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### Citation for published version:

Munialo, CD, Kontogiorgos, V, Euston, SR & Nyambayo, I 2020, 'Rheological, tribological and sensory attributes of texture-modified foods for dysphagia patients and the elderly: A review', *International Journal of Food Science and Technology*, vol. 55, no. 5, pp. 1862-1871. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijfs.14483>

### Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

[10.1111/ijfs.14483](https://doi.org/10.1111/ijfs.14483)

### Link:

[Link to publication record in Heriot-Watt Research Portal](#)

### Document Version:

Peer reviewed version

### Published In:

International Journal of Food Science and Technology

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1 **Rheological, tribological and sensory attributes of texture-modified foods for dysphagia**  
2 **patients and the elderly: A review**

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10 **Abstract**

11 Texture-modified foods (TMFs) and thickened fluids have been used as a therapeutic strategy  
12 in the management of food intake in the elderly and people with dysphagia. Despite recent  
13 advances in describing rheological features of TMFs for dysphagia management, there is still  
14 paucity of research regarding the sensory attributes, therapeutic thickness levels, and  
15 swallowing safety of these foods. Additionally, the relationship between mechanical and  
16 structural properties of TMFs throughout the oral processing are not yet fully understood. The  
17 present review discusses several properties of food boluses that are important during oral  
18 processing to allow for safe swallowing. Dynamic changes that occur during oral processing  
19 of TMFs will be reviewed. The use of hydrocolloids to improve the cohesiveness of TMFs and  
20 how this impacts the sensory properties of TMFs will be also discussed. Additionally, this  
21 review will suggest potential new research directions to improve textural and sensory  
22 properties of TMFs.

23 **Key words:** Texture-modified foods, Dysphagia, Oral processing, Rheology, Tribology,  
24 Sensory and Flavour perception

## 25 **Introduction**

26 Muscular disorders or ageing can result in structural or functional deficits of the oral  
27 cavity, larynx, pharynx, oesophagus, or oesophageal sphincters resulting in swallowing  
28 difficulties (Matsuo and Palmer, 2008). Difficulty with chewing or swallowing food or liquid  
29 due to the weakening of the muscles used for swallowing is referred to as dysphagia (Sukkar  
30 et al., 2018). Dysphagia impairs the autonomous and safe oral feeding and contributes to a  
31 reduced dietary intake (potentially results in malnutrition), aspiration, and asphyxiation  
32 (Logemann, 1998). Dysphagia can be divided into three categories namely; oral, oesophageal,  
33 and oropharyngeal. Oral dysphagia occurs in the mouth where there is chewing difficulties or  
34 problems transporting food around the mouth. Oesophageal dysphagia occurs when food stops  
35 in the oesophagus. Oropharyngeal dysphagia involves difficulty moving food to the back of  
36 the mouth and starting the swallowing process (Aslam and Vaezi, 2013).

37 Foods contain multiple phases and hierarchical structures that range from nanoscopic  
38 to microscopic length scales (Munialo, 2015). The presence of these structures provides certain  
39 functionality such as texture control and nutritional value or aid in processing and shelf-life  
40 stability (Stokes et al., 2013). Texture control and modification are a common strategy to  
41 manage dysphagia. Modified diets are hypothesised to reduce choking risk, and the need for  
42 chewing or oral processing of food (Sukkar et al., 2018). Consumption of thickened fluids is  
43 suggested to contribute to safe swallowing as the act of swallowing is slowed down due to the  
44 transit time of food products with modified consistency being usually higher than for  
45 unmodified foods. This allows more time for the glottis to close and prevent aspirations of food  
46 or liquids into the lungs (Steele, 2015).

47 Food texture may be modulated and modified to suit nutritional requirements of  
48 consumers. Texture modification and thickening of fluids forms a routine part of the  
49 assessment and treatment of dysphagia (Langmore and Miller, 1994). Texture-modified foods  
50 (TMFs) can be characterised based on several variables such as fluid flow rate, density, and  
51 viscosity. The use of viscosity to characterise thickened drinks for dysphagia management has  
52 however received criticism given that viscosity measurements are not accessible to most  
53 clinicians and care givers (IDDSI, 2017). As such, there is need to describe holistic  
54 characteristics of TMFs that give an insight as to how food is perceived e.g., in the initial stages  
55 of eating. This information should then be made accessible to clinicians and caregivers.

56 Mechanical and structural properties of foods have been related to texture perception.  
57 However, these relationships are still not fully understood, especially in TMFs. Mechanisms  
58 of oral processing that may result in dynamic changes in texture perception of TMFs may vary  
59 with physiological development of the oral cavity. The tongue has taste buds embedded in the  
60 papillae, which play an important role in taste senses and sensory perception of foods through  
61 taste receptors. Taste receptors are determined by genes which in turn code for different taste  
62 perceptions (Melis and Tomassini Barbarossa, 2017). Sensitivity of taste receptor cells is  
63 attributed to the physiology of saliva which is the principal fluid component of the external  
64 environment of the taste receptor cells (Matsuo, 2000). Saliva also plays an important role in  
65 lubricating the oral cavity, and breakdown of food. Quantity and quality of human saliva  
66 depends on medical conditions, gender, or age (Iorgulescu, 2009). Unstimulated saliva flow  
67 index of less than 0.1 ml/min in an adult characterises hyposalivation whereas 0.25-0.35  
68 ml/min is considered normal (de Almeida et al., 2008). Elderly people have relatively low daily  
69 unstimulated saliva production linked to systemic diseases and prolonged use of medication  
70 (Lasisi et al., 2014). Reduction in unstimulated saliva flow index could contribute to the  
71 appearance of diseases in the oral mucosa, commonly identified in the elderly population.

72 Elderly people could have decreased oral processing capabilities which may present several  
73 problems with swallowing. Wang and Chen (2017) summarised eating and swallowing  
74 problems encountered by the elderly (**Table 1**).

### 75 **Designing healthy foods for patients with dysphagia and the elderly**

76 When designing healthy foods for the elderly there are important aspects to be  
77 considered (**Fig. 1**). TMFs recommended for dysphagia management and dietary intake of the  
78 elderly should be soft, moist, elastic, smooth, and easy to swallow (Sungsinchai et al., 2019).  
79 The International Dysphagia Diet Standardisation Initiative (IDDSI) framework provides  
80 standardised terminology and definitions to describe TMFs and thickened liquids for  
81 individuals with dysphagia (IDDSI, 2017). IDDSI framework is made up of a continuum of 8  
82 levels (0-7) as illustrated in **Fig. 2**. An example of TMFs described within the IDDSI  
83 framework are pureed foods which are placed on the fourth level of the IDDSI framework.  
84 Pureed foods are usually ground and/or blended to a form that requires less chewing and oral  
85 manipulation. A cohesive swallowable mass that is referred to as “bolus” is made which is easy  
86 to push with the tongue into the pharynx (Hotaling, 1992). This could make swallowing easier  
87 and prevent bolus regurgitation which causes aspiration in dysphagics.

88 Use of thickeners (e.g. modified starch and xanthan gum) to increase bolus viscosity  
89 has been suggested in post-stroke oral dysphagia (OD) as a compensatory therapeutic strategy  
90 against aspiration. However, this approach has been criticised as the number of studies are  
91 small and the methodologies diverse. One study reported an increase in safe swallowing when  
92 modified starch and xanthan gum thickeners at “spoon thick” viscosity were administered to  
93 patients. The therapeutic effect of these thickeners was attributed to a compensatory  
94 mechanism without any massive change on swallow response timing (Vilardell et al., 2015).  
95 Another study suggests an increased bolus viscosity gives increased safety of swallowing and

96 reduced mid-term pneumonia episodes in patients with OD (Kuhlemeier et al., 2001). Some  
97 authors report that an increase in viscosity impairs swallowing efficiency in OD by increasing  
98 oropharyngeal residue. Other researchers argue that the effect of thickeners on the physiology  
99 of swallow response is not yet fully understood (Vilardell et al., 2015). This provides a research  
100 challenge to further investigate the effect of increased bolus viscosity on the swallowing safety  
101 for patients with dysphagia.

102         Hydrocolloids are widely used in the food industry to improve the consistency and  
103 cohesiveness and reduce syneresis of TMFs. Improved consistency and cohesiveness of food  
104 makes it safe to swallow (Sharma and Duizer, 2019). Although all hydrocolloids can be used  
105 as thickeners, not all are able to form a cross-linked gel network that can be used for giving  
106 solidity to modified foods. Thickening of food mixtures using hydrocolloids mostly derives  
107 from polymer chains that entangle when their concentration increases. In dilute systems,  
108 entanglements are less likely, polymer chains move freely and viscosity is low. As such, after  
109 an intake of a thickened food mixture, saliva dilutes and breaks it up, resulting in a considerable  
110 decrease in viscosity. Decrease in viscosity becomes an issue especially when starch-based  
111 thickeners are used since saliva contains  $\alpha$ -amylase that breaks down amylose and amylopectin  
112 (Butterworth et al., 2011). To mitigate against this, non-starch gums can be used even though  
113 this may not totally eliminate undesirable viscosity reduction. When non-starch biopolymer  
114 gums are used as thickeners, there can be non-specific entanglement that, above a certain  
115 concentration may result in an increase in stickiness that impairs the swallowing ability.  
116 Hydrocolloids in TMFs have been reported to impact the microstructure, particles breakdown,  
117 deformation force during mastication, bolus lubrication, and mouth coating (Sharma and  
118 Duizer, 2019). Each of these properties have an impact on oral processing and sensory  
119 perception of food. Furthermore, thickened liquids have been reported to be perceived as being  
120 significantly less palatable than their un-thickened counterparts (Yver et al., 2018). Thus, there

121 is need for the development of new thickening agents that have been well characterised in terms  
122 of sensory properties that will be used to improve swallowing while maintaining palatability.  
123 This will provide a dysphagia management strategy that will prevent negative effects of  
124 increasing viscosity of residue and reduced palatability whilst being treatment compliant.

### 125 **Rheological properties of TMFs for dysphagics and the elderly**

126 Anatomical and physiological changes in feeding and swallowing occur as a result of  
127 dysphagia. For instance, impaired opening of the upper oesophageal sphincter can cause  
128 obstruction of the food way increasing risk of aspiration after swallowing (Matsuo and Palmer,  
129 2008). To minimise the risk of aspiration for patients with OD, thickening agents to modify the  
130 viscosity of liquids is a commonly used strategy (Newman et al., 2016). Modifying viscosity  
131 of liquids does impact the flow properties which can be quantifiable. A 10 mL slip tip syringe  
132 is currently a recommended tool to quantify the liquid's flow category that measures a sample  
133 remaining from 10 mL after 10 sec of flow (IDDSI, 2017). This method has however some  
134 limitations as: (i) the flow of a liquid through a syringe is a broad representation of how a liquid  
135 will move during swallowing. Physiological process of swallowing a liquid *in vivo* involves a  
136 wide range of fluid deformations and rates, which differ from those *in vitro*, (ii) some syringes  
137 that are 10 mL have been reported to have a 12 mL capacity (IDDSI, 2017). A 10 mL syringe  
138 with a 12 mL capacity will give results that cannot reliably be used with the IDDSI framework,  
139 (iii) IDDSI test classifies consistency on the basis of the volume of the residual liquid in the  
140 syringe after a period of 10 s flow rather than measuring the required time for a sample to flow  
141 through the syringe. Thus, there is a need for IDDSI flow test to assess the flow rate as this will  
142 be more clinically relevant instead of classifying consistency based on residual liquid volume.

143 In terms of food texture, IDDSI suggests testing methods that use forks and spoons  
144 (IDDSI, 2017). As much as forks and spoons are inexpensive, easily accessible, and available,

145 these tools are not reliable in providing detailed information on masticatory behaviour, bolus  
146 structure and perceived texture, mechanical and rheological properties throughout oral  
147 processing of foods. For these properties to be fully understood, advanced instruments such as  
148 texture analysers and rheometers need to be used. Measurements performed on these  
149 instruments can provide some insights that would be useful in the design of TMFs as opposed  
150 to instrumental swallowing assessment which are reported to bear little resemblance to eating  
151 in real life and swallowing ability at mealtimes (O’Keeffe, 2018).

152 To provide additional guidelines that can be used in designing modified foods for  
153 dysphagia management, further research to evaluate the properties of modified diets is needed.  
154 Examples of further studies may include variation, modulation, and modification of the  
155 consistency of TMFs and examining the impact of these modulations dysphagia management.  
156 Consistency in this context is defined as an attribute that relates to firmness or thickness of  
157 TMFs which can have an impact on the viscosity of the food products, and a subsequent impact  
158 on swallowing parameters. A texture-modified diet contains foods whose consistency may be  
159 more easily chewed and managed by people with dysphagia. Thickened fluids that have a  
160 honey-like, or pudding-like consistency and nutritionally enriched TMFs, such as, pureed and  
161 minced foods may be specially prepared for dysphagia management. Use of modified diets to  
162 manage dysphagia is mainly supported by the increasing dietary intake by elderly people with  
163 chronic dysphagia when diets with thickened and pureed food that have unspecified  
164 consistency have been administered (Taylor & Barr, 2006). Patients with OD are reported to  
165 be more likely to obtain a better dietary intake with TMFs rather than with normal foods  
166 (Sukkar et al., 2018). Conversely, a lack of evidence to support the significance of thickened  
167 fluids and TMFs in relation to the amount of dietary intake for adults with acute dysphagia has  
168 been reported (Foley et al., 2006, O’Keeffe, 2018). Kaneoka et al. reported the lack of evidence  
169 for thickened fluids and TMFs in prevention of aspiration pneumonia in patients with chronic



170 dysphagia (Kaneoka et al., 2017). In a separate study, Andersen et al. found a lack of a strong  
171 evidence to support the use of thickened fluids and TMFs and suggested that more studies are  
172 needed to substantiate the use of modified diets for dysphagia management (Andersen, Beck,  
173 Kjaersgaard, Hansen, & Poulsen, 2013). Commercial thickened liquids with specific viscosities  
174 such as those with honey-like, or custard-like consistencies vary greatly with regards to  
175 viscoelastic properties. Variability in the consistency of thickened fluids prepared by staff  
176 within and between hospitals has also been reported (Cichero et al., 2000). This emphasises  
177 the importance of including other rheological characterisation that measures mechanical  
178 properties such as hardness, and cohesiveness in designing foods for dysphagics.

179         TMFs and thickened liquids were previously categorised based on quantified viscosity  
180 ranges (Association, 2002). In recent years, the flow of liquids is not solely quantified based  
181 on viscosity ranges. In fact IDDSI does not include viscosity in its descriptors given that the  
182 flow of a drink is influenced by many other variables including density, yield stress, and  
183 temperature (IDDSI, 2017). Viscosity and elasticity range are however still considered to be  
184 the two parameters used to classify foods and drinks that are formulated for people with  
185 swallowing disorders (Coster and Schwarz, 1987). These two parameters play an important  
186 role in the food sample, as a starting material, and the way they change within the entire oral  
187 manipulation cycle until a bolus is formed. Both viscosity and elasticity should be within a  
188 specific range and in specific relation to each other when food is ready to be swallowed. Thus,  
189 it is imperative to understand rheological and physical bolus properties that can affect  
190 swallowing performance. Relevant rheological properties that should be taken into  
191 consideration are yield stress, extensional viscosity, and shear viscosity. Shear viscosity is  
192 defined as the ability of liquids to resist flow under an applied force and is “calculated as the  
193 ratio of shear stress (the shear force required for flow) and shear rate (related to the flow rate)”  
194 (Newman et al., 2016).

195 Patients with dysphagia are susceptible low-viscosity fluids given that a bolus of too-  
196 high viscosity does demand exertion of extra force by the tongue and pharyngeal muscles to  
197 push the bolus through the oropharynx (Qazi et al., 2019). There is generally a lack of clear  
198 convention regarding the shear rates at which viscosities are measured despite the shear rate  
199 being used to describe the deformation rate of non-Newtonian stimuli as the fluid layers slide  
200 over each other once the bolus is placed under stress or force. Viscosity of ‘thin’ liquid stimuli  
201 is reported to be as high as 351 mPa s at a shear rate of  $25\text{s}^{-1}$ . Viscosity of mildly thick or  
202 nectar-thick liquid is reported to be as high as 466 mPa s at  $25\text{s}^{-1}$  or 325 mPa s at  $45\text{s}^{-1}$ , while  
203 opaque liquids have viscosities of up to 863 mPa s at  $25\text{s}^{-1}$ . Stimuli labelled as moderately thick  
204 is reported to have viscosities reaching 1541 mPa s at  $25\text{s}^{-1}$  for radio-opaque liquids or 785  
205 mPa s at  $45\text{s}^{-1}$  for non-opaque stimuli (Steele, 2015). Even though it is suggested that a single  
206 oral shear rate could not be used to predict perceived viscosity (Ong et al., 2018), shear rate of  
207  $50\text{s}^{-1}$  is reported to be a reasonable order of magnitude with respect to in-mouth handling of  
208 food boluses (Popa Nita et al., 2013). A shear rate of  $50\text{s}^{-1}$  corresponds to a range from low  
209 honey-thick to pudding-thick consistencies on the IDDSI scale.

210 When food is ingested, mastication usually starts with the “first bite” of solids or semi-  
211 solid food. Food is reduced to particulate form during chewing and saliva secreted from the  
212 oral cavity which helps with lubrication (Sungsinchai et al., 2019). Although increasing number  
213 of chewing cycles decreases hardness of food, hard semisolid food that has a reduced likelihood  
214 of disintegrating may present an aspiration risk for dysphagic patients (Nakagawa et al., 2014).  
215 Continual secretion of saliva into the oral cavity may alter the bolus rheology with time  
216 (Sungsinchai et al., 2019). During the swallowing process, the bolus is held on the tongue  
217 dorsal surface and is subsequently propelled into the oesophagus through the pharynx.  
218 Following the swallowing process, higher food bolus adhesiveness can increase the risk of

219 pharyngeal residue due to its stickiness nature (Sungsinchai et al., 2019). Excessively lower  
220 food bolus cohesiveness is shown to raise the risk of aspiration (Nakagawa et al., 2014).

221         When developing foods for dysphagia management, it is important to consider the  
222 elastic modulus of the bolus. Cheng and colleagues studied the elastic modulus of a healthy  
223 human tongue and soft palate using magnetic resonance elastography under *in vivo* conditions.  
224 They showed the elastic modulus to be nearly 2.5 kPa (Cheng et al., 2011). In dysphagia, it is  
225 better for the bolus to be transported posteriorly with less pressure and this relates to hardness,  
226 adhesiveness and cohesiveness of the boluses. Dysphagia diets have been characterised based  
227 on these criteria into three classes (I, II, and III) and four levels as summarised in **Table 2**  
228 (Sungsinchai et al., 2019, Yoshioka et al., 2016). Easy to swallow foods have been defined to  
229 have a texture that: (i) should be under 15000N/m<sup>2</sup> in hardness, (ii) under 1000J/m<sup>2</sup>  
230 adhesiveness, and (iii) cohesiveness in the range of 0.2 - 0.9 (Wada et al., 2017).

231         Wendin et al postulate that elasticity should be used to classify foods that are modified  
232 for dysphagia (Wendin et al., 2010). Equally, elasticity is important as a contributor to  
233 mechanical cohesiveness in non-Newtonian fluids (Funami et al., 2012). The significance of  
234 viscoelastic behaviour of boluses on swallowing and of thixotropic, shear thinning, and  
235 viscoelastic characteristics of commercial dysphagia foods for cluster classification has been  
236 corroborated (Casanovas et al., 2011). As such, optimisation of viscoelastic parameters is  
237 critical when designing foods for people with dysphagia so that bolus flow is cohesive (Funami  
238 et al., 2012). This provides a challenge to design foods that have optimum characteristics of  
239 TMFs for delivery of nutritional requirements for patient with dysphagia. This could be  
240 important for standardisation of food terminology, and facilitating product development for  
241 dysphagia management and meeting nutritional requirements of the elderly.

242 **Tribological and Sensory attributes of TMFs for dysphagia management**

243 Oral processing of food is a complex and dynamic pathway that involves mechano and  
244 chemo-receptors, mixing with saliva, temperature, and friction (Martínez et al., 2019). Oral  
245 processing of foods involves tribological processes that include friction, lubrication, and wear  
246 between surfaces that interact in relative motion. Soft and oral tribology refers to interactions  
247 between food and tissue in the mouth during food consumption which provides an  
248 underpinning knowledge on behaviour of foods under conditions relevant to swallowing and  
249 dysphagia (Stokes et al., 2013). Tribological properties of TMFs are however still not well  
250 understood or characterised, and more research is needed to try to connect these properties to  
251 actual oral sensations.

252 Oral lubrication is important in food texture perception towards the later stages of food  
253 oral processing (van Aken, 2010), and involves processes and mechanisms that result in the  
254 manipulation and dissipation of frictional forces that arise from the contact of two surfaces  
255 within the oral environment (Sarkar et al., 2019). The degree of lubrication is shown to  
256 influence bolus properties and contribute to “ease of swallowing” (de Lavergne et al., 2017).  
257 The ease of swallowing is a commonly used attribute in sensory profiling of food textures even  
258 though, the mechanisms by which this attribute maps to objective, quantifiable measures of  
259 bolus flow or physiology remains unclear. In the case of dysphagia, an understanding of oral  
260 lubrication in soft sliding interfaces informs strategies to overcome swallowing difficulties. As  
261 such, quantification of the friction coefficients between polymeric analogues of the tongue  
262 rolling/sliding against palate surfaces in model oral cavities are used; (i) to approximate the  
263 mechanical characteristics of these interactions in the mouth, and (ii) to establish correlations  
264 between oral perception and texture of food products characterised instrumentally (Sarkar and  
265 Krop, 2019). When the intricate features of biological surfaces in the oral cavity are examined,  
266 it is found that oral lubrication can occur between several surface types - hard-soft (hard palate-  
267 tongue), soft-soft (tongue-soft palate) and involve lubrication by food particles, saliva and other

268 mucosal lubricants. The human tongue is however not smooth, and embedded with filiform  
269 papillae giving variable surface roughness in different areas (**Fig. 3**).

270         The critical link between taste perception and food ingestion is highlighted in patients  
271 with taste disorders. Taste sensitivity can be partially lost (hypogeusia) or entirely lost (ageusia)  
272 due to aging, disease states, and medical therapies. Taste is also lost in patients with dysphagia.  
273 Loss of taste sensitivity is associated with reduced food intake and reduced quality of life. A  
274 potential strategy to increase food intake and improving health status in the elderly is taste and  
275 flavour enhancement (Mathey et al., 2001).

276         The principal sensory systems involved in oral perception of food are:- (i) trigeminal,  
277 (ii) olfactory and (iii) gustatory systems (Running, 2016). Food texture is perceived initially  
278 outside the oral cavity by vision and hearing senses, and then inside the mouth during oral food  
279 processing which is mediated by sensations that include touch/pressure and joint position.  
280 When food is transformed to a bolus, a cognitive representation of food texture is formed,  
281 resulting in the release of flavours from the food (Doets and Kremer, 2016). A number of TMFs  
282 ranked based on a 3 point hedonic scale showed the flavour and appearance to play an important  
283 role in the liking of the food samples. Based on flavour, frozen, cold, and sweet foods (which  
284 were richest in fat and energy) were the most liked in-between-meals among old adults with  
285 dysphagia (Okkels et al., 2018). The preference of sweet foods is consistent with results that  
286 revealed an increase in age negatively affects perceived intensity for salt, sour and bitter tastes,  
287 although sweet tastes were not influenced (Barragán et al., 2018). There was no correlation  
288 between flavour liking and protein content of the in-between-meals which could have been  
289 attributed to the flavour of the in-between-meals with high protein content (Okkels et al., 2018).  
290 This provides a challenge to improve the flavour of in-between-meals with high protein content  
291 as a way of encouraging the likability of these meals. The need for further work in flavour  
292 improvement is supported by the higher preference for yoghurt and Quorn where flavour had

293 been amplified (Griep et al., 2000). These findings provide insights on the interplay between  
294 flavour and acceptability of different macronutrients to be considered when formulating TMFs  
295 with specific consistency. Formulation of TMFs that are rich in various macronutrients may be  
296 used as a strategy to mitigate against malnutrition, a complication of dysphagia in older  
297 persons.

298         TMFs should be designed to give pleasurable meal experiences. During the design and  
299 development of new products it is vital to consider the impact of varying ingredients and  
300 processing conditions on the sensory or taste appeal. It is widely observed that pureed diets  
301 lack sensory or taste appeal and can lead to food refusal and reduced intake. Many elderly  
302 people suffer from a loss of taste and smell in addition to trigeminal stimuli, which has a  
303 negative impact on their enjoyment of meals and dietary habits. This provides a challenge to  
304 design TMFs that have attractive sensory properties. Vision and auditory perception are  
305 reported to be the dominant features in human perception of food (Gnaedinger et al., 2019).  
306 The appearance of a meal in terms of the colour, taste and smell, all perceived by the  
307 orbitofrontal cortex involved in processing pleasant stimuli, and how it is served is shown to  
308 play an important role in the evaluation of foods among the elderly and dysphagics (Ettinger  
309 et al., 2014). As such, oral sensation holds the potential for making sensory modified foods for  
310 dysphagia management.

## 311 **Conclusion**

312         The design of TMFs with specific consistencies for dysphagia management is a  
313 complex process that requires careful caveating and nuance. IDDSI framework has provided  
314 relevant specifications that are required for the standardisation of TMFs and thickened liquids  
315 with an aim of reducing penetration and aspiration. Development of an effective method for  
316 measuring flow behaviour that is assessed *in vivo* would be a valuable addition to the current

317 method of describing the consistency of thickened fluid based on the volume of the residual  
318 liquid.

319 Literature findings suggests that there are several properties of food boluses that are  
320 important for safe swallowing. These include: hardness, adhesiveness, cohesiveness and  
321 viscosity. Apparent viscosities of different stimuli used in dysphagia management at varying  
322 shear rates have been reported. However, there is an absence of convention in terms of the  
323 shear rates used for reporting apparent viscosity. A  $50 \text{ s}^{-1}$  shear rate is reported to be a  
324 reasonable in-mouth handling of food boluses. However, TMFs may have similar apparent  
325 viscosity measured at  $50 \text{ s}^{-1}$  but have very different flow characteristics. Thus, more studies  
326 are needed to provide evidence to delineate convention shear rates that are used for reporting  
327 apparent viscosity.

328 The role that oral processing plays in the effective functioning of eating, and  
329 swallowing is documented. Mechanisms of oral processing are reported to vary with  
330 physiological development of the oral cavity processes. However, the mechanisms by which  
331 ease of swallowing maps to objective quantifiable measures of bolus flow or physiology needs  
332 further investigation. Additionally, there is a need to further characterise TMFs and thickened  
333 liquids in terms of rheological and tribological and to connect these properties to actual oral  
334 sensations.

335 Even though manipulation of texture remains to be a common strategy in dysphagia  
336 management, pureed diets are reported to lack sensory or taste appeal which can result in food  
337 refusal and reduced intake TMFs. To formulate TMFs that give pleasurable meal experiences,  
338 varying ingredients and processing conditions can be used improve taste, aroma and visual  
339 aspects of these foods. As such, sensory modified foods may be formulated and used to improve  
340 swallowing in dysphagics while maintaining palatability. A multidisciplinary collaboration

341 involving food scientist, clinicians, and sensory scientists emerges as an important direction  
342 for future research in this respect.

343



344 **Data Availability Statement**

345 Research data are not shared

346

347 **Ethical Guidelines**

348 Ethics approval was not required for this research

349

350 **Conflict of interest**

351 None

352

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492 **Table 1:** Some common eating difficulties experienced by elderly people, possible causes and  
 493 suggested solutions (Wang & Chen, 2017).

<b>Difficulty</b>	<b>Likely causes</b>	<b>Suggested intervention</b>
Chewing	Loss of functional teeth Reduction in biting force Decreased strength of tongue & jaw muscles	Reducing food particle sizes Use of TMFs
Dry mouth	Loss of ability to secrete saliva Reduction in saliva flow index Respiration via open mouth	Application of artificial saliva Use of liquidised/moisturised food Physical and bio-chemical saliva stimulation
Oral manipulation	Reduced lip sealing pressure Reduced strength of tongue muscle Reduced tactile (touching) sensitivity	Reducing food particle sizes Use of TMFs
Tasting	Drying of the mouth Reduced ability to secrete saliva Saliva composition changes	Application of artificial saliva Addition of flavouring compounds in food
Swallowing	Displacement of the tongue Reduced activity of facial and oral muscles	Use of TMFs
Aspiration or Suffocation risk	Reduced movement of the laryngeal	Increase in oral transit duration of food Intake of thickened rather than thin liquids
Choking risk	Intake of insufficiently processed food Reduced strength of laryngeal muscles	Use of TMFs
Appetite loss	Drying of the mouth or food becoming tasteless	Oral and aromatic multi-stimulations Addition of flavouring compounds in food

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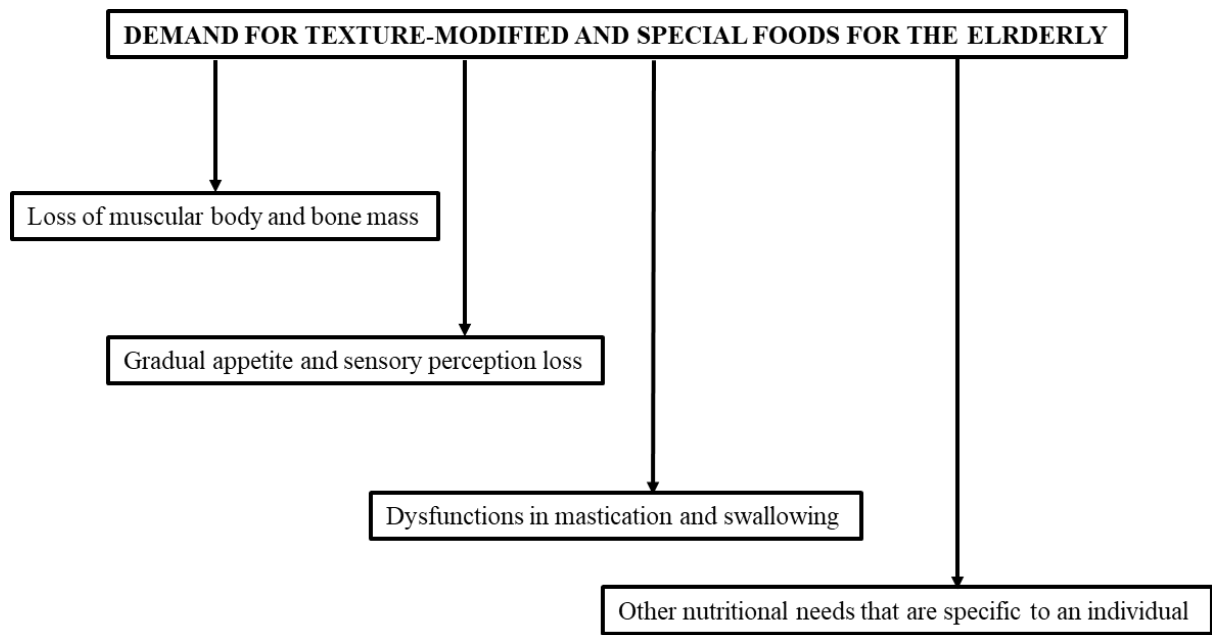
496 **Table 2:** Categories and hardness and viscosity levels for TMFs described by (Sungsinchai et  
 497 al., 2019)

Category	Hardness and viscosity level	Description
I	$< 5 \times 10^4$ N/m <sup>2</sup> hardness level, viscosity not specified	Foods that are easy to chew but unsuitable for persons with impaired dental functions such as weakened muscles
II	$< 5 \times 10^4$ N/m <sup>2</sup> , viscosity not specified	Foods that can break up by gums and thus are suitable for patients who lack natural teeth
III	$< 2 \times 10^4$ N/m <sup>2</sup> hardness level and viscosity $>1500$ mPa·s	Foods that can be broken up by tongue
IV	$< 5 \times 10^3$ N/m <sup>2</sup> and viscosity $> 1500$ mPa.s	Foods that do not require chewing

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502 **Figure 1:** Important aspects to be considered when designing healthy foods for the elderly.

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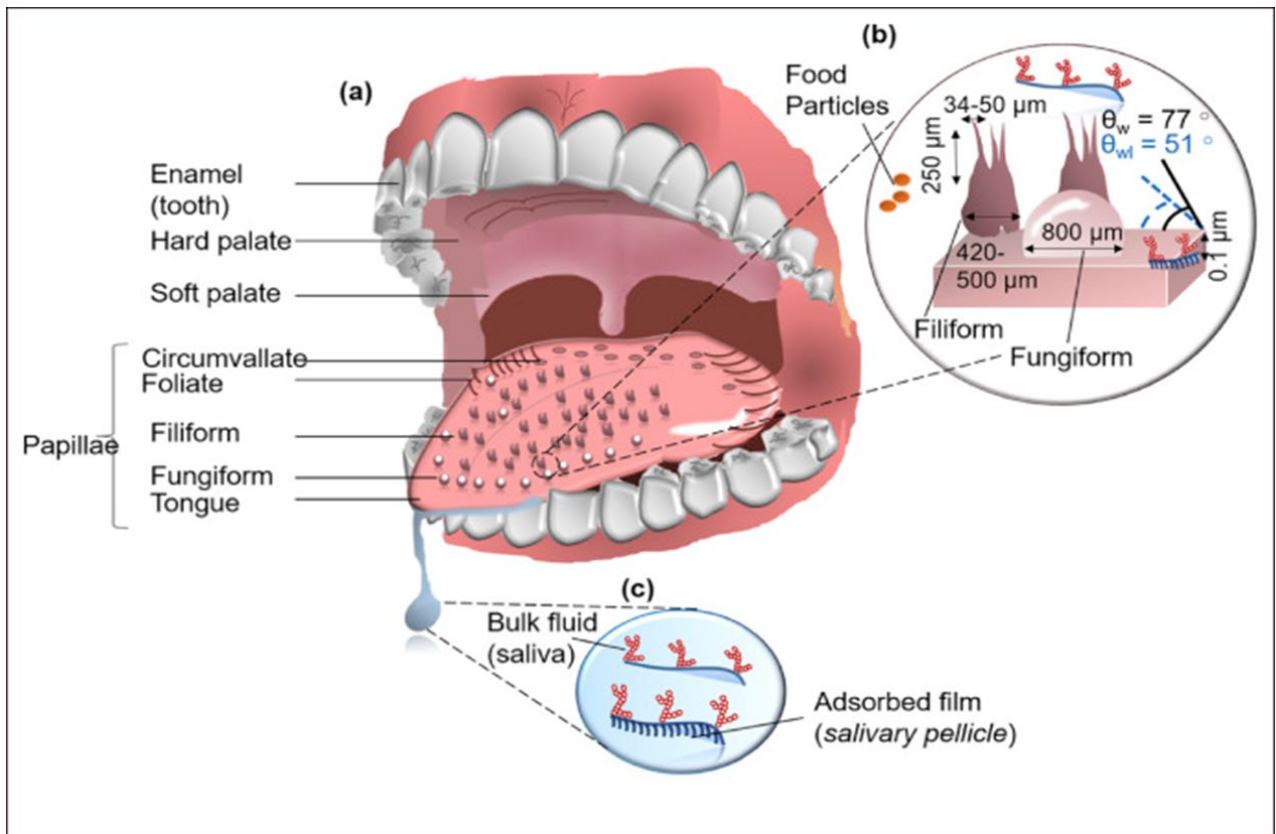
505 **Figure 2:** IDDSI terminology for TMFs and thickened liquids for people with dysphagia (©  
 506 IDDSI 2016 @<http://iddsi.org/framework/>). The IDDSI Framework and Descriptors are  
 507 licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution Sharealike 4.0 Licence  
 508 <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/4.0/legalcode>.

509 *Attribution is NOT PERMITTED for derivative works incorporating any alterations to the*  
 510 *IDDSI Framework that extend beyond language translation.*

511 *Supplementary Notice: Modification of the diagrams or descriptors within the IDDSI*  
 512 *Framework is DISCOURAGED and NOT RECOMMENDED. Alterations to elements of the*  
 513 *IDDSI framework may lead to confusion and errors in diet texture or drink selection for*  
 514 *patients with dysphagia. Such errors have previously been associated with adverse events*  
 515 *including choking and death.*

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519 **Figure 3:** Building blocks of soft oral surfaces. (a) A schematic illustration of oral cavity (b)  
 520 Building blocks of soft tongue surface at micron scale (Kullaa-Mikkonen & Sorvari, 1985) and  
 521 its change in wettability. (c) Bulk saliva and adsorbed salivary pellicle (Sarkar et al., 2019).

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