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1 **Cheese-flavored expanded snacks with low lipid content: oil effects on the *in vitro* release**
2 **of butyric acid and on the duration of the dominant sensations of the products**

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14 **Abstract**

15 With the aim of producing snacks with reduced lipid content, the effect of lipids on the *in*
16 *vitro* release of butyric acid and on the duration of the dominant sensations of cheese-flavored
17 expanded snacks were investigated. For that, snacks were obtained through pre-extrusion
18 addition of aroma precursors of cheese to corn grits (butyric acid and cysteine) and sprinkled
19 with sunflower oil in different proportions (6, 12, 18 and 24 g/100 g). The snack sprinkled
20 with 6 g/100 g of sunflower oil showed higher release of butyric acid, compared to the other
21 snacks with oil, when a chewing simulator was employed (simulation of aroma perception),
22 and practically the same release in relation to the other snacks when the dynamic headspace of
23 products was obtained (i.e. simulation of odor perception). All snacks with sunflower oil were
24 described by the duration of salty taste, crunchy/crisp, cheese flavor, umami taste and oil
25 flavor, indicating that the low use of sunflower oil (6 g/100 g) did not alter or prejudice the
26 dominant sensations of the snacks. Therefore, the production of snacks with low addition of
27 lipids is feasible, improving the nutritive value of these products that are so criticized because
28 of the high lipid content.

29

30 **Keywords:** aroma precursors, thermoplastic extrusion, chewing simulator, Temporal
31 Dominance of Sensations (TDS).

32 1. Introduction

33 Expanded snacks are widely consumed around the world and are obtained through a
34 thermoplastic extrusion process. After extrusion, the snacks are flavored in the conventional
35 way by food industries (post-extrusion flavoring), when a mixture of a lipid vehicle (oil or
36 hydrogenated vegetal fat), salt and additives (commercial aroma and flavor enhancers) is
37 sprinkled on the snacks (Maskan & Altan, 2012). This flavoring process increases the lipid
38 and salt content in the snacks, as well the caloric value, reasons why these products are much
39 criticized. Corn snacks marketed in Brazil presents total lipid content from 11 to 30 g/100 g
40 and energy values from 408 to 500 kcal per 100 g product (values observed at labels). These
41 values are similar to those presented in the Brazilian Table of Food Composition (Tabela
42 Brasileira de Composição de Alimentos, 2018), in which commercial corn snacks have a lipid
43 content from 15 to 35 g/100 g and an energy from 448 to 555 kcal per 100 g product.
44 Healthier versions of this product may be obtained using pre-extrusion flavoring, by adding
45 many types of flavoring agents to the raw material to be extruded (Bhandari, D'Arcy, &
46 Young, 2001; Yuliani, Torley, D'Arcy, Nicholson, & Bhandari, 2006; Menis, Milani,
47 Jordano, Boscolo, & Conti-Silva, 2013). With this technique of flavoring, the use of a lipid
48 vehicle can be minimized. However, the suppression of lipids may compromise the sensory
49 quality of the products because of the important contributions of lipids to the flavor of foods.

50 The flavor of a food is the manifestation of interactions between taste, aroma and oral
51 sensations, since taste and oral sensations are associated with non-volatile compounds, while
52 aroma is associated with volatile compounds. The release of volatile compounds from foods
53 during chewing depends on their interaction with the food matrix and both static and dynamic
54 factors are involved in this release. The static equilibrium of the volatile compounds is
55 distributed in the food between the solid matrix, the hydrophilic liquid phase, the liquid
56 lipophilic phase and the gas phase. This distribution is controlled by the partition coefficient

57 of the molecules of the volatile compounds, which affects their volatility. In addition, the
58 mass transfer (a dynamic factor) depends on the viscosity of the food matrix and its interfaces,
59 in which more viscous products release the volatile compounds more slowly (Gaonkar &
60 McPherson, 2006; Reineccius, 2006). In this way, lipids act as transporters and modulators of
61 volatile compounds in food. Even in products with reduced lipid content, the release of
62 volatile compounds can also be altered, negatively affecting the perception of the odor and
63 aroma of foods and, consequently, the flavor (Taylor & Linfoth, 2010; Voilley & Etiévant,
64 2006). Moreover, lipids have been investigated as the 6th basic taste (Dramane, Akpona,
65 Besnard, & Khan, 2014), given their importance to the flavor of food. The reduction in or
66 even elimination of lipid content in food is still a challenge.

67 Therefore, with the aim of producing snacks with better nutritive value through
68 reduction of lipids for flavoring, using the pre-extrusion flavoring method, butyric acid and
69 cysteine were added as aroma precursors of cheese to corn grits (Martínez-Cuesta, Peláez, &
70 Requena, 2013) and sunflower oil was sprinkled in different quantities onto the snacks.
71 Butyric acid is a volatile compound that contributes to cheese odors, and considering that
72 lipids influences odor, aroma and flavor of foods, the *in vitro* release of butyric acid was
73 monitored in this work because of the different quantities of oil sprinkled onto the snacks.
74 Moreover, techniques that allow a dynamic sensory evaluation of foods, such as the Temporal
75 Dominance of Sensations (TDS), provide complete information about how dominant
76 sensations vary during the consumption (Lawless & Heymann, 2010; Pineau et al., 2009).
77 Thus, TDS is an interesting technique to be applied to snacks, both for providing information
78 about dominant sensory sensations, which may be related to lipid content, and also because
79 studies about the application of TDS to snacks were not found in the literature.

80 2. Material and Methods

81 2.1 Material

82 Corn grits (Capela do Alto, Brasil), salt (Cisne, Cabo Frio, Brasil), flavor enhancer
83 monosodium glutamate (Ajinomoto, Limeira, Brasil) and sunflower oil (Liza, Mairinque,
84 Brasil) were used to produce the expanded snacks. Food-grade butyric acid (Sigma-Aldrich,
85 Milwaukee, USA, code W222119, purity >99 g/100 g) and amino acid cysteine (L-cysteine
86 HCL anhydrous, Infinity Pharma, Campinas, Brazil, purity >98.5 g/100 g) were used as
87 aroma precursors of cheese on the expanded snacks.

88 The reagents NaHCO_3 , $\text{K}_2\text{HPO}_4 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$, NaCl , KCl , $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, NaN_3 , bovine mucin
89 (reference Sigma: M3895), and porcine alpha-amylase (reference Sigma: A4268), all from
90 Sigma-Aldrich (Milwaukee, USA), were used for production of artificial saliva.

91 2.2 Preparation of corn grits and extrusion processing

92 Butyric acid and cysteine (addition of 0.4 g/100 g and 0.2 g/100 g, respectively) were
93 added to corn grits (previously an adjusted to 15 g/100 g moisture content in dry basis). The
94 addition of butyric acid (liquid compound) was performed in volume based on the density,
95 i.e., the mass of butyric acid to be added to the corn grits was converted to volume using its
96 density. The addition of cysteine (powder) was done in mass. The mixture of corn grits with
97 butyric acid and cysteine was performed through manual agitation of the bags, which were
98 sealed and kept under refrigeration for 24 h, for better distribution of butyric acid in the corn
99 grits. Then, the mixture was kept at room temperature for 2 h before extrusion.

100 Corn grits with the aroma precursors added was extruded in an RXPQ Labor 24 single
101 screw extruder (INBRAMAQ, Ribeirão Preto, Brazil) with five independent heating zones.
102 Extrusion conditions were: helicoidally grooved barrel; screw with a compression ratio of
103 2.3:1 and length-to-diameter ratio of 15.5:1; pre-die extruder with holes of 3.01 mm; extruder
104 die with a diameter of 2.93 mm (round hole); feed rate of 265 g/min; screw speed at 192 rpm;

105 temperatures in the zones 1 to 5: off (approximately 25 °C), 70 °C, 90 °C, 120 °C and 120 °C,
106 respectively.

107 After extrusion, salt (1.4 g/100 g) and monosodium glutamate (0.6 g/100 g) were added
108 to the snacks and then sunflower oil was sprinkled on the snacks in the proportions of 6, 12,
109 18, or 24 g/100 g. Two control snacks were produced under the same extrusion conditions: 1)
110 a snack with salt and monosodium glutamate, but without aroma precursors and sunflower oil
111 (control evaluated only through TDS), and 2) snack with aroma precursors, salt and
112 monosodium glutamate, but without sunflower oil (0 g/100 g). The amounts of salt,
113 monosodium glutamate and sunflower oil correspond to the addition of these ingredients in
114 100 g of snack.

115 **2.3 Evaluation of butyric acid *in vitro* release from the expanded snacks**

116 The butyric acid was added to corn grits as an aroma precursor of cheese in the
117 expanded snacks, being a volatile compound that has an important contribution to the
118 odor/aroma of cheese (Martínez-Cuesta, Peláez, & Requena, 2013). The *in vitro* release of
119 butyric acid was monitored using a Proton Transfer Reaction Time-of-Flight Mass
120 Spectrometer (PTR-ToF-MS) connected to two different devices: chewing simulator and
121 valve system.

122 In the chewing simulator, the snacks were mixed with artificial saliva to reproduce
123 mastication. In this way, this system may represent the release of butyric acid inside the
124 mouth, i.e., retronasal olfaction. The valve system allows the evaluation of the dynamic
125 headspace from the snack, representing orthonasal olfaction. Therefore, considering the
126 operation of the two devices, and for better understanding of our results, the two evaluations
127 of *in vitro* release were called *via* aroma (chewing simulator) and *via* odor (valve system),
128 respectively.

129 2.3.1 Evaluation of *in vitro* release of butyric acid *via* aroma

130 The chewing simulator was developed with the aim of reproducing mastication and is
131 composed of an active cell, where the mastication process is performed, an electronic control
132 box and a computer to monitor and adjust each parameter (Salles et al., 2006; Salles, Tarrega,
133 Mielle, Maratray, & Gorria, 2007). The active cell is formed by a mobile lower jaw, a mobile
134 tongue, and a fixed upper jaw. The lower and upper jaws are ring-shaped cylinders composed
135 only of molar teeth made of polyether ether ketone (PEEK), and the tongue is also made of
136 PEEK, in the shape of a cylinder with a 4.5 cm diameter (Salles et al., 2007).

137 Artificial saliva used during the chewing simulation was prepared according to the
138 protocol used by the Centre des sciences du goût et de l'alimentation at the Institut National de
139 la Recherche Agronomique (CSGA/INRA), adapted from Friel and Taylor (2001), Munoz-
140 González et al. (2014) and Ruth, Grossmann, Geary, and Delahunty (2001). The following
141 materials were used: NaHCO (5.208 g), K₂HPO₄·3H₂O (1.369 g), NaCl (0.877 g), KCl (0.477
142 g), CaCl₂·2H₂O (0.441 g), NaN₃ (0.500 g), bovine mucin (2.160 g), and porcine and 200,000
143 units of alpha-amylase (12 units/mg). All the products, except for alpha-amylase, were added
144 to one liter of distilled water. The solution was agitated for 30 min to complete
145 homogenization and then the alpha-amylase was added. The artificial saliva was maintained at
146 -20 °C until use.

147 The chewing simulator parameters were defined according to previous studies (Mielle
148 et al., 2010; Tarrega, Yven, Sémon, & Salles, 2011; Yven, Guessasma, Chaunier, Valle, &
149 Salles, 2010) and, after preliminary tests, the parameters were fixed as follows: mandible and
150 tongue forces of 30 daN; shearing force of 35 daN; shearing angle value of 1/8th tooth; 15
151 chewing cycles (about 50 s of chewing); artificial saliva flow of 2 mL initial and 1 mL/min
152 after the chewing starts; and humid air at a flow of 135 mL/min.

153 Although in human consumption the whole snack may be placed in the mouth, snacks
154 of 2 cm in length were weighed (to guarantee that they all had the same mass) and broken into
155 four parts for chewing. Preliminary tests performed to determine the best snack arrangement
156 in the chewing simulator showed the arrangement presented in Fig. 1A as the most adequate,
157 which, after chewing, presented a food bolus similar to that of a human being (Fig. 1B).
158 Analyses in the chewing simulator were performed in duplicate and data on the release of
159 butyric acid was obtained from 17 to 27 s when the chewing simulator was used,
160 corresponding to the period of increase in signal intensity from the start of chewing (linear
161 part of the graph – Fig. 2A).

162 2.3.2 Evaluation of *in vitro* release of butyric acid *via* odor

163 Fifty milligrams of milled snack were added to a 20-mL hermetically sealed vial and
164 immersed in a bath for 30 min at 40 °C (Conti-Silva, Bastos, & Arêas, 2012). The vial
165 containing the sample was inserted in the valves device and maintained for another 15 min,
166 also at 40 °C, for the headspace equilibrium. The valves device was activated automatically,
167 operating as follows: for 30 s, valves were open allowing the passage of room air through an
168 empty vial (reference) to the PTR-ToF-MS. After that, the valves were switched, closing the
169 connection of the reference vial to the MS at the same time as the vial containing the snack
170 sample was connected to the MS for 180 s. Analyses were performed in duplicate and data on
171 the release of butyric acid was obtained from 40 to 80 s when the valve system was used,
172 corresponding to the period of increase in signal intensity after the opening of the valves
173 (linear part of the graph – Fig. 2B).

174 2.3.3 Study of butyric acid release using the PTR-ToF-MS

175 The study of butyric acid release from the expanded snacks was performed using an
176 Ionicon PTR-TOF-MS 8000 detector (Ionicon Analytik, Innsbruck, Austria). The drift tube
177 conditions used were: temperature maintained at 80 °C, operation voltage of 480 V and
178 pressure of 2.3 mBar, resulting in an E/N ratio of 112 Townsends ($1 \text{ Td} = 10^{-17} \text{ V.cm}^2$) (E:
179 electric field strength; N: density). The headspace was admitted in the PTR-ToF-MS with a
180 flow rate fixed at 100 mL/min. The scan speed was 500 ms for a mass range m/z 0-250. For
181 mass calibration, the mass/charge ratios for H_3O^+ (m/z 21.022086), NO^+ (m/z 29.997440),
182 and acetone (m/z 59.049141) were monitored. Results were obtained evaluating the
183 protonated butyric acid ion (MH^+ ion m/z 89.0616). As calibration curves were not produced,
184 the data were expressed in normalized CPS (nCPS) using primary ions H_3O^+ and $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+(\text{H}_2\text{O})$
185 as recommended by the manufacturer to account for primary ion fluctuations using the PTR-
186 MS Viewer software (version 3.1.0.31). The PTR-ToF-MS was connected to the two different
187 devices *via* a 1-mm internal diameter, 600-mm length, 1/16-in external diameter polyether
188 ether ketone (PEEK) capillary (maintained at 75 °C).

189 Data from the PTR-ToF-MS, obtained through both the chewing simulator and the
190 valve system, was analyzed from the linear part of the butyric acid release plot. During the
191 analyses, humid air was introduced into the chewing simulator and the vials via one opened
192 valve as the headspace was admitted in the PTR-ToF-MS with a flow rate fixed at 100
193 mL/min. The drift tube pressure had to be strictly constant to have stable ionization
194 conditions, and to avoid a decreasing of the drift tube pressure (increase of the E/N ratio
195 parameter) due to the closing of the chewing simulator and the vials, a gas flow was needed to
196 flush them. Thus, we analyzed only the linear part of the graph that corresponds to the
197 headspace from the chewing simulator and the vials.

198 **2.4 Evaluation of the sensory profile of the expanded snacks**

199 The sensory profile of the snacks was evaluated through the multi-intake Temporal
200 Dominance of Sensations (TDS) test. This study was approved by the Research Ethics
201 Committee of the Institute of Biosciences, Literature, and Exact Sciences at São Paulo State
202 University (Decision No. 360.800).

203 The test was performed in the Sensory Analysis Laboratory of the Department of Food
204 Engineering and Technology at the same Institute, in individual booths with white light and at
205 a temperature of approximately 22 °C, using the TimeSens® software (CSGA/INRA, Dijon,
206 France). Nine panelists, who previously participated of an Optimized Descriptive Profile
207 (Silva et al., 2012) of cheese-flavored snacks, were recruited for the test. Of the nine panelists,
208 five were male, all were aged from 24 to 29 years and like little or too much of cheese-
209 flavored snacks, and six consume this product once every 15 days or once a month. The
210 panelists defined seven attributes in the snacks: two for texture (crunchy/crispy and hard), and
211 five for flavor (cereal flavor, cheese flavor, oil flavor, salty taste, and umami taste). Before
212 performing the test, the panelists were familiar with the software and were instructed that the
213 dominant sensation is that one that captures the attention, not necessarily the most intense
214 sensation (Pineau et al., 2009).

215 Multi-intake TDS analysis was conducted in triplicate for each snack, and each replicate
216 was performed with three intakes (three units of the same snack, with 2 cm in length each
217 one). In each intake of each replicate, the panelists clicked on the 'START' button on the
218 computer screen as soon as they had the snack in the mouth. Next, they selected the attribute
219 that attracted their attention from the list of seven attributes and only one attribute could be
220 selected at a time. However the same attribute could be selected several times. When the
221 panelists perceived that no more sensation was dominant, they clicked on the 'STOP' button
222 to indicate the end of the TDS evaluation of this unit (intake). After this, panelists performed
223 the same task for the other intakes and replicates, and there was no time limit for each sample

224 evaluation. All samples were presented in plastic cups encoded with random three-digit
225 numbers in balanced and monadic manner and following a Williams Latin square.

226 **2.5 Data analysis**

227 2.5.1 Butyric acid *in vitro* release

228 Results from the PTR-ToF-MS tests were analyzed in two ways: first, curves showing
229 the signal intensity against release time were fitted using a linear model and the inclination
230 coefficient for the release of butyric acid was obtained; then, the area below this curve was
231 calculated using the midpoint integration rule. These data were submitted to analysis of
232 variance followed by the Tukey test, at significant level of 0.05, using the Statistica 7.0
233 software (StatSoft Inc., Oklahoma, EUA).

234 2.5.2 Temporal Dominance of Sensations

235 TDS curves were built, standardizing the time for each intake between 0 (START) and
236 1 (STOP) (Galmarini, Loiseau, Debreyer, Visalli, & Schlich, 2017; Galmarini, Visalli, &
237 Schlich, 2017; Galmarini, Loiseau, Visalli, & Schlich, 2016). TDS curves show the
238 dominance rate of each attribute over time, as well as the lines corresponding to 'chance
239 level' and to 'significance level'. The 'chance level' is the dominance rate that an attribute
240 can be obtained by chance, while the 'significance level' is the minimum value of the
241 dominance rate considered as significant (Pineau et al. 2009). Therefore, an attribute is
242 considered dominant at that moment when the curve is above the significance level. However,
243 if the curve is in-between the chance and the significance level, the attribute can be
244 considered as having a tendency towards dominance (Galmarini et al., 2017).

245 The TDS data was also treated in order to compare dominance durations statistically.
246 Each intake was first time-standardized between 0 and 1 and then the 3 consecutive intakes

247 were concatenated. Thus time of the 3 intakes varies between 0 and 1 for the first, 1 and 2 for
248 the second and 2 and 3 for the third one. Dominance durations were computed from this
249 standardized data and submitted to a two-way ANOVA model including sample, panelist and
250 their interaction as factors, followed by Tukey test (significance level of 0.05). The same data
251 was submitted to the canonical variate analysis (CVA). All analyses were performed using
252 TimeSens® software (INRA, CSGA, Dijon, France).

253 3. Results and discussion

254 3.1 *In vitro* release of butyric acid from the expanded snacks

255 Fig. 2 shows that all snacks presented a similar release profile for butyric acid, both *via*
256 aroma (Fig. 2A) and *via* odor (Fig. 2B). However, statistical differences were observed
257 between the inclination coefficients of butyric acid release (Table 1) and to areas under the
258 curve (Table 2). For butyric acid release *via* aroma, the control snack (without sunflower oil)
259 presented the highest ($p \leq 0.05$) inclination coefficient (Table 1), as well as the highest ($p \leq$
260 0.05) area under the curve (Table 2), followed by the snack with 6 g/100 g of sunflower oil,
261 and then by the other snacks (12, 18 and 24 g/100 g of sunflower oil). However, for butyric
262 acid release *via* odor, the opposite was observed, because all snacks with sunflower oil
263 presented higher ($p \leq 0.05$) inclination coefficients (Table 1) and areas under the curve (Table
264 2) in relation to the control snack.

265 As butyric acid was added to the corn grits before extrusion, our hypothesis is that its
266 retention by the final product probably occurred through encapsulation inside the snack and
267 interaction with the sunflower oil sprinkled on the product. During consumption of products
268 without lipid, lipophilic volatile compounds, such as butyric acid, tend to be released rapidly
269 after the food is ruptured because of mastication. In products containing lipids, the release of
270 lipophilic volatile compounds occurs more slowly, since such compounds first need to be

271 released from the food matrix (encapsulation inside the snack) and migrate through the oil
272 interfaces (sunflower oil sprinkled on the product) to the saliva, and then released to the
273 headspace inside the mouth (Leland, 1997; Madene, Jacquot, Scher, & Desobry, 2006; Roos,
274 1997; Yuliani, Torley, & Bhandari, 2009). This is related to the partition coefficient of the
275 volatile compound representing the thermodynamic behavior of the compound in an organic
276 phase and in an aqueous phase ($P_{ow} = C_o/C_w$, where: C_o and C_w , concentration of volatile
277 compounds in the organic phase and in the water phase, respectively) (Roos, 1997;
278 Bortnowskaa, & Goluch, 2018). According IPCS (2018), octanol/water partition coefficient of
279 butyric acid as $\log P_{ow}$ is 0.79, showing the higher affinity of this compound by the organic
280 phase than by the aqueous phase. Thus, in the control snack (without sunflower oil), the
281 butyric acid was probably released quickly with the break-up of the snack structure during
282 mastication through the chewing simulator, shown by higher inclination coefficient of release
283 (Table 1) and area under the curve (Table 2), which corresponds to the amount of butyric acid
284 released over the time period analyzed. In the snacks that were sprayed with sunflower oil, the
285 release was supposedly slower, explaining the lower inclination coefficients of release and
286 areas under the curve in relation to the control snack. Therefore, the absence of lipids, or the
287 low quantity of lipids in the case of the snack with 6 g/100 g of sunflower oil, may result in a
288 momentary perception of butyric acid *via* aroma (inside the mouth), because the release is
289 fast, different from a longer perception when the amount of lipid is higher and the release of
290 butyric acid is slower.

291 In the case of butyric acid release *via* odor, it seems that the sunflower oil protected the
292 snacks from the loss of butyric acid. This may have occurred due to interactions of butyric
293 acid with lipids, requiring more time to be released due to greater resistance to mass transfer
294 of the butyric acid in oil than in air. Moreover, this effect was independent of the amount of
295 oil sprinkled on the snacks because the linear coefficients of release were statistically equal

296 for snacks with added oil (Table 1) and the areas under the curve little discriminated between
297 the snacks with oil (Table 2). Regarding the snacks without oil addition, we observed a lower
298 release coefficient (Table 1) and area under the curve (Table 2), probably because during the
299 preparation of the sample (milled), part of the butyric acid was released precisely because
300 there was no oil to increase the mass transfer resistance and act as a protector of butyric acid.

301 Comparing the snacks with oil addition, the sprinkling of 6 g/100 g of sunflower oil
302 caused higher release of butyric acid *via* aroma and practically the same release *via* odor in
303 relation to the other snacks, besides not raising the lipid content very much when compared to
304 others. In this study, these results were complemented with the Temporal Dominance of
305 Sensations technique providing information about the perception of the dominant sensation of
306 the flavor of the snacks over time.

307 **3.2 Temporal Dominance of Sensations of the expanded snacks**

308 The Fig. 3 shows the TDS curves for each snack over the three intakes. For both the
309 control snacks (C1 and C2), a total of three attributes reached significant dominance rates
310 over the three intakes: crunch/crispy, hard and cereal flavor. The beginning of intake was
311 characterized by hard and crunchy/crispy followed by the cereal flavor that persisted until the
312 end of each intake. Therefore, the absence of aroma precursors and sunflower oil (C1) and of
313 sunflower oil (C2) allowed the dominance of the cereal flavor, coming from the extruded corn
314 grits. Although the C2 snack had been produced with aroma precursors, the cheese flavor did
315 not reach a significant dominance rate for its characterization. This is due to the importance of
316 the lipids in releasing the volatile compounds from a food (Taylor & Linforth, 2010; Voilley
317 & Etiévant, 2006), and, consequently, on the perception of flavor of the product. Although C1
318 had added salt and monosodium glutamate, the salty taste and umami taste did not reach a

319 significant dominance rate for its characterization. This can also probably be explained by the
320 influence of the lipids on the perception of non-volatile compounds (Dramane et al., 2014).

321 In general, the snacks with sunflower oil had significant dominance rates of all
322 attributes. All snacks were described as crunchy/crisp, showing its importance as a dominant
323 attribute of expanded snacks, independent of the formulation of the product. Different from
324 the control snacks, the cheese flavor was dominant in all snacks with oil, although it was not
325 dominant at the intake 3 of the snack with 6 g/100 g oil. Snacks with oil were differentiated
326 regarding umami and salty taste, because the umami taste had significant dominance rate for
327 snacks with 6 g/100 g and 18 g/100 g oil and the salty taste for the snack with 12 g/100 g oil,
328 while both attributes described the snack with 24 g/100 g oil. The snack with 12 g/100 g oil
329 was the only snack with oil that was not described by the oil flavor, although this attribute
330 appears as dominant only at the end of the third intake for the other three snacks with oil.
331 These results are justified in the same way as previously, due to the influence of lipids on the
332 release of volatile compounds (Taylor & Linforth, 2010; Voilley & Etiévant, 2006), and on
333 the perception of non-volatile compounds (Dramane et al., 2014). Therefore, the presence of
334 sunflower oil aggregates dominant sensations to snacks, expanding and enriching their
335 sensory profiles.

336 In the same way, the canonical variate analysis splits snacks in function of the presence
337 or absence of oil (Fig. 4). The control snacks (C1 and C2), both without oil, were described
338 regarding the longer duration of the attributes hard and cereal flavor, while snacks with oil
339 were described by the longer duration of salty taste, crunchy/crisp, cheese flavor, umami taste
340 and oil flavor. Moreover, the overlap of the ellipse of the snack with 6 g/100 g of sunflower
341 oil and the ellipses of the other snack (12, 18 and 24 g/100 g) indicates similarity in the
342 duration of the dominant attributes of these products. Indeed, when the duration of the
343 dominant sensations are compared statistically, the snack with 6 g/100 g of oil was

344 statistically equal to the others with oil (Table 3). Therefore, the low use of sunflower oil does
345 not alter the dominant sensations of the snacks.

346 **4. Conclusions**

347 The monitoring of *in vitro* release of butyric acid showed that the snack sprinkled with 6
348 g/100 g of sunflower oil conferred a higher release of butyric acid *via* aroma and practically
349 the same release *via* odor in relation to the other snacks. Moreover, all snacks with sunflower
350 oil were described by the duration of salty taste, crunchy/crisp, cheese flavor, umami taste and
351 oil flavor, indicating that the low use of sunflower oil (6 g/100 g) did not alter or prejudice the
352 dominant sensations of the snacks. The production of snacks with low addition of lipids is
353 feasible and more studies about reducing the lipid content could be conducted in order to
354 further increase the nutritive value of this product. It must be emphasized that lipids are
355 macronutrients and lipophilic vitamin carriers, and so they are fundamental to human health.
356 Therefore, along with the improvement of the nutritive value of snacks by lipid reduction, the
357 population must be educated about the benefits of lipids to health, preventing health problems
358 through their elimination from the diet.

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455 **Legends of the figures**

456 **Fig. 1.** Distribution of the snack in the chewing simulator before (A) and after chewing (B).

457 **Fig. 2.** Profile of release of butyric acid from the expanded snacks *via* aroma (A) and *via* odor

458 (B). Legend: C2 - Control 2 (with addition of aroma precursors and without sunflower oil); 6 g/100 g - snack

459 with 6 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 12 g/100 g - snack with 12 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 18 g/100 g - snack with 18

460 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 24 g/100 g - snack with 24 g/100 g of sunflower oil.

461 **Fig. 3.** Multi-intake TDS curves for the expanded snacks. Legend: C1 - Control 1 (snack with salt

462 and monosodium glutamate, but without aroma precursors and sunflower oil); C2 - Control 2 (with addition of

463 aroma precursors and without sunflower oil); 6 g/100 g - snack with 6 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 12 g/100 g -

464 snack with 12 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 18 g/100 g - snack with 18 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 24 g/100 g - snack

465 with 24 g/100 g of sunflower oil. The x-axes represent the standardized time between 0 and 1.

466 **Fig. 4.** Canonical Variate Analysis for the duration of dominant attributes for the expanded

467 snacks. Legend: C1 - Control 1 (snack with salt and monosodium glutamate, but without aroma precursors and

468 sunflower oil); C2 - Control 2 (with addition of aroma precursors and without sunflower oil); 6 g/100 g - snack

469 with 6 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 12 g/100 g - snack with 12 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 18 g/100 g - snack with 18

470 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 24 g/100 g - snack with 24 g/100 g of sunflower oil.

Table 1

Models for the release of butyric acid from the expanded snacks via aroma and via odor.

Snacks*	Via aroma		Via odor	
	Model	R ²	Linear coefficient**	R ²
C2	$I = 1.40 \cdot 10^{10} t - 2.38 \cdot 10^{11}$	0.85	$14.05^a \pm 1.63$	$I = 2.32 \cdot 10^9 t - 8.85 \cdot 10^{10}$ 0.94
6 g/100 g	$I = 8.91 \cdot 10^9 t - 1.56 \cdot 10^{11}$	0.85	$8.91^b \pm 0.63$	$I = 7.87 \cdot 10^9 t - 2.74 \cdot 10^{11}$ 0.95
12 g/100 g	$I = 3.70 \cdot 10^9 t - 6.02 \cdot 10^{10}$	0.64	$3.70^c \pm 0.01$	$I = 1.11 \cdot 10^{10} t - 3.80 \cdot 10^{11}$ 0.94
18 g/100 g	$I = 2.15 \cdot 10^9 t - 3.52 \cdot 10^{10}$	0.46	$2.15^c \pm 0.28$	$I = 9.89 \cdot 10^9 t - 3.33 \cdot 10^{11}$ 0.95
24 g/100 g	$I = 4.20 \cdot 10^9 t - 7.13 \cdot 10^{10}$	0.66	$4.20^c \pm 0.01$	$I = 9.45 \cdot 10^9 t - 9.66 \cdot 10^{11}$ 0.97

*C2 - Control 2 (with addition of flavor precursors and without sunflower oil); 6 g/100 g - snack with 6 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 12 g/100 g - snack with 12 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 18 g/100 g - snack with 18 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 24 g/100 g - snack with 24 g/100 g of sunflower oil.

**All linear coefficients of the models were divided by 10^9 .

I: Intensity of butyric acid; t: release time of butyric acid.

Different letters in the same column indicate significant difference between the samples by the Tukey test ($p \leq 0.05$).

Table 2

Area under the curve of release of butyric acid from the expanded snacks via aroma and odor.

Snacks *	Via aroma **	Via odor ***
C2	32.6 ^a ±3.57	1.78 ^c ±0.27
6 g/100 g	25.3 ^b ±0.76	4.64 ^b ±0.79
12 g/100 g	9.08 ^c ±0.57	6.53 ^a ±0.21
18 g/100 g	7.03 ^c ±0.32	5.87 ^{ab} ±0.26
24 g/100 g	7.57 ^c ±0.03	6.06 ^{ab} ±0.56

*C2 - Control 2 (with addition of flavor precursors and without sunflower oil); 6 g/100 g - snack with 6 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 12 g/100 g - snack with 12 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 18 g/100 g - snack with 18 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 24 g/100 g - snack with 24 g/100 g of sunflower oil.

**Values of area (arbitrary units) were divided by 10⁹.

***Values of area (arbitrary units) were divided by 10¹³.

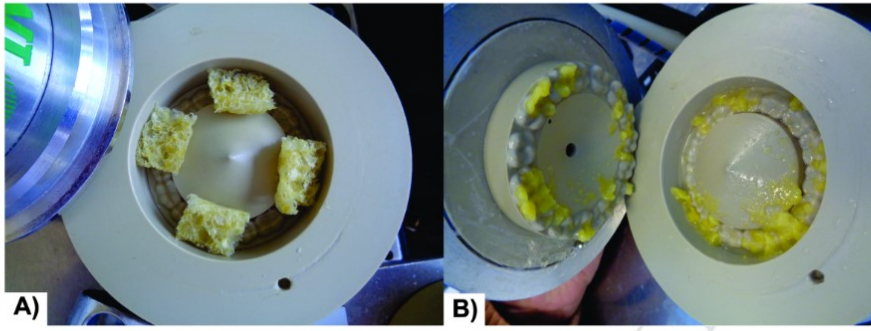
Different letters in the same column indicate a significant difference between the samples by the Tukey test (p ≤ 0.05).

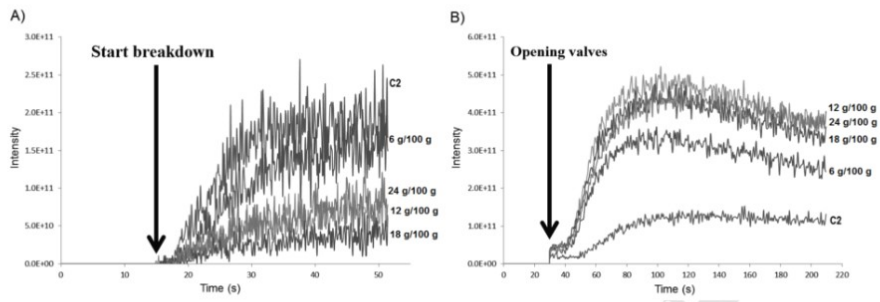
Table 3Proportional duration (means \pm SD) of the dominant sensations.

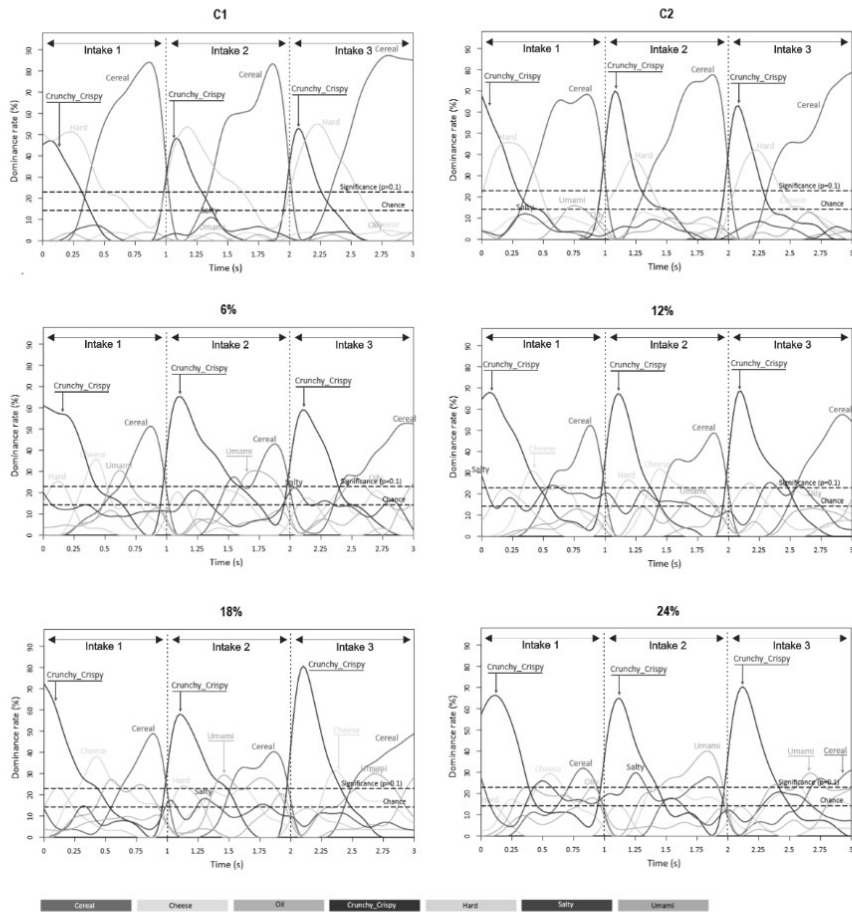
Snacks	C1	C2	6 g/100 g	12 g/100 g	18 g/100 g	24 g/100 g
Cereal	1.34 ^a \pm 0.10	1.19 ^a \pm 0.10	0.64 ^b \pm 0.10	0.64 ^b \pm 0.10	0.57 ^b \pm 0.10	0.39 ^b \pm 0.10
Umami	0.02 ^c \pm 0.07	0.15 ^{bc} \pm 0.07	0.40 ^{abc} \pm 0.07	0.23 ^{bcd} \pm 0.07	0.48 ^{ab} \pm 0.07	0.55 ^a \pm 0.07
Hard	0.85 ^a \pm 0.10	0.57 ^{ab} \pm 0.10	0.16 ^c \pm 0.10	0.29 ^{bc} \pm 0.10	0.21 ^{bc} \pm 0.10	0.11 ^c \pm 0.10
Salty	0.09 ^f \pm 0.06	0.14 ^{bc} \pm 0.06	0.37 ^{ab} \pm 0.06	0.48 ^a \pm 0.06	0.28 ^{abc} \pm 0.06	0.45 ^a \pm 0.06
Cheese	0.06 ^b \pm 0.08	0.23 ^{ab} \pm 0.08	0.36 ^{ab} \pm 0.08	0.45 ^a \pm 0.08	0.50 ^a \pm 0.08	0.44 ^a \pm 0.08
Oil	0.02 ^c \pm 0.04	0.04 ^{bc} \pm 0.04	0.20 ^{ab} \pm 0.04	0.10 ^{abc} \pm 0.04	0.19 ^{ab} \pm 0.04	0.22 ^a \pm 0.04
Crunchy/crispy	0.45 ^b \pm 0.09	0.61 ^{ab} \pm 0.09	0.83 ^a \pm 0.09	0.76 ^{ab} \pm 0.09	0.74 ^{ab} \pm 0.09	0.80 ^{ab} \pm 0.09

C1 – Control 1 (snack with salt and monosodium glutamate, but without aroma precursors and sunflower oil); 6 g/100 g - snack with 6 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 12 g/100 g - snack with 12 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 18 g/100 g - snack with 18 g/100 g of sunflower oil; 24 g/100 g - snack with 24 g/100 g of sunflower oil.

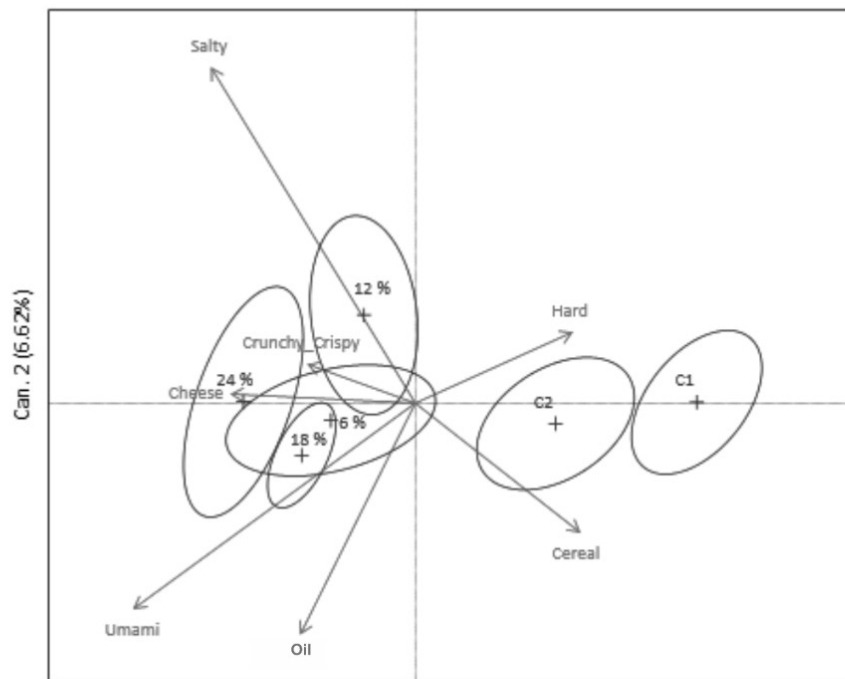
Different letters in the same line indicate a significant difference between the samples by the Tukey test ($p \leq 0.05$).







AC



Can. 1 (89.62%)
NDIMSIG=1, F=5.931 (p<0.001)
Confidence ellipses=90%

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Highlights

- Butyric acid and cysteine were used as aroma precursors in expanded snacks.
- The lower use of oil (6%) conferred better release of butyric acid measured *in vitro*.
- All snacks with oil (6, 12, 18 or 24%) were described by the same dominant sensations.
- Aroma precursors are an alternative for producing snacks with low lipid content.