

Accepted Manuscript

Food oral processing: mechanisms and implications of food oral destruction

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PII: S0924-2244(15)00155-7

DOI: [10.1016/j.tifs.2015.06.012](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tifs.2015.06.012)

Reference: TIFS 1679

To appear in: *Trends in Food Science & Technology*

Received Date: 15 December 2014

Revised Date: 16 June 2015

Accepted Date: 17 June 2015

Please cite this article as: Chen, J., Food oral processing: mechanisms and implications of food oral destruction, *Trends in Food Science & Technology* (2015), doi: 10.1016/j.tifs.2015.06.012.

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4 **Food oral processing: mechanisms and implications of food oral destruction**

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 Background

20 Food oral processing is a simultaneous process of food destruction and sensory
21 perception. How a food breaks down its structure inside the mouth and what
22 mechanisms control this process are hugely important to our eating experience and
23 sensory perception. A proper understanding of this process is urgently needed by the
24 food industry for better design and manufacturing of quality tasty food.

25

26 Scope and approach

27 This review article analyses research findings from literature and from author's own
28 laboratory in order to identify main controlling mechanisms of food oral destruction.
29 Appropriate experimental evidences are given wherever available to demonstrate the
30 important implications of different destruction mechanisms to sensory perception.

31

32 Key findings and conclusions

33 Three major controlling mechanisms of food oral destruction are identified: the
34 mechanical size reduction, the colloidal destabilisation, and the enzymatic interactions.
35 These mechanisms may be applicable to different food materials either independently
36 or collectively. They could also be applicable through the whole eating process or just
37 at a certain stage of an eating process.

38

39 **Keywords:** food oral processing, food structure, food destruction, sensory perception,
40 eating, saliva

41

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Eating facilitates two very basic functions for human beings: to gain energy and
44 nutrition and to gain pleasure and enjoyment. The former is for human's physiological
45 and biological needs of proper functioning of human body, while the latter serves to
46 elevate our spirit and mood, a social and psychological function of the food also
47 essential for our well-being. Food structure greatly increases the latter whilst barely
48 affecting the former. Consuming one mouthful solid food, from the first bite till final
49 swallowing, only takes few seconds to up to few ten seconds. For a mouthful fluid
50 food like a beverage, a couple of seconds is usually more than enough for the whole
51 process. However, despite its short oral stay, food experiences a series changes in
52 structure and in physicochemical properties. The drastic food destruction and the
53 food-body interaction at the oral stage create a unique sensory experience which leads
54 to consumers' preference and liking of a food product. There is no doubt that food
55 structure creates most if not all the pleasure of eating. Therefore, a proper
56 understanding of food structural breakdown during eating is critically important not
57 only to our fundamental understanding of the governing principles of eating and
58 sensory perception but more importantly for better design and manufacturing of
59 quality tasty foods. Food industry urgently needs technological support in order to
60 meet ever increasing demand from consumers and to keep competitive advantages in
61 a globalised market.

62 This paper aims to elucidate the determining mechanisms of food oral destruction.
63 The discussion will focus on how food oral breakdown is regulated and influenced by
64 what factors and more importantly, their implications to our sensory perception. This
65 work is a continuation of author's previous works on the underpinning principles of
66 food oral processing (Chen, 2009, 2014; Chen & Stokes, 2012). Though opinions
67 expressed in this paper are only author's view of the topic, supporting experimental
68 evidences are given to support such views wherever available. While food structure is
69 a main focus of the discussion, how food structure/texture is sensed or assessed is not
70 covered in the review. This is partly to keep the paper in proper length, but more

71 importantly because mechanisms of structure sensation are too complicated to be
72 covered in this short review. For some introductory information about functions of
73 oral mechanoreceptors and structure/texture sensation, readers are referred to other
74 reference sources including Schmidt (1981), Goldstein (2010), and Chen (2014).

75

76 **2. Structuring and destruction of food**

77 Food making is basically a structuring process. From ingredients selection and
78 mixing to processing, forming, shaping, and storage, the ultimate aim of formulation
79 and processing design is to have the formation of an optimum structure which
80 conveys most desirable sensory experience as well as nutritional quality. All efforts
81 are to ensure component molecules and particles organised in a particular order and
82 microstructure and to preserve and maintain such structures for as long as possible
83 (the shelf life). Main approaches to food structure creation and longer shelf life
84 stability include the use of functional ingredients, innovative processing techniques,
85 optimized processing conditions, modified packaging, and appropriate storage
86 conditions (shown in the left half of Figure 1). Food structuring and structure
87 preservation concern the whole range of food chain, from raw materials till the point
88 of entering the mouth when the food is orally consumed and begins to be digested.

89 Since food science and technology became a scientific discipline more than half
90 century ago, structuring of food has always been one of the core focuses of scientific
91 research. Every effort has been sought on developing new techniques for most
92 efficient conversion of raw food materials to a product which is welcomed and
93 enjoyed by consumers. Extensive use and exploitation of hydrocolloids is a typical
94 example of optimum food structuring. As a type of structure building ingredients,
95 hydrocolloids are commonly used as a functional ingredient in a wide range of food
96 products for various cases of structure formation, including gelling, thickening,
97 emulsifying, coating, fat replacing, and etc. (Phillips and Williams, 2000; Williams
98 and Phillips, 2014). Food processing technique has also evolved hugely in the effort

99 of optimising food structure and structure preservation. Recently emerged
100 non-thermal processing techniques are typical examples (Sanchez and Bergezac,
101 2012). Other novel techniques such as high pressure processing, high intensity pulsed
102 electric field, ultrasound, and etc are now available for industrial applications for the
103 purpose of either structure formation or better structure preservation of food materials.

104 Contrast to great achievements in both technical advances and fundamental
105 understanding of food structuring, very limited understanding has been obtained to the
106 other half of the spectrum of the Figure 1, the food destruction. When food enters the
107 mouth, an opposite process begins, i.e. food starts structural degradation and
108 disintegration. This process continues throughout the whole alimentary channel and
109 could carry on for many hours (Roach, 2012).

110 With ever growing concerns from consumers on the health and well-being, huge
111 interests have arisen in recent years on what happen to the food inside human body
112 and its impacts to human wellness. Based on anatomy analysis, food alimentary
113 journey could be roughly divided into four different stages: oral, gastric, small
114 intestine, and large intestine. Destruction process is of course very different in nature
115 at different stages along the alimentary journey, and so the controlling mechanisms.
116 The main scope of this paper is about food destruction during the oral stage, the very
117 beginning of food digestion process. The reason we choose food oral destruction as a
118 topic for investigation is because of its uniqueness. Through the whole food journey,
119 food oral processing is the only stage where food–body interactions produce strong
120 and immediate psychological as well as physiological responses.

121 At the oral stage, food destruction is closely associated with the sensory perception
122 and liking. Once food is swallowed, structural breakdown continues to a further level
123 for digestion and nutrients absorption. Chewing and mastication as well as saliva
124 mixing are the typical phenomena associated with food oral destruction (Figure 1).
125 Lucas et al. (2002) proposed an excellent flowchart to illustrate sequences of an eating
126 process (see Figure 2). The pathway shown in the left side is mostly for fluid food
127 where no mastication is needed. However, for solid and soft-solid food, very different

128 pathway will be needed as shown on the side of the graph. Various oral actions as well
129 as decision making in a sequential order are involved in a single mouthful eating.
130 From the chart, one could imagine that the food at the first grip and the bolus at the
131 point of swallowing are categorically different materials in terms of both
132 physical/textural properties as well as chemical compositions. At the point of
133 swallowing, food is no longer the food as it was on the plate, but becomes a mixture
134 of food particles with body fluid (the bolus). However, people still prefer to refer this
135 mixture as food simply for convenience and this same approach will also be used in
136 this paper. Particle size reduction was shown in the middle of the figure highlighting
137 the destruction nature of the eating. However, the actual destruction and controlling
138 mechanisms are much more complicated than they appear to be. From author's
139 opinion, at least three very different mechanisms are operating at the oral stage,
140 regulating and controlling this destruction process. Details of these mechanisms and
141 their implications are discussed below.

142

143 **3. Mechanisms of food oral destruction**

144 **3.1 Oral mechanical destruction of food**

145 Mechanical destruction is the most common and most important mechanism of
146 food oral breakdown and has been extensively studied. Via this mechanism, food is
147 reduced to a much smaller size through actions of oral mastication in the form of
148 biting and chewing. Jaw closing, teeth involvement, as well as tongue pressing are
149 essential for such a mechanism. As also highlighted in Figure 2, size reduction at oral
150 stage could cross few magnitudes of length scale, from initial centimetre scale at the
151 entry to sub-millimetre (or even micrometre) scale at the point of swallowing.

152 Mechanical size reduction is a must for any solid and most soft solid foods. With
153 the help of saliva participation, this process ensures the conversion of a non-flow-able
154 food to a food bolus so that transportation of the food from the oral cavity to the
155 stomach can be easily performed by a simple swallow action. This is because the

156 design of our oral-pharyngeal-oesophageal tract is only suitable for the transportation
157 of flow-able fluid. The driving force behind this transportation comes from muscle
158 contraction along the alimentary channel, which creates a peristaltic effect to push
159 bolus forward. Any food in solid form must be properly reduced for its size and
160 properly mixed up with saliva to become a flow-able fluid body. Another very
161 important purpose of mechanical oral size reduction is to ensure maximum digestive
162 effect of the food once it reaches inside the stomach. Gastric digestion relies on three
163 factors for food breakdown, the shearing and tearing effect by muscle contraction of
164 the stomach wall, the acid attack by gastric juice, and the enzyme interactions with
165 protein components. All these actions need food particles to be as small as possible to
166 achieve the maximum contact between food and gastric juice for most efficient
167 digestion.

168 Sensory implications of oral mechanical destruction are immediate and highly
169 significant. In terms of flavour (taste and aroma), hugely increased surface area helps
170 fast release and diffusion of taste and aroma compounds from food interior so that
171 they can be detected quickly by the taste buds inside oral cavity and olfactory
172 receptors inside the nasal cavity. Fast and easy flavour release is necessary for sensory
173 perception. However, too fast and uncontrolled aroma release will often cause quick
174 sensory loss during storage and will significantly reduce the shelf life of the product.
175 Of course, too slow release is also not desirable. In such a case, a large fraction of
176 flavour compounds will remain unreleased and enters the body not being sensed.
177 Therefore, optimum control of aroma and taste release is a big challenge to food
178 manufacturers. This problem has attracted extensive attentions and it was specifically
179 indicated that the intensity of flavour release is strongly influenced by the duration of
180 mastication phase, the microstructure of the food, the air-bolus contacting area, as
181 well as some other parameters (Salles et al., 2011; Doyennette et al., 2014).

182 Texture appreciation accompanies the whole mastication process. How a food
183 resists the deformation, how it breaks, the size distribution of fractured particles and
184 their geometry, and the surface wetting will all contribute to texture sensation. Bulk

185 deformation or fracture of large particles dominates texture sensation at early stage of
186 eating, where food rheology is believed to be hugely important. However, with
187 continuing size reduction, bulk rheology will become less relevant, but tribological
188 behaviour of food–saliva mixture could become a dominant mechanism of oral
189 textural sensation. The underlying principles of this transition have been explained in
190 detail by Chen and Stokes in a previous article (Chen and Stokes, 2012).

191 A big challenge to food R&D is how to have a controlled oral destruction or to
192 design a food which has a unique pattern of oral fracturing and breaking. In order to
193 have a reliable method to quantify this destructive process, the concept of Breakage
194 Function has been proposed to measure the fracture of a solid food (Lucas and Luke,
195 1983). The concept has been tested as feasible to evaluate the extent and ease of food
196 fracture. Dry brittle solid foods such as biscuits, candies, nuts, etc. would normally
197 have a high breakage function, which means less number of chewing cycles is needed
198 to complete an eating process (no matter how hard a food is). However, for some
199 fibrous wet solids such as fruits, vegetables, meat, etc. breakage function is usually
200 low. Such types of foods will need continuous chewing, despite of probably less oral
201 effort per chewing cycle. For the former, a burst of aroma and flavour is usually the
202 case due to the sudden increase of contacting area between food particles and the
203 air/saliva. For the latter, aroma and flavour release would be usually slow and gradual.
204 An extreme example would be the chewing gum which never breaks but only kneads
205 with the saliva.

206 There is also a gradual mechanism transition of size reduction, from
207 teeth-involving for solid foods to tongue pressing for some soft solid foods. This
208 transition depends on individuals' oral physiological conditions. It has been
209 experimentally confirmed by author's group that tongue muscle strength is the
210 determining factor for this transition (Alsanei et al., 2015). An individual with strong
211 tongue muscle will be much more capable of applying tongue-only for oral breaking
212 of some gel type foods. However, individuals with low tongue muscle strength will
213 have to rely heavily on teeth for size reduction of even softer food. A positive

214 correlation between tongue muscle strength represented by the maximum tongue
215 pressing pressure and the threshold value of gel strength is shown in Figure 3. A
216 correlation factor of 0.71 demonstrates a very significant correlation between the two
217 factors.

218

219 **3.2 Colloidal destabilisation of food structure**

220 Human saliva is a typical colloidal system. According to Glantz (1997), saliva has
221 four levels of structure: a continuous phase composed of electrolytes in water, a
222 scaffold-like continuous network structure (largely due to the presence of MUC5B
223 protein); less water-soluble protein, salivary micelles or other globular structure inside
224 the saliva network filaments; and lipid materials, bacterial and epithelial cell. The
225 colloidal nature of human saliva has also been positively confirmed by the extensive
226 network observed under the microscope for a sample of freeze dried human saliva
227 (Schipper et al., 2007).

228 As a unique oral fluid, saliva has some specific functions naturally designed for
229 oral lubrication and protection, maintaining tooth integrity, and antibacterial activity.
230 Despite these oral functions, saliva is also an indispensable fluid for oral consumption
231 of many solid and semi-solid foods. Even for fluid food, saliva participation and
232 mixing could also be inevitable. Saliva functions as buffering, for food mixing, bolus
233 formation and swallowing, oral clearance, as well as for food disintegration and
234 digestion. Once entering oral cavity, food will come into contact immediately with the
235 saliva. Therefore, saliva is an indispensable ingredient for food oral processing and for
236 sensory perception. Strictly speaking, sensory perception perceived during eating is
237 not purely from the food but from the food–saliva mixture.

238 Colloidal principles of eating and sensory perception have been well documented
239 by van Vliet et al. (2009), Le Reverend et al. (2010), and Salles et al. (2011). By
240 analysing specific sensory (texture) attributes for all three categories of food (solid,
241 semi-solid, and liquid food), van Vliet et al. demonstrated that understanding of the

242 processes in the mouth at colloidal length scales is essential in order to grasp the
243 interplay between perception, oral physiology and food properties (van Vliet et al.,
244 2009). Le Reverend et al. (2010) also applied microstructural approach to the
245 engineering challenge of fat replacement in dairy products such as mayonnaise, cream
246 and sauces. They found that tribological behaviour gave much relevant sensory
247 information about sensory creaminess because of the underpinning colloidal
248 principles behind oral processing of these products. As has been indicated by these
249 researchers, the most important colloidal implications occur to emulsion systems.

250 Sarkar and Singh (2012) indicated possible oral destabilisation of food emulsions
251 as a result of saliva mixing and oral shear. Salt-induced aggregation, depletion
252 flocculation, bridging flocculation, and coalescence are the four most important
253 mechanisms as illustrated in Figure 4. Of all these mechanisms, depletion flocculation
254 and bridging flocculation are the most likely mechanisms. A depletion flocculation
255 refers to the aggregation of emulsion droplets as a result of osmotic pressure created
256 by the presence of non-adsorbing large molecules in the continuous phase. A bridging
257 flocculation is the case of droplets aggregation due to one large molecule adsorbing
258 (anchoring) simultaneously onto two or few emulsion droplets (Dickinson, 1992). For
259 both mechanisms to occur inside the mouth, the key ingredient is the prolin-rich
260 mucins, a family of high molecular weight, negatively charged (at neutral pH),
261 heavily glycosylated proteins, which are produced by epithelial tissues in most
262 organisms of Kingdom Animalia. Mucins have gel-like characteristic and therefore
263 serves as a key component for surface lubrication (Okumura and Endo, 2013).

264 For food emulsions, Silletti et al. (2007) assured that charge status is crucial for
265 their oral stability. They demonstrated that strongly negatively charged emulsions will
266 normally remain stable inside mouth, except being diluted by the saliva. The negative
267 charge on droplet surface would normally provide a large enough repulsive force to
268 prevent emulsion droplets from sticking together. Neutral or weakly negatively
269 charged emulsions will likely to become depletion flocculated, due to the osmotic
270 pressure created by the non-adsorbing salivary proteins. On the other hand, positively

271 charged emulsions stand no chance inside mouth. Immediate destabilisation is almost
272 certain due to bridging flocculation caused by simultaneous absorption of mucins and
273 other large salivary proteins to the surface of few positively charged emulsion
274 droplets.

275 To author's opinion, any oral destabilisation will have significant implication to
276 sensory perception, in particular for beverages where emulsion droplets are often used
277 as flavour carrier as well as texture modifier. Once such a dispersed system is
278 destabilised after oral processing, very different microstructure will lead to a textural
279 experience completely different from that of a stable emulsion. A stable emulsion
280 would normally be perceived as smoothly creamy, but a flocculated emulsion would
281 often be sensed as rough and dry with probably increased thickness sensation
282 (Vingerhoeds et al., 2009). Severe flocculation could even lead to coalescence of oil
283 droplets. In this case, the emulsion could be perceived as greasy or oily. By
284 controlling the surface properties of emulsion droplets, it is possible to have a
285 delicately controlled oral sensation for fluids and beverages. However, potential
286 applications of such an approach have not been fully explored by the food industry.

287 Another very important but less known oral colloidal destabilisation is the
288 aggregation of salivary proteins with some specific small molecules (e.g.
289 polyphenols). The aggregation leads to depletion of salivary protein from the oral
290 (tongue) surfaces and a significantly reduced oral lubrication (Gibbins and Carpenter,
291 2013). Astringency perception is the immediate result of this colloidal interaction.
292 This has been confirmed experimentally by authors' group in investigating the
293 astringency of wines. Microscope observation confirmed strong aggregation between
294 wine polyphenols and salivary protein. This leads to protein depletion from the saliva
295 (and possibly tongue surface) and causes a significantly reduced surface lubrication
296 (increased friction) (data to be published separately).

297

298 **3.3 Biochemical and enzymatic interactions**

299 Apart from mucin and other large molecules, human saliva contains two other
300 very important biopolymers, lipase and α -amylase. The existence of these two
301 enzymes has very important significances because of their interactions with two
302 principal food components: the lipids and starches.

303 Salivary lipase is secreted from von Ebner's glands of the tongue. Unlike other
304 mammalian lipases, salivary lipase of human is highly hydrophobic and capable of
305 entering fat globules, hydrolysing medium to long chain triglycerides to form free
306 fatty acids. Mattes and his co-workers believed that oral sensation of fatty/creamy is
307 achieved by the detection of free fatty acids (Chalé-Rush et al., 2007; Tucker and
308 Mattes, 2012), via a two-stage mechanism (Mattes, 2011). Firstly, triglycerides (fat)
309 are hydrolysed into glycerol and respective fatty acids by the interaction of salivary
310 lipase. The fatty acids are then be detected through a number of possible mechanisms:
311 including in particular delayed-rectifying potassium channels, G protein-couples
312 receptors-120 (GPCR120), and CD36 glycoprotein receptors (Akhtar Khan and
313 Besnard, 2009).

314 Though the hypothesis seems very plausible, reservation remains among sensory
315 scientists. Opposing reason is very simple: the lipase content in human saliva is so
316 low that many suspects that the formation of free fatty acids will not be in high
317 enough concentration for positive detection by fatty acid detecting receptors (if they
318 exist in humans). Instead, some scientists have shown that fattiness is a textural
319 feature which is sensed via a physical (or tactile) mechanism, based on the evidences
320 obtained from neural imaging experiments (Rolls, 2011, 2012). It is not the purpose
321 here to judge which mechanism is the right for fattiness sensation. But one should be
322 aware that interactions between lipase and fat are completely feasible under the oral
323 condition, though how relevant of this enzymatic interaction to sensory perception
324 requires further investigation.

325 The presence of α -amylase in human saliva is critically important to the sensation
326 of food texture as well as flavour. And this has been confirmed by many experimental
327 evidences, The α -amylase is a calcium metalloenzyme and is abundant in human

328 saliva. Salivary amylase is highly active at neutral pH and oral conditions. It interacts
329 with starch molecules by hydrolysing (1-4) bonds of both amylose and amylopectin to
330 form small sugar molecules of which maltose is the major end-product. This enzyme
331 quickly loses its activity once enters stomach due to unfavoured acidic condition. The
332 α -amylase interaction has at least two important implications to oral sensory
333 experience: the structure breakdown (or significant viscosity decrease) of the food and
334 a hint of sweet taste due to the formation of sugar molecules. The latter can be
335 experienced when consuming rice or other starch food. Despite no sugar addition, a
336 hint of sweetness can often be detected during consumption of such foods.

337 Oral degradation or oral thinning of starchy food has been observed by many
338 researchers. Hoebler et al. (Hoebler, Karinithi, Devaux, Guillon, Gallant, Bouchet, et
339 al., 1998; Hoebler, Devaux, Karinithi, Belleville & Barry, 2000) found that during a
340 short period of oral processing, about 50 % of bread and 25 % of pasta starch was
341 hydrolysed and transformed into smaller molecules. They concluded that the starch
342 hydrolysis began in the mouth and the different rate of starch hydrolysis was caused
343 by the structural differences of the solid foods. Such observation was further
344 confirmed by an *in vitro* investigation. In a separate study, it was found that in less
345 than 10 second of mixing with the saliva, the viscosity of custard showed almost a
346 ten-fold decrease (Prinz, Janssen & de Wijk, 2007). Janssen et al (2007) also
347 examined the degradation of the gel made from whey protein isolate and tapioca
348 starch. By mixing the samples with water (as a reference) and with saliva *in vitro*,
349 they observed instant viscosity decrease for the sample with the addition of saliva.
350 The time-scale for the observed viscosity reduction was perfectly within the time
351 range of a normal oral eating process.

352 Amylase interaction was also proved to be very effective to starch emulsifiers, a
353 functional ingredient increasingly used in food formulation in recent years, due to its
354 great functions of emulsifying and stabilising food emulsions. Relatively lower cost
355 compared to traditional food emulsifiers such as milk protein is another great
356 advantage of starch emulsifier. However, food manufacturers must be aware that even

357 though a starch emulsifier provides great long term shelf life stability to food
358 emulsions, it becomes vulnerable once the emulsion comes into contact with the
359 saliva. Oral destabilisation could be inevitable for such emulsions. Amylase
360 interaction with starch chains at the oil droplet surface and causes significant
361 reduction of monolayer protection. Severe droplet flocculation and even coalescence
362 will be highly possible. And this has been confirmed very recently by both *in vitro*
363 and *in vivo* tests conducted in author's lab (data to be published). In this study, two
364 emulsions, one stabilised by purity gum ultra, a modified waxy maize starch
365 emulsifier provided by Ingredion (UK), and one stabilised by sodium caseinate, were
366 prepared with matched properties (oil volume fraction and droplet particle size). Once
367 the emulsions come into contact with saliva, they behaved completely different. As
368 shown in Figure 5, severe flocculation was clearly evident for the starch emulsion
369 when it was mixed with saliva, while the caseinate emulsion remained stable under
370 the same condition. Enzymatic degradation of starch emulsifier by the α -amylase is
371 the only possible explanation in this case.

372

373 **4. Implications**

374 The oral structural breakdown is an important part of food digestion. To food
375 scientist and technologists, the question is how to make the most of this process for
376 desirable sensory experience. Implications of food oral breakdown can be summarised
377 at least to the following three aspects.

378 Firstly, the most important implication of food oral breakdown is of course the
379 changing textural properties of the food during an eating process. All three destruction
380 mechanisms will affect the texture of food. Mechanical size reduction leads to
381 reduced relevance of food rheology to food texture sensation. Once food particles
382 become small enough, deformation is no longer about individual food particles but
383 more the food-saliva mixture, for which flow-ability and even tribology would be
384 more relevant to oral processing and sensory perception. Colloidal destabilisation

385 makes food emulsion no longer smooth. Large cluster of emulsion droplets may lead
386 to rough and also watery sensation. Aggregation of salivary protein in the presence of
387 polyphenols leads to specific sensation of astringency. In terms of α -amylase attack,
388 oral thinning is an obvious consequence to a starch food.

389 Food oral destruction is a dynamic process where textural perception could be
390 from either an instant feeling or an integrated opinion through the whole process.
391 Consequently, traditional static approach of *in vitro* texture characterisation might be
392 little relevant to the real oral sensation. A new strategy for instrumental assessment of
393 texture perception is really needed.

394 Secondly, the active presence of salivary enzymes means continuous molecular
395 and structural degradation for some particular foods, e.g. fatty and starch food. A fatty
396 food is vulnerable to lipase degradation, while a starch food is vulnerable to
397 α -amylase interaction. The former leads to the formation of free fatty acids, though
398 whether its quantity is high enough for sensory impact is still questionable. The latter
399 leads to the formation of sugar molecules and possibly an altered taste of the food
400 (enhanced sweetness).

401 Thirdly, mechanical size reduction is essential for swallowing. The formation of a
402 food bolus and the initiation of bolus swallowing depend largely on the speed of size
403 reduction as well as the rate of saliva secretion. Proper size reduction and proper
404 flow-ability are essential to ensure a comfortable and safe swallowing.

405 It should also be noted that above mentioned mechanisms of food oral destruction
406 could occur separately as well as simultaneously. For example, three mechanisms
407 could all be applicable to the oral destruction of a starch emulsion gel. The question is,
408 in this case, what will be the sensory implication. Though little is known, but
409 definitely much more complicated.

410

411 5. Summary

412 Food oral processing is a dynamic process during which food will be broken down
413 structurally both for the purpose of easy transportation to the stomach for further
414 digestion and for the purpose of sensory enjoyment. This dynamic process is
415 controlled by three very different mechanisms: physical/mechanical, colloidal, and
416 biochemical/enzymatic. The mechanical process dominates early stage of the oral
417 mastication of solid and soft solid foods. Size reduction and hugely increased
418 food–saliva contacting area enable simultaneous sensation of texture and flavour
419 release. Colloidal interaction between salivary proteins and food emulsion could lead
420 to instant destabilisation. Colloidal interaction could also occur in the presence of
421 some specific small molecules such as polyphenols which leads to the depletion of
422 protein from the saliva and consequently astringency. Enzymatic interaction occurs
423 mostly to starch food where the attack of α -amylase to starch molecule leads to
424 significant oral thinning as well as mildly altered sweetness. These mechanisms
425 should be further explored for better food design and formulation in order to produce
426 quality food which is not only healthy but also sensory desirable.

427

428 **Acknowledgement**

429 Mr. Juyang Zhang is acknowledged for his work on the microscopic observation of
430 emulsion destabilisation after mixing with saliva. Miss Natalia Brossard is
431 acknowledged for her experimental works on wine astringency.

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512

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

513 **Captions**

514

515 Figure 1. The structuring and destruction of food as separated by the point when the
516 food enters the mouth, serving for very different purposes and also regulated by very
517 different mechanisms.

518 Figure 2. The flowchart of food oral processing highlights various oral decisions and
519 sequential oral actions starting from the first grip till the swallowing (Modified from
520 Lucas et al., 2002).

521 Figure 3. A positive correlation is clearly observable ($R^2 = 0.71$) between one's tongue
522 muscle strength (represented by the maximum isometric tongue pressure) and the
523 maximum elasticity of food gel for tongue-only oral breaking.

524 Figure 4. Differently charged food emulsions will have a very different oral behaviour
525 due to different colloidal interactions with salivary proteins.

526 Figure 5. Microscopic observation of food emulsions mixed with fresh human saliva.
527 Higher amount of saliva leads to increased aggregation for the starch emulsion, but a
528 caseinate emulsion remains stable at the same condition. Results demonstrate the
529 enzymatic attack to starch emulsions leads to significantly reduced stability.

530

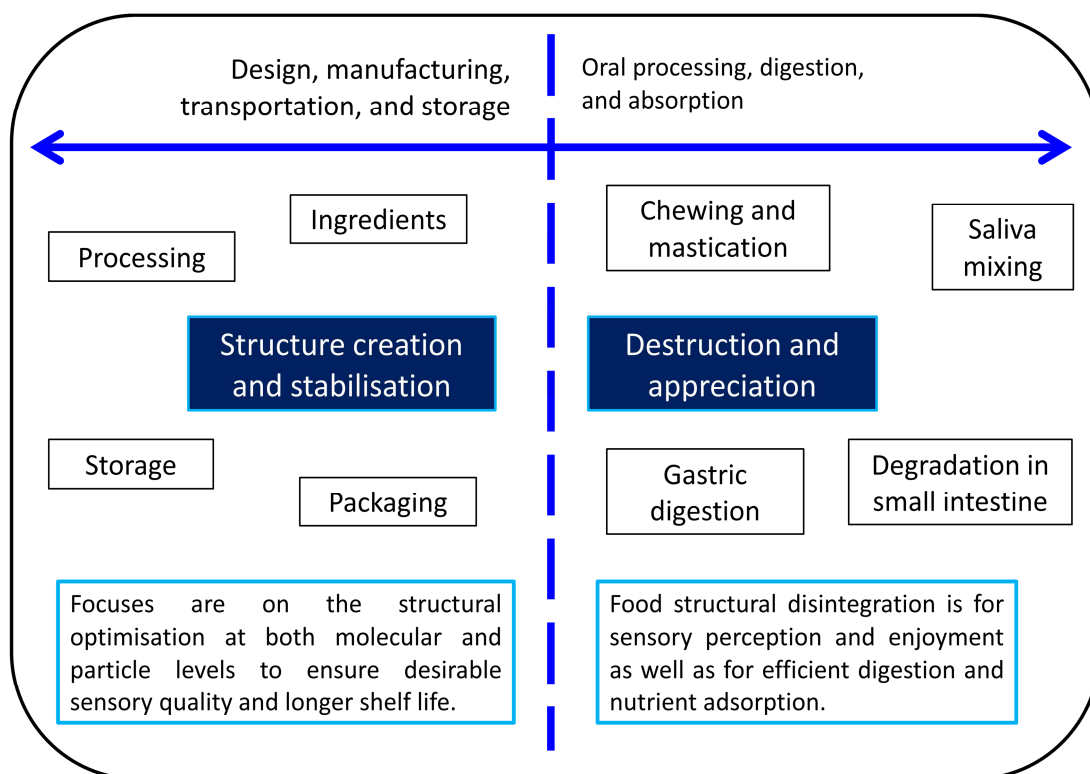


Figure 1. The structuring and destruction of food as separated by the point when the food enters the mouth, serving for very different purposes and also regulated by very different mechanisms.

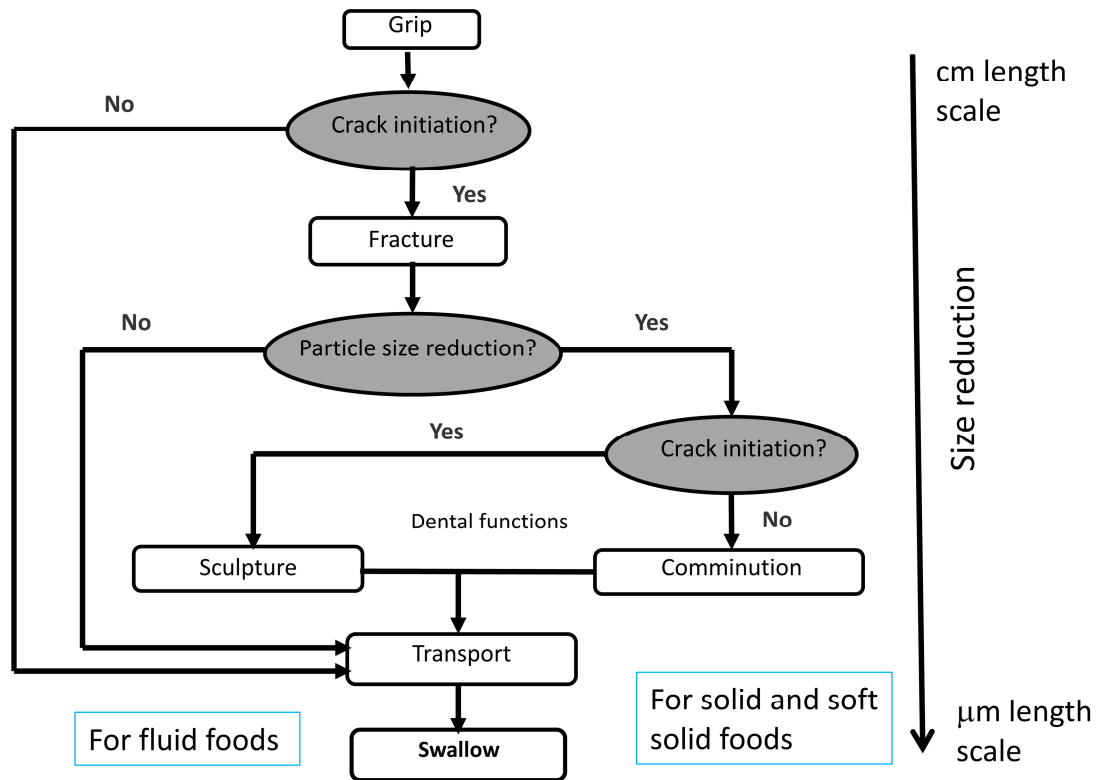


Figure 2. The flowchart of food oral processing highlights various oral decisions and sequential oral actions starting from the first grip till the swallowing (Modified from Lucas et al., 2002).

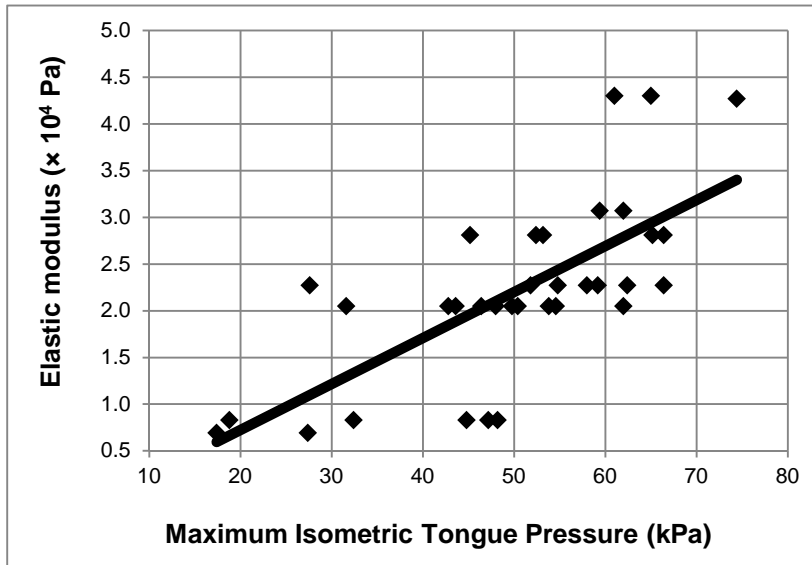


Figure 3. A positive correlation is clearly observable ($R^2 = 0.71$) between one's tongue muscle strength (represented by the maximum isometric tongue pressure) and the maximum elasticity of food gel for tongue-only oral breaking. Mechanical strength of lab-constituted veggie gels was tested using a Texture Analyser and the tongue muscle strength of subjects was measured using IOPI device (Alsanei and Chen, 2014).

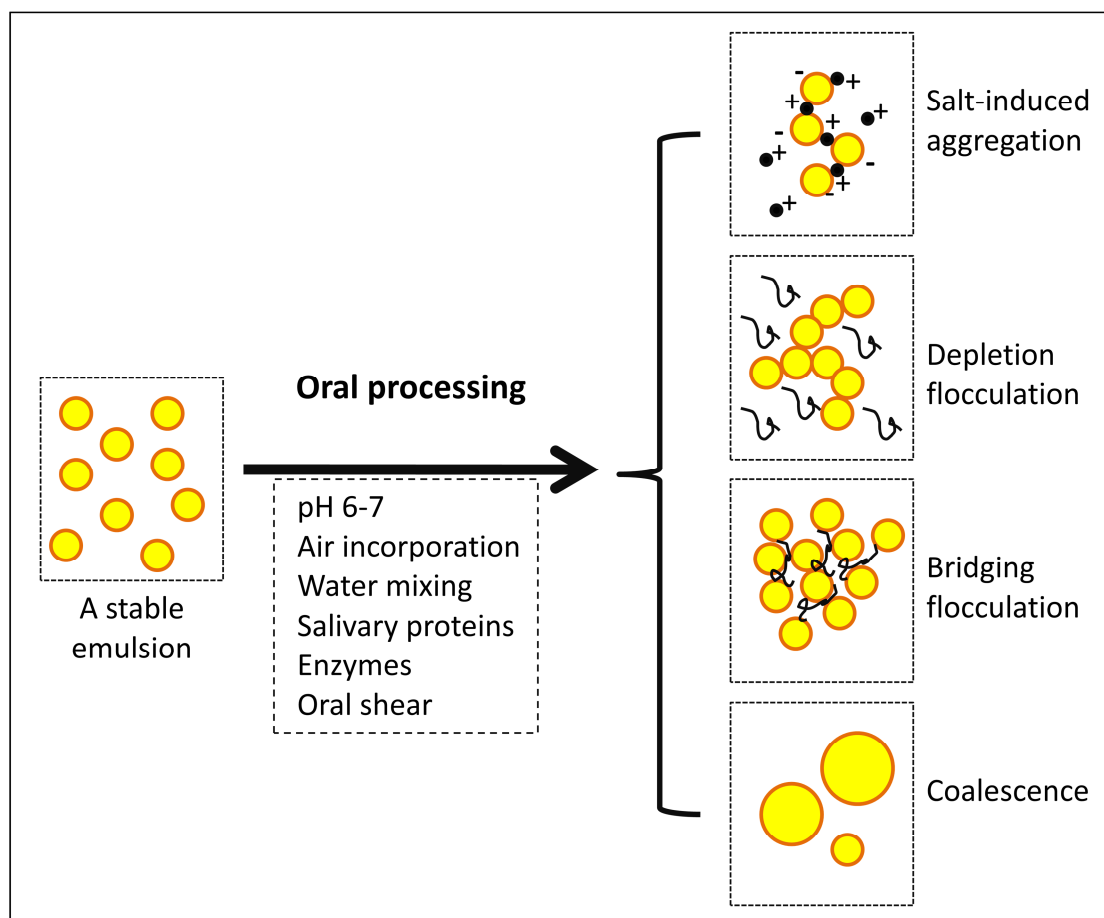


Figure 4. A schematic illustration of the possible destabilization mechanisms of food emulsions after oral processing.

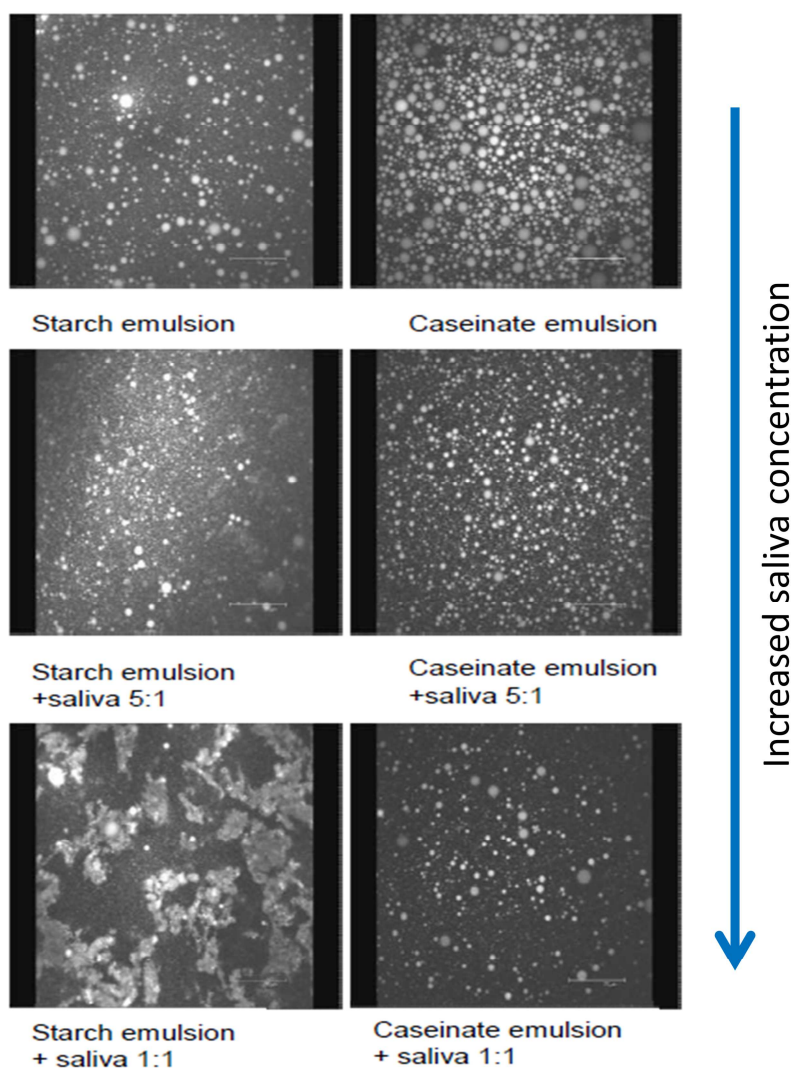


Figure 5. Microscopic observation of food emulsions mixed with fresh human saliva. Emulsions were made with 20 vol. % corn oil and 2 wt. % modified waxy maize starch emulsifier or 1 wt. % sodium caseinate. Initial mean droplet size was 0.3 μm for both emulsion systems. Higher amount of saliva leads to increased aggregation for the starch emulsion, but a caseinate emulsion remains stable at the same condition. Results demonstrate the enzymatic attack to starch emulsions leads to significantly reduced stability.

Highlights

- Food oral processing is a dynamic process of food destruction and sensory perception
- Sensation of food texture and flavor are closely related to how a food is broken down inside the mouth
- Food oral destruction could be controlled by mechanisms of mechanical size reduction, colloidal destabilisation, and enzymatic interactions
- Different mechanisms of food oral destruction imply different oral experience