

## Possible Mechanism for Hard-to-Swallow Oil Seed Pastes

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# Possible Mechanism for Hard-to-Swallow Oil Seed Pastes

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Andrew J Rosenthal<sup>1,3</sup> and Seçkin Yilmaz<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Department of Health and Life Sciences, Coventry University, Priory Lane, Coventry, CV1 5FB

<sup>2</sup> Department of Food Engineering University of Ankara, Turkey

<sup>3</sup> Corresponding author

## Abstract

Roasted and crushed oil rich seeds such as sesame paste and peanut butter share both a common structure elicit the apparent sensation of thickening in the mouth. Working with sesame paste, as an example, the force needed to compress water mixtures increased to about 25% added water. The adhesive force required to pull a plunger from the surface was bimodal with peaks around 15 and 25% hydration. It is postulated that when introduced to the mouth, water from the saliva is absorbed by the paste leading to a hard, adhesive material which sticks to the palate and the tongue, making these materials hard-to-swallow. We hypothesize that the shared hard-to-swallow behaviour exhibited by other oil seed pastes/butters is due to a similar hydration process in the mouth.

## Keywords

Sesame paste, peanut butter, bolus, swallow, deglutition, hydration, oral processing

## Application

The fact that some foods are hard-to-swallow may provide insights into the mechanisms of swallowing.

## Introduction

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3 Dried, roasted/toasted and ground seeds from peanuts, cashew,  
4 sunflower, hazelnuts, sesame are often used as spreads or ingredients in  
5 the cuisine of various cultures around the world. Products such as peanut  
6 butter, tahini, hazelnut butter, cashew nut butter, sunflower spread share  
7 a common structure, consisting of a fragments of cell debris suspended in  
8 oil. Anecdotal observations from people who eat these products, suggest  
9 that they appear to thicken in the mouth suggesting that they might be  
10 dilatant (shear thickening). This unusual property does occur in other  
11 concentrated suspensions such as starch granules in water and may be  
12 responsible for this unusual mouth feel.  
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21 We refer to this phenomenon as "anecdotal" because there have been  
22 relatively few scientific publications on the matter, however Chen and  
23 Lolivert (2011) who investigated the swallowing time of 28 liquid/paste  
24 like foods (their premise was that liquid foods would not require  
25 mastication for particle size reduction) found that the most difficult food  
26 to swallow food that they considered was smooth peanut butter with an  
27 average oral residence time of 7 ( $\pm 1.7$ ) seconds.  
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34 This paper seeks to investigate the mechanism behind this hard-to-  
35 swallow phenomenon using sesame paste as a model, with the hope that  
36 the findings may be transferable to the other similarly structured  
37 materials which seem to exhibit this hard-to-swallow phenomenon.  
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42 Sesame paste (Tahin, Tahina, Tehina, Tahini) is a widely used in middle  
43 eastern cuisine. Eaten on its own or as an ingredient in savoury dishes  
44 such as Humous (with chick peas, lemon juice and garlic), Babganoush  
45 (with aubergine, garlic), as well as sweet dishes like Halva (with syrups,  
46 honey or sugar). It is derived by grinding the dried, roasted, oil rich seed  
47 of *Sesamum indicum*, and it yields an oily, buff-brown coloured, opaque  
48 liquid consisting of a suspension of cell debris in expressed oil.  
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55 From its appearance one might expect this liquid to be easy to swallow,  
56 yet as mentioned above it exhibits the hard-to-swallow phenomenon  
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3 when eaten on its own. The suggestion that sesame paste might be  
4 shear thickening may be discounted as several studies have looked at its  
5 rheology showing that it exhibits a strong shear thinning (pseudoplastic)  
6 behaviour (Abu-Jdayil, *et al*, 2002; Altay and Ak, 2005; Akbulut and  
7 Coklar, 2008) which is sometimes thixotropic (Ciftci *et al.*, 2008).  
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12 Another possibility is that the sesame paste is reacting with saliva in the  
13 mouth, resulting in changes in the rheological behaviour. Lindner and  
14 Kinsella (Lindner and Kinsella, 1991) investigated the hydration of sesame  
15 paste and showed a rise in viscosity as the water content rose to about  
16 12%. Above 12% the consistency mixture starts to solidify and further  
17 viscosity measurements were not possible until the water content reached  
18 levels of 40% and above, when an oil-in-water emulsion is formed. This  
19 rise in viscosity not caused by shear but hydration may be partially  
20 responsible for the hard-to-swallow sensation, but no data exists for what  
21 happens between 12 and 40% hydration. This paper seeks to investigate  
22 the changes in rheological behaviour within this hydration range.  
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33 To monitor this change in viscoelastic behaviour we chose to undertake  
34 uniaxial compression of the mixture, by forcing a flat ended probe into the  
35 mixture while measuring the force needed to penetrate the surface. We  
36 also measured the adhesive force of the material by measuring the tack  
37 while withdrawing the probe after the compression (Rosenthal, 2010).  
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42 Obviously adding water to a dry material suspended in a water immiscible  
43 liquid will not dilute the dispersion. As would be expected the initial effect  
44 is for the dry cell debris to become hydrated while still suspended in oil.  
45 In order that we could gauge the interaction of the water and the sesame  
46 paste constituents, we also examined the water activity of the mixtures –  
47 thus giving a sense of how added water associates with the diverse  
48 mixture materials likely to be present in the cell debris.  
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55 The objective of this study was to fill gaps in the physical data previously  
56 collected on the hydration properties of tahini and to relate this to  
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3 anecdotal reports of the oral behaviour of sesame paste and other similar  
4 products formed by crushing toasted oil rich seeds.  
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## 8 9 **Methodology**

10 Sesame paste (Al Taj, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia) was stirred to  
11 ensure a homogeneous composition. For the water activity and uniaxial  
12 compression, mixtures of sesame paste and distilled water were prepared  
13 on a weight-weight basis to achieve the following percentages of water:  
14 0, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 15, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 25, 26, 28, 30, 32, 34,  
15 35, 36, 38, 40 and 50% water. The mixtures were mixed well with a  
16 spatula and about 10 g of each mixture was placed into three separate  
17 water activity dishes (Novasania, Switzerland), the surface of the mixture  
18 was smoothed out to fill the dish with an plane surface, lidded and left in  
19 the dark at room temperature for two days in order that the water  
20 distribution equilibrate (the 40 and 50% added water samples were  
21 stored at 4°C to prevent mould growth and then warmed to room  
22 temperature prior to further testing).  
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34 A water activity meter (Novasania TH200) was calibrated by according to  
35 the manufacturers recommended procedure with saturated solutions of  
36 known relative humidity (RH). The following freshly prepared calibration  
37 standards were used: Lithium Chloride (11% RH), Magnesium Chloride  
38 (33% RH), Magnesium Nitrate (53% RH), Sodium Chloride (75% RH) and  
39 Barium Chloride (90% RH). When samples were introduced to the water  
40 activity meter, the dish was de-lidded and swiftly placed into the meter  
41 which was sealed. Readings were taken when the reading was steady ( $\pm$   
42 0.005 water activity unit for 5 minutes). All determinations were done at  
43 25°C. Following water activity determinations, the sample dishes were  
44 lidded prior to being used for the uniaxial compression.  
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54 Uniaxial compression was determined using a LFRA texture analyser  
55 model LFRA1500 (Brookfield Viscometers, Harlow, UK). The sample still  
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3 in the water activity dish (40 mm diameter) was placed on the instrument  
4 base plate and a 10 mm diameter round acrylic probe was used with a  
5 speed of 5 mm s<sup>-1</sup>. The instrument triggered at 1 g resistance and then  
6 compressed the sample to a depth of 2 mm. After compression the probe  
7 was removed at 5 mm s<sup>-1</sup>. The force required both to force the probe into  
8 the sample and to pull it out were measured. Taking account of the probe  
9 contact area, forces were converted to stresses and recorded in Pa.

## 17 Results and Discussion

19 Lindner and Kinsella (1991) made a variety of tahini water mixtures and  
20 found them to behave as liquids at water content below 12% and greater  
21 than 40%. However, in the range of 14-24% they reported that the rotor  
22 of their controlled stress viscometer slipped and in the range of 24-35%  
23 the material became inhomogeneous – with the separation of oil.

24 Figure 1 shows the changes in water activity which we measured with  
25 addition of water to the sesame paste. The initial water activity ( $A_w$ ) of  
26 the sesame paste was around 0.58 ( $\pm 0.01$ ). Gradual addition of water  
27 barely raised the  $A_w$  until about 4% was present, further addition led to a  
28 gradual rise reaching an  $A_w$  of 0.90 at about 12%, which corresponds to  
29 Lindner and Kinsella's lower limit of viscous behaviour. Subsequent  
30 addition of water results in a more gradual rise in the  $A_w$  until at 28%  
31 water where the  $A_w$  plateaus out at about 0.99 ( $\pm 0.01$ ) which corresponds  
32 to Lindner and Kinsella's return to viscous behaviour.

33 Using uniaxial compression we are able to see how the consistency of the  
34 mixtures vary with the addition of water. Figure 2 shows the force  
35 needed to push the 10 mm diameter probe just 2 mm into the surface.  
36 The error bars are standard deviations of triplicate determinations.  
37 Obviously at the extremes of hydration (i.e. <12% and >35%) the  
38 mixtures behave as liquids and the concept of hardness is inappropriate  
39 as the material flows when the probe penetrates the surface, but clearly  
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3 in the added water range from 12-35% a solid material exists with a peak  
4 of solidity around 25%.

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7 In some respects a single penetration uniaxial compression test is similar  
8 to the first cycle of the widely used, empirical test protocol, "Texture  
9 Profile Analysis" (TPA) which is said to mimic what goes on during the  
10 first two bites in the mouth during chewing. In terms of TPA terminology  
11 the compressive force in Figure 1 is akin to "hardness" (Rosenthal, 2010).  
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16 Removing a flat probe from a sample sandwiched between that probe and  
17 a parallel surface is often referred to as a tack test. In TPA terminology  
18 this is the "adhesiveness". Figure 3 shows changes in tack as a function of  
19 added water.  
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25 While there is considerable variation between replicate tests, Figure 3  
26 seems to show two distinctive peaks of adhesiveness occurring as water is  
27 added to sesame paste. It is as though different components of the  
28 mixture are separately hydrated. At early stages of hydration the  
29 components coalesce and to adhere to surfaces on which they contact. It  
30 is only when they become fully hydrated that they lose their adhesive  
31 capacity. The first of these adhesive peaks occurs at 12-14% added  
32 water (when the  $A_w$  is about 0.90) and the second peak at a maximum at  
33 25% added water (with an  $A_w$  of 0.97). The fact that the  $A_w$  is less than  
34 one in both adhesive peaks suggests that the substances present have  
35 further capacity to bind to water. From a botanical point of view, it  
36 makes perfect sense that cell wall and polysaccharide materials should  
37 hydrate at a lower  $A_w$  than enzymes, membranes and their constituent  
38 proteins thus allowing carbohydrate substrates to be available for  
39 metabolism prior to processes such as germination, when enzymes first  
40 become functional.  
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54 Whatever the constituents and mechanism causing these adhesive events  
55 to occur, the overall effect of adding water to this suspension of cell  
56 debris in oil, is to initially raise the viscosity of the solution as the  
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3 suspended particles start to adsorb water. The mixture gradually hardens  
4 while reaching a peak of stickiness at about 12-14% water. Further  
5 hydration leads to a second, and higher, peak of stickiness which  
6 coincides both with a maximum hardness of the mixture at 25% added  
7 water. We corroborate Linder and Kinsella's observation of phase  
8 separation and liberation of oil at such water contents. Addition of further  
9 water results in the formation of an oil in water emulsion (phase  
10 inversion) along with softening of the material as the water activity tends  
11 towards one.  
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20 Water activity has been widely seen as a measure interaction between  
21 water and other components, whereby the water sorption isotherm  
22 illustrates the tenacity with which water present is bound to other  
23 materials. In the case of these water and sesame paste mixtures, the  
24 physical state of mixtures up to 12% water are essentially oil based  
25 suspensions of particles with low water activity. In this region further  
26 small additions of water become absorbed into the particles which remain  
27 separate allowing viscosity measurements to be undertaken (Kinsella and  
28 Lindner, 1991).  
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37 With further addition of water the particles begin to form a network, the  
38 adhesive force between particles is apparent at a rheological level with a  
39 small increases in tack. Viscosity measurements are no longer possible,  
40 but with increasing water addition, solidity develops with the increasing  
41 forces needed to compress the mixture and a second peak in the tack.  
42 Within this region there is an expulsion of oil as the inter-particle network  
43 becomes more established into a coherent mass.  
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50 Finally, at high water levels, the mixture is essentially an oil in water  
51 emulsion which is thinned by addition of further water and which exhibits  
52 an  $A_w$  close on maximum suggesting all other macromolecules have  
53 become saturated with water and excess water is unassociated in the in  
54 the continuous phase.  
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3 In terms of oral processing – the source of hydration is predominantly  
4 saliva and the low  $A_w$  of the sesame paste provides a high water binding  
5 capacity able to absorb water from the palate, sucking water from the  
6 mouth. In his review of oral food processing, Chen (2009) examines the  
7 role of saliva in swallowing. He points out that when stimulated the flow  
8 of saliva can reach as much as  $4.15 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ min}^{-1}$ , thus a typical 5 g portion  
9 of sesame paste would need to remain in the mouth for about 20 s to  
10 acquire enough saliva to lubricate it to 30% at which point it starts to  
11 behave more like a liquid.  
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20 Hutchings and Lillford (1988) created a model to explain how the bolus  
21 develops during mastication. They identified three factors: *time in the*  
22 *mouth*; *degree of structure*; and, *degree of lubrication*. They plotted  
23 these factors orthogonally (Figure 4a) and postulated that there was a  
24 level of material structure above which we could not swallow the bolus.  
25 They represented this cut off as a plane across the *degree of structure*  
26 axis, whereby foods which existed above this threshold would need to be  
27 masticated until the particle size was small enough to swallow (e.g.  
28 Peyron et al., 2004). Similarly they suggested that a minimum level of  
29 lubrication was necessary to swallow the bolus and again they  
30 represented this threshold as a plane across the *degree of lubrication*  
31 axis. The intersection of these two planes forms a solid bar shape (in 3D  
32 – the third axis being time) outside of which the bolus needs further oral  
33 processing to lubricate or disintegrate, but inside of which the bolus can  
34 be cleared. Figure 4b shows two example foods which Hutchings and  
35 Lillford refer to:  
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- 48 • Liquids start with no structure to break down and have adequate  
49 lubrication, it is just a matter of time to enjoy the food before it is  
50 swallowed.  
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- 52 • A piece of sponge cake which starts both dry and while friable it  
53 does have considerable structure – in the case of sponge cake there  
54 is a need for structural breakdown through mastication and  
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3 moistening through secretion of saliva. The trajectory line shows  
4 how these two factors interact with time  
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8 Figure 4c, sesame paste seems to break the rules, while it starts as a  
9 lubricated unstructured liquid it rapidly absorbs moisture from the saliva,  
10 both drying the mouth and creating structure within itself. Thus it  
11 becomes impossible to swallow. Furthermore, it sticks to the palate and  
12 tongue, becoming inaccessible to the teeth – thus preventing mastication.  
13 It is only with time that enough saliva is secreted or if the subject drinks  
14 additional liquid, that it can return to the swallowing bar and be cleared.  
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21 Bearing in mind the origin, composition, processing and structural  
22 similarity of sesame paste, peanut butter, cashew nut butter and other oil  
23 seed pastes, it is difficult to dismiss the hard-to-swallow behaviour in the  
24 mouth as being unrelated. Clearly further work needs to be done to verify  
25 the similarity, however we hypothesise that the same mechanism of cell  
26 debris hydration is responsible for the hard-to-swallow sensation  
27 produced by these products in the mouth.  
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5 Figure 1: Water Activity ( $A_w$ ) as a function of added water (error bars are  
6 one standard deviation).  
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12 Figure 2: Compressive force as a function of added water (error bars are  
13 one standard deviation).  
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19 Figure 3 Tack as a function of added water (error bars are one standard  
20 deviation).  
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26 Figure 4a Hutichings and Lillford's model of swallowing based on level of  
27 lubrication and structural integrity. 4b Swallowing trajectory of two  
28 common foods. 4c Swallowing trajectory of sesame paste  
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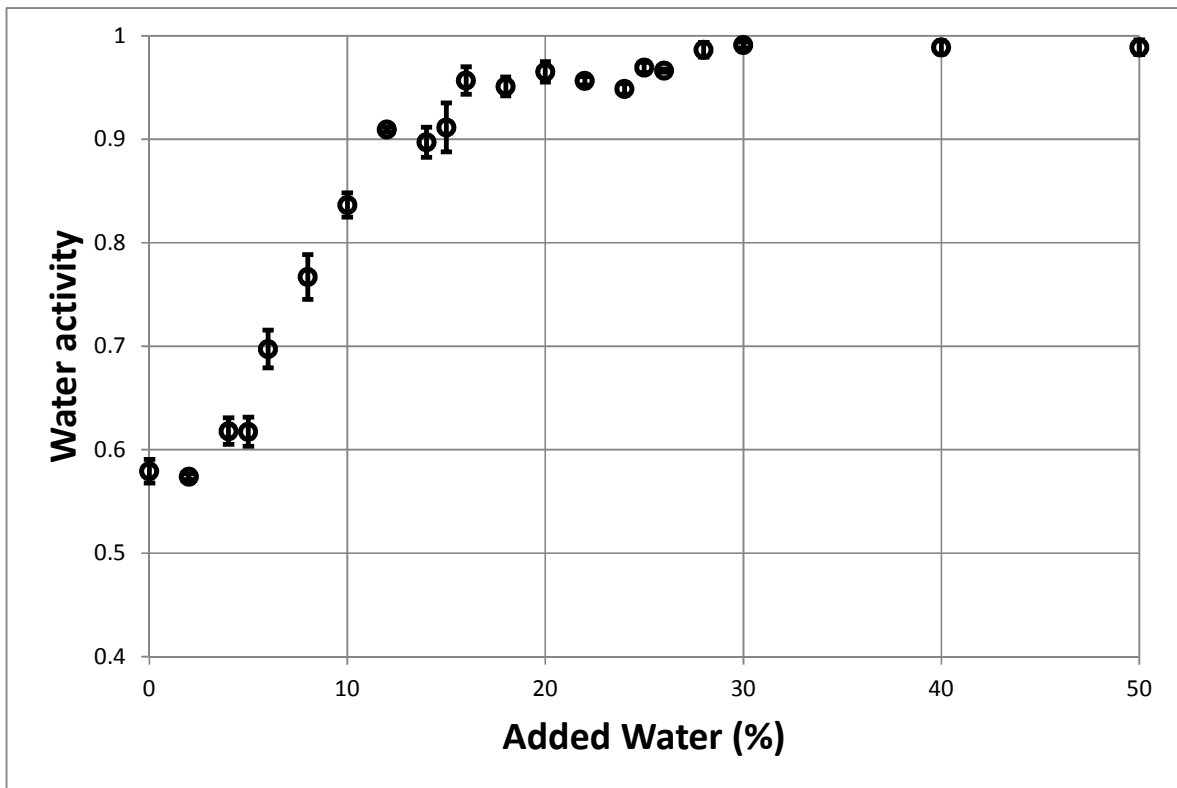


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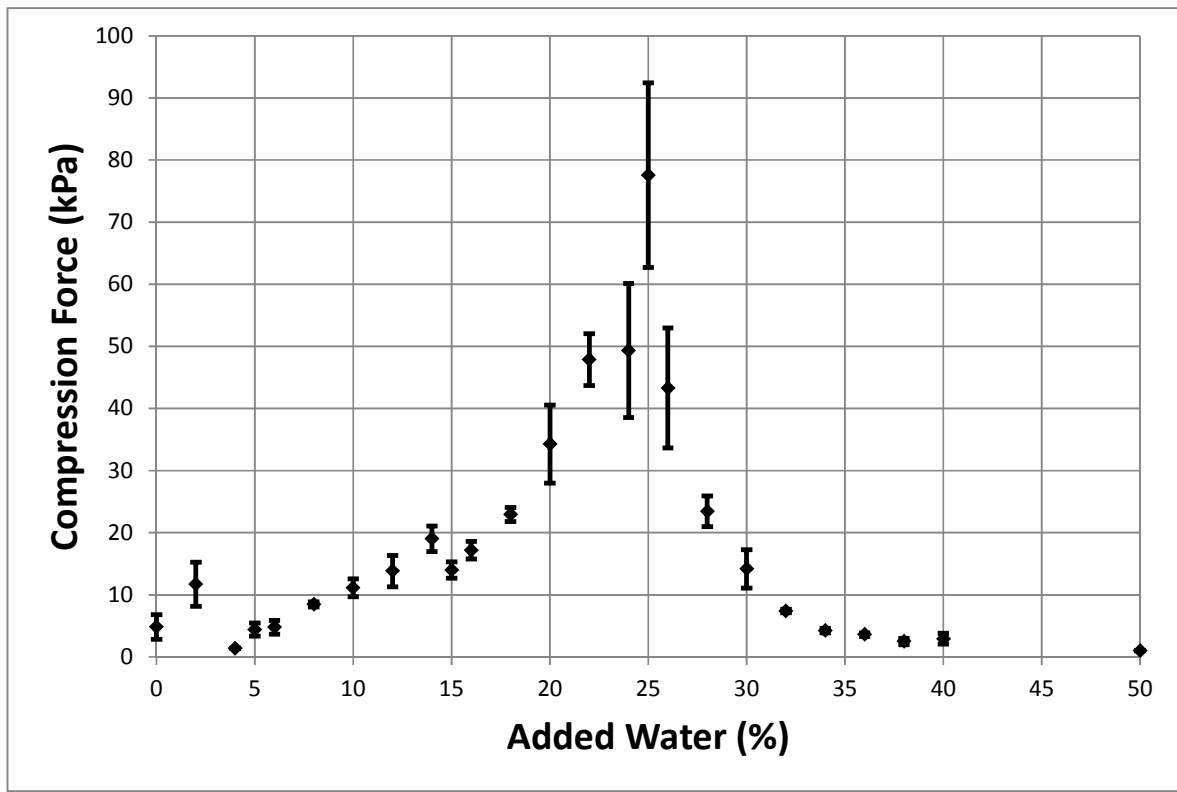


Figure 2

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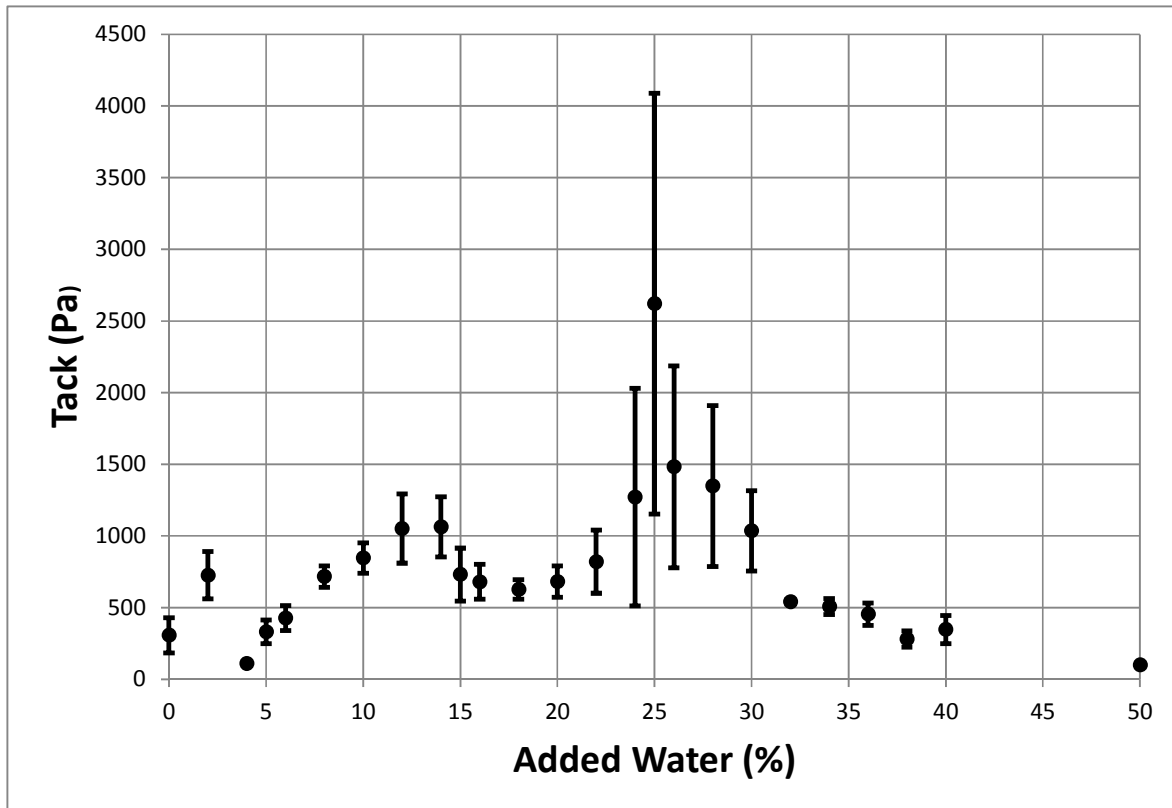
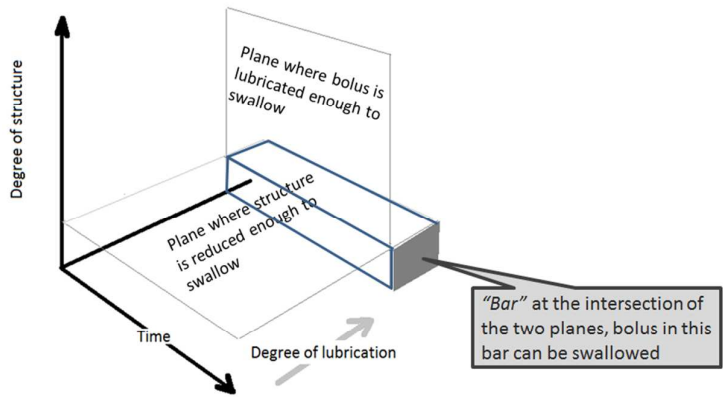
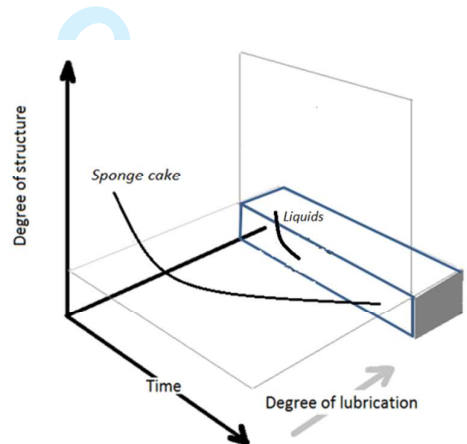


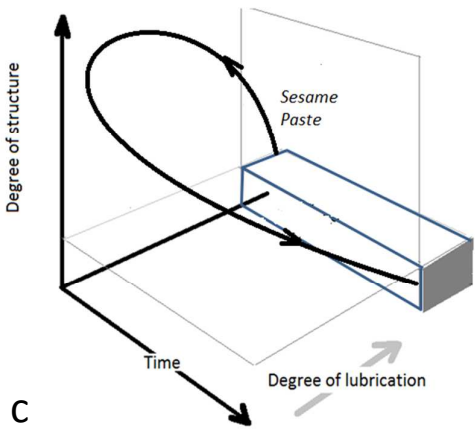
Figure 3



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Figure 4

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