

1 **ASSESSMENT OF GLOBAL AND INDIVIDUAL REPRODUCIBILITY OF PROJECTIVE**
2 **MAPPING WITH CONSUMERS**

3
4 **Leticia Vidal¹, Rafael Silva Cadena¹, Silvana Correa², Rosa A. Ábalos², Beatriz Gómez²,**
5 **Ana Giménez¹, Paula Varela³, Gastón Ares¹**

6
7 ¹ Departamento de Ciencia y Tecnología de Alimentos, Facultad de Química, Universidad de
8 la República, Uruguay

9 ² Facultad de Bromatología, Universidad Nacional de Entre Ríos, Argentina.

10 ³ Instituto de Agroquímica y Tecnología de Alimentos (CSIC), Avda. Agustín Escardino, 7.
11 46980, Paterna (Valencia), Spain

12
13 Corresponding author: Leticia Vidal

14 Telephone: +598 29248003

15 Fax: +598 292419906

16 Email: lvidal@fq.edu.uy

17
18 **Running title:** Global and individual reproducibility of projective mapping

19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45

ABSTRACT

The popularity of projective mapping with consumers for sensory characterization has markedly increased in the last five years. To have confidence in this methodology it is necessary to ensure that a similar product profile would emerge if the test was repeated. Also, deciding whether the study should be replicated or not is a key issue in test implementation. In this context, the aim of the present work was to evaluate global and individual reproducibility of projective mapping for sensory characterization with consumers and to evaluate the influence of the size of difference among samples. Six consumer studies were conducted using a test–retest paradigm. In each study, responses from the same group of consumers to the same sample set in two different sessions were compared. Across the six studies individual reproducibility tended to be low. However, the RV coefficients of consensus sample configurations between sessions were higher than 0.75, suggesting that test-retest reproducibility of projective mapping with consumers proved to be relatively high.

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

The present work provides evidence of the reproducibility of projective mapping for sensory characterization with consumers. Although sample configurations were stable, some differences in conclusions regarding similarities and differences among samples were identified between sessions. This indicates that care must be taken when relying on results of projective mapping with consumers obtained without the use of replicates, particularly when working with sample sets with small differences. Results from the present work showed that stability indices of sample configurations based on bootstrapping resampling approaches were related to global reproducibility. These indices could be useful to decide whether or not it is necessary to replicate projective mapping in order to ensure that conclusions regarding similarities and differences among samples would be repeatedly identified. This is of particular interest considering the difficulty of asking consumers to attend separate sessions.

Keywords: sensory characterization; napping; projective mapping, consumer(s)

INTRODUCTION

46

47 Sensory characterization is one of the most powerful and extensively used tools in sensory
48 science (Lawless and Heymann 2010). Descriptive analysis with highly trained assessors
49 has been the most popular method for sensory characterization in the last decades
50 (Meilgaard et al. 1999; Murray et al. 2001; Stone et al. 1974). Although this methodology
51 provides detailed, consistent, reproducible and stable in time results, it is time consuming
52 and can be quite expensive and difficult to apply in many situations (Murray et al. 2010;
53 Varela and Ares 2012). Therefore, the development of simpler and faster methods which use
54 consumers to describe products are becoming more accepted within the sensory science
55 community and are increasingly considered a valid alternative to obtain the sensory profile of
56 a set of products (Valentin et al. 2012; Varela and Ares 2012).

57 Projective mapping or Napping® is one of the novel methodologies for sensory
58 characterization which has been increasingly used in the last five years (Varela and Ares
59 2012). It is a projective type method which collects bi-dimensional perceptual maps for each
60 assessor in a single sensory session (Risvik et al. 1994). Samples are simultaneously
61 presented, and have to be positioned by each assessor on a bi-dimensional space according
62 to the global differences and similarities among them, in such a way that the more similar
63 they are, the closer they should be on the provided space (Risvik et al. 1994; Risvik et al.
64 1997).

65 Projective mapping has been reported to be a simple methodology, which can be performed
66 by trained assessors or consumers (Valentin et al. 2012; Varela and Ares 2012). It has been
67 applied to a wide range of food products such as chocolate (Risvik et al. 1994), ewe milk
68 cheeses (Barcenas et al. 2004), wine (Pagès 2005; Perrin et al. 2008; Ross et al. 2012),
69 apples (Nestrud and Lawless 2010d), milk desserts (Ares et al. 2010a), fish nuggets (Albert
70 et al. 2011) and powdered drinks (Ares et al. 2011).

71 It is necessary to ensure that both valid and reproducible information is provided by
72 projective mapping before it can be established as a standard methodology for sensory

73 characterization with consumers. If validity is taken to mean that projective mapping provides
74 sensory characterizations similar to those from Descriptive analysis with trained assessors,
75 then it has been already established by several authors (Louw et al. 2013, Risvik et al. 1997;
76 Pagès 2005; Perrin et al. 2008).

77 Reproducibility of projective mapping has been less explored in the literature and one of the
78 questions that arises when implementing projective mapping for sensory characterization is
79 whether the task should be replicated or not (Hopfer and Heymann 2013). Projective
80 mapping can be regarded as a reproducible methodology if it provides similar results when
81 executed under identical conditions in different sessions separated in time (Yu 2005). In the
82 great majority of studies using projective mapping assessors complete the task only once
83 (Albert et al. 2011; Ares et al. 2010; Ares et al. 2011; Dehlholm et al. 2012a; Kennedy and
84 Heymann 2009; King et al. 1998; Nestrud and Lawless 2008; 2010; Pagès 2005; Pagès et al.
85 2010; Perrin et al. 2008). In some studies the reproducibility of projective mapping has been
86 evaluated using a blind duplicate sample within the same session (Moussaoiu and Varela
87 2010; Nestrud and Lawless 2008; 2010; Veinand et al. 2011). Only few studies have
88 reported repeated evaluations of projective mapping (Barcenas et al. 2004; Hopfer and
89 Heymann 2013; Kennedy 2010; Perrin and Pagès 2009; Risvik et al. 1994; 1997). At the
90 individual level, Kennedy (2010) and Risvik et al. (1994; 1997) have reported low
91 reproducibility which have been attributed to changes in consumer arrangement criteria. In
92 particular, Kennedy (2010) reported that most consumers showed an RV coefficient lower
93 than 0.5 for three replicated sample configurations of granola bars. However, at the
94 aggregate level most studies have shown that consensus sample configurations and
95 conclusions regarding overall similarities and dissimilarities among the samples are very
96 similar across replicates (Hopfer and Heymann 2013; Kennedy 2010; Perrin and Pagès
97 2009; Risvik et al. 1994; 1997). Barcenas et al. (2004) reported some changes in sample
98 configurations from triplicate evaluations of ewes milk cheeses. However, the authors could

99 not explain if these differences were due to changes in assessors' perception or to changes
100 in processing conditions which modified the sensory characteristics of the samples.
101 Considering that in many situations it is not practical to recruit consumers for replicate
102 evaluations, the reproducibility of projective mapping in consumer studies deserves further
103 exploration to ensure that reliable information can be gathered without the use of replicates.
104 In this context, the aim of the present work was to evaluate global and individual
105 reproducibility of projective mapping with consumers and to assess how they would be
106 affected by the degree of differences among samples.

107

108

MATERIALS AND METHODS

109 Six consumer studies were conducted using a test–retest paradigm to assess individual and
110 global reproducibility of projective mapping. In each study, responses from the same group of
111 respondents to the same sample set in two different sessions were compared. Studies 1 and
112 2 required consumers to evaluate crackers in two sessions separated 48 hours, while in
113 Studies 3-6 consumers evaluated vanilla milk desserts in two sessions held 2 weeks apart.
114 In both cases the time between replicates was enough to assure that participants would not
115 remember their responses from the previous session. Different times between replicates
116 were considered to provide greater robustness to the findings.

117

Studies 1 and 2

119

Samples

121 Sixteen commercial brands of plain crackers (named A–P), available in the Argentinean
122 market were evaluated. Two sets of 8 plain crackers were considered with varying degree of
123 difference among samples: one set with large differences among 4 salted - I to L - and 4
124 unsalted - M to P - crackers (Study 1), and a second one with smaller differences among
125 samples, using salted plain crackers only - A to H - (Study 2).

126

127 *Participants*

128 One hundred and eighty participants were recruited among students and workers of the
129 Facultad de Bromatología of Universidad Nacional de Entre Ríos (Gualeguaychú, Argentina).
130 Their ages ranged from 16 to 63 years and 73% were female. Consumers were randomly
131 divided into 2 groups: 89 consumers participated in Study 1, while 91 consumers participated
132 in Study 2. Consumers evaluated the sample set of each study in two separate sessions, 48
133 hours apart. They signed an informed consent agreement.

134

135 *Data collection*

136 For each study, consumers evaluated eight samples using a projective mapping task
137 followed by a description phase in each session. Consumers were asked to try the eight
138 samples and to place them on an A3 white sheet (42 x 30 cm), according to their similarities
139 or dissimilarities (similar samples should be located close, while different samples should be
140 located far from each other). They were explained that they had to complete the task
141 according to their own criteria and that there was no right or wrong answers. After positioning
142 the samples consumers were asked to provide a description of the samples. Testing took
143 place in a sensory laboratory in individual sensory booths, designed in accordance with ISO
144 8589 (1988). Artificial daylight, constant temperature (22°C) and air circulation were
145 controlled. Still mineral water was available for rinsing.

146

147 **Studies 3 to 6**

148

149 *Samples*

150 Eight samples of vanilla milk desserts were prepared for each study varying in degree and
151 type of differences among samples. Samples in Study 3 (named A1 - A8) and Study 5
152 (named C1 - C8) only differed in flavor, while samples of Study 4 (named B1 – B8) and 6

153 (named D1 – D8) presented both flavor and texture differences. Additionally, based on
154 sample formulations, Studies 3 and 4 involved the evaluation of samples with large
155 differences among them, while in Studies 5 and 6 differences among samples can be
156 regarded as small. The formulation of the milk desserts is shown in Table 1 of the
157 supplementary material section.

158 Desserts were prepared by mixing the solid ingredients with water and poured into a
159 Thermomix TM 31 (Vorwerk Mexico S. de R.L. de C.V., México D.F., México). The
160 dispersion was heated at 90°C for 5 min under strong agitation (1100 rpm). The desserts
161 were placed in closed glass containers, cooled to room temperature (25°C) and then stored
162 refrigerated (4–5°C) for 24 h prior to their evaluation.

163

164

165 *Participants*

166 Four different groups of consumers were recruited among students and workers of the
167 Facultad de Química of the Universidad de la República (Montevideo, Uruguay). Participants
168 ranged in age from 20 to 50 years old and approximately 60% were female. Two groups of
169 48 consumers participated in Studies 3 and 4, while Studies 5 and 6 were carried out with
170 two groups of 42 consumers. In each study, consumers participated in two separate
171 sessions, 14 days apart. They signed an informed consent agreement and were given a
172 small present for their participation.

173

174 *Data collection*

175 For each of the four studies (Studies 3-6), consumers evaluated eight samples of each set
176 using a projective mapping task followed by a description phase in each session. Consumers
177 received 15g of each vanilla milk dessert coded with 3-digit random numbers at 10°C in
178 plastic containers and a spoon. Mineral still water was available for rinsing between samples.
179 Participants were asked to try the samples and to place them on an A3 white sheet (42 x 30

180 cm), according to their similarities or dissimilarities. Testing took place in a sensory
181 laboratory in standard sensory booths that was designed in accordance with ISO 8589
182 (1988), under artificial daylight, temperature control (22°C) and air circulation was controlled.

183

184 **Data analysis**

185 For each consumer map, the X and Y coordinates of each sample were determined,
186 considering the left bottom corner of the sheet as the origin of coordinates. The X and Y
187 coordinates for each session and sample set were analysed using Multiple Factor Analysis
188 (MFA) (Pagès 2005). Confidence ellipses were constructed as suggested by Dehlholm, et al.
189 (2012b). The stability of sample configurations from each session was evaluated using a
190 bootstrapping resampling approach. According to Blancher et al. (2012), sample
191 configurations can be regarded as stable if simulated repeated experiments provide similar
192 results than those obtained with the original dataset. In the present work, the bootstrapping
193 process consisted of obtaining 1000 subsets of size equal to the total number of consumers
194 using random sampling with replacement. For each subset sample configurations were
195 obtained using MFA and agreement between each of these configurations and the reference
196 configuration (obtained with all the consumers who participated in the study) was evaluated
197 by computing the RV coefficient (Abdi 2010). Average values and standard deviations over
198 the RV coefficients were calculated. The RV coefficient has been used as a tool to assess
199 the global similarity between two factorial configurations of the same products (Faye et al.
200 2004; de Saldamando et al. 2013). This coefficient takes the value of 0 if the configurations
201 are uncorrelated and the value of 1 if the configurations are homothetic. It depends on the
202 relative position of the points in the configuration and therefore is independent of rotation and
203 translation (Robert and Escoufier 1976).

204 The similarities among the sample configurations over all assessors and sessions were
205 evaluated with the RV coefficient. Also, RV coefficients of individual sample configurations
206 between sessions were calculated as a measure of individual reproducibility. The

207 significance of the RV coefficient was tested using a permutation test, as suggested by Josse
208 et al. (2008). If the RV coefficient between two sample configurations is significant, it can be
209 concluded that they are correlated and therefore information about the similarities and
210 differences among samples is similar.

211 The words elicited by consumers in the description phase were qualitatively analyzed. Words
212 with similar meaning were grouped into categories and their frequency of mention was
213 determined by counting the number of consumers who elicited words within each category.
214 Terms mentioned by at least 5% of the consumers were retained for further analysis
215 (Symoneaux et al. 2012). In each session, consensual terms were identified using the
216 methodology proposed by Kostov et al. (2013). Consensual terms were identified as those
217 for which the p-value, computed as the proportion of random subsets, selected following a
218 bootstrap methodology, having a within-inertia smaller or equal to the observed inertia, was
219 smaller than 0.10. Multiple factor analysis for contingency tables (MFACT) was applied on
220 the frequency table of each session to obtain a representation of terms (Bécue-Bertaut and
221 Pagès 2004). In this analysis only the terms used by consumers in both sessions were
222 considered.

223 All statistical analyses were performed with R language (R Development Core Team 2007)
224 using FactoMineR (Lê et al.2008) and SensoMineR (Lê and Husson 2008).

225

226

RESULTS

227

228 **Global reproducibility**

229 No differences were observed in the percentage of inertia explained by the first and second
230 dimensions of the MFA between sessions (Figures 1 and 2). Average RV coefficient across
231 simulations from the bootstrapping resampling approach did not vary between sessions,
232 suggesting that duplicate evaluation did not increase the stability of sample configurations
233 (Table 1). As expected, average RV coefficient increased with the size of difference among

234 samples, i.e. it was higher for the studies with large differences among samples than for
235 studies with small differences among samples. Besides, the stability of sample configurations
236 for the studies which included samples with flavor and texture differences was higher than
237 that of the studies which only included flavor differences (Table 1).

238

239 - Please insert Table 1 around here-

240

241 At the aggregate level the RV coefficient of sample configurations from different sessions
242 was higher than 0.75 (Table 2), providing evidence for the global reproducibility of projective
243 mapping. As expected, global reproducibility increased with the size of differences among
244 samples, as denoted by the increase in RV coefficient of sample configurations between
245 sessions. Besides, when small differences among samples were considered, consumers
246 were more reproducible when evaluating samples with texture and flavor differences. As
247 shown in Table 2, the RV coefficient of sample configurations was higher for Study 6 than for
248 Study 5.

249

250 - Please insert Table 2 around here-

251

252 Despite the high similarity in sample configurations between sessions, some differences in
253 conclusions regarding similarities and differences among samples were identified in some of
254 the studies. Although the RV coefficient of sample configurations between sessions for Study
255 1 was 0.96, the position of sample I clearly differed (Figure 1(a)). In the first session, sample
256 I was located in a distinct position in the first and second dimensions of the MFA, whereas in
257 the second session it was regarded as largely similar to samples L and J (their confidence
258 ellipses overlapped). A similar difference was observed in the position of sample H in Study 2
259 (Figure 1(b)). Studies 4 and 6 showed highly similar sample configurations in both sessions
260 (Figures 2(b) and 2(d)), with no differences in relation to the confidence ellipses that

261 overlapped. The fact that samples differed in texture could have helped consumers to locate
262 samples more easily and more reproducibly. In Studies 3 and 5 several differences can be
263 identified in the relative positioning of the samples and consequently in the conclusions
264 regarding similarities and differences among samples (Figures 2(a) and 2(c)).

265

266 - Please insert Figure 1 around here-

267

268 - Please insert Figure 2 around here –

269

270 **Consumer descriptions**

271 As shown in Table 3, for the six studies the number of terms used for describing samples in
272 the description phase of projective mapping was similar for session 1 and 2 and the majority
273 of the terms were used in both sessions. This provides preliminary evidence of the stability of
274 consumer descriptions. The terms used in both sessions of the six studies for describing
275 samples are shown in Table 2 of the supplementary material section.

276 For each study, consensual terms for a significance level of $p \leq 0.10$ were determined
277 following the methodology proposed by Kostov et al. (2013). For all the studies the number of
278 consensual terms was markedly lower than the total number of terms used for describing
279 samples (Table 3). It is interesting to note that for Studies 3-6, the number of consensual
280 terms was higher for the second session than for the first session. Besides, the number of
281 consensual words tended to increase with the size of difference among samples.

282 The majority of the consensual terms identified in the first session were also consensual in
283 the second session. For example, 6 of the 8 consensual terms identified in the first session
284 of Study 3 were also consensual in the second session (*Caramel flavour*, *Consistent*, *Not*
285 *much flavour intensity*, *Not very sweet*, *Vanilla flavour*, and *Very sweet*) (Table 2 of the
286 supplementary material section). On the other hand, none of the consensual terms identified

287 in the first session of Study 5 were consensual in the second session, which could be related
288 to the fact that samples had small flavor differences.

289

290 - Please insert Table 3 around here-

291

292 MFACT allows the visualization of the descriptors used by consumers to describe samples in
293 the two sessions of the 6 studies (Figure 3). Identical terms are connected with a line to
294 indicate the size of the difference in how the term was used between the sessions. The terms
295 used for describing samples differed in their reproducibility. Some of the terms were used in
296 a markedly similar way in both sessions, being located close to each other in the first and
297 second session. In general, the most stable terms were those which described the main
298 sensory differences among samples. For example, in Study 1 the terms *Salty*, *No salt*,
299 *Toasted*, *Burnt*, *Not toasted*, and *Crunchy* were highly reproducible (Figure 3(a)). Something
300 similar was observed in Study 6 with the terms *Liquid*, *Runny*, *Consistent*, *Thick*, *Viscous*,
301 *Creamy*, *Sweet* and *Very sweet* (Figure 3(f)).

302 On the other hand, terms describing complex sensory properties or characteristics of the
303 desserts that did not vary among samples tended to be less stable. For example, in Study 3,
304 which included samples with flavor differences but with the same texture, the terms
305 *Consistent*, *Creamy* and *Smooth* were unstable, together with complex flavor attributes as
306 *Aftertaste*, *Cookie* and *Milky flavor* (Figure 3(c)) The rest of the terms, particularly those
307 related to flavor differences (e.g. *Caramel flavor*, *Vanilla flavor*, *Very Sweet*, *Sweet*, *Not*
308 *sweet*, and *Not very sweet*), were located close to each other, suggesting high reproducibility
309 in how consumers described samples across sessions. Similarly, the least reproducible
310 terms in Study 5 were mainly related to texture characteristics which did not differ across
311 samples (*Smooth*, *Thick*) and complex flavor terms (*Artificial flavor*, *Tasty*) (Figure 3(e)). The
312 reproducibility of the terms depended on the size of difference among samples. Consumers
313 tended to be more reproducible when describing samples with large differences (Figure 3(a),

314 3(c) and 3(d)) than when describing sample sets with small differences (Figure 3(b), 3(e) and
315 3(f)). Besides, in the milk dessert experiments (studies 3-6) consumers were more
316 reproducible in describing samples with texture and flavor differences than samples that only
317 differed in their flavor characteristics (c.f. Figures 3(c), (d), (e) and (f)).

318

319 - Please insert Figure 3 around here-

320

321 The terms that were consensual in both sessions tended to be highly reproducible between
322 sessions (Figure 3), suggesting that the terms that were used similarly by consumers were
323 also used in the same way over sessions. However, it is interesting to note that the most
324 reproducible terms were not necessarily consensual in both sessions. Many terms that were
325 used in a highly reliable way in both sessions were not consensual in any of the sessions.
326 For example, as shown in Figure 3(a) the term *No salt* was reliably used in Study 1 but was
327 not consensual in any of the sessions. On the contrary, the terms *Toasted flavor* and *Bitter*
328 were among the least reproducible while they were consensual in one of the sessions.

329 The RV coefficients between the frequency tables of both sessions tended to be high,
330 reaching values higher than 0.80 (Table 3). These results suggest that although some of the
331 terms were not reliably used between sessions, descriptions obtained in both sessions
332 provided similar information regarding similarities and differences among samples. As
333 expected, RV coefficient between the frequency tables of consumer descriptions increased
334 with the size of differences among samples, reaching values higher than 0.94 for the studies
335 which included large differences among samples (Table 3).

336

337 **Consumer individual reproducibility**

338 Although global reproducibility was high, consumer individual reproducibility tended to be low
339 (Table 2). The RV coefficients of individual sample configurations between sessions ranged
340 from 0.001 to 0.975, indicating large differences among consumers' performance. However,

341 average consumer reproducibility was low, as well as the percentage of consumers whose
342 configurations were significantly correlated. For 4 out of the 6 studies less than 50% of the
343 consumers sample configurations were significantly correlated.

344 As expected, consumer individual reproducibility markedly increased with the size of the
345 differences among samples. For example, average RV coefficient of individual configurations
346 was 0.52 for milk dessert samples with large flavor differences (Study 3) and 0.26 for
347 samples with small flavor differences (Study 5). Additionally, in these studies the
348 percentages of consumers whose configurations were significantly correlated between
349 sessions were 54% and 18%, respectively (Table 2).

350

351

DISCUSSION

352 The present work evaluated global and individual reproducibility of projective mapping for
353 sensory characterization with consumers using samples sets that differed in the size of
354 difference among samples. Across the six studies, the RV coefficients of sample
355 configurations between sessions were higher than 0.75. The minimum RV value that has
356 been considered as indicator of good agreement between sample configurations ranges from
357 0.65 to 0.85 (Abdi et al. 2007; Faye et al. 2004; Kennedy 2010; Lawless and Glatter 1990;
358 Lelièvre et al. 2008). Considering these values it can be concluded that in the present study
359 sample configurations were relatively stable across sessions and that in the six studies test-
360 retest reproducibility of projective mapping with consumers proved to be relatively high.
361 These results are in agreement with several authors that reported that consensus sample
362 configurations from projective mapping with trained and untrained assessors were stable
363 across sessions (Hopfer and Heymann 2013; Kennedy 2010; Perrin and Pagès 2009; Risvik
364 et al. 1994; 1997). High reproducibility of consumer-based sensory characterization has also
365 been reported for other methodologies like sorting tasks (Cartier et al. 2006; Chollet et al.
366 2011; Lawless and Glatter 1990) and check-all-that-apply questions (Jaeger et al. 2013).

367 Despite the fact that RV coefficients were higher than 0.75, some differences in conclusions
368 regarding similarities and differences among samples were identified between replicates,
369 particularly for studies which involved samples with small differences. A similar result has
370 been reported by Barcenas et al. (2004) when working with ewes' milk cheeses. These
371 authors reported that the relative position of two samples changed across replicates,
372 modifying conclusions regarding their similarities and differences with the rest of the sample
373 set. On the contrary, Kennedy (2010) and Hopfer and Heymann (2013) reported that overall
374 similarities and dissimilarities among the samples were stable over the triplicate evaluation.
375 Results from the present work suggest that for sample sets with small differences care must
376 be taken when drawing conclusions from sample configurations obtained using projective
377 mapping with consumers without the use of replicates. Further research is necessary to
378 determine if replicated projective mapping is necessary prior to the design of the study.

379 In the present work the majority of the terms elicited to describe samples in the description
380 phase of projective mapping were used in a similar way in both sessions (Figure 3). Overall,
381 the terms responsible for the main differences in the sensory characteristics of the samples
382 were highly reproducible, while terms related to complex sensory attributes or characteristics
383 that did not differ among samples tended to be not reproducible. This suggests that
384 consumer descriptions in projective mapping tasks should be taken with care, particularly
385 when evaluating samples with small differences. Although open-ended questions have been
386 considered as an alternative method for sensory characterization with consumers (Ares et
387 al., 2010b; Symoneaux et al., 2012), results from the present work show that consumers are
388 not reproducible when using many terms. This would suggest the need to check the reliability
389 of the terms for concluding on the main sensory characteristics responsible for similarities
390 and differences among samples.

391 Methodologies which enable the selection of reliable terms would be useful to improve the
392 interpretation of sensory spaces obtained from the application of holistic methodologies with
393 consumers. Kostov et al (2013) proposed the identification of consensual terms for selecting

394 the most reliable terms elicited in free description tasks. In the present work this methodology
395 was not able to predict the reproducibility of the terms. Although consensual words in both
396 sessions were used in a reproducible way, there were many terms that were not consensual
397 but reproducible, as well as terms that were consensual in one of the sessions but were not
398 reproducible. Thus, further research is needed to improve the interpretation of consumer
399 responses to free description tasks.

400 Although global reproducibility was high, consumer individual reproducibility tended to be low
401 in the six studies (Table 2). The average RV coefficients between sample configurations of
402 the two sessions were lower than 0.55, while the percentage of consumers with significant
403 RV coefficient between sessions was lower than 54%. This result is in agreement with Risvik
404 et al. (1994; 1997), Barcenas et al. (2004), Hopfer and Heymann (2013) and Kennedy
405 (2010). In particular, this last author reported that 10 out of 15 consumers had RV coefficient
406 between replications lower than 0.5. Similar results have been reported for check-all-that-
407 apply (CATA) questions for sensory characterization. Jaeger et al. (2013) reported that
408 despite the fact that global reproducibility of CATA questions was high, consumer individual
409 reproducibility tended to be low. This suggests that differences in individual performances
410 between sessions tend to compensate among consumers, yielding stable consensus
411 configurations.

412 The low RV coefficients between individual sample configurations can be attributed to
413 differences in consumers' criteria for placing the samples, particularly due to training and
414 familiarization with projective mapping and the sample set. In this sense, Kennedy (2010)
415 reported that the internal consistency and agreement of untrained consumers when using
416 projective mapping increased over triplicate evaluations. In the present work the percentage
417 of variance explained by the first and second dimensions of the MFA and the stability of
418 sample configurations (as evaluated through a resampling bootstrapping approach) did not
419 increase with duplicate evaluation. However, the number of consensual terms tended to be
420 larger in the second session than in the first one, which suggests that familiarization with the

421 sensory space can improve consumer performance in descriptive tasks. Therefore,
422 considering these results it would be interesting to study if familiarization with projective
423 mapping and/or with the sample set increases assessor reproducibility when using projective
424 mapping for sensory characterization, particularly considering that some consumers can find
425 this methodology difficult to apply (Nestrud and Lawless 2008; Veinand et al. 2011). Several
426 authors have included a short introduction or training prior to the projective mapping task
427 (Barcenas et al. 2004; Carrillo et al. 2012; Hopfer and Heymann 2013; Risvik et al. 1994;
428 1997; Veinand et al. 2011), which can contribute to improve consumers' performance.

429 Global and individual reproducibility of projective mapping increased with the size of
430 differences among samples. This observation, together with the fact that conclusions
431 regarding similarities and differences among samples were not stable in some cases,
432 indicates the need to define stability indices for sample configurations. These indices could
433 be useful to decide whether or not to replicate projective mapping in order to ensure that
434 conclusions regarding similarities and differences among samples would be repeatedly
435 identified. Further research is necessary to determine if increasing the number of consumers
436 can be an alternative approach to replicated evaluations for the stabilization of sample
437 configurations. This is an interesting idea to explore considering that in many situations it is
438 not practical to get the same consumers to repeat the study.

439 Studying the stability of sample configurations by sub-sampling using bootstrapping
440 approaches could be an interesting approach and can contribute to development of
441 guidelines for practitioners. In the present study the stability of sample configurations was
442 studied using simulated repeated experiments by sampling repeatedly from the population of
443 interest, as proposed by Faye et al. (2006) and Blancher et al. (2012) for sorting tasks. As
444 shown in Tables 1 and 2, there was a good agreement between the stability and
445 reproducibility of sample configurations. The studies which showed average RV coefficients
446 across replications higher than 0.95 (studies 1, 3, 4 and 6) were highly reproducible,
447 reaching RV coefficients between replicates higher than 0.90. These results suggest the

448 need to further study the relationship between the stability and reproducibility of sample
449 configurations from projective mapping. This type of research can contribute to the definition
450 of threshold for deciding if results from projective mapping are reliable and whether or not
451 replication is needed. When the stability of sample configuration is found to be low,
452 replication of the study would be recommended to check that similarities and differences
453 among samples remain when repeating the whole study. When replicating projective
454 mapping tasks, conclusions should be drawn from consensus sample configurations across
455 replicates from Hierarchical Multiple Factor Analysis (Le Dien and Pagès 2003). This
456 methodology is an extension of MFA and balances the relevance of groups of variables with
457 different hierarchy and provides an overall result. In the context of replicated projective
458 mapping tasks HMFA provides consensus sample configurations after balancing data from
459 each separate session.

460

461

CONCLUSIONS

462 Results from the present work showed that although most consumers were only slightly
463 reproducible, global configurations from projective mapping were reasonably stable across
464 sessions. Descriptions of samples were used in a similar way in both sessions, the terms
465 responsible for the main differences were highly reproducible, while complex sensory
466 attributes or characteristics that did not differ among samples tended to be not reproducible.

467 The degree (large or small) and type (flavor or flavor and texture) of difference among
468 samples had a strong influence on both global and individual reproducibility of projective
469 mapping, suggesting that care must be taken when relying on results of projective mapping
470 with consumers obtained without the use of replicates. In this sense, the use of indices that
471 evaluate the stability of sample configurations can contribute to decide whether or not a
472 replication is needed. In the present work the stability index calculated using a bootstrapping
473 resampling approach was strongly related to consumer global reproducibility. Research in
474 this area could contribute to the selection of criteria for evaluating the reliability of sensory

475 characterization with consumers and to define the need of using replicates with trained,
476 semi-trained and untrained assessors. Besides, further research on the reproducibility of
477 projective mapping when working with samples sets of different complexity can help to
478 decide if replicated projective mapping is necessary prior to the design of the experiment.

479

480

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

481 The authors are indebted to Comisión Sectorial de Investigación Científica (Universidad de la
482 República, Uruguay) for financial support, to Agencia Nacional de Investigación e Innovación
483 (ANII, Uruguay) for the scholarship granted to author Leticia Vidal and to CAPES-UdelaR for
484 the scholarship granted to author Rafael Silva Cadena.

485 The authors would also like to thank the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation
486 for the contract awarded to the author P. Varela (Juan de la Cierva Program) and to the
487 Spanish Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports for the José Castillejo grant awarded to
488 author P. Varela.

489

490

REFERENCES

- 491 ABDI, H. 2010. Congruence: Congruence coefficient, RV coefficient, and Mantel Coefficient.
492 In *Encyclopedia of Research Design* (N.J. Salkind, D.M. Dougherty and B. Frey, eds.)
493 pp. 222-229. Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- 494 ABDI, H., VALENTIN, D., CHOLLET, S. and CHREA, C. 2007. Analyzing assessors and
495 products in sorting tasks: DISTATIS, theory and applications. *Food Qual. Prefer.* 18,
496 627–640.
- 497 ALBERT, A., VARELA, P., SALVADOR, A., HOUGH, G. and FISZMAN, S. 2011.
498 Overcoming the issues in the sensory description of hot served food with a complex
499 texture. Application of QDA®, flash profiling and projective mapping using panels with
500 different degrees of training. *Food. Qual. Prefer.* 22, 463–473.

501 ARES, G., DELIZA, R., BARREIRO, C., GIMÉNEZ, A. and GÁMBARO, A. 2010a.
502 Comparison of two sensory profiling techniques based on consumer perception. *Food.*
503 *Qual. Prefer.* 21, 417–426.

504 ARES, G., GIMÉNEZ, A., BARREIRO, C. and GÁMBARO, A. 2010b. Use of an open-ended
505 question to identify drivers of liking of milk desserts. Comparison with preference
506 mapping techniques. *Food Qual. Prefer.* 21, 286–294.

507 ARES, G., VARELA, P., RADO, G. and GIMENEZ, A. 2011. Are consumer profiling
508 techniques equivalent for some product categories? The case of orange-flavored
509 powdered drinks. *International J. Food Sci. Technol.* 46, 1600–1608.

510 BARCENAS, P., PÉREZ ELORTONDO, F. J. and ALBISU, M. 2004. Projective mapping in
511 sensory analysis of ewes milk cheeses: A study on consumers and trained panel
512 performance. *Food Res. Int.* 37, 723–729.

513 BÉCUE-BERTAU, M. and PAGÈS, J. 2004. A principal axes method for comparing
514 contingency tables: MFACT. *Comput. Stat. Data Anal.* 45, 481–503.

515 BLANCHER, G., CLAVIER, B., EGOROFF, C., DUINEVELD, K. and PARCON, J. 2012. A
516 method to investigate the stability of a sorting map. *Food. Qual. Prefer.* 23, 36-43.

517 CARRILLO, E., VARELA, P. and FISZMAN, S. 2012. Packaging information as a modulator
518 of consumers' perception of enriched and reduced-calorie biscuits in tasting and non-
519 tasting tests. *Food. Qual. Prefer.* 25, 105–115

520 CARTIER, R., RYTZ, A., LECOMTE, A., POBLETE, E., KRYSTLIK, J., BELIN, E. and
521 MARTIN, N. 2006. Sorting procedure as an alternative to quantitative descriptive
522 analysis to obtain a product sensory map. *Food. Qual. Prefer.* 17, 562–571.

523 CHOLLET, S., LELIÈVRE, ABDI, H. and VALENTIN, D. 2011. Sort and beer: Everything you
524 wanted to know about the sorting task but did not dare to ask. *Food. Qual. Prefer.* 22,
525 507–520.

526 DE SALDAMANDO, L., DELGADO, J., HERENCIA, P., GIMÉNEZ, A. and ARES, G. 2013
527 Polarized sensory positioning: Do conclusions depend on the poles? *Food. Qual.*
528 *Prefer.* 29, 25–32

529 DEHLHOLM, C., BROCKHOFF, P. B., MEJNERT, L., AASLYNG, M. D. and BREDIE, W. L.
530 P. 2012a. Rapid descriptive sensory methods – comparison of free multiple sorting,
531 partial napping, napping, flash profiling and conventional profiling. *Food. Qual. Prefer.*
532 26, 267–277.

533 DEHLHOLM, C., BROCKHOFF, P. B. and BREDIE, W. L. P. 2012b. Confidence ellipses: A
534 variation based on parametric bootstrapping applicable on Multiple Factor Analysis
535 results for rapid graphical evaluation. *Food. Qual. Prefer.* 26, 278–280.

536 FAYE, P., BRÉMAUD, D., DURAND-DAUBIN, D., COURCOUX, P., GIBOREAU, A. and
537 NICOD, A. 2004. Perceptive free sorting and verbalization tasks with naive subjects:
538 An alternative to descriptive mappings. *Food. Qual. Prefer.* 15, 781–791.

539 FAYE, P., BRÉMAUD, D., TEILLET, E., COURCOUX, P., GIBOREAU, A. and NICOD, H.
540 2006. An alternative to external preference mapping based on consumer perceptive
541 mapping. *Food. Qual. Prefer.* 17, 604–614

542 HOPFER, H. and HEYMANN, H. 2013. A summary of projective mapping observations – The
543 effect of replicates and shape, and individual performance measurements. *Food. Qual.*
544 *Prefer.* 28, 164–181.

545 ISO. 1988. *Sensory analysis: General guidance for the design of test rooms, ISO 8589.*
546 International Organization for Standardization, Geneve.

547 JAEGER, S., CHHEANG, S.L., YIN, J., BAVA, C.M., GIMENEZ, A., VIDAL, L. and ARES, G.
548 2013. Check-all-that-apply (CATA) responses elicited by consumers: Within-assessor
549 reproducibility and stability of sensory product characterizations. *Food. Qual. Prefer.*
550 30, 56-67.

551 JOSSE, J., PAGÉS, J. and HUSSON, F. 2008. Testing the significance of the RV coefficient.
552 *Comput Stat. Data Anal.* 53, 82–91.

553 KENNEDY, J. 2010. Evaluation of replicated projective mapping of granola bars. *J. Sensory*
554 *Stud.* 25, 672–684.

555 KENNEDY, J. and HEYMANN, H. 2009. Projective mapping and descriptive analysis of milk
556 and dark chocolate. *J. Sensory Stud.* 24. 220–233.

557 KOSTOV, B., BÉCUE-BERTAUT, M. and HUSSON, F.. 2013. An original methodology for
558 the analysis and interpretation of word-count based methods: multiple factor analysis
559 for contingency tables complemented by consensual words. *Food. Qual. Prefer.* *In*
560 *press*, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2013.06.009> .

561 LAWLESS, H. T. and GLATTER, S. 1990. Consistency of multidimensional scaling models
562 derived from odor sorting. *J. Sensory Stud.* 5, 217–230.

563 LAWLESS, H. T. and HEYMANN, H. 2010. *Sensory evaluation of food. Principles and*
564 *practices*, 2nd edition. Springer, New York.

565 LÊ, S. and HUSSON, F. 2008. SensoMineR: a package for sensory data analysis. *J.*
566 *Sensory Stud.* 23, 14–25.

567 LÊ, S., JOSSE, J. and HUSSON, F. 2008. FactoMineR: An R package for multivariate
568 analysis. *J. Stat. Soft.* 25, 1–18.

569 LE DIEN, S. and PAGÈS, J. 2003. Hierarchical multiple factor analysis: Application to the
570 comparison of sensory profiles. *Food. Qual. Prefer.* 14, 397–403.

571 LELIÈVRE, M., CHOLLET, S., ABDI, H. and VALENTIN, D. 2008. What is the validity of the
572 sorting task for describing beers? A study using trained and untrained assessors. *Food.*
573 *Qual. Prefer.* 19, 697–703.

574 LOUW, L. MALHERBE, S., NAES, T., LAMBRECHTS, M., RENSBURG, P. and
575 NIEUWOUDT, H. 2013. Validation of two Napping® techniques as rapid sensory
576 screening tools for high alcohol products. *Food Qual. Prefer.* 30, 192–201

577 MEILGAARD, M. C., CIVILLE, G. V. and CARR, B. T. 1999. *Sensory evaluation techniques*,
578 2nd edition. CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL.

579 MOUSSAOUI, K. A. and VARELA, P. 2010. Exploring consumer product profiling techniques
580 and their linkage to a quantitative descriptive analysis. *Food. Qual. Prefer.* 21, 1088–
581 1099.

582 MURRAY, J.M., DELAHUNTY, C.M. and BAXTER, I.A. 2001. Descriptive sensory analysis:
583 Past, present and future. *Food Res. Int.* 34, 461–471.

584 NESTRUD, M.A. and LAWLESS, H.T. 2008. Perceptual mapping of citrus juices using
585 projective mapping and profiling data from culinary professionals and consumers.
586 *Food. Qual. Prefer.* 19, 431–438.

587 NESTRUD, M.A. and LAWLESS, H.T. 2010. Perceptual mapping of apples and chesses
588 using projective mapping and sorting. *J. Sensory Stud.* 25, 309–324.

589 PAGÈS, J. 2005. Collection and analysis of perceived product inter-distances using multiple
590 factor analysis: Application to the study of 10 white wines from the Loire Valley. *Food.*
591 *Qual. Prefer.* 16, 642–649.

592 PAGÈS, J., CADORET, M. and LÊ, S. 2010. The sorted Napping: A new holistic approach in
593 sensory evaluation. *J. Sensory Stud.* 25, 637–658.

594 PERRIN, L. and PAGÈS, J. 2009. Construction of a product space from the ultra-flash
595 profiling method: Application to 10 red wines from the Loire valley. *J. Sensory Stud.* 24,
596 372–395.

597 PERRIN, L., SYMONEAUX, R., MAÎTRE, I., ASSELIN, C., JOURJON, F. and PAGÈS, J.
598 2008. Comparison of three sensory methods for use with the Napping® procedure:
599 Case of ten wines from Loire Valley. *Food. Qual. Prefer.* 19, 1–11.

600 R DEVELOPMENT CORE TEAM. 2007. *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical*
601 *Computing*. ISBN 3-900051-07-0. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna.

602 RISVIK, E., MCEWAN, J. A., COLWILL, J. S., ROGERS, R. and LYON, D. H. 1994.
603 Projective mapping: A tool for sensory analysis and consumer research. *Food. Qual.*
604 *Prefer.* 5, 263–269.

605 RISVIK, E., MCEWAN, J. A. and RODBOTTEN, M. 1997. Evaluation of sensory profiling and
606 projective mapping data. *Food. Qual. Prefer.* 8, 63–71.

607 ROBERT, P. and ESCOUFIER, Y. 1976. A unifying tool for linear multivariate statistical
608 methods: the RV coefficient. *Applied Stat.* 25, 257–265.

609 ROSS, C.F., WELLER, K.M., and ALLDREDGE, J.R. 2012. Impact of Serving Temperature
610 on Sensory Properties of Red Wine as Evaluated Using Projective Mapping by a
611 Trained Panel. *J. Sensory Stud.* 27, 463-470.

612 STONE, H., SIDEL, J. L., OLIVER, S., WOOLSEY, A. and SINGLETON, R. C. 1974.
613 Sensory evaluation by quantitative descriptive analysis. *Food Technol.* 28, 24–33.

614 SYMONEAUX, R., GALMARINI, M. V. and MEHINAGIC, E. 2012. Comment analysis of
615 consumer's likes and dislikes as an alternative tool to preference mapping. A case
616 study on apples. *Food. Qual. Prefer.* 24, 59–66.

617 VALENTIN, D., CHOLLET, S., LELIEVRE, M. and ABDI, H. 2012. Quick and dirty but still
618 pretty good: a review of new descriptive methods in food science. *Int. J.Food Sci.*
619 *Technol.* 47, 1563–1578.

620 VARELA, P. and ARES, G. 2012. Sensory profiling, the blurred line between sensory and
621 consumer science. A review of novel methods for product characterization. *Food Res.*
622 *Int.* 48, 893–908.

623 VEINAND, B., GODEFROY, C., ADAM, C. and DELARUE, J. 2011. Highlight of important
624 product characteristics for consumers. Comparison of three sensory descriptive
625 methods performed by consumers. *Food. Qual. Prefer.* 22, 474–485.

626 YU, C.H. 2005. Test-retest reliability. In *Encyclopedia of social measurement*, Vol. 3, (K.
627 Kempf-Leonard, ed.), p. 777–784. Academic Press, San Diego, CA.

628

FIGURE CAPTIONS

629

630

631 **FIGURE 1.** SAMPLE REPRESENTATION ON THE FIRST AND SECOND DIMENSIONS OF
632 MULTIPLE FACTOR ANALYSIS PERFORMED ON DATA FROM THE TWO SESSIONS
633 CONSIDERED IN: (A) STUDY 1 (SALTED -I TO L- AND UNSALTED PLAIN CRACKERS -M
634 TO P-) AND (B) STUDY 2 (SALTED CRACKERS -A TO H-). CONFIDENCE ELLIPSES
635 AROUND SAMPLES WERE CREATED USING PARAMETRIC BOOTSTRAPPING.

636

637 **FIGURE 2.** SAMPLE REPRESENTATION ON THE FIRST AND SECOND DIMENSIONS OF
638 MULTIPLE FACTOR ANALYSIS PERFORMED ON DATA FROM THE TWO SESSIONS
639 CONSIDERED IN: (A) STUDY 3 (LARGE FLAVOUR DIFFERENCES), (B) STUDY 4
640 (LARGE FLAVOUR AND TEXTURE DIFFERENCES), (C) 5 (SMALL FLAVOUR
641 DIFFERENCES), AND (D) 6 (SMALL FLAVOUR AND TEXTURE DIFFERENCES).
642 CONFIDENCE ELLIPSES AROUND SAMPLES WERE CREATED USING PARAMETRIC
643 BOOTSTRAPPING.

644

645 **FIGURE 3.** REPRESENTATION OF THE TERMS USED BY CONSUMERS TO DESCRIBE
646 THE SAMPLES, ON THE FIRST AND SECOND DIMENSIONS OF THE MULTIPLE
647 FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR THE CONTINGENCY TABLES PERFORMED ON DATA FROM
648 THE TWO SESSIONS CONSIDERED IN: (A) STUDY 1 (PLAIN CRACKERS, LARGE
649 DIFFERENCES), (B) 2 (PLAIN CRACKERS, SMALL DIFFERENCES), (C) 3 (MILK
650 DESSERTS, LARGE FLAVOUR DIFFERENCES), (D) 4 (MILK DESSERTS, LARGE
651 FLAVOUR AND TEXTURE DIFFERENCES), (E) 5 (MILK DESSERTS, SMALL FLAVOUR
652 DIFFERENCES), AND (F) 6 (MILK DESSERTS, SMALL FLAVOUR AND TEXTURE
653 DIFFERENCES).. TERMS USED IN THE FIRST SESSION ARE INDICATED USING GREY
654 DIAMONDS AND ITALIC LETTERS, WHILE TERMS USED IN THE SECOND SESSION
655 ARE INDICATED USING BLACK DIAMONDS AND REGULAR LETTERS. TERMS

656 HIGHLIGHTED IN BLACK WERE CONSENSUAL FOR $P \leq 0.10$ (KOSTOV ET AL. 2013).
657 IDENTICAL TERMS ARE CONNECTED WITH A LINE TO INDICATE THE SIZE OF THE
658 DIFFERENCE IN HOW THE TERM WAS USED BETWEEN THE SESSIONS
659

660

TABLES

661

662 **TABLE 1.** AVERAGE RV COEFFICIENT OF SAMPLE CONFIGURATION ACROSS
663 SIMULATIONS OBTAINED VIA A BOOTSTRAPPING RESAMPLING APPROACH FOR
664 THE SIX CONSUMER STUDIES.

Study	Average RV coefficient across simulations		
	Session 1	Session 2	Average
1*	0.967	0.970	0.969
2**	0.812	0.826	0.819
3* a	0.980	0.980	0.980
4* b	0.983	0.987	0.985
5** a	0.946	0.942	0.944
6** b	0.958	0.973	0.966

665

666 * Large differences among samples, ** Small differences among samples, ^a samples with flavor
667 differences, ^b samples with texture and flavor differences

TABLE 2. ESTIMATION OF GLOBAL AND INDIVIDUAL REPRODUCIBILITY OF PROJECTIVE MAPPING IN THE SIX CONSUMER STUDIES, USING THE RV COEFFICIENT BETWEEN SAMPLE CONFIGURATIONS OF THE TWO EVALUATION SESSIONS.

Study	Intersession interval	Number of consumers	Product	Number of samples	Global RV coefficient between sessions	Consumer individual reproducibility (#)			
						Minimum individual RV coefficient	Maximum individual RV coefficient	Average individual RV coefficient	Percentage of consumers with significant RV coefficient ($p \leq 0.05$)
1*	2 days	91	Plain crackers	8	0.960	0.001	0.958	0.422	34%
2**	2 days	89	Plain crackers	8	0.770	0.001	0.746	0.251	15%
3* ^a	14 days	48	Vanilla milk desserts	8	0.980	0.009	0.975	0.520	54%
4* ^b	14 days	48	Vanilla milk desserts	8	0.960	0.015	0.951	0.516	50%
5** ^a	14 days	42	Vanilla milk desserts	8	0.840	0.004	0.972	0.256	18%
6** ^b	14 days	42	Vanilla milk desserts	8	0.920	0.003	0.968	0.321	15%

* Large differences among samples, ** Small differences among samples, ^a samples with flavor differences, ^b samples with texture and flavor differences

(#) Individual reproducibility was estimated using the RV coefficient between individual sample configurations between the two sessions.

TABLE 3. TOTAL NUMBER OF TERMS AND CONSENSUAL TERMS FOR THE DESCRIPTION PHASE OF PROJECTIVE MAPPING FOR THE TWO SESSIONS OF THE SIX CONSUMER STUDIES.

Study	Session	Total number of terms	Number of common terms between sessions	Number of consensual terms at $p \leq 0.10$	Number of common consensual terms between sessions	RV coefficient between sessions from MFACT
1*	1	30	24	13	6	0.98
	2	26		12		
2**	1	35	27	6	2	0.80
	2	28		4		
3* a	1	29	25	8	6	0.98
	2	37		17		
4* b	1	31	27	16	12	0.94
	2	35		18		
5** a	1	20	18	4	0	0.81
	2	27		5		
6** b	1	27	22	10	8	0.94
	2	26		11		

* Large differences among samples, ** Small differences among samples, ^a samples with flavor differences, ^b samples with texture and flavor differences





