# Tackling Food Neophobia

Investigation of a mixed slogan approach to facilitate the introduction of unknown food products

Master Thesis Communication Studies
Jean-Marie Leufkens

# Tackling Food Neophobia

## Investigation of a mixed slogan approach to facilitate the introduction of unknown food products

Master Thesis Communication Studies
Faculty of Behavioral Sciences, University of Twente

Student: Jean-Marie Leufkens (s0168009)

Graduation Committee:
Dr. Anna Fenko
Dr. Joris J. van Hoof

*Highlights*

- Product acceptance was investigated for an unknown dairy and fish product

- Food neophobics had a lower preference for the products than neophilics

- Slogans stressing familiarity did not influence the preference of neophobics

- Slogans stressing newness did positively influenced the preference of neophilics

- Slogans stressing newness and familiarity simultaneously were found ineffective

*Abstract*

Food neophobia can be seen as a potential barrier for the introduction of new food products. This study investigated if slogans could facilitate these introductions by corresponding to the needs of food neophobics and food neophilics. An unknown dairy and an unknown fish product were used to examine the effectiveness of slogans stressing the newness, familiarity or both of these values simultaneously. The study had a 2 (products: dairy vs. fish) × 3 (slogans: newness vs. familiarity vs. mixed message) between-subjects design and was conducted through an online questionnaire with digital advertisements (N = 222). Food neophobics showed an overall lower preference for both of the products and none of the slogans were able to significantly increase this preference. The slogan conveying newness, however, did increase the preference in food neophilics for the dairy product. The mixed slogan showed only partial effectiveness in increasing respondent's preference. This was also only true for neophilics, but not for neophobics. Furthermore, the sequential presentation of the two products showed latent effects of the first product on the evaluation of the second one. The data indicates that the evoked contrast effect alters the evaluation resulting in more extreme perception.

## 1. Introduction

When it comes to unknown foods some people tend to sample almost anything while others are sticking to the products they are already familiar with. By addressing these two different tendencies, a well designed slogan should be able to facilitate the introduction of new products by appealing to both of these groups of consumers.

That a huge percentage of all product innovations fail is a commonly known fact (Costa & Jongen, 2006). Some authors report failure rates up to 80% (Gresham, Hafer, & Markowski, 2006). For food innovations similar high levels are reported (Stewart-Knox & Mitchell, 2003). Most people, especially in the western countries, can already choose from an abundant selection of foods (Veeck, 2010), with novel food products still being introduced constantly. This is not surprising, because in today's markets it is vital for corporations to come up with new products to ensure the corporate sustainability (Michaut, 2004). Innovations within the food industry lead to differentiation and create the opportunity for added value (De Barcellos, Aguiar, Ferreira, & Vieira, 2009).

It seems that the user acceptance for new (food) products is often neglected or at least not well understood (Tuorila, Lahteenmaki, Pohjalainen, & Lotti, 2001; Verbeke, 2005). Not even food professionals appear to be able to foresee which food innovations are appreciated by the consumer (Van Kleef, Van Trijp, Luning, & Jongen, 2005). According to Rozin (1999) little is known about how people actually acquire their food preferences, and the complex eating patterns of adults are still not well understood (see Knaapila et al., 2011). Further research into consumer behavior has been identified as a top priority within the food industry, but only a handful of studies reached the public domain (Verbeke, 2005).

"Food neophobia", the avoidance of novel foods (Birch & Fischer , 1998), is a concept that can be used to measure and study why individuals neglect certain foods. For marketers and

producers this could be an opportunity to get insights why certain new food products are being accepted more easily than others. To this point, most of the research on food acceptance has focused on familiar instead of novel foods (Martins & Pliner, 2005) and very little efforts aimed at actual product development (Henriques, King, & Meiselman, 2009). In summary, it is an area where more research is needed (Schickenberg, 2010).

This study aims to shed light onto the possibilities to change the consumers' perception of novel products. This research paper is structured as following: Section 2 presents the theoretical framework for the study at hand, section 3 describes the methodology of the pre-studies and the main-study, section 4 deals with the results, and section 5 deals with the general discussions of the findings. The following paragraph will deal with the theoretical background of the study in detail.

## 2. Theoretical framework

The following paragraphs deal with the theoretical framework of the study. 2.1. describes the origins of food neophobia and the scale that is used to measure it, 2.2. deals with the usage of slogans, 2.3. with possible ways to counter food neophobia, and 2.4. deals with the design of the study at hand.

### 2.1. Food neophobia and the Food Neophobia Scale

Since no single one food item contains all the nutrition needed for survival, people have to select a variety of foods. This problem results in the Rozin's "omnivore's paradox" (Rozin, 1979). The main idea of this paradox is that "*the survival of omnivores depends on a predisposition to seek novelty and variety (neophilia), juxtaposed with a natural distrust of the unfamiliar (neophobia)*" (Veeck, 2011, p. 247). In other words, people have to search for unknown foods, while they are also simultaneously hardwired to avoid them.

This phenomenon can be found in other domains than food as well. Bornstein (1989) suggests that people have the general tendency to prefer the familiar over the novel, because there is always some kind of risk associated with the unknown.

This reluctance to eat, or the avoidance of, new food has been coined "food neophobia" (Birch & Fischer, 1998). It ensured that omnivores were careful in trying unknown foods because they did not know if these foods are poisonous or otherwise harmful (Van Trijp & Van Kleef, 2008). These days, where food safety is generally guaranteed in the developed societies (Pliner & Salvy, 2006), food neophobia can be seen as a limitation to one's readiness to try new foods and therefore restricting the marketability of new food flavors, styles and ingredients (Johns, Edwards, & Hartwell, 2011). In literature, food neophobia is considered as a possible barrier to a balanced diet (Knaapila et al., 2011) and the change to a healthier diet

(Schickenberg, 2010). It is also associated with the tendency to eat the same types of foods repeatedly (Tuorila et al., 2001) because of its restricting nature (Martins & Pliner, 2005).

Food neophobia can be measured by the Food Neophobia Scale (FNS). The FNS is a psychometric instrument with five positive and five negative items regarding foods and food-related situations developed by Pliner & Hobden (1992). The scale has been validated numerous times and has become the standardized measure of food neophobia (Meiselman, King, & Gilette, 2010).

With this scale consumers can be classified as either neophobic towards food, someone who avoids unknown foods, or as neophilic, someone who embraces novel foods (Veeck, 2010). Some authors remark that food neophobia is a dichotomous trait rather than a gradation (Johns et al., 2011). Respondents seem to classify themselves as one of the two extremes of the scale, namely either as "willing to try anything" or as "picky" (Veeck, 2010).

Some authors recommend the elimination of several scale items and researchers use varying numbers of items (Meiselman et al., 2010; Ritchey, Frank, Hursti, & Tuorila, 2003). Henriques et al., (2009) for example have successfully used a 4-item version of the scale which still correlates fairly high with the original 10-item scale.

Prior research has found various correlations between food neophobia and other constructs. Food neophobia is negatively correlated with experience seeking (Pliner & Hobden, 1992; Alley, Willet, & Muth, 2006), general familiarity and experience with unusual foods (Pliner & Hobden, 1992), low familiarity with foreign cuisines (Pliner & Hobden, 1992), food intake quantity (Pliner & Hobden, 1992), and with the actual consumption of spices (Eertmans, Victor, Vasant, & Van den Bergh, 2005). It correlates positively to general neophobia and trait anxiety (Pliner & Hobden, 1992; Knaapila et al., 2011).

**2.2. Slogans**

Slogans are short phrases that are used extensively in marketing to bring certain messages across to the consumers. Slogans are considered one of the key elements by which brands communicate with the world and consumers (Kohli & Suri, 2002). Slogans are utilized by almost all brands to create a certain image for products or brands, since they can convey more information than just a logo or a name alone (Kohli, Leuthesser, & Suri, 2007).

The actual development of slogans is usually a "hit & miss" approach, because it is typically done without the usage of a real guiding framework. Very little research has been conducted on the actual usage of slogans achieving more than pure brand awareness (Kohli et al., 2007).

Slogans, however, are able to convey certain product attributes effectively and make them more prominent in the mind of potential consumers. Boush (1993) used slogans to effectively prime various attributes to a fictitious brand of soup, moving these attributes to the "top-of-mind" of the respondents. Pryor and Brodie (1998) replicated these results, providing further empirical evidence that slogans indeed can be used as vehicles for priming certain key attributes to a product.

With respect to food neophobia, slogans could therefore be used to employ a certain loading of familiarity or newness. These perceived characteristics would consequently be associated with the presented novel food product. By changing the perception in a favorable way consumption intentions could be stimulated.

**2.3. Countering food neophobia**

To facilitate novel food acceptance the perception of the novel items need to match the individual needs of the consumers. According to De Barcellos et al. (2009), "perceived

familiarity" is the central dimension of food neophobia and therefore food acceptance. Even though it seems logical that "perceived newness" of a product should be the opposite of "perceived familiarity" on a one-dimensional scale, Hekkert, Snelders, & Van Wieringen (2003) remark, that at least for the domain of aesthetics, typicality and novelty are not conceived as opposite poles of one continuum, even if a high negative correlation can be often found. It seems reasonable that this is also true for the domain of food neophobia.

Food neophobics see novel or unfamiliar foods as a threat and react negatively to these products (Veeck, 2010). Literature suggests several ways to counter these initial negative responses.

Amongst these, are the repeated exposure, which leads to familiarity (Zajonc, 1968) or letting consumers taste the actual product (Birch, McPhee, Shoba, Pirok, & Steinberg, 1987). Another often cited way is offering information about taste (Tuorila, Meiselman, Bell, Cardello, & Johnson, 1994) or production (Fischer & Frewer, 2009), because it seems to decrease the perceived novelty and uncertainty (Schickenberg, 2010). Providing taste or 'it tastes like…' information seems to result in a higher willingness to try novel foods (Pelchat, 1995). Food neophobics should therefore primarily react positively to a slogan that conveys familiarity rather than newness.

For neophilics it should be the other way around and perceived newness should be stressed. They perceive unusual foods in a positive light and embrace situations involving new foods (Veeck, 2010). Since they seek novelty, information about the resemblance to other known foods should rather lead to an aversion of the "new" products, because they are not perceived as new enough anymore.

It is expected that food neophilics should therefore primarily react positively to a slogan that conveys newness rather than familiarity.

Therefore, the most logical approach is to target each group, with a slogan that fits its idiosyncratic needs. However, it would be cheaper and more effective, if a brand could target both of these groups at once with only one slogan, thereby maximizing the possible target audience of the product.

Although research suggests that both neophilics and neophobics evaluate familiar products more positively than unfamiliar products (Hoek et al., 2011), there should also be an optimal level of familiarity and newness that is preferred by both audiences. This level needs to be high enough to induce curiosity, as well as low enough to not induce fear and neophobia (Van Trijp & Van Kleef, 2008). This study tests for this threshold by using a slogan that sends a mixed message conveying familiarity as well as newness.

## 2.4. The present study

The aim of this paper is to expand the knowledge about food neophobia with respect to unknown food products and their marketability. To ensure successful market introductions the effects of slogans on food neophobia will be assessed as well.

Novel food products high in perceived familiarity should appeal to food neophobics whereas products high in perceived newness should appeal to food neophilics. A mixed approach, conveying a combination of familiarity and newness, is expected to appeal to both groups simultaneously. It is therefore hypothesized:

*H1: Food neophobics have an overall lower preference for unknown food products than food neophilics.*

*H2: Stressing the familiarity of an unknown food product mainly increases the*

*preference in neophobics.*

*H3: Stressing the newness of an unknown food product mainly increases the*

*preference in neophilics.*

*H4: Simultaneously stressing the familiarity and the newness of an unknown food*

*product increases the preference in neophobics as well as in neophilics.*

Both quantitative and qualitative (part)-studies are used to deepen the insights into food acceptance and to test the aforementioned hypotheses. The findings can then be translated into more global marketing implications to close the gap between research and actual practice.

## 3. Methods

Three pre-studies were used to create the instrument for the main study. In the following paragraphs the three pre-studies as well as the main study are described. The first pre-study was a questionnaire to find the most appropriate product categories for the study. The second pre-study included focus-group sessions to get deeper insight knowledge into food neophobia and the perception of novel foods. The third pre-study was another questionnaire to test possible slogans for the main study. The main study was a questionnaire using a $2 \times 3$ between-subjects design to test the research hypotheses.

### 3.1. Pre study 1: Choice of product for the main study

*3.1.1. Method*

Some product categories are more prone to variety seeking than others, especially those with lots of different flavor variations (see Adamowicz & Swait, 2011). It seems reasonable that product categories therefore also differ in the overall acceptance and in the way they are perceived.

To find the most appropriate food products for the main study an internet survey was used to estimate the *Perceived Familiarity* 'and *Intention to Try* (measured on 7-point scales) across nine different food categories. The categories used were: *breads*, *eggs*, *mueslis*, *pastas*, *rice-like products*, *fish*, *meats*, *fruit*, and *dairy products*. Each category featured three different products that were considered unfamiliar to the average Dutch consumer by the researcher. The average familiarity score across all categories of 2.56 (*SD* = 1.03) indicates that the products indeed were perceived as unfamiliar.

A Dutch version of the 10-item FNS was part of the questionnaire as well. The scale is based on Pliner and Hobden's original FNS scale (1992). However, in the Dutch translated version of the scale from the "Landelijk Kenniscentrum Kinder- en Jeugdpsychiatrie" (2012)

found online the word "*weet*" was missing for the third item. This was corrected by the researcher before the scale was used in the questionnaire.

The respondents ($n = 60$; 30.9% men and 69.1% women; ages ranging from 19 to 66 years, mean 30) were drawn from a convenience sample.

### 3.1.2. Results

The average score on the FNS was 25.93 ($SD = 8.91$). When splitting the sample into neophobics and neophilics using the mean of the population an exact 50/50 split, with 30 respondents in each group, was obtained.

It turned out that *fruits* were the most likely to be tried ($M = 6.04$, $SD = 1.23$), *fish* the category that was the least likely ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 2.12$) and *dairy products* ($M = 4.83$, $SD = 2.01$) being closest to the overall mean *Intention to Try* scores across all categories ($M = 5.11$, $SD = 1.33$).

A performed ANOVA-analysis showed that the scores on *Intention to Try* differed significantly between food neophobics and food neophilics for the categories *eggs* [$F(53, 1) = 14.118$, $p < .001$)], *mueslis* [$F(52, 1) = 10.122$, $p = .002$)], *rice-like products* [$F(52, 1) = 7.324$, $p = .009$)], *fish* [$F(54, 1) = 23.285$, $p < .000$)], *meat* [$F(54, 1) = 17.227$, $p < .000$)], and *dairy* [$F(52, 1) = 20.751$, $p < .000$)]. Comparisons for *breads*, *pastas* and *fruit* were not significant. All mean scores of food neophobics were lower than for food neophilics.

### 3.1.3. Discussion

All products coming from animals (*eggs*, *fish*, *meat* and *dairy*) yielded significant results. This is in line with prior research, in the way that novel animal foods might be perceived different from non-animal foods (Martins, Pelchat, & Pliner, 1997) and therefore be more likely to be rejected (Pliner & Pelchat, 1991).

To find the most concise effects in the main study it would seem reasonable to use a fish and a fruit product since these were the two categories rated lowest and highest on the *Intention to Try*. Food neophobics and neophilics, on the other hand, did not differ on their *Intention to Try* for fruits, indicating that fruits maybe are perceived as rather non-threatening by almost all consumers.

Since a fruit-product will probably not yield significant effects in the main study, only a fish and a dairy product will be used in the main study. Fish as a category was rated as the least likely to be tried, as well for food neophobics as for food neophilics, and dairy as a category was closest to the overall mean score, making it a good benchmark and point for comparison.

**3.2. Pre study 2: Perception of novel foods and slogan generation**

*3.2.1. Method*

Three focus group sessions were held in a semi-structured manner using an interview-guide, with the intention to deepen the understanding of the perception of novel food items. The interviews were recorded and noteworthy parts were transcribed afterwards.

A short questionnaire was incorporated to gather background data as well as approximate FNS scores. For these scores a short 4-item FNS scale was used. This 4-item FNS scale still correlates highly with the original 10-item FNS scale (Henriques et al., 2009). When using the FNS scores from the first pre-study a correlation of $r(58) = .89$, $p < .001$ can be found for the 10-item and the 4-item scale, verifying Henriques et al.'s findings.

The focus group sessions consisted of three parts. First, a group discussion of the three most uncommon things the respondents have eaten. Second, an actual product confrontation with four unfamiliar food items, where the respondents were able to sample the actual products afterwards if desired. These items were: 1. Arbutus, a fruit native in Spain, 2. Viili, a

dairy product from Finland , 3. Tamarillo, a fruit native in Colombia, 4. Chocolate-covered bacon, a novelty food from the United States. The third part of the group session was dedicated to the generation of possible slogans for the four just acquainted products.

Each session consisted of five á six respondents plus the researcher. These group sizes were in compliance with the recommend group size of 4-12 persons for focus groups (Krueger & Casey, 2000). The 17 respondents were drawn from a convenience sample (aged 20-28 years, mean age 25 years).

*3.2.2. Results*

The mean score for the FNS of the sample was 11.70 ($SD = 4.28$). Only three of the 17 respondents could be classified as food neophobics when using a score of $\geq 14$ (half of the possible obtainable score of 28) as cut-off point. It seems reasonable that this was mainly due to self-selection bias, since it is known that neophobic consumers tend to avoid events where they might be expected to taste unusual foods (Henriques et al. 2009; Veeck, 2010).

In the group discussions about uncommon eaten foods many named items belonged into the categories seafood, reptiles and amphibians as well as uncommon combinations of foods. Most of the products were animal-originated.

The list also included insects and dog to which one respondent made the remark "*[these are] Animals you are not supposed to eat in the Western culture*". That food acceptance is deeply interwoven with culture one grows up with, is a notion that can also be found in other research (e.g. Fischer & Frewer, 2009, Martin & Pliner, 2005; Veeck, 2010).

Most of the named food items were consumed in social settings. Veeck (2010) also mentions that one of the most often cited reasons for consumption of new foods is some form of perceived social pressure. For example, when guests do not want to offend the hosts' feelings.

The product confrontation spawned many comments about sensory modalities with visual aspects of the products (cf. Dovey et al., 2011) and comparisons to similar looking food products being most prominent. Notable were also judgments about fruit as an inherently healthy food category (e.g. "most likely it's healthy - it's fruit") which were also mentioned by Fischer and Frewer (2009), as well as prejudices about the country of origin (e.g. "Colombia […] maybe there's drugs inside").

When discussing possible reasons for people to sample new foods, "curiosity" was mentioned in all sessions. "Variety seeking", "searching for a particular taste" and "eating everything-attitude" were named as well. As possible reasons not to try new food products the Dutch proverb "Wat de boer niet kent, dat eet hij niet" (transl. "What the peasant doesn't know, he doesn't eat") came up in all focus group sessions and was always described as a typical Dutch attitude. "Fear for the unknown", "disliking one of the ingredients" and "not knowing how to prepare it" were mentioned as other possible barriers. Positive and negative word-of-mouth was mentioned as reason for trying or avoiding of unfamiliar foods respectively.

In the last stage of the sessions respondents brainstormed to come up with slogans that conveyed familiarity or newness in the most effective way. Altogether in the three sessions 58 different slogans were created this way for the four sampled products.

### 3.2.3. Discussion

The group discussions about uncommon eaten foods mirror the results of Veeck (2010) to a very large extend. In addition, most of the products were animal-originated, confirming the findings from Martins et al. (1997) and Pliner and Pelchat (1991) as did pre-study 1, that animal products may be perceived different than non-animal products. These findings also underpin the choice of a dairy and fish product for the main study to ensure concise results.

It is remarkable to mention that every respondent actually sampled every food item, although no respondent had ever eaten any of these products before. On the one hand, this may be due to the fact that only 3 respondents could be classified as neophobics. On the other hand, Tuorila and Mustonen (2010) found similar high consumption levels in an experiment with children and assume that this might be due to the fact that respondents feel the need to perform the task they think they had come for. Participation in an academic science experiment may therefore imply some kind of sanction if the task at hand is not performed as intended. It is also possible that the participants may trust the experimenter and judge the products as safe, because it would be unethical to present the respondents with harmful substances without former consent.

### 3.3. Pre-study 3: Designing the slogans

*3.3.1. Method*

The third and final pre-study was aimed at finding the most effective slogans for the main study. Effectiveness in this context meant that the advertised products are perceived either as new as possible, or as familiar as possible.

The slogans resulted directly and indirectly from pre-study 2. The slogans for actual products (e.g. "Tamarillo, the tomato from Colombia") were cut-back to more generic templates with placeholders for the *products* (*X*), a *comparable product* (*Y*) and *country of origin* (*Z*), resulting in interchangeable slogans than can be used with any product (e.g. "X, the Y from Z").

Eight different slogan categories were created using the following eight cell design: 2 (newness vs. familiarity) × 2 ('comparison with a similar product' vs. 'no comparison') × 2 ('reference to country of origin' vs. 'no reference to country of origin'). For each cell two slogans were used respectively. Since only 13 slogans from the focus group sessions fitted

these eight categories, three additional slogans had been added by the researcher to fill in all categories.

An online survey was used to measure the loadings of the 16 slogans. This was done by means of a Nordic dairy product. To fill in the generic slogan templates the survey therefore used "Filmjölk" as *product* (X), "yoghurt" as *comparable product* (Y) and "Finland" as *country of origin* (Z). The respondents ($n = 71$; 43.8% men and 56.3% women; ages ranging from 20 to 59 years, mean 26) rated all slogans on 7-point scales to which extend they perceive the advertised product as *new*, *known* and *familiar*. Only slogans with all three scores differing significantly from the middle of the 7-point scale were considered for further evaluation.

*3.3.2. Results*

The slogan with the highest score on perceived newness ($M = 5.55$, $SD = 1.60$) with simultaneously the lowest scores on *known* ($M = 2.48$, $SD = 1.58$) and perceived familiarity ($M = 2.74$, $SD = 1.32$) was "X, the unkown taste sensation" (actual Dutch wording: "X, de onbekende smaaksensatie").

The slogan with the highest scores on *known* ($M = 4.80$, $SD = 1.81$) and *familiar* ($M = 5.11$, $SD = 1.61$) with simultaneously the lowest scores on *new* ($M = 2.65$, $SD = 1.53$) was "X, a familiar taste" (actual Dutch wording: "X, een vertrouwde smaak").

Both these slogans belong to the first slogan category, meaning that they don't feature a comparison to another product nor mention their country of origin. For reference all used slogans and according mean scores on *new*, *known* and *familiar* can be found in Appendix A.

*3.3.3. Discussion*

To find the most effective slogan for the main study, 16 different slogans have been evaluated on their level of newness and familiarity. The two slogans "X, the unknown taste sensation" and "X, a familiar taste" had the strongest loadings on both ends respectively.

The two slogans belong into the same slogan category and are therefore comparable to a certain degree. They both feature the element taste, stressing that taste is one important part of product perception, even though no actual taste information is conveyed.

Although potential consumers created most of the slogans in pre-study 2, the two slogans with the strongest loadings for familiarity and newness were created by the researcher. This underpins the notion of Kohli et al. (2007) that it is important to assess slogans in a scientific and guided manner, rather than using a "hit & miss" approach and using a slogan that "feels right".

**3.4. Main study**

The main study was a Dutch online survey based on the aforementioned pre-studies and aimed at testing the influence of slogans (conveying familiarity, newness or both simultaneously) on the perception of novel food products. It was expected that these influences will be different for neophobics and neophilics. To verify the research hypotheses a 2 (products: dairy vs. fish) × 3 (slogans: newness vs. familiarity vs. mixed message) between-subjects design was used.

*3.4.1. Participants*

The participants for the main study were a convenience sample recruited by e-mail, social media and snowballing. A list with individuals willing to participate in research from the

University of Twente was used as well. Respondents participated voluntarily and were not rewarded with a financial compensation.

The final data set consisted of 222 respondents (see 3.4.6. for exclusion criteria). 42.3% of these respondents were male and 57.5% female, with ages ranging from 18 to 67 years. The mean age was 30 years.

*3.4.2. Manipulation*

*Product manipulations*

The pre-studies suggested that dairy and fish seem good choices for food categories to use in the main study. The two actual products used in the main study therefore were: 1. Skyr, a yoghurt-like product from Iceland, and 2. Omoel, a salmon-like fish from Russia. Omoel was chosen because salmon is a frequently consumed fish in the Netherlands (Fischer & Frewer, 2009). As far as product description goes only the name (Skyr, Omoel), type of product (dairy, fish), and country of origin (Iceland, Russia) were given in the instructions. Neither taste information nor comparable products were mentioned.

Following other studies, fake products were used to decrease familiarity and ensure that they are perceived as new (see Boush 1993; Martins et al., 1997; Pliner & Hobden, 1992; Pryor & Brodie, 1998; Schickenberg, 2010; Tuorila et al., 2001). The digital stimulus material for this study was produced by digitally altering existing packaging of crème fraiche and salmon to match the chosen products using Adobe Photoshop. Actual packages from other countries were used, which are not commonly found in the Netherlands. Brand names were removed as well to further prevent possible brand contamination. The digital stimulus material can be found in Figure 1.
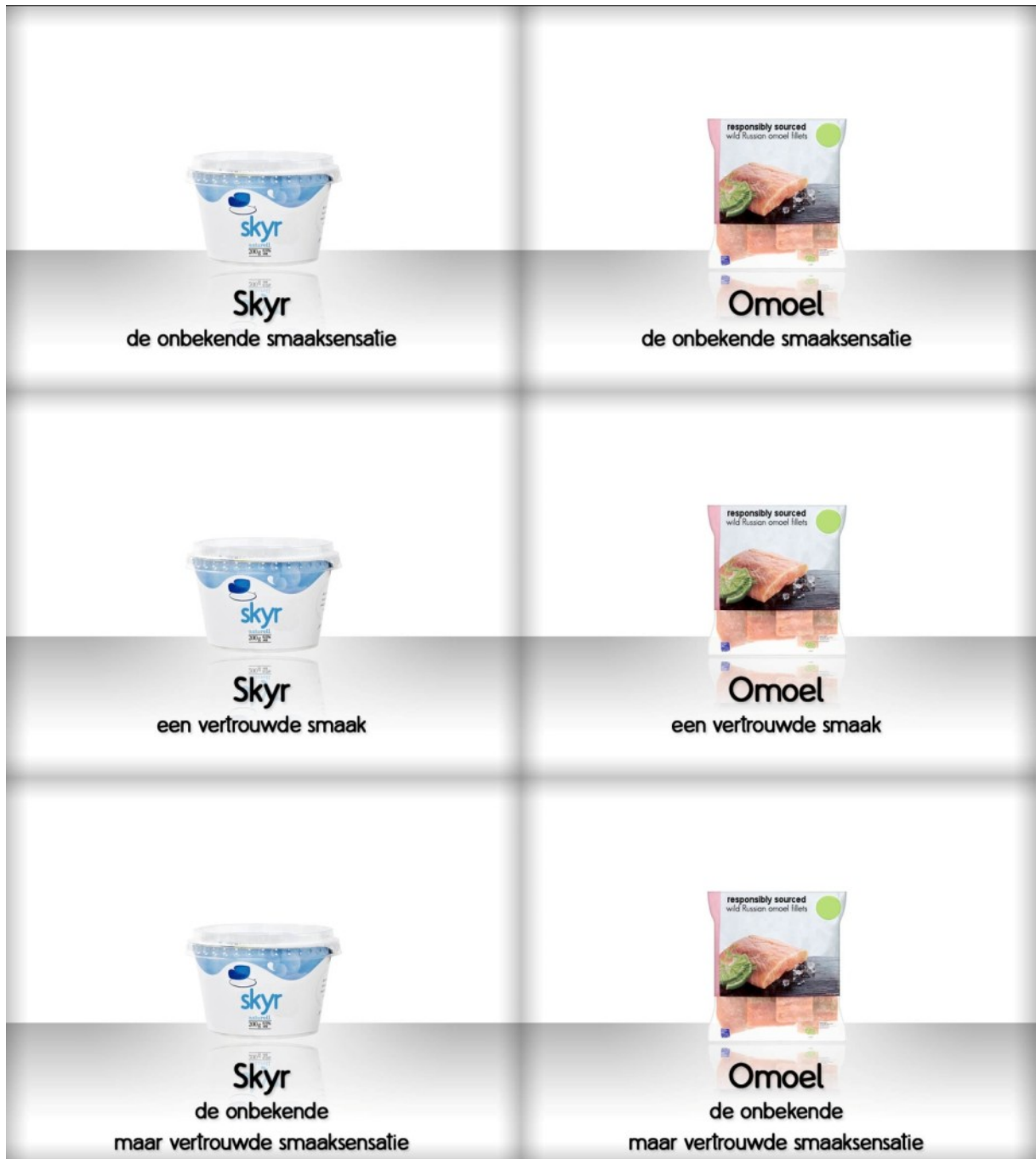
*Figure 1*. Digital stimulus material for the three slogan manipulations: Newness (first row, transl. "the unknown taste sensation"), familiarity (second row, transl. "a familiar taste"), and mixed slogan (third row, transl. "the unknown but familiar taste sensation") per product respectively.

The sequence in which the two products appeared were always the same. The literature

(Martins, et al. 1997; Pliner & Pelchat, 1991) as well as the pre-study 1 show that novel

animal products result in an overall lower acceptance. Although both products fish and dairy

are considered animal products, this effect should be more prominent for the fish item because it can be clearly distinct as animal-originated. However, since we are primarily looking for the patterns of slogan-influence for each product individually and are not planning to actually compare the two products, the effect of product sequence seems negligible.

*Slogan manipulations*

The three slogans used in the main-study were: 1. "X, the unkown taste sensation" (conveying newness), 2. "X, a familiar taste" (conveying familiarity), 3. "X, the unkown but familiar taste sensation" (conveying newness as well as familiarity). The first two slogans derived directly from the third pre-study, while the third slogan is the combination of the first two slogans. Since the combination of familiarity and newness induces a form of paradox, the slogan has been discussed with and accepted by five communication experts (three lecturers in communication science at the University of Twente, as well as by two native Dutch students enrolled in the Marketing MSc program).

The combination of slogans per condition differed and was shuffled so that respondents did not get two identical messages for two different products. Table 1 shows and overview of the slogans used per condition.

Table 1

*Overview of the six Research Conditions and Which Slogan They Featured for Skyr and Omoel*

| Condition | Skyr | Omoel |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | New | Familiar |
| 2 | New | Mixed |
| 3 | Familiar | New |
| 4 | Familiar | Mixed |
| 5 | Mixed | New |
| 6 | Mixed | Familiar |

Four variables were incorporated as manipulation check for the slogans. To check for "perceived familiarity" the two variables *known* and *familiar* were used, because the English term "familiarity" can be translated into two quite different terms in the Dutch language. On the one hand, into "bekend", which has a notion of "something I know", and on the other hand into "vertrouwd", which relates more to the notion of "something I trust". To check for "perceived newness" the variables *new* and *different* were used. These were based on a study of Van Kleef, Van Trijp and Luning (2005). Although Van Kleef et al. used these together as one concept named "uniqueness", the present study uses these two separately. *New*, *different*, *known*, and *familiar* were measured on 7-point scale with end-points labeled "not at all new/different/known/familiar" to "very new/different/known/familiar".

Table 2

*Scale Reliabilities of Constructs*

| Construct | Alpha (*a*) | Items | Amount (*n*) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Food neophobia scale (FNS) | .853 | 10 | 218 |
| Skyr Taste Expectation | .970 | 3 | 220 |
| Skyr Intention to Try | .932 | 3 | 222 |
| Skyr Intention to Buy | .952 | 3 | 221 |
| Omoel Taste Expectation | .982 | 3 | 222 |
| Omoel Intention to Try | .962 | 3 | 222 |
| Omoel Intention to Buy | .968 | 3 | 221 |

*Note.* The measured Cronbach's alpha for the FNS matches the values found in other studies (e.g. $\alpha = .85$ in Eertmans et al., 2005; $\alpha = .87$ in Knaapila et al., 2011).

*3.4.3. Dependent measures*

To measure the preference for the products four dependent measures were used. These were an assembly of measures used in the literature to assess the acceptance of food products. The measures are perceived *attractiveness* (Van Kleef et al., 2005), *taste expectation* (Schickenberg, 2010), *Intention to Try* (Schickenberg, 2010; Van Kleef et al., 2005) and

*Intention to Buy* (Van Kleef et al., 2005). *Attractiveness* was measured on 7-point scale with end-points labeled "not at all attractive" to "very attractive". *Taste expectation*, *Intention to Try* and *Intention to Buy* were measured using three items respectively on a 7-point scale, anchored by "totally disagree" and "totally agree". As visible in Table 2, all of these items showed high internal consistency and no items had to be removed.

### 3.4.4. Questionnaire

The first part of the questionnaire was a Dutch translation of Pliner and Hobden's (1992) original FNS. The scale was used with all of its original ten items in a 7-point form, as in the first pre-study.

The second part consisted of the digital advertisements for the two products followed by the manipulation checks and the dependent measures. The four manipulation checks as well as the four dependent measures were assessed for Skyr and Omoel respectively.

The third part of the questionnaire measured socio-demographic background variables. These consisted of age, gender, and level of education. In addition it was checked for actual acquaintance with the products Skyr and Omoel (as done by Schickenberg, 2010), as well as for intolerance, allergies or other personal beliefs (like vegetarianism) that restrained consumers from eating dairy or fish.

For reference the complete questionnaire for condition 2 of the main study can be found in Appendix B.

### 3.4.5. Procedure

The respondents were provided with the link to the online-questionnaire and asked to spare five minutes of their time. The questionnaire was online between June 27th and July 17th 2012.

Responses after the July 17th were not incorporated in the data-set. Participants were

randomly assigned to one of the six conditions by the website www.thesistools.com.

Respondents were told that they are participating in a study about the perception of food.

After filling in the FNS, respondents were presented with the advertisement for Skyr and

asked to look closely at the picture and the slogan. Hereafter they had to fill in the

measurements for the product. After this, respondents were presented with the advertisement

for Omoel, and again, asked to look closely at the picture and the slogan, before filling in the

measurements for the product. Finally, respondents were asked to fill in their background

data, before being thanked for their time.

### 3.4.6. Data analysis

Three qualifying criteria were used in the study. Respondents were asked if they had any

acquaintance with the products in the questionnaire before the study, and if they had any

intolerance, allergies or other personal beliefs that restrained them from eating dairy or fish.

Only when respondents answered 'no' to all of those questions, their data was used in the

analysis. This also ensured that questionnaires abandoned halfway through were omitted from

the analysis.

From the initial 292 responses 70 ('allergy, intolerance or beliefs' $n = 22$, 'acquaintance

with the used dairy product' $n = 3$, 'acquaintance with the used fish product' $n = 4$,

'acquaintance with both' $n = 3$, abandoned questionnaires $n = 38$) were removed this way.

Two respondents indicated that they were 13 and 14 years old and were therefore removed

from the data-set as well. This resulted in a final data set of 222 respondents.

Respondents can be split into food neophobics and neophilics by various cut-off points and

there seems to be no standardization for this procedure (Meiselman, 2010). Some researchers

choose the middle of the scale (e.g. Schickenberg, 2010), some the median (e.g. Barrena &

Sanchez, 2012; Dovey et al. 2011) others the mean of the sample (Henriques et al., 2008). To

ensure that the two groups are big enough for comparison the split in this study is done by the

mean of the sample, which is 29.39 ($SD$ = 10.07). This results in two distinct clusters that can

be classified as food neophobic ($n$ = 95) and neophilic ($n$ = 123) relative to the whole research

sample.

To test the hypotheses Multivariate-ANOVAs were used. For the pair-wise comparison

post-hoc tests with Bonferroni correction were performed. For the analysis of the dependent

measures for the first product Skyr the two factors *Skry Slogan Manipulation* and *Food

Neophobia Classification* were used. Since Omoel was presented after the preceding dairy

product, it seemed appropriate to not only use *Omoel Slogan Manipulation* and *Food

Neophobia Classification*, but *Skyr Slogan Manipulation* as factor as well. This is due to

possible latent effects of the previous slogan manipulation.

Cohen (1977) characterizes $\eta^2$=.01 as small, $\eta^2$=.06 as medium, and $\eta^2$=.14 as a large effect

sizes for MANOVA analyses. These values will therefore be used as benchmark when

interpreting the results. The results of the main study are presented and discussed in the

following paragraph.

## *4. Results and Discussion of the Main Study*

This section deals with the main as well as with the interaction effects of food neophobia and slogans. The results are presented in detail and are discussed subsequently.

### 4.1. Manipulation check

Four variables were used to analyze the effectiveness of the manipulation. For this manipulation check only the newness and familiarity slogan conditions were used. The mixed condition features the rather paradox mix of a newness as well as a familiarity loading. Since it is possible that these two loadings cancel each other out, the mixed condition was omitted from the manipulation check analysis, to prevent distortion of the other results.

When combining the scores for the newness and familiarity slogan conditions of Skyr and Omoel and omitting the results of the mixed-condition a MANOVA analysis showed small significant manipulation effects for the variables *Different* [$F(283, 1) = 5.663, p = .018, \eta^2 = .020$] and *Known* [$F(299, 1) = 4.553, p =. 034, \eta^2 = .016$]. The manipulation check for the variables *New* and *Familiar* the effects were not significant.

Table 3

*Mean scores and Standard Deviations on Manipulation Check Variables per Combined*

*Slogan Condition*

|  |  | Slogan condition | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
|  |  | Newness | Familiarity | [Mixed] |
| Perceived newness | New | 4.04 (1.76) | 3.86 (1.78) | [4.03 (1.89)] |
|  | Different* | 3.56 (1.59) | 3.13 (1.48) | [3.16 (1.62)] |
| Perceived familiarity | Familiar | 3.97 (1.54) | 4.15 (1.43) | [4.31 (1.43)] |
|  | Known* | 3.08 (1.72) | 3.51 (1.73) | [3.45 (1.80)] |

*Note*. The table shows the mean scores with standard deviations in brackets. An unpaired *t*-test between the newness and the familiarity condition was performed. Mixed condition is only included for reference. * $p < .05$.

The mean scores for the manipulation check variables per slogan condition can be found in Table 3. The scores for the mixed condition are included for reference as well. The manipulation checks for the collapsed conditions show that the newness slogan indeed resulted in higher scores on the two variables used for checking for perceived newness (*New* and *Different*) and that the same is true for the familiarity slogan and the perceived familiarity scores (*Familiar* and *Known*). However, in contrast to pre-study 3 where the exact same slogans were tested with another product, these familiarity and newness loadings seem not as strong and distinct.

One possible explanation for this might be latent effects of the first manipulation on the second one. Since the research design was not full factorial, meaning that each respondent were first exposed to the advertisement of the dairy product and subsequently presented with the second advertisement for Omoel, it seemed necessary to check for these possible latent effects.

An additional MANOVA was performed with the factors *Skyr Slogan Manipulation* and *Omoel Slogan Manipulation* on the four manipulation checks (which also were presented after the exposure to the first advertisement). This analysis confirmed that there are indeed latent effects of the first manipulation on the perception of the second product.

The MANOVA showed a significant main effect for the Skyr slogan on the Omoel manipulation check variable *New* [$F(211, 2) = 3.466$, $p = .033$, $\eta^2 = .033$]. The Skyr newness condition ($M = 3.53$, $SD = 1.75$) differed significantly ($p = .033$) from the familiarity condition ($M = 4.30$, $SD = 1.86$), the mixed condition ($M = 3.44$, $SD = 1.62$) differed significantly ($p = .014$) from the familiarity condition but not from the newness one. It seems that the second product was perceived as more "new" if the previous products was presented with a familiarity slogan.

Table 4

*Mean Scores for the Slogan × Slogan Interaction on Omoel Manipulation Check Variable*

*Known.*

|  |  | Skyr Manipulation | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
|  |  | Newness | Mixed | Familarity |
| Omoel Manipulation | Newness | * | 3.90 (1.74) | 3.23 (1.68) |
|  | Mixed | 3.90 (1.74) | * | 4.00 (1.77) |
|  | Familiar | 4.12 (1.16) | 3.74 (1.54) | * |

*Note.* Mean scores with standard deviation in brackets. * Not applicable.

The second MANOVA also revealed a significant interaction effect of both slogan manipulations on the variable *Known* [$F(211, 1) = 4.614$, $p = .033$, $\eta^2 = .022$] and *Familiar* (marginally significant) [$F(211, 1) = 2.945$, $p = .088$, $\eta^2 = .014$]. Table 4 shows the mean values for the different groups of the Skyr Slogan × Omoel Slogan interaction on the variable *Known*. It is visible that if the first product was presented with a newness slogan and the second one with a familiarity slogan the score on *Known* was especially high. The exact opposite was confirmed for the combination familiarity first and newness second.

When looking at the aforementioned findings, the slogan manipulations indeed seem to have effects on the manipulation check variables. However, the latent effects of the first manipulation on the second evaluation distorted the analysis of the manipulation check variables, making these effects less visible.

## 4.2. Main effects of food neophobia

Food neophobia had a significant effect on almost all dependent measures and the mean scores of all preference measures were lower for food neophobics than for food neophilics. All mean scores for the two groups can be found in Table 5.

Table 5

*Mean Scores on Dependent Variables for Food Neophobics (NPhob) and Neophilics (NPhil)*

|  |  | NPhob | NPhil |
|---|---|---|---|
| Skyr | Attractiveness (*m.s.*; p = .067) | 3.82 (1.60) | 4.26 (1.57) |
|  | Taste Expectation** | 3.51 (1.51) | 4.07 (1.43) |
|  | Intention to Try*** | 3.46 (1.46) | 4.22 (1.48) |
|  | Intention to Buy** | 3.00 (1.49) | 3.72 (1.60) |
| Omoel | Attractiveness*** | 4.27 (1.96) | 5.12 (1.33) |
|  | Taste Expectation*** | 3.93 (1.82) | 4.90 (1.46) |
|  | Intention to Try*** | 3.67 (1.85) | 4.62 (1.42) |
|  | Intention to Buy*** | 3.31 (1.73) | 4.08 (1.51) |

*Note.* Mean scores with standard deviation in brackets. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

For the dairy product Skyr, the MANOVA analysis showed effects of food neophobia on the three dependent measures *Taste Expectation* [$F(215, 1) = 7.084, p = .008, \eta^2 = .033$], *Intention to Try* [$F(215, 1) = 13.222, p < .001, \eta^2 = .060$], and *Intention to Buy* [$F(215, 1) = 11.309, p = .001, \eta^2 = .051$]. For the variable *Attractiveness* the effects are only marginally significant [$F(215, 1) = 3.383, p = .067, \eta^2 = .016$]. All observed effects can be classified as small to medium sized.

For the fish product Omoel food neophobia yields medium sized effects on *Attractiveness* [$F(215, 1) = 15.889, p < .001, \eta^2 = .073$], *Taste Expectation* [$F(215, 1) = 18.780, p < .001, \eta^2 = .085$], *Intention to Try* [$F(215, 1) = 18.764, p < .001, \eta^2 = .085$] and *Intention to Buy* [$F(215, 1) = 12.865, p < .001, \eta^2 = .060$].

**4.3. Main effects of slogans**

Although some research suggest that neophilics and neophobics both evaluate familiar products more positively than unfamiliar products (see Hoek et al., 2011), no main effects of the three different slogans were expected for the dependent measures, since an interaction with food neophobia was assumed. The performed MANOVA analyses indeed showed that there were no significant main effects of slogans for neither the dairy nor the fish product.

Table 6

*Mean Scores on Dependent Variables per Slogan Condition for Food Neophobics (NPhob)*

*and Neophilics (NPhil)*

| | | Newness | | Mixed | | Familiarity | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | NPhob | NPhil | NPhob | NPhil | NPhob | NPhil |
| Skyr | Attractiveness ($p = .051$) | 3.71 | 4.48 | 3.61 | 4.42 | 4.21 | 3.85 |
| | Taste Expectation* | 3.51 | 4.23 | 3.32 | 4.42 | 3.77 | 3.56 |
| | Intention to Try* | 3.18 | 4.52 | 3.40 | 4.19 | 3.82 | 3.91 |
| | Intention to Buy ($p = .071$) | 2.63 | 3.91 | 3.05 | 3.88 | 3.29 | 3.34 |
| Omoel | Attractiveness | 4.36 | 5.26 | 4.04 | 5.53 | 4.35 | 4.61 |
| | Taste Expectation | 3.91 | 5.08 | 3.80 | 4.97 | 4.04 | 4.65 |
| | Intention to Try | 3.75 | 4.56 | 3.42 | 4.75 | 3.79 | 4.57 |
| | Intention to Buy | 3.55 | 4.19 | 3.00 | 4.19 | 3.33 | 3.85 |

*Note.* Standard deviations vary between 1.20 and 1.79 for Skyr scores and between 0.98 and 2.12 for Omoel scores. MANOVA analysis was performed for each product respectively to examine significant interaction effects of *Slogan manipulation × Food Neophobia Classification*. * $p < .05$.

**4.4. Two-way interaction effects of slogan manipulations and food neophobia**

Whereas several significant interaction effects for slogan and food neophobia can be found for Skyr, neither significant interaction effects nor significant between group differences can be found for any of the four dependent Omoel preference measures. The mean scores of all dependent measures are presented in Table 6.

The performed MANOVA analysis showed significant interaction effects on the dependent Skyr measures *Taste Expectation* [$F(215, 2) = 3.750$, $p = .025$, $\eta^2 = .035$] and *Intention to Try* [$F(215, 2) = 3.128$, $p = .046$, $\eta^2 = .029$]. These interaction effects can be rated as small to medium sized.

For *Taste Expectation* (see Figure 2c) the neophilics in the newness condition differed significantly from the familiarity condition ($p = .033$) and the familiarity condition differed significantly from the mixed condition ($p = .011$). The difference from the neophilics in the newness condition to the mixed condition was not significant, as were all group differences

from the neophobics between slogans. In the newness condition neophobics and neophilics differed significantly from each other ($p = .039$), the same was true for the mixed ($p = .001$) but not for the familiarity condition.

For *Intention to Try* (see Figure 2e) the neophilics in the newness condition differed marginally significant from the familiarity condition ($p = .054$). All other group differences for neophilics and neophobics between slogans were not significant. In the newness condition neophobics and neophilics differed significantly from each other ($p < .000$), the same was true for the mixed ($p = .022$) but not for the familiarity condition.

The MANOVA analysis further showed marginally significant interaction effects for the slogan manipulation and food neophobia on the Skyr measures *Attractiveness* [$F(215, 2) = 3.012, p = .051, \eta^2 = .028$] and *Intention to Buy* [$F(215, 2) = 2.675, p = .071, \eta^2 = .025$].

For *Attractiveness* (see Figure 2a) the neophilics in the newness condition differed marginally significant from the familiarity condition ($p = .067$). All other group differences for neophilics and neophobics between slogans were not significant. In the newness condition neophobics and neophilics differed significantly from each other ($p = .045$), the same was true for the mixed ($p = .028$) but not for the familiarity condition.

For *Intention to Buy* (see Figure 2g) the neophilics in the newness condition differed marginally significant from the familiarity condition ($p = .095$). No other significant group differences for neophilics and neophobics between slogans were found. In the newness condition neophobics and neophilics differed significantly from each other ($p = .001$), the same was true for the mixed ($p = .022$) but not for the familiarity condition.

No significant interaction effects for slogan condition and food neophobia were found for the four dependent Omoel preference measures. However, for reference, all mean scores for food neophobics and neophilics are visualized in the right column of Figure 2 as well.
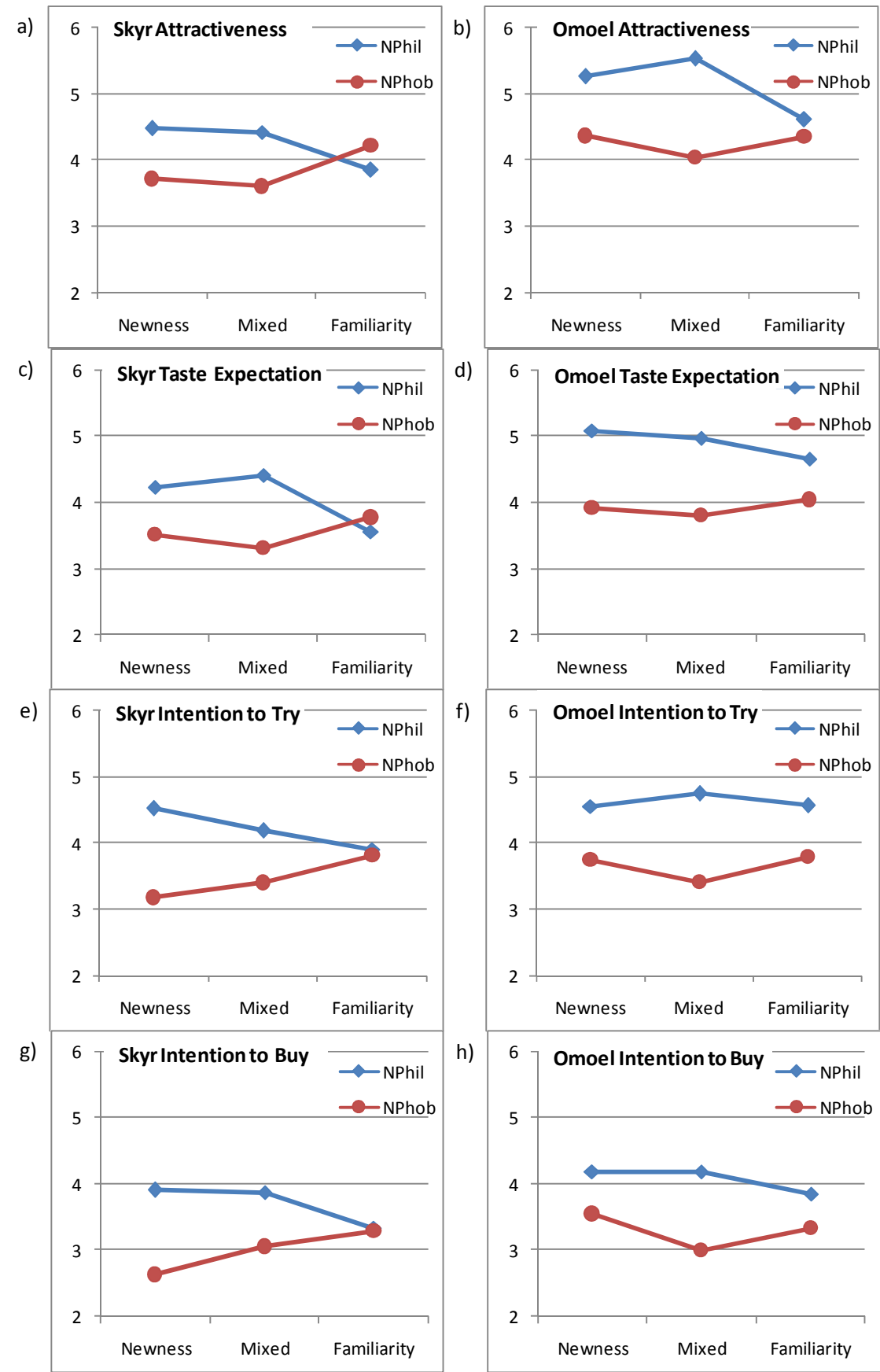
*Figure 2*. All visualized mean scores for food neophobics (NPhob) and neophilics (NPhil) per slogan condition on the dependent preference measures for the dairy (left) and the fish product (right).

**4.5. Discussion of the main study**

The results of the main study showed support for the first hypothesis that neophobics and neophilics differ regarding their evaluation of the products. Partial support was found for the third and fourth hypotheses, demonstrating that one single slogan is unable to affect the perception of both distinct groups successfully.

Hypothesis 1 stated that food neophobics have an overall lower preference for unknown food products than food neophilics. Since the mean scores on all preference measures were lower for food neophobics than for food neophilics, H1 can be judged as fully supported, even though the effect of Skyr on attractiveness was only marginally significant. These findings confirm the general food neophobia literature and stress that the population of consumers should be regarded as consisting of two distinct classes of consumers. As suggested Hoek et al. (2011) food neophobia seems to be an important barrier in the market place and marketers should take it into account when trying to introduce new products.

Hypothesis 2 stated that stressing the familiarity of an unknown food product increases the preference in neophobics. This hypothesis was not supported by the data. Neither for the dairy nor for the fish product any significant evidence could be found that would confirm this hypothesis. It is, however, noteworthy that the mean scores of the dairy product mirrored the expected pattern for all four preference measures.

Hypothesis 3 stated that stressing the newness of an unknown food product mainly increases the preference in neophilics. H3 was only partially supported by the data. However, this was only true for the dairy product, but not for the fish product. The significant group differences of neophilics for the dairy product measures on taste expectation, and the marginally significant differences on the other three measures showed that providing neophilics with a slogan that conveys newness, indeed resulted in a higher preference.

Hypothesis 4, which stated that a slogan conveying newness and familiarity heightens the preference of food neophobics and neophilics, was slightly supported by the data. As shown, this was only true for neophilics on the measurement of taste expectation for the dairy product.

When combining the findings of hypotheses 2 to 4, it becomes clear that food neophobics and neophilics should be treated as separate groups that should be targeted through individual approaches. One slogan is definitely not enough to positively influence the perception of both distinct groups. While slogans seem to work for neophilics to some extent, a different approach should be used for neophobics.

Contrary to the expectations and the results of pre-study 1, the unknown fish product in the main study was received unusually well by both neophobics and neophilics. In pre-study 1 fish was rated the category being the least likely to be tried. However, in the main study the overall mean score for *Intention to Try* for the fish product Omoel ($M = 4.32$, $SD = 1.60$) was higher than the score for the dairy product Skyr ($M = 3.81$, $SD = 1.44$), and higher than the overall *Intention to Try* score in pre-study 1 for the fish category as a whole ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 2.12$).

Schickenberg (2010) notes that "intention to try" scores are likely to be higher than actual sampling frequencies in laboratory studies, since there is no danger of actually tasting the product. However, this should have been true for pre-study 1 as well. Two more reasonable explanations for this study are Zajonc's (1968) mere-exposure effect and the packaging used for the fish product in the main study. Zajonc states that repeated exposure to a stimulus results in an increased liking. Although different product-stimuli were presented sequentially, the same layout for the advertisement and the dependent measures were used in the

questionnaire. Since respondents were more familiar with the overall procedure, this could have heightened the scores for the second product.

In addition to this, the packaging for the fish product was partly see-through exposing the actual product. The packaging was a digitally altered version of an actual salmon product. With salmon being a commonly eaten fish in the Netherlands (Fischer & Frewer, 2009), the unconscious association with salmon may have influenced the perception of the unknown fish Omoel.

Interestingly enough, latent effects of the first manipulation on the evaluation of the second product were found, resulting in contrasting effects. Respondents exposed to a product with a familiarity slogan first and a product with a newness slogan later, rated the second product as less known. On the other hand, respondents exposed to a product with newness slogan first and a product with a familiarity slogan later rated the second product the highest on being known. The contrast seems to evoke a more extreme perception of the second product. Dovey et al. (2011) found a similar contrast effect when they presented children with a known fruit first and an unknown fruit second. They concluded that familiarity of the first product may actually enhance the perceived novelty of the second product. The prior exposure to another product could therefore drastically alter the perception of a subsequently presented product. This has real life applications for marketers with being embedded in a completive environment where consumers are constantly exposed to products of competitors.

The next section deals with the general discussion combining the findings of the main study with the ones of the pre-studies.

## *5. General discussion*

This research aimed at deepening the knowledge about food neophobia and the facilitation of new product introductions for food neophobics and neophilics using slogans. The executed studies demonstrate that food neophobics and neophilics are two distinct groups that should be targeted with individual approaches due to their idiosyncratic characteristics. Slogans on their own, however, seem not to be effective in changing the perception of food neophobics.

### 5.1. Food neophobia

The main study and pre-study 1 show that food neophobics have an overall lower preference for unknown food products than food neophilics. This not only confirms hypothesis 1 of the main study but also the general findings of the food neophobia literature (see Dovey et al., 2008).

In the main study slightly stronger effect sizes can be observed for the fish product. This indicates that food neophobics and neophilics may hold stronger attitudes towards products that actually resemble animals. Prior research (Martins et al., 1997; Pliner & Pelchat, 1991) and the first two pre-studies suggested that products being clearly of animal origin are perceived different than non-animal products. Food neophobics seem to be more reserved towards novel animal products than food neophilics, making the introduction of new animal products neophobics more difficult. In general, the introduction of non-animal products be easier, because these products are overall better perceived by both distinct groups.

When looking at food categories in general, the introduction within certain categories should be easier that for other ones. Pre-studies 1 and 2 show that the new products from the category *fruit* are generally accepted by neophobics as well as neophilics. Adamowicz and Swait (2011) show that products like cereals, salty snacks and pizzas are prone to variety seeking. It seems reasonable to assume that, with regard to food neophobia, these categories

pose less of a threat to neophobics and neophilics, because consumers are used to switch between different products and flavors within these categories anyway. However, it is to be expected that food neophobics will still be more reserved in choosing unfamiliar products, even within these product categories, as shown in pre-study 1.

The packaging of unknown food products might have an important influence on food neophobia as well. Research has shown that vision is the most important sensory modality at the moment of buying (Fenko, Schifferstein, & Hekkert, 2009). A product in a see-through plastic wrapping might be experienced differently than a packaging obscuring the actual product itself. The group discussions in pre-study 2 featured many references to visual similarities of the unfamiliar products with familiar ones. This indicates that these visible differences and similarities to familiar products may influence the in-store purchase decision. See-through packaging might consequently result in a visual comparison to other familiar products, while obscuring the food product might evoke a stronger feeling of unfamiliarity.

With exception of pre-study 2, the executed studies omitted the cultural, social and contextual components of food choice and consumption. The current and coming generations may experience a very different food neophobia than past generations. With more and more ethnic restaurants opening, the current consumer may be accustomed to a very international cuisine, but tend to avoid more traditional foods that were part of their original cultural heritage. Intestines or scrap meats, that were commonly eaten by the older generations out of necessity, are disappearing from the shelves and will possibly be rated as rather unfamiliar by the current generation and the ones to come. The re-introduction of "forgotten" food products like these may therefore pose the same problems as the introduction of completely new products.

Social influences like word-of-mouth, peer-pressure and perceived social obligations may change consumption and buying patterns even more effectively than a slogan or the packaging of a novel food item. As noted by Veeck (2010), food neophobia can be described as an individual and social trait. A referral from a close family member or friend may easily persuade a food neophobic person to sample an unknown item, because they trust the other person and maybe even shared the same taste preferences in the past. If however a person feels socially forced to sample an unknown food product this may result in a permanent disliking and may even heighten food neophobia for similar products in the future. It is clear that individual tendencies and social influences have a complex interplay when it comes to food consumption. Since these social influences are however difficult to control marketers should keep focusing on effectively changing the individual perception of novel food products. Finding or constructing effective slogans could be one of these techniques.

As shown by the main study, the context in which novel food is presented may also influence the evaluation of the product. The latent effects of the first slogan manipulation resulted in contrasting effects. As indicated, this contrast leads to a more intensified perception of the second product. In a competitive retail environment, with products standing next to each other on the shelf, this can be either helpful or even hurtful when incorporating food neophobia into the marketing strategy. A product aimed at food neophilics, stressing its newness, would be perceived as less new if standing in a row with other products claiming newness as well. If the product however is placed between rather traditional and familiar looking products it would stand out even more, intensifying the perception of newness.

Context in a broader sense could be having similar effects. After consuming a rather traditional meal the consequently presented unfamiliar dessert may be perceived as more new and unknown than usual. On the other hand, it is also possible that after food neophobia is

overcome for one product, a person might be more willing to sample even more unknown food products as well, because they are not perceived as threatening anymore.

## 5.2. Slogans

With respect to the effectiveness of slogans to help facilitating product introductions, no significant effects for neophobics can be found in the present study. Stressing the familiarity of an unknown food product does not seem to increases the preference significantly in neophobics, although the mean scores on the preference measures for the dairy product mirror the expected results. Perceived familiarity is regarded the central dimension of food neophobia (De Barcellos et al., 2009). Since slogans were not able to adequately influence perceived familiarity, it seems necessary to use other techniques to achieve this. The literature suggests that offering a product with similar visual characteristics should increase liking because people have a positive bias to the familiar (Tuorila et al., 1994; c.f. Birch, 1999). Using a familiar similar looking product, to get neophobics accustomed to a new product, could therefore be an effective way to get them to try the novel product. Comparisons to similar products were a frequent topic in the group discussion of pre-study 2 as well, indicating that not only visual, but also other sensory characteristics could be used for this.

Stressing the newness of an unknown food product did increase the preference in neophilics in the main study, at least for the tested dairy product. However, since no similar evidence for this can be found for the fish product, this points out that the product perception may be product category dependent. As mentioned by Barrena and Sanchez (2012), the findings of the tested products should not be generalized to other novel foods or food marketing in general. Pre-study 1 indicates this as well, with scores varying widely across different product categories. With this notion in mind, it still can be stated that a slogan stressing newness of a novel dairy product leads to a more enjoyable expected taste.

Underlining newness therefore seems like a reasonable step, when positioning a new product designed for a more neophilic target audience. Even though the other findings for the preference measures on the dairy product in the main study are only marginally significant, the data suggest an overall more positive evaluation of the product for neophilics when a novel product is presented as new rather than familiar.

A mixed slogan approach, simultaneously stressing the familiarity and the newness of an unknown food product increased the preference only for neophilics and on only one of the preference measures. Overall, the mean scores of the mixed condition mirror those of the newness condition to a large extend. Three possible explanations could be responsible for the ineffectiveness of the mixed slogan: conflict avoidance, sequence effect, and incongruity of the message. With regard to conflict avoidance, Festinger's Cognitive Dissonance Theory (1957) states that people tend to avoid inner conflict by avoiding information that is inconsistent with their attitudes. No significant effects of slogans can be found for neophobics on any of the preference measures. This may be possibly due to the fact that they neglect the newness part of the message and only pay attention to the familiarity part, because this corresponds better to their prior attitudes. For neophobics the same could be true for the familiarity part.

With regard to the sequence effects of the message, Fischer and Frewer (2009) argue that information presented first has a higher impact on attitudes that consecutively following information. It is possible that the newness part of the mixed slogan overrides the familiarity part, since the mixed slogan consisted of the "newness" part first and the "familiarity" part second.

The third explanation could be that the incongruity of the message had a negative impact on the evaluation of the products due to processing fluency. Stimuli that are internally

consistent can be more easily processed than incongruent ones, resulting in more favorable

attitudes (Reber, Schwarz, & Winkielman, 2004). Since the mixed slogan represents a certain

paradox, due to featuring newness and familiarity simultaneously, this could have negatively

influenced the evaluation of the presented products.

Regardless of the reason why the mixed slogan was not perceived as intended, the results

show that the neophobics and neophilics should be addressed individually, rather than

simultaneously with one slogan. An approach with a mixed slogan, conveying both newness

and familiarity, did not raise the preference in both groups.


According to Kohli et al. (2007), slogans for new products are rarely created via a

scientific approach like in this study. Many brands use creative agencies to come up with

slogans for the products and then use focus-groups with members of the target audience to

test the effectiveness. An integrated approach using a creative agency, while incorporating the

scientific knowledge about food neophobia to generate slogans and then pre-testing these

slogans with the target audience, seems to be the most logical procedure to create an effective

slogan. An approach like this would not only increase the chance of a successful product

introduction but also helps to close the gap between research and practice.


## 5.4. Limitations

The slogan manipulation check in the main study shows smaller effects of the

manipulation than in pre-study 3. Although the loading of the familiarity and the newness

slogan were confirmed in the pre-study, these loadings could not be found to the same extent

in the main study. This may be partly due to the combination of slogan with an actual image

of the product. It is possible that the image had a more dominant effect on the perception of

the product than the textual slogan manipulation. Even if the instructions explicitly asked the

respondents to look closely at the picture and the slogan, it would have been probably wise to have tested the combination of slogan and image as a whole in another pre-study to ensure effectiveness of the manipulation.

The research design of the main study was not full factorial, meaning that the sequence in which the dairy and the fish product were presented was always the same. Pre-study 1 suggested different effects for food neophobia for different product categories. It was expected that the slogans however would results in the same patters for different categories. The main focus of the study was on the effectiveness of slogans and there was no intention to directly compare the two products with each other afterwards. To reduce the necessary sample size and cut the number of conditions from 12 to six, the choice was made to present each respondent with two advertisements consecutively. Although there was no reason to believe that the first slogan manipulations would influence the perception of the second product, latent effects were found. It could be argued that it would have been better if only one product per respondent had been used.

The research was conducted in the Netherlands using a dairy and a fish product. The findings of one country should not be generalized to other countries without caution (see De Barcellos et al., 2009; Meiselman et al., 2010). Since the findings also suggest that the effects of food neophobia might be category dependent the same is true for food categories. It is possible that the findings apply for other countries and food categories as well, but subsequent research should be conducted to confirm this.

## 5.6. Future research

The main study featured the two food categories dairy and fish, because concise effects for these categories were indicated by pre-study 1. Dairy and fish are both animal originated and

it would be interesting to investigate the effects of perceived familiarity and perceived newness with respect to food neophobia for other non-animal food categories as well.

The main study used a partly see-through packaging for the fish product, exposing parts of the actual product. A see-through packaging might, on the one hand, results in more perceived familiarity because the product itself can be visually compared to other known food products, on the other hand, also result in contrasting effects due to visual differences. Obscuring the vision of the actual product could possibly evoke stronger feelings of unfamiliarity. Subsequent research should investigate, if showing or hiding the actual product works better in appealing to food neophobics and neophilics.

The products featured in all executed studies were largely unknown to the sample population. The overall findings of the mixed slogans mirror the ones of the newness slogan and it seems that newness overrules the familiarity message for unknown products. Follow-up research should investigate the usage of a mixed slogan for a rather familiar product. It seems possible that the familiarity part of the mixed message then overrides the newness message.

Since the main study used a mixed slogan, stating the newness part first and the familiarity part second, sequence effects within the message should be investigated as well. It is possible that familiarity overrides newness if it is stated first rather than second.

Latent effects of the first slogan were found on the evaluation of the second product in the main study. In real life advertisements are rarely presented isolated as well. Since they often have to compete for attention with other products, for example in an advertisement block on TV, the use of a full factorial design would be useful to investigate the contrasting effects indicated by the data.

**5.7. Conclusions**

This research stresses that food neophobics and food neophilics are two distinct groups with very different characteristics. For the introduction of products both groups should be

targeted separately rather than simultaneously. Concise slogans, conveying only one message rather than a paradox combination, should be used for this. New products aimed at a food neophilic audience should definitely stress the newness of the product, since it seems to heighten their overall preference. For products aimed at a rather reserved food neophobic audience other techniques, like sampling or providing actual taste information, seem more effective to heighten the perceived familiarity of the novel product. For food neophobics slogans on their own do not seem to do this effectively.

**References**

Adamowicz, W. L., & Swait, J. (2011). *Are food choices habitual? Integrating habits, variety seeking and compensatory choice in a utility maximizing framework*. Göteborg: University of Gothenburg

Alley, T. R., Willet, K. A., & Muth, E. R. (2006). Motion sickness history, food neophobia, and sensation seeking. *Perceptual and Motor Skills 102*(3), 683-690. doi: 10.2466/pms.102.3.683-690

Barrena, R., & Sanchez, M. (2013). Neophobia, personal consumer values and novel food acceptance. *Food Quality and Preference 27*(1), 72-84. doi: 10.1016/j.foodqual.2012.06.007

Birch, L. L., & Fisher, J. O. (1998). Development of eating behavior among children & adolescents. *Pediatrics, 101*, 539–549. Retrieved from http://pediatrics.aappublications.org/content/101/Supplement_2/539.full.html

Birch, L. L., McPhee, L., Shoba, B. C., Pirok, E., & Steinberg, L. (1987). What kind of exposure reduces children's food neophobia? Looking vs. tasting. *Appetite, 9*(3), 171-178. doi: 10.1016/S0195-6663(87)80011-9

Birch, L. L. (1999). Development of food preferences. *Annual Review of Nutrition, 19*, 41–62. doi:10.1146/ annurev.nutr.19.1.41

Bornstein, R. F. (1989). Exposure and affect. Overview and meta-analysis of research. *Psychological Bulletin ,106*, 265–289. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.106.2.265

Boush, D. M. (1993). How advertising slogans can prime evaluations of brand extensions. *Psychology and Marketing, 10*(1), 67−78. doi: 10.1002/mar.4220100106

Cohen, J. (1997). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences.* New York: Academic Press.

Costa, A. I. A., & Jongen, W. M. F. (2006). New insights into consumer-led food product development. *Trends in Food Science & Technology, 1*7(8), 457-465. doi: 10.1016/j.tifs.2006.02.003

De Barcellos, M. D., Aguiar, L. K., Ferreira, G. C., & Vieira, L. M. (2009). Willingness to try innovative food products: A comparison between British and Brazilian consumers. *Brazilian Administration Review, 6*(1), 50-61. doi: 10.1590/S1807-76922009000100005

Dovey, T. M., Staples, P. A., Gibson, E. L., & Halford, J. C. G. (2008). Food neophobia and 'picky/fussy' eating in children: A review. *Appetite, 50*(2), 181–193. doi: 10.1016/j.appet.2007.09.009

Dovey, T. M., Aldridge, V. K., Dignan, W., Staples, P.A., Gibson, E. L., & Halford, J. C. G. (2012). Developmental differences in sensory decision making involved in deciding to try a novel fruit. *British Journal of Health Psychology, 17*(2), 258–272. doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8287.2011.02036.x

Edwards, J. S. A., Hartwell, H. L., & Brown, L. (2010). Changes in food neophobia and dietary habits of international students. *Journal of Human Nutrition and Dietetics 23*(3), 301–311. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-277X.2010.01066.x

Eertmans A., Victoir A., Vansant G., & Van den Bergh O. (2005). Food-related personality traits, food choice motives and food intake: Mediator and moderator relationships. *Food Quality and Preference, 16*(8), 714-726. doi: 10.1016/j.foodqual.2005.04.007

Fenko, A., Schifferstein, H. N. J., & Hekkert, P. (2009). Shifts in sensory dominance between various stages of user-product interactions. *Applied Ergonomics, 41*, 34-40. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apergo.2009.03.007

Fischer A. R. H., & Frewer L. J. (2009). Consumer familiarity with foods and the perception of risks and benefits. *Food Quality and Preference, 20*(8), 576-585. doi: 10.1016/j.foodqual.2009.06.008

Gresham, G., Hafer, J., & Edward, M. (2006). Inter-functional Market Orientation Between Marketing Departments and Technical Departments in the Management of the New Product Development Process. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management 8*(1), 43-66. Retrieved from http://www.ibam.com/pubs/jbam/articles/vol8/no1/ JBAM_8_1_3.pdf

Hekkert, P., Snelders, D., & Van Wieringen, P. C. W. (2003). 'Most advanced, yet acceptable': Typicality and novelty as joint predictors of aesthetic preference in industrial design. *British Journal of Psychology, 94*, 111–124. doi: 10.1348/000712603762842147

Henriques, A. S., King, S. C., & Meiselmann, H. L. (2009). Consumer segmentation based on food neophobia and its application to product development. *Food Quality and Preference 20*, 83–91. doi: 10.1016/j.foodqual.2008.01.003

Hoek, A. C., Luning, P. A., Weijzen, P., Engels, W., Kok, F. J., & de Graaf, C. (2011). Replacement of meat by meat substitutes. A survey on person- and product-related factors in consumer acceptance. *Appetite 56*, 662–673. doi: 10.1016/j.appet.2011.02.001

Johns, N., Edwards, J. S. A., & Hartwell, H. (2011). Food neophobia and the adoption of new food products. *Nutrition & Food Science, 41*(3), 201 - 209. doi: 10.1108/00346651111132475

Kohli, C., & Suri, R (2002). Creating effective logos: Insights from theory and practice. *Business Horizons, 45*(3), 58-64. doi: 10.1016/S0007-6813(02)00203-3

Kohli, C., Leuthesser, L., & Suri, R. (2007). Got slogan? Guidelines for creating effective slogans. *Business Horizons, 50*(5), 415-422. doi: 10.1016/j.bushor.2007.05.002

Knaapila, A., Silventoinen, K., Broms, U., Rose, R .J., Perola, M., Kaprio, J., & Tuorila, H. M. (2011). Food Neophobia in Young Adults: Genetic Architecture and Relation to Personality, Pleasantness and Use Frequency of Foods, and Body Mass Index - A Twin Study. *Behavior Genetics 41*(4), 512-521. doi: 10.1007/s10519-010-9403-8

Krueger, R. A., & Casey, M. A. (2000). *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publishing.

Landelijk Kenniscentrum Kinder- en Jeugdpsychiatrie (2012). *Food Neophobia Scale Dutch.* Retrieved July 15, 2012, from http://www.kenniscentrum-kjp.nl/nl/ Professionals/Themas/eetstoornissen/eetstoornissen-bij-jonge-kinderen/diagnostiek

Martins Y., & Pliner, P. (2005). Human food choices: An examination of the factors underlying acceptance/rejection of novel and familiar animal and nonanimal foods. *Appetite, 45*(3), 214-224. doi: 10.1016/j.appet.2005.08.002

Martins Y., Pelchat M. L., & Pliner, P. (1997). 'Try it; it's good and it's good for you': Effects of taste and nutrition information on willingness to try novel foods. *Appetite, 28*(2), 89-102. doi: 10.1006/appe.1996.0064

Meiselman, H. L., King S. C., & Gillette, M. (2010). The demographics of neophobia in a large commercial US sample. *Food Quality and Preference, 21*(7), 893-897. doi: 10.1016/j.foodqual.2010.05.009

Michaut, A. M. K. (2004). *Consumer response to innovative products with application to foods*. PhD Thesis, Wageningen University, Wageningen, The Netherlands.

Pelchat, M. L., & Pliner, P. (1995). 'Try it. You'll like it.' Effects of information on willingness to try novel foods. *Appetite, 24*(2), 153-165. doi: 10.1016/S0195-6663(95)99373-8

Pliner. P., & Hobden, K. (1992). Development of a scale to measure the trait of food neophobia in humans. *Appetite, 19*(2), 105-120. doi: 10.1016/0195-6663(92)90014-W,

Pliner, P., & Pelchat, M. L. (1991). Neophobia in humans and the special status of foods of animal origin. *Appetite, 16*(3), 205–218. doi: 10.1016/0195-6663(91)90059-2

Pliner, P., & Salvy, S. J. (2006). Food neophobia in humans. In R. Shepherd & M. Raat (Eds.), *The psychology of food choice* (pp. 75–92). Oxfordshire: CABI.

Pryor, K., & Brodie, R. J. (1998). How advertising slogans can prime evaluations of brand extensions: Further empirical results. *Journal of Product and Brand Management, 7*(6), 497−508. doi: 10.1108/10610429810244666

Reber, R., Schwarz, N., & Winkielman, P. (2004). Processing Fluency and Aesthetic Pleasure: Is Beauty in the Perceiver's Processing Experience? *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 8*(4), 364–82. Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/1956/594

Ritchey, P. N., Frank, R. A., Hursti, U.-K., & Tuorila, H. (2003). Validation and cross-national comparison of the food neophobia scale (FNS) using confirmatory factor analysis. *Appetite, 40*, 163–173. doi: 10.1016/S0195-6663(02)00134-4

Rozin, P. (1999). Food is fundamental, fun, frightening, and far-reaching. *Social Research, 66*(1), 9–30. Retrieved from http://www.psych.upenn.edu/~rozin/foodfrig.rtf

Rozin, P. (1979). Preference and affect in food selection. In J. H. A. Kroeze (Ed.), *Preference, Behaviour & Chemoreception* (pp. 289–297). London: Information Retrieval Limited.

Schickenberg, B. (2010). *Towards strategies to stimulate first time trial of unfamiliar healthful food products*. PhD Thesis, Maastricht University, Maastricht, The Netherlands.

Stewart-Knox, B., & Mitchell, P. (2003). What separates the winners from the losers in new food product development. *Trends in Food Science and Technology 14*, 58-64. doi: 10.1016/S0924-2244(02)00239-X

Tuorila, H., Meiselman, H. L., Bell, R., Cardello, A. V., & Johnson, W. (1994). Role of sensory and cognitive information in the enhancement of certainty and linking for novel and familiar foods. *Appetite, 23*, 231–246. doi: 10.1006/appe.1994.1056

Tuorila, H., Lahteenmaki, L., Pohjalainen, L., & Lotti, L. (2001). Food neophobia among the Finns and related responses to familiar and unfamiliar foods. *Food Quality and Preference, 12*(1), 29–37. doi: 10.1016/S0950-3293(00)00025-2

Tuorila, H., & Mustonen S. (2010). Reluctant trying of an unfamiliar food induces negative affection for the food. *Appetite, 54*(2), 418-421. doi: 10.1016/j.appet.2010.01.010

Van Kleef, E., Van Trijp, H. C. M., Luning, P, & Jongen, W. (2002). Consumer-oriented functional food development: how well do functional disciplines reflect the 'voice of the consumer'? *Trends in Food Science & Technology, 13*(3), 93-101. doi: 10.1016/S0924-2244(02)00068-7

Van Trijp, H. C. M., & Van Kleef, E. (2008). Newness, value and new product performance. *Trends in Food Science and Technology, 19*(11), 562-573. doi: 10.1016/j.tifs.2008.03.004,

Veeck, A. (2010). Encounters with Extreme Foods: Neophilic/Neophobic Tendencies and Novel Foods. *Journal of Food Products Marketing 16*(2), 246-260. doi: 10.1080/10454440903413316

Verbeke, W. (2005). Consumer acceptance of functional foods: Socio-demographic, cognitive and attitudinal determinants. *Food Quality and Preference, 16*(1), 45-57. doi: 10.1016/j.foodqual.2004.01.001

Zajonc, R. B. (1968). Attitudinal effects of mere exposure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology Monograph Supplement, 9*(2), 1-27. doi: 10.1037/h0025848

**Appendix A. All Slogans Tested in Pre-Study 3**

Table A

*Mean Scores of all Slogans Used in Pre-Study 3 on the Dependent Measures New, Known*

*and Familiar, Measured on 7-Point Scales*

| Parameters | Slogan | New | Known | Familiar |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **111** | **Filmjölk, de onbekende smaaksensatie** | **5,55***** | **2,48***** | **2,74***** |
| 111 | Filmjölk, laat je verrassen | 5,29*** | 3,20*** | 3,42** |
| 112 | Filmjölk, eindelijk ook in Nederland verkrijgbaar | 5,37*** | 3,89*** | 4,16 |
| 112 | Filmjölk, nieuw in Nederland | 5,45*** | 2,77*** | 3,27*** |
| 121 | Als het geen Filmjölk is, is het gewoon yoghurt | 4,18 | 3,61 | 4,09 |
| 121 | Als je Filmjölk hebt geproefd, is er geen yoghurt meer die je hoeft | 4,66** | 3,51* | 3,84 |
| 122 | Filmjölk, de nieuwe yoghurt uit Finland | 5,72*** | 3,42** | 3,88 |
| 122 | Filmjölk, de nieuwe Finse yoghurt | 5,36*** | 3,50* | 4,14 |
| 211 | Filmjölk, het is écht heel lekker | 3,33** | 3,72 | 3,70 |
| **211** | **Filmjölk, een vertrouwde smaak** | **2,65***** | **4,80**** | **5,11***** |
| 212 | Filmjölk, al 50 jaar een succes in Finland | 3,39* | 3,80* | 4,56* |
| 212 | Filmjölk, bijna zo als de Nederlandse | 3,60 | 3,46 | 3,48* |
| 221 | Als je yoghurt lust, vind je Filmjölk zeker lekker | 3,37** | 3,86 | 3,84 |
| 221 | Filmjölk, bijna hetzelfde als yoghurt | 3,52* | 3,45* | 3,70 |
| 222 | Filmjölk, zo smaakt yoghurt in Finland | 4,65** | 3,32** | 4,06 |
| 222 | Filmjölk, de yoghurt uit Finland | 4,04 | 3,75 | 4,09 |

*Note.* Parameters are encoded as following: First digit is the message focus (1: newness, 2: familiarity), second digit is level of comparison (1: 'comparison with a similar product', 2: 'no comparison'), third digit is level of country reference (1: 'reference to country of origin', 2: 'no reference to country of origin'). T-test significance for the value 4 are indicated as following: *p<0,05, ** p<0,01, ***p<0,001. Slogans in bold were used in the main study.

**Appendix B. PDF Version of the Questionnaire of Condition 2**

Bedankt voor het meedoen aan mijn onderzoek naar de waarneming van voedsel.
Het invullen van deze vragenlijst zal slechts 5 minuten van je tijd in beslag nemen.

Start

## 1.

**Geef aan in hoeverre je het wel of niet eens bent met de volgende stellingen.**

| | helemaal mee oneens | | | | | helemaal mee eens | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ik probeer constant nieuw en verschillend voedsel. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Ik vertrouw geen nieuw voedsel. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Als ik niet weet uit welk voedsel de maaltijd bestaat, probeer ik het niet. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Ik hou van voedsel uit diverse landen. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Buitenlands voedsel ziet er te vreemd uit om te eten. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Tijdens feestjes probeer ik nieuw voedsel. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Ik ben bang om voedsel te eten, dat ik nooit eerder heb gehad. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Ik ben erg kieskeurig over het voedsel dat ik eet. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Ik eet bijna alles. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Ik probeer graag nieuwe buitenlandse restaurants. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

doorgaan naar de volgende pagina

**Hieronder zie je een advertentie voor een product.**
Een merk wil een nieuw voedselproduct op de Nederlandse markt lanceren. Het product is een typisch zuivelproduct uit IJsland met de naam "Skyr".
Neem goed de tijd om naar de advertentie en slogan te kijken. Je wordt zo gevraagd om een aantal vragen hierover te beantwoorden.

Skyr
de onbekende smaaksensatie

**2.**

**Geef hieronder alsjeblieft aan hoe je het product ervaart als je naar deze advertentie kijkt.**

**Dit product voelt voor mij…**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| niet aantrekkelijk | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ | aantrekkelijk |
| niet nieuw | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ | nieuw |
| niet bekend | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ | bekend |
| niet vertrouwd | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ | vertrouwd |
| niet onderscheidend | ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ | onderscheidend |

**3.**

**Geef aan in hoeverre je het wel of niet eens bent met de volgende stellingen.**

| | helemaal mee oneens | | | | | helemaal mee eens | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Toen ik het product zag, dacht ik dat het lekker zou zijn. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Dit product lijkt me lekker. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Ik verwacht van dit product een lekkere smaak. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

**4.**

**Stel, je komt het bovenstaande product volgende week in je lokale supermarkt tegen.**
**Geef aan in hoeverre je het wel of niet eens bent met de volgende stellingen.**

| | helemaal mee oneens | | | | | helemaal mee eens | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ik ga dit product proeven. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Ik overweeg dit product te proeven. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Het is waarschijnlijk dat ik dit product ga proeven. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Ik ga dit product kopen. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Ik overweeg dit product te kopen. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Het is waarschijnlijk dat ik dit product ga kopen. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

doorgaan naar de volgende pagina

**Hieronder zie je nog een advertentie voor een ander product.**
Een merk wil een nieuw voedselproduct op de Nederlandse markt lanceren. Het product is een typisch russische vis met de naam "Omoel".
Neem goed de tijd om naar de advertentie en slogan te kijken. Je wordt zo gevraagd om een aantal vragen hierover te beantwoorden.



responsibly sourced
wild Russian omoel fillets

Omoel

de onbekende

maar vertrouwde smaaksensatie

**5.**

**Geef hieronder alsjeblieft aan hoe je het product ervaart als je naar deze advertentie kijkt.**

**Dit product voelt voor mij...**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| niet aantrekkelijk | ○○○○○○○ | aantrekkelijk |
| niet nieuw | ○○○○○○○ | nieuw |
| niet bekend | ○○○○○○○ | bekend |
| niet vertrouwd | ○○○○○○○ | vertrouwd |
| niet onderscheidend | ○○○○○○○ | onderscheidend |

**6.**

**Geef aan in hoeverre je het wel of niet eens bent met de volgende stellingen.**

|  | helemaal mee oneens |  |  |  |  | helemaal mee eens |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Toen ik het product zag, dacht ik dat het lekker zou zijn. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Dit product lijkt me lekker. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Ik verwacht van dit product een lekkere smaak. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

---

**7.**

**Stel, je komt het bovenstaande product volgende week in je lokale supermarkt tegen. Geef aan in hoeverre je het wel of niet eens bent met de volgende stellingen.**

|  | helemaal mee oneens |  |  |  |  | helemaal mee eens |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ik ga dit product proeven. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Ik overweeg dit product te proeven. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Het is waarschijnlijk dat ik dit product ga proeven. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Ik ga dit product kopen. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Ik overweeg dit product te kopen. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Het is waarschijnlijk dat ik dit product ga kopen. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

doorgaan naar de volgende pagina

**8.**

**Wat is je leeftijd?**\*

☐

**9.**

**Wat is je geslacht?**

-- maak je keuze -- ⬍

**10.**

**Wat is je nationaliteit?**

-- maak je keuze -- ⬍

**11.**

**Indien je nationaliteit niet Nederlands is, hoeveel jaren (afgerond) woon je dan al in Nederland? Anders hoef je niets in te vullen.**

☐

**12.**

**Wat is je hoogst genoten opleiding? Indien deze nog niet is afgerond, noteer dan je huidige opleiding.**

-- maak je keuze -- ⬍

**13.**

**Geef aan in hoeverre je het wel of niet eens bent met de volgende stellingen.**

| | helemaal mee oneens | | | | | helemaal mee eens | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Over het algemeen lust ik visproducten. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Ik eet vaak visproducten. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Over het algemeen lust ik zuivelproducten. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |
| Ik eet vaak zuivelproducten. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

**14.**

**Heb je een allergie, intolerantie of persoonlijke overtuigingen die je hinderen om zuivel of vis te eten?**

-- maak je keuze --

**15.**

**Ik heb "Omoel" al een keer eerder gezien of gegeten.**

-- maak je keuze --

**16.**

**Ik heb "Skyr" al een keer eerder gezien of gegeten.**

-- maak je keuze --

**17.**

**Indien je hierboven hebt aangeven dat je één van de producten al eerder hebt gezien of gegeten, kun je je herinneren waar? Anders hoef je niets in te vullen.**

**18.**

**Indien je verder nog opmerkingen hebt, kun je deze hier invullen.**

gegevens versturen

Heel erg bedankt voor je medewerking!