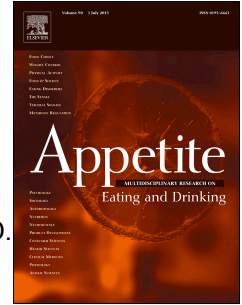


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Consumers' Choice-Blindness to Ingredient Information

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Abstract

Food manufacturers and policy makers have been tailoring food product ingredient information to consumers' self-reported preference for natural products and concerns over food additives. Yet, the influence of this ingredient information on consumers remains inconclusive. The current study aimed at examining the first step in such influence, which is consumers' attention to ingredient information on food product packaging. Employing the choice-blindness paradigm, the current study assessed whether participants would detect a covertly made change to the naturalness of ingredient list throughout a product evaluation procedure. Results revealed that only few consumers detected the change on the ingredient lists. Detection was improved when consumers were instructed to judge the naturalness of the product as compared to evaluating the product in general.

These findings challenge consumers' self-reported use of ingredient lists as a source of information throughout product evaluations. While most consumers do not attend to ingredient information, this tendency can be slightly improved by prompting their consideration of naturalness. Future research should investigate the reasons for consumers' inattention to ingredient information and develop more effective strategies of conveying information to consumers.

Keywords: choice-blindness paradigm; food choice; ingredient information; attention; clean label;

1 **Introduction**

2 When it comes to food products, many consumers often report preferring
3 natural products (Rozin et al, 2004), and assume that products based on natural
4 ingredients without additives are healthier (Bredahl, 1999; Dickson-Spillmann,
5 Siegrist, & Keller, 2011; Evans, de Challemaison, & Cox, 2010; Shim et al., 2011). In
6 response food manufacturers have spent substantial efforts in tailoring the
7 presentation of ingredient list information on food packaging with the underlying
8 assumption that consumers infer the ‘naturalness’ of a food product by its ingredients.
9 Similarly, policy makers have increasingly focused on providing objective
10 information about the naturalness of ingredients in food products. Nonetheless, the
11 effect that ingredient list information has on consumers remains unclear, as there is a
12 lack of scientific evidence demonstrating that consumers actually prefer products with
13 more ‘natural’ ingredients. Accordingly, the first objective of the current study is to
14 examine the degree to which consumers take the initial step to actually attend to
15 ingredient information on food packaging. Contrasting the previously employed self-
16 report measures, the novelty of this study is the employment of the choice-blindness
17 paradigm (Johansson, Hall, Sikström, & Olsson, 2005) to investigate whether
18 consumers pay attention to ingredient information on product packaging. Given
19 consumers’ limited attention to product labels (Grunert, Wills, & Fernández-Celemín,
20 2010), we furthermore explore whether the provision of subtle reminders could
21 encourage consumers’ attention to ingredient lists. By investigating the effectiveness
22 of reminders to consider naturalness, the current findings are relevant for both policy
23 makers and food manufacturers’ efforts in enhancing consumers’ consideration of
24 ingredient list information.

25 **Favoring ‘Natural’ over ‘Unnatural’ Ingredients**

26 While consumers report having a preference for more natural food (Rozin et
27 al., 2004), it is unclear whether they actively seek out information to evaluate the
28 ‘naturalness’ of different food products. Existing literature has mainly focused on
29 examining consumers’ use of ingredient list information on packaging for nutritional
30 value (see Grunert and Wills, 2007 for review), but not for deducing the naturalness
31 of food products. In order to address this research gap, the current research adopts a
32 novel approach by examining consumers’ consideration of E-numbers on ingredient
33 lists of food packaging. E-numbers, which are reference numbers given to identify
34 food additives in the EU, (e.g., pectin is a gelling agent that is commonly used in jam
35 and identified by the code E440), is a topic highly discussed in contemporary media
36 and public discourse, as it captures the increasing trend amongst consumers for more
37 ‘natural’ food products and concerns over food additives, as well as the responses of
38 food authorities and food manufacturers (Evans, de Challemaison, & Cox, 2010).

39 While E-numbers were initially designed by the European Food Safety
40 Authority to identify all food additives that have been extensively tested against
41 potential health risks (Van Dillen et al., 2003), ironically, consumers often associate
42 them with undesirable, harmful, and unhealthy chemicals (Evans, de Challemaison, &
43 Cox, 2010; Hoogenkamp, 2012; McCarthy, Brennan, Kelly, Ritson, de Boer, &
44 Thompson, 2007; Varela & Fiszman, 2013). Moreover, despite previous findings
45 show that only a minority of consumers look at food labels for nutritional information
46 (Grunert, Wills, & Fernández-Celemín, 2010), manufacturers have been increasingly
47 pushing for clean label products (Bobe & Michel, 2011; Hoogenkamp, 2012), which
48 are defined by being free of ‘chemical’ additives, having easy-to-understand
49 ingredient lists, and being produced by use of traditional techniques with limited
50 processing (Edwards, 2013). Indeed, between 2003 and 2012 the number of products

51 with such clean labels has more than quadrupled universally (Edwards, 2013). In spite
52 of all the initiatives taken to satisfy consumers' seemingly growing preference for
53 more natural products, there is a pressing need for scientific evidence to justify these
54 initiatives.

55 **The Validity of Self-Report Measures**

56 Previous studies have indeed reported negative attitudes towards additives and
57 E-numbers (Edwards, 2013; Drichoutis, Lazaridis, & Naygar Jr., 2006; Holm &
58 Kildevang, 1996), but the majority of these studies are based on self-report measures.
59 There are of course observational studies investigating how consumers use
60 information on packaging, yet these studies have focused on front of package or
61 nutrition value information rather than ingredient lists that provide information on the
62 naturalness of the ingredients (Grunert, Fernandez-Celemin, & Wills, 2010). However,
63 self-report measures have been criticized for being vulnerable to task demands and
64 social desirability influences, which result in low predictive power of reported
65 attitudes for actual behavior (Herbert, Clemow, Pbert, Ockene, & Ockene, 1995,
66 Azjen & Fishbein, 2005; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006). Previous research has shown
67 that, particularly in the realm of health, responses are assimilated towards the socially
68 desired answer (Herbert et al., 1995; Kristiansen & Harding, 1984; Klesges et al.
69 2004) due to people's motivation to consider and present themselves as healthy
70 individuals (Lindeman & Stark, 1999; Malhotra, 1988; Bailis, Segall, & Chipperfield,
71 2003). As such, using self-report measures that require participants to provide
72 opinions to topics they do not have stable opinions about further increase the
73 influence of strongly negative discourse, such as the media attention to food additives
74 that has mostly framed food additives in terms of risks involved in consuming
75 additives and the contamination of an otherwise natural product (Evans, de

76 Challemaison, & Cox, 2010), to bias opinions and preferences (Reed II, Wooten, &
77 Bolton, 2002; cf. Dijksterhuis, 2004). Consequently, when opinions are spontaneously
78 formed under the influence of such external sources it is not surprising that the
79 resulting opinions do not correspond with behavior.

80 These issues suggest that product evaluations may depend on whether
81 consumers are specifically asked about whether unnatural-appearing ingredients in the
82 product are appreciated (i.e. where the consumer is directly pointed at the fact that the
83 naturalness is the key factor in the evaluation) or whether consumers are asked to
84 evaluate a product that comes with ingredient information but without the trigger to
85 judge the product on its naturalness. For example, as shown by the study by Noussair
86 and colleagues (2001), self-reported negative attitudes toward genetically modified
87 food did not translate into decreased purchasing of genetically modified food. On one
88 hand, part of this lacking association could be explained by influences on the self-
89 reports in terms of demand characteristics, social desirability, and self-concepts as
90 discussed earlier. On the other hand, it may be that consumers genuinely hold
91 concerns with genetically modified food, but at the actual point of purchase these
92 negative perceptions and attitudes are not acted upon.

93 Accordingly, the current study aims to overcome these shortcomings of self-
94 report assessments by firstly avoiding the direct reporting of attitudes on E-numbers
95 and by manipulating the degree to which participants are guided towards including
96 naturalness as a factor in their product evaluations. In order to achieve these ends the
97 choice blindness paradigm is used in the current study.

98 **The Choice-Blindness Paradigm**

99 It has recently been shown that people often fail to detect a mismatch between
100 a previously expressed attitude and a (different) attitude they are subsequently

101 presented with as their own, a phenomenon known as choice-blindness (Johansson,
102 Hall, Sikström, & Olsson, 2005). In this research paradigm participants are asked to
103 make choices but are subsequently presented with the rejected option as being their
104 selected option. Interestingly, participants often not only fail to detect the mismatch
105 between their initial, actual choice and the presented choice, but they spontaneously
106 confabulate reasons for having made the presented (never made) choice. The lack of
107 detection of such a mismatch has been shown on various dimensions, such as
108 attractiveness of faces, in which participants choose a more attractive face, and are
109 subsequently asked to justify their choice of the originally not chosen other face
110 (Johansson, Hall, Sikström, & Olsson, 2005); product preference, in which
111 participants firstly, do not detect a swap of their chosen product and, secondly,
112 confabulate reasons for having chosen the product they never actually chose (Hall,
113 Johansson, Tärning, Sikström, & Detgen, 2010); as well as moral and political
114 attitudes (Hall, Johansson, & Strandberg, 2012; Hall, Strandberg, Pärnamets, Lind,
115 Tärning, & Johansson, 2013). To illustrate a few examples of the low detection rate,
116 from the aforementioned studies participants only concurrently detected 13% of the
117 trials in which their chosen face had been changed (Johansson et al., 2005),
118 demonstrated a 33% detection rate when the unchosen product was returned (Hall et
119 al., 2010), and correctly identified 41% of the trials when their moral attitude ratings
120 had been manipulated (Hall et al., 2012).

121 While these previous studies were designed to examine the stability of choices
122 and attitudes, the current study employs the choice-blindness paradigm to investigate
123 the attention to ingredient lists and its importance for product evaluation while
124 overcoming the above-mentioned disadvantages of self-report assessments. The
125 choice-blindness paradigm allows us to infer the degree of attention that is paid

126 towards ingredient lists by presenting the participants with the supposedly same
127 physical product, while in fact changing the ingredient information on the product.
128 We infer that the participant would need to have initially looked at the ingredient list
129 and processed the information to some sufficient degree before they could notice the
130 discrepancy and detect the change on the manipulated ingredient list presented later
131 on in the experiment.

132 Capturing these advantages of the choice-blindness paradigm, the study
133 provides insights into the degree to which the design of more natural products and the
134 accompanying presentation of more natural ingredient lists actually facilitate
135 consumer preference for the more highly valued ‘natural’ products. It provides a
136 measure to infer whether consumers pay attention to ingredient lists during actual
137 product evaluations and whether the provision of more natural ingredients increases
138 the overall evaluation of a product. In addition, we explore the possibility that a
139 reminder, in the form of a subtle instruction for consumers to explain their naturalness
140 evaluation of product, could increase the likelihood for consumers to attend to
141 ingredient information on the package, thereby mitigating the choice blindness effect
142 if the ingredient information on the packaging of a food product was changed.

143 **Design and Hypotheses**

144 Accordingly, the current study employs the choice-blindness paradigm of Hall
145 and colleagues (2010) and adopts a 2 (instruction: general vs. specific) \times 2 (ingredient
146 list: no change vs. change) between subjects factorial design. The dependent variable
147 of interest, whether participants detect the change to the ingredient list or not (i.e.,
148 online detection vs. no detection), is a categorical outcome.

149 During the experiment, participants were first instructed to evaluate two
150 products carefully. Subsequently, participants were returned with the product that had

151 received a higher general evaluation rating and were instructed to explain their
152 evaluations based on either the general instruction to justify the general rating or the
153 specific instruction to justify specifically the naturalness rating of the preferred
154 product. In the ingredient list change condition, unbeknownst to the participant, the
155 experimenter swapped the product that the participant had given higher overall rating
156 to with a product was identical all aspects of packaging except with a changed
157 ingredient list. Considering that the only way that the participant would have noticed
158 the changed ingredient list on the returned product was if they had initially paid
159 attention to the ingredient list on the product that they had previously evaluated, the
160 detection of such change was used as indicator for attention to ingredient lists.

161 Based on the detection rates found in previous studies using the choice
162 blindness paradigm, it was expected that few participants would detect the change to
163 the ingredient list information. However, it was expected that the detection rate would
164 be higher in the specific instruction condition, in which participants were asked to
165 explain their naturalness rating compared to the general instruction condition in which
166 participants were asked to explain their overall rating of the product.

167 In summary, the aim of the choice paradigm used in the current study is to
168 demonstrate consumers' inattention to ingredient list information that contributes to
169 their blindness to change to the ingredient list. Rather than focusing on what
170 consumers provide or confabulate as reasons for their evaluation of the product, the
171 instruction to explain the general evaluation rating or the specific naturalness rating of
172 the product was simply used as a manipulation to facilitate attention towards the
173 ingredient list information as means to mitigate choice blindness. As such, the choice
174 blindness paradigm aims to reveal which information that consumers attend to (or not),

175 and how to increase attention to relevant information through the form of instructional
176 reminders.

177 **Method**

178 **Participants**

179 Participants ($N = 534$) were recruited via a marketing research agency for
180 monetary reward. All participants were residents in the Netherlands and capable of
181 the Dutch language. Forty-two participants were excluded from the analysis due to
182 not following the procedures and providing insufficient data. The final dataset
183 consisted of 492 participants; 37.4% were in the ingredient list no change condition
184 and 62.6% were in the ingredient list change condition. Participants included 53%
185 females and 46.5% males (remaining 0.5% did not disclose their gender) with a mean
186 age of 39 years ($SD = 14.17$). Educational levels ranged from 2.7% with basic
187 educational, 55.3% vocational training and higher secondary education, and 42% with
188 university degrees. At the time of the study 28.8% were unemployed and 71.2% were
189 employed.

190 The study was conducted in accordance with the ethical standards described
191 by the Medical Research Involving Human Subjects Act (WMO, 2012), according to
192 which research with healthy adults is exempted from the requirement for formal
193 ethical approval. The study was conducted by OP&P Product Research in accordance
194 with ESOMAR code (ESOMAR, 2015).

195 **Procedure**

196 Participants were invited to the marketing research agency to take part in a
197 marketing study on soup. They were randomly assigned to one of four conditions.
198 Upon arrival participants were greeted by the hypothesis-blind experimenter and
199 guided into an experimentation room where they were asked to sit at a table where

200 two cans of soup were presented next to each other, along with a product evaluation
201 questionnaire for each product. The products included a can of soup from the brand
202 Wouda and the brand Stijn, two entirely fictitious brands which were specifically
203 designed for the present study (the presentation on left and right was counterbalanced).
204 Both products had either ‘unnatural’ (elaborated descriptions of ingredients with
205 words and E-numbers) or ‘natural’ (few word descriptions of ingredients) ingredient
206 lists presented on the backside of the can. Further information regarding the overall
207 packaging of the soup cans and the precise differences between the natural vs.
208 unnatural ingredient lists are provided in the Materials section.

209 The choice blindness paradigm commenced, and in the first stage participants
210 were encouraged to closely examine both products in order to fill out the product
211 evaluation forms. After the participant has completed the evaluation, the experimenter
212 removed the products and the product evaluation forms from the table. The
213 experimenter then presented the participant with a demographic questionnaire to
214 complete.

215 At the second stage, the experimenter implemented the experimental
216 manipulation. While the participant was filling out the demographic questionnaire, the
217 experimenter examined participants’ product evaluation forms and selected the brand
218 that scored higher on the overall general evaluation rating. Critically, the experimental
219 manipulation where the ingredient list changed (in the ingredient list change
220 condition) or remained the same (in the no change condition) was performed on the
221 brand of soup receiving the higher overall rating. In cases where both products had
222 the same overall rating, the experimenter chose either one of the products to use for
223 the remainder of the experiment but ensured that this choice was counterbalanced
224 between participants (Stijn: 104; Wouda: 114).

225 After the participant had completed the demographic questionnaire, the
226 participant was returned back with the brand of soup that they had given the higher
227 overall rating to (or one of the brands chosen by the experimenter due to equal
228 ratings) along with the product evaluation form that was previously filled out.
229 Presenting the evaluation form again allowed the participant to see the overall and
230 naturalness rating that they had previously assigned to that brand of soup that was
231 returned back to them. At this point of the experiment, the participant was presented
232 back either with a can of soup containing the same ingredient list (no change
233 condition), or a can of soup with a different ingredient list (ingredient list change
234 condition) from the product that they had initially evaluated at the first stage of the
235 experiment. To illustrate, in the control condition if the participant had initially rated
236 the unnatural ingredient lists, they were handed their preferred brand with the
237 unnatural ingredient list and likewise for the natural ingredient list. In the no change
238 condition, the ingredient list evaluation order was counterbalanced between natural to
239 natural, and unnatural to unnatural. Contrarily, in the ingredient list change condition,
240 participants were returned with a product that was identical in packaging to the
241 product that they had previously assigned a higher overall rating, but with a changed
242 ingredient list. For instance, had participants previously given a product with an
243 unnatural ingredient list a higher overall rating, they were handed back an identical
244 product but with a natural ingredient list. Or if they had previously given a product
245 with natural ingredient list with a higher overall rating, they were handed back an
246 identical product but with an unnatural ingredient list. The ingredient list change
247 manipulation was counterbalanced between natural to unnatural, and unnatural to
248 natural. The precise differences between the experimental condition in which the soup

249 cans (in essence where ingredient list evaluation orders) changed and the control
250 condition in which the soup cans did not change are illustrated in Figure 1.

251 Subsequently, at the third and last stage of the choice-blindness paradigm, the
252 experimenter assessed for change detection by asking the participant to explain why
253 they had given the product the respective score on the overall rating question (general
254 instruction condition) or on naturalness (specific instruction condition), while
255 referring to this score on the product evaluation form. Afterwards, the experimenter
256 removed all the materials and provided the participant with a tablet computer to fill in
257 the final questionnaire.

258 Had the participant detected the swap of ingredient lists in the experimental
259 condition this was coded as an 'online' detection (detection level code 1), in which
260 case the participant was asked to fill in the final questionnaire and was thanked for
261 their participation. All participants who had not detected a swap online went through a
262 series of detection assessment questions at the end of the experiment. If the participant
263 voiced any detection of the swap following one of these questions, this was coded as
264 follows: The experimenter first asked whether the participant had any questions or
265 comments about the study (detection level 2); whether they had noticed anything
266 during the experiment (detection level 3); and whether they had noticed anything
267 about the products they had evaluated (detection level 4). Finally, participants were
268 thanked and guided toward the exit. Debriefing about the manipulation and aim of the
269 study was done in written form subsequent to the finalization of data collection.

270 The duration of each experimental session was approximately 10 to 15
271 minutes. Each experimental session was conducted with each participant individually.
272 The experimenter remained in the same room as the participant for the entire duration
273 of the experiment, and whenever the participant was filling out questionnaires (i.e.,

274 evaluations of the two soups, demographic questionnaires, and final questionnaires),
275 the experimenter remained in the same room but was not in the immediate vicinity of
276 the participant so he or she could complete the questionnaires discretely.

277 **Materials**

278 **Soup can packaging.** As previously mentioned, the two brands of soup used
279 in the current experiment, Wouda and Stijn, were fabricated specifically for the
280 purpose of the study. The soup packaging was designed respectively for the two
281 brands (see *Figure 2*). The soup cans used in the study had a dimension of 12cm in
282 height and 10cm in diameter.

283 **Natural vs. unnatural ingredient lists.** The natural and unnatural ingredient
284 lists were initially pretested with 40 participants rating a long vs. a short ingredients
285 list' naturalness and healthiness on 10-point scales (1 = *not at all natural/healthy* to
286 10 = *very natural/healthy*). Pre-test results indicated that the short ingredient list was
287 perceived to be significantly more natural ($M = 8.6$; $SD = 1$) than the long ingredient
288 list ($M = 3.5$; $SD = 1.7$); $t(39) = 15.52$, $p < .001$. The short ingredient list was also
289 perceived as significantly healthier ($M = 7.74$; $SD = 1.37$) than the long ingredient list
290 ($M = 4.9$; $SD = 1.7$); $t(39) = 7.53$, $p < .001$. Based on these pretest results the short
291 ingredient list was used as the 'natural' ingredient list and the long ingredient list was
292 used as the 'unnatural' ingredient list in the experiment (see *Figure 3a & b*).

293 **Measures**

294 Throughout the experiment participants were asked to fill out three
295 questionnaires.

296 **Product evaluation forms.** Participants were asked to evaluate the two
297 presented products based on two product evaluation forms; one for brand Wouda and
298 one for brand Stijn. These questionnaires included evaluations of the products in

299 terms of healthiness, expected tastiness, naturalness, authenticity, familiarity, appeal,
300 liking of the package, the amount to which this product is consumed (this question
301 was often misinterpreted by participants to ask for how often any soup is consumed;
302 consequently, the question was excluded from the analysis); and overall rating. All
303 these questions were answered on 10-point Likert scales. A sample of the product
304 evaluation form could be found in the Appendix.

305 **Demographic questionnaire.** This questionnaire assessed age, gender, level
306 of education, number of people living in their household, employment status,
307 nationality, and how often participants do grocery shopping (ranging from never to
308 every day on a 5-point scale).

309 **Final questionnaire.** The final questionnaire assessed participants' concern
310 for health, their typical use of sources of information on product packages, as well as
311 current levels of stress and hunger.

312 **Justification scores.** Based on the detection assessment participant were
313 categorized as online detectors (detection level 1) if they noticed the swap of the
314 ingredient lists during the experiment; as retrospective detectors if they referred to the
315 swap of ingredient lists during the detection assessment (detection level 2, 3, and 4),
316 and were categorized as non-detectors if they did not notice the swap at all. An
317 additional measure of whether participants mentioned the ingredient lists
318 during justification for their previously given overall ratings or naturalness ratings
319 was recorded.

320 **Randomization Check**

321 There were no significant differences between participants in the general and
322 specific instruction condition in terms of age, gender, educational level, and
323 employment. Similarly, there were no significant differences between participants in

324 the control and experimental condition or between participants with the natural and
325 unnatural initial ingredient list information in terms of age, gender, education, and
326 employment.

327

328 **Results**

329 **Detection rates**

330 Overall, there were very few participants who had detected the change in
331 ingredient lists as predicted. Observed frequencies indicate that only 16.9% of all
332 participants from the experimental, ingredient list change condition detected the
333 change. Furthermore, within the general instruction condition 10.7% of participants
334 detected the change in ingredient list, whereas within the specific instruction
335 condition 23.5% of participants detected the change. See Table 1 for an overview of
336 the distribution of online detectors and non-detectors.

337 Complimenting the observed frequencies that provide preliminary evidence of
338 a higher proportion of online detectors in the specific instruction condition, a logistic
339 regression analysis further tested the hypothesis that predicted detection rates would
340 be higher in the specific instruction condition than in the general instruction condition.
341 Only the participants ($N = 308$) in the change condition were included in the analysis.
342 Additionally, the brand (i.e., Wouda vs. Stijn) of the final product that participants
343 handled during the second stage of the experiment and the ingredient list evaluation
344 order were controlled for in the regression model.

345 The logistic regression model was statistically significant, $\chi^2(3, N = 308) =$
346 $9.60, p = .02$. The model was also 83.1% correct in predicting online detection. The
347 predictors and the results of the binary logistic regression analyses are presented in
348 Table 2. In line with hypothesis, results showed that instruction was a significant

349 predictor of detection ($p = .003$) with an odds ratio of 2.58. This indicated that
350 participants in the specific instruction condition were 2.5 times more likely to be an
351 online detector compared to participants in the general instruction condition.

352 Consequently, observed frequencies as well as the results of the logistic
353 regression analysis provide support for hypothesis stating that participants in the
354 specific instruction condition detect a larger proportion of swaps than participants in
355 the general instruction condition.

356 **Post-hoc analysis**

357 **Consumer characteristics.** An exploratory aim of this experiment was to
358 examine whether participants' health concerns, use of information on product
359 packaging and current levels of stress and hunger measured in the final questionnaire
360 would predict their change detection of the ingredient list information. Using
361 Varimax rotation, an exploratory factor analysis revealed six factors with eigenvalues
362 exceeding .6. The suggested factors explained 61.431 % of the variance in the data (N
363 = 492), and ultimately one factor was discarded due to a low Chronbach's alpha in the
364 subsequent reliability test of each factor (see Table 3 for an overview). Along with
365 instruction (general instruction vs. specific instruction condition), these five factors
366 including: (1) importance of healthy ingredients, (2) orientation toward quality food
367 indicators, (3) focus on healthy eating, (4) trust in healthiness information, and (5)
368 knowledge of product packaging information, were entered in a binary logistic
369 regression as predictors of detection as the outcome. The logistic model was
370 statistically significant $\chi^2(8, N = 308) = 19.47, p = .013$, and was 83.1% correct in
371 predicting online detection. However, as presented in Table 4 results indicated that
372 only instruction [$B = .98$; Exp (B) = 2.66, $p = .003$] was a significant predictor of
373 online detection. None of the five factors representing different aspects of consumer

374 characteristics significantly influenced participants' detection of the ingredient list
375 change.

376 **Referral to ingredient list information.** An additional analysis was
377 conducted to explore whether participants consider the ingredient make-up of the
378 product in justifying their general or naturalness evaluation of the product. During the
379 third stage of the choice-blindness paradigm, participants were asked to explain their
380 overall rating (general instruction condition) or their natural rating (specific
381 instruction condition) of the product as part of the detection assessment. In the
382 condition where the ingredient list changed, 190 participants ignored the ingredient
383 list information when explaining their rating, 58 participants referred to ingredient
384 information but nonetheless did not detect that change. Only 52 participants referred
385 to the ingredient list information and detected the change concurrently. As expected,
386 there were significantly more participants who referred to the ingredient list
387 information in the specific instruction condition, hence also resulting in more
388 detectors, compared to the general instruction condition (see Table 4), $\chi^2(2, N = 308)$
389 $= 8.85, p = .012$. There was missing information from eight participants in the
390 ingredient list change condition. Additionally, one participant was coded as a
391 retrospective detector as they only disclosed at the end of the experiment that they had
392 noticed, but was uncertain, that there was a change to the ingredient list.

393 **Discussion**

394 In line with the expectations, our main findings first show that only a low
395 proportion of participants detected the swap of ingredient lists at all. Second, the
396 observation of a higher proportion of detectors in the specific instruction condition
397 (23.5%) compared to the general instruction condition (16.9%) compliment the results
398 from the logistic model that instruction condition significantly predicted participants'

399 detection status. These findings are consistent with previous research using the
400 choice-blindness paradigm showing that individuals are generally unaware and do not
401 detect the change when presented back with a choice that was not their own (e.g., Hall,
402 Johansson, Tärning, Sikström, & Detgen, 2010; Johansson, Hall, Sikström, & Olsson,
403 2005). Moreover, this implies that a fairly low proportion of participants considered
404 the ingredient list a source of information for a general product evaluation as well as
405 for an evaluation of the naturalness of the product. Finally, our results are particularly
406 interesting because they indicate that consumers do not attend to ingredient list unless
407 specifically directed towards it by a question about 'naturalness'. The additional
408 findings from the post-hoc analyses also support this view, as a greater proportion of
409 participants referred to the ingredient list information and were detectors in the
410 specific instruction condition regarding naturalness, and that besides this naturalness
411 instruction no other consumer characteristics such as health concerns and generic use
412 or consideration of product packaging information predicted detection.

413 The discrepancy between the often-reported preference for natural products
414 and the here observed lack of attention to ingredient lists could be explained in two
415 different ways. Firstly, the mismatch could be attributed to the characteristics of self-
416 report measures. When engaging in self-report measures consumers may over-report
417 their usage of ingredient information and preference for more natural products in
418 order to present themselves in a positive light that they are critical and healthful
419 agents. The choice-blindness paradigm in the current study avoided the shortcomings
420 of self-report measures and allowed an unbiased measurement of the degree to which
421 consumers attend to and use ingredient list information to evaluate a food product
422 overall and on its naturalness. Thus, the findings could be interpreted such that

423 consumers are less attentive to the ‘naturalness’ of the ingredients in actual choice-
424 situations than self-reports indicate.

425 Secondly, it could be that consumers are genuinely concerned with ingredient
426 naturalness, as indicated on self-report measures, but require a specific reminder or
427 cue, such as a question specifically about ‘naturalness’ as employed in the current
428 study, to guide their behavioral information search to the ingredient list on the product
429 packaging. This explanation is supported by the finding that detection rates were
430 higher in the specific instruction condition, which may indeed have reminded
431 participants to consider naturalness. Such reminders or cues therefore may provide an
432 opportunity to increase consumers’ attention to information they may otherwise
433 overlook in rather mindless product evaluation situations. They could for example
434 come in the form of nudges or labels.

435 Consumers have a lot of indirect influence in dictating how food policies are
436 regulated and established, as well as how food products are manufactured and
437 marketed. All food additives used in food products are required by the European Food
438 Safety Authority to be extensively tested against health risks, and subsequently
439 identified by respective E-numbers on the ingredient list of the food-packaging label
440 to further inform and reassure consumers (Van Dillen et al., 2003). However, as the
441 findings in our current study show, consumers generally pay less attention to
442 information on ingredient lists than would be expected based on self-reports. This
443 finding suggests that E-numbers as a source of information do not reach the majority
444 of consumers. On the other hand, our findings do not support the idea that ‘clean
445 labels’, containing a minimum of additives and limited processing, which food
446 manufacturers have increasingly adopted in recent years (Edwards, 2013;
447 Hoogenkamp, 2012), would have a large impact on consumers. Finally, our study also

448 indicates that consumers may require some reminder to attend to the ‘naturalness’ of
449 ingredients to take this information into account. Despite the fact that the instruction
450 to attend to naturalness improved attention to ingredient lists only for a small
451 proportion of the participants, this finding can be considered a starting point for future
452 research investigating the effectiveness of employing various cues that remind
453 consumers to consider factors, they themselves consider important, during actual
454 choice situations. Based on the current results the implementation of subtle cues in the
455 environment may be an effective strategy to shift consumers’ attention to information
456 on food packaging they consider relevant.

457 Besides providing insight into consumers’ (in)attention towards ingredient
458 lists, the current study contributes to the literature on choice blindness: whereas the
459 paradigm has mostly been used to demonstrate inconsistencies in people’s choices, as
460 well as political and moral attitudes (Hall, Johansson, Tärning, Sikström, & Detgen,
461 2010; Hall, Johansson, & Strandberg, 2012; Hall, Strandberg, Pärnamets, Lind,
462 Tärning, & Johansson, 2013), the current study shows that it can also be a useful
463 strategy to unobtrusively assess consumers’ attention to visual components of food
464 products.

465 Future research is encouraged to develop strategies to understand the (limited)
466 impact ingredient lists have on consumer evaluation and choice of food products. If
467 the aim is to increase the impact of cues in their guidance of consumers’ attention to
468 relevant information, either on food packaging or elsewhere (e.g. at specialized
469 websites) more specific studies are needed. The framework used in the current study
470 (choice blindness) may be suited for this, as it does not rely on self-report nor does it
471 alert consumers to aspects of the products they would normally not consider.
472 However, it should be acknowledged that the design of the choice blindness paradigm

473 does not allow for an examination of the cognitive mechanisms that underlie the
474 resulting lack of change detection, and to the best of our best knowledge this has not
475 been examined in previous research. As such, while it is assumed that participants did
476 not notice the change to the ingredient list on the returned product because they had
477 not attended to the ingredient list on the initial product, it could also be plausible that
478 participants did indeed look at the ingredient list information at first, but a lack of
479 thorough processing of the information, a lack of memory of the information, or a
480 failure to use the information subsequently could be accountable for the choice
481 blindness effect. In any case, the implication remains that participants' visual
482 attention to or depth of processing of ingredient list information is not
483 substantial, thereby challenging the notion that consumers highly involve
484 ingredient list information to deduce a product's naturalness. Moreover, to
485 complement our current research methods, future studies to also employ eye
486 tracking as an alternative method to directly assess consumers' visual attention
487 towards ingredient list information on food packaging. Finally, while the current
488 finding of low change detection is consistent and supportive of previous choice
489 blindness studies, it would be beneficial for future research to further examine
490 and pinpoint the cognitive processes that are culprit to the choice blindness
491 effect.

492 Furthermore, some insight could be drawn from previous literature suggesting
493 consumer's lack of consideration of information on food packaging is not necessarily
494 due to an inability to make use of the information, but rather a lack of motivation
495 (Grunert et al, 2010). It has been acknowledged that consumers do not realize that
496 they make over 200 food-related decisions each day (Wansink & Sobal, 2007), and
497 that many of these consumption decisions are made mindlessly (Bargh, 2002;

498 Dijksterhuis, Smith, van Baaren, Wigboldus, 2005). In light of this, it would be useful
499 for future research to extend on the current study in examining the implementation of
500 subtle cues to motivate and remind consumers to be more cognizant of information on
501 food packaging that would be useful in guiding their purchase decisions. Finally it
502 should be noted that neither behavioral intention nor actual purchasing behavior was
503 measured in this present study. Despite the advantages of instructed product
504 evaluations, the experimental setting does obviously not resemble an actual point of
505 purchase situation very closely. Moreover, previous research has suggested that the
506 reading of ingredient list differs from product to product (Grünert et al., 2010; Nordic
507 Council, 2004), but in this study only one food product was evaluated. A final
508 limitation that should be discussed is the possibility that some of the participants did
509 detect a swap but attributed it to their own wrongful memory rather than an actual
510 inconsistency in what they were presented. Despite taking measures against this
511 possibility by following a four-step detection assessment the possibility cannot be
512 ruled out.

513 In conclusion this study showed that consumers pay much less attention to
514 ingredient lists than self-reported preferences would suggest, and stresses the limited
515 value of adhering to commonly held beliefs about what ingredient declarations on
516 food products should look like. Cueing considerations of naturalness could be a
517 starting point for increasing consumers' attention to product packaging information
518 they would otherwise neglect.

519 **Financial Disclosure**

520 The study was commissioned by Unilever R&D Vlaardingen who was involved
521 exclusively in initiating the study design and funding the recruitment of participants

522 for data collection. The funding source was not involved in other aspects of the study.

523 All authors declare no conflicts of interest.

524

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Table 1

Proportion of online detectors in the general and specific instruction conditions respectively

	Proportion of online detections
General instruction	17/159 10.7%
Specific instruction	35/149 23.5%

Table 2

Predictors of online detection (logistic regression)

Dependent variable: Online Detection			
	<i>B</i>	Sig. ^a	Exp(<i>B</i>)
Nagelkerke R Square = .031			
Cox & Snell R Square = .051			
Instruction (base: General Instruction)	.947	.003	2.56
Ingredient list evaluation order (base: natural to unnatural)	-.213	.491	.808
Final brand of chosen product (base: Wouda)	.052	.869	1.05
Constant	-2.998	.000	.050

^a Based on Wald statistic.

Table 3

Factors pertaining to different consumer characters extracted from individual question items assessing health concerns, use of information on product packaging and current levels of stress and hunger

Factor 1: <i>Importance of healthy ingredients</i> ($\alpha = .532$)
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I base my choice for food on health. 2. I base my food for choice on the total amount of calories. 3. The ingredients have no influence on my choice of food. 4. My purchase considerations are more based on my gut feelings than on careful deliberations. 5. I always look at the ingredients on the label. 6. I use the information on the label to make a decision if I am buying a new product. 7. I use the ingredient information to decide whether I will buy the product. 8. I am interested in ingredient information. 9. Ingredients are important to assess whether the product is healthy if it is unhealthy
Factor 2: <i>Orientation toward quality food indicators</i> ($\alpha = .796$)
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If a product carries a Fair Trade label I am more inclined to buy it. 2. If a product is organic I am more inclined to buy it. 3. Do you try to eat organic products?
Factor 3: <i>Focus on healthy eating</i> ($\alpha = .705$)
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Healthy eating is important. 2. How healthy do you think you usually eat? 3. Do you manage to eat healthily?
Factor 4: <i>Trust in healthiness information</i> ($\alpha = .598$)
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If a product carries a health label I am more inclined to buy it 2. If product carries a health label, it is healthier than products without the label 3. I trust that the information represented by the product label is correct
Factor 5: <i>Knowledge of product packaging information</i> ($\alpha = .512$)
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I understand the information of product packaging. 2. I know what E-number means.
Factor 6: <i>Immediate determinants of purchase</i> ($\alpha = .354$; discarded due to low Cronbach's alpha)
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I base my choice for food on taste. 2. I base my choice for food on price 3. I base my choice for food on feelings of hunger.

Table 4

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Dependent variable: Online Detection			
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Nagelkerke R Square = .06			
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Instruction (base: General Instruction)	.98	.003	2.66
Ingredient list evaluation order (base: natural to unnatural)	-.235	.471	.79
Final brand of chosen product (base: Wouda)	.009	.979	1.02
Factor 1: Importance of healthy ingredients	.32	.154	1.38
Factor 2: Orientation toward quality food indicators	.228	.084	1.26
Factor 3: Focus on healthy living	.030	.898	1.03
Factor 4: Trust in healthiness information	-.260	.071	.77
Factor 5: Knowledge of product packaging information	-.022	.864	.98
Constant	-4.137	.004	.02

^a Based on Wald statistic.

Table 5

Referral to the ingredient list by non-detectors and online detectors from the general and specific instruction conditions respectively

	Participants who ignored the ingredient list	Non-detectors who referred to the ingredient list	Detectors who referred to the ingredient list
General instruction	106/154 68.8%	31/154 20.1%	17/154 11.0%
Specific instruction	84/146 57.5%	27/146 18.5%	35/146 24.0%

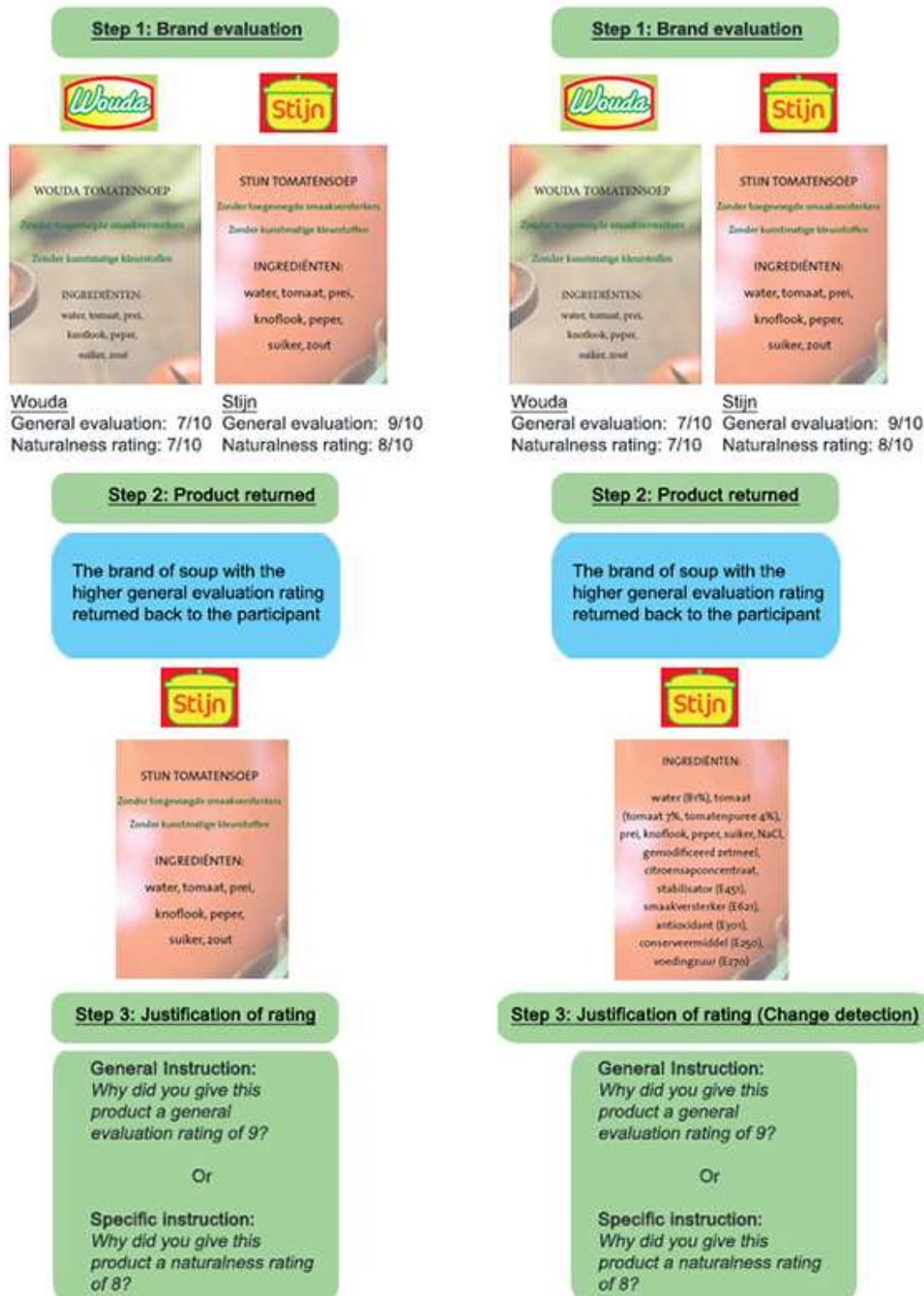


Figure 1. A pictorial depiction of the control condition where the ingredient list does not change (left) vs. the ingredient list change condition (right). In the control condition, the natural ingredient list of the brand with the higher rating is consistently shown at all stages of the experiment (whereas in the counterbalanced version, the unnatural ingredient list would be shown throughout the experiment). Contrarily, in the ingredient list change condition the ingredient list of the brand with the higher rating is swapped from natural (Step 1) to unnatural (at Step 2) (whereas in the counterbalanced version, the swap would be from unnatural to natural).



Figure 2. An example of the package label with a natural ingredient list for Wouda (top), and of a package label with an unnatural ingredient list for Stijn (bottom).



Figure 3a: An example of a natural ingredient list. English translation: “STIJN TOMATO SOUP; Without added flavor enhancers; Without artificial colorings; INGREDIENTS: water, tomato, leek, garlic, pepper, sugar, salt”; b: An example of an unnatural ingredient list. English translation: “INGREDIENTS: water (81%), tomato (tomato 7% tomato puree 4%), leek, garlic, pepper, sugar, NaCl, modified starch, lemon juice concentrate, stabilizer (E451), flavor enhancer (E621), antioxidant (E301), preservative (E250), food acid (E270)

Appendix
Sample Product Evaluation Form



Consumenten
survey

PP _____ Datum _____ Tijd _____

Geef uw antwoord aan op de onderstaande schaal zoals in het voorbeeld: Give your answer on the scale like the example

Helemaal niet belangrijk Heel erg belangrijk
Not at all important Very important

Hoe gezond vindt u dit product? How healthy do you find this product?

Helemaal niet gezond Heel erg gezond
Not at all healthy Very healthy

Hoe natuurlijk vindt u dit product? How natural do you find this product?

Helemaal niet natuurlijk Heel erg natuurlijk
Not at all natural Very natural

Hoe lekker denkt u dat dit product zal smaken? How tasty do you think this product tastes?

Helemaal niet lekker Heel erg lekker
Not at all tasty Very tasty

Hoe bekend bent u met het merk van dit product? How familiar are you with the brand of this product?

Helemaal niet bekend Heel erg bekend
Not at all familiar Very familiar

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- Few consumers consider ingredient info. when evaluating food product naturalness
- Choice-blindness paradigm shows low detection of changed ingredients on food label
- Cues about naturalness considerations increases attention to ingredient information

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT