Cross-modal and subliminal effects of smell and color

Naoto Sato [1,2] , **Mana Miyamoto** [1,3] , **Risa Santa** [1] , **Ayaka Sasaki** [3] , **Kenichi Shibuya** [Corresp. 1,3]

[1] Graduate School of Health and Welfare, Niigata University of Health and Welfare, Niigata, Japan

[2] Department of Health and Nutrition, Yamagata Prefectural Yonezawa University of Nutrition Sciences, Yonezawa, Japan

[3] Department of Health and Nutrition, Niigata University of Health and Welfare, Niigata, Japan

Corresponding Author: Kenichi Shibuya
Email address: shibuya@nuhw.ac.jp

In the present study, we examined whether the cross-modal effect can be obtained between odors and colors, which has been confirmed under olfactory recognizable conditions and also occurs under unrecognizable conditions. We used two flavors of red fruits such as strawberries and tomatoes for this purpose. We also aimed to compare whether similar cross-modal effects could be achieved by setting the flavors at recognizable (liminal) and unrecognizable (subliminal) concentrations in the experiment. One flavor at a normal concentration (0.1%, Liminal condition) and one at a concentration below the subliminal threshold (0.015%, Subliminal condition), were presented, and the color that resembled the smell most closely from among the 10 colors, was selected by participants. Except for the subliminal tomato condition, each odor was significantly associated with at least one color (p<0.01). Participants selected pink and red for liminal strawberry (0.1%) (p < 0.05), pink for subliminal strawberry (0.015%) (p < 0.05), and orange for liminal tomato (0.1%) (p < 0.05), but there was no color selected for subliminal tomato (0.015%) (p > 0.05). The results of this study suggest that the flavor of tomato produced a cross-modal effect in liminal conditions, but not in subliminal conditions. On the other hand, the results of the present study suggest that the flavor of strawberries produces a cross-modal effect even under subliminal conditions. This study showed that cross-modal effects might exist, even at unrecognizable levels of flavor.

1 Title: Cross-modal and subliminal effects of smell and color

3 Naoto Sato[1,2], Mana Miyamoto[1,3], Risa Santa[1], Ayaka Sasaki[3], Kenichi Shibuya[1,3*]

5 [1] Graduate School of Health and Welfare, Niigata University of Health and Welfare
6 [2] Department of Health and Nutrition, Yamagata Prefectural Yonezawa University of Nutrition
7 Sciences, 6-15-1 Touri-machi, Yonezawa-shi, Yamagata 992-0025, Japan
8 [3] Department of Health and Nutrition, Niigata University of Health and Welfare

10 Corresponding Author*: Kenichi Shibuya
11 Graduate School of Health and Welfare, Niigata University of Health and Welfare, 1398
12 Shimami-cho, Kita-ku, Niigata, 950-3198, Japan
13 shibuya@nuhw.ac.jp

16 **Abstract**
17 In the present study, we examined whether the cross-modal effect can be obtained between odors
18 and colors, which has been confirmed under olfactory recognizable conditions and also occurs
19 under unrecognizable conditions. We used two flavors of red fruits such as strawberries and
20 tomatoes for this purpose. We also aimed to compare whether similar cross-modal effects could
21 be achieved by setting the flavors at recognizable (liminal) and unrecognizable (subliminal)
22 concentrations in the experiment. One flavor at a normal concentration (0.1%, Liminal
23 condition) and one at a concentration below the subliminal threshold (0.015%, Subliminal
24 condition), were presented, and the color that resembled the smell most closely from among the
25 10 colors, was selected by participants. Except for the subliminal tomato condition, each odor
26 was significantly associated with at least one color (p<0.01). Participants selected pink and red
27 for liminal strawberry (0.1%) (p < 0.05), pink for subliminal strawberry (0.015%) (p < 0.05), and
28 orange for liminal tomato (0.1%) (p < 0.05), but there was no color selected for subliminal
29 tomato (0.015%) (p > 0.05). The results of this study suggest that the flavor of tomato produced
30 a cross-modal effect in liminal conditions, but not in subliminal conditions. On the other hand,
31 the results of the present study suggest that the flavor of strawberries produces a cross-modal
32 effect even under subliminal conditions. This study showed that cross-modal effects might exist,
33 even at unrecognizable levels of flavor.
34
35

36 **Introduction**
37 The understanding of how the brain processes, integrates, and perceives external stimuli is of
38 great importance. Cross-modal phenomena have been widely studied, in which perceptions that
39 are typically separate, such as taste and vision, or vision and smell, influence each other. For
40 example, individuals tend to associate certain colors with specific smells, with the smell of
41 lemons often being described as "yellow" and the smell of ripe strawberries being associated
42 with the color "red". This phenomenon, known as a cross-modal effect, has been demonstrated
43 through numerous studies (Heatherly, Dien, Munafo & Luckett, 2019; Kemp & Gilbert, 1997;
44 Luisa Demattè, Sanabria & Spence, 2006; Schifferstein & Howell, 2015; Schifferstein &
45 Tanudjaja, 2004). Gottfried and Dolan (2003) showed that the presentation of visual stimuli with
46 complex pictures may affect olfactory information processing. In addition, Morrot et al. (2001)
47 showed an association between odor and color, as white wine artificially colored red with
48 odorless dyes was determined to be red wine based on visual and olfactory information. The
49 study by Luisa Demattè, Sanabria and Spence (2006) has shown a significant relationship
50 between odor and color, with caramel odors being associated with the colors "brown" or
51 "yellow", cucumber odors being associated with the color "green", and strawberry odors being
52 associated with the colors "pink" or "red". These findings are consistent with the general colors
53 of foodstuffs and further support the existence of strong cross-modal associations between vision
54 and smell.
55
56
57 Subliminal effects refer to the phenomenon of unconsciously stimulating an individual using
58 sub-threshold, or subliminal, stimuli (Yamada et al., 2014). One example of this is the repeated
59 use of subliminal speed and volume advertisements on television and radio, which can increase
60 viewers' desire to purchase a product. These effects can influence actions, choices, and thoughts,
61 and have been demonstrated in several studies. For example, Holland et al. (2005) found a

62 significant difference in word selection for cleaning tasks when participants were presented with
63 a citrus scent under the subliminal threshold, leading to changes in social liking of human facial
64 expressions. These studies demonstrate that olfactory information can modulate human cognition
65 and behavior even when presented at subliminal levels. In addition, the study by Li et al. (2007)
66 provided evidence for the influence of olfactory information on human cognition and behavior,
67 even when presented at subliminal levels. Li et al. (2007) utilized a facial expression judgment
68 task and presented participants with pleasant, unpleasant, and neutral odors under subliminal
69 thresholds. The results of this research indicated that this manipulation significantly affected the
70 social liking of human facial expressions. Previous studies have shown that olfactory information
71 can modulate human cognition and behavior even when odor stimuli are presented under a
72 subliminal threshold.
73
74 While both cross-modal and subliminal effects have been studied in various ways, few studies
75 have examined cross-modal effects under subliminal conditions, and there are many unknowns
76 and a lack of knowledge in the field of multisensory integration (Stein & Stanford, 2008). In
77 particular, the cross-modal link between vision and olfaction has received limited attention.
78 Yamada et al. (2014) have shown that odors presented under subliminal conditions can increase
79 preference for unfamiliar food images. This effect of odor in food preference may be related to
80 food neophobia (Pliner & Salvy, 2006). Food neophobia is defined as a feeding avoidance
81 response to novel foods, and the study by Randenbush et al. (1998) has found that individuals
82 with food neophobia react and evaluate odors differently than those without. Furthermore, odor
83 control may reduce stress over unfamiliar foods. Food neophobia can have a negative impact on
84 health in terms of nutrition, as rejecting novel foods can narrow the range of foods consumed.
85 For example, food neophobia has been found to be negatively correlated with vegetable
86 consumption in 7-year-old girls (Galloway et al., 2003) and with fruit and vegetable
87 consumption in preschool children (Cooke et al., 2004). Considering this, the present study aims
88 to examine the cross-modal effects of vision on food odors.
89
90 The present study aims to examine the cross-modal effect between olfaction and vision using two
91 popular red agricultural products in Japan, tomatoes and strawberries, as olfactory stimuli.
92 Tomatoes and strawberries were chosen as stimuli due to their distinct aromatic components. The
93 aromatic components of tomatoes include cis-3-hexenal and trans-2-hexenal (Wang and
94 Seymour, 2017), which are commonly found in green fruits such as cucumbers and cabbage,
95 while the aromatic components of strawberries are primarily composed of alcohols, esters, and
96 aldehydes, with furaneol being the main aromatic component (Schwab, 2013). The specific
97 aromatic component of strawberries may make it more likely for the odor and color of
98 strawberries to be easily recognized in association with one another. The present study will
99 examine whether different reactions are observed depending on the two red fruits, one with an
100 odor that explicitly evokes an image (strawberries) and the other with an odor that evokes several
101 fruits (tomatoes) when stimuli are set at recognizable (liminal) and unrecognizable (subliminal)
102 concentrations. The present study also aims to examine the relationship between odor and color.
103 The hypotheses of the present study are that olfactory information will connect to the visual
104 information regardless of the subject's awareness of the odors and that the olfactory information
105 is utilized only for the subliminal odors that evoke an image of the object.
106

Methods

107

108 Participants

109 The study participants consisted of 39 healthy people, between 18 and 22 years of age and with
110 normal or corrected-to-normal eyesight. They received an explanation regarding their written
111 informed consent, which included a description of the risks of the experiment. The Ethics
112 Committee of the Niigata University of Health and Welfare approved this study (Approval
113 number: 18243-190705). All the participants were naïve regarding the study protocol. The
114 research contents were explained verbally to all participants. Written informed consent was
115 obtained from each participant after a full explanation of the nature of the study procedure and its
116 non-invasiveness. The number of participants was calculated by G*Power (Faul et al., 2007)
117 prior to the experiment (Effect size = 1.2, alpha = 0.005, df = 19) determined from the results of
118 preliminary experiments.

119

120 Protocol

121 Upon their arrival at the laboratory, participants were asked to sit in front of a computer in a
122 small room for 15 minutes, to create a resting state. They were assured that their responses would
123 remain completely anonymous as ID numbers were used to manage the data. They were then
124 given instructions regarding the tasks conducted in the experiment. The experimenter then left
125 the room to ensure the participants' anonymity during the experiment. The participants
126 performed the tasks while facing the computer. All tasks were performed using a computer
127 program written in PsychoPy (Peirce 2007; Peirce 2009; Peirce et al. 2019). The stimuli were
128 presented on a 17" (inch) CRT monitor (LCS 172VXL; NEC, Japan) with a resolution of 1024 ×
129 768 pixels and a refresh rate of 100 Hz. Stimulus presentation and data collection were
130 controlled using a computer (M8-D, NEC, Japan). Stimuli were presented at a viewing distance
131 of 40 cm. The luminance of the fixation point was 91.0 cd/m^2. The command cursors were the
132 white boxes surrounding each rating value (0.95. × 1.89 °; 91.0 cd/m^2); selected boxes were
133 filled in with white color.
134 The participants were tested under two conditions: 1) flavors with liminal concentration and 2)
135 flavors with subliminal concentration. Two flavors were used: strawberries (T & M Co., Ltd.)
136 and tomatoes (Yokoyama Flavoring Co., Ltd.). Each flavor was diluted with ion-exchanged
137 water to achieve liminal (0.1%) and subliminal concentrations (0.015%) (Yamada et al., 2014) to
138 create four different samples. The four flavors were correctly identified by the participants as
139 liminal and subliminal after all experiments. Odorless air was released with an aroma diffuser
140 (Muji Supersonic Wave Aroma Diffuser; Rhohin Keikaku Co., Ltd.) from 1-2 h before the
141 experiment and continued until the end of the experiment. In addition, a drop of the sample was
142 placed on an aroma-testing paper and the paper was placed 3 cm away from the subject's nose for
143 4 s. The participants were wearing blindfolds and ear-muffs, during the experiment as in a
144 previous study (Yamada et al., 2014).
145 All ten colors (red, yellow, blue, green, orange, pink, brown, turquoise, purple, and gray) were
146 displayed on the monitor, and the color that felt closest to their mood was selected by
147 participants, as in a previous study (Dematte et al. 2006). Participants came to the laboratory
148 eight times to be tested. The time between each visit was set to be open for at least 24 h. The
149 same procedure was repeated twice for four different samples. The order of the ten colors
150 displayed on the monitor for 15 s and the order of smelling the samples were randomized. The
151 participants were not informed of the flavor of the odor used for the samples. The RGB values

152 for the 10 colors were as follows: red (231, 0, 0), yellow (248, 248, 0), blue (0, 48, 255), green
153 (0, 85, 0), orange (255, 85, 12), pink (255, 0, 193), brown (98, 48, 0), turquoise (0, 229, 189),
154 purple (99, 13, 253), and ash (56, 56, 56) (Figure 1). Participants' judgments were saved in csv
155 files. The colors, and odor types selected by the participants were statistically evaluated by
156 residue analysis using the chi-square test (McHugh, 2013) for the colors associated with each
157 odor type.
158 After the experimental blocks, participants were asked whether they were aware of the odor and
159 of the influence of the odor on their performance (Holland et al., 2005). The interview after all
160 the experimental blocks showed that none of the participants were aware of the odor in the
161 subliminal conditions and all the participants were aware of and identified the odor in the liminal
162 conditions.
163
164 Statistical Analysis
165 We used a nonparametric χ^2 statistic to test whether the observed color associations for each of
166 the odors deviated from an equal distribution. Given that we were interested in possible
167 associations between particular odors and specific colors, we conducted post-hoc χ^2 comparison
168 using residual analysis (Bonferroni corrected, $\alpha = 0.005$ (0.05/10 colors)) between the
169 participant's responses to the colors for each odor.
170

Results

172 The mean age of the participants was 19.7 ± 0.8 years. The chi-square test was used to compare
173 the frequency of each odor with the color selected by the subjects, statistical analyses were
174 performed, and the results were evaluated by residue analysis (Table 1). The results of the χ^2
175 analysis showed that subjects' color responses to a given odor were not equally distributed
176 among the 10 color options (i.e., they responded to a particular color on significantly more than
177 10% of trials) (upper row of Table 1, Liminal Strawberry; $p < 2.72 \times 10^{-11}$, Subliminal
178 Strawberry; $p < 1.30 \times 10^{-5}$, Liminal Tomato; $p < 8.80 \times 10^{-3}$). Most of the odors used in the
179 experiment were significantly ($p < 0.005$) associated with at least one color (see a lower row of
180 Table 1 for the respective p values). As in Tables 1 and 2, the colors significantly selected for the
181 liminal (0.1% concentration) strawberry flavor were pink (50.0%) and red (23.7%). The color of
182 the subliminal (0.015% concentration) strawberry was pink (42.1%). The most significantly
183 selected color for the liminal (0.1% concentration) tomato flavor was orange (31.6%). No
184 significant difference was observed for any color in the subliminal (0.015% concentration)
185 tomato flavor.
186

Discussion

188 The data analysis of the present study reveals that the flavors of foods, whether presented at
189 liminal or subliminal concentrations, produce a cross-modal effect and evoke common colors.
190 Specifically, our results show that a characteristic flavor, such as the flavor of strawberries,
191 whether presented at liminal or subliminal concentrations, evokes a similar color to that of the
192 food. The color "pink" was significantly selected for both liminal (0.1% concentration) and
193 subliminal (0.015% concentration) strawberry flavors. This finding supports the previous studies
194 of Yamada et al. (2014), who found that visual choices were influenced by both conscious and

195 unconscious olfactory processing. Additionally, research has repeatedly shown that cognitive
196 processing can occur unconsciously (Tsuchiya & Adolphs, 2007) and that odors can influence
197 visual processing, even when presented at subliminal levels (Holland et al., 2005). The study by
198 Demattè et al. (2006) also reported a cross-modal association between odor and color in liminal
199 strawberry flavor. The present study extended previous research by demonstrating that this cross-
200 modal effect between odor and color was obtained in strawberries under both liminal and
201 subliminal conditions. However, in the case of tomatoes, which share common odors with other
202 agricultural products such as cucumbers, a cross-modal effect between color and odor was only
203 obtained under liminal conditions and not under subliminal conditions. This result is consistent
204 with the findings of previous neurophysiological studies (Barutchu, Spence, & Hymphereys,
205 2018), which have shown that cross-modal effects can occur even in subliminal stimuli.
206
207 The results of the present study suggest that strawberries are generally perceived as red and pink,
208 as there was a significant difference in the selection of these colors between varieties in the
209 experiment. Participants tended to select pink more frequently than red, which is consistent with
210 previous studies by Demattè et al. (2006). One possible explanation for this is that the strong
211 association between strawberries and pink, which is commonly used in packaging design and
212 food products associated with the flavor and aroma of strawberries in everyday life, may have
213 influenced the results of this experiment. Additionally, the significant selection of pink over red
214 may also be since many foods marketed as strawberry-flavored use more pink than red in their
215 packaging design or in the color of the food itself.
216
217 The results of the present study suggest that even at the subliminal concentrations (0.015%
218 concentration), a cross-modal effect was observed between the odor of strawberries and the color
219 pink. However, the color red, which was significantly chosen for the liminal strawberry flavor,
220 was not significantly chosen for the subliminal strawberry flavor, indicating that the cross-modal
221 effect was not as strong for the subliminal strawberry flavor as it was for the liminal strawberry
222 flavors. In contrast, no colors were significantly selected for subliminal tomato flavors, which
223 suggests that tomato flavors do not achieve the same cross-modal effects at subliminal and
224 liminal concentrations. This is consistent with previous research by Yamada et al. (2014), which
225 found that subliminal tomatoes were more difficult to judge than subliminal strawberries. It is
226 possible that the subliminal tomato flavor was more difficult to judge in the current study, which
227 could have led to variations in the participants' color choices.
228
229 It is well known that multisensory integration is stronger when the information reaching multiple
230 sensory receptors originates from the same, rather than a different, spatial region in the brain

231 (Stein & Meredith, 1993; Meredith, Keniston, Prickett, Bahwa, Cojany, Clemo, Allman, 2020).
232 In our experiment, the odors reached the olfactory cortex of the participants and were transmitted
233 to the hippocampus, which recalled the odors of the past. The hippocampus also contains
234 memories of food that are strongly bound to the odor, making it likely that participants can recall
235 the food and its colors from the odor. In contrast, in our experiment, orange was significantly
236 selected for the liminal (0.1% concentration) tomato flavor. While most tomatoes are red, there
237 are also yellow and orange varieties, which may explain why the significant difference was
238 orange rather than red. It is possible that participants' perception of the odor of tomatoes depends
239 on their accumulated experience. Additionally, participants typically reported that in the liminal
240 strawberries, but could not tell at all in other trials (liminal tomato, subliminal tomato, and
241 subliminal strawberries) due to the random repetition of stimuli. This suggests that the choice of
242 color for the liminal tomato odor may have been made unconsciously, resulting in a less vivid
243 choice of color. At this moment, there are no previous studies that can justify the choice of
244 orange to tomato flavor. However, it is unlikely that the participants have a particularly biased
245 opinion about the color of tomatoes. Future studies will justify the reasons for these results.
246
247 The findings of the present study suggest that the cross-modal effect under subliminal conditions
248 is flavor-specific. The aromatic components of tomatoes include cis-3-hexenal and trans-2-
249 hexenal (Wang and Seymour, 2017), which are not specific to tomatoes by are also found in
250 other fruits such as cucumbers, and cabbage. This may explain the variation in color selection
251 observed in the present study. In contrast, the aromatic components of strawberries include
252 alcohols, esters, and aldehydes, with furaneol as the main aromatic component (Schwab, 2013).
253 Since strawberries have a specific aromatic component, it is possible that the odor and color of
254 strawberries are easily recognized in association with strawberries. However, tomatoes lack a
255 specific aromatic component, which may have made it difficult for tomatoes to be recognized in
256 association with their odor and color. These findings suggest that the cross-modal effect under
257 subliminal conditions is dependent on the specific flavor being presented.
258

259 **Conclusion**
260 In conclusion, the present study found that a cross-modal effect of odor and color was achieved
261 for both liminal (0.1% concentration) strawberry and tomato flavors. The results showed that the
262 liminal strawberry flavor evoked a pink color while the liminal strawberry flavor evoked an
263 orange color. Furthermore, the study also found that the cross-modal effect between odor and
264 color was achieved under subliminal conditions specifically odor, but not for tomato odor. These
265 findings highlighted the importance of flavor-specificity in cross-modal effects, and the need for
266 further research to understand the underlying mechanisms of multisensory integration under
267 subliminal conditions.
268

269 Disclosure of interest
270 The authors report no conflict of interest.
271

272 Data availability statement
273 The data supporting the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author, KS,
274 upon reasonable request.

275

Author Contributions

277 Naoto Sato: Writing – Analysis, Review and Editing, Writing. Ayaka Sasaki: Investigation,

278 Resources, and Writing – Original draft. Mana Miyamoto: Resources, Review and Editing, and

279 Writing. Risa Santa: Resources, Review and Editing, Writing. Kenichi Shibuya: Analysis,

280 Review and Editing, Writing, Supervision.

281

References

283

284 Barutchu A, Spence C, Humphereys GW. 2018. Multisensory enhancement elicited by
285 unconscious visual stimuli. *Experimental Brain Research* 236:409-417.

286

287 Faul F, Erdfelder E, Lang AG, Buchner A. 2007. G*Power 3: A flexible statistical power
288 analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behavior Research*
289 *Methods* 39:175–191. DOI: 10.3758/bf03193146.

290

291 Cooke LJ, Wardle J, Gibson EL, Sapochnik M, Sheiham A & Lawson M. 2004. Demographic,
292 familial and trait predictors of fruit and vegetable consumption by pre-school children. *Public*
293 *Health and Nutrition* 7:295–302.

294

295 Galloway AT, Lee Y & Birch LL. 2003. Predictors and consequences of food neophobia and
296 pickiness in young girls. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association* 103:692–698.

297

298 Gottfried JA, Dolan RJ. 2003. The nose smells what the eye sees: Crossmodal visual facilitation of
299 human olfactory perception. *Neuron* 39:375–386. DOI: 10.1016/s0896-6273(03)00392-1.

300

301 Heatherly M, Dein M, Munafo JP, Luckett CR. 2019. Crossmodal correspondence between
302 color, shapes, and wine odors. *Food Quality and Preferences* 71:395-405.

303

304 Holland RW, Hendriks M, Aarts H. 2005. Smells like clean spirit: Nonconscious effects of scent
305 on cognition and behavior. *Psychological Science* 16:689–693. DOI: 10.1111/j.1467-
306 9280.2005.01597.x.

307

308 Kemp SE, Gilbert AN. 1997. Odor intensity and color lightness are correlated sensory
309 dimensions. *American Journal of Psychology* 110:35-46.

310

311 Li W, Moallem I, Paller KA, Gottfried JA. 2007. Subliminal smells can guide social preferences.
312 *Psychological Science* 18:1044–1049. DOI: 10.1111/j.1467-9280.2007.02023.x.

313

314 Luisa Demattè ML, Sanabria D, Spence C. 2006. Cross-Modal Associations Between Odors and
315 Colors. *Chemical Senses* 31:531–538. DOI: 10.1093/chemse/bjj057.

316

317 McHugh ML. 2013. The Chi-square test of independence. *Biochemia Medica* 23:143–149. DOI:
318 10.11613/bm.2013.018.

319

320 Meredith MA, Keniston LP, Prickett, EH, Bajwa M, Cojanu A, Clemo HR, & Allman BL. 2022.
321 What is a multisensory cortex? A laminar, connectional, and functional study of a ferret temporal
322 cortical multisensory area. *The Journal of Comparative Neurology*
323 https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.24859.

324

325 Morrot G, Brochet F, Dubourdieu D. 2001. The Color of Odors. *Brain and Language* 79:309–
326 320. DOI: 10.1006/brln.2001.2493.

327

328

329 Peirce JW. 2007. PsychoPy-Psychophysics Software in Python. *Journal of Neuroscience*
330 *Methods* 162:8–13. DOI: 10.1016/j.jneumeth.2006.11.017.

331

332 Peirce JW. 2009. Generating Stimuli for Neuroscience using PsychoPy. *Frontiers in*
333 *Neuroinformatics* 2:1–8.

334

335 Peirce JW, Gray JR, Simpson S, MacAskill MR, Höchenberger R, Sogo H, Kastman E, Lindeløv
336 JK. 2019. PsychoPy2: Experiments in behavior made easy. *Behavior Research Methods* 51:195–
337 203. DOI: 10.3758/s13428-018-01193-y.

338

339 Pliner P & Salvy SJ. 2006. Food neophobia in humans. In R. Shepherd & M. Raats (Eds.),
340 Psychology of food choice (pp. 75- 92). Wallingford: CABI Publishing.

341

342 Raudenbush B, Schroth F, Reilley S & Frank RA. 1998. Food neophobia, odor evaluation and
343 exploratory sniffing behavior. *Appetite* 31:171–183.

344

345 Sheifferstein HNJ, Howell BF. 2015. Using color-odor correspondences for fragrance packaging
346 design. *Food Quality and Preferences* 46; 17-25.

347

348 Sheifferstein HNJ, Tanudjaja I. 2094.Visualizing fragrances through colors, the mediating role of
349 emotions. *Perception* 33; 1249-1266.

350

351 Schwab W. 2013. Natural 4−hydroxy−2,5−dimethyl−3(2H)−furanone (Furaneol®). *Molecules*
352 18:6936−6951. DOI: 10.3390/molecules18066936.

353

354 Stein BE, Meredith MA. 1993. *The Merging of the Senses*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

355

356 Stein B & Stanford T. Multisensory integration: current issues from the perspective of the single
357 neuron. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience* 9:255–266. https://doi.org/10.1038/nrn2331
358 Tsuchiya N, Adolphs R. 2007. Emotion and consciousness. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*
359 11:158–167. DOI: 10.1016/j.tics.2007.01.005.

360

361 Wang D, Seymour GB. 2017. Tomato flavor: Lost and found? *Molecular Plant* 10:782–784.
362 DOI: 10.1016/j.molp.2017.04.010.

363

364   Yamada Y, Sasaki K, Kunieda S, Wada Y. 2014. Scents boost preference for novel fruits.
365   *Appetite* 81:102–107. DOI: 10.1016/j.appet.2014.06.006.

366

367   Figure legend

368   Figure 1 illustrates the task used in the experiment. Participants should judge which of the given
369   colors on the screen can best match the odor they smell, by clicking the corresponding color
370   square directly when they decide to choose. Participants responded with the mouse.

371

Table 1. The p-values and effect sizes for redidue analysis

1   Table 1. The p-values and effect sizes for residue analysis

	Strawberry		Tomato	
	Liminal	Subliminal	Liminal	Subliminal
χ^2	90.5	56.6	36.6	11.0
df	19	19	19	19
p	2.72×10^{-11}	1.30×10^{-5}	8.80×10^{-3}	0.924
Effect size w	1.52	1.21	0.97	0.53
Red	0.001 *	0.311	0.262	0.311
Yellow	0.037	0.262	0.262	0.957
Blue	0.037	0.122	0.037	0.311
Green	0.037	0.037	0.311	0.957
Orange	0.311	0.557	0.000 *	0.557
Pink	0.000 *	0.000 *	0.631	0.957
Brown	0.311	0.311	0.311	0.311
Turquoise	0.037	0.122	0.122	0.311
Purple	0.262	0.631	0.262	0.557
Gray	0.037	0.311	0.037	0.007

2   Results of χ2 analysis for each of the odors are reported in the upper and lower rows. Significant p-values in the

3   upper and lower rows mean that participants' color responses to a given odor were not equally distributed among

4   the 10 color options (i.e., they responded to a particular color on significantly more than 10% of the trials). The

5   lower rows show the results of the post hoc comparisons (Bonferroni corrected, α = 0.005 (0.05/10 colors) used

6   to detect responses to a particular color, along with the percentage of each color choice.

Table 2. Odors and related colors

Table 2. Odors and related colors

Odors	Related Colors
Strawberry (0.1%)	Pink (50.0%), Red (23.7 %)
Strawberry (0.015%)	Pink (42.1%)
Tomato (0.1%)	Orange (31.6 %)
Tomato (0.015%)	None

Figure 1

Figure 1

Figure 1 illustrates the task used in the experiment. Participants should judge which of the given colors on the screen can best match the odor they smell, by clicking the corresponding color square directly when they decide to choose. Participants responded with the mouse.

Red (231, 0, 0)   Yellow (248, 248, 0)   Blue (0, 48, 255)   Green (0, 85, 0)

Orange (255, 85, 12)   Pink (255, 0, 193)   Brown (98, 48, 0)   Purple (99, 13, 253)

Turquoise (0, 229, 189)   Ash (56, 56, 56)