

1 **Reduced taste responsiveness and increased food neophobia characterize obese adults**

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11 **Abstract**

12 The aim of the present study was to investigate the relationship between two well-established
13 markers of taste perception, 6-n-propylthiouracil (PROP) responsiveness and fungiform papillae
14 number, in obese and healthy-weight subjects. The association between taste responsiveness and
15 food neophobia attitude was evaluated to understand if these variables are linked to nutritional
16 status of subjects.

17 Forty healthy-weight (Body Mass Index: $22.67 \pm 0.43 \text{ kg/m}^2$) and forty-five obese (Body Mass
18 Index: $37.57 \pm 0.77 \text{ kg/m}^2$) subjects were involved. PROP responsiveness and fungiform papillae
19 number were positively correlated to each other in both groups of subjects (healthy-weight: $r = 0.67$,
20 $p < 0.001$; obese: $r = 0.83$, $p < 0.001$). PROP responsiveness ratings and fungiform papillae number
21 were significantly negatively correlated with food neophobia scores in both group of subjects
22 ($p < 0.01$). Subjects characterized as significantly less sensitive and more neophobics had a higher
23 Body Mass Index. Especially, obese men showed significant lower taste responsiveness ($p < 0.05$)
24 and higher food neophobia scores ($p < 0.05$) compared to obese women and healthy-weight subjects,
25 both sexes.

26 The nutritional status of the subjects seems to be linked to taste responsiveness and food neophobic
27 attitude. These data suggest that, between several factors which could play a role in the control of
28

29 body weight, understand how sensory perception affects eating behavior could give important
30 information to study variables which may determine food habits.

31 **Keywords:** PROP; fungiform papillae; BMI; overweight; sensory perception; eating behavior.

32

33 **1. Introduction**

34 Sensory perception varies widely across individuals but the link to actual eating behaviour, nutrition
35 and health is not that clear (Tepper, 2008). Possible explanations for this great individual variability
36 are environmental factors (Köster, 2009) as well as genetic background (Bajec & Pickering, 2008).
37 One of the most studied genetic sources of individual variation is the ability to taste the bitter
38 compound 6-n-propylthiouracil (PROP) (e.g. Yackinous & Guinard, 2001; Duffy, 2007; Tepper,
39 2008; Tepper et al., 2009). Previous studies reported that PROP responsiveness is associated with
40 sensitivity to a variety of oro-sensory stimuli. Super-tasters (i.e., subjects highly responsive to
41 PROP) perceive saltiness, sweetness, and sour more intensely than medium and non-tasters (i.e.,
42 subjects less responsive to PROP) (Duffy et al., 2003; Hayes & Duffy, 2007; Prescott et al., 2004).
43 These differences in taste responsiveness have a remarkable effect on food acceptance, with for
44 example, non-tasters more likely to be sweet likers while super-tasters more likely to be sweet
45 dislikers (Yeomans et al., 2007).

46 PROP responsiveness is also related to anthropometric, physiological and behavioral measurements
47 but literature data are controversial. Different studies showed an inverse association between PROP
48 responsiveness and Body Mass Index (BMI) (Tepper & Ullrich, 2002; Goldstein et al., 2005; Burd
49 et al., 2012) whereas others did not (Bajec & Pickering, 2010; Villarino et al., 2009; Borazon et al.,
50 2012). Moreover, a wide range of literature suggests that PROP responsiveness is positively related
51 to density of lingual fungiform papillae which are structures containing taste buds. Subjects with a
52 higher number of fungiform papillae are more sensitive to tastes (Bartoshuk, 2000; Delwiche et al.,
53 2001; Hayes et al., 2008; Masi et al., 2015). However, there are also recent findings not supporting

54 the association between PROP responsiveness and fungiform papillae (Fisher et al., 2013; Garneau
55 et al., 2014; Webb et al., 2015).

56 Previous research led by our group (Bertoli et al., 2014; Proserpio et al., 2016) showed that over-
57 weight and obese subjects have a reduced taste sensitivity that might increase food desire, thus
58 leading to excessive energy intake and weight gain. A recent neuroimaging study seems to support
59 this hypothesis showing that gustatory stimulation induced differential fMRI brain activation
60 patterns in obese compared to healthy subjects (Szalay et al., 2012).

61 In our studies taste sensitivity was measured through the 3-Alternative Forced Choice (3AFC;
62 ASTM E 679-04 (2011), a robust and reliable procedure, which is, however, difficult to apply in an
63 ambulatory context involving obese subjects undergoing a weight-loss therapy. Faster and easier
64 approaches, such as the count of the fungiform papillae and PROP responsiveness, would be more
65 appropriate in this context, due to their simpler, but reliable, procedures (Zhao et al., 2003; Rankin
66 et al., 2004). Indeed, taste response to PROP, as well as the density of fungiform papillae, are well-
67 studied markers of genetic variation in taste and oral sensation perception (e.g. Bartoshuk et al.,
68 1994; Miller & Reedy, 1990; Zuniga et al., 1997; Bajec & Pickering, 2010; Tepper 2008; Duffy et
69 al., 2010; Tepper et al., 2014; Feeney & Hayes, 2014). Moreover, the fungiform papillae number,
70 which is not a reported measure, could be helpful in order to avoid biased report ratings.

71 Besides individual variation in taste responsiveness, food neophobia (literally the fear of novel
72 food) is another aspect to be considered as it plays an important role in shaping food preference and
73 rejection (Pliner & Hobden, 1992). This behavior has been largely studied in omnivores, including
74 humans but its association with taste perception and nutritional status is under debate. Knaapila and
75 colleagues (2011) reported a weak correlation between food neophobia scores and BMI in young
76 women but not in men. Other authors observed that BMI is higher in food neophobics than in food
77 neophilics (Finistrella et al., 2012; Knaapila et al., 2015).

78 In a previous study, we hypothesized that obese adults may have a higher neophobic attitude than
79 healthy controls but, unexpectedly, we did not find significant differences (Proserpio et al., 2016).

80 This maybe was due to the deliberately or unwittingly biased report ratings that obese subjects gave
81 about their eating behaviour (Klesges et al., 1988). It is well recognized that obese subjects have the
82 tendency, either intentional or as a form of self-deception, to answer to dietary and eating behaviour
83 questions as expected by the interviewer (Heitmann, 1996).

84 In this context, among all the several factors which could play a role in the control of body weight,
85 the relation between taste perception and food neophobia is still under investigation.

86 The aim of the present study was to compare taste perception in obese and healthy-weight subjects
87 using two well-established markers of taste responsiveness, i.e. PROP responsiveness and
88 fungiform papillae number. The relationship between these two markers was also investigated,
89 since we hypothesized that if these two measurements are related, one of these methods could be
90 preferred to investigate taste responsiveness when the 3AFC or similar procedures are not easy to
91 be performed (i.e. ambulatory context). Finally, due to the lack of agreement in the literature, the
92 association between taste responsiveness and food neophobia attitude was evaluated in order to
93 understand if these variables are linked to the nutritional status of the subjects. Gender has been also
94 considered due to its role on BMI and food neophobia attitude (Monteleone et al., 2017).

95

96 **2. Materials and Methods**

97 **2.1 Subjects**

98 Eighty-five adults completed the study. Forty-five obese subjects were recruited among patients
99 admitted to the Department of Medical Sciences and Rehabilitation before starting their weight loss
100 treatment (IRCCS Istituto Auxologico Italiano). Forty healthy-weight subjects were recruited
101 among employees of the Faculty of Agriculture and Food Sciences of the University of Milan.
102 Sample size was chosen assuming a standardized effect size around 0.70, $\alpha = 0.05$ and $\beta = 0.20$,
103 which gives approximately 35 subjects for each BMI group. All subjects were invited to a screening
104 session, around 9:00 am, to assess the anthropometric measurements by collecting body weight (to
105 the nearest 0.1 kg) and standing height (to the nearest 0.1cm) using the same calibrated scale on a

106 telescopic vertical steel stadiometer (SECA 220; Germany), with subjects dressed only in
107 underwear. BMI was calculated accordingly [weight (kg)/height (m²)]. Subjects with BMI higher
108 than 30 were classified as obese, while subjects with BMI between 18 and 25 were classified as
109 healthy-weight. Participants' characteristics are presented in **Table 1**.

110 **Table 1.** Participants' characteristics (data are reported as mean values \pm SEM)
111

	Healthy-weight (n=40)		Obese (n=45)	
	Women (n=21)	Men (n=19)	Women (n=25)	Men (n=20)
Age (years)	40.38 \pm 1.37	41.84 \pm 2.74	43.46 \pm 2.05	52.40 \pm 2.05
BMI (kg/m ²)	21.59 \pm 0.53	22.86 \pm 0.60	36.46 \pm 0.86	38.95 \pm 1.32

112

113 The exclusion criteria were: aged > 65 years, experienced ageusia, pharmacological therapy that
114 could modify taste perception, smokers and diabetics. All subjects were invited to take part to one
115 session before lunch from 12.00 to 13.00, and were assessed for their taste responsiveness in pre-
116 prandial condition. Subjects were also asked to complete a questionnaire concerning food
117 neophobia. This study was approved by the Ethic Committee of the IRCCS Istituto Auxologico
118 Italiano and written informed consent was obtained from all subjects after full explanation of the
119 study. This study was conducted according to the guidelines laid down in the Declaration of
120 Helsinki.

121

122 **2.2 Taste responsiveness assessment**

123 **2.2.1 PROP responsiveness**

124 PROP responsiveness was established using PROP-impregnated filter paper according to the
125 procedure described by Bartoshuk and colleagues (2003). 3 cm² filter papers (Whatman) were
126 soaked in a saturated aqueous PROP (6-n-propyl-2-thiouracil, Sigma-Aldrich, Spa, Milano) solution
127 heated to near boiling temperature. Papers were air dried and stored at room temperature in small
128 glassine envelopes for a maximum of 24 hours. Each paper contained around 1.6 mg PROP. PROP

129 crystallizes into the filter paper making it a convenient vehicle to deliver a measured amount of
130 material into the mouth. Comparing the average perceived bitterness of PROP papers with those of
131 PROP solutions, PROP paper falls between the perceived bitterness of 0.001 and 0.0032 M PROP
132 (Bartoshuk et al., 2003). Using paper filter has the advantage of being easy to administer to subjects
133 in ambulatory conditions and it has been used rather than solutions since it is equally valid and
134 shows high test-retest reliability (Zhao et al., 2003; Rankin et al., 2004).
135 Prior to the test, subjects practiced the general version of the Labeled Magnitude Scale (gLMS;
136 Green et al. 1993, 1996) by rating a list of remembered or imagined oral sensations (e.g., the
137 sweetness of cotton candy and the burn of cinnamon gum) to give them experience using the scale
138 in the broad context of normal oral perception (Green et al., 2012). Subjects were instructed that
139 PROP intensity should be rated in the context of other sensations and that the endpoint of the scale
140 equalled the most intense sensations imaginable, such as hearing a jet plane take off overhead or
141 looking into the sun. After these explanations about the use of the scale, each respondent was
142 instructed to put a filter paper on the tongue, wait 10 seconds and rate the perceived bitter intensity
143 using the gLMS.

144

145 ***2.2.1 Fungiform papillae number evaluation***

146 Fungiform papillae number was calculated using a method previously described by our group
147 (Proserpio et al., 2016) with a procedure proposed by Nachtsheim and Schlich (2013) and Bakke
148 and Vickers (2011). Subjects' tongues were painted with a blue food dye (F.lli Rebecchi, Color
149 Dolci, Spa, Milano, Italy). A circle of filter paper (7 mm diameter) was positioned on the centre of
150 their tongue at 1–2 cm from the tip. In a bright room several photos of the tongue were taken using
151 a 12-megapixel digital camera (FUJIFILM USA, Inc.) in macro mode with no flash. After the
152 selection of the best photograph, Adobe Photoshop was used to draw three outlined circles of the
153 same size as the filter paper circle that had been placed on the tongue. Those papillae that were in
154 contact with the outlined circle were counted if more than 50% of individual papillae were within

155 the boundary. The fungiform papillae were counted independently by three researchers and the
156 mean of the counts was calculated.

157

158 **2.3 Food neophobia assessment**

159 Food neophobia was measured using the Italian translation of the Food Neophobia Scale (FNS)
160 (Pliner & Hobden, 1992), as described by Proserpio and colleagues (2016). The FNS consists of ten
161 statements, such as “I do not trust new foods” with a seven-category response scale ranging from
162 “strongly disagree” (score 1) to “strongly agree” (score 7). Half of the statements are worded in
163 reverse relative to food neophobia (e.g. “I like foods from different countries”), so responses to
164 these statements were reversed when calculating the score. The FNS score was computed as a sum
165 of the responses, yielding a range of 10–70, with higher scores indicating higher food neophobia.
166 Internal consistency, as measured by Cronbach’s alpha, was 0.87.

167

168 **3. Statistical analysis**

169 Statistical analysis was performed using STATGRAPHICS PLUS v.16 software (Manugest KS
170 Inc.). The data were normally distributed according to Shapiro-Wilk test. An ANCOVA with BMI
171 (healthy-weight vs obese), gender and their two-way interaction as independent variables and PROP
172 responsiveness, fungiform papillae number, and food neophobia scores as dependent variables was
173 performed. Age was included as covariate. When a significant effect ($p < 0.05$) was found, Tukey’s
174 post-hoc test was used.

175 Correlations between all measurements (PROP responsiveness, fungiform papillae and food
176 neophobia scores) were examined using Pearson's correlation coefficient with a minimum
177 significance level defined as $p < 0.05$. The relationship between food neophobia score and taste
178 responsiveness (PROP responsiveness vs food neophobia scores; fungiform papillae vs food
179 neophobia scores) in both healthy-weight and obese subjects, was also explored comparing slopes
180 and intercepts of the regression lines through analysis of variance using the Comparison Regression

181 Lines option of STATGRAPHICS PLUS v.16. PROP responsiveness either fungiform papillae
182 number was included in the model as independent variable and food neophobia scores as dependent
183 variable.

184

185 **4. Results**

186 **4.1. Taste responsiveness and food neophobia assessment**

187 Mean values for PROP responsiveness, fungiform papillae number and food neophobia according
188 to BMI and gender are reported in Figure 1a-c. According to ANCOVA results, the interaction
189 between BMI and gender was significant for all the variables investigated (PROP responsiveness:
190 $F_{(1,80)}=4.19$ $p<0.05$; fungiform papillae: $F_{(1,80)}= 8.14$ $p<0.01$; food neophobia $F_{(1,80)}= 5.53$ $p<0.05$).

191 PROP responsiveness (Figure 1a) was significantly lower in obese men (14.44 ± 4.88) than all other
192 subjects (obese women: 32.80 ± 4.05 ; healthy-weight women: 40.01 ± 4.51 ; healthy-weight men:
193 40.04 ± 4.67), who were in turn comparable to each other.

194 Looking at Figure 1b, obese men showed significant lower fungiform papillae number (9.40 ± 0.80)
195 than other subjects (obese women: 13.47 ± 0.66 ; healthy-weight women: 15.21 ± 0.74 ; healthy-
196 weight men: 15.36 ± 0.77).

197 Considering food neophobia scores (Figure 1 c), obese men (42.25 ± 2.34) were significantly more
198 neophobic than obese women (33.85 ± 1.94). Both obese women and men were significantly
199 ($F_{(1,80)}=19.86$; $p<0.001$) more neophobic than healthy-weight subjects (men: 27.26 ± 2.24 ; women:
200 28.81 ± 2.16). The covariate age was not significant for all the measured variables.

201

202 **4.2. Relationship between PROP responsiveness and fungiform papillae number**

203 The correlation between fungiform papillae number and PROP responsiveness according to BMI
204 and gender is reported in Figure 2a-b.

205 A significant positive correlation between PROP responsiveness ratings and fungiform papillae
206 number was found in both groups of subjects (healthy-weight: $r= 0.67$, $p<0.001$; obese: $r=0.83$,

207 $p < 0.001$). Healthy-weight subjects, both women and men, were distributed quite homogeneously in
208 the space, while generally obese men tended to be positioned in the left part of the graph, indicating
209 lower taste responsiveness compared to obese women and confirming the reduced taste
210 responsiveness of obese men.

211 212 **4.3. Relationship between taste responsiveness and food neophobia**

213 Results showed that both models (PROP responsiveness *vs* food neophobia scores; fungiform
214 papillae number *vs* food neophobia scores) were significant ($F_{(3,81)}=42.32$, $p < 0.001$; $F_{(3,81)}=25.91$,
215 $p < 0.001$, respectively). The comparisons of regression lines, according to BMI and gender, are
216 shown in Figure 3a-b.

217 Considering PROP responsiveness *vs* food neophobia score (Figure 3a) a significant negative
218 correlation was found in both group of subjects (healthy-weight: $r = -0.73$ $p < 0.01$; obese: $r = -0.72$
219 $p < 0.01$). Similarly, looking at Figure 3b, a significant negative correlation between fungiform
220 papillae number and food neophobia scores was found in both BMI group (healthy-weight: $r = -0.46$
221 $p < 0.01$; obese: $r = -0.67$ $p < 0.01$).

222 The intercepts of the healthy-weight versus obese subjects were significantly different from each
223 other in both cases (PROP responsiveness *vs* food neophobia score: $F_{(1,3)}=9.55$ $p < 0.01$; fungiform
224 papillae number *vs* food neophobia scores: $F_{(1,3)}=4.06$ $p < 0.05$). Similarly, the slopes of the healthy-
225 weight versus obese subjects were significantly different from each other in both cases (PROP
226 responsiveness *vs* food neophobia score: $F_{(1,3)}=14.41$ $p < 0.0001$; fungiform papillae number *vs* food
227 neophobia scores: $F_{(1,3)}=8.24$ $p < 0.001$). The distribution of responses highlights that participants
228 classed as obese tended to have lower tastes sensitivity score and higher food neophobia than
229 healthy-weight participants.

230 231 **5. Discussion**

232 The aim of the present study was to investigate the relationship between PROP responsiveness and
233 fungiform papillae number in healthy-weight and obese subjects. The association between taste
234 responsiveness and food neophobia was also evaluated to understand if these variables are linked
235 with subjects' nutritional status. Our data showed lower taste responsiveness and higher food
236 neophobia in subjects with higher BMI, especially men. Both measurements used to evaluate taste
237 responsiveness were positively correlated to each other. Moreover, taste responsiveness was
238 negative correlated with food neophobia scores in both BMI groups.

239 The present results support previous findings reporting that subjects who differ in their response to
240 PROP, as well as other taste stimuli, have anatomical differences in the tongue, i.e. number of
241 fungiform papillae (Yackinous & Guinard, 2002; Essick et al., 2003; Shahbake et al., 2005; Bajec
242 & Pickering, 2008). This association has not been confirmed in more recent larger studies (Fisher et
243 al., 2013; Garneau et al., 2014) which, however, did not include severe obese subjects. It is difficult
244 to implement large population studies including obese subjects due to the recruitment phase and
245 their low willingness to participate in laboratory tests. Nevertheless, it is crucial to consider this
246 specific target population for their taste perception which may varies considerably according to diet
247 and vice versa.

248 Although in the present study food preferences and dietary intake have not been considered, we can
249 speculate that subjects with higher BMI could prefer high energy dense foods, rich in fat and sugar,
250 to compensate their altered/reduced sensitivity (Bertoli et al., 2014; Proserpio et al., 2016),
251 influencing their body weight. Moreover, recent evidence has shown that, in a small cohort of obese
252 subjects, reduction in dietary fat content for 6 weeks improved taste sensitivity to fat (Newman et.,
253 2016), highlighting the likely association between taste perception, food preference and
254 consumption. Similarly, Wise and colleagues (2016) showed that the reduction of simple sugars in a
255 group of obese subjects increased the perceived sweet taste intensity without decreasing the
256 pleasantness.

257 Since obese subjects are often under weight-loss treatment in ambulatory context, it is essential to
258 flash out easy but reliable methods to assess their taste responsiveness. In this context, fungiform
259 papillae count, as well as PROP responsiveness, could be helpful to monitor taste responsiveness in
260 particular group of subjects and settings. One advantage of fungiform papillae counting, rather than
261 PROP evaluation, is that it is not a reported measure thus it could limit bias associated to the use of
262 the scale.

263 The present results showed that, obese subjects, both women and men, were significantly more
264 neophobic compared to the control group while we did not previously find differences in food
265 neophobia accordingly to body weight (Proserpio et al., 2016). One possible explanation for the
266 contrasting results is the deliberately or unwittingly biased report ratings that obese subjects give
267 about their eating behaviours (Klesges et al., 1988). Indeed, it is well known that there is often
268 discrepancy between self-reported and actual eating behavior in obese subjects, with for example
269 dietary under-reporting (Gemming et al., 2015). In the present study, in order to limit this problem,
270 a researcher explained to the obese subjects that the responses would not have been used by the
271 dieticians to evaluate their food consumption or their adherence to the diet. It could be interesting
272 and helpful in future studies to adopt implicit methods, such as behavioural tasks, physiological
273 correlates (Finlayson et al., 2008) to evaluate eating behaviour in particular groups of subjects (e.g.
274 overweight and obese subjects, restrained eaters) in order to avoid biased report ratings.

275 The link between food neophobia and nutritional status is not that clear. On one hand, food
276 neophobia might limit the variety of the diet overall, thus reducing energy intake; on the other hand,
277 food neophobics could prefer to consume traditional foods with a higher energy density compared
278 with healthier food versions, resulting in a higher BMI (Laureati et al., 2015). This second line of
279 thought is in accordance with the present findings as well as earlier results (Knaapila et al., 2011,
280 2015). Knaapila and colleagues (2011) speculated that the two aforementioned opposite lines of
281 thought can compensate each other, thus explaining the lack of association found by other authors in
282 children (Laureati et al., 2015).

283 The present results suggested also that food neophobia is negatively correlated to taste
284 responsiveness in both healthy-weight and obese subjects. It means that some aspects linked to
285 sensory perception may be involved in the refuse of novel foods affecting the variety of the diet.
286 The obese subjects involved, particularly men, were characterized as being more neophobic and
287 were also significant less sensitive compared to the healthy-weight subjects. Studies on large
288 population samples identified that, independently from the nutritional status, gender as significant
289 predictor of PROP bitterness intensity, with male showing lower ratings than females (Monteleone
290 et al., 2017; Fischer et al., 2013; Garneau et al., 2014) and it is more generally reported that men are
291 less sensitive to stimuli than females (Doty & Cameron, 2009). Moreover, men were found in large
292 cohorts of subjects more neophobic compared to women (Monteleone et al., 2017; Siegrist et al.,
293 2013). This has been explained by the greater involvement of women rather than men in food
294 purchase and preparation leading women to be more familiar with a broader set of foods than men
295 (Hartmann et al., 2013). Contrary to the present findings, no significant variation in taste sensitivity
296 for participants scoring higher and lower in food neophobia were found in our previous study
297 (Proserpio et al., 2016). This discrepancy could be due to the different methods used to evaluate
298 taste responsiveness as well as food neophobia and perception categorization. According to the
299 present results it has been proposed that the fear of trying new foods mediates the effect of PROP
300 responsiveness on food liking (Ullrich et al., 2004), thus potentially influencing eating behavior and
301 energy intake. Ullrich and colleagues (2004) showed that PROP tasters, who were more food
302 adventurous, liked stronger tasting foods (e.g., chili peppers, pungent condiments, bitter fruits and
303 vegetables) more than who were less food adventurous. Further researches are needed to understand
304 the complex relation between food neophobia, taste perception and its implication in food choice
305 and consumption.

306 Some limitations of the present study should be considered. First, the reduced number of subjects
307 does not enable results generalization, thus further research in larger groups is recommended.

308 Second, it could be useful in future researches to consider also food preferences and dietary data
309 which have not been evaluated in the present study.

310

311 **Conclusions**

312 The current study suggests that body weight could have an impact on the measured variables.
313 However, the causality of this relationship cannot be inferred from association studies. Other
314 studies are needed to understand whether is the nutritional status that affects taste responsiveness,
315 thus influencing eating behaviour, or whether is the altered taste responsiveness that affects BMI.
316 These variables, as well as other factors (i.e. genetic, metabolic, anthropometric and behavioral
317 variables) further need to be examined since they could give important information to better
318 understand the complex issue of overeating.

319

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323 The author contributions were as follows: CP, ML and EP designed the study. CP carried out the
324 experiment, performed the statistical analysis and wrote the manuscript. CP, ML, EP, CI regularly
325 discussed the experiment, analyzed the results, and provided useful suggestion during the writing.

326 All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

327 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

328

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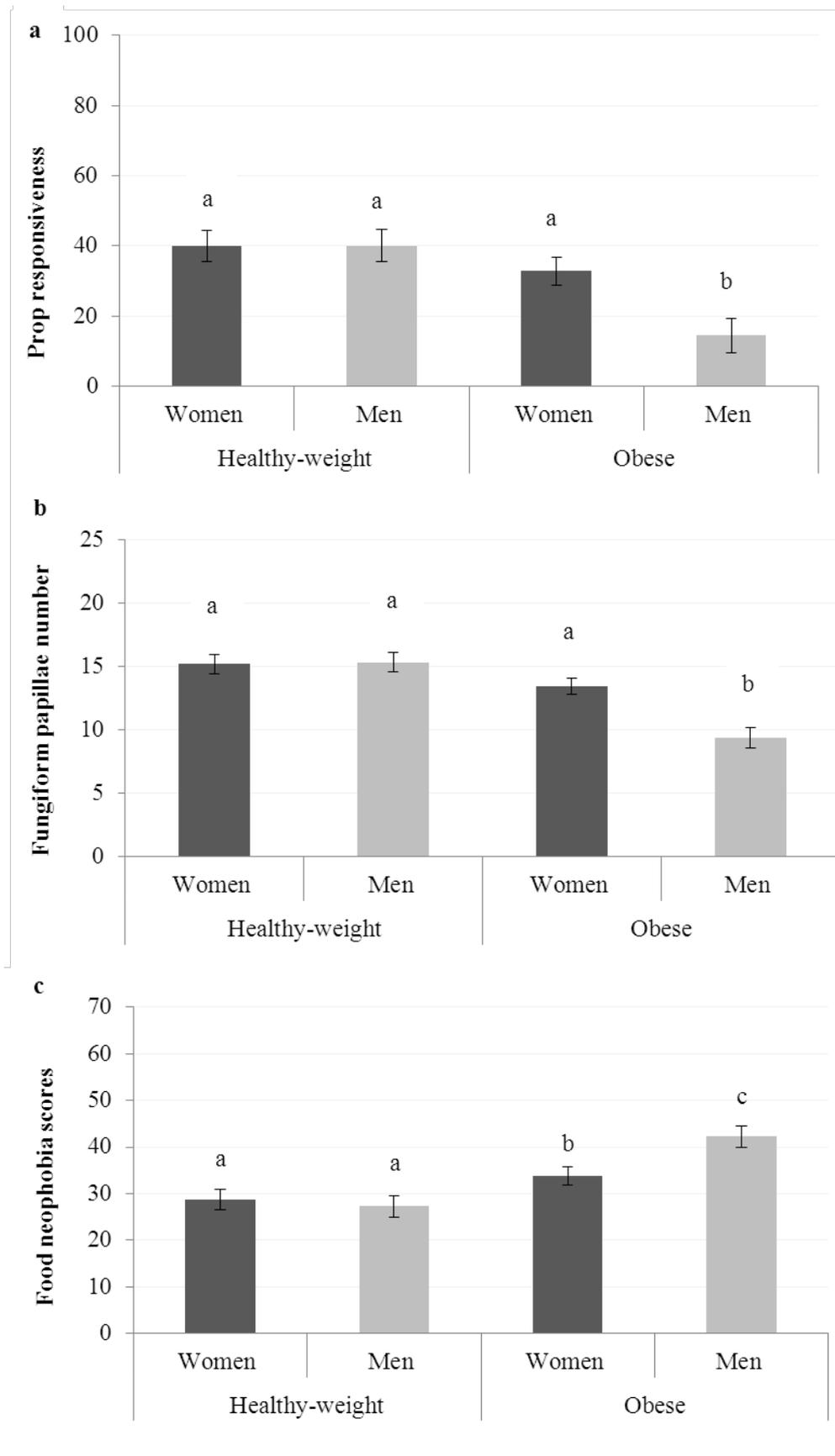
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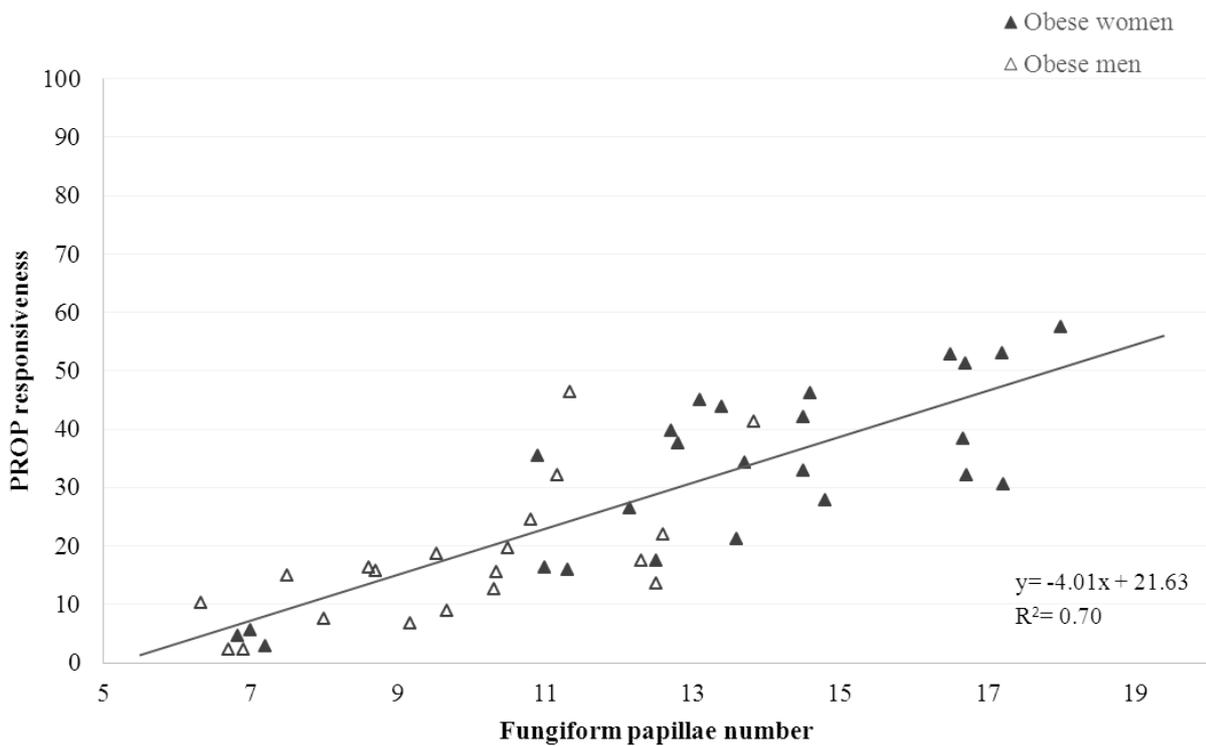
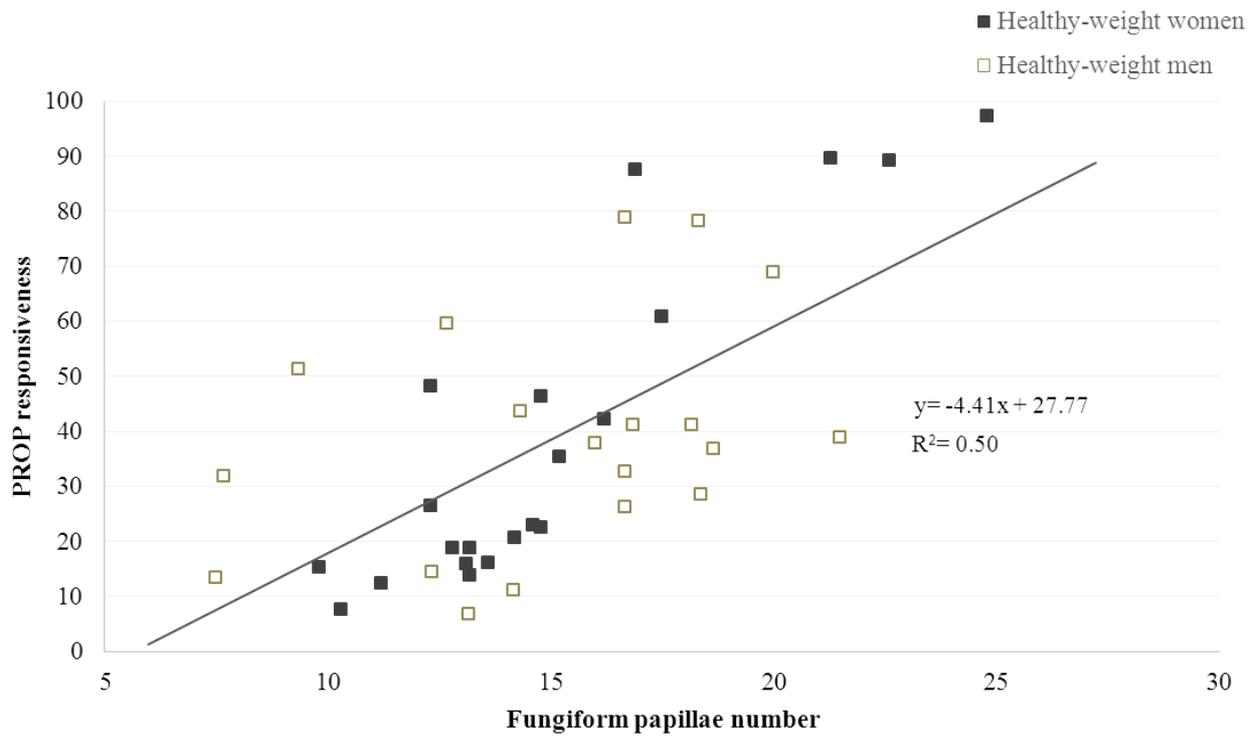
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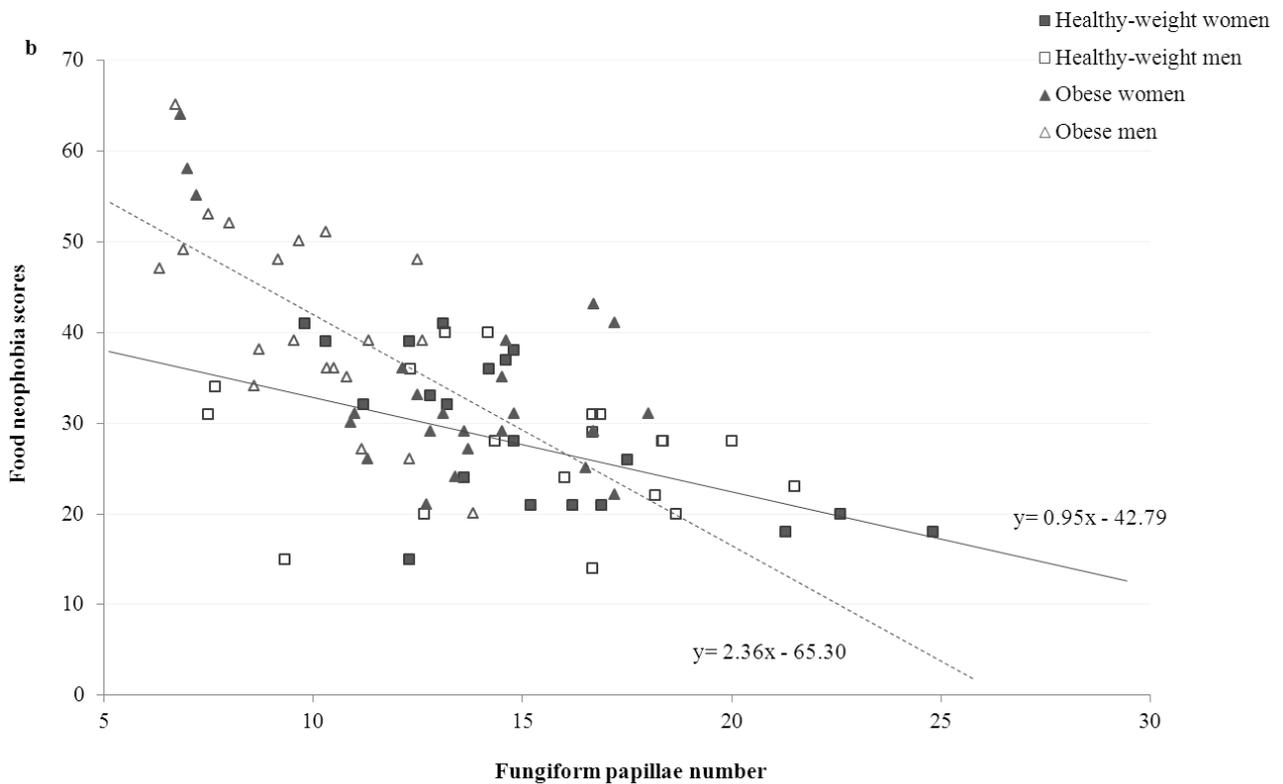
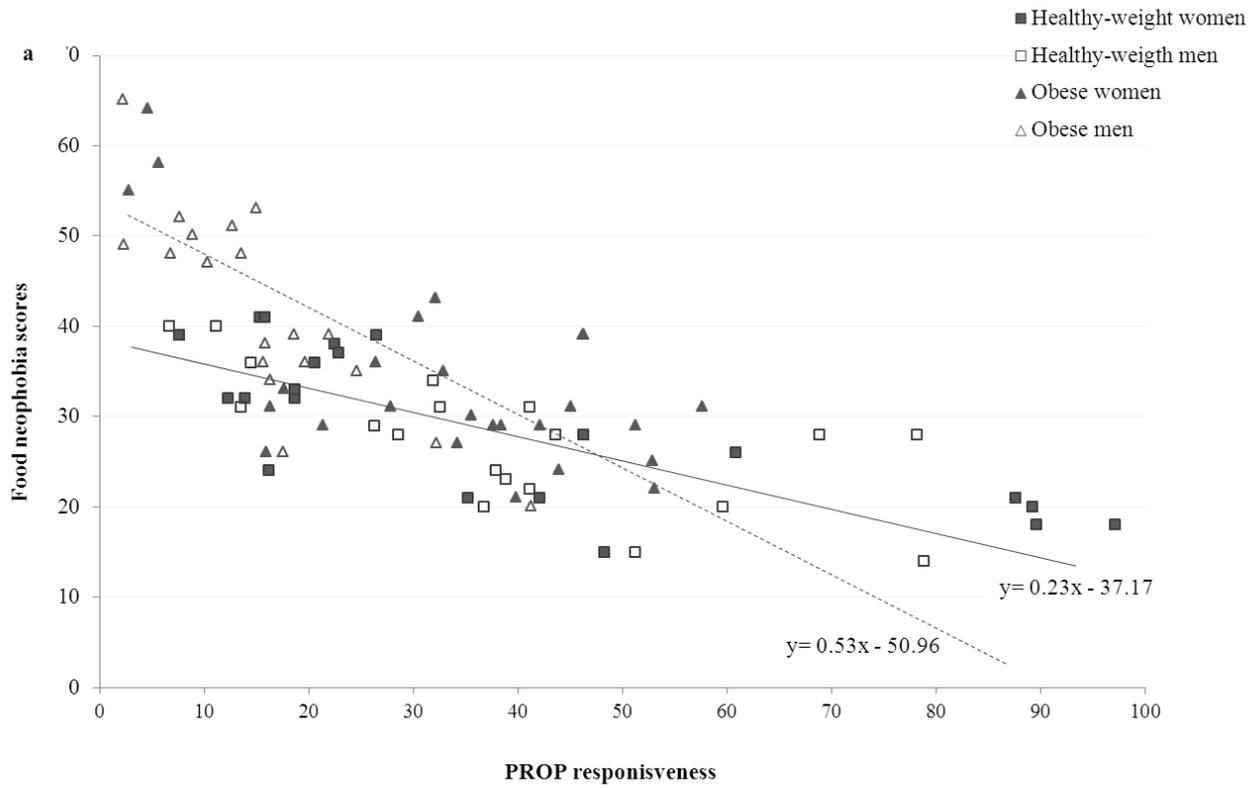
486 **Figure 1a-c.** Mean values of the studied variables (PROP responsiveness ratings, fungiform
 487 papillae number, and food neophobia scores) ± standard error by BMI and gender. Mean values
 488 marked with different superscript letters are significantly different (Tukey, $p < 0.05$).



489

490 **Figure 2a-b.** Scatterplots representing the correlation between PROP responsiveness and fungiform
 491 papillae number by BMI and gender.

492



493

494 **Figure 3a-b.** Comparison of the slopes and the intercepts of regression lines between the ‘PROP
 495 responsiveness vs food neophobia scores’ and the ‘fungiform papillae number vs food neophobia
 496 scores’ in the two groups of subjects, according to BMI and gender (--- obese; ___ healthy-weight).
 497