Elucidating Odorant Masking Effects in Food Matrices Through Olfactory Receptor-Based Profiling

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Abstract:

Dynamic aroma compound interactions, especially odorant masking effects, underpin the complex flavor profiles of thermally processed foods. This study focuses on 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (TMP) and L-menthol (L-MT), demonstrating their reciprocal suppression through systematic sensory evaluation. Subsequently, olfactory receptor screening identified OR5K1 as 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine's receptor ($EC_{50}=27.67 \pm 2.02$ μmol/L) and OR2W1 as L-menthol's responsive receptor ($EC_{50}=22.69 \pm 3.85$ μmol/L). This mutual masking effect was further validated through quantitative detection of response signals at both receptor levels. In order to further explain the mode of interaction between odorants and receptors, molecular modeling analysis was used and revealed the mechanistic basis of odorant interactions: 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol competitively bind to the same active pocket in both receptors with analogous binding modes, resulting in mutual antagonism of receptor activation. Collectively, these findings provide novel receptor-level insights into aroma compound interplay, advancing the mechanistic understanding of flavor perception and its physiological bases.

Keywords: 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, L-menthol, Olfactory receptors, Odor interactions, Molecular modeling

1 INTRODUCTION

Food flavors exhibit remarkable diversity resulting from complex interactions among odorant molecules. These interactions primarily manifest through flavor enhancement (intensification of specific aroma notes) and flavor masking (suppression of specific aroma notes). Masking effects are particularly significant in food science [1], enabling targeted modification of undesirable flavors while preserving desirable sensory profiles. Practical strategies include molecular encapsulation, enzymatic modification, and strategic blending with masking compounds [1-3]. Notably, aroma-induced masking allows flavor modulation without altering food matrices, offering broad applications in food development. Aroma masking is ubiquitous, exemplified by spice-derived compounds suppressing baked/burnt odors in thermally processed foods [4, 5]. A representative system involves interactions between Maillard-derived 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (imparting nutty-roasted notes) and spice-originated L-menthol (providing herbal/minty aromas and TRPM8-mediated cooling) [6-8]. Their co-occurrence in grilled meats and baked goods provides an ideal model for studying multisensory integration and olfactory variations.

The multifaceted nature of food flavors arises from a dynamic interplay between odorant molecules, with synergistic intensification and competitive masking of specific aroma notes being principal manifestations. The investigation of aroma interactions in foods requires an integrated approach combining instrumental analysis with sensory evaluation. Gas chromatography-olfactometry-mass spectrometry (GC-O-MS) enables precise identification of key odorants and their interactions in

complex matrices such as coffee, wine, and processed meats [9, 10], while sensory

methods like S-curve modeling quantitatively characterize flavor thresholds and

synergistic/antagonistic relationships [11]. As evidenced by the studies of Li et al. and

Guo et al., acetate significantly enhances floral-fruity notes in wines while aldehydes

demonstrate sweet-enhancing effects in oranges through cross-modal

olfactory-gustatory interactions [12, 13]. These diverse methodologies collectively bridge

chemical composition with perceptual outcomes, thereby providing deeper insights

into flavor modulation mechanisms essential for food quality optimization.

Recognizing the inherent limitations of sensory evaluation's subjectivity,

contemporary research increasingly incorporates molecular biological approaches to

unravel the fundamental mechanisms underlying odorant interactions. Olfactory

perception is the biological process of detecting, identifying, and interpreting volatile

chemical substances in the environment through the olfactory system. Crucially, this

process relies on olfactory receptors (ORs, $\approx$ 400 types in humans) located in the

olfactory epithelium of the upper nasal cavity, which specifically bind to particular

types of odor molecules. Comprehensive mapping of olfactory receptor activation

profiles has revolutionized our understanding of flavor perception, particularly

through the elucidation of precise OR-odorant binding specificities [14, 15]. For instance,

researchers identified OR2T11 as a small-molecule thiol-responsive receptor and

uncovering the crucial role of metal ions in mediating odorant-receptor interactions [16].

After deorphanizing olfactory receptors and identifying ligand-receptor pairs, in-depth

analyses of polymorphisms in olfactory receptor coding genes have been further

conducted. For example, genetic variations in OR7D4 influence individual differences

in the valence (pleasantness or unpleasantness) and intensity of perceived steroid

odors such as androstenone [17, 18]. The development of heterologous expression

systems for olfactory receptors has enabled molecular-level investigation of flavor

compound-receptor interactions, providing critical insights into chemosensory

mechanisms [19-21]. Moreover, studies on molecular modeling, molecular dynamics, and

meta-databases of olfactory receptor-odorant interactions have contributed to the

understanding of olfactory receptor activation mechanisms and the discovery of

potential odorant receptors [22, 23]. The prediction of active pockets and binding sites

also further advances research on the structural and functional properties of receptor

proteins at the microscopic level.

In this study, the olfactory detection thresholds of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and

L-menthol, and olfactory perceptual interactions of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine with

L-menthol were determined through sensory experiments. Subsequently, ORs

heterologous expression model cells were constructed and in vitro cellular

experiments were carried out to screen for 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine-responsive

receptors. OR5K1 was shown to be a highly responsive receptor for

2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and the effects of L-menthol on the

2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine-OR5K1 pair were explored. Additionally, as a receptor that

can be activated by L-menthol, OR2W1 was used to detect the modulation of

L-menthol receptor activation by 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine. Through analyzing the

modulation effects of the two odorants on their corresponding receptors, their

interaction patterns were revealed. Finally, molecular modeling was used to explain

the potential mechanism of odorants' interaction at the molecular level.

2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Chemicals

Chemicals required for the cellular experiments: DMEM medium, fetal bovine

serum (FBS) (Premium Plus), 1×PBS buffer, 10000 U/mL penicillin/streptomycin,

trypsin/EDTA solution, 1mol/L HEPES, 1×HBSS, and Opti-MEM medium were

purchased from Invitrogen (California, America). Lipofectamine™ 3000 purchased

from Thermo Fisher Scientific (Shanghai, China) was used for cell transfection. The

reagents used for odorant stimulation include 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol,

all with a purity of >99%, sourced from Aladdin (Shanghai, China). The odorant

solvent is dimethyl sulfoxide (Beyotime, Shanghai, China).

2.2 Sensory conditions and sensory panel

All sensory evaluation procedures were conducted in strict compliance with

relevant regulatory guidelines (ISO 8586:2012; ISO 8589:2007) and institutional

ethical standards. The sensory team consisted of 20 trained members, including 10

males and 10 females, with an age range of 20–25 years old. Participants must be in

good health, free from any conditions that may impair olfactory function. During the

training process, panelists are required to undergo olfactory threshold and

identification tests to ensure olfactory sensitivity and exclude individuals with

olfactory abnormalities. Furthermore, panelists receive repeated training in odor

recognition and description, intensity quantification, and difference discrimination to

reinforce their perception and memory of the characteristics of each experimental

odor. Following 60 hours of pre-experimental training (2 hours daily), only qualified

members were selected to participate in the formal trials [24, 25]. Additionally, all

samples were evaluated at a controlled room temperature of 25 °C. Black 10 mL ISO

glass bottles with lids were used, containing about 2 mL of test sample or blank and

coded with two-digit random numbers.

All experimental samples were prepared in full compliance with national food

safety regulations, with tested concentrations maintained within safety thresholds to

ensure human health. The sensory evaluation protocol has been approved by the

Ethics Committee of Shanghai Jiao Tong University (Approval Number: B20250330I)

and all participants have been informed of the experimental purpose, protocol, and

ethical review outcome.

2.3 Sensory experiments to verify odor interaction

A systematic concentration-gradient approach was implemented to quantify odor

interaction between target aromatics, following our established protocols for binary

mixture analysis [13, 26]. The thresholds of aroma compounds were determined by

the three-alternative forced-choice method, adhering to the ISO 13301:2018 (*Sensory*

analysis-Methodology-General guidance for measuring odor, flavor and taste

detection thresholds by a three-alternative forced-choice (3-AFC) procedure). There

are 10 concentrations set for each target test group. All concentrations of the test

substances in each group are measured by the method mentioned [27] (see Supporting

Information).

The experimental data were analyzed to determine olfactory thresholds and odorant

interactions using the S-curve method, with the following fitting equation (formula 1).

Here, P represents the chance-corrected probability of detection, x is the concentration

of the odorant, c is the olfactory threshold, and D is a parameter defining the slope of

the function [28]:

$$P = 1/(1 + e^{\wedge}(-(x - c)/D)) \tag{1}$$

For binary odorant systems, two odorants, A and B were mixed, and the evaluators

sniffed the mixture to detect odorant A. The measured probability of detecting A,

denoted as P(A) was compared to the theoretical probability of detection, p(A),

for A alone. The lg(c)-p curve was plotted and fitted, where the concentration values

were summed while maintaining the original proportion of A and B. The threshold

was defined as the concentration corresponding to P=0.5 on the fitted curve. If P(A) at

P=0.5 was lower than p(A), odorant B exhibited a masking effect on A (S-curve right

shift). If P(A) was higher than p(A), B demonstrated a mutual enhancement or

synergistic effect on A (S-curve left shift). If P(A) was equal to p(A), no significant

interaction between A and B was observed [28].

2.4 ORs plasmids preparation

The encoding sequences of ORs were amplified from human genomic DNA via

polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using specific primers and subsequently ligated into

the pCI mammalian expression vector using T4-DNA ligase (Fig. S1). The sequence

information for each gene is available in GenBank

(http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/). Similarly, 294 ORs (haplotype, excluding

variants) were cloned and ligated to expression plasmids for receptor screening (Table

S1; Table S2). Plasmid sequencing was performed using Oxford Nanopore

Technology (Cowin Biotech, Shanghai, China).

2.5 Cell culture and construction of ORs expression system

Hana-3A cells (a kind of human embryonic kidney cell line, optimized for ORs

expression [19]) were cultured with DMEM (with 4.5 g/L D-glucose) supplemented

with 10% FBS, $1\times$ penicillin-streptomycin (100 U/mL), and 2 mmol/L L-glutamine in

10 cm dishes, and incubated at 37°C, 5% CO_2, and 100% humidity. After cell

confluence reaches 100%, perform passaging and continue seeding cells in 10 cm

dishes and then transfected via lipofection when reached 60% confluence. 8000 ng of

the corresponding ORs and pGloSensor-22F plasmid (Promega, Shanghai), and 4000

ng of mRTP1s and $G\alpha_{olf}$ plasmid were co-transfected [29].

2.6 Odorants preparation

All odorants are diluted from the pure reagents by dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO).

Stock solutions of each odorant were first prepared at a concentration of 2 mol/L and

then sequentially diluted to suitable concentrations. The odorants required for the

interaction experiments were formulated in advance, followed by premixing of the

stock solutions in the desired proportions prior to dilution for use as operating

solutions. This approach ensures that both single-component and mixed odorants are

administered at a consistent volume of 1 μL, minimizing potential variability

introduced during the delivery process. Gas chromatography-quadrupole/orbitrap

mass spectrometry (GC-Q/Orbitrap MS, Thermo Fisher Scientific, America) was used

to analyze the components of the pre-configured binary systems.

2.7 Cell viability assay

The methylthiazolyldiphenyl-tetrazolium bromide viability assay (MTT viability

assay) was employed to assess the cytotoxicity of the applied odorants [30]. Cell

viability was measured after transfection and subsequent odorant application, with

comparisons made between the odorant-treated group and both the blank group

(untreated) and solvent control (DMSO) group.

2.8 Luminescence assay

Cells after 24 h of transfection were resuspended with 87% HBSS, 10% FBS, and 3%

GloSensor cAMP Reagent (Promega, Wisconsin, America) and plated in a white

96-well plate (Thermo Scientific™ Nunc™ F96 MicroWell™) [31]. For the

luminescence assay, the microplate reader (Thermo Fisher Varioskan LUX) and

Skanlt Software 6.1 RE (ver.6.1.0.51) were used. After incubating for 2 h at room

temperature in the dark, the baseline of each well was recorded preferentially, and

then prepared operating solutions were added to the wells to obtain suitable final

concentrations on the cells. Immediately thereafter, the luminescence signal was

determined and kinetic cycle testing was used so that the luminescence signal in each

well was detected at 30s intervals [21].

2.9 Analysis of cAMP luminescence signals

All data points of the baseline and data points after odorant application were

averaged separately. The mock control (solvents for odorants) was subtracted from the

luminescence value of each well and divided by the basal level, and the result

expressed in multiplicity as a dimensionless constant was taken as the luminescence

intensity (formula 2).

$Lum = (x - x_0)/Baseline$ (2)

The dataset was normalized to the maximum amplitude of the reference

odorant-receptor pair [32], and the concentration-response curves were fitted using the

Logistic function in Origin 2019 software. All data are expressed as mean ± SD and

error bars are indicated on the data points of all the figures.

2.10 Molecular modeling

2.10.1 Molecular docking

AlphaFold3 1.0 was employed to predict the interactions between aroma

compounds and ORs. Specifically, OR5K1 (UniProt ID: Q8NGR5), OR2W1 (UniProt

ID: Q96R47), and two aroma compounds (2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol)

were selected to investigate their binding pattern. Protein sequences of ORs and

simplified molecular input line entry system (SMILES) of compounds served as an

input to AlphaFold3. Each ligand-receptor pair was individually predicted and a total

of complex structures were obtained. Intermolecular interactions of each complex

were analyzed using Maestro Viewer 14.3, with results presented as a 2D interaction

diagram. Additionally, 3D interaction visualizations were created using PyMOL 2.3.0.

2.10.2 Molecular dynamics simulation

The initial conformations of the complexes were predicted using AlphaFold3. The

systems for simulation were built via CHARMM-GUI website, where the bilayer was

composed of ~ 169 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (POPC) [33].

The bilayer and protein complex were solvated into periodic hexagonal type TIP3P

water box containing 0.15 M KCl. Molecular dynamics simulations were performed

using GROMACS 2020, with the CHARMM36m force field for proteins and the

CHARMM General Force Field (CGenFF) for ligands [34]. Energy minimization and

equilibration utilized the default parameters generated by the CHARMMGUI

webserver. In the production, the systems were simulated for 200 ns with a 2-fs time

step. During the simulation, the v‐rescale thermostat was used to keep the

temperature at 303.15 K and the Parrinello‐Rahman semi-isotropic barostat

controlled pressure at 1‐atm (NPT ensemble) [35]. Van der Waals interactions were

force-switched off from 0.8 to 1.2 nm. The Particle Mesh Ewald method was used

with the 1.2 nm cutoff [36]. The LINCS algorithm was applied to constrain all bonds

associated with hydrogen atoms [37]. The root mean square deviation (RMSD) of the

ligand heavy atoms was calculated using the GROMACS□rms tool, with the

predicted initial conformation as the reference. The binding free energy was

calculated using the molecular mechanics/Poisson Boltzmann surface area

(MM/PBSA) method [38]. In this work, the change in conformational entropy is omitted

owing to its high computational cost and limited predictive accuracy. Binding free

energies for all protein–ligand complexes were calculated using gmx_MMPBSA 1.6.2

[39], based on 200□ns (2000□frame) molecular dynamics trajectories.

2.11 Data analysis

All of the experiments were performed in appropriate biological replicates and the

results of statistical analysis were presented as mean ± SEM (standard error of mean).

Microsoft Office Excel was used for data processing and GraphPad Prism 10 and

Origin 2019 software were used to graph the data. For comparisons between two

independent groups, a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test was employed. For

comparisons involving three or more groups, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)

was conducted, followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test to determine specific group

differences. Statistical significance was denoted as follows: $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$,

$***p < 0.001$, and $****p < 0.0001$. Results that did not achieve statistical significance

were labeled as "ns" (not significant) or remained unmarked.

3 RESULTS

3.1 Determining interaction effects of aroma compounds by 3-AFC and S-curve

The phenomenon of olfactory interaction between 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (exhibiting a bakery-like odor) and L-menthol (characterized by an herbal aroma) was first demonstrated through designed sensory experiments. In this section, the olfactory detection thresholds were determined for both the individual compounds (2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol) and the binary mixture, enabling their interaction effects to be systematically compared (Fig. 1; Table 1). 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol olfactory detection threshold concentrations were 9.37 mmol/L and 13.19 mmol/L, respectively (Fig. 1 a, d; Table S4). Subsequently, the thresholds of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol were examined again after equimolar mixing (each odorant maintains the same concentration as its single-substance solution). In the binary system, the detection thresholds were 13.65 mmol/L for 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and 17.47 mmol/L for L-menthol (Fig. 1 b, e; Table S4). Based on these results, equimolar mixing leads to a significant increase in the detection thresholds of both 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol and their S-curves shifts to the right distinctly (Fig. 1 b, e). For 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, the measured detection threshold is larger than the theoretical detection threshold, with D (experimental threshold/theoretical threshold) $=1.46$, showing a masking effect (Table 1); for L-menthol, the measured detection threshold is larger than the theoretical detection threshold, with D (experimental threshold/theoretical threshold) $=1.32$, also showing a masking effect (Table 1).

Initial mutual masking effects were characterized by the measurements of threshold

in equimolar binary mixtures. To further investigate the interaction pattern, an

alternative experimental approach was employed wherein the concentration of one

odorant remained fixed in the binary mixture system while the detection threshold of

another one was assessed. First, the concentration of L-menthol was fixed at 100

mmol/L, and the concentration of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine was varied to achieve

L-menthol : 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine =1000:1/200:1/100:1/20:1/10:1/2:1/1:1/1:5/1:10.

The olfactory detection thresholds of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine was measured as 33.28

mmol/L and the measured detection threshold was larger than the theoretical detection

threshold, with D (experimental threshold/theoretical threshold) =3.55, showing a

masking effect. In turn, to investigate the effect of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine on

L-menthol, the 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine concentrations were fixed at 1000 mmol/L,

and the concentration ratio of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine to L-menthol was varied to

achieve   2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine   :

L-menthol=10000:1/2000:1/1000:1/200:1/100:1/20:1/10:1/2:1/1:1. The thresholds of

L-menthol were measured to be 53.40 mmol/L and the measured detection threshold

was   larger   than   the   theoretical   detection   threshold, D (experimental

threshold/theoretical threshold) =4.05, which also showed a masking effect (Fig. 1 c, f;

Table 1).

Table 1. 3-AFC-S curve discrimination of interactions between
2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol

Composition combination	Experimental value (mmol/L)	Theoretical value (mmol/L)	D (experimental/ theoretical)	Action Effect
2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine + L-menthol (concentration ratio 1:1)	13.65	9.37	1.46	Masking
2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine + L-menthol (L-menthol 100 mmol/L)	33.28	9.37	3.55	Masking
L-menthol+ 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (concentration ratio 1:1)	17.47	13.19	1.32	Masking
L-menthol + 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine 1000 mmol/L)	53.40	13.19	4.05	Masking

Fig. 1. Results of olfactory threshold detection by the 3-AFC method. (a) and (d) represent the
respective thresholds for 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol, respectively; (c) represents the
changes in 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine after mixing with 100 mmol/L L-menthol; (b) and (e) represent
the changes in the respective thresholds of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol after equimolar
mixing; (f) represents the changes in L-menthol after mixing with 1000 mmol/L
2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine. TMP: 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, L-MT: L-menthol

3.2 Effect of odorants on cell viability

Research on odorant interactions based on olfactory receptors should be conducted

using appropriate concentrations of odorants. Therefore, 24 hours post-transfection,

odorants at varying concentrations were applied to cells for viability assessment. In

this experiment, the odorant treatment duration was set at 10 minutes, which aligns

with the time frame for cAMP signal detection following ligand application. The

results demonstrated that 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine exhibited no cytotoxicity within the

0-1000 μmol/L range in OR5K1-expressing cells (Fig. 2 a). However, in groups

containing L-menthol - whether administered alone or in 1:1 combination with

2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine - concentrations exceeding 100 μmol/L showed significant

cellular toxicity (Fig. 2 b, c). OR2W1-expressing cells displayed an identical response

pattern (Fig. 2 d-f). Consequently, subsequent experiments employed concentration

ranges of 1-1000 μmol/L for 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and 1-100 μmol/L for L-menthol

administration.

Fig. 2. Determination of cell viability after application of odorants. (a)-(c) represent the cell viability of OR5K1-expressing cells treated with varying concentrations of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, L-menthol, and 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine+L-menthol, respectively; (d)-(f) represent the cell viability of OR2W1-expressing cells treated with varying concentrations of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, L-menthol, and 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine+L-menthol, respectively. The "Blank" group represents no treatment was performed; the "CON" group represents the treatment with DMSO solvent alone. Statistical significance was denoted as follows: *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, and ****p < 0.0001. Results that did not achieve statistical significance were labeled as "ns" (not significant) or remained unmarked. TMP: 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, L-MT: L-menthol

3.3 OR5K1 is a responsive receptor for 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine

A modified *in vitro* olfactory receptor screening assay was employed to evaluate human olfactory responses to 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine in this study. Systematic screening of a panel of 294 ORs (excluding mutant variants), followed by quantitative analysis of their response profiles, was conducted at two distinct concentrations of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (100 and 1000 μmol/L). The results demonstrate that OR5K1 is a responsive receptor for 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, regardless of whether the concentration is 100 μmol/L or 1000 μmol/L (Fig. 3 a, b). Accordingly, OR5K1 serves as an ideal target for studying 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine-other odorants interactions and its robust response to 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine enables systematic investigation of odor mixture modulation mechanisms at the receptor level.

The concentration-response curve serves as a fundamental analytical approach in olfactory research, providing critical information for both validating receptor-ligand interactions and determining half-maximal effective concentrations (EC_{50}) of odorants [40]. Therefore, the concentration-response relationship of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol on OR5K1 was constructed and quantitative analysis revealed a

dose-dependent activation pattern of OR5K1 by 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, with

response amplitudes progressively increasing across a concentration range of

0.1-1000 μmol/L. Nonlinear regression analysis yielded an EC_{50} value of 27.67±2.02

μmol/L for 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (Fig. 4 a). In contrast, L-menthol didn't elicit

significant receptor activation at any tested concentration, as evidenced by the

absence of detectable response signals and the inability to establish meaningful

concentration-response relationships (Fig. 4 a).

Fig. 3. 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine exclusively activates OR5K1. 294 human ORs were screened with
100 μmol/L 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (a) and 1000 μmol/L 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (b). The
response values for each receptor are shown (n=1 measured in duplicate) and the dashed line
indicates the 2σ threshold (2-fold the standard deviation above the average of all signaling
amplitudes in a screening experiment). Data were mock control-subtracted and normalized to the
maximum response. RLU = relative luminescence unit. TMP: 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine

3.4 Binary interactions between L-menthol and 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine based on OR5K1

Previous psychophysical studies have demonstrated that eatable alkanols specifically L-menthol could modulate the olfactory perception of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (Fig. 1; Table 1). However, the underlying mechanisms remain unexplored at the cellular level. In the present study, mechanistic evidence is provided for how L-menthol influences 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine detection at the single-receptor level, elucidating its modulatory effects on receptor activation dynamics.

In our experiments, L-menthol was mixed with 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine at the same concentration ratio to obtain a series of binary systems of L-menthol and 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine with different concentration gradients, such as 0.1 μmol/L L-menthol+0.1 μmol/L 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, 0.5 μmol/L L-menthol+0.5 μmol/L 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, and so on (see Fig. S2 for details). The components of the pre-configured binary systems were analyzed in advance, revealing that no chemical reactions occurred between the components, and no new substances were formed (Fig. S3). Compared with the 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine treatment group, the response level of cells in equimolar concentrations of L-menthol and 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine was significantly reduced, and this inhibition was present at each concentration (Fig. 4 b). On the time-response curve, the response values of the binary system (100 μmol/L 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine+100 μmol/L L-menthol) were more than 80% lower than those of the 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine-treated group (Fig. 4 c).

Fig. 4. Concentration-response curves for individual and binary systems on OR5K1. (a) represents
the concentration-response curves for 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol on OR5K1; (b)
represents the concentration-response curves for 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, L-menthol, and
2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine+L-menthol (in equimolar concentrations); (c) represents the
time-response curves for 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, L-menthol, and
2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine+L-menthol (in equimolar concentrations) at 100 µmol/L; (d) represents
fixing the 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine concentration and varying the concentration of L-menthol. All
data were mock control-subtracted and normalized to the maximum response, and are shown as
mean ± SD (n = 4). RLU = relative luminescence unit. Statistical significance was denoted as
follows: *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, and ****$p < 0.0001$. Results that did not achieve
statistical significance were labeled as "ns" (not significant) or remained unmarked. TMP:
2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, L-MT: L-menthol

In fact, only making L-menthol mixed with 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine in equimolar

concentrations was not enough to obtain convincing conclusions, so the concentration

ratios between 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol were varied to observe their

effects on the process of OR5K1 activation. Compared with the 1000 µmol/L

2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine-treated group, the presence of L-menthol inhibited the

OR5K1 response signals remarkably. The interaction of L-menthol on

2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine-OR5K1 was concentration-dependent within 0.1-100 μmol/L.

When L-menthol concentrations are more than 1 μmol/L, the signals began to

decrease significantly compared to the 1000 μmol/L 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine-treated

group, and this inhibitory effect was even more pronounced with increasing

L-menthol concentrations (Fig. 4 d). This concentration-inhibition relationship

provides experimental validation for L-menthol's suppressive effect on

2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, effectively excluding random or artifactual influences. The

concentration-dependent weakening on receptor activation induced by

2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine confirms the physiological inhibition of L-menthol.

3.5 Binary interactions between 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol based on

OR2W1

As OR2W1 responds broadly to key food odorants (aldehydes, alcohols, ketones)

and to L-menthol (not 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine), it was selected as an additional key

receptor to verify 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine's influence on L-menthol-induced agonism.

Our experimental results showed that the response of OR2W1 to L-menthol was

concentration-dependent from 0.1-100 μmol/L, with an EC_{50} value of 22.69±3.85

μmol/L (Fig. 5 a).

The ligand that OR2W1 respond to is L-menthol but not 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, so

the core substances investigated on this receptor was L-menthol. In the presence of

the equimolar concentrations of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, the activation of OR2W1 by

L-menthol was reduced (Fig. 5 b, c) and there was a concentration dependence of the

response of the binary system in the range of 0.1-100 μmol/L that is similar to the

results demonstrated on OR5K1. To investigate the concentration-dependent

modulation by 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, L-menthol was maintained at a constant

concentration of 100 μmol/L while 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine levels were varied from

0.1 to 1000 μmol/L to assess the modulatory effects on OR2W1 activation dynamics.

The results showed that 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine had a concentration-dependent

physiological inhibitory effect on the activation of OR2W1 by L-menthol (Fig. 5 d).

This suggests that the two odorants will inhibit each other from the receptor

perspective of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol.

Fig. 5. Concentration-response curves for individual and binary systems on OR2W1. (a) concentration-response curves for L-menthol and 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine on OR2W1; (b) represents the concentration-response curves for L-menthol, 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, and L-menthol+2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (in equimolar concentrations); (c) represents the time-response curves for L-menthol, 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, L-menthol+2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (in equimolar concentrations); (d) represents fixing the L-menthol concentration and varying the concentration of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine. All data were mock control-subtracted and normalized to the maximum response, and are shown as mean ± SD (n = 4). RLU = relative luminescence unit. Statistical significance was denoted as follows: *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, and ****p < 0.0001. Results that did not achieve statistical significance were labeled as "ns" (not significant) or remained unmarked. TMP: 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, L-MT: L-menthol

3.6 Molecular modeling elucidates binary odorant interactions at the OR level

Assays using olfactory receptor-expressing cell systems have validated the functional interaction between 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol. However, the precise molecular mechanisms remain unclear, prompting the application of computational molecular modeling to investigate the potential modulation mechanisms of diverse odorants on olfactory receptor activation. AlphaFold3 was used to predict the co-folding of small molecules and proteins, which could directly predict binding sites and modes (Fig. 6 a, b). For OR2W1, molecular docking simulations revealed that the hydroxyl groups of L-menthol could form stable hydrogen bonds with the $Y259^{6.55}$ in OR2W1. 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine forms only weak hydrophobic interactions with $Y259^{6.55}$ in OR2W1, insufficient to trigger activation (Fig. 6 c, d). For OR5K1, 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine establishes hydrophobic interaction with $L255^{6.51}$, hydrogen bonding with $S203^{5.43}$ and π-π stacking with $H155^{4.56}$, potentially constituting its activation mechanism, while L-menthol lack these comprehensive interactions, preventing receptor activation (Fig. 6 e, f).

Based on the AlphaFold 3-predicted structures, 200 ns molecular dynamics (MD)

simulations were performed for all odorant-receptor systems. First, the MM-PBSA

method was employed to calculate binding free energies (Table 2). The results

revealed that OR2W1 exhibited lower binding energy with L-menthol than with

2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, suggesting higher affinity for L-menthol. In contrast,

2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine showed the lowest binding energy and highest affinity for

OR5K1. Further decomposition of binding free energies identified the top 10

contributing residues. The key residues of OR2W1 (e.g., M105$^{3.33}$, I255$^{6.51}$) and

OR5K1 (S203$^{5.43}$, V206$^{5.46}$, L255$^{6.51}$, L199$^{5.39}$) showed interactions consistent with

AlphaFold 3 predictions (Fig. 6; Fig. 7 a, b). Additionally, the root-mean-square

deviation (RMSD) of ligand heavy atoms was calculated following alignment of

protein Cα atoms using the AlphaFold 3-predicted structure as a reference (Fig. 7 c, d).

For OR2W1, L-menthol maintained an RMSD of ~0.5 nm, indicating stable binding,

while 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine displayed larger RMSD fluctuations and eventually

dissociated from the binding pocket. In OR5K1, both ligands remained bound initially,

but L-menthol departed from its original binding site around 200 ns, whereas

2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine binding remained relatively stable (Fig. 7 c, d). In both

receptor systems, 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol exhibit similar interaction

patterns, suggesting competitive binding at the active pocket. Their mutual

antagonism likely results from analogous binding modes preventing co-occupancy.

These computational findings corroborate both cellular assays and molecular

modeling results, collectively validating the reliability of AlphaFold 3 co-folding

(blind docking) predictions.

Table 2. Docking binding energy of olfactory receptors to odorants

ΔG Mean ± SEM (kcal/mol)	L-menthol	2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine
OR2W1	**-17.21 ± 0.08**	-2.65 ± 0.09
OR5K1	-4.80 ± 0.40	**-13.34 ± 0.09**

Fig. 6. Molecular docking elucidates interactions between odorants and olfactory receptors. (a)
represents the overlapping state in which L-menthol and 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine co-interact with
OR2W1; and (b) represents the overlapping state in which 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol
co-interact with OR5K1; (c) and (d) represent OR2W1 interaction modes with
2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol, respectively; (e) and (f) represent OR5K1 interaction
modes with 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol, respectively. In the 3D diagram, the green
dashed line indicates hydrophobic interactions and the purple dashed line indicates hydrogen
bonding. TMP: 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, L-MT: L-menthol

518
Fig. 7. Molecular dynamics elucidates binding of odorants and olfactory receptors. (a) represents
the 10 most important key residues in the interaction of L-menthol with OR2W1; (b) represents
the 10 most important key residues in the interaction of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine with OR5K1; (c)
represents the RMSD of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (green), L-menthol (yellow), and OR2W1 within
200 ns; and (d) represents the RMSD of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (green), L-menthol (yellow), and
OR5K1 within 200 ns. TMP: 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, L-MT: L-menthol

4 DISCUSSION

Flavor perception is a highly complex process. In the sensory evaluation of food

flavors, common methods include the duo-trio test, two-out-of-five test, and 3-AFC

test. Among these, the 3-AFC test combined with the S-curve model demonstrates

outstanding performance in terms of stability and accuracy and has been applied to

flavor analysis across various food categories [41-43]. Through this method, our results

demonstrate suppressed olfactory perception of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine in the

presence of L-menthol, explaining the diminished baked aromas observed with

menthol-containing spices. Furthermore, bidirectional masking between

2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol was observed (Fig. 1 and Table 1), consistent

with the pattern reported for many binary aromatic compounds [26]. Nevertheless, the

3-AFC method has inherent limitations that can lead to variability in sensory data.

These limitations include chemical complexity of odorants, intricacy of human

perception, and susceptibility of human evaluators to fatigue during prolonged testing

and psychological bias in judgment [44]. For example, unlike 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine

(primarily perceived olfactorily), L-menthol exerts broader physiological effects [8, 45].

As a trigeminal stimulant, L-menthol activates TRPM8 receptors and may modulate

olfactory perception via cross-modal interactions, as shown for cooling compounds

like L-isopulegol altering citrus aroma perception [46]. In addition, odor samples in this

experiment were prepared via solution mixing, and the combination of different

odorants may induce potential concentration changes of individual

components—particularly the gaseous fraction post-volatilization. Exploring

alternative odor sample preparation methods beyond solution mixing can be

incorporated into future research to optimize olfactory perception protocols, including

but not limited to developing gas-phase direct premixing of odorants and establishing

an integrated system linking odorant preparation with quantitative headspace analysis

[47, 48].

Cellular assays using OR-expressing systems validated sensory findings. The first

step involved screening for olfactory receptors responsive to 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine.

Interestingly, in addition to the identified OR5K1, the results revealed that OR4S2

was also responsive at 100 μmol/L 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, highlighting the

differential response patterns of ORs across varying concentrations (Fig. 3 a).

However, despite this, the maximum response value of OR4S2 is still far from

OR5K1, so it was not considered in this study (Fig. 3 a). OR5K1, established as a

broad-spectrum pyrazine detector [49], was selected to study L-menthol's effect on

2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine response. OR2W1, responsive to L-menthol, was used to

investigate 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine's effect on L-menthol activity. A bidirectional

mutual inhibitory effect between 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol was

presented at both receptors (Fig. 4 b; Fig. 5 b). Notably, 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine

exerted weaker suppression on L-menthol-mediated OR2W1 activation than

L-menthol did on 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine-mediated OR5K1 activation. This

difference may stem from OR2W1's functional characteristics. Although OR2W1 is

not activated by 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, its broad tuning suggests that its binding

pocket is potentially promiscuous, favoring compatibility with different odorants [32,

50-52]. This contrasts with OR5K1's high selectivity for 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine,

indicating a more constrained binding architecture [53]. Consequently, L-menthol may

induce greater perturbation in the precise OR5K1-2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine interaction.

These mechanistic hypotheses require further investigation via molecular docking and

dynamics.

Elucidating odorant-receptor interactions at the molecular level offers the most

mechanistic insight into inter-odorant relationships. In human ORs, hydrogen bonding

between the compound hydroxyl group and the residues of the receptor could change

the shape of the active pocket, which in turn alters the conformation of the

transmembrane sequence and extracellular rings [54, 55]. AlphaFold3 predictions suggest

2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol competitively bind to key pockets in OR5K1

and OR2W1, respectively, with mutual inhibition likely resulting from competition at

critical residues (Fig. 6). Specifically, in OR2W1, 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine forms

hydrophobic interactions with $Y259^{6.55}$ (a residue previously shown to preferentially

interact with nonpolar molecules [56, 57]) which may disrupt the hydrogen bonding

network required for L-menthol-mediated activation (Fig. 6 c, d). Similarly, while

2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine activates OR5K1 through interactions with critical residues

($L255^{6.51}$, $S203^{5.43}$, $L199^{5.39}$), L-menthol appears to sterically hinder this activation

process when binding to these same residues (Fig. 6 e, f; Fig. 7 a, b). Molecular

dynamics simulations further revealed that 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine exhibits relatively

unstable binding in OR2W1's pocket compared to L-menthol's more stable occupation

of OR5K1's binding site (Fig. 7 c, d). The stable occupation of non-activating ligands

within orthosteric binding pockets can potentially interfere with agonist-induced

receptor activation [53]. This mechanistic insight explains why L-menthol exhibits

stronger inhibitory effects on 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine-mediated OR5K1 activation

compared to 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine's inhibition of L-menthol-OR2W1 signaling.

Furthermore, molecular simulation studies have revealed that compared to individual

odorants, mixed odorant systems often exhibit higher binding energies and less stable

binding conformations [58]. It provides additional mechanistic insights into

inter-odorant interactions. These findings collectively establish a structure-activity

relationship underlying the reciprocal inhibition between these two odorants at their

respective target receptors. While computational approaches are widely employed,

current computer-predicted models of olfactory receptor activation remain incomplete.

Comprehensive understanding requires experimental validation through site-directed

mutagenesis and cryo-EM structural determination, particularly for characterizing

odorant interactions regarding their competitive/non-competitive binding modes and

conformational effects on receptor domains [54].

Human sensory evaluation and cellular assays provide essential evidence for

odorant interactions. Combined approaches of sensory testing and OR heterologous

expression have been validated for studying olfactory interactions [1, 59], for example, in

aldehyde effects on muscone perception [60, 61]. Our study extends this paradigm by

demonstrating bidirectional masking between structurally and olfactorily distinct

L-menthol and 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine using both human psychophysics and

receptor-level functional assays. However, ORs represent primary detectors, while

holistic olfactory perception involves multidimensional complexity. Discrepancies

between receptor signaling and integrated perception arise from combinatorial coding

in human olfaction [1], where signals from >400 ORs undergo neural processing.

Therefore, sensory and cellular experiments are complementary. A comprehensive

understanding of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine interactions requires: (1) systematic analysis

of all responsive receptors, and (2) translational validation at the organismal level

(e.g., primary olfactory tissue and murine models). This could involve measuring

electrophysiological responses and biochemical changes in isolated neurons or

relevant brain regions using techniques like high-speed 3D imaging or optogenetics [62,

63]. Furthermore, while heterologous expression coupled with second messenger (e.g.,

cAMP) detection enables high-throughput OR screening, challenges include potential

signaling pathway ambiguity and interference from endogenous host cell receptors [64].

Deeper biological investigations are needed.

In conclusion, masking effect between aroma substances is widespread in natural

food systems and food processing. Our study systematically elucidates the mutual

masking effects between thermally generated 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and

spice-derived L-menthol through a multi-level approach combining sensory

evaluation, cellular assays, and molecular simulations. To scientifically determine the

human perception of the interaction between 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine and L-menthol,

a sensory evaluation was conducted using the 3-AFC approach. The results

preliminarily confirm that TMP and L-menthol exhibit mutual masking effects. And

then, receptor screening revealed OR5K1 as a highly responsive receptor for

2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, where L-menthol exhibited significant suppression of

2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine response signal. Conversely, results demonstrated an

inhibitory effect of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine on L-menthol perception via OR2W1,

with cellular-level findings consistent with sensory evaluation results. Molecular

docking and dynamics simulations provided structural insights, showing that both

odorants share similar binding modes in their respective receptors, suggesting

competitive binding as the underlying mechanism. This comprehensive investigation

offers profound mechanistic understanding of flavor interactions in food systems,

with substantial practical implications for food flavor design and optimization.

Abbreviations: TMP: 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine, L-MT: L-menthol, GC-O-MS: gas

chromatography-olfactometry-mass spectrometry, ORs: olfactory receptors, FBS:

fetal bovine serum, 3-AFC: three-alternative forced-choice, PCR: polymerase chain

reaction, DMSO: dimethyl sulfoxide

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Supporting Information: Information for *Homo sapiens* OR5K1 and OR2W1 (Table

S1); information for all ORs used for screening (excluding mutant variants) (Table

S2); interpretation of units of measure (Table S3); calculate the threshold value based

on the S-curve method (Table S4); information for the vector of target gene plasmids

(Figure S1); a cellular experimental design protocol for exploring binary interactions

of odorants (Figure S2); composition testing of binary systems (Figure S3); and

detailed instructions for sensory experiments.

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 TOC:

(a) Screening with TMP (100 μM)

2,3,5-Trimethylpyrazine

OR5K1

OR4M2

RLU /RLU max

Different kinds of olfactory receptors

(b) Screening with TMP (1000 μM)

2,3,5-Trimethylpyrazine

OR5K1

RLU /RLU max

Different kinds of olfactory receptors