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1 **New approach to food difficulty perception: food structure, food oral processing and**
2 **individual's physical strength**

3

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17

18

19 **Abstract**

20 The present study aims to study the effect of the interaction between food physics and human
21 physical strengths on food oral processing and difficulty perception in the young population.
22 As the first step in human nutrition is the food oral processing, special emphasis has been
23 given to the oral strengths. Fracture mechanics of fifteen commonly consumed food products
24 of fruits, vegetables and dairy origin were analysed using penetration test. Among the
25 different products studied, six products (carrot, banana, mozzarella, potato, soft cheddar and
26 hard cheddar) were selected and given to eleven young participants (<25 y.o.). Individual
27 physical assessments included measurements of dominant hand grip force, isometric tongue
28 pressure and bite force. Participants ranked the food products in the order of difficulty
29 perceived using a visual analogue scale. Additionally, the number of chews and the time at
30 swallow were analysed from video-recording for each participant. Food score difficulty
31 showed that high break force of food products were related linearly with difficulty perceived
32 ($r=0.729$) and with higher oral processing time ($r=0.816$). Other food breakdown
33 characteristics such as number of peaks and gradient of the penetration curves showed linear
34 correlation with mastication time ($r=0.830$, $r=0.840$) and number of chew cycles ($r=0.903$,
35 $r=0.914$). However, no relationship could be established between individual physical forces
36 (hand and oral) and food perception difficulty for young participants interviewed. This might
37 be attributed to the selected healthy and young population having higher hand force/tongue
38 force ratio, which might not interfere with their eating process.

39

40 **Practical applications**

41 This study investigates the relationship between human physical strength (with special
42 emphasis into oral forces), food difficulty perception of food of different textural properties
43 and their chewing and swallowing behaviour. The main hypothesis of this work is that

44 healthy young population with different levels of oral strengths and eating behaviour will
45 perceive food difficulty as a function of food textural characteristics and their individual
46 capability of eating. To do that, eating capability measurements has been combined with
47 texture analysis and video-recording of individual eating process (first bite-to-swallowing
48 event). Understanding the interplay of physical, physiological and psychological elements of
49 oral processing is a relative new area of research. Thus, the combination of tools and insights
50 generated in this article could be a bridge between oral physiology and food science, and also
51 could be of interests to new product developers in designing food with just-right texture.

52

53 **Keywords:** food structure, oral residence, difficulty at eating, oral forces, hand grip force

54

55 **Introduction**

56 In order to get nutrients from food, human beings transform the food at mouth. The strategy
57 of food oral processing is different for different food products (Wilkinson et al., 2000) and
58 also varies among individuals (Peyron et al., 2011). The physical and biochemical properties
59 of the food product change while the food is masticated in a continuous and dynamic process
60 (Wilkinson et al., 2000). Foegeding et al. (2015) used examples of pudding and carrot to
61 describe different kinds of oral processing behaviour. For instance, puddings are manipulated
62 with the tongue and hard palate, whilst, carrot has to be reduced in to smaller-sized particles
63 by teeth and then need tongue, oral palate and saliva to form a cohesive bolus. The
64 consequence of these different oral processing needs i.e. to commute particles or not is
65 reflected in the different actions that the mouth has to perform, such as squeezing by tongue
66 directly, or breakdown by teeth etc. Engelen et al. (2005) found a significantly different
67 number of chews for different food structures, such as 17 for cake and 63 for carrot. Authors

68 also found that hard and dry products needed more chewing and longer time to form a
69 coherent bolus.

70 From a human physical capability point of view, the components of the oral cavity
71 (including orofacial muscles such as lips and cheeks), teeth, tongue, palate and facial
72 muscles) have to work in a coordinated manner and under close control by the upper central
73 nervous system to generate efficient masticatory movements. Apart from the muscle
74 coordination, muscle tone has been also reported to be an important factor for effective food
75 oral processing. Alsanei and Chen (2014) revealed that the muscle strength of the oral cavity
76 is one of the contributing factors to the maximum capacity of oral volume. In agreement with
77 Palastanga and Soames (2012), they observed that when some of the labial muscles are
78 paralysed, a constant saliva drip from the corner of the mouth occurs, an indication of
79 weakened capability in keeping food inside the mouth. Engelen et al. (2005) studied the
80 influence of the oral physiology on oral processing, and inferred a significant but rather low
81 correlation between the maximum bite force and the masticatory performance. Although, the
82 influence was found to be less than 10%, it seems to be of enough importance to understand
83 objectively why some foods are perceived more difficult than others.

84 The ability to perform a bite is also dependent on the dentition status, and it is well-
85 known that masticatory efficiency decreases for subjects who have teeth missing (Fontijn-
86 Tekamp et al., 2000; Miyaura et al., 2000). Apart from the dentition status, several authors
87 highlighted the importance of tongue force in proper bolus propulsion down to the
88 oesophagus (Martino et al., 2005; Logemann, 2007; Ickenstein et al., 2012; Alsanei and
89 Chen, 2014). Also, the tongue is considered to be crucial for eating because it acts as a
90 mechanical device for food manipulation and transportation (Heath, 2002) from the anterior
91 region of the mouth to the pharynx (Pereira, 2012).

92 Elderly population are especially sensitive to tooth loss and motor-related problems.
93 The reason to elderly malnutrition seems to be multifactorial: functional, behavioural,
94 environmental, nutritional, and medical variables (Keller, 1993). In a previous work, we
95 interviewed over 200 elderlies for their eating capabilities (Laguna et al., 2015a; Laguna et
96 al., 2015b), finding that participants with low eating capabilities i.e. with relatively lower
97 magnitudes of dominant hand grip forces, isometric tongue pressure and bite force perceived
98 high consistency food products as more difficult to process orally. Furthermore, it is well
99 studied that when dentition status is low (i.e. wearing complete dentures), the difficult-to-
100 chew food items (e.g. roots, vegetables, fruits and meat) becomes less pleasing. As a result of
101 this, these populations tend to have lower intakes of vitamins (especially vitamins A, C and
102 carotenes), proteins and some nutrients such as thiamine, iron, and folic acid (Ranta et al.,
103 1988). Furthermore, subjects with a reduced masticatory efficiency tend to over prepare the
104 food. For example, some fruits and vegetables need to have their skins removed and some
105 foods need to be overcooked to compensate their mastication deficiency (Walls and Steele,
106 2004). Also, such food difficulty perception might lead to food avoidance.

107 Hence, the research question raised is how an individual develops a perception that a
108 food product is difficult to eat and how they decide to avoid it. Hayakawa et al. (2014)
109 quantified the difficulty as the time period lapsed between the oral ingestion and the end of
110 swallowing. We hypothesize that this increase of oral residence time is a sum of two key
111 unfavourable factors i.e. low physical strength (especially oral strengths) and harder food
112 texture. In this study, our aim was to objectively identify in healthy young individuals
113 whether their oral strength influences their food difficulty perception and oral processing
114 behaviour. Physical strengths (oral forces and hand grip force) of the eleven young
115 individuals, their food oral processing behaviour (oral residence time, chewing cycles and

116 number of swallows) and food difficulty perception during oral processing of different
117 categories of food were assessed.

118

119 **Materials and Methods**

120 Product selection and texture properties. Fracture mechanics of fifteen commonly consumed
121 food products (pear, carrot, apple, banana, watermelon, pineapple, potato, gherkin, baby
122 sweetcorn, heart of palm, mild cheddar, soft cheddar, mature cheddar, mozzarella and
123 spreadable cheese) were analysed using penetration tests (Texture analyser, Stable Micro
124 Systems, Godalming, UK) with upper Volodkevich Bite Jaw. This probe is an imitative bite
125 method used successfully by previous study (Varela et al., 2009).

126 Samples were placed on a flat platform, using the upper Volodekevich Bite Jaw.
127 Samples were penetrated for 20 mm at test speed of 1 mm per second at trigger force of 5 g.
128 Each test was performed on five replicates of each sample. The maximum breaking force (N)
129 as a measure of hardness, the number of force peaks (with a threshold of 0.1 N and the
130 gradient of the initial steep slope of the curve (N/sec) as a measure of food deformability
131 were assessed.

132 Fifteen foods were initially tested for their textural properties using a texture analyser. Then,
133 the six foods differing in their breakage profile were selected for oral processing experiments:
134 mild cheddar, mature cheddar, cheese, banana, carrot, and canned diced potato. The food
135 samples were cut into specimens measuring 1 cm in diameter and 2.5 cm in height for both
136 instrumental and consumer's evaluations.

137

138 *Individual's eating capability measurements*

139 The present study design was approved by Faculty Ethics Committee at the University of
140 Leeds [ethics reference (MEEC 14-006)]. Eleven students from University of Leeds (between

141 the ages of 18-25, 5 males and 6 females) participated in this study and gave written informed
142 consent before starting the study. Participants did not have any masticatory problems and
143 participated voluntarily in these experiments. Eating capability measurements of hand grip
144 force, isometric tongue pressure and bite force were measured using the methodology
145 described in a previous study (Laguna et al., 2015a), all measurements were done in
146 triplicates. Hand gripping force was measured with an adjustable handheld dynamometer
147 (JAMAR dynamometer, Patterson Medical Ltd., Nottinghamshire, UK). To measure the bite
148 force, a thin flexible force transducer was used (Tekscan, South Boston, Massachusetts,
149 USA) with two adhesive silicon discs (diameter: 1.5 cm, thickness: 0.3 cm to sandwich the
150 force sensor) connected to a multimeter. Finally, for the isometric tongue pressure, the Iowa
151 Oral Performance Instrument (IOPI®, Medical LLC, Redmond, Washington, USA) was
152 used. Prior to using the equipment, each measurement was demonstrated to the participant by
153 a trained demonstrator and any questions were answered before conducting the experiments
154 on subjects.

155

156 Food oral processing parameters

157 Food oral processing parameters were studied using video-recording technique. Prior to the
158 video recording session, participants had the complete explanation: they consumed different
159 food product in the order they preferred. They were showed the tray with the real food
160 products (carrot, banana, soft cheddar, canned potato, mozzarella and hard cheddar).
161 Participants had the right to withdraw at any time. They were also informed that in case of
162 any of the product causing discomfort, they did not have to masticate and/or swallow the
163 same. They were aware that the main focus of this video-recording session was to record their
164 mastication and swallowing behaviour. Experiments were conducted in a sensory test booth
165 with minimum distractions. The researcher was seated in front of the participant, beside the

166 camera. The researcher assisted participants with tissues or water if required, but water was
167 not offered at the beginning. Participants were video-recorded using a video camera (Canon
168 Powershot SX500 IS). Videos were visually analysed to study the total oral residence time,
169 number of chew cycles, number of swallows and swallowing time.

170 All tests were carried out between 10:00 and 12:00 p.m. and between 2:00 and 4:00 p.m. This
171 was approximately two hours after the university eating time table.

172

173 As shown in Figure 1, chew cycles refers to the cycle from the jaw closing after placing food
174 inside the mouth to the upward and downward mandible moment. In order to visualize better
175 the chew cycles two lines were drawn: red line to indicate the start or basal position; and
176 black line to indicate the jaw displacement. Normally, lips have two postural positions: relax
177 and closed-lip position (Burstone, 1967). In relaxed lip position, lips are without contraction
178 and hanging loosely (Burstone, 1967). In the closed-lip position, the lips are lightly touching
179 in order to produce an anterior seal of the oral cavity (Burstone, 1967). To record the time at
180 swallowing (or oral residence time), researchers observed two factors: closed-lip position and
181 consequently pulling the corner of the mouth and lower lip downward, followed by stop of
182 breathing and pharynx movement. The swallowing process was considered finished once the
183 participant has returned to breath, normally shown by slight mouth opening. An example of
184 the frame-by-frame video analysis is shown in Figure 1.

185

186 Rating of difficulty perceived

187 Eating difficulty definition given to participants for food difficulty evaluation was based on
188 the previous work by Hayakawa et al. (2014), i.e. “effort required to eat a sample during the
189 period between entry into the mouth and the end of swallowing”.

190 In a visual analogue scale of 10 points, participants were asked to rank the level of perceived
191 difficulty for the six food products given from “too easy” to “too difficult”.

192 Data analysis

193 Pearson’s correlation was carried out in order to study the relationship between different
194 parameters (participant’s strength and food oral processing parameters); this analysis was
195 performed using XLSTAT 2009.4.03 statistical software (Microsoft, Mountain View, CA).

196 Analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) was applied to study the perception of difficulty
197 among food products using SPSS (IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 22.0. Armonk,
198 NY: IBM Corp).

199

200 **Results and discussion**

201 **1- Individual physiological capabilities**

202 Participant’s characteristics chosen for this study are shown in Table 1. All the participants
203 were young and in good health status. The magnitudes of dominant hand grip forces
204 correspond to the normative grip strength data (Budziareck et al., 2008) and tongue pressure
205 values are in line with results of young population (Alsanei and Chen, 2014; Alsanei et al.,
206 2015). Bite force is known to be dependent on the geometry of the instrument as well as the
207 position where it is located (Laguna and Chen; Gibbs et al., 2002; Ferrario et al., 2004;
208 Laguna et al., 2015a); in such way, for young population some authors has been reported
209 higher forces (Tortopidis et al., 1998; Chen et al., 2010) whilst our results are within the
210 range of values obtained by Fernandes et al. (2003) using a similar flexisensor placed in the
211 incisors.

212 The relationship between different forces (hand, bite and tongue) was assessed (Table 2).
213 Hand grip strength is a significant health indicator for elderlies and thus, can be related with
214 oro-facial muscular function (Luna-Heredia et al., 2005; Bohannon, 2008; Yamada et al.,

215 2010). As shown in Table 2, among young participants, no relationship could be established
216 between oral (bite and tongue) and hand grip forces. Interestingly, in a previous work
217 involving 200 elderly participants (Laguna et al., 2015a; Laguna et al., 2015b), a significant
218 but low correlation (0.4; at 0.01 level) was observed between hand and oro-facial forces
219 measured. Probably in this study, with the number of consumers interviewed, the spectra is
220 not big enough to observe such correlations. Furthermore, it is also likely that such
221 correlations only exists where the forces are rather limiting due to overall weakening of oral
222 as well as physical forces as observed in case of frail elderly population in the previous study.

223

224 **2- Physical structure of food, oral processing and food perception difficulty**

225 In Figure 2, the penetration curves for the fifteen food products are shown. All the curves
226 represent the typical penetration curve, with the increase of load with increasing deformation,
227 up to a point when the sample surface gets suddenly fractured as the probe penetrated. For
228 vegetables (Figure 2a) , crack propagation in crisp tissues involved cell wall breakage, this
229 initial pressure also affected the surrounding cells, which were stretched overloading the
230 elasticity point, when the fractures occurred (Waldron, 2004). In our study, after this initial
231 fracture, the different vegetables exhibited different behaviours. Once the probe had
232 penetrated, in apple and watermelon, the force had continued to increase, with multiple low
233 force peaks, highlighting the crispy nature of both the products. In the case of pear, gherkin,
234 and carrot, the penetration force had decreased after breaking the surface. Similar curves have
235 been reported by previous authors in fruits and vegetables, such as cucumbers (Dan et al.,
236 2003), raw carrot (Kohyama et al., 2004; Kohyama et al., 2005), and apples (Dan et al.,
237 2003b). In the case of palm, banana and canned potato, the penetration force remained
238 constant, showing a plateau region for the rest of the test. Pineapple has been a case (probably
239 by the geometry use) where the force seemed to not arrive at its maximum, or it is possible

240 that the accumulative tissue around the probe was providing a force increment. In the case of
241 potato, as it was cooked, the intracellular starch resulted in a high viscosity gelled network
242 and the cell wall allowed more water as well as the pectin was degraded (Lillford, 2011), that
243 translated into less force being needed to penetrate the cooked potato.

244 Cheese, is a product with a range of texture (Delahunty and Drake, 2004). In this
245 study, hard (hard cheddar), semi-soft (mild- soft cheddar), and soft cheese (cheese flavour
246 paste) have been investigated. In cheese products, milk is enzymatically coagulated to form
247 an emulsion gel (Ong et al., 2011). Thus, during biting, the teeth cross a uniform matrix of
248 emulsion gel network, which is shown by absence of peaks in the curve. The difference in
249 hardness of the cheeses might be attributed to a higher aggregation of proteins and loss of
250 water. A smooth penetration can be observed for the semi-soft and soft cheese (Figure 2b),
251 without the typical break peak as in case of the pear, or the carrot. However, it seems that the
252 hard cheddar does have a snap before the probe penetrates the cheese matrix.

253 Table 3 shows further analysis of the texture curves, those with statistical difference higher
254 than $p > 0.05$ were selected. As cited before food products were selected for the oral
255 processing study was carrot, hard cheddar, soft cheddar, mozzarella, banana and canned
256 potato. The area under the curve represents the resistance to the probe penetration. As it can
257 be observed, the carrot was the food product with the highest area. The number of peaks is
258 related with the breaking events that occurred when the probe passes through the product
259 structure. For that, more homogeneous structure such as cheese (1 to 2 peaks) has less
260 number of peaks than apple (32 peaks) or watermelon (28 peaks).

261

262 **3- Oral processing and physical properties**

263 Three food oral processing parameters were analysed: number of chewing cycles, number of
264 swallows and time in mouth i.e. the difference in time between the first bite to the last

265 swallow. In Table 4, the average values of all the different parameters as a function of the
266 textural properties of food products are shown. In accordance with previous study (Engelen et
267 al., 2005), high correlation ($r=0.913$) between number of chew cycles and time at swallow
268 was found irrespective of the food type. In other words, food that resides in mouth longer
269 needs more chewing to form a swallowable bolus. At the same time, both parameters
270 (number of chew cycles and maximum oral residence time) was correlated significantly with
271 the maximum peak force obtained by the texture analyser ($r=0.894$, $r=0.816$), with the
272 number of peaks ($r=0.903$, $r=0.830$) and with the gradient of the food break ($r=0.914$,
273 $r=0.840$). These results suggest that food textural parameters (maximum force at break,
274 number of peaks, and gradient) were conditioning how individuals performed their
275 mastication. The importance of the food fracture has been shown also by previous authors
276 (Hiimae et al., 1996; Engelen et al., 2005). Engelen et al. (2005) showed a linear
277 relationship between yield strain and number of chewing cycles, and affirmed that other
278 physiological parameters such as saliva or masticatory performance explained less than the
279 10% of the masticatory performance. However it was observed from one of the authors that
280 for dry and highly fracturable food such as biscuits, mechanical strength had a limited
281 influence on the number of chewing cycles, and the amount of saliva secretion was a
282 determinant factor (Chen and Engelen, 2012).

283

284 **4- Difficulty perceived in relation with food properties**

285 Figure 3 shows a correlation between the perceived difficulty and the oral resident time in
286 relation with the maximum peak force at penetration and the time at mouth. As it can be
287 observed, there is a correlation between the difficulty and the maximum peak force.
288 Hayakawa et al. (2014) assessed the eating difficulty using a trained panel; they found that
289 the difficulty to eat a food is reflected by the time of consumption. Also, Witt and Stokes

290 (2015) recently reported that harder gels, require more oral residence time at mouth, more
291 chewing and a greater muscle force. Carrot was the hardest food product given, which
292 required more number of chews and resided longer in mouth, being in accordance with Witt
293 and Stokes (2015). However, comparing all the food given, hard cheddar was perceived as
294 the most difficult one, although it resided shorter time at mouth and broke at lower force than
295 carrot (former being softer). This suggests that it is not only the force at break but also the
296 structural property of the food that plays an important in the difficulty perceived.

297 It seems that food has to be treated in two separate groups, structured cell-wall or
298 fibrous food (banana, potato and carrot), and the gel kind food (mozzarella, mild cheddar and
299 hard cheddar) for relating to the ease of consumption. For gel-like products, it can be
300 observed that difficulty perceived increased with the maximum force at break ($r=0.818$) but
301 not with the time in mouth ($r=0.387$). In the case of the structured cell wall food, the
302 difficulty perception and the oral residence, increased linearly with the maximum force at
303 break ($r=0.920$, $r=0.754$).

304 However, not only the food structure but also composition may play a role. Boehm et
305 al. (2013) found that in chips with different fat content, sensory perception varied
306 dramatically during mastication although initially no changes in texture were perceived.
307 Therefore, food composition (different level of water, fat, protein in vegetables or cheese)
308 might also play a role in the oral lubrication and easiness perceived.

309 Overall, perception of oral processing difficulty was correlated with the oral residence
310 and with the effort needed for food breaking.

311

312 **5- Difficulty perceived in relation with participant's strength**

313 In Figure 4, perceived difficulty is plotted as a function of the tongue pressure and bite force.
314 Each force (or dot column) belong to a single participant; each colour belongs to a different

315 food. Hence, each column can be observed by separate food, the participants and their
316 individual strength. It is worth pointing out that the population of the study was in a good
317 health condition, and the differences between them were within the norm. As it can be
318 observed, there is a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) among the perceived difficulty based on
319 the food product, with banana being the easiest food followed by potato, mozzarella, carrot,
320 mild cheddar and hard cheddar. However, no correlation among physical forces and difficulty
321 perception could be established. It is worth noting that in this study the real food testing and
322 the familiarity of the food presented, the liking, the postprandial satisfaction and flavour
323 experience with well-known food-products (Prescott, 2012; Yeomans, 2012) might influence
324 the overall oral processing behaviour as well as difficulty perception.

325 Several authors have identified and classified the different ways of chewing (BROWN
326 et al., 1994; Brown and Braxton, 2000; Engelen and de Wijk, 2012; Jeltema et al., 2015)
327 because it has an important influence in the texture perception, in the food product liking, and
328 consequently, in the food choice. In the present work, these physiological differences have
329 been studied through the measurement of oral forces. However, as it can be observed in
330 Figure 5, the individual's force did not influence their number of chews (and consequently
331 the time in mouth). It has already been mentioned by previous authors (Ranta et al., 1988)
332 that a lack of teeth in elderly population can determine their food choice, leading to
333 avoidance of some "difficult-to-eat" food products. However, it does not seem that young
334 population is affected by this, probably because for them physical capabilities are not a
335 limiting factor. However, it does not seem that young population is affected by this, probably
336 because for them physical capabilities are not a limiting factor. At the same time, no
337 relationship could be derived between oral and hand forces, whilst other authors found the
338 maximal grip strength correlated with other muscles groups (Rantanen et al., 1994). It is
339 probably because the selected healthy and young population have higher hand force/tongue

340 force ratio, which might not interfere with their eating process. However, it is worth noting
341 that in the case of frail population as elderly, their physical strength does determine the
342 activities of daily living such the action of eating (Desai et al., 2001), and it is worthy to
343 investigate in future studies if elderly people will avoid food where they perceive eating
344 difficulty and if so, to understand how they identified it.

345

346 **Conclusions and future perspective**

347 In this work, the relation among the food structure, food oral processing, human strength and
348 difficulty perception has been studied. In accordance with previous authors, food structure
349 (fracture behaviour) does affect significantly the food oral processing (number of chew cycles
350 and time in mouth), and it is correlated with the difficulty perceived. On the other side, in
351 young population, the perception of difficulty did not show any relationship with their
352 individual physical strength (especially oral forces), nor their chewing behaviour.

353 The limitation of this study is the population chosen being young participants of < 25
354 years and a relatively low number of participants. For future steps, we aim to address the
355 topic considering higher diversity of population (age range, different teeth condition,
356 different saliva excretion), studying their dietary patterns (frequency of hard food) and
357 making open question to participants regarding how they perceived the oral processing
358 difficulty. Also, present authors believe that long food oral processing in frailty population
359 may lead to exhaustion and is worthy to keep researching the influences between health status
360 and food consumption.

361 In summary, in case of cellular food structure, such as vegetables, hardness was the
362 driving force for oral residence time, i.e. harder the food, longer it was kept in mouth for oral
363 processing, and the difficulty perceived was related with the food oral processing time. In the
364 case of the food with gel like structure, such as cheese, the oral residence time in mouth was

365 not dependent on the hardness, hardness was inversely related to the difficulty perceived that
366 the oral residence time was dependent of the maximum breaking force.

367 As a key limitation of this study is the test with real food that can influence their time
368 at mouth and overall oral processing behaviour due to food preferences. Hence, future studies
369 will not only include to testing with elderly population, but will be directed to employ model
370 hydrocolloid gel that is tasteless.

371

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376

377 **Conflict of Interests**

378 The authors declare that they do not have any conflict of interest.

379

380 **Ethical Review**

381 This study was approved by Faculty Ethics Committee at the University of Leeds [ethics
382 reference (MEEC 14-006)].

383

384 **Informed Consent**

385 Written informed consent was obtained from all study participants.

386

387

388

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