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The need for sensory nutrition research in individuals with smell loss

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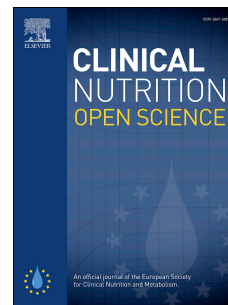
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1 **The need for sensory nutrition research in individuals with smell loss.**

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4 5 **Abstract**

6 Millions of people will now suffer from long-term smell loss as a result of infection with
7 the SARS-CoV-2 virus. Smell is an integral component of the flavor of foods, which is one of the
8 primary drivers of ingestive behavior. When individuals lose their sense of smell, they find food
9 to be less flavorful and less enjoyable, which negatively impacts their quality of life. To
10 compensate, many individuals alter their diet by focusing on tastes, chemesthesis (e.g., chili
11 pepper heat, menthol cooling), and the texture of foods to make it more palatable. Some diet
12 alterations, such as increasing salt use, can result in a lower diet quality, and an increased risk
13 for chronic disease. Sensory nutrition is an area of research that focuses on how the chemical
14 senses (e.g. taste, smell, chemesthesis) and oral somatosensation) affect dietary choices and
15 health. Sensory nutrition strategies designed for individuals with smell loss may help improve
16 the flavor and liking of foods while improving diet quality, and are a necessary area of future
17 research to help improve health and quality of life in the growing population with smell loss.

18 19 **Introduction**

20 Prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, about 20% of people in the United States¹, Spain²,
21 Sweden³, and Germany⁴ had olfactory dysfunction, ensuing from a variety of etiologies such as
22 traumatic brain injury, infection, sinonasal disease, cancer, and aging^{1,5-7}. Now, as a cardinal
23 symptom of the earliest variants of COVID-19⁸, smell loss has increased in prevalence. An
24 estimated 20 - 67% of individuals with COVID-19 experience smell loss, depending on the
25 SARS-CoV-2 variant^{9,10}. This smell loss occurs in the form of hyposmia (i.e. reduced sense of
26 smell) and anosmia (i.e. total smell loss; **H/A**). While most recover their sense of smell within 3
27 weeks¹¹⁻¹⁴, about 10-15% of individuals do not recover^{11,15}. As a result, millions of individuals
28 will now experience long-term smell loss because of COVID-19^{11,15}.

29 Losing one's sense of smell can be devastating to their eating enjoyment^{16,17}, diet
30 quality^{18,19}, and quality of life²⁰. Given that an unhealthy diet is associated with an increased risk
31 for chronic diseases²¹, understanding how to improve diet quality, particularly in the growing
32 population with smell loss, is essential for health. Furthermore, aims to increase diet quality
33 should also focus on palatability, as this is one of the strongest determinants of food choice²².
34 Sensory nutrition is an area of research that focuses on how the chemical senses (e.g. taste,
35 smell, chemesthesis), and oral somatosensation) affects dietary choices and health^{23,24}. This
36 area of research can help identify ways to improve diet quality and health by focusing on
37 techniques to increase palatability of healthy foods. This mini-review will discuss how smell loss
38 affects ingestive behavior, and highlights the need for more sensory nutrition research to
39 improve diet quality while maintaining palatability in this population.

40 41 **The importance of our sense of smell in flavor perception**

42 Flavor is a combination of the taste, smell, chemesthesis (i.e. the burning from peppers,
43 the cooling of mint), and the oral somatosensation of foods and beverages²³. Note that although
44 the flavor of foods is often incorrectly referred to as the "taste" of food, taste only refers to the

45 sensations of sweet, sour, salty, bitter, and umami (and perhaps fatty²⁵)²⁶. For the past decade,
46 the flavor of foods has been rated the number one driver of food purchasing behavior, above
47 price, healthfulness, convenience, and environmental sustainability²⁷, highlighting the
48 importance of flavor in our lives. Smell is a fundamental component of flavor perception; if you
49 eat an apple, you can taste the sweetness and sourness, and feel the crunch and the juice of
50 the apple, but without smell, it would not have the apple flavor. In addition to its role in flavor
51 perception, our sense of smell also plays a role in stimulating appetite for specific foods (i.e.
52 sensory specific appetite)²⁸, helps to prepare our bodies to metabolically process foods (i.e.
53 cephalic phase response)²⁹, and influences our food choices when perceived unconsciously (i.e.
54 priming)³⁰, thereby affecting ingestive behavior. If someone loses their sense of smell, flavor
55 perception, appetite, and ingestive behavior are likely to be affected.

56

57 **The effect of smell loss on food choice, nutrition, and chronic disease.**

58 One of the primary complaints of H/A individuals is that food is less flavorful and less
59 enjoyable^{17,19,31-33}, which has profound adverse effects on their quality of life^{17,20,34-37}. As a
60 result, many of these individuals experience changes in their appetite and alter their diet to
61 compensate for the lack of flavor^{16,19,38-41}. One way H/A individuals compensate for flavor loss is
62 by enhancing the tastes (i.e. sweet, sour, salty, bitter, umami) in their food¹⁶. In particular, many
63 studies indicate that individuals self-report adding more salt to their foods after losing their
64 sense of smell^{17,42}, and develop a preference for salty^{16,36} and sweet foods³⁶. Another way H/A
65 individuals compensate for flavor loss is by adding spices or hot sauce to their foods to enhance
66 the chemesthesis aspect of flavor^{16,19,36,43}. For example, in a semi-structured interview
67 conducted by Turner and Rogers, one participant noted: "...I opted for more spicy food...stuff
68 with a lot more heat in it just to taste something"³⁶. Lastly, individuals who lose their sense of
69 smell also focus on palatable and contrasting textures and temperatures of their foods to try to
70 enjoy eating again^{33,36,43}. Foods that have a mushy or slimy texture are often unpleasant and
71 avoided by those with smell loss, whereas those with crunchy textures tend to be more
72 palatable³⁶. The importance placed on these different dietary compensation strategies varies
73 between cultures⁴⁴.

74 While not consistently reported⁴⁵⁻⁴⁷, these alterations to make the diet more palatable
75 may contribute to lower diet quality if they are maintained due to long-term smell loss.
76 Individuals with smell loss from the Netherlands report poor appetite and a reduced diet quality
77 compared to those with a normal sense of smell⁴⁸, and worse adherence to fiber, trans fatty
78 acid, and alcohol recommendations compared to those with a normal sense of smell⁴⁶. Data
79 from the 2011 - 2014 National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) indicate that
80 adults >40 years old with self-reported olfactory disorders have a significantly lower Healthy
81 Eating Index 2015 (HEI-2015 score, which measures how closely the diet aligns with the 2015-
82 2020 Dietary Guidelines for Americans), indicating a lower diet quality, compared to adults with
83 a self-reported normal sense of smell¹⁸. The reduced diet quality in adults with olfactory
84 dysfunction was attributed to lower consumption of total vegetables and greens and beans, and
85 a higher consumption of added sugars and saturated fats compared to adults with a normal
86 sense of smell. These differences in diet quality between adults with olfactory disorders and
87 adults with a normal sense of smell were primarily driven by women aged 40-64, indicating that
88 this age group may be especially important to target for any nutritional interventions due to smell

89 loss. Women may be more likely to seek alterations in dietary choices than men because
90 women are typically better at identifying odors, thus they may be more aware and attentive to
91 the olfactory components of food flavor^{49,50}, and more affected by the loss.

92 The reduction in diet quality among H/A individuals may also increase their risk for diet-
93 related disease. Data from the 2011 - 2014 NHANES also indicate that adults with olfactory
94 disorder have a small but significantly higher BMI, waist circumference, and chronic disease
95 score (calculated by adding whether someone has medically diagnosed diabetes, cancer,
96 stroke, or heart attack)¹⁸. On the other hand, some studies have found that while some H/A
97 individuals have clinically meaningful weight gain or weight loss, many maintain a stable body
98 weight^{38,51}, indicating individual differences may exist. As seen with diet quality, differences
99 between sex and age influence risk for diet-related disease. Data from the 2011 - 2014
100 NHANES indicate that women aged 40-64 with olfactory disorders have a higher BMI and waist
101 circumference compared to those without olfactory disorders⁵². However, women 65 and older
102 with olfactory disorders have lower total cholesterol and higher fasting glucose compared to
103 those with a normal sense of smell⁵². For men 40-64 years old with olfactory disorders, they
104 have lower fasting triglycerides and glucose compared to those with a normal sense of smell.
105 Men 65 and older with olfactory disorders have a lower BMI, but higher total cholesterol and
106 fasting LDL-cholesterol compared to those with a normal sense of smell⁵². These age and
107 gender differences are likely due to differences in diet quality⁵². Thus, while olfactory disorders
108 can affect risk for chronic disease, certain groups may be more prone than others to these
109 deleterious effects.

110

111 **Importance of sensory nutrition in health**

112 Despite the impact of smell loss on diet quality, disease risk, and quality of life, there is
113 limited guidance for H/A individuals to improve their diet palatability and quality. Although
114 charities such as AbScent⁵³, Fifth Sense⁵⁴, and The Smell and Taste Association of North
115 America (STANA)⁵⁵ provide extensive resources and a sense of community for those suffering
116 from smell disorders, the scientific basis for dietary guidance in these populations is lacking.

117 Sensory nutrition is an area of research that aims to understand how taste, smell,
118 chemesthesis, and oral somatosensation affect dietary choices and health²³. Sensory strategies
119 are recommended to the population to improve diet quality while maintaining palatability in order
120 to promote adherence to specific eating patterns. For example, the National Academy of
121 Medicine (formerly known as the Institute of Medicine) recommends gradually reducing sensory
122 exposure to salt (e.g., reducing exposure to the taste of salt) in order to prefer lower salt
123 concentrations to reduce sodium intake⁵⁶⁻⁵⁸. Gradual reduction of sensory exposure to fat taste
124 also results in lower pleasantness ratings for high-fat foods and a reduction in the preferred fat
125 content of foods, which may promote adherence to a reduced-fat diet⁵⁹. Congruent odors can
126 also be added to foods to enhance tastes in order to increase palatability. For example, adding
127 a vanilla aroma can enhance the sweetness of chocolate milk, although the effect is small and it
128 may need to be combined with another strategy to help to reduce sugar intake⁶⁰. However,
129 whether these sensory strategies help to improve diet quality in individuals without a sense of
130 smell is unknown, and a comparison of sensory strategies for those without a sense of smell
131 has not been explored.

132

133 More research is needed to better understand how smell loss affects ingestive behavior,
134 diet quality, and risk for chronic disease, especially given the growing population of those
135 suffering from long-term smell loss because of COVID-19. Smell and taste loss also occur in the
136 elderly and those with cancer, and research has focused on how eating behaviors are affected
137 in these populations. However, changes in eating behavior may also be affected by side effects
138 of aging (such as health disorders, medications, denture use, and oral hygiene⁶¹) and side
139 effects of cancer treatments (such as dysphagia, dry mouth, nausea⁶²) in addition to the taste
140 and smell loss experienced by these populations. Furthermore, in cancer patients, taste
141 changes, rather than smell loss, may drive eating behavior changes⁶². Thus, while these studies
142 can help inform possible sensory strategies to improve flavor perception and diet quality, young
143 and middle aged adults with smell loss but are otherwise healthy will also be an important
144 population to study. Nevertheless, sensory strategies to improve flavor perception and eating
145 enjoyment may be useful across all etiologies of smell dysfunction.

146

147 **Potential sensory strategies for individuals with smell loss.**

148 How can we improve flavor while we are still missing one of its biggest components,
149 smell? One potential sensory strategy includes cross-modulation between taste and
150 chemesthesis. For example, a low concentration of capsaicin (the spicy component of chili
151 peppers) can lower the taste threshold for sweet, sour, salty, and bitter, indicating an increased
152 sensitivity to these tastes⁶³. There has been a focus on the cross-modulation between capsaicin
153 and salt taste in particular, given that reducing sodium intake is a goal for several health
154 organizations⁶⁴⁻⁶⁷. In those with a normal sense of smell, adding capsaicin to a salt solution can
155 increase the perceived salt taste intensity⁶⁸, especially at low salt concentrations⁶⁹. Therefore,
156 low levels of capsaicin may help promote adherence to reduced sodium food products, and
157 reduce salt intake, although additional research is needed to address this question. Studies are
158 currently ongoing to determine if this phenomenon exists in H/A individuals⁷⁰. Given that H/A
159 individuals often report adding spice to foods to improve flavor, adding capsaicin to foods could
160 be a useful strategy to reduce salt use while improving flavor perception and food liking. Low
161 calorie sweeteners can be used to replace sources of nutritive sweeteners to reduce added
162 sugar intake while maintaining sweet taste and palatability, and possibly improve diet quality
163 depending on how they are incorporated into the diet⁷¹. However, some low calorie sweeteners
164 have metallic or bitter tastes, which may create an unpleasant experience for those with smell
165 loss relying on tastes for flavor^{72,73}. Further studies are needed to identify sensory strategies to
166 reduce added sugar and saturated fat intake, and increase vegetable intake in individuals with
167 smell loss, which were identified as key areas affecting diet quality from previous studies¹⁸.
168 Texture, in particular, could be a focus of increasing vegetable intake in individuals with smell
169 loss, as crunchy textures (i.e. raw vegetables) tend to be more palatable than mushy textures
170 (i.e. cooked vegetables) in those with smell disorders. Whether sensory strategies increase diet
171 quality over time (through increased vegetable intake, or reduced salt, sugar, or fat intake), and
172 whether they are robust enough to reduce risk factors for chronic disease will also be important
173 future directions to improve the health of those suffering from smell loss.

174

175 **Conclusion**

176 More people now have long-term smell disorders than ever before, which will likely negatively
177 impact their quality of life and alter their eating habits in a way that reduces their diet quality.
178 Current studies are ongoing to determine how capsaicin can increase salt taste intensity in
179 those with smell loss, which could help to reduce salt intake and subsequent cardiovascular
180 disease risk. Sensory nutrition strategies specifically in those with smell loss that target
181 increasing flavor and food liking to improve diet quality and reduce the risk of chronic disease
182 are a necessary area of future research.

183

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188

189

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Declaration of interests

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