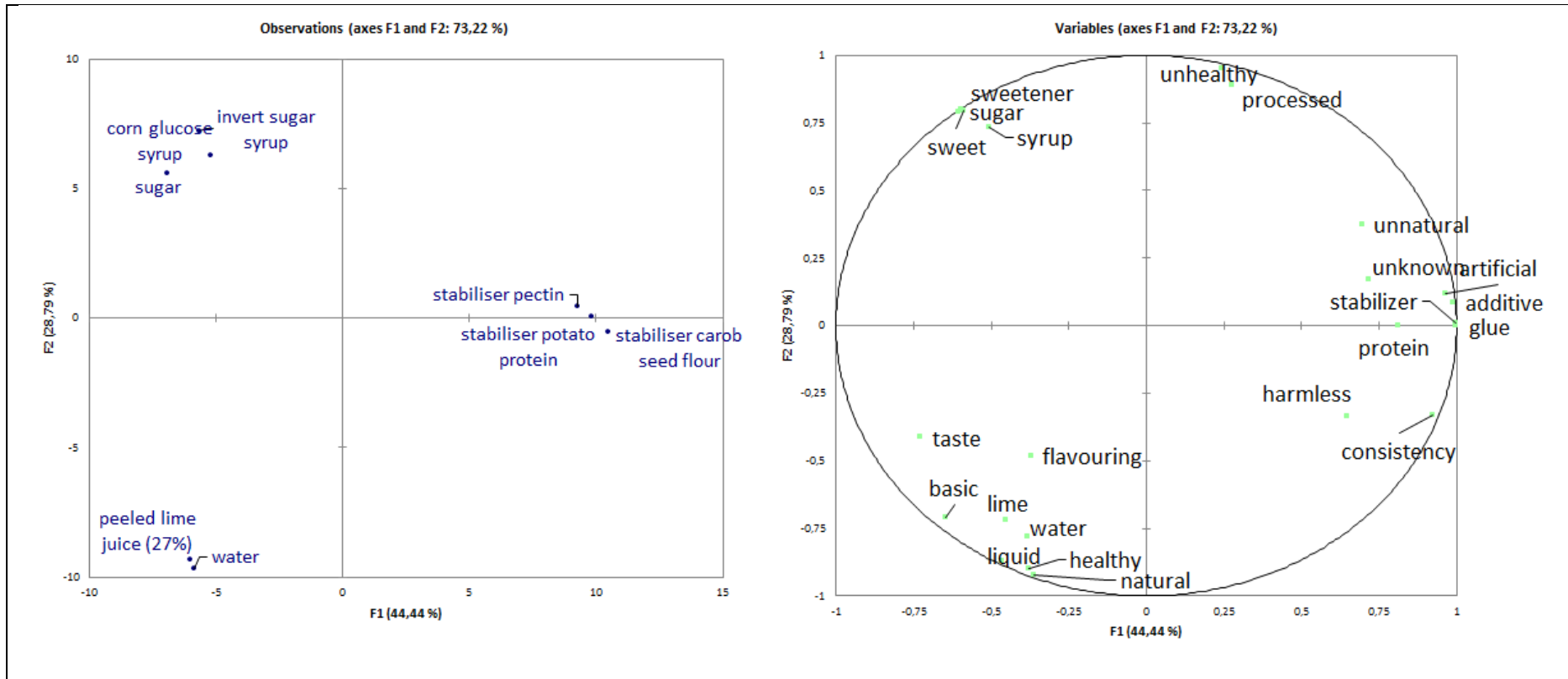
642

643 **Figure 1 b). Perceptual space determined by the first factors 1 and 3 of the MFA in the projective mapping task (consensus plot – all**  
 644 **consumers), gelatine-free candy**



645

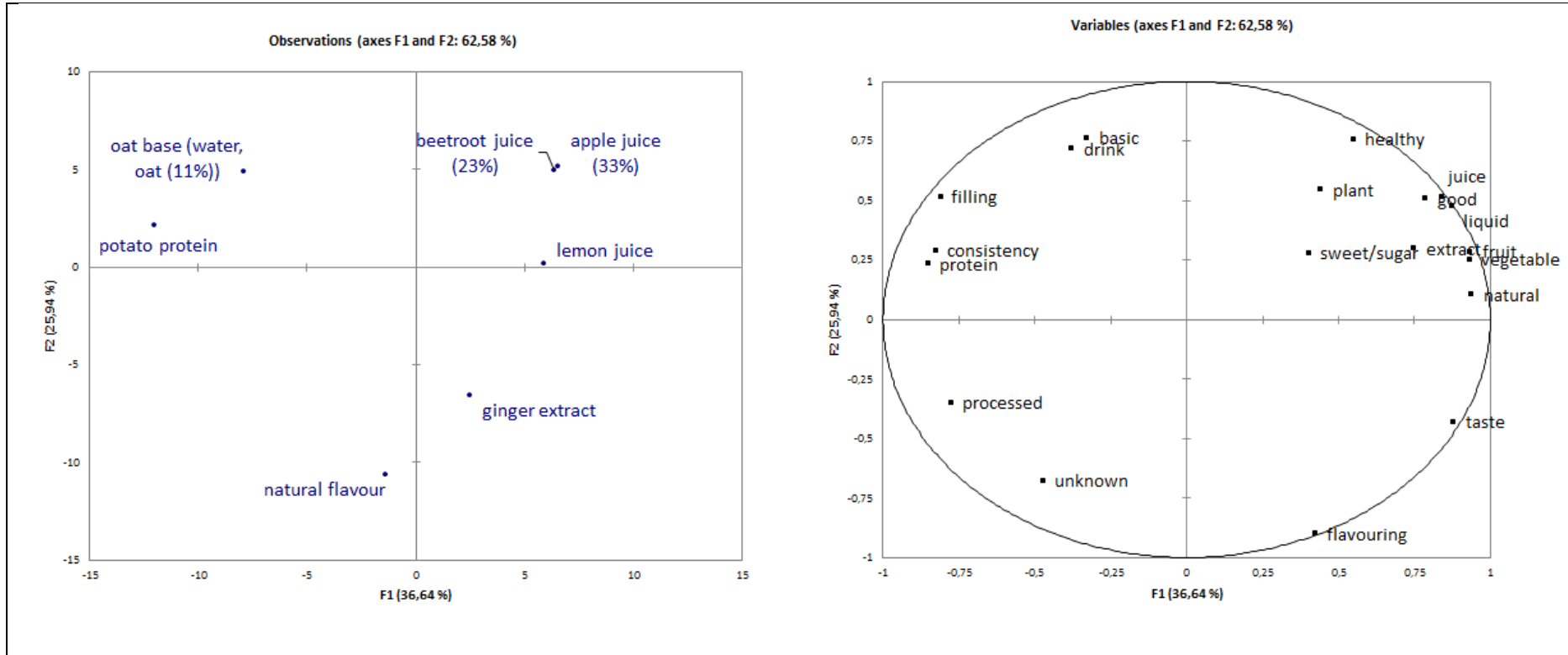
646 **Figure 2. Perceptual space determined by the first two factors of the MFA in the projective mapping task (consensus plot – all**  
 647 **consumers), dairy-free ice cream**



648

649

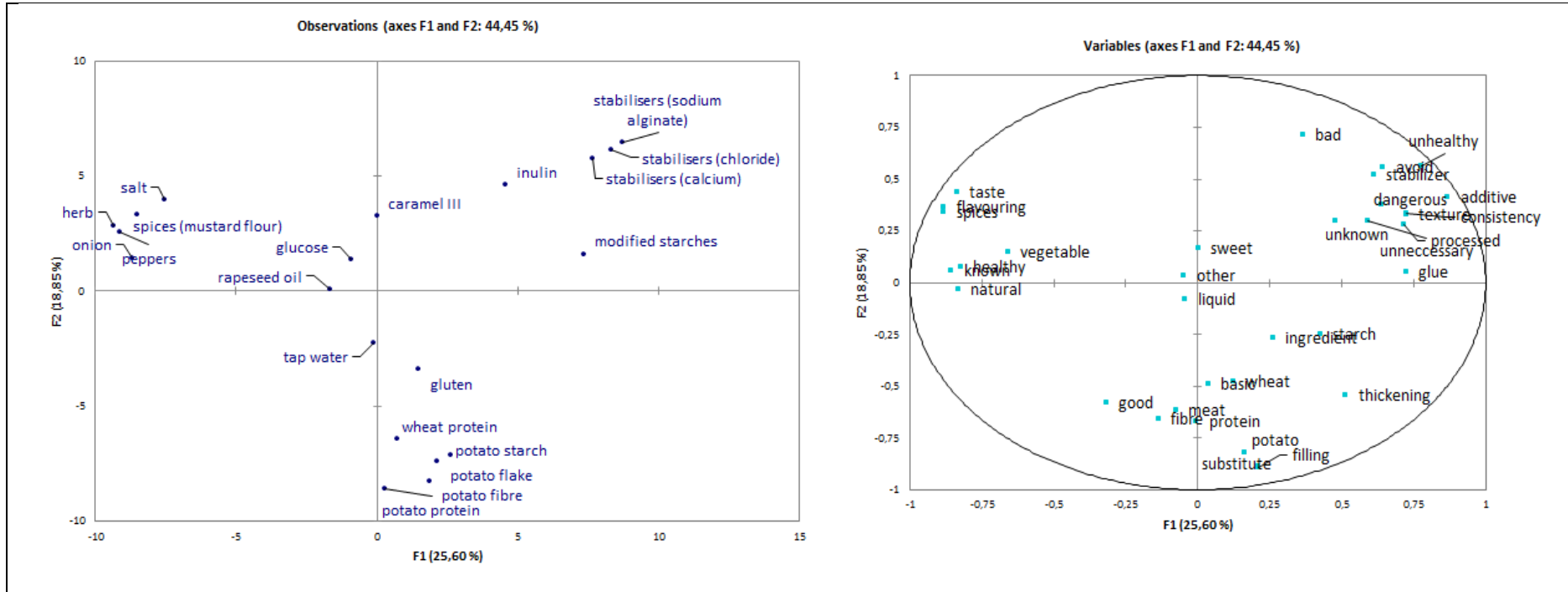
650 **Figure 3. Perceptual space determined by the first two factors of the MFA in the projective mapping task (consensus plot – all**  
 651 **consumers), dairy and soy-free protein drink**



652

653

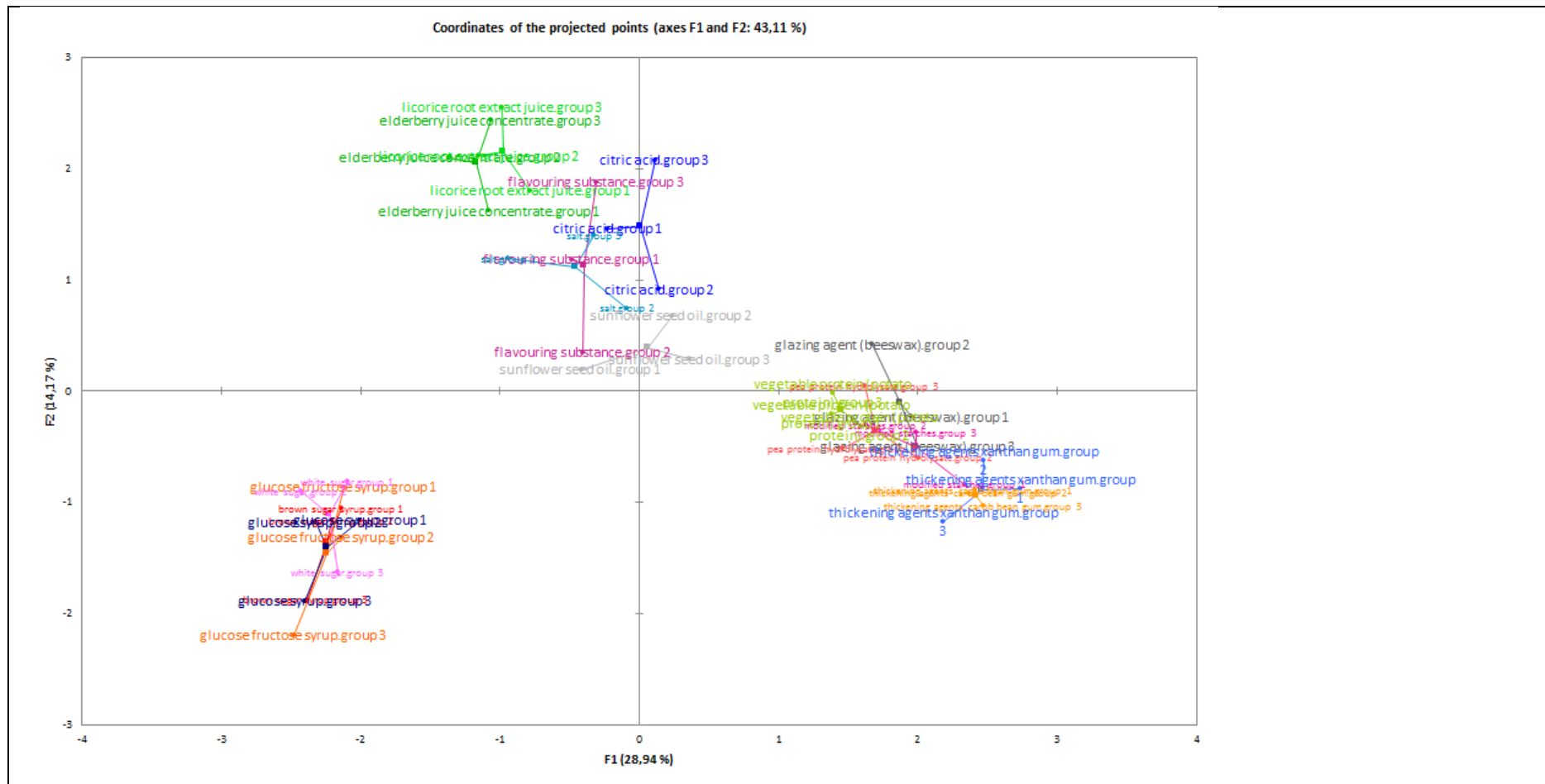
654 **Figure 4. Perceptual space determined by the first two factors of the MFA in the projective mapping task (consensus plot – all**  
 655 **consumers), meat and egg-free sausage**



656

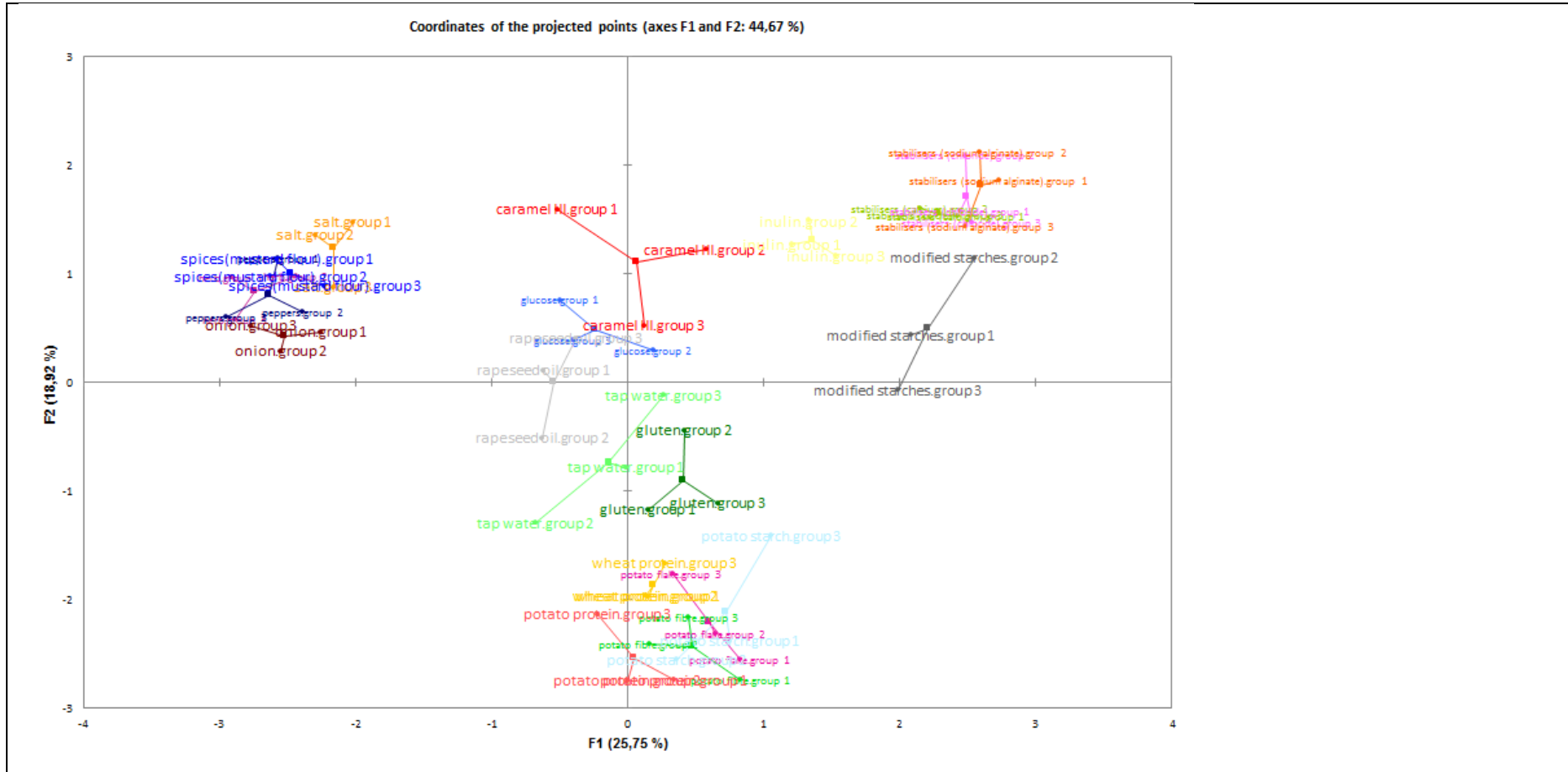
657

658 **Figure 5. Superimposed representation of the products in the Multi Factor Analysis (MFA), gelatine-free candy**



659 Note: Each sample is represented using three points corresponding to each framing group, the consensus representation is depicted by the middle  
 660 point. Group 1 = sustainable, group 2 = health, and group 3 = potato.

661 **Figure 6. Superimposed representation of the products in the Multi Factor Analysis (MFA), meat-free sausage**



662 Note: Each sample is represented using three points corresponding to each framing group, the consensus representation is depicted by the middle  
 663 point. Group 1 = sustainable, group 2 = health, and group 3 = potato.

664



665 **Supplementary tables**

666

667 **Table A. Frequency of descriptors when comparing the experimental groups for gelatine-free candy**

	additive	artificial	processed	consistency	hardener	flavouring	taste	extract	candy	function	healthy	plant	syrup	unhealthy	unnatural	weird
<b>Sustainable group 1</b>	136 (+) ***	16 (+) ***	6	14	0 (-) *	25 (-) ***	53 (+) ***	0 (-) **	3 (-) ***	0 (-) *	2 (-) *	17 (+) ***	0 (-) ***	0 (-) ***	11	4
<b>Healthy group 2</b>	23 (-) ***	3	19 (+) ***	11 (-) *	10 (+) ***	61	22 (-) ***	15 (+) ***	28	14 (+) ***	3 (-) *	6	11	22	11	20 (+) ***
<b>Potato group 3</b>	23 (-) ***	0 (-) **	5 (-) *	33 (+) ***	0 (-) *	72 (+) **	42	0 (-) **	35 (+) **	0 (-) **	18 (+) ***	0 (-) ***	17 (+) **	39 (+) ***	30 (+) ***	2 (-) **

(+) or (-) indicate that the observed value is higher or lower than the expected theoretical value. \*\*\* p < 0.001, \*\* p < 0.01 and \* p < 0.05; effect of the chi square per cell. Only descriptors which show a significance on a p < 0.001 level in at least one group are shown.

668

669 **Table B. Frequency of descriptors when comparing the experimental groups for meat-free sausage**

	consistency	extract	fibre	flavouring	modified	other	processed	spices	taste	unhealthy	unknown	unnecessary
<b>Sustainable group 1</b>	11	0	0 (-) ***	10 (-) ***	11 (+) ***	4	5 (-) *	16	64 (+) ***	0 (-) ***	29	6
<b>Healthy group 2</b>	3 (-) ***	9 (+) ***	14	32	0 (-) *	12 (+) ***	26 (+) ***	40 (+) ***	35	32 (+) ***	42 (+) **	5 (-) *
<b>Potato group 3</b>	32 (+) ***	0 (-) *	27 (+) ***	61 (+) ***	0 (-) **	0 (-) **	13	20 (-) *	35 (-) ***	25	22 (-) ***	27 (+) ***

(+) or (-) indicate that the observed value is higher or lower than the expected theoretical value. \*\*\* p < 0.001, \*\* p < 0.01 and \* p < 0.05; effect of the chi square per cell. Only descriptors which show a significance on a p < 0.001 level in at least one group are shown.

670

671 **Table C. Frequency of descriptors when comparing the experimental groups for dairy-free ice cream**

	<b>artificial</b>	<b>consistency</b>	<b>harmless</b>	<b>lime</b>	<b>stabilizer</b>	<b>unhealthy</b>
<b>Sustainable group 1</b>	11 (+) ***	6	0 (-) *	1 (-) *	36 (+) **	8
<b>Healthy group 2</b>	0 (-) **	7	9 (+) **	13 (+) ***	21	1 (-) **
<b>Potato group 3</b>	5	22 (+) **	3	3	30	18 (+) **

(+) or (-) indicate that the observed value is higher or lower than the expected theoretical value. \*\*\* p < 0.001, \*\* p < 0.01 and \* p < 0.05; effect of the chi square per cell. Only descriptors which show a significance on a p < 0.001 level in at least one group are shown.

672

673 **Table D. Frequency of descriptors when comparing the experimental groups for soy-free protein drink**

	<b>extract</b>	<b>good</b>	<b>healthy</b>	<b>protein</b>	<b>taste</b>
<b>Sustainable group 1</b>	0 (-) **	0 (-) *	6	14	20
<b>Healthy group 2</b>	4	8 (+) **	3 (-) *	22 (+) *	35 (+) **
<b>Potato group 3</b>	12 (+) **	2	20 (+) ***	9 (-) **	21 (-) *

(+) or (-) indicate that the observed value is higher or lower than the expected theoretical value. \*\*\* p < 0.001, \*\* p < 0.01 and \* p < 0.05; effect of the chi square per cell. Only descriptors which show a significance on a p < 0.001 level in at least one group are shown.

674

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