Instrumental Food Texture Evaluation in Relation to Human Perception

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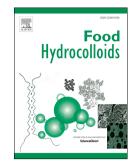
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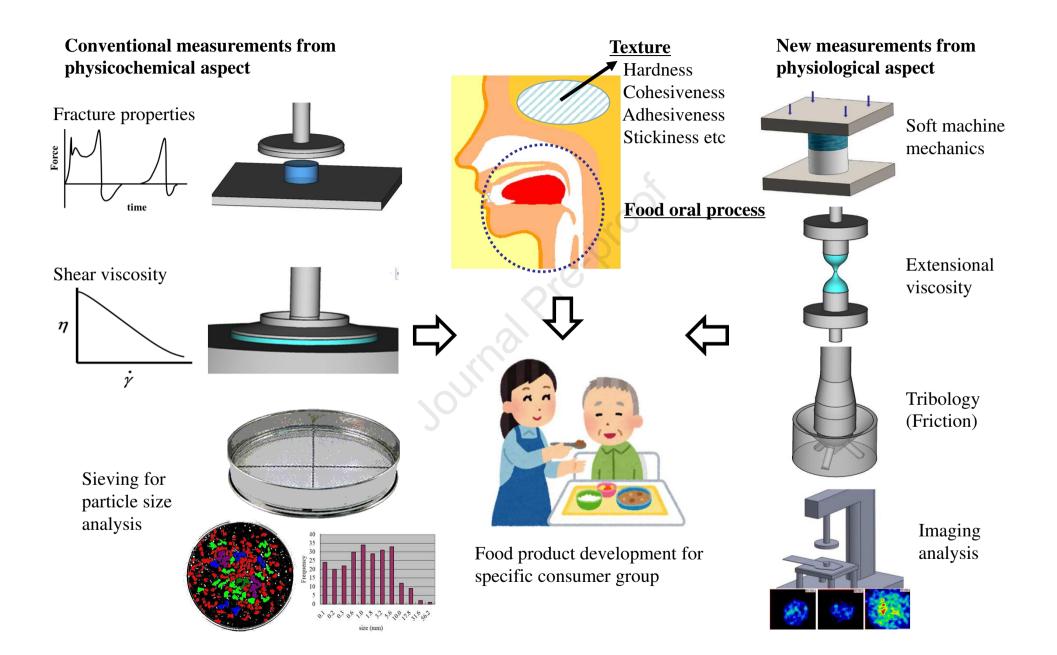
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# **Author Statement**

**Takahiro Funami:** Writing-Reviewing and Editing **Makoto Nakauma:** Writing-Reviewing and Editing

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# 6 Abstract

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7 This article reviews the relationship between food texture or mouthfeel which human perceives and 8 objective properties of foods which instruments measure. Instrumental measurements overviewed 9 cover 3 domains of physicochemical properties which govern food texture, including mechanical, 10 geometrical, and moisture- and fat-related surface properties. Research questions in this review consist 11 of research subjects, tests in focus to reach to the research subjects, and new findings from the tests 12compared to counter tests (i.e., conventional method), through which facilitation of literature search 13by readers is intended. Tests in focus correspond to instrumental measurements which take mechanics 14of food oral processing in human into account, and texture estimation and prediction through 15correlation with mechanical property is featured. This is followed by imaging analysis for evaluation 16 of geometrical property and tribology measurement for evaluation of moisture- and fat-related surface 17property for detailed description of texture from different and comprehensive approaches. Most pieces 18 of research presented in this review are concerned with texture evaluation using polysaccharide 19 emulsions, gels, and solutions as a model food, including the authors' works, referring to great 20 contribution of colloid technology to progress of texture study.

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# 22 **1. Introduction**

Foods should provide people with happiness and satisfaction, and increased palatability or eating enjoyment must be an eternal mission for food manufactures in product development. Food palatability is determined by human perception such as texture, flavor, appearance, sound, and temperature through five senses, and texture and flavor are said to be two major essential elements (Kohyama, 2005). Of these elements, importance of texture is emphasized not only from food palatability but also from eating safety in recent super-aged society which all the world is facing with to a degree. Eating safety is often related to swallowing difficulty, which is equal to dysphagia problem.

30 Texture is a whole body of mechanical, geometrical, and thermal properties of foods perceived by 31 human during a series of oral processing, including chewing and swallowing, and corresponds to 32sensory characteristics via oral and oropharyngeal organs and tissues, including teeth, tongue, hard and 33 soft palate, and throat etc. Although texture cannot be measured instrumentally but only by human, a 34common approach in food science is to evaluate relationships between texture perception by human 35and structural, rheological, and mechanical properties of foods by instruments. Instrumental 36 measurements of 'texture-related properties' with certain quantitativeness and reproducibility have 37 been required for this purpose.

38 Texture cannot be presented by any single attribute or characteristic but by a combination of multiple

39 ones (Szczesniak, 1975). A lot of researchers in different places have tried to establish terminology 40 and procedure for objective and reproducible texture evaluation applicable to wide range of foods. In 41 this pathway, it has been proposed (Szczesniak, 1963a, b) that textural properties of foods should be 42 classified into 3 domains including mechanical, geometric, and moisture- and fat-related surface 43 properties.

44In accordance with this classification, research questions in this review consist of research subjects, tests in focus to reach to the research subjects, and new findings from the tests compared to counter 4546 tests (i.e. conventional method), intended to facilitate literature search by readers depending on type 47of foods; solid and semi-solid/liquid foods. Tests in focus correspond to instrumental measurements 48which take mechanics of human food oral processing into account, and texture estimation and prediction through correlation with mechanical property is featured. This is presented by soft machine 49 50mechanics compared to TPA for characterization of solid foods in chewing and extensional 51viscosity/dynamic viscoelasticity measurements compared to shear viscosity measurement for 52characterization of liquid foods in swallowing, progressed as complementary or even to overcome 53conventional drawbacks for obtaining of new findings. Imaging analysis for evaluation of geometrical 54property and tribology measurement for evaluation of moisture- and fat-related surface property are 55then featured for detailed description of texture from different and comprehensive approaches. 56Important role of hydrocolloids in texture study is also presented in this article, ascribing to easiness of mechanical control or essential ingredients themselves in processed foods. In this context, most 5758pieces of research presented in this review are concerned with texture evaluation using polysaccharide 59emulsions, gels, and solutions as a model food, including the authors' works, referring to great 60 contribution of colloid technology to progress of texture study.

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# 62 **1. Mechanical properties of foods and human perception during food oral processing**

# 63 1.1 Size reduction of solid foods

# 64 1.1.1 Background and conventional technology

65 Five primary parameters have been proposed to present mechanical property of foods including 'hardness', 'cohesiveness', 'viscosity', 'springiness', and 'adhesiveness' (Szczesniak, 1963a, b). 66 67 According to definition, 'hardness' corresponds to the stress required to deform a food to a certain 68 deformation. Similarly, 'cohesiveness' presents mechanical intensity of internal bonding within the 69 food structure, and 'viscosity' the resistance against flow. Also, 'springiness' is defined as the time 70required for deformation recovery of a food upon unloading, and 'adhesiveness' as the amount of work 71required to overcome the adhesion force generated between surfaces of a food and substances with 72which the food comes into contact. Despite some discrepancies against scientifically validated terms 73in physics, these terms are clear in definition and are recognized as presenting food texture.

The simplest method for objective texture measurement should be uniaxial compression test to define mechanical property of solid foods in bulk. Uniaxial compression is to detect changes in stress and strain when a sample is compressed vertically without lateral pressure, and Texture Profile

77 Analysis (TPA) has been widely used so far in texture study in line with this concept. In the original 78TPA procedure developed by a research group of General Foods (Friedman, Whitney, & Szczesniak, 791963; Szczesniak, 1963), a food sample shaped to a certain dimension and shape is compressed twice 80 in a reciprocation manner at a constant speed using a plunger. Movement of plunger is semicircular, 81 simulating human jaw action during chewing. TPA is, therefore, a large deformation test. The original 82 procedure is modified by Bourne by using uniaxial compression machine, expanding usage of TPA. 83 Surface area of plunger should be equal to or larger than that of the food sample, and relative 84 deformation is usually recommended to be 90% or more (Bourne, 2002b). The load (stress) -time 85 (strain) curve obtained in this way is called TPA curve, from which the primary parameters, including 86 'hardness', 'fracturability' (or 'brittleness'), 'springiness', 'cohesiveness', and 'adhesiveness' and the secondary parameters including 'gumminess' and 'chewiness' as a product of these primary 87 88 parameters are obtained (Bourne, 2002b). A typical TPA curve and the definition/calculation for each 89 parameter are presented (Fig. 1). Although TPA is frequently used by food researchers as it enables 90 simultaneous measurement of multiple texture-related mechanical parameters, inconsistency with 91 human perception would be the case for texture evaluation.

92For example, low TPA "cohesiveness" has been indicted even for cohesive foods such as chewing 93 gum, which do not undergo complete fracture and fragmentation due to its internal binding (Pons and 94Fiszman, 1996). As far as the authors know, there have been few reports that perceived "adhesiveness" can be measured correctly by TPA, except for the case of cooked rice grains (Matsuo, Takaya, Miwa, 95 96 Moritaka, & Nishinari, 2002). A factor explaining discrepancy between TPA and human perception in 97 texture may lie in difference in material and movement of geometry on uniaxial compression apparatus 98from those of food oral processing in human. Human oral cavity has complex structure constituting of 99 many organs and tissues, including teeth, gums, tongue, hard and soft palates etc., and constituents 100other than teeth and hard palate are soft materials of viscoelastic properties.

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## 102 **1.1.2 Soft machine mechanics**

103 For solid foods with soft texture, bolus is formed by squeezing between the tongue and the hard 104 palate without chewing. Human changes strategy of bolus formation depending on food texture via 105perception of hardness as a principal attribute. Instrumental measurements usually use hard geometries, 106 and size reduction or decomposition of foods by squeezing cannot be fully recreated in this way. This 107 can result in clear difference in fracture properties between foods decomposed by squeezing and those 108 decomposed by chewing. This discrepancy can be caused by deformation of the tongue in food oral 109 processing, which is not considered in a conventional hard machine. In vitro texture evaluation system 110 using simulated or artificial tongue made of soft material on a uniaxial compression machine has been 111 established to reproduce oral conditions of squeezing (Ishihara et al., 2013, 2014; Kohyama, Ishihara, 112Nakauma, & Funami, 2019).

Load is applied to food sample tested (agar gel in this case) through compression between a soft material simulating the tongue and a metal probe simulating the hard palate (Fig. 2) (Ishihara et al., 1152013). When deformation of food sample is larger than that of simulated tongue, the sample is fractured, 116whereas the sample is not fractured when deformation of the sample is equal to or smaller than that of 117 simulated tongue. When apparent elastic modulus of simulated tongue is ca.  $5.5 \times 10^4$  Pa, whether or 118 not food sample is fractured corresponds to oral strategy for size reduction in human; squeezing or 119 chewing. It is also suggested that human may detect a difference in deformation between food and the 120 tongue in relatively small strain region (i.e., ca. 10% strain) for determination of oral strategy for size 121reduction. In vitro texture evaluation system is believed to be effective particularly in developing foods 122for people with chewing and/or swallowing difficulty.

123 In vitro texture evaluation system presented in Fig. 2 has been validated using gellan gum gels as 124test sample (Ishihara et al., 2014). It is shown that modification of some operation conditions should 125be necessary in some cases in relation to physiological modulation of tongue-palate compression by 126food texture. This modulation can occur during consumption of highly deformable gels and is recreated 127instrumentally by decreasing tongue-palate compression speed and increasing the maximum 128deformation (i.e. decrease in the clearance) or by incorporating tongue excitation and shear loading by 129the tongue. The first factor is realized by decreasing crosshead speed (from 10 to 5 mm/s) in relation 130 to the stress relaxation, a phenomenon of energy dissipation enhanced at lower deformation speed 131 (Luyten & van Vliet, 1995). The second factor is realized by increasing the Young's modulus of 132simulated tongue (from ca. 55 to ca. 110 kPa). Slope of time course curve for tongue pressure during the first size reduction is almost independent of physical properties (texturally brittle or deformable) 133 134 or consistency (soft or hard) of polysaccharide gels (Hori et al., 2015). Based on this finding, it is 135reasonable to think that decrease in tongue-palate compression speed should give rise to increased 136 tongue pressure. Actually, lowering crosshead speed and/or increasing Young's modulus of simulated 137 tongue is certainly effective for texture evaluation of highly deformable samples. Incorporation of 138shear force and increasing the maximum deformation should be mechanical challenges. Usage of 139simulated tongue of larger size should be another option since surface contact area between food and 140 the tongue may be larger in consuming highly deformable gels. As definition of 'highly deformable', 141 its boundary should be at ca. 60%-70% as the initial fracture strain (Ishihara et al., 2014). Human can 142decide oral strategy for size reduction by sensing dynamically difference in strain between food and 143the tongue during oral processing (Kohyama, 2015). Fracture strain has been emphasized as a dominant 144mechanical parameter for decision of oral strategy for size reduction (Arai & Yamada, 1993), and this 145is the same as determination of the biting speed (Mioche & Peyron, 1995).

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## 147 *1.2 Swallowing of semi-solid or liquid foods*

# 148 **1.2.1 Background and conventional technology**

Fundamental methods commonly used for measurement of rheological properties of semisolid/liquid foods are steady flow and dynamic (oscillation) tests to know viscous and viscoelastic behavior of sample tested, respectively. For these measurements, a rotational strain-control rheometer is often used by using a geometry of concentric cylinder, parallel plate, or cone-plate, selection of 153which depends on nature and applicable amount of sample tested. National Dysphagia Diet (NDD) 154(2002) defines four levels of viscosity intensity, including thin (0-50 mPas), nectar-like (51-350 mPas), 155honey-like (351-1750 mPas), and pudding-like (> 1750 mPas) based on viscosity measurement using a rotational rheometer at a shear rate of 50 s<sup>-1</sup> at 25 °C. Recent studies have indicated that 'physiological' 156157shear rate during swallowing is likely to be influenced by bolus viscosity and that a single shear rate 158is unlikely to cover overall viscosity range (Ong, Steele, & Duizer, 2018). Based on characteristic 159shear rate, which corresponds to a crossover shear rate between non-Newtonian and Newtonian fluids 160showing equivalent deformation rate of bolus during swallowing (Zhu, Mizunuma, & Michiwaki, 2014), 'physiological' share rates are estimated to be 120 and 990 s<sup>-1</sup> in the mesopharyngeal and 161 hypopharyngeal in healthy adults, respectively, independent of viscosity (Mizunuma, Sonomura, & 162163 Shimokasa, 2020). As clearly, these shear rates are higher than 50 s<sup>-1</sup> adopted by NDD.

Most liquid foods show shear-thinning, which can be described by Power Law Model (Cho & Yoo, 164 1652015; Talens, Castells, Verdú, Barat, & Grau, 2021). Yield stress, a stress at which flow begins (Bourne, 166 2002a), is another important rheological parameter for management of dysphagia foods as it presents 167 degrees of internal binding force and structural order (Moelants et al., 2013). Yield stress is determined by fitting steady flow curve (shear stress/rate curve) with Bingham, Casson, or Herschel-Bulkley 168 169 model or by the maximum elastic stress (i.e., dynamic storage modulus G' multiplied by strain) as a 170result of replotting as a function of strain (Walls, Caines, Sanchez, & Khan, 2003). Structural fluids lead to one coherent bolus formation and swallowing ease and is quantified by yield stress (Nakauma, 171 172Ishihara, Funami, & Nishinari, 2011). Yield stress thus can work as as a rheological criterion for bolus 173cohesiveness and perceived swallowing ease (Nakauma et al., 2011). In a study on correlation between 174mechanical properties and swallowing ease of paste-like foods thickened with starch, xanthan gum, or 175sodium carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC-Na), addition of CMC-Na strengthens mechanical interaction 176between particles, resulting in the highest yield stress and showing suitability to dysphagia foods (Abu 177 Zarim, Zainul Abidin, & Ariffin, 2018). Formation of cohesive bolus should be essential to minimize 178its disintegration during oral processing and to provide sense of swallowing ease with liquid and semi-179solid foods.

180 Some studies have evidenced that extensional flow property should be important equal to shear flow 181 property for texture evaluation of semi-liquid/liquid foods during oral processing (Debruijne, 182Hendrickx, Alderliesten, & Delooff, 1993; van Vliet, 2002; Koliandris et al., 2011). Viscoelastic fluids 183 can clearly exhibit different flow properties between shear and extension deformations. For food 184 ingredients, a macromolecule with relatively rigid conformation such as xanthan gum shows 185differences in flow behavior by deformation mode. As extensional flow occurs not only in food 186 manufacturing process such as extrusion but also in food oral processing such as swallowing, it is 187 presumed that extensional viscosity should have effects on food texture. However, due to limitation of 188 instruments which can easily and precisely measure extensional viscosity, less studies have been 189 carried out compared to shear viscosity.

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# 191 *1.2.2 Extension rheology*

192 Tensile separation behavior has been analyzed using commercially available fluid food products, 193 confirming that the maximum tensile force and work till the maximum force both highly correlate to 194 stickiness perceived using fingers (not in oral) (Chen et al., 2008). Although their method is similar to 195that for TPA adhesiveness, importance lies in optimization of experimental set-up, including 196 instrumental operation conditions and selection of mechanical parameters to discuss correlation with 197 perception. Pressure drop and cavitation due to rapid extensional flow can be critical for stickiness 198 perception. Using the same experimental set-up, perceived swallowing difficulty highly correlate to 199 the maximum stretching force and the work of stretching for fluid foods (Chen & Lolivret, 2011). Thus, 200 food bolus difficult to deform upon extension (i.e., with low stretch-ability) and larger in extensional 201viscosity tend to show longer oral residual time until swallowing and perception of more difficult to 202swallow.

203 For more preciseness, a novel device using real-time optical detection has been proposed 204(Bazilevsky et al., 1990). On this device, a small amount of liquid sample sandwiched between two 205plates is stretched rapidly by pulling the upper plate away from the lower plate at a certain speed, 206applying extensional deformation to the sample for formation of liquid filament. The filament is shrunk 207 by capillary force, in which the surface tension works as shear stress and reduces the surface area of 208the filament. Temporal change in diameter at the midpoint of the filament (i.e.,  $D_{mid}$ ) is monitored with 209 a laser-type micrometer, from which extensional viscosity can be calculated (Fig. 3). This type of 210instrument has contributed to the progress of research on extensional viscosity for foods or food 211ingredients.

212As a representative study using polysaccharide solutions as a model liquid food, human 213discrimination thresholds in perceiving extensional viscosity compared to shear viscosity has been 214investigated (Lv et al., 2017). Results indicate that ability to discriminate extensional viscosity is 215higher than that to discriminate shear viscosity, confirming that extensional viscosity is critical for 216textural characterization of liquid foods. Correlation between texture of solutions thickened by xanthan 217gum and several rheological parameters has been studied (He et al., 2016), confirming that perceived 218 thickness, stickiness, and mouth coating show higher correlation with extensional viscosity than shear 219 viscosity and that accuracy of prediction can be increased by incorporating extensional viscosity as 220 one of independent explanatory variables. It is also reported that perceived mouthfeel correlates well 221to shear viscosity at low shear rates ( $< 100 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), whereas perceived thickness correlates well to dynamic 222complex viscosity at 100 rad/s, confirming that some textural attributes should be evaluated by 223regression model incorporating multiple rheological parameters.

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#### 225 **1.2.3** Dynamic viscoelasticity measurements

Rheological measurements in linear stress-strain region may provide useful information on texture evaluation rather than measurements under a large deformation condition in some cases. As a representative, correlation between dynamic viscoelasticity and perceived swallowing ease

(swallowability) will be presented in this section. People with impaired swallowing function or dysphagia patients are often fed with thickened liquids or jellies and puddings. This is because bolus from these foods is said to transfer at relatively slow speed through the pharyngeal phase while swallowing. Although subjects are healthy volunteers, studies by Tashiro et al. (2010) outlines the relationship between dynamic viscoelasticity of sol-like foods and bolus transfer velocity through the pharyngeal phase measured with ultrasound pulse Doppler method (Tashiro, Hasegawa, Kohyama, Kumagai, & Kumagai, 2010).

236 From to the frequency dependence of dynamic viscoelasticity, mechanical spectra for 237 polysaccharide solutions tested correspond to solution (for CMC-Na), structured solution (for xanthan 238gum), and concentrated solution of chain polymer (for guar gum). Despite thickeners showing different 239mechanical spectra, the maximum velocity of bolus transfer in the pharyngeal phase correlates to 240complex viscosity and steady shear viscosity. Angular frequency of 25 rad/s shows higher correlation than 2.5 rad/s for complex viscosity, whereas shear rate of 25 s<sup>-1</sup> shows higher correlation than 2.5 s<sup>-1</sup> 241for steady shear viscosity (Fig. 4) (Tashiro et al., 2010). As a conclusion, to obtain equivalent level of 242243the maximum velocity as yogurt (i.e., 0.2 m/s), which is known practically as hardly generates misleading of food bolus, dynamic viscosity  $\eta'$ , complex viscosity  $\eta^*$ , and steady shear viscosity  $\eta$ 244require 0.4-1.4 Pa·s at 25 rad/s, 0.9-4.2 Pa·s at 25 rad/s, and 0.5-1.8 Pa·s at 25 s<sup>-1</sup> in this order. These 245246can work as an objective indicator for perceived swallowing ease (or swallowing difficulty) and should 247be useful for development of dysphagia foods.

248In relation to swallowing ease, acoustic analysis of swallowing sound has been investigated as a 249different approach using polysaccharide solutions from xanthan gum and locust bean gum as a model 250liquid food and young healthy adults panel (Nakauma et al., 2011). Acoustic analysis is used for 251diagnostic purpose in biomedical field (Lazareck & Moussavi, 2004) but seldom in texture study. 252Representative acoustic profile is illustrated in the case of swallowing water (Fig. 5), where the profile 253is divided into three parts, each of which is assigned to closure of the epiglottis  $(t_1)$ , flow of food bolus 254 $(t_2)$ , and opening of the epiglottis  $(t_3)$  in order of occurrence (Hamlet, Patterson, Fleming, & Jones, 2551992). Relationship between duration of each oral event and texture perception during swallowing is 256a target for investigation.

257Duration of  $t_2$  for xanthan gum solutions decreases with increasing its concentration despite 258viscosity increase (ca. 60% decrease when viscosity is increased from 0.001 to 1.61 Pas at 10 s<sup>-1</sup>). 259Whereas duration of  $t_2$  for locust bean gum solutions is much less concentration-dependent (ca. 15%) 260decrease when viscosity is increased from 0.001 to 1.53 Pas at 10 s<sup>-1</sup>) and is consistently larger than 261that for xanthan gum solutions when compared at equivalent shear viscosity (Fig. 6). From sensory 262evaluation on a visual analogue scale, 0.6% xanthan is scored the highest (av. score 80.2) in perceived 263swallowing ease, whereas 0.75% locust is scored the lowest (av. score 21.3). Duration of  $t_2$  correlates well to perceived swallowing ease and to perceived cohesiveness. It is postulated that xanthan gum 264265solutions can flow as one coherent bolus through the pharyngeal phase with smaller variation of flow 266velocity than locust bean gum solutions, leading to a greater sensation of swallowing ease. Structured solution is a rheological requirement for increased perceived swallowing ease. This rheological nature
can be quantified by yield stress of ca. 7.0-9.0 Pa in combination with steady shear viscosity of ca. 0.91.2 Pas at 10 s<sup>-1</sup>.

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# 271 **2.** Geometrical properties of foods and human perception during food oral processing

# 272 2.1 Background and conventional technology

273Research target of imaging analysis has been exclusively solid foods, and no research on semi-solid 274or even liquid foods is found. Food in bulk structure is broken down into particulates during oral 275processing, followed by bolus formation through mixture with saliva prior to swallowing. Therefore, 276 it is expected that geometrical properties of particulates in bolus should influence greatly food texture. 277 Geometric properties of particulates include size and shape after fracture, and the size can be evaluated 278by mechanical sieving or image analysis. Sieving is particulate separation of different mesh sizes 279through a single or multiple sieve(s). By sieving of expectorated bolus at different stages of food oral 280 processing, its dynamic changes can be determined through average particle size and size distribution 281as a merkmal. Bolus particulates from fibrous or heterogeneous foods are highly variable in their size 282and shape (Eberhard et al., 2012; Olthoff, van der Bilt, Bosman, & Kleizen, 1984). Since bolus 283particulates generally bear irregular shapes, and particulate characteristics depend on assumption of 284simulation model used (i.e., assuming spherical, cubic, ellipsoid etc.), highly accurate information can 285be obtained by imaging analysis in general. Effects of de-structuring process on texture perception 286 have been investigated using hydrocolloid gels by imaging analysis.

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# 288 2.2 Imaging analysis of bolus and computer simulation of bolus formation for solid foods

289Attempts have been made for texture evaluation by measuring size and shape of particulates in food 290bolus. Temporal changes in the particle size distribution of food bolus have been investigated while 291chewing two types of polysaccharide gels; gellan gum single gel and gellan/psyllium seed gum mixture 292gel as a model of viscoelastic foods (Ishihara, Nakauma, Funami, Odake, & Nishinari, 2011). 293Instrumental compression of the gels is performed with shear in a reciprocating manner to mimic 294human jaw action in the presence or absence of artificial (simulated) saliva (Fig. 7) to obtain model 295bolus. A food color from red cabbage extract in emulsion is used to help visualization, and model bolus 296 dyed with the food color and dehydrated and immobilized onto a filter paper is scanned by a color 297 image scanner, followed by image processing using a software based on a certain HSI (hue, saturation, 298and intensity) value threshold. Results indicate higher structural homogeneity of model bolus from the 299 mixture gel compared to that from the gellan single gel. For each gel sample, cumulative particulate 300 size distribution of model bolus can be reduced logarithmically with a normal curve regardless of the 301 addition level of saliva. Mean particulate size of model bolus from the mixture gel is generally larger 302 than that for gellan single gels when compared at equivalent gel hardness (i.e., 1000 and 4000 Pa) and 303 is less influenced by the addition level of saliva (Fig. 8). Based on the particulate size distribution of 304 model bolus, coefficients of skewness and kurtosis for the composite gels tend to be larger than those

305 for gellan single gels when compared at equivalent gel hardness (Fig. 8). Here, skewness indicates 306 degree of asymmetry of the distribution around its mean. Positive (negative) values indicate that the 307 distribution has an asymmetrical tail extending out toward more positive (negative) direction. The 308 larger the absolute value, the more asymmetric the distribution is. Kurtosis designates the relative 309 sharpness of the distribution relative to normal distribution. The larger the value, the sharper the 310 distribution is. Different study indicates that food bolus from agar gels of relatively small fracture 311 strain contains more small particulates, leading to greater perception of graininess and graininess, 312whereas the bolus from gelatin gels of relatively large fracture strain contains less small particulates, 313 leading to greater perception of creaminess in combination with effect of its melting behavior in the 314 mouth (Devezeaux de Lavergne et al., 2016). It has been also indicated that gels of high fracture stress 315require increased masticatory muscle activity in chewing, leading to greater perception of hardness 316 and graininess.

Progress in image processing has upgraded technology for food bolus analysis. Some characteristics obtained by imaging analysis, including gray-level histograms, histogram of shape area, and gray level co-occurrence matrix, have been calculated using double layered gels consisting of agar and gelatin colored in either white or black as a feeding sample (Tournier et al., 2017) (Fig. 9), confirming high correlation with gel texture. It has been also indicated that agar layer dominates bolus properties, whereas the presence of gelatin should have impacts on dynamics of gel breakdown.

323 Textural attributes of gelled foods, including smoothness, elasticity (i.e., springiness), stickiness, 324 and granularity, are greatly influenced by both mechanical and geometric characteristics before and 325after fracture. Therefore, a method which can simultaneously evaluate both characteristics is required. 326 Usage of multipoint pressure sensor sheet should be one of the approaches, and in this context, 327 temporal and spatial changes in pressure distribution have been detected during compression of cracker 328 (as a representative of solid foods) on the sensor sheet of  $44 \times 44$  mm size and with a spatial resolution 329 of 1 mm (Kohyama, Nishi, & Suzuki, 1997). Usage of this sensor sheet expands to viscoelastic foods 330 such as bread and agar gel (Kohyama, Sasaki, & Dan, 2003; Dan, Okuhara, & Kohyama, 2004), and a 331 method for estimating food structure from pressure distribution data has been developed (Dan, Azuma, 332 & Kohyama, 2007). As advanced, food texture can be estimated by characterizing concentration level 333 distribution images, which is transformed from pressure distribution data during compression of test 334 sample on this sensor sheet using gels from polysaccharides (gellan, xanthan, guar, carrageenen, locust 335 bean etc.) and gelatin (Fig. 10) (Shibata, Ikegami, Nakao, Ishihara, Nakauma, & Higashimori, 2016). 336 As underlying principle, human perceives changes in shape and contact force simultaneously on the 337 tongue, and based on these inputs, texture is evaluated while chewing.

Optimization of this artificial vision system enables accurate prediction of texture using commercially available puddings and jellies (Nakauma, Ikegami, Funami, Shibata, & Higashimori, 2021). Furthermore, mechanical learning through Convolutional Neural Network elevated accuracy of the system (Shibata, Ikegami, Nakauma, & Higashimori, 2017). A series of these imaging analyses has evidenced that food texture associated with geometrical property relates to structure of relatively large size (e.g., in 1 mm order) as it is evaluated by optical imaging with no need of microscopic magnification and by a device like sensor sheet with relatively low spatial resolution. These findings emphasize the necessity of observation on temporal and spatial changes of particulates in food bolus for texture study.

347 Texture attributes, including granularity, meltiness, creaminess of gels perceived at later part of oral 348 processing, are presented by dynamic changes in fluidity and geometric property of food bolus 349 (Devezeaux de Lavergne, van Delft, van de Velde, van Boekel, & Stieger, 2015a), and to describe 350 these textural attributes, combined usage of sensory evaluations based on quantitative descriptive 351analysis (ODA), temporal dominance of sensation (TDS), and progressive profiling would be 352recommended (Devezeaux de Lavergne, van Delft, van de Velde, van Boekel, & Stieger, 2015b). Food 353 texture should be evaluated as series of oral processing beginning from the first bite to swallowing via 354bolus formation, and understanding on the relationship between texture perception and dynamics of 355structure changes during food oral processing should be a rational approach to food product design 356 (Foegeding, Stieger, & van de Velde, 2017). Since food structure plays the key role on overall 357 breakdown pattern and sensory perception, method proposed by Shibata et al. is valid as a 358 comprehensive texture evaluation.

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# 360 3. Moisture- and fat-related surface properties of foods and human perception during food oral 361 processing

# 362 **3.1 Background and conventional technology**

363 Although moisture- and fat-related texture is a complicated sensation and difficult to present, various 364 attempts have been made so far. It is considered that human perceptions, including thickness, 365 smoothness, and slipperiness, and judgment of swallowing initiation should be largely due to bulk and 366 surface properties of food bolus. Therefore, tribological approach for measurement of friction and 367 lubrication between food and human tissue or organ during food oral processing is rational. Surface 368 properties of foods can be evaluated by imaging techniques. For example, atomic force microscopy 369 (AFM) has been used to image surface properties of materials, including food or food ingredients 370 (Majd et al., 2014; Wan et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2020). AFM visualizes that epigallocatechin gallate 371 aggregates salivary proteins to inhibit formation of mucosal pellicle structures that contribute to 372 salivary lubrication, presuming that this should be the cause of astringency sensation of tannins 373 (Ployon et al., 2018). Small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) is also known as a method for assessing 374surface properties of materials. In food areas, lipid crystals (Pink, Townsend, Peyronel, Co, & 375 Marangoni, 2017), protein aggregation (de Kruif, Huppertz, Urban, & Petukhov, 2012), surface 376 structure of starch granules (Blazek & Gilbert, 2011), and fibrous molecular structures of alginate 377 (Schuster, Wallin, Klose, Gold, & Ström, 2017) and curdlan (Maki, Furusawa, Dobashi, Sugimoto, & 378 Wakabayashi, 2017) have been evaluated by SAXS in relation to surface properties. Actually, friction 379 coefficient of polyacrylamide hydrogels has been demonstrated to negatively correlate with mesh size 380 of gel structure (Urueña et al., 2015), and this finding may be applicable to hydrogels from food

polysaccharides. However, since these imaging techniques can evaluate a limited area of food surface
in a stationary state, it can be difficult to evaluate changes in overall surface properties during dynamics
of human feeding such as chewing. Therefore, sufficient information may not be obtained by these
imaging techniques on correlation with texture.

385

# 386 **3.2** Tribology for lubrication

# 387 *3.2.1 Instrumental development for tribology measurement*

388 Geometry using soft materials has been developed for recreation of friction behavior between food 389 and soft oral surface during oral processing. Hardness and surface roughness of the tongue can be 390 critical in oral tribology, and these attributes should be considered in establishing experimental 391 equipment and its operation condition. Efforts have been made to better recreate human oral 392 physiology by using tongue tissue from animals or polymer surfaces to mimic wetness and 393 deformability of human tongue (Dresselhuis, de Hoog, Cohen Stuart, & van Aken, 2008; Carpenter et 394 al., 2019), and in line with these efforts, polydimethylsiloxane and frosted glass were proposed to 395human tongue and palate alternatives, respectively (Bongaerts et al., 2007). Based on this knowledge, 396 Anton Paar (Gratz, Austria) has upgraded a modular rheometer by introducing a geometry consisting 397 of glass balls as a plunger and PDMS pins and plates as flooring (Fig. 11) for tribology measurement, and this has contributed greatly to the progress of food lubrication study (Baier et al., 2009; Biegler et 398 al., 2016; Carvalho-da-Silva et al., 2013; Kieserling, Schalow, & Drusch 2018; Kim, Wolf, & Baier, 399 400 2015; Krzeminski, Wohlhüter, Heyer, Utz, & Hinrichs, 2012; Pondicherry, Rummel, & Laeuger, 2018; 401 Sonne, Busch-Stockfisch, Weiss, & Hinrichs, 2014).

402 It has been found using this instrument that perceived creaminess of emulsified foods highly 403 correlates to friction coefficient (Chen & Stokes, 2012). Subsequent studies have contributed to 404 evaluation of perceived richness and fattiness of foods containing fats and oils, microgels, or both 405 (Stokes, Boehm, & Baier, 2013; Liu, Stieger, van der Linden, & van de Velde, 2015; Godoi, Bhandari, 406 & Prakash, 2017; Laiho, Williams, Poelman, Appelqvist, & Logan, 2017). Relationship between 407 texture and friction coefficient has been investigated at entrainment speed of 50 mm/s, which is within 408 the mixed lubrication regime in the Stribeck curve for microgel samples from the mixture of 409 carrageenan and either of locust bean gum, sodium alginate, or calcium alginate, and using PDMS 410 wetted with saliva as a substrate, and correlation is found between friction coefficient and pasty or 411 slippery perception, while not with smoothness perception due to inhomogeneity of samples tested 412(Krop et al., 2019).

413

# 414 **3.2.2** Tribology for solid food bolus

Although main target for tribology measurement should be liquid or semi-solid foods, investigation on texture of solid foods such as apples has also been performed (Kim et al., 2020). Four texture attributes of apples, including crisp, juicy, mealy, and melt rate, correlate with friction coefficient detected in liner reciprocating motion of probe, while do not with friction coefficient detected in

419 rotational mode of probe at fixed rotation rate. It is concluded that correlation with texture perception 420 should be higher when friction coefficient is determined through dynamic movement closer to that of 421human tongue compared to through steady movement. Perceived creaminess and fattiness of soft solid 422foods such as cream cheese correlate with lubrication behavior in low entrainment speeds (e.g., 1-100 423 mm/s) (Malone, Appelqvist, & Norton, 2003a), where friction coefficient for full-fat type is apparently 424 smaller than that for either low-fat or non-fat type (Laguna, Farrell, Bryant, Morina, & Sarkar, 2017). 425Reduction in friction coefficient is also seen in cream cheese with increased perceived cohesiveness, 426 thickness, and smoothness by addition of  $\beta$ -glucan and phytosterols (Ningtyas, Bhandari, Bansal, & 427 Prakash, 2019). For O/W emulsions, correlation between friction coefficient and perceived fattiness 428has been investigated using samples of equivalent shear viscosity at 50 s<sup>-1</sup> (Malone et al., 2003 a), 429showing that lubrication behavior can change by emulsifier used and particle size and distribution of 430 oil droplets in the emulsions.

431

# 432 **3.2.3** Tribology for liquid food bolus

433Using aqueous guar gum solutions, friction coefficient of test sample between substances (i.e., steel 434ball and elastomer with rough surface) and relationship with human perceptions have been investigated 435(Malone et al., 2003 a). Friction coefficient at the entrainment speed of ca. 100 mm/s shows the highest 436 correlation with perceived thickness, and this entrainment speed lies in the mixed lubrication regime 437 in the Stribeck curve. From this result, it is considered that perceived thickness should be governed by 438 effects from both friction and viscosity. In addition, study on soft tribology for dysphagia thickeners 439 has shown that beverage thickened by gum-based formulation is better in lubrication capacity than that 440 thickened by starch-based one, resulting in low perceived stickiness (as a unfavorable attribute) and in 441 high swallowing ease (as a favorable attribute) (Vieira et al., 2020). Furthermore, a negative correlation 442is confirmed between friction coefficient and perceived smoothness, stickiness, or coating for acidified 443 milk beverages stabilized with pectin or CMC-Na as a single ingredient or in combination with guar 444 gum, locust bean gum, and gellan gum (Liu, Pedersen, Knarreborg, Ipsen, & Bredie, 2020). Positive 445correlation between friction coefficient and sensory attributes such as sour taste and citrus and 446 buttermilk flavors has been also reported by the same research group. This effect can be explained by 447polysaccharide concentration as it correlates negatively with friction coefficient.

448 In discussing the relationship between tribological behavior and texture, attention should be paid in 449 selection of measurement conditions such as entrainment speed (corresponding to tongue movement 450speed) and normal force (corresponding to tongue compressive force). Interaction with saliva should 451be also considered. Decrease in friction coefficient for highly viscous fluids such as polysaccharide 452solutions can be explained by two mechanisms. One is the function of polysaccharide polymer layer 453to mechanically prevent tongue-palate contact, and the other is function of polysaccharide thickening 454to suppress turbulence in the contact area (Malone et al., 2003a). Therefore, at high entrainment rates, 455effect of the polysaccharide source on lubrication properties is negligible when fluid viscosity is high 456enough to suppress turbulence. This mechanism can also be applied to hydrocolloids added to solid

foods such as cream cheese described above (Ningtyas et al., 2019). Saliva is a good lubricant with 457friction coefficient on smooth surfaces of  $10^{-2}$  order, forming lubricating and wear-resistant film on 458459oral surface by combination of relatively high molecular-weight glycoprotein mucin and low 460 molecular-weight protein (Pradal & Stokes, 2016). Generally, saliva is effective of reducing friction 461 between surfaces, which is explained in principle by interaction between the surface and mucin. 462 Mucin has amphipathic properties with both hydrophobic and hydrophilic regions and is thought to 463 govern barrier properties of salivary membrane (Pradal et al., 2016). Salivary membrane has 464 heterogeneous structure in which hydrophilic region of mucin (in extended form) forms a lubricating layer and hydrophobic region is adsorbed on the surface as an anchor layer (Macakova, Yakubov, 465 466 Plunkett, & Stokes, 2011). Osmotic pressure of the lubricating layer containing mucin and other small 467 molecular proteins increases by deformation upon loading. As a result, a force opposite to the load is 468 generated, and effective load and thus friction coefficient decrease (Klein, 1996). It has also been 469 reported that solvent ions change polymer conformation such as polysaccharides, reducing interaction 470 between these polymers and surface and thus friction (Macakova et al., 2011).

471Astringency, one of the main quality factors of red wine, black tea, and some fruit products, can also 472be friction-associated perception composed of dryness and puckering feeling. Using a mixture of 473 human whole saliva and typical astringent compounds such as tannins, mechanism of astringency 474perception was investigated in relation to the lubrication behavior (Brossard et al., 2016). A correlation 475was found between the friction coefficient at a relatively low entrainment speed; 0.075 mm/s and 476 human astringency perception. Astringency can be perceived through mechanical stimulation and thus 477 be determined by tribology. Recently, several subsequent tribological studies have provided various 478insights into astringency-related textural attributes including dryness, puckering feeling, and roughness 479 (Pires, Pastrana, Fuciños, Abreu, & Oliveira, 2020; Shewan, Pradal, & Stokes, 2019).

480

## 481 **Conclusion**

Literatures cited in this review is summarized in Table 1, providing an overview of key finding from and novelty of each study. Texture is the key for food product development, and it is no exaggeration to say that those who have the best knowledge on texture can only lead innovative development. In industry, instrumental quantification of textural attributes should be important, enabling to share guide for texture design of products on an objective scale. The authors wish that this article would provide food manufactures with insight into novel product development, contributing to improved QOL (Quality of Life) and ADL (Activities of Daily Living) for human.

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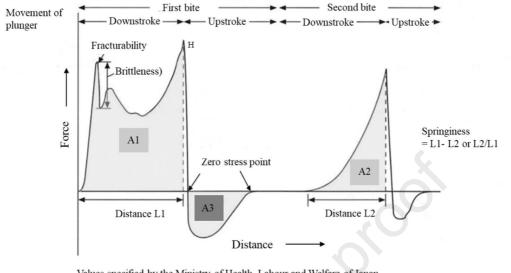
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$757 \\ 758$	Figure captions
759 760	Fig. 1 Representative Texture Profile Analysis (TPA) curve and the definition/calculation for each TPA characteristic
761 762	Fig. 2 Instrumental simulation of squeezing between the tongue and the palate by human.
763 764	Fig. 3 Instrumental set-up for extensional viscosity measurements
765	Fig. 4 Relationship between the maximum velocity of bolus transfer through the pharyngeal phase and steady shear
766 767	viscosity $\eta$ or complex viscosity $\eta^*$
768 769	Fig. 5 Representative acoustic profile of the swallowing sound in the case of 15 ml water.
770	<b>Fig. 6</b> Duration $t_2$ in swallowing polysaccharide solutions as a function of steady shear viscosity $\Box$ at 10 s <sup>-1</sup> . Closed
771	circles: xanthan gum solutions; Open circles: locust bean gum solutions. Serving volume of polysaccharide solutions
772	was 15 ml. Each datum was standardized with that for control (water). Data with asterisk are significantly different
773	between xanthan gum and locust bean gum at $p < 0.05$ .
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778	Fig. 8 Mean particulate size and coefficients of skewness and kurtosis for model bolus. Open bars: in the absence of
779	simulated saliva; Diagonal bars: in the presence of 0.5 mL simulated saliva; Closed bars: in the presence of 1.0 mL
780	simulated saliva. Data with different letters are significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ) among different samples within the
781	same treatment, whereas data with asterisk are significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ) among different treatments within
782	the same sample. (a) mean particulate size; (b) coefficient of skewness; (c) coefficient of kurtosis. Data are presented
783	as means $\pm$ SD of triplicate experiments. Symbols S and K present the mixture gel and gellan single gel, respectively,
784	whereas numbers mean gel hardness. Reproduced from Ishihara Nakauma, Funami, Odake, & Nishinari (2011).
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786	Fig. 9 Gray-level of spat out bolus after mastication of double layered gels from gelatin and agar; citation from
787	Tournier et al. (2017) with modification
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789	<b>Fig. 10</b> Concentration level distribution images by transforming the pressure distribution data during compression of
790	gel samples on the sensor sheet; citation from Shibata et al. (2016)
791 709	
792 793	Fig. 11 Instrumental set-up for tribology measurements
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Table 1 List of influential literatures cited in this article

Tuble T Else of Influentia				
Section	Sub section	Citation Ishihara et al. (2013) from Journal of Texture Studies	Test sample source Agar gels	Key finding and novelty Modulus of simulated tongue suitable as alternative to human test is approx. 55 kPa for texture assessment of soft foods which do not require chewing for size reduction.
		Ishihara et al. (2014) from Journal of Texture Studies	High- and low-acylated gellan gum gels	Fracture probability of gel samples corresponds to the ratio of subjects who decide to use tongue-palate compression instead of chewing for size reduction when the modulus and size of simulated tongue is optimized.
	Size reduction of solid foods: Soft machine	Kohyama, K. (2015) from Journal of Texture Studies, 46, 138-151.	High- and low-acylated gellan gum gels	Human can decide oral strategy for size reduction by sensing dynamically difference in strain between food and the tongue during oral processing.
	mechanics	Hori et al. (2015) from Food Hydrocolloids	Low-acylated gellan gum and psyllium seed gum gels	Slope of time course curve for tongue pressure during the first size reduction is almost independent of physical properties or consistency of polysaccharide gels.
1. Mechanical properties of foods and human		Kohyama et al. (2019) from Foods	High- and low-acylated gellan gum gels	Fracture profile of foods on soft machine developed shows similar results to human behavior.
perception during food oral processing		Chen & Lolivret (2011) from Food Hydrocolloids	Eighteen commercial products (orange juice, fluid	The maximum stretching force and the work of stretching show higher correlation to perceived swallowing ease compared to apparent viscosity.
	Swallowing of semi- solid or liquid foods: Extension rheology	Lv et al. (2017) from Journal of	yogurt, fruit purée, ketchup etc.) Solutions of guar gum and sodium carboxymethyl	Ability to discriminate extensional viscosity is higher than that to discriminate shear
		Texture Studies He et al. (2016) from Food	cellulose (CMC) Solutions of xanthan gum	viscosity. Perceived thickness, stickiness, and mouth coating have higher correlation to extensional
	Swallowing of semi-	Hydrocolloids Tashiro et al. (2010) from Bioscience,	Solutions of CMC, xanthan gum, and guar gum	viscosity than shear viscosity. The maximum velocity of fluid bolus correlates well to dynamic viscosity $\eta$ and complex
	solid or liquid foods: Dynamic viscoelasticity measurements	biotechnology, and biochemistry Nakauma et al. (2011) from Food	Solutions of xanthan gum and locust bean gum	viscosity $\eta$ *, especially those measured at angular frequency of 20–30 rad/s and above. Yield stress can present perceived cohesiveness of bolus, serving as a measure of
		Hydrocolloids Ishihara et al. (2011) from Food	(LBG) Low-acylated gellan gum and psyllium seed gum	swallowing ease. Mean particulate size of model bolus low-acylated gellan gum/psyllium seed gum
		Hydrocolloids Devezeaux de Lavergne et al. (2016) from Food Hydrocolloids	gels Emulsion-filled agar and gelatin gels	composite gel is generally larger than that for low-acylated gellan single gel when compared at equivalent gel hardness and is less influenced by the addition level of saliva Food bolus from relatively smaller fracture strain contains more small particulates, leading to greater perception of graininess and graininess, whereas the bolus of relatively larger fracture strain contains less small particulates leading to greater perception of
		Tournier et al. (2017) from Food		larger fracture strain contains less small particulates, leading to greater perception of creaminess.
. Geometrical properties	s Imaging analysis of	Hydrocolloids Shibata et al. (2016) from 2016	Agar and gelatin gels	Characteristics from imaging analysis correlate to some textural attributes. Perceived smoothness, elasticity (i.e. springiness), stickiness, and granularity are
of foods and human berception during food	bolus and computer simulation of bolus	IEEE/SICE International Symposium on System Integration (SII)	Gels from 12 types of gelling hydrocolloids	evaluated on stress distribution map from imaging analysis.
ral processing	formation for solid foods	Shibata et al. (2017) from Robotics	Gels from 12 types of gelling hydrocolloids	Perceived smoothness, elasticity (i.e. springiness), stickiness, and granularity are evaluated on stress distribution map through Convolutional Neural Network.
		Nakauma et al. (2021) from J. Jpn. Soc. Food Sci. Technol.	Gels from 12 types of gelling hydrocolloids & jellies and puddings commercially available	Discussion by Shibata et al. (2016) is validated using commercial gel-type food product along with optimization of prediction formula.
		Devezeaux de Lavergne et al. (2015) from Food Hydrocolloids	Emulsion-filled agar and gelatin gels	Gels perceived as creamy reveal high bolus flowability, whereas gels perceived as grain form boli containg large number of fragmented particulates.
		Foegeding et al. (2017) from Food Hydrocolloids	Whey protein and polysaccharide (low-acylated gellan gum, LBG, carrageenan, and pectin) gels	Texture perception of emulsion gels is dynamic and entails a transition from rheology- dominant processes to tribology dominant processes.
		Carpenter et al. (2019) from Food Hydrocolloids	Saliva (with protein)	Saliva proteins form lubricous boundary film, deduced by high correlation between friction coeffcient and amount of the proteins present at PDSM and silica surfaces.
		Carvalho-da-Silva et al. (2013) from Food & Function	Milk chocolates	Difference in perceived mouth-coating between two samples can be presented by that in friction coefficient at an entrainment speed of $\sim 0.2$ mm/s.
		Kieserling et al. (2018) from Biotribology	Sunflower oil and yoghurt	Water content in a food system has a substantial influence on tribological parameters.
		Kim et al. (2015) from Tribology International	Glycerol	PDMS surface properties affect consistency of tribological responses.
	Tribology for lubrication: Instrumental development for tribology measurement	Krzeminski et al. (2012) from International Dairy Journal	Sunflower oil, full-fat and low-fat yoghurt	Difference is found in friction coefficient at an entrainment speed of 1 mm/s between yoghurts with different fat contents, which is strongly influenced by surface roughness o tribosystem.
		Pondicherry et al. (2018) from Biosurface and Biotribology	Chocolate spread and cheese sauce	Extended Stribeck curves present directly correlations between frictional behavior and mouthfeel-dominated sensory attributes.
		Sonne et al. (2014) from LWT - Food Science and Technology	Yogurt	Perceived in-mouth viscosity and creaminess are presented by combination of multiple mechanical and geometric parameters, including those from tribology.
		Stokes et al. (2013) from Current Opinion in Colloid & Interface	Solutions of polysaccharides (locust bean gum, gellan gum, xanthan gum, carrageenan, pectin)	Oral breakdown is captured through a multi-scale approach including tribology in consideration of saliva effects.
		Science Liu et al. (2015) from Food Hydrocolloids	Emulsion gels containing solid fat, and WPI or tween as emulsifier.	Increased solid fat content does not have influences on fat-related perceptions although in leads to lower friction coefficient.
		Godoi et al. (2017) from Food Hydrocolloids	Custard with starch, kappa-carrageenan and fat	Addition of kappa-carrageenan does not have influences on perceived oiliness or creaminess although it leads to lower friction coefficient.
B. Moisture- and fat- elated surface properties of foods and human		Laiho et al. (2017) from Food Hydrocolloids	Yoghurt	Textural perceptions (gelatinous, thickness, adhesiveness, creaminess, smoothness etc.) of yoghurt are presented by either of bolus size, shape, friction coefficient, or viscosity.
perception during food pral processing		Krop et al. (2019) from Food Hydrocolloids	Hydrogels with carrageenan, locust bean gum, sodium alginate, calcium alginate	Perceived pastiness and slipperiness correlate to friction coefficient of bolus at an entrainment speed of 50 mm/s .
	Tribology for lubrication: Tribology for solid food bolus	Kim et al. (2020) from Food Quality and Preference	Ten apple varieties	Four texture attributes of apples (i.e., crisp, juicy, mealy, and melt rate), correlate with friction coefficient detected in liner reciprocating motion of probe.
		Laguna et al. (2017) from Food and Function	Commercial dairy products (milk, yoghurt and cream cheese)	Perceived creaminess and fattiness of soft solid foods such as cream cheese correlate wit lubrication behavior, where friction coefficient for full-fat type is apparently smaller that that for either low-fat or non-fat type.
		Ningtyas et al. (2019) from Food Research International	Cream cheese with beta-glucan and phytosterols	Reduction in friction coefficient is seen in cream cheese with increased perceived cohesiveness, thickness, and smoothness by addition of $\beta$ -glucan and phytosterols.
		Vieira et al. (2020) from Current Research in Food Science	Beverages thickened by gum- or starch-based formulation	Beverage thickened by gum-based formulation is better in lubrication capacity than starch-based one, resulting in low perceived stickiness and in high swallowing ease.
		Liu et al. (2020) from Food Science & Nutrition	Acidified protein drinks stabilized by CMC or pectin with other polysaccharides (high-acylated guar gum, LBG, or gellan gum)	A negative correlation is confirmed between friction coefficient and perceived smoothness, stickiness, or coating for acidified milk beverages stabilized with pectin or CMC as a single ingredient or in combination with guar gum, LBG, and high-acylated gellan gum.

Tribology for lubrication: Tribology for liquid food bolus	Pradal et al (2016) from	Human saliva	Mucin has amphipathic properties with both hydrophobic and hydrophilic regions and is thought to govern barrier properties of salivary membrane.
	Brossard et al. (2016) from Journal of Texture Studies	Red wines	Perceived astringency correlates to friction coefficient at an entrainment speed of 0.075 mm/s.
	Pires et al. (2020) from Foods	Polyphenols	Oral astringency is presented by combination of multiple factors, including pH, viscosity, temperature, not simply by saliva lubrication alone.
	Shewan et al. (2019) from Journal of Texture Studies	Epigallocatechin gallate, epicatechin gallate and epicatechin	Astringency is a complex sensation which does not solely depend on changes in lubrication of salivary film.



Values specified by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan 1) Hardness: H (N/m<sup>2</sup>) Stress at maximum deformation in the first byte 2) Adhesiveness: A3 (J/m<sup>3</sup>) 3) Cohesiveness: A2/A1 (non-dimension)

**Fig. 1** Representative Texture Profile Analysis (TPA) curve and the definition/calculation for each TPA characteristic

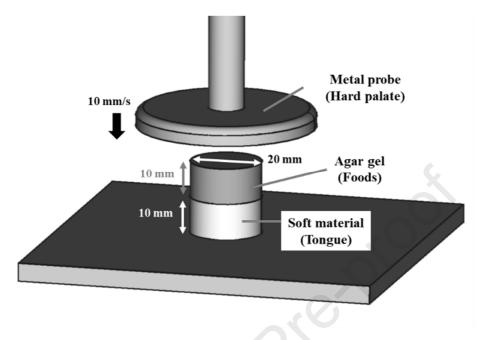


Fig. 2 Instrumental simulation of squeezing between the tongue and the palate by human.

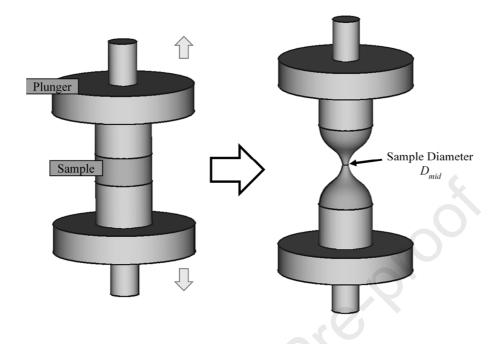


Fig. 3 Instrumental set-up for extensional viscosity measurements

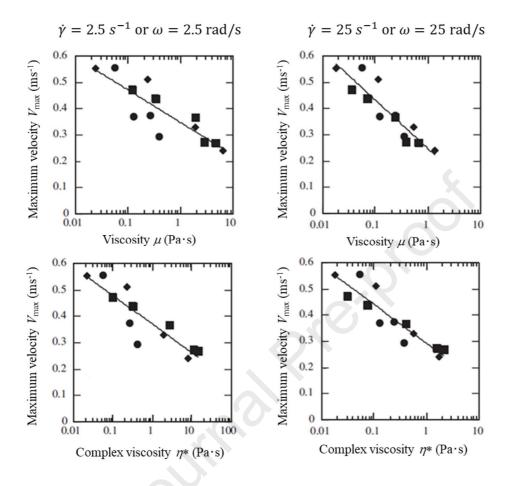


Fig. 4 Relationship between the maximum velocity of bolus transfer through the pharyngeal phase and steady shear viscosity  $\eta$  or complex viscosity  $\eta^*$ 

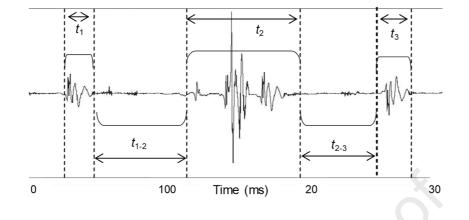
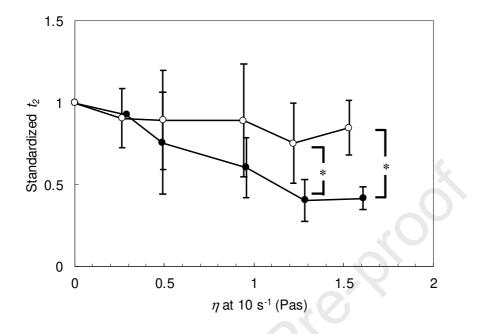
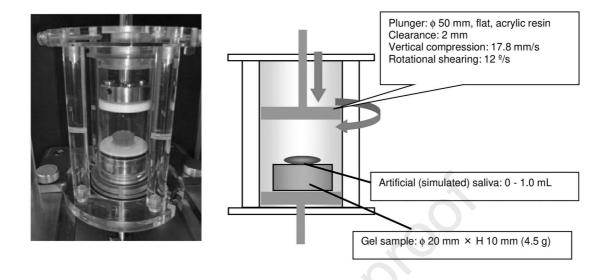


Fig. 5 Representative acoustic profile of the swallowing sound in the case of 15 ml water.

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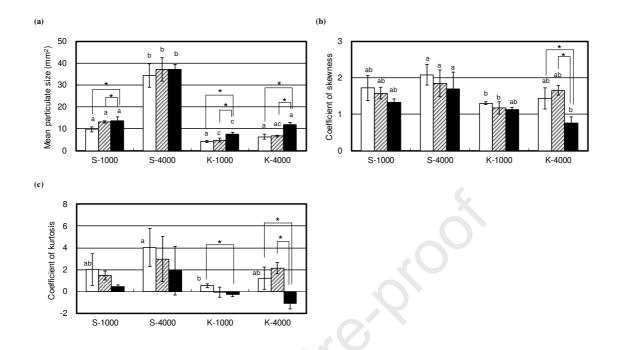


**Fig. 6** Duration  $t_2$  in swallowing polysaccharide solutions as a function of steady shear viscosity  $\eta$  at 10 s<sup>-1</sup>. Closed circles: xanthan gum solutions; Open circles: locust bean gum solutions. Serving volume of polysaccharide solutions was 15 ml. Each datum was standardized with that for control (water). Data with asterisk are significantly different between xanthan gum and locust bean gum at p < 0.05.

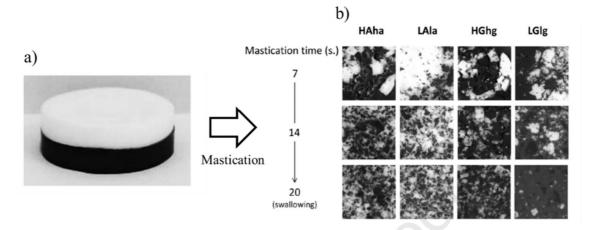


**Fig. 7** Instrumental chewing simulator for preparation of model bolus. Reproduced from Ishihara Nakauma, Funami, Odake, & Nishinari (2011).

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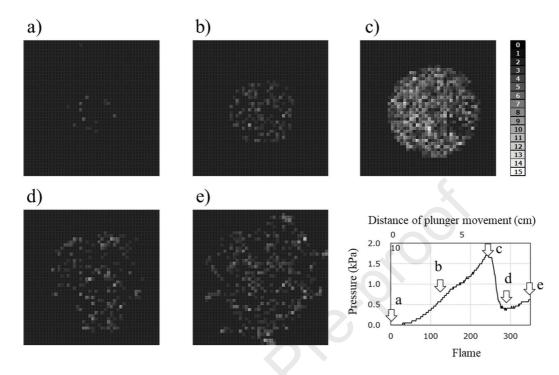


**Fig. 8** Mean particulate size and coefficients of skewness and kurtosis for model bolus. Open bars: in the absence of simulated saliva; Diagonal bars: in the presence of 0.5 mL simulated saliva; Closed bars: in the presence of 1.0 mL simulated saliva. Data with different letters are significantly different (p < 0.05) among different samples within the same treatment, whereas data with asterisk are significantly different (p < 0.05) among different treatments within the same sample. (a) mean particulate size; (b) coefficient of skewness; (c) coefficient of kurtosis. Data are presented as means  $\pm$  SD of triplicate experiments. Symbols S and K present the mixture gel and gellan single gel, respectively, whereas numbers mean gel hardness. Reproduced from Ishihara Nakauma, Funami, Odake, & Nishinari (2011).



**Fig. 9** Gray-level of spat out bolus after mastication of double layered gels from gelatin and agar; citation from Tournier et al. (2017) with modification

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**Fig. 10** Concentration level distribution images by transforming the pressure distribution data during compression of gel samples on the sensor sheet; citation from Shibata et al. (2016)

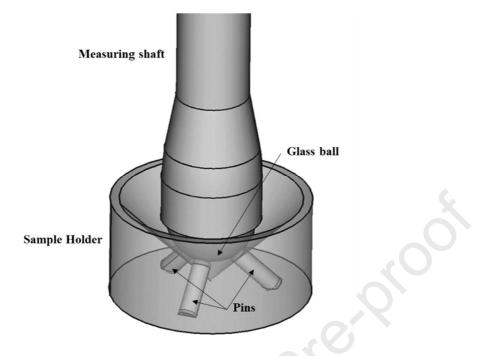


Fig. 11 Instrumental set-up for tribology measurements

# Highlights

Food texture evaluation through instrumental measurements is overviewed. The measurements consider mechanics of food oral processing in human. Palatal reduction and swallowing in human can be simulated instrumentally. Bolus formation in food oral processing can be analyzed by imaging technique. Surface lubrication properties of foods can be studied by tribology.

Journal Pre-proof

# **Conflict of Interest**

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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