

# 1 **Methods for fungiform papillae assessment: a survey across European research units**

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## 14 **Abstract**

15 *Fungiform papillae (FP) are the anatomical structures dedicated to gustatory and somatosensory*  
16 *signal triggering. Whether the FP density ( $FPD=FP/cm^2$ ) associates to the oral responsiveness is*  
17 *still controversial and could be partially due to diversity in methods used to quantify FP. The present*  
18 *study aims at mapping methods used to estimate FPD and at tentatively assessing the impact of main*  
19 *procedure variables in FPD estimation. An on-line survey was specifically developed and launched*  
20 *among European Sensory Science Society associates to collect information on methods and*  
21 *procedure variables and to share dataset on FP counting. Seven European research centres*  
22 *responded to the survey. Manual count resulted the most popular methodology and a merged dataset*  
23 *of 1006 observations was obtained. The type of device used for tongue picture acquisition (low-*  
24 *resolution, LR vs high-resolution, HR) resulted the main procedure variable. FPD mean values were*  
25 *lower when assessed by LR (35.8) than with HR devices (41.5). Characteristic distribution values of*  
26 *FPD for LR and HR datasets were similar. Procedure variables did not significantly affect FPD*  
27 *estimation obtained from HR devices, while both picture modification and data validation*  
28 *significantly affected FPD values collected with LR devices. Both HR and LR procedures resulted*  
29 *sensitive to differences in FPD due to demographic factors. Overall, measures from high resolution*  
30 *device appear the best option to depict the inter-individual variability in FPD.*  
31 *Automated procedures are underutilized and an effort to widen the accessibility to the script/software,*  
32 *as well as the implementation of commercial versions is envisaged.*

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34 **Keywords:** oral responsiveness; manual count; device resolution; gender; age

35

36 **Highlights:**

- 37 • Methods for FPD estimation were mapped across 7 European research centres
- 38 • FPD were lower in estimation with low resolution- vs high resolution devices
- 39 • Overall, high resolution devices are suited to depict individual variability in FPD
- 40 • Automated procedures are still underutilized

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## 43 **1. Introduction**

44 Fungiform papillae (FP) have been recently re-conceptualized as multimodal sensing organ  
45 responding to taste, tactile and thermal modalities (Mistretta & Bradley, 2021). The FP are a gustatory  
46 and somatosensory structure in which taste cells of the taste buds are in synaptic contact with sensory  
47 nerve endings (e.i. chorda timpani nerve). Additionally, taste buds in FP are surrounded by trigeminal  
48 endings, which contain mechanoreceptors in the somatosensory system and are responsible for the  
49 chemesthetic sensations (pungency and burning), temperature and food textural attributes (Engelen  
50 & Van Der Bilt, 2008).

51 Considerable individual variability has been reported in FP density (FPD) (from 0 to over 200  
52 papillae/cm<sup>2</sup>) (Piochi et al., 2018). Gender and age significantly affect FPD (Dinnella et al., 2018;  
53 Shahbake et al., 2005). Women generally show higher FPD mean value than men. FPD mean values  
54 significantly decreased with age, and the decline is more evident in men than in women (Dinnella et  
55 al., 2018).

56 Given the double innervation of FP, their accessibility on the anterior region of the tongue and their  
57 correlation with the density of taste buds, these anatomical structures are considered as one of the  
58 phenotypic markers of oral responsiveness.

59 Several studies showed a positive relationship between FPD and taste sensitivity, demonstrating that  
60 subjects with a higher FPD are more sensitive to taste stimuli (Miller & Reedy, 1990). However,  
61 studies on large population samples suggested a lack of straight association between the perception  
62 of prototypical taste solution intensity and FPD (Dinnella et al., 2018; Fischer et al., 2013).  
63 Conflicting associations of FPD with lingual tactile acuity have been also reported. Positive  
64 associations have been reported between FPD and the perception of food texture (Zhou et al., 2021),  
65 while other studies failed to find significant associations between FPD and food texture attributes,  
66 such as creaminess (Nachtsheim & Schlich, 2013).

67 Several studies have focused on the relationship between individual variation in oral responsiveness  
68 in association with PROP taster status (the ability to perceive bitterness of 6-n-propylthiouracil -  
69 PROP) (Tepper, 2008) and FPD. Several findings showed that PROP responsiveness positively  
70 associates with responsiveness to various oral stimuli. The higher density (Essick et al., 2003) and  
71 the increased functionality of FP due to gustin (trophic factor protein for growth and development of  
72 taste buds) gene polymorphism (Melis et al., 2013) in individuals highly responsive to PROP (Super

73 Taster) have been proposed as possible explanation to their general heightened oral responsiveness  
74 in comparison to other PROP taster groups (Non Taster and Medium Taster). However, other large-  
75 scale studies did not revealed a link between PROP taste responsiveness and FPD (Fischer et al.,  
76 2013) and or gustin gene polymorphism (Feeney & Hayes, 2014a).

77 Methods to quantify FP are all based on the inspection of tongue pictures, but a number of procedure  
78 variables are commonly adopted. Devices differing in image resolution capability are used; digital  
79 cameras and portable microscopes represent the most widely adopted ones. Tongue dyeing before  
80 picture acquisition is recommended to improve the visibility and recognizability of FP ((Nuessle et  
81 al., 2015), but procedure variants are reported in the type of dyeing agent and picture acquisition  
82 without dyeing is also documented. FP are unevenly distributed all over the anterior two-thirds of the  
83 tongue, with the highest density on the tongue tip, close to the midline. Restricted areas in the first 2  
84 cm of the anterior tongue are generally considered for counting, however the positioning of the  
85 counting area (tip, side, distance from the tip), shape (circles, rectangles) and size can vary (from 6  
86 to 1.6 cm<sup>2</sup>) (Feeney & Hayes, 2014b; Masi et al., 2015). Furthermore, counting procedures on the  
87 whole tongue are also reported (Cattaneo et al., 2020; Sanyal et al., 2016).

88 In manual count method, the tongue picture is visually inspected by independent operators who  
89 identify and count FP. The picture modification in terms of magnification, brightness and saturation  
90 is often adopted to help FP identification. Specific operator training to FP identification and counting  
91 is recommended, the most widespread protocol is the Denver Papillae Protocol (Nuessle et al., 2015),  
92 that establishes a dichotomous criteria approach for the FP identification based on shape, size and  
93 elevation from the background of circular like elements visible on the picture. To improve the  
94 reliability of the measure, count validation is recommended to check for the degree of agreement  
95 across counters.

96 Automated count methods have been developed based on digital analysis of the tongue picture by  
97 specifically developed scripts and software (Cattaneo et al., 2020; Eldeghaidy et al., 2018; Piochi et  
98 al., 2017; Sanyal et al., 2016), but their prevalence beyond the self-implementers is still limited.

99 Inconsistency across finding on relationships between FP density and oral responsiveness may be at  
100 least partially due to the confounding effects of methodological variations in the procedure adopted  
101 for FPD assessment.

102

103 The present study aims at providing an updated picture of methods currently used for FPD assessment  
104 at European level, by describing the main procedure variables and exploring their possible effect on  
105 FP count. A survey was specifically developed and launched among European Sensory Science  
106 Society associates to collect information on methods and procedure variables and to share dataset on  
107 FP counting. Characteristics of sampled population (age, gender, smoking status) were also collected.

108

## 109 **2. Material and methods**

### 110 **2.1 Survey and respondents**

111 An online survey was run in spring 2022 on behalf of the European Sensory Science Society (E3S)  
112 network, though the coordination of the Working Group on Taste sensitivity of E3S. It included the  
113 following sections: equipment used to portray subjects' tongue (device and resolution); protocol  
114 adopted for the picture acquisition (tongue dyeing; type of colorant agent); region of the tongue, size  
115 and shape of the counting area; picture modification (magnification, brightness and saturation).  
116 Information on operators (number and training) and data validation (number of replicate and  
117 verification of the agreement among independent operators) were asked for manual count;  
118 software/script and eventual reference paper were asked in case of automated count.

119 Eight research units completed the survey and seven units agreed in sharing their dataset (Italy:  
120 University of Gastronomic Sciences IT1, University of Milan IT2, University of Florence IT3 and  
121 University of Cagliari IT4; Ireland: University College Dublin IR1; United Kingdom: University of  
122 Nottingham UK1 and University of Reading UK2). Inclusion criteria for the final dataset were to  
123 have available for each observation: gender, age (years old), raw count and computed FPD (expressed  
124 as FP/cm<sup>2</sup>).

125

### 126 **2.2 Data analysis**

127 Descriptive statistics was applied to all variables. Mean values in the text are expressed with the  
128 standard error of the mean. The continuous variable age was converted into three classes: C1 (18-30  
129 years old), C2 (31-45 y.o.) and C3 (>45 y.o.). Shapiro-Wilk test was applied to test the normality of  
130 the distribution FPD ( $p < 0.05$ ). Chi-squared tests were used to compare distributions for gender, age  
131 class, and smoking status in high-resolution and low-resolution datasets ( $p < 0.05$ ). One-way Analysis  
132 of Variance (ANOVA) models were applied to assess the effect of device resolution on FPD (fixed  
133 factor: device resolution, two levels HR and LR), separately evaluated in the whole population and  
134 in the C1 age class subset. The effect of procedure variables on FPD in C1 age class was assessed by  
135 one-way ANOVA models, independently run in HR and LR datasets. In HR C1 group, one-way  
136 ANOVA was applied to estimate the gender effect on FPD (fixed factor: gender). In LR sample, a 2-  
137 w ANOVA model with interaction was run to estimate the effects of gender and age on FPD (fixed  
138 factors: gender, age class, gender\*age class).

139 All ANOVA model applied in the study were followed by Tukey HSD test ( $p < 0.05$ ). Analyses were  
140 conducted with XLSTAT Marketing (XLSTAT 2023.1.2, Addinsoft, New York, USA).

141

## 142 **3. Results and Discussion**

143 Final merged dataset included 1006 observations from FP manual count, contributed as follows by  
 144 the different research units: 223 by IT1 (22%), 77 by IT2 (8%), 153 by IT3 (15%), 297 by IT4 (30%),  
 145 84 by IR1 (8%), 18 by UK1 (2%), 154 by UK2 (15%).

146 In the merged dataset, 59% observations were acquired from LR (digital microscope MicroCapture,  
 147 version 2.0 for 20x-400x; Maplin Gadget Electronics, UK) and 41% from HR devices (Canon - model  
 148 EOS D400 camera with lens EFS 55-250 mm; Canon, E05 700D with an EF-S 19–55 mm lens; Nikon  
 149 4DS). Main variables in procedures adopted to estimate FPD with HR and LR devices are shown in  
 150 Table 1.

151

152 **Table 1.** Procedure variables and population characteristics of datasets from High- and Low-  
 153 resolution devices.

Variable	Categories	High-resolution (HR n=417)		Low-resolution (LR n=589)	
		n	%	n	%
Tongue dye	No	18	4	0	0
	Yes	399	96	589	100
Dye agent	None	18	4	0	0
	Blue food dye (E133 or others)	315	76	589	100
	Methylene blue	84	20	0	0
Picture modification	No	333	80	136	23
	Yes	84	20	453	77
Area localization and dimension	One circle (0.6 cm diameter) left side middle	297	71	0	0
	Two circles (0.6 cm diameter) left and right 0.5 cm from tongue tip	102	24	453	77
	Two squares (1.0 cm <sup>2</sup> area) 0.5 cm from tongue tip	18	4	0	0
	One square 1.0 cm <sup>2</sup> 2.0 cm from tongue tip	0	0	136	23
Training procedure	None	36	9	136	23
	The Denver Papillae Protocol	381	91	453	77
Independent operators	2	102	24	589	100
	3	315	76	0	0
Replicate	1	315	76	589	100
	2	102	24	0	0
Data validation	No	84	20	136	23
	Yes	333	80	453	77
<i>Socio-demographic composition</i>					
Gender	F	234	56	345	59
	M	183	44	244	41
Age class	C1	356	85	303	51
	C2	51	12	155	26
	C3	10	2	131	22
Smoking status	not smoker	284	68	492	84
	smoker	49	12	96	16
	*NA	84	20	1	0

154 Note: \*NA= not available.

155

156 Tongue dyeing was adopted by the vast majority of respondents, mostly with blue food dye and in  
 157 lower extent with Methylene blue. Picture modification (brightness and saturation) was largely  
 158 applied in case of LR device use, while was much less used with HR device where the high quality  
 159 of the image allows for FP identification on the original picture. FP are counted in small area (0.5-  
 160 1.0 cm<sup>2</sup>) on the tongue tip or in area close to the tongue tip, already proven to provide reliable

161 measures of FPD and that highly correlate with the total FP number on the anterior tongue (Shahbake  
162 et al., 2005). In general, operators were trained adopting the Denver Papillae Protocol (DPP) in its  
163 original version (Nuessle et al., 2015) or with slight modifications, only a small percentage of data  
164 were collected by operators with no specific training ( $\leq 23\%$ ). Counting was performed by three or  
165 two operators and replicates per independent operator collected only in this latter case. Data  
166 validation was applied in the vast majority of observations (77-80%) and consisted in checking the  
167 agreement in FPD count across counters as indicated by the DPP or applying ANOVA models for  
168 checking for the absence of counter effect.

169 Automated count was only reported by four research units, each adopting different approaches, thus  
170 confirming the low penetration of this method and that its application is still restricted to the research  
171 team responsible for counting script/software development. The TongueSim software was developed  
172 and used by IR1 to count FP especially in small regions near the tongue tip (Sanyal et al., 2016). A  
173 Matlab script was applied by IT1 and IT3 to quantify FP with different diameters classes, in a blue  
174 stained rectangular area positioned at 0.5 from tongue tip (Piochi et al., 2017). UK1 used the method  
175 proposed by Eldeghaidy and colleagues (Eldeghaidy et al., 2018). based on a colour-based  
176 segmentation assisted by an algorithm. A high-performing computerized approach adopting a  
177 machine learning image processing method based on a convolutional neural network was adopted by  
178 IT2 (Cattaneo et al., 2020). Since no data were made available by research units, the comparison  
179 among different automated method was not possible.

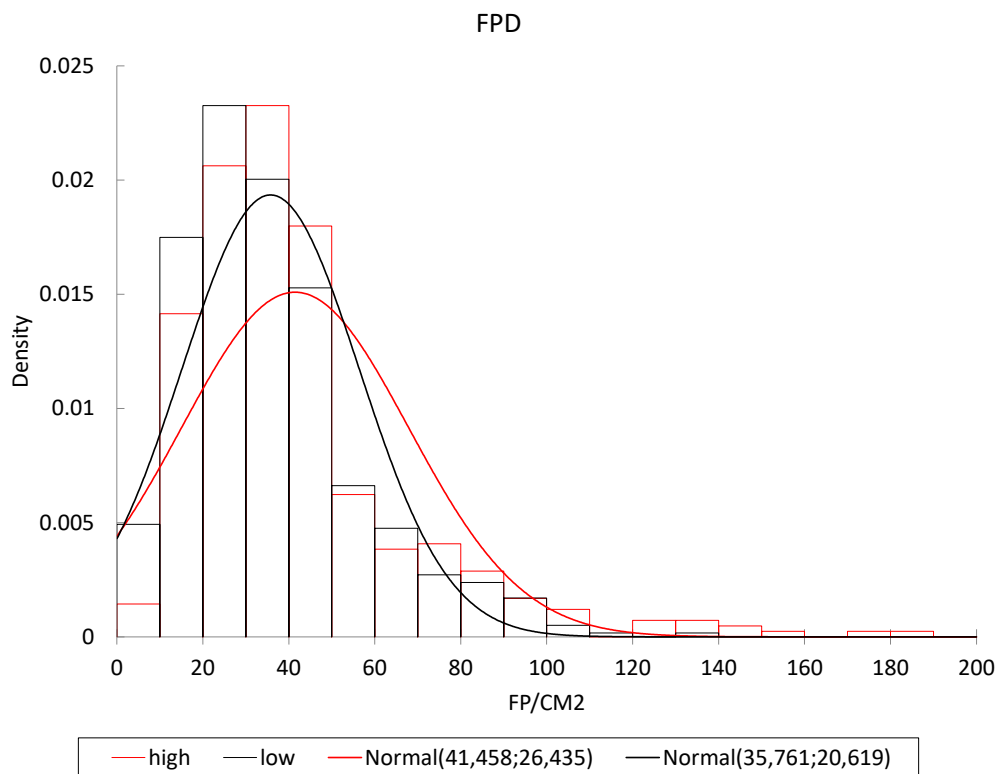
180

181 In the whole population, the FPD from manual count ranged from 0.9 to 187.5, with a mean and  
182 median values of 38.1 and 33.6 FP/cm<sup>2</sup>, respectively, and resulted well in line with the range of FPD  
183 variation reported in previous studies (Piochi et al., 2018).

184

185 The type of device resulted the largest procedure difference in manual count method, thus results  
186 from HR and LR were compared. Sampled populations in both HR and LR measurements appeared  
187 well balanced for gender and no differences in gender distribution were observed (chi-square  
188 observed=0.604; chi-square critical value=3.841;  $p=0.437$ ). Age class distribution differed among  
189 HR and LR (chi-square observed=135.47; chi-square critical value=5.991;  $p<0.0001$ ), with the older  
190 classes C2 and C3 being more frequent in LR than in HR. Distributions of counts from HR and LR  
191 tended to normality (Fig.1) with the characteristic distribution values slightly higher in HR than in  
192 LR (HR: mean=41.5; median= 35.4, 1<sup>st</sup> quartile limit =24.8; 3<sup>rd</sup> quartile limit=49.5, range=180.5; LR:  
193 mean=35.8, median=31.8, 1<sup>st</sup> quartile limit=21.1; 3<sup>rd</sup> quartile limit=45.1, range=131.1). The  
194 similarity in characteristic distribution values of HR and LR measurements indicates that the subject  
195 classification in low, medium and high FPD based on quartile limits, widely used to investigate  
196 relationships between FPD and oral responsiveness, would be similar. This allows for reasonable

197 reliable comparisons among studies in which devices with different resolutions have been used for  
 198 FPD assessment. The vast majority of measures were collected from not smokers ( $\geq 68\%$  in HR, 84%  
 199 in LR), thus this variable was no further considered.  
 200



201  
 202 **Figure 1.** Distribution of FDP counts from measures with low-resolution LR (n=589; black) and  
 203 high-resolution HR (n= 417; red) devices.

204  
 205 Mean FPD was significantly higher in HR than in LR ( $F= 14.71$ ,  $p=0.000$ ). This difference may be  
 206 due to the better quality of tongue pictures in HR measurements which allow for the identification of  
 207 a higher amount on FP. However, it is also possible that the younger age of HR sample contributes  
 208 to this finding.

209  
 210 In order to compare FPD from HR and LR measurements and explore possible effects of procedure  
 211 variables within each type of measurement, a subset population only consisting of the youngest class  
 212 (C1:18-30 y.o.) was considered to avoid possible bias due to the negative age effect on FPD. HR and  
 213 LR samples were comparable for gender composition (Chi-square Observed value=2.836, Chi-square  
 214 Critical value=3.841,  $p$ -value=0.92). No significant differences were found in mean FPD value from  
 215 HR and LR ( $F=0.387$ ,  $p=0.537$ ) in C1 group, thus supporting the age bias on FPD mean values  
 216 comparison in the HR and LR whole sample. The effect of procedure variables was assessed in HR  
 217 measurement; no significant differences were found between FPD values from procedures in which  
 218 the picture was not modified and data were not validated, in comparison to counting performed on

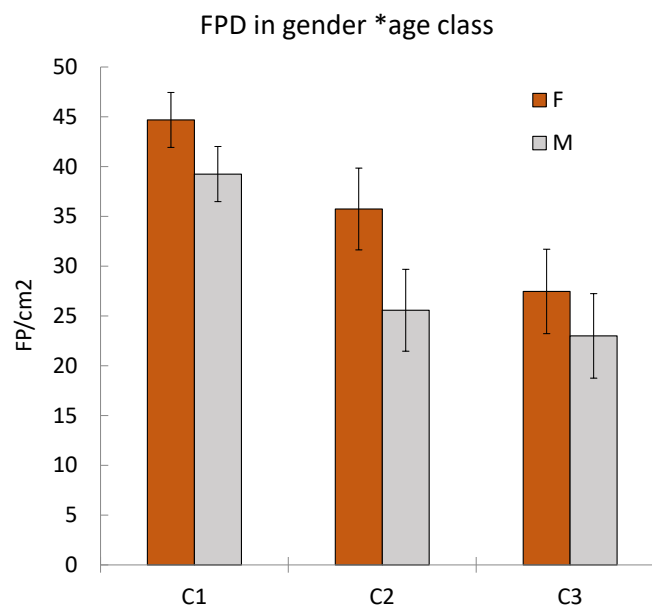
219 modified picture without validating data ( $p \leq 0.191$ ). Procedures differed in the region and size of area  
220 considered for counting but the effect of this variable was not assessed due to the highly unbalanced  
221 sample.

222 FPD values collected with LR devices were significantly lower when the picture was modified, and  
223 data checked for operator agreement (mean value  $33.0 \pm 1.1$ ) in respect to values obtained from  
224 counting on unmodified pictures without validating data (mean value  $63.5 \pm 1.7$ ) ( $F=224.03$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).  
225 “False positive” identification of FP due to the low resolution of the unmodified picture and to the  
226 lack of the control for the agreement among operators might at least in part account for the observed  
227 results.

228  
229 The ability of HR and LR procedures to capture the differences in FPD due to demographic factors  
230 in the sampled populations despite the variability in counting procedure was tested. No significant  
231 differences by gender were observed in C1 subsample of HR measurements ( $p=0.07$ ), age effect was  
232 not tested due to low number of observations from the older age classes C2 and C3. In LR sample, a  
233 significant effect of gender ( $F=15.48$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) was found, with woman showing significantly higher  
234 FPD ( $38.6 \pm 1.0$ ) than men ( $31.7 \pm 1.2$ ) and a significant decrease of FPD by aging was observed  
235 ( $p < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 2). No significant gender\*age interaction was found ( $p=0.366$ ).

236

237 **Figure 2.** Effect of gender and age class in LR sample ( $n=589$ ).



238

239 Results from both HR and LR datasets confirm that gender does not affect FPD in young adults  
240 (Dinnella et al., 2018). LR measures were sensitive to both gender and age effects confirming  
241 previous findings on the higher FDP in women and the negative effect of aging (Dinnella et al., 2018;  
242 Fischer et al., 2013).

243



244 **Conclusions**

245 A detailed picture of methods and procedures used across European research units for FPD  
246 assessment was obtained, showing that the manual count is the most popular method. The type of  
247 device was the largest procedure difference for manual count. However, measures from both devices  
248 were comparable and both able to capture variation in FPD due to demographic sample  
249 characteristics. Overall, measures from high resolution devices appear the best option to depict the  
250 inter-individual variability in FPD due to their stability, irrespectively to differences in the counting  
251 procedure. However, the similarity in characteristic values of FPD distributions allows for reasonably  
252 reliable comparisons among results from studies adopting low- or high-resolution devices for tongue  
253 picture acquisition.

254 Automated procedures are underutilized and, considering the advantages related to their adoption, an  
255 effort is envisaged to widen the accessibility to the script/software, as well as the implementation of  
256 commercial versions.

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258

259 **Credits**

260 **Maria Piochi:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data Curation,  
261 Visualization, Writing - Original Draft.

262 **Melania Melis:** Investigation, Writing - Original Draft.

263 **Iole Tomassini Barbarossa, Luisa Torri, Monica Laureati, Ella Pagliarini, Emma Feeney,**

264 **Rebecca Ford, Qian Yang, Lisa Methven:** Investigation, Resources, Writing - Review & Editing.

265 **Erminio Monteleone, Sara Spinelli:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - Review & Editing,  
266 Supervision,

267 **Caterina Dinella:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis Data Curation,  
268 Validation, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision.

269

270

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