# **Difference Tests**



# Can the judge discriminate between two confusable products?

Fang Zhong , Yixun Xia Food Sensory Science



- Sensory discrimination tests, also known as difference tests, are comparative procedures for use in the study of sensory discriminability of similar types of stimuli.
- Can you tell a difference?
  If the difference is obvious?
  Only for confusable difference

### Why is this important?

- Strategic ingredient sourcing
- Plant to plant variability
- Shelf life determination
- Formulation matching
- Pilot plant versus production plant
- Ad claims ("bottled beer taste in a can")

### **Discrimination Tests**

### Two general tests:

- Unspecified (overall difference)
- Specified (attribute specific difference)

### Alternatives:

- Signal detection, R-index
- Ranking

### Unspecified (overall difference)

# Is there a difference between products? the nature of the difference is unknown

### Are the two samples perceptibly different?

- will only know "yes" or "no"
- will not know "why"

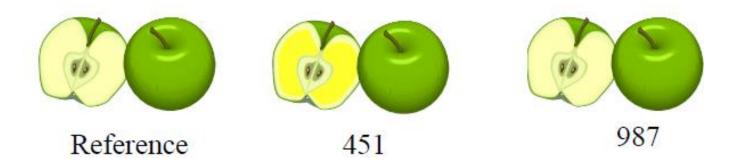
### Unspecified (overall difference)

### Duo-trio

- balanced reference
- constant reference
- Triangle
- A-not-A
- Tetrad
- Two out of Five

# **Duo-Trio Test**

A reference sample (R) was followed by two unknowns(A&B), one of which is identical to R

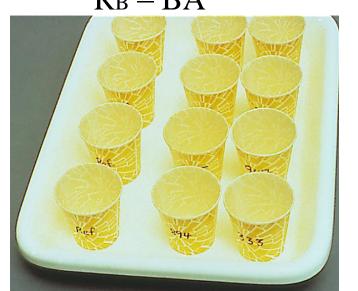


- Which one is the same as the standard?
- One-tailed
- The probability of correct guessing is p=1/2

### Duo-Trio Test (Counterbalancing Orders)

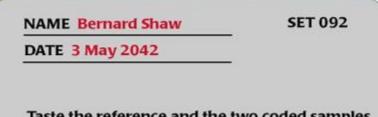
#### **Balanced Reference**

A&B as Reference RA – AB RA – BA RB – AB RB – BA



#### **Constant Reference**

A or B as Reference RA-AB RA-BA



Taste the reference and the two coded samples of juice and click on the number of the coded sample which is the same as the reference

729

124



Two products are the same, one is different (odd sample).



- One sample is different from the other two. Indicate the odd sample.
- One-tailed
- The probability of correct guessing is p=1/3

### Triangle Test (Counterbalancing Orders)

Six orders:					
AAB	BBA				
ABA	BAB				
ABB	BAA				



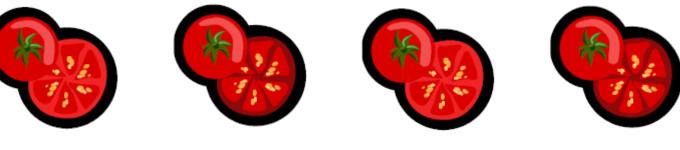
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Taste the three one will be diffe the different sa	erent. Click on	will be the same, the number of
	753	961

### A / Not A Test

- Familiarize subjects with samples 'A' and 'Not a'.
- Present series of products and ask subjects whether they are 'A' or 'Not A'.
- Compare correct and incorrect identifications using the chi-square test.

# (Unspecified) Tetrad Test

### Four samples, each two are the same.





- sort into two groups of two
- six orders <u>AABB BBAA ABAB BABA ABBA BAAB</u>
- probability of correct guessing: p=1/3

### Multi Sample Tests

Sort several samples into two groups

### Two-out-of-Five

- A,B,A,B,B (10 serving orders)
- Probability of correct guessing: p>1/10

### Specified (attribute specific difference)

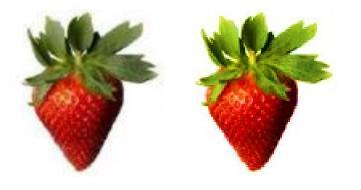
Nature of difference specified

- 2-AFC (2-Alternative forced

choice) or Paired comparison

- 3-AFC
- N-AFC

### Paired Comparison / 2-AFC



#### DIRECTIONAL:

- Indicate which sample is sweeter, fruitier more sour, more viscous etc

- Judges must understand what you mean by the attribute you specify

# What attributes would ordinary Consumers understand?

MORE: sweet? sour? fruity? crunchy, noisy? spicy? well blended?

bitter? salty? viscous, thick? darker looking? umami? chocolate?

#### You may need to give standards

### **3-Alternative Forced Choice**

A 3-AFC test is a triangle test where the odd sample is the sample with the higher intensity of the two samples being compared



- one sample is sweeter than the other two.
   Indicate the sweeter
- have a prior knowledge of the difference

### **Applications**

ThresholdsDifference testing

- when you want to show that people perceive the difference
- Similarity testing
  - when you want to show that people do not perceive the difference

### Thresholds

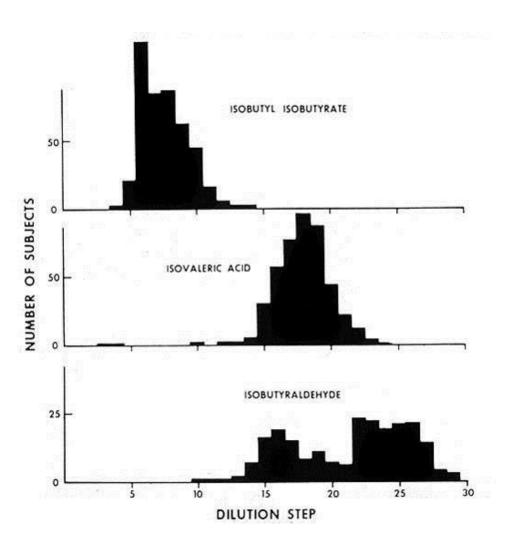
Use for comparative purpose only (there are no absolute measures)

### Four types:

- Detection threshold
- Recognition threshold
- Difference threshold = just noticeable difference
- Terminal threshold

### **Detection Threshold**

 Minimum concentration of a stimulus that can be detected



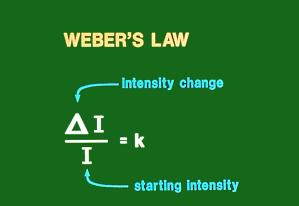
# **Recognition Threshold**

Minimum concentration of a stimulus that can be recognized
 Prone to response bias

-In what level could be called "sweet"?

## **Difference Threshold**

- Minimum increase in the concentration of a stimulus that can be detected = just noticeable difference
- A function of the original stimulus concentration
   WEBER'S LAW
- Weber's law



### **Terminal Threshold**

The concentration of a stimulus above which there is no increase in perceived intensity

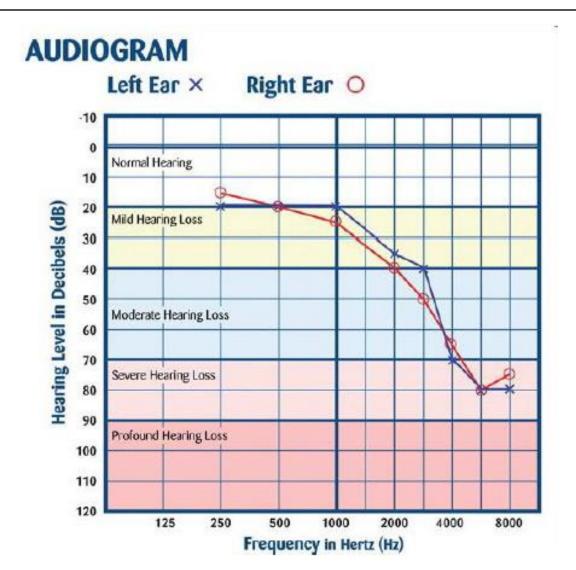
Prone to response bias



Measures based on difference testsMethods of limits

- Ascending method of limits
- Descending method of limits
- Staircase method
- Up-and-down method
- Method of average error
- Frequency method

### Thresholds – Up & Down Method



# Type I and Type II Errors

- A Type I Error is one we commit if we reject the Null Hypothesis when it is actually true.
- Concluding that two samples are perceptibly different when they are not!
- The risk of committing a Type I error is called alpha (a)

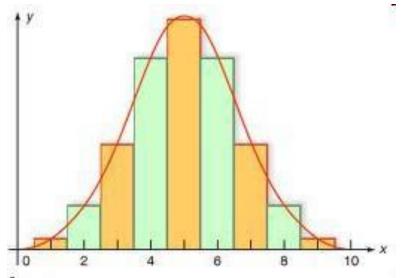
### **Difference Testing**

Purpose is to show that <u>there is a</u> <u>difference</u> between products.

### Minimize alpha, the risk of a Type I error, i.e., incorrectly stating that products are different when they are not.

### **Difference Testing**

- Use any of the difference tests described above (specified or unspecified)
- Compare the number of correct answers to tabulated values based on binomial statistics



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### Analysis of Difference testing

Binomial distribution
 Use the correct table!
 Chi-squared distribution
 Z-test calculation

Table 2-Alinimum numbers of correct judgments to establish significance at various probability levels for the triangle test (onetailed,  $\rho = 1/31^{\circ}$ 

Minned, 10	. 1701.		erry and	Street St.	-	- St	Sec. 2		
No. 01	Probability levels								
triats (n)	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.005	0.00		
5	( <b>1</b> 43)	S	<b>.</b>	5	6	5			
5	5	5	-6	-6	6	6	1		
<b>7</b>	5	6	- <b>G</b>		6 S.	7	E		
8	6	6	6	6	7	2.5	8		
2	6	7	7	7	7	8	8		
10	7	7	3 <b>7</b> 6	7	8	8			
10	7	2	8	8	. B.	- <b>g</b>	10		
12	8	8	8	8	9	<u>e</u>	10		
13	8	- 18	9	9	9	. 10	- 11		
- 14 · · ·	9	9	•	•	10	10	11		
15	9	9	10	10	10	3.1	12		
16	9	10	10	10	- 11 s	- 10 · ·	12		
17	10	10	10	- 31	11.7	12	13		
1.9	10	11	11	2.1	12	12	13		
19	11	11	11	12	12	13	14		
20	11	33	12	12	13	13	- 14		
21	12	12	12	13	13	14	15		
22	12	12	10	13	14	14	15		
23	12	12	13	13	14	16	16		
24	13	13	13	14	15	15	10		
25	13	14	14	14	16	16	17		
26	14	14	14	15	15	16	17		
27	14	14	15 -	15	16	17	18		
28	15	16	15	16	16	17	10		
29	15	15	16	16	12	17	19		
30	15	10	16	16	.17	18	19		
31	16	16	16	12	18	18	20		
32	16	16	17	12	18	19	20		
33	17	12	17	18	18	19	21		
34	12	17	18	18	19	20	21		
35	17	18	18	19	19	20	22		
36	18	18	18	19	20	20	22		
37	18	18	19	19	20	21	22		
36	19	19	19	20	21	21	23		
39	19	19	20	20	21	22	23		
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43	20	21	21	22	23	24	28		
- 44	21	21	22	22	23	24	26		
45	21	22	22	23	24	24	26		
46	22	22	22	22	24	26	27		
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### oExample:

#### Triangle test (p=1/3)

- N=35 judges
- 19 correct answer
- significant difference (p<0.01)

Z-test

$$z = \frac{(X - np) - 0.5}{\sqrt{npq}}$$

X = number of correct responses n = total number of responses p = probability of chance Triangle test: p = 1/3Duo-trio & pair tests:  $p = \frac{1}{2} q = 1 - p$ 

■See Z-table (area under normal prob. curve) to determine probability of choice being made by chance.

### Z-test example

- -N = 40 subjects
- 21 correct answer
- $-Z = [(21 40^{*}(1/3)) 0.5]/[SQRT(40^{*}1/3^{*}2/3)]$ 
  - = [7.66667 0.5]/ [SQRT (8.888889)]

Probability of this occurring by chance = 1 - 0.9918 = 0.0082

# Normal (z) distribution Entry area is $1-\alpha$ under normal curve from $-\infty$ to $z(1-\alpha)$

	0	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.09
0	0.5000	0.5040	0.5080	0.5120	0.5160	0.5199	0.5239	0.5279	0.5319	0.5359
0.1	0.5398	0.5438	0.5478	0.5517	0.5557	0.5596	0.5636	0.5675	0.5714	0.5753
0.2	0.5793	0.5832	0.5871	0.5910	0.5948	0.5987	0.6026	0.6064	0.6103	0.6141
0.3	0.6179	0.6217	0.6255	0.6293	0.6331	0.6368	0.6406	0.6443	0.6480	0.6517
0.4	0.6554	0.6591	0.6628	0.6664	0.6700	0.6736	0.6772	0.6808	0.6844	0.6879
0.5	0.6915	0.6950	0.6985	0.7019	0.7054	0.7088	0.7123	0.7157	0.7190	0.7224
0.6	0.7257	0.7291	0.7324	0.7357	0.7389	0.7422	0.7454	0.7486	0.7517	0.7549
0.7	0.7580	0.7611	0.7642	0.7673	0.7704	0.7734	0.7764	0.7794	0.7823	0.7852
0.8	0.7881	0.7910	0.7939	0.7967	0.7995	0.8023	0.8051	0.8078	0.8106	0.8133
0.9	0.8159	0.8186	0.8212	0.8238	0.8264	0.8289	0.8315	0.8340	0.8365	0.8389
1	0.8413	0.8438	0.8461	0.8485	0.8508	0.8531	0.8554	0.8577	0.8599	0.8621
1.1	0.8643	0.8665	0.8686	0.8708	0.8729	0.8749	0.8770	0.8790	0.8810	0.8830
1.2	0.8849	0.8869	0.8888	0.8907	0.8925	0.8944	0.8962	0.8980	0.8997	0.9015
1.3	0.9032	0.9049	0.9066	0.9082	0.9099	0.9115	0.9131	0.9147	0.9162	0.9177
1.4	0.9192	0.9207	0.9222	0.9236	0.9251	0.9265	0.9279	0.9292	0.9306	0.9319
1.5	0.9332	0.9345	0.9357	0.9370	0.9382	0.9394	0.9406	0.9418	0.9429	0.9441
1.6	0.9452	0.9463	0.9474	0.9484	0.9495	0.9505	0.9515	0.9525	0.9535	0.9545
1.7	0.9554	0.9564	0.9573	0.9582	0.9591	0.9599	0.9608	0.9616	0.9625	0.9633
1.8	0.9641	0.9649	0.9656	0.9664	0.9671	0.9678	0.9686	0.9693	0.9699	0.9706
1.9	0.9713	0.9719	0.9726	0.9732	0.9738	0.9744	0.9750	0.9756	0.9761	0.9767
2	0.9772	0.9778	0.9783	0.9788	0.9793	0.9798	0.9803	0.9808	0.9812	0.9817
2.1	0.9821	0.9826	0.9830	0.9834	0.9838	0.9842	0.9846	0.9850	0.9854	0.9857
2.2	0.9861	0.9864	0.9868	0.9871	0.9875	0.9878	0.9881	0.9884	0.9887	0.9890
2.3	0.9893	0.9896	0.9898	0.9901	0.9904	0.9906	0.9909	0.9911	0.9913	0.9916
2.4	0.9918	0.9920	0.9922	0.9925	0.9927	0.9929	0.9931	0.9932	0.9934	0.9936
2.5	0.9938	0.9940	0.9941	0.9943	0.9945	0.9946	0.9948	0.9949	0.9951	0.9952

### Type I and Type II Errors

- A Type II Error is one we commit if we DO NOT reject the Null Hypothesis (i.e. H0: two samples are same) when it is false.
- Concluding that two samples are NOT different when they are perceptibly different!
- The risk of committing a Type II Error is called **beta (β)**, which is the risk of NOT finding a difference when one actually exists

### Similarity Testing Situation

- Use when the test objective is to determine that no perceivable difference exists between two products (ingredient or processing change)
- Based on the same tests as in overall difference testing (triangle, duo-trio)
- Minimize beta, the risk of a Type II error,
   i.e., incorrectly stating that samples are similar
   (i.e. NOT different) when they are actually
   different.

### **Similarity Testing Situation**

- Power (=1-beta) is critical in similarity testing
- Pd value: the proportion of discriminators
- Compare the number of correct answers to tabulated values based on binomial statistics
  - (\*NOT the same tables as for difference testing)

	P	Proportion Discriminatin						
Critical Values of the Triangle Test for Similarity	N	Beta	20%	30%				
(Maximum Number Correct) as a Function of N,								
Beta, and the Proportion Discriminating	30	.05	_	11				
		.10	10	11				
Accept the null with 100 (1-beta) confidence if the	33	.05	_	12				
number of correct choices does not exceed the tabled value for the allowable proportion of discriminators.		.10	11	13				
Redesigned from M. Meligaard, G.V. Civille, and B.T.	36	.05	_	13				
Carr, Sensory Evaluation Techniques, Copyright 1991, CRC, Boca Raton, FL.		.10	12	14				
	42	.05		16				
		.10	14	17				
	48	.05	16	19				
		.10	17	20				
	54	.05	18	22				
		.10	20	23				
	60	.05	21	25				
		.10	22	26				
	72	.05	26	30				
		.10	27	32				
	84	.05	31	36				
		.10	32	38				
	96	.05	36	42				
		.10	38	44				

# Power

- Power is the probability of finding a difference between the two products IF ONE ACTUALLY EXISTS!
- Power
  - depends on
  - Chosen Type I error or alpha (usually 5%)
  - Size of difference between samples
  - Number of panelists







 Discriminators are proportions of people (consumers) who can actually distinguish the differences..

 $P_d = 2P_c - 1 (2 - AFC)$ 

 $P_d = 1.5P_c - 0.5$  (triangle)

- 'small' effect (only 25% can distinguish)
- 'medium' effect (37.5% can distinguish)
- 'large' effect (50% can distinguish)

# Sample Size Calculations

% Discriminators	Triangle (p=1/3)	Duo-Trio (p=1/2)
50	18	31
40	28	50
30	51	92
20	113	211
10	444	853

Alpha=5%; Power=1-beta=90%

#### More powerful tests, smaller samples sizes

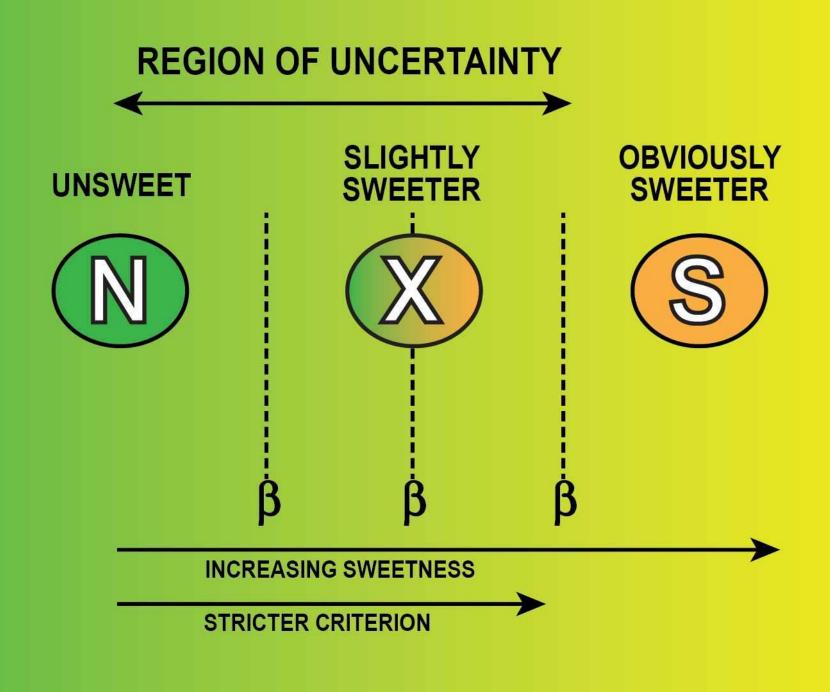
# The Gist Of Difference Test

- Difference test is used to find out if two samples are perceptibly different or not
- There are many problems difference tests can and can not solve
- The two main categories of difference tests are overall/unspecified and attributespecific/specified tests
- The tests are not equal in power and some tests are better suited in some situations

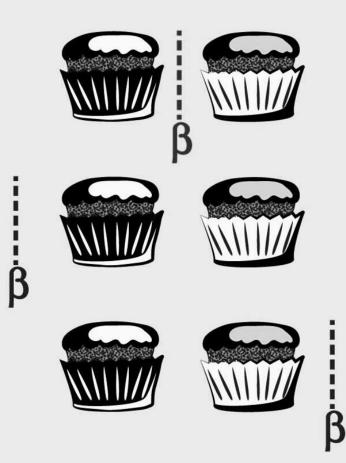
# **Response Bias**

### Response Bias

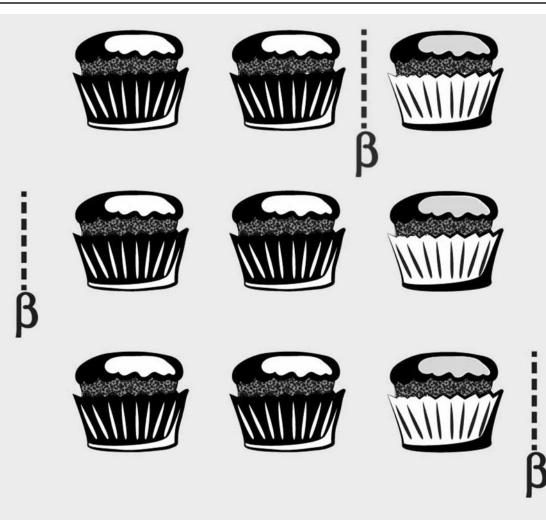
- β-criteria
- т-criteria

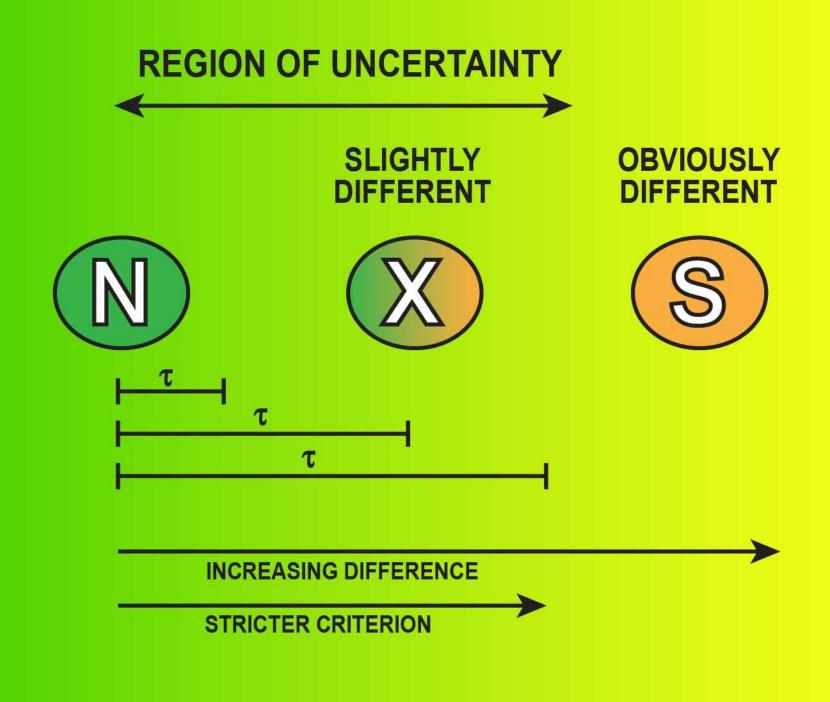


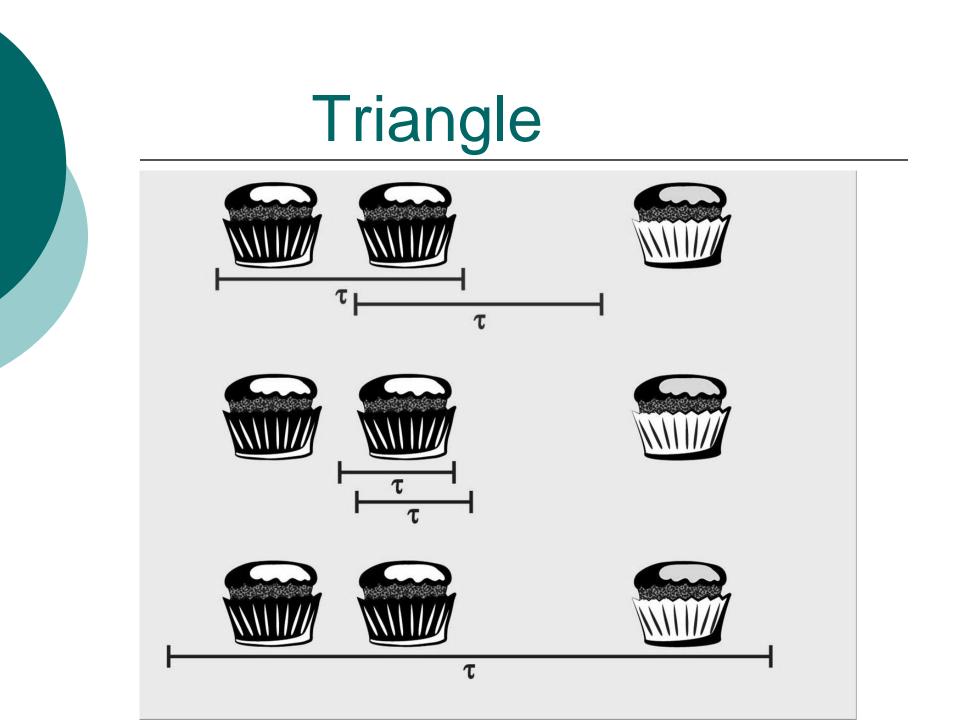
# 2-Alternative Forced Choice 2-AFC



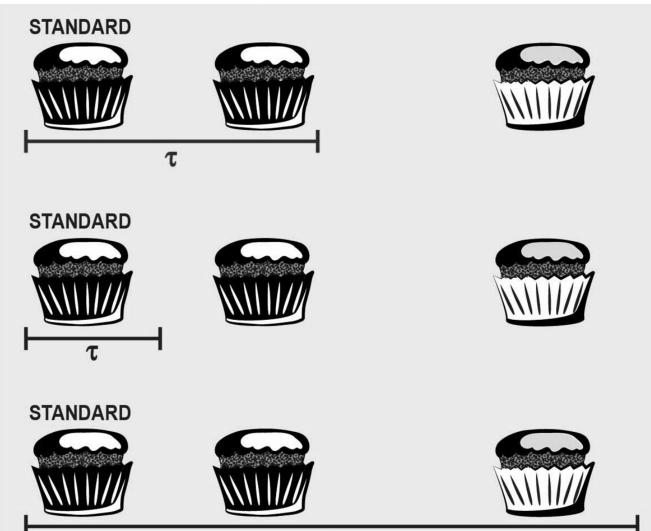
# 3-Alternative Forced Choice 3-AFC











How to avoid these response biases?

# Forced Choice

Manipulate beta criterion into appropriate position or tau criterion to appropriate length

# Signal Detection

Do not manipulate criterion. It is allowed to vary freely. Use signal detection theory to compute d'.

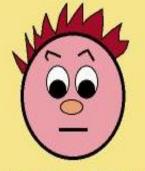
# Effects on power of different methods

- Cognitive strategies
- Memory
- Cross-over
- Sequence

✓ ....

# **Thurstonian Model**

#### WHY DO PEOPLE PERFORM BETTER ON SOME DIFFERENCE TESTS THAN OTHERS?



Same Judge



Same Pair of Foods Test Performance Varies

# Triangle vs 3-AFC

#### • Triangle:

- N=33, guessing chance=11
- 15/33 correct; p=0.1 not significant

#### • **3-AFC:**

- N=33, guessing chance=11
- 23/33 correct; p<0.001 significant

× o	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
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9		995	976	921	812	648	457	279	146	065	024	007	002	0.020	10													
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1		998	987	954	879	751	581	399	240	125	056	021	007	002	-										- 3	1		
2		998	991	965	904	794	638	460	293	163	079	033	012	003	001											1		
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4		999 999	995 996	980 985	941 954	862 888	737 778	630	406 462	304	178	092	042	016	006	001												
5		333	997	989	964	910	815	679	518	357	220	121	058	025	009	003	001											
6			998	992	972	928	847	725	572	411	266	154	079	036	014	005	002									ł		
8			999	994	979	943	874	765	623	464	314	191	104	050	022	008	003	001										
9			999	996	984	955	897	801	670	517	364	232	133	068	031	013	005	001							4			
ő			999	997	988	965	916	833	714	568	415	276	166	090	043	019	007	002	001						2	1		
1				998	991	972	932	861	754	617	466	322	203	115	059	027	011	004	001	-	1				- 8	1		
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4				999	996	987	965	922	849	744	612	468	330		126	067	033	014	006	002					-		_	
5				999	997	990	973	937	873	779	656	516	376	252	155	067	044	020	009	003	001							
5					998	992	978	949	895	810	697	562	422	293	187	109	058	028	012	005	002	001			1			
7					998	994	963	959	913	838	735	607	469	336	223	135	075	038	018	007	003	001						
в					999	996	987	967	928	863	769	650	515	381	261	164	095	051	025	011	004	002	001					
9					999	997	990	973	941	885	800	689	560	425	301	196	118	066	033	016	007	003	001		8	1		
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2						999	995	987	968	933	876	791	683	558	428	307	205	127	073	038	019	008	003	001				
3						999 999	996	990 992	974 980	945 955	895 912	820 845	719 753	600 639	471 514	347 389	239 275	153 182	091	050	025	012	005	002	001			
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8							999	997	992	980	958	919	859	776	672	554	433	318	220	142	086	048	025	012	006	002	001	
9							999	998	994	984	965	932	879	803	706	593	473	356	253	168	105	061	033	017	008	003	001	
0							999	998	995	987	972	943	896	829	739	631	513	395	287	196	126	076	042	022	011	005	002	001

Table G.4.c Probability of X or More Correct Judgments in n Trials (one-tailed, p = 1/3)<sup>a</sup>

# Duo-Trio vs 2-AFC

#### • **Duo-trio**:

- N=33, guessing chance=16.5 16 or 17
- 20/33 correct; p=0.148 not significant

#### • **2-AFC:**

- N=33, guessing chance=16.5 16 or 17
- 26/33 correct; p<0.002 significant

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**Table G.4.a** Probability of X or More Correct Judgments in n Trials (one-tailed,  $p = \frac{1}{2}$ )<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Initial decimal point has been omitted. Source: E. B. Roessler et al., Journal of Food Science, 1978, 43, 940-947. Copyright © by Institute of Food Technologists. Reprinted with permission of author and publisher.



#### WHY DO PEOPLE PERFORM BETTER ON SOME TESTS THAN OTHERS ?

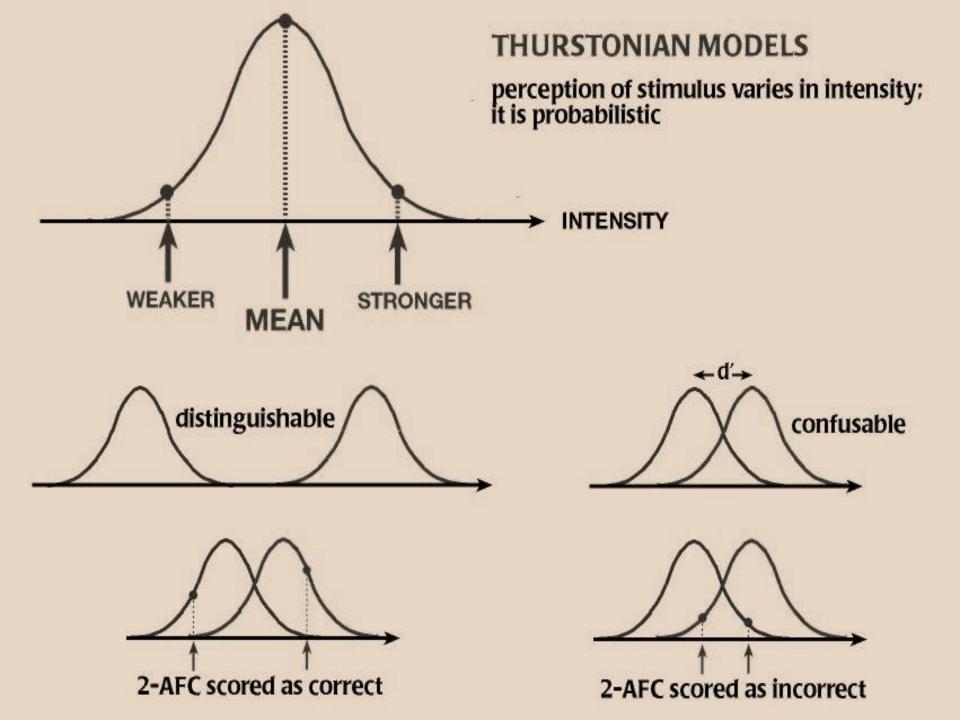


#### CLARITY OF SIGNAL REACHING THE CENTRAL PROCESSOR



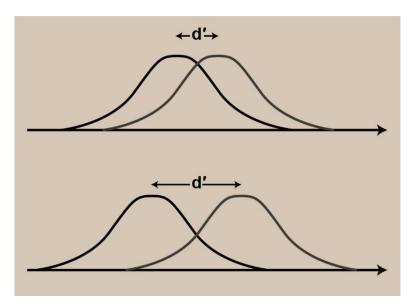
# Thurstonian Modeling

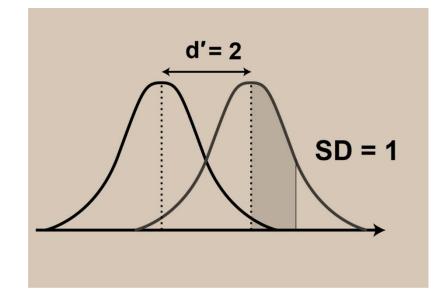
# Louis Leon Thurstone 1887-1955



# d-prime

**The distance** between the means of the two sensory distributions, measured in standard deviations, is called **d'** 



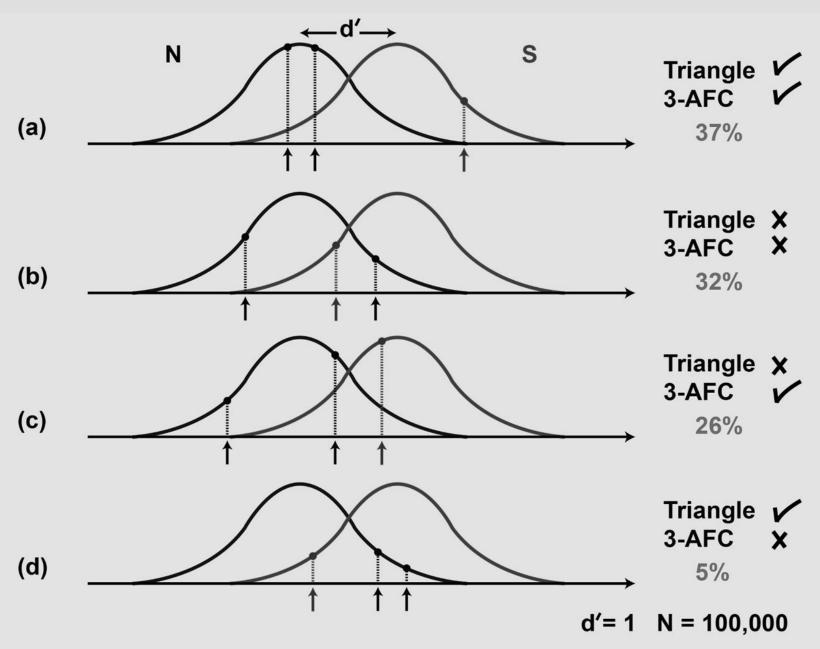


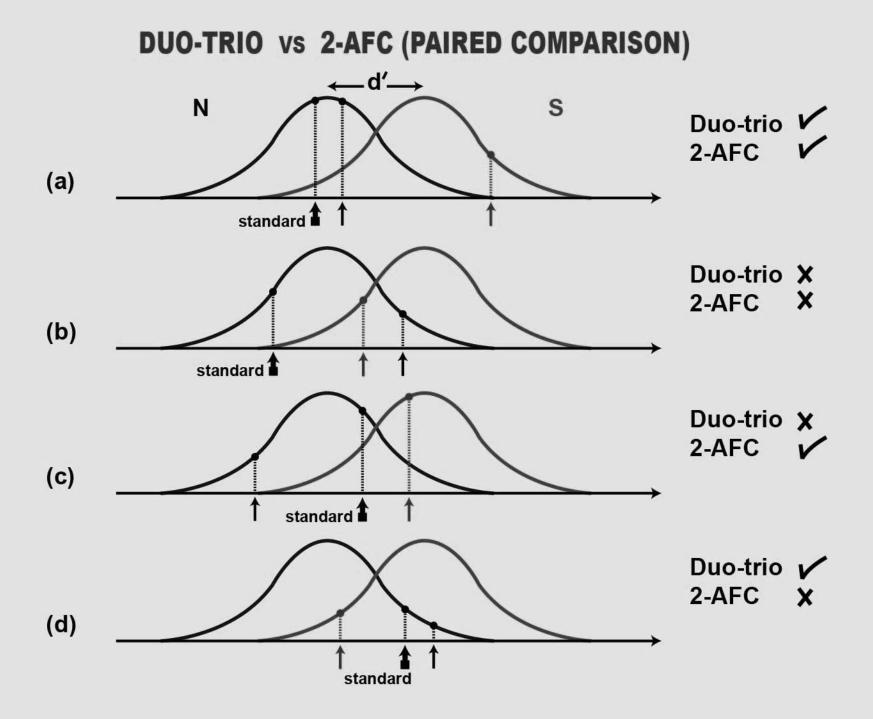
The paradox of discriminatory non-discriminators

Non-discriminators had different judgement when they participated

- Triangle vs 3-AFC
- <u>Duo-trio vs 2-AFC</u>

## **Triangle vs 3-AFC**





## **PROPORTION CORRECT**

<b>d′</b>	TRIANGLE	3-AFC
0.00	33.3%	33.3%
0.43	35%	<b>46%</b>
0.88	40%	60%
1.0	42%	64%
1.52	51%	77%
2.03	61%	87%
2.5	70%	93%

# **d'**

PROPORTION			
CORRECT	TRIANGLE		3-AFC
33.3%	0.00	0.00	
40%	0.88	0.23	
50%	1.47	0.56	
60%	1.98	0.89	
<b>70%</b>	2.50	1.24	
80%	3.13	1.65	
90%	4.03	2.23	

The triangle test is not as efficient as the 3AFC. The difference has to be bigger (bigger d') to get the same proportion of tests correct.

# Different cognitive strategies

Comparison of distance of difference

- compare distances along the flavor intensity axis; choose the most distant one
- Comparison of magnitudes or intensities
  - (Skimming)
  - compare input intensities; choose (skim off)
     appropriate one

Thus, different methods have different efficiency

# Other effects

Memory

Sequence

Cross-over

••••

**Counterbalance the experiments!**