

Manuscript Number: FOODRES-D-17-02596R2

Title: Relating texture perception of cooked ham to the bolus evolution in the mouth

Article Type: SI: 5th ICFD

Keywords: Cooked ham; Texture; Bolus; Oral Processing

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Manuscript Region of Origin: SPAIN

**Abstract:** The aim of the present study was to characterize the dynamics of the bolus formation that take place during mastication of commercial cooked ham samples. In addition, the relationships between these properties and texture perception were studied. Five commercial samples which presented different mechanical properties and moisture contents were studied. Ten participants were asked to chew the cooked ham samples normally and to expectorate the bolus after different chewing periods. Oral activity measurements (chewing time and number of chewing strokes), moisture content, saliva uptake and particle size distribution in the boluses were obtained. Seventeen participants evaluated the sensory perceptions generated over the sample consumption time, using the Temporal Check-All-That-Apply (TCATA) method. The results revealed that the duration of mastication and number of chewing cycles through to swallowing varied significantly among the cooked ham samples and were mainly related to instrumental texture parameters. The pattern of fragmentation under mastication also varied greatly between samples. Sensations of softness and hardness during ham consumption were again linked to instrumental texture parameters (TPA hardness, TPA chewiness and shear force). The perception of fibrousness was related to the degree of fragmentation of the ham in the mouth, and juiciness seemed to be related to the amount of saliva taken up by the product.

1 **Relating texture perception of cooked ham to the bolus evolution in the mouth**

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14 **Abstract**

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16 that take place during mastication of commercial cooked ham samples. In addition, the  
17 relationships between these properties and texture perception were studied. Five  
18 commercial samples which presented different mechanical properties and moisture  
19 contents were studied. Ten participants were asked to chew the cooked ham samples  
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28 mastication also varied greatly between samples. Sensations of softness and hardness  
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30 hardness, TPA chewiness and shear force). The perception of fibrousness was related to  
31 the degree of fragmentation of the ham in the mouth, and juiciness seemed to be related  
32 to the amount of saliva taken up by the product.

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## 35 **1 Introduction**

36 Eating food involves different oral processes, such as comminution, insalivation, and  
37 mixing, to form a well-lubricated and cohesive bolus that can be swallowed safely and  
38 comfortably. During this process, food products undergo a series of changes, which  
39 determine their further behaviour in the digestive tract. In addition, sensory perception  
40 of food occurs during this step. The characterization of bolus properties at different  
41 stages of eating or just before swallowing can provide insights into the relation between  
42 food structure and the dynamics of texture perception in the mouth (Tournier et al.,  
43 2017). These stages/levels of transformation are complex and challenging to capture and  
44 measure (Stokes, Boehm, & Baier, 2013); knowledge of them can be useful for  
45 designing products with tailored sensory profiles.

46 Approaches have been developed to analyse the properties of the bolus, obtained either  
47 in vivo or in vitro. They are mainly based on measuring bolus water content, bolus  
48 rheology, or bolus particle size (Panouillé, Saint-Eve, & Souchon, 2016).

49 Saliva is essential in food bolus formation, acting as an agent that favours bolus  
50 cohesiveness and lubrication, which are key requirements for triggering safe  
51 swallowing. The amount of saliva incorporated into the bolus can determine a number  
52 of bolus characteristics. The amount of saliva (which is usually measured  
53 gravimetrically) varies between individuals and/or according to the food characteristics.  
54 Some of these characteristics are the initial water content, water absorption capacity,  
55 and mechanical properties of the food (Loret et al., 2011; Mioche, Bourdiol, Monier, &  
56 Martin, 2002; Panouillé et al., 2016; Tarrega, Yven, Sémon, & Salles, 2011). Rheology  
57 provides information about the mechanical features of the bolus and has been studied in  
58 products such as cheese (Tarrega et al., 2011), bread, (Jourdren et al., 2016a), breakfast  
59 cereals (Loret et al., 2011) and gels (Devezeaux de Lavergne, van de Velde, van Boekel,  
60 & Stieger, 2015a), all of which, during chewing, form a bolus with a paste-like  
61 consistency that is suitable for evaluation by rheological techniques.

62 The study of the breakdown path and fragmentation of the solid food product bolus is  
63 also relevant. A variety of methods to measure particle size distribution in the bolus  
64 have been applied, including sieving methods (Devezeaux de Lavergne et al., 2015a),  
65 laser diffraction (Hwang et al., 2012), and image analysis (Tournier et al., 2017).  
66 Particle size characterization of the bolus can provide useful information on the  
67 different degrees of in-mouth comminution and agglomeration mechanisms, which are  
68 obviously determined by the food characteristics (Jalabert-Malbos, Mishellany-Dutour,

69 Woda, & Peyron, 2007; Panouillé, 2016). Some studies have been conducted to  
70 compare the breakdown patterns and the particle size distribution at the point of  
71 swallowing of different food products such as jelly, carrot, cheese, and nuts (Chen,  
72 Khandelwal, Liu, & Funami, 2013), bread, cake, peanuts and cheese (Engelen, Fontijn-  
73 tekamp, & van der Bilt, 2005), and peanuts, carrots, olives, mushrooms, egg, ham,  
74 chicken, cheese, and coconut (Jalabert Malbos et al., 2007). Different fragmentation  
75 paths have been observed for different food boluses, which present a wide range of  
76 particle size distributions before swallowing. These differences are mainly related to  
77 certain characteristics, such as water content, hardness, and other mechanical properties  
78 of the different food types.

79 Texture sensations have usually been related to the initial structure and mechanical  
80 properties of food, but in recent years increasing attention has been paid to how this  
81 structure is transformed during food mastication and swallowing and during the in-  
82 mouth cleaning procedures after swallowing. This knowledge can explain the sensory  
83 perception of some specific texture attributes (Foegeding, Vinyard, Essick, Guest, &  
84 Campbell, 2015; Morell, Hernando, & Fiszman, 2014). A number of studies analyzed the  
85 relationship between sensory perception and oral processing in products such gels  
86 (Devezeaux de Lavergne et al., 2015a), bread (Jourdren, Saint-Eve, Panouillé, Lejeune,  
87 Déléris, & Souchon, 2016b) and sausages (Devezeaux de Lavergne, Derks, Ketel, de  
88 Wijk & Stieger, 2015b) using Temporal Dominance of Sensations (TDS) for measuring  
89 sensory perception. This technique registers the sensations that are dominant along the  
90 time of product consumption. The TDS sensory trajectories of model gels were related  
91 to the properties of bolus at different stages of mastication (Devezeaux de Lavergne et  
92 al., 2015a). Firmness sensation, dominant at the beginning of gel consumption, was  
93 correlated to bolus hardness and flowability. Elasticity and stickiness, in the middle of  
94 eating sequence, were correlated with gel bolus resilience and adhesiveness. At the end,  
95 creaminess and graininess were related to bolus flowability and number of particles,  
96 respectively. Jourdren et al. (2016b) evaluated in bread the dynamics of texture  
97 perception using TDS and Progressive Profiling (PP). Due to the difficulty of using  
98 TDS data for regression, authors used data from PP technique to model the relation  
99 between the intensity of sensory attributes at three stages of consumption with bolus and  
100 bread properties by means of partial least square regression. Temporal Check-All-That-  
101 Apply (TCATA) is a recently developed technique for evaluating the sensations  
102 perceived during food consumption (Ares et al., 2016). Differently to TDS, it allows

103 selecting several attributes simultaneously without forcing the subject to select only the  
104 dominant one. To our knowledge, there are no studies that relate bolus properties to  
105 sensory perception assessed by TCATA.

106 In the case of meat products like cooked ham, oral processing transformation occurs  
107 through the compression and shear forces generated by chewing and biting, leading to  
108 the formation of a cohesive bolus where saliva is present along with liquid released  
109 from the meat itself (Mioche, Bourdiol, & Monier, 2003; Yven, Culioli, & Mioche,  
110 2005). Texture properties such as juiciness, tenderness and fibrousness are the key  
111 attributes which determine meat product quality and acceptability (Krzywdzińska-  
112 Bartkowiak, Rezler, & Gajewska-Szczerbal, 2016). These sensory features have been  
113 related to the initial structure of the meat tissue (such as connective tissue content and  
114 distribution, muscle fibre diameters, etc.) (Wang et al., 2015). Little information is  
115 available concerning the bolus properties of meat food products with only a few  
116 examples of studies on cooked meat (Mioche et al., 2003; Yven et al., 2005) and on  
117 sausages (Devezeaux de Lavergne et al., 2015b). The latter research team also studied  
118 the relation with the dynamic texture perception of sausages evaluated by TDS and  
119 showed that differences in bolus properties among short and long duration eaters  
120 explained their differences in dynamic texture perception towards the end of  
121 mastication. Differences in juiciness, stickiness and graininess between the two groups  
122 of participants were related to the observed differences in the bolus properties at  
123 swallowing. Our hypothesis is that differences in texture perception between different  
124 samples of a meat product could also be explained by the properties of bolus during  
125 eating.

126 Thus, it could be of great interest to study a processed meat product such as cooked ham  
127 in order to establish the links between in-mouth sensory perceptions and the evolution  
128 of properties of the bolus at different mastication stages.

129 The aims of the present study were 1) to characterize the bolus properties during  
130 mastication of commercial cooked ham samples, and, 2) to relate these properties to  
131 perceptions of the ham's texture.

132

## 133 **2 Materials and methods**

### 134 **2.1 Samples**

135 Five commercial cooked pork ham products (A, B, C, D, and E) were used in the  
136 present study. The samples were bought both in block form, for instrumental texture

137 analysis, and sliced (2 mm thick) for the other analyses. The lists of ingredients on the  
138 label of each product are shown in Table 1. Sample A was a cooked pork luncheon meat  
139 with 55% pork, whereas the rest of the cooked ham products contained at least 82%  
140 pork. The sample E label included the claim “reduced salt content” and the ham  
141 contained 21% to 40% less salt than the rest of the samples. The samples were stored at  
142 -20 °C and thawed at 4 °C one day prior to the analyses.

143

## 144 **2.2 Instrumental texture of ham samples**

145 Ham sample blocks were cut into cylinders (20-mm height, 20-mm diameter) and kept  
146 at 4 °C for 24 h before applying Texture Profile Analysis (TPA) and Warner-Bratzler  
147 shear tests.

148 Both tests were conducted with a TA-XT.plus Texture Analyser equipped with Texture  
149 Exponent version 6.0 software (Stable Microsystems, Godalming, UK). Six replications  
150 of both methods were conducted for each sample.

151 TPA was performed using a 75-mm diameter flat aluminium disk probe (SMS P/75) at a  
152 test speed of 1 mm/s up to 20 % compression of the initial height. From the force-time  
153 curves, hardness (N) and chewiness (N) were obtained.

154 The Warner-Bratzler blade was used with a slotted blade insert in the HDP/90 Heavy  
155 Duty Platform. The samples were cut with the blade perpendicular to the muscle fibres,  
156 using a speed of 2 mm/s and a blade displacement of 40 mm in order to cut all the way  
157 through the sample. The shear force was determined as the maximum force (N).

158

## 159 **2.3 Moisture content of ham samples**

160 The moisture content of the samples was determined by a gravimetric method,  
161 according to standard 950.46 to determine moisture in meat (AOAC, 1997).  
162 Approximately 5 g of previously crushed sample were weighed, thoroughly mixed with  
163 10 g of sea sand and dried to a constant weight in an oven at 105 °C. The moisture  
164 content was expressed as g of water/100g sample (wet basis). The analyses were  
165 performed in triplicate on each sample.

166

## 167 **2.4 Bolus collection procedures**

168 Ten subjects with good dental health status participated in the mastication experiments.  
169 Cooked ham slices (2-mm thick) were cut into rectangular pieces (40 x 10 mm) and  
170 rolled up; the weight of the rolls was about  $7 \pm 1$  g, a normal and comfortable portion

171 size for the participants according to preliminary tests. The samples were identified with  
172 random three-digit codes and were served at 4 °C to the participants. Each participant  
173 was asked to place the entire sample in his/her mouth and chew it as usual but without  
174 swallowing. The participants were asked to spit the bolus out into a sealable plastic cup  
175 after different chewing periods (after 5, 10, and 15 strokes, and after full mastication  
176 when the need to swallow was felt).

177 Over three sessions, one bolus per sample, chewing period and subject was collected for  
178 particle size image analysis. The order of sample presentation and the bolus collection  
179 time were varied randomly across subjects. The collected boluses were stored at 4 °C  
180 before further analysis.

181 In a separate session, additional boluses were obtained to determine the amount of  
182 saliva uptake after 10 chewing strokes and at the end of the mastication. In this session,  
183 oral activity parameters (the chewing time for these two periods and the number of  
184 chews to reach complete mastication) were recorded by the researcher. The subjects had  
185 a 3 min rest and were provided with still mineral water for rinsing between samples.  
186 The 10-stroke and complete chewing rate were calculated.

187

## 188 **2.5 Bolus particle characterization by image analysis**

189 The boluses collected for particle analysis were rinsed with distilled water, filtered (73  
190 g/ m<sup>2</sup> filter paper), and the excess of water after rinsing was left to drain 15 minutes to  
191 avoid water drops over the scanner glass. After that, bolus particles were spread out on a  
192 clean, dry, transparent glass surface (30 x 21 cm). The ham particles were carefully  
193 placed horizontally, separate from one another, and were digitized in TIF format at 600  
194 ppi on a scanner (Canon MP270 model K.10339, NY., USA), using a black background.  
195 The images of the spread-out bolus particles were analysed using Nis-Elements® BR  
196 3.2 software (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan). For this purpose, the sample images were binarized  
197 using a histogram-based segmentation process, according to the predefined intensity  
198 threshold value. All the objects were checked and any unsuitable artefact (fibres and  
199 particles touching the frame) were excluded from the evaluation. The particle size  
200 distribution, number of particles, and median particle area (a50), which is the particle  
201 area corresponding to 50% of total area of the bolus particles at the different mastication  
202 times were calculated.

203

## 204 **2.6 Water content of boluses**



205 The water content of each bolus was determined immediately after collection to prevent  
206 evaporation losses. The method employed for this determination was the same as  
207 described for the cooked ham samples in section 2.3. The saliva uptake was calculated  
208 by subtracting the water content of the ham sample (%) from the water content of the  
209 expectorated bolus (%), assuming that water content gain was only due to saliva uptake.

210

## 211 **2.7 Sensory evaluation**

212 The sensory perceptions during consumption of the five ham samples were evaluated  
213 using the Temporal Check-All-That-Apply (TCATA) method with the fading option.  
214 TCATA is a temporal sensory method for characterizing dynamic product properties;  
215 the subjects have a list of terms and select the attributes they consider applicable to  
216 describe the sensations they perceive (Ares et al., 2016). In the TCATA Fading variant  
217 term un-selection is automatic and progressive over a predefined duration of few  
218 seconds, so when participants consider that a term is still perceived after it being  
219 automatically unselected, they have to select it again. In this work, a fading time of 4 s  
220 was employed.

221 Seventeen subjects (including the ten subjects who participated in the bolus collection  
222 experiment) performed the sensory evaluation of the samples. Four training sessions of  
223 30 min each were conducted with the participants to generate and select the most  
224 representative sensory attributes and to familiarize them with the methodology. The  
225 attributes selected were salty, smoked flavour, ham flavour, soft, hard, fibrous, and  
226 juicy. The serving size and sample presentation were as described in section 2.4.

227 For each sample, the participants registered the sensations perceived during  
228 consumption using the TCATA test. They were asked to place the whole sample in their  
229 mouths and simultaneously click the “start” button and start chewing. During the  
230 consumption time they had to select (and re-select if necessary) all the terms that  
231 described the sensations they perceived at each moment of the evaluation and to click  
232 the “stop” button when they did not perceive any further sensation. A maximum test  
233 duration time of 40 s was established. The time each panellist took to complete the task  
234 was recorded for each sample, as well as the duration of each attribute selected during  
235 the evaluation. Between samples, the participants were asked to clean their palates with  
236 still mineral water. Three replicate evaluations per sample were carried out in three  
237 different sessions. The order of sample presentation and the order of attributes in the  
238 TCATA list were varied among the subjects, following a Williams Latin square design,

239 but for each participant the list of attributes was kept in the same order for all the  
240 samples. Sensory evaluation took place in standard sensory booths designed in  
241 accordance with ISO 8589 (ISO, 2007), under artificial daylight and temperature control  
242 (22 °C). The data collection and analysis were carried out using Compusense Cloud  
243 (Compusense Inc., Guelph, Canada).

244

## 245 **2.8 Data analysis**

### 246 **2.8.1 Instrumental data**

247 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to test for significant  
248 differences between the instrumental texture parameters and mean moisture values of  
249 the different ham samples. A mixed analysis of variance (ANOVA), considering sample  
250 and subject (random), was conducted on the oral activity values (chewing rate and time  
251 and number of strokes). A mixed ANOVA considering sample, chewing period and  
252 subject (random) and the interaction of sample x chewing was performed on the bolus  
253 particle characterization data (number of total particles and median particle area (a50)  
254 (area at 50%). The significance of the differences between average values was  
255 determined by the Tukey test ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ). Additionally, a principal component analysis  
256 (PCA) was run to analyse the variability in instrumental texture parameters of cooked  
257 ham samples, oral activity and bolus properties values. These analyses were performed  
258 with XLSTAT statistical software (version 2016, Microsoft Excel®, Adinsoft, Paris,  
259 France).

260

### 261 **2.8.2 Sensory data**

262 The terms each participant selected for each sample throughout the evaluation were  
263 obtained every 1 s. For each sample, the aggregated data across all participants and  
264 replicates were represented using line plots. The Fisher-Irwin test (Fisher, 1935; Irwin,  
265 1935) was used to assess the differences in attributes between each sample and the  
266 average for the rest of the samples. When the attribute citation proportions differed  
267 significantly from the other products, the differences were highlighted on the TCATA  
268 curves at the relevant time segments. Comparisons were made at two-sided level 5%.  
269 The temporal sensory data analyses were carried out using R package version 3.3.2 (R  
270 Core Team, 2016) with the tempR package (Castura, 2016). TCATA trajectories were  
271 obtained by applying Correspondance Analysis to citation frequency of an attribute per

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272 sample at specific time slices (every 4 s). XLSTAT statistical software (version 2016,  
273 Microsoft Excel®, Adinsoft, Paris, France) was used.

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### 275 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 276 **3.1 Initial sample characterization**

277 As shown in Table 2, the products presented significant ( $\alpha=0.05$ ) differences in mean  
278 instrumental texture parameter and water content values. Sample B exhibited higher  
279 hardness, chewiness and shear force values than the rest of the samples, whereas  
280 samples A and E showed the lowest values for these parameters. Sample A presented  
281 the lowest water content and samples D and E the highest amount of water.

282

#### 283 **3.2. Oral activity and water content**

284 The times and chewing rates during the two mastication tasks (at 10 strokes and at end  
285 of mastication) in Table 3. The chewing rate for the 10-strokes task varied significantly  
286 among samples ( $F=3.75$ ,  $p=0.012$ ) and was significantly lower for sample D than for the  
287 rest, indicating that at the beginning of mastication the participants chewed this sample  
288 more slowly than the others, probably due to more difficult or complex management of  
289 this sample in the mouth. However, the chewing rate for the total period of consumption  
290 did not vary significantly among the samples ( $F= 0.60$ ,  $p=0.67$ ), indicating that in  
291 general the participants masticated the samples at a similar rate, independently of their  
292 texture.

293 The duration and number of strokes until swallowing varied significantly among the  
294 ham samples ( $F= 4.62$ ,  $p=0.004$  and  $F=4.13$ ,  $p=0.007$ , respectively). A shorter  
295 mastication time and a lower number of chewing strokes were observed for samples A  
296 and E, which exhibited the lowest values for TPA hardness and chewiness and for shear  
297 force. Samples D and B displayed longer chewing times and numbers of strokes,  
298 although the values were only significantly higher than the rest for sample D, and not  
299 for sample B despite its being the hardest sample according to the instrumental texture  
300 tests. The influence of hardness on oral activity parameters such as masticatory duration  
301 and strokes has been described previously in the literature (Çakir et al., 2012; Foegeding  
302 et al., 2015; Jalabert Malbos et al., 2007; Peyron, Lassauzay, & Woda, 2002).

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304 The water content of the boluses increased during chewing, as expected, and in general,  
305 at the end of mastication all the boluses had reached similar moisture values (78-80%),  
306 which indicates that in order to form a cohesive and swallowable bolus, insalivation  
307 compensated in part for the initial differences in water content of the ham samples.  
308 Similarly, Loret et al. (2011) found that the different initial water content of breakfast  
309 cereals did not influence the amount of moisture at the swallowing point. In the present  
310 study, the changes in water content were attributed to saliva incorporation, although  
311 according to some authors some juice released from the meat matrix could also be  
312 considered (Mioche et al., 2002). Sample A registered a significantly larger amount of  
313 saliva incorporation in the bolus at the point of swallowing compared with the other  
314 samples, probably because of differences in composition. Product A, commercially  
315 known as “pork luncheon meat”, contains 55% pork meat and potato starch, among  
316 other ingredients, whereas the rest of the cooked ham products evaluated in the present  
317 study had a pork content of at least 82% and no addition of starch (Table 1). The fact  
318 that more saliva was retained by sample A could be explained by the water absorption  
319 capacity of the starch, which, indeed, is used by the industry to increase water retention  
320 in meat products (Toldrá, Mora, & Flores, 2010).

### 322 **3.3. Particle size distribution in bolus obtained *in vivo***

323 During chewing, the ham material was fragmented until it was transformed into a bolus  
324 ready to swallow. In order to characterize this fragmentation, the changes in the size and  
325 number of particles were studied by analysing the scanned images. As an example,  
326 Figure 1 shows the binarized images of sample C and D boluses expectorated by one of  
327 the participants after 5 and 15 chewing strokes. From each image, the percentage of the  
328 area occupied by particles of different size ranges was calculated (Figure 2). As  
329 expected, the percentage of large particles decreased and the percentage of small  
330 particles increased over the chewing process. In general, at 5 strokes the boluses mainly  
331 presented particles larger than 100 mm<sup>2</sup>. At the end of mastication, particle sizes  
332 between 10 and 50 mm<sup>2</sup> constituted the most abundant fraction. The pattern of particle  
333 size reduction during chewing varied among the samples. Sample C presented the  
334 highest number of small particles (1-50mm<sup>2</sup>) from the beginning, and a rapid and  
335 intense fragmentation as chewing progressed. Samples D and E presented slower  
336 fragmentation, as the percentage of large particles remained higher than for the rest of  
337 the samples. At the swallowing point, all the boluses presented under 18% of the area

1 338 occupied by big particles ( $>100 \text{ mm}^2$ ) and at least 55% of the area occupied by particles  
2 339 smaller than  $50 \text{ mm}^2$ . To compare the degree of fragmentation among samples, the  
3 340 number of ham particles and the median particle area ( $a_{50}$ , in  $\text{mm}^2$ ) were obtained  
4 341 (Figure 3). In the literature, the particle size distribution has commonly been shown as  
5 342 the median particle diameter ( $d_{50}$ , in mm, which corresponds to the length at 50% of  
6 343 cumulative mass) when measurements have been performed by sieving. In the present  
7 344 study, image analysis gave the particle size in units of area, and the median area ( $a_{50}$ ) is  
8 345 the particle area corresponding to 50% of cumulative area. **Both number of particles and**  
9 346 **median particle area ( $a_{50}$ ) significantly varied between samples ( $F=6.4$ ,  $p<0.001$  and**  
10 347  **$F=28.60$ ,  $p<0.001$  respectively) and chewing strokes ( $F=23.8$ ,  $p<0.001$  and  $F=254.7$ ,**  
11 348  **$p<0.001$ , respectively). As expected, the number of particles in the bolus increased with**  
12 349 **the number of chewing strokes. The sample C boluses showed the highest number of**  
13 350 **particles in all the chewing periods, indicating a higher degree of fragmentation.**  
14 351 **Likewise, product A also exhibited an intense and rapid fragmentation pattern, but only**  
15 352 **at the initial chewing times (5 and 10 strokes), after which it slowed down significantly.**  
16 353 **The number of particles was lower for sample D, especially at the beginning of**  
17 354 **consumption (5 and 10 strokes).**  
18 355 **The median particle area found in the boluses was lower for sample C, which is**  
19 356 **consistent with a high degree of fragmentation. The particles in the sample D and E**  
20 357 **boluses presented higher median area ( $a_{50}$ ) values, indicating that there was less**  
21 358 **fragmentation of these samples, and even at the swallowing point the particles were**  
22 359 **bigger than in the rest of the samples. Previous studies comparing different food**  
23 360 **categories have shown that differences in bolus particle size at the swallowing point are**  
24 361 **mainly related to differences in the hardness of the food product, with harder foods**  
25 362 **presenting smaller particles (Peyron et al., 2002, Jalabert-Malbos et al., 2007; Chen et**  
26 363 **al., 2013). In the present study, food samples from the same category were compared**  
27 364 **and the differences in particle size distribution in the boluses at swallowing point, as**  
28 365 **observed in Figure 2, were not related to the hardness of the samples but to the**  
29 366 **fragmentation properties of the product itself. The same pattern was observed when**  
30 367 **considering the median particle area values of the boluses at swallowing point, although**  
31 368 **the differences among samples were not significant ( $\alpha=0.05$ ).**  
32 369 **A PCA was carried out to summarize the variations between samples regarding their**  
33 370 **instrumental texture, oral activity and bolus particle size distribution and moisture**  
34 371 **(Figure 4). The two first components explained 81.6% of the variability. First**

372 component separates sample C on the left, because presented bolus with high number of  
373 particles of small size and sample D on the right that presented bolus with lower number  
374 of particles and bigger size. The second component separates on the top sample B (with  
375 high hardness, chewing and shear force values) that needed more chewing strokes and a  
376 longer chewing time, from samples A and E with low values for these parameters.  
377 Sample A on the down left side of the map was differentiated from the rest of the  
378 samples as it presented a higher saliva uptake.

379

### 380 **3.4 Sensory sensations perceived during ham consumption**

381 The TCATA curves, presented in Figure 5, show the proportion of citations that each  
382 attribute received at each moment of consumption of each ham sample. The temporal  
383 profiles were very different among samples. A highlighted line (thicker trace) indicates  
384 that for this sample the proportion of citations of the attribute differed significantly  
385 (higher or lower) from its average of citations for the rest of the samples. Sample A was  
386 mainly characterised by the attributes *soft* and *juicy*, which appeared at the beginning of  
387 consumption, with maximum citation frequencies at 5 s and 8 s, respectively. During  
388 most of the consumption time, the citation frequencies of these two attributes were  
389 significantly higher for sample A than for the average of the rest of samples. *Salty taste*  
390 appeared later in this sample and its maximum citation frequency was reached at 11 s, at  
391 which point it was significantly more cited than for the other samples. In contrast,  
392 *hardness* was the sensation used to describe sample B, with maximum citation at 5 s  
393 although throughout the consumption time it was significantly higher for this sample  
394 than for the rest. *Fibrous* and *smoked flavour* were the most representative attributes in  
395 the sensory perception of sample C. *Fibrous* appeared sooner, reached the maximum  
396 citation frequency at 7 s and started to decrease after 16 s, while *smoked flavour* reached  
397 the maximum citation frequency at 11 s and started to decrease after 23 s. For sample D  
398 the attribute curves were quite flat, with no salient attributes except for *saltiness*, the  
399 most-cited attribute from 9 to 30 s. Finally, for sample E the sensation of *softness* was  
400 perceived almost from the beginning (maximum citation frequency at 6 s) and its  
401 citation frequencies were significantly higher than the average for the rest of the  
402 samples. *Ham flavour* was also relevant for this sample, with a maximum citation  
403 frequency at 10 s and significantly higher citation rates than for the rest of the samples.  
404 TCATA trajectories summarizes the dynamic profile of the cooked ham samples  
405 (Figure 6). The two first dimensions explained 74.6% of the total inertia. **The first**

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406 factor explained mainly differences among samples. It separates samples A and E (left  
407 side) described as soft and juicy from samples B and C (right side) being described as  
408 hard, fibrous and with smoked flavour. Differences with time were mainly explained by  
409 the second factor. In general, the trajectory of each sample started on the top of the map  
410 with higher citation proportions of texture sensations (soft for sample A and E, hard for  
411 sample B and fibrous for C), progressing to flavour attributes at the end (ham flavour  
412 and salty for sample A, B, and D and smoke flavour for samples B and C). The length  
413 of trajectories also varied among samples. Sample B exhibited a long trajectory that  
414 started far from the rest and far from its end, because it was the only sample eliciting  
415 hardness sensation which decreased over time. On the contrary, samples D and E  
416 presented shorter and more circular trajectories as sensations registered did not much  
417 differed along product consumption time.

418 The TCATA curves could also be expected to provide information on how similarities  
419 and differences among sample sensory attributes evolved over the consumption time.  
420 However, in the present case the perceptions of the sensory sensations elicited by the  
421 cooked ham were not strongly time-dependent. Especially in the case of texture, the  
422 attributes that characterised a sample remained the same over most of the consumption  
423 period. The low temporal complexity registered in this case could be due to the nature  
424 of the product, which is indeed quite neutral, with no salient attributes and no marked  
425 changes, or to the nature of the TCATA technique and the type of data collected. For  
426 instance, an attribute cited by all the participants, but at different times, could be  
427 overlooked or not be considered. This could be the case of the flavour attributes (except  
428 *smoked* flavour), where the sensations were generally of short duration and the  
429 participants did not select the same attribute at the same time, resulting in flat curves.

### 430 431 **3.5 Relation between texture sensations, bolus properties and oral activity during** 432 **cooked ham consumption**

433 As commented above, each sample elicited one or two texture sensations that clearly  
434 differentiated it from the rest. It could be interesting to analyse which of the samples'  
435 properties are related to these sensations and how they changed during consumption.  
436 *Softness* was mainly associated with low instrumental hardness, chewiness and shear  
437 force values. The participants perceived a soft sensation during consumption of samples  
438 A and E, which were those with the lowest values for these instrumental parameters.  
439 Additionally, the oral activity of the participants seemed to be related to the *softness*

1  
2 440 sensation, as these two samples showed shorter chewing times and a lower number of  
3 441 chewing strokes over the consumption time.

4 442 *Hardness* was associated with high instrumental hardness, chewiness and shear force  
5 443 values. The participants perceived hardness only in sample B, which presented higher  
6 444 values for these parameters. Oral activity was lengthy not only for sample B but also for  
7 445 sample D. Sample D was not perceived as hard, but it showed a low fragmentation rate  
8 446 and probably needed more chewing time and a greater number of strokes to achieve an  
9 447 adequate particle size for swallowing. The chewing time seems to have been related to  
10 448 the hardness of the cooked ham, and also to the breakdown pattern. As Chen et al.  
11 449 (2013) stated different factors are involved in determining a ready-to-swallow bolus:  
12 450 food particle size, texture, the deformability of the food particles, and the amount of  
13 451 fluid (saliva) within the bolus cluster.

14 452 *Fibrousness* concerns the in-mouth perception of ham muscle fibres (Guàrdia, Aguiar,  
15 453 Claret, Arnau, & Guerrero, 2010). From the results of the present study, it seems to be  
16 454 linked to a high degree of fragmentation of ham during chewing. The subjects perceived  
17 455 fibrousness during most of the consumption time of sample C, which showed the  
18 456 highest degree of fragmentation (the highest number of particles). Fibrousness was also  
19 457 significant at certain points of consumption for sample B, which also showed a high  
20 458 degree of fragmentation.

21 459 *Juiciness* initially seemed not to be related to the amount of water in the ham sample,  
22 460 because the juiciness sensation was mainly perceived during consumption of sample A,  
23 461 which presented the lowest initial water content. However, this sample showed the  
24 462 highest saliva uptake values, so it is possible that juiciness may be related to the ability  
25 463 of the ham to retain or incorporate liquid during chewing. Considering the other four  
26 464 samples, the frequency of *juiciness* citation was lower during consumption of samples B  
27 465 and C, which contained a lower amount of water, than it was for samples D and E,  
28 466 which had a higher water content.

29 467 It should be mentioned that the present study is merely an attempt to establish  
30 468 relationships between texture sensations and bolus properties. A **statistical analysis**  
31 469 **could not be applied because of the different procedure in data collection (time vs**  
32 470 **number of strokes) which is limitation of the study. Additionally,** the fact that samples  
33 471 in the study are commercial products, together with the low number of samples, limits  
34 472 the possibility of arriving at stronger associations or conclusions. In commercial cooked  
35 473 ham samples, many factors could affect the product properties (raw meat, brine



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474 composition, mechanical treatment and cooking/cooling treatment, among others)  
475 (Delahunty, McCord, O'Neill, & Morrissey, 1997; Müller, 1989), and therefore the  
476 results. Further investigation with a higher number of experimental samples with  
477 controlled variations would allow more robust conclusions to be reached.

478

#### 479 **4. Conclusions**

480 The dynamics of bolus formation and sensory perception during consumption of  
481 commercial cooked ham products were characterized. Measuring the particle size  
482 distribution of *in vivo* boluses at different chewing times provides valuable information  
483 about the fragmentation patterns of cooked ham in the mouth, which differed among  
484 commercial products.

485 Sensory perceptions of *softness/ hardness* during ham consumption were related to  
486 low/high values, respectively, of instrumental texture parameters (TPA hardness, TPA  
487 chewiness, shear force). The perception of *fibrousness* was related to the degree of  
488 fragmentation of the ham in the mouth. *Juiciness* seemed to be related both to the  
489 amount of saliva incorporated into the bolus and to the initial water content of the  
490 product.

491 The present study is a first attempt to relate dynamically assessed texture sensations  
492 elicited by cooked ham products with the properties of the bolus formed during their  
493 consumption.

494

#### 495 **Acknowledgements**

496 To the Spanish Ministry of the Economy and Competitiveness for financial support  
497 (project AGL-2016-75403-R) and for the Ramon y Cajal contract to author Tarrega  
498 (support of EU FEDER funds). To Generalitat Valenciana (Project Prometeo 2017/189).  
499 To CONACYT of Mexico (fellowship # 214894) and to the Innovatec project (#  
500 233472) for funding the stage of author Peña. To Jose Coll for technical advice on  
501 image analysis. To Mary Georgina Hardinge for assistance in correcting the English  
502 manuscript.

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602 **Table 1.** Ingredients and nutritional facts about the cooked ham products

603

Sample	Ingredients	Nutritional composition (g/100g)			
		Protein	Fat	Carbohydrate	Salt
A	Pork (55%), water, potato starch, salt, milk protein, soy protein, sugar, lactose, corn dextrose, stabilisers (sodium triphosphate, carrageenan), flavourings, flavour enhancer (monosodium glutamate), preservatives (sodium nitrite, antioxidants (sodium erythorbate), colourings (carminic acid).	13	2	9	2
B	Pork (85%), water, salt, lactose, corn dextrose, sugar, spices, stabilisers (sodium triphosphate, carrageenan), flavour enhancer (monosodium glutamate), antioxidants (sodium erythorbate, sodium citrate), preservatives (sodium nitrite).	16.5	1.5	2	2.5
C	Pork (82%), water, salt, corn maltodextrin, lactose, sugar, corn dextrin, flavourings, smoke flavouring, stabilisers (sodium triphosphate, sorbitol, carrageenan), antioxidants (sodium erythorbate, sodium citrate), preservatives (sodium nitrite).	15.5	1.5	2	2
D	Pork (85%), water, salt, dextrose, stabilisers (sodium triphosphate, carrageenan), antioxidants (sodium ascorbate), spices, flavourings, flavour enhancer (monosodium glutamate) preservatives (sodium nitrite).	18.6	2.5	0.9	1.9
E	Pork (85%), water, dextrose, sugar, potassium chloride, sodium chloride, stabilisers (sodium triphosphate, carrageenan, sorbitol), antioxidants (sodium ascorbate, sodium citrate,), preservatives (sodium nitrite).	18.6	2.5	1.1	1.5

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606 **Table 2.** Instrumental texture parameters and moisture content of cooked ham samples

Sample	Hardness (N)	Chewiness (N)	Shear force* (N)	Water content (g/100g)
A	7.23 c	7.11 c	7.48 c	71.73 c
B	12.17 a	11.96 a	16.68 a	74.14 b
C	8.38 bc	8.17 bc	12.01 b	73.36 b
D	9.32 b	8.80 b	11.15 b	76.21 a
E	7.31 c	7.21 c	7.43 c	75.65 a
<i>p value</i>	<i>&lt;0.0001</i>	<i>&lt;0.0001</i>	<i>&lt;0.0001</i>	<i>&lt;0.0001</i>

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 608 Mean values in the same column that do not share letters are significantly different  
 609 ( $\alpha=0.05$ ) according to Tukey's test. Different letters indicate significant differences  
 610 according to Tukey's test ( $\alpha= 0.05$ ).

611 \* Warner Bratzler test

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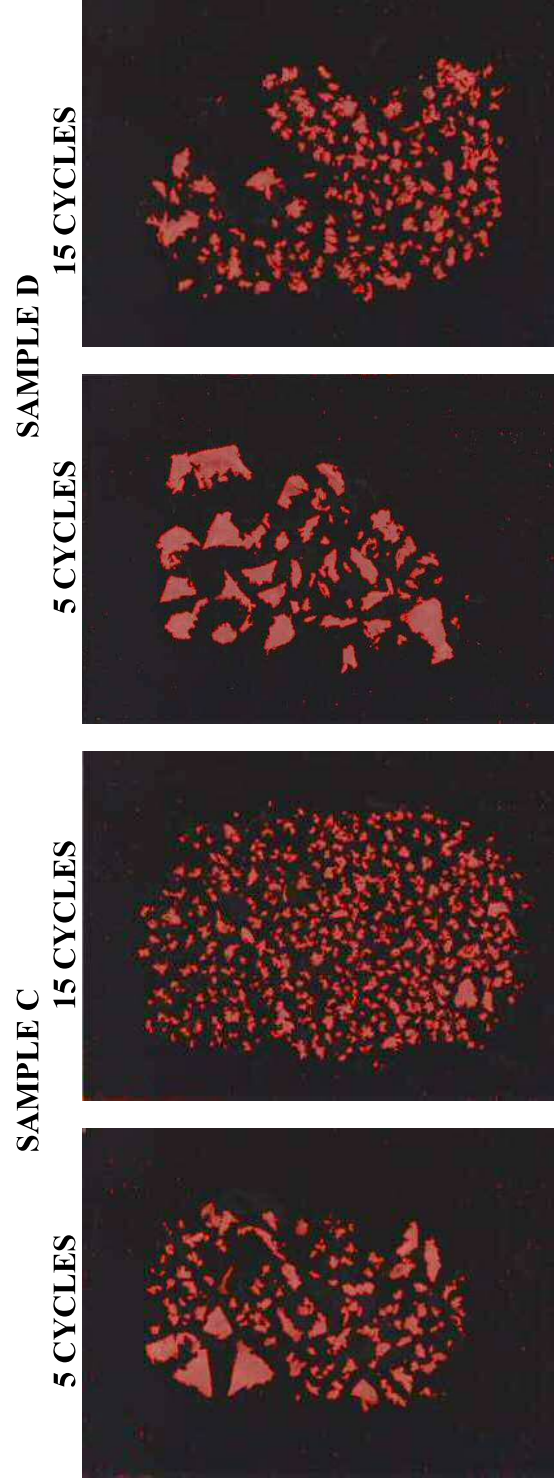
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**Table 3.** Oral activity (chewing rate, time, number of strokes) and bolus moisture (water content and saliva uptake) when eating cooked ham samples.

Sam ple	Oral activity			Bolus moisture			
	10-strokes chewing rate (chews/s)	Total chewing rate (chews/s)	Total chewing time (s)	Total chewing strokes	10-strokes water content (g/100g)	Total water content (g/100g)	Saliva uptake (g/100g)
A	1.2 ab	1.3 a	15.0 b	19.3 b	76.8 b	78.9 ab	7.2 c
B	1.3 a	1.3 a	18.4 ab	22.7 ab	76.4 b	78.9 ab	4.7 b
C	1.3 a	1.3 a	16.4 ab	20.0 ab	75.9 b	77.9 b	4.6 b
D	1.1 b	1.2 a	20.0 a	23.7 a	78.3 a	80.3 a	4.1 ab
E	1.3 a	1.3 a	14.8 b	18.8 b	76.3 b	78.5 b	2.9 a

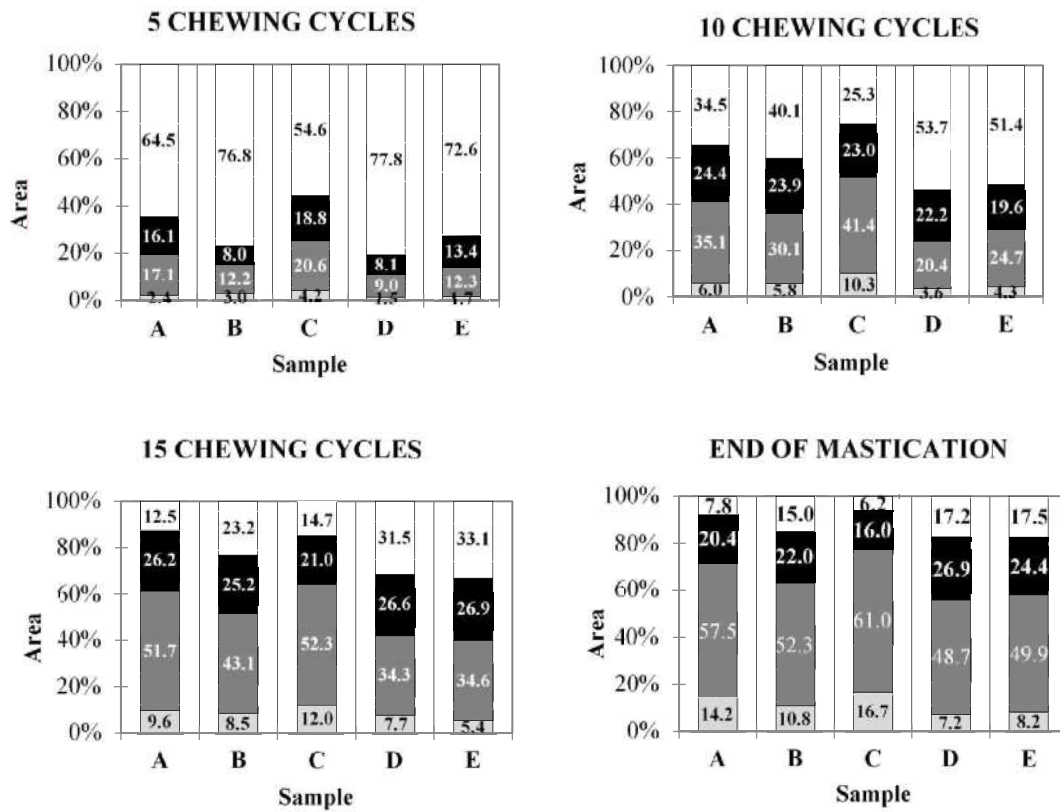
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Letters indicate significant differences. For each parameter, values that do not share letters are significantly different according to Tukey's test ( $\alpha= 0.05$ ).

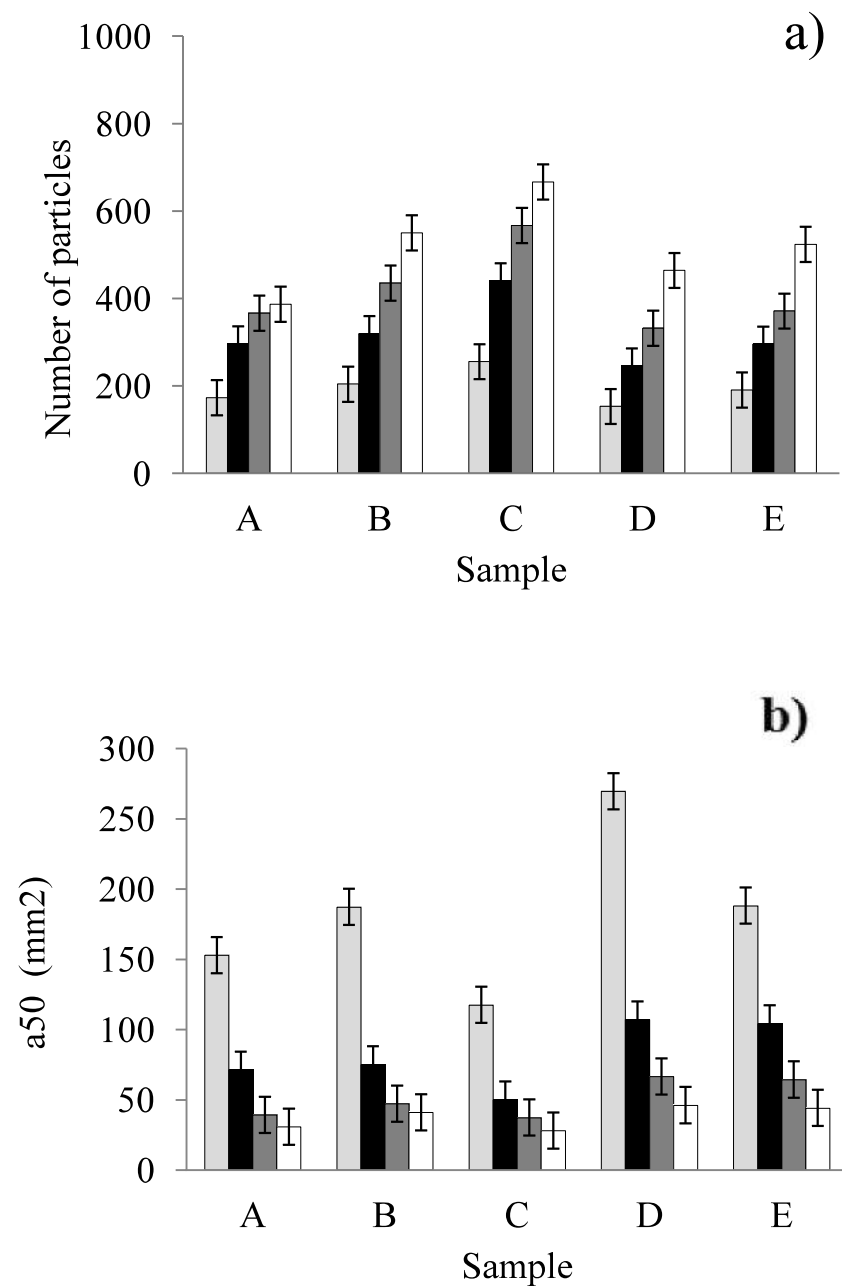


**Figure 1.** Images of scanned boluses corresponding to samples C and D after 5 and 15 chewing strokes, obtained in vivo from one of the subjects.

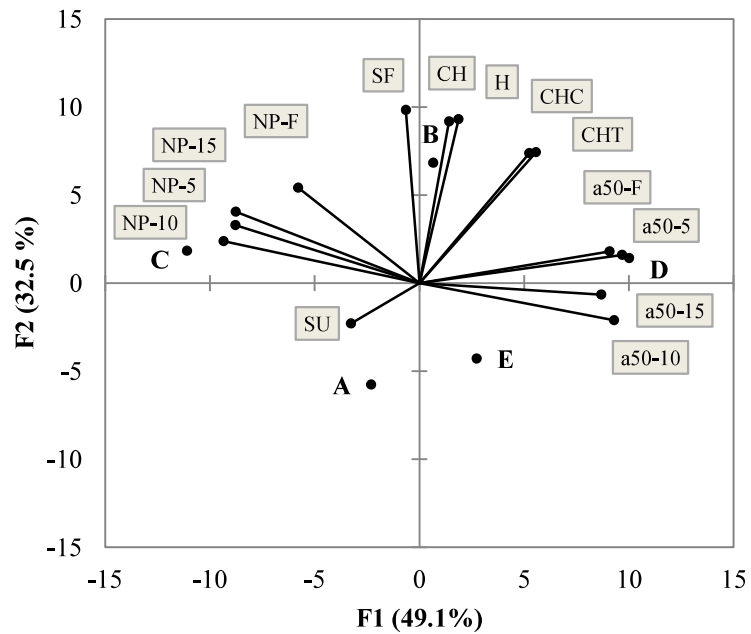




**Figure 2** Percentage of area occupied by particles of size (1-10  $\mu\text{m}^2$ , 10-50  $\mu\text{m}^2$ , 50-100  $\mu\text{m}^2$ , and >100  $\mu\text{m}^2$ ) in the cooked ham bolus samples obtained *in vivo* after 5, 10, 15 chewing cycles and at the end of mastication.

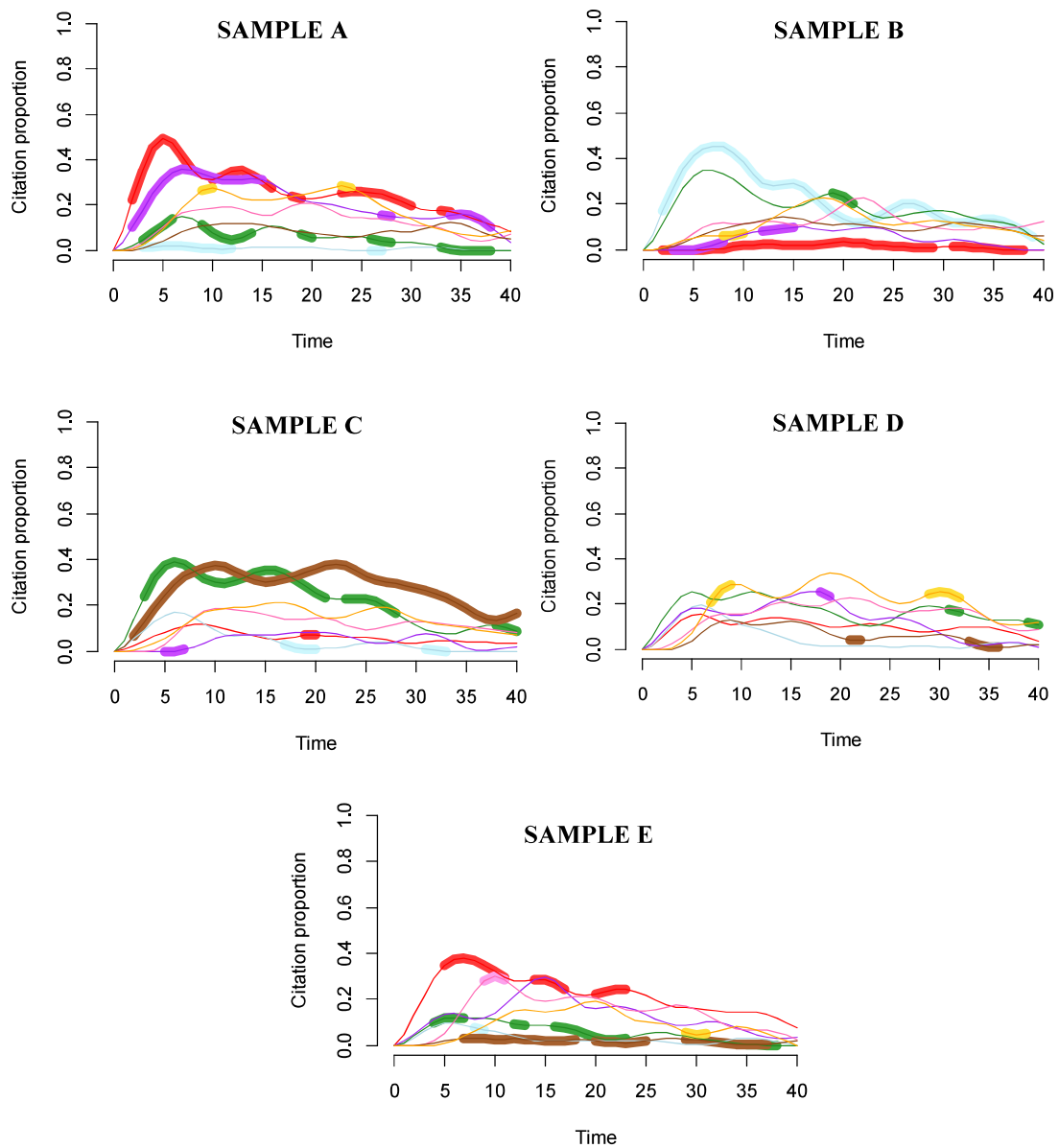


**Figure 3.** Number of particles (a), and median particle area (a50) (b) of cooked ham boluses obtained *in vivo* after 5 (■), 10 (■), 15 (■) chewing cycles and at the end of mastication (□). Error bars indicate the HSD interval according to Tukey's test ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).



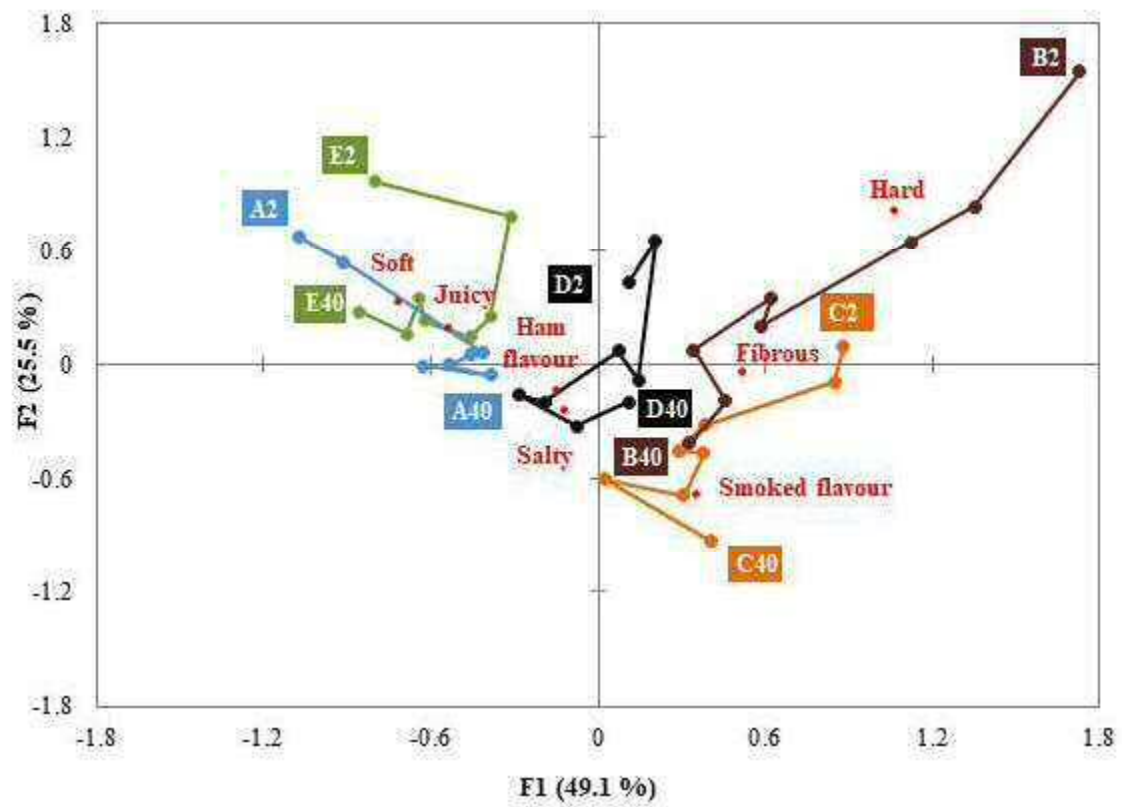
**Figure 4.** PCA plot showing variation in cooked ham products regarding instrumental texture, oral activity and bolus particle size and saliva uptake.

Hardness: H, chewiness: CH, shear force :SF, number of particles at 5, 10, 15 chewing cycles after full mastication: NP-5, NP-10, NP-15, NP-F respectively, median particle area at 5, 10, 15 chewing cycles and after full mastication: a50-5, a50-10, a50-15, a50-F respectively, saliva uptake after full mastication: SU, chewing cycles after full mastication: CHC, total chewing time: CHT.



**Figure 5.** TCATA curves of the attributes (soft —, hard —, juicy —, fibrous —, ham flavour —, smoked flavour —, salty flavour —). Highlighted sections indicate significant differences in the proportion of citations of the attribute at that evaluation time compared to the mean of the values of the rest of the samples. Time is expressed in seconds.

Figure 6



**Figure 6.** Sensory trajectories of cooked ham samples (A to E) from 2s to 40s obtained from Correspondence Analysis of TCATA data.