

1 **When the choice of the temporal method does make a difference: TCATA, TDS**
2 **and TDS by modality for characterizing semi-solid foods**

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10 **Abstract**

11 For describing the evolution of sensory properties during eating, dynamic sensory
12 methods are still being developed and optimised. Temporal Dominance of
13 Sensations (TDS) and Temporal Check All That Apply (TCATA) are currently the
14 most used and discussed. The aim of this study was to compare TDS, TCATA and a
15 variant of TDS, performed by modality (M-TDS) in the outcome of the dynamic
16 sensory description. These methods were applied with the same trained panel (n =
17 10) for the evaluation of the dynamic properties of yoghurt samples, with identical
18 composition, only varying in textural properties. Based on a design of experiment, the
19 yoghurts varied in viscosity (thin/thick), size of cereal particle added (flour/flakes) and
20 flavour intensity (low dose/optimised dose, by adding artificial sweetener and vanilla).

21 The TDS curves revealed that the variation in viscosity and particle size led to
22 differences in perception mainly at the beginning of the eating process (*Thin/Thick*
23 and *Gritty/Sandy*). Additionally, all samples were also perceived as *Bitter* at the end
24 of the eating process. TCATA and TDS by modality results were, generally, in
25 agreement with TDS, but they unveiled more details of the samples' dynamic profiles
26 in all stages of the eating process, showing the effect of *Vanilla* and *Sweet* for the
27 samples with optimised flavour, and the masked perception of *Bitter*.

28 The duration of the eating process was standardized and split into three time
29 intervals (T0-T40, T41-T80, T81-T100). Panelists' responses were summarized as
30 frequency values in each time interval. Principal Component Analysis was used to
31 visualize sample trajectories over time in the sensory space, with the need to study
32 up to the third dimension to better understand the trajectories. ANOVA models were
33 used to find the attributes which were significantly differences among products. Panel

34 performance was assessed based on MANOVA models for the three methods. The
35 results indicated that TCATA was more discriminative and panelists were more in
36 agreement. TCATA also described samples in more detail in terms of number of
37 discriminating attributes as compared with TDS. The discussion also centers in the
38 different aspects of perception that could respond to different research questions for
39 the three compared methods.

40 **Keywords:** *sensory description, TDS, TCATA, temporal methods, dynamic*
41 *perception, oral processing*

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44 **1. Introduction**

45 Eating facilitates two very basic functions for human beings: to gain energy and
46 nutrition and to gain pleasure and enjoyment; understanding sensory perception is
47 essential to explain people's eating behaviour, consumers' acceptance and linking of
48 food products (Chen, 2015; Koc, Vinyard, Essick, & Foegeding, 2013). Processes
49 involved in eating, e.g. mastication and salivation, are dynamic processes
50 (Dijksterhuis & Piggott, 2000). Some models have been proposed to explain the
51 breakdown pathway of food during oral processing that emphasized the dynamic and
52 complex nature of sensory perceptions during the continuous transformation of food
53 from first bite to swallowing (Hutchings & Lillford, 1988; Koc et al., 2013). These
54 researches indicate that sensory perception is a dynamic phenomenon, that is,
55 perception of aroma, taste and texture in foods is dynamic perceptual process with
56 the intensity of attributes changing throughout the steps of oral processing (Cliff &
57 Heymann, 1993).

58 Descriptive sensory techniques are designed to provide a measure of sensory
59 perceptions based on human assessments relying on methods from neurophysiology
60 and psychology. In sensory analysis, various methods can be used to gain a better
61 understanding of what sensory attributes are responsible for the perceived quality of
62 the products. Classically, sensory methods have focused on static judgements,
63 measuring the averaged intensities of sensations instead of time course of
64 sensations (Di Monaco, Su, Masi, & Cavella, 2014). These methods for sensory
65 profiling do not consider the temporal aspects of sensory perception and may miss
66 crucial information for understanding consumer preferences (Lawless & Heymann,
67 2010c). This necessitates the study of the methods for measuring dynamics of
68 sensory perception.

69 Several temporal sensory methods have been developed for dynamic sensory
70 characterization (Cadena, Vidal, Ares, & Varela, 2014). Time Intensity (TI) consists in
71 recording the evolution of the intensity of a given sensory attribute over time.
72 Although the concept of TI was early approached in 1937 (Holway & Hurvich, 1937),
73 this method was used quite extensively since 1970s (Lee & Pangborn, 1986).
74 Nevertheless, TI methodology is performed only on a small number of attributes or
75 with a limited number of products since only one attribute was evaluated at a time
76 (Pineau et al., 2009). In TI, shapes of TI curve are more subject than product
77 dependent (Sudre, Pineau, Loret, & Martin, 2012), leading to individual curves are
78 considered individual “signatures” of assessors; therefore, it is difficult to get the
79 general results for all assessors.

80 To cover more attributes, TI was extended to the Dual Attribute Time Intensity
81 (Duizer, Bloom, & Findlay, 1997), the Modified Time Intensity (Pionnier et al., 2004)
82 and later on Temporal Dominance of Sensations (TDS). TDS was developed as of
83 1999 at the “Centre Européen des Sciences du Goût” in the LIRIS lab and first
84 presented at the Pangborn Symposium by (Pineau, Cordelle, & Schlich, 2003). In its
85 inception, TDS was based on Ep Köster’s idea of a “harmonium of sensations”; he
86 imagined it like a piano “where the panelist could play the melody of the product”,
87 with each piano key as a sensory attribute; this complexity was simplified in TDS to
88 “one key at a time” (Schlich & Pineau, 2017). This method consists in presenting to
89 the assessors a list of attributes, the assessors are then asked to assess which of the
90 attributes is perceived as dominant. During the course of the evaluation, when the
91 assessor consider that the dominant attribute has changed, he or she has to select
92 the new dominant sensation (Labbe, Schlich, Pineau, Gilbert, & Martin, 2009; Pineau
93 et al., 2009). Results from TDS data are described as TDS curves, the dominant

94 rates of attributes (Y-axis) against time (X-axis) for each sample (Cadena et al.,
95 2014). When several attributes have to be compared over time, TDS would be in
96 principle better suited; however, some aspects have been questioned. The first one is
97 the definition of dominant attribute; a dominant attribute is defined as the attribute
98 associated to the sensation catching the attention at a given time (Pineau et al.,
99 2009), whereas other definition shows that dominance is the most intense sensation
100 (Labbe et al., 2009). Apparently, consensus regarding the definition of this concept is
101 lacking between studies (Cadena et al., 2014). In addition, this requirement for
102 sequential selection can potentially result in loss of relevant sensory information,
103 particularly when dealing with complex products that elicit several sensations
104 simultaneously during consumption (Ares et al., 2015). In a recent study, (Varela et
105 al., 2017) explored the conceptualization of “dominance” by trained assessors and
106 consumers. They found that dominance is a complex construct related to multiple
107 aspects of perception, and that different conceptualizations within a panel can
108 influence the interpretation of results. Controversial issues highlighted were around
109 how attributes are selected, the drivers of transitions between attributes, the
110 competition of sensory modalities and how some phenomena like dumping or
111 dithering could happen at some stages in TDS.

112 TCATA, the temporal extension of Check All That Apply developed in recent
113 years, could potentially overcome some of those issues. In TCATA, the assessors’
114 task is to indicate and continually update the attributes that apply to the sample
115 moment to moment, that is, one or more applicable sensations are tracked at a given
116 time during mastication (Castura, Antúnez, Giménez, & Ares, 2016). Compared with
117 TDS, TCATA enables the evaluation of more than one attribute at each time,
118 resulting in more detailed description of sensory characteristics of products over time

119 (Ares et al., 2015). However, the assessors may be so focused on continuously
120 selecting and un-selecting terms that describe a sample that it could result, in some
121 cases, in a more complex or fatiguing method (Ares et al., 2016); this could be
122 particularly the case in a new variant of TCATA, TCATA-Fading, in which the
123 selected attributes become unselected over a predefined duration.

124 One important drawback of TDS is that dithering and dumping might be enhanced
125 when taste and texture are evaluated in the same task, as fewer terms are available
126 per modality and because panelists need to decide both on the modality and on the
127 attribute (Varela et al., 2017). One possible modification which could overcome this
128 issue, would be running TDS in separate steps, where panelists would be allowed to
129 assess each modality in a different screen, hereby called TDS by modality or M-TDS.
130 This latter method has been proposed by (Agudelo, Varela, & Fiszman, 2015) and
131 applied on fruit fillings and later on cheeses (Bemfeito, Rodrigues, Silva, & Abreu,
132 2016), but it has not been formally compared to TDS or TCATA from a
133 methodological standpoint.

134 Until now, some papers have shown that TCATA and TDS provided comparable
135 sample information (Ares et al., 2015), whereas other suggested that TCATA and its
136 variants were able to improve discrimination and deliver a more detailed description
137 (Ares et al., 2017; Ares et al., 2016). The divergence could result from the different
138 products evaluated, or the lack of specific criteria for comparison between the
139 temporal methods.

140 In this context, the objective of present work was to compare these three temporal
141 methods (TDS, TCATA and M-TDS) based on detailed criteria consisting of dynamic
142 profile, product trajectory and panel performance. The discussion will also center on
143 the different aspects of perception that could respond to different research questions

144 for the three compared methods. This critical comparison will add to the body of
145 literature that can help researchers to select the temporal method best suited to their
146 needs.

147 **2. Materials and methods**

148 *2.1. Samples*

149 The idea behind the present research was to start from a design of experiment
150 (DOE) based on the same ingredients, only modifying the product texture by using
151 different processing strategies, so as the samples would have the same calories and
152 composition and these parameters would not influence satiety or satiation, as this
153 methodological study is part of a bigger project looking into satiety perception. The
154 parameters of the DOE were: viscosity (thin/thick), particle size (flake/flour) and
155 flavour intensity (low/optimal). For creating the viscosity differences, two types of
156 yoghurts bases were prepared, one commercial natural yoghurt and another using
157 the same yoghurt in which the texture was modified by stirring for 10 minutes at
158 25000 rpm in an Ultraturrax PT 3100, irreversible disrupting the gelled structure of
159 the yoghurt and obtaining a thinner, stable version. For the two particle sizes, oat was
160 added in either flakes or flour. Oat flour was obtained by milling the oat flakes with
161 an Ultra Centrifugal Mill ZM200 using a 0.5 mm sieve. Flavour level was varied using
162 two different levels of a combination of acesulfame K and vanilla aroma. “Optimal
163 flavour” intensity was the recommended by the industry providing the yoghurt as the
164 level of sweetener and vanilla they use in commercial low sugar vanilla yoghurt. The
165 “low flavour” level was a perceivable lower level, as per informal tasting by the
166 research team. The optimal intensity was 0.025% acesulfame K and 0.05% vanilla,
167 whereas low level was half of those levels. Finally, eight yoghurt samples were

168 obtained varying in viscosity, particle size of oats and flavour intensity, as per the
169 DOE in Table 1.

170 The materials used in the preparation of the yoghurt samples were commercial
171 yoghurts (TINE Yoghurt Naturell, TINE, Norway), oat flakes (AXA 4-korn, AXA,
172 Norway), acesulfame K and vanilla supplied by TINE, Norway.

173 All the sensory evaluations were conducted by Nofima's trained panel, in
174 standardized individual booths according to ISO standards (ISO 8589:2007).
175 Samples were served in plastic containers coded with 3-digit random numbers and in
176 a sequential monadic manner following a balanced presentation order. Thirty grams
177 of each yoghurt was served to each assessor for all the evaluations. Two replicates
178 were run for QDA and three replicates for the temporal descriptive tests (TDS,
179 TCATA and M-TDS). Samples were evaluated during normal consumption (no time
180 restriction) and they were spat out after evaluation for the three methods.

181 *2.2. Trained Panel*

182 Nofima's panel is a highly trained, very stable panel, the 10 assessors are solely
183 hired as tasters, with a part time job, and some of them have more than 20 years'
184 experience working with descriptive analysis. Panel performance is assessed
185 frequently, and checked for every project. That ensures that all panelists are good
186 enough based on three important qualities: discrimination, repeatability and
187 agreement. The panel has 7 years' experience with TDS and one year of experience
188 with TCATA.

189 *2.3. Quantitative Descriptive Analysis*

190 Generic quantitative descriptive analysis, inspired in QDA[®], was also used in this
191 study as a frame of reference on the static profile of the samples. Sensory profiling
192 was performed on eight samples through generic quantitative descriptive analysis
193 (Lawless & Heymann, 2010a; Stone, Bleibaum, & Thomas, 2012). The descriptive
194 terminology of the products was created in a pre-trial session using samples 4 and 5.
195 These samples were selected in informal tasting by the researchers and panel
196 leader, for showing extremes examples stretching the sensory space. After a 1-h
197 pre-trial session, the descriptors and definitions were agreed upon by the assessors;
198 all assessors were able to discriminate among samples, exhibited repeatability, and
199 reached agreement with other members of the group. The final list (Table 2) was
200 comprised of six odour attributes (*Intensity, Acidic, Vanilla, Stale, Sickening,*
201 *Oxidized*), three taste attributes (*Sweet, Acidic, Bitter*), six flavour attributes (*Intensity,*
202 *Sour, Vanilla, Stale, Sickening, Oxidized*) and six texture attributes (*Thick, Full, Gritty,*
203 *Sandy, Dry, Astringent*).

204 2.4. Temporal Dominance of Sensations (TDS)

205 Trained sensory panelists (n = 10) were used for TDS task. The evaluation was
206 conducted following the TDS approach presented by Pineau et al. (2003). Two
207 preliminary sessions were conducted, in which samples were presented in monadic
208 order. In the first, the panelists listed all dominant attributes they perceived while
209 tasting two samples (P4, P5). They discussed these sensations before tasting three
210 next samples (P1, P2 and P8) in the second session. After that, the most frequently
211 cited attributes were selected upon agreement among the panelists. The sensory
212 lexicon generated for the temporal description of the yoghurts included ten attributes
213 (taste/flavour, texture) with their definitions (Table 3).

214 For the formal assessment, samples were assessed in triplicate. Assessors were
215 asked to put a spoonful of the sample in their mouth and press “START”,
216 subsequently selecting the dominant sensations while eating by clicking at all times
217 one among the ten attributes presented on the computer screen. When the sample
218 was ready to swallow, they pressed “STOP” and spat out the sample. The assessors
219 could successively select as many attributes as they wanted during the oral
220 processing of the samples, including re-selecting an attribute more than once during
221 the test. At all times, only one attribute was selected (the dominant one). Assessors
222 were asked to rinse their mouth with water between samples. Dominance was
223 defined as the sensation that caught assessors’ attention at a given time, not
224 necessarily the most intense.

225 *2.5. Temporal Check All That Apply (TCATA)*

226 The procedure was as described by Castura et al. (2016). Assessors were
227 instructed to review the attributes prior to the evaluation, to get familiar with the
228 attribute distribution on the screen. The TCATA list included ten attributes, the same
229 as in the TDS task. Assessors were asked to check the terms that applied to describe
230 the sensory characteristics of samples at each moment of the evaluation and to
231 uncheck the terms when they were no longer applicable. Unlike TDS, multiple
232 attributes can be selected simultaneously. During the evaluation, the assessors were
233 free to check any unselected attribute, or to uncheck any selected attribute at all
234 times.

235 *2.6. Temporal Dominance of Sensations by modality (M-TDS)*

236 The procedure is similar to the one conducted in TDS task except for the
237 evaluation of flavour and texture modalities in 2 different steps. The list of attributes is

238 the same as describes on Table 3. The assessors tasted one mouthful of a sample
239 and described the dominance of the flavour attributes (*Acidic, Bitter, Cloying, Sweet,*
240 *Vanilla*) on the first screen. After this, they rinsed their mouths, tasted a second
241 mouthful of the same sample and selected the dominance of the textural attributes
242 during time (*Dry, Gritty, Sandy, Thick, Thin*) on a second screen. The procedure was
243 repeated for the rest of samples.

244 2.7. Data analysis

245 2.7.1. Data in sequence of time points

246 Time standardization was applied to remove assessor noise (Lenfant, Loret,
247 Pineau, Hartmann, & Martin, 2009).

248 For each point of time, the proportion of runs (subject*replication) for which the
249 given attribute was assessed as dominant was computed. These proportions were
250 smoothed and plotted against time. The curves were called TDS curves. There were
251 two main lines that assisted the interpretation of dominance curves in a plot, “chance
252 level” and “significant level”. The former represented the theoretical proportion of
253 subjects selecting an attribute at random. Its value, P_0 , is equal to $1/p$, p being the
254 number of attributes. The latter represented the smallest proportion that can be
255 declared as being significantly higher than the chance level (binomial distribution, $\alpha =$
256 0.05). It was calculated using Eq. (1) with n as the number of subject*replication
257 (Pineau et al., 2009).

$$P_s = P_0 + 1.645 \sqrt{\frac{P_0(1 - P_0)}{n}} \quad (1)$$

258 For M-TDS, the two modalities – flavour and texture – were recorded on two
259 consecutive screens. For each product and each point in time, the dominant rates by
260 modalities were separately calculated and then plotted together. Since it is possible
261 to obtain two dominant attributes (one for flavour, another for texture) at a given time,
262 the sum of the dominance rates for attributes of each modality, instead of all
263 attributes, was equal to 1.

264 Basically, TCATA data was arranged in a matrix, with attributes in rows and time
265 slices in columns. An evaluation was the citation proportion of each attribute,
266 calculated as the proportion of judgments (assessors*replicates) for which it was
267 selected for describing a sample at a given time. TCATA curves were showed as
268 smoothed attribute citation proportions over time. For each TCATA attribute, the
269 citation rate of a product of interest can be contrasted with the average citation rate of
270 the other products (Castura, Antúnez, et al., 2016).

271 Whether TDS or TCATA data, covariance Principle Component Analysis (PCA)
272 was conducted on the table of mean citation proportions (TCATA data) or dominance
273 rates (TDS data) with Product*Times in rows and Attributes in columns. By linking
274 adjacent time points corresponding to the same sample, product trajectories
275 described the evolution in how the sample was characterized over time (Castura,
276 Baker, & Ross, 2016).

277 *2.7.2. Aggregated data in time intervals*

278 Without loss of generality, the evaluation duration in temporal data was split into
279 smaller time intervals (T0-T40: beginning; T41-T80: middle; T81-T100: end) as
280 presented in several researches (Dinnella, Masi, Naes, & Monteleone, 2013; Nguyen,
281 Wahlgren, Almlí, & Varela, 2017). For each time interval, only values above the

282 significant level were used and the scores were the average of the scores given to an
283 attribute during an evaluation weighted by their duration (Labbe et al., 2009).

284 The ANOVA was carried out on the scores, considering sample (fixed effect),
285 replicate (random effect), assessor (random effect) and their interactions as sources
286 of variation (Lea, Næs, & Rødbotten, 1997). In each time interval, only dominant
287 attributes (TDS, M-TDS) or applicable attributes (TCATA) were subjected to the
288 ANOVA model with the purpose of testing the significant differences between
289 respective samples, which had dominant or applicable attributes were detected. The
290 Multiple Factor Analysis (MFA) (Escofier & Pagès, 1994) was applied to the scores.
291 Product spaces and correlation plots were constructed to visualize sample
292 differences and/or similarities in sensory attributes with corresponding time intervals.

293 The Canonical Variate Analysis (CVA) was conducted based on a multivariate
294 analysis of variance (MANOVA) model with product being a fixed effect, whereas
295 subject as a random one. This is slightly different from standard CVA since it
296 contrasts the between-samples covariance matrix with the interaction covariance
297 matrix (interaction between assessor and samples) instead of the within-group
298 covariance matrix. By doing so, CVA draws the product map based on product
299 means with consideration of subject variability (Peltier, Visalli, & Schlich, 2015b).

300 To quantify the degree of collinearity in the data, the distribution of Singular Value
301 Decomposition (SVD) was assessed as proposed by Callaghan and colleagues
302 (Callaghan & Chen, 2008). The CVA biplots allowed differences between samples to
303 be visualized while taking account of panelist heterogeneity. Considering k
304 dimensions of sample space, the Hotelling's T-square test was employed to test the
305 hypothesis H0 (the 2 product mean vectors have the same location in the space
306 generated by the first k dimensions). The significant p-value indicated that the mean

307 vectors were statistically different; NDMISIG was the number of dimensions in which
308 the differences between products were significant. Confidence ellipses (90%) have
309 been drawn around each product (Albert, Salvador, Schlich, & Fiszman, 2012;
310 Monrozier & Danzart, 2001; Peltier, Visalli, & Schlich, 2015a; Teillet, Schlich, Urbano,
311 Cordelle, & Guichard, 2010).

312 The two criteria, namely discrimination ability and agreement, were proposed to
313 assess the panel performance (Lepage et al., 2014; Pineau & Schlich, 2015).

314 All data were collected with EyeQuestion (Logic8 BV, The Netherlands) and
315 carried out using R version 3.4.1 (R Core Team, 2017).

316 **3. Results**

317 The key point of this research is to focus on the similarities and differences
318 between the temporal methods. Another discussion point will be what research
319 questions can answer each of the methods. For brevity, the details of the specific
320 sensory profiles of each of the samples were not presented here, but they are
321 available on supplementary material to the interested reader. The next three sections
322 will give topline results for the three methods, and Fig. 1 shows exemplar TDS,
323 TCATA and M-TDS curves for two samples P1 and P5 only varying in flavour
324 intensity.

325 *3.1. Dynamic sensory profiling*

326 *3.1.1. TDS*

327 The TDS curves showed that texture attributes were the first dominant perceptions
328 for all samples, regardless of the viscosity, particle size or flavour level. For flake-
329 added samples, *Gritty* was dominant at the beginning of the oral processing, coupled

330 with *Thick* or *Thin* depending on the viscosity of the samples. Similarly, *Sandy* was
331 the dominating texture for flour-added samples at the beginning following *Thin* or
332 *Thick*. Those dominances lasted for 30% to 40% of the eating time. The dominance
333 rates were higher than the significance level, but their values were generally low to
334 medium, (0.4 to 0.6), showing that, in general, the attributes did not obtain very high
335 consensus in the TDS evaluation. In the middle of the eating process, *Acidic* was
336 dominant for all samples, and *Bitter* in the middle and end. These perceptions were
337 associated to particle size and flavour intensity. The flour induced a decrease in the
338 dominance of *Acidic* and enhanced *Bitter* dominance regardless of the flavour
339 intensity. In general, samples were less dominantly *Acidic* in optimal level samples. In
340 the last stage of the oral processing, *Bitter* dominant in all samples. It is interesting to
341 note that although *Sweet* and *Vanilla* were selected as important by the panelists to
342 differentiate the samples at attribute selection stage, they were not found as
343 dominant at any moment of the consumption in the TDS test.

344 3.1.2. TCATA

345 The temporal profiles of low flavour samples were mainly characterized by texture
346 attributes during all eating process. *Gritty* and *Sandy* were applicable throughout all
347 consumption period. *Dry* was applicable in the second half of the eating period
348 significantly higher than the average for the thin flour samples. This might suggest
349 that the perception of *Dry* was enhanced when viscosity was low, while the thicker
350 texture acted as a lubricant in the tongue against astringent flour particles. The
351 increase in flavour in the optimal level caused an increase in sweet-related
352 sensations considered applicable (*Sweet*, *Vanilla*); in particular, *Sweet* in the
353 beginning and *Vanilla* in the middle of the eating process.

354 While TCATA highlighted *Sweet* and *Vanilla* flavours as significantly more
355 applicable than the average in the optimal samples, and in some of the low flavour
356 samples, in TDS these two flavours were below the significant line for most samples.

357 3.1.3. M-TDS

358 The M-TDS curves indicated that the initial dominant perception was related to the
359 viscosity properties (*Thick/Thin*). The attributes linked to particle size, *Sandy* for the
360 flake samples and *Gritty* for the flour samples, began to be perceived as dominant at
361 20% of consumption time for all samples, and lasted up to the beginning of the final
362 consumption stage. *Sweet* was selected as dominant attribute for all samples in the
363 beginning of the consumption. Its dominance rate ranged from 0.35 (low flavour
364 samples) to 0.7 (optimal flavour samples) at about 40% of the beginning of the
365 consumption period, meaning than M-TDS highlighted the flavour differences
366 between the samples more than TDS. Importantly, for optimal flavour samples,
367 *Vanilla* was also detected as significantly dominant in this time slot. This was the
368 other apparent difference between TDS and M-TDS curves, as TDS did not highlight
369 *Vanilla* as dominant in any of the samples. At the end of the eating process *Bitter*
370 and/or *Cloying* perception was dominating for all the samples except for sample P8.

371 More specifically, Fig. 1 shows exemplar TDS, TCATA and M-TDS curves for two
372 samples P1 and P5 only varied in flavour intensity. TCATA curves displayed the
373 proportion of citations for each attribute at each time of the evaluation in which thicker
374 curves show attributes that are more(less) cited than the average at a particular point
375 in time of consumption. For sample P1, the three methods presented similar sensory
376 patterns; the assessors perceived *Thin* and *Gritty* in the first half and then *Acidic* in
377 the second half of the eating process. For the same pattern, M-TDS seems to have

378 discriminated slightly better the sequence *Thin-Gritty*. Nonetheless, the differences
379 among the sensory descriptions between methods appeared when the flavour
380 intensity was increased in the sample (P5). In TDS, perceptions linked to sweet
381 perceptions (*Vanilla, Sweet*) were not dominant, whereas, for TCATA and M-TDS,
382 they perceived *Vanilla* at the beginning and *Sweet* at the middle of the mastication as
383 more applicable or dominant respectively. Note that the assessors even selected
384 *Sweet* as more applicable or dominant at the beginning when they evaluated the low
385 flavour intensity sample (P1). This implies that TCATA and M-TDS seem to be more
386 efficient when unveiling the dynamic flavour characteristics of the samples.

387 In addition, differences between citation proportions in TCATA and dominance
388 rates in TDS/ M-TDS were observed in all attributes. On average, citation proportions
389 in TCATA were larger than those in TDS, in most cases above 0.8 in TCATA and
390 around 0.4-0.5 for TDS. The forced choice in TDS might explain the lower citation
391 proportion as compared to TCATA. In principle, all the attributes in the list could be
392 cited all along the evaluation in TCATA, but this is not the case for TDS where the
393 probability of citation is always 1/number of attributes. One possible explanation is
394 due to the lack of consensus among assessors on which attributes were dominant.
395 The lower consensus can be due to several concurrent dominant attributes, added to
396 the complexity to the concept of dominance. Consequently, several attributes did not
397 reach significance throughout the evaluation. This complexity could in principle be a
398 valuable result in itself although a difficult one to get direction from.

399 Regarding method difficulty, in this study, none of the assessors commented about
400 a major complexity or difficulty in the TCATA task. This is in agreement with previous
401 studies on self-reported task perception measures (Ares et al., 2016; Ares et al.,
402 2015). In fact, this particular panel feels more comfortable evaluating temporal

403 perception by TCATA rather than TDS, expressing themselves more freely with
404 TCATA, while in TDS they feel somehow restricted, also explored in Varela et al.
405 (2017).

406 3.2. *Product trajectory*

407 The PCA scores from adjacent time points were joined to give the trajectories,
408 which were presented in Fig. 2. Trajectory plots display the path that follows the
409 sample throughout the sensory space while the sample is consumed (Lenfant et al.,
410 2009), summarizing the evolution of dynamic profile over time. Dimension two
411 accounted for the second largest variability in data, linked to proportions dimension of
412 all attributes, not adding relevant information about the profiles. Thus, dimensions
413 one and three were chosen as the best for displaying differences between samples in
414 the three cases.

415 The first dimension of the PCA for the three methods was correlated to the
416 attributes *Gritty* on the one side and *Sandy* on the opposite side, separating the
417 samples according to the particle size of the oats. In particular, samples P4, P8, P7,
418 and P3, formulated with oat flour were grouped on one group, whereas the rest (with
419 oat flakes) belonged to the other group.

420 Meanwhile, the third dimension of the PCA in the three methods was mainly
421 associated with the viscosity attributes (*Thick/Thin*). Samples P2, P6, P4 and P8
422 were characterized by the *Thick* attribute while samples P1, P5, P3 and P7 by *Thin*
423 attribute.

424 As mentioned previously, the PCA plots also pointed out evolution of samples over
425 time. The trajectories visualized the common pattern in temporal profile. The products

426 could be split into two groups according to their sensory trajectories: one group with
427 high viscosity (P2, P6, P4 and P8), another group with low viscosity (P1, P5, P3 and
428 P7). The former group was characterized as being *Thick* at the beginning of the
429 eating process, then *Gritty* (samples P2, P6) and *Sandy* (samples P4, P8). The latter
430 group was described by *Thin* at first, turning into *Gritty* and/or *Sandy* at the end of the
431 eating process. In general, flavour attributes did not strongly influence the sample
432 trajectories except for TDS trajectory; *Bitter* was pointed as dominant attribute in the
433 last stage of the eating process for the flour samples (P3, P7, P4 and P8). The
434 attribute partly imparted on temporal sequence of sensations during consumption of
435 samples P4 and P8 in TCATA trajectory.

436 In general, the evolution pattern was similar among methods. The TDS
437 trajectories, however, was the less resolved. One explanation was possible due to
438 the dithering in selecting a dominant attribute of the panelists, which in turn made the
439 low consensus in their results.

440 3.3. Product characterization

441 Regarding QDA results, the 2-way ANOVA indicated that the panelists well
442 discriminated between the samples for all the sensory attributes, except for *Acidic*
443 *taste* and *Sickenening odour*. Two other performance indexes, agreement and
444 repeatability abilities, were also assessed. Nevertheless, the indexes were not the
445 main focus in this study, so they have not been deeply discussed.

446 To evaluate the sensory profiles provided by each method and to compare them
447 together, a MFA was performed on the combined data composed of TDS, TCATA,
448 QDA, TDS by modalities (flavour, texture) sensory profiles. Each profile was
449 considered as a separate data table in MFA. Within each group, only significant

450 attributes in the three time intervals were selected in the calculations. The MFA
451 analyses were started by examining the canonical correlation coefficients. These
452 coefficients measured the relationship between MFA dimensions and each group of
453 data. Table 4 shows the values of these coefficients, in particular, to TDS, TCATA
454 and QDA groups clearly explained by Dim1, whereas M-TDS by Dim2. The next
455 criterion to evaluate was the RV coefficient (Table 5). As compared with QDA, the RV
456 coefficients of TDS, TCATA and M-TDS were 0.69, 0.83 and 0.39, respectively. This
457 implied a strong link existed between the TCATA and QDA profiles. Graphically, the
458 relationship between the groups and the common space provided by the MFA was
459 evaluated through the partial axes representation (Fig. 3). Without concerning the
460 sign of the correlation, Fig. 3 shows the relationship between MFA dimensions and
461 dimensions of each group (TDS, TCATA and M-TDS). It is worth noting that, the third
462 dimension, instead of the second dimension of M-TDS, linked to the first MFA plane.

463 The superimposed representation (Fig. 4a) was other important result, indicating
464 how close the different points of view could be, within each product. It suggested
465 that, for any sample, the way how the samples characterized by each method was
466 distinctive. Of those, QDA, TDS and TCATA methods offered similar descriptions,
467 reflecting by the same direction of these methods on the map. Conversely, the
468 standpoint provided by M-TDS was very extreme compared with three methods QDA,
469 TDS and TCATA. It was not surprising as M-TDS was carried out by two sequential
470 modalities, which might be failing to assess the interactions between modalities.
471 Furthermore, the correlation between TCATA and QDA on the map was high,
472 implying that the TCATA description was more highly correlated to the QDA
473 description than to the TDS description.

474 The perceptual map (Fig. 4b) displays the links between attributes of each
475 method. The results indicated that the same perceptions provided by different
476 methods were highly associated, except for Acidic and Bitter. It is noteworthy that
477 Bitter perception evaluated by TDS and TCATA was not correlated. The *m.Bitter*
478 provided by TDS was mostly explained by the first dimension, the *m.Bitter* provided
479 by TCATA, conversely, taken into account by the second dimension. On the first
480 space (Dim1 vs. Dim2), two perceptions were orthogonal. Regarding Acidic
481 perception, it was perceived differently between TDS and the rest of methods;
482 *m.Acidic* by TDS was not highly correlated to Acidic perceptions of TCATA and M-
483 TDS methods.

484 To better understand these differences, ANOVA was carried out (Table 6). For
485 each attribute, only the samples dominated and/or applied were compared. All
486 methods showed similar results. The difference was observed between two groups of
487 samples; one group consisting of the samples P1 to P4, another group comprising
488 the samples P5 to P8. The former was formulated with low sweetener intensity while
489 the latter with optimal sweetener intensity. The increase in sweetener intensity
490 resulted in the decrease in perceptions of both *Acidic* and *Bitter*.

491 3.4. Panel performance

492 The significant attributes were identified by the ANOVA (Table 7), in which the
493 rows corresponded to the sensory attributes of the data set, the columns to the
494 temporal methods, and each element corresponded to the *p-value* associated with
495 the *F-test* of an effect for a given attribute.

496 The MANOVA results addressed the multidimensional discrimination, a measure
497 of the separation of the samples in the sensory space generated by the descriptors
498 relatively to panelist disagreement.

499 The multicollinearities were checked for each of the datasets. As shown in Fig. 5,
500 the values of SVDs did not decrease dramatically, indicating the weak degree of
501 collinearity of datasets. In addition, the sample configurations obtained by CVA also
502 were compared with those of PCA. The comparison indicated that the maps were not
503 too different between CVA and PCA approaches (results not shown). These results
504 were displayed in Fig. 6. The Hotelling's T-square test discriminated all pairs of
505 samples. In TDS biplot (Fig. 6a), two samples P1, P5; three samples P6, P3, P7; and
506 two samples P4, P8 were connected with the other segments, respectively. In TDS
507 map, these segments were located closely to each other as compared with TCATA
508 map (Fig. 6b) and M-TDS map (Fig. 6c). This implied that the sample discrimination
509 in TDS was less effective than in TCATA and M-TDS.

510 The distribution of panelist scores around the product means could be visualized
511 by confidence ellipses, showing the (dis)agreement between panelists. In TDS, the
512 consensus in selecting dominant attributes was low, resulting in the high variability of
513 the subject scores around the mean. In Fig. 6, the sizes of confidence ellipses in TDS
514 was the largest, whereas those in TCATA and M-TDS were smaller. It is thus
515 possible to confirm the better agreement ability of panelists in TCATA and M-TDS
516 tasks.

517 **4. Discussion**

518 *4.1. Comparisons based on product description*

519 Apart from citation proportions and dominance rates, the difference among
520 temporal methods is apparent when comparing the temporal profiles of the optimal
521 flavour samples. The key point is the information related to sweetness; the assessors
522 did not select *Sweet* and *Vanilla* as dominant when tasting samples at any point in
523 the TDS task. The reason can be attributed to the nature of perception. Texture and
524 taste perceptions are more dominant and easier to use and to choose as dominant
525 by panelists to describe products than aroma perception, emphasizing the fact that
526 these attributes are the most discriminating (Kora, Latrille, Souchon, & Martin, 2003;
527 Saint-Eve et al., 2011; Wendin, Solheim, Allmere, & Johansson, 1997). Besides,
528 aroma attributes are perhaps less frequently used than others when a choice has
529 been made from among all of the attributes (Saint-Eve et al., 2011). The panelists,
530 tended to choose mainly textural attributes as dominant when they could choose only
531 one in this example. It is possible to overtake the problem by using alternative
532 procedures such as TCATA or M-TDS. Here, the panelists could select many
533 applicable attributes at a time in the TCATA task, or both texture/flavour as dominant
534 at the same time, because of having them in separate screens in the M-TDS task. As
535 a result, *Sweet* and *Vanilla* appeared as applicable and/or dominant at the beginning
536 and middle of the eating process, respectively.

537 For TDS tasks, the selection of dominant attributes followed the texture – flavour
538 process. It is somehow logical because the dominant processes are described in
539 hypothetical food-saliva systems, in these sequential steps: comminution –
540 agglomeration – hydration – dilution (Witt & Stokes, 2015). The TDS results showed
541 that texture attributes, were always perceived as dominant at the beginning, and
542 *Bitter* taste dominated at the middle and end of the eating process. Here, it is not
543 certain that sweet related attributes were not selected because they were not

544 dominant (as compared to the rest of the taste/flavour attributes) or if the panelists
545 would always select texture, driven by the natural oral processing sequence.
546 Furthermore, with continuing size of fractured particles reduction, texture perception
547 will become less relevant, and hugely increased surface area helps fast release and
548 diffusion of taste and aroma compounds from food interior. Both phenomena could
549 cause that *Bitter* can be detected as the dominant attribute at the second half of the
550 eating process. In this context, it is also interesting to note, that bitter is an alerting
551 sensation -with the evolutionary object of pinpointing dangers, as poisons- then it
552 could be that cognitively, humans are prepared to detect bitter more dominantly over
553 other tastes or flavours.

554 Results confirm what Varela et al. (2017) suggested, that in TDS tasks, different
555 modalities are in competition for the “dominance” rating. One could think of some
556 products where texture might be definitely dominant as compared to flavour, highly
557 crispy products for instance, or also some foods where flavour might be much more
558 dominant than texture, espresso coffee for example. Nevertheless, most products
559 would have one flavour and one texture attribute *dominating at the same time*.
560 Flavour and texture are really perceived by different channels, chemesthesis
561 (chemically induced sensations in the oral and nasal cavities) vs somesthesis (tactile
562 and thermal sensations) (Lawless & Heymann, 2010b). So, how is it possible to
563 compare sensations perceived by those two channels and being able to choose only
564 one attribute of one of the modalities? This is a complex decision a panelist needs to
565 do, and that is reflected by the low agreement in TDS tasks, and the high level of
566 noise in the data, due to dithering and dumping effects determined by the difficulty in
567 deciding on the dominant attribute and shifting to the next (Varela et al., 2017).

568 Food perception is a multisensory phenomenon, reflecting the integration of taste,
569 olfactory, and other sensory information into a perceived property of the food, rather
570 than a collection of individual sensory attributes (Prescott, 2015). In addition, the
571 normal or free oral processing is the most efficient way to judge the sensory
572 attributes of semi-solid foods (de Wijk, Engelen, & Prinz, 2003). These suggest that
573 sensory perceptions should be evaluated simultaneously in order to avoid loss of
574 relevant information. In this context, TCATA seem to reflect better the multisensory
575 experience in food consumption and its relation to the natural oral processing and
576 dynamic sensory perception. Of course, if the objective of the research was to
577 highlight a single dominating sensation, even in the case competing modalities or
578 perceptual channels, TDS will be the method of choice. However, one should be
579 aware that most of the times that would mean that TDS will highlight textural aspects
580 when food physics dominate the consumption phase (beginning and sometimes end
581 of the mastication), irrespectively of how one would change the flavour of the product.

582 The sample trajectories show the different way how sample characteristics change
583 over time. This observation corroborates that texture properties have a large
584 influence on sensory perceptions of samples. In this study, the viscosity-related
585 attributes were selected at the early stage of eating period, together with particle size
586 attributes. Importantly, *Gritty* and *Sandy* were the most important attributes in the first
587 dimension of PCA biplots, but they are not the first attributes that panelists use to
588 separate samples. In practice, they used *Thick/Thin* as the first classifier. The results
589 support the idea that there seemed to be a privileged time window of expression of
590 some specific sensations in the course of the eating period (Lenfant et al., 2009).
591 According to (Allen Foegeding, Çakır, & Koç, 2010), the sequence of sensation can
592 be grouped based on the different stages of the in-mouth processing of food: pre-

593 fracture, first bite, chew down and residual after swallowing. Some authors (Chen &
594 Stokes, 2012; de Wijk, Janssen, & Prinz, 2011) found that sensations of those bulk-
595 dominated texture features were detected relatively quickly, whereas sensations of
596 those related to surface properties were detected relatively slowly. That is the
597 important transition of oral sensation of textural properties from rheology to the
598 tribology domain. Consequently, in this case, the attributes related to viscosity
599 (*Thick/Thin*) are perceived first, and then the attributes concerning particle size
600 (*Gritty/Sandy*) were dominating or significantly more applicable later in the
601 consumption. These brings back to the topic that modality or groups of attributes,
602 rather than single attributes could be what drives the dominating sensations
603 throughout the eating process, encompassing the natural oral processing
604 mechanisms, process which TCATA would allow to reflect.

605 *4.2. Comparisons based on panel performance*

606 As testing panel performance, the results were in light with previous research
607 (Ares et al., 2015) that showed TCATA provided a more comprehensive overview of
608 temporal sensations than TDS did. The present study also showed that a
609 modification of TDS (M-TDS) allowing for different modalities to be chosen at the
610 same time, could overcome the above discussed issues that make TDS less efficient.
611 Evidence of better discrimination of TCATA and M-TDS supports the idea that only
612 one dominant attribute chosen at a given time leads to missing relevant information
613 of the sensory characteristics of food products. In addition, panelists show a good
614 agreement for describing the samples. This indicates that TCATA is not a complex
615 and fatiguing method for panelists and can be used to obtain a reliable description of
616 the dynamics of sensory perception.

617 *4.3. Which method for which research question*

618 The methods compared in this work are based on different conceptual aspects
619 (applicability vs dominance), and there is still a lot of research and thinking to do,
620 particularly in terms of which methods answer to which research questions. The
621 results of the present study suggest that TCATA task could be recommended to
622 capture in a more natural way the dynamic and multisensory perceptions of food
623 products, where assessors could freely choose the number of sensations relevant at
624 each moment. M-TDS on the other hand, also seems to retrieve the multisensory
625 aspects of the dynamics of perception, and could be recommended when one is
626 interested in dominance, or how one sensation could overshadow others in a product
627 at different points in time, without losing sight of product complexity. TDS however,
628 generates a more restricted outcome, less discrimination between products, and the
629 biases because of attribute restriction could be limiting at the time of interpreting
630 results (see Varela et al. (2017) for an in depth discussion of the dumping and
631 dithering effects in TDS evaluation). Some researchers suggest the TDS could be
632 better suited to consumers than to trained panelists (Schlich, 2017; Varela et al.,
633 2017), however, the majority of the research done so far in TDS has been with
634 trained panels (Schlich, 2017); so more research is definitely needed to see what
635 aspects of consumer perception TDS can reflect. In this sense, it will be interesting to
636 better understand how much are temporal dominant attributes in a product relevant
637 for preferences, food reward, food intake, etc. Some authors (Thomas, Visalli,
638 Cordelle, & Schlich, 2015) suggested TDL (temporal drivers of liking) as a tool for
639 looking into temporal liking; other authors (Delarue & Blumenthal, 2015) have
640 presented some research also in their review on temporal aspects of consumer
641 preferences, but not much research has been done in this area. The main question

642 would be, how is temporality of sensory perception linked to product appreciation and
643 intake? And which is it the best method for looking into it?

644 Another point worth discussing is the difference in evaluation processes, from
645 perceptual and cognitive points of view; in principle, applicability as measured by
646 TCATA, seems to be quite different than evaluating dominance, as in TDS or M-TDS,
647 i.e. “tick all what is there” as compared to select “the one” dominant attribute.
648 However, the present results suggest that M-TDS is somehow closer to TCATA than
649 to TDS, even if it relies in dominance evaluation. Then, one could think that
650 applicability and a less restricted dominance are not that far in approach. Particularly
651 thinking that the applicable attributes in TCATA need to be chosen in a very fast
652 sequence, one could think that the “most applicable attributes” would in a way be
653 also the “most striking”, generating a less restrictive selection of a higher number of
654 “dominant” attributes. This point would definitely be worth further studying in future
655 research.

656

657 **5. Conclusions**

658 This paper presents a reasonable and meaningful basis for monitoring and
659 comparing performances of three temporal methods (TDS, TCATA and M-TDS). The
660 multiple selection of attributes (totally in TCATA or partly in M-TDS) at a given time
661 provides a better dynamic sensory characterization. TDS provides a meaningful
662 description of the attributes if for some reason one is interested in one attribute only
663 to be selected at a time. M-TDS however, still looks into dominance as a concept, but
664 allows for different modalities to be represented, obtaining a richer description, but
665 also more robust results than TDS. TCATA would bring even additional information

666 where interaction between attributes is required and allows to represent more than
667 two attributes at any point in time.

668 In the current research, TDS was performed according to the definition of
669 dominance attribute proposed by (Pineau et al., 2009). However, a general
670 consensus has not been reached among researchers regarding the concept of
671 dominance and thereby it should be further discussed in future studies. One limitation
672 of this study is the fixed order in which methods were carried out, that is, TDS,
673 TCATA and then M-TDS, next studies could include a randomised allocation to
674 method to the different panelists.

675 Future research should go deeper in methodological comparisons of TDS, M-TDS
676 and TCATA, to better understand what specific questions could be answered by the
677 different methods, and what are their advantages and limitations for specific product
678 categories. This could include comparison between different panels with the same
679 training, as well as using consumers instead of trained panelists systematically to
680 being able to further conclude on recommendations for application.

681

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691

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846

847

848 **Table 1.** Formulation of the yoghurt samples.

Sample	Viscosity	Particle size	Flavour intensity
P1 (t-F-l)	Thin	Flakes	Low
P2 (T-F-l)	Thick	Flakes	Low
P3 (t-f-l)	Thin	Flour	Low
P4 (T-f-l)	Thick	Flour	Low
P5 (t-F-o)	Thin	Flakes	Optimal
P6 (T-F-o)	Thick	Flakes	Optimal
P7 (t-f-o)	Thin	Flour	Optimal
P8 (T-f-o)	Thick	Flour	Optimal

849

850

851 **Table 2.** Sensory attributes for QDA task.

Attribute	Abbreviation of attribute	Definition
Intensity odour	Intensity_o	Total intensity of all odours in the product
Acidic odour	Acidic_o	Relates to a fresh, balanced odour generally due to the presence of organic acids
Vanilla odour	Vanilla_o	Relates to a vanilla odour
Stale odour	Stale_o	Relates to a stale odour (as in cloying, barn, refrigerator etc.)
Sickening odour	Sickening_o	Relates to a sickening odour (as in cloying)
Oxidized odour	Oxidized_o	Relates to an odour caused by oxidization (cardboard)
Intensity flavour	Intensity_f	Total intensity of all tastes and flavours in the product
Sour flavour	Sour_f	Relates to a fresh, balanced flavour generally due to the presence of organic acids
Sweet taste	Sweet_t	Relates to the basic taste sweet (sucrose)
Acidic taste	Acidic_t	Relates to the basic taste acid (citric acid)
Bitter taste	Bitter_t	Relates to the basic taste acid (caffeine)
Vanilla flavour	Vanilla_f	Relates to a vanilla flavor
Stale flavour	Stale_f	Relates to a stale flavour (as in cloying, barn, refrigerator etc.)
Sickening flavour	Sickening_f	Relates to a sickening flavour (as in cloying)
Oxidized flavour	Oxidized_f	Relates to a flavour caused by oxidization (cardboard)
Thick	Thick	Mechanical textural attribute relating to resistance to flow. It corresponds to the force required to draw a liquid from a spoon over the tongue
Full	Full	Mechanical textural attribute relating to resistance to flow. A rich sensation of the product in the mouth
Gritty	Gritty	Geometrical textural attribute relating to the perception of the size and shape of particles in a product
Sandy	Sandy	A sandy sensation of a sample in the mouth
Dry	Dry	Relates to a feeling of dryness in the mouth
Astringent	Astringent	Describes the complex sensation, accompanied by shrinking, drawing or puckering of the skin or mucosal surface in the mouth

853 **Table 3.** Sensory attributes for the yoghurts in the three temporal tasks.

Term	Definition
Acidic	Relates to the basic taste acid (citric acid)
Bitter	Relates to the basic taste acid (caffeine)
Cloying	Relates to a cloying flavour (stale, sickening, flavourless)
Dry	Relates to a feeling of dryness in the mouth
Gritty	Geometrical textural attribute relating to the perception of the size and shape of particles in a product
Sandy	A sandy sensation of a sample in the mouth
Sweet	Relates to the basic taste sweet (sucrose)
Thick	Mechanical textural attribute relating to resistance to flow. It corresponds to the force required to draw a liquid from a spoon over the tongue (High intensity = viscous - thick)
Thin	Mechanical textural attribute relating to resistance to flow. It corresponds to the force required to draw a liquid from a spoon over the tongue (No intensity = fluid - thin)
Vanilla	Relates to a vanilla flavour

854

855

856 **Table 4.** Canonical correlation coefficients from MFA

Group	Dim1	Dim2	Dim3
TDS	0.97	0.90	0.75
TCATA	0.98	0.96	0.78
QDA	0.94	0.85	0.61
M-TDS	0.82	0.97	0.94

857

858 **Table 5.** RV coefficients from MFA

	TDS	TCATA	QDA	M-TDS
TDS	-	-	-	-
TCATA	0.79	-	-	-
QDA	0.69	0.83	-	-
M-TDS	0.53	0.55	0.39	-

859

860 **Table 6.** p-values from Tukey's HSD test for the two attributes *Acidic, Bitter*.

	b.Acidic			m.Acidic		m.Bitter	
	TDS	TCATA	M-TDS	TDS	M-TDS	TDS	TCATA
P1	0.07 ^{ab}	-	0.23 ^a	0.33 ^a	0.40 ^{ab}	0.17 ^b	-
P2	0.19 ^a	0.22 ^{ab}	0.23 ^a	0.35 ^a	0.46 ^a	0.19 ^{ab}	-
P3	0.12 ^{ab}	0.27 ^a	0.25 ^a	0.20 ^{ab}	0.28 ^{abcd}	0.33 ^{ab}	-
P4	0.10 ^{ab}	-	0.24 ^a	0.17 ^{ab}	0.31 ^{abc}	0.32 ^{ab}	-
P5	0.64 ^b	0.09 ^b	0.05 ^b	0.26 ^{ab}	0.25 ^{abcd}	0.11 ^b	0.31 ^b
P6	0.07 ^b	-	0.03 ^b	0.23 ^{ab}	0.20 ^{bcd}	0.21 ^{ab}	-
P7	0.09 ^{ab}	-	0.02 ^b	0.10 ^b	0.07 ^d	0.34 ^{ab}	0.62 ^a
P8	0.53 ^b	-	0.05 ^b	0.09 ^b	0.10 ^{cd}	0.42 ^a	-

861 Different letters in the same column indicate statistical differences ($p < 0.05$) among the products.
 862 *b., m.* was the notation of beginning, middle time intervals.

863

864 **Table 7.** Significant attributes resulting from ANOVA (p-value).

	TDS	TCATA	M-TDS
b.Acidic	0.093	0.100	<0.001
b.Gritty	-	<0.001	-
b.Sweet	-	0.006	0.007
b.Thick	0.051	-	<0.001
b.Thin	-	-	<0.001
b.Vanilla	-	-	0.022
m.Acidic	0.029	-	0.020
m.Bitter	-	0.074	-
m.Cloying	-	-	0.023
m.Dry	-	-	0.001
m.Gritty	-	<0.001	-
m.Sandy	-	<0.001	-
m.Sweet	-	0.086	0.013
m.Thin	-	0.086	0.007
m.Vanilla	-	-	0.011
e.Bitter	0.021	-	-
e.Cloying	-	-	0.007
e.Sandy	-	<0.001	-

865 *b., m. and e.* were the notation of beginning, middle and end time intervals.

866

867 **Figure Captions**

868 **Fig. 1.** Temporal curves by sample P1 (left) and sample P5 (right) evaluated by TDS
869 (a), TCATA (b) and M-TDS (c).

870 **Fig. 2.** Smoothed trajectories resulting from PCA on dimensions 1, 3. The sample
871 labels were positioned at the end of the trajectories.

872 **Fig. 3.** Partial axes plot resulting from the MFA performed in combined data
873 composed of QDA, TCATA, TDS and TDS by modalities.

874 **Fig. 4.** The superimposed representation and perceptual map from the MFA
875 performed in combined data composed of QDA, TCATA, TDS and TDS by
876 modalities. b: beginning; m: middle, e: end of the eating process.

877 **Fig. 5.** The distributions of SVD for sample covariance matrix (*top*) and interaction
878 covariance matrix (*bottom*) in TDS (a), TCATA (b) and M-TDS (c).

879 **Fig. 6.** The CVA biplots for TDS, TCATA and M-TDS methods.

880

Figure 1
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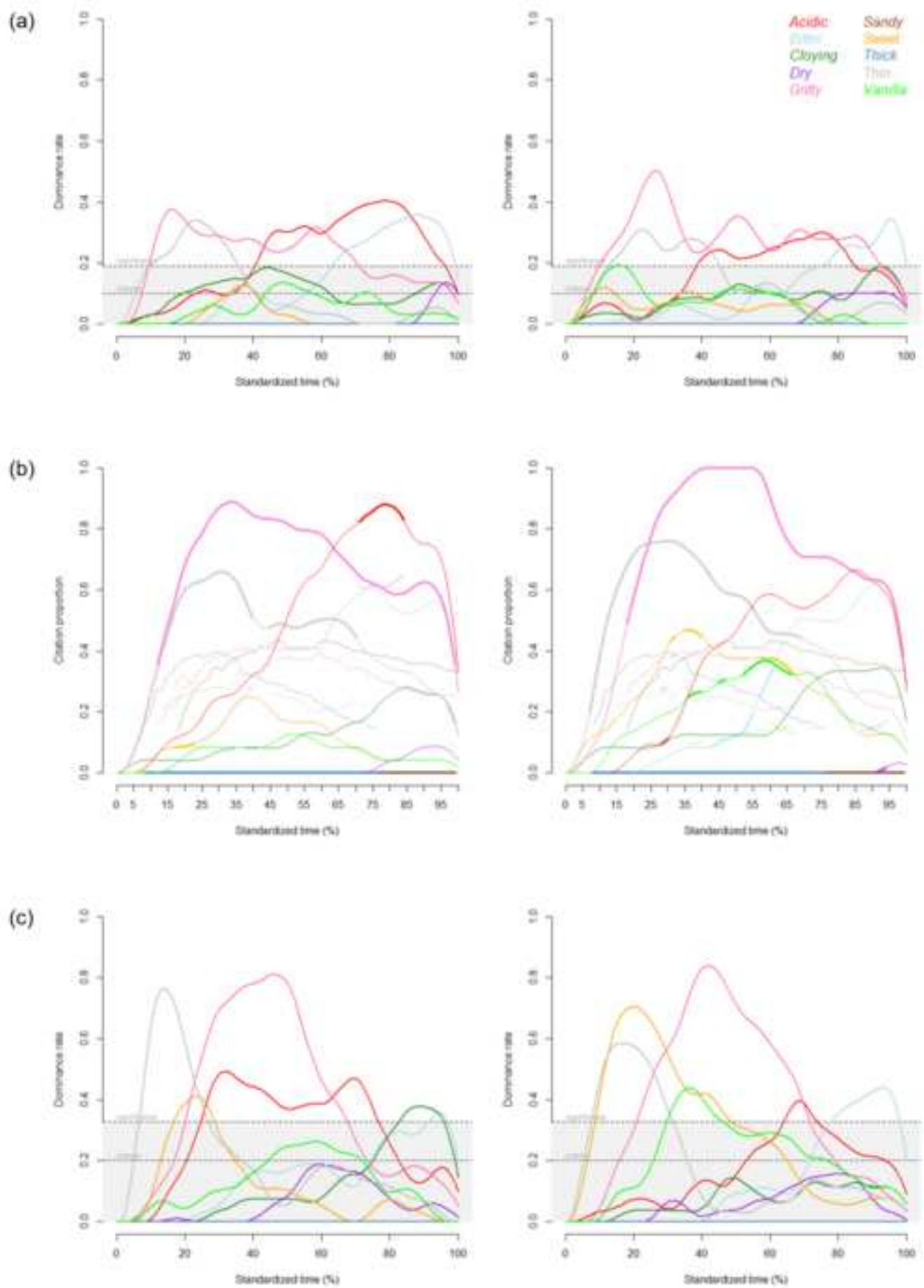


Figure 2a

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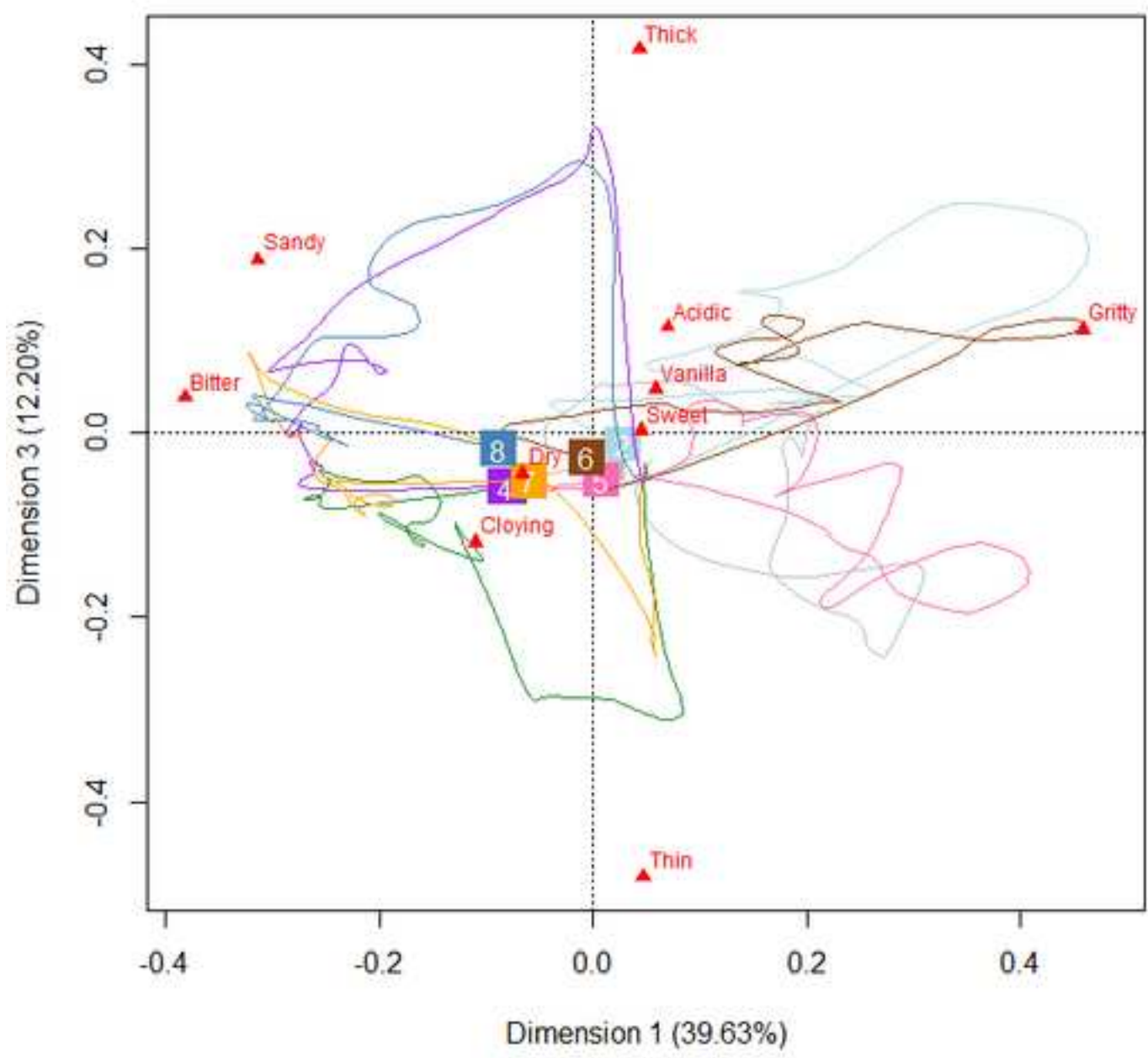


Figure 2b

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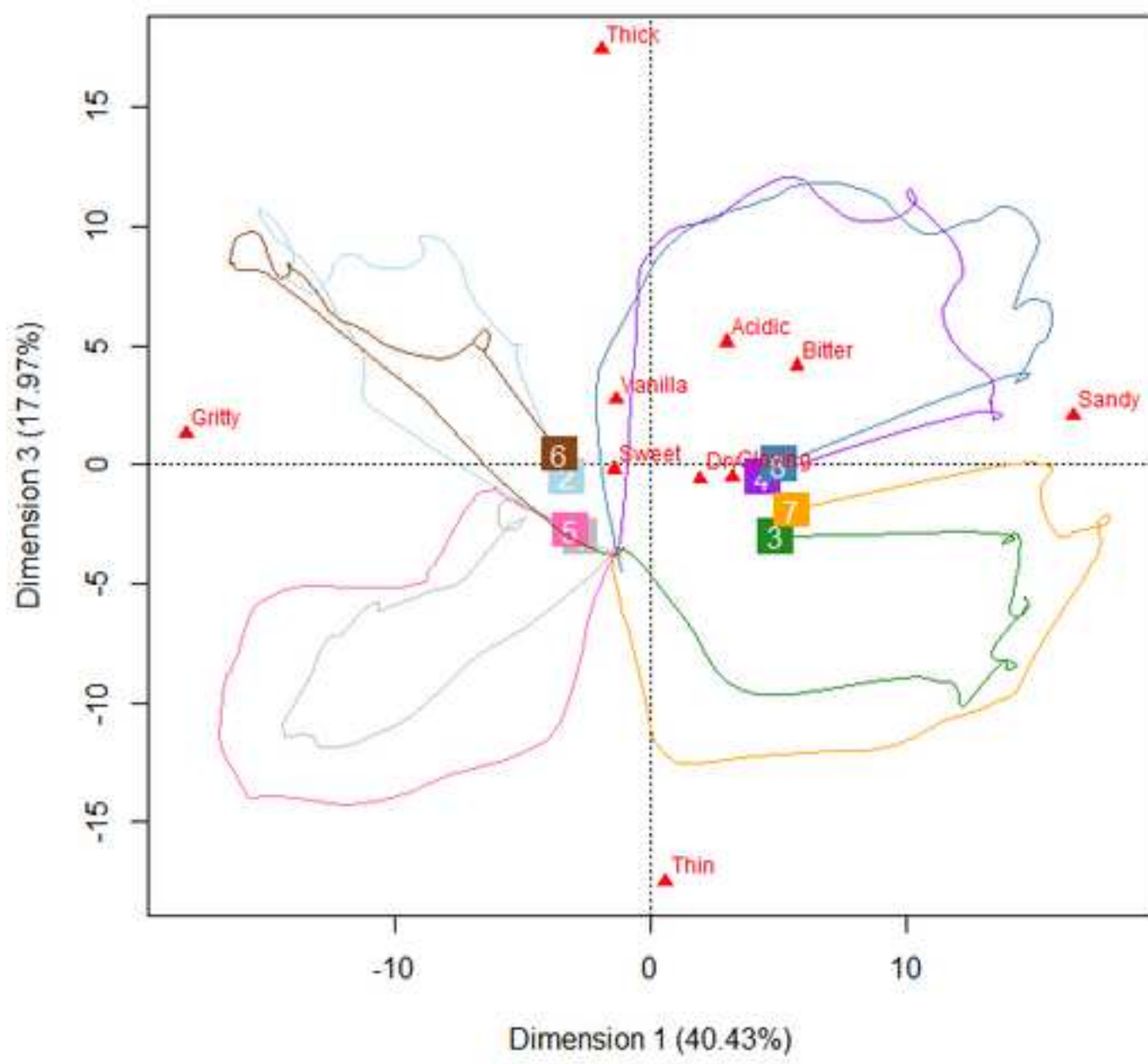


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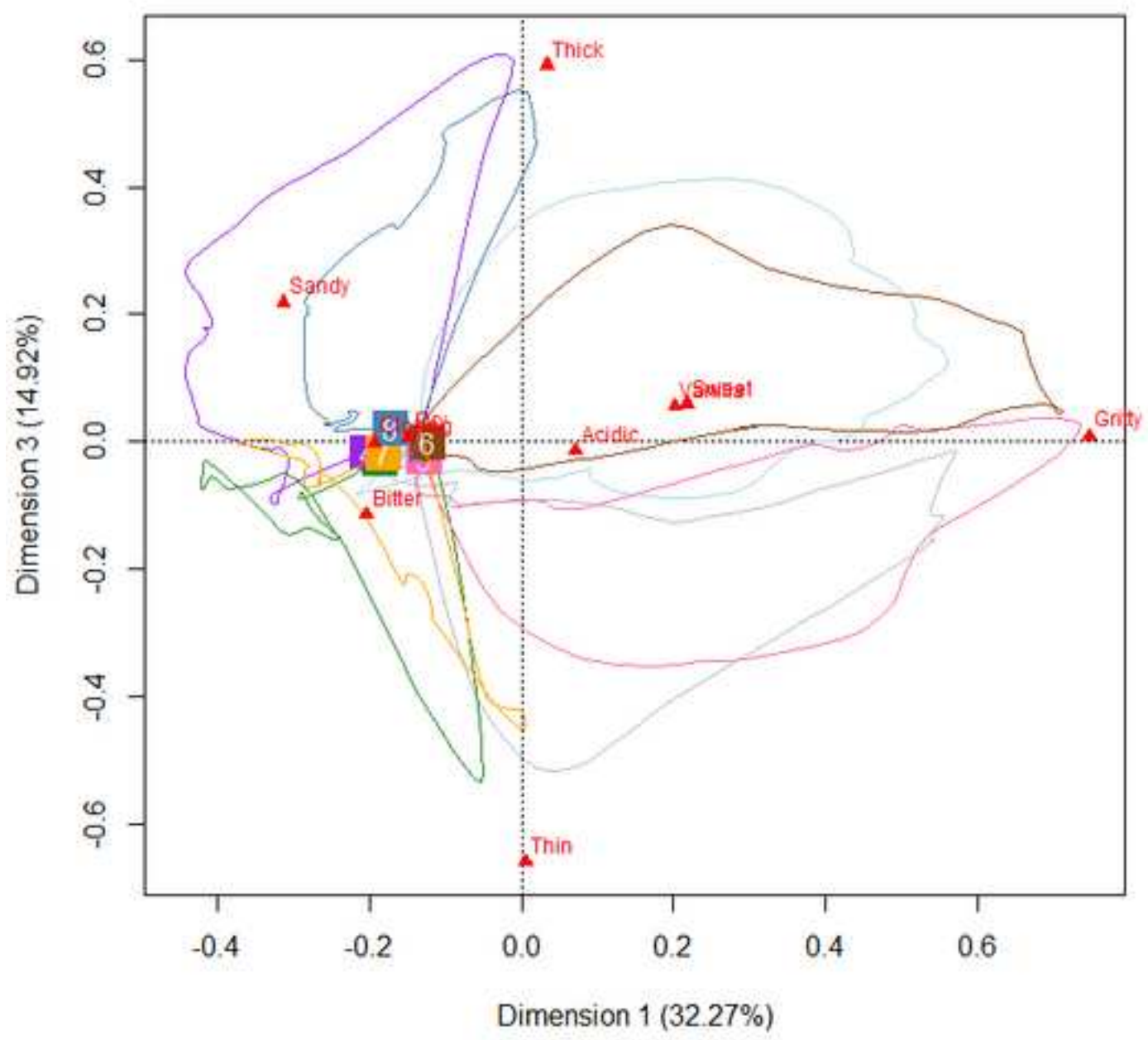


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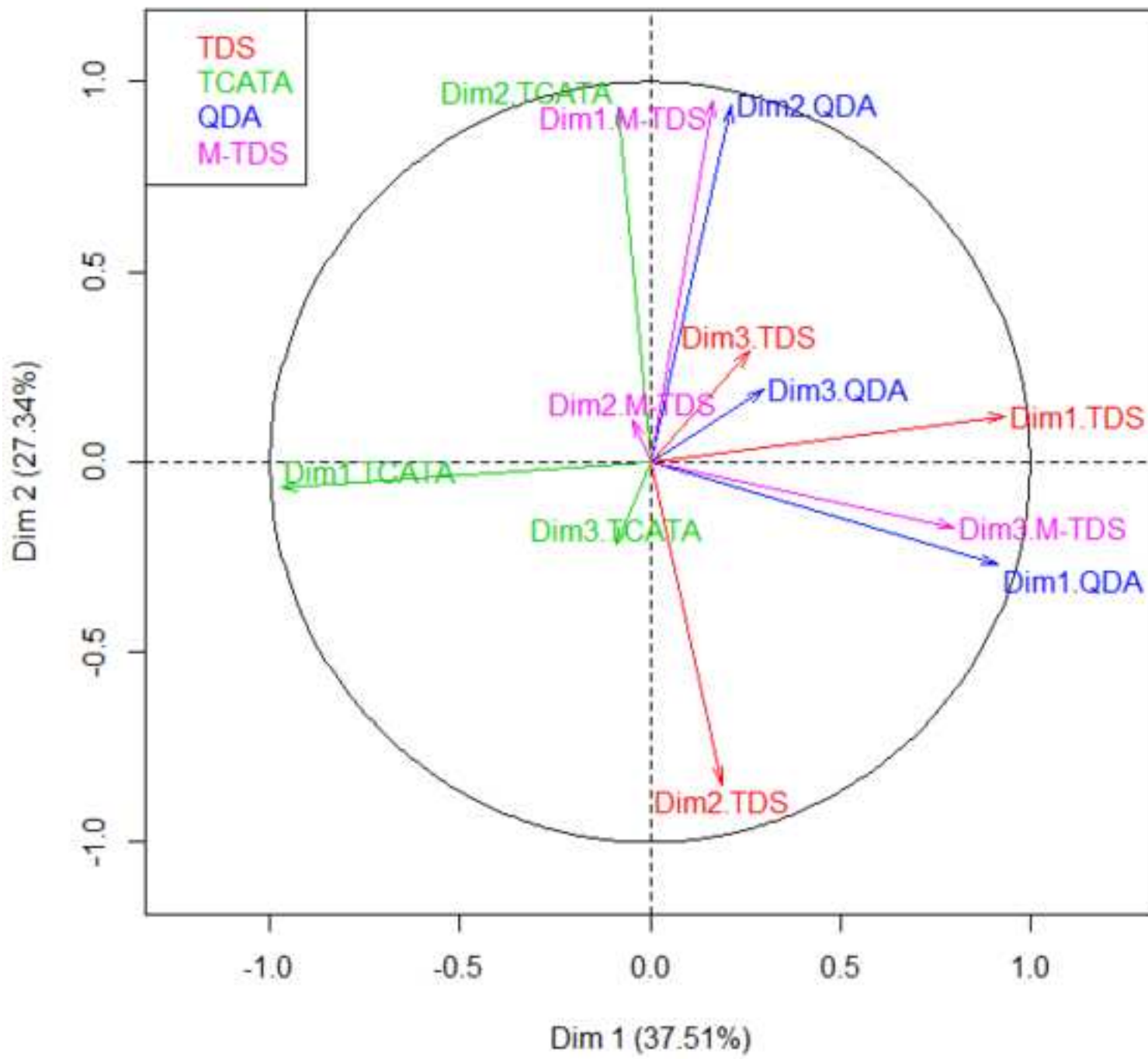


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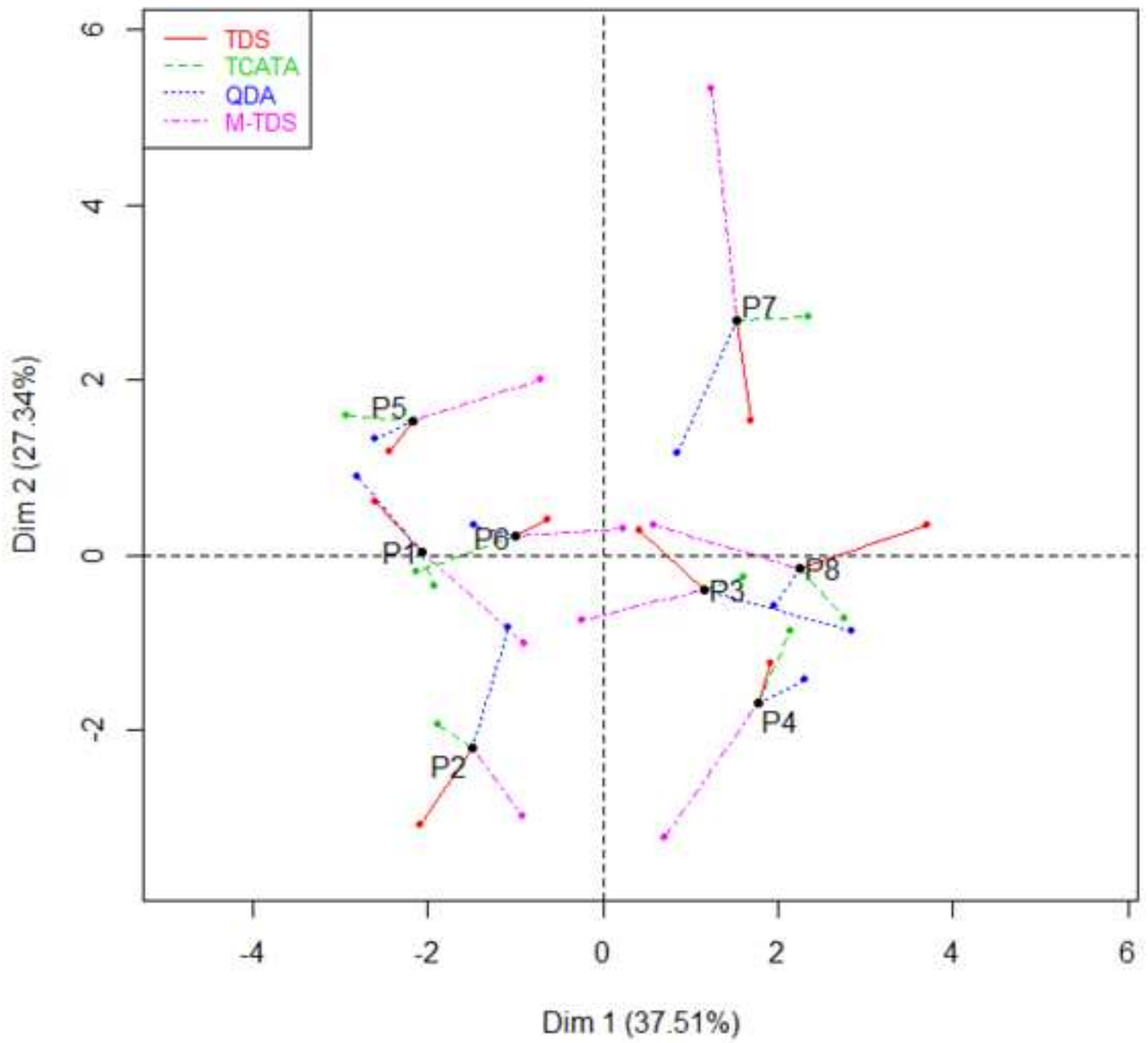


Figure 4b

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Correlation circle

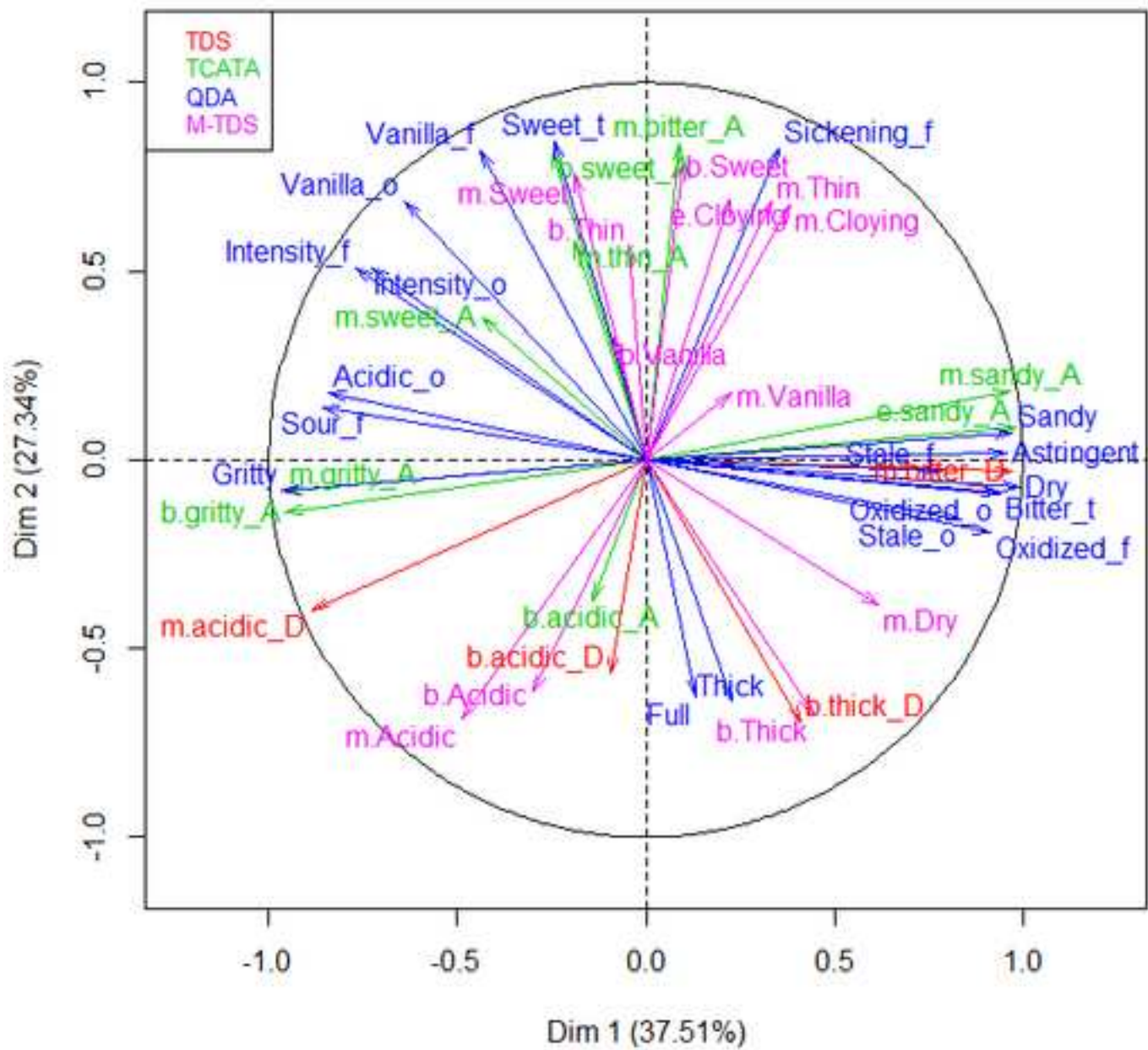


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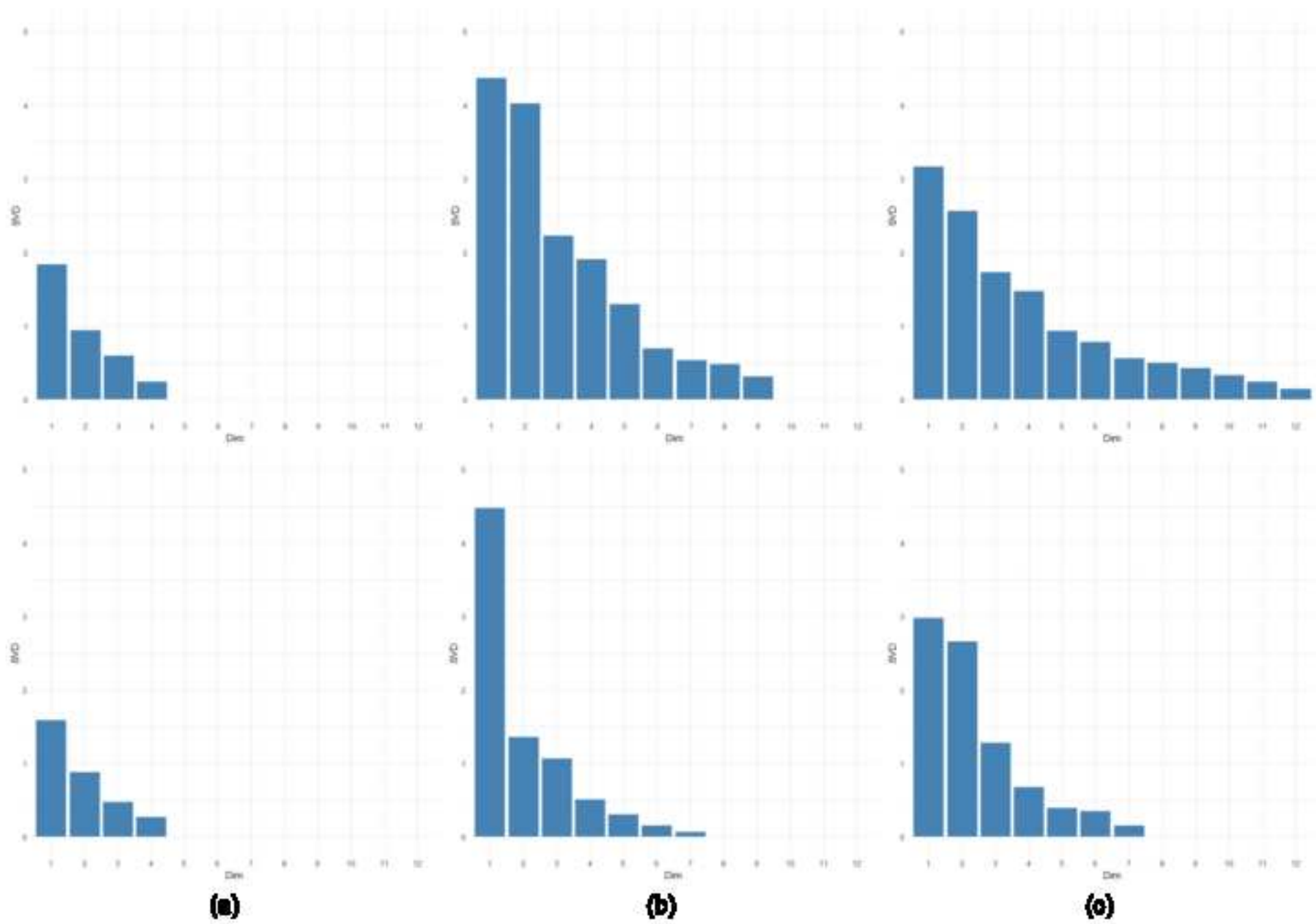


Figure 6a

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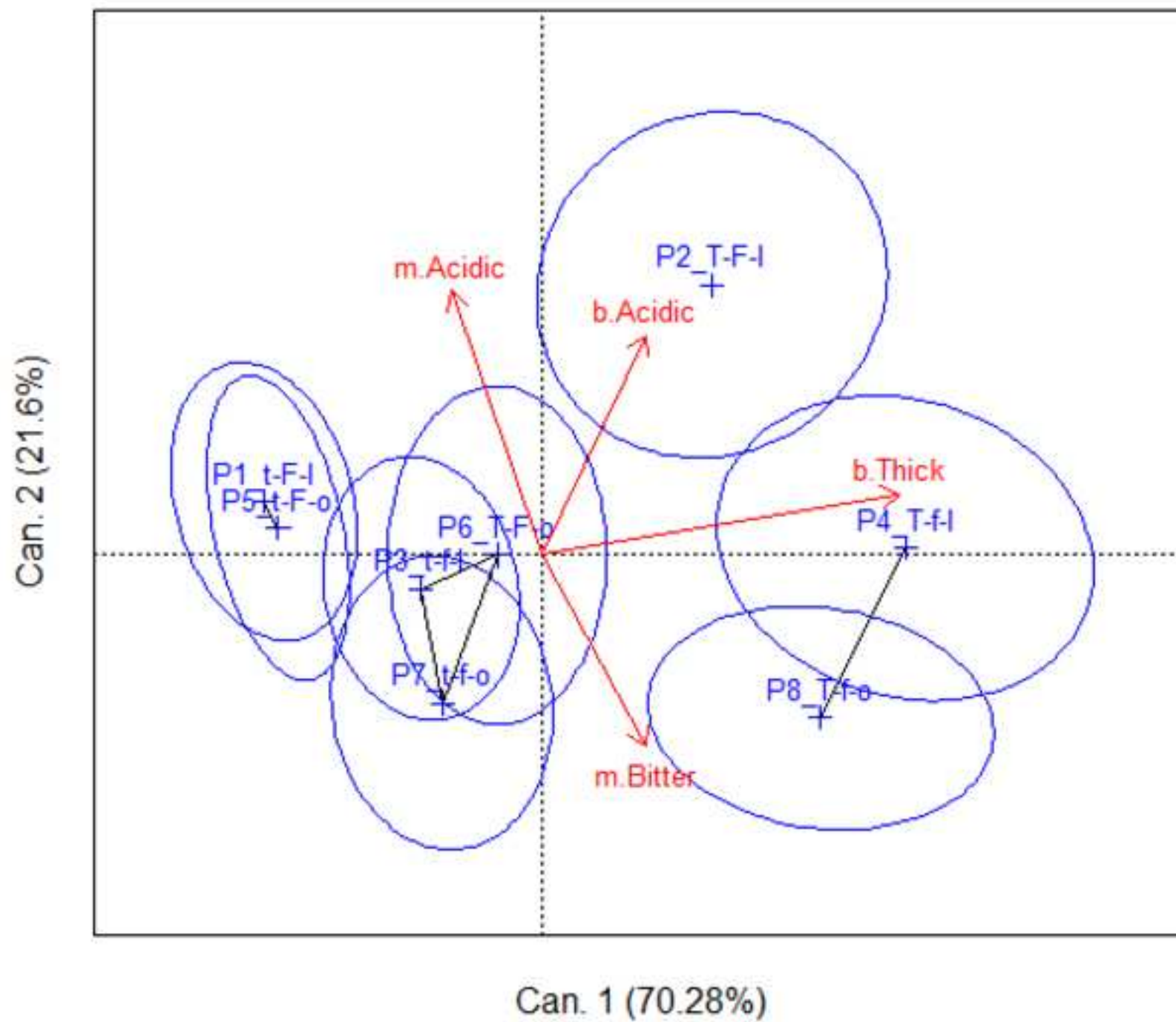


Figure 6b

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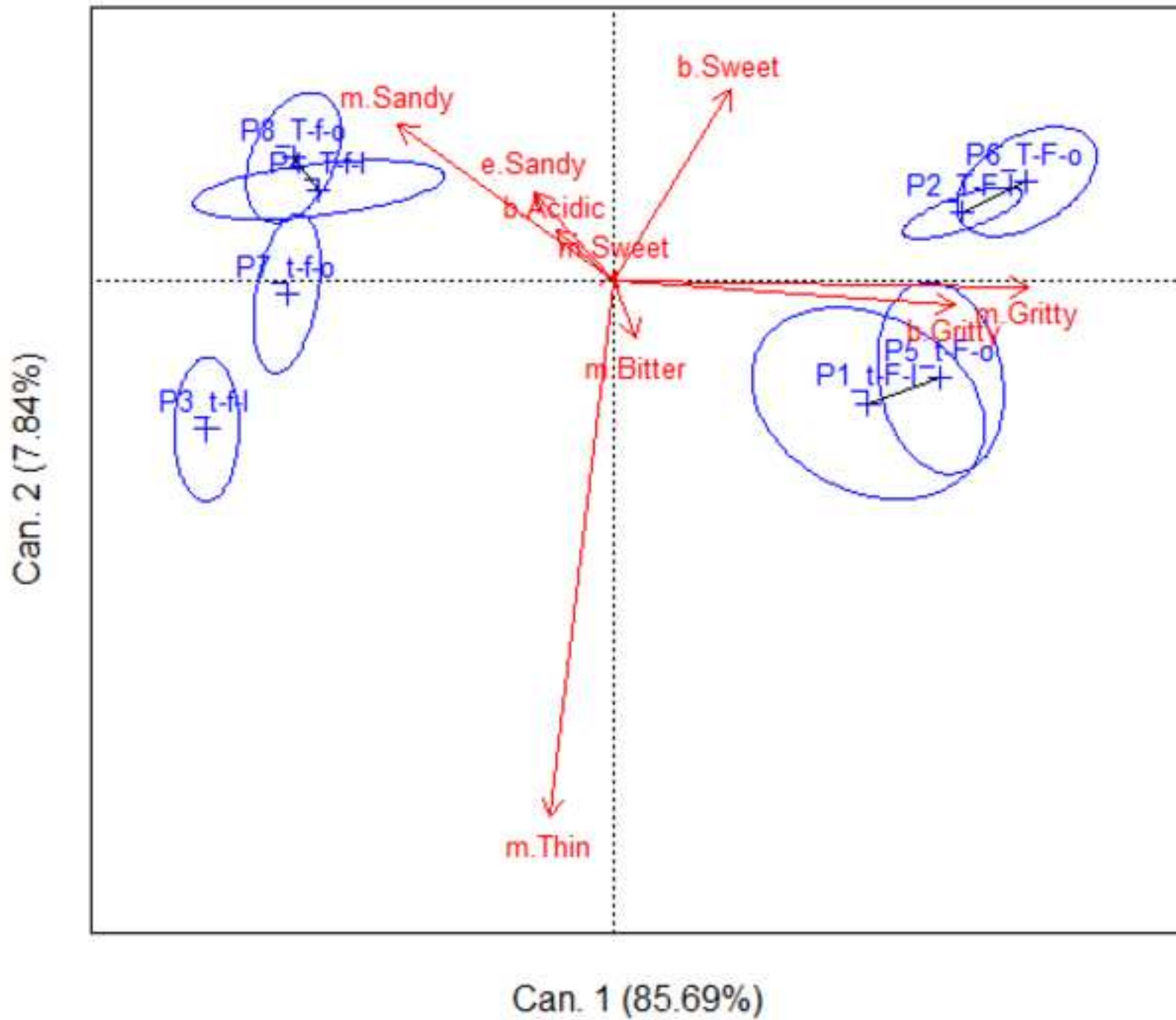
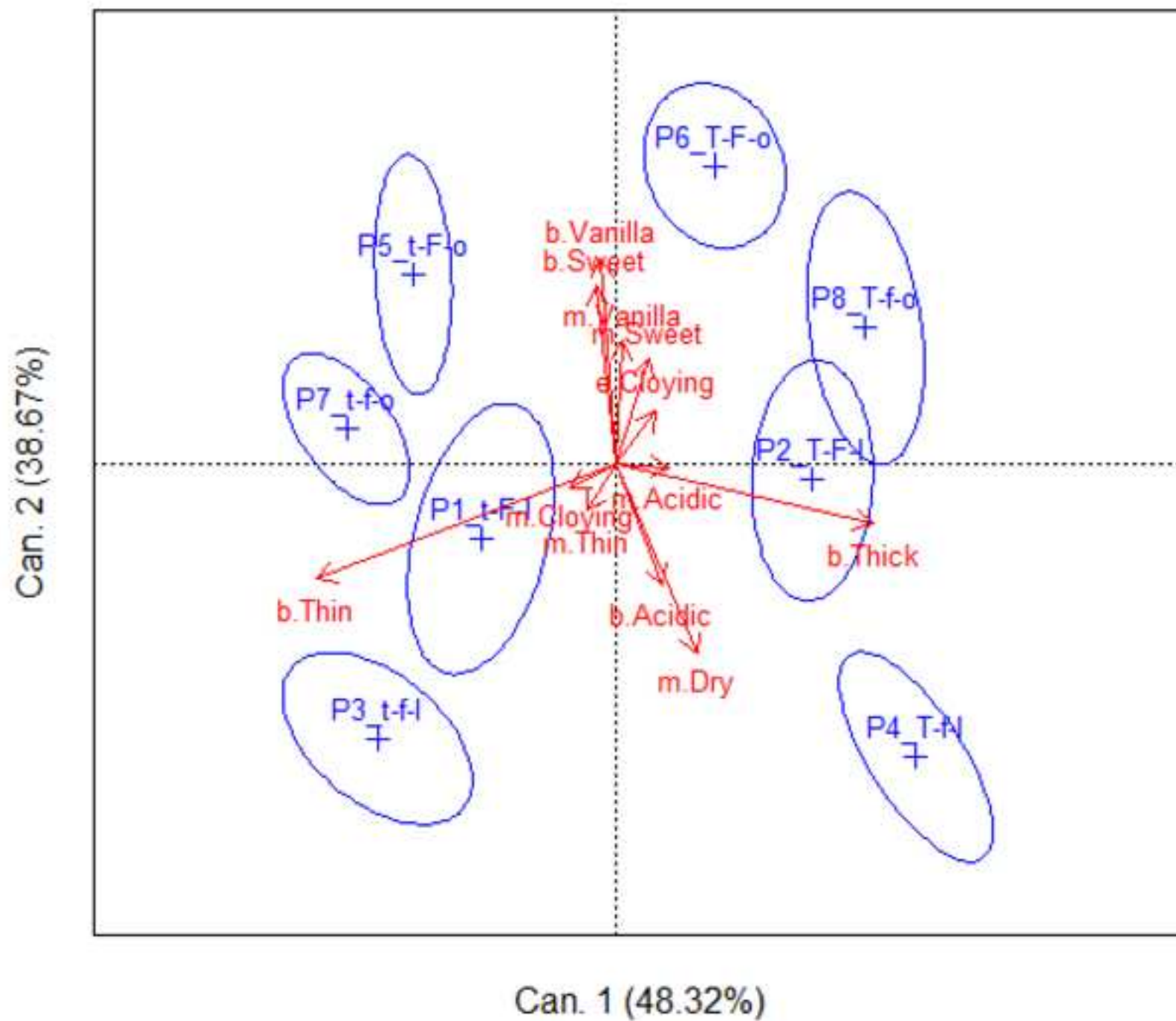


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Supplementary Data_TDS_P1

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Supplementary Data_TDS_P2

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Supplementary Data_TDS_P3

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Supplementary Data_TDS_P4

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Supplementary Data_TDS_P6

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Supplementary Data_TDS_P7

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Supplementary Data_TDS_P8

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Supplementary Data_TCATA_P1

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Supplementary Data_TCATA_P7

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Supplementary Data_TCATA_P8

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Supplementary Data_M-TDS_P1

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