

1 **Displaying ingredients on healthy snack packaging: a study on visual**  
2 **attention, choice and purchase intention.**

3 **Running title: Ingredient display effects on healthy snack packaging**

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8 **ABSTRACT**

9 The key packaging element in healthy snacks is the ingredient. This research highlights  
10 the use of eye tracking by companies to achieve greater effectiveness on the consumer's  
11 attention. Three healthy snacks were presented to analyse whether there are differences  
12 in their attention, choice, and purchase intention according to the type of ingredient. An  
13 eye tracking device and a questionnaire were applied and the results showed that the  
14 central area of the packaging of healthy snacks in which the ingredients are shown  
15 attracts more attention. Positive relationships between the choice of a snack and the  
16 intention to purchase it, and between the total fixation duration and the choice of a  
17 product were found. Food products with more hedonic components (flavour, e.g.,  
18 chocolate) were much more visually attractive and captured more attention. At the same  
19 time, those products with less desirable or palatable ingredients were chosen less.

20 **Practical applications:** This research provides insights into how packaging design  
21 influences consumer perceptions of healthy snacks. Food packaging plays a crucial role  
22 in capturing consumer attention and communicating information that affects their  
23 purchasing decisions. In this context, understanding how consumers direct their  
24 attention and what information they consider when evaluating products is essential for  
25 professionals in fields such as food science, marketing and graphic design, where the  
26 use of eye-tracking devices is key. Furthermore, resistance to less desirable or  
27 unfamiliar products hinders purchase intent, suggesting the need to improve their appeal  
28 and communicate their health benefits. This study confirms that, when designing the  
29 packaging of healthy snacks, it is necessary to focus more on the central part of the  
30 packaging, which should show the composition and its appearance with a real image of  
31 it.

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33 **Keywords:** packaging; food; sensory science; eye tracking; neuromarketing; attention;  
34 consumer neuroscience; consumer behaviour.

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## 39 1. INTRODUCTION

40 There are now a large number of functional foods, i.e. foods with nutritional and health-  
41 promoting properties, which have a positive effect on health and go beyond basic  
42 nutrition. These are, for example, low-fat products, cholesterol-lowering foods and foods  
43 that provide vitamins, minerals or fibre (Küster and Vila, 2017). Although the use of these  
44 products is widespread, there are still consumers who do not know how to categorise  
45 them, thus causing them to pay little attention to them at the point of sale and not to buy  
46 them (Granqvist and Ritvala, 2016). According to Auttarapong (2012), the appearance of  
47 the packaging should generate positive reactions, thoughts or sensations among  
48 consumers, which attract them to the product.

49 Marketers do not have an in-depth understanding of how and what information consumers  
50 use to judge whether products are more or less healthy (Karnal *et al.*, 2016). In the few  
51 seconds that consumers spend making a choice, the design of the packaging could,  
52 therefore, help to attract their attention and influence their purchase decisions. Some  
53 authors claim that product evaluation is directly influenced by packaging elements, such  
54 as nutrition labels (Ballco *et al.*, 2020, van Herpen *et al.*, 2013; Vyth *et al.*, 2010) or health  
55 labels (Vidal *et al.*, 2013). Although there is extensive research on the relevance of food  
56 labelling for consumer choice and wellbeing (Cowburn and Stockley, 2005; Drichoutis *et*  
57 *al.*, 2006; Theben *et al.*, 2019; Küster-Boluda and Vila, 2020), the evidence of their  
58 impact on health assessments, food choice (Aschemann-Witzel *et al.*, 2013) or  
59 consumption behaviour (Roberto *et al.*, 2012) is still scarce.

60 Many packaging design parameters should be considered in order to ensure that the  
61 packaging conveys the most effective message, captures the consumer's attention in the  
62 shop and achieves its full strength as a tool by which to improve the product experience  
63 (Simmonds and Spence, 2017). The visual design of a package can alter consumers'  
64 perceptions and preferences (Creusen and Schoormans, 2005), which is why packaging  
65 design elements such as size, shape, logo, colour and font are recognised as effective tools  
66 by which to differentiate products in a saturated market (Chandon, 2013). Understanding  
67 these parameters with respect to packaging design is crucial if designers and marketers  
68 seek to satisfy consumers by giving them what they really want.

69 Therefore, this research analyses how product packaging can affect consumers' attention,  
70 choice and purchase intention. We enhance the knowledge regarding labelling and

71 packaging as strategic marketing tools, especially in a competitive and mature food  
72 industry.

73 In the lack of eye tracking methodology, studies that analyse the influence of product  
74 packaging on the consumer use self-reports (Olavarrieta *et al.*, 2012), think-aloud  
75 protocols (Barnett *et al.*, 2011), conjoint analysis-based methodologies (Gadioli *et al.*,  
76 2013; Koutsimanis *et al.*, 2012) or verification questionnaires (Ng *et al.*, 2013). The  
77 source of the problems inherent in conducting these studies lies mainly in the fact that  
78 they rely on the different personal skills of individuals (such as speaking) and the lack of  
79 objectivity in the evaluations as a result of interview pressure, which means that some  
80 participants may perceive the study as an exam (Rebollar *et al.*, 2015). Thus, some authors  
81 have concluded that other types of studies are needed to help better understand consumer  
82 response to packaging design elements (Silayoi and Speece, 2004). Rebollar *et al.* (2015)  
83 contribute with their study to this direction by using eye-tracking technology to analyse  
84 how potential buyers view chocolate snack packaging when impulse buying. Therefore,  
85 eye-tracking is able to collect objective data on participants' behaviour quickly and less  
86 invasively when presented with a visual stimulus (Graham *et al.*, 2012), which facilitates  
87 the investigation of unconscious mechanisms when viewing product packaging (Rebollar  
88 *et al.*, 2015).

89 The present study aims to fill another gap in academic research as previous studies lack  
90 information on the possible influence of different types of food on visual attention  
91 (Hummel *et al.*, 2017). This issue is particularly relevant in the context of food advertising  
92 (Velazquez and Pasch, 2014). The technique employed to obtain this information is eye  
93 tracking, a tool from the field of neuroscience. The eye-tracking technology considers the  
94 physiological movements of the human eye, analysing the psychological consequences  
95 of these movements and provides precise recommendations on how to improve packaging  
96 design based on the data obtained from the analysis (Franken, 2020).

97 Eye tracking is used in many research studies that hypothesize that longer eye fixations  
98 are associated with higher levels of attention and interest (resulting in a positive reaction,  
99 liking and assimilation) (Matukin *et al.*, 2016). In addition to explicit measures, such as  
100 self-reported appetite ratings, the analysis of implicit measures, such as reaction time or  
101 eye movements, can provide a better understanding of the process of food selection and  
102 evaluation by consumers (Wang *et al.*, 2018; Morquecho-Campos *et al.*, 2022).

## 103 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 104 2.1. PACKAGING AND PERCEPTION OF HEALTHINESS

105 The packaging of a product is a key factor that can determine its success in the  
106 marketplace (Rebollar *et al.*, 2015). A specifically interesting research topic is how the  
107 appearance of packaging can influence perceptions of healthiness. A package is made up  
108 of different types of elements that are useful for capturing and maintaining the attention  
109 of customers (Otterbring *et al.*, 2013). Unique and attractive packaging is a necessity and  
110 design nowadays offers new creative opportunities to achieve greater visibility through  
111 material, shape, colour or graphics (Rundh, 2016). However, studies examining how the  
112 more implicit visual cues on packaging impact on the extent to which shoppers perceive  
113 a flavour sample to be healthy are limited (Van Rompay *et al.*, 2016). Of these, the  
114 majority have used eye tracking to understand how attracting consumers' visual attention  
115 influences their choice of healthy food (e.g., Ballco *et al.*, 2020; Morquecho-Campos *et*  
116 *al.*, 2022; Oliveira *et al.*, 2016; Spielvogel *et al.*, 2018).

117 The health food industry is often confronted with a problem on the consumer side, which  
118 is that health food is seen as unpleasant, and that it is necessary to sacrifice sensory  
119 pleasure in order to achieve a healthy diet (Tuorila and Cardello, 2002; Baixauli *et al.*,  
120 2008). Healthy food choices are often considered to conflict with food pleasure. Previous  
121 studies have shown that consumers may perceive food products as more or less tasty,  
122 filling and satisfying depending on how they are described (Chirico-Scheele *et al.*, 2021).  
123 When conducting studies on consumer response to packaging design elements, problems  
124 arise related to the different personal skills of individuals (judgment or oral expression)  
125 and to the lack of objectivity in the evaluations due to the pressure of the interviews  
126 (Rebollar *et al.*, 2015). Because of these problems, some authors conclude that other types  
127 of studies are needed to help better understand consumer response (Silayoi and Speece,  
128 2007) such as the use of eye-tracking (Rebollar *et al.*, 2015).

129 When making their daily food choices, consumers obtain product cues from the  
130 information and designs they find on the package, which generate sensory and hedonic  
131 expectations about the product (Moskowitz *et al.*, 2009; Oliveira *et al.*, 2016), and balance  
132 sensory and non-sensory factors (Jaeger, 2006). Thus, packaging or labelling generates  
133 expectations related to health benefits, and these may influence hedonic and sensory  
134 perception (Varela *et al.*, 2010). Simply looking at the packaging, therefore, allows

135 consumers to imagine how the product will taste and how much they will like it. In fact,  
136 in the review by Motoki *et al.* (2021), it is highlighted that previous research has found  
137 that unhealthy foods tend to attract more attention through eye tracking device.  
138 Furthermore, consumers are more willing to buy products that taste better (Ballco *et al.*,  
139 2020).

140 The selection of comprehensive and effective front-of-pack nutrition information has a  
141 major impact on the consumer's decision-making process (Mauri *et al.*, 2021). Brands  
142 typically use health and nutrition labelling as a means to position their products as healthy  
143 products (Lähteenmäki, 2013). Along with these health claims, the presence of visual  
144 elements such as fruit or even elements referring to nature can increase the perceived  
145 healthiness of the food (Arrúa *et al.*, 2017). Previous research (e.g. Oliveira *et al.*, 2016)  
146 linked consumer associations to health and justified this influence mainly by graphic  
147 design rather than product description. If health claims are too long, they are likely to  
148 reduce consumer interest and attention. Therefore, presenting less information helps  
149 ensure that it is fully processed. Centurión *et al.* (2019) supported the potential of nutrition  
150 warnings to influence consumers' perception of healthfulness. Simple graphic designs  
151 (signs and colours) are more effective than numerical information in influencing  
152 consumer perception and behavior (Peters *et al.*, 2007). If nutrition warnings are placed  
153 at the top of labels, they attract more attention (Cabrera *et al.*, 2017).

154 The purpose of this labelling is, therefore, to guide the consumer towards healthy products  
155 by showing information concerning the content of the food (Cowburn and Stocklet,  
156 2005). Both increased trust in information and the perceived healthiness and visual  
157 appearance of the product will consequently have a decisive influence on the consumer's  
158 attitude towards products classified as healthy. If consumers have a positive attitude  
159 towards these products, then their intention to buy them will increase (Küster and Vila,  
160 2017). Karnal *et al.* (2016) state that the effect of design features on health perception is  
161 more pronounced for those individuals who focus on health promotion and less for those  
162 who are not concerned about this aspect of their diet.

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## 166 2.2. FOOD IMAGES ON PRODUCT PACKAGING

167 Products come wrapped in their own distinctive packaging. This packaging not only  
168 protects the product, but also affects consumers' preference for it and their beliefs about  
169 its sensory attributes. Thus, the inclusion of an image of the product in the packaging  
170 makes it easier for consumers to imagine what the product would be like in terms of taste,  
171 smell, and appearance, among others. In other words, packaging activates sensory  
172 associations in the consumer's mind, which impacts their perception and behavior towards  
173 the product (Krishna *et al.*, 2017).

174 Although research on the use of food images on product packaging is still relatively  
175 limited, there are already some important lessons to be learned, such as the fact that  
176 product images on packaging can be an effective means of communicating with the  
177 consumer (Simmonds and Spence, 2017). The food industry employs a broad range of  
178 verbal (e.g., nutrition and health claims) and nonverbal (e.g., colours, shapes, images and  
179 symbols) signals to convey the healthfulness of products and influence consumer  
180 decisions (Skubisz, 2017). According to Huang *et al.* (2022), food-packaging images are  
181 one of the most important extrinsic elements for consumers to evaluate food products  
182 before purchasing them. Studies underline the importance of nutrition claims and  
183 references to naturalness in the perception of healthiness in products with an unfavorable  
184 nutritional composition (Arrúa *et al.*, 2017; Sütterlin and Siegrist, 2015).

185 It is essential to facilitate the consumers' purchasing process by providing them with  
186 information on the packaging design that may be of interest to them. This is important  
187 because 70% of the customers' purchasing decisions are made at the point of sale  
188 (Ståhlberg and Maila, 2012). In this same line of research, Elliott (2008) showed that the  
189 image of food on packaging causes the consumer to feel that the product tastes better than  
190 those products whose packaging has no images. Consequently, it is important to know  
191 which elements on packaging attract attention and whether they are a key element in  
192 consumer purchasing decisions (Steenhuis *et al.*, 2004).

193 The product information obtained from the imagery on the packaging, therefore, makes  
194 it possible to make a direct comparison of products, in addition to attracting the  
195 consumer's attention (Venter *et al.*, 2011). The findings of the aforementioned authors  
196 highlight that the image of the product on the package acts as a key source of information

197 for consumers, enabling them to identify product attributes through a reliable source and  
198 compare different products in the category.

199 Previous studies suggest that consumers evaluate food and drink through simulations of  
200 consumption and reward, especially if they are appealing (Papies *et al.*, 2020). Similarly,  
201 Passamonti *et al.* (2009) found that food sensitivity was also particularly potent when  
202 viewing images of appetising versus tasteless foods and concluded that this type of  
203 viewing can trigger the desire to eat. With regard to visual appearance, authors such as  
204 Wadhera and Capaldi-Phillips (2014) demonstrated that visual exposure was very  
205 important in increasing the acceptance of a new product.

206 Turnwald and Crum (2019) have shown that the use of food labels and packaging that  
207 emphasise sensory and hedonic characteristics rather than healthy characteristics increase  
208 choices and preferences for vegetable-based dishes because such labels trigger rewarding  
209 consumption simulations. Comparable results have been found in other studies, such as  
210 those of Grabenhorst *et al.* (2008) and Woods *et al.* (2011).

211 Although consumers constantly see and read information on product packaging, it is  
212 relevant to know which specific information captures their attention the most, especially  
213 during their first contact with a new food product. Indeed, given the short time consumers  
214 spend deciding which product to buy, they cannot process all the information available  
215 on the package. Therefore, attention is a crucial element in the consumer's decision-  
216 making process (Ares *et al.*, 2013). Specifically, most of the previous studies found that  
217 have used this device in the field of sensory and consumer science have focused on  
218 measuring fixations (e.g., Ares *et al.*, 2013; Hummel *et al.*, 2017; Morquecho-Campos *et*  
219 *al.*, 2022; Motoki *et al.*, 2018; Oliveira *et al.*, 2016; Rebollar *et al.*, 2015; Spielvogel *et*  
220 *al.*, 2018). During fixation, the eye remains relatively motionless, usually for a period  
221 ranging from 200 to 500 milliseconds. During this interval, consumers are considered  
222 processing information about the stimulus they are viewing, which may be related to  
223 subsequent processes such as preference formation or choice (Motoki *et al.*, 2021).

224 The objective of this research was to assess whether the presence of a more palatable food  
225 (such as chocolate) on packaging attracts more attention and stimulates a greater purchase  
226 intention than less palatable foods (quinoa and seaweed).

227

228 Therefore, the following research questions were formulated:

229 RQ1. Is there a relationship between attentional measures and the choice and intention to  
230 purchase healthy snacks?

231 RQ2. Does the type of ingredients influence the attentional measures of healthy snacks?

232 RQ3. Does the type of ingredients influence the choice and purchase intention of healthy  
233 snacks?

234 RQ4. Do healthy consumption habits influence attentional measures, along with healthy  
235 snack choice and purchase intention?

236

### 237 **3. MATERIALS AND METHOD**

#### 238 **3.1. Participants**

239 The study sample consisted of forty-seven people (55% male, 45% female), with an age  
240 range of 18 to 48 ( $M = 20,72$ ;  $SD = 4,51$ ). Consumers were enrolled by means of a call  
241 for applications via email. Inclusion criteria were having normal or corrected eyesight. In  
242 addition to having no visual impairments or colour blindness, in order to be able to carry  
243 out the task. Participation was voluntary and informed consent was obtained from all  
244 participants. Furthermore, the study has been carried out in accordance with The Code of  
245 Ethics of the World Medical Association (Declaration of Helsinki) for experiments  
246 involving humans.

#### 247 **3.2. Materials**

248 In this research, healthy snacks were chosen because of the positive healthy image they  
249 currently have, just as other studies have chosen cereal bars because of their growing  
250 popularity and healthy image (Centuri3n *et al.*, 2019). The experiment analysed the  
251 packaging of three varieties of the Gull3n® (Vitalday) snack brand products (oatmeal and  
252 seaweed versus oatmeal, rice and dark chocolate versus oatmeal, quinoa and flax). It is a  
253 type of food or fashionable product for which differentiation is important, given the wide  
254 variety of brands and flavour options

255 All three currently exist on the market and are shown in Figure 1. In the three images  
256 below, the brand, ingredients and content areas have been highlighted. The marked areas  
257 corresponding to the brand include the name of the company and of the product, the

258 ingredients consider the description and the picture, and finally the weight of the product  
259 and content were the element considered below. In order to determine these areas of  
260 interest, statistical analyses were taken into account, which indeed confirmed that in these  
261 areas there were no differences between them and they could be used as a common  
262 element for all three varieties.

263 **Figure 1.** Stimuli provided (A: seaweed; B: chocolate; C: Quinoa) and delimited areas of  
264 interest (brand, ingredients, and content).

265

### 266 **3.3. Apparatus**

267 A personal computer with a Windows 10 operating system was used. The snacks were  
268 presented full screen on a 21-inch monitor, viewed from a distance of 60 cm and with a  
269 resolution of 1920 × 1080 pixels. Eye movements were recorded using an infrared eye  
270 tracking device from The Eye Tribe company, with a sampling rate of 60 Hz. The  
271 software used to process the data obtained from eye tracking was Ogama software  
272 (Version 5.1 (30.03.2021)). This non-invasive, computer-connected device relies on  
273 reflexes that allow the eyes to be tracked more accurately and provides some freedom as  
274 regards head movement (Hahn *et al.*, 2016) and is considered a direct measure of visual  
275 attention (Rebollar *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, it measures the movements made by the  
276 subject's eyes and their position, thus allowing the chosen object to be processed, leaving  
277 the rest aside (Casado-Aranda *et al.*, 2020). It is the so-called selective eye focus that  
278 creates a path towards a stimulus, in this case the product (Hübner *et al.*, 2010), providing  
279 information about behaviour and cognitive process (Meißner and Oll, 2019). This is  
280 where eye tracking becomes important as the most appropriate tool by which to measure  
281 this eye focus (Bridger and Noble, 2015). This tool could help to increase their interest in  
282 the product and increase purchase intent (Oliveira *et al.*, 2016).

### 283 **3.4. Instruments**

#### 284 **3.4.1. Eye tracking measures**

285 Attentional measures were obtained using an eye tracking device. The following were  
286 obtained for each snack: 1) *time to first fixation* (TFF), which indicated the total amount  
287 of time that elapsed between the presentation of the stimulus and the first fixation on it;  
288 2) *total fixation duration* (TFD), which reflected the total amount of time spent examining  
289 the area of interest; and 3) *fixation count* (FC), which was employed to quantify the

290 number of times the area of interest was looked at. The first two metrics were, therefore,  
291 measured in milliseconds, while the third provided a count.

### 292 **3.4.2. Questionnaire**

293 Self-reported measures were collected by asking the participants to answer two  
294 statements measured with a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 5 =  
295 *strongly agree*. The first item referred to snack choice, "I would choose these snacks in  
296 order to take care of myself," while the second referred to snack purchase intention, "I  
297 would buy these snacks." The participants were also asked to respond to the following  
298 question: "Do you usually consume healthy products", with a Yes/No response.

### 299 **3.5. Experimental design**

300 An experimental design was employed in which the healthy consumption habit was a  
301 within-subject factor (the consumption or otherwise of healthy snacks) and the type of  
302 ingredient (seaweed, chocolate and quinoa) was a between-subject factor. The healthy  
303 consumption habit was obtained by means of the item "I usually consume healthy  
304 snacks", whose response was dichotomous (Yes/No). The dependent variables were time  
305 to first fixation, total fixation duration, fixation count, choice, and purchase intention.

### 306 **3.6. Procedure**

307 The experimental procedure was carried out in May 2022. It consisted of two parts, which  
308 were presented to the participants in a random order. After signing informed consent  
309 forms, each participant was seated 65 cm from the computer screen and the experiment  
310 began. In one part, a questionnaire was employed in order to obtain socio-demographic  
311 information, the participants' healthy eating habits and their choices and preferences as  
312 regards the snacks presented. In the other part, their visual attention towards each of the  
313 snacks presented was registered. The order in which the stimuli were presented was  
314 random in both phases, the experiment was carried out individually, and it lasted an  
315 average of 15 minutes.

316 When applying the eye tracking device, the participants were requested to sit comfortably  
317 in front of a monitor and to move as little as possible. The calibration of the eye tracking  
318 then began in order to ensure that the apparatus used correctly registered eye movement.  
319 This was done by asking each participant to look at a total of seven points until they  
320 disappeared, after which they were shown the stimuli in a random order (see Figure 2).

321 These stimuli filled the whole screen, and each one was shown for 5 seconds following  
322 the guidelines of previous studies (Reale and Flint, 2016; García-Madariaga *et al.*, 2019;  
323 García-Madariaga *et al.*, 2020). There was a gap of 0.5 seconds between each stimulus  
324 during which an image of a ‘fixation’ cross appeared on the screen. The presentation of  
325 the stimuli lasted for 1 minute and 10 seconds.

326 **Figure 2.** Example of procedure employed to register eye movement.

### 327 **3.7. Data analysis**

328 All analyses were carried out using the SPSS 25 statistical package, and a multistep  
329 procedure was followed. It was first necessary to verify that there were no statistically  
330 significant differences in the brand and content areas according to snack type, which was  
331 done using repeated measure analyses of variance (ANOVAs). Pearson's bivariate  
332 correlations were then used to calculate the correlations between the self-reported and  
333 attentional variables, after which five statistical tests were performed using repeated  
334 measure ANOVAs. This, therefore, allowed the verification of possible statistically  
335 significant differences among snack packaging according to self-reported (choice and  
336 purchase intention) and attentional measures as regards the ingredient area (TFF, TFD,  
337 FC). When the sphericity assumption was violated, Greenhouse-Geisser corrections were  
338 used to compensate for this. Bonferroni post-hoc tests were performed to identify any  
339 specific statistically significant effects.

340

## 341 **4. RESULTS**

### 342 **4.1. Manipulation check of attention paid to brand, ingredients and content areas**

343 The packaging of each of the snacks was composed of three areas: the brand, the  
344 ingredients, and the content. The brand and the content areas were the same on all three  
345 types of packaging, and the only aspect that was different was the ingredients. In order to  
346 verify whether there were any statistically significant differences among the various  
347 snacks according to the area of interest (brand and content), repeated measure ANOVAs  
348 were calculated, using the type of ingredient as a within-subject factor.

349 There were no statistically significant differences as regards the brand area according to  
350 the type of snack or as regards the TFF ( $F(2,30) = 2.86, p = .073, \eta^2 = .160$ ) or the TFD  
351 ( $F(2,88) = .19, p = .831, \eta^2 = .004$ ). In the case of the FC, however, there were statistically  
352 significant differences ( $F(1.73, 77.92) = 4.84, p = .014, \eta^2 = .097$ ) between the seaweed

353 (M = 1.74, SD = .33) and the quinoa (M = .88, SD = .18) in favour of the seaweed  
354 [*Bonferroni* = .86,  $p = .028$ ].

355 With regard to the content, it was not possible to calculate a statistical test with which to  
356 observe possible differences. Only three people fixed on the content area of the seaweed  
357 snack, while there were two for the chocolate snack and one for the quinoa snack.

358 In addition to these tests, it was noted that the participants' attention was focused on the  
359 ingredient area. This was done using heat maps, as shown in Figure 3. These maps  
360 indicate both where the majority of fixations are focused (shown in red), and where the  
361 more sporadic fixations are focused (shown in blue). The decision was, therefore, made  
362 to carry out an in-depth analysis of only the ingredient area.

363 **Figure 3.** Heat maps of the three snacks analysed (A: Seaweed; B: Chocolate; C: Quinoa).

#### 364 **4.2. Correlation among attention, choice and intention to purchase the snacks**

365 Pearson's bivariate correlations were then employed in order to discover whether there  
366 was any type of relationship between the dependent variables measured, i.e. between the  
367 attentional measures and the self-reported measures (see Table I). With regard to the  
368 attentional measures, there was a statistically significant and negative correlation only  
369 between TFF and FC ( $r = -.41$ ,  $p = 0,006$ ). In the case of the two stated measures, there  
370 was a positive relationship between the snack choice and the snack preference ( $r = .59$ ,  $p$   
371  $< 0,001$ ). Finally, with regard to the difference between the attentional measures and the  
372 stated measures, there was a positive relationship only between TFD and snack choice ( $r$   
373  $= .35$ ,  $p = .023$ ).

374 **Table I.** Descriptive statistics and correlations among dependent variables

375

#### 376 **4.3. Attentional measures**

377 Descriptive data for all dependent variables are presented in Table II. As can be seen in  
378 Table III, repeated measures ANOVAs for the three attentional variables yield significant  
379 interactions only in time to first fixation on the snack. In addition, possible differences  
380 were statistically tested for each condition and are shown in Figure 4.

381 It can be stated that those measures (Time to first fixation, Total fixation duration,  
382 Fixation count, Snack choice and Snack preference) of the snack were analysed by  
383 carrying out a repeated measure ANOVA, using the habit of consuming healthy snacks

384 as a between-subject factor and the type of packaging as a within-subject factor. Statistical  
385 data and effects can be found in Tables II and III.

386

#### 387 **4.3.1. Time to first fixation**

388 The TFF according to the snack had a significant effect ( $F(1,55, 35,74) = 3.55, p = .050,$   
389  $\eta^2 = .134$ ). There were specifically significant differences between seaweed and quinoa  
390 in favour of quinoa [*Bonferroni* = .607.66,  $p = .023$ ]. However, the interaction of the TFF  
391 with healthy eating habits was not significant ( $F(1,55, 35,74) = 1.23, p = .295, \eta^2 = .051$ ),  
392 and this was also the case of the between-subject factor of healthy eating habits ( $F(1,23)$   
393  $= .21, p = .648, \eta^2 = .009$ ).

394

#### 395 **4.3.2. Total fixation duration**

396 The TFD had no significant effect according to the snack ( $F(2,46) = .19, p = .825, \eta^2 =$   
397  $.008$ ), and this was also the case of the interaction between the TFD and the healthy eating  
398 habits ( $F_{2,46} = .82, p = .447, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .034$ ) and of the healthy eating habits ( $F(1,23) = .66,$   
399  $p = .426, \eta^2 = .028$ ).

400

#### 401 **4.3.3. Fixation count**

402 The FC according to the type of snack had no significant effect ( $F(2,46) = 1.95, p = .155,$   
403  $\eta^2 = .078$ ), and this was also the case of the interaction between the FC and the healthy  
404 eating habits ( $F(2,46) = 1.27, p = .292, \eta^2 = .052$ ) and the habit of consuming healthy  
405 snacks ( $F(1,23) = .02, p = .878, \eta^2 = .001$ ).

406

#### 407 **4.4. Snack choice**

408 The snack choice had a significant effect ( $F(2,90) = 5.30, p = .007, \eta^2 = .105$ ). When  
409 asked to choose between seaweed and quinoa, the participants specifically chose quinoa  
410 [*Bonferroni* = .65,  $p = .008$ ]. However, the interaction between snack choice and healthy  
411 eating habits was not significant ( $F(2,90) = .94, p = .394, \eta^2 = .020$ ), and this was also the  
412 case of healthy eating habits ( $F(1,45) = .10, p = .750, \eta^2 = .002$ ).

413

#### 414 **4.5. Snack preference**

415 The preference according to the type of snack had a significant effect ( $F(2,90) = 7.81, p$   
416  $= .001, \eta^2 = .148$ ). When asked to choose between seaweed and chocolate, the  
417 participants specifically chose chocolate [*Bonferroni* = .88,  $p = .006$ ], while when asked

418 to choose between seaweed and quinoa, they chose quinoa [*Bonferroni* = .74,  $p = .002$ ].  
419 However, there were no statistically significant differences as regards the interaction  
420 between snack choice and healthy eating habits ( $F(2,90) = 2.63$ ,  $p = .078$ ,  $\eta^2 = .078$ ) or  
421 as regards healthy eating habits ( $F(1,45) = .43$ ,  $p = .514$ ,  $\eta^2_{\text{partial}} = .010$ ).

422

423 **Table II.** Descriptive statistics for the attentional and stated measures regarding the  
424 snacks

425 **Table III.** Summary of the statistics obtained with the repeated measure ANOVAs for  
426 the five dependent variables

427 **Figure 4.** Attentional differences according to the type of ingredients (Seaweed,  
428 Chocolate and Quinoa) of the healthy snacks

429

430

431

## 432 **5. DISCUSSION**

433 One of the greatest potential benefits of experimental psychology and cognitive  
434 neuroscience, at least in their application to the field of packaging design, is that they  
435 provide more objective measures (Piqueras-Fiszman *et al.*, 2013). These behavioural and  
436 psychophysical measures (Stoll *et al.*, 2008) highlight which sensory attribute(s) of  
437 packaging are enhancing consumer response to a particular product (Ares *et al.*, 2013;  
438 Vidal *et al.*, 2013; Reale and Flint, 2016). Hence, it is important to consider this link  
439 between the field of sensory analysis and neuroscience, with eye tracking being the  
440 methodology that can currently bring them together.

441 Therefore, the importance of the application of neuroscientific tools to the field of  
442 marketing research lies in the fact that their use makes it possible to discover how the  
443 consumer reacts to the stimuli presented (i.e., the healthy snack packaging researched in  
444 this study) and to obtain objective data on these reactions. Eye tracking is, therefore, an  
445 ideal resource with which to analyse consumer behaviour (Hübner *et al.*, 2010; Meißner  
446 and Oll, 2019; Casado-Aranda *et al.*, 2020; Motoki *et al.*, 2021) and consequently design  
447 a correct and appropriate package that will attract the consumer's attention, thus  
448 increasing the probability of purchase and, therefore, future sales of the product.

449 With regard to the design of the three types of packaging used in this study, what most  
450 attracted the attention of all the participants was the central area of the packaging, i.e.,  
451 that corresponding to the ingredients. This area provided a graphic representation of the

452 ingredients of the snacks together with a short text concerning those ingredients, while  
453 the brand and the contents were the same on the three snacks presented. Analysing how  
454 the different ingredients may affect both attentional aspects and future intention to  
455 purchase the snacks is, then, the principal contribution of this study. In the study  
456 conducted by Ares *et al.* (2013), ingredients were as relevant as nutritional information  
457 for estimating the healthiness and willingness to buy of the products evaluated.  
458 Consequently, consumers require better information about certain ingredients (e.g.,  
459 seaweed) or new products on the packaging in order to overcome unfamiliarity that could  
460 lead to consumer distrust about the taste of a healthy product (Tuorila and Cardello,  
461 2002).

#### 462 **Relationship between attention and the self-report**

463 With regard to the eye tracking data obtained, it is possible to conclude that the more time  
464 that passes before the first fixation, the fewer the number of fixations on the packaging  
465 there will be. This result is coherent, since the longer it took to look at a snack, the less  
466 time there was to study it in detail, given the limited amount of time during which each  
467 stimulus was shown.

468 Furthermore, it was discovered that those consumers who showed a greater interest in  
469 choosing a particular snack showed on the study had a greater intention to purchase it.  
470 This finding is also logical, since there is a tendency to purchase those products for which  
471 a certain preference already exists. Previous studies concur with this conclusion by  
472 highlighting the importance of the visual design of a package as a way to alter consumers'  
473 perceptions (Ballco *et al.*, 2020, Creusen and Schoormans, 2005; Chandon, 2013).

474 When relating the stated and attentional variables, it was discovered that the more time  
475 that attention was paid to the snack, the more it was chosen, but that this did not lead to  
476 the confirmation of a future acquisition. This is perhaps owing to the fact that being shown  
477 the snack packaging only once is not sufficient as regards influencing future intention to  
478 purchase or even the fact that a large proportion of the sample were not in the habit of  
479 consuming healthy snacks. This result is consistent with the research of Ares *et al.* (2013)  
480 who argue that when consumers look at an unfamiliar food label, they scan it for basic  
481 information: brand name, image, nutritional information and ingredients. And they also  
482 state that the graphic design of the label can influence the prominence of this and other

483 information, affecting its ability to capture the consumer's attention; but the areas of labels  
484 that consumers primarily look at do not seem to change.

#### 485 **Differences among snacks according to attention, choice and purchase intention**

486 This study found no effect as regards healthy eating habits or of the influence of these  
487 habits on the variables measured. This may indicate that consuming healthy snacks was  
488 similar among all the participants.

489 There was, however, a significant effect as regards the TFF according to the snack,  
490 between seaweed and quinoa in favour of quinoa. One possible explanation for this may  
491 be that the packaging of the quinoa snack was the least striking of the three. A significant  
492 effect of the choice of snack when having to choose between seaweed and quinoa was  
493 also detected, as quinoa was chosen more frequently. As indicated in previous literature,  
494 the attractiveness of the ingredients on the packaging is fundamental, such that those  
495 ingredients that are less desirable are chosen less, as occurred with the snack that  
496 contained seaweed (Ballco *et al.*, 2020; Tuorila and Cardello, 2002).

497 Finally, with regard to the purchase intention according to the type of snack when  
498 confronted with the choice of seaweed and chocolate, the participants preferred chocolate,  
499 and when confronted with that of seaweed and quinoa, they preferred quinoa. To continue  
500 with the line of argument shown above, chocolate would appear to be the most desirable  
501 of the three ingredients presented and, therefore, the preferred option for future  
502 consumption. These results are consistent with previous studies like these of Motoki *et*  
503 *al.* (2018), or Spielvogel *et al.* (2018), which states that foods with more hedonic  
504 components (flavour, e.g., chocolate) are much more visually attractive in the long run.

505 Taken together, these results provide interesting insights into how consumers process and  
506 interpret the images on packaging, and how this could affect their intention to buy a  
507 healthy snack (Küster-Boluda and Vila, 2020).

#### 508 **5.1. Managerial implications**

509 This research highlights the use of eye tracking by companies or brands in order to  
510 achieve greater effectiveness as regards the design of their product's packaging, in this  
511 case, a healthy snack. This tool helps brands to make decisions about packaging design  
512 by allowing the identification of the visual and aesthetic elements that best match the  
513 company's idea of how to communicate the advantages of its product. An analysis of the

514 data obtained from the eye tracking allows the design to be improved and more positive  
515 results to be achieved by influencing purchasing decisions.

516 The outcomes of this research confirm that, when designing the packaging of healthy  
517 snacks, it is necessary to focus more on the central part of the packaging, which should  
518 show the composition of the food and its appearance with a real image of it. This will  
519 allow the consumer to see the ingredients of the food clearly and be able to decide more  
520 easily (Vidal *et al.*, 2013; Küster-Boluda and Vila, 2020). When nutritional information  
521 is shown in the form of health logos or according to the traffic light system, it appears to  
522 capture visual attention and encourages consumers to spend more time processing  
523 nutritional information (Reale and Flint, 2016).

524 According to Ares *et al.* (2013), not much information is available on whether consumers'  
525 attention to food label information is primarily determined by the package and label  
526 design (bottom-up factors) or by their search for specific information (top-down factors).  
527 These authors also state in their research that consumer attention to food label information  
528 in deciding their purchase intent may have been determined primarily by top-down  
529 factors.

530 Rebollar *et al.* (2015) state that there are certain packaging positions that go more  
531 unnoticed, such as the lower zone, and others, such as the upper part (especially the upper  
532 left), where the subject's attention is unconscious and automatic. They also argue that  
533 intuitive reactions can be modified by adding design elements that stand out from the rest,  
534 taking care of the position so as not to lose communicative effectiveness.

## 535 **5.2. Limitations and future research**

536 One of the limitations found, which occurs with the majority of experiments of this nature,  
537 is the attainment of data in an artificial environment. The ideal situation would have been  
538 that of attaining the information in a real purchasing environment, and the main reason  
539 for not doing so was employing a non-wireless device. In future studies, we shall  
540 additionally increase the size of the sample, which would be appropriate as regards being  
541 able to generalise the results to the population as a whole.

542 As a future line of research, we propose to carry out a comparative analysis of other  
543 similar products from the range analysed herein, such as other varieties or other  
544 commercial formats. Another future line of research might be to carry out an experiment  
545 in which certain graphic elements of the packaging are modified, as would be the case of

546 measuring the attention paid by each individual participant to healthy products contained  
547 in transparent packaging that would allow them to see the product before purchasing it.  
548 Adding transparent elements to the packaging might, therefore, influence the decision to  
549 purchase and influence the consumer's perception in a more reliable manner (Billeter *et*  
550 *al.*, 2012; Deng and Srinivasan, 2013; Simmonds and Spence, 2017) when the product is  
551 visually attractive. It might even be possible to modify elements such as the external  
552 colour of the packaging. Authors such as Huang and Lu (2016) analysed the effect of the  
553 colour of packaging and demonstrated that consumers perceive products in blue  
554 packaging to be healthier than those in red packaging. Future research could analyse the  
555 influence of nutrition warnings and verbal and nonverbal cues on the perception of  
556 different consumer segments. In addition, other possible visual prominence factors such  
557 as brightness and colour could have been analysed (Rebollar *et al.*, 2015).

## 558 **Conflicts of Interest**

559 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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562

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797

798 **Table I.** Descriptive statistics and correlations among dependent variables

Variables	M	SD	N	1	2	3	4	5
1. Time to first fixation (TFF)	1232.81	1043.84	43	—				
2. Total fixation duration (TFD)	325.17	133.87	43	-.02	—			
3. Fixation count (FC)	3.38	2.29	43	-.41**	.04	—		
4. Choice	2.96	.82	47	.10	.35*	-.01	—	
5. Preference	3.09	.71	47	-.07	-.03	.25	.59**	—

799 \*  $p \leq .050$ ; \*\*  $p \leq .010$ .

800

801

802 **Table II.** Descriptive statistics for the attentional and stated measures regarding the  
803 snacks

Variables	Seaweed		Chocolate		Quinoa	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
TFF	1317.06 <sup>a</sup>	256.84	1130.02 <sup>a,b</sup>	254.24	709.39 <sup>b</sup>	119.21
TFD	323.49	51.28	333.29	33.61	360.59	43.76
FC	4.21	.55	4.41	.55	5.04	.54
Choice	2.63 <sup>b</sup>	.18	3.04 <sup>a,b</sup>	.18	3.28 <sup>a</sup>	.17
Preference	2.58 <sup>b</sup>	.19	3.46 <sup>a</sup>	.19	3.32 <sup>a</sup>	.16

804 Note: mean values on the same line that do not have the same superscript are significantly different from  
805 one another ( $p < .05$ ) according to pairwise comparison with the Bonferroni test.

806

807

808 **Table III.** Summary of the statistics obtained with the repeated measure ANOVAs for  
 809 the five dependent variables

Variables	df (df Error)	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	$\eta^2$
<i>Time to first fixation</i>				
Main effect condition	1.55 (35.74)	3.55	.050*	.134
Main effect item	1 (23)	.21	.648	.009
Interaction	1.55 (35.74)	1.23	.295	.051
<i>Total fixation duration</i>				
Main effect condition	2 (46)	.19	.825	.008
Main effect item	1 (23)	.66	.426	.028
Interaction	2 (46)	.82	.447	.034
<i>Fixation count</i>				
Main effect condition	2 (46)	1.95	.155	.078
Main effect item	1 (23)	.02	.878	.001
Interaction	2 (46)	1.27	.292	.052
<i>Choice</i>				
Main effect condition	2 (90)	5.30	.007**	.105
Main effect item	1 (45)	.10	.750	.002
Interaction	2 (90)	.94	.394	.020
<i>Preference</i>				
Main effect condition	2 (90)	7.81	.001***	.148
Main effect item	1 (45)	.43	.514	.010
Interaction	2 (90)	2.63	.078	.078

810 \* $p \leq .050$ ; \*\*  $p \leq .010$ ; \*\*\*  $p \leq .001$ . *Note.* Main effect condition refers to ingredient type; main effect item  
 811 refers to healthy consumption habits; interaction is between ingredient type and healthy consumption habits.

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817 **Figure 1.** Stimuli provided: A) seaweed, B) chocolate, C) quinoa. Delimited areas of  
818 interest (brand, ingredients and content).



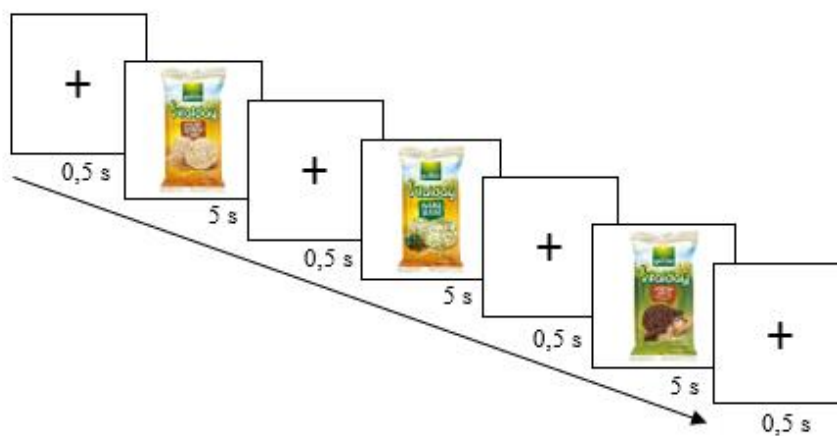
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823 **Figure 2.** Example of procedure employed to register eye movement.



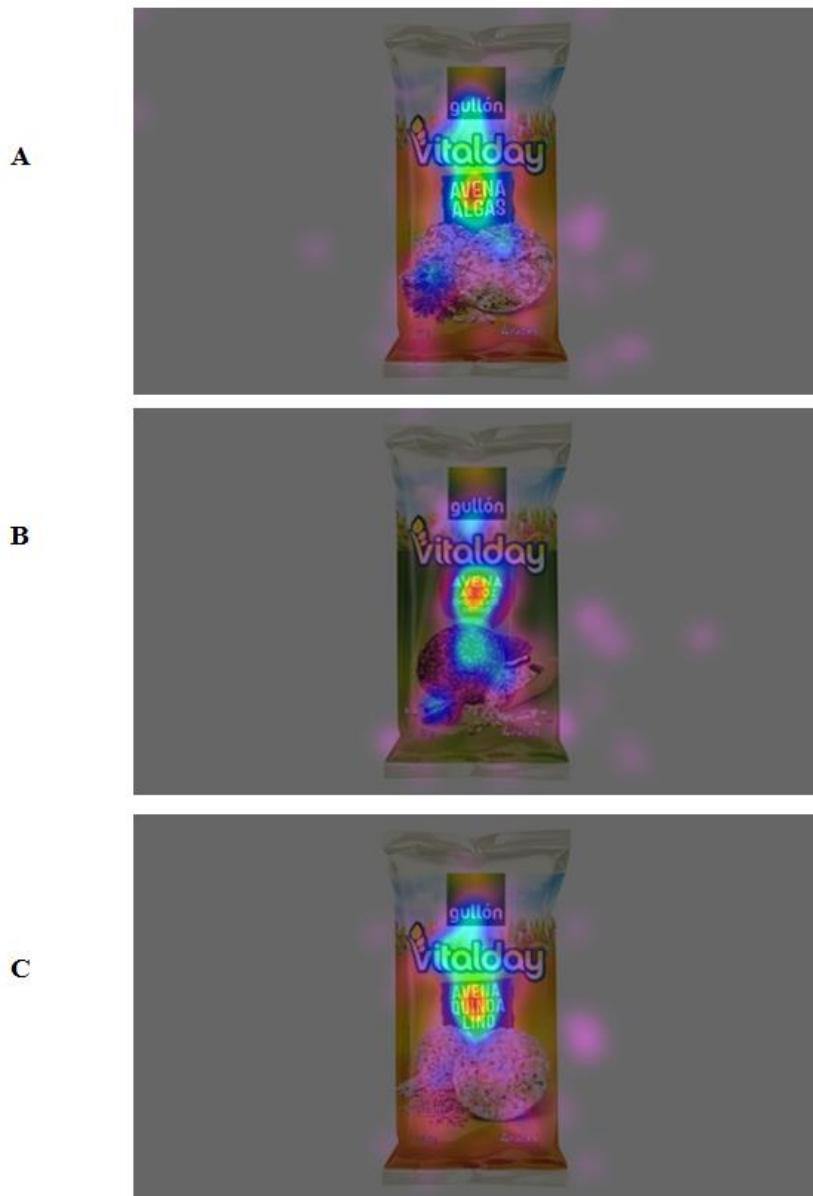
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828 **Figure 3.** Heat maps of the three snacks analysed.



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837 **Figure 4.** Attentional differences according to the type of ingredients of the healthy  
 838 snacks

