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1 **Relationships between cheese composition, rheological and sensory properties**  
2 **highlighted using the BaGaTel database**

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27 ABSTRACT

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

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45 **1. Introduction**

46

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

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

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

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

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

95 and to the small variability in composition in one specific project. Nevertheless, it seems  
96 highly relevant to be able to gather all the information available in the literature relative to the  
97 impact of food formulation on physicochemical and sensory properties, to identify or explore  
98 principles for food formulation following nutritional/environmental requirements.

99 To tackle this challenge, a database, called BaGaTel, has been built, guided by a  
100 process and observation ontology in food science, PO<sup>2</sup> ontology (Ibanescu, Dibie, Dervaux,  
101 Guichard, & Raad, 2016) and hosted by the PLASTIC platform INRAE  
102 (<https://www6.inrae.fr/pfl-cepia/>). This database gathers data in the field of reformulation of  
103 dairy products taking into account their nutritional, sensory and environmental properties,  
104 using a consensual model and a shared structured vocabulary (available online at  
105 [http://agroportal.lirmm.fr/ontologies/PO2\\_DG/?p=summary](http://agroportal.lirmm.fr/ontologies/PO2_DG/?p=summary)). Data from a total of 65 different  
106 projects have been imported in BaGaTel (list available at  
107 <http://plasticnet.grignon.inra.fr/portailbagatel/>); 693 samples, 450 methods, 297 materials and  
108 1045 measured characteristics are included, up to November 2020. The data are either non-  
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  
111 already been successively used to (i) find correlations between one rheological parameter, the  
112 Young's modulus and one sensory descriptor, i.e., firmness in hard cheeses, (ii) estimate  
113 missing experimental data due to this correlation and (iii) estimate the environmental impact  
114 for specific foods, for which a process was described in BaGaTel (Pénicaud et al., 2019).

115 In the present paper, we aim to demonstrate that the BaGaTel database can be  
116 successfully used (i) to gather data obtained in different projects that used similar  
117 methodologies and (ii) to reach a critical number of samples from similar food products  
118 differing in composition, to better understand the relationships between physico-chemical data

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

121

## 122 **2. Material and methods**

123

### 124 *2.1. Data preparation*

125

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

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

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

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

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

168

169 2.2. *Multivariate statistical analysis*

170

171 2.2.1. *Multiple linear regression*

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

189

190 2.2.2. *Principal component analysis*

191 Principal component analyses (PCAs) were performed on different subsets of data to  
192 highlight the relationships between food composition, food rheology and sensory perception.  
193 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  $5 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ , and a second subset of 36  
198 samples (Adi, Boisard, Lawrence, Phan and Tarrega projects) with a sodium ion content  
199 higher than  $5 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ . As for some projects, measurements on chewing behaviour were  
200 obtained (Total muscular work, Number of chewing cycles, Chewing duration), we also  
201 performed 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 behaviour 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 relationships between fat perception and saltiness of model hard cheeses.

211 For each PCA, values of Pearson correlations between variables were calculated with  
212 a significance level of 95%. The matrices of correlation are available as supplementary tables  
213 in the co-submitted data-paper (Guichard et al., 2021).

214

### 215 **3. Results**

216

#### 217 *3.1. Explaining cheese hardness and salty taste by composition and rheological data*

218

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

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

244

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

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

257

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

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

269 hard/firm is located opposite to MNFS on this plane, due to a high negative correlation (-  
270 0.774).

271

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

273 Data on chewing behaviour are available in four projects (Boisard, Lawrence, Phan  
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  
277 chewing behaviour were highly dependent on salt content (Lawrence et al., 2012b), PCAs  
278 were performed on two subsets of samples according to their sodium ion contents. The aim of  
279 this analysis was to increase the number of samples compared with the Lawrence project  
280 (Lawrence et al., 2012b). The added samples had a different composition and especially a  
281 lower amount of water and a harder texture, so that they required a more intense chewing  
282 activity.

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

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

293 was high enough in the cheese, to easily access the taste cells and induce a salty taste without  
294 a 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

318 negative part of axis 1 and positive part of axis 2, was positively correlated (Guichard et al.,  
319 2021: Table S6) with the protein content (0.620), the Young's modulus (0.503) and fracture  
320 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  
322 correlated with the lipid content (0.578). The descriptor crumbly is located on the positive  
323 part of axis 2, and was positively correlated with the rheological parameter Young's modulus  
324 (0.698). The descriptor springy 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  
326 sticky is located on the positive part of axis 1 and was positively correlated with lipid/DM  
327 (0.479) and negatively correlated with protein (-0.740). The descriptor salty is not well  
328 represented on the first plane but is located on the positive part of axis 3. The correlations  
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  
331 between hard/firm and both sticky (-0.702) and fatty (-0.651). Interestingly, the descriptor  
332 salty was positively correlated with the sensory descriptor fatty (0.613).

333

#### 334 **4. Discussion**

335

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

341

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

343

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

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

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

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

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

405

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

407

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

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

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

441

442 4.3. *Relationships between composition, rheological properties and sensory perception*

443

444           The PCA carried out on the set of data that included all the sensory descriptors  
445 allowed general trends to be identified that could explain cheese sensory perception as a  
446 function of cheese composition and rheological properties, and to clarify the relationships  
447 between salty and fatty perception. The cheeses with a high protein and low lipid content  
448 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  
450 descriptor fatty does not show a high correlation with the lipid content (0.578). This could be  
451 partly explained by the fact that fatty perception is a multimodal perception involving  
452 olfactory, gustatory and tactile perception (Guichard, Galindo-Cuspinera, & Feron, 2018).  
453 Many volatile compounds are described with fatty odour descriptors, such as butter, creamy,  
454 and thus contribute to fat perception. Indeed, the addition of butter aroma in model cheeses  
455 was found to increase global fat perception (Syarifuddin et al., 2016). The gustatory  
456 dimension of fat perception is due to the presence of free fatty acids (Chale-Rush, Burgess, &  
457 Mattes, 2007). Concerning the tactile modality, it has been clearly demonstrated that the  
458 presence of lipids in foods is associated with textural descriptors such as meltability,  
459 spreadability and greasy film (Di Monaco, Giancone, Cavella, & Masi, 2008). Thus, not only  
460 the lipid content but also its composition in odorant compounds and its impact on the texture  
461 are likely to drive global fat perception. In our study, the sensory descriptor fatty is less  
462 correlated with the ratio lipid/dry matter (0.367) than with the lipid content (0.578), whereas  
463 the descriptor sticky is more correlated with the ratio lipid/dry matter (0.479) than with the  
464 lipid content (0.279). This observation suggests that fatty perception is much more related to  
465 the lipid content per se than to the lipid-protein network. However, stickiness, which is a  
466 texture attribute, is more influenced by the lipid-protein network, as suggested before in the  
467 literature.

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

479

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

481

482           It was observed that salty and fatty sensory descriptors are positively correlated  
483 (0.613; Guichard et al., 2021: Table S6, Fig. S7) and that fatty perception was correlated with  
484 the lipid content (0.578) but not salty (0.232). Salty taste was also not well explained by salt  
485 content (0.358). Conversely, even if fatty perception was clearly explained by lipid content, it  
486 was only poorly related to sodium ions content (0.14). In the literature, contradictory results  
487 were reported with regard to the impact of lipid content on salty taste. A very small positive  
488 correlation was observed between lipid content and salty taste (0.232). Our results cannot  
489 confirm a previous hypothesis that an increase in lipid content in dairy products increased the  
490 salt content in the water phase and thus the perception of salty taste (Metcalf & Vickers,  
491 2002). The opposite effect has also been reported (Lynch, Liu, Mela, & Macfie, 1993;  
492 Rietberg, Rousseau, & Duizer, 2012; Suzuki, Zhong, Lee, & Martini, 2014) and explained by

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

496 An alternative hypothesis suggested direct interactions at the peripheral level between  
497 fatty acids and channel taste buds (Gilbertson, Liu, Kim, Burks, & Hansen, 2005), but again  
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  
501 content (0.232), thus advocating for perceptual interactions between these two perceptions.  
502 This hypothesis is supported by previous reports showing that a fat-associated butter aroma  
503 can enhance not only fat perception but also salty taste perception in model dairy products  
504 (Syarifuddin et al., 2016). Moreover, as plotted on Guichard et al. (2021) Fig. S7, the impact  
505 of fat perception on salty taste is more pronounced for the highest values of fatty descriptor.  
506 As fat is a multimodal perception, dedicated experiments should be performed to specifically  
507 test the impact of the different sensory modalities of fat perception on salty taste.

508

## 509 **5. Conclusions**

510

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

518 salty and fatty taste in cheese, highlighting the contrasted influence of cheese composition on  
519 salty taste depending on the salt level. The results also reinforced the hypotheses concerning  
520 fatty/salty sensory interactions in the context of cheese, based on results obtained from  
521 different projects and with different sensory panels. Therefore, the BaGaTel database appears  
522 of tremendous support not only to confirm previous hypotheses, but to propose new  
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,  
526 measured in similar conditions, in different projects.

527         Our database allows to gather data from different projects, using a common  
528 vocabulary and structuration with their associated metadata (e.g., materials, methods,  
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  
531 efficiently exploit data from different projects, in the objective of a FAIR data management.  
532 Another objective is to exploit the data obtained on different types of dairy products, varying  
533 in their technological process, including data on the environmental impact, to assess the  
534 combined effects of technological processes on nutritional/sensory quality and environmental  
535 impact of dairy foods.

536

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538

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544

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1 **Figure legends**

2

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.

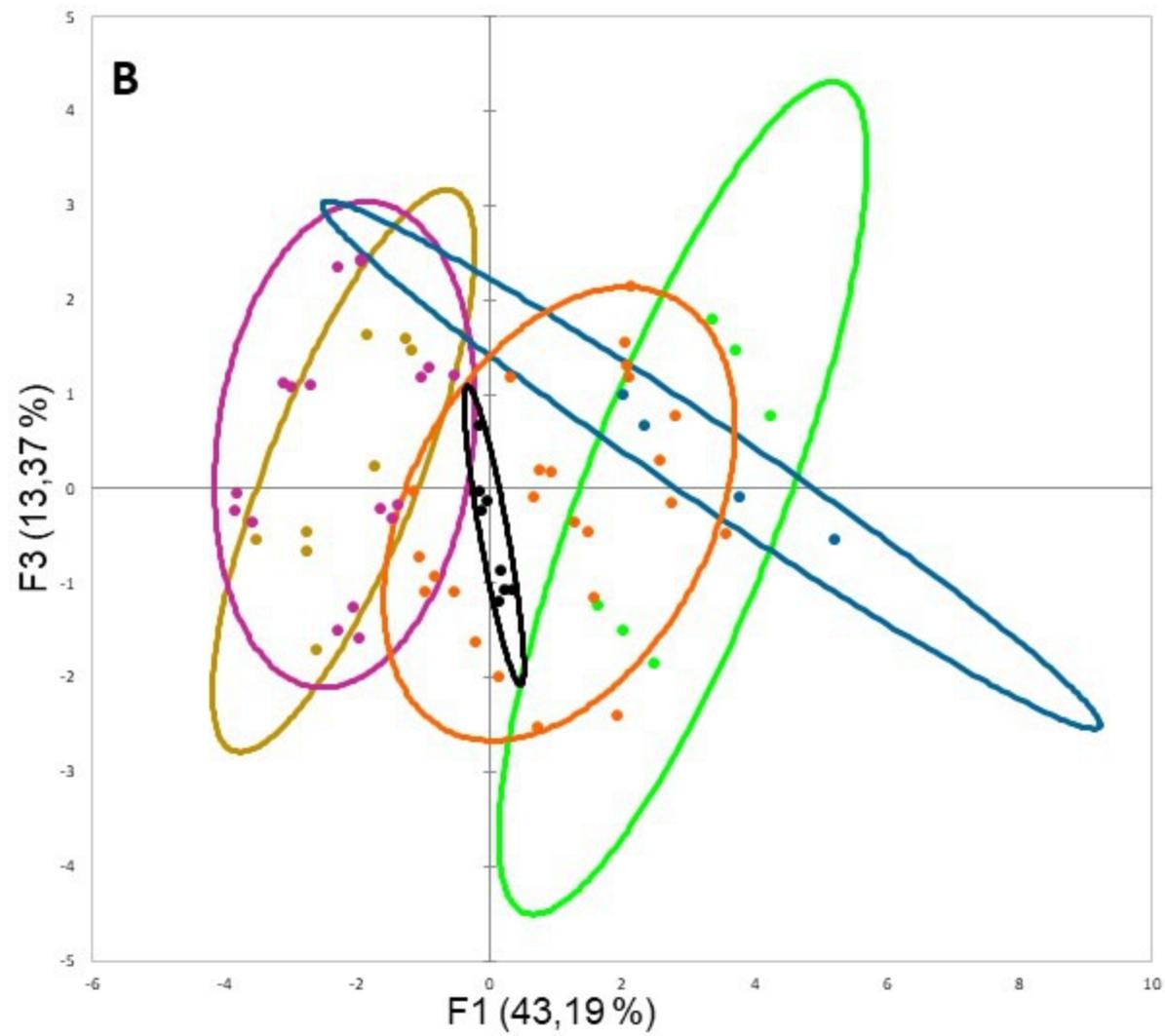
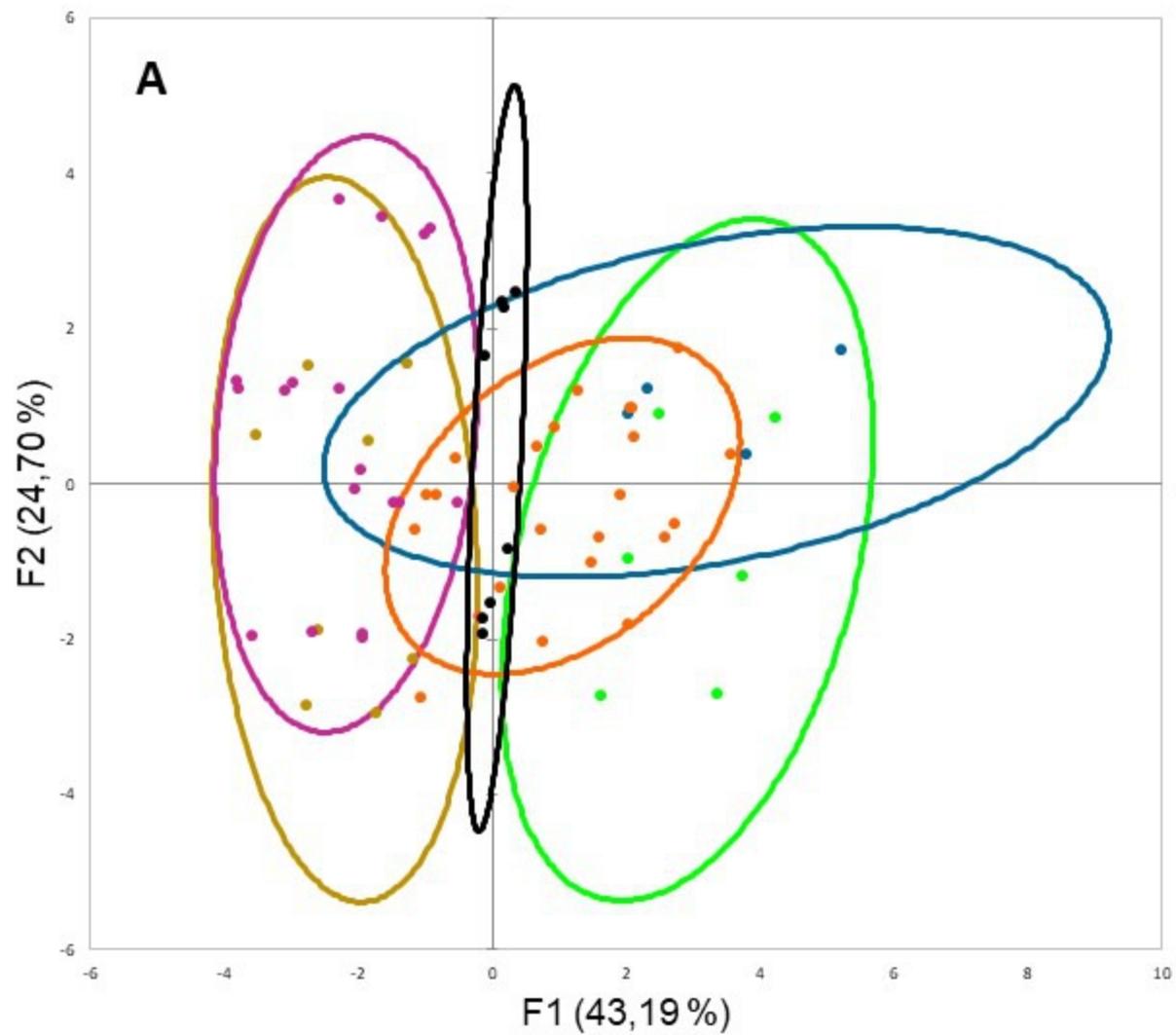
22

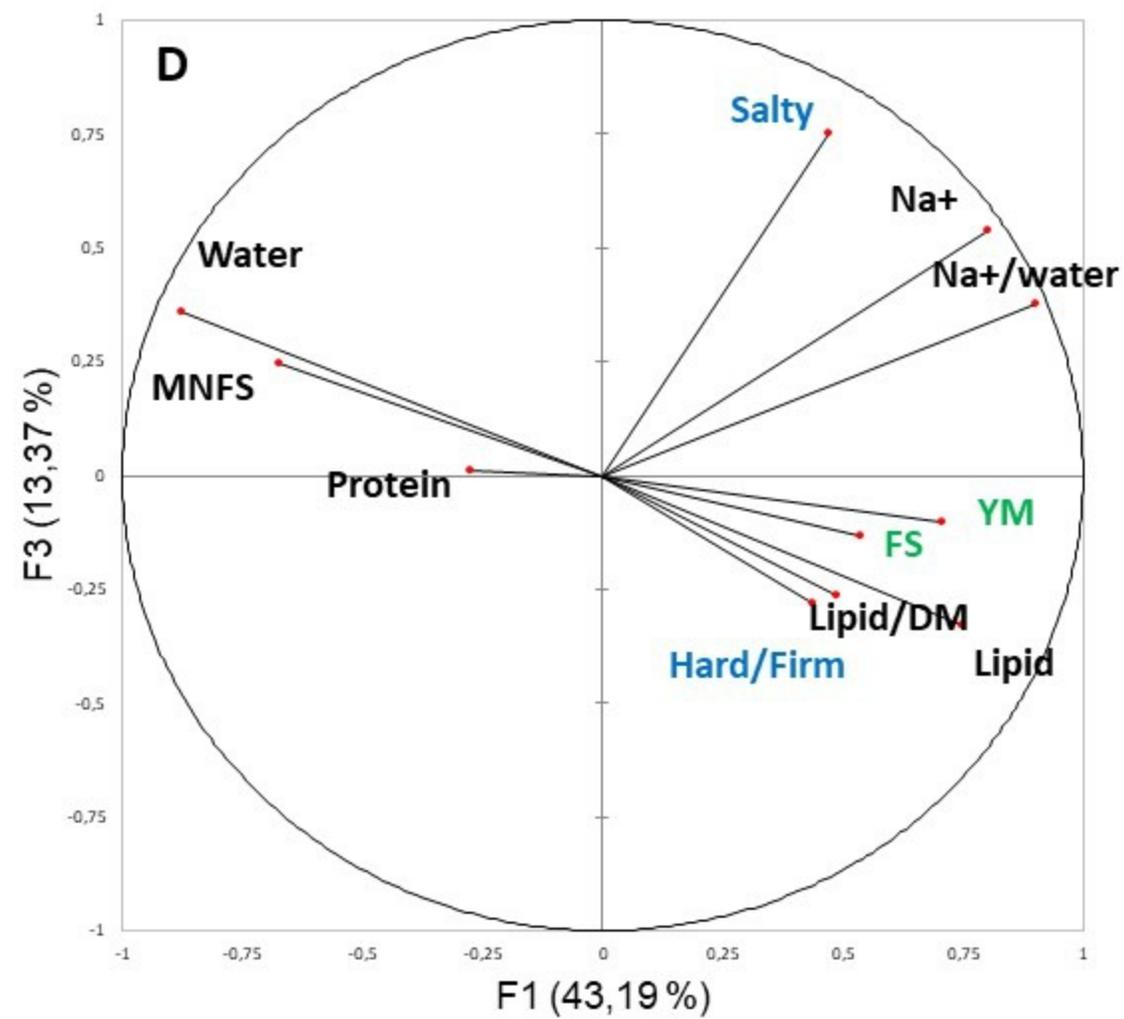
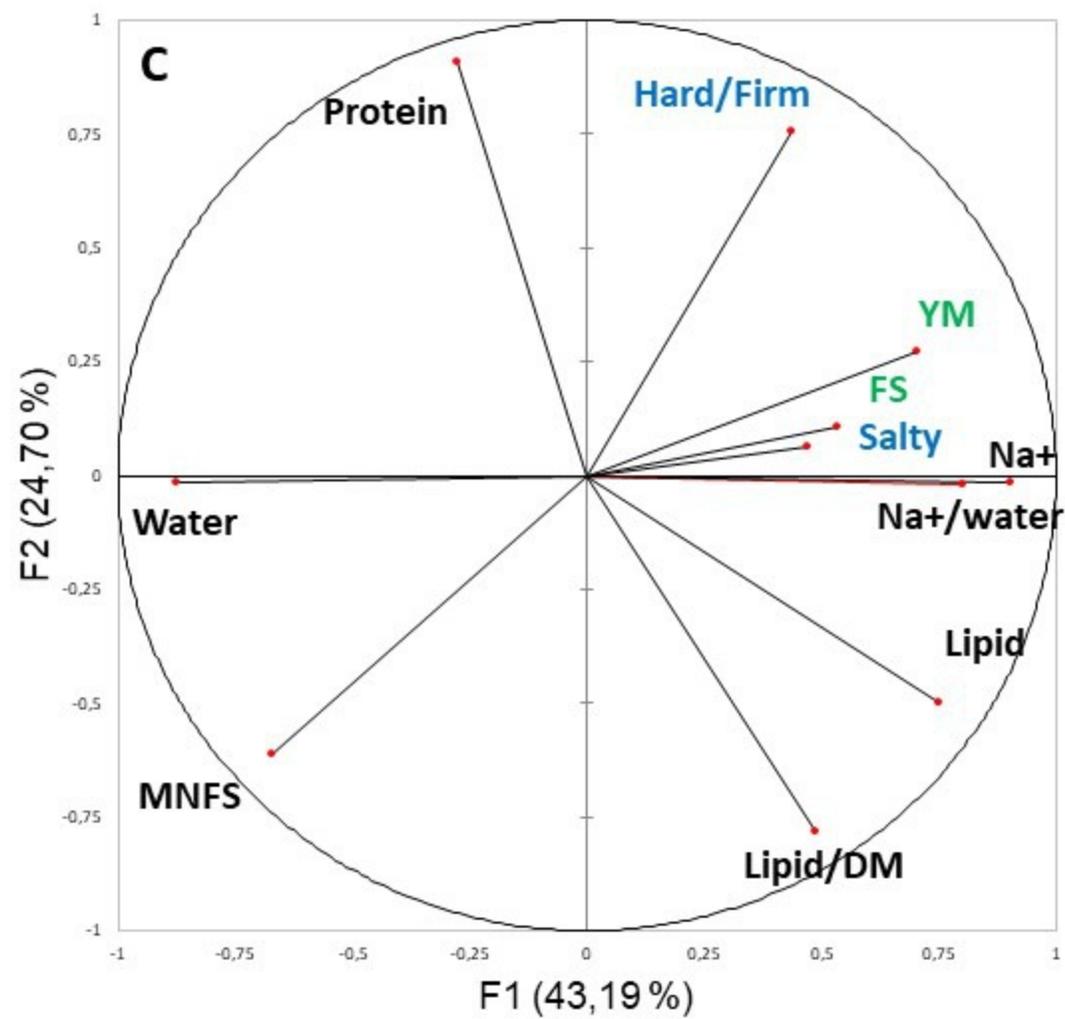
23 **Fig. 3.** Panel A: PCA on 13 samples with a low sodium ions content (projects Lawrence,  
24 Tarrega) and 14 variables, 7 for the composition in black (Water, Protein, Na<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>/water,  
25 Lipid, Lipid/DM, MNFS), 2 rheological parameters in green (YM: Young modulus, FS:  
26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

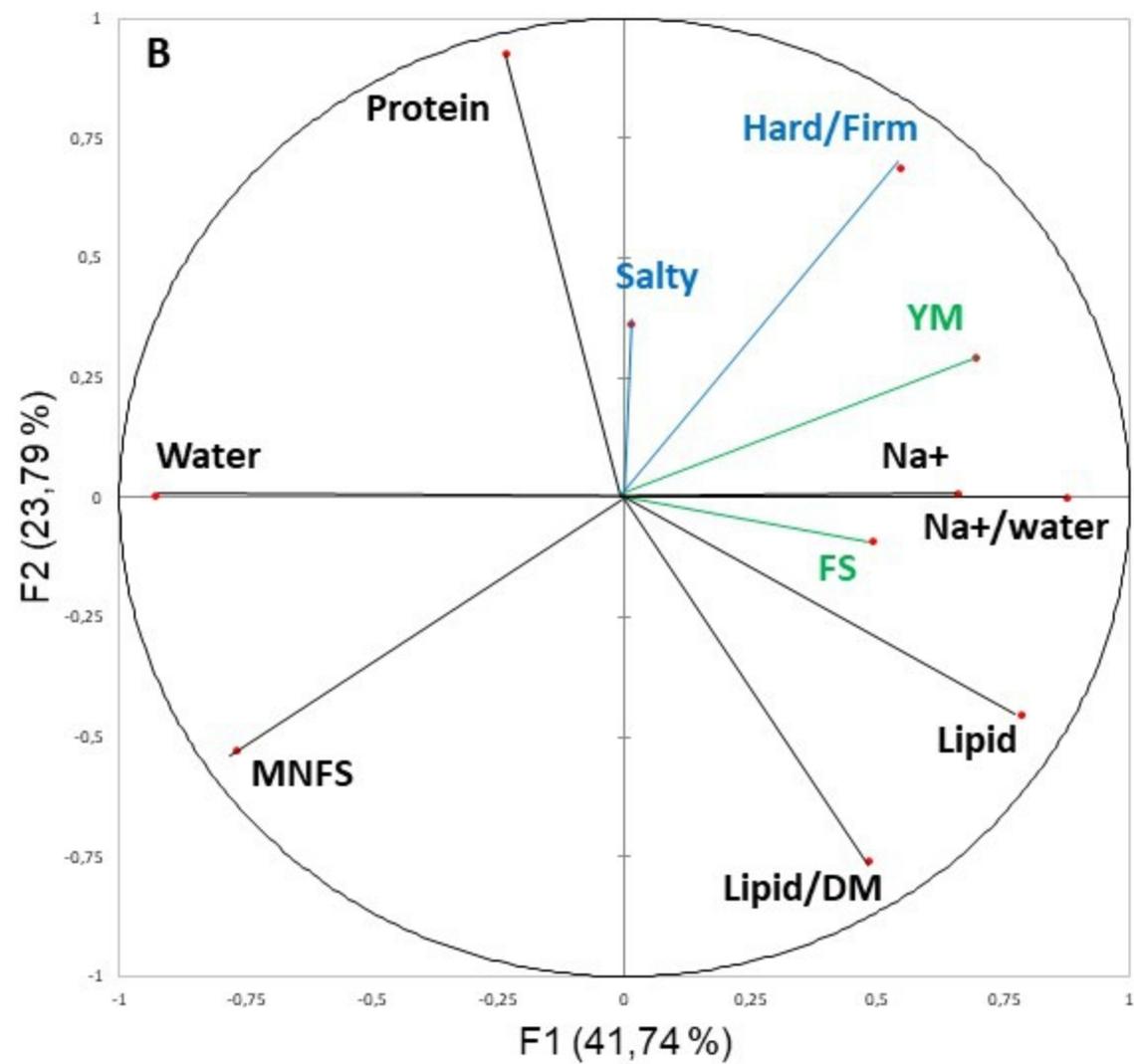
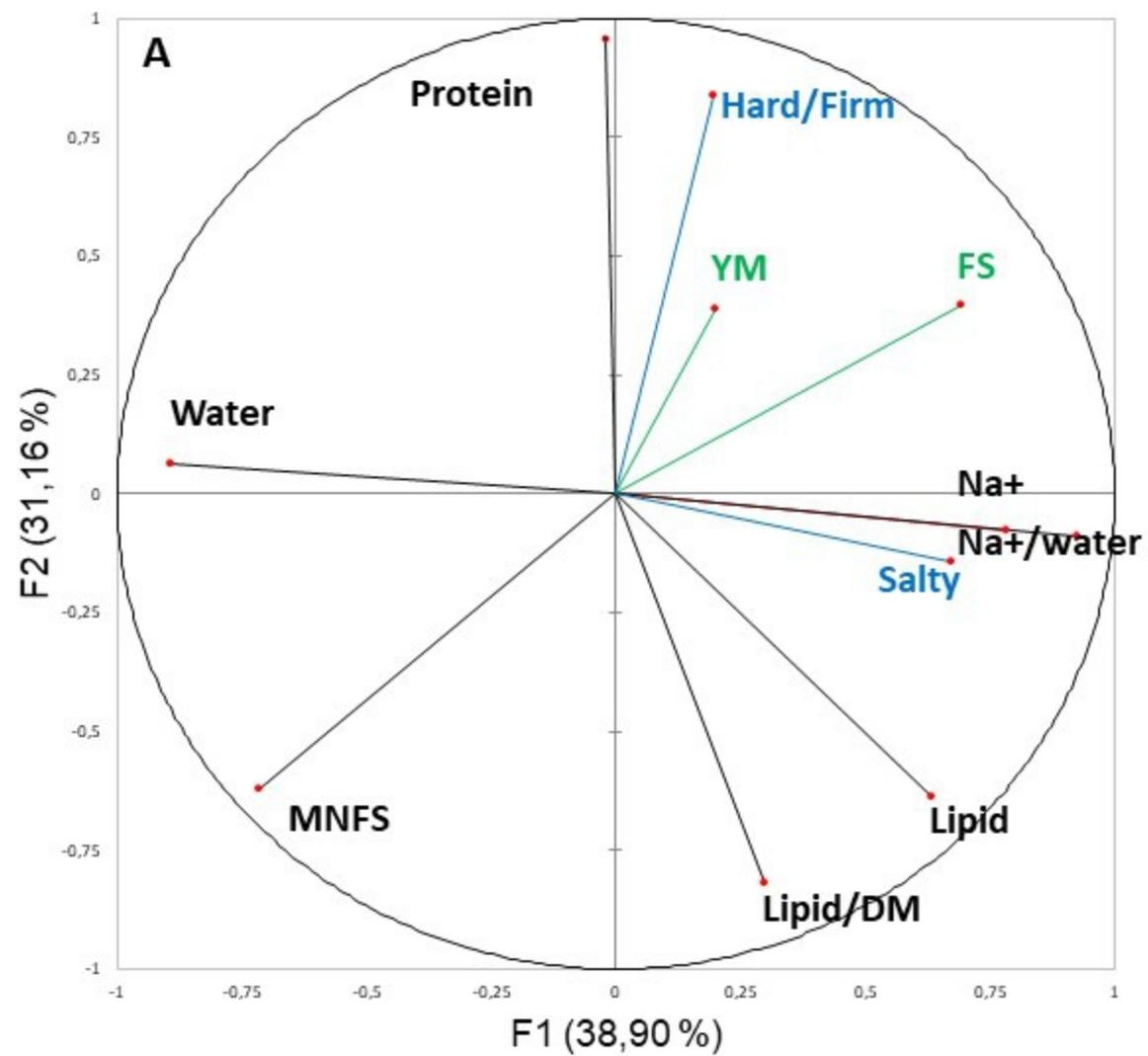
36

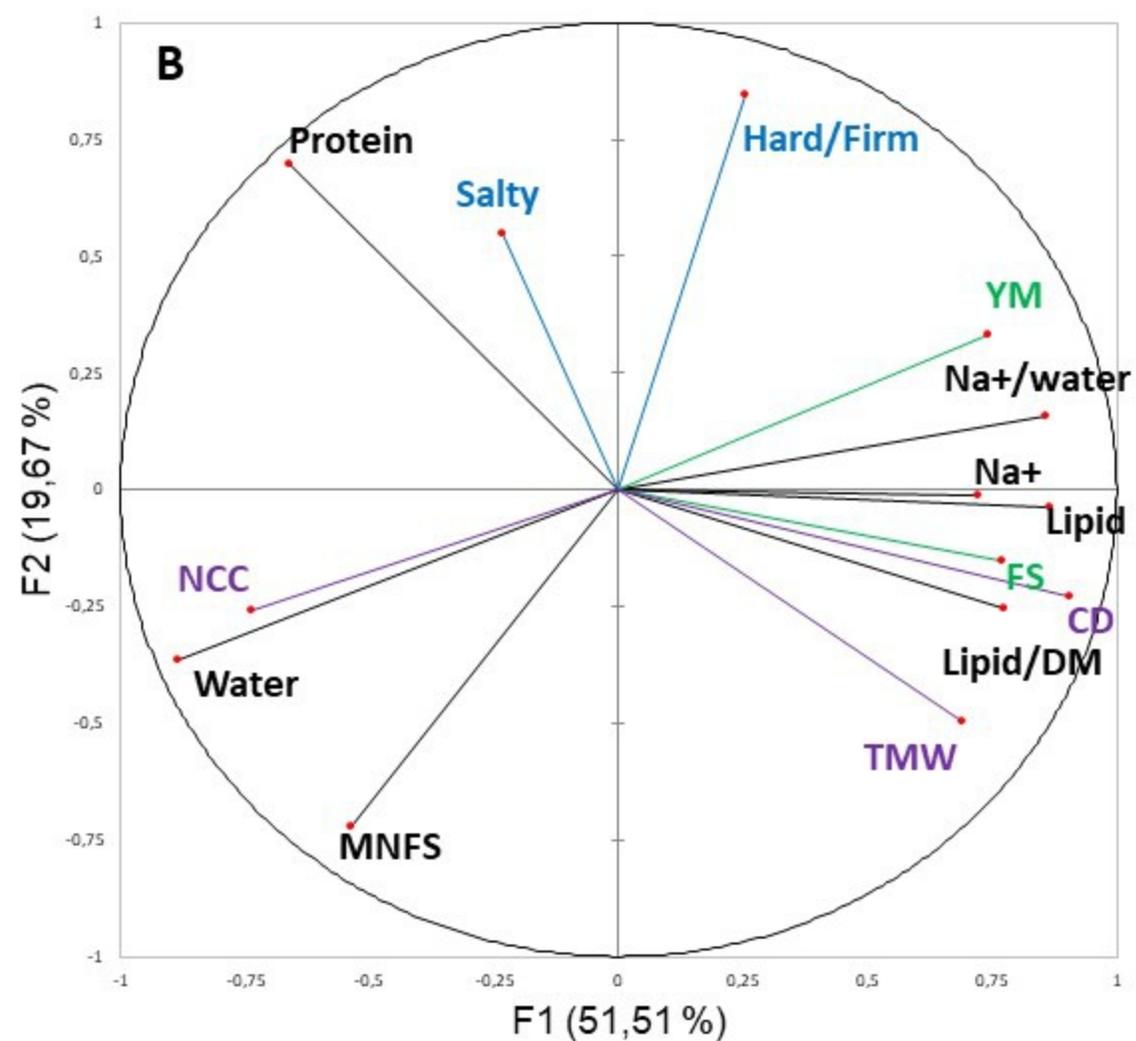
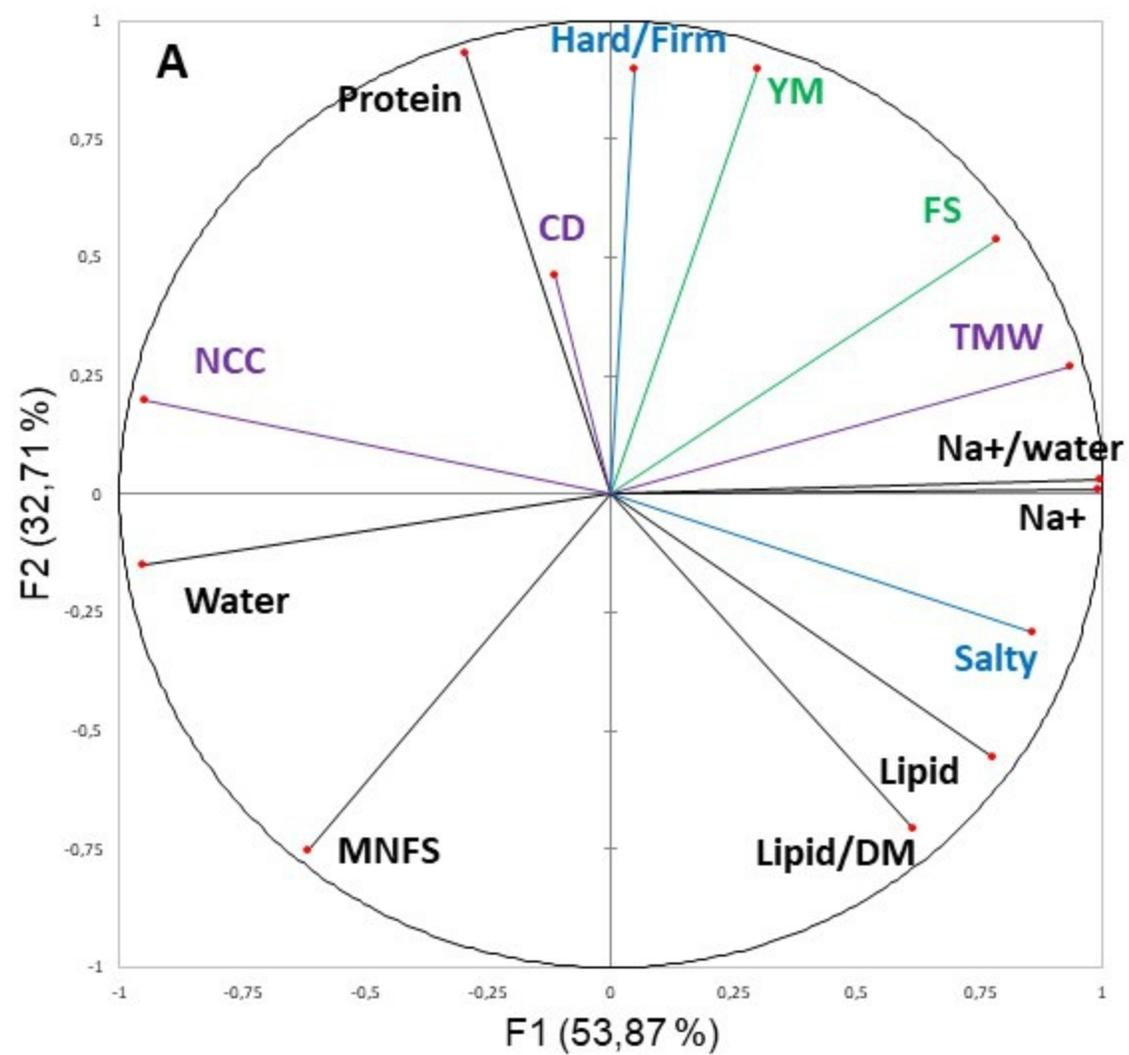
37 **Fig. 4.** PCA on 22 samples (projects Adi, Boisard, Tarrega) and 15 variables, 7 for the  
38 composition in black (Water, Protein, Na<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>/water, Lipid, Lipid/DM, MNFS), 2  
39 rheological parameters in green (YM: Young modulus, FS: fracture stress), 6 sensory  
40 descriptors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

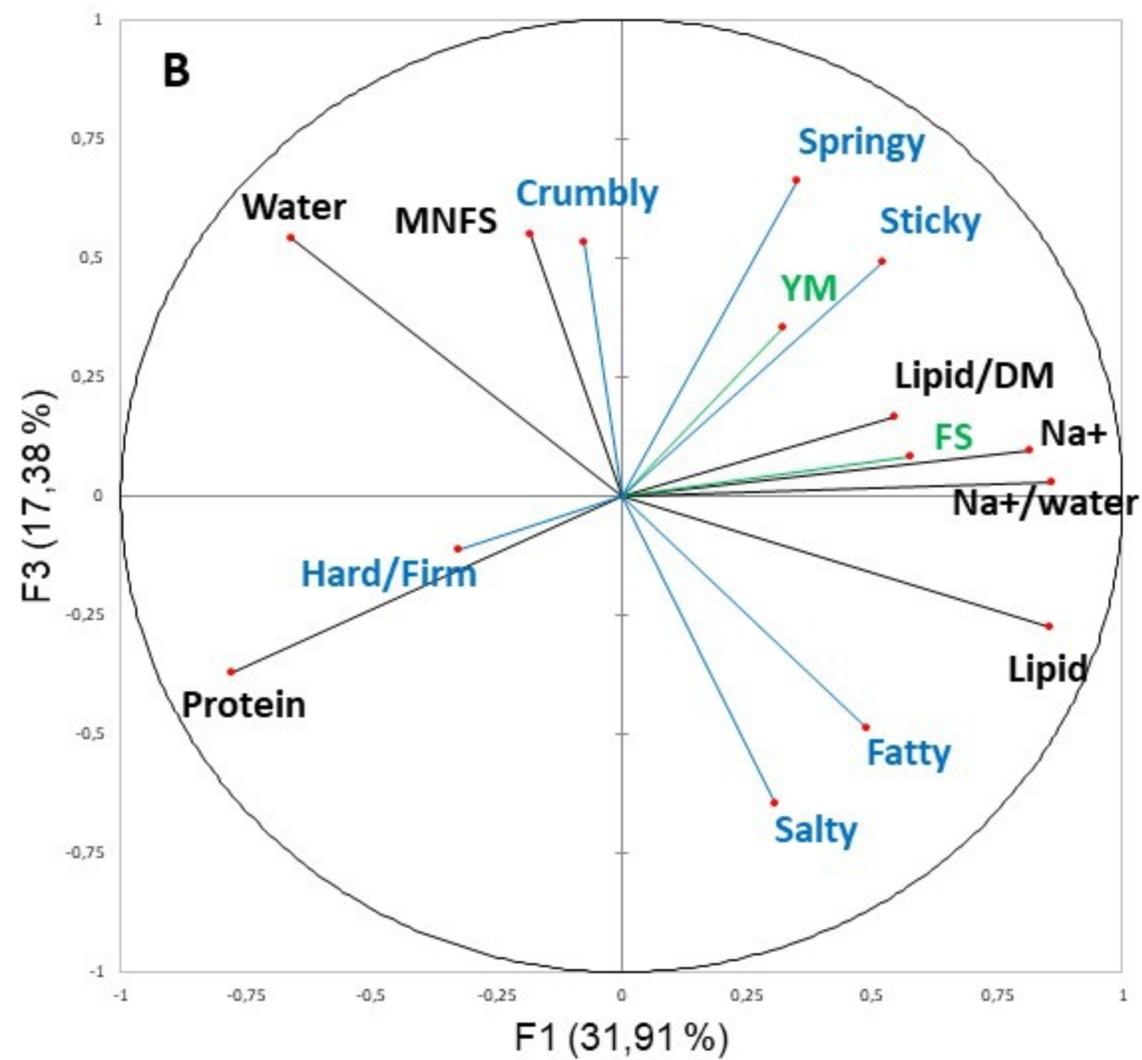
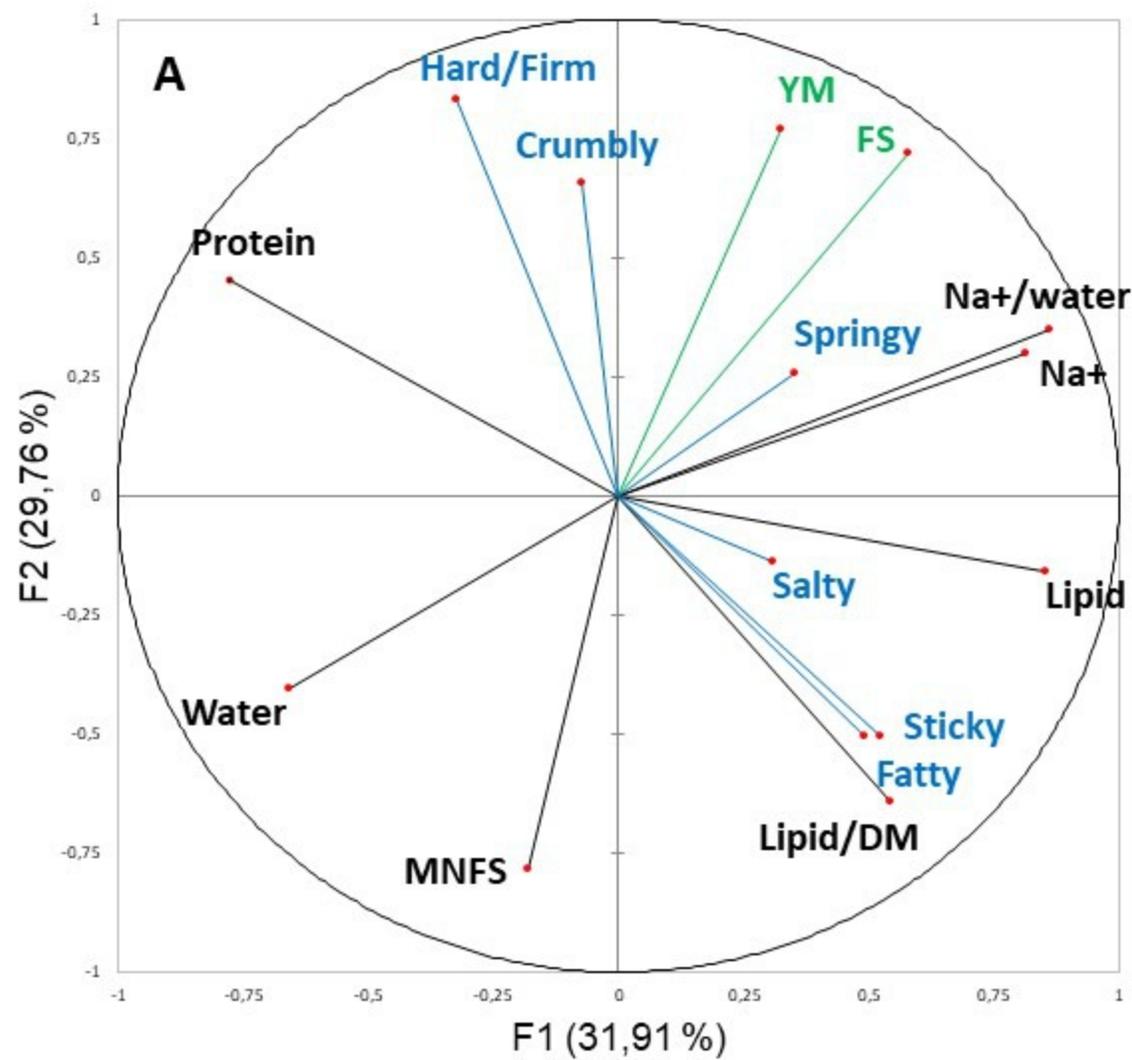
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1 **Table 1**

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

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> )	pH	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	l

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4 <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).

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