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## **The Impact of Sugar-Related Claims on Perceived Healthfulness, Caloric Value and Expected Taste of Food Products**

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## 28 **Abstract**

29 Food packaging usually includes multiple cues, including claims about nutrients that may  
30 modulate how the consumer perceives (and behaves towards) the product. In the current  
31 work, we systematically examined how different types of claims about sugar influenced the  
32 perception of food product categories (i.e., yogurts, ice creams, cookies, and breakfast  
33 cereals). In two experiments (combined  $n = 406$ ), participants were asked to evaluate the  
34 perceived healthfulness, expected taste, and caloric value of products with (vs. without)  
35 sugar-related claims. Specifically, the claims were on the sugar content (“0% sugar”, “sugar-  
36 free”, “no added sugars”, “low sugar” - Experiment 1) or on the type of sugars or sweeteners  
37 of natural origin (“sucrose”, “cane sugar”, “honey” and “stevia” - Experiment 2).  
38 Results from Experiment 1 revealed that all products with sugar-related claims were  
39 perceived as healthier, less caloric, and less tasty than the regular alternatives. Still, products  
40 with the “low sugar” claim were perceived as the least healthy, most caloric, and tastiest. In  
41 Experiment 2, we observed that products with “stevia” claim were rated as healthier, less  
42 caloric, and less tasty than regular products. In both experiments, the frequency of  
43 consumption of products with sugar-related claims was positively associated with the general  
44 perception of these products, the influence of nutritional information on consumption  
45 decisions, attention to sugar intake, and interest in nutrition.  
46 Overall, our results show that sugar-related claims may influence consumer's perceptions  
47 about food products, but the direction of that influence depends on the type of claim and  
48 evaluative dimension.

49 **Keywords:** *Sugar; Claims; Healthfulness; Expected Taste; Calories; Food perception*

50

51     **The Impact of Sugar-Related Claims on Perceived Healthfulness, Caloric Value and**  
52                                   **Expected Taste of Food Products**

53     **1. Introduction**

54             Food labels are an important aspect of food packaging that can influence the decision  
55     to purchase and/or consume a particular food product. These labels include summaries or  
56     detailed nutritional information (e.g., nutritional traffic light system; nutrition facts panel) or  
57     statements associating certain nutrients with health benefits. Food claims have become a  
58     recognized means of communication with the consumer (van Trijp & van der Lans, 2007),  
59     and their use is legislated (e.g., European Union EC No 1924/2006; EU No 1047/2012). For  
60     instance, nutrition claims are statements about a particular nutritional characteristic of the  
61     product and include “content claims” (e.g., “sugar-free”) and “comparative claims” (e.g.,  
62     “reduced sugar”, EC, 2006; Buul & Brouns, 2015; Mayhew et al., 2016).

63             Previous studies have concluded that nutritional claims may help consumers make  
64     healthier and informed food decisions (for reviews, see Kaur et al., 2017; Talati et al., 2017).  
65     However, the effectiveness of claims depends on whether consumers can correctly interpret  
66     them, which is often not the case (Anastasiou et al., 2019). Indeed, food claims may even  
67     mislead consumers (Roe et al., 1999) when they attribute excessive health benefits to a food  
68     product or infer the healthiness of a product simply because it contains a health or nutrition  
69     claim (e.g., Kaur et al., 2017; Williams, 2005). The impact of claims on perceived healthiness  
70     was even found with fictitious claims (i.e., “MUI-free”, Priven et al., 2015). Critically,  
71     consumers may overlook potentially negative attributes (e.g., high sugar) due the presence of  
72     claims about positives ones (e.g., with calcium, Hastak & Mazis, 2011; Wellard et al., 2015).  
73     These effects may reflect a positivity bias (i.e., judging a product with a claim more favorably  
74     than a product without such claim, Roe et al., 1999) or a health halo effect (i.e., consumers  
75     generalize a positive perception to other characteristics that are not explicitly mentioned in

76 the claim, Chandon & Wansink, 2007; Roe et al., 1999). These misperceptions are  
77 particularly concerning for nutritionally poor products (Miklavec et al., 2015). For example, a  
78 systematic comparison of thousands of products has shown that products labeled as “reduced  
79 calories”, “light”, “low fat” present higher sugar-content than their “regular” versions  
80 (Nguyen et al., 2016).

81 Excessive sugar intake has been associated with numerous adverse health outcomes  
82 (e.g., overweight and obesity, Kleef & Dagevos, 2015). Considering this, the WHO (2015)  
83 recommends reducing free sugars intake throughout the life-course to less than 10% (ideally  
84 5%) of total daily energy intake. Yet, overconsumption of sugar seems highly prevalent in  
85 numerous countries. For instance, in Portugal, 24.3% of the adult population, 48.7% of  
86 adolescents, and 40.7% of children exceed the intake recommended by the WHO (Lopes et  
87 al., 2017). Governments have developed several measures to address this problem (e.g.,  
88 taxation of products with high sugar content, for a review, see Prada, Rodrigues, et al., 2020).  
89 For example, the “Integrated Strategy for the Promotion of Healthy Eating” developed by the  
90 Portuguese government (Dispatch No 11418, 2017) recommends the intake of “low sugar”  
91 products (i.e., less than 5% of sugar). Within the EU (2012), products may present claims  
92 such as “Low sugar” (i.e., no more than 5g of sugar per 100 g for solids, or 2.5 g of sugar per  
93 100 ml for liquids); “Sugar-free” (i.e., no more than 0.5 g of sugar per 100 g or 100 ml); and  
94 “No added sugar” (i.e., sugars have not been added to food). Besides these quantitative  
95 claims, food packaging often presents other statements regarding the “type” of sugar or  
96 sweetener included in product’s composition (e.g., “with cane sugar”, “with coconut sugar”,  
97 “with stevia”).

98 Several studies have suggested that both types of claims related to sugar are able to  
99 influence consumers’ perception and behavior toward food products. For example, consumers  
100 perceive products with claims such as “fruit sugar” (Sütterlin & Siegrist, 2015) or “reduced

101 sugar” (Nobrega et al., 2020) as healthier than their regular counterparts. However, not all the  
102 inferences seem to be positive as products with this type of claims are also sometimes  
103 deemed as less tasty (Lähteenmäki et al., 2010; Nørgaard & Brunsø, 2009; Raaij et al., 2009)  
104 and sweet (McCrickerd et al., 2020), with consumers preferring regular products over their  
105 sugar-reduced alternatives (Markey et al., 2015). For example, Patterson et al. (2012)  
106 conducted a study to explore consumer understanding of product claims, focusing mainly on  
107 nutrition claims related to sugars in the UK. The authors found that participants expected a  
108 calorie reduction when a product included a reduced content claim (e.g., “reduced sugar”)  
109 and expressed negative reactions towards those products (e.g., “I really don’t like the taste”).  
110 These negative expectations regarding the taste of products may be an important obstacle to  
111 reducing the quantity of sugar added to products.

112         Nonetheless, the impact of claims on food perception may depend on product  
113 category or even the consumers’ characteristics. For example, Kaur et al. (2017) concluded  
114 that the effect of health and nutrition claims is greater for certain products (e.g., fish, meat,  
115 fruits, and vegetables) than for food products categorized as high in fat or sugar. Research has  
116 also pointed out that the impact of food claims may vary according to how frequently  
117 consumers use nutritional information. Using nutritional information is especially relevant in  
118 certain situations, namely when comparing the nutritional content of two products or buying a  
119 product for the first time (Gomes et al., 2017). Notably, women (e.g., Anastasiou et al., 2019;  
120 Gomes et al., 2017), young people (e.g., Campos et al., 2011; Gomes et al., 2017), and  
121 individuals with higher income (e.g., Anastasiou et al., 2019), and higher educational levels  
122 (e.g., Roe et al., 1999; Gomes et al., 2017) are more likely to use nutrition labels. A recent  
123 study showed that Portuguese consumers use information about sugar content more  
124 frequently than information related to other nutrients and consider this nutrient the most  
125 important to watch out for to stay healthy (Prada, Saraiva, et al., 2020). This was particularly

126 true for women, participants with children in the household, and with higher education. These  
127 groups of consumers were also more accurate in categorizing ingredients (e.g., sucrose,  
128 maltose, honey) as being intrinsic or added sugars.

### 129 **1.1 Overview of the Current Studies**

130 To the best of our knowledge, no previous studies systematically compared the  
131 influence of different sugar-related claims on food perception. Here, we present two  
132 experiments examining how the use of claims about sugar content (Experiment 1) and claims  
133 referring to the type of sugar or sweetener (Experiment 2) influence the perception of food  
134 products. Including different product categories is important to test for the generalizability of  
135 the effect of such claims. For the current studies, we selected food product categories that  
136 contribute significantly to the daily intake of free sugars in Portugal, namely ice-cream,  
137 yogurts, cookies, and breakfast cereals (Lopes et al., 2017).

138 Specifically, in Experiment 1, we examined how nutrition claims regarding sugar  
139 content (i.e., “sugar-free”, “no added sugar”, “0% sugar” and “low sugar”) influence the  
140 perceived healthfulness, calories, and expected taste of different products in comparison with  
141 their regular version (i.e., without such claims). Experiment 2 examined the impact of  
142 nutritional claims that highlight the presence of different types of sugars or sweeteners of  
143 natural origin (i.e., “sucrose”, “cane sugar”, “stevia”, and “honey”, hereafter referred as  
144 “natural sugars”) in the same evaluative dimensions.

145 In line with the health halo effect (e.g., Chandon & Wansink, 2007), we expected that  
146 products with both types of claims about sugar would be perceived as healthier and less  
147 caloric in comparison to “regular” products. Predictions about the impact on expected taste  
148 may depend on the type of claim. Specifically, claims regarding sugar content (Experiment 1)  
149 are likely to negatively impact expected taste ratings (e.g., Patterson et al., 2012,  
150 Lähteenmäki et al., 2010). However, it is possible that claims regarding the presence of

151 different types of natural sugars (Experiment 2) positively impact expected taste ratings due  
152 to the known associations between naturalness and tastiness (for a review, see Román et al.,  
153 2017). Finally, we also assessed the role of individual characteristics (e.g., frequency of use  
154 of nutritional information, gender, age, education level) in participants' assessments.

## 155 **2. Experiment 1**

### 156 **2.1 Method**

#### 157 **2.1.1 Participants and Design**

158 This study included 200 Portuguese-speaking participants who volunteered to  
159 collaborate in this online study (83% woman,  $M_{age} = 30.26$ ,  $SD = 11.22$ ). Participants were  
160 recruited through social networks websites (snowball sampling). Most participants reported  
161 having or attending higher education (67.5%). Nearly all participants (91%) reported having a  
162 regular/omnivorous diet, a Body Mass Index (BMI) within the normal range (64% of 189  
163 valid responses), and not having been diagnosed with a health condition that impacts their  
164 eating habits (only 12.5% reporting conditions such as diabetes, allergies, intolerances, see  
165 Table 1).

166 The design included two within-participants factors: 4 (Product categories: breakfast-  
167 cereals, yogurts, ice cream, cookies) X 4 (Type of claim: 0% sugar, sugar-free, no added  
168 sugar, low sugar). The main dependent variables were perceived healthiness, caloric value,  
169 and expected taste.

170 INSERT TABLE 1 HERE

#### 171 **2.1.2 Procedure and Measures**

173 This study was approved by the Research Ethics Committees of the [Blind for  
174 Review]. Participants were invited through social network websites to collaborate in a web  
175 survey (hosted in Qualtrics) about the perception of food products.

176 The instructions page explained the general goals of the study and stated ethical  
177 considerations (benefits and voluntary nature of participation, anonymity, confidentiality, and  
178 that participants could end their participation at any time). After obtaining written informed  
179 consent, participants were asked to provide sociodemographic information (e.g., gender,  
180 nationality, occupation, education). Instructions for the main task stated that participants were  
181 to evaluate four food categories (yogurts, ice cream, cereal breakfast, and cookies in random  
182 order). Each product category (written in all capitals at the center of the screen) was paired  
183 with the four claims about sugar content (0% sugar, sugar-free, no added sugar, and low  
184 sugar, random order). Specifically, participants were asked to evaluate each category/claim  
185 pair, as compared to their regular version, in three dimensions using 7-point rating scales  
186 (e.g., “In your opinion, 0% sugar cookies are”: *1 = Less healthful/tasty/caloric* to *7 = More*  
187 *healthy/tasty/caloric* than its regular counterpart, Prada et al., 2017, 2019). The evaluative  
188 dimensions were also presented in random order.

189         After evaluating the 16 food-category/claim pairs, we assessed participants’ perceived  
190 influence of nutritional information on their consumption decisions (“How often the  
191 information on nutritional table/list of ingredients/nutrition claims influences your  
192 consumption decisions?”, *1 = Never* to *7 = Always*,  $\alpha = .74$ , Tierney et al., 2017).

193 Participants were also asked about their general perception of products with claims about  
194 sugar content (“In general, low or sugar-free foods are ...”, Prada et al., 2019), including  
195 ratings of healthfulness, expected taste, and caloric content as well as four additional  
196 dimensions: naturalness (*1 = Unnatural* to *7 = Very natural*); cost (*1 = Cheap* to *7 =*  
197 *Expensive*); valence (*1 = Bad* to *7 = Good*); and trust, (*1 = Distrustful* to *7 = Trustworthy*).

198 Participants were also asked about the frequency of consumption of products with sugar-  
199 related claims (“How often do you consume products without sugar or low sugar? *1 = Never*  
200 to *7 = Always*), and whether they pay attention to the amount of sugar they consume (*1 =*



201 *Never* to 7 = *Always*, Hagmann et al., 2018). Finally, participants were asked about their  
202 interest in health and nutrition (1 = *Elementary* to 7 = *Advanced*); diet (regular/omnivorous,  
203 vegetarian, vegan, other), height, weight, and health condition (e.g., diabetes, allergies, food  
204 intolerances). At the end of the survey, participants were thanked and debriefed.

### 205 **3. Results**

206 Only complete questionnaires were considered for analysis ( $n = 200$ ). Next, we  
207 present the following analyzes:

208 (a) Impact of type of claim on perceived healthfulness, taste, and caloric (section 3.1): a 4  
209 (product category) x 4 (claim) repeated-measures ANOVA was conducted for each  
210 evaluative dimension. Whenever assumptions of sphericity were violated, Huynh-Feldt  
211 correction was applied;

212 (b) Additional analyzes: general perceptions of products with sugar related-claims,  
213 differences according to participants' gender and education level (independent samples t-  
214 tests) and pattern of correlations (section 3.2).

215 As stated, product categories were included in our analyses to provide a context for  
216 the claims and test if the effects are replicable in different product categories. Hence the  
217 potential main effects of product category are not informative for the main goal of this study.

#### 218 **3.1 Impact of claim on perceived healthfulness, taste, and caloric value**

219 Results about the impact of claims across evaluative dimensions are summarized in  
220 Figure 1<sup>1</sup>. We observed a main effect of the type of claim on perceived healthfulness,  $F(2.89,$   
221  $575.37) = 27.43$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .121$ , 95% CI [.07, .17], expected taste,  $F(2.77, 550.53) =$   
222  $32.15$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .139$ , 95% CI [.09, .19], and caloric value,  $F(2.78, 553.72) = 32.93$ ,  $p <$

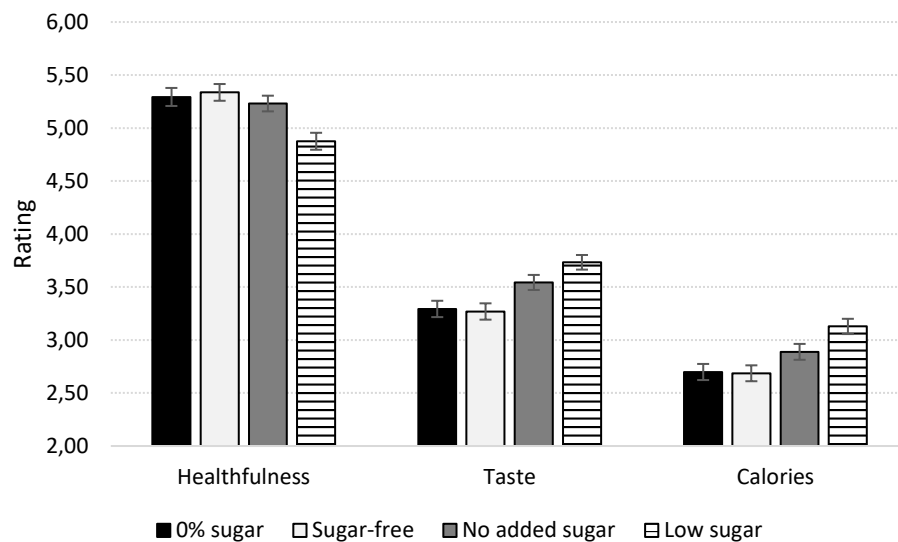
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<sup>1</sup> The main effect of product category was significant on perceived healthfulness,  $F(2.94, 585.08) = 8.45$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .041$ , 95% CI [.01, .07] and caloric value  $F(3.597) = 5.90$ ,  $p = .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .029$ , 95% CI [.01, .06], but not on expected taste,  $F(2.83, 562.94) = .735$ ,  $p = .524$ . Pairwise comparisons with Bonferroni correction revealed that participants considered yogurt to be healthier than all other products,  $ps < .033$ , and cookies to be more caloric than yogurt,  $p = .002$ , and ice cream,  $p = .016$ . No further differences reached statistical significance. The full factorial data is available as supplementary material (Appendix A).

223 .001,  $\eta_p^2 = .142$ , 95% CI [.09, .19]. Pairwise comparisons with Bonferroni correction revealed  
 224 that, compared with their regular version, participants considered products with the claim  
 225 "low sugar" to be less healthy,  $ps < .001$ , tastier,  $ps \leq .005$ , and more caloric,  $p < .001$ , than  
 226 products with other sugar-related claims. Additionally, products with the claim "no added  
 227 sugar" were considered tastier and more caloric than products with the claims "0% sugar"  
 228 and "sugar free",  $ps \leq .001$ . No other differences reached statistical significance.

### 229 **Figure 1**

#### 230 *Impact of Claim Across Evaluative Dimensions*



232

233 *Note.* Error bars represent standard errors.

234 Moreover, all ratings (independently of claim and evaluative dimension) differed from  
 235 the scale midpoint (one-sample  $t$  tests, test value = 4),  $ps < .001$ . Specifically, perceived  
 236 healthfulness ratings were above scale midpoint, whereas calories and expected taste ratings  
 237 were below the scale midpoint. These results suggest that, as expected, products with claims  
 238 related to sugar content as healthier, less caloric, and less tasty than their regular versions.

239 Noteworthy, the main effects of claims were not moderated by product category as  
 240 none of the interaction effects were significant, namely healthfulness,  $F(8.31, 1653.66) =$

241 0.48,  $p = .875$ , expected taste,  $F(8.75, 1741.30) = 1.05$ ,  $p = .399$ , nor caloric value,  $F(8.48,$   
242  $1688.06) = 0.83$ ,  $p = .585$ .

243

### 244 3.3. Additional analysis

245 Results about general perceptions toward products with sugar-related claims are  
246 presented in Table 2. Participants rated these products as healthy, natural, positive, and low in  
247 calories,  $ps \leq .021$ . However, they perceived them as having inferior taste and higher cost,  $ps$   
248  $\leq .013$ , and as moderately trustworthy,  $p = .709$ . Participants also mentioned to often  
249 consume products without sugar or lower in sugar,  $t(199) = 2.76$ ,  $p = .006$ ,  $d' = 1.59$ , 95% CI  
250  $[.09, .53]$ .

251

INSERT TABLE 2 HERE

252 Moreover, we tested for differences according to gender and education level regarding  
253 healthfulness, taste and caloric content ratings, influence of nutritional sources, general  
254 perceptions of products with sugar-related claims, and attention to sugar intake. Overall, we  
255 did not find differences according to these variables, all  $ps > .05$ . The only exception was that  
256 women ( $M = 4.62$ ,  $SD = 1.57$ ) reported using nutritional information more often than men ( $M$   
257  $= 3.76$ ,  $SD = 1.53$ ),  $t(192) = 2.92$ ,  $p = .004$ ,  $d' = 1.56$ , 95% CI  $[-.92, -.17]$ .

258 Finally, correlation analysis (Table 3) showed that participants who reported higher  
259 frequency of consumption of products with sugar-related claims also indicated a more  
260 positive general perception of these products, higher influence of nutritional information on  
261 consumption decisions, paying more attention to their sugar intake and being more interested  
262 in nutrition, all  $ps < .001$ . The latter three variables were also positively inter-related, all  $ps <$   
263  $.001$ . Age was only negatively associated with perceived socioeconomic status,  $p < .001$ ,  
264 which was positively associated with nutrition interest,  $p = .029$ .

### 265 4. Experiment 2

266 Experiment 1 showed that claims related to sugar content influenced the perceived  
267 healthfulness, taste, and caloric value of different food products categories. Using a similar  
268 procedure, Experiment 2 examined the impact of claims regarding the presence of different  
269 natural sugars – sucrose, cane sugar, stevia, honey.

## 270 **4.1 Method**

### 271 **4.1.1 Participants and Design**

272 This study included 206 Portuguese-speaking participants who volunteered to  
273 collaborate (76.2% woman,  $M_{age} = 29.87$ ,  $SD = 12.40$ ). Participants were recruited through  
274 social networks (snowball sampling). Most participants reported having or attending higher  
275 education (62.7%), reported having a regular/omnivorous diet (90.8%), a BMI within the  
276 normal range (62.6% of 196 valid responses,), and not having a diagnosed health condition  
277 that impacts their eating habits (only 13.1% reported conditions such as diabetes, allergies,  
278 intolerances, see Table 1).

279 The design included two within-participants factors: 4 (Product categories: breakfast-  
280 cereals, yogurts, ice cream, cookies) X 4 (Type of claim: sucrose; cane sugar; stevia, honey).

### 281 **4.1.2 Procedure and measures**

282 Informed consent, instructions, and measures were identical to Experiment 1. The  
283 only exception is the item about frequency of consumption that was adapted to products with  
284 claims about natural sugars ( $1 = Never$  to  $7 = Always$ ).

## 285 **5. Results**

286 The data analysis plan was similar to Experiment 1.

### 287 **5.1 Impact of claim on perceived healthfulness, taste, and caloric value**

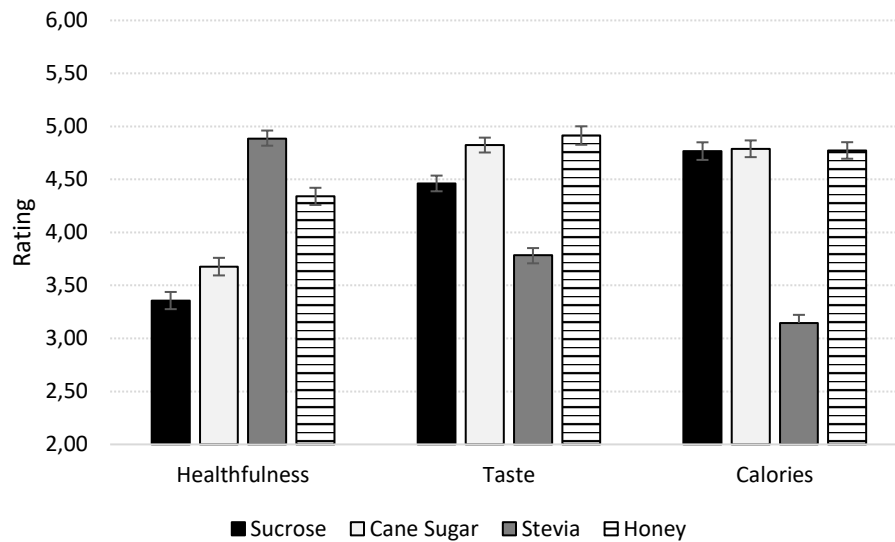
288 Results about the impact of claims across evaluative dimensions are summarized in  
289 Figure 2<sup>2</sup>. We observed a significant main effect of claim on all dimensions: perceived  
290 healthfulness,  $F(2.92, 598.82) = 83.40, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .289, 95\% \text{ CI } [.23, .34]$ , expected taste,  
291  $F(2.75, 563.14) = 68.65, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .251, 95\% \text{ CI } [.19, .31]$ , and caloric value,  $F(2.87,$   
292  $588.21) = 138.07, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .402, 95\% \text{ CI } [.34, .45]$ . Pairwise comparisons revealed  
293 significant differences between all claims for the healthfulness dimension, such that products  
294 with sucrose were perceived as the least healthy,  $ps \leq .022$ , and stevia products as the  
295 healthiest,  $ps \leq .001$ . Products with honey were perceived as tastier,  $ps \leq .001$  (but not  
296 different from those with cane sugar,  $p = .271$ ), and products with stevia were perceived as  
297 the least tasty,  $ps < .001$ . All other differences between claims for the expected taste  
298 dimension were significant,  $p < .001$ . Finally, products with stevia were also perceived as less  
299 caloric,  $ps \leq .001$  and products with the remaining claims did not differ from each other,  $ps =$   
300 1.00.

## 301 **Figure 2**

### 302 *Impact of Claim Across Evaluative Dimensions*

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<sup>2</sup> We observed a main effect of product category on expected taste,  $F(2.95, 604.41) = 3.55, p = .015, \eta_p^2 = .017, 95\% \text{ CI } [.00, .045]$ , Pairwise comparisons using Bonferroni correction revealed that breakfast cereals were perceived as tastier than ice cream ( $p = .015$ ). No other differences reached statistical significance,  $ps > .112$ . The main effect of product category was not significant for healthfulness,  $F(3, 615) = .380, p = .767$ , and caloric content,  $F(3, 615) = .310, p = .818$ , evaluative dimensions.



303

304

305 Also, all the ratings (independently of claim and evaluative dimension) differed from  
 306 the scale midpoint (one-sample  $t$  tests, test value = 4),  $ps \leq .002$ . These results suggest that,  
 307 compared with regular products, participants evaluated products with stevia and honey as  
 308 healthier. In contrast, products with sucrose and cane sugar claims were rated as less healthy  
 309 than regular products. Regarding the expected taste dimension, products with stevia were  
 310 considered less tasty, whereas those with honey, cane sugar, and sucrose were rated as tastier  
 311 than the regular products. Finally, products with stevia were evaluated as less caloric, while  
 312 products with the remaining claims were considered more caloric than their regular  
 313 counterparts.

314 Lastly, results showed that the impact of claim was not moderated by product  
 315 category for healthfulness,  $F(8.55, 1753.55) = .773$ ,  $p = .636$ , or caloric content,  $F(8.76,$   
 316  $1795.14) = 1.40$ ,  $p = .185$ . However, the interaction effect was significant for taste,  $F(8.23,$   
 317  $1687.47) = 5.64$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .027$ , 95% CI [.01, .04]. Pairwise comparisons revealed that,  
 318 compared to products in their regular version, the sucrose claim led to more positive  
 319 evaluations for the category of breakfast cereals,  $ps < .046$  (but not different from yogurts,  $p$   
 320  $= .166$ ). Products “with cane sugar” received the highest evaluation for the yogurt category,

321  $ps \leq .006$  (but not different from cookies,  $p = .290$ ). The claim “stevia” led to higher  
322 evaluations for the ice cream category,  $p < .046$  (but not different from cookies and breakfast  
323 cereals,  $ps > .194$ ). The “with honey” claim led to more positive assessments for the breakfast  
324 cereal category,  $ps \leq .003$  (but not different from cookies,  $p = .287$ ). The full factorial data is  
325 available as supplementary material (Appendix B).

### 326 **5.3 Additional analysis**

327 Table 2 presents general perceptions toward products with natural sugars claims.  
328 These products were perceived as healthy, tasty, natural, expensive, positive, and trustworthy,  
329 all  $ps < .001$ , and as moderately caloric,  $p = .124$ . Participants reported consuming products  
330 with claims regarding the presence of natural sugars occasionally ( $M = 3.34$ ,  $DP = 1.76$ ),  
331  $t(202) = -5.30$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d' = 1.76$ , 95% CI [-1.90, -.41].

332 As in Experiment 1, the only gender difference observed was that women ( $M = 4.75$ ,  
333  $SD = 1.51$ ) reported higher influence of nutritional sources on consumption decisions than  
334 men ( $M = 3.67$ ,  $SD = 1.62$ ),  $t(204) = 4.30$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d' = 1.56$ , 95% CI [-1.58, -.58]. We did  
335 not find differences according to education level, all  $ps > .050$ .

336 Finally, correlation analysis (Table 4) showed that participants who reported higher  
337 frequency of consumption of products with sugar-related claims also indicated a more  
338 positive general perception of these products, higher influence of nutritional information on  
339 consumption decisions, paying more attention to their sugar intake, all  $ps < .001$ , and being  
340 more interested in nutrition,  $p = .012$ . The latter three variables were also positively inter-  
341 related, all  $ps < .001$ . Age was only negatively associated with perceived socioeconomic  
342 status,  $p < .001$ .

## 343 **6. General discussion**

344 Food claims have the potential to inform healthier choices and improve the  
345 consumers' diet (Cowburn & Stockley, 2005). However, these claims may also mislead

346 consumers (Fernan et al., 2018; Thorndike et al., 2012), increasing the perception that a food  
347 is healthier than it really is (Nguyen et al., 2016; Wills et al., 2012). Research examining the  
348 impact of claims specifically related to sugar on food perception is still scarce (cf. Sütterlin &  
349 Siegrist, 2015). Here, we present two experiments that systematically compared how claims  
350 related to the amount of sugar (Experiment 1), or to the type of sugar or sweetener included  
351 in products' composition (Experiment 2) influence food perception.

352 Overall, we observed that products containing claims related to sugar content  
353 (Experiment 1) were rated as more healthful and less caloric than their regular alternatives  
354 but also as less tasty. The impact of claims related to the type of sugar (Experiment 2) was  
355 not as straightforward as it varied according to the specific claim and evaluative dimension.  
356 Specifically, in comparison to their regular version, products with honey and stevia were  
357 rated as more healthful, whereas products with sucrose and cane sugar were rated as less  
358 healthful. Also, products with stevia were rated as less tasty and as having fewer calories (vs.  
359 regular products), whereas products with sucrose, cane sugar, and honey were rated as tastier  
360 and as more caloric. Because the ratings did not depend on the product category (except for  
361 the taste dimension in Experiment 2), these results may be generalized to other product  
362 categories.

363 We were also interested in testing the impact of each claim in comparison to similar  
364 ones. For instance, in some cases, the claims communicated different sugar contents (e.g.,  
365 “sugar-free” vs. “low sugar”), whereas in other cases, the amount of sugar conveyed by the  
366 claim was similar (e.g., “0% sugar” and “sugar-free”). Experiment 1 showed that participants  
367 mainly differentiated the “low sugar” claim from all the others (i.e., products with low sugar  
368 were rated as the least healthful, more caloric, and tastier). Notably, the impact of the “no  
369 added sugar” for the healthfulness dimension is similar to the claims that actually refer to the  
370 absence of sugar (i.e., “0% sugar”, “sugar-free”). This finding suggests that consumers may



371 be inferring that “no added sugars” products are sugar-free (which is often not the case – e.g.,  
372 products with fruit purees or pastes as sweeteners). Still, we found evidence that participants  
373 are able to differentiate the “no added sugar” from both “0% sugar” and “sugar-free” claims  
374 in other evaluative dimensions (e.g., “no added sugar” rated as more caloric and tastier). In  
375 Experiment 2, results revealed that participants mainly differentiated the “stevia” claim from  
376 all the others (i.e., products with stevia were rated as the healthiest, the least caloric, and the  
377 least tasty). Although sucrose is usually extracted from sugar cane, participants rated products  
378 with sucrose as less healthful than all the others, including cane sugar.

379         Results from both experiments, relating taste and healthfulness perceptions, seem to  
380 support a “Health-Pleasure” trade-off (e.g., Loebnitz & Grunert, 2018). According to this  
381 effect, the presence of nutritional claims may lead to the anticipation of more negative  
382 hedonic attributes (e.g., less tasty, see also Fenko et al., 2016). These expectations may be  
383 detrimental to consumers’ purchase intention and consumption patterns of these types of  
384 products. Still, this association does not seem to hold for all types of sugars or sweeteners.  
385 For instance, in Experiment 2, results for the overall perception of products containing honey  
386 showed that these products were simultaneously rated as healthier and tastier. It is possible  
387 that these results emerge from an association of certain types of sugar to greater naturalness  
388 (Lähteenmäki et al., 2010; Patterson et al., 2012; Sütterlin & Siegrist, 2015). For example, in  
389 a previous study, most participants categorized honey as a natural sugar, whereas many were  
390 unsure about the origin of sucrose or categorized it as artificial (Prada, Saraiva, et al., 2020).

391         Considering the general perceptions about products with sugar-related claims,  
392 participants rated these products as high healthy, natural, positive, and expensive. Still, some  
393 differences emerged: products with sugar content claims (Experiment 1) were rated as low in  
394 calories, taste, and as moderately trustworthy, whereas products with natural sugar claims  
395 (Experiment 2) were rated as moderately caloric, and highly tasty and, trustworthy. Results

396 about the latter dimension are interesting as it seems that consumers have higher trust in  
397 products with claims about natural sugars than in claims about sugar content. This is in line  
398 with the idea that consumers tend to trust food with claims suggesting its naturalness (e.g.,  
399 Petty, 2015). This may be related to the marketing strategy of highlighting a given ingredient  
400 even if it is not being the main source of sugar (e.g., “honey biscuits” often include sucrose in  
401 much higher proportions than honey). The expectation that products with sugar-related claims  
402 are simultaneously healthful and expensive is also congruent with previous research (Haws et  
403 al., 2017) and may influence consumer decision-making. This belief that healthy food is more  
404 expensive than unhealthy food sometimes is actually accurate. For example, in a recent  
405 review, McCain et al. (2018) revealed that some natural sugar substitutes, specifically stevia,  
406 are more expensive than common sugar or even than some artificial sugars (e.g., saccharin).  
407 Still, in the current study, we did not assess how familiar participants were with each of the  
408 natural sugar sources. For instance, not all consumers may be aware that sucrose and cane  
409 sugar are actually common sugar. Indeed, previous research has shown that consumers’  
410 knowledge about sugar sources is low (Prada, Saraiva, et al., 2020; Tierney et al., 2017).  
411 Future studies should take this into consideration.

412       Regarding individual variables, in both studies, we found that the frequency of  
413 consumption of products with sugar-related claims was positively associated to the general  
414 perception of such product and to variables related to the use and interest in nutritional  
415 information (e.g., influence of nutritional information in purchase decisions; attention to  
416 one’s sugar intake). This result is in line with previous studies reporting health interest as an  
417 important determinant for the use of nutrition claims (e.g., for reviews, see Kaur et al., 2017;  
418 Nocella & Kennedy, 2012; Carrillo et al., 2012; Cavaliere et al., 2016; Grunert et al., 2012).  
419 In general, we did not find differences in results according to participants' gender (except for  
420 a stronger influence of nutritional information in purchase decisions reported by women),

421 education level, age, or perceived socioeconomic status. However, these findings must  
422 framed according to the characteristics of our samples – that is, mainly women, younger  
423 individuals (mean age around 30 years old), and with a higher education level. Moreover,  
424 most of our participants also reported a weight status within the normal range and the absence  
425 of diagnosed health conditions restricting their eating patterns. Critically, these characteristics  
426 differ from the general Portuguese population in several ways. For instance, recent data  
427 suggested that 67.6% of the population (individuals over 15 years) presents a BMI above  
428 normal range (i.e., BMI > 25, OCDE, 2019). We also have a much higher proportion of  
429 participants with higher education which is estimated around 25% (Portuguese individuals  
430 from 24 to 64 years old; OCDE, 2019). Because those with higher education also are more  
431 likely to present a BMI level within normal range, this may explain why our participants  
432 seem to be quite healthy. Moreover, this may reflect a self-selection bias (i.e., greater  
433 participation of individuals who already have an interest in the research topic, Young et al.,  
434 2020). Previous studies have also revealed that women and highly educated individuals are  
435 more likely to participate in research in nutrition and health topics (Andreeva et al., 2015).  
436 Hence, generalization of results should be made with caution and future studies should seek  
437 to recruit more heterogeneous samples.

438         These studies constitute a first attempt to examine systematically how different claims  
439 about sugar influence consumer perceptions. Although we included food categories to  
440 contextualize the claims, they were not paired with specific exemplars. This constitutes a  
441 limitation of our experiments and generalization to real-life food products should be made  
442 with caution. Considering that food packaging often includes numerous clues, it is likely that  
443 the claims less salient. Future studies can manipulate the same type of claims in real food  
444 products, while controlling for familiarity and food packaging aspects (see, for example, a  
445 study with gluten-free label, Prada et al., 2019). This method would also allow to overcome a

446 limitation of our work related to the use of comparative ratings (i.e., products of a category  
447 paired with a given type of sugar claims in comparison to its regular version). Although both  
448 the instructions in each trial and the scale anchors emphasized this comparative nature (see  
449 also, Schuldt & Hannahan, 2013; Prada, Garrido, & Rodrigues, 2017), we cannot guarantee  
450 that participants perceived the scale midpoint as indicative of similarity between products  
451 (regular version and with claim). Hence, future studies could compare ratings between  
452 product exemplars with a given claim with the same exemplars without the claim (i.e.,  
453 control condition).

454 Overall, our study replicated the health halo and positivity bias effects (Prada et al.,  
455 2017; Roe et al., 1999). Products with claims about the absence of (added) sugar, in  
456 particular, were perceived as more healthful and less caloric than regular products. A  
457 potential caveat is that research has shown that the inclusion of nutrition claims may result in  
458 overconsumption (for a review see, BROWN). Hence, future studies should seek to test the  
459 impact of different sugar-related claims on consumer choice and eating behavior.

460 Consumers seem to be open to change in product composition, particularly regarding  
461 sugar content (e.g., “less sugar” is more valued than “less calories” when consumers are  
462 looking for a healthier product, Lever et al., 2018). However, our results also suggest that  
463 consumers may expect products with such claims to taste worst. Moreover, the perceptions of  
464 healthfulness, calories, and taste of the product may differ depending on the specific claim  
465 presented in the packaging of the product, mainly when the claims focus on the type of sugar  
466 or sweetener that is present (e.g., stevia; honey).

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## 7. References

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**Table 1***Participants' Diet and Health-Related Characteristics*

	<i>Experiment 1</i>		<i>Experiment 2</i>	
	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>
<b>Diet</b>				
Regular/Omnivorous	182	91	187	90.8
Vegetarian	12	6	10	4.9
Vegan	2	1	3	1.5
Other	4	2	6	2.9
<b>Health conditions<sup>a</sup></b>				
Food allergies (e.g., lactose, gluten)	11	5.5	14	6.8
Diabetes	3	1.5	6	2.9
Cholesterol	2	1.0	1	0.5
Gastrointestinal diseases	4	2.0	5	2.4
Eating disorders	1	0.5	2	1.0
Hypertension	1	0.5	1	0.5
Anemic	1	0.5	0	0.0
None	176	88.0	179	86.9
Other (non-diet-related)	4	2	0	0.0
<b>Body Mass Index (BMI)<sup>b</sup></b>				
Underweight (< 18.5)	12	6.0	11	5.3
Normal weight (18.5-24.9)	128	64.0	129	62.6
Pre-obesity (25-29.9)	39	19.5	35	17.0
Obesity (> 30)	10	5.0	21	10.2
Missing	11	5.5	10	4.9

<sup>a</sup> Some participants indicated more than one health condition ( $n = 203$  responses - Experiment 1;  $n = 208$  responses - Experiment 2).

<sup>b</sup> BMI was computed using the metric formula (Weight in kilograms)/(Height in meters)<sup>2</sup> (for more information on BMI, see <http://www.euro.who.int/en/health-topics/disease-prevention/nutrition/a-healthy-lifestyle/body-mass-index-bmi>).

**Table 2***General Perceptions of Products with Sugar-related Claims*

	Experiment 1			Experiment 2		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (199) <sup>1</sup>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (205) <sup>1</sup>
Healthfulness	4.82	1.27	9.06***	4.46	1.37	4.84***
Taste	3.79	1.21	-2.52*	4.68	1.27	7.68***
Calories (r)	4.80	1.22	9.25***	3.86	1.26	-1.55
Naturalness	4.22	1.37	2.33*	4.39	1.41	3.96***
Cost (r)	2.70	1.18	-15.61***	3.08	1.25	-10.62***
Valence	4.70	1.28	7.66***	4.79	1.24	9.18***
Trust	4.04	1.51	.374	4.47	1.29	5.24***
<i>General perception of products with sugar-related claims</i> <sup>a</sup>	4.31	1.59	2.76**	4.44	0.90	7.06***

Note. (r) = reversed rating (i.e., higher ratings indicate less calories and cheaper cost)

<sup>a</sup> This index includes all dimensions, except price (Cronbach  $\alpha = .72$ )

<sup>1</sup>Value for the one-sample *t*-test against the scale midpoint (4).

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ ; \*  $p < .050$ .

**Table 3***Correlations*

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Frequency of consumption of products with sugar-related claims	4.31	1.59	-					
2. General perception of products with sugar-related claims <sup>b</sup>	4.39	0.85	.30***	-				
3. Influence of nutritional information on consumption decisions <sup>a</sup>	4.31	1.86	.48***	-.03	-			
4. Attention to sugar intake	4.56	1.67	.50***	-.05	.58***	-		
5. Self-reported nutrition interest	5.03	1.80	.30***	-.09	.61***	.56***	-	
6. Age	30.26	11.22	.10	.02	-.11	-.002	-.09	-
7. Perceived socioeconomic status	5.83	1.34	-.06	.02	.03	.07	.15*	-.28***

<sup>a</sup>This index includes all three nutritional information sources (i.e., claims, list of ingredients, and nutrition table; Cronbach  $\alpha = .74$ )

<sup>b</sup>This index includes all dimensions, except price (Cronbach  $\alpha = .72$ )

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$  \*  $p < .050$



**Table 4***Correlations*

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Frequency of consumption of products with natural sugar claims	3.34	1.76	-					
2. General perception of products with sugar-related claims <sup>b</sup>	4.44	0.90	.33***	-				
3. Influence of nutritional information on consumption decisions <sup>a</sup>	4.50	1.60	.30***	.05	-			
4. Attention to sugar intake	4.55	1.62	.23**	.10	.53***	-		
5. Self-reported nutrition interest	4.90	1.92	.18*	.10	.57***	.49***	-	
6. Age	29.87	12.40	-.04	.05	.04	.13	.03	-
7. Perceived socioeconomic status	5.87	1.25	-.05	-.03	.06	-.03	-.05	-.27***

<sup>a</sup>This index includes all three nutritional information sources (i.e., claims, list of ingredients, and nutrition table; Cronbach  $\alpha = .74$ )

<sup>b</sup>This index includes all dimensions, except price (Cronbach  $\alpha = .78$ )

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .010$  \*  $p < .050$

## Appendix

*Means and Standard Errors for Each Evaluative Dimension According to Claim and Product Category*

	EXPERIMENT 1								EXPERIMENT 2								
	0% sugar		Sugar-free		No added sugar		Low sugar		Sucrose		Sugar cane		Stevia		Honey		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Healthfulness																	
Yogurt	5.44	1.48	5.54	1.51	5.45	1.42	5.01	1.44	3.29	1.39	3.68	1.44	4.93	1.34	4.37	1.37	
Ice Cream	5.22	1.50	5.25	1.40	5.10	1.31	4.79	1.31	3.40	1.45	3.69	1.31	4.88	1.21	4.37	1.37	
Breakfast cereals	5.30	1.36	5.37	1.43	5.23	1.34	4.86	1.47	3.37	1.40	3.76	1.48	4.86	1.33	4.31	1.41	
Cookies	5.21	1.42	5.18	1.41	5.15	1.36	4.84	1.43	3.37	1.42	3.58	1.38	4.87	1.30	4.32	1.39	
Taste																	
Yogurt	3.39	1.54	3.26	1.55	3.62	1.45	3.78	1.28	4.45	1.35	4.97	1.34	3.71	1.24	4.85	1.54	
Ice Cream	3.36	1.37	3.35	1.38	3.50	1.28	3.68	1.29	4.41	1.29	4.73	1.13	3.86	1.18	4.65	1.55	
Breakfast cereals	3.24	1.45	3.23	1.48	3.54	1.34	3.79	1.28	4.57	1.22	4.71	1.29	3.81	1.18	5.12	1.35	
Cookies	3.19	1.32	3.24	1.30	3.51	1.30	3.68	1.26	4.41	1.31	4.89	1.19	3.76	1.10	5.03	1.48	
Caloric value																	
Yogurt	2.52	1.38	2.66	1.44	2.81	1.36	3.05	1.28	4.80	1.41	4.83	1.34	3.08	1.41	4.75	1.46	
Ice Cream	2.70	1.36	2.63	1.26	2.81	1.32	3.03	1.22	4.72	1.45	4.79	1.25	3.11	1.30	4.75	1.29	
Breakfast cereals	2.74	1.29	2.63	1.31	2.91	1.33	3.20	1.21	4.82	1.39	4.67	1.39	3.21	1.37	4.83	1.31	
Cookies	2.83	1.40	2.82	1.36	3.03	1.34	3.24	1.31	4.72	1.36	4.86	1.33	3.18	1.30	4.77	1.31	