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**Small food texture modifications can be used to  
change oral processing behaviour and to control *ad  
libitum* food intake**

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20 **ABSTRACT**

21 Little is known whether small modifications of food texture are sufficient to influence satiation.  
22 This study used four iso-caloric yogurts differing in viscosity (low/high) and granola particle size  
23 (small/large) to investigate the influence of small texture modifications on oral processing  
24 behaviour, eating rate and *ad libitum* intake. Yogurt viscosity differed by a factor of 1.57x to  
25 1.81x. Granola particle size was 6 mm and 12 mm (2-fold difference). Granola particle  
26 concentration based on weight was constant (15% w/w). Oral processing behaviour was  
27 quantified by video recording consumers eating yogurt *ad libitum* (n=104). Ratings for appetite,  
28 liking and product familiarity were also quantified.

29 A decrease in yogurt viscosity significantly decreased spoon size, number of chews per spoon  
30 and oral exposure time per spoon but did not significantly affect eating rate and *ad libitum*  
31 intake. A decrease in granola particle size from 12 mm to 6 mm at constant weight concentration  
32 significantly increased number of chews per spoon and decreased spoon size, eating rate and  
33 *ad libitum* intake without affecting liking. The differences in eating rate and *ad libitum* intake  
34 between yogurts containing small and large granola particles were 5 g/min (7%) and 17 g (5%),  
35 respectively. We suggest that the volume of granola particles added to the yogurt and not the  
36 size of particles *per se* was the driver of oral processing behaviour.

37 We conclude that relatively small modifications in yogurt texture, especially granola particle size,  
38 are sufficient to change oral processing behaviour and *ad libitum* intake. These findings  
39 demonstrate that small texture modifications of foods, such as the size of granola particles  
40 added to yogurt, can be used to modulate eating rate and food intake within a meal.

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42

43 **Keywords: oral processing behaviour, eating rate, satiation, food intake, food**  
44 **texture**

45

46 **1. INTRODUCTION**

47 Increasing concerns regarding overweight and obesity require a better understanding of factors  
48 contributing to food intake. Therefore, it is of great interest to quantify the extent to which the  
49 modulation of food properties such as texture can be used to regulate the amount of food  
50 consumed within a meal.

51 To define relationships between food properties and intake, it is necessary to take into  
52 consideration the oral processing of foods. The food products available on the market require  
53 different oral processing efforts to transform the initial food structure into a bolus that can be  
54 safely swallowed. Hard, chewy, crunchy and less moist/lubricated foods need more chewing and  
55 are kept longer in the oral cavity in comparison to liquids or soft foods (Forde et al., 2013; Forde  
56 et al., 2017; Wee et al., 2018; Aguayo-Mendoza et al., 2019). For instance, 50 g of mashed  
57 potatoes required about 27 chews and were kept for 29 s in mouth before swallowing, while the  
58 same amount of tortilla chips required 488 chews and was kept for 349 s in mouth (Forde et al.,  
59 2013). These differences in oral processing behaviour have a profound impact on food and  
60 energy intake. Among 35 food products that represent a wide range of textures, Forde et al.  
61 (2013) observed that consumption in smaller bites, with higher number of chews and longer  
62 oral residence duration imparted higher expected satiation. The lowest (canned tomato) and the  
63 highest (hotdog) expected satiation scores differed by approximately 3-fold. Similarly, in a study  
64 that compared 20 different pre-packed meals, Ferriday et al. (2016) observed that slower eating  
65 rates, longer intervals between bites and longer oral exposure time resulted in higher expected  
66 satiation, greater post-meal fullness (ratings obtained immediately after eating a fixed portion)  
67 and greater satiety (calculated as the total area under the curve of fullness ratings over time),  
68 suggesting that eating rate affects the amount and energy of foods consumed within and  
69 between meals.

70 Changes in the satiating capacity of foods through modulations of textural properties have been  
71 extensively reported (de Wijk et al., 2008; Zijlstra et al., 2009; Bolhuis et al., 2014; Robinson  
72 et al., 2014; Lasschuijt et al., 2017; McCrickerd et al., 2017). Zijlstra et al. (2008) compared  
73 the *ad libitum* intake of three milk-based products varying in viscosity. The products were  
74 consumed with a thick straw. A 9-fold increase in viscosity (comparing liquid with semi-solid  
75 foods) led to a 30% (243g) reduction in intake, whereas a 3-fold increase in viscosity (comparing  
76 liquid with semi-liquid foods) reduced intake by 14% (110g) (Zijlstra et al., 2008). This shows  
77 that the larger the texture differences, the larger the impact on food and energy intake within  
78 a meal. Similarly, Lasschuijt et al. (2017) observed differences in *ad libitum* intake of semi-solid  
79 gels differing in fracture properties. Hard gels were chewed approximately 2.5 times more per  
80 bite, yielding a 42% reduction in eating rate and a 21% (~40g) reduction in intake. In these  
81 studies a prolonged oral exposure resulting from lower eating rates was suggested as the reason  
82 for decreases in food intake (Zijlstra et al., 2008; de Graaf, 2012; Lasschuijt et al., 2017).

83 More subtle modifications of food texture have also been shown to affect food intake. Bolhuis et  
84 al. (2014) compared the oral processing behaviour and *ad libitum* intake of soft and hard  
85 versions of hamburgers and rice salads. Hamburgers varied in type of bread (soft and hard) and  
86 rice salads in type of rice (risotto and white rice). The consumption of hard foods was

87 characterized by smaller bites, longer oral exposure time and higher numbers of chews, resulting  
88 in a 32% reduction in eating rate and 16% (63g) reduction in *ad libitum* intake in comparison  
89 to the soft versions of the same foods (Bolhuis et al., 2014). Tarrega, Marcano & Fiszman (2016)  
90 reported that the expected satiation of yogurts with added fruit particles increased by 28% when  
91 yogurt viscosity was increased by 2.6-fold. The addition of lyophilized pineapple cubes to yogurts  
92 contributed to an increase in expected satiation of low viscosity yogurt by 23% and of high  
93 viscosity yogurt by 6%. Eating rate and food intake were not quantified in this study. The authors  
94 attributed this increase in expected satiating capacity to the more complex oral processing  
95 behaviour that a high viscosity yogurt matrix and chewable fruit particles require. McCrickerd et  
96 al. (2017) modulated the eating rate and oral processing behaviour of rice porridges by changing  
97 the proportions of ground rice grains and liquid stock. The thick porridge (containing whole  
98 brown rice and semi-ground white rice grains; 1:1 rice:stock) was consumed slower, with larger  
99 bite sizes, longer oral exposure time per bite and more chews per bite than the thin porridge  
100 (containing rice grains fully ground to powder; 5:1 rice:stock). A 41% decrease in eating rate  
101 of thick porridge resulted in an approximate 12% (63g) decrease in intake in comparison to thin  
102 porridge (McCrickerd et al., 2017). Changes in the textural properties of foods have been shown  
103 to impact satiety responses. Zhu et al. (2013) modified the viscosity of semi solids meals by  
104 adding guar gum. Eating rate of the high viscosity meal was 31% slower than that of the low  
105 viscosity meal. Although *ad libitum* intake did not vary between the two meals, the high viscosity  
106 meal yielded an appetite suppression, with a reduction in postprandial hunger and desire to eat,  
107 increased fullness, slower gastric emptying rate and a lower postprandial plasma concentration  
108 of the hormone glucose-dependent insulinotropic peptide. The glycemic response was also  
109 affected by differences in viscosity, with the postprandial glucose plasma concentration being  
110 higher after the consumption of the high viscosity meal (Zhu et al. 2013).

111 Even though large reductions in food and energy intake within a meal can be achieved when the  
112 textural properties of foods are modified considerably, large texture modifications have a lower  
113 potential of being accepted and sustained overtime, as consumers should be willing to consume  
114 a very different product. For that reason, further investigations are required to better understand  
115 the extent to which small and subtle modifications of food texture can regulate food intake within  
116 a meal. In this context, this study aims to determine the influence of small variations in yogurt  
117 viscosity and granola particle size on oral processing behaviour, eating rate and *ad libitum*  
118 intake. We hypothesize that small modifications in viscosity and particle size are sufficient to  
119 change oral processing behaviour and to control the amount of food consumed within a meal.

120

## 121 **2. MATERIALS & METHODS**

122 Medical ethical approval for this study was obtained from the medical ethical committee of  
123 Wageningen University (NL62080.081.17).

124

125

126

127 **2.1. Subjects**

128 A total of n=104 participants (76 females, 28 males, average age: 21±3 y, range: 18-36;  
129 average BMI: 21±2 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, range: 18-26) completed the study. Recruitment was done via the  
130 database of the Division of Human Nutrition of Wageningen University, social media and printed  
131 advertisements posted at the University Campus boards. Participants had to fulfil the following  
132 criteria: Dutch nationality of European ancestry, born in The Netherlands, age between 18-45  
133 years, regular consumer of yogurt (defined as consume yogurt products at least once a week),  
134 good general and oral health (self-reported), normal smell and taste functions (self-reported),  
135 normal body mass index (BMI 18.5-25 kg/m<sup>2</sup>) (based on self-reported weight and height) and  
136 no dental braces or piercings in/or around the mouth (except removable piercings). Participants  
137 with food allergies or intolerances for gluten, dairy or nuts, mastication and/or swallowing  
138 problems, history of eating disorders and those that followed an energy restricted diet during  
139 the prior 2 months as well as pregnant and lactating women were not included. All participants  
140 gave written informed consent prior to the first session.

141

142 **2.2 Test products**

143 In total six yogurts with granola were prepared. Yogurts varied in viscosity and size of granola  
144 particles. A 2x3 full factorial design was used with 2 yogurt viscosities (low/high) and 3 granola  
145 particle sizes (powder/small/large). Granola was added to yogurts at 15% w/w. All six samples  
146 had the same ingredient composition and calorie content. The granola powder displayed a very  
147 different behaviour upon mixing with yogurt in comparison to the small and large granola  
148 particles. It took up water from the yogurt matrix shortly after mixing, leading to the swelling  
149 of the powdered particles and to an increase in viscosity and stickiness of the yogurt  
150 accompanied by a decrease in palatability. Because the aimed experimental conditions with  
151 respect to yogurt viscosity and palatability were not met for the two yogurts with added granola  
152 powder, the data referent to these two samples was removed from the data analysis of this  
153 study. The data of four samples which met the target experimental conditions (low/high yogurt  
154 viscosity with small/large granola particles) is reported. We acknowledge that the presence of  
155 the two yogurts with powdered granola particles in the data collection (all participants consumed  
156 all six samples) might have influenced the results of the current study. As outlined in section  
157 2.3, participants attended two sessions per week, with at least 1 day between sessions. We  
158 suggest that potential carry over effects in this case are very limited.

159

160 **2.2.1. Yogurts**

161 As high viscosity yogurt, the commercially available Optimel Greek style yogurt – natural  
162 (FrieslandCampina, NL) was used. This yogurt contains 54 kcal, 3.5 g carbohydrate and 9 g  
163 protein per 100 ml. To obtain the low viscosity yogurt, the commercially available Optimel Greek  
164 style yogurt was stirred in a mixer (model N50, Hobart Corporation, United States) with a “B  
165 Flat” beater for 40 min at medium speed (option “2” of N50 mixer) followed by stirring for 30  
166 min at low speed (option “1” of N50 mixer).

167 Flow curves of the yogurts were determined using an Anton Paar MCR 300 rheometer (Anton  
168 Paar GmbH, Austria) operating with a 4 wings stirrer of 22 mm diameter (ST 22-4/Q1, Anton  
169 Paar GmbH, Austria) at a shear rate range of 0.1 to 100 s<sup>-1</sup>. Yogurts were removed from the  
170 refrigerator and led to equilibrate to room temperature. Measurements were performed in  
171 triplicate at 25°C.

172 At shear rates of 0.1, 1, 10 and 100 s<sup>-1</sup>, the viscosities of the thick yogurt were 73±9, 69±8,  
173 9±1 and 1.1±0.1 Pa.s, while the viscosities of the thin yogurt at the respective shear rates were  
174 42±3, 38±6, 5±1 and 0.7±0.1 Pa.s. The viscosity differences between low and high viscosity  
175 yogurts ranged from 1.57x to 1.81x. For the sake of simplicity, we refer to these differences in  
176 viscosity as a factor of 1.7x. A preliminary sensory test (focus group discussion, data not shown)  
177 confirmed that the difference in viscosity between the yogurts was perceivable as a difference  
178 in thickness. We did not evaluate whether the differences in granola particle size affected the  
179 perception of granola related texture attributes such as crunchiness and grittiness by a similar  
180 magnitude as differences in viscosity affected thickness perception.

181

### 182 **2.2.1. Granola particles**

183 Commercially available granola (BioFamilia, Switzerland) was used. Granola was composed of  
184 oat flakes, sugar, cereal crispies (maize, rice, sugar, whole grain flour - wheat, rye, barley,  
185 barley malt, cocoa powder and table salt), sunflower oil, flour (wheat, rye), coconut flakes,  
186 wheat germ, dextrose, roasted hazelnuts, honey and table salt (460 kcal, 18 g fat, 64 g  
187 carbohydrate and 9 g protein per 100 g). Granola was sieved using stainless steel sieves varying  
188 in mesh size (2, 5.6 and 12.5 mm, Retsch, Germany) to obtain three fractions: powder (< 2  
189 mm), small (~ 6 mm) and large (~ 12 mm) particles.

190

### 191 **2.3. Experimental procedure**

192 Participants attended a total of six sessions of approximately 30 min over a period of 3 weeks.  
193 To minimize fatigue and potential carry over effects, participants attended no more than 2  
194 sessions per week with at least 1 day between consecutive sessions. The test sessions took  
195 place at breakfast time between 7:30 - 09:30 h. For each participant, six sessions with the same  
196 starting time were scheduled according to his/her usual breakfast time. The sessions were  
197 carried out in sensory booths at 20°C under normal light conditions. Participants were instructed  
198 to come in a fasted state by refraining from eating or drinking, except for water, after 22:00 h  
199 the day before the test session.

200

#### 201 **2.3.1. Oral processing behaviour**

202 A digital camera (Logitech webcam, resolution 640 x 280 pixels) was positioned in front of the  
203 subject, close enough to take a complete picture of the face without causing distraction or  
204 discomfort. Participants were instructed to consume the yogurt naturally while looking straight

205 into the webcam. They could not see themselves in the computer screen. Video recordings were  
206 done using the Kinovea software version 0.8.24 (Kinovea, France).

207 Videos were decoded using the Observer software version XT 11 (Noldus Information  
208 Technology, the Netherlands). A coding scheme was developed to record the frequency counts  
209 of spoons, chews and swallows during a complete eating event as previous described (Bolhuis  
210 et al., 2013; Forde et al., 2013; Ferriday et al., 2016). Since from the video analysis we cannot  
211 distinguish chews from tongue movements, all vertical displacements of the jaw were defined  
212 and counted as a chew. Measures of total eating duration (s), total oral exposure time (period  
213 of food in the mouth) (s), inter-spoon interval (period of no food in the mouth) (s) were directly  
214 extracted from the videos. These parameters together with the measures of amount of yogurt  
215 consumed were used to derive the parameters oral exposure time/spoon, eating rate (g/min),  
216 spoon size (g), chews/spoon and rate of spooning and chewing ( $\text{min}^{-1}$ ). A description of the oral  
217 processing parameters considered in this study is listed in Table 1. Coding of all video recordings  
218 was done by a single coder. To develop the coding scheme, three researchers watched several  
219 videos together and agreed on the coding scheme. Coding was not crosschecked by a second  
220 coder which has previously been recommended to increase reliability of video decoding  
221 (Hennequin et al., 2005).

222

223 **Table 1.** Oral processing parameters extracted from video recordings.

<b>Parameter</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Eating duration (s)	The total duration of the eating event. Comprises the time from the first spoon to the final swallow
Total oral exposure time (s)	Period that food remains in the mouth during the eating event
Oral exposure time per spoon (s)	Average period that food remains in the mouth during each spoonful
Total interval between spoons (s)	Period that there was no food in the mouth during the eating event. Comprises the time between a final swallow and a subsequent spoonful
Eating rate (g/min)	The amount of food (g) consumed over the total oral exposure time
Total number of spoons (n)	The total number of spoons taken during the eating event
Total number of chews (n)	The total number of chewing cycles during the eating event
Total number of swallows (n)	The total number of swallows during the eating event. Includes intermediate swallows between chewing cycles and final swallows
Chews per spoon	The average number of chewing cycles per spoonful
Spoon size (g)	The average amount of food (g) consumed per spoonful
Spooning rate ( $\text{min}^{-1}$ )	The total number of spoons over the total eating duration
Chewing rate ( $\text{min}^{-1}$ )	The total number of chewing cycles over the total oral exposure time

224

225

### 226 **2.3.2. Ad libitum food intake**

227 An amount of 1 Kg of yogurt (850 g yogurt with 150 g granola) was served to participants in 2  
228 L ceramic bowls coded with three-digit random codes. The total energy content per serving was



229 1149 kcal. The presentation order of the yogurts was balanced over participants and sessions  
230 using a modified Latin square design. A glass with still mineral water (~140 g) previously  
231 weighed was also provided. Yogurt was weighed the day before and kept refrigerated at 5 °C.  
232 Granola particles were also weighed the day before and were added to the yogurt immediately  
233 before the start of consumption. Participants were instructed to eat freely until feeling pleasantly  
234 full. A metallic tablespoon was used for yogurt consumption. The size of the tablespoon is  
235 common for consumption of yogurts and soups in the Netherlands. Participants were not  
236 informed that food intake was the primary parameter of interest. The amount eaten, used as  
237 indication of satiation, was calculated as the difference between the initial and final weights of  
238 the bowl.

239

### 240 **2.3.3. Appetite, liking and familiarity ratings**

241 Hunger, fullness and desire to eat were assessed before and after the *ad libitum* consumption  
242 using a 100 mm VAS anchored “not at all” and “very much”. Liking was assessed after the first  
243 spoon by all subjects (n=104). After the data collection of the first 52 subjects, a preliminary  
244 data analysis indicated that information on familiarity and desire to eat the product again and  
245 liking at the end of consumption would allow to better understand the palatability of the yogurts.  
246 Therefore, the last 52 subjects rated familiarity, after the first spoon and liking and desire to eat  
247 the product again after the last spoon in addition to liking after the first spoon. Ratings were  
248 obtained using a 100 mm VAS anchored “not at all” and “very much”. All measurements were  
249 done using Qualtrics® research CORE™, United States.

250

### 251 **2.4. Data analysis**

252 Statistical analyses were performed using XLSTAT (Addinsoft, France). Three-way ANOVA was  
253 used to check for effects of subjects, yogurt and granola on intake, appetite, liking, familiarity  
254 and oral processing parameters. Interactions between yogurt and granola were included in the  
255 analysis/model. Tukey HSD was used as a post-hoc test for differences between mean values.  
256 All tests were carried out at a significance level of  $\alpha=0.05$ . Pearson’s correlation coefficients (r)  
257 were calculated to explore how intake was affected by eating rate or other oral processing  
258 parameters.

259

## 260 **3. RESULTS**

### 261 **3.1. Appetite ratings**

262 The differences in hunger, fullness and desire to eat rated before and after consumption were  
263 similar (no significant differences) for the four yogurts with added granola particles (Table 2).  
264 This shows that subjects ate until feeling pleasantly full independent of type of yogurt.

265

266 **Table 2.** Summary of appetite ratings, hedonic ratings, oral processing parameters and intake  
 267 (mean (SEM)) of yogurts differing in viscosity (low/high) with added granola particles differing  
 268 in size (small/large) (n=104).

		Low viscosity/ Small particles	Low viscosity/ Large particles	High viscosity/ Small particles	High viscosity/ Large particles	Average low viscosity	Average high viscosity	Average small particles	Average large particles
<b>Change in appetite (after-before consumption)</b>	Hunger	-53(2) <sup>a</sup>	-50(2) <sup>a</sup>	-52(2) <sup>a</sup>	-51(2) <sup>a</sup>	-51(2) <sup>a</sup>	-52(2) <sup>a</sup>	-52(2) <sup>a</sup>	-50(2) <sup>a</sup>
	Fullness	53(3) <sup>a</sup>	52(2) <sup>a</sup>	52(3) <sup>a</sup>	52(3) <sup>a</sup>	53(2) <sup>a</sup>	52(2) <sup>a</sup>	53(2) <sup>a</sup>	52(2) <sup>a</sup>
	Desire to eat	-56(2) <sup>a</sup>	-53(2) <sup>a</sup>	-53(2) <sup>a</sup>	-52(3) <sup>a</sup>	-55(2) <sup>a</sup>	-53(2) <sup>a</sup>	-54(2) <sup>a</sup>	-53(2) <sup>a</sup>
<b>Hedonic ratings</b>	Liking (after first spoon)	65(2) <sup>b</sup>	64(2) <sup>b</sup>	69(1) <sup>a</sup>	67(2) <sup>ab</sup>	64(1) <sup>b</sup>	68(1) <sup>a</sup>	67(1) <sup>a</sup>	65(1) <sup>a</sup>
	Liking (after last spoon)	70(2) <sup>a</sup>	72(2) <sup>a</sup>	75(2) <sup>a</sup>	73(2) <sup>a</sup>	71(2) <sup>a</sup>	74(1) <sup>a</sup>	72(1) <sup>a</sup>	72(1) <sup>a</sup>
	Difference in liking	3(2) <sup>a</sup>	7(2) <sup>a</sup>	4(1) <sup>a</sup>	4(1) <sup>a</sup>	5(1) <sup>a</sup>	4(1) <sup>a</sup>	3(1) <sup>a</sup>	5(1) <sup>a</sup>
	Familiarity	55(4) <sup>b</sup>	58(3) <sup>b</sup>	69(3) <sup>a</sup>	72(3) <sup>a</sup>	56(3) <sup>b</sup>	71(2) <sup>a</sup>	62(3) <sup>a</sup>	65(2) <sup>a</sup>
	Desire to eat product again	64(3) <sup>b</sup>	65(3) <sup>b</sup>	74(2) <sup>a</sup>	71(2) <sup>ab</sup>	65(2) <sup>b</sup>	72(2) <sup>a</sup>	69(2) <sup>a</sup>	68(2) <sup>a</sup>
<b>Oral processing behaviour</b>	Total spoons (n)	27(1) <sup>a</sup>	26(1) <sup>a</sup>	25(1) <sup>b</sup>	25(1) <sup>b</sup>	27(1) <sup>a</sup>	25(1) <sup>b</sup>	26(1) <sup>a</sup>	26(1) <sup>a</sup>
	Total chews (n)	458(17) <sup>a</sup>	424(15) <sup>b</sup>	443(15) <sup>ab</sup>	437(17) <sup>ab</sup>	441(11) <sup>a</sup>	440(11) <sup>a</sup>	451(11) <sup>a</sup>	430(11) <sup>b</sup>
	Total swallows (n)	47(2) <sup>ab</sup>	48(2) <sup>a</sup>	43(2) <sup>c</sup>	44(2) <sup>bc</sup>	47(1) <sup>a</sup>	44(1) <sup>b</sup>	45(1) <sup>a</sup>	46(1) <sup>a</sup>
	Eating duration (s)	406(13) <sup>a</sup>	390(12) <sup>a</sup>	403(12) <sup>a</sup>	406(14) <sup>a</sup>	398(9) <sup>a</sup>	405(9) <sup>a</sup>	405(9) <sup>a</sup>	398(9) <sup>a</sup>
	Total oral exposure time (s)	347(11) <sup>a</sup>	329(10) <sup>a</sup>	344(10) <sup>a</sup>	344(13) <sup>a</sup>	338(7) <sup>a</sup>	344(8) <sup>a</sup>	345(8) <sup>a</sup>	337(8) <sup>a</sup>
	Total interval between spoons (s)	59(3) <sup>a</sup>	61(3) <sup>a</sup>	60(3) <sup>a</sup>	62(3) <sup>a</sup>	60(2) <sup>a</sup>	61(1) <sup>a</sup>	59(2) <sup>a</sup>	62(2) <sup>a</sup>
	Eating rate (g/min)	60(2) <sup>b</sup>	65(2) <sup>a</sup>	60(2) <sup>b</sup>	64(2) <sup>a</sup>	63(1) <sup>a</sup>	62(1) <sup>a</sup>	60(1) <sup>b</sup>	65(1) <sup>a</sup>
	Spooning rate (spoon/min)	4.0(0.1) <sup>a</sup>	4.1(0.1) <sup>a</sup>	3.7(0.1) <sup>b</sup>	3.7(0.1) <sup>b</sup>	4.1(0.1) <sup>a</sup>	3.7(0.1) <sup>b</sup>	3.9(0.1) <sup>a</sup>	3.9(0.1) <sup>a</sup>
	Chewing rate (chews/min)	79(1) <sup>a</sup>	78(2) <sup>a</sup>	78(1) <sup>a</sup>	77(1) <sup>a</sup>	78(1) <sup>a</sup>	77(1) <sup>a</sup>	78(1) <sup>a</sup>	77(1) <sup>a</sup>
	Spoon size (g/sip)	13.5(0.5) <sup>b</sup>	14(1) <sup>a</sup>	15(1) <sup>a</sup>	15(1) <sup>a</sup>	14.0(0.4) <sup>b</sup>	14.9(0.4) <sup>a</sup>	14.0(0.4) <sup>b</sup>	14.8(0.4) <sup>a</sup>
	Chews/spoon (n)	18(1) <sup>b</sup>	17(1) <sup>c</sup>	20(1) <sup>a</sup>	19(1) <sup>ab</sup>	17.7(0.4) <sup>b</sup>	19.2(0.5) <sup>a</sup>	18.9(0.5) <sup>a</sup>	18.0(0.4) <sup>b</sup>
	Oral exposure time/spoon (s)	13.9(0.4) <sup>b</sup>	13.5(0.4) <sup>b</sup>	15.1(0.5) <sup>a</sup>	14.8(0.5) <sup>a</sup>	13.7(0.3) <sup>b</sup>	14.9(0.3) <sup>a</sup>	14.5(0.3) <sup>a</sup>	14.1(0.3) <sup>a</sup>
<b>Satiation</b>	<i>Ad libitum</i> intake (g)	344(15) <sup>ab</sup>	355(15) <sup>a</sup>	333(13) <sup>b</sup>	355(16) <sup>a</sup>	349(11) <sup>a</sup>	345(10) <sup>a</sup>	339(10) <sup>b</sup>	356(11) <sup>a</sup>

269 Within a row and within each category [4 samples (low/high viscosity-small/large particles); average yogurt  
 270 (high and low viscosity); average granola (small and large)], means containing the same letter are not  
 271 significantly different (p < 0.05).

272

### 273 3.2. Liking, familiarity and desire to eat the yogurt again

274 Yogurt viscosity had a significant effect on liking assessed after the first spoon (p=0.001), with  
 275 a decrease in viscosity decreasing liking by 5% (Table 2). Decreasing viscosity also decreased  
 276 familiarity (p<0.0001) and desire to eat the yogurt again (p=0.001). None of the hedonic

277 measures were affected by granola particle size. Liking assessed after the last spoon and  
278 differences in liking (calculated by subtracting liking scores rated after first and last spoon) did  
279 not differ significantly between samples. Interactions yogurt\*granola were not significant.  
280 Results showed a weak correlation between liking and *ad libitum* intake ( $r=0.20$ ;  $p<0.0001$ ).

281

### 282 **3.3. Oral Processing Behaviour**

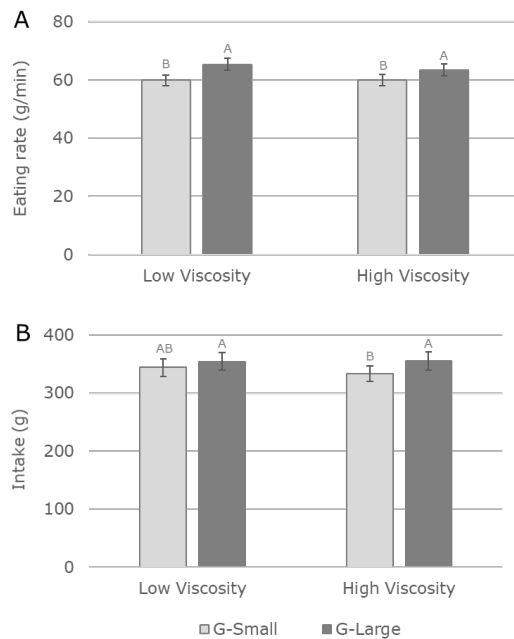
283 Eating duration (s), total oral exposure time (s), total inter-spoon interval (s) and chewing rate  
284 ( $\text{min}^{-1}$ ) did not differ significantly between samples. The total number of chews was significantly  
285 affected by granola particle size ( $p=0.013$ ), with small particles requiring on average 20 more  
286 chews than large particles per eating event. A decrease in viscosity increased the total number  
287 of spoons and swallows and spooning rate ( $p<0.0001$ ). Interactions yogurt\*granola were not  
288 significant.

289 The number of chews per spoonful decreased with decreasing viscosity by 1.4 chews/spoon  
290 ( $p<0.0001$ ) and increased with decreasing particle size by 0.9 chews/spoon ( $p<0.0001$ ). Oral  
291 exposure time per spoon decreased by 1.2 s/spoon with decreasing viscosity ( $p<0.0001$ ). Eating  
292 rate (g/min) was significantly affected by granola particle size ( $p<0.0001$ ), with yogurt with  
293 smaller granola particles being consumed 5g/min slower than yogurt with large granola particles  
294 (relative difference of 7%) (Figure 1A). Eating rate (g/min) was not significantly influenced by  
295 yogurt viscosity. Spoon size (i.e. the average amount of yogurt consumed per spoonful)  
296 decreased with decreasing viscosity ( $p<0.0001$ ) and particle size ( $p=0.001$ ), by 0.9 and 0.8  
297 g/spoonful respectively. Interactions yogurt\*granola were not significant.

298

### 299 **3.4. *Ad libitum* food intake**

300 Granola particle size was the only factor that significantly affected *ad libitum* intake ( $p=0.003$ ),  
301 with a decrease in particle size decreasing intake by 17g representing a relative reduction of 5%  
302 (Figure 1B and Table 2). Interactions yogurt\*granola were not significant.



303

304 **Figure 1.** (A) Eating rate and (B) *ad libitum* intake of yogurts differing in viscosity and granola  
 305 particle size (mean ± SEM) (n=104). Different letters indicate significant differences at  
 306 p<0.05.

307

308 Table 3 shows the inter-relationships between ad libitum intake and all oral processing  
 309 parameters investigated in this study. Eating rate ( $r = 0.63$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ) and spoon size ( $r =$   
 310  $0.47$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ) were positively correlated with intake, demonstrating that yogurts consumed  
 311 faster and with larger spoonfuls were consumed in higher amounts. Eating rate had a negative  
 312 weak correlation with total oral exposure time ( $r = -0.17$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ) and oral exposure  
 313 time/spoon ( $r = -0.27$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ), indicating that the longer the food stays in the oral cavity,  
 314 the slower the rate of consumption. Larger spoon size was strongly associated to faster eating  
 315 rates ( $r = 0.62$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ). The positive strong correlations between total number of chews  
 316 and total oral exposure time ( $r = 0.89$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ) and between chews/ spoon and oral  
 317 exposure time/spoon ( $r = 0.87$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ) confirm that products are kept longer in the mouth  
 318 when they are chewed for longer. Opposite to what we expected, results showed a strong  
 319 positive correlation between total number of chews and intake ( $r = 0.62$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ). The  
 320 higher the total number of chews ( $r = 0.86$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ), spoons ( $r = 0.67$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ) and  
 321 swallows ( $r = 0.74$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ), the longer the total eating duration. A faster spooning rate  
 322 was related to smaller spoon size ( $r = -0.50$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ), lower number of chews/spoon ( $r =$   
 323  $-0.74$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ) and shorter oral exposure time/spoon ( $r = -0.86$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ).

324

325

326 **Table 3.** Pearson correlation coefficients for *ad libitum* intake and all oral processing  
 327 parameters.

Variables	Intake (g)	Eating duration (s)	Eating rate (g/min)	Total spoons (n)	Total chews (n)	Total swallows (n)	Oral exposure time (s)	Interval between spoons (s)	Spoon size (g)	Spooning rate (min <sup>-1</sup> )	Chewing rate (min <sup>-1</sup> )	Chews/spoon (n)
Eating duration (s)	0.62 ****											
Eating rate (g/min)	0.63 ****	-0.15 **										
Total spoons (n)	0.56 ****	0.67 ****	0.06									
Total chews (n)	0.62 ****	0.86 ****	-0.06	0.60 ****								
Total swallows (n)	0.64 ****	0.74 ****	0.08	0.78 ****	0.67 ****							
Total oral exposure time (s)	0.61 ****	0.98 ****	-0.17 ***	0.66 ****	0.89 ****	0.74 ****						
Total interval between spoons (s)	0.35 ****	0.63 ****	-0.01	0.42 ****	0.37 ****	0.43 ****	0.46 ****					
Spoon size (g)	0.47 ****	-0.02	0.62 ****	-0.38 ****	0.03	-0.10 *	-0.01	-0.05				
Spooning rate (min <sup>-1</sup> )	0.10 *	-0.11 *	0.23 ****	0.62 ****	-0.05	0.25 ****	-0.10 *	-0.08	-0.50 ****			
Chewing rate (min <sup>-1</sup> )	0.13 **	-0.05	0.19 ****	0.02	0.41 ****	0.02	-0.02	-0.14 **	0.07	0.12 *		
Chews/spoon (n)	-0.03	0.11 *	-0.18 ****	-0.47 ****	0.32 ****	-0.16 **	0.16 ***	-0.11 *	0.50 ****	-0.74 ****	0.39 ****	
Oral exposure time/spoon (s)	-0.08	0.15 **	-0.27 ****	-0.53 ****	0.14 **	-0.20 ****	0.18 ****	-0.05	0.54 ****	-0.86 ****	-0.06	0.87 ****

328 \* p<0.05; \*\* p<0.01; \*\*\* p<0.001; \*\*\*\* p<0.0001

329

## 330 4. DISCUSSION

### 331 4.1. Texture, oral processing behaviour and food intake

332 In this study we investigated the effect of small texture modifications on food intake. Yogurt  
 333 viscosity was varied approximately by a factor of 1.7x while granola particle size was varied by  
 334 a factor of 2x. We quantified instrumentally the differences in viscosity and particle size, but we  
 335 did not quantify how changes in these product properties influenced sensory perception of the  
 336 yogurts with granola particles.

337 Results indicate that a decrease in granola particle size from 12mm to 6 mm yielded a 7%  
 338 (5g/min) reduction in eating rate and a 5% (17 g) reduction in food intake. Changes in oral  
 339 processing behaviour can explain this effect of particle size on eating rate and *ad libitum* intake.  
 340 Yogurts with 6 mm granola particles required on average 20 more chews per eating event and  
 341 0.9 more chews per spoonful in comparison to yogurts with 12 mm granola particles. This is in  
 342 agreement with previous studies that reported an increase in chewing activity being  
 343 accompanied by a decrease in eating rate and consequently in intake (Smit et al. 2011; Bolhuis  
 344 et al 2014; Forde et al., 2013; Lasschuijt et al., 2017; McCrickerd et al 2017). Increasing  
 345 chewing activity has also been shown to impact satiety and the profile of gut hormones related  
 346 to appetite (Li et al., 2011; Zhu et al., 2013a). As the number of mastication cycles of a test  
 347 meal increased from 15 to 40, Li et al. (2011) observed a decrease in postprandial ghrelin  
 348 concentration and an increase in postprandial glucagon-like peptide 1 and cholecystokinin  
 349 concentrations in subjects with both normal-weight and obesity. Similarly, increasing the  
 350 chewing of pizza from 15 to 40 chews increased the plasma levels of glucose, insulin, glucose-

351 dependent insulinotropic peptide (GIP) and cholecystokinin and tended to decrease ghrelin  
352 concentration (Zhu et al., 2013a).

353 We observed an increase in chewing activity with reduction in granola particle size (Table 2)  
354 which might seem counter-intuitive on a first glance. Similar results were observed by Eck et  
355 al., (submitted) in a study that compared the eating behaviour of carrots cut in different sizes  
356 and shapes. Total mastication time and number of chews were higher and eating rate was lower  
357 for carrots cut into elongated julienne pieces in comparison to carrots cut into cubes. These  
358 results can be explained by considering the volume of particles and its effect on oral processing  
359 behaviour. In our study, the weight percentage of granola particles added to yogurts was the  
360 same for all samples (15% w/w). Hence, the number of granola particles and the corresponding  
361 total volume of particles differed between yogurts with small and large granola particles. The  
362 number and volume of small (6 mm) granola particles was higher than that of large (12 mm)  
363 particles. Kohyama et al. (2007) observed that a higher number of chews and longer mastication  
364 time were required for the oral processing of finely cut raw carrots and cucumbers in comparison  
365 to the same weight of vegetables presented as a single cube. However, when the authors  
366 compared the oral processing behaviour of the vegetables with same volume, finely cut carrots  
367 and cucumbers were chewed less and for a shorter time than the vegetable cubes of the same  
368 volume. The authors concluded that the increase in volume of finely cut foods was the reason  
369 for the increase in mastication efforts (Kohyama et al., 2007). These findings are further  
370 supported by Imai et al. (1995), who reported that the concentration of particles had a stronger  
371 effect on texture perception than the size of particles, with a higher concentration of particles  
372 (larger volume) resulting in stronger grittiness sensations. We suggest that the volume of  
373 granola particles added to yogurts and not the size of particles *per se* was the driver of oral  
374 processing behaviour, as the larger number of small granola particles required more chews per  
375 spoon than a smaller number of large particles. Our results suggest that modifications in the  
376 size of solid particles added to foods aiming at increasing the number of chews per spoon can  
377 be a strategy to modulate oral exposure time and eating rate and consequently regulate food  
378 intake. The intake regulation accomplished through this strategy might probably be maintained  
379 overtime after repeated exposure as the texture properties of the foods are only slightly  
380 modified, preserving the product identity to a large extent. Further research is needed  
381 comparing different foods to which solid particles have been added to investigate whether the  
382 observed effects of particle size and texture modification on *ad libitum* food intake are  
383 generalizable and can be sustained after repeated exposure.

384 Additionally, decreasing granola particle size by a factor of 2x decreased spoon size. The effect  
385 of bite size on the regulation of food intake has been described previously, with smaller bites/sips  
386 being associated to decreases in food intake (Weijzen et al., 2009; Zijlstra et al., 2009; Bolhuis  
387 et al., 2013). In our study, spoon size and intake were positively correlated ( $r=0.473$ ,  $p<0.0001$ )  
388 (Table 3), suggesting that the larger the amount of yogurt per spoonful, the higher the amount  
389 of food consumed. Therefore, the decrease in spoon size might also explain the decrease in  
390 intake observed for yogurt samples with small granola particles.

391 Eating rate and food intake within a meal were not affected by small variations in the viscosity  
392 of yogurts. The viscosity differences between low and high viscosity yogurts ranged from 1.57x  
393 to 1.81x. We suggest that the explanation for this result is the change in spoon size (amount of  
394 yogurt consumed per spoonful) according to viscosity. We observed that the high viscosity  
395 yogurt was consumed with larger spoon sizes (0.9 g/spoonful), as a larger amount of thick  
396 yogurt can be hold on a spoon in comparison to thin yogurt. As mentioned previously, increases

397 in spoon/bite size have been related to increases in intake (Weijzen et al., 2009; Zijlstra et al.,  
398 2009; Bolhuis et al., 2013). Therefore, even though for the high viscosity yogurt the number of  
399 chews/spoon was higher and oral exposure time/spoon was longer compared to the thin yogurt,  
400 a concomitant increase in spoon size might have overruled the expected effect of viscosity on  
401 intake. Additionally, the variation in yogurt viscosity in this study might not have been large  
402 enough to strongly affect eating rate and *ad libitum* intake.

403 The 7% reduction in eating rate (5g/min) and 5% reduction in food intake (17g) resulted from  
404 decreasing granola particle size by a factor of 2x were smaller than those observed in other  
405 studies for foods differing considerably in texture (Zijlstra et al., 2009; Lasschuijt et al., 2017).  
406 However, small but consistent differences in eating rate and intake can account for large  
407 differences in the cumulative energy intake across eating occasions. In an inpatient feeding trial  
408 that compared unprocessed and ultra-processed diets, Hall et al. (2019) have shown that an  
409 average difference of just 17kcal/min or  $7.4 \pm 0.9$  g/min was sufficient to support a cumulative  
410 increase in energy intake of 508kcal/day.

411 Even though it is well accepted that one should slow down the eating rate to prevent  
412 overconsumption, it remains a challenge to change eating rate of individuals over the long term.  
413 McCrickerd & Forde (2017) reported that individuals were consistent in their eating rates in the  
414 consumption of four different meals, with the eating rate of one occasion being able to predict  
415 the eating rate and energy intake of subsequent meals. This suggests that eating rate is an  
416 individual's characteristic. In a study that included 272 subjects, Henry et al., (2018) observed  
417 a relationship between basal metabolic rate and eating rate. If consumers adapt their eating  
418 rates to their energy requirements, in other words, if eating rate is regulated by a physiological  
419 need, individuals will respond differently to the strategies that aim to regulate food intake. In  
420 our study we did not observe a significant relationship between BMI and eating rate or food  
421 intake. This is probably due to the fact that the participants of our study did not differ greatly  
422 with respect to BMI (BMI:  $21 \pm 2$  kg/m<sup>2</sup> ranging from 18 to 26 kg/m<sup>2</sup>). Comparing groups of  
423 subjects with normal-weight and overweight/obesity, Shah et al. (2014) observed that  
424 decreasing eating rate was efficient to decrease energy intake only for the first group. Women  
425 that presented either decelerated or linear eating patterns responded differently when forced to  
426 increase and decreased their eating rates (Zandian et al., 2009). Reducing eating decreased  
427 intake for the linear eaters, but did not affect intake among the decelerated eaters. Martin et al.  
428 (2007) reported that slower eating rate reduced intake only for male subjects. Further studies  
429 are therefore required to quantify the extent to which small modifications in texture can  
430 consistently reduce eating rate and food intake across different consumer groups.

431

### 432 **4.3 Limitations**

433 Even though consumers were not aware of the main aims of the study and everything was  
434 arranged in a way they could behave naturally, it is worth emphasizing that the results of this  
435 study are based on an *ad libitum* consumption study performed in a laboratory setting. Further  
436 studies are required to investigate whether the observed impact of food texture on eating rate  
437 and intake can be extrapolated to real life eating occasions after multiple exposures.

438 As explained earlier, two samples containing powder-like granola were excluded from the data  
439 analysis since this type of granola displayed a very different behaviour upon mixing with yogurt  
440 in comparison to small and large granola particles. Including other sets of granola particles,  
441 varying other texture properties such as the hardness/brittleness of granola particles or using  
442 other types of particles such as fruits pieces and nuts would allow generalizing the findings on  
443 the effect of small modifications of texture on eating rate and food intake. While yogurts with  
444 added granola pieces or fruit pieces are commonly consumed as a breakfast meal in The  
445 Netherlands and some other European countries, these products are not consumed as a meal  
446 or breakfast in many other countries and cultures. We suggest that future studies should  
447 consider modifying the texture of different foods including complex, mixed meals since those  
448 are the main contributors to energy intake and might allow to generalize findings across foods,  
449 meal occasions, eating cultures and countries.

450 Even though we aimed at having a similar palatability, a decrease in yogurt viscosity had a  
451 significant effect on liking and familiarity with the low viscosity yogurt being slightly less liked  
452 and having lower familiarity than the high viscosity yogurt (table 2). This drawback should be  
453 avoided in studies quantifying *ad libitum* food intake.

454 Lastly, the population in this study consisted of young, healthy participants ( $21 \pm 3$  y, range: 18-  
455 36) with similar BMI values ( $21 \pm 2$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>, range: 18-26). To quantify whether small texture  
456 modifications can consistently modify intake independently of the energy requirement of  
457 subjects, specific target groups such as fast eaters, the elderly and subjects with overweight  
458 should be investigated. We speculate that the relative impact of a food texture modification on  
459 eating rate and *ad libitum* food intake depends on the eating style of the consumer.

460

## 461 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

462 Small texture variations were sufficient to change oral processing behaviour and *ad libitum*  
463 intake. Decreasing the size of granola particles from 12 mm to 6 mm significantly decreased *ad*  
464 *libitum* intake by 17g (relative reduction of 5%). This reduction in intake was related to an  
465 increase in the number of chews per spoon and to a decrease in eating rate and spoon size. We  
466 suggest that the volume of granola particles added to the yogurt and not the size of particles  
467 *per se* was the driver of oral processing behaviour, as the larger number of small granola  
468 particles required more chews per spoon than a smaller number of large particles. The variation  
469 in viscosity of yogurts (1.57x to 1.81x difference) did not affect eating rate and *ad libitum* food  
470 intake. We suggest that the concomitant increase in spoon size, number of chews per spoon and  
471 oral exposure time per spoon for the high viscosity yogurt might explain the lack of effect of  
472 viscosity on *ad libitum* intake. Liking and familiarity were negatively affected by a decrease in  
473 viscosity. This shows that special attention should be given by food manufacturers when  
474 modulating the texture properties of foods as not all modifications will result in desirable effects  
475 on food intake and consumer acceptability.



476 Our results show the potential of controlling intake by slight variations in food texture. Further  
477 studies are required to investigate whether in a real-life setting, reductions in intake can be  
478 sustained after multiple exposures to the same product across different consumer groups.

479

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491

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