

# Relationships between cheese composition, rheological and sensory properties highlighted using the BaGaTel database

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1	Relationships between cheese composition, rheological and sensory properties
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# 27 ABSTRACT

The BaGaTel database, guided by an ontology of dairy gels, has been developed to organise and integrate data on dairy products (process, composition, structure, nutritional, sensory and environmental quality), using a common vocabulary and metadata organisation. BaGaTel was queried to explore relationships between composition, rheological properties and sensory perception in 68 model cheeses from six different projects. Principal component analyses were performed on the total set of 68 samples and on sample subsets. Sensory hardness was well explained by the low moisture-in-non-fat-substances ratio. As expected, salty taste was correlated with salt content but, interestingly, in cheese with a low amount of salt, salty taste was less intense at low water content and was perceived better with increased chewing activity. In cheeses with a high amount of salt, salty test was less intense at high protein content. Salty taste was also influenced by lipid content and correlated with fat perception. 

- 45 1. Introduction
- 46

The food processing sector is facing sustainability challenges of growing complexity, 47 such as global warming, increase of overweight, obesity or population aging. These problems 48 make it necessary for the food industry to develop new strategies to formulate well-balanced 49 50 products in terms of nutritional/environmental requirements and acceptability by consumers. 51 However, changes in food composition highly influence the structure of food and, as a consequence, the sensory properties. A lot of literature has been devoted to the effect of food 52 reformulation (salt/sugar/fat reduction, substitution of animal by plant proteins, use of more 53 54 sustainable raw materials), on nutritional and sensory properties together with consumer acceptability. However, the results available in the literature are difficult to compare due to 55 the large variety of formulations, the lack of harmonisation of methodologies used for the 56 57 analyses and parameters considered.

Lawrence et al. (2012a) and Lawrence, Septier, Achilleos, Courcoux, and Salles 58 59 (2012b) studied eighteen lipoprotein matrices (lipid-protein matrices) varying in dry matter and lipid contents and observed that sensory texture descriptors were correlated with 60 rheological parameters and that saltiness perception was correlated with salt content, but that 61 62 other factors were involved such as lipid composition or chewing behaviour. It is noteworthy that these effects were dependent on salt content. In the case of products with a low salt 63 content, saltiness perception was higher at a high dry matter content and low lipid/dry matter 64 ratio, but the effect was opposite at high salt content. In another project on eight model 65 cheeses varying in lipid/dry matter, salt level and pH at renneting, Syarifuddin, Septier, 66 Salles, and Thomas-Danguin (2016) observed that the three composition factors (salt, fat 67 content and pH at renneting) influenced the sensory texture of model cheeses and that there 68 were some interactions between these factors. Lipid content influenced the texture of the 69

cheese, mainly the melting properties, but high fat cheeses were also perceived as less salty,
which was explained by a barrier effect of fat towards the release of salt in the mouth, this
effect being modulated by salt level and pH.

73 Boisard et al. (2014b) studied six model cheeses varying in lipid/protein ratio, at similar dry matter contents, and observed that saltiness perception was explained by sodium 74 75 ion release in saliva and sodium ion mobility in the food matrix. This relationship between 76 saltiness and sodium ion mobility was also observed in meat products (Foucat, Donnat, & 77 Renou, 2003; Foucat, Donnat, Joffraud, Cardinal, & Renou, 2004). Moreover, for a given salt content, model cheeses with a higher lipid/protein ratio were perceived as saltier. The authors 78 79 suggested that this result could be due to sensory fatty-salty interactions (Boisard et al., 2014b). Lauverjat, Déléris, Tréléa, Salles, and Souchon et al. (2009) studied model cheeses 80 varying in lipid and dry matter contents and found that the diffusion of sodium ions was 81 82 higher in cheeses with low dry matter and protein contents, which could be explained by a modification of cheese microstructure (Floury et al., 2009a; Floury, Rouaud, Le Poullennec, 83 84 & Famelart, 2009b). However, these authors did not carry out sensory tests to assess the effect on saltiness perception. Phan et al. (2008), working on four model cheeses varying in lipid 85 content and cheese texture, found that a low fat content and consequently a high water content 86 87 contributed to a higher NaCl release at the beginning of chewing and thus to a higher perception of saltiness. Working on solid lipoproteic colloid foods, Kuo and Lee (2017) found 88 that saltiness perception was dependent on texture perception and mainly on the perception of 89 syneresis and explained this by a large amount of serum released during gel compression in 90 91 the mouth, which could contribute to a large amount of sodium ions being available for the taste receptors and thus to an increased perception of saltiness. 92

All the information available on these individual projects is difficult to generalise todairy foods with a wider range of composition, due to the limited number of samples studied

and to the small variability in composition in one specific project. Nevertheless, it seems 95 96 highly relevant to be able to gather all the information available in the literature relative to the impact of food formulation on physicochemical and sensory properties, to identify or explore 97 principles for food formulation following nutritional/environmental requirements. 98 To tackle this challenge, a database, called BaGaTel, has been built, guided by a 99 process and observation ontology in food science, PO<sup>2</sup> ontology (Ibanescu, Dibie, Dervaux, 100 Guichard, & Raad, 2016) and hosted by the PLASTIC platform INRAE 101 (https://www6.inrae.fr/pfl-cepia/). This database gathers data in the field of reformulation of 102 dairy products taking into account their nutritional, sensory and environmental properties, 103 104 using a consensual model and a shared structured vocabulary (available online at http://agroportal.lirmm.fr/ontologies/PO2\_DG/?p=summary). Data from a total of 65 different 105 projects have been imported in BaGaTel (list available at 106 107 http://plasticnet.grignon.inra.fr/portailbagatel/); 693 samples, 450 methods, 297 materials and 1045 measured characteristics are included, up to November 2020. The data are either non-108 109 published but used with the permission of the authors or are extracted from the literature. The 110 database is continuously enriched with data from new articles in the field. This database has already been successively used to (i) find correlations between one rheological parameter, the 111 Young's modulus and one sensory descriptor, i.e., firmness in hard cheeses, (ii) estimate 112 missing experimental data due to this correlation and (iii) estimate the environmental impact 113 for specific foods, for which a process was described in BaGaTel (Pénicaud et al., 2019). 114 In the present paper, we aim to demonstrate that the BaGaTel database can be 115 successfully used (i) to gather data obtained in different projects that used similar 116 methodologies and (ii) to reach a critical number of samples from similar food products 117 differing in composition, to better understand the relationships between physico-chemical data 118

and sensory perception. The final objective would be to find general rules to reformulate dairyproducts with a low salt/fat content and acceptable for the consumers.

- 121
- 122 **2.** Material and methods
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- 124 2.1. Data preparation
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Specific queries were done to export data from the BaGaTel database. We searched for 126 samples, which had data on composition, rheological properties and sensory profile analyses. 127 128 In BaGaTel, 271 samples are characterised by rheological data, 365 samples by sensory data, while 228 samples by both sets of data. However, the composition and structure of the dairy 129 products and the measured variables were often very different. We thus restricted our query to 130 131 hard cheeses and related model cheeses. For such types of cheeses, the materials and methods used for rheological analyses were comparable (data available in BaGaTel) and the bulk of 132 sensory description can be considered as quite similar. 133

We finally selected 68 cheese samples (hard-type model cheeses) from six different 134 projects. These samples had been characterised for their composition (lipid, protein, water, 135 136 sodium ions), sensory properties (salty, fatty, springy, hard/firm, crumbly, sticky, melting, granular, dry), rheological properties (Young modulus, fracture stress, fracture strain, work at 137 fracture) and chewing activity parameters (total muscular work, number of chewing cycles, 138 chewing duration). The whole data set (2021-01-22\_cheese-compo-rheo-senso\_Guichard-139 V3.tab, sheet whole-dataset) is available on-line (Guichard et al., 2020). The description of 140 the samples, data, associated metadata, experimental, material and analysis methods, together 141 with the scatter-plots of the values in the different projects (Figs. S1–S5), are available in a 142 co-submitted data paper (Guichard et al., 2021). The information concerning the different 143

projects (title, abstract, coordinator, scientists involved, DOI of publications) are available on
line in the database website (http://plasticnet.grignon.inra.fr/portailbagatel/). For each project,
the number of samples, the lipid, protein, water, salt contents and the pH are listed in Table 1,
along with the literature references.

To standardise the data on composition, we first aligned all content to the same unit (g 148 kg<sup>-1</sup> product) and calculated for each sample the amount of sodium ions (Na<sup>+</sup>), considering 149 150 both the amount of NaCl added and the sodium ions from the melting salts. However, even if it is well known that saltiness perception is due to the activation of taste ion channels by 151 sodium ions (Lewandowski, Sukumaran, Margolskee, & Bachmanov, 2016), it is modulated 152 153 by the associated anion (Vanderklaauw & Smith, 1995), with sodium salts containing small anions being perceived as saltier than those with large anions. Even if the sodium ions present 154 in the melting salts (emulsifying agents) have less impact on saltiness perception than those 155 156 from added NaCl, we decided to take it into account.

The final list of composition variables is the following: water, protein, lipid, Na<sup>+</sup>. We 157 also added three variables. Lipid/DM is the ratio of lipids per dry matter and represents the 158 impact of lipids in the lipid/protein network and food texture. Na<sup>+</sup>/water is the amount of 159 sodium ions in the water phase and should better represent the concentration in sodium ions 160 161 available for the taste receptors. The ratio moisture-in-non-fat-substances (MNFS) is a useful variable in cheese manufacturing and is used in the classification of cheeses (Codex Standard 162 283-1978, FAO). It gives an estimation of the water/ protein ratio and influences a wide range 163 of textural characteristics (Lucey, Johnson, & Horne, 2003). The values for these variables in 164 the different samples were calculated and uploaded in the database. To include a greater 165 number of samples and variables, we performed multiple linear regressions to estimate 166 missing data (See 2.2.1). 167

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#### 169 2.2. *Multivariate statistical analysis*

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#### 171 2.2.1. Multiple linear regression

The data extracted from BaGaTel had missing values for several parameters. MLR 172 (XLStat, Addinsoft, Paris, France) was applied to estimate missing values. In addition to 173 Young's modulus (YM) and fracture stress (FS), other rheological parameters such as fracture 174 175 strain (CS) and work to fracture (WF) were available for several samples. Thus, we estimated the missing values for CS and WF, separately, using multiple linear regression (MLR) with 176 the following variables: Na<sup>+</sup>, lipid, protein, water, lipid/DM, YM, FS. Considering sensory 177 178 profiles, the descriptor hard/firm was estimated with MLR based on the following variables: Na<sup>+</sup>, lipid, protein, water, lipid/DM, YM, FS, but crumbliness and stickiness were estimated 179 separately with the same variables, excluding lipid because of strong multicolinearity. The 180 181 dataset with the estimated data (2021-01-22\_cheese-compo-rheo-senso\_Guichard-V3.tab, sheet: dataset+estimated-data) and the parameters of the MLR used for the estimation (2021-182 01-22\_cheese-compo-rheo-senso\_Guichard-V3.tab, sheet: missing-data-estimation) are 183 available on-line (Guichard et al., 2021). Another alternative would be to use the missMDA 184 (R package), which performs PCA on incomplete data sets (Josse & Husson, 2016). We 185 186 performed PCA with the two methods and calculated the RV coefficient, which is of 0.992, confirming that, in our case, with only few missing data, the mode of estimation has very little 187 impact on the PCA results. We thus used the data estimated using MLR. 188

189

#### 190 2.2.2. Principal component analysis

Principal component analyses (PCAs) were performed on different subsets of data to
highlight the relationships between food composition, food rheology and sensory perception.
PCAs were performed with XLStat (Addinsoft, Paris, France).

194	On the total dataset of 68 samples, a PCA was done on the 7 variables of composition								
195	two sensory descriptors (salty and hard/firm) and two rheological parameters (YM and FS).								
196	We also performed PCA on two subsets, one subset of 32 samples (Adi, Lawrence, PraSel								
197	and Tarrega projects) with a sodium ion content below 5 g kg <sup>-1</sup> , and a second subset of 36								
198	samples (Adi, Boisard, Lawrence, Phan and Tarrega projects) with a sodium ion content								
199	higher than 5 g kg <sup>-1</sup> . As for some projects, measurements on chewing behaviour were								
200	obtaine	ed (Total muscular work, Number of chewing cycles, Chewing duration), we also							
201	perform	ned two additional PCAs, using only the samples with data on chewing behaviour, to							
202	assess	(i) the impact of chewing behaviour on sensory perception and assess (ii) the							
203	hypothesis formulated by Lawrence et al. (2012b) that the relationship between chewing								
204	behavi	our and saltiness was dependent on salt content. For the low sodium content, the PCA							
205	was done on thirteen samples from two projects (Lawrence and Tarrega projects) and, for the								
206	high sodium ion content, the PCA was done on fifteen samples from three projects (Boisard,								
207	Lawrence and Phan projects).								
208		Finally, a PCA was performed on the 22 samples with all the sensory descriptors							
209	(salty,	hard/firm, fatty, springy, crumbly and sticky), in the aim to better understand the							
210	relation	nships between fat perception and saltiness of model hard cheeses.							
211		For each PCA, values of Pearson correlations between variables were calculated with							
212	a signi	ficance level of 95%. The matrices of correlation are available as supplementary tables							
213	in the o	co-submitted data-paper (Guichard et al., 2021).							
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215	3.	Results							
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217	3.1.	Explaining cheese hardness and salty taste by composition and rheological data							

### 219 *3.1.1.* Data set of 68 samples and 11 variables

220 A PCA was done on the set of 68 samples containing data for the two sensory descriptors hard/firm and salty (estimated data for hard/firm in Phan project), available on-221 222 line (2021-01-22\_cheese-compo-rheo-senso\_Guichard-V3.tab, sheet: dataset\_PCA-68samples). The map of the samples (Fig. 1A,B) shows that there is a good overlap of the 223 224 samples from the different projects. Figure 1C,D represents the map of the variables on the three main dimensions, which account for 81.26 % of total information. On axis 1, water 225 content (negative part of axis 1) is opposed to sodium ion and lipid contents (positive part of 226 axis 1). On axis 2, protein content (positive part of axis 2) is opposed to lipid/DM content 227 228 (negative part of axis 2). The sensory descriptor hard/firm is located on the positive part of axis 2 close to the protein content and opposed to moisture-in-non-fat-substances (Fig. 1C). 229 Looking at the correlation matrix (Table S1), hard/firm was negatively correlated with level 230 231 of moisture-in-non-fat-substances (-0.723) and positively correlated with protein (0.542) and with the Young's modulus (0.629). The salty taste is located on the positive part of axis 3 232 233 (Fig. 1B) but also on the positive part of axis 1 and positively correlated with the sodium ion content (0.672) and Na<sup>+</sup>/water (0.626). A high correlation (0.972) was observed between Na+ 234 and Na<sup>+</sup>/water; this suggests that, in such food matrices, most of the sodium ions are free and 235 236 solubilised in the water phase. However, a lower correlation (0.861) was observed between lipid and lipid/DM. In fact, lipid/DM was negatively correlated with the protein content (-237 (0.804) while MNFS was highly negatively correlated (-0.723) with sensory hardness (graphic 238 representation in Guichard et al., 2021: Fig. S6). 239

Because of the large differences in sodium ion content in our dataset and since several authors found different conclusions as a function of salt content, the initial set of samples was divided into two subsets according to the sodium ion content (below or above 5 g kg<sup>-1</sup> sodium ion). Two other PCA analyses were performed on these subsets of samples.

# 245 *3.1.1.1. Subset of samples with a low sodium ions content*

The PCA on samples with a low sodium ion content is plotted on Fig. 2A (32 samples 246 247 from projects Adi, Lawrence, PraSel and Tarrega, matrix of Pearson correlations in Guichard et al., 2021: Table S2); the two main components accounted for 70.06% of the information. 248 249 Cheese sensory hardness (hard/firm) is located on the positive part of axis 2 (31.16% of the 250 information), together with protein content, justified by a positive correlation between 251 hard/firm and protein (0.717) and a negative correlation with MNFS (-0.641). Salty taste is located on the positive part of axis 1 (38.90% of the information), together with sodium ion 252 253 content and was positively correlated with Na<sup>+</sup> (0.692) and Na<sup>+</sup>/water (0.693). Water content is located on the negative part of axis 1 and was negatively correlated with salty taste (-254 0.398). A positive correlation was also observed between salty taste and fracture stress 255 256 (0.493).

257

# 258 *3.1.1.2.* Subset of samples with a high sodium ions content

The PCA on samples with a high sodium ions content is plotted on Fig. 2B (36 259 samples from projects Adi, Boisard, Lawrence, Phan and PraSel, matrix of Pearson 260 correlations in Guichard et al., 2021: Table S3); the two main components account for 65.53% 261 of the information. On axis 1, which accounts for 41.74% of the information, the water 262 content is located opposite to the sodium and lipid content. Protein content is located on the 263 positive part of axis 2 (23.79% of the information), opposed to the lipid/DM ratio. Salty taste 264 is located on the positive part of axis 2 and positively correlated with protein content (0.316); 265 however, it is not well represented on this PCA plot. It has to be noticed that salty taste has a 266 lower positive correlation with the amount of sodium ions compared with the analysis 267 including samples with a low sodium content (0.417 versus 0.692). The sensory descriptor 268

hard/firm is located opposite to MNFS on this plane, due to a high negative correlation (-0.774).

271

# 272 *3.1.2. Data set of 28 samples with data on chewing behaviour*

Data on chewing behaviour are available in four projects (Boisard, Lawrence, Phan 273 274 and Tarrega projects). A subset of these samples with the data on chewing activity was 275 selected (2021-01-22\_cheese-compo-rheo-senso\_Guichard-V3.tab, sheet: dataset\_chewing-276 activity). Because it was previously observed that the relationships between saltiness and chewing behaviour were highly dependent on salt content (Lawrence et al., 2012b), PCAs 277 278 were performed on two subsets of samples according to their sodium ion contents. The aim of this analysis was to increase the number of samples compared with the Lawrence project 279 (Lawrence et al., 2012b). The added samples had a different composition and especially a 280 281 lower amount of water and a harder texture, so that they required a more intense chewing activity. 282

A first PCA was performed on a subset of 13 samples with a low sodium ion content (projects Lawrence and Tarrega). The results (Fig. 3A; Guichard et al., 2021: Table S4) showed that salty taste is located on the positive part of axis 1, together with the sodium ion content and, to a lesser extent, the lipid content and the total muscular work (TMW). This result confirms that, at a low sodium content, increasing chewing activity increased the amount of sodium released in saliva and enhanced salty taste.

On the PCA on the 15 samples with a high sodium ion content (Boisard, Lawrence and Phan projects, Fig. 3B; Guichard et al., 2021: Table S5), salty taste is located on the positive part of axis 2, together with hard/firm sensory perception, and opposite to total muscular work (TMW) and fracture stress (FS). This observation suggests that the amount of sodium ions

was high enough in the cheese, to easily access the taste cells and induce a salty taste withouta strong chewing activity.

295	In both PCA analyses, the number of chewing cycles (NCC) is located on the negative
296	part of axis 1, opposite to the lipid content and was negatively correlated with lipid content (-
297	0.785 at low sodium content and -0.790 at high sodium ions content) and lipid/DM (-0.662 at
298	low sodium ion content and -0.704 at high sodium ion content).
299	
300	3.2. Explaining perception of saltiness and fat
301	
302	The individual studies showed different relationships between lipid composition and
303	salty taste. To better understand the influence of lipid content and fat perception on salty taste,
304	a complementary analysis was carried out on a limited number of projects and samples, for
305	which the intensity of fat perception (fatty descriptor) was available.
306	A subset of 22 samples from three projects (Adi, Boisard, Tarrega projects), in which
307	fatty and springy descriptors were assessed, was extracted. We included in this subset other
308	sensory descriptors (crumbly and sticky) and estimations of these descriptors in the case of
309	the Adi project. Thus, this subset contains a total of six sensory descriptors (2021-01-
310	22_cheese-compo-rheo-senso_Guichard-V3.tab, sheet: dataset_22samples-fatty).
311	Fig. 4A,B shows the position of the variables on the three main dimensions of the
312	PCA, which account for 79.05% of total information (31.91% for dimension 1, 29.76% for
313	dimension 2 and 17.38% for dimension 3). On axis 1, samples are separated according to their
314	lipid and sodium ion content on its positive part and protein and water content on its negative
315	part. On axis 2, samples are separated according to their Young's modulus and fracture stress
316	on its positive part and MNFS on its negative part. On axis 3, samples are separated according
317	to their water content on its positive part. The sensory descriptor hard/firm, located on the

negative part of axis 1 and positive part of axis 2, was positively correlated (Guichard et al.,
2021: Table S6) with the protein content (0.620), the Young's modulus (0.503) and fracture
stress (0.402) and negatively with MNFS (-0.606).

321 The descriptor fatty is located on the positive part of axis 1, and was positively correlated with the lipid content (0.578). The descriptor crumbly is located on the positive 322 part of axis 2, and was positively correlated with the rheological parameter Young's modulus 323 324 (0.698). The descriptor spring is located on the positive part of axis 2 and was positively 325 correlated with the Young's modulus (0.465) and the fracture stress (0.464). The descriptor sticky is located on the positive part of axis 1 and was positively correlated with lipid/DM 326 327 (0.479) and negatively correlated with protein (-0.740). The descriptor salty is not well represented on the first plane but is located on the positive part of axis 3. The correlations 328 329 between salty and the variables of composition are lower than 0.4, even with Na<sup>+</sup> (0.358). 330 Concerning the relationships between sensory descriptors, negative correlations were found between hard/firm and both sticky (-0.702) and fatty (-0.651). Interestingly, the descriptor 331 332 salty was positively correlated with the sensory descriptor fatty (0.613).

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## 334 **4. Discussion**

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The principal component analyses, conducted on different sets of samples extracted from BaGaTel database, confirmed previous hypotheses on the effect of the composition and structure of model cheeses on their sensory perception. In this sense, the present paper was able to generalise observations made on a small number of samples, but also highlighted new relationships.

341

### 342 4.1. Impact of cheese composition on texture

344	The sensory descriptor most explained by cheese matrix composition and structure
345	was hardness (hard/firm). As expected, cheese hardness was explained by a high protein
346	content and low water content. Hence the highest correlation was observed with the moisture-
347	in-non-fat-substances (MNFS), representative of the ratio water/ protein network, meaning
348	that the lipid content has only a low impact on sensory hardness of these products. The strong
349	correlation observed between cheese sensory hardness and/or firmness and rheological
350	parameters (Young's modulus and fracture stress) was previously observed (Brown,
351	Foegeding, Daubert, Drake, & Gumpertz, 2003, Foegeding, Brown, Drake, & Daubert, 2003).
352	The added value of our analyses is to confirm that this relationship is also observed when
353	merging data from different projects and obtained in different experimental conditions, thus
354	highlighting the strength of this relationship. Another important result is that MNFS is a very
355	relevant parameter to predict sensory hardness.
356	In the analyses of the different datasets, the sodium ion content was positively

correlated with the Young's modulus and the fracture stress. This supports the knowledge that 357 sodium ions strongly participate in the protein network. In cheese, salt addition improves 358 casein hydration due to a strong binding of sodium ions (Floury et al., 2009a,b), which can 359 influence cheese texture differently according to the type of cheese and its composition in 360 361 other cations, such as calcium ions. The effect of salt content on cheese texture varies according to the manufacturing process. In rennet-induced lipoprotein gelled matrices, an 362 increase in salt content and pH induced a decrease in hardness and firmness, which was 363 explained by an effect of the substitution of divalent calcium ions by monovalent sodium ions 364 in the casein network (Lawrence et al., 2012a). 365

In other model cheeses differing in lipid/protein ratio, samples with added salt were
perceived as being less fragmented, hard, elastic and compact (Boisard et al., 2014a), which

could be explained by a reduction of coagulation efficiency at high salt content (Saint-Eve, 368 369 Lauverjat, Magnan, Deleris, & Souchon, 2009). However, in real cheeses such as Cheddar, Camembert, feta, gaziantep, mozzarella and Munster cheeses, an increase in salt-to-moisture 370 ratio induced an increase in hardness for S/M values in the range of 0.4 to 12% (w/w) 371 (Guinee, 2004). The cheeses with a high salt-to-moisture content had also a low moisture 372 content (Chevanan, Muthukumarappan, Upreti, & Metzger, 2006). Similar observations were 373 374 reported for Cheddar cheeses produced with different salt contents, where a reduction in salt levels resulted in increased proteolysis, together with moisture, fat-in-DM and moisture-in-375 non-fat substances, and as a consequence decreased hardness (Murtaza et al., 2014). Different 376 377 effects were observed in different types of mozzarella pasta filata cheeses. In high moisture mozzarella cheeses, an increase in sodium content increased the protein water-holding 378 capacity so that the dry matter content is reduced, leading to decreased hardness (Bahler, 379 380 Kunz, & Hinrichs, 2016). In contrast, in another type of mozzarella cheese, a lower addition of salt in the curd decreased hardness, of both full-fat and reduced-fat cheeses (Henneberry, 381 Wilkinson, Kilcawley, Kelly, & Guinee, 2015), this effect being modulated by the calcium 382 content. There is a lack of information on the exact mineral composition of these cheese 383 samples, which makes it difficult to elucidate the combined effect of minerals such as calcium 384 385 and sodium on cheese structure and hardness.

The different effects observed in the literature on the sodium ion content and the cheese sensory support our conclusion that sodium ion content is not directly correlated with sensory hardness and that MNFS is the main parameter responsible for sensory hardness, with a high negative correlation (-0.723). The descriptor hard/firm was neither correlated with the lipid content 0.028) nor with the lipid/dry matter content (-0.231). In real cheeses, it was observed that Cheddar cheeses with a high-fat content were perceived as less springy and firm than low-fat cheeses, which was explained by a modification of the protein network and of the

fat-protein interface; full-fat cheeses presented weak points in the protein network, thus 393 394 inducing more breaking down at fracture and during chewing and consequently a decrease in the sensory firmness (Rogers et al., 2009). In our analysis on three projects, in which other 395 396 sensory descriptors than hardness were measured, lipid/DM was negatively correlated with the descriptors hard/firm (-0.607) and crumbly (-0.448) and positively with sticky (0.479). 397 Our hypothesis was that a high lipid content may increase the perception of other sensory 398 399 descriptors such as stickiness and thus decrease the perception of hardness. The negative effect of lipid/DM ratio on crumbliness means that cheeses with a reduced fat content tend to 400 break more easily. It has to be noted that not only the lipid content but also the geometry of 401 402 the fat globules and the nature of the interface may modify the cheese structure (Yang, Rogers, Berry, & Foegeding, 2011) and thus the texture, but such data were not available in 403 404 the projects considered.

405

# 406 *4.2.* Impact of cheese composition and rheological properties on salty taste

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The PCA performed on two subsets of samples selected according to the sodium ion 408 content showed that the impact of lipid, protein and water on salty taste depended on salt 409 410 level. At a low sodium content, salty taste perception was lower in cheeses with a high water content, which confirms previous observations (Lawrence et al., 2012a). This can be 411 explained by a dilution effect of sodium ions in water and saliva. In cheeses with a low water 412 content, at a low level of sodium ions, the ions are more concentrated in the water phase 413 414 allowing a higher transfer into saliva to reach the ionic channels, and thus to give a more intense signal for perception. Salty taste was also positively correlated with fracture stress, 415 which means that a more resistant cheese will favour the release of sodium ions in saliva and 416 thus salty taste perception. 417

A preliminary study on nine cheddar cheeses varying in composition and texture 418 419 (Jack, Piggott, & Paterson, 1995) previously suggested that hard cheeses required more chewing which induced a higher rate of sodium release and thus a higher salty taste. This 420 421 matrix effect was also noticed with camembert cheeses (Engel, Nicklaus, Septier, Salles, & Le Quere, 2001), in which saltiness was perceived with a higher intensity in cheeses with a brittle 422 423 texture and a greater ability to release water and thus water-soluble molecules such as sodium 424 ions. This effect of the chewing process on salty taste was validated by the present study. Indeed, the PCA on 13 samples for which data on chewing behaviour were available showed 425 that, at a low sodium content, an intense chewing activity increased salty taste. This finding 426 427 suggests that this intense chewing activity increases the amount of sodium released in saliva and eases their access to the taste cells to produce an intense salty taste. This mechanism was 428 already suggested in a previous publication on the data obtained with five lipoprotein matrices 429 430 (Lawrence et al., 2012b). The present analysis included samples from other projects, which needed a higher chewing activity (Guichard et al., 2021: Fig. S4) and thus strongly reinforces 431 432 the hypothesis.

At high sodium content, the intensity of salty taste was less correlated with the amount 433 of sodium in cheese, which can be explained by the fact that the level of available sodium 434 435 ions is sufficient to induce a salty taste and that the texture/structure of the food matrix thus plays a minor role. In contrast to what was observed in low-salt samples, salty taste was less 436 perceived in the hardest products, as already shown by Lawrence et al. (2012b). In the present 437 study, the positive effect of lipid content on salty taste previously observed by Lawrence et al. 438 (2012b) at high salt content, was not confirmed, which suggests that this specific effect cannot 439 be generalised to a wider range of cheese matrices. 440

441

442

4.3.

Relationships between composition, rheological properties and sensory perception

The PCA carried out on the set of data that included all the sensory descriptors allowed general trends to be identified that could explain cheese sensory perception as a function of cheese composition and rheological properties, and to clarify the relationships between salty and fatty perception. The cheeses with a high protein and low lipid content were perceived as harder and less fatty and sticky (Rogers et al., 2009).

449 In terms of the correlations between variables (Guichard et al., 2021: Table S6), the descriptor fatty does not show a high correlation with the lipid content (0.578). This could be 450 partly explained by the fact that fatty perception is a multimodal perception involving 451 452 olfactory, gustatory and tactile perception (Guichard, Galindo-Cuspinera, & Feron, 2018). Many volatile compounds are described with fatty odour descriptors, such as butter, creamy, 453 and thus contribute to fat perception. Indeed, the addition of butter aroma in model cheeses 454 455 was found to increase global fat perception (Syarifuddin et al., 2016). The gustatory dimension of fat perception is due to the presence of free fatty acids (Chale-Rush, Burgess, & 456 457 Mattes, 2007). Concerning the tactile modality, it has been clearly demonstrated that the presence of lipids in foods is associated with textural descriptors such as meltability, 458 spreadability and greasy film (Di Monaco, Giancone, Cavella, & Masi, 2008). Thus, not only 459 460 the lipid content but also its composition in odorant compounds and its impact on the texture are likely to drive global fat perception. In our study, the sensory descriptor fatty is less 461 correlated with the ratio lipid/dry matter (0.367) than with the lipid content (0.578), whereas 462 the descriptor sticky is more correlated with the ratio lipid/dry matter (0.479) than with the 463 lipid content (0.279). This observation suggests that fatty perception is much more related to 464 the lipid content per se than to the lipid-protein network. However, stickiness, which is a 465 texture attribute, is more influenced by the lipid-protein network, as suggested before in the 466 literature. 467

Several factors have been found to contribute to stickiness. In different hard cheeses 468 469 produced with two levels of fat, a lower fat content contributed to a lower stickiness (Ritvanen et al., 2005). In model processed cheese analogues, cheeses with high moisture 470 content were found stickier than cheeses with lower moisture levels (Pereira, Bennett, 471 McMath, & Luckman, 2002), which was explained by the weakening of the protein structure 472 induced by water, acting as lubricant for the movement of casein in relation to fat. Such a 473 474 negative correlation was also observed, using texture profile analysis, between hardness and stickiness in nonfat processed cheeses (Brickley et al., 2008). The addition of an emulsifying 475 salt which solubilises the colloidal calcium phosphate and hydrates caseins induced a decrease 476 477 in rheological hardness and an increase in stickiness; however, no sensory analyses were done on these cheeses (Brickley et al., 2008). 478

479

### 480 4.4. Relationships between salty and fatty perception

481

It was observed that salty and fatty sensory descriptors are positively correlated 482 (0.613; Guichard et al., 2021: Table S6, Fig. S7) and that fatty perception was correlated with 483 the lipid content (0.578) but not salty (0.232). Salty taste was also not well explained by salt 484 content (0358). Conversely, even if fatty perception was clearly explained by lipid content, it 485 was only poorly related to sodium ions content (0.14). In the literature, contradictory results 486 were reported with regard to the impact of lipid content on salty taste. A very small positive 487 correlation was observed between lipid content and salty taste (0.232). Our results cannot 488 confirm a previous hypothesis that an increase in lipid content in dairy products increased the 489 salt content in the water phase and thus the perception of salty taste (Metcalf & Vickers, 490 491 2002). The opposite effect has also been reported (Lynch, Liu, Mela, & Macfie, 1993; Rietberg, Rousseau, & Duizer, 2012; Suzuki, Zhong, Lee, & Martini, 2014) and explained by 492

a lipid layer coating the tongue and limiting the access of sodium ions to the taste cells.
However, this coating effect of lipids limiting saltiness perception was never clearly
demonstrated.

An alternative hypothesis suggested direct interactions at the peripheral level between 496 fatty acids and channel taste buds (Gilbertson, Liu, Kim, Burks, & Hansen, 2005), but again 497 498 without clear demonstration. A more plausible explanation would be to consider perceptual 499 interactions between salty and fatty perceptions at the central level. The correlation between 500 salty taste and fatty perception was higher (0.613) than that between salty taste and lipid content (0.232), thus advocating for perceptual interactions between these two perceptions. 501 502 This hypothesis is supported by previous reports showing that a fat-associated butter aroma can enhance not only fat perception but also salty taste perception in model dairy products 503 (Syarifuddin et al., 2016). Moreover, as plotted on Guichard et al. (2021) Fig. S7, the impact 504 505 of fat perception on salty taste is more pronounced for the highest values of fatty descriptor. As fat is a multimodal perception, dedicated experiments should be performed to specifically 506 507 test the impact of the different sensory modalities of fat perception on salty taste.

508

## 509 5. Conclusions

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The multivariate simultaneous analyses of the results of six different projects covering a wider range of compositions and structures of cheeses led us to confirm several hypotheses raised in individual projects. The sensory hardness was negatively correlated with the moisture-in-non-fat-substances, whatever the lipid content. The protein and lipid content highly influenced sensory texture of cheese such as firmness, crumbliness and stickiness, salt content impacted firmness, and a high chewing activity was required to increase salty taste in low-salt cheeses. Moreover, this integrative approach allowed clarifying the perception of

salty and fatty taste in cheese, highlighting the contrasted influence of cheese composition on 518 519 salty taste depending on the salt level. The results also reinforced the hypotheses concerning fatty/salty sensory interactions in the context of cheese, based on results obtained from 520 521 different projects and with different sensory panels. Therefore, the BaGaTel database appears of tremendous support not only to confirm previous hypotheses, but to propose new 522 523 formulations for well-balanced products in terms of nutritional requirements and sensory 524 acceptability by consumers. However, even though it was possible to estimate some missing 525 data, our study highlights the need to gather data on a great number of relevant parameters, measured in similar conditions, in different projects. 526 527 Our database allows to gather data from different projects, using a common vocabulary and structuration with their associated metadata (e.g., materials, methods, 528 529 experimental conditions). A follow-up of this analysis could be to propose some 530 harmonisation of the methods used and suggest useful parameters to be measured in foods, to efficiently exploit data from different projects, in the objective of a FAIR data management. 531 532 Another objective is to exploit the data obtained on different types of dairy products, varying in their technological process, including data on the environmental impact, to assess the 533 combined effects of technological processes on nutritional/sensory quality and environmental 534 535 impact of dairy foods. 536

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538

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544

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# 1 Figure legends

3	Fig. 1. PCA on 68 samples (projects Adi, Boisard, Lawrence, Phan, PraSel, Tarrega) and 11
4	variables (composition: water, protein, Na <sup>+</sup> , Na <sup>+</sup> /water, Lipid, Lipid/DM, MNFS), rheology
5	(YM: Young modulus, FS: fracture stress), sensory descriptors (salty, hard/firm).
6	Representation of the samples (A) in the plane corresponding to axes 1–2 and (B) in the plan
7	corresponding to axes 1–3, with the 80% confidence ellipse for each project. Representation
8	of the variables (C) in the plane corresponding to axes 1–2 and (D) in the plan corresponding
9	to axes 1–3. Correlation matrix in Guichard et al. (2021): Table S1.
10	
11	Fig. 2. Panel A: PCA on 32 samples with a low sodium ions content (projects Adi, Lawrence,
12	PraSel, Tarrega) and 11 variables, 7 for the composition in black (Water, Protein, Na <sup>+</sup> ,
13	Na <sup>+</sup> /water, Lipid, Lipid/DM, MNFS), 2 rheological parameters in green (YM: Young
14	modulus, FS: fracture stress), 2 sensory descriptors in blue (salty, hard/firm). Representation
15	of the variables in the plane corresponding to axes 1–2 Correlation matrix in Guichard et al.
16	(2021): Table S2. Panel B: PCA on 36 samples with a high sodium ions content (projects Adi,
17	Boisard, Lawrence, Phan, PraSel) and 11 variables, 7 for the composition in black (Water,
18	Protein, Na <sup>+</sup> , Na <sup>+</sup> /water, Lipid, Lipid/DM, MNFS), 2 rheological parameters in green (YM:
19	Young modulus, FS: fracture stress), 2 sensory descriptors in blue (salty, hard/firm).
20	Representation of the variables in the plane corresponding to axes 1–2 Correlation matrix in
21	Guichard et al. (2021): Table S3.

Fig. 3. Panel A: PCA on 13 samples with a low sodium ions content (projects Lawrence, 23 24 Tarrega) and 14 variables, 7 for the composition in black (Water, Protein, Na<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>/water, Lipid, Lipid/DM, MNFS), 2 rheological parameters in green (YM: Young modulus, FS: 25 fracture stress), 2 sensory descriptors in blue (salty, hard/firm) and 3 for the chewing activity 26 (TMW: total muscular work, CD: chewing duration, NCC: number of chewing cycles). 27 Representation of the variables in the plane corresponding to axes 1–2 Correlation matrix in 28 Guichard et al. (2021): Table S4. Panel B: PCA on 15 samples with a high sodium ions 29 content (projects Boisard, Lawrence, Phan) and 14 variables, 7 for the composition in black 30 (Water, Protein, Na<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>/water, Lipid, Lipid/DM, MNFS), 2 rheological parameters in green 31 32 (YM: Young modulus, FS: fracture stress), 2 sensory descriptors in blue (salty, hard/firm) and 3 for the chewing activity (TMW: total muscular work, CD: chewing duration, NCC: number 33 of chewing cycles). Representation of the variables in the plane corresponding to axes 1–2. 34 35 Correlation matrix in Guichard et al. (2021): Table S5.

36

Fig. 4. PCA on 22 samples (projects Adi, Boisard, Tarrega) and 15 variables, 7 for the
composition in black (Water, Protein, Na<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>/water, Lipid, Lipid/DM, MNFS), 2
rheological parameters in green (YM: Young modulus, FS: fracture stress), 6 sensory
descriptors in blue (salty, hard/firm, crumbly, sticky, fatty, springy). Representation of the
variables (A) in the plane corresponding to axes 1–2 and (B) in the plane corresponding to
axes 1–3. Correlation matrix in Guichard et al. (2021): Table S6.











# 1 Table 1

Project	Number of samples	Lipid content (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )	Protein content (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )	Added NaCl (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )	Water (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )	Melting salts (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )	рН	Ref.
Adi	8	80/160	204-310	4.94/14.94	600	0	5/6.2	a
Boisard	6	200-280	170-240	0/10	454-467	6,2	6.67/6.85	b, c, d
Lawrence	18	74–176	236-375	5-15	537-616	0	6.2	e, f, g
Tarrega	8	160-240	240-320	10	479	0	5.4	h, i, j
PraSel	24	173-290	228-297	7–25	419–542	0	4.96/5.35	k
Phan	4	197/297	283	0	383/483	31,2	5.4	1

2 Short description of the samples from the six different projects.<sup>a</sup>

3

<sup>a</sup> References are: a, Syarifuddin et al. (2016); b, Boisard et al. (2013); c, Boisard et al. (2014);

5 d, Boisard et al. (2014b); e, Lawrence et al. (2011); f, Lawrence et al. (2012a); g, Lawrence et

6 al. (2012b); h, Tarrega, Yven, Semon, and Salles (2008); i, Tarrega, Yven, Semon, and Salles

7 (2011); j, Tarrega, Yven, Semon, Mielle, and Salles (2019); k, unpublished results (personal

8 communication); l, Phan et al. (2008).