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Additional Information

1 **Use of chia seed mucilage as a texturing agent: effect on instrumental and sensory properties**
2 **of texture-modified soups**

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15

16 **Abstract**

17 This work aimed to evaluate colour, texture, flow, and viscoelastic properties of texture-modified
18 chicken and vegetables soups for dysphagic people, as well as their characteristics during simulated
19 oral processing. The use of chia seed mucilage (CSM) as an alternative texturing agent for
20 dysphagia, the influence of temperature, the effect of saliva during the simulated oral processing of
21 samples, and the sensory acceptance of samples were also studied. Modified starch (MS), guar gum
22 (GG), and CSM were used to modify samples texture at two consistency levels: honey-like and
23 pudding-like consistencies. MS and CSM soups presented higher elasticity and resistance to
24 deformation than GG samples, being considered safer to swallow by dysphagic patients. Addition
25 of saliva caused remarkable changes in samples' consistency, adhesiveness, and apparent viscosity.
26 Moreover, the use of CSM did not modify the swallowing properties of samples. These results
27 confirm the feasibility of using CSM as a novel texturing agent for dysphagia management, and
28 represent an advance in developing dysphagia-oriented products by tailoring their textural,
29 rheological, viscoelastic, and sensory characteristics, as well as their properties during the oral
30 processing.

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32

33 **Keywords:** dysphagia-oriented products; hydrocolloids; rheology; oral processing; sensory
34 evaluation; saliva

35

36 **1. Introduction**

37 Texture-modified foods are mainly prescribed for oropharyngeal dysphagia (OD) management.
38 OD is the most frequent and severe stage of dysphagia caused during food transfer from the oral
39 cavity to the esophagus (Vieira et al., 2021). The consequences of dysphagia are related to reduce
40 oral intake and malnutrition, dehydration, aspiration, and aspiration pneumonia (Andersen, Beck,
41 Kjaersgaard, Hansen, & Poulsen, 2013).

42 A technique commonly employed to enhance safe swallowing in dysphagic patients is the
43 modification of bolus viscosity by using texturing agents, which can be classified into two
44 categories: starch-based and gum-based hydrocolloids (Sharma, Kristo, Corredig, & Duizer, 2017;
45 Vieira et al., 2021). Nevertheless, the use of plant-based hydrocolloids has attracted the interest of
46 both academia and food industry. Vieira et al. (2021) proposed the soluble part of the flaxseed gum
47 as a promising hydrocolloid for dysphagic patients due to its excellent thickening capability and
48 nutritional properties. Yousefi and Ako (2020) evaluated the use of *Lepidium perfoliatum* seed gum
49 as emerging texturing agent for dysphagia management due to its good water retention capability,
50 high viscosity, texture modification, and product stability. Furthermore, chia seeds (*Salvia hispanica*
51 L.) produce a fibre-rich mucilaginous gel in contact with water with excellent viscosity and water
52 retention capacity (Ribes, Peña, Fuentes, Talens, & Barat, 2021). These characteristics make chia
53 seed mucilage (CSM) a favourable candidate for food applications as texturing agent, but its use in
54 the design of dysphagia-oriented products has not been investigated.

55 Texture-modified foods are classified according to the recommendations of National Dysphagia
56 Diet Task Force (NDDTF, 2002) guideline. It defines products' consistencies based on their
57 viscosity, which is determined at a shear rate of 50 s^{-1} and at $25 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, as follows: nectar-like
58 consistency (51-350 mPa·s); honey-like consistency (351-1750 mPa·s); and pudding-like
59 consistency ($>1750 \text{ mPa}\cdot\text{s}$). On the contrary, International Dysphagia Diet Standardisation Initiative

60 (IDDSI, 2019) framework uses a visual scale, instead of viscosity, to classify the liquids employed
61 in dysphagia management (Ong, Steele, & Duizer, 2018), which is based on the flow rate of the
62 products. The IDDSI classifies the products as thin (level 0 = the product flows like water), slightly
63 thick (level 1 = the product is slightly thicker than water), mildly thick (level 2 = the product flows
64 off a spoon), moderately thick (level 3 = the product does not maintain the shape on a spoon), and
65 extremely thick (level 4 = the product keeps the shape on a spoon). However, a complete analysis
66 of products' texture, flow, viscoelastic, and sensory properties, along with their characteristics
67 during the oral processing should be conducted to develop dysphagia-oriented products since their
68 behaviour cannot be completely elucidated by a metric. In the last years, the necessity of studying
69 the viscoelastic properties of these type of products has been increased, given that not only the
70 viscosity or consistency, but also elasticity and other rheological parameters play an important role
71 in the swallowing process (Moret-Tatay, Rodríguez-García, Marti-Bonmartí, Hernando, &
72 Hernández, 2015; Herranz, Criado, Pozo-Bayón, & Álvarez, 2021; Wei, Guo, Li, Ma, & Zhang,
73 2021). Dynamic spectra obtained by small amplitude oscillatory shear test also provide relevant
74 information of the internal structure of foods (Moret-Tatay et al., 2015). Besides, the use of
75 instrumental methods to simulate the food oral processing has attracted the interest of researchers
76 since they can provide a valuable insight for a better understanding of the oral processing (Kim, Oh,
77 Kim, & Lee, 2019). However, although some authors evaluated the rheological and viscoelastic
78 characteristics of texture-modified water, carrot purees, and pea creams (Sharma et al., 2017; Talens
79 et al., 2021; Vieira et al., 2021), no studies reporting the rheological, viscoelastic, and sensory
80 properties of texture-modified chicken and vegetables soups, also including their characteristics
81 during the oral processing, have been found.

82 Saliva is also essential in bolus safety as it increases bolus cohesiveness and affects its
83 viscoelastic properties, but its impact during consumption of dysphagia-oriented products has been
84 scarcely investigated (Herranz et al., 2021). During the oral processing, foods are mixed with saliva

85 that contains α -amylase, which is responsible of the starch breakdown. This could favour the sudden
86 decrease in the oral viscosity, especially in starch-based products, increasing the risk of aspiration
87 in dysphagic patients (Sharma, Pico, Martinez, & Duizer, 2020).

88 Hence the aim of this work was to evaluate the colour, texture, flow, and viscoelastic properties
89 of different texture-modified chicken and vegetable soups for people with swallowing disorders, as
90 well as their characteristics during the simulated oral processing. The possibility of using CSM as a
91 potential texturing agent for dysphagia treatment compared to starch or guar gum, the influence of
92 temperature on the structural changes of samples, the effect of saliva during the simulated oral
93 processing of samples, and the sensory acceptance of the texture-modified chicken and vegetables
94 soups were also investigated.

95 **2. Materials and Methods**

96 2.1 Materials

97 Chicken breasts (Lidl Supermercados S.A.U, Murcia, Spain), carrots (Anecoop S. Coop,
98 Valencia, Spain), onions (Cebollas Consuay, S. L., Valencia, Spain), green beans (Packalia, S.L.,
99 Sevilla, Spain), and sodium chloride (Sal Bueno, S.L., Xirivella, Spain) were purchased from a local
100 supermarket to prepare the chicken and vegetables soup. To modify the texture of the soups, three
101 different hydrocolloids or texturing agents were employed: Modified starch (Nutavant[®], MS), guar
102 gum (GG), and chia seed mucilage (CSM). MS, a commonly starch based thickener used in
103 dysphagia treatments, was purchased from a local pharmacy. GG was provided by EPSA (Valencia,
104 Spain), and CSM was extracted from commercial chia seeds (Pedon S.P.A, Molvena, Italy). For
105 artificial saliva preparation, porcine stomach mucin Type II and porcine pancreatic α -amylase were
106 supplied by Sigma-Aldrich, Co. Ltd (St. Louis, MO, USA). The use of pancreatic α -amylase was
107 based on previous studies on food oral processing (Torres, Yamada, Rigby, Kawano, & Sarkar,
108 2019).

109 2.2 Mucilage extraction from chia seeds

110 The CSM was extracted following the methodology described by Ribes et al. (2021), with minor
111 modifications. Briefly, chia seeds were incorporated to distilled water (ratio 3:30, w/w) and stirred
112 for 3 h at 60 °C in an electrical food processor (Thermomix TM 31, Vorwerk M.S.L, Spain). This
113 mixture was centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 10 min at 20 °C (Centrifuge 5804 R, Eppendorf AG,
114 Hamburg, Germany). The supernatant was removed and freeze-dried (LyoQuest-55, Telstar,
115 Terrassa, Spain) for 48 h and kept in sealed plastic vessels at room temperature until its use.

116 2.3 Chicken and vegetable soup preparation

117 The chicken and vegetable soup was prepared by cooking (100 °C, 50 min) the following
118 ingredients, cut into small pieces, in an electrical food processor (Thermomix TM 31, Vorwerk
119 M.S.L, Spain): chicken breast (15%, w/w), carrot (12%, w/w), onion (5%, w/w), green beans (3.5%,
120 w/w), olive oil (4%, w/w), sodium chloride (3%, w/w), and water (57.5%, w/w). After cooking, the
121 chicken and vegetables pieces were removed, and the liquid was filtered and transferred to plastic
122 containers. Each texture-modified soup was obtained by adding and mixing the different
123 hydrocolloids (MS, GG and CSM) at 70 °C with a magnetic stirrer, until ensuring their total
124 dispersion. Concentrations (% w/w) of each hydrocolloid used to prepare the samples, as well as
125 their apparent viscosities (η_{app}) measured at 25 °C with a shear rate of 50 s⁻¹ (NDDTF, 2002), are
126 shown in Table 1. On this basis, the texture-modified chicken and vegetables soups were classified
127 as honey-like (1405±68 mPa·s) or pudding-like consistencies (2360±44 mPa·s). All samples were
128 prepared 24 h before testing and stored at 4 °C until analysed at 37 °C. This temperature was selected
129 to mimic the oral conditions (Laguna, Farrell, Bryant, Morina, & Sarkar, 2017). Two independent
130 batches were prepared for all the samples.

131 2.4 Artificial saliva preparation

132 The artificial saliva was prepared according to the standardised INFOGEST method (Minekus et
133 al., 2014), with minor changes. Simulated salivary fluid, containing porcine stomach mucin Type II
134 (3 g/L) and porcine pancreatic α -amylase (75 U/mL), was mixed with the samples in a ratio 1:1
135 (v/w).

136 2.5 Colour and texture characterisation

137 Colour parameters (L^* , a^* , and b^*) of texture-modified chicken and vegetables soups were
138 measured by using a spectrophotometer (CM-3600d, Minolta Co., Tokyo, Japan) with an observer
139 10° and illuminant D65. For avoiding sample's translucency, the measurements were taken by using
140 a white and a black background. The infinite reflectance (R_∞) of the samples was obtained by
141 applying the Kubelka–Munk theory. Chroma (C_{ab}^*), hue (h_{ab}^*), and colour variations (ΔE^*) of the
142 texture-modified soups compared to the control were calculated by using Eq. (1), (2), and (3),
143 respectively:

$$144 C_{ab}^* = ((a^*)^2 + (b^*)^2)^{0.5} \quad (1)$$

$$145 h_{ab}^* = \arctg(b^*/a^*) \quad (2)$$

$$146 \Delta E^* = ((\Delta L^*)^2 + (\Delta a^*)^2 + (\Delta b^*)^2)^{0.5} \quad (3)$$

147 Texture of each sample was determined by conducting a back extrusion test in a TA.XT2 Texture
148 Analyser (Stable Micro Systems, Godalming, UK). The samples were transferred to a measuring
149 container and filled up to 40 mm of height. A cylindrical probe of 35 mm of diameter was employed
150 to press the samples to a depth of 12 mm, with a test speed of 2 mm/s. The force vs distance plot
151 generated was used to obtain the maximum force, which is related to the firmness of the sample,
152 and area under the curve, which is related to the consistency of the sample (Yang, Dai, Huang, &
153 Sombtngamwilai, 2020; Gallego, Arnal, Barat, & Talens, 2021).

154 All the tests were conducted at 37 °C in duplicate. The samples were introduced in a water bath
155 for 30 min before performing the tests.

156 2.6 Flow and viscoelastic measurements

157 A rotational controlled-stress Kinexus Pro+Rheometer (Malvern Instruments Ltd., MA, USA),
158 with a Peltier heating system for temperature control, was used to perform the flow and viscoelastic
159 measurements of each texture-modified chicken and vegetables soups. Assays were run at 37 °C by
160 means of using the PLC61/PU40 parallel-plate geometry with a 1 mm gap. For structure recovery,
161 samples were allowed to stand for 120 s prior to be analysed. All the measurements were done in
162 duplicate.

163 2.6.1 *Flow rheological properties*

164 To evaluate the steady-shear flow behaviour of the texture-modified chicken and vegetables
165 soups, flow curves were obtained as a function of the shear rate, ranging from 0.1 to 100 s⁻¹ for 300
166 s. The flow curves were fitted to the power-law model. The consistency coefficient (K) and flow
167 behaviour index (n) were calculated as described by Talens et al. (2021). The correlation coefficient
168 R² was employed to confirm the goodness-of-fit of the model.

169 2.6.2 *Viscoelastic properties*

170 Non-linear and linear viscoelastic assays were used to characterise the viscoelastic properties of
171 the texture-modified chicken and vegetables soups. A large amplitude oscillatory shear test (LAOS)
172 was run to delimit the linear viscoelastic region (LVR) and to evaluate the non-linear viscoelastic
173 properties of the samples. Stress sweep test was performed within a stress range from 0.1 to 100 Pa
174 at 1 Hz. From this assay, the variations in elastic (G') and viscous modulus (G''), the elastic modulus
175 value at LVR (G'_{LVR}), and the stress value at LVR (Stress_{LVR}) were presented.

176 A small amplitude oscillatory shear test (SAOS) was used to characterise the linear viscoelastic
177 properties of the texture-modified chicken and vegetables soups. A frequency sweep test was
178 conducted at 1 Pa (in the LVR) to cover a 0.1-10 Hz frequency range. The viscoelastic parameters

179 including elastic modulus (G'), viscous modulus (G''), complex modulus (G^*), the complex viscosity
180 (η^*), and loss tangent ($\tan \delta$) were obtained from the rheometer software (rSpace for Kinexus).

181 To evaluate the influence of the temperature on the structural changes of the texture-modified
182 chicken and vegetables soups, temperature sweep tests were performed from 20 °C to 80 °C at a
183 heating rate of 5 °C/min, within the LVR, and at a frequency of 1 Hz. To avoid water evaporation
184 from the samples, silicone oil was incorporated on the outside of the plates and the samples' cover
185 provided by the instrument was placed over the samples.

186 2.7 Simulated oral processing conditions: combining squeezing flow and shear force tests

187 The squeezing flow and shear force tests were combined to simulate certain aspects of the oral
188 processing, and the assays were conducted as described by Chung, Olson, Degner, and McClements
189 (2013). The rotational Kinexus Pro+Rheometer (Malvern Instruments Ltd., MA, USA), with a
190 Peltier heating system and a PLC61/PU40 parallel-plate geometry, was employed. The samples
191 were compressed, sheared, and decompressed for ten cycles to mimic the movement of the tongue
192 and palate during consumption. The tests were carried out at 37 °C in presence and absence of
193 artificial saliva (food:artificial saliva ratio, 1:1) to determine its impact during the simulated oral
194 processing of samples. To elucidate the effect of the α -amylase on those samples containing starch
195 (MS), the tests were also conducted in presence of distilled water (food:distilled water ratio, 1:1)
196 for these samples.

197 2.8. Sensory evaluation

198 The sensory evaluation of the texture-modified chicken and vegetables soups was made by a
199 panel of 38 assessors (23 women and 15 men) aged between 21 and 74 years old. They were
200 recruited following the UNE-ISO 8586:2012 general guideline (ISO, 2012). Sensory evaluations
201 were made by considering the IFST Guidelines for Ethical and Professional Practices for the

202 Sensory Analysis of Foods (Institute of Food Science and Technology, 2020). Every assessor gave
203 written consent before conducting the sensory evaluation. Testing was performed by using a 9-point
204 numeric response scale (UNE-ISO 4121:2003, ISO, 2003) to evaluate the intensity perception of
205 colour, oral consistency, oral adhesiveness, oral residue, and swallowing attributes. The panellists
206 tested six different samples (three hydrocolloids: MS, GG, and CSM; two consistencies: honey-like
207 and pudding-like) and the sensory analysis was carried out 24 h after preparing the samples, which
208 were stored at 4 °C. The texture-modified chicken and vegetables soups were presented to the
209 assessors at 37 °C in a plastic cup coded with three arbitrary digits, and they were asked to drink
210 water between samples to avoid aftertaste.

211 2.9 Statistical analysis

212 The data obtained from all the analyses were evaluated by a one-way ANOVA to study
213 differences among samples, within the same consistency level. The least significance procedure
214 (LSD) was employed to evaluate for differences between averages at the 5% level of significance.
215 Results were statistically processed by the Statgraphics Centurion XVI software. The correlation
216 between instrumental and sensory data was derived by means of using Pearson Product Moment
217 Correlation Coefficient.

218 3. Results and Discussion

219 3.1 Colour and texture characterisation

220 Colour attribute plays an important role in food choice and consumption since it influences taste
221 thresholds, food preference, pleasantness, and acceptability (Spence, 2015). Table 2 summarises the
222 colour attributes (L^* , C_{ab}^* , h_{ab}^*) and colour variations (ΔE^*) of the texture-modified chicken and
223 vegetables soups compared to the control (chicken and vegetables soup without any hydrocolloid
224 added) at 37 °C. Slightly lower L^* values were observed in case of MS and GG samples presenting

225 the honey-like consistency compared to the control, while the soups prepared with CSM exhibited
226 the lowest L^* values. For the pudding-like consistency, significantly ($p < 0.05$) lower L^* values
227 were observed in case of CSM samples in comparison with the control, whereas significantly ($p <$
228 0.05) higher L^* values were perceived for MS samples. Moreover, greater C_{ab}^* values were noted
229 in case of all texture-modified chicken and vegetables soups compared to the control, being this
230 effect more noticeable for MS and CSM pudding samples. The incorporation of hydrocolloids could
231 improve the C_{ab}^* of soups probably due to their capacity to increase the stability of samples by
232 reducing the movement and precipitation of the soup coloured substances (Nwaokoro & Akanbi,
233 2015). The lowest h_{ab}^* values and highest colour differences (ΔE^*) were observed for those samples
234 prepared with CSM, which exceed the just noticeable difference (Baldevbhai & Anand, 2012). The
235 presence of natural pigments or tannic substances from the tegument of chia seeds could explain the
236 results obtained during the colour characterisation of samples (Koocheki, Taherian, Razavi, &
237 Bostan, 2009).

238 Texture is also an important factor since it defines the eating experience and affects the
239 preference of consumers for foods (Yang, Li, Li, Sun, & Guo, 2020). Table 2 presents the texture
240 parameters of the different texture-modified chicken and vegetables soups at 37 °C. Significant
241 differences ($p < 0.05$) were observed among samples prepared with the different texturing agents,
242 regardless of their consistency. Furthermore, greater area and maximum force values were noticed
243 when using higher hydrocolloid concentrations. Samples manufactured with CSM exhibited the
244 highest area and maximum force values, and consequently, the greatest consistency and firmness.
245 The lowest area and maximum force values were shown by those texture-modified chicken and
246 vegetables soups prepared with MS as texturing agent. The greater consistency and firmness
247 observed by GG and CSM samples at both consistency levels could be ascribed to: i) an
248 intermolecular chain entanglement provoked by the interaction of water molecules with the GG
249 galactose chains (Thombare, Jha, Mishra, & Siddiqui, 2016); and ii) the capacity of swollen CSM

250 particles to act as fillers, diminishing the matrix movement and increasing products' consistency
251 and firmness (Ribes et al., 2021).

252 3.2 Flow and viscoelastic measurements

253 3.2.1 Flow rheological properties

254 Table 3 shows the data of the rheological parameters from the steady flow behaviour test of the
255 texture-modified chicken and vegetable soups. A marked increase in samples' viscosity was
256 observed in products containing greater hydrocolloids amounts. The η_{app} at 50 s^{-1} of the samples
257 presenting the honey-like consistency ranged from $1183 \pm 16 \text{ mPa}\cdot\text{s}$ to $1343 \pm 11 \text{ mPa}\cdot\text{s}$; whereas for
258 the pudding-like consistency the η_{app} at 50 s^{-1} values of samples were between $1902 \pm 24 \text{ mPa}\cdot\text{s}$ and
259 $2311 \pm 118 \text{ mPa}\cdot\text{s}$. It could be attributed to higher total solids content, which decrease the
260 intermolecular movement caused by hydrodynamic forces and the formation of a hydrocolloid
261 network (Alpizar-Reyes et al., 2018). Similar results were reported by Vieira et al. (2021) regarding
262 the use of rising amounts of flax-seed gum as alternative thickener for dysphagic patients.

263 The flow behaviour index (n) indicates the rheological nature of the fluid. As the fluid approaches
264 Newtonian behaviour, the n value was close to 1 (Kaur & Kaler, 2008). Noteworthy that the non-
265 Newtonian fluids ($n < 1$) are favourable for a swallowing process with a reduced risk of aspiration,
266 by giving the neuromuscular system a longer reflex response time to close the epiglottis (Nakauma,
267 Ishihara, Funami, & Nishinari, 2011; Nishinari, Turcanu, Nakauma, & Fang, 2019). The n values
268 went below 1 in all the tested samples, indicating their pseudoplastic behaviour. In spite of the
269 consistency level achieved, GG sample exhibited the lowest n value; meanwhile higher n values
270 were reported for those soups containing MS and CSM as texturing agents. Furthermore, the n
271 values became lower when using higher hydrocolloid amounts, indicating that the shear thinning
272 behaviour is enhanced at higher polymer concentrations. This behaviour was also observed by

273 Talens et al. (2021) and Wei, Guo, Li, Ma, and Zhang (2021) when using different thickeners for
274 dysphagia management in pea creams and water, respectively.

275 Concerning the consistency coefficient (K), the highest K values were observed for all the GG
276 samples, and non-significant ($p > 0.05$) differences were reported between MS and CSM samples
277 at both consistency levels. The greater K values observed in case of GG samples could be attributed
278 to multiple intermolecular chain entanglements due to the interaction of water molecules with the
279 GG galactose chains as previously commented (Thombare et al., 2016). Moreover, an increase in
280 samples' consistency was observed when using higher hydrocolloid amounts, probably due to the
281 capacity of hydrocolloids to increase the stability of samples as a consequence of greater
282 intermolecular interactions in their continuous phase (Ma & Barbosa-Cánovas, 1995; Alpizar-Reyes
283 et al., 2018). These results fall in line with those reported by Talens et al. (2021) in thickened pea
284 creams for dysphagic patients.

285 3.2.2 Viscoelastic properties

286 To characterise the non-linear viscoelastic properties of the texture-modified samples and to
287 determine the limits of the linear viscoelastic region (LVR) a stress sweep test was conducted.
288 Figure 1 presents the changes in the elastic modulus (G') and viscous modulus (G'') of all the texture-
289 modified chicken and vegetable soups, according to the stress, at 37 °C. A predominant elastic
290 behaviour ($G' > G''$) was observed throughout the study, which is a common fact in weak viscoelastic
291 systems. After the LVR, G' and G'' values of all the samples containing GG and CSM decreased as
292 the stress increased. Nevertheless, texture-modified chicken and vegetable soups prepared with MS
293 show a slight increase in the G'' values, which lower again at higher stress levels, regardless of the
294 consistency level. Based on the classification of Hyun, Kim, Ahn, and Lee (2002) for diverse types
295 of modulus behaviour, it can be stated that GG and CSM samples exhibited a stress thinning
296 behaviour, while those soups containing MS reflect weak strain-overshoot behaviour at the

297 beginning of the non-LVR. The increase observed in the G'' values of MS samples could indicate
298 the use of higher energy amounts during the deformation process. Thus, microfractures in products
299 structure can be provoked and the friction between the layers in the fracture point causes energy
300 losses in form of heat (Sharma et al., 2017). This behaviour was also reported by Sharma et al.
301 (2017) in texture-modified carrot purees with gellan gum, xanthan gum, pectin, carrageenan, and
302 modified corn starch, and by Talens et al. (2021) in texture-modified pea creams with xanthan gum
303 and GG, among others.

304 Table 4 summarises the viscoelastic parameters, G'_{LVR} and $Stress_{LVR}$, of the texture-modified
305 chicken and vegetable soups from the stress sweep test performed at 37 °C. The G'_{LVR} value is linked
306 to the material stiffness (Mezger & Stellrecht, 2000), and the $Stress_{LVR}$ parameter is related to the
307 structural stability of the product (Herranz et al., 2021; Talens et al., 2021). For both consistency
308 levels, the samples manufactured with GG and CSM exhibited the lowest G'_{LVR} values, being
309 considered therefore the least stiff products. Conversely, MS texture-modified chicken and
310 vegetable soup exhibited the greatest stiff structure, with significantly ($p < 0.05$) higher G'_{LVR}
311 values. These results fall in line with those reported by Talens et al. (2021) when investigating the
312 material stiffness of pea creams thickened with MS. Regarding the $Stress_{LVR}$ parameter, significant
313 differences ($p < 0.05$) were observed among samples. In spite of the consistency level achieved, the
314 soups prepared with GG as texturing agent showed the highest $Stress_{LVR}$ values, followed by
315 samples containing CSM and MS. Hence it can be stated that the soups prepared with GG and CSM
316 had better structural stability than samples containing MS. It could be attributed to the presence of
317 large polymeric molecules in GG and CSM samples compared to MS texture-modified chicken and
318 vegetable soups.

319 To characterise the linear viscoelastic properties of the texture-modified samples a SAOS test
320 was carried out. Figure 2 presents the changes in G' , G'' , and $Tan \delta$ values of the texture-modified
321 chicken and vegetables soups at 37 °C, as a function of the frequency stress applied. Higher G' than

322 G'' values were observed for all the samples at both consistency levels. This outcome indicates the
323 samples' gel behaviour (Talens et al., 2021). Nevertheless, in case of GG samples at both
324 consistency levels and at low frequencies, the G'' values predominated over the G' values, indicating
325 a dominance of the liquid-like property (Ahmed, 2021). A similar behaviour was observed for
326 galactomannan solutions, GG dispersions, and blend gum dispersions (Ahmed, 2021; Bourbon et
327 al., 2010; Martín-Alfonso, Cuadri, Berta, & Stading, 2018). It is also important to highlight that this
328 effect is typical of semi-dilute polysaccharides dispersions, which is determined by a physical chain
329 entanglement with a disordered random coil conformation (Ahmed, 2021; Saha & Bhattacharya,
330 2010).

331 $\tan \delta$ provides information on the balance of the material's viscoelastic modulus (Sharma et al.,
332 2017). $\tan \delta$ values above 1 indicate diluted solutions; meanwhile values between 0.1 and 1 denote
333 weak gels (Irani, Razavi, Abdel-Aal, Hucl, & Patterson, 2019). As can be seen in Figure 2 (e and f),
334 the $\tan \delta$ values of all the MS and CSM formulations ranged from 0.1 to 0.7, reinforcing the weak
335 gel behaviour, and their $\tan \delta$ profile was similar throughout the frequency range evaluated. At low
336 frequency values, the $\tan \delta$ values of MS and CSM formulations at both consistency levels were
337 low, but at high frequencies those values increased. However, GG samples exhibited $\tan \delta$ values
338 between 0.4 and 1.8. At low frequencies, the GG samples exhibited higher $\tan \delta$ values that
339 decreased continuously as the frequency rose. Therefore, the GG texture-modified chicken and
340 vegetables soups are considered diluted solutions at low frequencies, whereas at high frequency
341 values these samples exhibit the weak gel behaviour. Noteworthy that $\tan \delta$ can be employed as a
342 rheological factor to distinguish easy-to-swallow bolus for dysphagic patients. A bolus would be
343 considered easy-to-swallow when the $\tan \delta$ values fall within the 0.1–1 range (Ishihara, Nakauma,
344 Funami, Odake, & Nishinari, 2011). Based on this, MS and CSM texture-modified chicken and
345 vegetables soups with the honey-like and pudding-like consistencies could be considered safe for
346 swallowing by dysphagic patients.

347 To better understand the dependency of G' and G'' values on frequency and to evaluate the gel
348 properties, $\ln G'$ slope (n') vs \ln frequency plot has been studied (Alvarez, Fuentes, Guerrero, &
349 Canet, 2017). Table 4 presents the gel properties' parameters of the texture-modified chicken and
350 vegetable soups at 37 °C. The n' values were comprised between 0 and 1, indicating a weak gel
351 behaviour (Irani et al., 2019). Significantly ($p < 0.05$) lower n' values were observed in case of
352 samples prepared with MS and CSM at both consistency levels, indicating lesser frequency-
353 dependence. Moreover, the highest n' value was exhibited by those samples prepared with GG,
354 regardless of their consistency. When using higher hydrocolloid amounts the dependence of G' on
355 frequency seems to be lower. It could be related to the greater water binding capability of the
356 different hydrocolloids employed, which could be caused by higher intermolecular interactions as
357 their concentration rose. Talens et al. (2021) also reported this effect in pea creams thickened with
358 different hydrocolloids.

359 The viscoelastic properties of the different texture-modified soups from the SAOS test are also
360 shown in Table 4. For comparison purposes, the storage modulus (G'), loss modulus (G''), complex
361 modulus (G^*), complex viscosity (η^*), and loss tangent ($\tan \delta$) values were considered at a
362 frequency of 1 Hz. An elastic behaviour ($G' > G''$) was noticed for all the samples evaluated, which
363 is a common fact in weak viscoelastic systems. The complex modulus (G^*) is a measure of the
364 product stiffness and rigidity (Mezger, 2006). The formulations prepared with MS showed the
365 greatest product stiffness and rigidity, followed by CSM and GG texture-modified chicken and
366 vegetables soups. Furthermore, higher amounts of hydrocolloids conferred significantly ($p < 0.05$)
367 greater stiffness and rigidity to the samples. This fact was more evident when using GG and CSM
368 as texturing agents. The utilisation of larger quantities of polymers could increase product' stiffness
369 and rigidity owing to the strong network structure formed.

370 The complex viscosity (η^*) is a measure of total resistance to flow in relation to the angular
371 frequency (Talens et al., 2021). At both consistency levels, the MS texture-modified chicken and

372 vegetables soup exhibited the highest resistance to flow, followed by CSM and GG samples (Table
373 4). It is important to mention that greater values were observed in case of samples presenting the
374 pudding-like consistency. Thus, at this level, all the samples confer more resistance to flow,
375 probably due to the strong network structure originated when using larger hydrocolloid amounts.
376 Finally, all the formulations had $\text{Tan } \delta$ values below 1 at the frequency of 1 Hz, prevailing the elastic
377 properties over the viscous ones. $\text{Tan } \delta$ values in the range of 0.1-1 have been suggested as safe-
378 swallowing in dysphagic patients (Ishihara et al., 2011). Moreover, Nyström, Qazi, Bülow, Ekberg,
379 & Stading, (2015) proved that dysphagic patients perceived easier to swallow thinning fluids with
380 increased elasticity. Considering that products with high elasticity degree (lower $\text{Tan } \delta$ values) and
381 resistance to deformation (higher G^* values) would be safer to swallow (Herranz et al., 2021), it
382 could be stated that MS and CSM texture-modified chicken and vegetables soups would be more
383 appropriate than GG soups for dysphagic patients.

384 To evaluate the impact of temperature on the structural changes of the texture-modified chicken
385 and vegetables soups, a temperature sweep test was conducted from 20 °C to 80 °C as shown in
386 Figure 3. For MS and GG samples at both consistencies, G' and G'' values slightly decreased during
387 the whole range of temperatures tested. Conversely, both G' and G'' values diminished or kept
388 constant between 20 °C and 50 °C for CSM samples at both consistency levels, but after this
389 temperature, the G' and G'' values of CSM samples rose. Hosseini-Parvar, Matia-Merino, Goh,
390 Razavi, and Mortazavi (2010) reported similar results in basil seed gum solutions, and attributed
391 this behaviour to greater intermolecular interactions among hydrocolloids molecules that took place
392 at higher temperatures. Moreover, $\text{Tan } \delta$ values were particularly variable for all the samples being
393 similar the profile at both consistency levels. GG texture-modified soups showed increasing $\text{Tan } \delta$
394 values until 60 °C were they sharply dropped, CSM samples showed a continuous decreased of their
395 $\text{Tan } \delta$ values, and for MS samples the results kept quite constant during the whole range of
396 temperatures tested.

397 3.3 Simulated oral processing conditions: combining squeezing flow and shear force tests

398 A squeezing flow and shear force tests were combined to assess the oral processing of samples.
399 The compression/decompression motions of the upper plate are used to simulate the
400 upward/downward movement of the tongue against the palate (Terpstra, Janssen, & van der Linden,
401 2007), whereas the shearing motion of the upper plate (constant shear rate of 10 s^{-1}) is used to mimic
402 the sliding of the tongue against the palate (Chung et al., 2013).

403 Figure 4 and Figure 5 present, respectively, the maximum positive and negative forces, and η_{app}
404 of all the samples, in presence and absence of artificial saliva, for ten compression-shearing-
405 decompression cycles. To better elucidate the impact of the α -amylase on those samples containing
406 starch (MS) the test was also performed in presence of distilled water (Figures 4-5 e). The maximum
407 positive peak force was taken as a measure of material consistency, whereas the maximum negative
408 force was related to the material adhesiveness. The η_{app} (at 10 s^{-1}) obtained during the fixed gap
409 stage was associated with the tongue sliding against the palate, as above-mentioned.

410 In absence of artificial saliva, a slight decrease in the maximum and minimum force values were
411 observed for all the samples from the first to second cycles, being more evident in case of all CSM
412 samples and MS sample at the pudding-like consistency (Figure 4). According to Chung et al. (2013)
413 it can be related to the breakdown of the texture-modified soup structure.

414 At both consistency levels, the texture-modified soups prepared with MS exhibited the lowest
415 consistency value, whereas GG and CSM samples presented higher consistency. It is important to
416 highlight that these results are in accordance with those reported in the back extrusion test (Section
417 3.1). Furthermore, significant ($p < 0.05$) differences were observed for samples' adhesiveness at the
418 pudding-like consistency. MS sample exhibited the lowest adhesiveness, meanwhile GG and CSM
419 samples presented similar adhesiveness.

420 In presence of artificial saliva, the maximum and minimum force values significantly ($p < 0.05$)
421 decreased for MS, GG, and CSM samples at both consistency levels due to their dilution. Moreover,
422 to corroborate the effect of the α -amylase on samples containing MS the test was also conducted
423 with distilled water. Figure 4 (e) shows the dilution effect and the impact of the α -amylase on MS
424 samples. Their maximum and minimum force values were lower in presence of artificial saliva than
425 in presence of distilled water, regardless of the consistency level. Thus, the α -amylase present in
426 artificial saliva caused the degradation of this hydrocolloid mainly composed by modified starch.

427 Regarding the η_{app} (Figure 5), non-significant ($p > 0.05$) differences were observed among
428 samples at the honey-like consistency in absence of artificial saliva. At the pudding-like consistency,
429 the samples formulated with GG and CSM as texturing agents exhibited the highest η_{app} values.
430 When adding artificial saliva to the texture-modified soups, the η_{app} values decreased probably due
431 to the dilution effect. The highest η_{app} values were observed for the CSM texture-modified soups at
432 both consistency levels, followed by GG and MS samples. Thus, the greater tongue sliding against
433 the palate was offered by CSM samples. Moreover, to confirm the action of the α -amylase on MS
434 samples, the assays were also run with distilled water (Figure 5 e). Lower η_{app} values were reported
435 by MS samples mixed with artificial saliva, regardless of the consistency level. The α -amylase
436 causes the starch hydrolysis, breaking down its complex structure and reducing the viscosity of
437 samples (Sharma et al., 2020; Herranz et al., 2021). Since the sudden decrease in oral viscosity is a
438 major safety concern in dysphagia management owing to the risk of aspiration (Sharma et al., 2020),
439 MS texture-modified chicken and vegetable soups would be less appropriate than CSM samples for
440 people with swallowing disorders.

441 3.4 Sensory evaluation

442 Figure 6 presents the sensory properties of the texture-modified chicken and vegetables soups
443 prepared with MS, GG, and CSM at both consistency levels. Significant ($p < 0.05$) differences were

444 observed in colour, oral adhesiveness, oral consistency, and oral residue attributes among samples.
445 The samples presenting the lowest scores related to the intensity of the colour attribute were those
446 formulated with CSM at both consistency levels. The greatest scores in oral adhesiveness were
447 shown by CSM soups at the honey-like and pudding-like consistencies, followed by GG and MS
448 samples as observed in the simulated oral processing conditions. Concerning the oral residue
449 attribute, GG samples at both consistency levels presented the highest scores. Furthermore, GG and
450 CSM samples were considered as the most in-mouth consistent by panellist, and non-significant (p
451 > 0.05) differences were noted among samples according to the swallowing attribute.

452 3.5 Correlations of instrumental and sensory data

453 The interrelationships between instrumental and sensory analysis could help in designing texture-
454 modified food products for people with swallowing difficulties. Table 5 presents the Pearson
455 correlation coefficients of instrumental and sensory measurements.

456 For the honey-like consistency, a negative correlation was obtained between the instrumental
457 parameter ΔE^* and the colour sensory attribute. It could be attributed to the presence of natural
458 pigments or tannic substances from the tegument of chia seeds (Koocheki et al., 2009), suggesting
459 some formula adjustments to improve the organoleptic characteristics of the final product. Positive
460 correlations were observed between the instrumental measurements of area under the curve and
461 sensory data of the oral consistency and oral adhesiveness. These results suggest that samples with
462 high area under the curve, such as CSM, will be more consistent in the early stages of the oral
463 processing, which is crucial when developing products for dysphagics in order to diminish the risk
464 of aspiration. Nevertheless, these samples will be also more adhesive, which could indicate the
465 necessity of an increased salivary flow at the beginning of the oral processing.

466 Moreover, a positive correlation was obtained between the instrumental measurement of G'_{LVR} and
467 the sensory attribute of swallowing. This suggests that stiff materials (high G'_{LVR} values), such as

468 MS, would be more easily swallowed. However, it is important to highlight that the α -amylase
469 present in artificial saliva degrades this hydrocolloid and reduces the viscosity of the soups, which
470 is crucial in dysphagia treatment due to the risk of aspiration (Sharma et al., 2020). Furthermore,
471 Tan δ values correlate negatively with the sensory attributes of swallowing and positively with the
472 oral residue, indicating that samples exhibiting greater Tan δ values will be more difficult to swallow
473 and will require greater salivary flow for the oral cleansing. As previously indicated, Nyström et al.
474 (2015) observed that dysphagic patients perceived easier to swallow thinning fluids with increased
475 elasticity (low Tan δ values). Regarding the maximum positive and negative forces obtained when
476 combining the squeezing flow and shear force tests and in presence of artificial saliva, positive
477 correlations were obtained between these instrumental measurements and the sensory attributes of
478 oral consistency and oral adhesiveness. The results suggest that these parameters will be maintained
479 at the early stages of the oral processing.

480 In case of the samples presenting the pudding-like consistency, a negative correlation was
481 obtained between the instrumental parameter ΔE^* and the colour sensory attribute, as also observed
482 at the honey-like consistency. The presence of natural pigments or tannic substances from the
483 tegument of chia seeds negatively affects the colour perceived by panellists. A positive correlation
484 was obtained between the area under the curve and the oral consistency and oral adhesiveness of
485 the samples. More consistent samples, like CSM, will be perceived as more in-mouth consistent and
486 adhesive. As previously indicated, the maintenance of the oral consistency of the samples plays an
487 important role when designing foods for dysphagics. Moreover, an increased salivary flow could be
488 needed for CSM samples. Negative correlations were observed between the instrumental
489 measurements of G'_{LVR} and G^* and the sensory attributes of oral consistency and oral adhesiveness.
490 This suggests that stiff and rigid soups, like MS, will be less consistent and adhesive at the beginning
491 of the oral process, probably due to the α -amylase action that reduces the viscosity of the samples
492 (Sharma et al., 2020), as above-mentioned. Regarding the Tan δ , it correlates negatively with the

493 sensory attribute of swallowing, suggesting that samples with greater $\text{Tan } \delta$ values will be more
494 difficult to swallow (Nyström et al., 2015). Finally, as occurred in the samples with the honey-like
495 consistency, positive correlations were obtained between the maximum positive and negative forces
496 and the sensory attributes of oral consistency and oral adhesiveness.

497 **4. Conclusions**

498 Texture-modified chicken and vegetables soups present different instrumental and sensory data
499 regardless of their similar apparent viscosity values measured at 25 °C and at shear rate of 50 s⁻¹.

500 The viscoelastic evaluation of samples shows that MS and CSM texture-modified chicken and
501 vegetables soups would be more suitable for dysphagic patients since they exhibit high elasticity
502 degree and resistance to deformation. Nonetheless, α -amylase presents in saliva cause the
503 degradation of the texture-modified soup prepared with MS. Given that the rapid reduction in oral
504 viscosity is crucial in dysphagia management due to the risk of aspiration, MS soups would be
505 considered less convenient for people with swallowing disorders than CSM samples. The sensory
506 evaluation shows that using CSM as texturing agent in soups does not modify the swallowing
507 property of samples. Moreover, instrumental and sensory parameters exhibit strong correlations,
508 which plays an important role when designing dysphagia-oriented products. At both consistency
509 levels, $\text{Tan } \delta$ can be considered a good measure for designing texture-modified foods since its
510 correlation suggests that samples with higher $\text{Tan } \delta$ values will be more difficult to swallow. Besides
511 for the pudding-like consistency soups, G'_{LVR} and G^* values show a strong negative correlation with
512 the oral consistency and oral adhesiveness, being an indicator of the rapid reduction of the MS
513 samples' viscosity during the oral processing.

514 The present study provides helpful information to develop texture-modified chicken and
515 vegetables soups with desirable instrumental and sensory properties for dysphagia management, and
516 confirms the potential of CSM as a novel texturing agent for dysphagia treatment. Further studies

517 on the lubrication properties of these soups should be conducted, by means of tribological tests, to
518 fully understand their behaviour during swallowing. It would be also interesting to perform the
519 sensory analysis in long-term care centres, and adjustments to CSM formulations should be
520 considered to reduce its impact on product's colour and sensory acceptance.

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526 **Conflict of interest**

527 None.

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654

655

656 **Table captions**

657 **Table 1.** Concentration (% w/w) of each hydrocolloid used to prepare the texture-modified soups
658 and their apparent viscosities (η_{app} , mPa·s) measured at 25 °C with a shear rate of 50 s⁻¹.

659 **Table 2.** Colour attributes, colour variations compared to the control, and texture parameters of the
660 different texture-modified soups at 37 °C.

661 **Table 3.** Rheological parameters from the steady flow behaviour test of the different texture-
662 modified soups at 37 °C.

663 **Table 4.** Viscoelastic parameters obtained from the LAOS and SAOS tests, and slope (n') of $\ln G'$
664 vs \ln frequency performed at 37 °C.

665 **Table 5.** Pearson correlation coefficients of instrumental measurements with sensory attributes.

666 **Figure captions**

667 **Figure 1.** Changes in elastic modulus, G' (a and c), and viscous modulus, G'' (b and d), with the
668 stress applied. Curves are representative runs. Modified starch (MS), guar gum (GG), and chia seed
669 mucilage (CSM).

670 **Figure 2.** Changes in elastic modulus, G' (a and b), viscous modulus, G'' (c and d), and loss tangent,
671 $\tan \delta$ (c and d), of the different texture-modified chicken and vegetables soups at 37 °C, as a function
672 of the frequency stress applied. Curves are representative runs. Modified starch (MS), guar gum
673 (GG), and chia seed mucilage (CSM).

674 **Figure 3.** Temperature sweep of the different texture-modified chicken and vegetables soups from
675 20 °C to 80 °C: changes in elastic modulus, G' (a and b), viscous modulus, G'' (c and d), and loss
676 tangent, $\tan \delta$ (e and f). Curves are representative runs. Modified starch (MS), guar gum (GG), and
677 chia seed mucilage (CSM).

678 **Figure 4.** Maximum positive (consistency) and negative forces (adhesiveness) of the texture-
679 modified chicken and vegetables soups during 10 compression-shearing-decompression cycles: a)
680 Honey-like consistency without saliva; b) Pudding like consistency without saliva; c) Honey-like
681 consistency with saliva; d) Pudding like consistency with saliva; and e) MS samples with saliva and
682 dilution effect (DE). Modified starch (MS), guar gum (GG), and chia seed mucilage (CSM). Values
683 are the average of two independent experiments.

684 **Figure 5.** Apparent viscosity (η_{app} at 10 s^{-1}) changes of the texture-modified chicken and vegetables
685 soups during 10 compression-shearing-decompression cycles: a) Honey-like consistency without
686 saliva; b) Pudding like consistency without saliva; c) Honey-like consistency with saliva; d) Pudding
687 like consistency with saliva; and e) MS samples with saliva and dilution effect (DE). Modified starch
688 (MS), guar gum (GG), and chia seed mucilage (CSM). Values are the average of two independent
689 experiments.

690 **Figure 6.** Average score of the attributes tested in texture-modified chicken and vegetables soups
691 with honey-like and pudding-like consistencies. *Indicates significant differences among samples
692 ($p < 0.05$) ($n = 38$). Modified starch (MS), guar gum (GG), and chia seed mucilage (CSM).