

Accepted Manuscript

Do rye product structure, product perceptions and oral processing modulate satiety?

Saara Pentikäinen, Nesli Sozer, Johanna Närväinen, Kirsi Sipilä, Syed Ariful Alam, Raija-Liisa Heiniö, Jussi Paananen, Kaisa Poutanen, Marjukka Kolehmainen

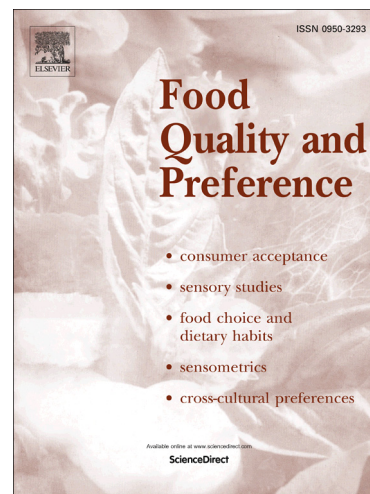
PII: S0950-3293(17)30095-2
DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2017.04.011>
Reference: FQAP 3312

To appear in: *Food Quality and Preference*

Received Date: 20 December 2016
Revised Date: 23 March 2017
Accepted Date: 26 April 2017

Please cite this article as: Pentikäinen, S., Sozer, N., Närväinen, J., Sipilä, K., Ariful Alam, S., Heiniö, R-L., Paananen, J., Poutanen, K., Kolehmainen, M., Do rye product structure, product perceptions and oral processing modulate satiety?, *Food Quality and Preference* (2017), doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2017.04.011>

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.



Do rye product structure, product perceptions and oral processing modulate satiety?

Saara Pentikäinen^{a*}, Nesli Sozer^a, Johanna Närväinen^a, Kirsi Sipilä^{b,c,d,e}, Syed Ariful Alam^a, Raija-Liisa Heiniö^a, Jussi Paananen^f, Kaisa Poutanen^a, Marjukka Kolehmainen^{a,g,h}

^a VTT Technical Research Centre of Finland Ltd, P.O. Box 1000, FI-02044 VTT, Finland
(email: saara.pentikainen@vtt.fi, nesli.sozer@vtt.fi, johanna.narvainen@vtt.fi, ariful.alam@vtt.fi, raija-liisa.heinio@vtt.fi, kaisa.poutanen@vtt.fi, marjukka.kolehmainen@vtt.fi)

^b Institute of Dentistry, University of Eastern Finland, P.O.Box 1627, FI-70211 Kuopio, Finland

^c Oral and Maxillofacial Department, Kuopio University Hospital, Kuopio, Finland

^d Research Unit of Oral Health Sciences, Faculty of Medicine, University of Oulu, Oulu, Finland

^e Oral and Maxillofacial Department, Medical Research Center Oulu, Oulu University Hospital, Oulu, Finland

(email: kirsi.sipila@uef.fi)

^f Bioinformatics Center / Institute of Biomedicine, University of Eastern Finland, P.O. Box 1627, FI-70211 Kuopio, Finland

(email: jussi.paananen@uef.fi)

^g Department of Clinical Nutrition, Institute of Public Health and Clinical Nutrition, University of Eastern Finland, P.O. Box 1627, FI-70211 Kuopio, Finland

^h Kuopio University Hospital, Kuopio, Finland

(email: marjukka.kolehmainen@uef.fi)

*Corresponding author: Saara Pentikäinen (mailing address: VTT Tietotie 2, P.O. Box 1000 02044 VTT, email: saara.pentikainen@vtt.fi, tel.: +358 40 170 8922)

Abstract

Food structure and cephalic phase factors are hypothesized to contribute to postprandial satiety in addition to established food properties such as energy content, energy density, and macronutrient and fibre composition of a preload. This study aimed to evaluate if the structure of rye products has an impact on subjective feelings of satiety, and whether cephalic phase factors including oral processing, satiety expectations and perceived pleasantness modulate the interaction. Four wholegrain rye based samples (extruded flakes and puffs, bread and smoothie) were studied in terms of texture characteristics, *in vivo* oral processing, and expected satiety (n=26) and satiety as well as perceived pleasantness (n=16) (ClinicalTrials.gov number: NCT02554162). The vast textural differences between products were reflected in mastication process, perceived pleasantness and satiety expectations. Extruded products required the most intensive mastication. Rye puffs and rye bread which were characterized by a solid and porous structure, and showed better satiety effect in the early postprandial phase compared to other products. Mastication effort interacted with satiety response. However, the products requiring the highest mastication effort were not the most satiating ones. It seems that there are some food structure related mechanisms that influence both mastication process and postprandial satiety, the mastication process itself not being the mediating factor. Higher palatability seems to weaken postprandial satiety response.

Keywords:

satiety; cross-over; postprandial; food structure; texture; oral processing

1 1 Introduction

2 The feeling of satiety has been proposed to support weight management through various routes such
3 as greater food reward, reduced hunger and better control of energy intake (Hetherington et al.,
4 2013). For instance, the amount and type of dietary fibre in food, macronutrient composition and
5 energy density of food contribute to the modulation of satiety. In addition, cognitive and sensory
6 signals generated before and during eating (cephalic phase) are proposed to influence satiation
7 (intra-meal satiety) and satiety (inter-meal satiety) (Blundell et al., 2010). Cephalic phase responses
8 such as stimulation of hormone and enzyme secretion are hypothesized to enhance nutrient
9 processing and thus to enhance also satiety response (Smeets, Erkner, & De Graaf, 2010).

10 Signals that are generated already during oral processing are needed for optimal appetite regulation,
11 in addition to signals originating from later phases of digestion (Smeets et al., 2010). The
12 importance of oral phase for appetite regulation has been well established in studies where appetite
13 suppression has been incomplete after infusing food directly to stomach. Hogenkamp and Schiöth
14 recently reviewed studies on oral processing of food, satiation and satiety, and concluded that
15 viscosity of food had consistent impact on *ad libitum* food intake (satiation) and that orosensory
16 exposure was the mediating factor between viscosity and satiation (Hogenkamp & Schiöth, 2013).
17 Later, Bolhuis et al. showed that hard foods which were eaten in smaller bites than soft foods and
18 processed longer in mouth, reduced the energy intake during the meal, and that the effect was
19 sustained over the following meal (Bolhuis et al., 2014). They concluded that the differences in oral
20 processing might mediate this effect. Mastication process has also shown to suppress gastric
21 emptying rate (Ohmure et al., 2012).

22 The effects of preload texture and resulting oral processing on postprandial satiety have been
23 investigated in several studies. Energy intake at next meal context is adjusted only partly after a

24 liquid preload while it is fully adjusted after semi-solid or solid preload (Almiron-Roig et al., 2013).
25 This leads to lower overall caloric intake (preload and *ad libitum* meal) after semi-solid or solid
26 preloads compared to liquid preload. This indicates that food texture, at least when liquids are
27 compared to solids or semi-solids, plays a role not only in satiation but also in satiety response.
28 However, the results concerning food textures other than liquids, resulting in varying orosensory
29 exposure, are somewhat inconsistent (Hogenkamp & Schiöth, 2013). Satiety effect of foods with
30 either solid or heterogeneous texture, assumed to induce high orosensory exposure, or
31 corresponding comminuted texture, assumed to induce low orosensory exposure, have been
32 compared by various groups: Mattes et al. found that there were no differences in satiety responses
33 between solid and semi-solid foods (apple vs. apple soup, peanut vs. peanut soup or chicken vs.
34 chicken soup) (Mattes, 2005) whereas later (Flood-Obbagy & Rolls, 2009) a whole apple was
35 concluded to induce satiety more than apple sauce and the whole apple also reduced energy intake
36 in the following meal. Martens et al. showed that solid food (steamed chicken breast) resulted in
37 enhanced satiety response compared to liquefied food (blended steamed chicken breast) (Martens,
38 Lemmens, Born, & Westerterp-Plantenga, 2011) whereas Flood and Rolls showed that there was no
39 difference in satiety response whether soup was offered as separate broth and vegetables versus
40 pureed soup (Flood & Rolls, 2007). Also heterogeneous and homogeneous yoghurts resulted in
41 similar satiety response (Tsuchiya, Almiron-Roig, Lluch, Guyonnet, & Drewnowski, 2006). To
42 summarize, the evidence regarding the importance of food texture and oral processing on satiety is
43 inconsistent. Most of the studies do not report oral processing precisely. The influence of oral
44 processing on appetite has been studied also in experimental settings where the same foods have
45 been eaten varying the number of chews or mastication time as instructed by the researchers. The
46 results of such studies have been inconsistent: some reports indicate that increasing number of
47 chews or mastication time improves satiety but others show no connection (Hogenkamp & Schiöth,
48 2013).

49 Sensory characteristics of foods such as chewiness and saltiness (Forde, van Kuijk, Thaler, de
50 Graaf, & Martin, 2013), anticipated creaminess (McCrickerd, Lensing, & Yeomans, 2015) and
51 thickness and creaminess (Yeomans & Chambers, 2011) have been found to influence on expected
52 satiety. Even expectations about the satiating capacity of foods evoked by visual and other sensory
53 perceptible cues have shown to influence the actual satiety response: In the study of Brunstrom et al
54 participants were shown either a large or a small portion of fruits prior to consuming an equal size
55 fruit smoothie (Brunstrom, Brown, Hinton, Rogers, & Fay, 2011). The participants who saw the
56 larger fruit portion reported higher expectations of satiety and in fact also experienced enhanced
57 satiety for three hours. Liking of food has also been repeatedly shown to influence appetite reflected
58 as an increased intake as palatability increases (Sørensen, Møller, Flint, Martens, & Raben, 2003).
59 However, results concerning the importance of palatability on postprandial satiety remain
60 inconclusive. To summarize, cephalic phase factors including oral processing, perception about
61 pleasantness of food as well as expectations about its satiating capacity may all work together to
62 modulate the satiety response.

63 The current study aimed to evaluate if the structure of rye products influences subjective feelings of
64 satiety, and if cephalic phase factors including oral processing, satiety expectations and evaluated
65 pleasantness are mediating the interaction. The use of rye products as model foods allowed the
66 comparison of extreme food structures with only minor differences in chemical composition.

67

68 2 Materials and Methods

69 2.1 Products and their nutrient contents

70 The test foods were wholegrain rye products representing varying structures; wholegrain sourdough
71 rye bread, extruded wholegrain rye flakes, extruded wholegrain rye puffs and wholegrain rye
72 smoothie (Table 1 and Figure 1). Wheat bread was included as a control product. Wholegrain
73 sourdough rye bread (wholegrain rye flour, water, salt) and refined wheat bread (wheat flour, water,
74 yeast, sugar, rapeseed oil, salt) were commercially available products by local bakery (Emil
75 Halme). Wholegrain rye puffs and flakes were prepared at VTT using whole grain rye flour (Oy
76 Karl Fazer AB/Fazer Mills and Mixes, Lahti, Finland) and salt (0.8%) as ingredients. A twin screw
77 extruder (APV MPF 19/25, Baker Perkins Group Ltd, Peterborough, UK) was used to produce the
78 extrudates with a constant feed rate of 60 g/min and temperature profile of 80-95-110-120 °C
79 (section 1 to die exit) with the screw speed of 350 and 250 rpm for puffs and flakes, respectively.
80 Water was pumped into the extruder barrel in order to obtain desired moisture contents in the
81 extrudates. Extruded products were collected continuously from the exit die (diameter 3 mm) and
82 dried immediately in an oven at 100 °C, 30 min for puffs and 90 min for flakes. Wholegrain rye
83 smoothie was prepared mixing grinded wholegrain rye flakes with blackcurrant juice and letting the
84 mixture stand for 15 minutes resulting in a thick smoothie-like heterogeneous texture. Blackcurrant
85 juice was a commercial product (Marli).

86 2.1.1 Instrumental texture

87 Texture profile analysis was used to extract the primary and secondary mechanical characteristics of
88 breads by using a texture analyser (TA-XT plus Texture Analyser, Stable Micro System,
89 Godalming, Surrey, UK) with a 25-mm diameter cylinder probe (P/25L Lap Perspex), 30-kg load
90 cell, 60% strain on 25-mm thick cylindrical pieces of breads which were cut by the help of a mould.
91 Upper crust was included in the pieces. The acquisition rate was 200 points/s and the test speed was
92 1.7 mm/s. TPA software (Exponent v.6, Stable Micro System, Godalming, Surrey, UK) was used to
93 extract force-deformation curve. Hardness, cohesiveness, chewiness, and adhesiveness were
94 calculated based on force-deformation curve.

95 Textural properties of extruded puffs and flakes were analyzed by the uniaxial compression test
96 using a texture analyser (Texture Analyser TA-HDi, HD3071, Stable Micro Systems, United
97 Kingdom) equipped with a 250 kg load cell and a cylindrical 36 mm aluminium probe using a
98 protocol used by Alam et al. (Alam et al., 2014). Snack samples were prepared by cutting the
99 extruded ribbons to 10 mm height and flakes were analysed as is. The samples (50 replicates for
100 each samples) were deformed at 70% strain with a test speed of 1 mm/s and the acquisition rate 200
101 points/s. Texture Exponent software v.5.1.2.0 (Stable Micro Systems, UK) was used to obtain
102 values of hardness (F_{max}), crispiness work (C_w) and crispiness index (C_i). High crispiness is
103 accompanied by a high C_i and low C_w value, whereas low crispiness corresponds to a low C_i and
104 high C_w value. The analysis was performed using the algorithms described by Alam et al. (Alam et
105 al., 2014).

106 2.1.2 Perceived characteristics

107 All assessors of VTT's internal trained sensory panel (n=12) have passed the basic taste test, the
108 odour test and the colour vision test and trained for sensory profiling. The trained sensory panel was

109 first familiarized with the sensory assessment of diverse cereal samples. The method in sensory
110 profiling was descriptive analysis (Lawless & Heymann, 2010). The vocabulary of the sensory
111 attributes was developed by describing the differences between the samples. The assessors
112 familiarized themselves with the products, discussed and defined the key attributes differentiating
113 the products in a training session aiming to produce the descriptors for the sensory profile. The
114 selected attributes included *colour darkness, rye flavour intensity, flavour intensity, visual porosity,*
115 *hardness, crispiness, crunchiness, crumbliness, moisture, adhesion to teeth and work needed for*
116 *mastication*. In sensory profiling the latter was evaluated according to the instructions: “Masticate
117 the sample using your back teeth until the sample is ready to be swallowed. After that, please
118 evaluate how much work was needed for mastication”. Actual reference samples were used to
119 define the extremes for most of the attributes, and all descriptors were also verbally anchored. All
120 sensory intensities were evaluated using 10 cm scale anchored from “not at all” to “extremely”. All
121 samples were evaluated by sensory profiling in duplicate sessions in two consecutive days by all the
122 panellists. The samples were blind-coded by 3-digit numbers, and the presentation order of the
123 samples was randomized within each test day. Water was served to the assessors for cleaning the
124 palate between the different samples. The scores were recorded and collected using computerized
125 software (Compusense Five, Ver 5.4.15, CSA, Computerized Sensory Analysis System,
126 Compusense Inc., Guelph, ON, Canada).

127 2.2 Participants

128 Participants (n=26) were recruited through public advertisements and email advertisements in
129 Otaniemi campus area nearby the study location. The eligibility of the volunteers was checked
130 beforehand through screening questionnaire. The criteria were: female gender, age 20-40 years,
131 BMI between 18.5 and 27 kg/m², stable body weight (\pm 4 kg during the previous year) and a habit
132 of eating breakfast. Smokers, pregnant or lactating women, persons with missing teeth (except 3rd

133 molars) or with diagnosed acute temporomandibular disorders (TMD) (self-reported) and persons
134 with dietary restrictions possibly affecting the study participation (celiac disease, allergies or
135 aversions to cereal foods or high carbohydrate foods) or abnormal eating behaviour according
136 Eating Disorder Diagnostic Scale (EDDS) were excluded. Young healthy females were recruited to
137 diminish the variation in mastication pattern. The interested volunteers fulfilling the inclusion
138 criteria were invited to an info visit. Volunteers deciding to participate signed an informed consent
139 form. The whole study population (n=26) participated in mastication trial and a subgroup of 20
140 participants started the satiety trial. The both trials were conducted during October-December 2015.
141 Sixteen of these participants completed all the study visits and four discontinued due to personal
142 reasons. Characteristics of the participants are described in Table 2. Two participants were older
143 than 40 years (48 and 50 years). However, since they fulfilled all the other inclusion criteria they
144 were included in the study, as the number of recruited participants was not as high as desired. The
145 participants were given one movie ticket per study visit to compensate their time and effort. The
146 study protocol was approved by the Coordinating Research Ethics Committee of the Helsinki and
147 Uusimaa Hospital District. The study was conducted according to the ethical principles of good
148 research and clinical practice described in the declaration of Helsinki. The trial was registered in
149 ClinicalTrials.gov (NCT02554162).

150 2.3 Mastication trial

151 2.3.1 Procedure

152 The mastication trial followed a cross-over, single-blind design, in which all participants masticated
153 the five samples in random order. The participants were instructed to eat a breakfast 1 - 1.5 hours
154 before the visit scheduled between 8 - 11 a.m. The study procedure was first practiced with a test
155 sample and the coded food samples were served to the participant in random order, each sample in
156 three portions. Portion sizes represented a mouthful of food: 2 x 2 x 2 cm-size cube of bread

157 (including crust in one side) (approx. 7.7 g), one table spoon of flakes (3.5 g), two 2 cm pieces of
158 puffs (1 g) and one table spoon of rye smoothie (16.8 g). The participants were instructed to
159 masticate each portion of sample until subjective swallowing point and then expectorate the bolus.
160 The three portions of each sample were masticated in a row and there was break between different
161 samples during which mouth was rinsed with water and the expected satiety rating for each sample
162 was evaluated. As a final sample, the participant was served three portions (=piece) of chewing gum
163 and she was asked to chew each piece for 20 seconds. Electromyography measures electrical
164 activity of the facial muscles and even if the measured voltage is linearly relative to the force
165 generated by the muscle, the calibration varies between different subjects and even the four muscles
166 monitored. Thus, to get an indication of the relative force needed to masticate each of the samples
167 individual data on oral processing of chewing gum was used as a reference for force parameters.
168 The mastication trial visits were video recorded to support data analysis.

169 2.3.2 Electromyography (EMG) measurements

170 The mastication process was characterised by measuring the electrical activity of masticatory
171 muscles by EMG equipment (Mega Electronics, Kuopio, Finland) using disposable dermal
172 Ag/AgCl electrodes. The skin was cleaned with 70 % ethanol alcohol, masseter and temporal
173 muscles were identified by touch when the participant gritted her teeth and bipolar electrodes were
174 placed on them on both sides of the face. A reference electrode was placed on cervical vertebra.
175 EMG activity was measured continuously throughout the whole mastication trial. The data block
176 starts and ends for each chewing period were both marked in the EMG acquisition system (Figure
177 2A) and recorded manually. From the EMG time series, the onset, duration and amplitude of each
178 chew were extracted by applying chemometric techniques for the elimination of high frequencies
179 and background fluctuations as in the study of Pentikäinen et al. (Pentikäinen, Sozer, et al., 2014)
180 (Figure 2B). Chewing force and work parameters were normalized to chewing process of chewing

181 gum. As a result of data processing and analyses, the duration of oral processing, duration of EMG
182 activity, duty cycle (duration of EMG activity/duration of chewing), number of chews, relative
183 chewing force (highest EMG amplitude for the product normalized to highest EMG amplitude for
184 chewing gum) and relative work (time of EMG activity x relative chewing force) were calculated
185 for each test food. All analysis of EMG data was done using Matlab® (The MathWorks Inc.,
186 Natick, MA, USA). The values for duration of EMG activity, duration of oral processing, number of
187 chews and relative work were extrapolated to represent the amount served later in the satiety trial.
188 The coefficients were determined by dividing the weight of the whole portion served in the satiety
189 trial by the weight of one mouthful of food used in mastication trial. Coefficients for rye bread, rye
190 smoothie, rye puffs, rye flakes and wheat bread were 12.4; 32.8; 58; 16.9 and 19.2, respectively.

191 2.3.3 Expected satiety

192 The participant was asked to evaluate the satiating capacity of the samples before and after
193 mastication of each study product. This part was included in order to find out whether food
194 structure evaluated based on visual cue (picture) or with both visual and sensory cues (mastication)
195 influences anticipated satiety effect. The evaluation was based on a photograph showing a portion
196 including a fixed amount of sample and a glass of juice. The portions in photographs were the same
197 size as the portions that were later used in the satiety trial. The questions, as translated from Finnish
198 were: (before mastication) “Imagine that you would eat the whole portion of food shown in the
199 photograph. Evaluate how satiated you would feel after one hour.” and (after mastication) “You
200 have just masticated the product shown in the photograph. Imagine that you would eat the whole
201 portion of food shown in the photograph. Evaluate how satiated you would feel after one hour”. The
202 evaluation was done on 10 cm visual analogue scale (VAS) anchored with 0=not at all satiated,
203 10=extremely satiated.

204 2.4 Satiety trial

205 The satiety trial followed a cross-over, single-blind design, in which all participants tested the five
206 study portions in random order, each portion on a separate day. There were at least two washout
207 days between two consecutive study visits. The participants were instructed to follow their usual
208 eating and exercise habits during the day preceding each study visit and to fast at least 10 hours
209 before arriving to the study visit.

210 The study visits started in the morning between 7 and 9 a.m. The test portion sizes were matched by
211 energy content each portion providing 380 kcal of energy (Table 1). The portions consisted of
212 blackcurrant juice (5 dl) and of either 95 g of wholegrain (WG) sourdough rye bread, 59 g of WG
213 rye flakes, 58 g of WG rye puffs or 75 g refined wheat bread. WG rye smoothie was prepared by
214 mixing 59 g of grinded rye flakes in 5 dl blackcurrant juice. The participants were instructed to eat
215 and drink the test products at their own pace but not to spend more than 20 min on eating. Satiety
216 related sensations were evaluated before and right after consuming the test portion and repetitively
217 every 30 min until 210 min after starting point of the consumption using 10 cm visual analogue
218 scales (VAS) anchored with extremes (0=not at all, 10=extremely). The evaluated sensations were
219 *hunger, fullness, satiety, desire to eat* and *prospective food consumption* (“How much would you be
220 able to eat right now?”). In addition, *pleasantness* of the test portion was evaluated after consuming
221 the portion. Average appetite score was afterwards calculated as [desire to eat + hunger + (10-
222 fullness) + prospective food consumption]/4. Computerised data-collecting system (CSA,
223 Computerised Sensory Analysis System, Compusense, Guelph, Canada, Compusense five 5.2) was
224 used to collect the evaluations.

225 2.5 Statistical analyses

226 IBM SPSS Statistics 22 was used to analyse the data.

227 Oneway ANOVA was used to study the sensory differences of study products. Pair-wise
228 comparison was conducted by using Tukey's test. Repeated measures ANOVA was used to study
229 the differences in satiety expectations and pleasantness evaluations. Friedman's non-parametric test
230 for related samples was used to compare the parameters describing mastication process. P-value
231 <0.05 was considered as statistically significant.

232 Regarding the satiety evaluations, baseline value of each visual analogue scale parameter was
233 subtracted from the values of subsequent time points to take into account the possible effect of
234 baseline differences on the analysis. Linear mixed-effects models were used to compare the effects
235 of the test portions on the profiles of postprandial satiety responses. The used models included
236 participant as a random factor, and product, time, and product * time interaction as fixed factors.
237 When a significant main effect of a product or product * time interaction was observed, post hoc
238 analyses were performed using the Sidak correction for multiple comparisons in order to identify
239 the statistically significant differences between the test portions. The contribution of cephalic phase
240 factors was evaluated by adding parameters of oral processing, evaluated pleasantness and satiety
241 expectations to the model as fixed factors one at a time and Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion (BIC)
242 was then used to compare goodness of fit between the models. The smaller the BIC value is the
243 better the model fit is.

244 3 Results

245 3.1 Characteristics of study products

246 3.1.1 Instrumental texture

247 Instrumental texture of the solid products was measured using a texture analyser. The extrudates
248 were dry products with hard and fragile texture whereas breads were springy and moist (Table 3).
249 Rye flakes had the hardest texture and wheat bread the least hard. Hardness of rye puffs and rye
250 bread was similar whereas they had otherwise different textural properties rye puffs being crispy
251 and rye bread being springy. Rye bread was less cohesive, more chewy and adhesive than wheat
252 bread. Puffs were crispier than flakes, indicated by higher crispiness index and lower crispiness
253 work.

254 3.1.2 Perceived characteristics

255 The sensory characteristics of the samples were evaluated by a trained sensory panel. The products
256 varied significantly in all the evaluated sensory attributes ($p < 0.001$ for all) (Figure 3) as was
257 intended. Rye flakes and rye bread were evaluated to require more work for mastication than the
258 other products (rye flakes vs. rye puffs, smoothie and wheat bread $p < 0.001$; rye bread vs. rye puffs
259 and smoothie $p < 0.001$, rye bread vs. wheat bread $p = 0.004$). Rye puffs adhered to teeth more than
260 the flakes, breads or smoothie ($p < 0.001$ for all). Rye flakes and puffs were crumblier, crunchier and
261 crispier compared to the other products ($p < 0.001$ for all). Rye flakes were crunchier than rye puffs
262 ($p = 0.15$) and rye puffs were crispier than rye flakes ($p < 0.001$). Rye flakes were harder than the
263 other products ($p < 0.001$ for all) and rye bread was harder than wheat bread ($p = 0.009$). Rye puffs
264 and both breads were more porous than rye flakes or smoothie ($p < 0.001$). Both overall flavour and
265 rye flavour were more intense in rye bread than in other products ($p < 0.001$ for all).

266 3.1.3 Expected satiety and evaluated pleasantness

267 The participants of the mastication trial (n=26) evaluated the expected satiating capacity of the
268 products before and after masticating them. The evaluation was based on picture representing
269 isocaloric portions of the products. The satiety expectations differed significantly between the
270 products ($p<0.001$ for both before and after mastication) (Figure 4A). The portion containing
271 wholegrain sourdough rye bread was evaluated to be more satiating than the other portions both
272 before mastication (rye bread vs. rye flakes, smoothie and wheat bread $p<0.001$; rye bread vs. rye
273 puffs $p=0.031$) and after mastication ($p<0.001$ for all) whereas wholegrain rye smoothie portion was
274 evaluated as less satiating than the other portions before mastication ($p<0.001$ for all) and less
275 satiating than rye bread and rye flakes ($p<0.001$ for both) and wheat bread ($p=0.005$) after
276 mastication. Expected satiety effects of rye bread, rye flakes and rye smoothie were evaluated
277 higher after than before mastication ($p=0.001$, $p<0.001$, and $p<0.001$, respectively). There were no
278 differences in the evaluations before and after mastication of rye puffs or wheat bread. The
279 participants of the satiety trial (n=16) evaluated the pleasantness of the consumed portions. There
280 were significant differences in the ratings of pleasantness between the portions ($p<0.001$) (Figure
281 4B). The rye bread portion was evaluated as more pleasant than the other portions (rye bread vs.
282 smoothie $p=0.002$; vs. rye puffs $p<0.001$; vs. wheat bread $p=0.011$; vs. rye flakes $p=0.005$) and
283 extruded rye puff portion was evaluated less pleasant than rye bread ($p<0.001$), wheat bread
284 ($p=0.001$) and rye flake portion ($p=0.006$).

285 3.2 Mastication properties

286 Mastication was characterized by monitoring the electrical activity of facial muscles during
287 masticating mouthful of sample. There were significant differences between products in all the
288 measured oral processing attributes: number of chews, total oral processing time, total EMG
289 activity time, duty cycle, relative force and relative work ($p<0.001$ for all). Table 4 shows the
290 values for the parameters and the results of pairwise comparisons. Total oral processing time, total

291 EMG activity time and relative work for mouthful of sample were the highest for rye bread and rye
292 flakes and the lowest for puffs and smoothie. The number of chews was the highest for mouthful of
293 rye flakes and the lowest for puffs and smoothie. It should be noted, however, that for smoothie the
294 events detected as chews are mostly other muscle motions than actual chewing.

295 When the measured oral processing attributes were extrapolated to represent the process of chewing
296 the whole portion of the product (as amount served in the satiety trial) there were also statistically
297 significant differences between products in all the attributes ($p < 0.001$). Total oral processing time,
298 EMG activity time and relative work per portion were the highest for flakes and puffs and the
299 lowest for smoothie. Number of chews per portion was higher for flakes, puffs and wheat bread
300 than for rye bread or rye smoothie.

301 3.3 Postprandial satiety responses to food portions

302 Portions of the test products were served to subgroup of 16 participants in the satiety trial. Each
303 portion was served in separate day. The mean VAS ratings for hunger, fullness, desire to eat,
304 prospective food consumption, satiety and average appetite score for the 210 min period are
305 presented in Figure 5. Hunger (Figure 5A) was significantly lower and fullness (Figure 5B) higher
306 at 30 min after consumption of puff portion compared to flake portion ($p < 0.012$ and $p < 0.028$,
307 respectively) whereas there were no statistically significant differences between other portions.
308 Desire to eat (Figure 5C) was significantly higher at 60 min after consumption of flake portion than
309 rye bread portion ($p < 0.038$) but there were no differences between other portions. Prospective food
310 consumption (Figure 5D) was significantly higher after consuming flakes compared to puffs at 30
311 min and 60 min ($p < 0.002$ and 0.028 , respectively) and compared to rye bread at 30 min ($p < 0.018$).
312 However, there were no other differences between products or in other time points. There were no
313 statistically significant differences in satiety ratings (Figure 5E). Average appetite (a parameter

314 derived from fullness, prospective food consumption, hunger and desire to eat) (Figure 5F) was
315 significantly higher after consuming flakes compared to puffs at 30 min and 60 min ($p < 0.011$,
316 $p < 0.045$, respectively) and compared to rye bread at 30 min ($p = 0.034$). Between other products no
317 differences were seen.

318 3.4 Postprandial average appetite in relation to oral processing, evaluated pleasantness and satiety
319 expectations

320 Mixed model including product and time as fixed factors, subject as a random factor and average
321 appetite as dependent factor was taken as starting point to study the contribution of cephalic phase
322 factors on average appetite (a parameter derived from fullness, prospective food consumption,
323 hunger and desire to eat). BIC value describing the goodness of fit for this model was 2195.
324 Parameters of oral processing (number of chews per portion and relative work); evaluated
325 pleasantness and satiety expectations were then added to the model as fixed factors one at a time to
326 see whether they influenced the goodness of model fit. Adding the number of chews in the model
327 did not improve the fit (BIC value 2165, p-value for product 0.051) but adding a parameter for
328 relative work did improve it (BIC value 1911, p-value for product 0.001). Including evaluated
329 pleasantness improved the fit as well (BIC 1965, p-value for product 0.001). The differences
330 between products were abolished when the evaluations about expected satiety before mastication
331 (BIC 1966, p-value 0.109) and after mastication (BIC 1968, p value for product 0.304) were added
332 in the model.

333 4 Discussion

334 The results showed that rye product portions matched by energy content but varying in structure
335 required different type of mastication process and influenced on postprandial satiety measures
336 differently in the early postprandial period. Mastication effort, measured as relative mastication

337 work, and perceived pleasantness seem to interact with satiety response. The portion with rye flakes
338 showed the weakest satiety impact, puffs and rye bread showing the strongest impact and rye
339 smoothie intermediate. Rye puffs and rye bread, having the most beneficial influence on satiety,
340 were both characterized by a solid and porous structure with comparable instrumental and sensory
341 hardness. However, there were many characteristics that differentiate these products: rye bread was
342 soft and springy product and rye puffs crispy, with strong adhesion to teeth, probably attributable of
343 the combination of high content of arabinoxylan and big particle surface area in mastication. Rye
344 flakes, resulting in the weakest satiety response, were characterised as hard and crunchy, and having
345 a non-porous structure requiring intensive mastication effort. The differences in satiety responses in
346 this study occurred already in the early postprandial phase (30 min and 60 min) indicating that
347 cephalic and gastric phase factors were behind the differences.

348 The mastication process was analysed in a mastication trial measuring the process with EMG. The
349 method makes it possible to evaluate not only mastication time or number of chews but also relative
350 chewing force and mastication effort that is needed to disintegrate the sample in the mouth. The
351 results show that the mouthfuls of samples required different mastication patterns, rye bread and
352 flakes needing the highest number of chews and the longest processing time. Since the number of
353 mouthfuls needed to consume a portion of food (with fixed energy amount) varies, the mastication
354 parameters were extrapolated to represent the values for portions served in the satiety trial. The
355 results show that the number of chews, oral processing time and mastication effort were the highest
356 for portions of rye flakes and rye puffs. Thus, the driest products required the most mastication
357 effort among the studied products.

358 Number of chews and mastication effort (derived as a product of chewing time and force), were
359 used to represent the mastication process in the statistical models to reveal possible contributions to
360 the satiety. These two parameters were chosen because they are reasonably uncorrelated, while e.g.

361 number of chews and chewing time are strongly dependent. Mastication effort was found to
362 improve the model while the number of chews did not influence the goodness of the fit. This
363 indicates that mastication effort would be more relevant oral processing factor than the mere
364 number of chews with respect to the appetite response. However, the obtained result does not
365 support the hypothesis that higher mastication effort would be beneficial for satiety response since
366 the flakes requiring the most intense effort actually resulted in the weakest satiety response. We
367 assume that there are structural properties that are reflected in mastication parameters but actually
368 are relevant for other satiety inducing mechanisms in the body. Differences in stomach distention
369 could offer one plausible explanation: rye bread and rye puffs were porous products which most
370 probably were disintegrated into fairly small particles with good hydration capacities compared to
371 the flakes that have hard and dense structure resulting assumedly bigger particles in mastication.
372 The beverage consumed alongside the flakes is probably emptied rapidly from stomach causing less
373 stomach distention which is among factors influencing satiety. The period of the observed
374 differences supports this hypothesis: the differences in the satiety responses were seen during the
375 first hour after consumption. The rheology of the boluses would be interesting to study *in vitro* to
376 better understand the impact of food structure for stomach digestion phase.

377 Rye smoothie portion and portion with rye flakes and juice is an interesting pair to compare since
378 these portions include exactly the same ingredients and similarly produced cereal product (extruded
379 flakes), energy content and volume but in different forms. The smoothie was designed to represent
380 the flakes portion without the need for extensive mastication. Despite being structurally very
381 different, both the products possess properties potentially beneficial for satiety: the flakes required
382 more mastication effort which might be a beneficial property for satiety whereas rye smoothie was a
383 soup-like product which is a food type generally considered having good satiating capacity. Some
384 researchers believe that for maximum satiating power, the water should to be incorporated in the
385 food, as opposed to being consumed alongside the food as a beverage (Almiron-Roig et al., 2013).

386 Indeed, rye smoothie tended to induce better satiety compared to rye flake portion although the
387 difference was not statistically significant. One possible explanation may be again in hydration: the
388 rye smoothie was let stand for 15 min before the satiety trial thus resulting in thick texture with
389 hydrated rye flake particles. Dry rye flakes, which are characterised with low porosity and which
390 have been shown to remain in bigger particles than extruded puffs in mastication (Alam et al.,
391 2016), assumedly do not absorb water promptly and the beverage consumed alongside the flakes is
392 probably emptied rapidly from stomach causing less stomach distention than the juice that is
393 incorporated in the food product. Dhingra et al. concluded in their review about dietary fibre in
394 foods that hydration properties are relevant in explaining the physiological effects of fibres and that
395 for example substrate pore volume impacts the hydration capacity (Dhingra, Michael, Rajput, &
396 Patil, 2012). Also our earlier study showed that beta-glucan which was added in juice resulted in
397 better satiety response than the same ingredient added in biscuits in study setting having the same
398 basic products (Pentikäinen, Karhunen, et al., 2014).

399 In addition to mastication process other cephalic phase related factors, such as perceived
400 expectations about the satiating capacity of the food as well as perceived pleasantness may
401 influence the actual satiety response. In the current study the study portions, even though matched
402 with energy, were evaluated differently regarding their satiating capacity: rye bread was evaluated
403 as the most powerful satiety-maintaining product whereas the rye smoothie was evaluated to be
404 poorest to suppress appetite. In addition, the evaluations of the satiating capacities were enhanced
405 after oral processing of the food, especially for rye flakes and rye smoothie which apparently were
406 also unfamiliar foods for the participants. It has been shown that expectations about the satiating
407 capacity of food can influence the actual satiety response and that the effect can last up to three
408 hours (Brunstrom et al., 2011). Adding the evaluated satiety expectations into the mixed model
409 abolished the differences between products. Thus, we assume that the expectations about the
410 satiating capacity of the portions influenced the results.

411 Rye puff portion was evaluated as the least pleasant, rye bread portion as the most pleasant and
412 other portions intermediate. Regarding the previous studies about the possible influence of
413 pleasantness on satiety these clear differences could not be neglected. Addition of pleasantness
414 ratings into statistical model enhanced the model as well as made the between-product differences
415 more statistically significant ($p=0.001$ vs. original p -value of 0.044). Thus the evaluated
416 pleasantness of the products indeed was influencing the result. Lower pleasantness ratings for rye
417 puffs may have resulted from considerably big volume of the portion resulting from airy structure.
418 Also strong adhesion to teeth might have influenced the poorer pleasantness ratings.

419 Differences in oral processing can be achieved either by instructing participants to masticate food
420 during a fixed time or by applying fixed number of chews or by providing textures that lead to more
421 longer oral processing patterns. The latter approach is preferable when trying to develop products
422 that would naturally help to control food intake and enhance satiety response. The current study was
423 successful in producing varying food structures resulting in different oral processing pattern. They
424 were not only foods as such and with comminuted structure but realistic products with structural
425 differences including ductile and chewy texture (bread), hard and crunchy texture (flakes) and hard,
426 airy, crispy texture (puffs) and a soup-like texture (smoothie).

427 As a drawback the current study's setting is that the familiarity of the products (even though it was
428 not specifically asked) assumedly was different. Rye bread is a staple food in Finland whereas both
429 extruded rye products and rye smoothie are uncommon food items. It has been seen in earlier
430 studies that earlier experiences about foods help to evaluate their satiety effect (Brunstrom,
431 Shakeshaft, & Scott-Samuel, 2008). Thus, in further study settings it would be good to familiarize
432 the study participants to each study product beforehand to exclude the possible mixing impact of
433 familiarity. Postprandial satiety responses were measured during 210 minutes following the
434 established practices (3-5 hours) (Blundell et al., 2010). However, in the current study or similar

435 studies where differences in satiety responses are hypothesized to occur mainly due to cephalic
436 phase or stomach phase factors it might be more informative to measure the responses more
437 frequently during a shorter period.

438 To conclude, the vast textural differences between products were reflected in mastication process
439 and also in the satiety response to food portions with similar energy contents. The results did not
440 support the hypothesis that mastication process itself would mediate the interaction between food
441 structure and postprandial satiety but there appears to be other mechanisms possibly related to
442 stomach phase digestion modulating the interaction. Palatability seems to weaken postprandial
443 satiety response.

444 Acknowledgments: We Riitta Pasanen, Leila Kostamo, Tarja Wikström, Eero Mattila, Anna-Liisa
445 Ruskeepää (VTT Technical Research Centre of Finland) for skilful assistance in preparing the
446 samples, analysing nutrient contents and structural properties of the samples as well as assisting in
447 data collection.

448 Funding: This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public,
449 commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

450 References

- 451 Alam, S. A., Järvinen, J., Kirjoranta, S., Jouppila, K., Poutanen, K., & Sozer, N. (2014). Influence
452 of Particle Size Reduction on Structural and Mechanical Properties of Extruded Rye Bran.
453 *Food and Bioprocess Technology*, 7(7), 2121–2133. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s11947-013-1225-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11947-013-1225-2)
454 2
- 455 Alam, S. A., Pentikäinen, S., Närväinen, J., Holopainen-Mantila, U., Poutanen, K., & Sozer, N.
456 (2016). Effects of structural and mechanical textural properties of brittle cereal foams on
457 mechanisms of oral breakdown. *Food Research International*, 96, 1–11.
458 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2016.11.026>
- 459 Almiron-Roig, E., Palla, L., Guest, K., Ricchiuti, C., Vint, N., Jebb, S. A., ... Higgins, J. (2013).
460 Factors that determine energy compensation: a systematic review of preload studies. *Nutrition*
461 *Reviews*, 71(7), 458–73. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nure.12048>
- 462 Blundell, J., De Graaf, C., Hulshof, T., Jebb, S., Livingstone, B., Lluh, a., ... Westerterp, M.
463 (2010). Appetite control: Methodological aspects of the evaluation of foods. *Obesity Reviews*,
464 11(3), 251–270. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-789X.2010.00714.x>
- 465 Bolhuis, D. P., Forde, C. G., Cheng, Y., Xu, H., Martin, N., & de Graaf, C. (2014). Slow food:
466 sustained impact of harder foods on the reduction in energy intake over the course of the day.
467 *PloS One*, 9(4), e93370. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0093370>
- 468 Brunstrom, J. M., Brown, S., Hinton, E. C., Rogers, P. J., & Fay, S. H. (2011). “Expected satiety”
469 changes hunger and fullness in the inter-meal interval. *Appetite*, 56(2), 310–315.
470 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2011.01.002>

- 471 Brunstrom, J. M., Shakeshaft, N. G., & Scott-Samuel, N. E. (2008). Measuring “expected satiety”
472 in a range of common foods using a method of constant stimuli. *Appetite*, 51(3), 604–614.
473 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2008.04.017>
- 474 Dhingra, D., Michael, M., Rajput, H., & Patil, R. T. (2012). Dietary fibre in foods: A review.
475 *Journal of Food Science and Technology*, 49(3), 255–266. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s13197-011-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s13197-011-0365-5)
476 0365-5
- 477 Flood-Obbagy, J. E., & Rolls, B. J. (2009). The effect of fruit in different forms on energy intake
478 and satiety at a meal. *Appetite*, 52(2), 416–422. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2008.12.001>
- 479 Flood, J. E., & Rolls, B. J. (2007). Soup preloads in a variety of forms reduce meal energy intake.
480 *Appetite*, 49(3), 626–634. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2007.04.002>
- 481 Forde, C. G., van Kuijk, N., Thaler, T., de Graaf, C., & Martin, N. (2013). Texture and savoury
482 taste influences on food intake in a realistic hot lunch time meal. *Appetite*, 60(1), 180–186.
483 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2012.10.002>
- 484 Hetherington, M. M., Cunningham, K., Dye, L., Gibson, E. L., Gregersen, N. T., Halford, J. C. G.,
485 ... Van Trijp, H. C. M. (2013). Potential benefits of satiety to the consumer: scientific
486 considerations. *Nutrition Research Reviews*, 26(1), 22–38.
487 <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0954422413000012>
- 488 Hogenkamp, P. S., & Schiöth, H. B. (2013). Effect of oral processing behaviour on food intake and
489 satiety. *Trends in Food Science and Technology*, 34(1), 67–75.
490 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tifs.2013.08.010>

- 491 Karlsson, J., Persson, L. O., Sjöström, L., & Sullivan, M. (2000). Psychometric properties and
492 factor structure of the Three-Factor Eating Questionnaire (TFEQ) in obese men and women.
493 Results from the Swedish Obese Subjects (SOS) study. *International Journal of Obesity and*
494 *Related Metabolic Disorders: Journal of the International Association for the Study of*
495 *Obesity*, 24(12), 1715–1725. <https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.ijo.0801442>
- 496 Lawless, H. T., & Heymann, H. (2010). *Sensory Evaluation of Food*. New York, NY: Springer New
497 York. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-6488-5>
- 498 Martens, M. J. I., Lemmens, S. G. T., Born, J. M., & Westerterp-Plantenga, M. S. (2011). A Solid
499 High-Protein Meal Evokes Stronger Hunger Suppression Than a Liquefied High-Protein Meal.
500 *Obesity*, 19(3), 522–527. <https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2010.258>
- 501 Mattes, R. (2005). Soup and satiety. *Physiology & Behavior*, 83(5), 739–747.
502 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.physbeh.2004.09.021>
- 503 McCrickerd, K., Lensing, N., & Yeomans, M. R. (2015). The impact of food and beverage
504 characteristics on expectations of satiation, satiety and thirst. *Food Quality and Preference*, 44,
505 130–138. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2015.04.003>
- 506 Ohmure, H., Takada, H., Nagayama, K., Sakiyama, T., Tsubouchi, H., & Miyawaki, S. (2012).
507 Mastication suppresses initial gastric emptying by modulating gastric activity. *Journal of*
508 *Dental Research*, 91(3), 293–8. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022034511433847>
- 509 Pentikäinen, S., Karhunen, L., Flander, L., Katina, K., Meynier, A., Aymard, P., ... Poutanen, K.
510 (2014). Enrichment of biscuits and juice with oat β -glucan enhances postprandial satiety.
511 *Appetite*, 75, 150–156. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2014.01.002>

- 512 Pentikäinen, S., Sozer, N., Närväinen, J., Ylätaalo, S., Teppola, P., Jurvelin, J., ... Poutanen, K.
513 (2014). Effects of wheat and rye bread structure on mastication process and bolus properties.
514 *Food Research International*, 66, 356–364. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2014.09.034>
- 515 Smeets, P. a M., Erkner, A., & De Graaf, C. (2010). Cephalic phase responses and appetite.
516 *Nutrition Reviews*, 68(11), 643–655. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1753-4887.2010.00334.x>
- 517 Sørensen, L. B., Møller, P., Flint, a, Martens, M., & Raben, a. (2003). Effect of sensory perception
518 of foods on appetite and food intake: a review of studies on humans. *International Journal of*
519 *Obesity and Related Metabolic Disorders : Journal of the International Association for the*
520 *Study of Obesity*, 27(10), 1152–1166. <https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.ijo.0802391>
- 521 Tsuchiya, A., Almiron-Roig, E., Lluch, A., Guyonnet, D., & Drewnowski, A. (2006). Higher
522 Satiety Ratings Following Yogurt Consumption Relative to Fruit Drink or Dairy Fruit Drink.
523 *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 106(4), 550–557.
524 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jada.2006.01.004>
- 525 Yeomans, M. R., & Chambers, L. (2011). Satiety-relevant sensory qualities enhance the satiating
526 effects of mixed carbohydrate-protein preloads. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 94(6),
527 1410–1417. <https://doi.org/10.3945/ajcn.111.011650>

528

Table 1 Nutrient content of the samples and nutrient content and portion sizes of portions offered in the satiety test.

	<i>Samples (/100 g)</i>					<i>Satiety test portions (/portion)</i>				
	WG sourdough h rye bread	Extruded WG rye flakes	Extruded WG rye puffs	Refined wheat bread	Black- currant juice	WG sourdough rye bread + juice	Extruded WG rye flakes + juice	Extruded WG rye puffs + juice	WG rye smoothie	Refined wheat bread + juice
Nutrient content										
Energy (kcal)	200	322	330	253	38	382	382	382	382	382
Starch (g)	35.4	57.7	59.8	46.4	ns	33.7	34.1	34.5	34.1	34.8
Protein (g)	6.5	9.7	9.8	9.1	ns	6.2	5.7	5.6	5.7	6.8
Fat (g)	0.6	1.2	1.3	2.4	ns	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.8
Total dietary fibre (g)	13.3	20.7	19.8	4.7	ns	12.6	12.2	11.4	12.2	3.6
Soluble dietary fibre (g)	7.5	9.5	10.7	2.3	ns	7.2	5.6	6.2	5.6	1.7
Insoluble dietary fibre (g)	3.6	3.7	4.0	1.5	ns	3.4	2.2	2.3	2.2	1.1
Oligosaccharides (g)	2.2	7.6	5.2	1.0	ns	2.0	4.5	3.0	4.5	0.7
Sugar (g)	-	-	-	-	9.6	48	48	48	48	48
Portion sizes (g)										
Cereal product						95	59	58	58	75
Juice						500	500	500	500	500
Total						595	559	558	559	575

Table 2 Characteristics of the study participants. Values are means \pm SD, n=26 in the mastication trial and n=16 (subset) in satiety trial.

	Mastication trial n=26		Mastication trial and satiety trial n=16 (subset)	
	Mean \pm SD	Range	Mean \pm SD	Range
Age	31.7 \pm 7.5	19-50	32.9 \pm 8.2	22-50
BMI	22.2 \pm 1.9	19.1-27.3	22.4 \pm 2.2	19.8-27.3
Eating behaviour ¹				
<i>Cognitive restraint</i>	45.7 \pm 16.6	11-72	51.7 \pm 12.1	17-72
<i>Uncontrolled eating</i>	27.6 \pm 10.3	11-48	27.6 \pm 11.2	11-48
<i>Emotional eating</i>	33.3 \pm 24.7	0-89	41.4 \pm 26.8	0-72

¹ Eating behaviour was measured with 18-item Three-Factor Eating Questionnaire (TFEQ) (Karlsson, Persson, Sjöström, & Sullivan, 2000)

Table 3 Moisture contents of the samples and textural properties measured with TPA (breads) and TA (extrudates).

	WG sourdough rye bread	Refined wheat bread	Extruded WG rye flakes	Extruded WG rye puffs
Moisture (%)	39.3 ± 0.1	32.3 ± 0.4	7.0 ± 0.0	5.5 ± 0.0
Hardness (N)	24 ± 8	4 ± 1	1530 ± 390	27 ± 3
Cohesiveness	0.4 ± 0.1	0.7 ± 0.0	-	-
Chewiness	5.1 ± 1.8	2.0 ± 0.5	-	-
Adhesiveness	-0.010 ± 0.014	-0.133 ± 0.332	-	-
Crispiness work			98.3 ± 37.3	0.6 ± 0.1
Crispiness index (x 10 ⁻³)			0.004 ± 0.002	21 ± 5

Table 4 Oral processing parameters. Values are means \pm SD, n=26. Different superscript letters in a row indicate statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between products. Extrapolated parameters represent oral processing parameters for the portion size served in the satiety trial.

	WG sourdough rye bread	Extruded WG rye flakes	Extruded WG rye puffs	WG rye smoothie	Refined wheat bread	χ^2	Sig.
Parameters for mouthful of food							
Number of chews	27 \pm 10 ^b	28 \pm 7 ^b	11 \pm 5 ^a	7 \pm 4 ^a	20 \pm 8 ^b	85.8	<0.001
Total oral processing time (s)	20 \pm 9 ^c	21 \pm 8 ^c	8 \pm 4 ^a	4 \pm 3 ^a	14 \pm 6 ^b	84.9	<0.001
Time of EMG activity (s)	9 \pm 3 ^{bc}	10 \pm 3 ^c	4 \pm 2 ^a	2 \pm 1 ^a	7 \pm 3 ^b	85.6	<0.001
Duty cycle (%) ¹	46 \pm 3 ^a	48 \pm 4 ^a	53 \pm 6 ^b	61 \pm 13 ^b	48 \pm 3 ^a	46.6	<0.001
Relative force (%) ²	90 \pm 15 ^b	101 \pm 25 ^b	75 \pm 23 ^{ab}	45 \pm 23 ^a	80 \pm 17 ^b	60.0	<0.001
Relative work ³	8 \pm 3 ^{bc}	11 \pm 3 ^c	3 \pm 1 ^a	1 \pm 1 ^a	5 \pm 2 ^b	80.7	<0.001
Extrapolated parameters for food portion							
Number of chews	340 \pm 130 ^a	480 \pm 120 ^b	640 \pm 260 ^b	210 \pm 130 ^a	380 \pm 160 ^b	80.3	<0.001
Total oral processing time (s)	250 \pm 110 ^{ab}	360 \pm 130 ^c	440 \pm 210 ^c	140 \pm 100 ^a	280 \pm 110 ^b	73.7	<0.001
Time of EMG activity (s)	110 \pm 40 ^{ab}	170 \pm 50 ^c	220 \pm 90 ^c	70 \pm 40 ^a	130 \pm 50 ^b	82.2	<0.001
Relative work ³	100 \pm 30 ^b	190 \pm 50 ^c	160 \pm 70 ^c	40 \pm 40 ^a	100 \pm 40 ^b	70.2	<0.001

¹ Time of EMG activity/Total oral processing time

² Chewing force of the product related to chewing force of chewing gum

³ Time of EMG activity x relative force

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1 Photographs of the food samples. Rye smoothie was prepared mixing grinded wholegrain rye flakes with blackcurrant juice and letting the mixture stand for 15 minutes

Figure 2 A: EMG data after 50 Hz notch filtering for a single participant, chewing gum sample. The three mastication sequences are each labeled with 'start' and 'stop'. B: Further analysis of the second mastication sequence of the data above. EMG power was computed, highpass-filtered, squared (blue curve) and smoothed (red curve), after which chews were detected (black block curve). The event data were used for number of chews, total oral processing time, time of EMG activity and duty cycle. The smoothed EMG power was used for relative force and, when multiplied by time of EMG activity, the relative work.

Figure 3 Perceived characteristics of the samples evaluated by the trained sensory panel (n=2x12). Sensory intensities were evaluated on an intensity scale 0-10. Values are means. There were statistically significant differences (p<0.001) between the samples in each attribute.

Figure 4 A) Expected satiety before and after mastication (n=26) and B) pleasantness of the portions after eating the portion (n=16). Expected satiety was evaluated based on photograph representing study portions together with mastication trial. Pleasantness of each study portion was evaluated together with satiety trial right after consuming the portion. The evaluations were done on a VAS scale 0-10. Values are means \pm SD. Different letters above bars indicate statistically significant difference between evaluations (in 2A uppercase letters for values before mastication and lowercase letters for values after mastication). Asterixes in 2A indicate significant difference within product before and after mastication trial **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

Figure 5 Changes VAS ratings for A) hunger, B) fullness, C) desire to eat, D) prospective food consumption, E) satiety and F) average appetite score during 210 min postprandial period in healthy women for wholegrain rye bread (--■--), wholegrain rye smoothie (...◆...), wholegrain rye puffs (--x--), wholegrain rye flakes (--▲--) and refined wheat bread (--□--). Values are means with their standard errors represented by vertical bars, n=16. Significant product effect was found for hunger, fullness, desire to eat, prospective food consumption and average appetite score. The time points with statistically significant differences (p<0.05) between products are marked with asterix (*).

Rye bread



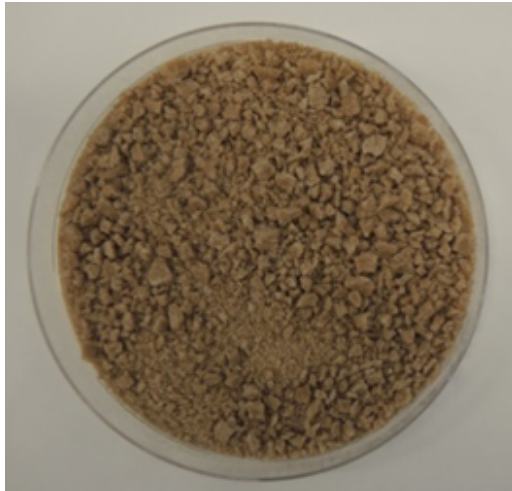
Rye puffs

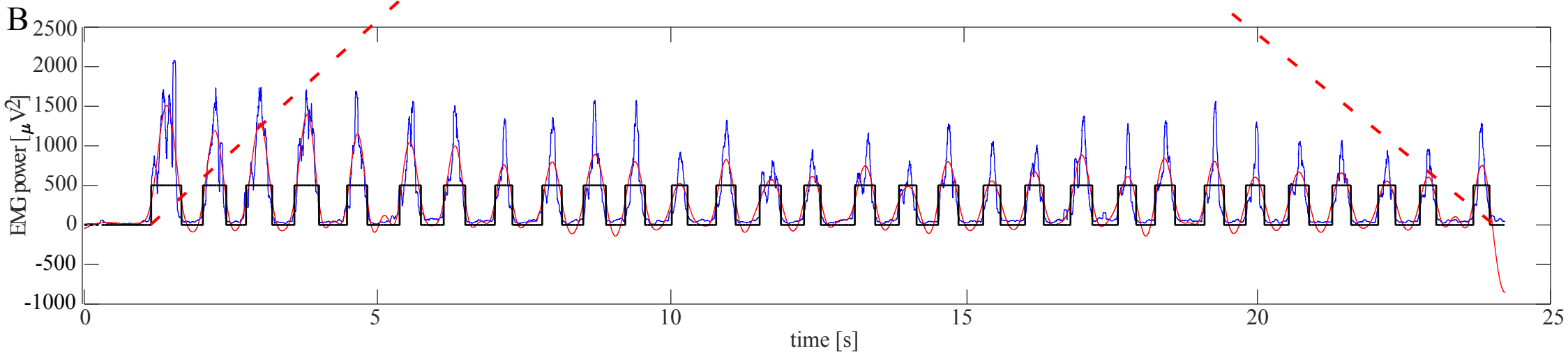
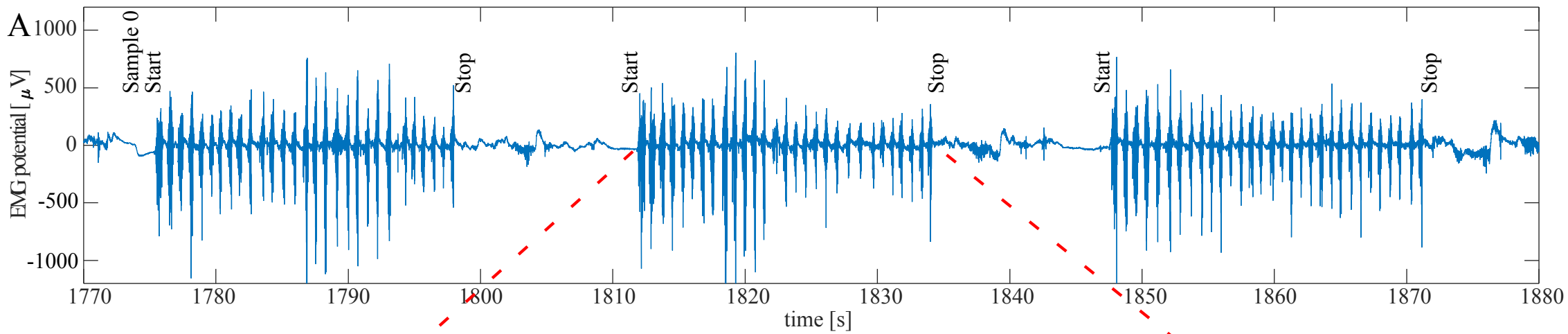


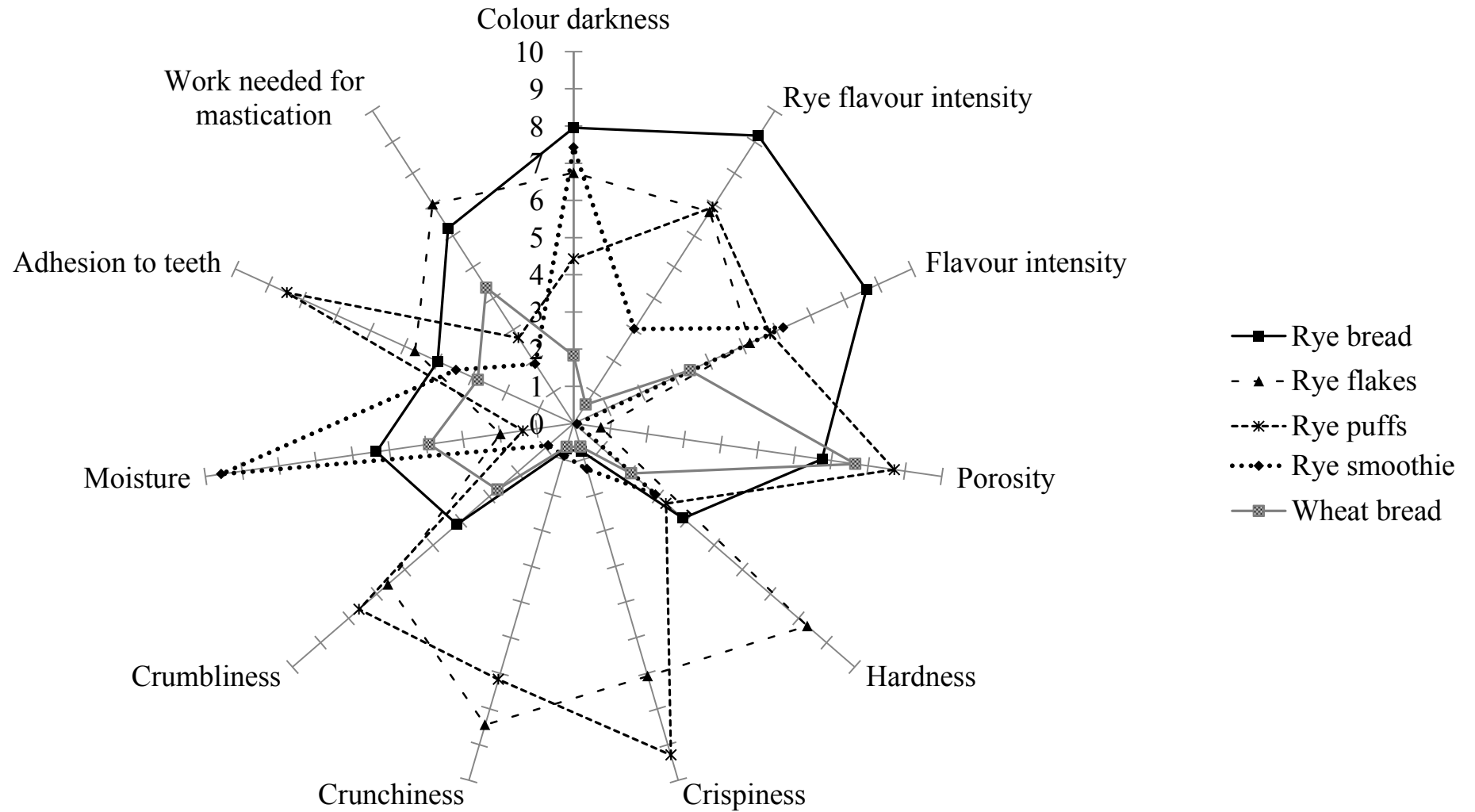
Rye flakes



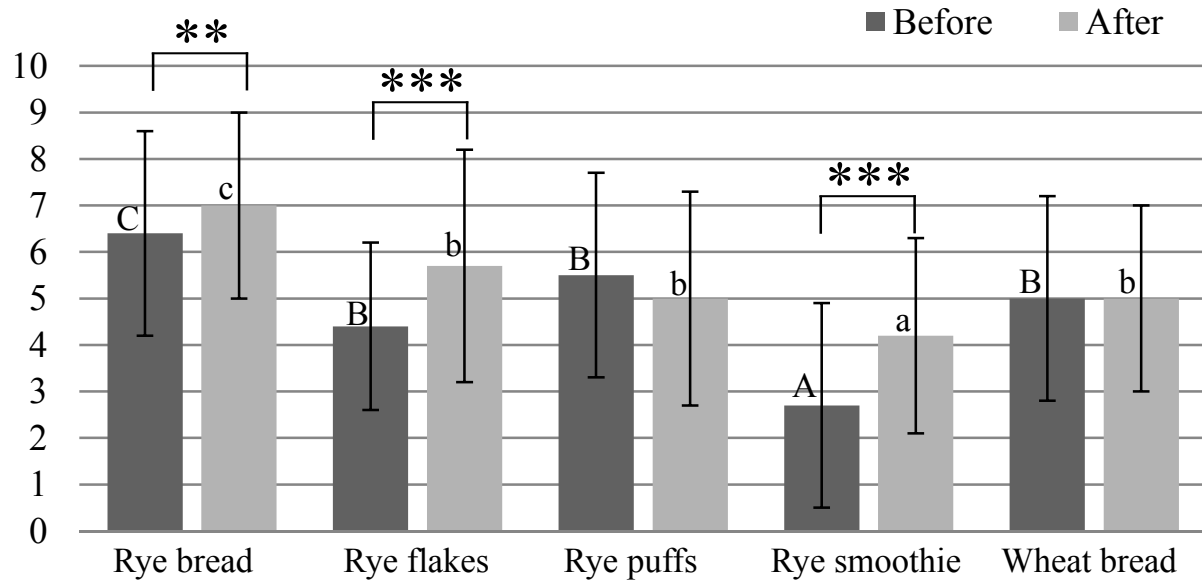
Grinded rye flakes Blackcurrant juice



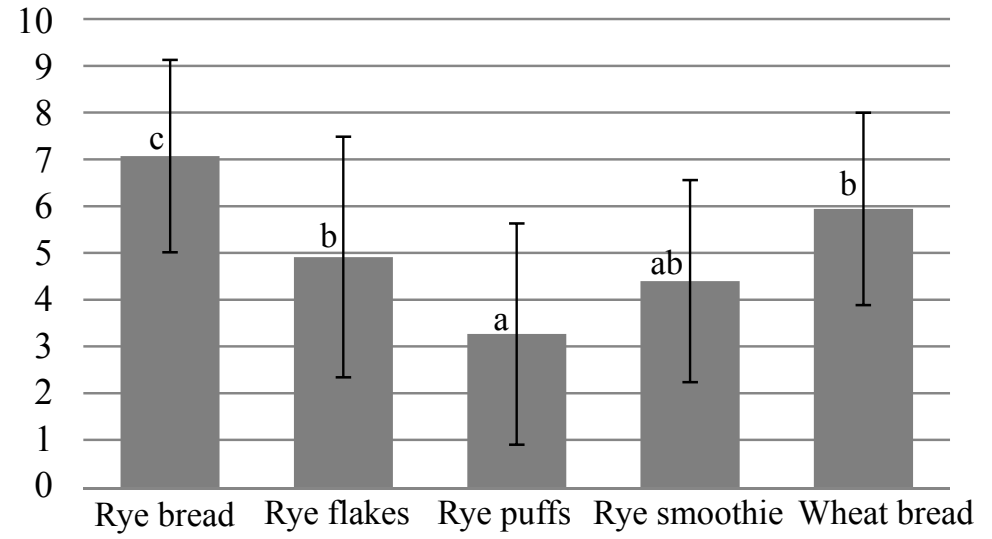




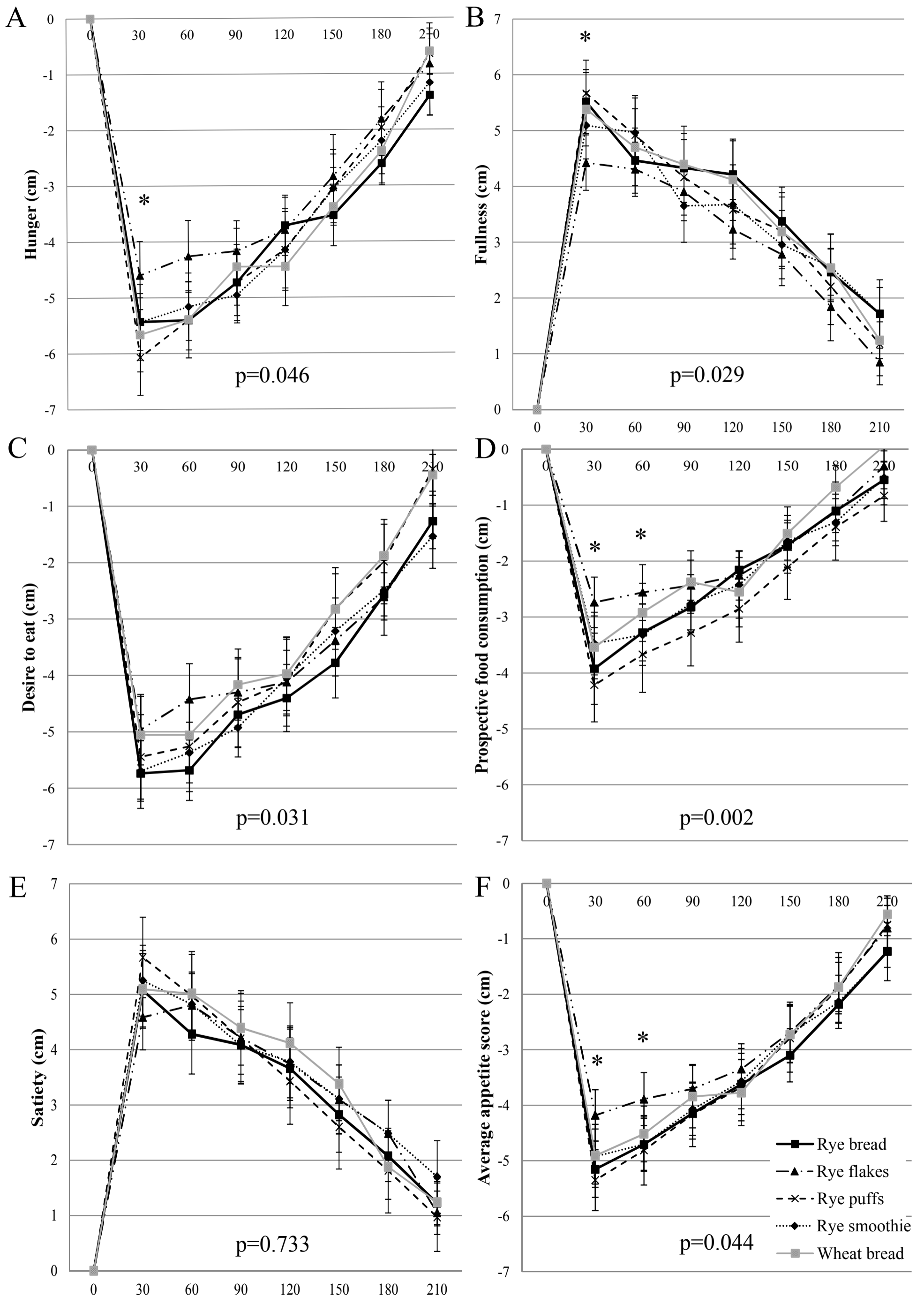
A) Expected satiety before and after mastication



B) Pleasantness



ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT



Highlights:

- Food structure influences satiety in the early post-prandial period
- There is a link between mastication effort and satiety
- Evaluated pleasantness modulate satiety response

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT