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2 **Thermal taster status: evidence of cross-modal integration.**

3 Abbreviated title: Cortical response in thermal taster status

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23

24 **Abstract**

25 Thermal taster status refers to the finding that, in some individuals, thermal  
26 stimulation of the tongue elicits a phantom taste. Little is known regarding the mechanism for  
27 this, it is hypothesised to be a result of cross-wiring between gustatory and trigeminal nerves  
28 whose receptors co-innervate papillae on the tongue.

29 To address this, we use functional magnetic resonance imaging to perform the first  
30 study of whether the cortical response to gustatory-trigeminal samples is altered with thermal  
31 taster status. We study the response to cold (6°C) gustatory (sweet) samples at varying  
32 levels of trigeminal stimulation elicited by CO<sub>2</sub> (no CO<sub>2</sub>, low CO<sub>2</sub>, high CO<sub>2</sub>) in thermal taster  
33 (TT) and thermal non-taster (TnT) groups, and evaluate associated behavioural measures.

34 Behaviourally, the TT group perceived gustatory and trigeminal stimuli significantly  
35 more intense than TnTs, and were significantly more discriminating of CO<sub>2</sub> level. fMRI data  
36 revealed elevated cortical activation to the no CO<sub>2</sub> sample for the TT group compared to TnT  
37 group in taste, oral somatosensory and reward areas. In TnTs, a significant positive  
38 modulation in cortical response with increasing level of CO<sub>2</sub> was found across taste,  
39 somatosensory and reward areas. In contrast, in TTs, a reduced positive modulation with  
40 increasing level of CO<sub>2</sub> was found in somatosensory areas (SI, SII), whilst a significant  
41 negative modulation was found in taste (anterior insula) and reward (ACC) areas. This  
42 difference in cortical response to trigeminal stimuli supports cross-modal integration in TTs,  
43 with gustatory and trigeminal nerves highly stimulated by cold gustatory samples due to their  
44 intertwined nature.

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51 **Introduction**

52           The perception of taste is known to vary widely across individuals. There are many  
53 factors that contribute to an individual's taste perception and subsequent food preferences,  
54 including the density of taste papillae on the tongue and genetic differences in taste  
55 receptors (Bajec and Pickering, 2010; Hayes and Keast, 2011). Functional magnetic  
56 resonance imaging (fMRI) studies report that the primary taste cortex is located within the  
57 anterior insula/frontal operculum (Small et al., 1997; Small et al., 1999; Veldhuizen et al.,  
58 2011 ) with secondary projections to the orbitofrontal cortex (OFC) (Francis et al., 1999),  
59 amygdala (O'Doherty et al., 2001), anterior cingulate cortex (ACC) (Small et al., 2003),  
60 ventral striatum (O'Doherty et al., 2003), and dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (Kringelbach et  
61 al., 2004). However, few studies have investigated the impact of taste phenotype on the  
62 primary gustatory cortex and oral somatosensory areas. Eldeghaidy *et al.* (Eldeghaidy et al.,  
63 2011) showed a significant increase in the cortical BOLD response to oral fat in 6-n-  
64 propylthiouracil (PROP) tasters in key taste, texture, and reward processing areas (super-  
65 taster > taster > non-taster).

66           A new taste phenotype known as “thermal taster status” has been described (Cruz  
67 and Green, 2000). Thermal stimulation of small areas of the tongue has been shown to elicit  
68 a “phantom” taste in some individuals, ~ 30-50% of the population (Bajec and Pickering,  
69 2008; Cruz and Green, 2000; Green and George, 2004; Yang et al., 2014). Since its  
70 discovery, behavioural differences have been reported between subjects who perceive a  
71 phantom taste, termed ‘thermal tasters’ (TTs), and those who do not, termed ‘thermal non-  
72 tasters’ (TnTs), (Bajec and Pickering, 2008; Cruz and Green, 2000; Green and George,  
73 2004; Green et al., 2005; Pickering et al., 2010a; Pickering et al., 2010b). Thermal tasters  
74 have been shown to be more sensitive to pure taste stimuli at supra-threshold levels (Bajec  
75 and Pickering, 2008; Green and George, 2004; Green et al., 2005), and both retro- and  
76 ortho-nasal vanillin simulation (Green and George, 2004) compared with TnT, although an  
77 olfactory advantage was not found at detection threshold level in a more recent study (Yang

78 et al., 2014). However, there is conflicting evidence regarding the impact of thermal taster  
79 status on trigeminal stimuli; sensations induced by capsaicin and menthol (burning, stinging  
80 and prickling) were not rated differently between TTs and TnTs in a series of experiments by  
81 Green et al. (Green et al., 2005). In contrast, the astringency of alum (Bajec and Pickering,  
82 2008), the carbonation and fullness of beer (Pickering et al., 2010a), the astringency of red  
83 wine (Pickering et al., 2010b) and the temperature of warm and cold stimuli (Bajec and  
84 Pickering, 2008; Yang et al., 2014) have all been rated significantly higher in TTs than TnTs.  
85 Current evidence suggests that behavioural differences in TTs may be limited to the oral  
86 cavity, as no significant differences have been found for temperature intensity ratings at non-  
87 gustatory sites (lip and hand) (Green and George, 2004). The mechanism for this increase in  
88 sensitivity in TTs has been hypothesised to be due to a temperature sensitive chemosensory  
89 pathway (Cruz and Green, 2000). This hypothesis is supported by the discovery that the  
90 TRPM5 cation channel, which responds to sweet, bitter and umami tastes is also heat  
91 activated and highly temperature sensitive (Talavera et al., 2008). In TTs, the TRPM5 could  
92 depolarise the taste cells through thermal activation. However, the question remains as to  
93 whether the phenomenon of thermal taster status is limited to thermal-taste activation, or  
94 whether a variety of trigeminal and gustatory stimuli can modulate a different cortical  
95 response in TTs compared to TnTs.

96         Here, the combination of behavioural sensory investigations and brain imaging allows  
97 the mechanism behind the thermal taster status phenomenon to be explored. We investigate  
98 whether the cortical response to gustatory-trigeminal samples is altered with thermal taster  
99 status. Here, carbonation is chosen as a trigeminal stimulus to be modulated and combined  
100 with a sweet taste (dextrose) added at fixed levels. Few studies have investigated the effects  
101 of carbonation (CO<sub>2</sub>) as a somatosensory component of flavour perception and the  
102 pathways responsible for its perception in combination with taste stimuli are not fully  
103 understood.

104

105 **Materials and Methods**

106 **Participants and Screening.** The study was approved by the University of Nottingham  
107 Medical School Research Ethics Committee. Recruitment questionnaires screened any  
108 volunteers with contraindications to MRI safety or those who had a known taste dysfunction.  
109 All subjects gave informed consent before enrolling in the study. 52 subjects (32 female/20  
110 male, age  $35 \pm 7$  yrs) underwent two separate screening sessions to determine their PROP  
111 and thermal taster status. PROP taster status was defined based on the intensity ratings of  
112 0.32 mM PROP (Sigma Aldrich, UK) prepared in deionised water from a reverse osmosis  
113 unit, presented and classified according to a method described by Lim, et al. (2008).  
114 Intensity was rated on a general Labelled Magnitude Scale (gLMS) (Green et al., 1996), and  
115 training on how to use the scale was given prior to data collection in order to increase validity  
116 (Bartoshuk et al., 2002). The gLMS scale is a category ratio scale used to measure intensity  
117 of sensation with categories of no sensation, barely detectable, weak, moderate, strong, very  
118 strong, and strongest imaginable marked at distances of 0, 1.4, 17, 34.7, 52.5, and 100 mm  
119 along a continuous line. Only the verbal categories are given, and subjects are instructed to  
120 mark anywhere along the continuous line to register their sensation (Green et al., 1996). All  
121 subjects were trained on the scale based on an approach by (Bartoshuk et al., 2002) which  
122 is described below. A reference sheet with a gLMS presented in exactly the same way as  
123 subsequent test sheets was given to each subject. Subjects received verbal and written  
124 instructions that the top of the scale corresponded to the strongest imaginable sensation of  
125 any kind and were asked to write down what this was at the top of their reference sheet.  
126 Subjects were asked to rate a list of 15 remembered or imagined sensations relative to their  
127 strongest imaginable sensation of any kind, Table 1.

128  
129 Thermal taster status was assessed using a Medoc Pathway with intra-oral ATS (advanced  
130 thermal stimulator) thermode (Medoc, Israel) on one tongue location only. Subjects were  
131 asked with the guidance of researcher to place the intra-oral thermode (6 mm diameter  
132 round surface) on the anterior tongue tip, the area which is the most responsive to thermal

133 taste (Cruz and Green, 2000) and where fungiform papillae are most densely innervated  
134 (Shahbake et al., 2005). Subjects were instructed to hold the thermode firmly in place during  
135 all temperature trials. Two warming (from 15 °C to 40 °C) and two cooling (from 35 °C to 5  
136 °C) trials were carried out following the procedure of Bajec and Pickering (2008). The  
137 warming trial started at 35 °C, cooled to 15 °C and re-warmed to 40 °C and held for 1 s. The  
138 cooling trial started at 35 °C was cooled to 5 °C and held for 10 s before rising to baseline  
139 (35 °C), as illustrated in Figure 1a and 1b respectively. Warming trials always preceded  
140 cooling trials to avoid possible adaptation from the intense, sustained cold stimulation  
141 (Green and George 2004). Subjects were told to wait until tongue temperature and sensation  
142 had returned to normal before proceeding onto the next trial, with a minimum of two minutes  
143 break. If a thermally induced taste was perceived, subjects were asked to state the taste  
144 quality perceived from a selected list ('sweet', 'salty', 'bitter', 'sour', 'umami', and 'other  
145 please specify'), and rate its intensity for each trial on a gLMS. Thermal tasters were  
146 classified as those who perceived a taste, above weak during both replicates of either the  
147 warming or cooling trial. Thermal non-tasters were classified as those who did not perceive a  
148 taste on any replicate of any trial.

149

#### 150 *Oral responsiveness assessments*

151 Subjects were invited to another session on a separate day to rate the intensity of  
152 suprathreshold taste and temperature (warming and cooling) stimuli using the gLMS and to  
153 check for taste dysfunction. Taste dysfunction was classified by the authors as any subject  
154 who rated the stimuli barely detectable or below on the gLMS. Taste samples included 0.32  
155 M sucrose (Tate and Lyle, UK), 0.56 M sodium chloride (NaCl) (Sainsbury, UK), 56 mM citric  
156 acid (Sigma Aldrich, UK) 1 mM quinine hydrochloride (QHCl) (Sigma Aldrich, UK), 0.32 mM  
157 PROP which were all prepared using deionised water, and presented to subjects in a  
158 random order according to the method and concentrations defined by Lim et al., (2008). The  
159 ATS was used to deliver temperature stimuli as described for thermal taster screening. For  
160 taste response assessment, each subject was instructed to rinse their mouth 3 times with

161 deionised water before applying the taste. All stimuli were applied to the tongue by rolling a  
162 saturated cotton swab across the tip of the tongue for approximately 3 s. The subjects were  
163 instructed to actively taste the stimulus between the tongue and the hard palate using a  
164 gentle 'smacking' motion and rate the perceived intensity of the taste once it had reached its  
165 maximum using the gLMS provided. Separate gLMS were provided for each stimulus.  
166 Subjects were presented with their own gLMS reference sheet from the training session and  
167 were encouraged to refer to it for guidance on where to rate the intensity of the taste. The  
168 four taste stimuli were presented first in a randomised order, PROP was presented last to  
169 avoid any cross over effects in PROP sensitive individuals. Subjects were given a 1 min  
170 interstimulus-interval (ISI) and instructed to take longer if needed. During the ISI, subjects  
171 cleansed their palate with the deionised water and unsalted crackers (Rakusen's, Leeds,  
172 UK) provided. After a 5 min break, the procedure was repeated to collect duplicate ratings of  
173 each stimulus.

174

#### 175 *Samples and Subject's preference:*

176 Three sweet samples of differing CO<sub>2</sub> level were prepared for the fMRI scan session: i) a  
177 gustatory (sweet + no CO<sub>2</sub>) sample "no CO<sub>2</sub>", and two gustatory-trigeminal samples ii) a  
178 sweet + low CO<sub>2</sub> "low CO<sub>2</sub>" and iii) a sweet + high CO<sub>2</sub> "high CO<sub>2</sub>" sample. Samples were  
179 based on a model beverage system following (Clark et al., 2011a). Samples were prepared  
180 by dissolving 70g/L of polydextrose (Litesse® Ultra powder, Danisco, New Century, KS,  
181 USA) and 30g/L of dextrose (MyProtein, Manchester, UK) into still mineral water (Danone,  
182 Paris, France) and mixed on a roller bed for 6 h to ensure full dispersion. Samples were  
183 refrigerated until they reached 5 ± 1 °C. Polydextrose was added to give 'body' whilst not  
184 contributing a taste quality (sub-threshold), dextrose was added to impart suprathreshold  
185 sweetness. Samples to be carbonated were aliquoted into 100ml Schott bottles (Fisher  
186 Scientific, Loughborough, UK) fitted with modified (Medical Engineering Unit, University of  
187 Nottingham, UK) Schott bottle caps (Fisher Scientific, Loughborough, UK) to allow a one-

188 way flow of food grade CO<sub>2</sub> (BOC, Guildford, UK) directly into the vessel ensuring accurate  
189 carbonation levels. Once disconnected, the samples maintained pressure and therefore CO<sub>2</sub>  
190 level. The low CO<sub>2</sub> samples were carbonated to 1 volume and the high CO<sub>2</sub> samples to 2  
191 volumes. One volume equates to 1 litre of CO<sub>2</sub> in 1 litre of liquid. Two volumes represent a  
192 carbonation level similar to most standard beers. Samples were stored at 5 ± 1 °C until  
193 required.

194

195 Immediately prior to the fMRI scan, subjects were familiarised with the three samples and  
196 presented with three 40 ml random 3 digit coded samples; no CO<sub>2</sub>, low CO<sub>2</sub> and high CO<sub>2</sub>, in  
197 random order, and were asked to evaluate them, using a palate cleanser before each  
198 sample (Danone, Paris, France), and place them in order of preference from most to least  
199 preferred. The number of subjects who most and least preferred each sample was  
200 determined in each group in order to identify any trends in the data. Statistical analysis was  
201 not carried out on preference data as the subject numbers were too low for such a  
202 behavioural test. After this task, subjects were told that the samples were no, low and high  
203 CO<sub>2</sub> and that these same samples would be delivered during the fMRI scanning.

204 ***fMRI paradigm design:***

205 The samples were delivered to subjects using 60 ml syringes with Luer lock fittings to  
206 prevent loss of CO<sub>2</sub> and control the flow of the sample. Thin plastic tubing, (68 cm long, 1.5  
207 mm diameter) ran from the Luer stopcock to an individual subjects' bite bar created from  
208 dental putty to ensure consistent tube positioning. All samples and a water wash for  
209 cleansing between samples (Danone, Paris, France) were delivered at 6 ± 1 °C.

210 Samples were delivered in a pseudo-random order across fMRI cycles, with ten cycles of  
211 each sample delivered per fMRI scan. Three runs were acquired in each fMRI session,  
212 resulting in a total of 30 replicates of each sample for each subject. New samples were  
213 provided for each run in order to maintain sample temperature. The previous samples were



214 drained from the tubing prior to new samples being connected. New samples were 'washed'  
215 through the tubing before the next run commenced to ensure no air bubbles were blocking  
216 the flow. In each cycle, 2 mL of sample was manually delivered over a 2 s period (flow rate 1  
217 mL/s). Manual delivery was found to be the most accurate method of delivering carbonated  
218 samples, due to the pressurised system, and practice sessions prior to scanning showed  
219 that 2 ml could be consistently delivered over a 2 s period. The syringes were situated at a  
220 lower level than the subject's mouthpiece to ensure no residue sample was delivered to the  
221 subject during the ISI. Presentation software was used to deliver instructions to the  
222 researcher delivering the samples to ensure correct delivery to the subjects.

223 Following sample delivery, subjects were cued to swallow by a visual cue (Presentation  
224 Software, Neurobehavioral System, San Francisco, US) and surface electromyography  
225 (EMG) was acquired concurrently with the fMRI data acquisition (Eldeghaidy et al., 2011) to  
226 determine the exact time of swallow and to determine the duration each sample remained in  
227 the mouth. At 4 s after sample delivery, subjects were instructed to press a button to identify  
228 the level of carbonation in the sample received: 1 = no CO<sub>2</sub>, 2 = low CO<sub>2</sub> and 3 = high CO<sub>2</sub>.  
229 The responses were collected and analysed to determine the subject's discrimination ability  
230 between sample CO<sub>2</sub> level during fMRI scanning. At 12 s following the sample cessation, 1  
231 mL still mineral water (Danone, Paris, France) wash was delivered over a 1 s period to clear  
232 the oral cavity of any lingering sample. A delay of 7.5 s was allowed before repeating the  
233 cycle. Each fMRI scan took ~ 11 minutes to complete.

#### 234 ***fMRI data acquisition:***

235 MRI data was acquired on a 3 T Philips Achieva scanner with a 32-ch receive coil. fMRI data  
236 was collected using a double-echo gradient-echo, echo-planar-imaging (GE-EPI) acquisition:  
237 TE = 25/40 ms, TR = 2500 ms, flip angle (FA) 85°, 3 mm isotropic spatial resolution, 240 x  
238 240 mm<sup>2</sup> field of view (FOV), SENSE factor 2 in the right-left (RL) direction, and 34 slices  
239 aligned parallel with AC-PC plane. Following fMRI acquisition, a T<sub>1</sub>-weighted MPRAGE

240 image (1 mm isotropic resolution; TE/TR = 8.3/3.8 ms, FA = 8°, SENSE factor = 2, 160  
241 slices, 256 x 256 matrix) was collected to aid registration of fMRI data to MNI space.

## 242 ***Data analysis:***

### 243 ***Oral responsiveness***

244 Intensity ratings of taste and temperature samples were  $\log_{10}$  transformed, with 0 ratings  
245 adjusted to 0.4 prior to transformation. **A Multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA) was performed**  
246 **including all oral attributes as independent variables to enable the overall impact of**  
247 **Thermal Taster (TT) group on oral responsiveness to be determined. The effect of**  
248 **each individual variable was also determined from the MANOVA ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).** For those  
249 subjects classified as TTs, tastes perceived during screening were also  $\log_{10}$  transformed,  
250 with 0 ratings adjusted to 0.4 prior to transformation, and the intensity of each taste  
251 perceived was averaged across the TT group.

### 252 ***Discrimination of CO<sub>2</sub> level***

253 Discrimination of CO<sub>2</sub> level, collected during the fMRI scan, was analysed by calculating the  
254 percentage of correctly identified samples for each subject and associated d' value (Ennis,  
255 1993), a measure of sensitivity representing probability of correct responses for that group. A  
256 d' value above 1 indicates an ability to discriminate (Lawless and Heymann, 2010).  
257 Significant differences ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) between groups were evaluated using a student t-test.

### 258 ***fMRI data analysis***

259 fMRI data was processed using SPM5 (Statistical Parametric Mapping, Wellcome  
260 Department of Imaging Neuroscience; [www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm](http://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm)). T<sub>2</sub>\* maps were formed  
261 from the multi-echo data set using a voxel-by-voxel, linear, weighted least squares fit, and  
262 used in the weighted summation of the double-echo fMRI data (Posse et al., 1999). The  
263 weighted data was slice timing corrected, and realigned. Individual realignment parameters  
264 were visually inspected to ensure no subject moved by more than one voxel during the fMRI

265 scan. Data were then normalised to the MNI template, and spatially smoothed with 8 mm  
266 FWHM.

267 A first level GLM analysis was performed for each subject to generate contrasts for each  
268 sample (no CO<sub>2</sub>, low CO<sub>2</sub> and high CO<sub>2</sub>), using the time each sample remained in the mouth  
269 calculated from the EMG trace convolved with a canonical hemodynamic response function  
270 (HRF), and temporally filtered with a 135 s high pass filter cut-off. The water wash, button  
271 press and motion parameters were included as covariates of no interest. To identify areas of  
272 the brain which correlated with carbonation level, a linear (1<sup>st</sup> order) parametric modulation  
273 with CO<sub>2</sub> level was performed, and both positive and negative modulations were assessed.

274 Second level random effects (RFX) group analysis was then performed to determine brain  
275 areas active to each sample (no CO<sub>2</sub>, low CO<sub>2</sub> and high CO<sub>2</sub>) for both the TT and TnT group,  
276 with maps threshold at a false discovery rate (FDR) corrected probability of  $p < 0.05$ . To  
277 assess the difference in brain activation between TTs and TnTs for each sample, a two-  
278 sample t-test was performed for each CO<sub>2</sub> sample using a binary mask of 'all' samples ( $p <$   
279  $0.05$  uncorrected) and assessed at a threshold level  $p < 0.005$  uncorrected,  $k > 20$   
280 (Lieberman and Cunningham, 2009). A second level RFX analysis of those areas displaying  
281 a linear parametric modulation with CO<sub>2</sub> level was performed for both the TT and TnT group  
282 at a threshold level  $p < 0.005$  uncorrected,  $k > 20$ . Finally, to determine whether subjective  
283 preference to the CO<sub>2</sub> level of the sample could account for differences in taste activation,  
284 we performed a second level RFX analysis of CO<sub>2</sub> level, and compared the  
285 inclusion/exclusion of subjective preference rating as a covariate of no interest to the  
286 response to CO<sub>2</sub> level.

287 A region of interest (ROI) analysis based on *a priori* areas was performed on right and left  
288 hemispheres for each individual subject's first level maps. The insula was subdivided into  
289 anterior (40, 10, -2) and posterior (44, -32, 12) parts, defined as an 8 mm sphere centred at  
290 the peak active voxel, as reported in (Eldeghaidy et al. 2011). Thalamus, amygdala, and SII

291 (BA 43) were anatomically defined by the PickAtlas, and SI as an 8 mm sphere centred at  
292 (60, -6, 20). In addition, lateral (26, 32, -10) and medial OFC (-6, 44, -2) ROIs were defined  
293 as reported by de Araujo and Rolls (2004), and dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC) (44,  
294 32, 12) as reported by (Kringelbach et al., 2004). The ROIs contained a large number of  
295 voxels (>250) which encompassed all activated areas of interest, allowing for variability in  
296 the location of the activation peak within cortical regions across all subjects. The ROI  
297 analysis was performed for 1) TT and TnT contrast maps at each CO<sub>2</sub> level and 2) the linear  
298 parametric modulation of CO<sub>2</sub> maps. For each sample, the mean of the top 5 % parameter  
299 estimate ( $\beta$ -value) was calculated for each ROI (Fernandez et al., 2003; Mitsis et al., 2008).  
300 Since all ROIs were first defined to comprise a large number of voxels, this analysis  
301 approach ensured the assessment of the activity in each functional area with a high signal-  
302 to-noise ratio, while accounting for any between-subject functional variability (for example,  
303 arising due to differences in cortical folding patterns).

304 A two-factor ANOVA (group and sample) to assess any significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) at a  
305 global level was performed. Tukey's HSD post-hoc multiple comparison tests determined  
306 significant differences between groups for each sample and ROI. For the parametric  
307 modulations, significant differences between groups were calculated using Student t-test.

308

## 309 **Results**

### 310 *Screening*

311 No subjects were excluded due to taste dysfunction. Of the 52 subjects screened, 12 were  
312 classified as TTs (23 %) and 40 (77 %) as TnTs. Twenty four subjects were invited to take  
313 part in the fMRI scanning, twelve thermal tasters (TT) (8 females, 4 males,  $30 \pm 7$  yrs) and  
314 12 thermal non-tasters (TnT) (7 females, 5 males,  $32 \pm 5$  yrs). Both TT and TnT groups  
315 were matched for PROP taster status (4 PROP non-tasters (pNTs), 6 PROP medium-tasters  
316 (pMTs) 2 PROP super-tasters (pSTs) in each group). The 12 TnTs were randomly selected

317 from the group of 24, taking into account availability, for each PROP taster status sub group.  
318 During thermal stimulation of the tongue, the intensity of tastes reported by each thermal  
319 taster during each replicate was between weak and strong on the gLMS, with an average  
320 intensity rating across all tastes and subjects just below moderate. TTs reported perceiving  
321 tastes during warming trials, cooling trials or both, with bitter reported as the taste most often  
322 perceived during warming trials and metallic most commonly perceived during cooling trails  
323 Figure 1c.

324

### 325 *Oral responsiveness*

326 **The MANOVA revealed a significant effect of TT group according to the Wilks'**  
327 **Lambda test ( $p = 0.041$ ), with TTs rating oral responsiveness significantly more**  
328 **intense than TnTs. Although this trend was observed across attributes (except**  
329 **Quinine and Cooling) (Figure 2a), it only approached significance for sucrose ( $p =$**   
330 **0.054) and for warming ( $p = 0.056$ ) (Table 2), thus these latter two responses drove the**  
331 **overall significance observed.**

332

### 333 *Sample Preference*

334 Figure 2b shows the preference of each CO<sub>2</sub> sample in percentage values for TTs and TnTs  
335 respectively. There is a clear difference in the pattern of response between the TT and TnT  
336 group. The TT group most preferred the no CO<sub>2</sub> sample and least preferred the high CO<sub>2</sub>  
337 sample. In contrast, TnTs did not show a clear preference for any sample. The 'no CO<sub>2</sub>'  
338 sample was both most preferred and least preferred by the same number of subjects in the  
339 TnT group. For both the TT and TnT group a Spearman rank correlation was performed  
340 between the rank of CO<sub>2</sub> level and preference, for both groups a non-significant correlation  
341 coefficient was found (TT:  $\rho = -0.25$ ,  $p=0.14$ ; TnT:  $\rho = -0.042$ ,  $p=0.81$ ).

342

343 *Discrimination of CO<sub>2</sub> level*

344 During the fMRI scan session, both the TT and TnT group had a good level of discrimination  
345 ability when the sample was un-carbonated 'no CO<sub>2</sub>'. This discrimination ability was reduced  
346 for the 'low CO<sub>2</sub>' sample and was similar between TT and TnT groups. However, there was a  
347 significant difference between groups for the discrimination of the high CO<sub>2</sub> sample. TTs  
348 could correctly identify the high CO<sub>2</sub> sample significantly more than the TnTs ( $p < 0.05$ ),  
349 Figure 2c. It should be noted that the high CO<sub>2</sub> sample was least preferred by the TT group,  
350 Figure 2b.

351 *fMRI Results*

352 The activation maps for TT and TnT revealed brain areas activated in response to each  
353 sample including primary taste areas (anterior insula and frontal operculum), oral  
354 somatosensory areas (mid and posterior insula, somatosensory cortices (SI and SII), and  
355 rolandic operculum), reward areas (including ACC and amygdala), dorsolateral prefrontal  
356 cortex (DLPFC) and the thalamus.

357

358 The parameter estimates ( $\beta$ -values) in each ROI were first assessed for each sample in right  
359 and left hemispheres. A trend of higher activation in the left hemisphere for both TT and TnT  
360 was observed, with a significant increase in left thalamus for “no CO<sub>2</sub>” and “high CO<sub>2</sub>”  
361 samples in TT, whereas the left anterior insula was significantly higher in TnT for the “high  
362 CO<sub>2</sub>” sample. We then assessed each ROI combined across hemispheres for both groups,  
363 Figure 3a. A two-factor ANOVA (group and sample) across all ROI's revealed a significant  
364 main effect at a global level for group ( $p < 0.05$ ) of higher cortical activation across all ROI's  
365 in TTs, but not for sample ( $p > 0.05$ ). Analysis across each ROI revealed significantly higher  
366 activation in the secondary somatosensory cortex (SII) for TTs compared to TnTs ( $p < 0.05$ ),  
367 with a trend for higher activation in the posterior insula for TTs ( $p = 0.067$ ). The activation

368 maps for a two-sample t-test between TT and TnT groups for the no CO<sub>2</sub> sample revealed  
369 significantly greater BOLD response for the TT group in ,SII, , DLPFC and ACC, as shown in  
370 the differential activation maps in Figure 3b. Table 3 gives a summary for those brain areas.  
371 When assessing the effect of sample across both groups, a trend of higher activation to the  
372 high CO<sub>2</sub> sample compared to the no CO<sub>2</sub> sample was found in the ACC ( $p= 0.068$ ).  
373 Group ROI analysis on the CO<sub>2</sub> level parametric modulation beta values showed a positive  
374 modulation of cortical activation with CO<sub>2</sub> level in all brain areas in the TnT group including  
375 somatosensory, taste and reward areas, and a negative correlation in the DLPFC.  
376 Combining data across hemispheres in the TT group, a significant negative modulation of  
377 cortical activation with CO<sub>2</sub> level was found in the anterior insula, DLPFC, lateral and medial  
378 OFC, and a trend in the ACC. A positive modulation in the SI, SII and a trend in the posterior  
379 insula (Figure 4a) was also found. A significant difference in the linear parametric modulation  
380 with CO<sub>2</sub> level was found between TT and TnT groups in the anterior insula, the DLPFC and  
381 the ACC ( $p < 0.05$ ), with a trend in the lateral OFC ( $p= 0.069$ ). Of note, the DLPFC showed  
382 an increase in the left hemisphere compared to the right hemisphere for both TTs and TnTs,  
383 whereas the response in left SII was significantly higher than right in TnTs.

384 Activation maps for the positive modulation of cortical activation with CO<sub>2</sub> level are shown  
385 for the TT and TnT group in Figure 4b, and Table 4. The RFX maps of the negative  
386 modulation with the CO<sub>2</sub> level was found in the DLPFC [(46, 34, 14),  $z= 3.04$ ,  $p= 0.001$ ] in  
387 the TnT group maps, whereas the TT showed a negative modulation with the CO<sub>2</sub> level in  
388 left anterior insula ; [(-34, 24, 0),  $z= 2.63$ ,  $p= 0.004$ ] and left amygdala [(-18, 2, -26),  $z= 2.62$ ,  
389  $p= 0.004$ ] as shown in Figure 4b.

390 We assessed whether differences in preference rating could explain the observed  
391 differences in taste activation to CO<sub>2</sub> level, but found no difference in the statistically  
392 thresholded activation maps when including preference rating as a covariate of no interest  
393 compared to when preference was not included as a covariate. Thus we conclude that the

394 observed differences in taste activation patterns are related to CO<sub>2</sub> level alone and not  
395 preference.

## 396 **Discussion**

397 In this study, thermal tasters perceived a phantom taste during thermal stimulation  
398 which was of a similar intensity to the oral response to taste samples themselves, Figure 1c,  
399 and 2a. Basic tastes reported during thermal stimulation were bitter, sweet, salty and  
400 sour/acidic. The 'other' category was selected by 6 subjects who self-reported metallic or  
401 minty tastes. Metallic is purported to have a taste component as well as trigeminal and  
402 aroma elements for some divalent salts (Epke et al., 2009; Lawless et al., 2005; Lim and  
403 Lawless, 2005). We concluded that minty sensation was important as it may result from the  
404 subject experiencing a phantom sweet taste, shown in literature to be an important  
405 component of mintiness, (Davidson et al. 1999), in conjunction with the trigeminal  
406 temperature stimulation. This may explain why none of the TT's in this study reported  
407 sweetness during the warming trial when other studies have reported sweetness on warming  
408 (Cruz and Green 2000; Yang et al, 2014). The incidence of tastes reported by thermal  
409 tasters has been reported in one other study (Yang et al, 2014) and the most frequent taste  
410 reported was metallic. It would be interesting to compare the cortical response in TTs who  
411 report basic tastes with those who report other taste sensations in order to understand this  
412 further. The ability of thermal stimulation to elicit such a clear taste response in thermal  
413 tasters is intriguing. Furthermore, behaviourally, TTs perceived the intensity of oral response  
414 (taste and temperature) higher than TnTs (Figure 2a). This suggests that TTs could have a  
415 perceptual advantage for some gustatory and trigeminal stimuli when presented in isolation,  
416 as previously reported (Bajec and Pickering, 2008; Cruz and Green, 2000). During the fMRI  
417 scan session, TTs were significantly more able to discriminate the high CO<sub>2</sub> sample  
418 compared to TnTs, and, the high CO<sub>2</sub> sample was clearly the least preferred sample for TTs,  
419 supporting a perceptual advantage in this group, Figure 2b and c. Perceptually increasing  
420 levels of CO<sub>2</sub> may have reduced perceived sweetness due to cross-modal interactions



421 (Clark et al., 2011) which could account for the preference trend towards the no CO<sub>2</sub> sample  
422 as it may have been perceived sweeter by TTs.

423 Taste and somatosensory stimuli are usually simultaneously present during food intake.  
424 Function convergence between these two modalities has been documented (Cerf-Ducastel  
425 et al., 2001; Guest et al., 2007; Rudenga et al., 2010). Cerf-Ducastel et al (2001) showed an  
426 overlap in taste and lingual somatosensory representation in the insula, rolandic, frontal and  
427 temporal operculum, with superior and inferior parts of the insula being more discriminating  
428 to gustatory only samples (sweet, salt, sour and umami) compared with somato-gustatory  
429 samples (pungent sour and astringent sweet). In this study, the samples developed for use  
430 in the fMRI protocol were designed to elicit a gustatory-trigeminal response (sweet + low  
431 CO<sub>2</sub>; sweet + high CO<sub>2</sub>). Cortical activation to the sweet + no CO<sub>2</sub> sample was significantly  
432 higher in the TT group compared to the TnT group in, oral somatosensory (SII, rolandic  
433 operculum), and reward areas (ACC), in addition to the DLPFC, an area linked to cognitive  
434 evaluation processes, such as evaluation of rewarding taste stimulation (Kringelbach et al.,  
435 2004), suggesting that the increase in intensity perception measured behaviourally by the TT  
436 group is a result of elevated cortical activation across areas associated with taste perception.  
437 This may be due to an elevated perception of sweetness intensity or a modified oral  
438 perception due to the sample delivery temperature in TT compared to TnTs.

439         When the trigeminal component (CO<sub>2</sub> level) of the stimulus increased, the pattern of  
440 cortical activation between TT and TnT groups was significantly different. A significant  
441 increase in cortical response with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> level ( $p < 0.05$ , Figure 4) was seen across  
442 all *a priori* ROIs (taste, somatosensory and reward areas) in the TnT group. In contrast, only  
443 the somatosensory areas (SI, SII) showed a significant positive modulation ( $p < 0.05$ ) with  
444 increasing CO<sub>2</sub> level in the TT group. Interestingly, TTs showed a significant negative  
445 parametric modulation ( $p < 0.05$ ) with CO<sub>2</sub> level in primary taste (anterior insula) and reward  
446 (ACC) areas, in addition to a negative modulation for the DLPFC in both TT and TnT groups.  
447 Previous studies have reported DLPFC activation to food-related studies (Small et al., 2001;

448 Tataranni et al., 1999), and Kringelbach et al (2004) showed DLPFC activation to unimodal  
449 taste and multimodal flavour stimuli in the human brain.

450         These results suggest that samples containing both gustatory and trigeminal stimulus  
451 input are processed differently by the TT and TnT groups. The significantly higher cortical  
452 response of TTs to the sweet + no CO<sub>2</sub> sample compared with TnTs, and the limited change  
453 in activation in SI and SII with the addition of a trigeminal CO<sub>2</sub> component (sweet + low/ high  
454 CO<sub>2</sub> samples), as well as behaviourally the higher intensity perception in TTs, supports the  
455 hypothesis that the gustatory and trigeminal nerves are intertwined at the periphery in TTs.  
456 These results support previous findings from Essick et al (Essick et al., 2003) that tactile and  
457 taste sensitivities covary. The close proximity of gustatory (chorda tympani nerve) and  
458 somatosensory (lingual nerve) afferents, particularly at the tongue tip, and small receptive  
459 fields at that location, supports coupling between the taste and somatosensory sensations  
460 (Whitehead et al., 1985). This hypothesis supports the fact that thermal tasters can  
461 experience a phantom taste from temperature activating the gustatory nerve during thermal  
462 stimulation, as revealed behaviourally. Here, when gustatory and trigeminal stimuli are  
463 presented together (low and high CO<sub>2</sub> level), activation in TTs remains unaltered, likely as  
464 both nerves are already highly stimulated, whilst in TnTs increased cortical activation results  
465 from the additional stimulation of the trigeminal nerve.

466 We hypothesise that the increase in cortical activation across taste and somatosensory ROIs  
467 for the TnT group in response to CO<sub>2</sub> level, results in an increased intensity perception to  
468 CO<sub>2</sub> level. However, for TTs cortical activation in taste (anterior insula), DLPFC, and reward  
469 (lateral and medial OFC, ACC) areas is negatively modulated with CO<sub>2</sub>, suggesting that the  
470 sensory advantage of increased intensity perception of simple tastants by TT might be lost  
471 when another modality is added, with TTs further rating the high CO<sub>2</sub> sample as least  
472 preferred. This could be due to a decrease in sweetness perception with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> as  
473 found by others (Clark et al., 2011b; Hewson et al., 2009) which is impacting the cortical

474 activation patterns differently in each group. We hypothesise that this is due to cross-wiring  
475 between gustatory and trigeminal receptors in TTs.

476           The differences in cortical response observed between TT and TnTs contributes to  
477 understanding concerning differences in perception between these two groups. Such  
478 differences may impact food choice behaviour and the differences in response to  
479 carbonation here could impact on beverage choice and hence could impact on product  
480 design considerations in the beverage industry. Current research into the difference between  
481 TT and TnT groups for food and drink preferences is very limited. Liking of beer (Pickering et  
482 al., 2010a) and wine (Pickering et al., 2010b) was not found to be significantly different  
483 between groups. It is possible that the preference for uncarbonated samples in TTs found  
484 here might result in reduced preference for highly carbonated beers and other soft drinks,  
485 however a fully controlled study with more complex beverage systems and a larger sample  
486 size is needed to confirm this. Differences between thermal taster groups have been found  
487 for food liking;. TTs were found to like soft foods significantly less than TnTs, potentially  
488 indicating a difference between groups in their oral tactile sensitivity (Bajec and Pickering,  
489 2010). Analogous to our findings of thermal taster status, studies of lexical-gustatory  
490 synaesthesia (Jones et al., 2011) - individuals who experience an automatic and highly  
491 consistent taste to spoken and written language - have demonstrated increased anterior  
492 insula activation related to viewing words that elicited tastes, and it has been shown that  
493 genes play a role in such a synaesthesia (Brang and Ramachandran, 2011; Simner and  
494 Ward, 2006). Here we show that TTs have different activation patterns compared with TnTs,  
495 and it is possible that genotype may also play a role here. Further research now needs to be  
496 conducted to understand the mechanism of thermal taster status and this cross modal  
497 gustatory and trigeminal interaction.

498

499 **Conclusion**

500

501 Few investigations of thermal taster status have been published. This work presents the first  
502 study to address changes in the cortical response in thermal tasters. We investigate the  
503 difference in cortical activation to trigeminal-gustatory stimuli between thermal and non-  
504 thermal taster groups. Behaviourally, thermal tasters respond to taste and temperature  
505 stimuli more intensely than TnTs. This is supported by this fMRI data which shows  
506 heightened cortical activation in taste, somatosensory and reward areas to gustatory stimuli  
507 in TTs compared to TnTs, and that the addition of a trigeminal CO<sub>2</sub> component to stimuli  
508 leads to a limited change in cortical response in these areas in TTs. Evidence from this study  
509 supports a cross-modal integration mechanism with interaction of stimulation to taste and  
510 trigeminal nerves in thermal tasters.

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512  
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515

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609



610

611 Tables

612 **Table 1:** Remembered or imagined sensations used in gLMS scale training.

Remembered or imagined sensation	
1	The brightness of a dimly lit restaurant
2	The brightness of a well-lit room
3	Staring at the sun
4	The loudness of a whisper
5	The loudness of a conversation
6	Hearing a nearby jet-plane take off
7	Warmth of freshly baked bread in your mouth
8	The coldness experienced sucking on an ice-cube
9	The smell of a rose
10	The strongest smell ever experienced
11	The sweetness of candyfloss
12	The bitterness of grapefruit
13	The strongest taste ever experienced
14	The strongest oral burn experienced
15	The strongest oral pain ever experienced

613

614

615 **Table 2:** Mean value of oral responsiveness to individual attributes for thermal tasters (TTs)  
616 and thermal-non tasters (TnTs), F-values and associated p-values from the MANOVA<sup>a</sup> are  
617 provided.

	Stimulus	Group	Mean	F-value	p-value
<b>Taste</b>	NaCl	TnTs	1.369	0.35	0.558
		TTs	1.420		
	CitricAcid	TnTs	1.392	1.90	0.175
		TTs	1.504		
	Sucrose	TnTs	1.023	3.91	0.054†
		TTs	1.193		
	Quinine	TnTs	1.487	0.93	0.340
		TTs	1.387		
	PROP	TnTs	0.698	0.59	0.810
		TTs	0.741		
<b>Temperature</b>	Warming	TnTs	1.305	3.84	0.056†
		TTs	1.416		
	Cooling	TnTs	1.569	0.01	0.935
		TTs	1.565		

618 <sup>a</sup> Wilks' Lambda test indicated a significant group effect for overall responsiveness (p=0.041)

619 † approaching significance (p= 0.05)

620

621 **Table 3:** Brain areas showing higher response to thermal tasters (TTs) compared with  
 622 thermal non-tasters (TnTs) for gustatory sample “no CO<sub>2</sub>”.

Area	Side	MNI <sup>1</sup>	Z-score	p-value	Cluster size <sup>2</sup> , k
ACC*	L	-6, 2, 48	3.20	0.001	202
Rolanic operculum*	L	-44, -4, 52	3.32	<0.001	106
Secondary somatosensory cortex (SII)*	L	-54, -30, 32	2.99	0.001	132
Precentral gyrus*	R	30, -8, 56	2.93	0.002	59
Middle frontal gyrus/DLPFC	R	36, 42, 24	2.73	0.003	22

623 R, right hemisphere; L, left hemisphere; MNI, Montreal Neurological Institute;

624 <sup>1</sup> Peak voxel coordinates given in MNI space (x,y,z)

625 <sup>2</sup> Reported clusters threshold at p < 0.005, uncorrected for multiple comparisons, with a  
 626 cluster extent threshold k > 20 voxels, and ‘sub’ indicates sub-cluster level. Asterisks  
 627 indicate areas activated with FDR corrected p < 0.05.

628

629

630 **Table 4:** Brain areas showing positive modulation in BOLD amplitude with CO<sub>2</sub> level in  
 631 thermal tasters (TTs) and thermal non tasters (TnTs).

Area	Side	MNI <sup>1</sup>	Z-score	p-value	Cluster size <sup>2</sup> , k
<b>Thermal taster (TT)</b>					
SII	L	-62 , -28, 16	5.41	<0.001	51
	R	<b>64, -14, 8</b>	<b>3.34</b>	<b>0.003</b>	<b>26</b>
<b>Thermal non- taster (TnT)</b>					
Primary Somatosensory Cortex (SI)*	R	62, -12, 42	3.59	<0.001	797
		54, -16, 22	3.25	<0.001	
	58, -20, 26	3.23	0.001		
	L	-52, -14, 46	3.52	<0.001	sub
Secondary somatosensory cortex (SII)*	R	62, -26, 18	4.55	<0.001	sub
		68, -28, 8	3.89	<0.001	
Rolandic operculum*	R	56, 0, 6	4.55	<0.001	sub
	L	-56, 2, 14	3.54	<0.0001	44

ACC*	R	2, 0,50	3.31	<0.0001	312
	L	-6, -10, 48	3.34	<0.0001	sub
Precentral gyrus*	R	60, -2, 42	3.58	<0.0001	sub

632 R, right hemisphere; L, left hemisphere; MNI, Montreal Neurological Institute.

633 <sup>1</sup> Peak voxel coordinates given in MNI space (x,y,z).

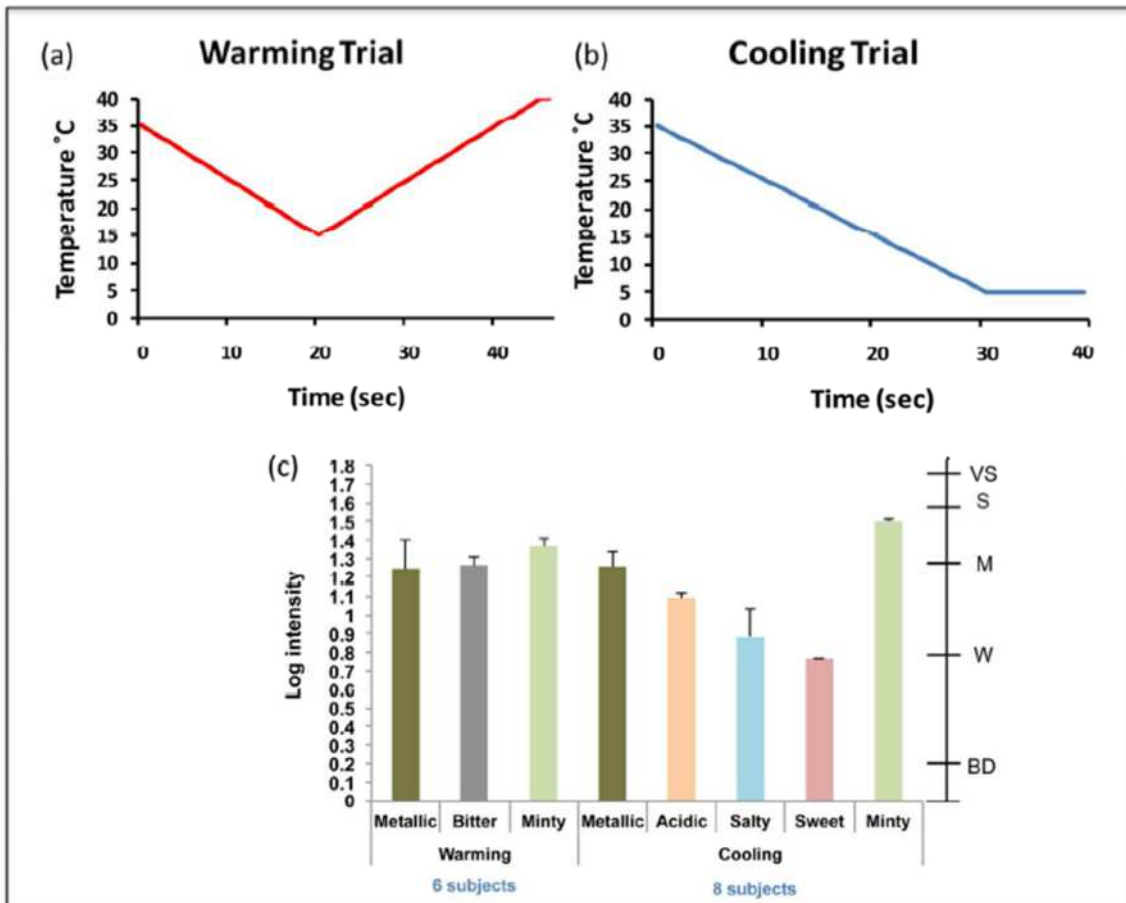
634 <sup>2</sup> Reported clusters threshold at  $p < 0.005$ , uncorrected for multiple comparisons, with a  
635 cluster extent threshold  $k > 20$  voxels, and 'sub' indicates sub-cluster level, Asterisks  
636 indicate areas activated with FDR corrected  $p < 0.05$ .

637

638

639 **Figures**

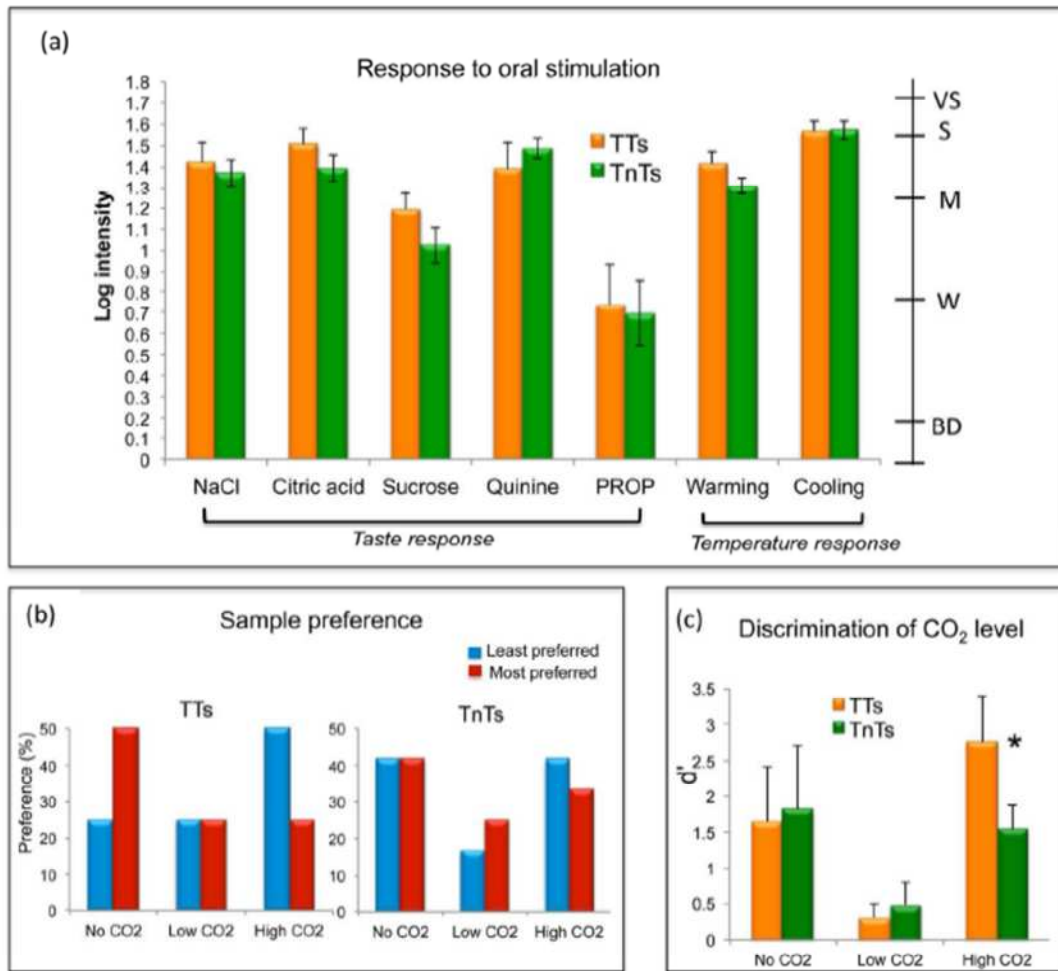
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642

643 **Figure 1:** Thermal taster screening protocol. Graphical representation of (a) warming trial:  
644 cooling to 15 °C before warming to 40 °C, (b) cooling trial: cooling to 5 °C where temperature  
645 is held for 10 s. (c) Taste quality and intensity experienced by thermal tasters to warming (6  
646 subjects) and cooling trials (8 subjects). Note: 2 subjects were both warming and cooling  
647 tasters. Secondary scale indicates labels on the gLMS: BD = barely detectable, W = weak,  
648 M = moderate, S = strong, VS = very strong

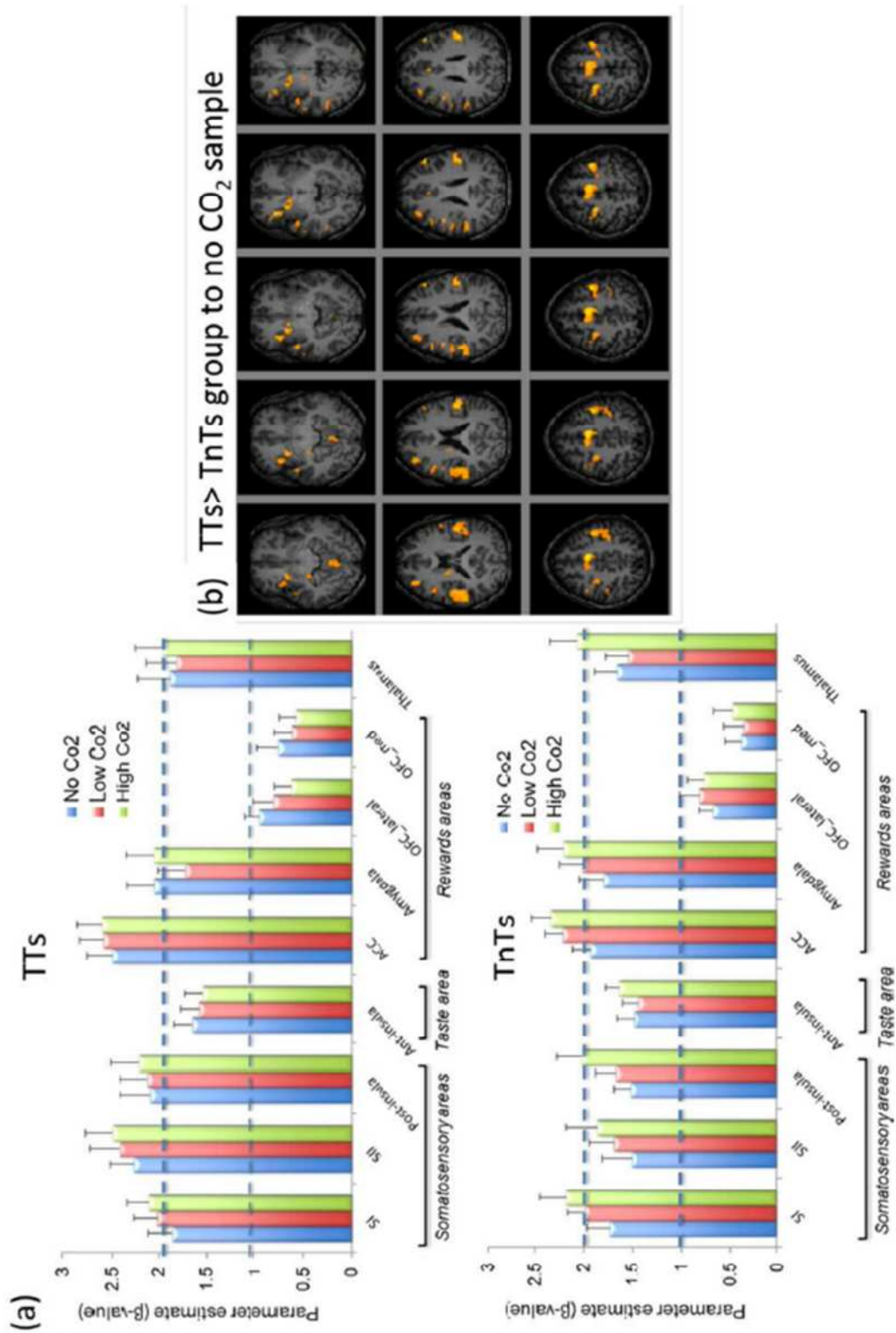


649

650 **Figure 2:** Behavioural response: **(a)** Intensity of oral responses perceived by the thermal  
 651 taster (TT) and thermal non-taster (TnT) group. Secondary scale indicates labels on the  
 652 gLMS: BD = barely detectable, W = weak, M = moderate, S = strong, VS = very strong. **(b)**  
 653 Percentage of subject's preference by each group. **(c)** The discrimination ability of subjects  
 654 to correctly identify the CO<sub>2</sub> level delivered during the fMRI scan session, with the d' value of  
 655 the TT and TnT group provided. Asterisks indicate a significant difference between groups at  
 656  $p < 0.05$ . Error bars show standard error.

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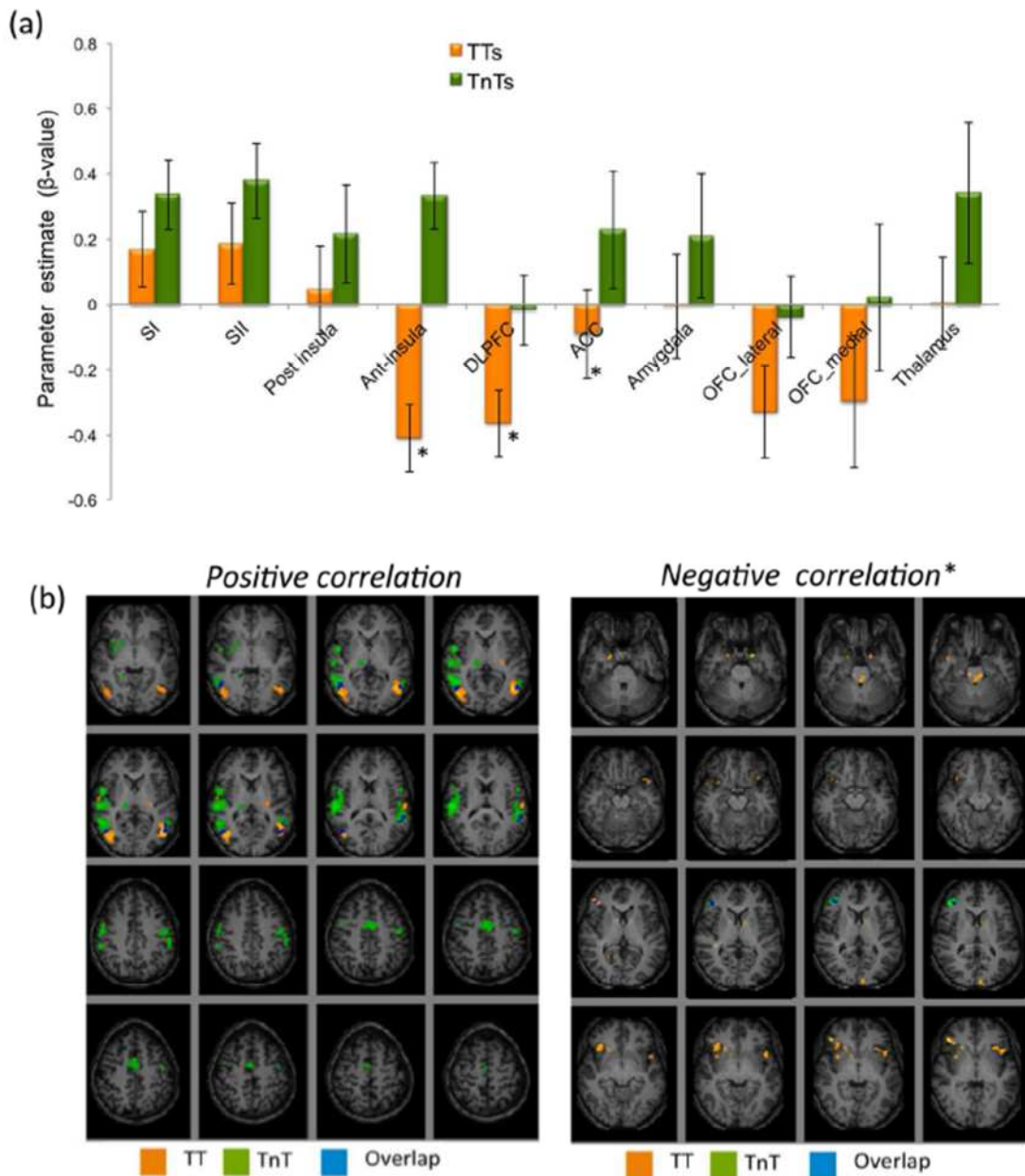
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661 **Figure 3: (a)** Parameter estimate ( $\beta$ -value) for TT and TnT groups highlighting the response

662 in *a priori* cortical areas (error bars indicate the standard error). **(b)** Random effects group

663 analysis map showing contrast of (TT > TnT group) to the no CO<sub>2</sub> sample (sweet taste  
664 alone). Maps overlaid on T<sub>1</sub>-weighted images, assessed at threshold  $p < 0.005$ .  
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668 **Figure 4:** (a) Positive and negative parameter estimate ( $\beta$ -value) for TT and TnT groups in a  
 669 *priori* cortical areas (error bars indicate the standard error). Asterisks indicate a significant  
 670 difference between groups at  $p < 0.05$ . (b) Cortical areas showing a positive and negative  
 671 correlation with CO<sub>2</sub> level. Maps displayed with  $p < 0.005$ , \* $p < 0.05$  uncorrected. In each  
 672 figure the TT group is shown in orange, the TnT group in green, and the overlap of these  
 673 groups in blue.