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Multisensory Technology for Flavor Augmentation: A Mini Review

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13

14 **Abstract**

15 There is growing interest in the development of new technologies that capitalize on our emerging
16 understanding of the multisensory influences on flavor perception in order to enhance human-food
17 interaction design. This review focuses on the role of (extrinsic) visual, auditory, and haptic/tactile
18 elements in modulating flavor perception and more generally, our food and drink experiences. We
19 review some of the most exciting examples of recent multisensory technologies for augmenting such
20 experiences. Here, we discuss applications for these technologies, for example, in the field of food
21 experience design, in the support of healthy eating, and in the rapidly-growing world of sensory
22 marketing. However, as the review makes clear, while there are many opportunities for novel human-
23 food interaction design, there are also a number of challenges that will need to be tackled before new
24 technologies can be meaningfully integrated into our everyday food and drink experiences.

25

26 **1 Introduction**

27 Interest in multisensory perception is growing rapidly in the fields of Human-Computer Interaction
28 (HCI, Obrist et al., 2016), sensory marketing (e.g., Petit et al., 2015), and the arts (e.g., Haverkamp,
29 2013; Vi et al., 2017). This places knowledge concerning the human senses, and their interactions, at
30 the center of design processes (Obrist et al., 2017). In the context of Human-Food Interaction (HFI,
31 Choi, Foth, & Hearn, 2014; Comber et al., 2014), there has been an increasing interest in how

32 multisensory technologies can augment/modify multisensory flavor perception¹, and food and drink
 33 experiences more generally and possibly also to sensorially nudge people toward healthier food
 34 behaviors (Nijholt, Velasco, Karunanayaka, & Huisman, 2016; Petit, Cheok, & Oullier, 2016). The
 35 key idea here is that flavor is a multisensory construct (involving taste, or gustation, olfaction, and
 36 possibly also trigeminal components; see Kakutani et al., 2017) and all the senses can potentially
 37 influence the way in which we experience it (Spence, 2015a). Hence, multisensory technologies, that
 38 is, technologies that are designed to stimulate the human senses, allow researchers to control the
 39 different inputs that accompany a given multisensory flavor, or food experience.

40 Why, it can be asked, use multisensory technologies in order to augment our flavor experiences?
 41 Given that technology is already ubiquitous in our everyday experiences, such technologies in the
 42 context of HFI hold the potential to transform how we will eat in the future (Spence & Piqueras-
 43 Fiszman, 2013). More specifically, we want to argue that a meaningful marriage of multisensory
 44 science (e.g., considering the guiding principles of multisensory flavor perception, e.g., Prescott,
 45 2015; Spence, 2015a) and technology in systems capable of augmenting flavor perception can impact
 46 what people choose to eat and drink, how they perceive the ensuing flavor experience, and how much
 47 they ultimately end-up consuming.

48 In this mini-review, we present an overview of multisensory technologies for flavor augmentation
 49 that have been developed recently. Importantly, we follow Prescott's (2015) distinction between core
 50 intrinsic (taste, smell, and some elements of touch) and extrinsic (e.g., color, shape, atmospheric
 51 sound – which can modulate the experience of flavor but might not be constitutive) elements of the
 52 flavor experience and focus on the role of the latter in flavor augmentation². Our aim is to make
 53 researchers working in different fields aware of the various ways in which multisensory technologies
 54 that target extrinsic elements of flavor experiences are starting to transform how interact with and
 55 experience what we consume. As such, we expect this manuscript to provide a first point of contact
 56 for those interested in multisensory technologies and flavor augmentation. Additionally, we hope that
 57 this review will contribute to bridging the gap between researchers working in the fields of HCI/HFI
 58 on the one hand, and food science, marketing, and psychology, on the other. It is our view that the
 59 latter disciplines would benefit from an increased awareness of the different technologies that are
 60 currently available to those working in HCI/HFI. These latter, in turn, would realize some of the
 61 potential uses that their technologies have, as well as the financial gains that may derive from such
 62 applications. We conclude by presenting challenges that face those wanting to augment flavor
 63 perception and experiences.

64 **2 Flavor perception and augmentation**

65 Here, we present some key concepts and technologies associated with flavor augmentation on the
 66 basis of flavor extrinsic cues (see Table 1 for a summary of some representative examples). People
 67 rarely put something in their mouth without first having made a prediction about what it will taste
 68 like. These expectations, set primarily by what we see and smell (orthonasally), but also sometimes
 69 by what we hear and feel/touch, anchor the experience when we come to taste something (see
 70 Verhagen & Engelen, 2006). For example, visual cues such as color or shape can be used to guide

¹ By flavor augmentation, we refer to the process of modifying, boosting, or enhancing, a given flavor experience, be it perceived or imagined, using technology.

² Whilst we do not focus on olfactory interfaces, devices based on orthonasal olfaction (and its interaction with other senses) have also been proposed by researchers working in the topic of flavor augmentation (e.g., Hashimoto & Nakamoto, 2016; Nambu et al., 2010).

71 food and drink expectations, search, and augmentation based on semantic knowledge (learn
 72 associations as a function of a common identity or meaning such as between the color red and tomato
 73 flavor) and crossmodal correspondences (feature compatibility across the senses, such as between
 74 sweetness and curvature; e.g., Sawada et al., 2017; Shermer & Levitan, 2014; Velasco et al., 2015;
 75 Velasco et al., 2016b).

76 *Table 1. Examples of multisensory technologies for flavor augmentation based on extrinsic cues*
 77 *associated with the flavor and food/drink experiences.*

Augmentation	Technology	What does it allow to control?	References
Visual	Projective-AR	Food color and texture	Nishizawa et al. (2016)
	Project Nourished (VR)*	Eating environments (and overall multisensory experience)	http://www.projectnourished.com/
Auditory	Chewing Jockey	Sounds associated with mastication	Koizumi et al. (2011)
	EducaTableware	Cutlery sounds	Tsukuda & Siio (2013)
	Gravitamine spice	Cutlery weight	Hirose et al. (2015)
Tactile/haptic	Vibration system	Vibrations associated with beverage pouring	Ikeno et al. (2015)
	Straw-like User Interface (SUI)	Pressure, vibration, and sound during drinking	Hashimoto et al. (2006)
Multi-sense	Audio-haptic rendering	Vibrations and sounds during beverage pouring	Ikeno et al. (2013)

78 *To the best of our knowledge, there are not studies published associated with this project.

79 **2.1 Visual augmentation**

80 Vision is critical when it comes to setting our flavor expectations and hence modifying our flavor
 81 experiences (Piqueras-Fiszman & Spence, 2015). Current technologies allow one to go beyond
 82 traditional means of food enhancement, based on vision (e.g., just matching or mismatching visual
 83 information with a given flavor), and to create novel HFIs that dynamically modulate our flavor
 84 experiences, and perhaps also more broadly, our consumption behaviors.

85 For instance, Nishizawa, Jiang, and Okajima (2016) developed an augmented reality (AR) system
 86 using a projector and a camera in order to transform the visual characteristics (e.g., texture, color) of
 87 foods or plates digitally, in real-time, based on the evidence showing that these factors influence
 88 people’s perception of what they eat (e.g., Okajima, Ueda, & Spence, 2013). In a similar vein, and as
 89 a more specific example, Okajima and Spence (2011) modified the texture of tomato ketchup by
 90 changing the skewness of the luminance histogram whilst not changing the chromaticity of the video
 91 feed. Modifying such visual features, among others, was found to influence sensory attributes such as
 92 the ketchup’s perceived consistency and taste such that different skewness led participants think they
 93 were tasting different ketchups (see also Huisman, Bruijnes, & Heylen, 2016; Narumi et al., 2011).³

94 AR systems build on mixed reality (MR) interactions (i.e., incorporating both virtual and real inputs,
 95 see Narumi, 2016). AR would appear to have been adopted more rapidly than virtual reality (VR) in
 96 flavor- and food-related technology research and practice. For instance, Kabaq⁴ is an AR food

³ See also Okajima’s Laboratory website (<https://goo.gl/kH1S9Q>) for some examples.

⁴ <http://www.kabaq.io/>

97 program that offers restaurants the option of presenting their customers with 3D visions of the food
 98 that they serve, before ordering. As for VR, whilst some researchers are exploring the possibility of
 99 virtual flavors via digitally-controller electric and thermal taste sensations, such systems are currently
 100 of very limited use/potential (see Spence et al., 2017, for a critique). That being said, there is
 101 potential to design experiences in VR that target the user's flavor expectations (e.g., before going to a
 102 restaurant or buying a product). There are currently many ongoing research initiatives that have been
 103 designed to further our knowledge on the applications of VR systems to flavor/food experience
 104 design⁵ (e.g., Bruijnes et al., 2016). One such initiative involves using VR to expose (virtually)
 105 people with food-related medical conditions to obesogenic environments (Schroeder et al., 2017;
 106 Wiederhold, Riva, & Gutiérrez-Maldonado, 2016).

107 Companies are now exploring product packaging that can be turned into inexpensive VR headsets
 108 (e.g., as in the case of some of Coca Cola's cardboard packaging). Such headsets might enable
 109 brands to deliver targeted experiences in VR. Whilst, at present, this approach appears more as a
 110 curiosity than anything else, we anticipate that it might one day become an extension of the total
 111 product experience, in that any given product might have its own customized multisensory
 112 experience(s) in VR (Lingle, 2017; Michail, 2017). Such experiences may be designed based on
 113 research showing the influence of visual atmospheric cues (e.g., lightning, environment) on flavor
 114 perception (Stroebele & De Castro, 2004; Spence, Velasco, & Knoeferle, 2014).

115 2.2 Auditory augmentation

116 Often described as the forgotten flavor sense, research on auditory contributions to the experience of
 117 eating and drinking has grown rapidly in recent years. The evidence currently suggests that audition
 118 is critical to the perception of attributes such as crunchiness, crispiness, and crackliness (Spence,
 119 2015b). What is more, the sounds associated with eating and drinking such as chewing, gulping, or
 120 lip-smacking (Zampini & Spence, 2004; Youssef et al., 2017), environmental noise (Woods et al.,
 121 2011), and soundscapes/music (Crisinel et al., 2012; Kantono et al., 2016) can all influence food
 122 perception (e.g., tastes, odors, textures, flavors). For instance, noise can enhance the perception of
 123 umami and diminish perceived sweetness (Yan & Dando, 2015). Based on these kinds of findings,
 124 there is growing interest in developing technologies that can capitalize on the sense of audition for
 125 flavor augmentation (Velasco et al., 2016a; see also a reference to "EverCrisp app" by Kayac Inc in
 126 Choi, Foth, & Hearn, 2014, designed to enhance food-biting sounds).

127 Systems that build on the role of mastication sounds on flavor perception constitute one example of
 128 flavor augmentation based on audition. The "Chewing Jockey", for example, is a device that uses a
 129 bone-conduction speaker, a microphone, jaw movement tracking sensor, and a computer, to allow
 130 one to monitor mastication and use such movements to synchronize and control sound-delivery
 131 (Koizumi et al., 2011). Based on such a concept, researchers are now interested in the modulation of
 132 texture perception (e.g., in the elderly who find it difficult to chew solid foods, see Endo, Ino, &
 133 Fujisaki, 2016), consumption monitoring (Elder & Mohr, 2016), and the creation of novel and fun
 134 food interactions (e.g., mapping unexpected sounds such as screaming sounds to gummies chewing,
 135 Koizumi et al., 2011), by modifying, or replacing the actual sounds of mastication.

136 The role of audition goes beyond mastication sounds though, as there are many other auditory cues
 137 that we may hear at more or less the same time as we eat (Velasco et al., 2016a). These include those

⁵ The ACM International Conference on Multimodal Interaction workshop on "Multisensory Human-Food Interaction" (<https://goo.gl/HRRdVs>) or the Special Issue on "Virtual reality and food: Applications in sensory and consumer science" in The Journal of Computers and Graphics (<https://goo.gl/FKwWjF>).

138 sounds directly associated with our interaction with the food, but also atmospheric sounds. In terms
 139 of the former, Komodura, Tsukuda, and Siio (2013) introduced “EducaTableware”, which include a
 140 fork and a cup that use food’s (electrical) resistance values, and eating times and intervals to emit
 141 sounds while a user consumes a given food (see also Kadomura et al., 2011). This device creates a
 142 novel interaction between the user and the food (e.g., for entertainment). In terms of atmospheric
 143 sounds, and perhaps because music devices are ever-present, there are still not, to the best of our
 144 knowledge, many specific systems available. However, there is much room for development. For
 145 example, based on the idea that sounds can influence taste/flavor perception and enjoyment (i.e.,
 146 hedonics; Spence, 2017), MR systems that combine real food and audiovisual virtual environments
 147 may be developed (e.g., what would it be like to eat a cheesecake, via VR, on Mars? see Project
 148 Nourished, <http://projectnourished.com/>).

149 **2.3 Tactile/haptic augmentation**

150 What we feel/touch can also influence the perception of flavor while eating and drinking (e.g., Biggs,
 151 Juravle, & Spence, 2016; Krishna & Morrin, 2008; Slocombe, Carmichael, & Simner, 2016).
 152 Researchers have demonstrated that elements such as the weight, size, shape of cutlery and tableware
 153 can influence flavor expectations and perception (van Rompay et al., 2017). An example of this
 154 comes from Michel, Velasco, and Spence (2015), who reported that relatively heavy cutlery can lead
 155 to tastier food perception. Notably, similar to systems that build on vision and audition, most of the
 156 potential of touch-related devices for flavor augmentation so far has been in terms of MR solutions.

157 For instance, Hirose et al. (2015) developed a fork-type device that involves an accelerometer, a
 158 photo reflector sensor, and motor slider, to digitally control the center of gravity, and therefore the
 159 perceived weight, of the eating utensil. The intention behind “Gravitamine spice” is to modify the felt
 160 weight of the food/cutlery before eating. Another example comes from Ikeno et al. (2015) who
 161 showed that that different patterns of vibrations accompanying the action of pouring a beverage can
 162 influence how much is poured. These technologies might potentially be used to nudge people to
 163 consume a little less, to create novel human-food interactions, and to augment flavor. Meanwhile,
 164 Iwata et al. (2004) developed a haptic device for biting, known as the “Food simulator”. This
 165 interface generates a force on the user’s teeth, which is based on the force profile of people biting a
 166 given food, in order to stimulate the sensation of biting such a food.

167 There are also multiple emerging haptic/tactile technologies that can be used for flavor augmentation
 168 or innovative HFI design. For instance, Tsutsui et al. (2016) developed a high resolution tactile
 169 interface for the lips, a part of the body that is often stimulated while eating and drinking, which
 170 created a new interaction design space. There might also be opportunities when it comes to MR
 171 scenarios where people eat and receive haptic feedback on their body either associated with the food
 172 they eat (e.g. Choi et al., 2014) or remote dining with touch-related signals from co-diners (e.g., Wei
 173 et al., 2011). Of course, in many cases, there may be no specific need for haptic/tactile interfaces be
 174 technology-based. Nevertheless, what technology can potentially offer is a new way of stimulating
 175 the skin (e.g., contingently) and therefore opens-up a space for novel interactions and flavor
 176 experiences.

177 **2.4 Combining multiple extrinsic flavor elements for flavor augmentation**

178 Visual, auditory, and tactile/haptic flavor augmentation systems have, in general, focused on
 179 allowing the integration of one property (e.g., color) or series of properties (e.g., color and shape), in
 180 a given sense (e.g., vision) with specific flavor experiences. Importantly, though, eating and drinking
 181 constitute some of life’s most multisensory experiences (e.g., involving color, shape, sound,
 182 vibration, texture roughness, etc., Spence, 2015a). It is perhaps little wonder, then, that those trying

183 to emulate more real-life experiences have focused on designing technologies that allow the
184 integration and controllability of inputs associated with multiple sensory modalities (e.g., Kita &
185 Rekimoto, 2013). For example, the “Straw-like User Interface (SUI)” augments the user’s drinking
186 experiences based on multisensory inputs (e.g., using pressure, vibration, and sound, see Hashimoto
187 et al., 2006; see also Ranasinghe, Lee, & Do, 2014). Another example comes from Ikeno et al.’s
188 (2013) who developed a system that combines vibrations and sounds (e.g., an auditory “glug”
189 characteristic of a Sake bottle when a drink is poured) to influence the subjective impression of a
190 liquid. Whilst there is certainly no need to stimulate all of the senses, for a given flavor
191 augmentation, solutions that allow the delivery of multiple cues at a given time might broaden the
192 scope for multisensory design.

193 3 Discussion and conclusions

194 This review presents flavor and more general food and drink augmentation in the context of
195 multisensory experience design. In particular, we provide an overview of both older and more recent
196 efforts around flavor augmentation in HFI. In addition to psychologists and sensory/food scientists,
197 those researchers involved in HCI are increasingly exploring new ways of transforming our eating
198 and drinking experiences. The proliferation of VR, AR, and MR systems provide the most promising
199 platforms for new (multisensory) flavor experiences in the near future.

200 We have concentrated on exemplar systems that have capitalized on flavor extrinsic elements from
201 vision, audition, and touch/haptics for flavor augmentation. Whilst such systems are still far from
202 ubiquitous, they are nevertheless increasingly being considered by some of the key
203 players/influencers of the food and drink industry - such as, for example, chefs, culinary artists,
204 experiential brand event managers, and so on (Spence, 2017).

205 Importantly, however, there are multiple challenges ahead for both researchers and practitioners who
206 may be interested in using multisensory technologies for flavor augmentation. First, a vast gap often
207 exists between technology, as showcased in HCI research, and what actually ends-up in more
208 commercial settings relevant to those working in the food and drink industry (e.g., in a fancy
209 modernist restaurant or in a branded experiential event). Second, there is a need for long-term
210 follow-up investigations, as most of the research examples that have been reported to date have been
211 based on one-off, small scale studies (e.g., small sample sizes with limited experimental designs; for
212 example, Nishizawa et al., 2016, conducted two studies with four and six participants, respectively).
213 Therefore, there is a need to control for variables such as novelty and habituation. Something that
214 will undoubtedly be needed in order to know whether the brain adapts to the multisensory flavor
215 experiences designed with new technologies, or whether instead the benefits may last into the
216 medium/longer-term. In other words, there needs to be a consistent added value for flavor and food
217 augmentation to become more than a one-time curiosity or gimmick.

218 The aforesaid challenges might be addressed (at least in part), by the meaningful integration of
219 scientific insights concerning multisensory flavor perception with new technologies. Whilst research
220 on the principles governing multisensory integration during flavor perception is ongoing (see
221 Prescott, 2015; Spence, 2015a), design guidelines have nevertheless been suggested (Schifferstein &
222 Desmet, 2008; Velasco et al., 2016a). Taking a full-scale, evidence-based approach to the design of
223 multisensory flavor experiences that incorporates technology is not an easy task and therefore will
224 require both time and a fundamentally multidisciplinary approach.

225 However, the hope is that multisensory technologies might inspire tomorrow’s practitioners to: 1)
226 modify flavor perception and experiences; 2) nudge people toward healthier food behaviors; 3)
227 facilitate food choice before ordering/buying; 4) make dining more entertaining. For example,

228 TeamLab, an art collective, collaborated recently with the Sagaya restaurant in Tokyo to develop a
 229 dining experience described as follows: “*when a dish is placed on the table, the scenic world*
 230 *contained within the dish is unleashed, unfolding onto the table and into the surrounding space. For*
 231 *example, a bird painted on a ceramic dish is released from the dish and can perch on the branch of a*
 232 *tree that has been unleashed from a different dish” (cited in Stewart, 2017, p. 1⁶). Other examples*
 233 *include the oft-mentioned Michelin-starred modernist restaurant Ultraviolet by Paul Pairet in*
 234 *Shanghai. There, diners are guided through a multisensory dining experience that is accompanied by*
 235 *changing lights, projections, and soundscapes (Spence, 2017; Yap, 2016). Technology in the context*
 236 *of multisensory flavor experience design is a means to transform sensory information into*
 237 *ingredients/raw materials for our future flavor experiences. In that sense, we foresee more*
 238 *applications and novel design spaces being explored in the wider food and drink world.*

239 **4 Conflict of Interest**

240 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
 241 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

242 **5 Author Contributions**

243 All of the authors made a substantial contribution to this review.

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⁶ See also a report in DesignBoom with visual documentation: <https://www.designboom.com/design/teamlab-interactive-saga-beef-restaurant-sagaya-ginza-tokyo-04-13-2017/>.

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