

Journal Pre-proofs

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PII: S0950-3293(22)00088-X

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2022.104613>

Reference: FQAP 104613

To appear in: *Food Quality and Preference*

Received Date: 20 July 2021

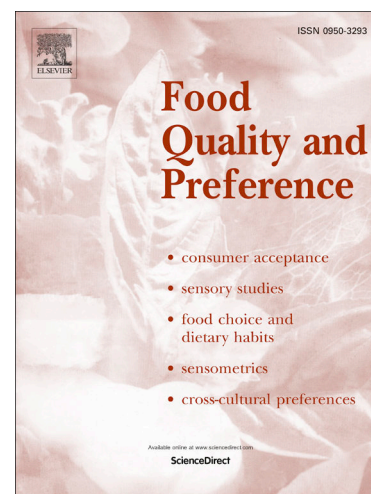
Revised Date: 6 April 2022

Accepted Date: 18 April 2022

Please cite this article as: Embling, R., Neilson, L., Randall, T., Mellor, C., Lee, M.D., Wilkinson, L.L., ‘Edible seaweeds’ as an alternative to animal-based proteins in the UK: Identifying product beliefs and consumer traits as drivers of consumer acceptability for macroalgae, *Food Quality and Preference* (2022), doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2022.104613>

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‘Edible seaweeds’ as an alternative to animal-based proteins in the UK: Identifying product beliefs and consumer traits as drivers of consumer acceptability for macroalgae.

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Availability of data and materials: The datasets generated and analysed during the current study are available in the Open Science Framework repository, <https://osf.io/jy897/>.

Declaration of interests: none.

Short title: Consumer acceptability of seaweed-based foods

Abstract

Edible macroalgae (i.e., 'seaweeds') are a nutritious and sustainable alternative to animal-based proteins. However, consumption of seaweeds in Western countries remains low, and little is known about individual drivers of acceptance. The aim of this study was to further explore the consumer acceptability of seaweed-based food products in the UK. In an online study (N = 476), participants were presented with a general description of edible seaweeds, and descriptions of seaweed-based food products (e.g., 'seaweed burger'). Participants were asked to rate beliefs about product attributes, and reported acceptance in terms of liking, willingness to try, willingness to buy, and readiness to adopt as a meat alternative. It was predicted that positive beliefs about seaweed-based products would be significantly associated with greater acceptance, and that seaweed-based products would be more favourable than a general description of seaweeds. Supporting study hypotheses, structural equation modelling showed that positive beliefs about taste/ edibility and familiarity significantly predicted acceptance ($p < .01$). Taste/ edibility was higher for seaweed-based products compared to a general description of seaweeds ($p < .001$), and perceiving foods to be tasty and familiar mediated the negative effect of food neophobia on consumer acceptance ($p < .05$). Other product beliefs – including cost, healthiness, and sustainability – were relatively poor predictors of acceptance ($p > .05$). These results support the consumer acceptance of seaweeds, and identify scope for utilising specific attributes of seaweeds (as drivers of acceptance) in future product development.

Keywords: consumer acceptance, algae, seaweeds, meat substitute, plant-based, consumer perception

23 1. Background

24

25 Dietary intake of protein is a long-standing recommendation in nutritional guidelines
26 (Mozaffarian & Ludwig, 2010). In recent years, the consumption of animal-based proteins
27 (including meat and dairy products) has substantially increased worldwide, such that the
28 intake of animal-based proteins now exceeds recommended amounts in developed countries
29 (Godfray et al., 2018; Stoll-Kleemann & O’Riordan, 2015). The overconsumption of meat is
30 known to negatively impact the environment and food security, as well as consumer health
31 (Godfray et al., 2018; Rust et al., 2020; Stoll-Kleemann & O’Riordan, 2015). To combat
32 these effects, nudging consumers towards choosing plant-based (e.g. soy-based substitutes)
33 and other alternative proteins (e.g. single cell proteins) as part of a ‘plant-forward diet’ is one
34 strategy that has been recommended to reduce the consumption of animal-based proteins
35 (Rust et al., 2020).

36 Edible macroalgae – more commonly known as ‘seaweeds’ – have been identified as
37 a promising alternative to animal-based proteins. As a nutritious food source, seaweeds are
38 generally high in dietary fibres, vitamins, and minerals, and low in dietary fat content (Cherry
39 et al., 2019; Circuncisão et al., 2018; Fleurence et al., 2012). Across species, the protein
40 content of green seaweeds is estimated to be 10 – 25% of its dry weight, increasing to up to
41 47% for red seaweeds (Cherry et al., 2019). Harvesting seaweeds is also considered to be a
42 sustainable practice, as seaweeds can be farmed in large quantities without resources required
43 for other plant-based alternatives, such as fertiliser, freshwater, and expanses of agricultural
44 land (Mahadevan, 2015). From a product development perspective, seaweeds benefit from
45 having an already well-established consumer market as a food source, particularly in Asia
46 (Fleurence et al., 2012). However, despite some evidence of traditional use, seaweeds remain
47 a food item with relatively low present-day consumption rates in most Western countries

48 (Birch et al., 2019; Chapman et al., 2015; Fleurence et al., 2012; Labbe et al., 2019; Losada-
49 Lopez et al., 2021; Palmieri & Forleo, 2020).

50 **In addition to other Western countries**, there appears to be an emerging market for
51 seaweeds and seaweed-containing products in the **UK** (Adams, 2016; Birch et al., 2019;
52 Bouga & Combet, 2015). In some parts of the country, consuming seaweeds in traditional
53 recipes has continued to the present day. For example, in Wales, purple laver (*Porphyra*
54 *umbilicalis*) is used to make ‘laverbread’, a seaweed-based puree that is often served with
55 other seafoods or meat (Adams, 2016; Mahadevan, 2015). A growing range of seaweeds and
56 seaweed-based food products – including sushi, seaweed sheets, breads, confectionary,
57 condiments, pasta, soups, snacks, and drinks – have also been made available to consumers in
58 both large supermarkets and specialist retailers, with the majority of products being UK
59 sourced (Bouga & Combet, 2015).

60 Despite the increasing availability of seaweeds and its potential use as a nutritious and
61 sustainable food source, to our knowledge, little is known about the acceptability of seaweeds
62 for UK consumers. Therefore, we invited consumers to complete an online survey about their
63 beliefs regarding seaweeds and seaweed-based food products, and asked them to rate
64 acceptability in terms of liking, willingness to try, willingness to buy, and readiness to adopt
65 as a meat alternative. The aim of this study was to further explore the consumer acceptability
66 of seaweed-based food products in the UK, and help identify specific drivers of acceptance
67 for seaweeds relating to both **product beliefs** and **consumer traits**.

68

69 **2. Hypotheses and supporting theoretical framework**

70

71 **2.1. The influence of product beliefs on consumer acceptability**

72

73 Previous research has generally reported a high willingness to try/ eat seaweeds
74 among consumers in Western countries (Birch et al., 2019; Losada-Lopez et al., 2021;
75 Palmieri & Forleo, 2020, 2021; Wendin & Undeland, 2020). In turn, this acceptability of
76 seaweeds is often accompanied by positive evaluations of product attributes. For example,
77 after taste-testing sample dishes, consumers tended to report a moderate-to-strong liking of
78 seaweeds, with positive descriptions of the flavour and texture (e.g. ‘nutty’ and ‘soft’)
79 (Chapman et al., 2015; Lamont & McSweeney, 2021). Consumers have also perceived
80 seaweeds to be ‘tasty’, ‘healthy’ and ‘good for the environment’ when evaluating potential
81 food products (Wendin & Undeland, 2020). As a collective construct, such dimensions have
82 been identified as having a considerable effect on acceptability of ‘novel’ meat substitutes,
83 including insects and blended meat/ plant-based products (Koning et al., 2020; Lang, 2020).
84 However, the relative importance of *individual* product attributes to consumer acceptability
85 for seaweeds warrants further exploration, as ‘taste’ and ‘healthiness’ in particular have
86 recently been highlighted as key product-related drivers of acceptance for other alternatives
87 to animal-based proteins (Onwezen et al., 2021). Therefore, it was predicted that more
88 positive perceptions of seaweed-based food products would be significantly associated with
89 greater acceptance ratings for these foods as individual predictors of acceptability (H1).

90

91 **2.2. The influence of a ‘product’ context on consumer acceptability**

92

93 Rather than presenting seaweeds as an edible food in general or in isolation, using
94 seaweeds as an additional ingredient in other *well-known* products can benefit consumer

95 acceptance (Birch et al., 2019; Chapman et al., 2015). This is particularly important to
96 consider given that less familiarity with eating seaweeds, and greater trait levels of food
97 neophobia and food technology neophobia (avoidance of novel foods and foods produced
98 with novel food technologies, respectively), have been identified as significant barriers to
99 consumers accepting seaweeds as a food source (Birch et al., 2019; Losada-Lopez et al.,
100 2021; Palmieri & Forleo, 2020).

101 We also note that consideration of the meal/ product context can be helpful to further
102 product development and placement of a particular food source within a consumer market.
103 Framing a food source as a component within a specific meal/ product context has been
104 shown to enhance acceptability for other alternatives to animal-based proteins relative to
105 presenting the food source ‘individually’ (e.g. ‘chickpea burger’ vs. ‘chickpeas’) (Possidónio
106 et al., 2021). Acceptance can even differ across prospective meals/ items for the same food
107 source (Elzerman et al., 2011, 2015; Grahl et al., 2018; Possidónio et al., 2021), as consumers
108 may perceive some product contexts to be more appropriate for consumption than others
109 (Elzerman et al., 2011, 2015). However, noticeably fewer studies have explored the
110 acceptability of specific seaweed-based food products relative to ‘seaweeds’ more generally
111 (Chapman et al., 2015; Lamont & McSweeney, 2021; Wendin & Undeland, 2020), and
112 preference for items appears to differ considerably between consumer **segments** (Chapman et
113 al., 2015; Wendin & Undeland, 2020).

114 For these reasons, it was predicted that Food ratings would be significantly higher (or
115 more positive) when responding to hypothetical seaweed-based food products compared to a
116 general text description of seaweeds as a food source (H2).

117

2.3. The influence of consumer traits and food-related attitudes on consumer acceptability

There is evidence that acceptability for alternatives to animal-based proteins – including seaweeds – differs across consumer profiles (Onwezen et al., 2021). In addition to considering effects of food neophobia and food technology neophobia (see **section 2.2** above), studies within this area of research typically explore the role of other food-related attitudes in promoting consumer acceptance, such as attitudes towards the healthiness, convenience, and environmental impact of food, as well as the importance that consumers place on nutritional and sensory qualities of meat (Gómez-Luciano et al., 2019; Verbeke, 2015). Applying such an approach to the consumption of seaweeds, Birch and colleagues (Birch et al., 2019) found that consumers had a greater likelihood of eating seaweeds in the future if they were more health conscious and had a tendency toward ‘convenient’ snacking behaviour, whereas concerns about food safety and ethics (including sustainability) had little impact on acceptance. However, research also suggests that the impact of these attitudes on consumer acceptance can differ across consumer profiles that incorporate *perceptions* of consuming seaweed, particularly according to whether these beliefs are positive or negative (Palmieri & Forleo, 2020). Therefore, considering the influence of consumer traits on acceptance, in conjunction with the role of **product beliefs**, can provide further insight into potential drivers for seaweeds in a specific sample. In this study, consumer traits and food-related attitudes were then explored as factors that interact with food ratings (for product attributes) to predict consumer acceptance (H3).

141 3. Method

142

143 3.1. Study design

144

145 Using a cross-sectional design, this study examined associations between beliefs
146 about seaweed-based food products (measured across 10 dimensions), and four acceptability
147 ratings (liking, willingness to try, willingness to buy, and readiness to adopt as a meat
148 alternative). Food ratings were first collected in response to a general text description of
149 seaweed as a food source, followed by text descriptions/ photographs of six hypothetical
150 seaweed-based food products presented in a randomised order determined by the survey
151 software ‘Qualtrics’ (Qualtrics, Provo, UT) (see **section 3.4** for details). Three questions were
152 included as attention checks throughout the survey (on two occasions, participants were
153 asked to “please select ‘not at all’ by dragging the slider all the way to the left”, and on the
154 third occasion they were asked to “please select ‘strongly agree’” on a Likert scale).
155 Questionnaire measures used to assess general eating-related traits and beliefs were collected
156 after participants had responded to all food descriptions (see **section 3.5** for details). Study
157 methods and planned data analyses were preregistered on the Open Science Framework
158 (OSF) before data collection had begun, and structural equation modelling procedures were
159 preregistered before the proposed model was conducted (<https://osf.io/jy897/>).

160

161 3.2. Participants

162

163 Participants were recruited to complete the study in March 2021 via ‘Prolific’
164 (<https://www.prolific.co>). Participants were directed to the survey using an anonymous link to

165 ‘Qualtrics’. Before completing a consent form (to provide informed written consent),
166 participants were presented with an information sheet and informed that the aim of the
167 research was to “explore consumer beliefs about a potential new food product”. Participants
168 completed the study in approximately 20 minutes, and were compensated for their time with
169 a payment of £2.50 on Prolific (following the platform’s guidelines on fair pay). The study
170 was approved by the Department of Psychology Research Ethics Committee at Swansea
171 University.

172 Following Fritz and MacKinnon (2007), it was estimated that 462 participants were
173 required to detect a mediated ‘small’ effect using bias-corrected bootstrap approaches ($1-\beta =$
174 0.80). Data collection was then stopped when 535 responses to the survey had been recorded
175 to account for unusable data (e.g., duplicate responses from the same participant ID,
176 participants who did not finish the survey). Participants were eligible to be included in the
177 study if they were currently living within the UK, and if they self-identified as having normal
178 or corrected-to-normal vision. All participants were 18 years old or older. Participants were
179 excluded from the study if they reported having a current or history of eating disorders, if
180 they reported any food allergies or intolerances that might limit the applicability of food
181 descriptions used in the study, and if they failed multiple attention checks. After removing
182 ineligible responses, 476 participants were included in the sample.

183

184 3.3. ‘Seaweed’ and ‘seaweed-based’ food descriptions

185

186 Participants were presented with seven food descriptions (see **Table 1**). Each product
187 description framed seaweeds as a ‘protein-rich’ food source. In the first description,
188 participants were provided with examples of different edible seaweeds. For each of the six

189 remaining descriptions, participants were provided with an example of a hypothetical
190 seaweed-based food product containing seaweeds as a complimentary ingredient to other
191 identifiable food components. Hypothetical food products were chosen to represent different
192 uses of seaweeds as a food source (i.e., as an ingredient in snacks, main dishes, beverages,
193 and sweet foods). An example photograph of each item was included for hypothetical food
194 products to demonstrate a potential serving. Photographs did not contain any identifiable
195 product labels or additional information about the product, with the exception of flavourings
196 included on juice drinks (see Supplementary methods A.1. for alt-text image descriptions).

197

198 [Insert **Table 1** about here]

199

200 **3.4. Food ratings**

201

202 **3.4.1. Beliefs about ‘seaweed’ and ‘seaweed-based’ food products**

203

204 Following Possidónio et al. (2021), participants rated their beliefs about seaweed and
205 seaweed-based food products along 10 characteristic dimensions; taste, edibility, healthiness,
206 caloric content, naturalness, degree of processing, expensiveness, ethics, sustainability, and
207 familiarity. All ratings were provided in response to food descriptions using a series of 100-
208 mm visual analogue scales anchored ‘Not at all’– ‘Extremely’, with the characteristic of
209 interest included in the anchor label (e.g., ‘Not at all appetising’– ‘Extremely appetising’ for
210 taste). A ‘neutral’ label was included at the midpoint of each scale to guide responding.

211

212 3.4.2. Consumer acceptability

213

214 In line with previous studies on the acceptance of alternatives to animal-based
215 proteins (Gómez-Luciano et al., 2019; Verbeke, 2015), participants were asked to rate their
216 readiness to adopt as a substitute for meat (“I would be prepared to eat... as a substitute for
217 meat”), willingness to try (“Would you personally be willing to try...?”), and willingness to
218 buy (“Would you personally be willing to purchase...?”). They were also asked to rate their
219 expected liking (“I expect to like...”). Ratings were provided in response to each food
220 description using a series of 100-mm visual analogue scales, with the anchors ‘Not at all –
221 Extremely’/ ‘Definitely not – Definitely yes’. A neutral label was included at the midpoint of
222 each scale to guide responding (‘Neither agree nor disagree’/ ‘Might or might not’).

223

224 3.5. Consumer traits and demographics

225

226 In line with previous studies on the acceptance of alternatives to animal-based
227 proteins (Gómez-Luciano et al., 2019; Verbeke, 2015), participants completed six short
228 questionnaires to assess general attitudes and beliefs about foods. Participants completed the
229 ‘Food Neophobia Scale’ (FNS; 10 items) (Pliner & Hobden, 1992) as presented in Gómez-
230 Luciano et al. (2019), ‘Food Technology Neophobia Scale’ (FTNS; 13 items) (Cox & Evans,
231 2008), ‘General Health Interest’ subscale (8 items) to assess interest in health benefits of
232 foods (Roininen et al., 1999), the ‘CONVOR scale’ (as reported in the ‘final’ version; 6
233 items) to assess convenience orientation relating to food choices (Candel, 2001), beliefs
234 regarding the environmental impact of foods (5 items) (Gómez-Luciano et al., 2019), and
235 beliefs about the benefits of consuming meat (6 items) (Gómez-Luciano et al., 2019). To

236 check for potential social-desirability bias in participant responses, participants also
237 completed the ‘impression management’ subscale (8 items) from the ‘Balanced Inventory of
238 Desirable Responding Short Form’ (BIDR-16) (Hart et al., 2015). Across all questionnaires,
239 participants provided responses on a 5- or 7-point Likert-scale ranging from “Strongly
240 disagree” to “Strongly agree”. Higher scores indicated greater levels of the respective trait
241 (e.g., increased food neophobia, increased interest in the health of foods).

242 Participants were asked to provide demographic information including their age,
243 gender, country of residence, highest completed qualification, and employment status.
244 Participants were also asked to report details about their current diet. This included the type
245 of diet followed (i.e., whether or not their diet included meat and animal products), the length
246 of time spent following their current diet, and reasons for following their current diet in an
247 optional open-text field. At the end of the study, participants self-reported their height and
248 weight using drop-down lists to enable calculations of body mass index (BMI). They were
249 asked to describe their beliefs about the aim of the study in an open-text field before they
250 were presented with a debrief form.

251

252 3.6. Data analysis

253

254 When providing food ratings, 189 participants rated 5 instead of 6 hypothetical foods
255 **due to a function error** (selection was randomised). No significant outliers were detected for
256 product beliefs or consumer acceptability variables (3 x IQR). Though it did not warrant
257 exclusion from the study, 23 participants failed a single attention check. Unless otherwise
258 stated, all food ratings (relating to product beliefs and consumer acceptance) were collapsed
259 across hypothetical seaweed-based food products by calculating the mean.

260 To check associations between identified predictors and consumer acceptance for
261 hypothetical seaweed-based food products, all food ratings were entered into a bivariate
262 correlation matrix. As the Shapiro-Wilk test showed that data for food ratings were not
263 normally distributed ($p < .005$), an appropriate non-parametric test was used to calculate
264 coefficients (Spearman's Rho). These analyses showed that 'Taste' and 'edibility' ($r_s = .768$,
265 $p < .001$), and 'ethics' and 'sustainability' ($r_s = .822$, $p < .001$), were highly correlated. As
266 such, composite scores for these beliefs were included in data analyses (mean score across
267 variables). See **Supplementary Table A.1.** for all correlations between predictors, and
268 **Supplementary Figure A.1.** for correlations between predictors and consumer acceptance.

269 A one-way repeated measures MANOVA was used to test the hypothesis that product
270 beliefs would be significantly higher (or more positive) when responding to hypothetical
271 seaweed-based food products compared to a general text description of seaweeds as a food
272 source (H2). 'Food description' was entered as a within-subjects factor with 7 levels
273 (descriptions of algae/ seaweeds, energy bar, burger, pasta, sushi, juice drink, and baby sugar
274 kelp), and ratings for product beliefs were entered as dependent variables. A one-way
275 repeated measures MANOVA was also used to explore differences between individual
276 hypothetical food products in terms of acceptability. 'Food product' was entered as a within-
277 subjects factor with 6 levels (energy bar, burger, pasta, sushi, juice drink, and baby sugar
278 kelp), and acceptability outcome measures were entered as dependent variables. Across
279 analyses, Mauchly's test of sphericity was significant ($p < .001$), and the Greenhouse-Geisser
280 correction was applied to within-subjects effects. Bonferroni-corrected pairwise comparisons
281 were used as follow-up tests.

282 A two-step structural equation modelling analysis was used to identify product-related
283 attributes as predictors of acceptability for hypothetical seaweed-based food products (H1),
284 and explore potential interactions with consumer demographics and food-related attitudes

285 (H3). Following a recent theoretical framework of acceptability for meat substitutes and
286 'plant-forward' diets (Lang, 2020), consumer demographics and consumer values/ attitudes
287 towards foods, food technologies, and relevant behaviours, were included as antecedent
288 predictors of acceptability for seaweed-based food products. Consumer evaluations of
289 product attributes were included as key mediating factors influencing acceptability for
290 seaweeds. As such, both direct and indirect effects (via beliefs about product-related
291 attributes) of consumer profiles on acceptability were explored (see **Figure 1**). For results of
292 multiple linear regression analyses with each individual measure of acceptability as the
293 outcome variable, see **Supplementary methods A.2. and Tables A.2 – 5**.

294 In line with recommendations and suggested cut-off values reported by Hair and
295 colleagues (Hair et al., 2014, 2017), the reliability (Cronbach's alpha, McDonald's omega,
296 composite reliability) and validity (average variance extracted [AVE], **Fornell-Larcker**
297 criterion, heterotrait-monotrait ratios) of latent constructs was checked in step 1, and overall
298 model fit indices were reported in step 2 (CFI [comparative fit index] and RMSEA [root
299 mean square error of approximation]). Model parameters and item weights were estimated
300 using the Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimator and adjusted using bias-corrected
301 bootstrapping approaches (1000 samples). In step 1, up to 20% of items were dropped from
302 analyses if factor loadings were $< .50$. In step 2, exogenous variables and intervening
303 endogenous variables, that did not significantly influence endogenous variables, were
304 removed as part of exploratory model trimming, and modification indices were used to
305 explore post-hoc improvements to model fit by accounting for residual covariances within
306 included factors ($mi > 10$). Indirect effects were deemed significant if $p < .05$, and if 95%
307 confidence intervals did not cross zero.

308 Structural equation modelling was conducted using the 'Lavaan' syntax (Rosseel,
309 2012) in JASP v0.15. All other data analyses were conducted in IBM SPSS v26.

310

311 [Insert **Figure 1** about here]

312

313 **4. Results**

314

315 **4.1. Participant characteristics**

316

317 Participants included 325 females (68.3%), 150 males (31.5%), and one participant
318 who identified their gender as non-binary. One participant reported that their identified
319 gender was not assigned at birth, and one participant preferred not to say. Almost all
320 participants followed a diet that contained meat or fish (93.3%), including 8.2% who had a
321 flexitarian diet (i.e., mostly consumed a vegetarian diet but occasionally consumed meat/
322 fish), and 77.1% of participants reported that their current diet was lifelong. Most participants
323 were resident in England (85.7%), followed by Scotland (7.8%), Wales (4.6%), and Northern
324 Ireland respectively (1.9%). Most participants had received education to high-school (37.2%)
325 or university-degree level (60.3%), with < 1% reporting no formal qualifications. The
326 majority of participants reported being in full-time or part-time employment (58.0%), being
327 self-employed (8.2%), retired (5.7%), or a student (12.4%). See **Table 2** for all other
328 participant characteristics.

329

330 [Insert **Table 2** about here]

331

4.2. Differences in beliefs between descriptions of 'algae/ seaweed' and hypothetical seaweed-based food products

There was a significant MANOVA effect for food description (Pillai's Trace = .868, $F(48, 237) = 32.35$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .868$), and significant differences were observed between food descriptions for all product beliefs (Greenhouse-Geisser corrected p 's $< .05$). Bonferroni-corrected pairwise comparisons showed that algae/ seaweed was believed to be significantly less appetising than the energy bar, burger, pasta and sushi ($p < .001$); healthier than the energy bar, burger, sushi, and baby sugar kelp ($p < .05$); less calorific than the energy bar, burger, sushi, juice drink, and baby sugar kelp ($p < .001$); more natural than the energy bar, burger, pasta, sushi, and juice drink ($p < .001$); less processed than the energy bar, burger, pasta, sushi, and juice drink ($p < .001$); less expensive than the energy bar, burger, pasta, sushi, juice drink, and baby sugar kelp ($p < .001$); less familiar than the energy bar and sushi ($p < .001$); and more familiar than the baby sugar kelp ($p < .001$). There were no significant differences between algae/ seaweed and seaweed-based food products in terms of ethics/ sustainability ($p > .05$). See **Table 3** for descriptive statistics for food ratings.

4.3. Differences in acceptability between hypothetical seaweed-based food products

There was a significant MANOVA effect for hypothetical product type (Pillai's Trace = 0.633, $F(20, 265) = 22.830$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .633$), and significant differences were observed between product descriptions for all acceptability measures (Greenhouse-Geisser corrected p 's $< .001$). Bonferroni-corrected pairwise comparisons showed that readiness to

356 adopt the burger and sushi as meat substitutes was significantly higher than readiness to adopt
357 for all other foods ($p < .001$); and readiness to adopt the baby sugar kelp and juice drink was
358 significantly lower ($p < .001$). Willingness to try and willingness to buy the juice drink and
359 baby sugar kelp was significantly lower than for all other foods ($p < .001$). Expected liking
360 for the sushi was significantly higher than for all other foods ($p < .001$), and significantly
361 lower for the juice drink ($p < .001$). See **Supplementary Table A.6.** for all other
362 comparisons between individual foods.

363

364 [Insert **Table 3** about here]

365

366 **4.4. Identifying drivers of acceptability for hypothetical seaweed-based** 367 **food products**

368

369 **4.4.1. Construct validity and reliability of latent variables**

370

371 **Table 4** displays results for step 1 of the model testing latent variables. Where
372 appropriate, scale items with standardised factor loadings $< .50$ were removed from the
373 analysis for latent constructs; FTNS (4 items), Health interest (1 item), environmental impact
374 (2 items), benefits of meat (1 item). For the BIDR-16 scale, 2 items with factor loadings $< .50$
375 were not removed, as doing so decreased reliability for the measure. Cronbach's alpha,
376 McDonald's omega, and composite reliability values were $> .70$ for all measures, indicating
377 adequate reliability across constructs.

378 Supporting convergent validity, AVE was $> .50$ for benefits of meat, environmental
379 impact of foods, convenience orientation, and consumer acceptance. AVE was lower for
380 desirable responding, health interest for foods, food neophobia, and food technology
381 neophobia. However, discriminant validity of all constructs was supported, as the SQRT of
382 the AVE along the diagonal was higher than the covariances for each corresponding pair
383 (satisfying the Fornell-Larcker criterion). Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratios were
384 acceptable across comparisons, as all values were $< .85$ (Henseler et al., 2014).

385

386 [Insert **Table 4** about here]

387

388 4.4.2. Direct and indirect effects on consumer acceptance

389

390 In step 2 of the analysis, the full structural model was approaching acceptable fit
391 across indices overall (CFI = .810, RMSEA = 0.060, $X^2 = 4503.28$, $df = 1677$, $p < .001$), and
392 accounted for 84.7% ($R^2 = 0.847$) of the variance in consumer acceptance. As shown in
393 **Table 5**, having greater food neophobia and stronger beliefs about the benefits of meat
394 significantly predicted decreased acceptance for hypothetical seaweed-based food products,
395 whereas perceiving foods to be more tasty/ edible and familiar significantly predicted
396 increased acceptance. Of these significant predictors, taste/ edibility appeared to have the
397 largest influence on consumer acceptance. All other consumer traits and product beliefs were
398 comparatively poor predictors of acceptability, and direct paths failed to reach significance.

399 When exploring indirect paths predicting consumer acceptance, the model showed
400 that each consumer trait significantly predicted at least one product belief. However, food

401 neophobia was the only trait to have significant indirect effects on consumer acceptance via
402 both taste/ edibility and familiarity, indicating partial mediation (given the significant direct
403 effect of food neophobia on consumer acceptance). For all other indirect effects containing
404 taste/ edibility and familiarity, $p > .05$ and/ or confidence intervals crossed zero (see **Table**
405 **6**).

406 To explore the development of a more parsimonious model of consumer acceptance,
407 product beliefs that did not significantly predict consumer acceptance, and consumer traits
408 that did not significantly predict consumer acceptance via direct or indirect paths, were
409 removed from the model. This meant that food neophobia and beliefs about the benefits of
410 meat were included as antecedent predictors of acceptance, and taste/ edibility and familiarity
411 were included as intervening endogenous constructs.

412 Though model trimming alone appeared to have little influence on the model fit (CFI
413 = .872, RMSEA = 0.099, $X^2 = 1028.91$, $df = 182$, $p < .001$), this noticeably improved when
414 covariances between items within the FNS and benefits of meat were accounted for after
415 checking modification indices (CFI = .953, RMSEA = 0.063, $X^2 = 472.36$, $df = 162$, $p <$
416 $.001$). Consistent with the full model, the revised model explained 83.9% ($R^2 = 0.839$) of the
417 variance in consumer acceptance. Direct paths predicting consumer acceptance remained
418 significant for food neophobia ($\beta = -0.20$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = -5.64 – -2.98), benefits of meat
419 ($\beta = -0.10$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = -3.24 – -0.97), taste/ edibility ($\beta = 0.76$, $p < .001$, 95% CI =
420 0.58 – 0.76), and familiarity ($\beta = 0.05$, $p = .025$, 95% CI = 0.00 – .09). Indirect effects of
421 food neophobia on consumer acceptance via taste/ edibility ($\beta = -0.35$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = -
422 9.26 – -5.79) and familiarity ($\beta = -0.01$, $p = .038$, 95% CI = -0.62 – -0.02) also remained
423 significant. There was no significant indirect effect of beliefs about the benefits of meat on
424 consumer acceptance via familiarity ($\beta = 0.00$, $p = .153$, 95% CI = -0.29 – 0.00), but
425 contrasting with the full model, the indirect effect via taste/ edibility was significant ($\beta = -$

426 0.16, $p < .001$, 95% CI = -4.61 – -1.67). For this reason, the full model was accepted as a
427 more conservative ‘final’ fit.

428

429 [Insert **Table 5** about here]

430

431 [Insert **Table 6** about here]

432

433 **5. Discussion**

434

435 This online study aimed to further explore the consumer acceptability of seaweed-
436 based food products in the UK, and help identify specific drivers of acceptance for seaweeds.
437 First and foremost, it was predicted that positive perceptions of seaweed-based food products
438 (including seaweed as a complimentary ingredient) would be significantly related to
439 consumer acceptance for seaweed-based food products. In this study, taste/ edibility and
440 familiarity were the only product attributes to significantly predict acceptability, and taste/
441 edibility in particular was identified as the stronger driver of consumer acceptance. Previous
442 research has shown that willingness to try is lower when consumers generally perceive
443 seaweeds to be less tasty and appealing (Palmieri & Forleo, 2020; Wendin & Undeland,
444 2020), and that consumers are more likely to eat seaweeds when they are familiar with its use
445 as an ingredient in dishes such as sushi (Birch et al., 2019). Our study extends these results to
446 specific examples of potential seaweed-based food products, and further delineates the
447 importance of taste/ edibility and familiarity for acceptance of seaweeds from the influence of

448 other product-related attributes, such as health and sustainability (Birch et al., 2019; Losada-
449 Lopez et al., 2021; Palmieri & Forleo, 2020; Wendin & Undeland, 2020).

450 Second, it was predicted that hypothetical seaweed-based food products would be
451 perceived more favourably than a general description of edible seaweeds, as this has been
452 recognised as a method to improve the palatability of seaweeds for Western consumers
453 (Birch et al., 2019; Chapman et al., 2015). In support of this, we found some evidence that
454 hypothetical seaweed-based products were rated more favourably in terms of taste/ edibility
455 (4 of 6 products), as well as familiarity (2 of 6 products). Given that both attributes were
456 identified as strong predictors of acceptance across models, results further emphasise the
457 importance of exploring consumer perceptions of seaweeds in a product-focussed context.
458 Indeed, this study has particular implications for guiding future product development, as
459 results highlight potential food products that may successfully incorporate seaweeds to
460 enhance acceptance for UK consumers.

461 Importantly, by contrasting a range of hypothetical food products, this study helps
462 identify differences in acceptability between potential food items. Overall, participants were
463 most accepting of the seaweed-based sushi and burger, and least accepting of the juice drink
464 and baby sugar kelp. Similar findings have been reported in past research, as consumers
465 favourably rate seaweeds when framed for use in main dishes, and often give lower ratings
466 for seaweeds when presented in sweet foods and beverages (Chapman et al., 2015; Wendin &
467 Undeland, 2020). One explanation for this is that consumers, particularly in the UK, are most
468 likely to be familiar with use of seaweeds in savoury items. Sushi, soups, and snacks (e.g.,
469 crackers) are the most common seaweed-based food products currently available in UK
470 supermarkets (Bouga & Combet, 2015), and traditional recipes in the UK often make use of
471 seaweeds as a main dish (e.g., 'laverbread') (Adams, 2016; Mahadevan, 2015). More
472 generally, meat-free burger patties are also a common example of products incorporating

473 alternatives to animal-based proteins that are widely available to consumers, such as plant-
474 based and mycoprotein options (Onwezen et al., 2021). However, there is some evidence that
475 seaweeds can be successfully introduced into other products, as ‘chocolate ice cream with
476 sugar kelp’ was the highest rated item in one of the few studies where participants actually
477 consumed real foods (Chapman et al., 2015). This suggests that, for less familiar (or
478 expected) product contexts, allowing consumers the opportunity to taste products could help
479 improve acceptability.

480 It is generally well-documented that acceptance for alternatives to animal-based
481 proteins differs between consumers (Onwezen et al., 2021). For seaweeds in particular,
482 previous studies have highlighted food neophobia as a crucial barrier to consumer acceptance
483 (Birch et al., 2019; Losada-Lopez et al., 2021; Palmieri & Forleo, 2020). Though it should be
484 acknowledged that the FNS may not be the most appropriate measure of food neophobia in
485 other populations and food contexts (Damsbo-Svendsen et al., 2017), food neophobia (in
486 conjunction with beliefs about the benefits of meat) was one of the only traits to significantly
487 predict acceptability in this study. This further differentiates effects from the influence of
488 other food-related attitudes that are typically investigated within this domain (e.g. global
489 beliefs about the environmental impact of food, health interest, and convenience orientation
490 for food). However, we also found evidence that the effect of food neophobia in particular
491 was partially mediated by beliefs about the taste/ edibility and familiarity of products,
492 suggesting that these attributes may potentially mitigate the negative effect of food neophobia
493 on consumer acceptance. Palmieri and Forleo (Palmieri & Forleo, 2020) found similar effects
494 in Italian consumers, reporting that perceptions of seaweed attributes and the option to taste-
495 test a product could improve acceptability in neophobic consumers. Though familiarity had a
496 relatively small effect compared to taste/ edibility, these findings highlight the perception of

497 both taste/ edibility and familiarity as specific factors that may combat potential barriers to
498 consumer acceptance for seaweeds.

499 Measuring consumer acceptance in response to food descriptions can be particularly
500 useful to identify initial interest in novel products (as developing and testing *real* food items
501 can be costly in terms of time and resources). However, one concern with this approach is
502 that information provided to consumers can prime responding. In this study, contrasting with
503 our prediction that hypothetical seaweed-based food products would be rated more positively
504 across dimensions, the general description of seaweeds as a food source was perceived to be
505 healthier, less calorific, more natural, less processed, and less expensive than hypothetical
506 seaweed-based food products. This was likely (at least in part) influenced by the nutritional
507 information provided to participants in the food description (e.g., they were specifically
508 informed that seaweeds are low-energy and high in vitamins and minerals, and presented with
509 examples of ‘natural’ seaweeds). Indeed, there was some evidence that a ceiling effect may
510 have occurred for beliefs about healthiness, naturalness, expensiveness, and sustainability/
511 ethics, as the 25th percentile for ratings of seaweed-based food products was ≥ 59 (above the
512 midpoint of the scale), indicating a potential bias towards higher ratings. We do note that
513 responses still varied among participants, with few selecting maximum scale scores ($\leq 1.3\%$
514 for each variable). Nevertheless, it remains unclear whether participants’ beliefs accurately
515 reflect their current knowledge **and experience of consuming** seaweeds as a food source, and
516 future qualitative research on the consumer understanding of edible seaweeds would be
517 beneficial.

518 As previously suggested, there remains a need to further explore consumer acceptance
519 in response to taste-tests for seaweeds. This is particularly important given that some research
520 has shown that participants often overestimated their expected liking (and acceptance) for
521 similar products (foods containing the microalgae ‘spirulina’), and actual liking of foods led

522 to participants feeling disappointed (Grahl et al., 2020). There is also some evidence to
523 suggest that acceptance for seaweeds may be lower than for other products available to
524 consumers, and further research is needed to compare acceptance for seaweed-based foods
525 with other products. For example, compared to fish and other seafoods, US consumers gave
526 lower average liking scores to seaweeds (Labbe et al., 2019), and were often willing to pay
527 less of a price premium for products (Brayden et al., 2018). In a study on consumers in the
528 Netherlands, only 12% of participants selected a product made from seaweed as their
529 preferred choice for a hypothetical snack, compared to 54% who selected a hybrid meat/ meat
530 substitute, and 30% who selected a snack made from lentils or beans (de Boer et al., 2013). In
531 such studies, it would be useful to further explore *why* consumers would choose one
532 alternative over another (Onwezen et al., 2021).

533 It should be noted that additional challenges in the development of seaweed-based
534 food products have been identified in the literature, particularly as this relates to intensity/
535 volume of consumption. First, one potential concern is that frequently consuming seaweeds
536 in large amounts may increase dietary intake above recommended levels for some
537 micronutrients (e.g., iodine), and some species/ cultivation environments may be associated
538 with increased toxicity (Cherry et al., 2019; Circuncisão et al., 2018). Regulations to guide
539 seaweed farming and product development require greater clarity in several countries,
540 including the UK (Bouga & Combet, 2015; Cherry et al., 2019; Circuncisão et al., 2018).
541 Second, it may be difficult to produce high-protein foods using seaweeds alone given that
542 reports of protein content widely vary across species (Cherry et al., 2019; Circuncisão et al.,
543 2018; Fleurence et al., 2012), and large quantities may be less acceptable to consumers
544 (Grahl et al., 2020; Lamont & McSweeney, 2021). However, use of seaweeds as an
545 additional ingredient within other foods (as described in hypothetical contexts used in this

546 study) that may fortify nutritional qualities – such as protein content – remains a promising
547 avenue to explore (e.g., (Bouga & Combet, 2015)).

548 Limitations of the sample should also be addressed. First, this sample predominantly
549 included participants who self-identified as meat and/ or fish consumers, and few participants
550 reported following a vegan or vegetarian diet (7%). Though we found little evidence of an
551 effect of the consumers' diet on acceptance in supplementary analyses (see **Tables A.3 – 4**),
552 the role of the consumers' current diet in predicting acceptance for seaweed-based food
553 products may have been underestimated in this sample, and future research should consider
554 whether there are specific between-group differences. For instance, it has previously been
555 reported that consumers with a preference for meat, and vegetarians/ vegans, differ in their
556 likelihood of eating seaweeds in the future (Birch et al., 2019), as well as their beliefs about
557 meat and alternatives to animal-based proteins more generally in terms of taste, texture, price,
558 ease of preparation, nutritional content, and environmental benefits (Michel et al., 2021).

559 Second, the majority of participants were well-educated, with 60% of participants having
560 completed education at a university-level, and a further 12% reporting being current students.
561 As previous research has suggested that higher education levels can increase acceptability for
562 seaweeds and other alternatives to animal-based proteins (Birch et al., 2019; de Boer et al.,
563 2013; Palmieri & Forleo, 2020), the generalisability of results should be treated with caution,
564 and greater interest may be given to the role of education level in future work as a key
565 consumer demographic.

566

567 **6. Conclusions**

568

569 To the best of our knowledge, this is one of the first studies to directly explore the
570 consumer acceptability of seaweed-based food products in the UK. Results indicate that
571 consumers perceived hypothetical seaweed-based products to be tastier/ more edible than a
572 general description of seaweeds as a food source. Taste/ edibility and familiarity were
573 highlighted as strong drivers of acceptability, with taste/ edibility in particular identified as an
574 attribute that could further enhance acceptance in consumers, and potentially mitigate the
575 effects of food neophobia as a barrier to acceptance. Results suggest that consumers in the
576 UK are accepting of seaweeds, and this study identifies scope for future research to further
577 explore product development strategies for seaweed-based foods.

578

579 7. Acknowledgements

580

581 We gratefully acknowledge the in-kind contribution of consultancy from Dr Louise Neilson,
582 BIC Innovation.

583

584 8. CRediT authorship contribution statement:

585

586 **Rochelle Embling:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing
587 - original draft, Writing – review and editing, Funding acquisition. **Louise Neilson:**
588 Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing – review and editing, Funding acquisition.

589 **Tennessee Randall:** Formal analysis, Writing – review and editing. **Chloe Mellor:**

590 Methodology, Writing – review and editing. **Michelle D. Lee:** Conceptualization, Writing –

591 review and editing, Funding acquisition. **Laura L. Wilkinson:** Conceptualization,

592 Methodology, Writing - original draft, Writing – review and editing, Supervision, Project
593 administration, Funding acquisition.

594

595 **9. Funding**

596

597 This work was supported by the Economic and Social Research Council [grant number
598 ES/V502200/1: ESRC IAA/DTP NPIF ABC]. RE also receives funding from the ESRC
599 Wales Doctoral Training Partnership, Project Reference: ES/P00069X/1, Studentship
600 197139.

601

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743

744 **Table 1.** Descriptions of ‘seaweed’ and ‘seaweed-based’ food products provided to
745 participants.

| Product | Description |
|-----------------|---|
| Algae/ seaweeds | "Algae" are a type of low-energy aquatic plant that has been found to be high in protein, vitamins, minerals, fibre, and fatty acid. There are many types of algae that can be included in food products. This includes 'laver', 'kelp', 'wakame', 'ogo', 'sea grapes', and 'mozuku'. A more common name for algae is 'seaweeds'. |
| Energy bar | A "Kelp and nut energy bar" is a protein-rich food product that contains kelp (a type of algae or seaweed). It also contains ingredients like oats, mixed nuts, and dried fruits. |
| Burger | A "Seaweed burger" is a protein-rich food product that contains seaweed (or algae). It is a meat-free patty, and can also contain ingredients like soy. |
| Pasta | "Kelp noodles" is a protein-rich food product that contains kelp (a type of algae or seaweed). As it is typically made with only seaweed-derived substances and water, it is also low in calories and high in vitamins and minerals. |
| Sushi | "Wakame sushi rolls" is a protein-rich food product that contains nori and wakame (types of algae or seaweed). Nori is used as a wrap, and wakame is used in a filling that also contains sushi rice and vegetables. |
| Juice drink | "Seaweed juice drink" is a protein-rich beverage that contains seaweeds (or algae). These drinks are typically high in vitamins and minerals, and also often contain additional fruits, vegetables, and flavourings. |
| Baby sugar kelp | "Baby sugar kelp" is a type of algae or seaweed that is harvested when it is small. It is high in vitamins and minerals, retains its sweetness and is not too salty. You can use it as a garnish, or as an ingredient in desserts. |

747 **Table 2.** Sample characteristics ($N = 476$)

| Consumer trait | Range | M (SD) |
|---|-------------|-------------|
| Age (years) | 18.0 – 76.0 | 37.1 (13.7) |
| BMI (kg/m ²) | 14.9 – 55.3 | 25.7 (5.8) |
| Food neophobia (FNS) ¹ | 10 – 47 | 23.8 (7.1) |
| Food technology neophobia (FTNS) ¹ | 20 – 82 | 49.4 (10.9) |
| Health interest for foods ² | 1.4 – 6.9 | 4.2 (1.0) |
| Convenience orientation (CONVOR-scale) ¹ | 6 – 42 | 24.1 (8.1) |
| Environmental impact of food ¹ | 7 – 25 | 18.6 (3.4) |
| Benefits of meat ¹ | 6 – 30 | 19.2 (6.2) |
| Desirable responding (BIDR-16) ² | 1 – 7 | 4.3 (1.0) |

748 ¹ Sum of item scores in scale.749 ² Mean scale score calculated across items.

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Table 3. Descriptive statistics for beliefs about foods and consumer acceptance ratings, measured using 100-mm VAS. Mean (SD) is reported.

| Variable | Algae/ seaweeds | Energy bar | Burger | Pasta | Sushi | Juice drink | Baby sugar kelp | Across foods ¹ |
|------------------------|--------------------|------------|---------|---------|---------|-------------|--------------------|---------------------------|
| Product belief | | | | | | | | |
| Taste/ edibility | 52 (24) | 63 (24) | 61 (24) | 66 (22) | 75 (26) | 47 (26) | 51 (25) | 61 (17) |
| Healthiness | 82 (15) | 75 (17) | 71 (18) | 82 (14) | 78 (17) | 80 (17) | 73 (18) | 77 (12) |
| Calories | 29 (19) | 58 (20) | 49 (20) | 28 (22) | 43 (22) | 42 (23) | 34 (21) | 42 (14) |
| Naturalness | 86 (19) | 69 (18) | 64 (22) | 73 (19) | 73 (19) | 73 (21) | 82 (19) | 72 (14) |
| Processing | 27 (24) | 51 (22) | 57 (24) | 47 (24) | 43 (22) | 47 (23) | 26 (22) | 45 (17) |
| Expensiveness | 56 (20) | 63 (17) | 64 (15) | 63 (19) | 71 (17) | 73 (17) | 63 (22) | 66 (13) |
| Ethics/ Sustainability | 74 (18) | 71 (16) | 72 (16) | 73 (17) | 71 (17) | 72 (17) | 72 (19) | 72 (14) |
| Familiarity | 34 (27) | 44 (28) | 36 (29) | 32 (26) | 64 (28) | 33 (27) | 21 (23) | 38 (19) |
| Acceptability | | | | | | | | |
| Readiness to adopt | 42 (32) | 37 (33) | 53 (35) | 44 (33) | 55 (36) | 25 (30) | 29 (30) | 41 (26) |
| Willingness to try | 76 (27) | 75 (28) | 73 (29) | 79 (24) | 78 (29) | 63 (31) | 68 (29) | 73 (22) |

| | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Willingness to buy | 62 (28) | 59 (30) | 57 (31) | 64 (27) | 68 (32) | 45 (31) | 50 (29) | 57 (23) |
| Liking | 49 (27) | 57 (30) | 53 (28) | 60 (25) | 68 (33) | 39 (28) | 48 (27) | 54 (20) |

752 ¹ Collapsed across hypothetical seaweed-based food products by averaging scores for individual items (excluding the general description of
753 algae/ seaweeds).

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756 **Table 4.** CFA standardised factor loadings, reliability, construct validity, and discriminant validity of latent variables. For each individual
 757 construct, SQRT of AVE is displayed along the diagonal in bold. For each pairwise comparison, the factor covariance and heterotrait-monotrait
 758 (HTMT) ratio of correlation is presented.

| Construct | Factor loadings | Cronbach α | McDonald ω | CR | AVE | Factor covariances, HTMT ratio | | | | | | | | |
|--|-----------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------|-------|--------------------------------|---------------|---------------|--------------|---|---|---|---|--|
| | | | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| 1. Desirable responding (BIDR-16) (8 items) | 0.471 – 0.639 | 0.781 | 0.782 | 0.782 | 0.311 | 0.558 | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Benefits of meat (5 items) | 0.657 – 0.928 | 0.905 | 0.908 | 0.905 | 0.661 | -0.073, 0.111 | 0.813 | | | | | | | |
| 3. Environmental impact of foods (3 items) | 0.601 – 0.879 | 0.749 | 0.775 | 0.774 | 0.539 | 0.073, 0.106 | -0.230, 0.307 | 0.734 | | | | | | |
| 4. Convenience orientation (6 items) | 0.553 – 0.934 | 0.907 | 0.911 | 0.911 | 0.637 | -0.225, 0.234 | 0.001, 0.072 | -0.114, 0.142 | 0.798 | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|--------------|
| (CONVOR- scale) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Health interest for foods (7 items) | 0.502 – 0.786 | 0.841 | 0.845 | 0.846 | 0.444 | 0.169, 0.215 | -0.232, 0.218 | 0.263, 0.341 | -0.190, 0.198 | 0.666 | | | |
| 6. Food neophobia (10 items) (FNS) | 0.512 – 0.754 | 0.885 | 0.893 | 0.893 | 0.460 | -0.034, 0.123 | 0.085, 0.157 | -0.194, 0.212 | 0.271, 0.279 | -0.211, 0.225 | 0.678 | | |
| 7. Food technology neophobia (9 items) (FTNS) | 0.519 – 0.781 | 0.880 | 0.881 | 0.880 | 0.453 | < -0.001, 0.112 | 0.111, 0.177 | -0.167, 0.222 | 0.176, 0.197 | -0.062, 0.131 | 0.378, 0.367 | 0.673 | |
| 8. Consumer acceptance (4 items) | 0.594 – 0.928 | 0.885 | 0.904 | 0.905 | 0.709 | 0.089, 0.128 | -0.307, 0.431 | 0.379, 0.429 | -0.181, 0.200 | 0.283, 0.306 | -0.567, 0.533 | -0.326, 0.341 | 0.842 |

761 **Table 5.** Coefficients for all direct paths predicting consumer acceptance in the structural model.

| Predictor | B | SE | β | 95% LLCI, ULCI | z | p |
|---|-------|------|---------|----------------|-------|----------------|
| <i>Consumer traits</i> | | | | | | |
| Age (yrs) | 0.05 | 0.03 | 0.04 | -0.07, 0.26 | 1.90 | 0.058 |
| Desirable responding (BIDR-16) | -0.31 | 0.53 | -0.02 | -23.26, 24.83 | -0.58 | 0.560 |
| Benefits of meat | -1.69 | 0.46 | -0.09 | -16.27, 25.39 | -3.66 | < 0.001 |
| Environmental impact of foods | 0.58 | 0.62 | 0.03 | -50.96, 118.91 | 0.95 | 0.344 |
| Convenience orientation (CONVOR-scale) | -0.39 | 0.28 | -0.04 | -7.07, 7.82 | -1.40 | 0.161 |
| Health interest for foods | 0.17 | 0.39 | 0.01 | -62.47, 13.35 | 0.44 | 0.662 |
| Food neophobia (FNS) | -4.04 | 0.73 | -0.19 | -10.35, 16.09 | -5.55 | < 0.001 |
| Food technology neophobia (FTNS) | 0.09 | 0.36 | 0.01 | -7.82, 8.36 | 0.25 | 0.807 |
| <i>Expected product attributes</i> | | | | | | |
| Taste/ edibility | 0.66 | 0.05 | 0.75 | 0.54, 0.77 | 13.47 | < 0.001 |
| Familiarity | 0.06 | 0.02 | 0.07 | 0.01, 0.10 | 2.93 | 0.003 |

| | | | | | | |
|------------------------|-------|------|-------|-------------|-------|-------|
| Healthiness | 0.04 | 0.03 | 0.03 | -0.57, 0.55 | 1.34 | 0.182 |
| Calories | -0.05 | 0.03 | -0.04 | -0.14, 0.06 | -1.75 | 0.080 |
| Naturalness | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.01 | -0.58, 0.33 | 0.30 | 0.768 |
| Processing | 0.02 | 0.02 | 0.02 | -0.06, 0.14 | 0.88 | 0.377 |
| Expensiveness | 0.02 | 0.03 | 0.02 | -0.04, 0.08 | 0.91 | 0.362 |
| Sustainability/ ethics | -0.02 | 0.03 | -0.02 | -0.34, 0.17 | -0.70 | 0.483 |

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764 **Table 6.** Coefficients for indirect paths predicting consumer acceptance.¹

| Consumer traits | Mediating variable | Indirect effect | | | | | | Total effect | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|------|----------------|---------|-------|--------|--------------|------|----------------|---------|-------|--------|
| | | B | SE | 95% LLCI, ULCI | β | z | p | B | SE | 95% LLCI, ULCI | β | z | p |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age (yrs) | Taste/ edibility | -0.01 | 0.03 | -0.08, 0.06 | -0.01 | -0.41 | 0.680 | 0.04 | 0.04 | -0.10, 0.25 | 0.03 | 0.89 | 0.375 |
| | Familiarity | -0.01 | 0.01 | -0.03, 0.00 | -0.01 | -2.39 | 0.017 | 0.04 | 0.03 | -0.08, 0.22 | 0.03 | 1.38 | 0.168 |
| Desirable responding (BIDR-16) | Taste/ edibility | 1.50 | 0.55 | -1.73, 10.46 | 0.09 | 2.70 | 0.007 | 1.19 | 0.76 | -23.30, 24.52 | 0.07 | 1.56 | 0.118 |
| | Familiarity | -0.02 | 0.06 | -0.27, 0.15 | 0.00 | -0.27 | 0.786 | -0.32 | 0.53 | -21.16, 26.10 | -0.02 | -0.61 | 0.544 |
| Benefits of meat | Taste/ edibility | -1.41 | 0.57 | -14.66, 7.10 | -0.08 | -2.48 | 0.013 | -3.10 | 0.76 | -18.04, 34.14 | -0.17 | -4.08 | < .001 |
| | Familiarity | -0.06 | 0.06 | -0.47, 0.09 | 0.00 | -1.00 | 0.316 | -1.75 | 0.47 | -14.68, 28.42 | -0.10 | -3.75 | < .001 |
| Environmental impact of foods | Taste/ edibility | 4.29 | 0.84 | -37.48, 35.25 | 0.20 | 5.10 | < .001 | 4.87 | 1.04 | -37.71, 162.46 | 0.23 | 4.69 | < .001 |
| | Familiarity | 0.15 | 0.09 | -0.33, 1.41 | 0.01 | 1.64 | 0.101 | 0.74 | 0.62 | -52.90, 110.14 | 0.03 | 1.19 | 0.234 |
| Convenience | Taste/ edibility | 0.69 | 0.34 | -1.50, 2.79 | 0.06 | 2.00 | 0.046 | 0.30 | 0.44 | -7.24, 7.08 | 0.03 | 0.67 | 0.503 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|-------|------|---------------|-------|-------|------------------|-------|------|---------------|-------|-------|--------|
| orientation (CONVOR- scale) | Familiarity | -0.01 | 0.04 | -0.10, 0.09 | 0.00 | -0.16 | 0.874 | -0.40 | 0.28 | -7.04, 8.13 | -0.04 | -1.41 | 0.159 |
| Health interest for foods | Taste/ edibility | 0.69 | 0.50 | -9.23, 17.74 | 0.05 | 1.38 | 0.168 | 0.86 | 0.64 | -45.22, 19.84 | 0.06 | 1.34 | 0.181 |
| Food neophobia (FNS) | Familiarity | 0.06 | 0.06 | -0.19, 0.48 | 0.00 | 1.08 | 0.280 | 0.23 | 0.40 | -57.45, 13.71 | 0.02 | 0.59 | 0.556 |
| Food neophobia (FNS) | Taste/ edibility | -5.76 | 0.87 | -15.74, -0.41 | -0.27 | -6.61 | < .001 | -9.80 | 1.23 | -24.07, 9.73 | -0.47 | -7.96 | < .001 |
| Food neophobia (FTNS) | Familiarity | -0.24 | 0.11 | -0.67, -0.05 | -0.01 | -2.19 | 0.029 | -4.28 | 0.74 | -10.45, 15.89 | -0.20 | -5.82 | < .001 |
| Food neophobia (FTNS) | Taste/ edibility | -1.45 | 0.44 | -7.11, 2.53 | -0.11 | -3.31 | < .001 | -1.37 | 0.56 | -11.00, 7.94 | -0.11 | -2.43 | 0.015 |
| technology neophobia (FTNS) | Familiarity | -0.02 | 0.05 | -0.19, 0.08 | 0.00 | -0.49 | 0.628 | 0.07 | 0.36 | -7.82, 8.19 | 0.01 | 0.18 | 0.856 |

765 ¹ Indirect effects are indicated as significant (in bold) if $p < .05$, and 95% confidence intervals do not cross zero.

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768 **Figure 1.** Adapted from (Lang, 2020), proposed structural equation model for the acceptance
769 of seaweed-based food products, with consumer traits and beliefs about product attributes as
770 predictors of acceptability in this study.

771 Highlights (85 characters per bullet point):

- 772 • UK consumers were accepting of hypothetical seaweed-based food products
- 773 • Taste/ edibility was a strong driver of acceptance for seaweed-based foods
- 774 • Food neophobia was identified as a barrier to acceptance for seaweed-based foods
- 775 • Other product attributes (e.g., cost) were relatively poor predictors of acceptance
- 776 • Taste/ edibility and familiarity partially mediated the negative effect of food neophobia
777 on consumer acceptance

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