

Food & Function

Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this *Accepted Manuscript* with the edited and formatted *Advance Article* as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the [Information for Authors](#).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](#) and the [Ethical guidelines](#) still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.

On characterization of anisotropic plant protein structures

Georgios A. Krintiras¹, Jesse Göbel¹, Wim G. Bouwman², Atze Jan van der Goot³, Georgios D. Stefanidis^{1,*}

¹ Delft University of Technology, Process & Energy Department, Leeghwaterstraat 39, 2628 CB Delft, The Netherlands

² Delft University of Technology, Neutron and Positron Methods in Materials, Mekelweg 15, 2629 JB Delft, the Netherlands

³ Food Process Engineering Group, Wageningen University and Research, P.O. Box 176700 AA, Wageningen, The Netherlands

*Corresponding author. Tel.: +31 15 27 81 447, E-mail address: G.Stefanidis@tudelft.nl (Georgios D. Stefanidis).

Abstract

In this paper, a set of complementary techniques was used to characterize surface and bulk structures of an anisotropic Soy Protein Isolate (SPI) – vital wheat gluten blend after it was subjected to heat and simple shear flow in a Couette Cell. The structured biopolymer blend can form a basis for a meat replacer. Light microscopy and scanning electron microscopy provided a detailed view of structure formation over the visible surfaces of the SPI-gluten blend. Protein orientation in the direction of the flow was evident and fibrous formation appeared to exist in the macro- and micro-scale. Further, according to texture analysis, the structured biopolymer obtained from the Couette Cell after processing at 95°C and 30 RPM for 15 min has high tensile stress and strain anisotropy indices (~2 and ~1.8, respectively), comparable to those of raw meat (beef). The novel element in this work is the use of the neutron refraction method, utilizing spin-echo small angle neutron scattering (SESANS), to provide a *look inside* the anisotropic biopolymer blend complementing the characterization provided by the standard techniques above. With SESANS, it is possible to quantify the number of fibre layers and the orientation distribution of fibres. For a specimen thickness of 5 mm, the obtained number of fibre layers was 36 ± 4 and the standard deviation of the orientation distribution was 0.66 ± 0.04 radians. The calculated thickness of one layer of fibres was 138 μm in line with SEM inspection.

Keywords: food characterization, meat replacer, Couette Cell, soy, gluten, plant protein, neutron refraction

29 **1. Introduction**

30 Meat production has an enormous impact on the environment and natural resources. According to a 2006 study by
31 the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FOA) ¹, 18% of the annual worldwide Greenhouse Gas
32 (GHG) emissions are attributed to livestock (cattle, buffalo, sheep, goats, camels, horses, pigs, and poultry). This is
33 higher than the contribution of transportation emissions (13%) on global scale ². Similar claims can be made for land
34 use and water footprint. Besides, the issue of animal welfare is another major concern. Clearly, there is need to
35 reduce meat consumption. From consumer research, it becomes clear that they are prepared to switch to plant-based
36 alternatives, provided that these resemble meat more accurately. Unfortunately, current meat replacers do not meet
37 all consumer wishes or are too expensive ³. Further development of meat replacers is also hindered by lack of
38 analytical methods that allow inspection of structures inside the products.

39 Currently, extrusion and spinning, are the main techniques available to produce anisotropic structured meat
40 replacers^{4, 5}. Recently, two new techniques based on the concept of flow-induced structuring were introduced. A
41 cone-cone device (Shear Cell) ⁶ and a concentric cylinder device (Couette Cell) ⁷ were developed. A model system
42 of Soy Protein Isolate (SPI) and vital wheat gluten blend has been used in both devices yielding anisotropic
43 structures that can serve as meat replacers.

44 Several characterization techniques, such as light microscopy (LM), scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and
45 texture analysis (TA) ^{8, 9} are typically used to extract information regarding food structures we produce or consume.
46 LM and SEM characterize food sample surfaces. TA can be used to quantify mechanical properties (stresses and
47 strains) and the anisotropy of food samples. In this work, we introduce the neutron refraction method with the
48 technique of Spin-Echo Small Angle Neutron Scattering (SESANS) ^{10, 11} as a new characterization method of
49 anisotropic biopolymer blends, such as soy protein isolate and vital wheat gluten. SESANS can be used to quantify
50 the number and thickness of fibrous layers inside the material and should be seen as a complementary method to LM,
51 SEM and TA.

52 In order for analysis of the bulk structure of a material, a *look inside* is required. To this end, regular light is
53 sufficient in case of transparent materials, but for opaque materials, different techniques need to be used. Refraction
54 is defined as the change in direction of a wave (or neutron) due to a change in the optical medium. When a neutron

55 passes through a sample, containing structures of material that is different than the surrounding material, refraction
56 can occur. When structures inside a sample are relatively large (much larger than the coherence length of the neutron
57 in the instrument ¹⁰), the effect of refraction is predominant over scattering.

58 A technique that can measure neutron refraction is called SESANS standing for Spin Echo Small Angle Neutron
59 Scattering. Neutrons are refracted by the scattering length density variations, due to different concentrations of
60 isotopes. Neutron refraction is useful for the study of biopolymer structures in that the isotopic scattering length b
61 has a large negative value, -3.742 fm, for hydrogen (¹H), compared with 6.671 fm for deuterium (²H), 6.651 fm for
62 carbon (¹²C), 9.400 fm for nitrogen (¹⁴N) and 5.804 fm for oxygen (¹⁶O) ¹². Therefore, important (biological)
63 elements with low atomic numbers like hydrogen, carbon and oxygen are well visible in neutron refraction. This
64 renders neutron refraction a suitable method for study of proteins since these molecules are mostly made up of
65 hydrogen, carbon, nitrogen and oxygen.

66 Refraction depends on the number of interfaces (density changes) the beam has to pass through and the shape of the
67 interfaces. For example, when a fibre is placed perpendicular to the direction of a neutron beam, a neutron changes
68 direction when passing the air - metal interface and again when leaving the wire through the metal - air interface.
69 Consequently, the distance travelled within the wire does not influence refraction and the diameter of the wire does
70 not influence the final deviation of the neutron from the incoming direction. Assuming that the fibres (in meat or
71 soy) can be modelled as cylindrically shaped wires and that these fibres are composed of material (proteins) other
72 than the material that surrounds them (e.g. air or heavy water), the principle of refraction can be used to obtain
73 information on fibrous materials. Plomp et al. ¹⁰ described the theory of neutron refraction by cylindrical metal wires,
74 which can be used as a basis for the interpretation of SESANS measurements on fibrous materials.

75

76 **2. *Materials and recipe***

77 A blend of soy protein isolate (SPI) (SUPROR EX37 HG IP, Solae, USA) and vital wheat gluten (WG) (VITENR,
78 Roquette, France) was used. According to the manufacturer specification, SPI has a minimum protein content of 90%
79 on a moisture-free basis, while gluten contains a minimum of 83% proteins on dry basis. Analysis for comparison
80 was performed on beef (specifically the blade, which is part of the chuck; front part of the cow). Each SPI/gluten and

81 raw meat sample was packaged in a seal bag and was stored in a freezer (at -20 °C). Samples were defrosted prior to
82 further analysis.

83 All characterization methods were applied to samples prepared with the same recipe (Table 1) and procedure. The
84 mixture created had a dry matter content of 31 wt%, with an SPI-gluten ratio of 3.3:1. First, the demi-water-salt
85 solution was made and added to SPI. The mixture was manually mixed with a spatula and then rested for 30 minutes.
86 Finally, gluten was added followed by mixing with the spatula.

87 **Table 1:** Ingredients for recipe preparation.

Ingredients	w/w [%]
Soy Protein Isolate	23
Demi - water	69
Salt (sodium chloride)	1
Gluten	7
Total	100

88

89 **3. Preparation of structured samples in a Couette Cell**

90 The protein mixture consists of deformable granules. A transparent (caulking) filling gun container using a funnel
91 and a pounder is employed to fill the Couette Cell with the material. The Couette Cell is filled from the side using a
92 filling tube that is screwed onto the filling hole. When the space between the cylinders (shearing zone) was
93 completely filled, the filling tube was removed and the filling hole was sealed using a screw plug with a
94 thermocouple attached. Then, the experiment was started as fast as possible.

95 The Couette Cell ^{7, 13} is a concentric cylinder device comprising an inner rotating cylinder ($R_i = 0.0425$ m) and an
96 outer cylinder ($R_o = 0.0485$ m), which remains stationary. Both the inner and outer cylinders are heated by means of
97 oil. The sample material is placed in the space between the two cylinders (gap size = 0.006m); this space is called
98 shearing zone. The height of both cylinders is $H = 0.085$ m.

99 During a previous study ⁷, several samples with the composition of Table 1 were processed in the Couette Cell at
100 different process conditions (temperature, rotation speed (RPM) and process time). The products were characterized
101 afterwards by means of TA and SEM. It was found that samples processed for 15 min at 95 °C and 30 RPM yielded

102 products with high Anisotropic Indices (AI). These samples had distinct anisotropic structures present and, in
103 particular, fibrous structures. A detailed overview of the device used and the experiments performed can be found in
104 the experimental parametric study by ⁷.

105

106 **4. Characterization methods**

107 **4.1. Light Microscopy**

108 The microscope used is a Nikon Optiphot 200 (Nikon Corporation, Tokyo, Japan), which comes with CF Plan BD
109 5/10/20/50x objectives for bright and dark fields and the possibility to obtain images with a digital camera, mounted
110 on the eyepiece tube, and a rotating diascope polarizer. The light microscope has been used to observe structured
111 samples. The observations took place at room temperature and provisions were taken to ensure that limited drying of
112 the samples occurred. Specifically, samples have been kept in airtight compartments with glass windows. Samples
113 were strained using toluidine blue stain moutant, which enabled visual differentiation between the two plant proteins
114 (SPI, gluten) used in the study ¹⁴. A couple of droplets of toluidine were applied to the surface and the specimen,
115 which was then left to rest for a couple of minutes. Toluidine stained the SPI protein with a dark purple-blue colour
116 and the wheat gluten with a pale blue-green colour.

117

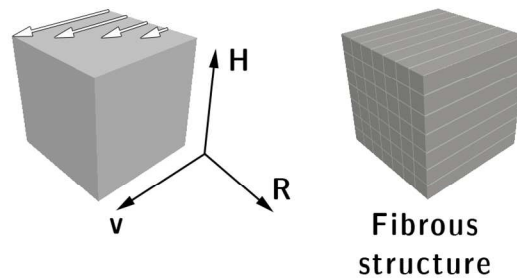
118 **4.2. Scanning Electron Microscopy**

119 The micro- and nanostructures of the samples were investigated with SEM (JSM-5400, Jeol, Tokyo, Japan). The
120 specimens were coated with an ultra-thin layer of gold with an ion sputter coater (JFC-1100E, Jeol, Tokyo, Japan) in
121 order for the surface of the specimens to become electrically conductive. The SEM at hand features high resolution
122 and low voltage imaging with a maximum resolution of 4.0 nm and a variable acceleration voltage of 0.5 - 30 kV.
123 Both secondary electron and backscattering electron detectors are available for imaging.

124

125 **4.3. Texture Analysis-Mechanical Testing**

126 Tensile tests were performed on a Zwick Roell Z005 universal testing machine (Zwick Roell AG., Ulm, Germany) to
 127 determine the degree of stress and strain anisotropy in the obtained samples. As shown in Figure 1, “parallel” is
 128 defined by the vector v (direction of velocity in the Couette Cell) and “perpendicular” by vector H (height of Couette
 129 Cell). Defrosted SPI/gluten samples and raw meat (beef) were subjected to texture analysis.



130

131 **Figure 1:** Schematic display of the orientation of fibrous structures related to the direction of flow in the Couette
 132 Cell. H is the height, R is the radius and v is the direction of velocity in the device.

133

134 The tensile tests were performed with a constant deformation rate of 0.5 mm s^{-1} at room temperature. Three samples
 135 have been used and at least three test specimens per direction were cut from each sample at the locations indicated in
 136 Figure 2. The specimens were cut in rectangular shape ($85 \times 5.5 \text{ mm}$) with a thickness of 5.5 mm . Thus, the cross
 137 sectional area relevant for calculating the normal stress was $3.025 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2$.

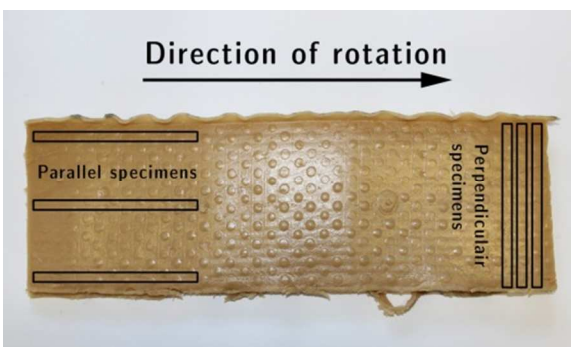


Figure 2: Locations on sample where cuts were made for texture analysis. The surface pattern is a result of the dimples on the surface of both the inner and outer cylinder made to avoid slip.

138

139 Roller clamps with a rough surface were used to fixate the specimens in the tester. The roller clamps press the
 140 specimens against a piece of sanding paper glued onto a metal plate. The rollers were fitted with rubber rings of 3

141 mm thickness to prevent excessive compression of the specimens. The distance between the points of application of
 142 the rollers was 58.34 mm. This distance was used to calculate the tensile strain. The force, distance, tensile stress and
 143 strain were recorded using Zwick's testXpert® software.

144 The maximum values for tensile stress and strain were determined for each specimen. The maximum tensile strain is
 145 determined at the point of maximum tensile stress. The maximum tensile stress and strain per direction were
 146 averaged and the relevant anisotropy indices (AI) were calculated through Equations 1 and 2, respectively.

$$147 \quad AI_{\sigma} = \frac{\sigma_{\parallel}}{\sigma_{\perp}} \quad (1)$$

148 where $AI_{\sigma}[-]$ is the stress anisotropy index; $\sigma_{\parallel}[\text{Pa}]$ is the normal stress for specimens cut parallel to the fibres and
 149 $\sigma_{\perp}[\text{Pa}]$ is the normal stress for specimens cut perpendicular to the fibres

$$150 \quad AI_{\varepsilon} = \frac{\varepsilon_{\parallel}}{\varepsilon_{\perp}} \quad (2)$$

151 where, $AI_{\varepsilon}[-]$ is the strain anisotropy index; $\varepsilon_{\parallel}[\text{mm/mm}]$ is the normal strain for specimens cut parallel to the fibres
 152 and $\varepsilon_{\perp}[\text{mm/mm}]$ is the normal strain for specimens cut perpendicular to the fibres.

153

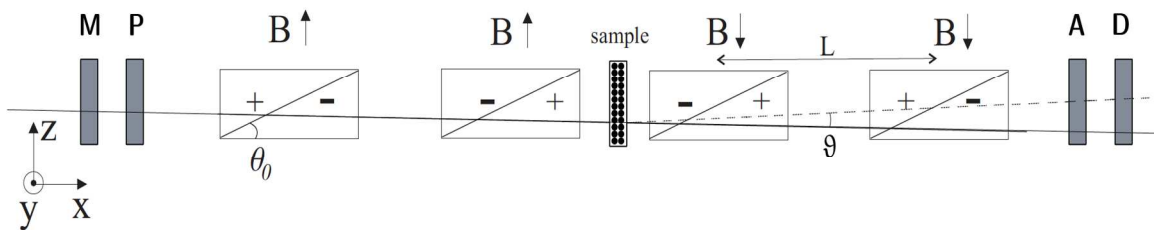
154 **4.4. Neutron refraction detected by spin-echo**

155 **4.4.1. Sample preparation**

156 One sample was tested in the SESANS instrument located at the Reactor Institute Delft (RID). The sample selected
 157 was the one with the most pronounced fibrous structure based on visual inspection. This sample had an anisotropy
 158 index of $AI_{\sigma}=3.16$.

159 The partly frozen sample was cut parallel to the flow plane, which is the plane defined by vector v and H in Figure 1,
 160 into slices with a thickness of 3.5 mm for the horizontally oriented specimen and 1.5 mm for the vertically oriented
 161 specimen. After cutting, the sample was rested to allow complete defrosting. The thickness difference is corrected

162 during the fitting procedure of the experimental data. Two specimens were cut per slice with a circular die cutter.
 163 The specimens were placed into round transparent airtight containers, which were mounted on a specimen holder.
 164 One specimen was placed in the specimen holder with the fibres orientated perpendicular to the sensitive direction of
 165 the instrument, i.e. with the fibres in the y -direction as shown in Figure 3, and the other one was placed in the
 166 specimen holder with the fibres orientated parallel to the sensitive direction of the instrument. Both specimens were
 167 measured for 6 h.



168
 169 **Figure 3:** Schematic monochromatic SESANS arrangement with monochromator (M) polariser (P), flipper magnets
 170 (B), analyser (A) and detector (D), adapted from¹⁰.

171

172 4.4.2. Fitting Method

173 The result of a SESANS measurement is a set of data points that relate the polarization, $P(B, \lambda)$ to the magnetic
 174 induction, B in each of the flipper magnets and the wavelength λ . For the analysis in this study, λ is constant. The
 175 polarization for n layers of fibres is given by:

$$176 \quad P(B, \lambda) = (\kappa K_1(\kappa))^n \quad (3)$$

177 where $K_1(\kappa)$ is the first-order modified Bessel function of the second kind and κ is a scanning parameter expressed
 178 in Equation 4.

$$179 \quad \kappa = 2\delta cL \cot \theta_0 B \lambda \quad (4)$$

180 where $c [T^{-1}m^{-2}]$ is the Larmor precession constant, $c = 4.632 \cdot 10^{14} T^{-1}m^{-2}$, $L [m]$ is the length between the centres
 181 of the two magnetized foil flippers in each magnetic arm and $\theta_0 [rad]$ is the inclination angle in the SESANS
 182 device.

183 As described before, the way neutrons are refracted depends on the shape and the number of structures that cause the
 184 refraction. When introducing the refractive index η for thermal neutrons, Equation 5 is obtained.

$$185 \quad \eta = 1 - \delta \quad (5)$$

186 where the deviation δ from 1 is given by:

$$187 \quad \delta = \frac{\rho \lambda^2 \bar{b}}{2\pi} \quad (6)$$

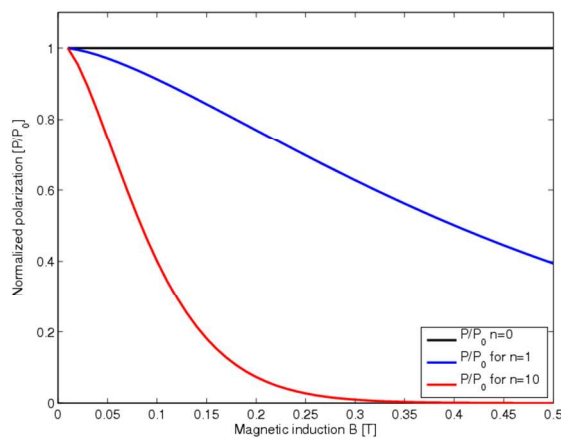
188 where $\rho [m^{-3}]$ is the number of nuclei per unit volume; $\lambda [m]$ is the wavelength of a neutron; $\bar{b} [m]$ is the mean
 189 coherent scattering length, which is positive for most materials and the product $\rho \bar{b} [m^{-2}]$ is the scattering length
 190 density (SLD). Since \bar{b} is positive, n is less than 1; this means that a cylinder will act as a lens with a negative focal
 191 length in the direction perpendicular to the cylinder axis.

192 From Equations 3, 4 and 6, it can be deduced that polarization is not dependent on the diameter of the fibres, but,
 193 rather, on the material of the sample (SLD) and the number n of layers of fibres in the sample. The SLD and n have
 194 a similar effect on the calculated polarization.

195 Measurements in this study were done on a monochromatic SESANS instrument with a wavelength of $\lambda = 0.2 \cdot 10^{-9}$
 196 m (2.0 Å). Since the number of layers in a sample and the composition of the fibres are unknown, Equation 3 must
 197 be fitted to the measurement data. The fitting parameters are the number of layers, n and the normalized Gaussian
 198 distribution of angles $\varphi(\alpha)$ with a standard deviation σ .

199 To get an idea of how a polarization curve looks like, Equation 3 is evaluated for different layers of wires, n , with a
 200 composition based on calculated SLD, displayed in Figure 4. This Figure illustrates that a specimen without fibres,

201 or with fibres, oriented parallel to the sensitive direction of the instrument - i.e. with the fibres in the z-direction as
 202 shown in Figure 3 - will not show depolarization. Multiple layers of fibres will increase the depolarization.



203

204

Figure 4: Equation 3 evaluated for different layers of wires, n .

205

206 The exact composition of the fibres is unknown; it can be pure SPI, pure gluten or an SPI - gluten mixture with H₂O
 207 and salt in any ratio. An initial guess for the SLD can be made assuming that the fibres consist of SPI only.

208 The SLD of SPI can be calculated with the SLD calculator on the website of the National Institute of Standards and
 209 Technology (NIST)¹⁵. The calculator on this website uses Equation 7 for calculating the SLD.

210

$$SLD = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n b_c}{v_m} \quad (7)$$

211 where b_c [m] is the bound coherent scattering length of the i^{th} of n atoms in a molecule with molecular volume
 212 v_m [m³ / mol]. In the calculator, the empirical formula of the material is needed to determine the right values for b_c
 213 and v_m .

214 We have determined the bulk empirical formula of SPI to be C¹⁹⁶H³⁸⁰N⁵¹O¹⁰²S¹. For the calculation of the SLD, the
 215 density of the fibrous material is needed as well. Not all the densities of the amino acids are known; however,
 216 looking at the densities that are known, it is assumed that the average density is in the order of 1.5 g/cm³¹⁶.

217 Using the above empirical formula and density in the SLD calculator, we can get a calculated value for the SLD_{SPI} of
218 $1.68 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$ ($1.68 \cdot 10^{14} \text{ m}^{-2}$). In addition, $SLD_{air}=0$ and the $SLD_{D_2O} = 6.38 \cdot 10^{14} \text{ m}^{-2}$. From the SLD_{SPI} , SLD_{air} and
219 SLD_{D_2O} , we can define the lower and upper limits of SLD for our system with the lower one being the SPI/air
220 interface of $1.68 \cdot 10^{14} \text{ m}^{-2}$ and the upper one being the SPI/D₂O interface of $4.7 \cdot 10^{14} \text{ m}^{-2}$.

221 The SLD of both the vertical and horizontal specimens is equal since they are cut out of the same sample. The
222 vertical specimen has a thickness of 1.5 mm compared to 3.5 mm for the horizontal specimen. Since the number of
223 layers is proportional to the thickness, the number of layers in the sample can be calculated.

224 With the calculated value of the SLD and the density, Equation 3 can be fitted to the measurement data. The fitting
225 method used is the common minimization function in MATLAB called `fminsearch`, which finds the local minimum
226 of a function of several variables, starting at an initial estimate.

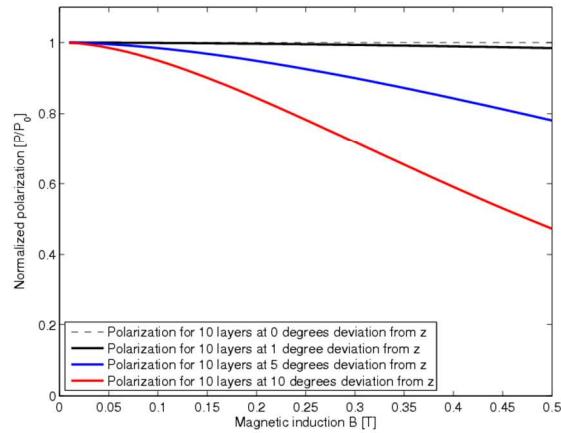
227

228 **4.4.3. Effect of orientation of the fibres**

229 The orientation of the specimen in the specimen holder is important because the SESANS device is only sensitive to
230 refraction in the xz - plane. This means that when the vertical specimen (with fibres oriented in the z direction) is
231 rotated with a small angle $\alpha < 1^\circ$ in the yz - plane, it will cause a small amount of refraction in the xz - plane. The
232 depolarization caused by this refraction is calculated by scaling κ in Equation 4 with $\cos \alpha$. The alignment of the
233 horizontal specimen is less important given the fact that κ scales with a cosine. At $\chi = 90$ (vertical position),
234 $\cos(\alpha - \chi)$ has a maximum slope compared to $\chi = 0$ (horizontal position) where the slope of $\cos(\alpha)$ is at a
235 minimum. To verify how sensitive the method is to misalignment, Figure 5 shows how the polarization curve shifts
236 from its original position, the line $y=1$, if a vertical specimen with 10 layers of fibres is rotated at various angles in
237 the yz -plane.

238 At 1° , no significant depolarization is calculated, but at 5° , high depolarization should be visible. This shows that the
239 results obtained by SESANS for the vertical specimens are very sensitive to alignment, implying that it is a useful

240 method to measure the orientation distribution. In our case, both vertically and horizontally placed specimens
 241 showed different depolarization, which indicates a finite orientation distribution.



242
 243 **Figure 5:** Theoretical polarization curves for specimens at various deviation angles assuming a specimen with 10
 244 layers of wires and the calculated SLD.

245

246 Now the deviation angle, α , is used as a fitting parameter in Equation 3, where κ is defined as

$$247 \quad \kappa = \cos(\alpha - \chi) 2\delta c L \cot \theta_0 B \lambda \quad (8)$$

248 This fit finds its optimum if we assume that the fibres in the specimen are not perfectly parallel to each other. In fact,
 249 there is actually a normalized Gaussian distribution of angles $\varphi(\alpha)$ with a standard deviation σ .

$$250 \quad \varphi(\alpha) = \frac{e^{-\left(\frac{\alpha^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)} + e^{-\left(\frac{(\alpha-\pi)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)}}{2\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \quad (9)$$

251 In Equation 9, we take into account the contribution of the same anti-parallel orientation to the distribution in order
 252 to avoid discontinuities at $\alpha = \pi/2$.

253

254 5. Results

255 5.1. *Light Microscopy*

256 Figure 6 shows LM images of a structured sample at 5x and 10x magnification. We observe that the stained proteins
 257 follow a certain direction indicating anisotropic structure formation. A closer look at the picture reveals that lighter
 258 parts in the sample are enrobed with a stranded continuous network. Possibly, this corresponds with SPI being
 259 dispersed in a continuous gluten matrix⁶. The LM indicated evidence for existence of anisotropic structures.

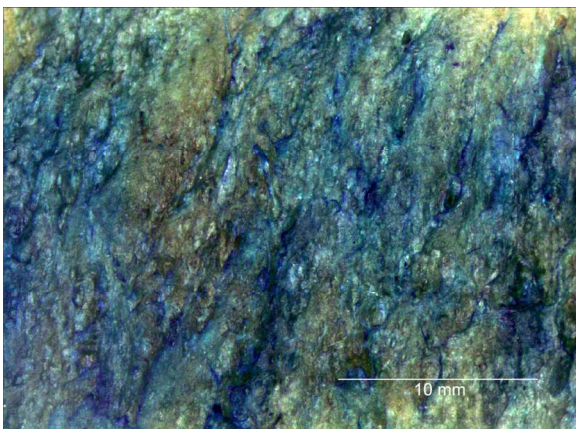


Image of a structured sample at 5x magnification

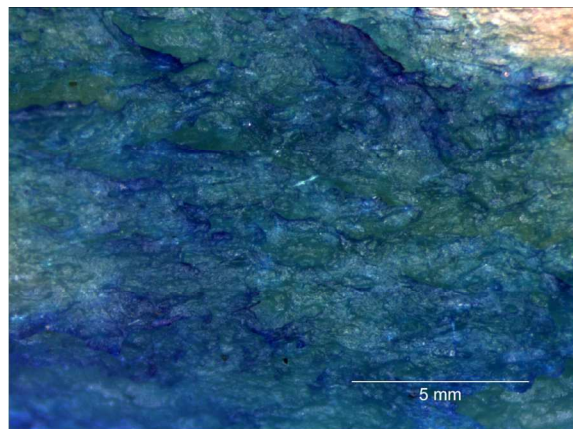


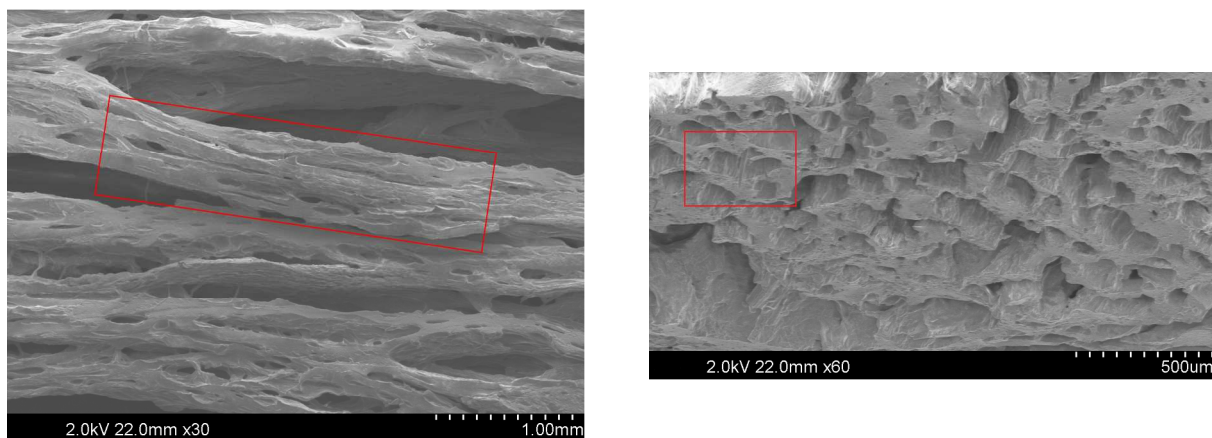
Image of a structured sample at 10x magnification

260 **Figure 6:** Images of structured sample using toluidine blue stain moutant (dark purple-blue colour for the SPI protein
 261 and pale blue-green colour for the wheat gluten)

262

263 5.2. *Scanning Electron Microscopy*

264 The textured samples can have fibre-based structures (see Figure 1). Figure 7 shows SEM images of fibrous samples.
 265 The structures in Figure 7(left) have widths in the range of 150 - 300 μm . Figure 7(left) suggests that the large
 266 fibrous structures are made up of smaller ones and that the structures are interconnected with much smaller fibres (1-
 267 5 μm diameter). The red box area in Figure 7(left) includes various fibres that form a single bigger fibrous bundle.
 268 These fibres are probably gluten. Figure 7(right) shows the surface of the specimen oriented in the H-R plane. Figure
 269 7(right) has been rotated $\sim 35^\circ$ counter-clockwise with the top left part showing the surface oriented in the H-v plane.
 270 In Figure 7(right), the tips of the fibres can be seen; the shape is irregular, which can be attributed to various fibres
 271 connected to form a larger one. The red box area in Figure 7(left) highlights the presence of what is thought to be a
 272 single gluten fibril.



273 **Figure 7:** SEM images of a fibrous sample at different view planes; *left:* the displayed surface is oriented in the R-v
 274 plane (see Figure 1); *right:* the displayed surface is oriented in the H-R plane (see Figure 1).

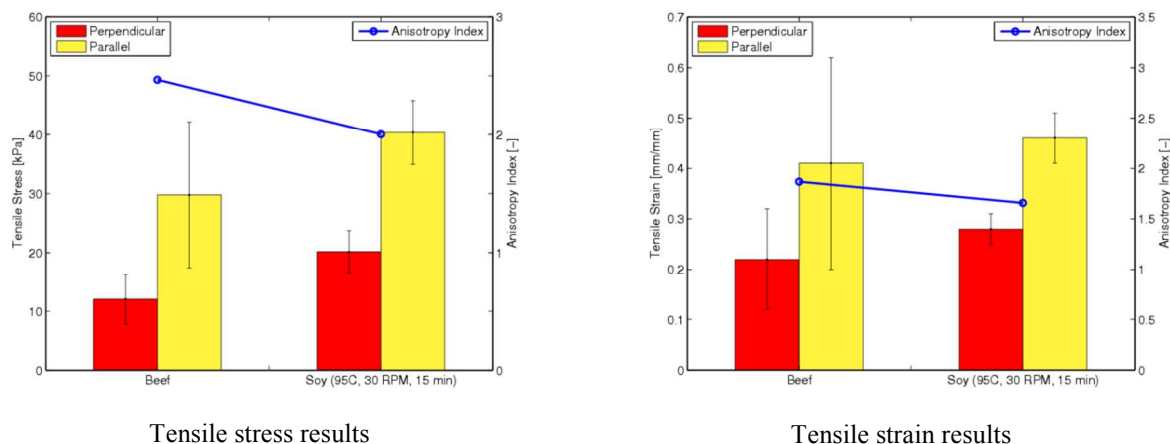
275

276 5.3. *Texture Analysis – Mechanical Testing*

277 The materials selected in this study, (soy protein isolate and vital wheat gluten) have potential to form the basis for a
 278 meat replacer. It is therefore interesting to compare the samples obtained with raw meat. To this end, tensile tests
 279 were performed on raw beef. All the samples were first frozen for 3 h to make it easier to cut the specimens; then, the
 280 specimens were packed in plastic seal bags. The specimens were tested when they reached room temperature.

281 The results of the tensile tests for raw meat are presented in Figure 8 and compared to a typical fibrous structured
 282 sample. The results are presented in terms of the tensile stress and strain parallel and perpendicular to the fibres. In
 283 the event of beef, three specimens were tested parallel and perpendicular to the fibres. The anisotropy index is
 284 displayed as a blue graph in Figure 8. The anisotropy index is the ratio between the parallel and perpendicular
 285 direction (stress or strain); the connecting line between the dots is for visual convenience.

286 In Figure 8, it is shown that a typical fibrous structured sample obtained, after processing at 95 °C and 30 RPM for
 287 15 min, has comparable stress and strain anisotropy indices (~2 and ~1.8, respectively) with raw meat (beef). All
 288 displayed error bars represent the margin of error at 95% confidence interval. This implies that the meat replacers
 289 obtained with the Couette Cell exhibit similar mechanical properties as raw meat. This makes it a promising process
 290 to develop the meat replacers.

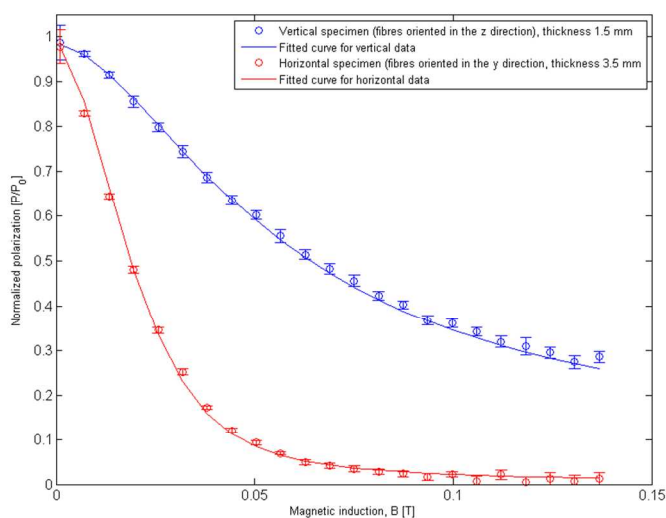


291 **Figure 8:** Tensile stress and strain measurements for raw meat (beef) and a typical fibrous structured sample
 292 obtained with the Couette Cell.

293

294 5.4. Neutron refraction

295 Figure 9 shows two neutron refraction measurements performed on a sample in which D₂O had replaced H₂O. These
 296 measurements were meant to check whether any depolarization would be visible for this type of material. Thicker
 297 specimens could contain more layers of fibres and therefore show more depolarization. The experimental data in
 298 Figure 9 have been fitted using a fixed realistic value for SLD being $4.3 \cdot 10^{14} \text{ m}^{-2}$. This SLD value corresponds to
 299 experimental data fitting with the lowest error for n and σ . It also indicates that there is air entrapped in the treated
 300 samples as can be seen in Figure 7. The obtained number of layers of fibres (n) is 36 ± 4 for the total specimen
 301 thickness of 5 mm and the standard deviation (σ) of the orientation distribution is 0.66 ± 0.04 radians. The
 302 thickness of one layer of fibres is 138 μm and this value is in good agreement with the SEM inspection reported in ⁷
 303 and Figure 7. There is a distinct difference in the depolarization between the vertical and horizontal specimens,
 304 providing verification of anisotropic structuring.



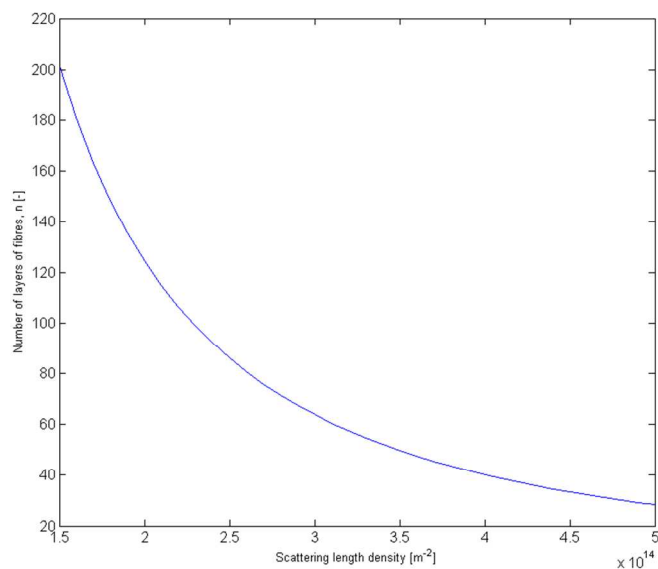
305

306

Figure 9: Fitted curve for SESANS measurement data for horizontal and vertical specimens.

307

308 Figure 10 shows how the number of layers of fibres n varies with SLD. This graph is the combined analysis of both
 309 vertical and horizontal data of the specimen. Assumptions about the water content of the specimen had to be made to
 310 calculate the SLD for meat replacers. As explained earlier, we can define the lower and upper limits of SLD for our
 311 system with the lower one being the SPI/air interface of $1.68 \cdot 10^{14} \text{ m}^{-2}$ and the upper one being the SPI/D₂O interface
 312 of $4.7 \cdot 10^{14} \text{ m}^{-2}$. Therefore, in Figure 10, SLD is varied within these limits. Figure 10 shows the close relation
 313 between n and SLD and that these parameters are completely coupled when both are fitted. This implies that the
 314 fibre diameter can be between 30 and 150 μm if our assumptions about the water content were not correct.



315

316 **Figure 10:** Number of layers of fibres for the sum of both vertical and horizontal measurement data as
 317 function of SLD.

318

319 6. *Synopsis of complementary characterization techniques*

320 Light microscopy together with SEM provided a detailed view of anisotropic SPI-gluten blend, illustrating the
 321 structure formed over the visible or created surfaces. Protein orientation in the direction of the flow was evident and
 322 fibrous formation appeared to exist in the macro- and micro-scale. Use of toluidine blue stain moutant enabled visual
 323 observation of the SPI and gluten protein distribution using light microscopy. Texture Analysis provided quantitative
 324 comparison between raw meat (beef) and the obtained meat replacer. The meat replacer obtained from the Couette
 325 Cell after processing at 95 °C and 30 RPM for 15 min exhibited high stress and strain anisotropy indices (~ 2 and
 326 ~ 1.8 , respectively), comparable to those of raw meat (beef).

327 By employing neutron refraction with the novel SESANS technique, a complementary investigation of the structure
 328 formation was enabled. We were able to quantify the number of fibre layers (36 ± 4) and the orientation distribution
 329 of fibres (0.66 ± 0.04 radians). The neutron refraction results were in line with SEM observations; specifically, same
 330 values were obtained for the sample fibre thickness ($138 \mu\text{m}$) both with SEM and neutron refraction. The structure
 331 formation of the treated sample shown in the light microscopy images follows approximately the same orientation

332 distribution ($\pm 40^\circ$) in the direction of the flow. Perfectly oriented fibres would result in higher anisotropy index
333 values.

334

335 **7. Conclusions**

336 We have used a range of complementary techniques to characterize plant-based meat replacers, produced in a
337 Couette Cell. The techniques used provided insight into the structures formed at the surface and bulk of the material.
338 Light Microscopy (LM) was used to differentiate between proteins (SPI, gluten) and revealed anisotropic formations
339 in the direction of the flow. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) was used to observe the morphology of the treated
340 biopolymer mixture of SPI-gluten (plant-based meat replacer) at micro-scale. Based on the SEM observations, the
341 fibre thickness was found to be $\pm 150 \mu\text{m}$. Texture Analysis (TA) was done to enable quantitative comparison
342 between the mechanical properties (tensile stress and strain) of raw meat (beef) and the novel meat replacers
343 produced in the Couette Cell. For the treated sample high tensile stress and strain anisotropy indices (~ 2 and ~ 1.8 ,
344 respectively) were found, which are comparable to those of raw meat (beef). Most importantly, a novel technique
345 called spin-echo small angle neutron scattering (SESANS) was used to quantify the number of fibre layers (± 36) in
346 the bulk of the meat replacers (a *look inside* the material). From the number of fibre layers within the tested
347 specimens, the thickness of fibre layers ($\pm 138 \mu\text{m}$) was calculated and was found to be in agreement with SEM
348 observations.

349 As a final note, combinatorial use of several characterization techniques is necessary for better understanding of the
350 nature of plant-based meat replacers as well as their functionality and structuring mechanisms. In this context,
351 common techniques, such as LM, SEM and TA complemented by SESANS can give the full qualitative and
352 quantitative three-dimensional picture of structures formed inside the material.

353

354 **Acknowledgements**

355 We thank Wim van Oordt and Mojgan Talebi (Department of Product and Process Engineering, TU Delft) for their
356 help obtaining the LM images, Michel van den Brink (Department of Process and Energy, TU Delft) for his help

357 obtaining the SEM images, Patrick van Holst and Harry Jansen (Department of Precision and Microsystems
358 Engineering, TU Delft) for their help and technical assistance with the texture analysis measurements and Chris Duif
359 (Department of Radiation, Science & Technology, TU Delft) for his technical assistance and collaboration with the
360 SESANS measurements. This research is carried out within the “Intensified Protein Structuring (IPS) for More
361 Sustainable Food” research programme, which is part of the “Institute for Sustainable Process Technology (ISPT)”
362 and supported by “The Peas Foundation (TPF)”. The SPI and vital wheat gluten have been kindly provided by
363 Barentz B.V. The meat samples were kindly donated by Slagerij Deken (Wormerveer, The Netherlands).

364

365

366 References

- 367 1. H. Steinfield, P. Gerber, T. Wassenaar, V. Castel, Food, A. O. of the United Nations, E. Livestock, D.
368 (Firm) and C. De Haan, *Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options*, Food and agriculture
369 organization of the United Nations, 2006.
- 370 2. R. K. Pachauri, 2008.
- 371 3. A. C. Hoek, P. A. Luning, P. Weijzen, W. Engels, F. J. Kok and C. de Graaf, *Appetite*, 2011, **56**, 662 - 673.
- 372 4. J. C. Cheftel, M. Kitagawa and C. Quéguiner, *Food Reviews International*, 1992, **8**, 235-275.
- 373 5. D. J. Gallant, B. Bouchet and J. Culioli, *Food Microstruct*, 1984, **3**, 175-183.
- 374 6. K. J. Grabowska, S. Tekidou, R. M. Boom and A. J. v. d. Goot, *Food Res Int*, 2014.
- 375 7. G. A. Krintiras, J. Göbel, A. J. van der Goot and G. D. Stefanidis, *Food and Bioprocess Technology*, 2014,
376 **under review**.
- 377 8. J. M. Aguilera and D. W. Stanley, *Microstructural principles of food processing and engineering*, Aspen
378 Publishers, Gaithersburg, MD, 1999.
- 379 9. A. G. Gaonkar, *Characterization of food : emerging methods*, Elsevier, Amsterdam ; New York, 1995.
- 380 10. J. Plomp, J. G. Barker, V. O. de Haan, W. G. Bouwman and A. A. van Well, *Nuclear Instruments and*
381 *Methods in Physics Research Section A: Accelerators, Spectrometers, Detectors and Associated Equipment*,
382 2007, **574**, 324 - 329.
- 383 11. M. T. Rekveldt, J. Plomp, W. G. Bouwman, W. H. Kraan, S. Grigoriev and M. Blaauw, *Rev Sci Instrum*,
384 2005, **76**.
- 385 12. O. Byron and R. J. Gilbert, *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*, 2000, **11**, 72 - 80.
- 386 13. S. H. Peighambardoust, S. v. Brenk, A. J. v. d. Goot, R. J. Hamer and R. M. Boom, *J Cereal Sci*, 2007, **45**,
387 34-48.

- 388 14. F. O. Flint and B. M. Firth, *Analyst*, 1988, **113**, 365-366.
- 389 15. NIST, NIST Scattering Length Density Calculator.
- 390 16. R. P. Singh, R. P. Singh and D. R. Heldman, *Introduction to Food Engineering*, Elsevier Science, 2008.
- 391
- 392