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### **Social media and food consumer behavior: A systematic review**

1 Listia Rini<sup>1</sup>, Joachim J. Schouteten<sup>1</sup>, Ilona Faber<sup>2</sup>, Michael Bom Frøst<sup>2</sup>, Federico J. A. Perez-Cueto<sup>2,3</sup>,  
2 Hans De Steur<sup>1</sup>

3 1 Division Agri-Food Marketing and Chain Management, Department of Agricultural Economics, Faculty  
4 of Bioscience Engineering, Ghent University, Ghent, Belgium

5 2 Department of Food Science, Faculty of Science, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, Denmark

6 3 Department of Food Nutrition and Culinary Science, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden

7 *Corresponding author: Listia Rini (Listia.rini@ugent.be)*

8

9 **Abstract**

10 *Background:*

11 Social media (SM) have become an integral part of consumers' daily life, prompting multidisciplinary  
12 research on its link with human behaviors, including food attitude and consumption. However, the precise  
13 role of SM in shaping food consumer behavior remains partially explored.

14 *Scope and Approach:*

15 This review adopts a systematic literature approach, focusing on the methodological and outcome  
16 characteristics. Applying PRISMA guidelines, 377 studies were identified and categorized into three SM  
17 functions: Tool, Determinant, and Source. Tool studies involved active SM use for research, while  
18 Determinant studies measured SM-related variables' impact on outcomes, and Source studies involved data  
19 extraction and analysis from SM. This review traces the growth of studies over time, highlighting the study  
20 characteristics focusing on the methodology, and the scope of the findings per function.

21 *Key Findings and Conclusion:*

22 Data collection methods differed across functions: Source studies relying on user-generated content (UGC)  
23 via data mining, other functions mostly employed surveys targeted to participants. Notable platforms  
24 include Facebook (Tool) and Twitter (Source), with cross-sectional designs being prevalent. Tool and  
25 Determinant studies linked SM with food intention and behavior, Source studies delved into categorization  
26 and exploration of UGC and consumers' sentiments related to food. In both the Tool and Determinant  
27 functions, most studies demonstrated the influence of SM on outcome measures. As each function has its  
28 own distinct characteristics, knowledge from all functions should be considered to gain comprehensive  
29 perspective regarding the relationship between SM and food consumer behavior.

30 **Keywords:** social media, consumer behavior, food behavior, food attitude, systematic review.

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33           **1. Introduction**

34    Nowadays, social media (SM) empower consumer voice by facilitating low-cost communication and  
35    enabling consumers to express their opinions and share their experiences with millions of people (Olsen &  
36    Christensen, 2015). SM have become an essential part of daily life, where consumers integrate and rely on  
37    it for many activities, such as obtaining information, communicating, entertainment, and more (Kapoor et  
38    al., 2017). Conceptually, SM are defined as applications and websites that provide users with a digital  
39    environment in which they can interact with each other by sending or receiving digital content (Appel et  
40    al., 2020). Currently, there are a variety of SM platforms, including social networks/SNSs (e.g., Facebook,  
41    Instagram, TikTok), blogs, microblogs (e.g., Twitter), and forums. Globally, the number of users of SM will  
42    exceed 4.5 billion in 2022, accounting for over 55% of the total population of 7.91 billion people (Kemp,  
43    2022). In addition, the daily time spent using SM is also increasing over the years, from an average of 97  
44    minutes in 2013 to 147 minutes in 2021 (Kemp, 2022).

45    SM play a role in the rapid dissemination of information and trends, such as the well-known 'viral'  
46    phenomenon, which indicates that the content of SM reaches a large audience, supported by the sharing of  
47    content by users of SM (Han et al., 2020). Accordingly, SM are the way for brand marketing via influencers.  
48    Using celebrities as influencers is costly, hence the emergence of the phenomenon of "micro-influencers".  
49    This type of influencer is less well-known to the public but can convey warmer and more relatable messages  
50    to their followers, which are often more targeted and reach a significant number of followers (Chang et al.,  
51    2019). Therefore, the potential of SM in marketing has prompted companies to integrate it into their  
52    strategies (Appel et al., 2020; Saxena & Khanna, 2013).

53    Meanwhile, food consumer behavior is a captivating topic because it revolves around food, which is a  
54    fundamental part of human life. Food not only helps to satisfy hunger, but also influences health and well-  
55    being (Nordstrom et al., 2013), as well as the sacred, moral, social, and esthetic aspects of life (Arbit et al.,  
56    2017). With the advance of technologies from SM, consumers have gained more information for food-  
57    related purposes, such as searching for instructions or recipes for cooking, comparing food products, or

58 evaluating a restaurant, which ultimately leads to decision making, such as selecting, purchasing, and/or  
59 eating certain foods or dishes. The marketing potential of SM is also being exploited in the food sector.  
60 Some examples include viral food content after celebrity internet chefs post food content to their followers  
61 on their platform SM, such as food tips or food or restaurant reviews, or food and beverage promotion by  
62 influencers on SM (Coates et al., 2019a; Folkvord & de Bruijne, 2020).

63 Information disseminated through the many platforms of SM can greatly influence consumer behavior. SM  
64 not only disseminate positive information, but also have the potential to spread messages or rumors that  
65 may be confusing, untrue, or even harmful to consumers, including in the area of food. Some studies  
66 examined the issue of rumors, for example, in the context of GMOs (Wang & Song, 2020) or food safety  
67 information (Seah & Weimann, 2020) or even in the crisis period of COVID-19 (Cato et al., 2021). Due to  
68 the immense increase in consumer use of SM, researchers from various disciplines are being attracted to  
69 study behavioral issues (Spiro, 2016), with no exception for food behavior studies (Aleixo et al., 2020; Fat  
70 et al., 2021; Hawkins et al., 2021; Kley et al., 2022; Pollack et al., 2022; Sass et al., 2020; Vidal et al.,  
71 2015). The number of studies addressing the use of SM in the context of food is increasing, but a complete  
72 understanding of the role or influence of SM on food consumer behavior is still insufficient. Many previous  
73 reviews have discussed the link between SM and the food sector, focusing primarily on nutrition and health  
74 topics. Reviews focused on the role of SM in relation to specific topics such as dieting and weight loss  
75 (Hawks et al., 2020), body image and food choices (Rounsefell et al., 2020), nutrition (Chau et al., 2018;  
76 Klassen et al., 2018), diet and physical activity behaviors (Williams et al., 2014), eating behaviors (Chung  
77 et al., 2021), adolescent food choices (Kucharczuk et al., 2022), food communication (Ventura et al., 2021),  
78 sustainable consumption (Bryła et al., 2022), and sensory-consumer science (Hutchings et al., 2023).

79 Therefore, this review focuses on summarizing studies that provide a broader link between SM and food  
80 consumer behaviors. Insights are provided on how SM are used in relevant studies to further elucidate the  
81 role of SM on consumer behavior. In this context, the main objective of this review was to identify and  
82 unfold the elements of food consumer behavior studies based on SM and to describe the methodological

83 and outcome characteristics. Three research questions were posed: (1) What are the general characteristics  
84 of SM -based food consumer behavior studies? (2) What are the methodological characteristics of SM -  
85 based food consumer behavior studies? (3) What are the results of SM -based food consumer behavior  
86 studies? This paper first describes the methodology used to systematically conduct the study, then presents  
87 and discusses the results. Finally, the last section describes conclusions and directions for future areas of  
88 research.

## 89 **2. Materials and methods**

### 90 ***2.1. Study eligibility***

91 This study followed the PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses)  
92 guidelines to conduct the systematic review study (Moher et al., 2009). Before searching and screening the  
93 articles related to the topic, a research protocol was established and agreed upon by the researchers. To  
94 establish the eligibility criteria, the objective and research questions of the study served as the main starting  
95 point and were supported by the PICO (Population, Intervention, Comparison, Outcome) framework. To be  
96 included in this review, studies should focus on the general human population (P), use social media (I), no  
97 specific comparison/consider all studies (C), and examine food consumer behavior or behavioral indicators  
98 (O). This review did not limit studies based on study design and included only studies published up until  
99 year 2022 and written in English. Exclusion criteria were also established, as follows: (1) if the SM were  
100 used only to recruit study participants; and (2) if the outcome measure was related only to health/clinical  
101 status.

### 102 ***2.2. Study screening/search process***

103 Two electronic scientific databases, ISI Web of Knowledge and Scopus, were utilized to search for the  
104 relevant articles. The search began by using the developed syntax with key terms related to the following  
105 topics: 1) social media (e.g., 'Facebook', 'social media', 'social network', etc.); AND 2) food (e.g., 'food',  
106 'diet', 'snack', etc.); AND 3) behavior or behavioral indicators (e.g., 'preference', 'attitude', 'hedonic', 'liking',

107 etc.). The syntax was applied to search the terms contained in the title, abstract, and keywords. The full  
108 syntax applied to both databases is in the supplementary material.

109 All retrieved articles from both databases were exported and merged using EndNote (X9, 2019) reference  
110 management software. Three authors screened and reviewed the articles for inclusion separately. Any  
111 emerged discrepancy was resolved through discussion and consensus. The screening process began with  
112 the removal of duplicates. Then, the remaining articles were screened based on the title and continued with  
113 abstract screening. Articles with irrelevant titles or abstracts were removed, and the remaining articles were  
114 subjected to in-depth full-text screening. The flow of the search strategy for the present review is shown in  
115 Figure 1.

116 **[INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE]**

### 117 *2.3. Data extraction and analysis*

118 Following screening, an extraction sheet was developed to facilitate data collection and extraction. The  
119 general information of the articles was extracted, such as the author, the year of publication, the general  
120 research topic, and the objectives of the studies. In addition, the main relevant information to be extracted  
121 was classified into four groups of characteristics related to SM (platform, social media intervention  
122 measures along with measurement method), sample (target population and sample size), methodology  
123 (research method, study design, data collection method), and outcome measures. The extracted data were  
124 coded numerically or textually to facilitate the analysis of the results. Because the design, variables, and  
125 outcome measures were not uniform across studies, no meta-analysis was performed in this review.

126 Because of the different characteristics of the included studies, further classification was performed to  
127 improve the understanding of the results presented in this review. The studies were classified according to  
128 how SM were used in the research. Three groups of SM features were identified: 1) Tool, where SM were  
129 actively used by either the researcher or participants for study purposes. For example, when researchers  
130 used a private group of a particular SM platform to deliver information to participants and later measured

131 the effect of the intervention on specific outcome variables; 2) Determinant, when studies measured SM -  
132 related variables and assessed the relationship between these variables and specific outcome variables. For  
133 example, in a study in which participants were required to answer questions about SM behavior and food  
134 consumption in a survey format, thus neither the researcher nor participants actively used SM; and 3)  
135 Source, when researchers extracted and analyzed data from SM (e.g., tweets or posts from a specific SM  
136 platform), thus no participants were recruited. Afterwards, the findings related to general, methodological  
137 and empirical characteristics were analyzed, summarized and presented based on the classifications per SM  
138 function.

### 139 **3. Result**

#### 140 ***3.1. Study characteristics***

141 A total of 367 papers were deemed relevant to the review, of which 84 papers were assigned to the Tool  
142 function, 154 papers to the Determinant function, and 129 to the Source function (Figure 1, list of studies  
143 in Supplementary material 1). Specifically in the Tool function, some papers presented multiple studies  
144 (e.g., two studies in Sharps et al. (2019) and three studies in Zhu et al. (2019)), resulting in a total of 94  
145 studies included in this function. Figure 2 shows the distribution and increasing number of studies over the  
146 year. The same pattern was seen in the trend of the number of studies for all functions. Taken together, the  
147 number of studies peaked in 2020 with a total of 79 studies.

148 **[INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE]**

149

150 Countries in three continental regions, namely Asia (e.g., China, Indonesia, and Malaysia), Europe (e.g.,  
151 Belgium, Spain, United Kingdom), and North America (e.g., United States), dominated the geographic  
152 distribution of studies (Figure 3). Multiple regions were also observed, especially in studies under the  
153 Source function. For example, study of Meza and Park (2016) compared consumers' tweets about organic  
154 food in Korean and Mexican. Compared to the other functions, some studies under the Source function also  
155 examined SM data without specifying the region, such as the study by Saura et al. (2020). To a lesser extent,

156 other continental regions were also observed, namely in Oceania (e.g., Australia), South America (e.g.,  
157 Brazil), and Africa (e.g., South Africa).

158 **[INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE]**  
159

### 160 *3.1.1. Social media (SM) platform*

161 Various SM platforms were used in the studies (Figure 4). Facebook was the most used platform for studies  
162 that used SM as Tool (36 studies), followed by Instagram (25 studies). Specifically for the Determinant  
163 function, most studies (116 studies) evaluated SM in general, making the platform 'Unspecified', such as  
164 the study by Alhabash et al. (2020), which examined a relationship between general SM use and food  
165 preference and consumption. Among the studies under the Source function, Twitter was the most prominent  
166 platform (50 studies), followed by Instagram (20 studies) and Facebook (19 studies).

167 **[INSERT FIGURE 4 HERE]**  
168

### 169 *3.1.2. Sample types*

170 Adult participants were the most frequently observed sample type in the Tool (64%) and Determinant (58%)  
171 functions. In the Source function, most samples were consumer-generated content from SM, such as tweets  
172 (31%), posts (18%), and reviews (18%) from SM. Sample sizes varied across studies, from 10 to 66,556  
173 participants, while the size of sources varied from 3 pages to millions of tweets with specific content from  
174 SM. The sample types in the studies for the different functions are shown in Supplementary material 2.

### 175 *3.1.3. Research topic / food product type*

176 Due to the heterogeneity of product types in the different studies, similar or closely related product types  
177 were grouped into four food groups: 'Unspecified product type' (food in general), 'Specified product type'  
178 (e.g., ramen, rum, cake), 'Specified as a healthy food' (e.g., fruits and vegetables), and 'Specified as an  
179 unhealthy food' (e.g., sugar-sweetened beverages/SSB, alcohol associated with unhealthy beverages)  
180 (Supplementary material 3).



181 Most studies in the Source (44%, 57 of 129 studies) and Determinant functions (34%, 53 of 154 studies)  
182 areas examined nonspecific product types as the subject of research. For example, Kim et al. (2022)  
183 examined the impact and relationship between viewing food-related content on any platform SM and eating  
184 habits (Determinant function). Karami et al. (2021) used Twitter to examine the differences between food-  
185 related discussions in Democratic, Republican, and swing states in the United States (Source function).  
186 Some studies under the Source function also examined a specific product type, such as Samoggia et al.  
187 (2020) on coffee. Fifty-two studies under the Determinant function also examined the topic of unhealthy  
188 foods, mostly related to alcohol (41 studies). One example is the study by Geber et al. (2021), which  
189 examined the role of alcohol content engagement (e.g., exposure and sharing) on Instagram and Snapchat  
190 on drinking behavior. On the other hand, most studies in the Tool function examined topics related to healthy  
191 eating/food, such as the study of Chung et al. (2017) on fruits and vegetables.

## 192 ***3.2. Methodological characteristics***

### 193 *3.2.1. General methodological characteristics*

194 In general, quantitative research methods were used in most studies, especially in the Tool (86%, 81 of 94  
195 studies) and Determinant (83%, 128 of 154 studies) functions. In contrast, in the Source function, most  
196 studies used mixed methods (35%, 45 of 129 studies). Most studies on the Determinant function (87%)  
197 used a cross-sectional design. For the Source function, studies used both cross-sectional designs (67%) and  
198 longitudinal designs (32%). For the Tool function, several studies used a cross-sectional design (49%), and  
199 other designs (23%) included randomized controlled trial (RCT) and mixed designs. Regarding the method  
200 of data collection, survey-based studies dominated for the Tool (89%) and Determinant (86%) functions,  
201 while for the Source function, most studies used data mining (86%) as the primary method of data  
202 collection. The summary of the general methodological characteristics can be seen in Figure 5.

203 **[INSERT FIGURE 5 HERE]**

204

### 205 *3.2.2. Social media stimuli (Tool function)*

206 Studies in this function generally examined the effect of SM -related stimuli on participants. Stimuli were  
207 operationalized primarily as SM content provided by researchers as part of the experiment. Two types of  
208 stimuli were observed: the real content and the manipulated content. In a small number of studies, SM were  
209 not used to provide content as stimuli. For example, using SM, to collect and examine content provided by  
210 participants (7 studies, e.g., Zhu et al. (2019), Study 1), and to observe real-time interaction related to food  
211 content (1 study, Zhu et al. (2019), Study 3).

212 Stimuli in the form of real content were examined in 39 studies, most of which revolved around the topic  
213 of improving eating behavior. Most of the real content provided to participants via SM aimed to assess  
214 whether providing knowledge, such as nutrition information, could have an impact on eating attitudes or  
215 behaviors. Some researchers used a private group feature on the platform SM to deliver the intervention,  
216 such as sharing healthy food or nutrition content with participants. For example, in the study by Vander  
217 WYST et al. (2019), they examined the effect of SM -based nutrition education on the diet quality and  
218 knowledge of pregnant adolescents. Apart from a private group, nutrition content was also provided in the  
219 form of blogposts (e.g., Caplette et al. (2017) and Dumas et al. (2020)). Facebook was the most commonly  
220 used platform for this type of content (17 studies), with 14 studies using Facebook as the sole platform (e.g.,  
221 Bakirci-Taylor et al. (2019) and Vander WYST et al. (2019)), while 3 studies used Facebook together with  
222 another platform, e.g., Instagram (Trude et al., 2019) or YouTube and Twitter (James et al., 2013) or a  
223 combination with Instagram, YouTube, Twitter, and Pinterest (Adiba et al., 2020). The use of Twitter  
224 (Chung et al., 2017; Coccia et al., 2020), WhatsApp (Kaur et al., 2020), and other SM platforms (e.g., online  
225 forum in Brennan et al. (2020) and WeChat in Wang et al. (2020)) have also been studied.

226 Manipulated or mocked content as stimuli provided by researchers was observed in 47 studies. Most of  
227 these studies relied on Instagram (19 studies) or Facebook (15 studies). These types of stimuli were used  
228 when researchers intentionally manipulated the content to be presented to participants. For example, in the  
229 study by Folkvord and de Bruijne (2020), a manipulated post was presented on Instagram that showed a  
230 picture of an influencer with food to investigate whether this increased actual vegetable consumption. Some

231 other types of platforms were also observed, such as Twitter (5 studies), online video sharing (e.g.,  
232 YouTube) in 4 studies, and others (3 studies). One example is Coates et al. (2019a), who investigated  
233 whether the manipulated YouTube videos that showed influencer marketing as SM stimuli for the children  
234 had any effect on food intake.

### 235 3.2.3. Characteristics of the variables by research design (Tool and Determinant functions)

236 3.2.3.1. *Quantitative studies.* Most quantitative studies in the Determinant function (54%, 84 of 154 studies)  
237 examined SM use-related **independent variables** such as general use, engagement/interaction, content  
238 creation/sharing/review, and situation during use (e.g., duration, frequency). For example, Chartier et al.  
239 (2021) examined the relationship between use of SM and alcohol consumption. Other types of independent  
240 variables were mostly related to attitude (21%, 33 of 154 studies, such as the study by Deng and Hu (2019))  
241 or exposure (21%, for example, the study by Geusens and Beullens (2019)).

242 Given their similarities, **outcome variables** were compared between quantitative studies in the Tool (n =  
243 81 studies) and the Determinant (n = 128 studies) functions (Figure 6A). Three types of measures were  
244 observed. Most studies for both functions measured a behavioral-related outcome (44% and 58% of studies  
245 for the Tool and Determinant functions, respectively). For example, in the Tool function, Dumas et al.  
246 (2020) examined changes in healthy eating behaviors and food intake among mothers and children after  
247 health information was provided in blog posts. In the Determinant function, Rahim et al. (2022) examined  
248 the effects of influencers from SM on halal food purchasing behavior among Millennial consumers. Some  
249 studies measured intention-related outcomes (35% and 20% of the total quantitative studies in the Tool and  
250 Determinant functions, respectively), such as the study by Wilson et al. (2019), which examined intention  
251 to eat (Tool function), or the study by Balakrishnan and Foroudi (2020), which examined intention to  
252 purchase an innovative food product (Determinant function). Finally, quantitative studies that measured  
253 attitude-related variables were also observed: about 25% for the Tool function (e.g., Brennan et al. (2020))  
254 and about 15% for the Determinant function (e.g., Deng and Hu (2019)). Other types of outcome variables  
255 were less frequently measured, e.g., knowledge, motivation, willingness, preference, and liking.

256 The **measurement** of variables in the quantitative studies can be compared between the independent and  
257 dependent variables within Determinant studies and the dependent variables between Determinant and Tool  
258 functions (Figure 6B). In all studies and functions, Likert scales were the most commonly used means of  
259 measuring the outcome variables, particularly the 5-point and 7-point scales. Other types were also noted,  
260 such as frequencies or counts, for example, in the Roberson et al. (2018) study, which measured the  
261 frequency of the number of days per week consumers spent at SM (independent variable) and the frequency  
262 of alcohol consumption (dependent variable) for the determinant function. Meanwhile, Trude et al. (2019)  
263 measured the number of self-reported fruit and vegetable servings (in cups) as the dependent variable,  
264 which is a tool function study. Time or duration was a particularly important aspect of the independent  
265 variables, such as in the study by Lwin et al. (2017), which measured the daily number of hours spent on  
266 SM to examine its influence on fast food consumption. In addition, dichotomous responses (e.g., CATA  
267 selection) and standardized questionnaires (e.g., Food Frequency Questionnaire (FFQ)) were also observed  
268 in several studies.

269 **[INSERT FIGURE 6 HERE]**  
270

271 *3.2.3.2. Qualitative studies* Twenty-two studies in the Determinant function had a qualitative research  
272 design. Several studies examined determinants related to certain food behavior or attitudinal topics, with  
273 SM among the factors identified, as in a study of attitudes toward food consumption (Gilmour et al., 2020)  
274 and healthy eating (Metz et al., 2019). Meanwhile, there were also studies that specifically examined the  
275 relationship between SM and a particular dietary behavior/attitude, such as alcohol consumption (Jones et  
276 al., 2017), motivations and barriers to reducing meat consumption (Kemper, 2020), or the influence of SM  
277 on food consumption (Atwal et al., 2019). Only five studies in the Tool function used a qualitative research  
278 method (e.g., Ares et al. (2021) and Brennan et al. (2020)) to gain a deeper understanding of participants'  
279 views on food-related issues. For example, in the study conducted by Brennan et al. (2020), SM components  
280 such as forums, conversations, and online surveys facilitated the research to gain insights from young adult  
281 participants about their attitudes and feelings about healthy eating.

282 3.2.3.3. *Mixed method studies* Only four studies in Determinant function used a mixed methods research  
283 design (e.g., Allen et al. (2018) and Popy and Bappy (2022)). For example, for quantitative means, Allen  
284 et al. (2018) measured the frequency of their SM usage as part of the independent variable and dietary  
285 restraint and food intake with a 5-point Likert scale and counting the number of servings per day,  
286 respectively, as dependent variables. They also examined participants' opinions about clean eating using  
287 qualitative means. For the Tool function, eight studies used mixed methods. For example, the study of Rouf  
288 and Allman-Farinelli (2018) used a quantitative method to compare the rating (from 1 to 5) of the Facebook  
289 post on breakfast, while the determinants of participants' intention to consume more calcium-rich foods  
290 were examined using qualitative means.

#### 291 3.2.4. *Characteristics of the outcome of interest in the Source function*

292 The aim of the Source function studies (129 studies) was mainly to explore consumers' or users' insights or  
293 perspectives on food-related issues. A wide variety of behavioral and attitudinal outcomes were measured,  
294 with several studies evaluating multiple outcomes. Most studies (51%, 67 studies) examined general  
295 exploration of user-generated content (UGC) related to food, such as comments, topics, discussions,  
296 opinions, conversations, descriptions, and expressions. Exemplary study include Laakso et al. (2022), who  
297 analyzed consumers' online discussion of vegan dietary habits. Examining the types of foods and/or  
298 beverages mentioned by consumers on SM was also observed in several studies (19%, 25 studies), such as  
299 Turner-McGrievy et al. (2020), who examined the relationship between foods mentioned during four  
300 hurricane disasters, and Ito et al. (2018), who examined the relationship between different weather contexts,  
301 topics, and foods posted on Twitter. A sizable portion of the studies in the Source function specifically  
302 examined consumers' sentiments about food products, restaurants, or brands (26%, 34 studies), such as the  
303 study of Samoggia et al. (2020). Other outcome measures included consumer attitudes or perceptions (13%,  
304 17 studies, e.g., Pilar et al. (2018) regarding organic food), emotions (9%, 12 studies, e.g., Song et al. (2020)  
305 regarding food safety), and experiences (8%, 10 studies, e.g., Brochado et al. (2019) regarding sensory  
306 experiences in wineries). In terms of measurement, there was no apparent difference between the outcome  
307 variables. Most of the data collected in the studies were in text form. Content analysis was used in most

308 studies as the first stage of interpreting the results before more advanced analysis was conducted. Sentiment  
309 analysis and topic modeling, among others, were mostly used to analyze the results.

### 310 *3.3. Scope of findings across social media (SM) functions*

311 Due to the heterogeneity of the study characteristics and the description of findings from the studies, the  
312 scope of findings was summarized based on the type of finding (Figure 7). As key findings in the studies in  
313 the Tool and the Determinant functions were relatively comparable, the same type of findings of the studies  
314 were used, i.e., food intake versus attitude/behavior related findings. Studies in the Source function have a  
315 more distinctive scope of findings and are generally focused on content-related findings (e.g., observing  
316 UGC data rather than participant data).

317 **[INSERT FIGURE 7 HERE]**

318

#### 319 *3.3.1. Tool and Determinant functions*

320 Two types of outcome indicators emerged to summarize the main findings of these studies: food intake  
321 related, and attitude/behavior related. Many of the studies showed the impact of SM on intended outcome  
322 measures. In the food intake related group, studies reported on whether SM influenced the consumption of  
323 certain foods/beverages. Studies under the Tool function mainly reported positive impact on healthy food  
324 intake, such as in the study by Wang et al. (2020), who reported a significant impact after an intervention  
325 using a private WeChat group. Some studies reported the effect of SM in reducing intake of unhealthy  
326 foods, such as Sharps et al. (2019) in relation to sugar-sweetened beverages (SSB) and high energy density  
327 foods (HED) or Kaur et al. (2020) related to intake of fat, sugar, and salt. Meanwhile, many of the studies  
328 under the Determinant function in this group found a relationship between SM related activities/variables  
329 and alcohol consumption, such as Geusens et al. (2019) and Litt et al. (2021). However, a smaller number  
330 of studies also reported mixed or no effects of SM on food intake, including eight studies on the Tool  
331 function (e.g., Folkvord and de Bruijne (2020) and Vander Wyst et al. (2019)) and four studies on the  
332 Determinant function (e.g., LaBrie et al. (2021) and Sumaedi and Sumardjo (2020)).

333 In the second group (attitude/behavior related), many of the studies under both functions reported the effect  
334 of SM on attitude-, behavior- and intention-related outcome measures. In terms of the Determinant studies,  
335 for example, the work of Balakrishnan and Foroudi (2020) found that SM engagement had a significant  
336 impact on purchase intention for innovative food products among consumers in the US and India.  
337 Meanwhile, Liu et al. (2022) under the Tool function detailed the promotion of purchase intention following  
338 manipulated stimuli on SM. Some studies also reported an increased knowledge. For example, Coccia et  
339 al. (2020) (Tool function) reported increased nutrition knowledge after a 6-weeks nutrition intervention via  
340 Twitter. Similar with previous group, a small number of studies reported neutral or mixed effects of SM:  
341 six and four studies under Tool function (e.g., Rouf and Allman-Farinelli (2018)) and Determinant function  
342 (e.g., Rahim et al. (2022)), respectively.

### 343 3.3.2. *Source function*

344 The results were classified according to three approaches: (1) content exploration, (2) content observation,  
345 and (3) sentiment classification. In the content exploration group, the studies explored the content and some  
346 further categorized the content based on a particular theme of the corresponding study. For example,  
347 Moreira et al. (2021) studied consumers' opinions regarding the expected benefits of consuming plant-based  
348 meat on Instagram and used a marketing mix approach to analyze the 13 categories that emerged. In the  
349 group of content observation, many studies focused on reporting the most frequent content that appeared  
350 on SM. For example, several studies examined the most frequently occurring words, such as words related  
351 to food and beverages. Ito et al. (2018) reported that the most frequently occurring words in Twitter related  
352 to food included 'soba' (buckwheat noodles) and 'cake' during the low-temperature weather in Japan. In the  
353 sentiment classification group, researchers evaluated the sentiments, experiences, or ratings consumers  
354 gave to foods based on UGC extracted from SM. The results generally classified the valence of the outcome  
355 as positive, neutral, or negative. In this group, the outcome of the studies was mainly dominated by positive  
356 feelings. For example, Mostafa (2019) reported that a large proportion of tweets were positive and about  
357 40,000 tweets expressed happiness about halal foods.

#### 4. Discussions

358  
359  
360 The ubiquity of social media (SM) potentially influences user behavior, including food. This systematic  
361 review aimed to explore and summarize the scientific research landscape related to SM and food consumer  
362 behavior. The topic is becoming increasingly important, as evidenced by the trend in the number of studies  
363 from the early years (2009) to recently in 2022. The identified studies were mainly focused on Europe,  
364 North America (especially the United States), and Asia (mainly China). Ventura et al. (2021) found a similar  
365 result when this topic is progressive in the United States. Although they focus on children and adolescents,  
366 most of the studies on this topic reviewed by Sina et al. (2022) were also conducted in North America and  
367 Europe. As mentioned by Hutchings et al. (2023), the studies on SM and on food consumption and sensory  
368 sciences were mainly conducted in WEIRD (Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, Democratic)  
369 countries. This leaves a gap for other regions, such as Africa and Oceania. This review found a large number  
370 of studies investigating the relationship between SM and consumer attitudes or behaviors related to food.  
371 This is another indication that SM and food are attracting increasing interest, prompting researchers to  
372 explore the connections. To provide a better overview of our review, studies were divided into three  
373 categories based on how researchers used the SM element in their study (the function of SM). This review  
374 identified three functions: (1) Tool (94 studies); (2) Determinant (154 studies); and (3) Source (129 studies).  
375  
376 Studies in the Determinant function generally examined the relationship or influence of SM-related  
377 variables on food attitudes or behavioral variables. In the absence of actual SM use, researchers usually  
378 strive to design data collection (e.g., survey, focus group, or interview and probing questions) according to  
379 the research topic and recruitment of participants. For studies in the Tool function, there was generally  
380 another element on top of those experienced by researchers in the Determinant function, which was the  
381 design of the treatment or stimulus group. As contents are the main element of SM, in studies in the Tool  
382 function, researchers incorporated content as a treatment, such as nutrition knowledge provided in a private  
383 group on the SM platform or the presentation of manipulated posts to participants. Some studies compared  
384 the treated group to the no-treatment group, which would help researchers gain more insight into whether



385 the SM treatment influenced consumers' targeted diet-related attitudes/behaviors. Studies in the Source  
386 function had a different nature than studies in the other functions because these studies did not involve  
387 active participants and thus no effort was made to recruit participants. Researchers collected data directly  
388 from SM, specifically user-generated SM content, typically referred to as user-generated content (UGC),  
389 which can be in the form of text (e.g., from Twitter) or images (e.g., from Pinterest or Instagram). Thus, to  
390 conduct this type of research, some specific skills are required, particularly in extracting, storing, and  
391 analyzing data in an appropriate format to enable subsequent data cleaning and analysis (Vidal et al., 2018).

392 Since each function has its own characteristics, the insights gained from the studies on the functions can  
393 improve and provide a clearer understanding of the subject. Similar to the conventional method mentioned  
394 by Hutchings et al. (2023), the studies that included recruited participants, which was the case for Tool and  
395 Determinant functions, allow for better precision and distinction compared to the studies using SM data.  
396 However, these studies are vulnerable to biases such as self-selection bias, social desirability bias, and  
397 Hawthorne effect (Hutchings et al., 2023; Ross & Bibler Zaidi, 2019). For example, social desirability bias  
398 influences the outcome of studies, particularly those that rely on self-reported responses (e.g., survey data).  
399 Meanwhile, SM -based data for Source function studies can be collected in real-time and cost-effectively  
400 compared to participant-based data, and large amounts of data can be obtained in a relatively short period  
401 of time, as shown by Sass et al. (2020) and Kāle et al. (2021). Real-time data collected from consumers at  
402 SM could provide insights into their attitudes toward food or their behaviors on specific occasions or at  
403 specific moments, evidenced by the studies by Vidal et al. (2015) and Kāle et al. (2021). However, these  
404 types of studies require balancing with other necessary resources related to SM data processing (e.g., data  
405 extraction skills, analysis, etc.). On top of that, the vast amounts of data available at SM are mostly  
406 unstructured and come from diverse and uncontrolled situations (Hutchings et al., 2023). Therefore, future  
407 researchers should examine these considerations before designing new studies on this topic.

408

409 In terms of platforms, Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram are the most commonly used SM platforms by  
410 researchers in this field. Facebook topped the list of observed platforms used (specifically for studies in the  
411 Tool function), as it was also the platform with the most users worldwide (Kemp, 2022). Twitter was more  
412 prominent for studies in the Source function, which was also reflected in the typical sample type (tweets)  
413 for the studies in this function. Researchers emphasized the ease of use to obtain spontaneous or open  
414 responses triggered by real life circumstances and the free access to the data from Twitter (Sass et al., 2020;  
415 Vidal et al., 2015). This finding is consistent with the review conducted by Hawks et al. (2020), which  
416 found that studies examining SM content mostly analyzed textual data. Twitter's textual data might be easier  
417 to handle and store than other types of data, such as image data from Instagram or short videos from  
418 Snapchat or TikTok, or even different types of data such as those from Facebook. However, Vidal et al.  
419 (2015) also pointed out that manual analysis of data obtained from Twitter is tedious. Meanwhile, most  
420 studies in Determinant function examined SM in general, without specifying the platform (116 out of 154  
421 studies), thus obtaining a global perspective regarding the influence of SM on eating behavior. However,  
422 this also left a certain gap to investigate the multifaceted influence of the specific SM platforms.

423 An interesting finding of this review was related to the research topic of the studies. The total number of  
424 studies that focused on foods designated as healthy was the lowest compared to the other research topics,  
425 with most studies falling under Tool function. Consistent with this review, Hawks et al. (2020) reported that  
426 fruits and vegetables appeared less frequently than unhealthy foods, which were posted and liked more  
427 often on SM. Unhealthy foods or beverages were most frequently advertised in traditional and online or  
428 SM, with some reports indicating that approximately 80% of food advertisements were for foods high in  
429 salt, saturated fat, or sugar, which in turn contributed to overweight and obesity (Kent et al., 2019). Many  
430 of the studies identified in this review also focused on alcohol in SM and its negative impact on consumers.  
431 Further research to better understand this topic is needed to mitigate the negative effects of SM and  
432 unhealthy foods, especially to aid the policy implication to guide the society in avoiding possible harmful  
433 effects of unhealthy food advertising in SM.

434 In terms of methodological characteristics, this review found that most studies followed a quantitative  
435 research approach and a cross-sectional design, which leaves room to explore other types of approaches  
436 and study designs. Longitudinal studies may be of interest for future research, particularly to observe the  
437 causality effects of SM-related treatment on participants over time. This is particularly true for the  
438 Determinant function, where the vast majority conducted cross-sectional studies. Therefore, causality  
439 between the influence of SM and the targeted attitude/behavior could not be established. As mentioned by  
440 Hawkins et al. (2020) and Robinson (2015), in cross-sectional studies focusing on social norms, a false  
441 consensus effect could occur, in which a bias toward one's own behavior in terms of egocentricity occurs  
442 when speculating other people's behavior. They suggested, among other things, manipulating norms directly  
443 in SM settings to examine causality between SM social norms and eating behaviors.

444 The present review also focused on outcomes related to dietary behavior and/or attitude. A smaller number  
445 of studies focused on measuring liking, preference, willingness, and knowledge. Future studies could  
446 therefore also focus on these outcomes to add to the literature on studies of consumer food behaviors and  
447 attitudes. To illustrate, only five studies in the Tool function examined consumer food preference and  
448 focused on children, young adults, and adolescents (e.g., Coates et al. (2019b); Sharps et al. (2019)), leaving  
449 an opportunity to evaluate adult participants and gain a better understanding of this population. However,  
450 Sharps et al. (2019) did not find a significant result and Coates et al. (2019b) did not discuss in detail of the  
451 participants' food liking, thus more studies are needed to verify whether SM -based intervention in fact are  
452 indeed unrelated to food liking. Regarding the studies in the Source function, several observed outcome  
453 interests differed from those in the other functions that could not be directly compared. The investigation  
454 of the studies in the Source function was able to elicit the intended outcome interest (e.g., consumers'  
455 sentiments or perceptions) related to the general food topic or specific food products via SM consumer-  
456 generated content (UGC). Massive amount of big data made it possible to collect consumer-related data,  
457 with researchers sometimes determining the topic in advance. One strategy employed by researchers  
458 afterwards was to use classification categories, such as sentiment classification or categorizing topics. This

459 strategy was needed to analyze the enormous amount of data extracted and present it in an understandable  
460 form. For example, consumer sentiment was the most frequently analyzed outcome in the studies in which  
461 researchers classified sentiment based on valence (positive, negative, or neutral), both manually analyzed  
462 by researchers (Hsieh et al., 2019) and automatically analyzed by machine learning (Kim & Jeong, 2015).

463 Although each study has its own limitations, the unbalanced distribution of the number of studies across  
464 the functions may indicate the possibility that there are some gaps or challenges for researchers in  
465 conducting studies using SM as a Tool (94 studies, compared with more than 100 studies for the other  
466 functions), such as time duration, resources, and feasibility. For example, several studies in the Tool  
467 function were conducted over a period of time to assess whether an intervention using the SM element  
468 affects participants' eating behaviors (e.g., 10 weeks in Bakirci-Taylor et al. (2019) and 6 months in Caplette  
469 et al. (2017)). To get a complete picture of the relationship between SM and consumers' food attitudes or  
470 behaviors, one should consider the findings from the studies on the three functions as they are interrelated,  
471 rather than looking at a single function. Hsieh et al. (2019) proposed to further investigate the topic by  
472 developing a survey and collecting data from consumers (e.g., hotel guests), which led to the direction of  
473 the study utilizing Determinant function. The study of Hawkins et al. (2020) in Determinant function  
474 implies that further investigation through norm manipulation in SM is needed to better understand the  
475 causality of SM 's influence on consumers' food consumption, suggesting further study in the context of the  
476 Tool function.

477 This review was conducted systematically according to PRISMA guidelines and was guided by a protocol  
478 established prior to the review. This review addressed the broad topic of the relationship between SM and  
479 consumer food attitudes and/or behaviors. The inclusion criteria were comprehensive in terms of  
480 methodology, type of data (participants and SM data), and outcome of interest. Due to the large number and  
481 diversity of included studies, this review was able to improve the understanding of the results by classifying  
482 the studies based on the SM functions (Tool, Determinant, and Source). However, this review was not  
483 without limitations. First, only two electronic databases were used in this review, namely Web of Science

484 and Scopus. Although these two databases are well known for systematic reviews, this review could miss  
485 potentially relevant studies that are not indexed in the databases. In addition, this review only included  
486 studies published in English, thus limiting the other studies with non-English publications. The key findings  
487 reported in this review might be rather general in nature, suggesting the reader interpret the results with  
488 caution and is advised to look up the specific studies for more detailed consideration (see Supplementary  
489 material 3). Finally, because of the diversity of studies, it was not possible to perform a meta-analysis due  
490 to the heterogeneity of the outcome of interest.

## 491 **5. Conclusion**

492 As social media (SM) become ubiquitous and integrated into consumers' daily lives, food attitudes and  
493 behaviors are also influenced by SM. This review aimed to elucidate the relationship between SM and  
494 consumers' attitudes/behaviors toward food. In this review, a total of 377 relevant studies were  
495 systematically extracted. SM and food-related studies were diverse in terms of their general characteristics,  
496 methodology, and outcome of interest. To improve the understanding of the findings, the studies in this  
497 review were classified according to the function of SM in the study: Tool (94 studies), Determinant (154  
498 studies), and Source (129 studies). The differences between studies in terms of functions served as the basis  
499 for describing characteristics. Participants and SM data (e.g., user-generated content/UGC) were observed  
500 as data sources for the studies, with UGC being the typical data used by the studies in the Source function.  
501 This also reflected the differences in data collection methods between the functions, with researchers in the  
502 Tool and Determinant functions collecting data from participants through surveys, interviews, or focus  
503 groups, while researchers in the Source function analyzed data from SM directly without recruiting  
504 participants. Of all the SM platforms, Facebook was the most commonly studied in the Tool function and  
505 Twitter was the most typical for studies in the Source function. Regardless of the SM functions, most studies  
506 were cross-sectional and quantitative. Most studies in the Tool and Determinant functions assessed intention  
507 and behavior (including food intake), while studies in the Source functions mainly reported on consumers'  
508 sentiments towards food. Knowledge from all functions, rather than a single function, should be considered

509 to provide a complete picture of the relationship between SM and consumer attitudes and behaviors toward  
510 food.  
511

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517 Rini, Listia: Conceptualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Software, Data Visualization, Writing –  
518 Original draft, Writing – Review & Editing,

519 Schouteten, Joachim Jietse: Conceptualization, Validation, Supervision, Writing – Review & Editing

520 Faber, Ilona: Writing – Review & Editing

521 Perez-Cueto, Federico J.A.: Supervision, Project Administration

522 Bom Frøst, Michael: Supervision, Project Administration

523 De Steur, Hans: Conceptualization, Validation, Supervision, Writing – Review & Editing, Validation

524

525 **Conflict of interest**

526 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

527

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815

816 **Figures**

817 Figure captions

818 Figure 1. Flowchart of the search and selection of articles for this systematic review study.

819 Figure 2. Number of studies over time, per SM function

820 Figure 3. Geographic distribution of studies across all functions, per SM function

821 Figure 4. Social media platforms across studies under all functions

822 Note: Some studies used more than one platform. Therefore, the number of all studies exceeds the total  
823 number of studies mentioned in this review.

824

825 Figure 5. Summary of the methodology characteristics across functions

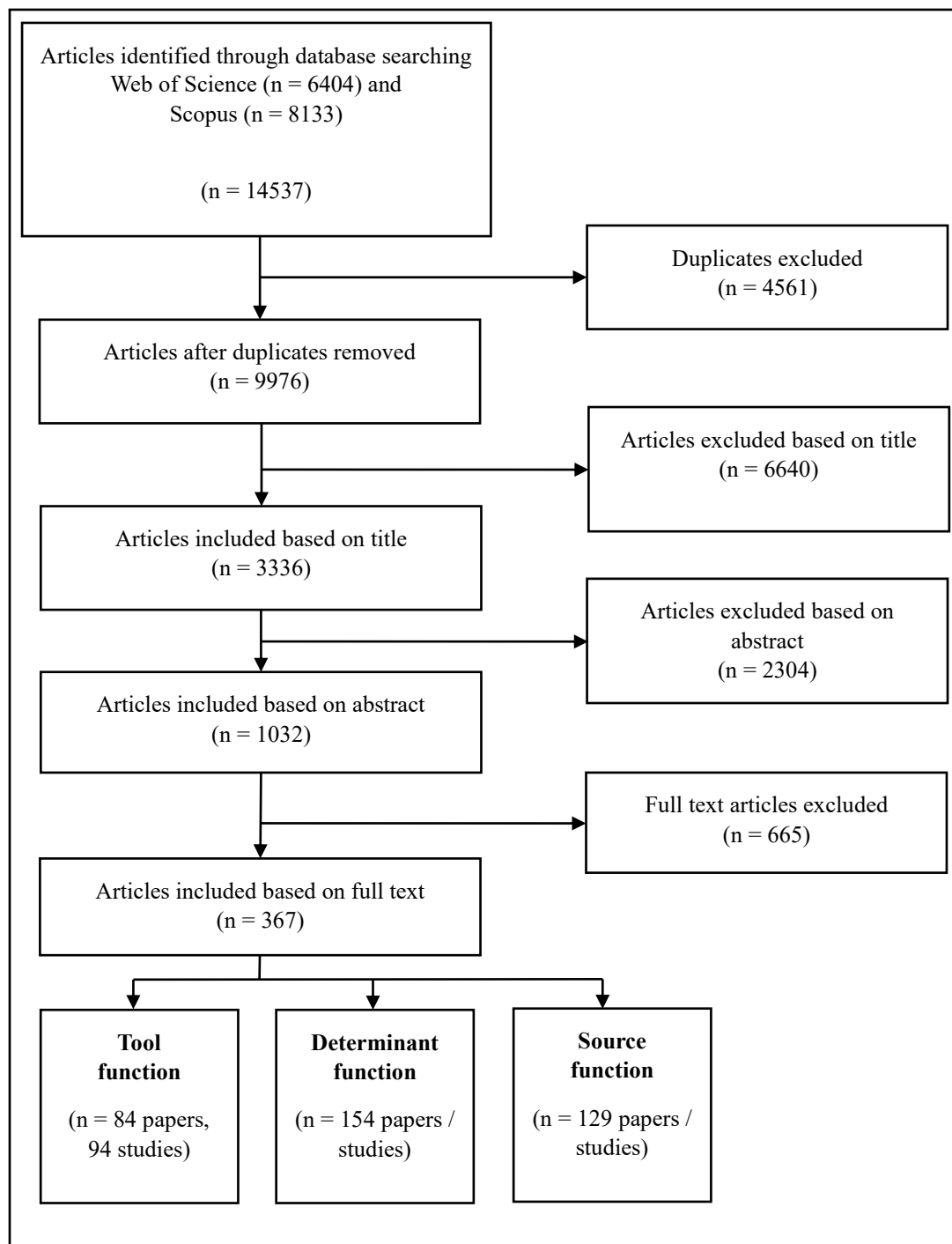
826 Figure 6. (A) Target variables and (B) and their measures in quantitative studies between Tool (T) and  
827 Determinants (D) functions.

828

829 Figure 7. Scope of findings, per social media (SM) function and type of finding (food intake,  
830 attitude/behavior, and content).

831 Note. The figure shows the number of studies corresponding to the type of findings. Findings in the tool  
832 and determinant functions (upper part of the figure) were presented based on impact. Studies with  
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834 Source function (lower part of the figure), the proportion of studies with type of sentiments is shown in the  
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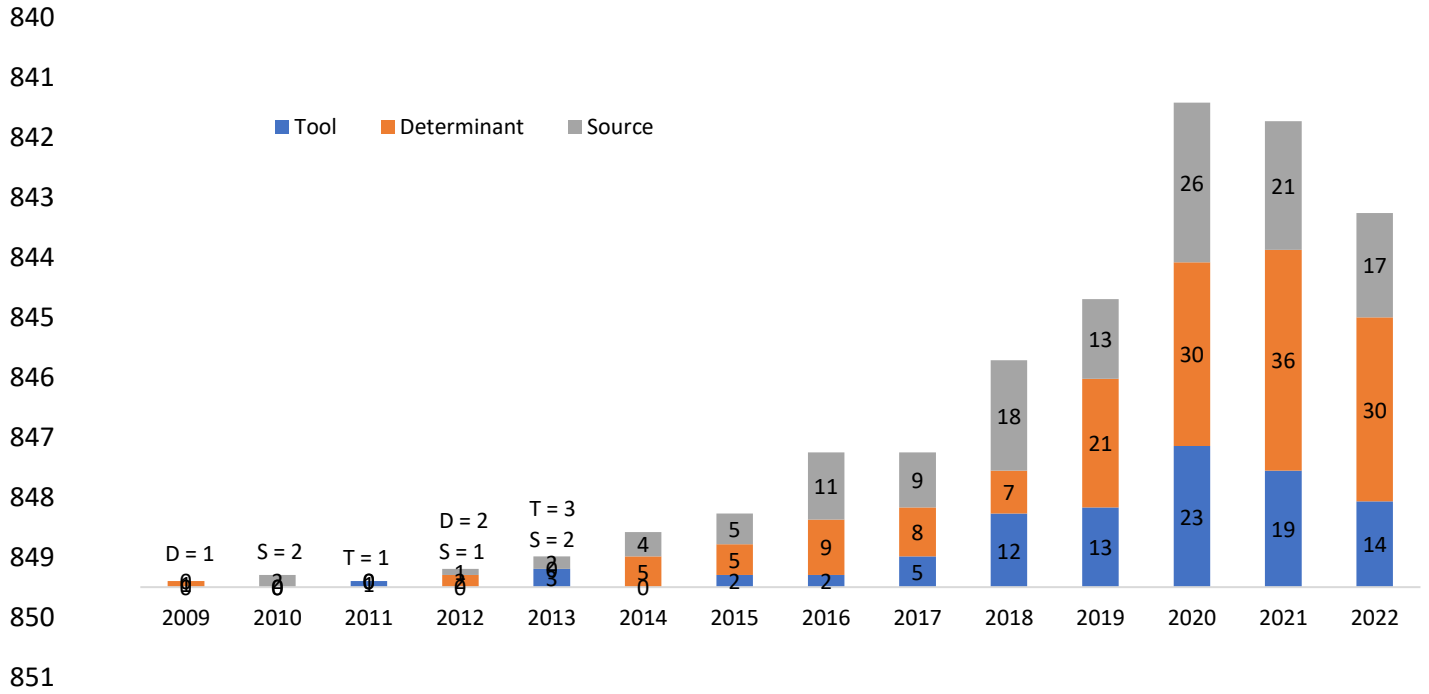
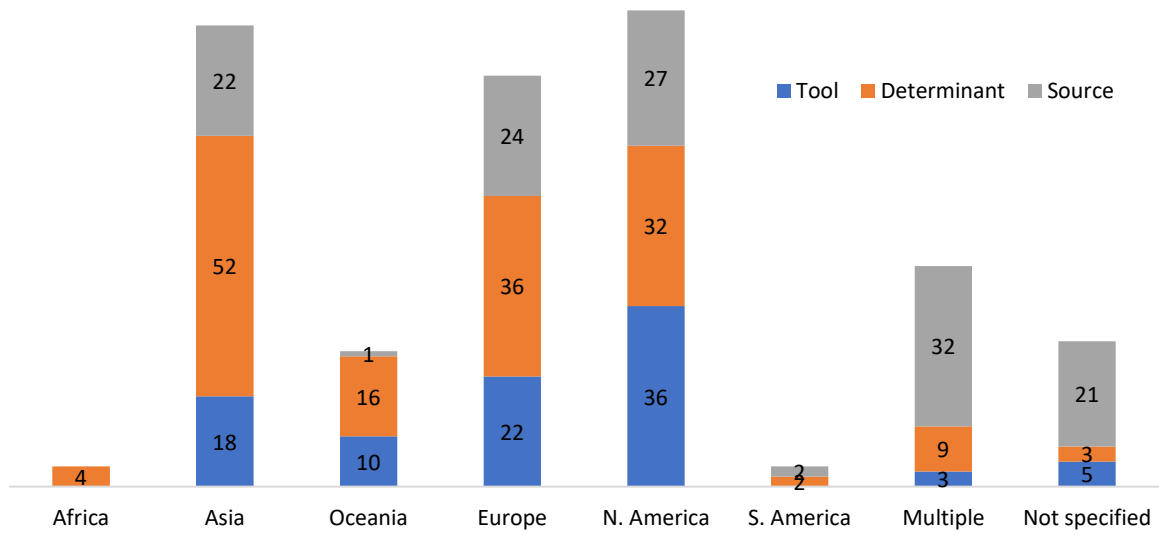
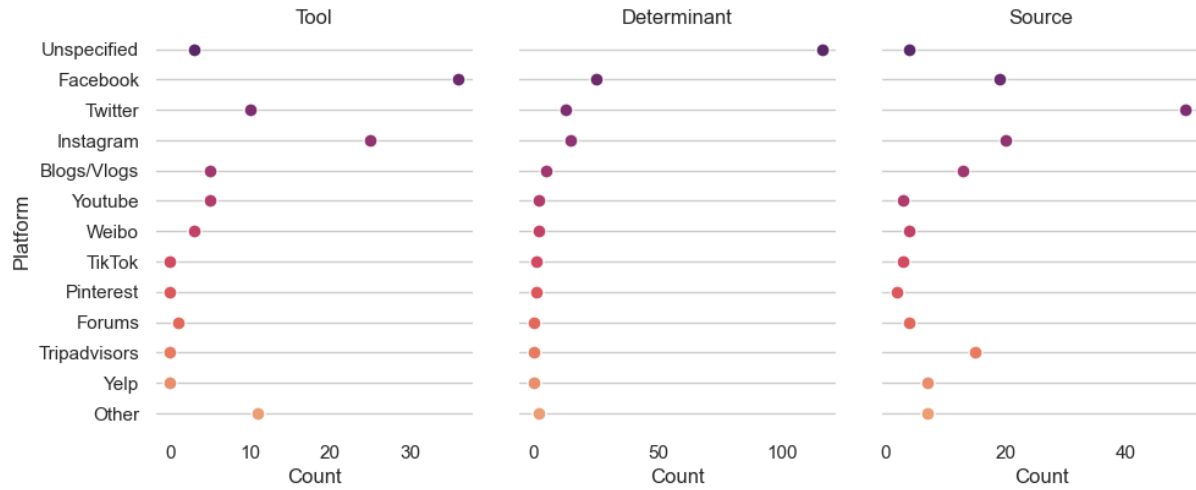


Figure 2. Number of studies over time, per SM function



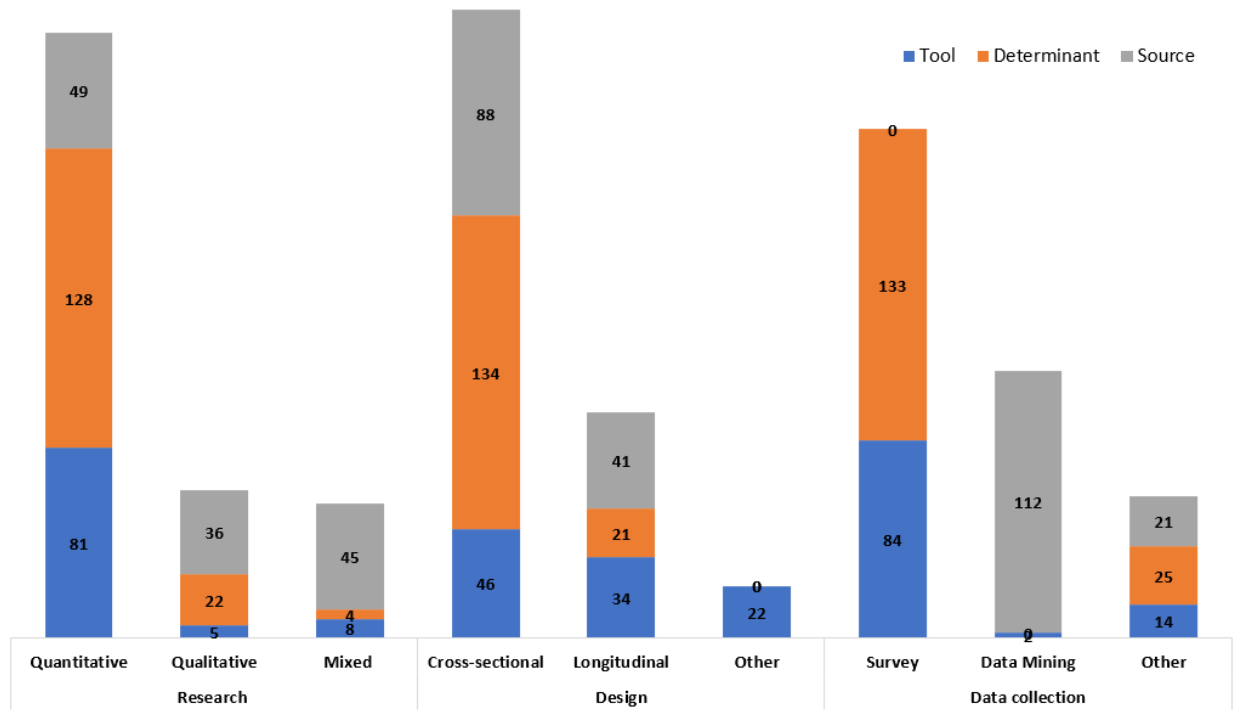


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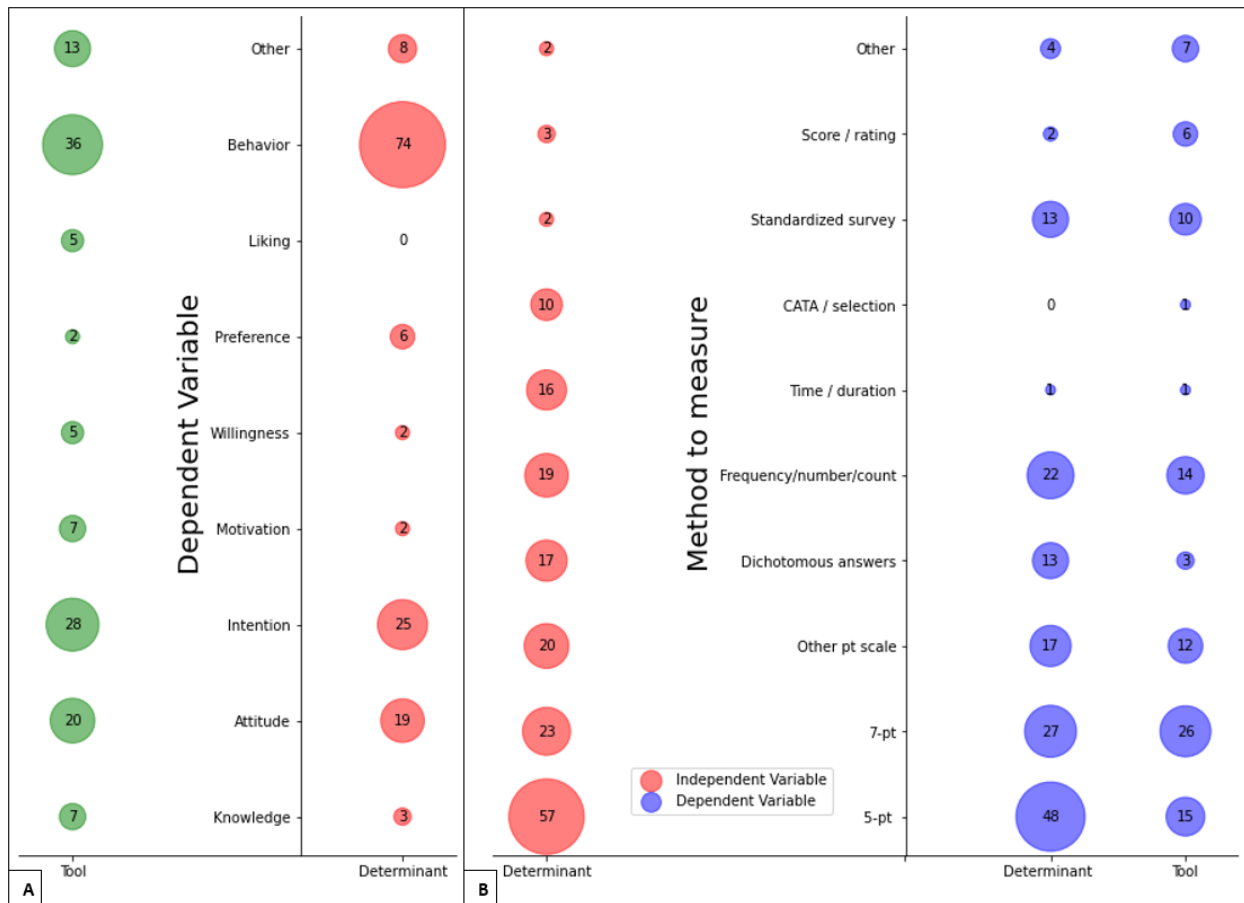
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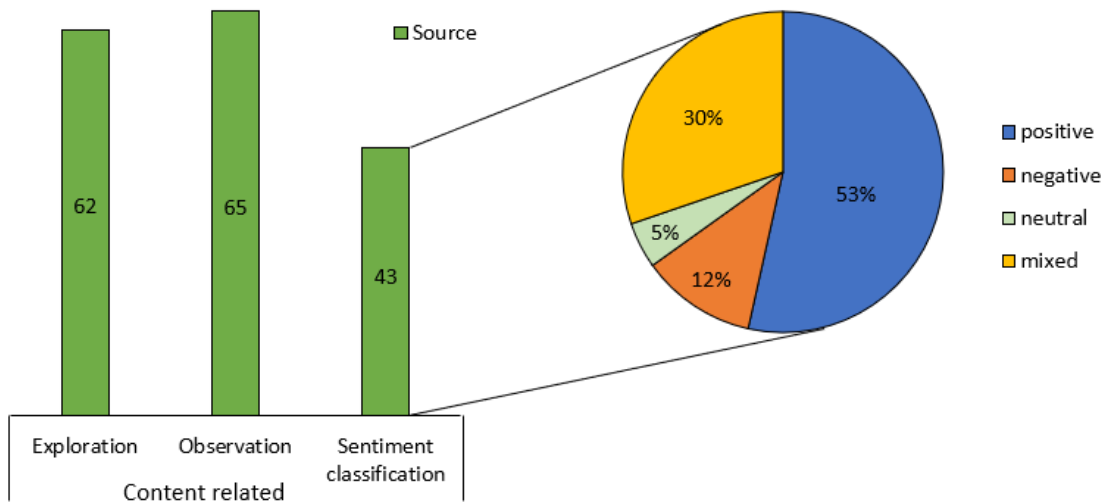
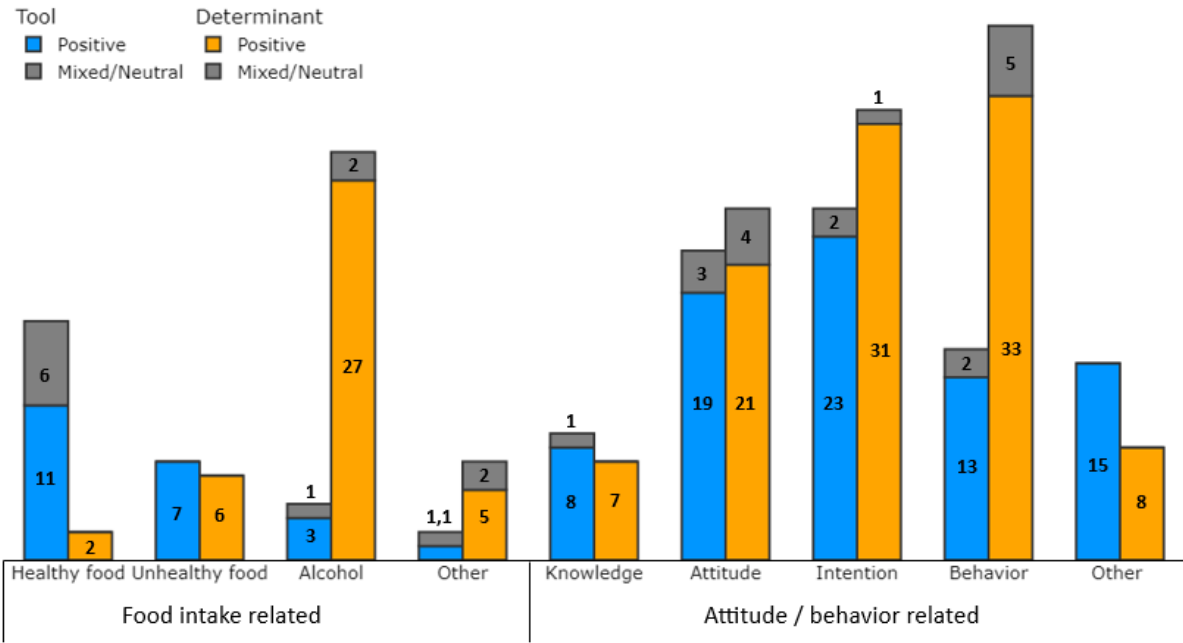


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878

879 **Supplementary materials**

880 Supplementary material captions

881 Supplementary material 1 – List of studies

882 Supplementary material 2. Studies' sample types and details per function.

883 Supplementary material 3. Research topic of the studies across functions

884 Supplementary material 4 – Search syntax