

1 **Cup texture influences taste and tactile**
2 **judgments in the evaluation of specialty coffee**

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13

14 **Abstract**

15 It has been demonstrated previously that the surface textures of product packaging and
16 servingware can impact the perceived taste and mouthfeel of various different foods and
17 beverages. The present study was designed to investigate whether coffee cups with different
18 surface textures would influence the judgment of taste and mouthfeel attributes in specialty
19 coffee by experts (Q-graders) and amateur consumers alike. A total of 231 participants were
20 tested in one of the three studies. A preliminary test conducted at a specialty coffee event in
21 Russia indicated that rubbing a swatch of sandpaper whilst drinking coffee influenced
22 perceived body and aftertaste qualities. In the two main studies (Experiment 1 for Q-graders,
23 and Experiment 2 for amateurs), the participants evaluated a sample of specialty coffee (a
24 different coffee in each study) served in either a smooth or a rough ceramic cup. The coffee
25 was rated by the Q-graders as tasting significantly more acidic when sampled from the rough
26 cup, as opposed to the smooth, whereas the amateurs perceived the coffee as being
27 significantly sweeter when tasted from the smooth cup rather than from the rough cup
28 instead. Both Q-graders and amateurs judged the aftertaste as significantly dryer when tasted
29 from the rough rather than from the smooth cup. The perception of body was not significantly
30 affected in any of the experiments. These results demonstrate that haptic cues influence the
31 judgment of basic tastes as well as mouthfeel attributes in specialty coffee, for both experts
32 and amateur consumers. Such results should be considered by the industry when designing
33 innovative coatings for coffee cups. In addition to innovation, though, it is important to create
34 cups that convey some functional and/or perceptual benefit for the coffee drinking
35 experience.

36

37 **KEYWORDS:** Specialty coffee; Cup texture; Somatosensory perception; Taste;
38 Crossmodality; Sandpaper.

39 1. Introduction

40 Although most research on multisensory flavour perception has focused on the contribution
41 of chemosensory stimuli, a steady stream of experimental studies have demonstrated that the
42 physical attributes of what we eat and drink are also constitutive of our flavour experiences
43 (e.g., Bult, de Wijk, & Hummel, 2007; Green, 2002; Slocombe, Carmichael, & Simner,
44 2016). Physical stimuli are encoded by the oral-somatosensory receptors and contribute to the
45 tactile experience (or mouthfeel) of what we consume, which includes perception of texture
46 (e.g., viscosity, brittleness) and temperature (see Spence & Piqueras-Fiszman, 2016, for a
47 review). In addition to the oral-tactile experience yielded by the food or beverage itself,
48 several studies have shown that the haptically-perceived¹ tactile properties of the food affect
49 the judgment of several taste/flavour attributes (Barnett-Cowan, 2010; Mobini, Platts, &
50 Booth, 2011; Slocombe et al., 2016). What is more, product-extrinsic haptic information from
51 packaging materials and servingware can also influence flavour and hedonic evaluation of
52 food and beverages (Krishna & Morrin, 2008; Piqueras-Fiszman, Harrar, Alcaide, & Spence,
53 2011; Maggioni, Risso, Olivero, & Gallace, 2015; Wang & Spence, 2018; see Spence, 2019a,
54 for a review).

55 One salient product-extrinsic haptic attribute is the outer surface texture of the food or drink
56 container from which the drink is consumed (Biggs, Juravle, & Spence, 2016; Piqueras-
57 Fiszman & Spence, 2012; Van Rompay, Finger, Saakes, & Fenko, 2017). For instance,
58 Piqueras-Fiszman & Spence (2012) demonstrated that participants rated digestive biscuits
59 served from a container with a rough surface texture as both crunchier and harder than
60 biscuits tasted from the smooth container instead. Intriguingly, though, when yoghurt samples
61 were tasted from the exact same pair of containers, no significant effects on ratings were
62 found. This study demonstrated that the feel of the container influenced people's perception
63 of a dry food product, and the null results on yoghurt ratings suggest that there may be
64 limitations on the conditions (e.g., food attributes, serving context) under which haptic cues
65 influence flavour perception. In the same way, Slocombe et al. (2016) failed to observe a
66 significant effect of a rough versus smooth serving plate on the perception of sweetness,
67 bitterness, and acidity of lemon curd. Despite the lack of an effect of the serving plate, the
68 rough/smoothness coating of the foodstuff itself was, though, shown to significantly
69 influence basic taste ratings. Once again, null results raise caution against an over-reliance on

¹ Haptics refers to active touch, or tactile qualities experienced by the hands.

70 relative effects when considering practical applications. Thus, instead of generalizing relative
71 to broader influences, it is important to test whether the tactile/haptic attributes of the
72 container would impact flavour attributes of specific products.

73 Meanwhile, research by Biggs et al. (2016) demonstrated that caramelised biscuits taken from
74 a plate with a rough surface were rated as tasting crunchier and rougher than when the same
75 biscuits were served on a smooth and shiny plate instead. In a second experiment, the
76 participants rated both biscuits and jelly-babies from the same two plates. The findings with
77 respect to the biscuits were replicated, while the jelly babies were rated as chewier when
78 served on the rough plate as compared to the smooth plate. These results at least hint at the
79 possibility that the rough feel of the plate could have primed the dominant textural property
80 of the food itself, namely, crunchiness for biscuits and chewiness in the case of jelly babies.

81 In another study, Van Rompay, Kramera, and Saakes (2018) used 3D-printed patterns to
82 deliver different macrogeometric textures in the outer surface of eating receptacles. The
83 participants tasted vanilla or lemon ice-cream from cups having either an angular or smooth
84 3D-printed texture. Once again, the texture of the receptacle was shown to influence the
85 tasting experience. The angular surface pattern, as opposed to the smooth, decreased
86 perceived sweetness (with no significant effect on acidity ratings, though) as well as
87 increased flavour intensity of the ice-creams. Recently, it has been shown that impact of
88 rough (vs. smooth) bowls impacted the perceived saltiness of crisps, with ratings found to be
89 dependent on the level of saltiness of the tasted crisps (Van Rompay & Groothedde, 2019).

90 Despite a large number of studies showing that haptic properties of the container from which
91 the food happens to be consumed impact consumers' judgments of the food product itself,
92 there has been little research on this effect as far as beverages are concerned. One early study
93 (Schifferstein, 2009) asked the participants to evaluate the experience of consuming either
94 hot Earl Grey tea or a chilled lemon soft drink from cups made of different materials (glass,
95 ceramic, opaque plastic, partly translucent plastic, and melamine). The different cups
96 significantly affected the judgements of sensory attributes 'warmth' and 'sweetness', but
97 since they varied in other characteristics such as colour and weight as well as texture, the
98 differences between cups cannot be attributed to differences in material (or texture) properties
99 alone.

100 Another study had the participants evaluating brewed coffee or hot chocolate that was served
101 in a cup that had a rounded or more angular macrogeometric 3D-printed texture (Van

102 Rompay et al., 2017). In this case, the results revealed that the texture affected the evaluation
103 of taste qualities of the beverages. In particular, the coffee and the hot chocolate were rated as
104 tasting less intense and sweeter when sampled from the round textured cup whereas the
105 angular textured cup enhanced the perceived intensity of the taste and bitterness ratings of
106 both beverages. A second study tested the impact of touching a swatch of velvet or sandpaper
107 on the wine-tasting experience (Wang & Spence, 2018). The results of a first study revealed
108 that the velvet enhanced the perceived sweetness of a white wine when compared to the
109 sandpaper. In a second study, a red wine was rated as having a fruitier aroma, and as tasting
110 sweeter and more pleasant when the participants were instructed to touch velvet rather than
111 sandpaper. More recently, Risso, Maggioni, and Gallace (2019) had blindfolded participants
112 to rate the freshness, pleasantness, carbonation, and lightness of still or carbonated mineral
113 water. The water was served in cup with one of three different textures -- plastic cups covered
114 with sandpaper or satin, or without any cover (i.e., plastic texture). Both types of water were
115 rated as being more pleasant, fresher, and lighter when tasted from the plastic cups as
116 compared to cups covered with sandpaper or satin, and the intensity of carbonation was not
117 modulated by the different cup textures.

118 The three studies mentioned above demonstrate that the texture felt in the hand can affect
119 judgments of taste (i.e., gustatory) attributes and flavour intensity of beverages. However,
120 despite the independent variable in both studies being the haptic attribute, its effect on oral-
121 somatosensory properties of the beverages, namely, mouthfeel/body and aftertaste², would
122 seem to have been overlooked. In fact, the concept of sensation transference (see Cheskin,
123 1972) is a key notion when it comes to understanding how the haptic information may impact
124 the judgment of the food product itself. ‘Sensation transference’ refers to the observable
125 effect of having the consumers’ (conscious or otherwise) expectations or feelings about the
126 food receptacle being transferred to their ratings of the food or beverage itself. In other
127 words, relevant product-extrinsic cues can be carried over to influence the consumers’
128 evaluation, and presumably also their experience, of the properties of the product as well.
129 Thus, if the haptic properties of the container – such as its texture – are manipulated, it is

² Aftertaste is defined as flavour impressions that are left on the palate after swallowing, and it can be described in terms of quality, intensity, and duration (Lawless & Heymann, 2010). Description of aftertaste relies heavily on the use of terms for taste qualities (i.e., sweet, sour/acidic, salty, bitter, umami) as well as tactile sensations such as tingling and viscous. Despite residual mouthfeel effects being included under the general term afterfeel (see Guinard & Mazzucchelli, 1996), in the present study, we refer to lingering mouthfeel qualities (i.e., dryness or smoothness) as aftertaste, meaning an overall residual flavour (see Phillips, McGiff, Barbano, & Lawless, 1995; Porubcan & Vickers, 2005).

130 plausible to infer some kind of effect on the ratings of oral-somatosensory attributes of the
131 product tested, be it a food or a beverage.

132 Parallel to the research on the impact of haptic cues on multisensory flavour experience, a
133 number of companies have focused on giving their packaging/servingware a distinctive feel,
134 seemingly as a strategy to stand out from the competition (see Gallace & Spence, 2014, and
135 Spence, 2019a), sometimes seemingly without considering the effect of the haptic container
136 on the consumer's multisensory product experience (Skaczkowski, Durkin, Kashima, &
137 Wakefield, 2016). In recent years, the impressive rise of the specialty coffee industry has
138 undoubtedly opened up discussion about new ways of presenting coffee to the consumer.

139 Specialty coffee is a term that is used to refer to those coffees that can be distinguished on the
140 basis of quality and uniqueness of origin, according to the Specialty Coffee Association
141 (SCA) and the international Q Coffee System protocols (Lingle & Menon, 2017). Similar to
142 wine, specialty coffee is undoubtedly a chemically/perceptually very complex beverage
143 regarding (1) the number of volatile aromatic compounds and (2) combinations of volatiles
144 yielding different flavours than those expected from individual compounds (Chambers &
145 Koppel, 2013; Rhinehart, 2009). In fact, whilst wine has been estimated to contain 600-1,000
146 volatile aromatic compounds (Rapp, 1990; Tao & Li, 2009), something like 1,200 volatiles
147 have been reported in coffee (Clarke, 2013; Yeretizian, 2017; though see also Spence &
148 Wang, 2018, on the complex notion of complexity as far as the chemical senses are
149 concerned). Additionally, as a function of their status as agricultural products that are
150 processed after harvesting, wine and coffee can reach a huge variation of distinctive
151 characteristics in terms of their body, aroma, and flavour complexity (Schwan, Silva, &
152 Batista, 2012; Styger, Prior, & Bauer, 2011). The cup in which the coffee is served is
153 increasingly coming to be considered as an essential element in terms of turning the
154 consumption of specialty coffee into a truly engaging multisensory experience (Carvalho &
155 Spence, 2018, 2019). Indeed, there has been growing interest amongst quality coffee brands
156 and certain ceramic/porcelain companies in developing signature coffee cups (see Spence &
157 Carvalho, 2019, for a review). This distinctiveness includes changes in the haptic attributes of
158 the drinking vessel, such as variations in terms of shape, weight, and texture (by varying
159 material or finish). A few examples should be sufficient to illustrate the point. Take, for
160 example, the 'Nespresso Touch Collection' with a soft touch ring (Schuch, 2018), the weight
161 of 'Acme & Co' espresso cups (Ferst, 2016), or the uniquely-shaped 'Figgio Oslo – Tim
162 Wendelboe' made of smooth porcelain (as tested by Carvalho & Spence, 2018). The

163 ‘Loveramics Brewers’ cups are made of ceramic and have a distinctively rough finish³. In
164 fact, even reusable takeaway coffee cups are now being reinvented in a range of materials,
165 colours, and different textures (Agate, 2019). Despite the claims often made by the cup
166 manufactures regarding rather specific effects of cups on the specialty coffee drinking
167 experience, empirical evidence supporting such claims thus far remains noticeably absent.

168 The goal of the present research was therefore to evaluate the influence of external tactile
169 feedback on the specialty coffee tasting experience. Specifically, we wanted to extend Wang
170 and Spence’s (2018) results with wine by testing whether rough versus smooth textures
171 would affect people’s judgments of aroma, sweetness, acidity, and mouthfeel in specialty
172 coffee. Moreover, we deepened the investigation concerning the oral-somatosensory domain
173 by assessing the effects of texture on aftertaste in addition to mouthfeel/body, which were
174 rated in terms of smoothness or dry/roughness. Drawing upon the aforementioned notion of
175 ‘sensation transference’, it was hypothesised that surface texture may impact the perceived
176 mouthfeel and aftertaste of specialty coffee. We also expected to replicate previous findings
177 (Van Rompay et al., 2017; Wang & Spence, 2018) by demonstrating that a smooth surface
178 texture can enhance sweetness ratings in comparison to a rougher surface texture.
179 Furthermore, both specialty coffee experts and amateur consumers were tested in two
180 separate experiments. Swatches of sandpaper were used in the preliminary study, and the two
181 main experiments involved a naturalistic approach by manipulating the texture of the coffee
182 cups themselves.

183

184 **2. Methods**

185 **2.1. Participants**

186 A total of 231 participants gave their informed consent to take part in one of the three studies
187 reported in the present study. The study was approved by the Research Ethics Committee of
188 the School of Psychology, University of São Paulo, Brazil. After data quality control, the data
189 from 31 participants were included in the final analysis of the preliminary study (11 female;
190 age: 33.1 ± 7.8 , 21 to 54 years-old), 81 in the final analysis of Experiment 1 (38 female; age:
191 35.5 ± 5.5 , 25 to 51 years-old), and 117 in the final analysis of Experiment 2 (59 female; age:
192 33.4 ± 8.5 , 19 to 65 years-old).

³ <https://www.loveramics.com/collections/brewers>.

193

194 **2.2. Stimuli**

195 **2.2.1. Coffee**

196 Only single origin Arabica coffees were used in the experiments reported here. All of the
197 coffees were assessed by SCA-certified sensory analysts (i.e., Q grader cuppers)⁴. In all three
198 studies, the participants were only served one type of coffee. The coffee used in the
199 preliminary study came from the region of Sipi Falls, Uganda (altitude of 1300–2000m). The
200 cultivars were SL14 and SL28, and the post-harvest processing method used was dry/natural
201 (Schwan, Silva, & Batista, 2012). The coffee sample received an overall score of 86 points on
202 a 0-100 scale (Lingle & Menon, 2017), with high sweetness and acidity. Regarding overall
203 aroma/flavour characteristics, the coffee was described as having strong notes of stone fruits
204 and caramel. It is important to point out that the term ‘acidic’ has been used instead of ‘sour’
205 to refer to the taste quality because the specialty coffee industry has adopted the term acidity
206 in reference to the sour basic taste in their official sensory evaluation protocol. Moreover,
207 saying that a specialty coffee is high or low in a certain taste (i.e., sweetness, acidity) or
208 tactile (i.e., body, astringency) attribute is comparative or related to the average over
209 specialty coffees. As such, it is similar to refer to red wines as high or low in tannin content.

210 The coffee used in Experiment 1 came from Luisburgo, Minas Gerais, Brazil (Matas de
211 Minas region; altitude of 1160m). The cultivar was Yellow Catuai and was also processed as
212 natural. The coffee sample was given an overall score of 87 points, with high sweetness and
213 low-to-medium acidity. The coffee aroma/flavour attributes were described as having
214 predominant fruity and floral notes.

215 For Experiment 2, the coffee served was from the Recanto Estate, located in Machado, Minas
216 Gerais, Brazil (Sul de Minas region; altitude of 1100m). The cultivar was Yellow Bourbon
217 processed as natural coffee, with an overall score of 86 points, with high sweetness and

⁴ A Q grader is an individual who is credentialed by the Coffee Quality Institute (CQI) to grade and score coffees utilizing standards developed by the SCA. In this evaluation, grades on a hedonic/quality scale of six to ten (anchors: 6-Good, 7-Very good, 8-Excellent, 9-Outstanding) are awarded for the attributes of fragrance/aroma, sweetness, acidity, body, flavour, balance, and aftertaste. Cuppers also assess the quality attributes ‘clean cup’, ‘uniformity’, and ‘overall’ awarding points per cup. Each attribute worth 10 points, so that evaluations would be based on a 100-point scale. For more details on the cupping protocol, please see Lingle & Menon (2017). It is important to mention that dominant bitterness and astringency are negative attributes, and classified as primary defects. Specialty coffees are those coffees with a cupping score of 80 or more points and with no primary defects.

218 medium acidity. The predominant coffee aroma/flavour notes were fruity (red berries and
219 stone fruits) and winey.

220 In all three studies, the coffee beverage served to the participants was a brewed (pour-over)
221 coffee. For the preliminary study, the coffee was brewed using a Marco Brewer (Marco
222 Beverage Systems, Dublin, Ireland) at a concentration of 60 g·L⁻¹. For Experiment 1, the
223 coffee was prepared using the Bunn-O-Matic ICBA (BUNN, Springfield, USA) at a
224 concentration of 58 g·L⁻¹. Finally, for Experiment 2, the coffee was brewed using the Hario
225 V60 Kit (Hario V60; Tokyo, Japan) at a concentration of 66 g·L⁻¹. For all preparations,
226 mineral water at 92 °C was used. In all three studies, the coffee was brewed by a specialty
227 coffee professional out of the sight of the participants. The mean temperature of the coffee
228 served to the participants was 59.1°C (SD=4.2) in Experiment 1 and 60.2 °C (SD=2.1) in
229 Experiment 2. The temperature of the coffee samples served in the preliminary study was not
230 assessed.

231

232 **2.2.2. Tactile stimuli**

233 Swatches of sandpaper (40×50 mm), rough on both sides, were used in the preliminary study.
234 Sandpaper was fine coarse grade (P150) with the intention of mimicking a rough, not
235 polished, ceramic cup. The sandpaper was dark grey in colour (see Figure 1A).

236 Smooth and rough coffee cups were used as stimuli in Experiments 1 and 2. The smooth cup
237 was the ‘tulip’ shape from the Oslo series (Figgjo, Oslo, Norway) developed by Tim
238 Wendelboe (Oslo, Norway). The cup is made of white porcelain and it is smooth on both
239 outside and inside walls. The rough cup was the ‘nutty’ shape from the Brewers series
240 (Loveramics, Hong Kong, China). The cup is made of white ceramic with a rough finish on
241 both the outer and inner walls. Both cups were similar in their bulbous shape, weight [smooth
242 (173.0g±1.9); rough (142.1g±3.0)], and height (smooth: 6.5cm; rough: 6.0cm) (see Figure
243 1B).

244

245 **2.3. Design and procedure**

246 Prior to the two main experiments, a preliminary study – or pre-test – was conducted during
247 the 5th Roasters Village, a specialty coffee event that took place in Izhevsk, Russia, in order

248 to explore whether touching a rough material would affect people's experience of the
249 multisensory flavour perception in specialty coffee. All of the attendees at the event were
250 encouraged to take part in the pre-test. All were coffee experts (12 roasters, 7 baristas, 3
251 graders, and 9 coffee shop owners, with 6 Q-graders⁵ amongst them). The pre-test took place
252 in a specialty coffee shop located in Izhevsk (Tasty Coffee), and was designed with the
253 'presence' vs. 'absence' of the rough tactile material (sandpaper) as the within-participants
254 factor. All of the participants were assessed in a single round. Each participant was seated at a
255 table with two paper questionnaires, for the 'presence' or 'absence' of the sandpaper, and
256 received a three-minute briefing on their evaluation task. Each participant then received one
257 cup containing approximately 100 mL of filter coffee. The same white porcelain cup was
258 used for all participants. The participants were instructed to evaluate the coffee sample first
259 without touching the sandpaper. They started by rating the basic tastes requested (i.e.,
260 sweetness and bitterness). Next, they moved on to rating the coffee's body intensity. After
261 they had swallowed, they were asked to rate the intensity of the coffee's aftertaste. Ratings
262 were performed using a 10-cm visual analog scale anchored with 0 ('not at all') and 10
263 ('very'). The participants were also instructed to write down descriptors of body and
264 aftertaste that they might have noticed in the sample. Once they had completed the first
265 questionnaire, they were instructed to start the evaluation over but this time the coffee sample
266 was to be tasted while rubbing the sandpaper with their non-dominant hand (given that they
267 were holding the cup in their dominant hand). In addition to the intensity ratings, the
268 participants were asked to provide a qualitative description of the coffee attributes 'body' and
269 'aftertaste' in both conditions (i.e., with and without sandpaper). They were instructed to
270 focus on sensory descriptors only and to avoid hedonic terms. They were further instructed
271 that tactile descriptors should be used for 'body' whereas both tactile and gustatory (basic
272 tastes) descriptors should be used for 'aftertaste'. It is important to notice that the two
273 conditions were not counterbalanced amongst participants.

274 Both Experiments 1 and 2 took place in Brazil and followed a between-participants
275 experimental design. The participants were divided into two testing groups according to the
276 texture of the cup from which the coffee was sampled (i.e., rough or smooth). Exactly the
277 same data collection procedure was used in both experiments, the differences being the (i)

⁵ Q-graders are the cupping certified judges according to the international Q Coffee System methodology (Lingle & Menon, 2017).

278 location in which the tests took place and (ii) the level of expertise of the participants
279 (described below).

280 Experiment 1 was conducted during the 6th International Coffee Week, the largest specialty
281 coffee event held in Brazil, at the BUNN booth, and only Q-graders were tested (please see
282 footnote 4). The experiment was announced at the event encouraging the Q-graders to
283 approach the testing booth for further information. Prior to the start of the experiment, the
284 participants were informed that they would taste and evaluate one sample of specialty coffee,
285 and were required to complete a short questionnaire assessing their age, gender, nationality,
286 and Q-grader certification. Participants from 11 countries were assessed⁶, and they were
287 tested in two groups of three. Two round tables were placed at the centre of the booth, and
288 each group of three participants was then seated around one of these two tables. Each group
289 (i.e., each table) received the coffee sample in the same cup texture.

290 Experiment 2 took place in a testing room at Sofa Cafe, a coffee shop and school in Sao
291 Paulo, and only amateur consumers were tested. The majority of the participants were
292 recruited primarily through social media websites with online adverts making clear the
293 experimental procedure as well as the inclusion criteria, that is, regular consumers who had
294 been drinking specialty coffee for at least a year with no sugar added. The participants filled
295 in a short questionnaire on their familiarity on specialty coffee and consumption frequency
296 (low: 1-3 times/month; medium: 1-3 times/week; high: daily). They were also informed that
297 they would taste and evaluate one sample of specialty coffee. The participants were led, in
298 groups of six, to the testing room and were then seated one at each table, with at least one-
299 metre spacing between adjacent tasters.

300 For both Experiments 1 and 2, a sheet containing the rating scales, a pen, and a glass of water
301 were placed in front of each participant's place prior to their arrival at the testing room/booth.
302 At the start of each testing session, the group of participants received a three-minute briefing
303 to ensure that they were all given the same instructions prior to the study. Each participant
304 then received one cup containing approximately 50 mL of brewed coffee. The participants
305 were instructed to evaluate the aroma before tasting the coffee using the aroma rating scale.
306 Next, they moved on to tasting and rating the coffee's basic tastes (i.e., sweetness and acidity

⁶ Regarding the nationality of the participants: 29 from Brazil; 9 from Colombia, 4 from France, 7 from Germany, 5 from Italy, 4 from Japan, 2 from Mexico, 5 from Spain, 4 from Switzerland, 8 from the US, and 4 from the UK.

307 – with the order counterbalanced across participants), followed by its body. After they had
308 swallowed the coffee, they rated its aftertaste. Ratings were performed using a 10-cm visual
309 analog scale anchored at 0 ('not at all') and 10 ('very') for aroma, sweetness, and acidity. For
310 body and aftertaste, a continuous semantic differential scale was used anchored at the polar
311 terms 'totally smooth' (0) and 'totally dry' (10). Each testing session lasted for around 7-10
312 min.

313 One supervisor was present during the testing sessions in order to provide any guidance as
314 necessary. Upon finishing the study, the participants were thanked for taking part and
315 instructed to leave the room. In Experiment 2, they received a small sample of specialty
316 coffee in return for taking part in the study.

317

318 **2.4. Data analyses**

319 Data from the pre-test were analysed using repeated-measures multivariate analysis of
320 variance (MANOVA), with 'sandpaper' (present vs. absent) as the within-participants factor.
321 The model included the intensity of aroma, bitterness, sweetness, body, and aftertaste as
322 dependent measures. A between-participants MANOVA was conducted on the data from
323 Experiments 1 and 2. The texture of the cup (smooth vs. rough) was the between-participant
324 factor, and aroma, sweetness, acidity, body, and aftertaste were the dependent variables. All
325 of the post-hoc pairwise comparisons were Bonferroni corrected.

326

327 **3. Results**

328 **3.1. Preliminary study**

329 For the pre-test, the repeated-measures MANOVA revealed a significant main effect of the
330 sandpaper [$F(1,30)=4.06$, $p=0.043$; Wilks' $\lambda=0.71$]. Subsequent univariate tests
331 revealed that sandpaper had a significant effect on ratings of aftertaste intensity [$F(1,30)$
332 $=6.26$, $p=0.018$], but not on any of the other attributes that were assessed (i.e., bitterness,
333 sweetness, and body). A post-hoc comparison revealed that the coffee was perceived as
334 having a more intense aftertaste when the participants simultaneously touched the sandpaper
335 swatch whilst tasting the coffee (5.15 ± 0.20) as compared to when they sampled the coffee
336 without rubbing the sandpaper (4.41 ± 0.20) ($p<0.0001$) (see Figure 2).

337 The frequency of sensory descriptors that were used to describe the attributes ‘body’ and
338 ‘aftertaste’ of the coffee sample in the two conditions (i.e., sandpaper present vs. absent) is
339 summarized in Table 1. It is interesting to note that ‘rough’ and ‘dry’ were the most frequent
340 descriptors used to describe, respectively, body, and aftertaste when the participants tasted
341 the coffee whilst touching the swatch of sandpaper. In addition, descriptors of basic tastes
342 were also used by the coffee experts for the aftertaste description in both conditions. The
343 word ‘sweet’ was frequently used in the ‘sandpaper absent’ condition whereas the terms
344 ‘acid’ and ‘tart’ were frequently used in the ‘sandpaper present’ condition. In addition, the
345 participants were also allowed to use more complex flavour terms in order to describe the
346 aftertaste in both conditions. These terms were then divided into ‘positive’ and ‘negative’
347 descriptors as, for instance, ‘dusty’, ‘heavy’, and ‘not pleasant’ for negative descriptors, and
348 ‘nutty’, ‘fruity’, and ‘caramel’ for positive descriptors. The frequency with which positive
349 and negative aftertaste descriptors appeared in each of the two conditions amongst all
350 participants is also listed in Table 1.

351 **3.2. Experiments 1 and 2**

352 Data from Experiment 1 (Q graders) and Experiment 2 (amateur consumers) were analysed
353 separately. The between-groups, one-way MANOVA revealed a significant effect of the
354 texture of the cup on participants’ ratings of the expected taste attributes of the coffee in
355 Experiment 1 [$F(1,80) = 31.31, p < 0.0001$, Wilks’ lambda = 0.32, $\eta^2_p = 0.68$] and
356 Experiment 2 [$F(1,116) = 3.10, p = 0.012$, Wilks’ lambda = 0.88, $\eta^2_p = 0.13$].

357 Follow-up univariate tests revealed that cup texture had a significant effect on ratings of
358 aftertaste in both experiments [Experiment 1: $F(1,80) = 133.74, p < 0.0001, \eta^2_p = 0.63$;
359 Experiment 2: $F(1,116) = 7.27, p < 0.01, \eta^2_p = 0.07$]. The texture of the cup also had a
360 significant effect on acidity ratings in Experiment 1 [$F(1,80) = 7.21, p < 0.01, \eta^2_p = 0.09$], and
361 on sweetness ratings in Experiment 2 [$F(1,116) = 7.03, p < 0.01, \eta^2_p = 0.07$]. There were no
362 significant effects of cup texture on the dependent variables ‘aroma’ and ‘body’ in either
363 experiment (see Figure 3).

364 Post-hoc comparisons revealed that the aftertaste of the coffee was perceived as drier when
365 sampled from the rough cup than from the smooth cup in Experiment 1 (rough cup: $6.67 \pm$
366 0.23 , smooth cup: 2.88 ± 0.21) and Experiment 2 (rough cup: 5.33 ± 0.25 , smooth cup: $4.33 \pm$
367 0.27). In Experiment 1, the coffee was judged as tasting more acidic when tasted from the
368 rough cup (6.02 ± 0.24) than from the smooth cup (5.16 ± 0.20). Finally, the coffee was also

369 rated as tasting sweeter from the smooth cup (6.10 ± 0.21) than from the rough cup ($5.18 \pm$
370 0.28) in Experiment 2. The demographics and results of Experiments 1 and 2 are summarized
371 in Table 2 (see also Figure 3).

372

373 **4. Discussion**

374 In the present study, we tested whether coffee cups with two different surface textures (i.e.,
375 smooth and rough) would influence ratings of the aroma, taste, and tactile attributes given by
376 specialty coffee professionals (Q-graders) and amateur consumers. The findings clearly show
377 that the surface texture of the coffee cup affects people's perception of the flavour of
378 specialty coffee, with strong main effects on the mouthfeel aspects of aftertaste evaluation.

379 The two main experiments were preceded by a pre-test in which sandpaper swatches were
380 used to present the rough haptic/tactile sensation. The results of the pre-test show a
381 significant effect of touching the rough surface whilst drinking coffee on the perceived
382 intensity of the aftertaste. However, the rough texture did not influence the perception of
383 bitterness, sweetness, or mouthfeel. In addition to intensity ratings, the participants were also
384 asked to provide qualitative descriptors for the attributes 'body' and 'aftertaste'. The coffee
385 body was described as 'rough' and 'dense', and the aftertaste as 'dry', 'acid/tart', and also
386 'lasting' when the participants were touching the sandpaper swatch. Instead, the terms
387 'smooth' and 'round', and 'sweet' and 'short' were frequently used to describe the body and
388 aftertaste, respectively, when the participants were not touching the sandpaper. Despite the
389 lack of a sensorimotor control condition for the act of rubbing in the pre-test, these
390 preliminary results seem to suggest an effect of the rough surface on body and aftertaste
391 perception. It is also important to mention that the conditions were not counterbalanced, thus
392 the effect of task order cannot be ruled out. In the following experiments, the dependent
393 variable 'bitterness' was replaced with 'acidity' due to its frequent use as a descriptor.

394 The results of Experiments 1 and 2 demonstrate that haptic sensations from touching coffee
395 cups with different surface textures influence the coffee drinking experience. In line with
396 previous reports showing that an off-dry Chardonnay wine and a red dessert wine were rated
397 as tasting sweeter when participants were instructed to touch velvet rather than sandpaper
398 (Wang & Spence, 2018), in Experiment 2 the coffee was perceived as sweeter when tasted
399 from a smooth, as opposed to a rough, surface cup. In Experiment 1, the coffee was rated as

400 more acidic from the rough cup than when tasted from the smooth cup instead. Interestingly,
401 Van Rompay et al. (2017) reported that the angular textured cup enhanced the bitterness
402 ratings of the coffee used in their study. The specialty coffee grading system negatively
403 scores dominant bitterness and positively scores the presence of sweetness and ‘vibrant
404 acidity’ (Traore, Wilson, & Fields, 2018). Thus, specialty coffees essentially lack dominant
405 bitterness but will express varying levels of acidity, which may also be enhanced by rough
406 textures. For instance, Slocombe et al. (2016) demonstrated that lemon curds were rated as
407 significantly more acidic when given a rough, instead of smooth, coating (despite finding no
408 effect of the texture of the serving plate on the same food) suggesting that perception of
409 acidity might be enhanced by rough textures. Taken together, these results suggest that the
410 perception of basic tastes (i.e., sweetness and acidity) in specialty coffee may be influenced
411 by the haptic cues related to the coffee cup.

412 Regarding the effect of the surface texture of the cup on the oral-tactile attributes, no
413 significant effect on the perception of body was observed, but there was a strong effect on
414 judgments of dryness vs. smoothness of the coffee’s aftertaste. In fact, as mentioned earlier, a
415 recent study (Wang & Spence, 2018) reported that touching sandpaper or velvet swatches
416 whilst evaluating a red dessert wine did not influence the perception of tannins in the mouth,
417 i.e., the judgment of astringency in the mouthfeel, although the tactile sensation of the
418 aftertaste was not assessed. Another recent study could be useful in understanding the impact
419 of the product-extrinsic touch on mouthfeel dimension (Biggs et al., 2016). Their first
420 experiment showed that the perception of ‘gingeriness’ of ginger biscuits was enhanced by
421 the rough (as compared to smooth) feeling of the plate in the participants’ hands whilst
422 consuming the biscuits. These higher ratings could reflect an increase of ‘gingeriness’ in
423 perception not only in the flavour itself (i.e., when the participants were eating/masticating
424 the biscuit), but also in the aftertaste (i.e., a few seconds after swallowing), but these two
425 temporal points were not assessed by the study.

426 The influence of haptic cues on perception of aroma has been reported before. For instance,
427 wines were rated as having a fruitier aroma when tasted when the participants touched a
428 swatch of velvet as compared to when touching sandpaper (Wang & Spence, 2018), and the
429 fragrance of a body soap as being more intense when presented in heavier (rather than
430 lighter) packaging (Gatti, Spence, & Bordegoni, 2014; cf. Kampfner, Leischnig, Ivens, &
431 Spence, 2017). In the present study we failed to demonstrate an effect of texture on aroma,
432 suggesting limitations on the conditions (e.g., food attributes, experimental setup) under

433 which haptic cues influence perception. One possible explanation for this null result is that
434 aroma was assessed as a single attribute instead of specific aroma qualities known to be
435 present in the beverage (e.g., fruity, spicy).

436 It is also important to note that the observed effects of the cup surface texture on taste and
437 mouthfeel attributes of coffee could be due to haptic information presented to the hand and/or
438 felt on the lips, since the texture covered the whole outside wall of the cup. It has been shown
439 that haptic information from the hand (e.g., touching, bending) is integrated with information
440 from the mouth (e.g., bit-into with the teeth), altering perceived texture of the food product
441 (Barnett-Cowan, 2010). It would be interesting to further investigate the contribution of
442 haptic and lips extrinsic cues using cups with congruent and incongruent hands/lips textures.

443 One way to understand how the haptic properties of the servingware may impact dimensions
444 and features across distinct oral sensory modalities, such as gustation and oral-
445 somatosensation, is in terms of the sensation transference effect (Cheskin, 1972; see
446 Skaczkowski et al., 2016, for a recent review). Sensation transference is generally thought to
447 occur when product-extrinsic information triggers expectations of certain flavour
448 characteristics to the product itself. These expectations then act as a framework for the
449 interpretation of the actual sensory input. In this way, some of the sensations regarding the
450 attributes of the receptacle or packaging may be transferred to the product contained within.

451 Sensation transference depends largely on the type of expectations certain product-extrinsic
452 information elicits, and whether the expectations can be more-or-less fulfilled, or matched, by
453 the flavour properties of the actual product. For instance, it has been reported that the smooth
454 feeling of packaging or servingware in the consumer's hands can enhance the perception of
455 sweetness of what is consumed (see Spence, 2019a, for a review). But this effect will be
456 observed if and only if the product has some level of sweetness in the first place. Thus, a
457 haptic cue would work to magnify (or draw attention) to a certain taste/flavour attribute that
458 is already present. This might be a limitation on the conditions under which haptic cues
459 influence flavour perception, and might shed light on some of the null results reported in the
460 literature (for instance, the lack of effect of smooth vs. rough container on yoghurt mouthfeel
461 ratings; Piqueras-Fiszman & Spence, 2012).

462 In the same way high levels of bitterness represent a negative attribute in specialty coffee,
463 dominant astringency can also be classified as a primary defect of the beverage (Lingle &
464 Menon, 2017). However, according to the rationale presented above, astringency/dryness

465 must already have been present in the stimulus (i.e., coffee) for its perception to be enhanced
466 in the aftertaste by the rough cup (in contrast to the smooth cup). Actually, the perception of
467 astringency/dryness in coffee is not necessarily tied to the level of chlorogenic acids as is
468 commonly assumed (Buffo & Cardelli-Freire, 2004). Along with acidity, some organic acids
469 can also induce sensations of astringency in an inverse, pH-dependent relationship between
470 acidity and perceived astringency (Bajec & Pickering, 2008). One of the organic acids
471 capable of inducing the sensation of dryness is citric acid, which is naturally and widely
472 present in brewed coffee (Sunarharum, Williams, & Smyth, 2014). Therefore, a specialty
473 coffee with low levels of chlorogenic acids but with a low pH citric acid (hence leading to a
474 non-dominant astringency) may be perceived as fairly dry in the aftertaste when consumed
475 from a cup having a rough finish.

476 Extrinsic cues, in turn, can act as explicit or implicit primes depending on the context, and
477 this can affect the mechanism through which sensation transference may occur (Dijksterhuis,
478 2016). In fact, both the prime and the subsequent measurement can be influenced by several
479 external factors, and as a result, primes can produce very different responses depending on
480 the testing situation (Loersch & Payne, 2011). For instance, different task instructions given
481 to participants in order to make them know (or not know) they are potentially under the
482 influence of a prime could dissociate implicit from explicit feature processing (Piqueras-
483 Fiszman, Velasco & Spence, 2012). Explicit task instructions could raise awareness of the
484 prime, and the conscious information processing could influence the subsequent task part
485 where an effect of priming can occur. On the other hand, implicit instructions could distract
486 the participant from finding out what the prime is, and what the effect could be, and feature
487 processing would take place outside the awareness of the participant. This could as well alter
488 participants' responses to the subsequent stimuli (for a detailed "taxonomy of primes", see
489 Dijksterhuis, 2016). Differently from the pre-test in which participants were tested in both
490 conditions (comparative setup) and, thus, were explicitly asked to rub the sandpaper, both
491 Experiments 1 and 2 followed a between-participant design. Thus, each participant evaluated
492 the coffee from one of the two experimental cups, either rough or smooth, without being
493 aware of the other option, or without having their attention deliberately drawn to the texture
494 of the cup itself. Thus, our results suggest some level of automaticity on the mechanisms
495 underlying this type of crossmodal correspondence (i.e., haptic texture and oral-
496 somatosensory sensation), at least in the sense of it not being dependent upon the
497 participants' awareness of the stimuli sensory properties (see Spence & Deroy, 2013 for a

498 review). Notice that this single-shot procedure argues against this particular crossmodal
499 correspondence being relative in nature (see Spence, 2019b, on the relative nature of e.g.,
500 pitch-based correspondences).

501 It is important to mention that, at present, the concept of sensation transference is more
502 descriptive rather than explanatory. It is certainly necessary that future research could look
503 for a more mechanistic understanding of the conditions under which it occurs and perhaps
504 also its neural correlates.

505 Finally, it is worth noting that coffees of different varieties and *terroirs* were used in
506 Experiments 1 and 2 (Yellow Catuai from Matas de Minas and Yellow Bourbon from Sul de
507 Minas, respectively) and this is a main limitation of the present study. These coffees did have
508 distinct flavour profiles as described in the Methods section. Hence, the factor ‘experience’ is
509 therefore confounded with ‘coffee type’ preventing further comparison of data from both
510 experiments to assess the possible main effects of cup texture and experience level, as well as
511 interaction between these factors. In addition, the significant effects reported in Experiments
512 1 and 2 cannot be attributed to the experience level alone, since possible coffee type effects
513 (as a confounder) cannot be ruled out. In fact, it is interesting to mention that a large
514 difference in effect-size was found between Experiments 1 and 2 for the aftertaste ratings.
515 However, as stated above, given that coffee type differed between experiments, we cannot
516 explain this difference based solely on level of expertise. Further investigation is needed in
517 order to understand whether coffee professionals who have been trained to identify and
518 verbally report complex sensations such as dryness/roughness in the palate would be more
519 susceptible to external haptic influences. It is plausible that coffee experts, who are more
520 attuned to subtle differences in roughness of mouthfeel, might experience greater differences
521 due extrinsic tactile cues (Wang & Spence, 2018; Hughson & Boakes, 2001). Importantly,
522 the limitation caused by the potential confounding effects does not detract from our
523 interpretation and inferences from the current data.

524

525 **5. Conclusions**

526 In summary, the results of the present study demonstrate for the first time that ‘sensation
527 transference’ from the haptic feel of cup texture can significantly affect the quality of
528 specialty coffee aftertaste in both experts (Q-graders) and amateur consumers. The present

529 research therefore supports the view that the drinking vessel is a necessary component of the
530 multisensory coffee drinking experience. Thus, the specialty coffee companies might want to
531 focus not only on the sensory characteristics of the coffee beverage itself, but on the service
532 alike. Indeed, the results reported here have critical implications for those designing
533 servingware for specialty coffee.

534

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546

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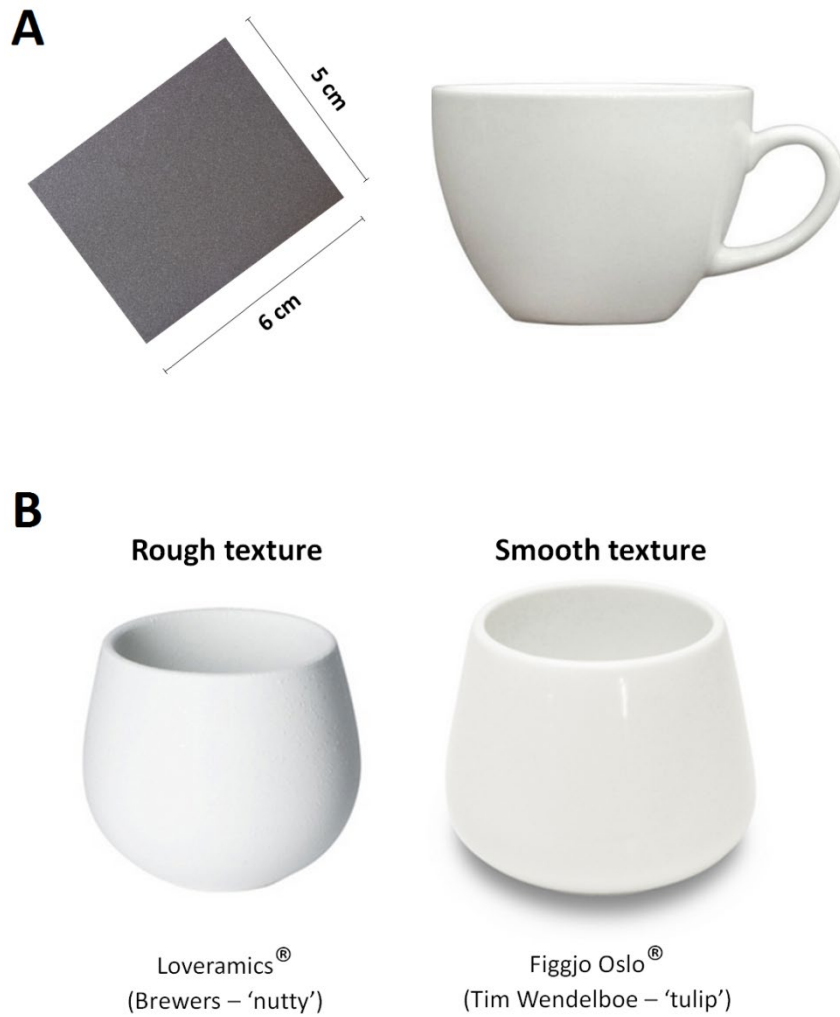
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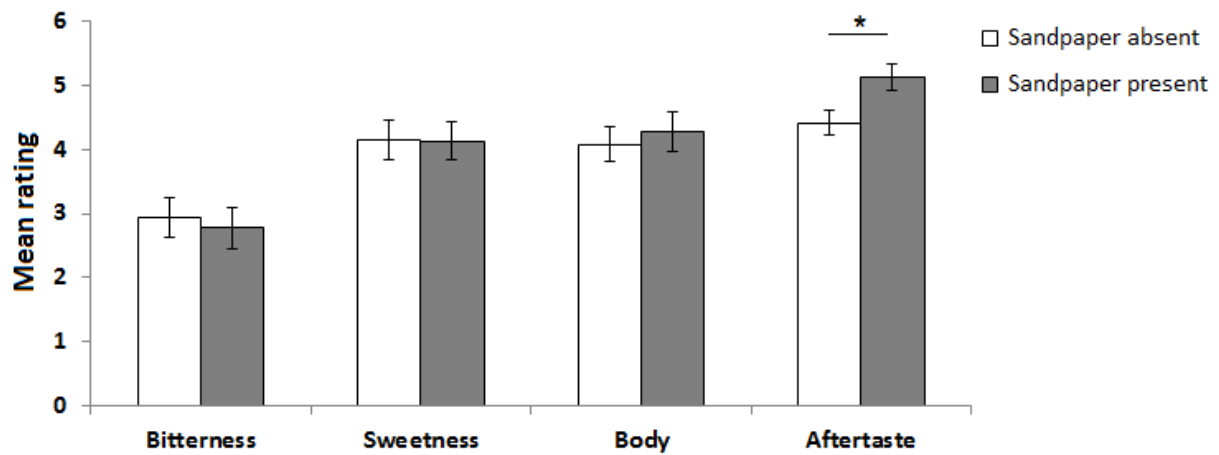
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661 **Figure 1:** (A) Texture stimulus used in Experiment 1. The participants rated the taste and
 662 oral-somatosensory attributes of the same coffee sample served in a white porcelain cup
 663 whilst either touching a sandpaper swatch or not (Conditions 1 and 2, respectively); (B) The
 664 cups used in Experiments 2 and 3. The participants were served the same coffee in either a
 665 rough ceramic cup or a smooth porcelain cup and rated the coffee’s aroma, taste, and oral-
 666 somatosensory attributes.

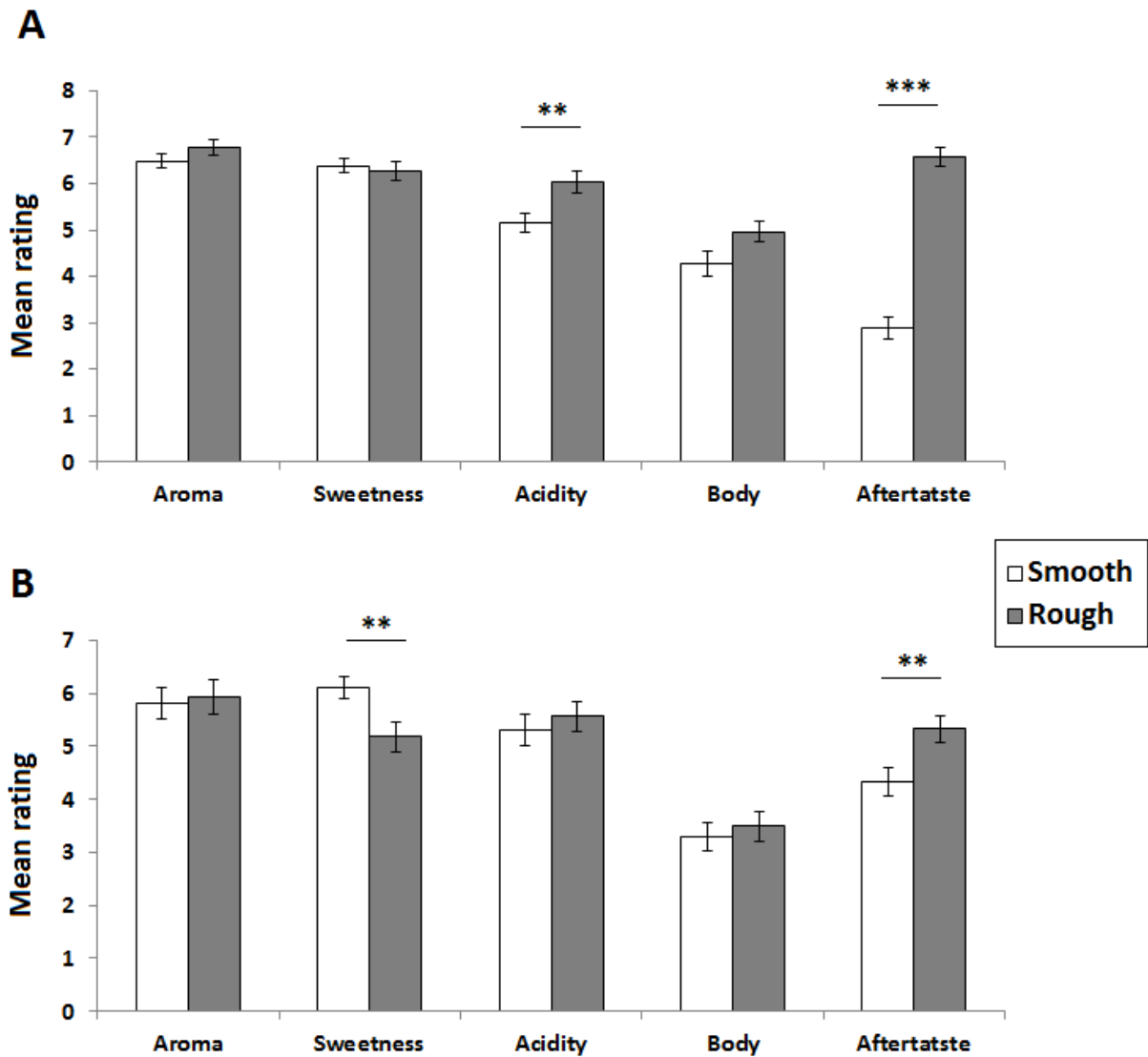


667

668 **Figure 2:** Pre-test. Mean ratings (\pm SE) of bitterness, sweetness, body, and aftertaste for the
 669 conditions ‘sandpaper absent’ (white bars) and ‘sandpaper present’ (grey bars). All attributes
 670 were rated in terms of ‘intensity’ using 10-cm visual analog scales anchored at 0 (‘not at all’)
 671 and 10 (‘very’). The *asterisk* (*) indicates statistical significance of ratings between
 672 conditions at $p < 0.05$ (Bonferroni corrected).

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678 **Figure 3:** Mean ratings (\pm SE) of aroma, sweetness, acidity, body, and aftertaste for the
 679 smooth (white bars) and rough (grey bars) cups in (A) Experiment 1 (Q-graders) and (B)
 680 Experiment 2 (amateur consumers). The attributes aroma, sweetness, and acidity were rated
 681 in terms of 'intensity' (0 - 'not at all'; 10 - 'very') whereas the attributes body and aftertaste
 682 were judged on a continuous 'smooth-to-dry' bipolar scale (see Methods). The *asterisks*
 683 indicates statistical significance of ratings between smooth and rough cups at $p < 0.01$ (**) or
 684 $p < 0.0001$ (***) (Bonferroni corrected).

685

686 **Table 1:** Pre-test. Frequency of terms used to qualitatively describe the attributes ‘body’ and
 687 ‘aftertaste’ in both testing conditions (i.e., with and without sandpaper).

Descriptor	Tactile stimulus	
	Without sandpaper	With sandpaper
	Body	
Rough	4	8
Smooth	8	3
Dense	0	7
Light	6	2
Dry	0	5
Syrupy	2	0
Juicy	4	0
Round	7	4
Creamy	4	2
Velvety	2	0
Silky	3	0
	Aftertaste	
Short	11	4
Lasting	4	11
Dry	2	14
Acid/tart	1	10
Sweet	12	2
Bitter	0	6
Positive flavour attributes ⁷	37	19

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⁷ Positive flavour attributes refer to positive terms used by the tasters to describe flavour residue remaining in the mouth after swallowing the coffee. Examples of positive flavour attributes used by the participants include ‘chocolate’, ‘toffee’, and ‘grapefruit’. These contrast with negative attributes/terms such as ‘burnt’ and ‘dusty’.

Table 2: Participant demographics and ratings of flavour attributes (mean \pm SE) in Experiments 1 and 2.

	N	Gender	Age (yrs)	Level of expertise	Aroma		Sweetness		Acidity		Body		Aftertaste	
					S	R	S	R	S	R	S	R	S	R
Exp 1	81	38 F	35.5 \pm 5.5	Q-graders	6.5 \pm 0.2	6.8 \pm 0.2	6.4 \pm 0.2	6.3 \pm 0.2	5.2 \pm 0.2**	6.0 \pm 0.2**	4.3 \pm 0.3	5.0 \pm 0.2	2.9 \pm 0.2***	6.6 \pm 0.2***
Exp 2	117	59 F	33.4 \pm 8.5	Amateurs 5 L; 34 M; 78 H	5.8 \pm 0.3	5.9 \pm 0.3	6.1 \pm 0.2**	5.2 \pm 0.3**	5.3 \pm 0.3	5.6 \pm 0.3	3.3 \pm 0.3	3.5 \pm 0.3	4.3 \pm 0.3**	5.3 \pm 0.3**

N = number of participants; F = female; S = smooth; R = rough.

L = low (1-3 times/month), M = medium (1-3 times/week), and H = high (daily) stand for the three levels of consumption of specialty coffee amongst the amateur consumers tested.

** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.0001$ (Bonferroni corrected)