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1 **Increased textural complexity in food enhances satiation**

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6

7 **Abstract**

8 For the first time this study has shown a direct effect of food textural complexity on satiation.
9 Independent of oral processing time, increasing the textural complexity of a food
10 significantly decreased food intake. Foods with complex textures stimulate many sensory
11 perceptions during oral processing, with a succession of textures perceived between first bite
12 and swallow. Previously the impact of texture on satiation (commonly tested by increasing
13 viscosities of semi-solids) has been explained by texture's influence on oral processing time;
14 a long oral processing time enhances satiation. The results of the current study show that
15 subjects in a randomised cross-over trial who consumed a "starter" (preload) model food with
16 high textural complexity went on to eat significantly less of a two course *ad libitum* meal.
17 Subjects who consumed a "starter" model food with low textural complexity, but with the
18 same flavour, energy density and oral processing time, ate significantly more of the same *ad*
19 *libitum* meal. The results show that increasing the number of textures perceived during
20 chewing of a solid food triggers the satiation response earlier than when chewing a less
21 texturally complex food. Increasing textural complexity of manufactured foods, to allow for
22 greater sensory stimulation per bite, could potentially be used as a tool to enhance the
23 satiation response and decrease food intake.

24 **Keywords**

25 Food texture; Oral processing; Satiation; Textural complexity; Chewing time; Food oral
26 breakdown; Food structure

27

28 **Introduction**

29 Food texture is as critical in the perception and enjoyment of food quality as taste, and has a
30 direct impact on the manner in which consumers chew and swallow¹. Mastication and oral
31 processing parameters such as number of chews, chewing frequency, tongue movement and
32 muscle activity are influenced by, and in turn influence, the perception of food texture²⁻⁶.

33 There is much evidence to suggest a link between the sensory aspects of food (both flavour
34 and texture) to satiety and satiation effects. Food variability, in terms of flavour, has been
35 related to “sensory specific satiety” by numerous studies⁷⁻⁹ and there is emerging evidence
36 that the textural attributes of foods also play an essential role¹⁰. These effects have been most
37 widely studied in liquid and semi-solid foods¹¹⁻¹⁴ but new possibilities are offered by the
38 exploration of the impact of the texture of solid foods, so far only explored by a small number
39 of research groups¹⁵. Several studies have investigated the form in which a food is consumed
40 in terms of liquid or solid, finding that the form of a food influences the amount eaten¹⁶⁻¹⁹
41 Simply increasing the number of chews has been shown to decrease *ad libitum* food intake²⁰.
42 This growing body of evidence generally concludes that longer oral processing times promote
43 earlier satiation²¹⁻²⁴.

44 Textural *complexity* is a relatively new concept in the study of oral processing and can be
45 related to the number and dynamic progression of individual textures perceived from the first
46 bite, through mastication, to the point of swallow^{25,26}. Textural complexity has recently

47 been linked to *expected* satiation²⁷ but to date no-one has shown a link of texture or textural
48 complexity to satiation independent of oral transit time.

49 The hypothesis of our current investigation was that the additional sensory stimulation during
50 mastication of texturally complex foods makes a significant contribution to the satiation
51 response, *independent* of oral processing time. Isolating every aspect that contributes to
52 satiation would require control for (at least): composition (macro and micro-nutrient), energy
53 density, structure, sensory properties (flavour, aroma, texture, “mouthfeel”)²⁸, oral transit
54 time, number of chews, and hedonic response²⁹. In the current study we controlled for
55 energy density, flavour and, in particular, oral transit time. The number of chews was not
56 significantly different between the model foods either. However, we did not attempt to
57 control for macronutrient composition. Recent progress by other groups on manipulating
58 texture whilst keeping macronutrient content identical has been made and offers an exciting
59 avenue for future work³⁰.

60

61 **Methods and Materials**

62 To test the hypothesis, model foods of varying textural complexity (high complexity, HC and
63 low complexity, LC) but equivalent energy, flavour and oral processing time, were
64 developed. These were manufactured as small mouthful size pieces and used as preload
65 foods followed by *ad libitum* meals to test satiation. Questionnaires related to appetite and
66 desire to eat were used at points throughout testing and responses collected on visual
67 analogue scales. This allowed assessment of subjects own perception of hunger and
68 comparison to their behaviour during satiation testing with a two course *ad libitum* meal
69 (pasta and sauce, followed by chocolate cake) where meal termination was quantified with
70 respect to weight of food consumed.

71 **Model foods**

72 A low complexity and a high complexity model food of comparable nutritional density were
73 produced following the methodology described in detail in Larsen *et al*²⁶ and summarised
74 here. The basis of each model food was a gelatine-agar gel mixture enclosing various
75 layered and particulate inclusions, added to create different levels of textural complexity
76 through different sensory attributes. The LC samples comprised homogeneous gelatine and
77 agar with a dispersion of finely ground poppy and sunflower seeds. The HC samples
78 comprised layers of gelatine-agar gel encasing (top to bottom) a disc of firm agar gel, a hard
79 disc of dried gluten dough between two “chewy” discs of an edible chewing gum and a layer
80 of whole sunflower seeds (Figure 1). The model foods were iso-caloric and created as small
81 mouthful size pieces of approximately 8g and 50kJ. Several flavourings were trialled in
82 developing the model foods and it was determined by the researchers that a faint citrus
83 flavour successfully disguised any flavour differences between the samples. As flavour was
84 not a focus of this study flavour was not explicitly explored with the test subjects.

85 Textural complexity was quantified using sensory evaluation, a generic Quantitative
86 Descriptive Analysis (QDA), modified Texture Profiling (TP)²⁵ and Temporal Dominance of
87 Sensations (TDS)³¹. Oral processing parameters, including number of chews, chewing
88 frequency and oral processing time was quantified at 5 points during the chewing cycle (20%,
89 40%, 60%, 80% and 100% being the point of swallow). Critically, total chewing time to the
90 point of swallow did not differ significantly between the model foods (approximately
91 17seconds)²⁵. This time was measured by direct observation of subjects chewing the model
92 foods, during a separate evaluation (ie not simultaneously with the satiation tests).

93 **Satiation Test - Subjects**

94 The University of Auckland Human Participant Ethics Committee (UAHPEC) granted ethical
 95 approval for a period of 3 years to conduct the satiation tests. The test was a randomised
 96 cross-over trial with each panellist eating each preload model food in a randomised order. A
 97 total of 31 untrained male and female subjects were recruited with the following exclusion
 98 criteria; smoking, dental surgery within the last 3 months, taking medication that affects
 99 sense of taste, low sugar diets and allergies to ingredients. A further exclusion criterion was
 100 BMI, participants calculated their own BMI and indicated the range in which their BMI fell at
 101 the first testing session. To avoid the perception of discrimination based on body image or
 102 mass all participants were allowed to take part in the trial, but the data from any participant
 103 with a BMI falling outside the healthy range was excluded during data analysis. This led to
 104 an effective panel of 26 subjects.

105 The appetite evaluation, and satiation testing, was carried out in isolation in specialised
 106 sensory booths. A questionnaire was used with questions and 10cm visual analogue scale
 107 (VAS) lines anchored as shown in Table 1. This appetite questionnaire (with the same
 108 questions) was repeated five times throughout the satiation testing (referred to as Q1-Q5).

109 *Table 1: Questionnaire questions and VAS anchor points*

Question	Low Anchor	High Anchor
How hungry are you?	Not at all	Extremely hungry/As hungry as I have ever been
How strong is your desire to eat?	Very Weak/Extremely low	Extremely high/Extremely strong
How full are you?	Not at all	Extremely full/As full as I have ever been
How much do you think you could (or want to) eat right now?	Nothing at all	A very large amount

110

111 **Satiation test - Schedule**

112 The satiation testing progressed by the following schedule:

- 113 • Fasted subjects rate appetite on appetite questionnaire (Q1)
- 114 • Consume preload (model food).
- 115 • Subjects rate appetite (Q2)
- 116 • Consume first course *ad libitum* meal
- 117 • Subjects rate appetite (Q3)
- 118 • Consume second course *ad libitum* meal
- 119 • Subjects rate appetite (Q4)
- 120 • Subjects leave testing area, complete food diary for 3 hours.
- 121 • At end of 3 hours, subjects rate appetite (Q5) and note time of next major meal.

122 **Satiation test - Protocol**

123 Subjects were instructed to eat their normal breakfast to allow 3 hours of fasting before the
124 test meals. Fasting time was selected based on other studies which used fasting times from
125 0-4 hours^{19, 32-34}; 3 hours being a typical, but not excessive, elapsed period between breakfast
126 and lunch. Test meals were administered at the same time of day (either 12pm or 1pm) for
127 each subject, with each subject timing their last major meal (breakfast) accordingly. For each
128 subject a wash-out period of a minimum of 3 days was allowed between testing sessions.

129 The test protocol coupled a preload with a two course *ad libitum* meal to combat sensory
130 specific satiety. Rarely is a second course offered in *ad libitum* meal testing but this worked
131 well in the current study to ensure participants had not simply stopped eating due to feeling
132 bored with the first course.

133 **Preload**

134 Subjects were randomly assigned 4 pieces of either the LC or the HC model food at random
135 and they consumed all the pieces within 10 minutes, 250 mL of tap water was provided if

136 required. Subjects indicated when they had finished, waited 10 minutes and then filled out an
137 appetite questionnaire (Q2).

138 ***Ad libitum meal, course 1***

139 The first *ad libitum* course consisted of pre-weighed (250 g) servings of pasta in tomato sauce
140 (2406kJ/serve). Subjects were given 20 minutes in which to finish this course, they were
141 allowed as many refills as they liked until they were completely and comfortably full. They
142 could stop eating, or decline the further servings if they could not eat any more.
143 Approximately half of participants requested a second serving. Tap water (250 mL) was
144 provided. After indicating they were finished, the subjects waited 10 minutes before filling
145 out the next appetite questionnaire (Q3). The amount of food leftover (if any) was weighed to
146 calculate the total amount consumed. After the 5 minutes of allotted time to fill out Q3, the
147 subjects were given the next course.

148 ***Ad libitum meal, course 2***

149 The second *ad libitum* course consisted of pre-weighed (100 g) servings of chocolate cake
150 with chocolate icing (1182 KJ/serve). Subjects could ask for further servings and only
151 stopped eating when they were completely full. Tap water was provided (250 mL) and this
152 course had to be consumed within 20 minutes. After finishing, subjects waited 10 minutes
153 and filled out the next appetite questionnaire (Q4). The amount of food leftover (if any) was
154 weighed to calculate the total amount consumed.

155 ***Post-test***

156 Subjects were given a take-home food diary in which they noted the time, amount and type of
157 all food or drink consumed for 3 hours after the test. After this time, the subjects filled out the

158 last appetite questionnaire (Q5). They also sent a text message to the researchers indicating
159 when they had their next major meal (e.g. dinner).

160 The whole satiation test was repeated on a different day with subjects receiving the alternate
161 preload to that they had consumed previously.

162 NB. A small pilot test was conducted on 6 subjects prior to the main satiation testing. These
163 subjects undertook the full satiation test having the HC preload in triplicate and the LC
164 preload in triplicate. There were no significant differences between the amounts of *ad libitum*
165 meal(s) consumed within data of the same preload group ($p > 0.05$) (data not shown).

166 **Statistical analysis**

167 All data were checked for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test with a level of significance
168 of $p < 0.05$. A repeated measures ANOVA was conducted for the meal consumption data.
169 The level of significance was set at $p < 0.05$. All statistical analysis was performed in R (R
170 Development Core Team, 2011) using the aov function for ANOVA analysis and the Shapiro
171 Wilk function. Analysis on appetite ratings conducted using one-way ANOVA with a Tukey
172 post hoc test (preload conditions as the independent variable). The differences of appetite
173 ratings between pre- and post-preloads were compared by a paired t-test on each preload
174 condition.

175

176 **Results and Discussion**

177 The results show that the HC preload group consumed a significantly lower amount of food
178 ($p < 0.01$) for the first course of the *ad libitum* meal (pasta and sauce) than the LC preload
179 group (Figure 3). The difference in consumed weight equated to 156.6 g or approximately
180 1507 kJ. This coincides with the prediction of the preceding appetite questionnaire (Q2) and

181 reinforces the suggestion that the satiation process (to some extent) was progressing.
182 However, the next appetite questionnaire (Q3) did not reflect any difference between the LC
183 and HC groups (Figure 2), indicating that both groups felt equally sated.

184 There was no significant difference between the LC and HC groups ($p = 0.08$) in the total
185 weight of food consumed during the second course of the *ad libitum* meal (chocolate cake).
186 This was corroborated by Q4 (Figure 2), which again showed no significant differences in
187 appetite ratings ($p > 0.05$).

188 Prior to the satiation test, fasted subjects showed no significant differences in their responses
189 to the questions from the first appetite questionnaire (Q1) “how hungry are you?”, “how full
190 are you?” and “how much do you think you could (or want to) eat right now?” (Figure 2).
191 However, the group who were to go on to consume the low complexity (LC) preload gave a
192 significantly higher rating to the question “how strong is your desire to eat?”, than the high
193 complexity (HC) preload group ($p < 0.05$). It is unclear why this occurred, as all subjects had
194 fasted for the same length of time prior to filling out Q1.

195 Figure 2 shows that after the preload (model food consumption), the appetite ratings (Q2)
196 showed no significant differences between the LC and HC preload groups for “hunger” or
197 “how much subjects wanted to eat” but there was a significant ($p < 0.05$) decrease in the
198 “desire to eat” and increase in “fullness” for the HC group. This suggests that the higher
199 textural complexity in the HC samples may already have been influencing the satiation
200 process, starting to give subjects the notion that they didn’t want to eat as much in the
201 following meals, despite having consumed an isocaloric preload to the LC samples.

202 The results show a slowing down in eating amount during the second course, as the average
203 weight consumed was only 105g and 132.3g for the HC and LC groups respectively. This
204 observation might draw into question the effectiveness of a one course *ad libitum* test, as

205 sensory fatigue, rather than complete satiation, could be playing a greater role than initially
206 thought in meal termination. In the current study the second course was designed to have
207 completely different sensory properties to the first to combat any sensory fatigue or sensory
208 specific satiety (SSS). In some cases SSS has been noticed as early as 2 minutes after an *ad*
209 *libitum* intake and prior to food entering the intestinal tract and absorption³⁵⁻³⁷.

210 However, the Q4 ratings all approached the extreme end of the VAS line suggesting that
211 participants had previously (Q3) listened to the instruction to stop eating when “comfortably
212 full” and the second course had, potentially, led to being *more* than comfortably full.

213 Anecdotally it might be noted that this is frequently the case with chocolate cake.

214 When combining the weight of food consumed during both courses of the meal that was
215 consumed by subjects in the HC group, this was significantly lower than that consumed by
216 the LC group ($p < 0.01$) (Figure 3). On average the subjects consumed 183.9 g less food
217 when they had consumed the HC preload. The *ad libitum* meal results were corroborated
218 with the appetite questionnaire results at each step, even three hours post-eating where there
219 were significant decreases in ratings of “hunger” “desire to eat”, “how much subjects wanted
220 to eat” and a significant increase in “fullness” in subjects from the HC preload group (Figure
221 2).

222 Interestingly an impact of the HC pre-load starter food on satiety, as well as satiation, is
223 suggested by these subjects with this reporting of lower hunger ratings three hours following
224 the meal (Q5). This was recorded from subjects’ food diaries and was not a particular focus
225 of the satiation trial, and many other factors could have influenced these ratings.

226

227 ***Mechanism***

228 The direct contribution of texture to satiation is still a nascent area of study since divorcing
229 texture from oral transit time whilst keeping all other parameters equal is challenging. In the
230 current study the model foods used as preload in the satiation trials, whilst iso-caloric, were
231 not controlled for macronutrient similarity.

232 The aspects of the cephalic response that contribute to satiation have been studied elsewhere,
233 and recent advances in functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) have indicated the
234 neural regions of brain that interact with both short- and long-term satiety signals³⁸⁻⁴⁰. These
235 signals influence both quality and quantity of food consumed⁴¹. There have been fewer
236 studies of the areas of the brain related to perception of food texture directly⁴². Using the
237 model foods developed in this current programme the authors are now embarking on a
238 neuroimaging study to identify cortex activation that scales with food complexity in areas of
239 the brain that process sensory information and areas associated with food reward.

240 The subjects in this study ate significantly less when preloaded with a high textural
241 complexity food, although they rated their hunger/fullness the same at the conclusion of the
242 meal. This indicates that the impact of the textural complexity effectively went “unnoticed”
243 which is a promising result for managing food intake.

244

245 **Conclusions**

246 Textural complexity can be built into model foods resulting in similar oral processing times,
247 though probably only if the foods are small, allowing control of the oral transit for testing the
248 impact of texture on satiation.

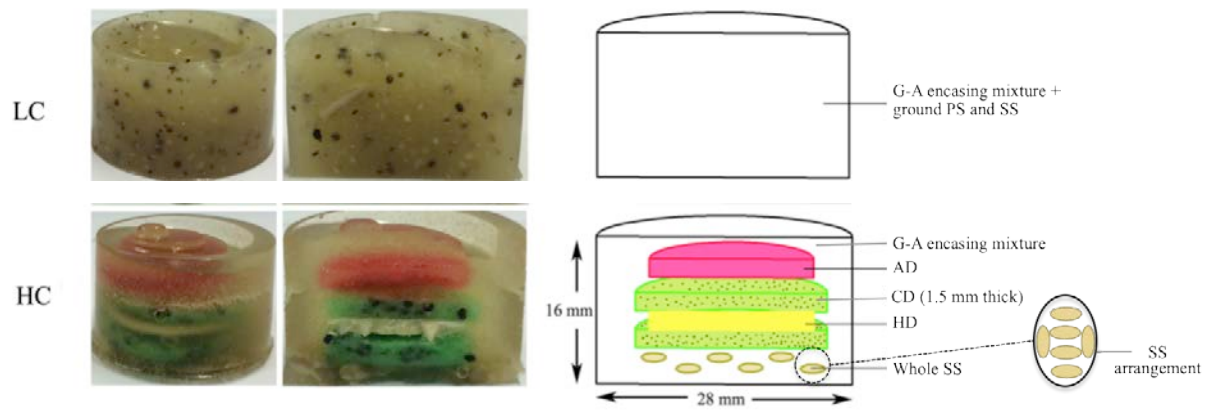
249 The significance of the results of the current study is that, for the first time, an impact of food
250 texture on satiation has been shown independent of oral processing time. We propose that the

251 increased sensory stimulation from more complex textures can contribute to and accelerate
252 the satiation response.

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257 Figure 1: Model foods.

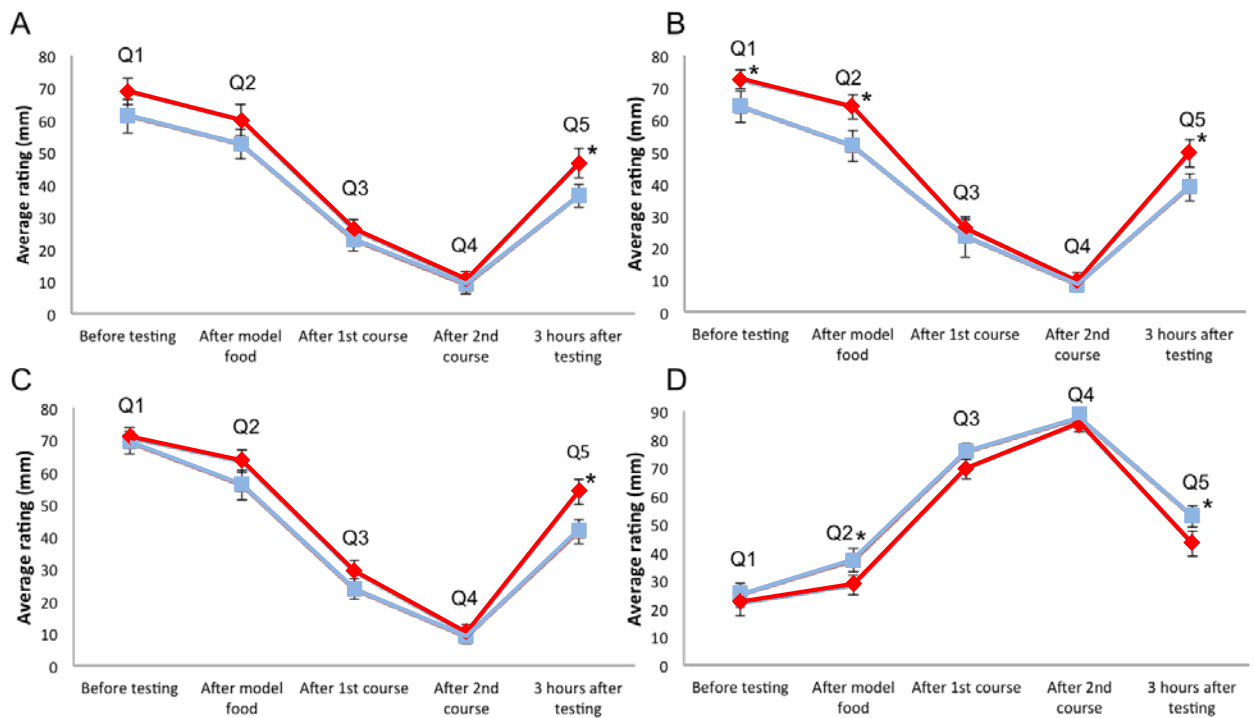
258 LC: Low complexity. HC: High complexity. G-A: Gelatin-Agar gel. AD: Agar disc. CD:

259 Chewy disc. HD: Hard disc. PS: Poppy seeds. SS: Sunflower seeds.

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265 Figure 2 Graphs showing the average ratings from the appetite questionnaires during satiation
266 testing (Q1 – Q5).

267 A= average ratings for 'subjects' hunger', B= average ratings for 'subjects' desire to eat', C=

268 average ratings for 'how much subjects want to eat', D= average ratings for 'subjects'

269 fullness'. The red line with diamond symbols denotes the LC group (subjects that consumed

270 the LC model food) and the blue line with square symbols denotes the HC group Error bars

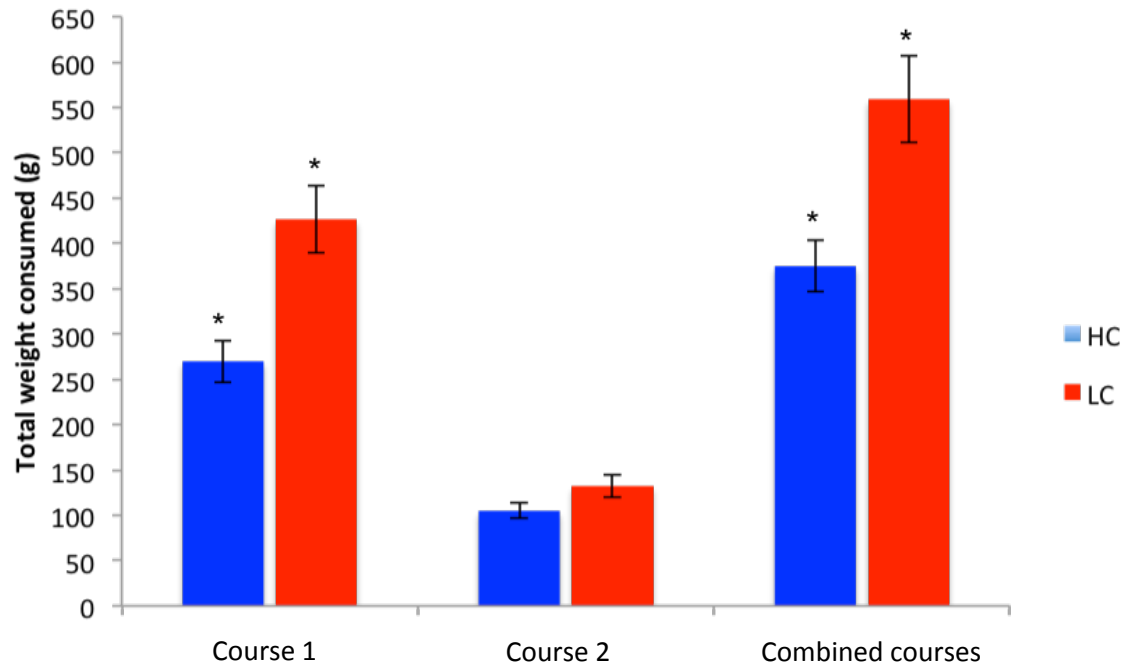
271 indicate standard error and * designates a significant difference between the LC and HC

272 group (p < 0.05).

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277 Figure 3. Average weight consumed during each *ad libitum* course and the total combined
278 weight consumed (course 1 + course 2). Error bars indicate standard error and * indicates a
279 significant difference between LC and HC ($p < 0.05$).

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398 **Author contribution statement**

399 Larsen designed the experiments, conducted the satiation trials and conducted the statistical
400 analysis of the data. Larsen and Tang designed and made the model foods. Tang assisted in
401 conducting the satiation trials. Ferguson provided nutrition expertise and guidance. James
402 conceived and designed the programme. Larsen and James wrote the paper.

403

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