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# Mechanistic model of *in vitro* salt release from model dairy gels based on standardized breakdown test simulating mastication

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#### 7 Abstract

The temporal dominance of sensations method showed that four model dairy products had different dynamic profiles in terms of salt and texture perception. We investigated the physical origins of these differences, by studying the breakdown of these products and its impact on salt release. An experimental device was used for monitoring the kinetics of salt release from the food products into water -simulating saliva- after a standardized compression -simulating masticationindependently of the inter and intra individual variability. A mechanistic model was developed to quantify product breakdown in terms of the area of contact between the product and the aqueous phase. Fat had a major influence on breakdown behaviour and the calculated contact area that could be accounted for by the microstructure of the product. These results provide insight into the possible origins of differences in sensory perceptions of foods. We also discussed the use of this mechanistic model for modeling salt release in the conditions of food consumption.

<sup>8</sup> Keywords: cheese, dynamic, sensory, Temporal Dominance Sensation, texture, NaCl

#### 9 1. Introduction

Reducing the salt content of food has become a major concern for public health authorities worldwide. There is strong scientific evidence that dietary salt consumption is responsible for hypertension, which may result in cardiovascular disease, gastric cancer, osteoporosis, cataracts, kidney stones and diabetes (Organisation, 2007). The World Health Organisation therefore recommends limiting daily sodium chloride intake to 5 g. Salt consumption may, however, be two or three times higher than this recommended level in some developed countries.

Reducing the salt or fat content of food is a major challenge for food manufacturers, because
it often leads to a loss of organoleptic qualities. Food structure and texture affect aroma and taste
perception (Phan et al., 2008; Saint-Eve et al., 2009; Koliandris et al., 2010; Panouillé et al., 2010),

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so one promising possibility is the tailoring of the food matrix to decrease salt content without 19 decreasing the perception of saltiness. For example, liquid model cheeses were perceived as being 20 more salty than gelled model cheeses (Panouillé et al., 2010). For gelled model cheeses, the degree 21 of saltiness perceived depends on fat content (Panouillé et al., 2010). In this context, mechanistic 22 models describing stimuli release during food consumption are of great interest, because they may 23 make it possible to identify the most important physicochemical and physiological parameters 24 responsible for this release (Harrison et al., 1998; Wright et al., 2003; Wright and Hills, 2003; 25 Tréléa et al., 2008). Harrison et al. (1998) and Wright and Hills (2003) developed the first 26 models of flavour release (i.e. the release of aroma compounds) from the chewed bolus. They 27 demonstrated the importance of having detailed knowledge of the mastication process for the 28 prediction of particle size distribution and of the contact areas between the product and the 29 saliva and between the product and air. Food fragmentation can be modelled from empirical 30 laws fitted to experimental data obtained in spit-out experiments (Kobayashi et al., 2006, 2010) or 31 by statistical models considering mastication as a selection and breakdown process (van der Bilt 32 et al., 1987; Baragar et al., 1996; Harrison et al., 1998; Wright et al., 2003). From the distribution 33 of chewing and swallowing time intervals measured by electromyography, Wright et al. (2003) 34 simulated individual mastication patterns for use in flavour release calculations. However, to 35 our knowledge, no model has yet been developed that takes into account the properties of the 36 product for the prediction of particle size distribution and salt release in the mouth. 37

The objective of this study was so to quantify the breakdown of model dairy products in terms of contact areas independently of the individual variability of consumers.

Four model dairy products of different composition were chosen for study because they had 40 already been extensively characterised, not only in terms of rheology and texture, but also in 41 term of bolus formation (Panouillé et al., 2010; Drago et al., 2010). We first undertook a sensory 42 characterisation of these dairy products. We characterised the dynamics of saltiness and texture 43 perception, by generating temporal dominance of sensation (TDS) profiles for the four products. 44 We then used an experimental device similar to those used in previous studies by Koliandris et al. 45 (2008) and Mills et al. (2011), to measure salt release from product to water after breakdown 46 in controlled conditions. A mechanistic model was developed for calculation of the contact area 47 between the water and the product generated by compression. Finally, the results were discussed 48 in terms of composition, structure and perception. We also discussed the use of this mechanistic model and methodology to model salt release in conditions of food consumption. 50

#### 51 2. Materials & Methods

#### 52 2.1. Samples preparation

Model cheeses were prepared as previously described by Saint-Eve et al. (2009): PL60 ul-53 trafiltered skim milk retentate powder (Triballat, Noyal-sur-Vilaine, France), anhydrous milk 54 fat (Corman, Goé, Belgium) and sodium chloride (Prolabo, France) were mixed. The pH was 55 adjusted to 6.2 by adding glucono-delta-lactone (Sigma – Aldrich, Steinheim, Germany), rennet 56 was added and the mixture was poured into containers and allowed to coagulate for 3 h at 30°C. 57 We used ultrafiltered skim milk retentate powder because the mineral composition of this prod-58 uct is similar to that of cow's milk, making it possible to avoid syneresis. Model cheeses were 59 stored at 4°C overnight and experiments were carried out on the day after their preparation. 60 We studied four model cheeses differing only in their fat content (0 or 40% w/w, dry basis) and 61 retentate powder concentration (150 or 250 g/kg). The other components remained constant: 62 salt content (1% w/w) and pH-value (6.2). Hereafter, we referred to the products as follows: PL 63 60 concentration (g/kg) (150 or 250) / fat content (% dry basis, 0 or 40). Table 1 summarizes 64 the various compositions and notations for the four products. 65

#### 66 2.2. Sensory analysis

The temporal perception of the four model cheeses was studied using the temporal dominance 67 of sensation (TDS) method. Each panelist scored, over the course of time, the intensity of the 68 descriptor perceived as dominant. TDS has been processed by 16 trained panelists, volunteer and 69 motivated. For TDS measurement, seven attributes (moistness, softness, firmness, crumbliness, 70 stickiness, fattiness and saltiness) were chosen, following the profile performed on the same 71 products (Panouillé et al., 2010). We used the same terms and definitions as in the previous 72 study. All the attributes were presented simultaneously on a screen with a button. The panellists 73 had to click on "start" when they placed a sample of the model cheese in the mouth and, during 74 the evaluation, they were asked to select the attribute they considered to be dominant. If the 75 dominant attribute change during the course of the trial, the subjects were asked to click on 76 the new dominant attribute. For each panellist, we collected the following data during the 77 consumption of each product: the time at which as attribute was identified as dominant and 78 the name of the attribute concerned. During each run, the subjects were free to chew the 79 sample as they wished. Samples were coded with three-digit random numbers and served in 80 transparent plastic cups. Sample size was standardised at 5 g. The four samples were assessed in 81 duplicate, in random order, over two evaluation sessions. Data were acquired with Fizz software 82

(Biosystèmes, 1990), in individual sensory booths under white light. TDS analysis was performed 83 with Fizz Data Treatment. The dominance proportions were used to draw TDS curves over time, 84 providing information about the descriptors considered dominant during the consumption period. 85 Dominance proportions for an attribute  $d^a$  were calculated by dividing the number of citations of 86 this attribute  $n_c^a$  by the number of judges  $n_j$  and the number of replicate  $n_r$ , i.e  $d_a = n_c^a/(n_j n_r)$ . 87 The sensory perceptions between panellists are close when the dominance rate is high. For each 88 sample of model cheese, the dominance curves of all the descriptors are displayed on the same 89 graph. Two other curves are also displayed to facilitate interpretation. The first, labelled as 90 "chance" indicates the dominance proportion that an attribute would be expected to obtain by 91 chance alone (1/number of attributes). The second curve, labelled "significance", indicates the 92 smallest value of the proportion significantly higher than that expected by chance alone, in a 93 binomial test. TDS curves above the significance level may be considered to be consistent across 94 the panel (Pineau et al., 2009). 95

#### 96 2.3. Conductivity measurements

Conductivity was measured with a conductivity probe (Heito, France). In addition to NaCl, 97 the model cheese contained other solutes such as potassium, calcium, phosphates, citrates and 98 lactates (Lauverjat et al., 2009; Floury et al., 2009). All these species contribute to the conduc-99 tivity signal. With similar products, Lauverjat et al. (2009) showed that NaCl had mass transfer 100 properties (diffusion and partition coefficients) similar to those of the other solutes. There is 101 therefore no need to distinguish between the different solutes in this study. We use the term 102 "salt" in this context to describe all the species contributing to the conductivity signal. The 103 conductivity probe was thus calibrated at 37°C, with aqueous NaCl solutions prepared with 104 deionised water, and concentrations are given in g/L NaCl equivalent. 105

#### <sup>106</sup> 2.4. Experimental set-up for product breakdown and salt release measurement

A schematic diagram of the experimental set-up is shown in Figure 1. It consisted of a 107 conductivity probe (Heito, France), a texturometer (TAXT2, Stable Microsystems) equipped 108 with a Teflon probe 35 mm in diameter, a beaker of deionised water at 37°C (400 mL), and a 109 magnetic stirrer. On-line measurements of changes in conductivity began at time t=0. At t=60 s, 110 a calibrated cylinder of product (12 mm height and 20 mm diameter,  $\sim 3$  g of product) was placed 111 in the beaker. At t=150 s, the product was compressed one or several times to a deformation 112 level of 80 % of the initial height. This compression took only 1 s in an overall experiment time 113 of 400 s. Conductivity registration was stopped at t=400 s. Similar experiments were carried 114

<sup>115</sup> out with no compression as controls, to assess the release of salt from intact product into water.

<sup>116</sup> Three replicates were carried out per product.

#### 117 2.5. Partition coefficient of salt

The water / product partition coefficients K and initial salt concentrations  $C_p^0$  of the four products were determined according to SL-PRV method developed by Lauverjat et al. (2009). The values of K and  $C_p^0$  are global and correspond to the total amount of salt present. The partition coefficients K were comprised between 0.7 and 1 and the initial salt concentrations of the products  $C_p^0$  were between 13 g/L and 17 g/L.

#### 123 2.6. Mass transfer model

Compression instantaneously generated a population of n particles denoted i, where  $i = \overline{1..n}$ . For each particle, we note  $V_{pi}$  its volume (m<sup>3</sup>) and  $A_i$  its contact area (m<sup>2</sup>) with the surrounding volume of water  $V_w$  (m<sup>3</sup>). For processes occurring over a much shorter time scale than diffusion, the most mathematically tractable option is to consider salt release to be described by a mass transfer coefficient  $k_p$  (m/s) and to consider the solute concentration of each piece  $C_{pi}$  to be uniform. Changes in the salt concentration of the water  $C_w$  is therefore given by a mass balance between the product and the water:

$$V_w \frac{dC_w}{dt} = k_p \sum_{i=1}^n A_i \left( K.C_{pi}(t) - C_w(t) \right)$$
(1)

where t is the time (s) and K is the water / product partition coefficient given by the ratio of the salt concentration at the equilibrium between the water  $C_w^{eq}$  and the product  $C_p^{eq}$ :

$$K = \frac{C_w^{eq}}{C_p^{eq}} \tag{2}$$

<sup>133</sup> The salt release from each particle of product is given by:

$$V_{pi}\frac{dC_{pi}}{dt} = -k_p A_i \left(K.C_{pi}(t) - C_w(t)\right) \text{ for } i = \overline{1..n}$$
(3)

This model is not tractable in practice. We therefore simplified these equations to generate two usable models.

#### <sup>136</sup> Model 1: particles of uniform size

If the duration of the experiment is very short with respect to the time scale of the mass transfer from the product to the water (i.e.  $t \ll V_{pi}/k_pA_i$  whatever *i*), the concentrations in each piece of product are similar and the population of pieces is equivalent to one product piece <sup>140</sup> of volume  $V_p = \sum_{i=1}^{n} V_{pi}$ , of contact area  $A = \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_i$  and of salt concentration  $C_p$  (Figure 2). <sup>141</sup> Equations 1 and 3 can be reduced to:

$$V_w \frac{dC_w}{dt} = k_p A \left( K.C_p(t) - C_w(t) \right) \tag{4}$$

$$V_p \frac{dC_p}{dt} = -k_p A \left( K.C_p(t) - C_w(t) \right)$$
(5)

The initial conditions are given by the salt concentration in water at  $t_0 = 150 \, s$  and the initial concentration in the product  $C_p^0$ :

$$C_w(t_0) = C_w^0 \text{ at } t_0 = 150 s$$
 (6)

$$C_p(t_0) = C_p^0 \text{ at } t_0 = 150 s$$
 (7)

 $C_p^0$  and K were determined by the solid-liquid phase ratio variation method (SL-PRV) (Lauverjat et al., 2009). The contact area A and the mass transfer coefficient  $k_p$  were unknown a priori. The value of  $k_p$  was obtained for each product by fitting this model to the kinetics of salt release measured in water  $C_w(t)$  in the absence of compression ("control test"). The contact area  $A_0$  was calculated from the initial sample geometry ( $A_0 = 10.7 \text{ cm}^2$ ). Knowing  $k_p$ , A was then determined by fitting the model to  $C_w(t)$  measured during the compression tests. Regression analysis was carried out with Matlab 7 (The Mathworks, Natick, MA).

#### <sup>151</sup> Model 2: particles of non-uniform size

If the size distribution of a population of particles is broad, then the the uniform-size model 152 does not correctly represent salt release because the time scale of the mass transfer from the 153 smallest particles to the water is equivalent to the duration of the experiment (i.e. there is i such 154 that  $t \sim V_{pi}/k_p A_i$ ). A second model was developed and applied to a single product generating 155 particles of heterogeneous size (250/40). Compression was considered to generate two populations 156 of particles with volumes  $V_{p1}$  and  $V_{p2}$ , contact areas  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  and salt concentration  $C_{p1}$  and 157  $C_{p2}$  (Figure 2). The mass balances of salt in water involve two terms representing the flux of 158 salt from each piece of product. Thus, we have: 159

$$V_w \frac{dC_w}{dt} = k_p A_1 \left( K.C_{p1}(t) - C_w(t) \right) + k_p A_2 \left( K.C_{p2}(t) - C_w(t) \right)$$
(8)

<sup>160</sup> The mass balances in each volume are:

$$V_{p1}\frac{dC_{p1}}{dt} = -k_p A_1 \left( K.C_{p1}(t) - C_w(t) \right)$$
(9)

$$V_{p2}\frac{dC_{p2}}{dt} = -k_p A_2 \left( K.C_{p2}(t) - C_w(t) \right)$$
(10)

#### The total contact area A between the product and the water is given by:

$$A = A_1 + A_2 \tag{11}$$

Knowing the total volume of product  $V_p$ , the relationship between  $V_{p1}$  and  $V_{p2}$  is given by:

$$V_p = V_{p1} + V_{p2} \tag{12}$$

<sup>163</sup> The initial conditions are:

$$C_w(t_0) = C_w^0 \text{ at } t_0 = 150 s$$
 (13)

$$C_{p1}(t_0) = C_p^0 \text{ at } t_0 = 150 s$$
 (14)

$$C_{p2}(t_0) = C_p^0 \text{ at } t_0 = 150 s$$
 (15)

Fitting the model to the experimentally measured salt kinetics  $C_w(t)$ , we were able to determine  $A_1$ ,  $A_2$ ,  $V_{p1}$  and  $V_{p2}$ .  $k_p$  was determined with Model 1 based on the test without compression ("control test").

#### 167 2.7. Data analysis

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) on mass transfer coefficients  $k_p$  and on total contact area A with the products as factor were performed (Matlab7.0). When significant product differences were observed (p < 0.05), the results were compared using a multiple comparison test (Matlab7.0).

#### 172 3. Results

#### 173 3.1. Sensory analysis

The TDS curves (Figure 3) show, for each product, the dominant attribute perceived at each time point during the trial, for the panel as a whole. For products with high levels of protein,

the 250/40 product was perceived as crumbly from 2 s to 6 s and soft from 2 s to 17 s. It 176 was then perceived salty from 13 s to 28 s with a maximum around 18 s. 250/0 was perceived 177 moist, soft, crumbly and then salty from 14 s to 25 s (later and for a shorter period than for 178 250/40). Products with low protein levels (150/0 and 150/40) were perceived as being soft 179 and moist. The 150/0 product was perceived as salty from 11 s to 25 s, whereas 150/40 was 180 perceived as being dominant salty from 6 s to 30 s. The presence of fat therefore led to the 181 earlier perception of saltiness and a longer duration of this perception during the consumption 182 of model dairy products. After 32 s, the TDS curves for all products were below the significance 183 limit, indicating a lack of consensus concerning the dominant attribute. 184

#### 185 3.2. Influence of compression parameters on the release kinetics

For the selection of appropriate parameters for use in the breakdown test, we assessed the influence of the compression parameters on the salt release kinetics for one product (250/40). The parameters considered were probe velocity (1 mm/s or 10 mm/s), level of strain (50 or 80%) and the number of compression cycles (1 or 5 cycles). Figure 4 shows the kinetics obtained.

#### 190 Effect of probe velocity

The velocity of the probe had no great impact on the release kinetics: curves were shifted to the right only for the lowest velocity (1 mm/s). Breakdown occurred 10 s later for a probe velocity of 1 mm/s than for a velocity of 10 mm/s (i.e. at 190 s rather than 150 s). The kinetics followed a similar pattern after this time point for both velocities. A velocity of 10 mm/s is closer to the conditions of natural mastication (Finney and Meullenet , 2005) and was therefore retained for subsequent experiments.

#### 197 Effect of the level of strain

Strain level affects salt release kinetics. Salt release was more rapid at 80% strain than at 50% strain (Figure 4). This difference is further accounted for by the greater contact area at higher levels of strain, due to the greater product breakdown. The fracture strain of this product is about 80% (Panouillé et al., 2010). Thus, at 50% strain, the product is broken up into larger particles, which therefore have a smaller area of contact with the water. During mastication, the jaws and tongue impose high levels of strain. We therefore retained the 80% strain level for subsequent experiments.

#### 205 Effect of the number of compression cycles

The last parameter tested was the number of compression cycles (1 or 5 cycles). This parameter had no effect on salt release kinetics (Figure 4). Indeed, the product was fully broken <sup>208</sup> up after the first compression cycle.

These preliminary tests made it possible to select the compression parameters: a probe velocity of 10 mm/s, a strain level of 80% and one compression cycle were retained for subsequent experiments.

#### 212 Effect of compression

Figure 5 presents typical patterns of salt release for two products (250/0 and 250/40) without compression ("control test") and with compression (probe velocity: 10 mm/s, strain level: 80%, one cycle of compression). In the absence of compression, salt was released slowly and continuously. By contrast, compression with a strain level of 80% significantly accelerated salt release, from 150 s onwards, due to the breakdown of the product and the generation of a greater contact area between product and water.

#### 219 3.3. Effect of the product contact area generation

220 Mass transfer coefficient

Model 1 was first fitted to the salt release kinetics in the absence of compression ("control test"), making it possible to calculate the mass transfer coefficients  $k_p$ . These coefficients ranged between 2 and  $3.10^{-6}$  m/s. The product had no significant effect on the mass transfer coefficient (p>0.05).

#### 225 Effect of compression on contact area

By fitting model 1 (particles with uniform size) to the salt release kinetics after compression, 226 we were able to determine the contact area generated by the compression. Figure 6-a presents 227 the pattern of salt release from the time at which compression occurred (150 s) until the end 228 of the experiments for three products (250/0, 150/0, 150/40) and the fitted release models. For 229 these products, model 1 fit the data well: the measurement time was short enough to consider 230 that the population of particles is equivalent to one piece of product. Figure 6-b shows the 231 kinetics obtained for 250/40. Model 1 fitted the data poorly. We therefore used only model 232 2 (non uniform size distribution) for this product. In this case, salt release slowed 50 seconds 233 after the compression (at t=200 s). Salt release was initially rapid, due to the contribution of 234 all particles. We can therefore show, from the general model, that the slope of the curve at the 235 origin is proportional to the total amount of product/water contact area A. Salt release was 236 subsequently lower and due exclusively to release from the largest particles. 237

The contact areas generated by compression are shown on Figure 7. They were about 100  $cm^2$  for 250/40 and 20 to 30 cm<sup>2</sup> for the others products (150/0, 150/40, 250/0). These areas

are about 10 times and 2 times larger, respectively, than the initial sample area. The 250/40product behaved markedly differently from the other products. Statistical analysis confirmed a strong product effect (p<0.0001) and distinguished two different classes of products: one class consisting of 250/40 and the other consisting of the other three products.

Visual inspection of the products after compression (Figure 8) confirmed these results: 250/40
was fragmented into smaller pieces than the other products.

#### 246 4. Discussion

247 4.1. Effect of product structure and composition on breakdown

The composition of the product affected the contact area generated by strong compression. Fat content had a strong effect for high dry matter, with 250/40 having a contact area 3.5 times that for 250/0.

In a previous study with a similar experimental device, Koliandris et al. (2008) obtained a good negative correlation between  $Na^+$  concentration at a given time (20 s after the breakdown) and the strain rupture of gels. However, it seems difficult to relate the salt release kinetics with a strain or stress rupture because salt release is dependent principally on the contact area generated by product breakdown, which is related to product microstructure and the propagation of cracks within the sample (Gunasekaran and Ak, 2003).

The observations reported here can be accounted for by product microstructure. Panouillé 257 et al. (2010) characterised the rheological behaviour and the microstructure of the products used 258 in this study. Measurements under small-amplitude oscillations showed that all these products 259 displayed a gel-like behaviour (G'>G", almost constant at all frequencies). All products had 260 a fracture strain lower than 80% and were therefore fractured during the compression. The 261 microstructure of the products was characterised by confocal laser scanning microscopy. Panouillé 262 et al. (2010) showed that for all products, after gel formation, there was a visible protein network 263 that was denser for the 250 products than for the 150 products. For 250/40 and 150/40, the fat 264 was concentrated within the protein network and was almost absent from the serum phase. For 265 250/40, a few flocculated and coalesced fat globules were observed. These results may account 266 for the differences in contact area generated by compression. The concentration of the fat within 267 the protein network may have weakened the protein network, facilitating the propagation of 268 the fracture through the sample and resulting in the generation of smaller particles. However, 269 this effect of fat depends on the processes used to manufacture the product, which should be 270 investigated, along with other technological processes. 271

#### 272 4.2. Breakdown and sensory properties

For the products tested here, Panouillé et al. (2010) observed that the perception of saltiness increased with fat content. Indeed, a greater fat content leads to the generation of a larger contact area on compression, resulting in higher levels of salt release. We can assume that the breakdown pattern in the mouth is similar to that observed *in vitro* and that salt is released more rapidly from fat-containing samples than from fat-free samples.

The results obtained by TDS analysis support this hypothesis. For 250/40, crumbly was the dominant attribute perceived (Figure 3). This sensation was identified as dominant immediately after the introduction of the product into the mouth for 250/40, whereas it was identified as the dominant attribute 6 s later for 250/0. This suggests that 250/40 was more quickly fractionated by mastication than the other products, creating a greater contact area with saliva and resulting in the more rapid release of salt.

#### <sup>284</sup> 4.3. Modeling breakdown and salt release during food consumption

In addition to an analysis of the effects of dairy product composition and structure on the breakdown of these products, this study constitutes the first step towards the modeling of salt release during food consumption.

During mastication, the product is fractured by action of the teeth and tongue actions, result-288 ing in the generation of particles. To model aroma compounds release during food consumption, 289 Harrison et al. (1998) and Wright et al. (2003) calculated the particle size distribution. However, 290 if the duration of the mastication is very short compared to the time scale of the mass transfer 291 from the product to the water, as demonstrated in our study, the salt release can be modeled 292 simply with a mass transfer coefficient, without the need for knowledge concerning the size dis-293 tribution of the particles. The main parameter to be determined is the area of contact between 294 the particles and the saliva. During food consumption, the food is masticated for about 30 s 295 (mean time observed for the products used in this study). The model considering the population 296 of particles to be equivalent to one product piece of volume  $V_p$ , of contact area A and of salt 297 concentration  $C_p$  (Model 1: uniform size particles) fitted the data well, for three products (Figure 298 5). For the last product (250/40), as shown Figure 9, model 1 simulated well the experimental 299 data for times of less than approximately 50 s when the area of contact is those estimated thanks 300 to the model 2. For this product, after 50 s, the model 1 overestimated the salt release kinetics. 301 Thus, the model 1 could be used to model salt release during food consumption for this kind of 302 products because the mastication duration is shorter than 50 s. The main differences between 303

the conditions *in vitro* and *in vivo* are dilution by saliva (dependent on the saliva flow rate) and the changes in contact area occurring during mastication.

#### 306 5. Conclusion

The experimental device and the mechanistic model developed here made it possible to measure the contact area generated by compression for several model dairy products and to account for the impact of gel structure on salt release. The model developed constitutes a first step towards the modeling of salt release during food consumption and the contact area measured under control conditions provides information about the fracture properties of the material.

Product composition and microstructure affect the breakdown of the product and the sensory perceptions. The food consumption and the sensory perceptions involve a set of variables that can not be reproduced at laboratory scale. However, the models and the experimental device developed in this study are approximations which considers some important variables of the mastication process. Thanks to their relative simplicity in term of use, they could be used to guide the product formulation.

Finally, this study shows that tailoring the microstructure of the product to control product breakdown in the mouth is one possible way in which the release and perception of stimuli could be improved.

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## 375 Tables and Figures

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Code	Milk retentate powder	Anhydrous milk fat	Rennet	Water
	[g/kg]	[g/100g DM]	[g/kg]	[g/kg]
250/40	250	40	1.27	573
250/0	250	0	1.27	740
150/40	150	40	0.78	740
150/0	150	0	0.78	850

Table 1: Code and composition of the model dairy products.

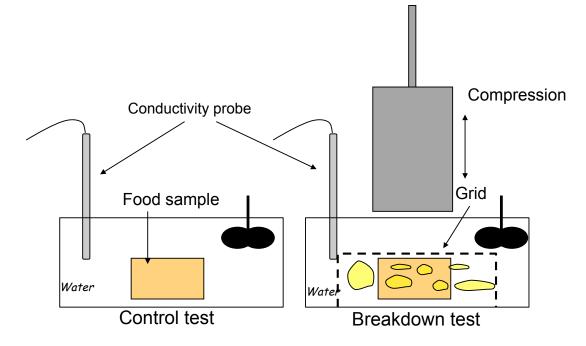


Figure 1: Schematic diagram of the experimental set-up for the breakdown test.

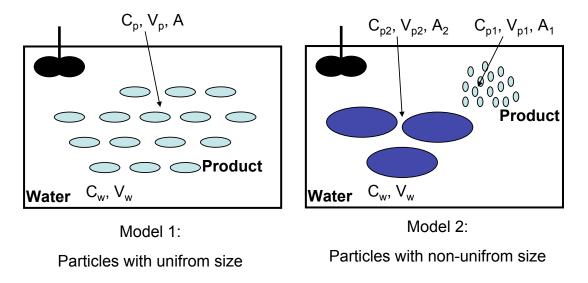


Figure 2: Principles and notations of the salt release models. Model 1 (left) considers the population of particles to be equivalent to one piece of product. Model 2 (right) considers the particle distribution to be approximated by two pieces of product of different sizes.

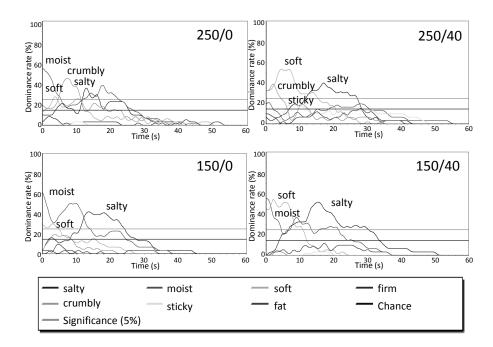


Figure 3: Temporal dominance of sensation (TDS) curves (dominance rate as a function of time) of the 4 products : 250/40, 250/0, 150/40, 150/0.

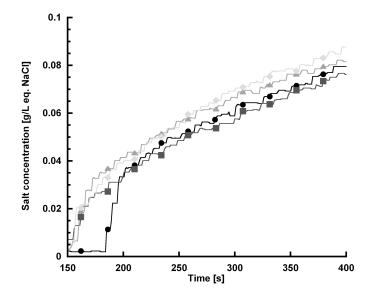


Figure 4: Influence of compression parameters (i.e. probe velocity, strain level, number of compression cycles) on the salt release kinetics from model dairy gels during the breakdown test (250/40): 10 mm/s, 80%, 1 cycle ( $\blacklozenge$ ); 1 mm/s, 80%, 1 cycle ( $\blacklozenge$ ); 10 mm/s, 50%, 1 cycle ( $\blacksquare$ ); 10 mm/s, 80%, 5 cycles ( $\blacktriangle$ ).

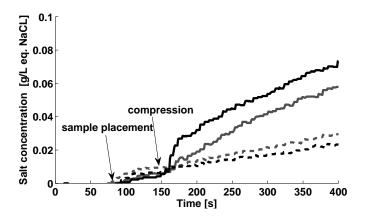


Figure 5: Salt release kinetics during the breakdown test for two products (250/40 in black and 250/0 in grey) after compression (solid lines) and their associated control tests (no compression, dotted lines): probe velocity: 10 mm/s, strain level: 80%, one cycle of compression.

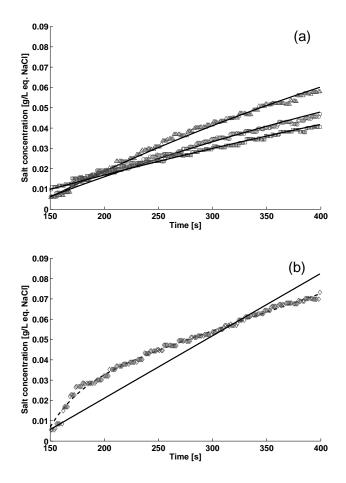


Figure 6: Experimental data and release model simulation. (a) Experimental data for 3 products ( $\triangle 250/0$ , O 150/40,  $\Box 150/0$ ) and model 1 fittings (particles of uniform size, solid lines). (b) Experimental data for 1 product ( $\Diamond 250/40$ ), model 1 fitting (particles of uniform size, solid line) and model 2 fitting (particles of non-uniform size, dotted lines). For 250/40 model 2 was used to determine the contact area generated during the breakdown test due to the poor agreement of the model 1 with the experimental data.

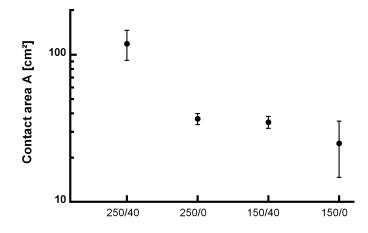


Figure 7: Contact area between the product and the water after compression for the various products studied.



Figure 8: Model dairy products after the breakdown test. A is the area of contact between the product and the water calculated with the models.

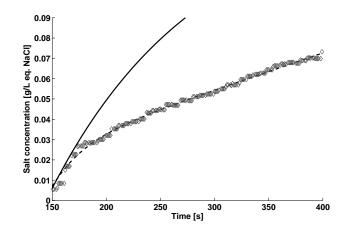


Figure 9: Experimental data ( $\triangle$ ) and release model simulations for 250/40: model 2 fitted on the experimental data to determine the contact area generated during the breakdown test (dotted line); model 1 simulated with the contact area determined thanks to the model 2 (solid line).