

Culinary Nutrition

The Science and Practice of Healthy Cooking



Jacqueline B. Marcus



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Jacqueline B. Marcus, MS, RD, LD, CNS, FADA

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The Nutrition, Food Science and Culinary Connection

Integrating Nutrition, Food Science and the Culinary Arts

INTRODUCTION

People have integrated nutrition, food science and cooking since the beginning of time—without even knowing it. The first foods and beverages were chosen to stay alive. Ancients ate meat and vegetation for sustenance and drank water for hydration. Little did they realize that the substances in meats and plants (proteins, fats and carbohydrates) are nutrients that are responsible for energy, strength and well-being.

Our ancestors ate foods raw—much like some people do today. Once fire was discovered, they cooked and baked foods to improve their flavor. Little did they realize that heat breaks down some foods into their components (amino acids, fatty acids and sugars) for digestion and absorption.

Grains, such as rice and wheat, were chewed by early people for taste and nourishment. Little did they realize that saliva breaks down carbohydrates into more digestible substances and that cooking has similar effects. Once the benefits of cooking grains were discovered, this improved their taste and texture further.

Milk from goats, sheep and cows was used to produce a variety of dairy products, including fermented milk, cheese and yogurt. Yogurt was accidentally discovered when milk soured after a long journey inside a pouch that resembled a cow's stomach. Little did shepherds realize that substances called enzymes are responsible for this transformation—and are still used today.

As time went on, raw ingredients changed in appearance, character, form and nature—thanks to nutrition, food science and the culinary arts. Meats, fowl and fish were sliced, chopped and ground into fillets, stews, patties, sausages and forms otherwise previously unknown. Grains were pulverized into flours and made into flat and leavened breads with the help of yeast and starters.

Foods functioned for enjoyment and as curatives. Vegetables and fruits, originally known for their medicinal qualities, were added to meat-based soups and stews and savory breads and transformed into an array of tasty side dishes. Herbs and spices, initially used for healing, enhanced recipes of all kinds. Fats and oils, valued for richness, also supplied satiety. Alcoholic beverages, frequently used in health and disease, etched their place in gastronomy.

Just like hundreds of years ago, nutrition, food science and the culinary arts are still inescapably linked. Advances in nutrition, food science and the culinary arts are now multifaceted, rapidly paced and transformational.

People no longer have to hunt and forage to meet their nutritional needs. Food science has created hearty, resistant foods that are available year-round from worldwide sources. The culinary arts have shaped foods

into gustatory delights. And many foods and beverages are now enriched or fortified with nutrients that hardly resemble what our ancestors consumed or Mother Nature intended.

As a result, nutrition, food science and culinary professionals may find it harder than ever to sort out the good from the bad, the wrong from the right, and the healthy from the not-so-healthy. This is why it is so important to learn about nutrition, food science and the culinary arts in an interdisciplinary approach like the one this book presents.

HOW TO USE THIS BOOK

Culinary Nutrition: The Science and Practice of Healthy Cooking combines nutrition, food science and the culinary arts unlike other culinary nutrition texts. It translates the science of food and nutrition into the culinary arts by using a straightforward, comprehensible and palatable approach.

Each of the 12 chapters contains a menu of offerings: main courses, basics, tantalizing sides, hands-on approaches and useful takeaways. These items are accompanied by morsels of nutrition, food science and culinary knowhow that apply to many consumer and professional settings.

Recipe ideas are interspersed throughout the chapters. Full recipes, serving ideas and nutrition information are located in a *Recipe file* within the companion *Culinary Nutrition* website at www.culinarynutrition.elsevier.com. Photos of these recipes are located in the centerfold of the book. Short summaries and review questions are included at the end of each chapter to help digest the contents, with additional resources to tantalize tastes.

Finishing Touches include a *Word Pantry* that is filled with key terms from each chapter and references that reflect each chapter's contents. To whet appetites even further, the companion *Culinary Nutrition* website at www.culinarynutrition.elsevier.com includes additional hands-on approaches *In Serve it Forth* and review questions in *Check Please*, as well as the *Recipe file*. A comprehensive *Index* completes the text for easy access.

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CONTENTS OF THIS BOOK

Culinary Nutrition: The Science and Practice of Healthy Cooking contains 12 chapters that cover the topics that incorporate nutrition, food science and the culinary arts:

Chapter 1—Nutrition Basics: What Is Inside Food, How It Functions and Healthy Guidelines

The Nutrients in Foods and Beverages in Healthy Cooking and Baking

Chapter 2—Food Science Basics: Healthy Cooking and Baking Demystified

The Science behind Healthy Foods, Cooking and Baking

Chapter 3—Culinary Arts Basics: Healthy Cooking Fundamentals

The Culinary Competencies of Healthy Food Selection, Preparation and Food Service

Chapter 4—Carbohydrate Basics: Sugars, Starches and Fibers in Foods and Health

Healthy Carbohydrate Choices, Roles and Applications in Nutrition, Food Science and the Culinary Arts

Chapter 5—Protein Basics: Animal and Vegetable Proteins in Foods and Health

Healthy Protein Choices, Roles and Applications in Nutrition, Food Science and the Culinary Arts

Chapter 6—Lipid Basics: Fats and Oils in Foods and Health

Healthy Lipid Choices, Roles and Applications in Nutrition, Food Science and the Culinary Arts

Chapter 7—Vitamin and Mineral Basics: The ABCs of Healthy Foods and Beverages Including Phytonutrients and Functional Foods

Healthy Vitamin and Mineral Choices, Roles and Applications in Nutrition, Food Science and the Culinary Arts

Chapter 8—Fluid Basics: Healthfully Meeting Fluid Needs

Healthy Fluid Choices, Roles and Applications in Nutrition, Food Science and the Culinary Arts

Chapter 9—Diet and Disease: Healthy Choices for Disease Prevention and Diet Management

Practical Applications for Nutrition, Food Science and Culinary Professionals

Chapter 10—Weight Management: Finding the Healthy Balance

Practical Applications for Nutrition, Food Science and Culinary Professionals

Chapter 11—Life Cycle Nutrition: Healthy Eating throughout the Ages

Practical Applications for Nutrition, Food Science and Culinary Professionals

Chapter 12—Global Food and Nutrition: World Food, Health and the Environment

Practical Applications for Nutrition, Food Science and Culinary Professionals

CHAPTER MENUS

Each of the 12 chapters is arranged into a **Chapter menu** that functions as a table of contents and provides a taste of each topic.

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Main Courses
- Bite on This
- Serve it Forth
- What's Cooking?
- Morsels
- Food bytes
- Over Easy
- Check Please
- Hungry for More?
- Take Away
- Finishing Touches
- Word Pantry
- Website

CHAPTER MENU FEATURES

Objectives: *Learning objectives* state competencies and outcomes for each chapter.

Introduction: The *Introduction* provides an overview of the *Main Courses*, along with thought-provoking insights that are found in *Bite on This* and *Take Away*.

Main Courses: The “meat” or foundation of each chapter is found in the *Main Courses*. Each of the *Main Courses* is filled with relevant information to help to digest the science of food and nutrition and recognize its relevance to food science and the culinary arts.

Bite on This: In-depth explorations of important chapter topics in *Bite on This* are designed to modernize food and nutrition issues and inspire curiosities.

Serve it Forth: Hands-on, in-class and outside activities in *Serve it Forth* cover a variety of real-life nutrition, food science and culinary arts topics and underscore their significance. Additional activities are found in the *Culinary Nutrition* website at www.culinarynutrition.elsevier.com.

What's Cooking?: Hands-on, in-class experiments in *What's Cooking?* utilize food and nutrition tips and techniques and reveal their implications and applications.

Sidebars (Morsels and Food bytes): Plenty of useful nutrition, food science and culinary arts information appear in the *Sidebars*, which include *Morsels* and *Food bytes*. *Morsels* interject amusing, historic and paradoxical quotes about food and nutrition. *Food bytes* add in-depth quips and tips that enhance many of the *Main Courses* and *Bite on This* selections.

Over Easy: A summary of the *Chapter menu* is provided at the end of each chapter for emphasis and review.

Check please: Multiple-choice and essay questions appear in *Check Please* to assess knowledge and prepare for the upcoming chapters. Additional questions are found in the *Culinary Nutrition* website at www.culinarynutrition.elsevier.com.

Hungry for More?: *Hungry for More* presents additional resources such as books, organizations, websites, and more to keep current and resourceful.

Recipes, Recipe file and Photo file: To showcase the concepts presented in Chapters 4 to 12, recipes are noted throughout the text and are featured in a *Recipe file* located within the *Culinary Nutrition* website at www.culinarynutrition.elsevier.com. Full descriptions of each recipe include the category, cooking time, techniques, equipment, description, ingredients, instructions, yield and serving size, nutrient analysis,

nutrient modifications, substitute ingredients, optional ingredients and recipe variations. Many of the finished recipes appear in the *Photo file* within the centerfold of this book. These full-color photographs correspond to the recipes in Chapters 4 to 12 and are identified by a plate number for easy referencing. The list of plate numbers and accompanying photos are also found within the *Culinary Nutrition* website at www.culinarynutrition.elsevier.com. These recipes and photos help to illustrate that healthy and flavorful foods and beverages can be visually appealing, too.

Take Away: *Take Away* looks at ongoing topics in nutrition, food science and the culinary arts and offers food for thought.

Finishing Touches: The *Finishing Touches* are additional elements that enhance the chapter contents. These include the *Word Pantry* and the *Website*.

Word Pantry: The comprehensive *Word Pantry* supplies the definitions for the boldfaced and italicized words in each chapter. It contains both practical and scientific terminology.

Website: The student-instructor *Culinary Nutrition* website at www.culinarynutrition.elsevier.com, includes additional *Serve it Forth* activities, *Check Please* assessments and the *Recipe file*.

Nutrition Basics: What Is Inside Food, How It Functions and Healthy Guidelines

The Nutrients in Foods and Beverages in Healthy Cooking and Baking

CHAPTER MENU

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OBJECTIVES

1. Define the concepts of normal, under- and over-nutrition and the components of a healthy diet
2. Identify the benefits of a healthy diet
3. Relate the concepts of nutrition and the benefits of a healthy diet to food science and the culinary arts
4. Detail how ingredients, foods and beverages become nutrients
5. Explain how food science and cooking affect foods and beverages that become nutrients
6. Apply the factors that affect food choices to nutrition, food science and the culinary arts
7. Decipher food and nutrition labels
8. Calculate basic kitchen math
9. Link nutrition issues with societal and environmental concerns
10. Address food as medicine

INTRODUCTION: DIGESTING THE SCIENCE OF NUTRITION

Nutrition is more than just eating foods and drinking beverages. Nutrition is the science of how organisms take in and use food and drink for nourishment. This book centers on human nutrition, but nutrition really covers all organisms, including animals, fungi, microorganisms and plants.

2

The science of nutrition is explained and comes to life in this chapter and others through food science, cooking and baking. Food science is the study of the biological, chemical and physical properties of foods and their effects on the culinary, nutritional, sensory, storage and safety aspects of foods and beverages.

Cooking and baking are the processes of preparing foods and beverages for consumption by using various equipment, ingredients, methods and tools. Cooking and baking utilize food science to influence the appeal, digestibility and satisfaction of foods and beverages—which, in turn, affect their nutritional values.

Food scientists and culinary professionals require a good working knowledge of how nutrition, food science, cooking and baking interact. Foods and beverages must look good and taste great to be selected, consumed and utilized for good health.

To this end, this chapter examines foods and beverages “from the inside out.” The molecules that comprise carbohydrates, lipids, proteins, vitamins, minerals and water are explored to see their effects on ingredient and food product formulations and cooking and baking practices.

Many foods and beverages are considered nutritious and fit into a healthy diet. Other foods and beverages are controversial. This chapter sorts out these disagreements. It highlights what is thought to be normal nutrition, undernutrition and overnutrition to establish what humans should consume for health and wellness.

The remarkable pathways that foods and beverages take during their consumption, digestion, absorption, metabolism, storage and use are featured in this chapter. It helps to “digest” the biochemistry of nutrients and translates nutritional science into understandable and practical applications.

Up-to-date nutrition guidelines for healthy eating from the US Department of Agriculture (USDA) and prominent health associations are covered, as well as how these guidelines translate into healthy cooking and baking methods and new product development.

Knowledge about why consumers select or avoid certain foods and beverages is also incorporated. There is information about which factors motivate consumers to make food choices, including food and nutrition labeling, marketing and media along with environmental, religious and societal concerns.

This is a lot to digest! This chapter breaks it down into bite-sized morsels. Whether you are a nutrition, food science or culinary student or professional, this chapter is fundamental to see the progression that foods and beverages take from the land or the laboratory to the kitchen, then on for human consumption, satisfaction and health.

What is nutrition, and why it is important in food science and culinary education?

MAIN COURSES

Nutrition, Nutritional Science and Nutrients

Nutrition is multifaceted. It is the sum of all of the processes in the consumption and utilization of foods and beverages. Nutritional science examines how organisms consume and process foods and beverages for nourishment. Nutrients, including carbohydrates, lipids, proteins, vitamins, minerals and water, are the essence of nutrition. They are also fundamental to ingredient and product development, cooking and baking. As we purchase, prepare and consume foods and beverages we should be cognizant that their nutrients contribute to our health and well-being.

There are hundreds of chemicals in the foods and beverages for human consumption. Many of these chemicals are affected by cooking and baking. In addition, cooking and baking add other chemicals to our food supply and manipulate their structures and functions.

The impact of these chemicals on human nutrition cannot be understated. Nutrition, food science and culinary professionals need to keep current about rapidly evolving nutrient research and guidelines to create the healthiest products, recipes and menus. Nutrients and their functions pave the way.

Essential, Energy-Yielding and Non-Energy-Yielding Nutrients

There are about 40 nutrients that are known to be essential for humans. Essential nutrients are those that the human body cannot make on its own and must be supplied by the diet through foods and beverages. Essential nutrients are considered to be indispensable to life. Nonessential nutrients can be made by the body, such as vitamin D synthesis when ultraviolet rays of sunlight strike the skin and vitamin K production from microorganisms that live in the digestive tract.

This book focuses on the energy-yielding nutrients, which are carbohydrates, protein and lipids (fats and oils), and the non-energy-yielding nutrients, which are vitamins, minerals and water. The main difference between energy-producing nutrients and non-energy-yielding nutrients is that energy-producing nutrients contain calories to create energy. These six nutrients are the basis of most food science and culinary chemical and physical reactions.

By the time this book is completed, many of the other 40 nutrients that accompany foods and beverages and affect nutrition and health will also be examined. Before we can see where each of these nutrients fits into the bigger picture of nutrition and health, we need to establish what is “normal” nutrition, undernutrition and overnutrition and what is considered to be a nutritious or healthy diet.

Morsel “The greatest wealth is health.”
—Virgil (Roman poet, 70–19 BC)

Normal Nutrition, Undernutrition and Overnutrition, and Healthy Diets

NORMAL NUTRITION

Normal nutrition is identified by what most people eat and drink under normal or ordinary circumstances. It accounts for everyday activities and the ability to stay healthy under reasonable conditions.

Nutrition guidelines and recommendations have been designed to qualify and quantify normal nutrition, including the average number of calories and amount of nutrients that most people need daily to stay healthy and prevent disease. These are detailed in food and nutrition guidelines and recommendations later in this chapter.

UNDERNUTRITION

Undernutrition describes a condition whereby normal nutritional guidelines and recommendations are not met. It can result from inadequate food intake, poor absorption of nutrients or excessive loss of nutrients. Undernutrition may or may not be accompanied by malnutrition, a medical condition that may be caused by an improper or inadequate diet. Malnutrition may be the consequence of disease, infection or starvation.

While undernutrition and malnutrition are more common in Third World countries, both conditions are found in the United States and other developed countries as well. Poverty and food availability may lead to undernutrition and malnutrition. People who have access to food and choose not to eat it may become undernourished or malnourished, as in the case of eating disorders, discussed in Chapter 10.

OVERNUTRITION

Overnutrition is characterized by overeating or excessive intake of certain nutrients, such as carbohydrates and lipids. Overnutrition may be caused by consuming too many calories compared to expending or burning too few calories through everyday activities and exercise. Obesity is an example of overnutrition, as is consuming excessive nutritional supplements over dietary needs.

NUTRITION AND HEALTHY DIETS

The underlying factors of normal, under- and over-nutrition influence food and beverage choices. Nutrition, food science and culinary professionals can use these factors to help modify ingredients and techniques for healthier diets.

While normal nutrition is designed for most daily needs, many conditions affect normal consumption, such as business demands, busy lifestyles, illnesses, school, traveling and more. Any one of these conditions may alter normal nutrient requirements. Some of these conditions can benefit by special foods and/or beverages.

People who are undernourished may require foods and beverages that are higher in calories and nutrients, while people who are overnourished may need to reduce their caloric intake, particularly certain nutrients. Both conditions require unified approaches by nutritionists, food scientists and culinary specialists. The parameters of a healthy diet must first be established before the needs of normal, under- and overnutrition can be met.

What is considered a *healthy* diet? Babies intuitively know what to eat, and they tend to select the right amounts of food and beverages. But as they age and the selections of foods and beverages grow, it becomes increasingly challenging for them to select the healthiest foods in the right amounts. A host of factors, including education, family, finances, friends, technology and others, can interfere. What is a healthy diet, and how does one know if it is effective?

THE DEFINITION AND FUNCTIONS OF A HEALTHY DIET

Simply put, a healthy diet is one that supports a person's daily and long-term health and well-being. A healthy diet does the following:

- Fuels the body with energy (calories) and nutrients for everyday activities
- Provides additional energy and nutrients for recreational activities and sports
- Supplies nutrients for growth, repair and maintenance
- Fights disease
- Cushions the body, protects it from accidents, regulates body temperature and heals
- Sustains many different body systems as shown in [Table 1-1](#)
- Keeps these body systems functioning under many challenging circumstances throughout the life cycle

A look at what is inside foods and beverages will help show why many foods and beverages fit into a healthy diet. It will also indicate why some foods and beverages are considered healthier to consume than others.

TABLE 1-1 The Human Body Systems

Systems	Descriptions
Central nervous system	Brain, neurons, spinal cord and peripheral [sensory and motor] nervous system
Circulatory system	Heart, blood vessels [arteries, capillaries and veins] and lungs
Digestive system	Salivary glands, esophagus, stomach, liver, gallbladder, pancreas, and small and large intestines
Endocrine system	Adrenal glands, hypothalamus, pancreas, parathyroids, pineal gland, pituitary gland, sex organs and thyroid gland
Excretory system	Lungs, large intestine and kidneys
Immune system	Adenoids, cells, leukocytes, organs, proteins, spleen, thymus, tissues and tonsils
Integumentary system	Fat, hair, nails and skin
Lymphatic system	Lymph, nodes and vessels
Muscular system	Skeletal muscles
Reproductive system	Female reproductive organs: fallopian tubes, mammary glands, ovaries, uterus and vagina; male reproductive organs: prostate, seminal vesicles, testes and vas deferens
Respiratory system	Bronchi, diaphragm, larynx, lungs, nose, pharynx and trachea
Skeletal system	Bones, cartilage, ligaments and tendons
Urinary system	Bladder, kidneys, ureter and urethra

Sources: [1], [2], and [3].

What Is Inside Foods and Beverages

MACRONUTRIENTS, MICRONUTRIENTS AND NONNUTRIENTS

Foods and beverages are filled with countless substances, from macronutrients, including carbohydrates, fats and oils, proteins, lipids and water that are needed by the body in “macro” or relatively large quantities, and micronutrients, including vitamins and minerals, that are needed by the body in “micro” or relatively smaller quantities.

Foods and beverages are also filled with nonnutrients, substances that may have some biological effects on the body, such as dietary fiber and phytochemicals, plant compounds with reportedly healthful benefits. Foods and beverages also carry bacteria, microscopic organisms that can be either beneficial or harmful and potentially toxic substances that may find their way into our food supply.

Chemicals that are used in the growth, production, transport and preservation of foods and beverages, such as antibiotics, hormones and preservatives, may also leach into our food supply. While many are safe for human consumption, sometimes undesirable chemicals may circulate. The Food and Drug Administration (FDA), an agency of the US Department of Health and Human Services (HHS), is responsible for ensuring that the US food supply is safe, sanitary and wholesome.

ESSENTIAL AND NONESSENTIAL NUTRIENTS

Essential nutrients are nutrients that the body cannot make or produce in sufficient quantities. Essential nutrients must be obtained through the diet. They include the building blocks of carbohydrates, lipids and proteins, certain vitamins and minerals, and water.

Nonessential nutrients can be made by the body or obtained from sources other than foods and beverages. These include biotin that is produced by gastrointestinal bacteria, cholesterol that is produced by the liver, vitamin K that is produced by intestinal bacteria, and vitamin D that is produced by sunlight. If a person consumes a broad-range diet with a variety of foods and beverages, then he or she should be able to obtain most of the essential and nonessential nutrients they need. When people eliminate certain foods or food groups, restrict calories and/or skip meals on a regular basis, then they may run the risk of nutrient deficiencies. Nutrient knowhow may help to enlighten and guard against these deficiencies.

FOOD BYTE

The term *empty calories* is prevalent in food and nutrition. It is believed that Dr. Michael Jacobson, cofounder of the Center for Science in the Public Interest in Washington, DC, created the terms *empty calories* and *junk food*. The Center for Science in the Public Interest (CSPI) has been a strong advocate for nutrition and health, food safety, alcohol policy and sound science since 1971. The dual mission of CSPI is to conduct research and advocacy programs in health and nutrition and provide consumers with current and useful information about health and well-being.

NUTRIENTS AND CALORIES

Nutrients provide energy, function, protection and structure, among many other roles in the human body. The energy-producing nutrients are carbohydrates, lipids (more commonly known as fats and oils) and proteins. When these energy-producing nutrients are metabolized or “burned” by the human body, they release energy. Energy is the ability to do work—anything as simple as merely living or as complex as climbing mountains.

Energy is measured in *calories*. A *calorie* is a unit of energy that is often used when measuring the energy content of foods and beverages (dietary calories). A *calorie* is the amount of heat that is required to raise the temperature of 1 kilogram of water 1° Celsius (1.8 ° Fahrenheit).

Calories are reported as small 1,000-calorie units called *kilocalories* (or *Calories* with an upper case “C”). Kilocalories are commonly abbreviated as *kcal*.

For example, 1 slice of whole-grain bread contains about 69 kilocalories (69 kcal or 69 Calories). Once consumed, 1 slice of whole-grain bread supplies about 69 kilocalories worth of energy for the body to do its work.

FOOD BYTE

In everyday use, the terms *calorie* and *kilocalorie* are often used interchangeably, but this is incorrect. The term “kilo” means 1,000. One kilocalorie contains about 1,000 calories. Conversely, 1 calorie is the equivalent of 1,000th of a kilocalorie. One kilocalorie is equal to 1 Calorie (dietary calorie). In the example of 1 slice of whole-grain bread that contains 69 kcal or 69 Calories, this is the equivalent of about 69,000 calories!

The term *calorie* (with a lower case “c”) is used throughout this book since it is very commonly used in food and nutrition today. In precise science, the term *kilocalories* is more accurate.

A gram is a measure of weight. The number of calories per gram for each of the energy-producing nutrients (carbohydrates, lipids, protein and alcohol) is shown in [Table 1-2](#). While alcohol is not a nutrient per se, it does produce energy (7 calories per gram). It is included in this table to show how caloric alcohol is compared to carbohydrates and proteins. Alcohol is discussed in Chapter 8.

WHY CALORIES MATTER

The calories per gram of carbohydrates, lipids and proteins are important to remember. They are used to calculate the number of calories per gram of foods and beverages. There are times, such as when reading food labels, that this information is helpful. Computerized programs that calculate calories and nutrients are shown in the section “Hungry for More?” later in this chapter.

TABLE 1-2 Energy-Producing Nutrients and Alcohol

Energy-producing Nutrients	Weight (in grams)	Calories (per gram)
Carbohydrates	1 g	4 cal
Proteins	1 g	4 cal
Lipids	1 g	9 cal
Alcohol	1 g	7 cal

Few foods and beverages contain only one nutrient; many contain a combination of carbohydrates, lipids and/or proteins. For example, 1 slice of whole-grain bread is not purely carbohydrates; 1 (8-ounce) glass of dairy skim milk is not purely proteins, and 1 tablespoon of butter is not purely lipids (fat), contrary to some popular notions.

In fact, 1 slice of whole-grain bread contains about 69 calories, of which about 44 calories are from carbohydrates, about 16 calories are from protein, and about 9 calories are from fats, as follows:

- 1 slice whole-grain bread = ~69 calories
- 11 grams carbohydrate \times 4 calories per gram = 44 calories
- 4 grams protein \times 4 calories per gram = 16 calories
- 1 gram fat \times 9 calories per gram = 9 calories

One (8-ounce) glass of dairy skim milk contains about 84 calories, of which about 48 calories are from carbohydrates, about 32 calories are from proteins, and about 2 calories are from fats, as follows:

- 1 (8-ounce) glass dairy skim milk = ~84 calories
- 12 grams carbohydrate \times 4 calories per gram = 48 calories
- 8 grams protein \times 4 calories per gram = 32 calories
- .2 grams fat \times 9 calories per gram = 2 calories

One tablespoon of butter contains about 99 to 103.5 calories, of which about .04 calories are from carbohydrates, about 0.48 calories are from proteins, and about 99 to 103.5 calories are from fat, as follows:

- 1 tablespoon butter = ~102 calories
- .01 grams carbohydrate \times 4 calories per gram = 0.04 calories
- .01grams protein \times 4 calories per gram = 0.48 calories
- 11–11.5 grams fat \times 9 calories per gram = 99–103.5 calories

These figures demonstrate that whole wheat bread and dairy skim milk mostly consist of carbohydrates, butter mostly consists of fats, and dairy skim milk contains more protein than whole wheat bread or butter.

The nutrients and calories in whole wheat bread, dairy skim milk and butter may be changed by substituting or enhancing the ingredients. For example, high-gluten flour may be substituted for bread flour in whole-grain bread. (High-gluten flour has as much as 14 percent more protein than bread flour.) Dry-milk powder may be added to boost the protein content of dairy skim milk. (One-third cup contains 8 grams of protein.) The fat content of butter may be lowered by adding water in the manufacturing process (as in soft tub butter). This is how food scientists, nutritionists and chefs create new foods and beverages to maximize certain nutrients and reduce others.

Though this information about calories and nutrients is quite telling, people choose or reject foods and beverages for other reasons. The next section explains the complexity behind our food choices and rejections: what triggers us to eat or not to eat and why.

Morsel “Whatever will satisfy hunger is good food.” —Chinese proverb

How Food Works: Appetite, Hunger and Satiety (satisfaction)

APPETITE

Appetite is the psychological desire for foods or beverages. Many factors influence appetite, including sensory responses to the sights, sounds, smells and tastes of food. Other factors include behavioral and social issues that may affect these sensory responses. For example, the sight of food may tempt a person to eat, even if she is not hungry. Or if a diner is not hungry, he may be tempted to eat because others are eating. In each of these instances the sight of food is transferred through neurons to the brain, which registers a desire to eat. It may override the physical feelings of satisfaction from earlier meals.

HUNGER

Hunger includes a range of feelings that signal the need to eat. When hungry, a person may feel dizzy, headachy and irritable; have difficulty concentrating; or suffer stomach discomfort. Some people confuse

hunger with appetite and vice versa. This may be due to misinterpreting the psychological desire to eat with the physical signals of hunger. By consuming balanced meals that are spaced throughout the day to offset hunger, this may help to curb the psychological urge to eat.

SATIETY OR SATISFACTION

Satiety is the physical and psychological satisfaction that one acquires from consuming certain foods or beverages. Satiety may be immediate, such as thirst quenching, or it may be sustained and last a few hours between meals, such as a feeling of “fullness.” Much depends on the nutrients in foods and/or beverages.

After drinking a sugary soft drink, a person may be satisfied for a brief time. This is because sugar, particularly if it is in liquid form, is digested and absorbed by the body rather quickly compared to other nutrients. If, however, the sugary soft drink is consumed with a protein-packed sandwich, such as lean beef or poultry, then satisfaction may be longer lasting. This is because it takes longer for the starch in the bread and the protein in the meat to be digested.

If a little fat, such as butter or mayonnaise, is spread on the bread, then satiety may be even longer lasting. This is because fat takes longer to be digested and absorbed than carbohydrates and protein.

Satiety is an important consideration in calorie intake and weight management. Highly satisfying foods and beverages will last longer before hunger develops. The key to weight management is to discover which foods and beverages and what amounts are satisfying without overburdening the body with excessive calories and nutrients.

Bite on This: the speculations behind food cravings

Food cravings are intense desires for food. They are different from hunger, which is driven by the physiological need to eat. Food cravings are more related to appetite, which is driven by the psychological need to eat.

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Many speculations exist about food cravings. Food cravings may be triggered by hormones, such as serotonin or endorphins, which may prompt the need for sweet foods and pleasurable responses. Serotonin and endorphins are neurotransmitters—brain chemicals that are thought to contribute to feelings of well-being and happiness. Food cravings may also be triggered by the deprivation of certain foods, followed by their reward.

Food cravings may be specific, marked by desires for certain foods, such as french fries or chocolate. Food cravings may also be general, marked by desires for the specific sensory characteristics of foods, such as taste or texture.

The hypothalamus is a region of the brain that controls satiety, or satisfaction. There are two centers of the hypothalamus: one that controls feeding and one that controls satiety. They work together to maintain feeding and satiety in balance.

The amounts of nutrients in the bloodstream may affect both of these centers. When the nutrients in the bloodstream are low, then a person is cued through a complex system of neurological and hormonal responses to replace these nutrients. And when these nutrients are high, a person is cued to stop eating.

Chemicals, medical conditions and other factors may throw off this balance. A question of continued debate is whether or not food cravings are involved in this balance. The following examples show the power of food cravings and their psychological and physiological connections:

- When pregnant women crave pickles and ice cream, this may be caused by a multitude of chemicals that are activated by pregnancy. The sodium in salty foods helps to balance increased fluids that are needed during pregnancy.
- When people go on extreme weight reduction diets and severely limit calories, some may crave high-calorie foods because their diets are too limited.
- When women are premenstrual, their hormone levels fluctuate. Some women may crave chocolate before they menstruate. Chocolate has been linked to serotonin levels in the brain. Serotonin acts like a hormone with calming effects. Chocolate also contains theobromine and phenethylamine, substances that trigger mood-enhancing chemicals and neurotransmitters in the brain.

Three disorders may also prompt food cravings: seasonal affective disorder (SAD), taste addiction disorder (TAD) and pica. Seasonal affective disorder (SAD) is a mood disorder that may be related to serotonin, but this is disputed. Symptoms may range from little energy, too much sleep and/or depression. Those affected may seek certain foods to reduce their symptoms.

Taste addiction disorder (TAD) is a psychological condition with a biochemical basis. A person may develop an obsessive/compulsive relationship to a food, generally due to its sugar (specifically glucose) content. Sugar raises the level of dopamine, a brain neurotransmitter that is partially responsible for reward-driven learning. Nonfood factors may also increase dopamine, such as exercise.

Pica is a disorder that is characterized by unusual nonfood cravings for substances such as chalk or clay. Pica may be the result of acquired tastes, chemical imbalances, cultural traditions or neurological mechanisms that result in nutrient deficiencies, including iron deficiency or anemia.

As can be seen, the topic of food cravings is extremely complex and closely linked to our psychological and physiological needs to eat. Like other controversial topics in nutrition, it is best to examine all of the research about food cravings within the context in which they are experienced before any conclusions are reached.

FOOD CHOICES

Why do Eskimos eat certain foods, while Africans eat other types of foods? Why do people of certain religious beliefs restrict some foods and beverages? Why do food commercials tempt some people to eat, while others are not swayed? Why do some people repeatedly consume the same foods, while others eat more adventurously?

Morsel “Don’t dig your grave with your own knife and fork.” —English proverb

People make several food and beverage choices every day, thanks to a large extent to our global food supply. Not all of them are healthy. Designing healthy foods, using healthy ingredients and preparation techniques, and communicating the benefits of healthy foods may not drive their selection. Following are some of the reasons people accept or reject certain foods and beverages.

Availability

We tend to eat food that is easily available to match our fast-paced lifestyles. In some places around the world, people still make daily shopping trips for local ingredients. As cities grow and it becomes more difficult to shop locally, people may purchase food that has been produced or manufactured on one side of the world and transported to another. While our global food supply provides us with a broad range of food choices and nutrients, some foods may not transport well or they may carry undesirable bacteria or viruses, which may affect their nutritional value and safety.

Eating locally and seasonally produced foods is becoming more popular. While this makes sense in more temperate climates, in other locations it may mean selecting different foods at different times of the year. For example, in late November, apples, Brussels sprouts, cabbage, carrots and potatoes may be plentiful in Oregon, while apples, bell peppers, cabbage, cucumbers, greens, pecans, sweet potatoes, tomatoes, Vidalia onions, yellow squash and zucchini are available in Georgia. Home and neighborhood gardens and food cooperatives (food coops) improve the accessibility of local and seasonal foods such as these [4].

Familiar Foods

We tend to choose familiar foods because they are comforting and/or safe. Familiar foods remind us of celebrations, family and traditions. We opt for familiar foods when we are sick to help us to feel better.

Consider a bowl of chicken noodle soup with its warmth, richness and saltiness. Chicken soup may be comforting for its warm memories—not to mention its anti-inflammatory and mucous-reducing effects. A hot dog that is loaded with condiments may be comforting at holiday and sporting events because it represents good times. The spicy, salty and sweet tastes are difficult to replicate. A favorite relative’s home cooking

or baking, such as macaroni and cheese or chocolate chip cookies, is also difficult to substitute in both ingredients and memories.

Convenience

We live in a busy world that keeps getting busier. The concept of a “family meal,” where family members gather to eat and discuss the day, is rapidly being replaced by eating on-the-run. Convenience and fast foods are fairly economical, handy and tasty. But foods and beverages such as these with instant taste gratification often come at a cost: more calories, fat, salt and sugar. While some cultures still place much value on the family meal, convenience and fast foods are creeping into their cuisines, too.

Customs

Some people eat raw foods because it is customary to their culture. Examples include sushi, a dietary staple in Japan, and steak tartare, a raw ground beef dish that is originally attributed to French cuisine.

Several population groups consume dried or preserved foods because they need to withstand long periods without fresh food. For example, beef jerky and salted, dried codfish are popular in northern Canada and Scandinavia where the winters are long and cold.

Many diners in Italy and Spain are known to eat dinner late at night, whereas Americans tend to eat earlier. After dinner, they often snack or do not eat anything until breakfast the next morning. As global borders continue to open and trade increases, customs and cuisines are blending.

Examples of these blended cuisines include Pan-Asian and Tex-Mex. Pan-Asian is a combination of Asian ingredients and flavors, and Tex-Mex blends the ingredients and spicy south-of-the-border flavors of the cuisines of Texas and Mexico. A number of cuisines and customs are harmonious, while others may clash.

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Cost

As natural resources become scarcer and food production and transportation costs multiply, consumer food costs continue to rise. This may prohibit people from choosing the optimal diet for good health. An economical diet may be filled with too many calories from fats and sugars (overnutrition), or it may not supply enough calories to thrive (undernutrition).

Food and nutrition professionals need to collectively work toward economical ways to ensure that healthy diets are affordable and attainable for everyone. One example of such an ongoing collaboration is the one between Walmart and the USDA. In 2011, Walmart announced it would open as many as 300 stores in areas where affordable and healthful foods are needed the most and are difficult to obtain. This collaboration is expected to help build healthier families and stronger communities with access to an abundance of fresh foods at affordable prices [5].

Food Safety

The foods we eat contain both beneficial and harmful bacteria. Beneficial bacteria, such as those found in cultured yogurt, supply healthy microorganisms to aid digestion. Harmful bacteria, such as those that accidentally creep into our food supply, may be deadly, as demonstrated by past *E. coli* (*Escherichia coli*) outbreaks in strawberries and beef. Safe food production, transportation, preparation and storage are of critical importance for health and well-being. As more foreign foods appear on grocery shelves and restaurant menus, food safety monitoring is paramount.

People may choose or reject certain foods or beverages due to their reported contamination. Instead, they may choose organic foods, believing they are superior.

As a whole, organic foods are produced without food additives, genetically modified organisms, industrial solvents, irradiation, or synthetic fertilizers and pesticides. Still, organic foods may not always be better than foods that are grown or produced in nonorganic conditions. Much depends on safe food handling, production and storage—both in food service operations and in home kitchens [6].

Religion

People have selected or rejected foods and beverages for centuries because of their religious preferences. Some food practices are dictated by sacred writing and religious laws that instruct practitioners on which foods are healthy, religiously correct and/or safe.

Among other pious parameters, Jewish and Muslim religious-based dietary laws are based on food safety. Some non-Jewish or Muslim people choose Kosher or Halal (Arabic for "permissible" according to Islamic law) foods because they perceive that these foods are healthier to consume.

Morsel "Tell me what you eat, and I will tell you what you are." —Anthelme Brillat-Savarin (French gastronome and lawyer, 1755–1826)

Bite on This: religion and food choices

The beliefs and practices of certain religions help to mold the food choices that their followers make. Food rituals are fundamental to some religions. They serve to demonstrate faith and disciplined behavior and to show respect for a higher being. Food rituals may include any or all of the following:

- Fasting and/or other cleansing rituals
- Food preparation
- Permitted and prohibited foods and beverages
- Rules of religious days
- Times to consume religious foods
- Utensil preparation and use

Buddhism, Christianity, Hinduism, Islam, Judaism and Seventh-Day Adventists each have certain food rituals or customs. These are merely cross-samplings of the many practices.

Buddhism started as an outgrowth of Hinduism. Buddhists abstain from harming living creatures, but some Buddhists will eat meat and fish. Other Buddhists fast, while some do not eat before noon.

In Christianity, practitioners traditionally abstained from meat on certain days, while eggs and dairy milk products were permitted. Historically, there were fast days, and specific foods were and still are avoided during Lent.

The life goals in Hinduism are enjoyment, liberation, prosperity and righteousness. Many devout Hindus are vegetarian because they respect life. This may be because some Hindus believe that their ancestors were animals. Forbidden foods include domesticated poultry, garlic, onions, mushrooms and salted pork. The coconut is considered sacred.

Islam follows the Koran, the sacred text with its dietary rules. Islam practitioners believe "to eat is to worship" and that food is sacred and must be shared. Dietary restrictions are similar to Kosher restrictions, since pork or carnivorous animals are restricted and slaughter is monitored. A major fast called Ramadan is held annually. It requires complete abstinence from food and drink for one month from sunrise to sunset, beginning with adolescence. Light meals may be consumed after sundown.

Orthodox and some Conservative Jewish people observe kashrut or Kosher dietary laws, which translate to "fit." Only those animals that have cloven hooves and chew their cud (cattle, deer, goats and sheep) may be consumed. Pigs are forbidden. Only meat from animals that are slaughtered under the supervision of a rabbi is permitted. Meat and dairy products may not be consumed at the same meal. There are a set number of hours that one must wait after meat-based meals before dairy foods or beverages can be consumed.

One group of Protestants, the Seventh-Day Adventists, are mainly lacto-ovo-vegetarians, which means that they abstain from meat, but consume dairy milk, dairy products and eggs. Some Seventh-Day Adventists avoid alcohol, coffee, tea and tobacco, too.

These religious-based food preferences should be factored into ingredient, food, meal and menu planning; kitchen design, tools and equipment; and in food preparation, cleanup and storage. As the world becomes more diverse, these challenges and responsibilities will continue to grow.

The Media

Food choices are shaped by the media, including books, the Internet, magazines, newspapers, radio, television and social media, both consciously and subconsciously. Even the products and promotions at supermarkets may persuade people to purchase foods and beverages.

Food manufacturers target certain media to reach a greater number of consumers. For example, women's magazines might target mothers to promote family meals, while children's television programs might target kids to promote snack foods and sweetened beverages. Information about the effects of the food environment on weight management and health is presented in Chapter 10.

NUTRITION, FOOD SCIENCE AND CULINARY PROFESSIONALS

Some food and nutrition organizations serve to educate their members about food choices, and other organizations also serve to educate the public. These organizations and their members are key authorities on nutrition, food science and the culinary arts, with the capabilities of greatly influencing food choices. They are able to exercise their authority through their large national and international memberships, government lobbying, and media spokespeople, among other initiatives.

- Registered dietitians (RDs) and dietetic technicians, registered (DTRs) have completed an Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics (AND) approved undergraduate program in nutrition, performed a clinical internship, and then passed national and state licensing examinations. They may have additional training in the culinary arts and/or food science, including certifications.
- Food and nutrition professionals may both become members of The Society for Nutrition Education and Behavior (SNEB), an international community that educates families, fellow professionals, individuals and students, and influences policy makers about food, nutrition and health promotion. SNEB members embody colleges, schools and universities; communications and public relations agencies; cooperative extensions; the food industry; government agencies; and service and voluntary organizations.
- Chefs may be certified by the American Culinary Federation (ACF). ACF requires a nutrition component for chef certification and continuing education. Some culinary schools also offer a nutrition degree in addition to chef education. Some culinary schools and colleges also prepare students for the RD certification.
- Chefs and food professionals with interests in nutrition and food science might also be members of the Research Chef's Association (RCA), which unites culinary skills and food science in such fields as food manufacturing, research and development. Its members pioneered the discipline of Culinology®, which is the blending of culinary arts and the science of food.
- The Institute of Food Technologists (IFT) is an international, nonprofit professional organization that is dedicated to the advancement of food science and technology. Long range, IFT seeks to ensure a safe and abundant food supply that contributes to healthy people all over the world. Food scientists and technologists, research chefs and registered dietitians may become members, as well as food manufacturers, food producers and other food science-related professions.

Food and Nutrition Agencies, Associations, Guidelines and Recommendations

The US Department of Agriculture (USDA) is the primary agency that establishes food and nutrition guidelines and recommendations for Americans. It provides leadership on agriculture, food and natural resources that is based on the best available science and sound public policy. The USDA has developed the guidelines and recommendations to help plan and/or execute healthy diets, food choices, products, menus and recipes.

The US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) is an agency within the US Department of Health and Human Services (HHS). The FDA investigates food and nutrition associations to monitor their effectiveness. In its role, the FDA closely monitors the ingredients, foods and beverages in our food supply and protects public health by ensuring that foods and dietary supplements are properly labeled and that food is safe, sanitary and wholesome. The FDA also helps the public to obtain accurate scientific-based information about foods for health enhancement [7].

The following guidelines, objectives, references and tools have been developed by the USDA, FDA, and other US government, medical, nutritional and scientific organizations to help educate and promote the health and

well-being of Americans. They are useful to nutrition, food science and culinary professionals because they help qualify and quantify foods and beverages in normal nutrition for the US public.

- *US Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 2010*
- *Nutrition Objectives for the Nation: Healthy People 2010 and 2020*
- US Dietary Reference Intakes (DRIs)
- Basic food groups
- Food exchange system
- Food composition tables and databases
- USDA Food Guide Pyramid
- USDA MyPlate
- US food label and food labeling regulations
- Nutrition Facts Panel
- Daily Values (DVs)
- US FDA approved nutrient content claims
- US FDA approved health claims
- Structure/function claims

US DIETARY GUIDELINES FOR AMERICANS, 2010

In 2010, the USDA and HHS produced the seventh version of the *US Dietary Guidelines for Americans*. These guidelines are a set of dietary and other lifestyle recommendations for healthy people who are two years of age and older. They are updated every five years. The US Dietary Guidelines for Americans serve to promote adequate nutrition and health and reduce the risk of some major nutrition-related diseases, such as cardiovascular disease and alcoholism.

The *US Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 2010* recommendations cover two all-encompassing concepts:

1. Maintain caloric balance over time to achieve and sustain a healthy weight.
2. Focus on consuming nutrient-dense foods and beverages.

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Maintain Caloric Balance over Time to Achieve and Sustain a Healthy Weight

By consuming the right amount of calories and nutrients to meet daily needs and by being physically active a person may attain and maintain a healthy weight. To accomplish this, decrease the calories that are consumed and increase the calories that are expended. In other words, calories “in” should equal calories “out.” Key recommendations for balancing calories to manage weight as presented by the *US Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 2010* are shown in [Table 1-3](#).

Focus on Consuming Nutrient-Dense Foods and Beverages

Americans consume too many calories from added sugars, refined grains and solid fats. Nutrient-dense foods and beverages are higher in nutrients. They include eggs, fish and seafood, fruits, lean meats and poultry, legumes (dried beans, lentils and peas), low-fat or nonfat dairy products or their equivalents, nuts and seeds, vegetables and whole grains.

TABLE 1-3 US Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 2010

Key recommendations for balancing calories to manage weight

- Prevent and/or reduce overweight and obesity through improved eating and physical activity behaviors.
- Control total calorie intake to manage body weight. For people who are overweight or obese, this will mean consuming fewer calories from foods and beverages.
- Increase physical activity and reduce time spent in sedentary behaviors.
- Maintain appropriate calorie balance during each stage of life—childhood, adolescence, adulthood, pregnancy and breastfeeding.

Morsel “The destiny of a nation depends on how they nourish themselves.”
—Anthelme Brillat-Savarin (French gastronome and lawyer, 1755–1826)

Key recommendations for foods and food components to reduce and foods and nutrients to increase as presented by the *US Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 2010* are shown in [Table 1-4](#).

Recommendations for specific population groups and building healthy eating patterns as presented by the *US Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 2010* are shown in [Table 1-5](#).

NUTRITION OBJECTIVES FOR THE NATION: HEALTHY PEOPLE 2010 AND 2020

In 2000, the HHS established ten-year objectives, which it outlined in the document *Nutrition Objectives for the Nation: Healthy People 2010* (see “Hungry for More?” later in this chapter).

This document includes objectives for disease, food safety and nutrition. Each objective targeted goals for improvement by 2010, which are shown in [Table 1-6](#). This was the third generation of this initiative.

Nutrition Objectives for the Nation: Healthy People 2020 is the fourth generation of this initiative and document. It is committed to a society in which all people live long and healthy lives. *Healthy People 2020* emphasizes health equality; it addresses the social determinants of health and promotes health across all stages of life.

TABLE 1-4 US Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 2010

Foods and Nutrients to Reduce	Foods and Nutrients to Increase
Reduce daily sodium intake to less than 2,300 milligrams (mg), and further reduce intake to 1,500 mg among persons who are 51 and older and those of any age who are African American or have hypertension, diabetes, or chronic kidney disease. The 1,500 mg recommendation applies to about half of the US population, including children, and the majority of adults.	Increase vegetable and fruit intake.
Consume less than 10 percent of calories from saturated fatty acids by replacing them with monounsaturated and polyunsaturated fatty acids.	Eat a variety of vegetables, especially dark green and red and orange vegetables and beans and peas.
Consume less than 300 mg per day of dietary cholesterol.	Consume at least half of all grains as whole grains. Increase whole-grain intake by replacing refined grains with whole grains.
Keep <i>trans</i> fatty acid consumption as low as possible by limiting foods that contain synthetic sources of <i>trans</i> fats, such as partially hydrogenated oils, and by limiting other solid fats.	Increase intake of fat-free or low-fat dairy milk and dairy milk products, such as dairy milk, yogurt, cheese, or fortified soy beverages.
Reduce the intake of calories from solid fats and added sugars.	Choose a variety of protein foods, which include seafood, lean meat and poultry, eggs, beans and peas, soy products, and unsalted nuts and seeds.
Limit the consumption of foods that contain refined grains, especially refined grain foods that contain solid fats, added sugars, and sodium.	Increase the amount and variety of seafood consumed by choosing seafood in place of some meat and poultry.
If alcohol is consumed, it should be consumed in moderation—up to one drink per day for women and two drinks per day for men.	Replace protein foods that are higher in solid fats with choices that are lower in solid fats and calories and/or are sources of oils. Use oils to replace solid fats where possible. Choose foods that provide more potassium, dietary fiber, calcium, and vitamin D, which are nutrients of concern in American diets. These foods include vegetables, fruits, whole grains, and dairy milk and dairy milk products.

What distinguishes *Healthy People 2020* from earlier initiatives are 26 Leading Health Indicators (LHIs)—high-priority health issues that address the factors that promote healthy behaviors across the life cycle and the quality of life. These LHIs are intended to motivate national, state and local actions and highlight strategic opportunities.

The LHIs for nutrition, obesity and physical activity include total vegetable intake for persons 2 years of age and older; child, adolescent and adult obesity; and aerobic and muscle-strengthening activities [9].

Nutrition Objectives for the Nation: Healthy People 2020 provides a framework whereby food scientists, culinary professionals and registered dietitians can collectively improve our national health. Initiatives that encompass the LHIs for nutrition, obesity and physical fitness integrate each of these food and nutrition professions.

DIETARY REFERENCE INTAKES

The Institute of Medicine (IOM) is the health branch of the National Academy of Sciences (NAS). The IOM is an independent, nonprofit organization that provides authoritative and unbiased advice to decision makers and the public.

The IOM developed the Dietary Reference Intakes (DRIs), a set of several nutrient reference values that provide the scientific basis for the development of food guidelines in the United States and Canada. These nutrient reference values cover more than 40 nutrient substances that are classified according to age, gender and life stage.

The DRIs replaced the US Recommended Dietary Allowances (RDAs) that were established in the mid-1990s. (They also replaced the Recommended Nutrient Intake [RNIs] in Canada.) In 2010, the IOM released new DRIs for calcium and vitamin D.

If certain foods or beverages meet or exceed the “US RDA” or if a diet provides “Adequate Intake” of certain nutrients, it means that nutrient reference values exist for these comparisons. The DRIs appear throughout this book to guide in the decision making about which foods and beverages constitute a healthy diet and which should be consumed occasionally or not at all.

The DRIs and resources with the Estimated Average Requirement (EAR), Recommended Dietary Allowance (RDA), Adequate Intakes (AI), Tolerable Upper Intake (TUI), and Estimated Energy Requirement (EER) are shown in [Table 1-7](#).

TABLE 1-5 Recommendations for Specific Population Groups

Population Groups	Recommendations ^a
Women capable of becoming pregnant	Choose foods that supply heme iron, which is more readily absorbed by the body, additional iron sources, and enhancers of iron absorption such as vitamin C-rich foods.
	Consume 400 micrograms (mcg) per day of synthetic folic acid (from fortified foods and/or supplements) in addition to food forms of folate from a varied diet.
Women who are pregnant or breastfeeding	Consume 8 to 12 ounces of seafood per week from a variety of seafood types.
	Due to their high methyl mercury content, limit white (albacore) tuna to 6 ounces per week and do not eat the following four types of fish: tilefish, shark, swordfish, and king mackerel.
	If pregnant, take an iron supplement, as recommended by an obstetrician or other health care provider.
Individuals ages 50 years and older	Consume foods fortified with vitamin B12, such as fortified cereals, or dietary supplements.
Building healthy eating patterns	Select an eating pattern that meets nutrient needs over time at an appropriate calorie level.
	Account for all foods and beverages consumed and assess how they fit within a total healthy eating pattern.
	Follow food safety recommendations when preparing and eating foods to reduce the risk of foodborne illnesses.

Source: [8].

^aSpecific information about meeting these key recommendations may be found throughout this book.

TABLE 1-6 Nutrition Objectives for the Nation: *Healthy People 2010*

Disease-related	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce the Rates of Heart Disease, Stroke, Hypertension, Diabetes, Osteoporosis, and Tooth Decay
Nutrition-related	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce obesity, growth retardation, and iron deficiency. • Increase healthy weight, safe and effective weight loss, and sites for nutrition and weight management instruction. • Increase the number of people who consume the recommended amount of fat, sodium and calcium. • Increase the amount of fruit, vegetables and grains (especially whole) in the diet. • Increase the number of women who breastfeed, the number of children who have meals at school to improve their diet quality, and schools that offer nutrition.
Food safety-related	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce food allergy-related deaths and improper food-safety techniques in retail food establishments. • Increase the number of people who practice food-safety behaviors.

TABLE 1-7 Dietary Reference Intakes and Resources

Reference Values	Descriptions
Adequate Intake (AI)	The recommended average nutrient intake level that is considered <i>adequate</i> for healthy people for each gender and life stage.
Estimated Average Requirement (EAR)	The <i>average</i> daily nutrient intake that is estimated to meet the nutritional requirements for <i>half</i> of the healthy individuals for each gender and life stage.
Estimated Energy Requirement (EER)	The <i>average</i> daily energy (calorie) intake of healthy people that is needed to <i>maintain</i> their body weight.
Recommended Dietary Allowance (RDA)	The <i>average</i> daily nutrient level that is needed to meet the needs of nearly all (97 to 98 percent) healthy people for each gender and life stage.
Tolerable Upper Intake (TUI)	The <i>highest</i> daily nutrient level that is likely to pose no risk of toxicity to almost all healthy individuals for each gender and life stage.

The basic food groups, USDA Food Guide Pyramid, and USDA MyPlate are resources that help to translate these DRI reference values into foods and beverages. They, too, have a scientific basis and are useful for food product, recipe and menu development and diet design.

BASIC FOOD GROUPS

The first classification by the USDA to organize foods and beverages for dietary recommendations was in 1894. Then in 1916, the first food guide, “Food for Young Children,” was published. It divided food into five food groups: dairy milk and meats, cereals, fruit and vegetables, fats and fatty foods, and sugars and sugary foods.

In 1941, the USDA created the first set of Recommended Dietary Allowances (RDAs). Then in 1943, the USDA introduced the “Basic Seven” to help people manage their food rationing during World War II. These included green and yellow vegetables; oranges, tomatoes and grapefruit; potatoes and other vegetables and fruits; dairy milk and dairy milk products; meat, poultry, fish or eggs; breads, flour and cereals; and butter and fortified margarine.

The Basic Four Food Groups were introduced in 1956 to help classify foods based on their nutritional properties. These included the dairy milk, meats, fruits and vegetables, and grain groups. They were used as food guide standards for about a decade. Consumers were instructed to have two standard servings each from the dairy milk and meat groups and four standard servings each from the fruit and vegetables and grain groups. Standard serving sizes of representative foods and beverages are shown in [Table 1-8](#). While fats and oils are not included in the Basic Four Food Groups, a standard serving is about 1 teaspoon.

In the 1970s, the USDA addressed unhealthy foods and health. They added a fifth category to the Basic Four Food Groups, which included fats, sweets and alcohol and recommended that if these substances are consumed, it should be in moderation. In 1988, a graphic that represented all of the food groups was introduced to convey moderation, proportionality and variety.

TABLE 1-8 Standard Serving Sizes of Foods and Beverages

Servings	Descriptions
1 standard grain serving	1 slice of bread, 1 cup of dry cereal, or ½ cup of cooked cereal or cooked grain, such as rice
1 standard dairy milk serving	1 (8-ounce) cup of dairy milk or yogurt, 2 cups of cottage cheese, 1½ ounces of natural cheese, or 2 ounces of processed cheese
1 standard meat serving	1 ounce of fish, poultry or meat; ¼ cup of cooked, dry beans, lentils or peas; 1 egg; 1 tablespoon of peanut butter; or ½ ounce of nuts or seeds
1 standard fruit serving	1 cup of fruit, ½ cup of fruit juice, or 2 tablespoons of dried fruit
1 standard vegetable serving	1 cup raw vegetables, ½ cup cooked vegetables or vegetable juice, or unlimited servings of leafy salad greens
1 standard grain serving	1 slice of bread, 1 cup of dry cereal, or ½ cup of cooked cereal or cooked grain, such as rice
1 standard dairy milk serving	1 (8-ounce) cup of dairy milk or yogurt, 2 cups of cottage cheese, 1½ ounces of natural cheese, or 2 ounces of processed cheese
1 standard meat serving	1 ounce of fish, poultry or meat; ¼ cup of cooked, dry beans, lentils or peas; 1 egg; 1 tablespoon of peanut butter; or ½ ounce of nuts or seeds

FOOD EXCHANGE SYSTEM

In the food exchange system, foods and beverages can be substituted for one another with similar nutrients. The food exchange system was originally designed to help people manage diabetes and weight. It is also a useful tool for anyone who is interested in food selection and meal planning.

The food exchange system consists of three main groups of foods that are based on three major nutrients: carbohydrates, fats and proteins (meat and meat substitutes). Each group of food has similar nutrient content (about the same amount of calories, carbohydrates, fats and protein) and serving sizes so they can be “exchanged” for one another.

For example, 1 small apple can be exchanged for 1 small orange. Three ounces of lean meat, such as ground beef or flank steak, can be exchanged for 3 ounces of fresh fish, such as halibut or tilapia, or 3 ounces of poultry without skin. One teaspoon of regular mayonnaise can be exchanged for 1 teaspoon of safflower oil.

One slice of whole-grain bread can be exchanged for 1 corn tortilla. One-half cup of cooked broccoli can be exchanged for ½ cup of cooked carrots, and so on. Some exchanges are even (such as these examples), while others may vary in serving size. It is the nutrients inside the foods that are being exchanged—and these are similar.

THE USDA FOOD COMPOSITION TABLES AND DATABASES

The USDA food composition databases (FCDBs) provide information about the nutritional composition of foods. Macronutrients, which are required in larger quantities and include carbohydrates, lipids and proteins, and micronutrients, which are required in smaller quantities and include vitamins and minerals, are provided. Some nonnutritive substances, such as plant cell compounds like carotenoids and polyphenols, are also included.

The data are available in food composition tables, or nutrient databases. The values are based on the chemical analyses of foods and beverages, or they are estimated from available data, including manufacturers’ information.

A sample food (macaroni and cheese) and its nutrients as shown in a food composition table is featured in [Table 1-9](#). Access to food composition tables is provided in “Hungry for More?” later in this chapter.

Nutrition, food science and culinary professionals can use food composition tables to discover the nutrients in foods for comparison and distinction. This is useful in developing new ingredients or foods and creating new recipes that are dependent on specific amounts of nutrients or feature certain nutrients.

TABLE 1-9 Sample Food and Nutrients from a Food Composition Table

Food	Serving Size	Weight (grams)	Water (grams)	Energy (calories)
Traditional macaroni and cheese	1 cup	200 g	122 g	393 cal
15 g Protein; 40 g Carbohydrates; 1 g Dietary Fiber; 19 g Total Fat; 8 g Saturated Fat; 7 g Monounsaturated Fat; 3 g Polyunsaturated Fat; 0 g Trans Fat; 22 mg Cholesterol; 323 mg Calcium; 2 mg Iron; 42 mg Manganese; 263 mg Potassium; 800 mg Sodium; 2 mg Zinc; 327 µg Vitamin A; 3 mg Thiamin; 7 mg Vitamin E; .4 mg Riboflavin; 2 mg Niacin; 1 mg Vitamin B6; 12 µg Folate; <1 mg Vitamin C; <1 µg Vitamin B12; --Sel(µg).				

For example, it can be seen in [Table 1-9](#) that there are 19 grams of total fat in a 1-cup serving of traditional macaroni and cheese. If a reduced-fat version of macaroni and cheese is called for, then food composition tables can be referenced and ingredient reductions, substitutions and/or eliminations made.

THE USDA FOOD GUIDE PYRAMID AND MYPYRAMID

The Food Guide Pyramid was a recognizable nutrition tool that was introduced by the USDA in 1992. It was shaped like a pyramid to suggest that a person should eat more foods from the bottom of the pyramid and fewer foods and beverages from the top of the pyramid.

The Food Guide Pyramid displayed proportionality and variety in each of five groups of foods and beverages, which ascended in horizontal layers starting from the base and moving upward toward the tip: breads, cereals, pasta and rice; fruits and vegetables; dairy products; eggs, fish, legumes, meat and poultry; plus alcohol, fats and sugars. The 1992 USDA Food Guide Pyramid is shown in [Figure 1-1](#).

In 2005, the USDA introduced MyPyramid, an updated version of the Food Guide Pyramid. Food groups were depicted in ascending vertical bands that emphasized the right proportions of food groups. An image of a person walking up a flight of stairs flanked the pyramid to emphasize activity. Instead of servings, quantities were measured in cups and ounces. The 2005 USDA Food Guide Pyramid is shown in [Figure 1-2](#).

Other food guide pyramids followed, including the Mediterranean and Asian. Each of the ethnic food guide pyramids added, deleted, or substituted culturally correct foods with those in the USDA Food Guide Pyramid. For example, yogurt and goat milk products appeared in the Mediterranean Food Guide Pyramid, since intolerance to dairy products from cows is prevalent in this region of the world. Likewise, the Asian Food Guide Pyramid included soy products to replace the nutrients that are normally found in dairy products.

Morsel “If we could give every individual the right amount of nourishment and exercise, not too little and not too much, we would have found the safest way to health.”
—Hippocrates (Greek physician, 460 –c. 370 BC)

Additional food guide pyramids have been developed for children, seniors, vegetarians and a number of other groups to meet their specific nutritional needs. Yet, in 2011, after six years, the USDA replaced the Food Guide Pyramid with the nutrition guide MyPlate. Food guide pyramids are still used in other parts of the world and by some specialty groups.

USDA MYPLATE

MyPlate is the USDA nutrition guide that was released in 2011. It depicts a place setting with a plate and glass that represent the five food groups. The plate is split into four sections for fruits, vegetables, grains and protein. The image of a glass alongside is for dairy products. [Figure 1-3](#) shows the USDA MyPlate.

At [ChooseMyPlate.gov](#) one can find Selected Consumer Messages; the SuperTracker; personalized nutrition and physical activity plan; and the Ten Tips Nutrition Education Series that includes “10 Tips to a Great Plate.” Selected Consumer Messages include the following:

Balance calories

- Enjoy food, but eat less.
- Avoid oversized portions.

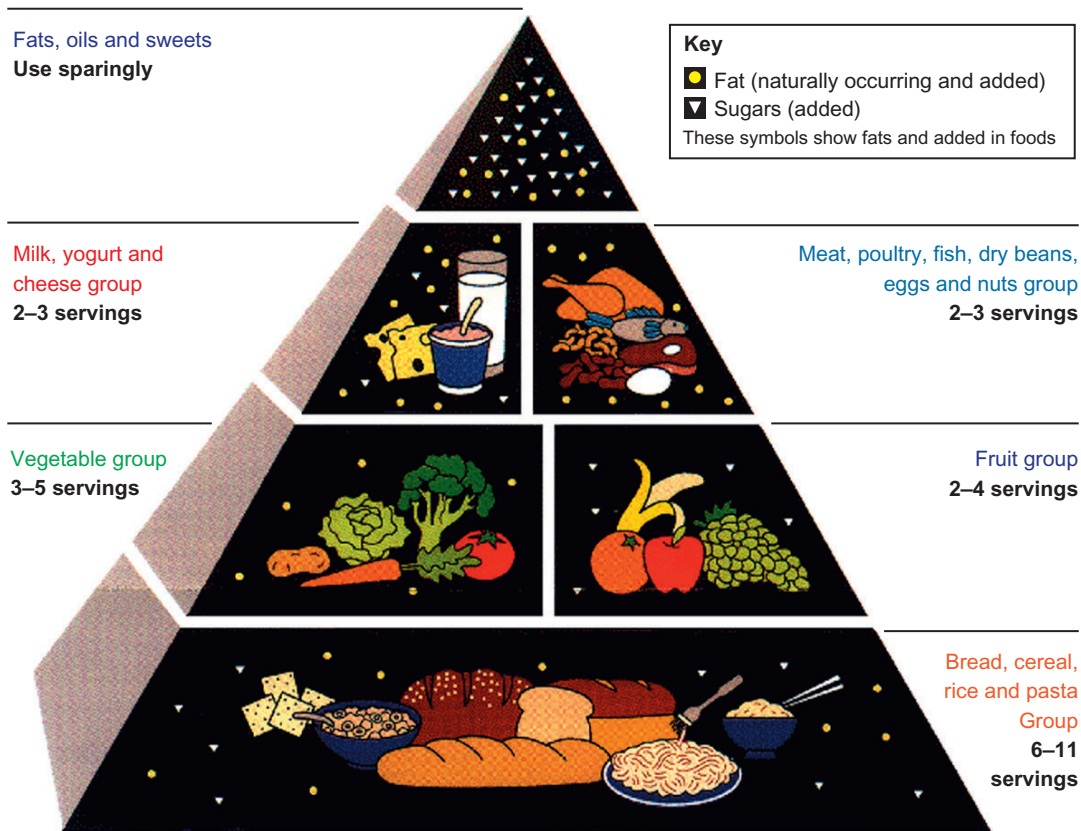


FIGURE 1-1

The 1992 USDA Food Guide Pyramid.

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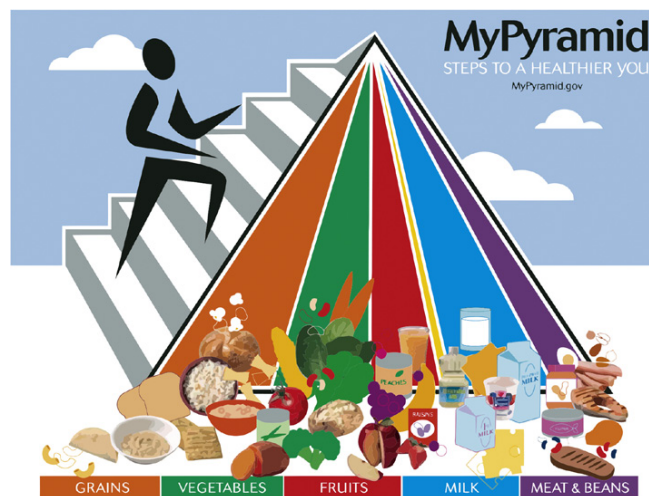
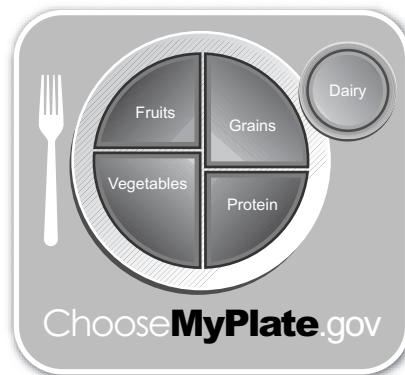


FIGURE 1-2

The 2005 USDA Food Guide Pyramid [10].

Foods to increase

- Make half your plate fruits and vegetables.
- Make at least half your grains whole grains.
- Switch to fat-free or low-fat (1%) dairy milk.

**FIGURE 1-3**

USDA MyPlate.

Foods to reduce

- Compare sodium in foods like soup, bread and frozen meals, and choose foods with lower numbers.
- Drink water instead of sugary drinks.

The “10 Tips to a Great Plate” are based on the *US Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 2010* and offer the following advice [11,12]:

1. Balance calories.
2. Enjoy your food, but eat less.
3. Avoid oversized portions.
4. Foods to eat more often
5. Make half your plate fruits and vegetables.
6. Switch to fat-free or low-fat (1%) dairy milk.
7. Make half your grains whole grains.
8. Foods to eat less often
9. Compare sodium in foods.
10. Drink water instead of sugary drinks.

FOOD EXCHANGE LISTS

The Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics and the American Diabetes Association have created food exchange lists for diabetes and weight management that can be accessed in “Hungry for More?” later in this chapter.

Table 1-10 shows these exchange lists with nutrients in one serving.

Morsel “Be moderate in order to taste the joys of life in abundance.”
—Epicurus (Greek philosopher 341–270 BC)

A sample meal with food exchanges, calories, carbohydrates, protein and fats is illustrated in Table 1-11. It shows the importance of the types and amounts of nutrients in meal planning. In this otherwise low-fat meal, one can see that the fat calories in butter are significant.

FOOD BYTE

Most people need no more than 3 to 4 ounces of meat in a serving (about the size of a deck of playing cards, or the size and thickness of the palm of the hand). Just two to three servings of protein a day suffice for the average adult. Yet, some fast-food sandwiches provide as much protein as what is needed in an entire day. One popular sandwich contains three flame-broiled beef patties and two slices of cheese and provides 71 grams of protein when the Daily Value (DV) for protein is just 50 grams. Extra protein over and beyond body needs may be converted into fat.

TABLE 1-10 Exchange Lists with Nutrients in One Serving

Food Groups	Calories (cal)	Carbohydrates (grams)	Protein (grams)	Fat (grams)
Carbohydrates				
Fruits	60 cal	15 g	0 g	0 g
Dairy milk				
Fat-free, low-fat, 1%	100	12	8	0–3
Reduced-fat, 2%	120	12	8	5
Whole	160	12	8	8
Nonstarchy vegetables	25	5	2	0
Starches (beans, lentils, peas, breads, cereals, grains, crackers, snacks, starchy vegetables)	80	15	0–3	0–1
Sweets, desserts	Variable	15	Variable	Variable
Meat/meat substitutes				
Lean	45	0	7	0–3
Medium-fat	75	0	7	4–7
High-fat	100	0	7	8+
Meat substitutes	Variable	Variable	7	Variable
Other				
Fats	45	0	0	5
Alcohol	100	Variable	0	0

Source: [13,14].

TABLE 1-11 Sample Meal with Food Exchanges

Amounts of Food and Beverages	Exchanges	Calories (cal)	Carbohydrates (grams)	Protein (grams)	Fat (grams)
3 ounces broiled fish	3 lean meat	135 cal	0 g	21 g	0–3 g
½ cup cooked pasta	1 starch	80	15	0–3	0–1
½ cup cooked carrots	1 nonstarchy vegetable	25	5	2	0
1 tablespoon butter (for fish, pasta and carrots)	3 fats	135	0	0	15
½ large grapefruit	1 fruit	60	15	0	0
1 cup fat-free dairy milk	1 fat-free milk	100	12	8	0

PORTION SIZES VERSUS SERVING SIZES

Often what people *should* eat is not what people actually eat. This is because sometimes our eyes estimate more food than what our stomach may tolerate. It is also the result of people taking portions that are too large and then eating everything on their plate.

A portion size is the amount of food that is consumed at one time, whether it is from a restaurant meal, can or package, or homemade recipe. In contrast, a serving size is the amount of food that is accounted for in the food exchange system and listed on a food label.

The average serving sizes per serving that are consistent with the exchange lists are shown in Table 1-12. While they are particularly useful for diabetes and weight management, they represent the portion sizes that people should consume.

Supersize was a trademark for the largest portion size available in meals offered by the fast-food giant McDonald's. A smaller meal portion could be made larger by "supersizing" the meal. Initially, the term had positive support, but it lost appeal due to its negative association with obesity and is no longer used.

TABLE 1-12 Average Serving Sizes Per Serving for Exchange List Planning

Food Groups	Average Serving Sizes Per one Serving
Vegetables	½ cup cooked vegetables or vegetable juice 1 cup raw vegetables or salad greens
Fat-free/low-fat dairy milk	1 cup dairy milk or plain yogurt
Lean protein	1 ounce cheese, fish, poultry or meat 1 egg ½ cup cooked legumes or tofu
Fruit	½ cup fruit juice or canned fruit 1 small whole piece of fruit
Starches	½ cup cooked grains or starchy vegetables (peas or corn) ½ bagel or roll 1 slice bread
Fats	1 teaspoon butter, margarine, mayonnaise or oil 1 tablespoon salad dressing or cream cheese

Throughout culinary history, once recipes were recorded, the amounts of ingredients were roughly estimated by sight. Ingredients were given as "a leg of lamb," "a basketful of apples," "a cupful of beans," "a knob of butter," "a touch of salt," and so on.

Bite on This: kitchen math

Kitchen math is a collection of measurements, conversions and simple calculations that help nutrition, food science and culinary professionals to adjust the amounts and proportions of nutrients in foods and beverages and ingredients in recipes.

While some websites provide quick conversions (see "Hungry for More?" later in this chapter), kitchen math shows the step-by-step changes that are integral to nutrition, food science, cooking and baking. Many of these conversions are used throughout the chapters of this book.

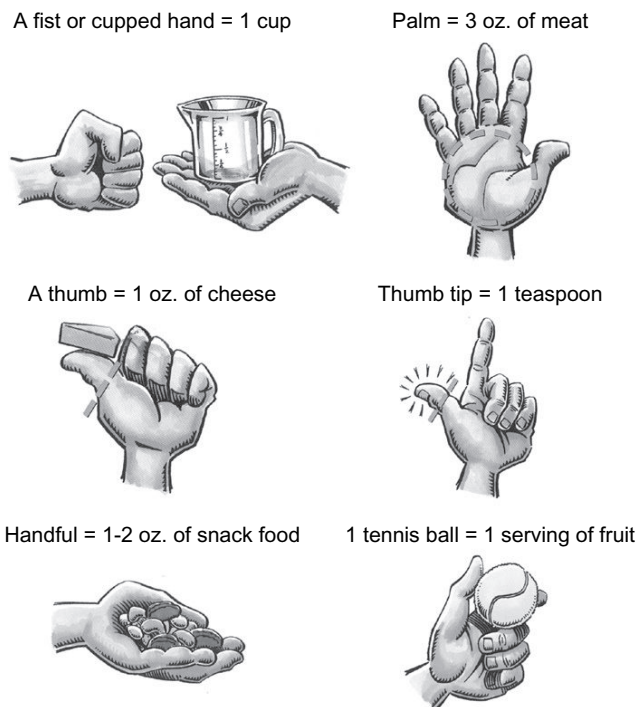
The metric system is a system of measure that is used in almost every country of the world other than in the United States, where the English system is used almost exclusively. There are many compelling reasons why the metric system is preferable to the English system, especially the fact that all metric units are related by factors of 10, which facilitates ease and accuracy.

The metric system is largely the measurement system of choice in the laboratory and professional kitchen. The English system is primarily used by home cooks and consumers. Common metric system-to-English system equivalents are provided in [Table 1-14](#).

Before there were measuring cups and spoons, people used their hands for measurements because they were portable and fairly uniform. Fingers, fists and palms were used to illustrate the amounts of food for purchase or trade. A person's hands are still very useful for estimating food portions today, as depicted in [Figure 1-4](#). [Table 1-13](#) also provides a handy portion guide.

Simple percentages are important calculations in kitchen math. Percentages are used to determine the amount of calories from carbohydrates, lipids and proteins in foods and beverages. They are also used to calculate the amounts of carbohydrates, lipids and proteins in diets as percentages of total calories.

This information aids nutrition, food science and culinary professionals who are involved in new ingredient and food product design and/or in recipe, menu and diet development. Knowing how to use percentages helps if an ingredient, recipe or diet requires a reduction in calories and nutrients. The following three examples explain how percentages are used in kitchen math.


FIGURE 1-4

The use of hands and fingers for measuring.

TABLE 1-13 Handy Portion Guide

Measures	Hand Portions	Food Portions
1 pat	Thumbnail	Smidgen of butter or chocolate
½ teaspoon	Tip of index finger	Swipe of guacamole or cookie dough
1 teaspoon	Tip of thumb to first joint	Scoop of peanut butter or mayonnaise
1 tablespoon	One thumb	Chunk (1-ounce) of cheese
2 tablespoons	Two thumbs	Salad dressing
½ ounce	One bent thumb	Smear of cheese spread or chicken wing
1 ounce	Space between outstretched thumb and forefinger	Hard cheese, small drumstick or fish stick
1 ounce	One handful	Nuts or small candies
1 ounce	Two handfuls	Chips or pretzels
½ cup	Small fist or cupped hand	Cottage cheese, cooked rice or pasta
1 cup	Large fist or cupped hand	Chopped leafy fresh greens or cold cereal
2 ounces	One-half palm	Two slices meat, poultry, fish or cheese
3 ounces	Full palm	Three slices meat, poultry, fish or cheese
4 ounces	Open palm plus thumb	Ice cream scoop
6 ounces	Two open palms	Whole chicken breast
8 ounces	Two open palms plus thumbs	Restaurant portion meat, poultry or fish
2 inches wide	Circle from tip of thumb to tip of index finger	Small biscuit, muffin, cookie or potato chip
5 inches wide	Circle from tip of thumbs to tips of index fingers	Large biscuit, muffin or cookie
3 inches long	Two fingers span	Small potato or piece of fruit
4 inches long	Three fingers span	Medium potato or piece of fruit
6 inches long	Four fingers span	Large potato or piece of fruit
8 inches long	Five fingers span	Extra-large potato or piece of fruit

TABLE 1-14 Common Metric System to English System Equivalents**Weight**

1 gram (g)	.352739619 ounces, or about .35 ounce
1 ounce (oz)	28.35 grams, or about 30 grams
1 gram (g)	1,000 milligrams (mg)
1 milligram (mg)	1,000 micrograms (mcg)
1 kilogram (kg)	1,000 grams (g)
1 kilogram (kg)	2.2 pounds (lbs)
1 pound (lb)	about 454 grams

Volume

1 milliliter (ml)	1/8 teaspoon, or .034 fluid ounce
1 teaspoon (tsp)	5 milliliters
1 tablespoon (T)	15 milliliters
1 fluid ounce (fl oz)	30 milliliters, or 2 tablespoons
1 cup (c)	8 fluid ounces, or 16 tablespoons, or 240 milliliters
1 quart (qt)	32 fluid ounces, or 4 cups, or .95 liters
1 liter (L)	1.06 quarts, or 1,000 milliliters
1 gallon (gal)	16 cups, or 4 quarts, or 128 fluid ounces, or 3.79 liters

Weights and Measures

16 tablespoons	1 cup
12 tablespoons	3/4 cup
10 tablespoons	2/3 cup <i>plus</i> 2 teaspoons
8 tablespoons	1/2 cup
6 tablespoons	3/8 cup
5 tablespoons	1/3 cup <i>plus</i> 1 teaspoon
4 tablespoons	1/4 cup
2 tablespoons	1/8 cup
2 tablespoons	1/6 cup <i>plus</i> 2 teaspoons
1 tablespoons	1/16 cup
1 cup	48 teaspoons, or 16 tablespoons
1/2 cup	24 teaspoons, or 8 tablespoons
2 cups	1 pint
2 pints	1 quart
4 quarts	1 gallon

Source: [15].

Example #1 demonstrates how the percentage of total calories from fat on a food label can be used to calculate the number of calories from fat in a food or beverage.

Example #1:

1. Review the food label for the total number of calories and the percentage of total calories from fat.

Total number of calories = 125 calories

Percentage of total calories from fat = 30 percent

2. To determine how many calories of the food or beverage are from fat, multiply the total number of calories by the percentage of total calories from fat, expressed as a decimal.

Solution:

125 calories (total number of calories) \times .30 total fat ($30 \times .01$) = 37.5 total calories from fat

Example #2 demonstrates how to use a percentage to calculate the number of calories in a diet.

Example #2:

1. If a person consumes 2,000 calories daily and requires a diet that is 30 percent total fat, how many calories of fat should he consume daily?

Solution:

2,000 daily calories \times .30 total fat ($30 \times .01$) = 600 daily calories from fat

Both of these examples have many practical purposes. In the first example, the amount of fat in a recipe may be limited to no more than 30 percent total fat so it can be labeled reduced-fat. This may require a 30 percent reduction of most of the ingredients in the recipe. This information directs the food developer or chef to use one-third less fat.

In the second example, a daily diet may be limited to no more than 30 percent total fat for cardiovascular disease prevention. On an average 2,000–daily calorie diet, up to one-third of the calories may come from fats. This information shows health professionals that fat does not have to be eliminated on a restricted-fat diet.

Example #3 requires the information about the number of calories per gram of carbohydrates, lipids and proteins that were provided earlier in this chapter. First a brief review:

Energy-producing Nutrient	Weight in Grams	Number of Calories/Gram
Carbohydrates	1 gram	4 calories/gram
Protein	1 gram	4 calories/gram
Lipids	1 gram	9 calories/gram
Alcohol	1 gram	7 calories/gram

Example #3:

If 2,400 total calories are consumed daily and these calories contain 60 grams of total fat, then what is the percentage of total calories that is contributed by these grams of fat?

Solution:

60 grams of total fat \times 9 calories/gram of total fat (lipids) = 540 calories from total fat

540 calories from total fat / 2,400 daily calories \times .01 (to convert into a percentage) =

22.5 percent total fat

Example #3 illustrates the importance of nutrient information such as this in ingredient, recipe, menu and diet development. Knowing how to calculate the percent of total fat is also useful in nutrition labeling. By becoming skillful with kitchen math, one may be able to compute decisive values and contribute missing links. There are additional exercises in the “Check please” section in this chapter that provide practice with kitchen math.

25

US FOOD LABEL AND FOOD LABELING REGULATIONS

The Nutrition Labeling and Education Act

In the United States, food packaging has been required to carry definitive labeling since 1990 with the passage of the Nutrition Labeling and Education Act (NLEA). The NLEA amended the Federal Food, Drug and Cosmetic Act (FFDCA) of 1938. These food labeling regulations are designed to be rigorously truthful, science based, and uniform.

The NLEA is implemented by the *US Food and Drug Association (FDA)*. The FDA is an agency within the HHS, which is responsible for regulating the safety of most types of foods and dietary supplements.

The NLEA requires that a label appear on most foods, and it approves nutrient claims and FDA-approved claims on food labels. Some foods and substances that do not require food labels include bulk food, coffee, meat, poultry, spices, tea and food prepared on-site, such as in bakeries, cafeterias or delis.

One cannot understate the importance of food and nutrition labels to nutrition, food science and culinary professionals. Not only do they convey the ingredient content of US-produced foods and beverages, but they can be used to compare the nutrients among products and as a vehicle for diet and health messages [16].

US Food Labels

In 1994, food labeling legislation was introduced in the United States to comply with the NLEA and to help US consumers follow the Food Guide Pyramid. It was revised in 2008 and 2009. Food labeling legislation applies to US food manufacturers and foreign exporters of foods into the United States.

**FIGURE 1-5**

Front panel of typical US food label.

This legislation requires that most foods carry nutrition labeling and that food labels that carry nutrient content claims and certain health messages comply with specific requirements. Since regulations frequently change, it is the responsibility of the food industry to keep current with legal requirements.

In 2006, the *Food Allergen Labeling and Consumer Protection Act (FALCPA)* was introduced, which requires food labels to disclose any of eight major food allergens (eggs, fish, dairy milk, peanuts, shellfish, soybeans, tree nuts and wheat) within foods and beverages [17].

Some substances are exempt from certain food labeling, such as very small products like candy and those that have few nutrients, like soft drinks. The front panel of a typical US food label is shown in Figure 1-5. The following information is required on most US food labels [18]:

- Statement of identity (common name of the food or food product on the front of the package or on the principal display panel)
- Business information (name and address of the manufacturer)
- “Sell by” date
- Net contents or weight of the package or container
- Recommended serving size
- Number of servings in the package or container
- Ingredient statement (nutrients and subingredients; special rules apply to colorings, flavorings and spices)
- Ingredients listed in *descending order* of predominance by weight in the food or food product
- Nutrition labeling (see the “Nutrition Facts Panel” section that follows)
- Allergen declaration (for eight major allergens: eggs, fish, dairy milk, peanuts, shellfish, soybeans, tree nuts and wheat)

FOOD BYTE: SERVING SIZES VERSUS NUMBER OF SERVINGS

The first place to look at the Nutrition Facts Panel is the serving size and the number of servings in a package or container. Serving sizes are based on the amount of food that people *typically* eat. They are provided in *familiar* units, such as cups or pieces, followed by the *metric* amount, such as the number of grams or milligrams. When people open packages or containers, they may consume more than one serving—or the entire amount. One ounce of potato chips (about two handfuls) contains about 155 calories, and an entire 16-ounce bag may contain about 2,480 calories!

TABLE 1-15 Nutrition Facts Panel: Mandatory and Voluntary Nutrients

Mandatory Nutrients	Calories
	Calories from fat
	Total fat
	Saturated fat
	Trans fat
	Cholesterol
	Sodium
	Total carbohydrates
	Dietary fiber
	Sugars
	Protein
	Vitamin A
	Vitamin C
	Calcium
Voluntary nutrients	Iron
	Calories from saturated fat
	Polyunsaturated fat
	Monounsaturated fat
	Potassium
	Soluble fiber
	Insoluble fiber
	Sugar alcohols
	Other carbohydrates
	Percent vitamin A as beta-carotene
	Other essential vitamins and minerals

Source: [19,20].

NUTRITION FACTS PANEL

The *Nutrition Facts Panel* has been required on all food labels of US manufactured foods and food products since 1994. It is under US FDA regulation. The Nutrition Facts Panel must display mandatory nutrients for one standard serving of food or a food product. The following nutrients are considered to be mandatory on the Nutrition Facts Panel and must appear in the order that is shown in [Table 1-15](#).

Other nutrients do not have to appear if they are zero. Foods and food products that contain more than 5 grams are rounded to the nearest .5 gram. Foods and food products that are less than .5 gram are rounded to 0 grams. Foods and food products that claim to be classified as low-fat or high-fiber must be uniform with food and food products that bear similar labels. A sample Nutrition Facts Panel is shown in [Figure 1-6](#).

The Daily Values

The Daily Values (DVs) are a set of reference values that quantify the nutrients that appear within the Nutrition Facts Panel of US produced foods and food products. The DVs assist consumers and food and nutrition professionals in interpreting the amounts of these nutrients and comparing their nutritional values with similar foods and food products.

The DVs are established for adults and children age 4 and over based on a caloric intake of 2,000 calories, for adults and children four or more years of age. The US FDA Daily Values are shown in [Table 1-16](#).

The percentages of the Daily Values that appear on the Nutrition Facts Panel show what one serving of a food or food product supplies. Each nutrient is based on 100 percent of the daily requirements for that particular nutrient.

[Figure 1-7](#) shows the Daily Values on a sample Nutrient Facts Panel. The nutrients are listed with their weights on the left-hand side and the percent Daily Value for each of these nutrients is listed on the right-hand side. For example, if one serving of food contains 470 milligrams of sodium and this amount is 20 percent

Nutrition Facts	
Serving Size 1 cup (228g)	
Servings Per Container about 2	
Amount Per Serving	
Calories 250	Calories from Fat 110
% Daily Value*	
Total Fat 12g	18%
Saturated Fat 3g	15%
Trans Fat 3g	
Cholesterol 30mg	10%
Sodium 470mg	20%
Total Carbohydrate 31g	10%
Dietary Fiber 0g	0%
Sugars 5g	
Proteins 5g	
Vitamin A	4%
Vitamin C	2%
Calcium	20%
Iron	4%
*Percent Daily Values are based on a 2,000 calorie diet. Your daily values may be higher or lower depending on your calorie needs:	
	Calories: 2,000 2,500
Total Fat	Less than 65g 80g
Saturated Fat	Less than 20g 25g
Cholesterol	Less than 300mg 300mg
Sodium	Less than 2,400mg 2,400mg
Total Carbohydrate	300g 375g
Dietary Fiber	25g 30g

For educational purposes only. This label does not meet the labeling requirements described in 21 CFR 101.9.

FIGURE 1-6

Nutrition facts panel [21].

of the Daily Value for sodium, then one serving of this food supplies about one-fifth of the Daily Value (20 percent/100 percent = 1/5).

According to [Table 1-16](#), the Daily Value for sodium is 2,400 milligrams, about five times the amount of sodium in one serving of this food. This example demonstrates how the Daily Value can be used for food selection and meal planning.

Bite on This: deciphering a food label

A typical food label from a can of tuna fish is depicted in [Table 1-17](#). Key terms are listed along with their interpretations. The DVs and their interpretations follow. This depiction demonstrates the challenges and benefits in deciphering food labels.

The food label in [Table 1-17](#) shows that one serving of canned tuna in water (just 2 ounces or ¼ cup) provides almost one-third of the DV for protein, with little fat and no carbohydrate. One-quarter cup of another food with appreciable protein, such as chicken, can be compared to see how its nutrients measure up to canned tuna fish in water.

US FDA Approved Nutrient Content Claims

Nutrient content claims are statements on the labels of foods, food products and dietary supplements that describe the amounts of nutrients or dietary substances in these products. The US FDA establishes the requirements and regulates the compliance of nutrient content claims.

TABLE 1-16 US Food and Drug Administration Daily Values, Based on a 2,000-Calorie Daily Diet

Food Components	Daily Values (DV)
Total fat	65 grams (g)
Saturated fat	20 g
Cholesterol	300 milligrams (mg)
Sodium	2,400 mg
Potassium	3,500 mg
Total carbohydrate	300 g
Dietary fiber	25 g
Protein	50 g
Vitamin A	5,000 International Units (IU)
Vitamin C	60 mg
Calcium	1,000 mg
Iron	18 mg
Vitamin D	400 IU
Vitamin E	30 IU
Vitamin K	80 micrograms µg
Thiamin	1.5 mg
Riboflavin	1.7 mg
Niacin	20 mg
Vitamin B6	2 mg
Folate	400 µg
Vitamin B12	6 µg
Biotin	300 µg
Pantothenic acid	10 mg
Phosphorus	1,000 mg
Iodine	150 µg
Magnesium	400 mg
Zinc	15 mg
Selenium	70 µg
Copper	2 mg
Manganese	2 mg
Chromium	120 µg
Molybdenum	75 µg
Chloride	3,400 mg

Source: [22].

Examples of nutrient content claims include such statements as *fat-free*, *fortified*, *excellent source*, *healthy*, *high potency*, *lean*, *light*, *low*, *made with*, *more*, *percent* and *reduced*. A list of US FDA approved nutrient content claims, definitions, and amounts per serving are shown in Table 1-18. Additional claim information for *antioxidant*, *healthy* and *high potency* can be found at www.fda.gov.

US FDA Approved Health Claims

Health claims are statements on the labels of foods, food products and dietary supplements that describe the relationship between the components of these products and the reduced risks of certain diseases or conditions. Like the nutrient content claims, the FDA has established specific language and guidelines for the use of health claims.

An example of a US FDA approved health claim is "Three grams of soluble fiber from oatmeal that is consumed daily in a low-saturated fat and cholesterol diet may reduce the risk of heart disease. This cereal has 3 grams of soluble fiber per serving."

Food manufacturers must use the words *may* or *might* in declaring the connections of certain nutrients with diseases. They must also phrase the relationship in very understandable consumer-friendly language and note the importance of other factors in disease prevention or reduction, such as exercise. Notice the words *may* or *might* in

Nutrition Facts	
Serving Size 1 cup (228g)	
Servings Per Container about 2	
Amount Per Serving	
Calories 250	Calories from Fat 110
% Daily Value*	
Total Fat 12g	18%
Saturated Fat 3g	15%
Trans Fat 3g	
Cholesterol 30mg	10%
Sodium 470mg	20%
Total Carbohydrate 31g	10%
Dietary Fiber 0g	0%
Sugars 5g	
Proteins 5g	
Vitamin A	4%
Vitamin C	2%
Calcium	20%
Iron	4%
*Percent Daily Values are based on a 2,000 calorie diet. Your daily values may be higher or lower depending on your calorie needs:	
	Calories: 2,000 2,500
Total Fat	Less than 65g 80g
Saturated Fat	Less than 20g 25g
Cholesterol	Less than 300mg 300mg
Sodium	Less than 2,400mg 2,400mg
Total Carbohydrate	300g 375g
Dietary Fiber	25g 30g

For educational purposes only. This label does not meet the labeling requirements described in 21 CFR 101.9.

FIGURE 1-7

Daily values on a sample food label [21].

the example above. Also notice the importance of low saturated fat and cholesterol in heart disease risk reduction. US FDA approved health claims are shown in [Table 1-19](#).

Structure/Function Claims

Structure/function claims are statements on the labels of foods, food products or dietary supplements that describe how a product may affect the body organs or systems. *Specific diseases cannot be mentioned.*

Structure/function claims do not require the approval of the FDA, but they must receive the text of the claim within 30 days of marketing the product from the manufacturer. The affixed label must include a disclaimer that reads, "This statement has not been evaluated by the FDA. This product is not intended to diagnose, treat, cure,

Morsel "Eat to live and not to eat."
—Socrates (Roman philosopher, 469–399 BC)

or prevent any disease." An example of a structure/function claim is "Calcium builds strong bones." Some other examples of structure/function claims are shown in [Table 1-20](#). Not all structure/function claims are provided.

What Is a Healthy Diet? The ABCs of Healthy Eating

Now that the foundation of nutrition and its importance in food science and culinary arts have been established, along with the nutrition goals and regulations as established by US government, medical and scientific associations, it is time to turn our attention to the ABCs of healthy eating: adequacy, balance, moderation, calorie control plus moderation, and variety. These simple principles help to put a healthy diet into perspective.

TABLE 1-17 What's Inside a Can of Tuna Fish?

If the Label Reads:	It Can Be Interpreted to Mean:
"Premium Tuna"	It informs the consumer that it is high quality.
"Solid white albacore" in water rather than oil	The product may be lower in calories and fat than tuna canned in oil.
Ingredients: White tuna, water, vegetable broth, salt, pyrophosphate added.	Tuna is listed first, so it is the main ingredient.
Contains: Tuna and soy	Pyrophosphate is not normally present.
	Soy is disclosed for people who have a soy allergy.
	There is probably a negligible amount.
Distributed by _____	Must be included. The distributor may be different from the manufacturer.
For Inquiries _____	Business information must be included.
Nutrition Facts Panel:	Must be included.
Serving Size: 2 oz. drained (56 g—about ¼ cup)	The serving size is only ¼ cup.
Servings: About 5	One can of tuna contains 5 (¼-cup) servings.

	Amount/one serving	Percent Daily Value (% DV ^a)	Interpretation
Total fat	1.0 g	2	Low in total fat
Saturated fat	0 g	0	No saturated fat
Trans fat	0 g		No DV for trans fat
Cholesterol	25 mg	8	Low in cholesterol
Sodium	250 mg	11	About one-tenth DV for sodium
Total carbohydrate	0 g	0	No carbohydrate
Fiber	0 g	0	No fiber
Sugars	0 g		No DV for sugars
Protein	15 g	27	Almost one-third DV for protein
Vitamin A		0	No vitamin A
Vitamin C		0	No vitamin C
Calcium		0	No calcium
Iron		0	No iron
Niacin		25	One-quarter DV for niacin
Vitamin B6		10	One-tenth DV for vitamin B6
Vitamin B12		15	One-fifteenth DV for vitamin B12
Phosphorus		10	One-tenth DV for phosphorus

Source: [22].

^aPercent Daily Values are based on a daily 2,000-calorie diet.

ADEQUACY

Adequacy is a measure of whether or not a diet meets the nutritional needs of generally healthy people according to the US DRIs. Adequacy is determined and categorized by age, gender and life stage. A diet for a child is not adequate for a teenager and a diet for a teenager is not adequate for a pregnant woman or a senior. Extenuating circumstances, such as accidents and disease, may also affect the adequacy of a diet.

An adequate daily diet offers 100 percent of the DVs. An adequate long-term diet also contributes to health and well being.

BALANCE

Balance is an even distribution of the foods in a meal or the nutrients in a diet. The human body seeks balance in many of its functions. For example, too little or too much protein is imbalanced and may lead to protein malnutrition or burden the kidneys. Similarly, a high-protein meal may be considered imbalanced if other nutrients are missing.

TABLE 1-18 US Food and Drug Administration Approved Nutrient Content Claims

Claims	Amounts per Serving
Calories	
Calorie-free	Fewer than 5 calories
Low-calorie	40 calories or fewer
Reduced or fewer calories	At least 25% fewer calories ^a
Light or lite	Calories reduced by at least 30% fewer calories (if food is less than 50% calories from fat)
Total fat	
Fat-free	Fewer than .5 gram fat
Low-fat	3 grams or fewer of fat and no more than 30% calories from fat
Reduced or less fat	At least 25% less fat ^a
Light or lite	Fat reduced 50% or more (if food is 50% or more calories from fat)
Cholesterol	
Cholesterol-free	Fewer than 2 milligrams cholesterol and 2 grams or fewer of saturated fat
Low cholesterol	20 milligrams or fewer per reference amount (and per 50 grams of food if the reference amount is small) and 2 grams or fewer saturated fat per reference amount
Reduced or less cholesterol	At least 25% less cholesterol and 2 grams or fewer saturated fat
Saturated fat	
Saturated fat-free	Fewer than .5 gram saturated fat and fewer than .5 gram trans fat
Low saturated fat	1 gram or fewer saturated fat and no more than 15% of calories from saturated fat
Reduced or less saturated fat	At least 25% less saturated fat
Sodium	
Sodium free	Fewer than 5 milligrams sodium
Very low sodium	35 milligrams or fewer sodium
Low sodium	140 milligrams or fewer sodium
Reduced or less sodium	At least 25% less sodium
Light in sodium	At least 50% less sodium than appropriate reference food
Sugar	
Sugar-free	Fewer than .5 gram sugars
Reduced sugar or less sugar	At least 25% less sugars ^a
No added sugar	No sugars added during processing or packing, including ingredients that contain sugars, such as juice or dry fruit
Fiber	
High fiber	5 grams or more
Good source of fiber	2.5 to 4.9 grams
More or added fiber	At least 2.5 grams more ^a
Other	
High, rich in, excellent source of	20% or more of % DV ^a
Good source, contains, provides	10% to 19% of % DV ^a
More, enriched, fortified, added	10% or more of % DV ^a
Lean ^b	Fewer than 10 grams fat, 4.5 grams or fewer saturated fat and fewer than 95 milligrams cholesterol
Extra lean ^b	Fewer than 5 grams fat, fewer than 2 grams saturated fat and fewer than 95 milligrams cholesterol

Source: [23].

^aCompared to an appropriate reference food.^bGame meats, meat, poultry and seafood

TABLE 1-19 FDA Approved Health Claims

- Calcium, vitamin D and osteoporosis
- Dietary lipids (fat) and cancer
- Dietary saturated fat and cholesterol and risk of coronary heart disease
- Dietary noncariogenic carbohydrate sweeteners and dental caries
- Fiber-containing grain products, fruits and vegetables and cancer
- Folic acid and neural tube defects
- Fruits and vegetables and cancer
- Fruits, vegetables and grain products that contain fiber, particularly soluble fiber, and risk of coronary heart disease
- Sodium and hypertension
- Soluble fiber from certain foods and risk of coronary heart disease
- Soy protein and risk of coronary heart disease
- Stanols/sterols and risk of coronary heart disease

TABLE 1-20 Examples of Structure/Function Claims

Vitamins	Structures or Functions
Vitamin A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May contribute to maintenance of healthy vision • May contribute to maintenance of healthy immune function • May contribute to bone health • May contribute to cell integrity
Vitamin C	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Functions as an antioxidant to neutralize free radicals • May contribute to healthy immune function • May contribute to maintenance of bone health
Vitamin D	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helps regulate calcium and phosphorus • Helps contribute to bone health • May contribute to healthy immune function • Helps support cell growth
Vitamin E	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Functions as antioxidant to neutralize free radicals • May contribute to healthy immune function • May contribute to maintenance of heart health
Folate/folic acid	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supports healthy brain and spinal cord development • May contribute to maintenance of heart health
Vitamin B12	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helps regulate metabolism • Supports blood cell formation • May contribute to maintenance of mental function
Minerals	
Calcium	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Builds strong bones
Magnesium	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contributes to bone health and healthy immune function
Potassium	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helps maintain healthy blood pressure level in combination with low-sodium diet
Selenium	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Neutralizes free radicals and supports healthy immune system
Other	
Omega-3 fatty acids	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May contribute to maintenance of heart health • May contribute to maintenance of mental and visual function
Probiotics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May improve gastrointestinal health and systemic immunity
Phytoestrogens	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May contribute to maintenance of bone health • May contribute to a healthy brain • May contribute to healthy immune function • For women, may contribute to maintenance of menopausal health

Source: [24].

A balanced meal contains the basic food groups in recommended portion sizes. A balanced diet provides a range of nutrients over time.

CALORIE CONTROL

If a person follows the ABCs of healthy eating, then she should consume the right amount of calories. This assumes that the calories she consumes equal the calories she expends. Sedentary activities and labor-saving devices have reduced the calories that we expend, so people should eat less and practice *calorie control* to compensate.

Instead, our collective caloric intake has increased. We barely find time to exercise, and our national “waistline” has suffered; our society is simply growing too large. We need to tighten our belts, eat less and exercise more, particularly as we age and our metabolism slows down. A calorie-controlled meal provides about one-third of daily calories. A calorie-controlled diet may lead to weight loss over time.

DISCRETIONARY CALORIES

Discretionary calories are the amount of calories that a person chooses whether or not to consume. If a person requires 2,000 calories daily but consumes only 1,800 calories and meets their nutritional needs, then 200 calories are considered “discretionary.” A regular soft drink or small chocolate bar contains about 150 to 230 calories and may fit an otherwise healthy diet. On the other hand, eating fewer discretionary calories may benefit a person’s diet and health over time.

EMPTY CALORIES

Empty calories refer to the calories in nutrient-poor foods and beverages, such as candy or soft drinks. Empty calories still contain calories, but they may be devoid of nutrients and other health-enhancing substances such as fiber, minerals, protein and vitamins. For example, 15 jelly beans contain 159 calories, the majority of which are from sugar. One-quarter cup of raisins contains 122 calories. While many of these calories are from sugar, raisins also contain fiber, vitamins and minerals. Consuming fewer empty calories is sensible for both weight and health.

NUTRIENT DENSITY

The concept of *nutrient density* is virtually the opposite of empty calories. A *nutrient-dense* food is rich in nutrients compared to a *calorie-dense* food that is higher in calories. For example, a 1-cup serving of fresh broccoli contains about 30 calories. Broccoli is filled with calcium and magnesium; vitamins A, C, and K; and other nutrients. A regular soft drink contains about 150 calories per 12 ounces, with sugar, water and chemicals. The broccoli is considered a nutrient-dense food, while the soft drink is considered a calorie-dense food. It is best to consume more nutrient-dense foods most of the time.

MODERATION

Moderation is restraint without excesses or limitations. Moderation means consuming what is “just right” so a person is neither too full nor too hungry. Moderation may be difficult to achieve if people do not know correct portion sizes—or stick to them. The hand portion guidelines in [Table 1-13](#) and “Bite on This: food math” in this chapter illustrate correct portion sizes. By practicing moderation, a person may be able to consume an array of foods and beverages and still be within his or her daily calorie allotment.

A moderate daily diet is satisfying and leaves room for discretionary calories. A moderate long-term diet may also be health-promoting.

VARIETY

A diet with the same color, taste or texture may be *unappealing*. This is why some diets are more successful than others. They offer a *variety* of foods and beverages from which to choose. Diets that are rich in fruits and vegetables provide all of the basic tastes: bitter (cruciferous vegetables), salty (seaweeds), sour (citrus fruits), sweet (ripe stone fruits) and umami (mushrooms and other fungi). Whole grains taste earthy, lean proteins taste meaty or mild (depending on their sources), and healthy fats taste light. By selecting a variety of foods such as these, a diet may be pleasing and beneficial. A variety-filled diet brings a daily array of nutrients and appetite for life.

How Food Becomes Nutrients: Digestion, Absorption, and Metabolism

Good nutrition depends on the proper digestion of foods and beverages and the normal absorption and metabolism of their nutrients.

DIGESTION

Digestion is the process by which food and beverages are physically and chemically broken down into smaller components by the human body. These components are then absorbed and metabolized or stored for future use. Most foods and beverages undergo some form of digestion before they can be absorbed and used.

Each stage of the digestive process is designed to break down carbohydrates, lipids and proteins into smaller parts and move them along for absorption and metabolism. Much depends on the nutrients that are contained in foods and beverages. A beverage may be digested faster than a piece of whole-grain bread, which may be digested faster than a chicken breast, which may be digested faster than a pat of butter. The more difficult a food or beverage is to digest, the longer the digestive process may be. Digestion may take 24 to 72 hours depending on food composition.

Digestion really starts before a food or beverage ever comes close to the mouth. The appearance, aroma and sounds of foods and beverages arouse the senses and start the “digestive juices flowing.” Very appealing foods and beverages stimulate the central nervous system to anticipate what may follow. The brain and stomach communicate the deliciousness of foods and beverages through a maze of chemical transmitters. This triggers salivation and readies the body for digestion.

Digestion then occurs in the mouth, stomach, and small and large intestines. Carbohydrates take the shortest amount of time before they are digested—sugars (especially liquids) as little as 30 minutes and starches around 2 to 3 hours. Protein takes longer—as much as 6 hours. Lipids take the longest—sometimes up to

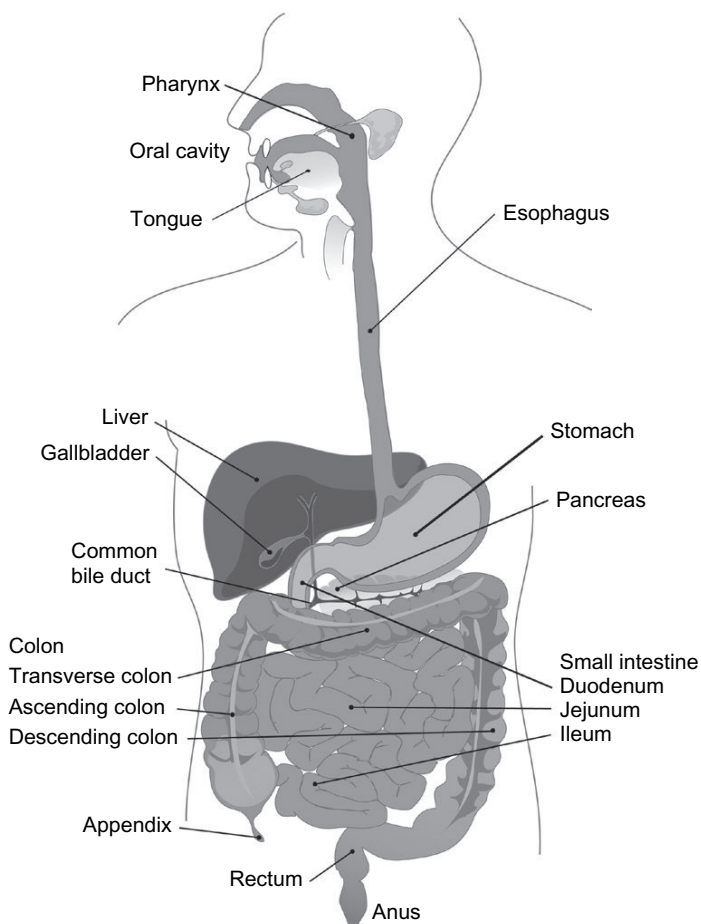


FIGURE 1-8
Digestion.

9 to 12 hours. In total, foods take 24 to 36 hours to fully pass through the gastrointestinal tract. This process is illustrated in [Figure 1-8](#).

Digestion in the Mouth

The two types of digestion that take place in the mouth are *chemical digestion*, which occurs when enzymes are released by the salivary glands, and *physical digestion*, which occurs when food is chewed and moved to the back of the mouth with the help of the tongue. This is why it is important to chew food well and let it mix with saliva. People with eating and swallowing problems and those who do not produce sufficient saliva due to medical conditions might compromise the digestive process at this point.

The enzyme that breaks down foods and beverages inside of the mouth is called *salivary amylase*. (The suffix “-ase” indicates that it is an enzyme that is involved in a chemical reaction but stays intact.) Salivary amylase is then returned to its intact form to handle more foods and beverages.

As foods are chewed and mixed with saliva, they form a *bolus*, or ball, that is moved toward the back of the throat to be swallowed into the *esophagus*. There is a cartilage flap that controls the bolus’s passage and prevents the bolus from entering the *trachea*, or the windpipe that leads to the lungs. It is called the *epiglottis*.

When people choke on foods or beverages, it may be due to food accidentally entering the trachea instead of the esophagus. This may be due to speaking or laughing while there is food in the mouth, putting too much food in the mouth at one time, or not chewing food well. Choking may require the *Heimlich maneuver*, a series of under-abdominal thrusts to remove food quickly and prevent choking.

Once the bolus is correctly swallowed, it is propelled by the esophagus, which is a short tube that leads to the stomach. Think of the esophagus as a band of strong muscles that pump and propel foods and beverages after they leave the mouth.

The esophagus is lined with saliva for moisture and protection. At the end of the esophagus is a muscle called the *diaphragm* that controls the movement of the bolus into the stomach and a valve, called the *cardiac sphincter*, which shuts the opening once the bolus has passed into the stomach. If the cardiac sphincter does not function properly, food from the stomach may move back into the esophagus. This is called *acid reflux*, which may be reduced by dietary changes, such as consuming smaller meals, medications or surgery.

FOOD BYTE

Digestive enzymes help to break down proteins. Some digestive enzymes are derived from papayas (*papain*) and pineapples (*bromelain*), which are also found in supplement forms. Papain and bromelain are used in culinary applications as tenderizers. If they are overused, they can make protein foods too “mushy.” Cooked or canned pineapple does not have a tenderizing effect, since bromelain is heat-sensitive. Other digestive enzymes can help break down lactose (milk sugar) into a more digestible form and decrease the flatulence created by legumes (dried beans and peas).

Digestion in the Stomach

Some, but not all, foods and beverages are digested in the *stomach*, a pouch at the end of the esophagus. The stomach is filled with *hydrochloric acid*, a strong acid that can digest protein foods and mucous and enzymes that break down other foods and beverages. These substances, along with muscular contractions, help to turn the bolus in the stomach into *chyme*, a semisolid mixture of partially digested food and gastric fluids, so it can be ready for its next passage.

The next route for digestion depends on whether foods or beverages are comprised of carbohydrate, lipids or proteins. The stomach does very little to digest carbohydrates. Carbohydrates mainly move into the small intestine for additional digestion.

Proteins are broken down by digestive fluids in the stomach, especially hydrochloric acid and the enzyme *gastric protease*. Little happens to lipids in the stomach. Instead, lipids head to the small intestine for additional digestion.

Digestion in the Small Intestine

The small intestine is not small; it is about 20 to 23 feet long and coiled inside the body. It is called the small intestine because its diameter is small. There are three sections in the small intestine: the *duodenum*, the *jejunum* and the *ileum*. The *liver*, *gallbladder* and *pancreas* are organs that secrete substances into the small intestine to further digest the chyme. By the time the chyme passes through the duodenum, jejunum and ileum, most of the nutrients are digested.

The Liver, Gallbladder and Pancreas

The *liver* is an essential organ for breaking down and processing nutrients. It is responsible for almost 500 critical functions in the human body. One of these functions is storage: the liver stores carbohydrates, lipids, minerals and vitamins. Because the liver processes alcohol and drugs, eliminates or transforms certain foreign substances that filter into our food supply, and restores new cells, it sustains a tremendous burden.

The liver also produces *bile*, a substance that helps to digest fat, which is stored in the gallbladder. Unquestionably, the liver is absolutely essential in handling all the foods and beverages that are consumed.

Unlike the liver, the *gallbladder* is a nonessential organ, which means that a person can live without it. The gallbladder serves to secrete bile into the small intestine for fat digestion.

Bile is comprised of *cholesterol*, a type of lipid, and other substances including bile salts, cholesterol, fats, inorganic salts, mucus, pigments and water. The formation of *gallstones*, which are made mostly of cholesterol, may prevent the normal functioning of the gallbladder. Both gallstones and the gallbladder can be removed by surgery. If the gallbladder is removed, then a person needs to reduce his intake of fat and cholesterol, since there is no longer a place to store bile for fat management. More information on cholesterol can be found in Chapter 6.

The *pancreas* is another vital organ in nutrient breakdown. Like the liver and gallbladder, the pancreas also secretes substances into the small intestine for digestion. The chyme that passes into the small intestine is acidic, thanks to the action of hydrochloric acid in the stomach. Secretions by the pancreas serve to neutralize this acid.

The pancreas also produces enzymes that further digest carbohydrates, lipids and proteins. One of these enzymes is *pancreatic amylase*. The pancreas also produces two important *hormones*, *insulin* and *glucagon*, that are critical in the management of carbohydrates by the body.

Insulin and glucagon help to maintain the level of blood glucose (sugar) in the body. Insulin is secreted by the beta cells of the pancreas in response to high blood glucose. In contrast, glucagon is secreted by the alpha cells of the pancreas when blood glucose is low (between meals and during exercise). There is more information about these hormones in Chapter 4.

Digestion in the Large Intestine

The large intestine is only five feet in length and larger in diameter than the small intestine. Like the small intestine, the large intestine has three sections: the *cecum*, the *colon* and the *rectum*. What is not absorbed by the small intestine passes into the large intestine and mixes with water and minerals. While the large intestine is essentially the holding and exiting site for foods, there also is some vitamin absorption from the bacteria that resides inside it. Strong muscles propel the release of the food residue.

ABSORPTION

Once food is digested, it is ready for *absorption*. Absorption is the movement of nutrients and other substances into the cells or tissues. Since most digestion is completed in the small intestine, the nutrients, which have already been digested into smaller substances, are now ready to move into the bloodstream and lymph throughout the body. *Lymph* carries body fluids that transport the by-products of fat digestion to the heart and back into the bloodstream. The other nutrients are carried by the *bloodstream*.

Absorption in the Small Intestine

Once carbohydrates are digested into their building blocks of simple sugars, lipids are digested into their building blocks of fatty acids, and proteins are digested into their building blocks of amino acids, they are ready to be absorbed. These building blocks of carbohydrates, lipids and proteins then join minerals, vitamins and water in the small intestine to move out and throughout the body. This movement is accomplished with the help of *villi*, little projectiles throughout the lining of the small intestine. Lined with muscles, these villi use wave-like motions to propel nutrients into the blood and lymph system.

Then the *portal system*, which includes the liver, takes over. The word *portal* means “port” or “entryway.” Simple sugars, amino acids, water-soluble vitamins, and water are transported by the portal system. Fatty acids and fat-soluble vitamins are transported through the *lymphatic system*.

Lipid (fat) Absorption

Once dietary fats and oils, such as butter and olive oil, are digested into fatty acids, then the smallest fatty acids can pass into the cells that line the small intestine. They are fairly water soluble, so they can pass right into the bloodstream through the capillaries. These fatty acids then head to the liver, as does *glycerol*, a type of alcohol that is another product of lipid breakdown.

The larger fatty acids require their own means of transport. Since fat and water do not mix (think about vinegar and oil salad dressing), the fatty acids need a “package” to help them travel through the bloodstream (which is mostly water). Protein that is supplied by dietary proteins encapsulates the fatty acids. This package of lipids and protein is called a *lipoprotein*. The interior of the package also contains the lipids *cholesterol* and *triglycerides*, which are detailed in Chapter 6.

Lipoproteins are delivered to the cells as they require energy. Excess lipoproteins are sent to the liver, which breaks them down and reformulates them. Some of the lipoproteins carry more lipids; some carry more protein. The lipoproteins with more protein are called *high-density lipoprotein* or *HDL*. High-density lipoproteins tend to be better for cardiovascular health than the lipoproteins that carry more lipids, which are called *low-density lipoproteins* or *LDL*. More information about lipoproteins, diet and cardiovascular disease is provided in Chapters 6 and 9.

METABOLISM

Once the nutrients are sent to the cells, they need to be converted into energy for the many body functions. *Metabolism* is the sum of all of the physical and chemical processes by which energy is created and made available to the body. This energy can be used for such purposes as to build new body structures, including cells; heat the body; maintain or repair it; and provide energy for everyday activities and exercise.

Simple sugars, fatty acids and amino acids, the building blocks of carbohydrates, lipids, and proteins, may also be combined into bigger and different compounds for the body to use. This process is called *anabolism* (as in anabolic steroids that are used to build muscles). *Catabolism* is the opposite process—when compounds break down, as in severe muscle wasting that might occur during certain diseases or eating disorders.

Factors That Affect Metabolism

Many factors affect the rate at which the body uses carbohydrates, lipids, and, to a lesser extent, proteins for energy. Some factors that raise the metabolism include caffeine, fever, growth, height, lean body mass, male gender, nicotine and stress. When a person is young, her metabolism is high. Also, tall, muscular men tend to have higher metabolisms than shorter and rounder women.

The factors that lower the metabolism include age, fasting, hormones, sleep and starvation. As a person ages, his or her metabolism decreases. This is similar to what occurs during severe dieting. The hormones that are produced by the thyroid gland may either increase or decrease the metabolism if they are too high or too low. While sleep is important to good health, too much sleep means that the body is less active. More information about the factors that affect the metabolism and how they are important in determining daily caloric needs appears in Chapter 10.

Bite on This: healthy digestion

Healthy digestion begins with a healthy gastrointestinal tract. No matter how healthy foods and beverages are, various conditions, diseases, medications, stress and other factors may compromise normal digestion.

A number of digestive disorders occur from simple stomachaches to those that require hospitalization. Digestive disorders include ulcers, heartburn, irritable bowel syndrome (IBS), vomiting, constipation, diarrhea, lactose intolerance, gluten intolerance—even “growling” and “hiccups.”

ULCERS AND HEARTBURN

The stomach and small intestine have protective linings that are filled with mucus and other substances. If hydrochloric acid eats away at the linings, then an **ulcer**, which is a small erosion or hole, may form. Ulcers may form in the esophagus, stomach or intestines.

The bacteria that are associated with some ulcers may further irritate the linings. Stomach acid may also back up into the esophagus and lead to **heartburn**. It is called heartburn because it occurs in an area that is close to the heart.

Although certain substances, such as acidic foods, alcohol, caffeine and fats have been implicated with heartburn, stress and frequent use of some medications, such as aspirin or ibuprofen, may also be to blame. Protective measures against heartburn include consuming small meals, increasing fiber in the diet and refraining from lying down after meals.

IRRITABLE BOWEL SYNDROME, DIARRHEA, CONSTIPATION AND VOMITING

In **irritable bowel syndrome (IBS)**, spasms and/or cramps occur in the large intestine. Common symptoms of irritable bowel syndrome may include bouts of diarrhea and/or constipation.

Generally a low-fat, higher-fiber diet is recommended. **Probiotics**, live microorganisms in plain yogurt or other cultured dairy products, may help to improve the intestinal microbial balance. Not all brands of yogurt contain “active” cultures, so check the food label. Some probiotics are added to cheese, breakfast cereals, protein and meal replacement bars and desserts.

Most cases of **diarrhea** are caused by bacteria or viruses from foods or beverages. Severe and long-lasting diarrhea may lead to nutrient disorders and/or dehydration, as can vomiting. While **vomiting** is nature’s way of removing undesirable substances from the body, vomiting that is associated with illnesses or self-induced vomiting may have serious consequences.

Constipation may be caused by a fiber-poor diet, inadequate fluids, lack of exercise and other physical or psychological issues. Increased fiber from breakfast cereals and other whole grains depends on adequate fluids to maximize its effectiveness in relieving this disorder.

HICCUPS, GROWLING, AND FLATULENCE

Hiccups are caused by involuntary spasms of the diaphragm muscle. This action sucks air down the **trachea**, or windpipe, into the lungs; causes the vocal cords to close; and creates a “hic-like” sound. Eating or drinking while taking in too much air might be to blame.

If the stomach “growls,” it may mean that gas bubbles are present. When the stomach is empty, then **growling** may be louder.

Flatulence is normal. It is frequently due to inadequate chewing, swallowing air while chewing, drinking beverages while chewing, or chewing gum. Other causes include consuming *too many* high-fiber foods, such as bran cereal or legumes; cruciferous vegetables, such as broccoli or cauliflower; foods high in **fructose** (fruit sugar) or **sugar alcohols** (such as sorbitol found in sugarless candy); or foods in the onion family, which require certain bacteria for breakdown.

OTHER INTESTINAL CONDITIONS

Lactose sensitivity or intolerance is provoked by the milk sugar lactose, and *gluten intolerance* is the inability to digest the protein in some grains. Both conditions are usually inherited and may require the avoidance of dairy products and certain grains. Look for more information about these carbohydrate-related diseases in Chapter 9.

While there are over-the-counter and prescribed medications to help ease some of these digestive disorders, identification and/or elimination of any suspected foods and beverages might first offer some relief. Be sure to check any symptoms with a health care provider to rule out any other serious conditions and to develop a coordinated care plan.

FOOD BYTE

Processed foods have been transformed from their natural states into other forms for availability, consistency, convenience, safety and taste. Processing includes such procedures as canning, dehydrating, freezing and refrigerating. Many processed foods are nutritious, such as dairy milk or bread. Dairy milk is pasteurized to destroy bacteria and homogenized to keep fats blended. Bread is processed from flour, leavening and water. A stigma exists about the inclusion of processed foods in a healthy diet, although many basic and common foods are processed, including baking powder and baking soda, honey (unless raw) and salt. The inclusion of processed foods in a healthy diet should be kept in perspective.

How Cooking Affects Nutrition

A food can be more or less digestible depending on the type of food, the temperature to which the food is heated, and the time it takes to cook the food. This is because cooking begins the digestive process by physically and chemically breaking down nutrients. Food processing may also influence the digestive process because it affects the bioavailability of certain nutrients. Some carbohydrate-containing foods, such as fruits and vegetables, can be consumed raw or they may only require partial cooking. More complex carbohydrates, such as the starches in grains and legumes, require longer cooking.

Like carbohydrates, some proteins may be consumed raw or partially cooked. Raw fish in sushi, an uncooked egg in a Caesar salad, and raw ground beef in steak tartare are examples of protein in raw forms. However, any time protein is consumed raw, there is a risk of foodborne illness. Sear the fish to caramelize the exterior, boil the egg for a few minutes, and cook the ground beef to medium to destroy any microorganisms. Additionally, the heat will cause the proteins to slightly break down, or *denature*.

Lipids are commonly consumed without cooking. Consider the fats that are contained inside avocados, olives or nuts, or the oils that dress fresh salads. When heat is applied to fats during cooking, this begins their lengthy breakdown. Overcooking fats may cause them to smoke or burn and create potentially harmful substances. More information about the healthy way to cook with fats and oils can be found in Chapter 6.

Vitamins and minerals may be destroyed from overcooking. This is why many fruits and vegetables are better consumed raw or lightly cooked. Healthy cooking and baking methods for preserving the vitamins and minerals in foods are provided in Chapter 7 and in the recipes throughout this book.

Food as Medicine

In Greek and Roman times, food was considered more than nourishment; it served as elixirs or aids to stay healthy and prevent and manage disease. Hippocrates, the Greek physician, connected the role of diet and disease. While some of his statements are not attributed to science, he did establish the possibilities of the nutrient-disease connection when he reportedly said, "Let food be thy medicine, and let medicine be thy food."

In some areas of the world, food is still considered Mother Nature's best medicine, and people choose diets according to their health-enhancing benefits. Think about the traditional Chinese diet, with its balance of *yin* (feminine) and *yang* (masculine) foods. According to the Chinese, an unbalanced diet could result in illness.

Supposedly, excessive yin foods found in vegetables can lead to weakness, and excessive yang foods found in meat can lead to restlessness.

Herbs and spices have long been recognized for their ability to prevent, manage, and even cure some diseases. For example, garlic and turmeric are used in some cultures to prevent some degenerative diseases and as remedies for others. **Phytochemicals** found in plant foods are associated with the prevention and management of certain diseases, such as beta-carotene in brightly colored orange and red fruits and vegetables. While not nutrients, phytochemicals have beneficial properties. They may ward off diseases, protect the eyes, and defend against the common cold, among other functions.

Functional foods have physical and psychological roles in the diet. Some serve as **antioxidants** and protect the body against damaging free radicals from sunlight and environment hazards. Other functional foods help protect the bones, heart, and stomach, while still others help to reduce blood pressure and cardiovascular disease. Some functional foods are also called **nutraceuticals**; they act as **pharmaceuticals**, with druglike effects on the body.

Finally, the emerging field of **nutrigenomics** or **personalized nutrition** offers immeasurable promise. **Nutrigenomics** applies the human **genome** (the entirety of an organism's hereditary information) to nutrition and health for individual dietary recommendations. It uses a person's unique genetic makeup and nutritional requirements to tailor-make recommendations for disease reduction and health optimization.

How can nutrition, food science and culinary professionals apply their skills to the rapidly growing interests in food as medicine? They must first have a solid foundation in nutrition, food science and the culinary arts. They should understand the complex roles that foods and beverages play in health and disease. And they should collaborate with allied health professionals to help translate the science behind medicinal foods into health-enhancing foods and beverages of the future. Chapters 7 and 9 provide additional information about the "food as medicine" connection.

SERVE IT FORTH

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While many factors influence food choices, knowing what is inside foods and beverages may be quite motivational to make better choices. The following three examples compare two different breakfasts, lunches and dinners. They illustrate the nutrients in fast food and carry-out foods compared to home-prepared or restaurant "sit-down" meals.

After each example is reviewed, answer the questions that follow. Use nutrient data tables, such as the ones that can be found at <http://nutritiondata.self.com/> or at <http://www.livestrong.com/diet-analysis/>. Record all of the information. Upon completion, these activities may help to direct wiser food and beverage selections.

1. A doughnut and coffee fast-food breakfast

A plain doughnut mostly contains carbohydrates, with traces of protein and fat. Once it is fried in vegetable oil, the amount of fat increases. Coffee contains only a few calories per cup from traces of fat in the coffee beans. If cream and sugar are added, then fats and carbohydrates increase.

- What are the amounts of calories, carbohydrates, fiber, **total fat**, **saturated fat**, cholesterol, protein and sodium in this meal?
- Compare these amounts to the DVs in [Table 1-16](#).
- What conclusions can be made about this meal, especially about total fat and saturated fat?

2. A fiber-rich cereal, low-fat dairy milk and banana home-prepared breakfast

Swap the doughnut and coffee breakfast to a homemade breakfast of fiber-rich cereal with low-fat dairy milk and a small banana and the nutrient profile changes. The cereal contributes carbohydrates, fiber and protein with only a small amount of fat. The low-fat dairy milk is filled with carbohydrates and protein and less fat and the banana is mostly carbohydrates.

- What are the amounts of calories, carbohydrates, **fiber**, total fat, saturated fat, cholesterol, protein and sodium in this meal?
- Compare these amounts to the DVs in [Table 1-16](#).
- What conclusions can be made about this meal, especially about fiber?
- How does this home-prepared breakfast compare to the fast-food doughnut and coffee breakfast?

3. A fast-food hamburger, french fries, and soft drink fast-food lunch

The hamburger consists of a bun, which is the equivalent of two pieces of bread; a 4- to 10-ounce hamburger patty with lettuce, onions and tomatoes and often a special sauce; likely a mixture of catsup, mayonnaise and mustard. The bun, vegetables and sauce are mostly carbohydrates. The hamburger patty is mostly protein and fat, with a very small contribution of carbohydrates. The french fries are mostly carbohydrates and fat, with a small amount of protein. The soft drink is mostly sugar and water.

- What are the amounts of calories, **carbohydrates**, fiber, total fat, saturated fat, cholesterol, protein and sodium in this meal if small sizes are selected? Large sizes?
- Compare these amounts to the DVs in [Table 1-16](#).
- What conclusions can be made about this meal, especially about carbohydrates?
- How does the small-sized meal compare to the large-sized meal?

Three additional activities can be found within the *Culinary Nutrition* website at www.culinarynutrition.elsevier.com.

WHAT'S COOKING?

The following experiments investigate how foods dissolve, supermarket strategies, healthy pizza, digestive enzymes and acids in action, sensible servings, and emulsions and the human bloodstream. They are designed to be conducted in or outside the classroom and have real-life implications and applications.

1. How foods dissolve**Objectives**

- To see how foods dissolve in liquids outside of the body
- To understand how foods dissolve in fluids inside of the body

Materials: Water, measuring cup, three glasses, three pieces of dark-colored hard candy without filling, waxed paper, rolling pin

Procedure

- 1.** Pour about $\frac{1}{4}$ cup of warm water into each of the three glasses.
- 2.** Place one piece of candy between two sheets of waxed paper; using the rolling pin, break the candy into large pieces.
- 3.** Place a second piece of candy between two fresh sheets of waxed paper; using the rolling pin, smash the candy into a fine powder.
- 4.** Leave the third piece of candy whole.
- 5.** Drop the whole piece of candy into the first glass with water, the broken pieces of candy into the second glass with water, and the powdered candy into the third glass with water.

Evaluation: Observe each solution after 10 to 15 minutes, again after 30 minutes, and again after 1 hour. Record this information on the Data Sheet like the one below.

- Which form of candy dissolves faster?
- Why do you think this happens?
- What would happen if the water temperature is cold? Hot?
- What does this exercise suggest about how foods dissolve inside the body during the process of digestion?
- Support all of your comments.

Data Sheet

Type of Solution	Time of Observations		
	10 to 15 minutes	30 minutes	1 hour
Solution #1 with whole piece of candy			
Solution #2 with large pieces of candy			
Solution #3 with powdered candy			

2. Supermarket strategies**Objectives**

- To assess the displays of healthy foods and beverages in supermarkets or grocery stores
- To see how food marketing may persuade people to make or not make healthy food choices

Materials: A supermarket or a grocery store

Procedures: Take a walk through a supermarket or grocery store. Note the locations where any healthy foods and beverages are found throughout the store.

Evaluation: Evaluate *each* department and answer the following questions:

- Does the store showcase healthy foods and beverages, or does it make them difficult to find?
- Which healthy foods and beverages are prominently marketed and why?
- Which healthy foods and beverages need more prominence and why?
- Do you think customers will be persuaded to make healthy food and beverage purchases based on what you have observed? Why or why not?
- Support all of your comments.

3. Healthy pizza**Objectives**

- To evaluate a menu from a fast-food operation
- To consider ingredients and preparation methods to help improve the nutritional values of the menu items

Materials: A take-out menu from a pizza restaurant

Procedure

1. Suppose this pizza restaurant wants to add some healthy items to its menu.
2. Also suppose that the management wants to know which ingredients and preparation methods to use to help make their items healthier.

Evaluation

- Which ingredients should be added, reduced or eliminated to improve the nutritional values of the menu items?
- What nutrition tools (i.e., guidelines, recommendations, etc.) from this chapter would you use in your decision making?
- Support all of your comments.

4. Digestive acids and enzymes in action**Objective**

- To identify how different acids “digest” or break down protein

Materials: Raw or cooked fish, five glass or ceramic bowls, lemon juice, vinegar, cooking wine, pineapple juice, papaya juice, measuring spoon

Procedure

1. Place a small piece of fish into each of the five glass or ceramic bowls.
2. Be consistent and place the same-sized piece in each bowl.
3. Add 1 tablespoon of lemon juice over the piece of fish in the first glass bowl.
4. Repeat the process with each of the acidic ingredients, placing one uniform piece of fish and 1 tablespoon of the vinegar, cooking wine, pineapple juice or papaya juice into each glass or ceramic bowl.

Evaluation: Note your observations after 30 minutes, 1 hour and overnight on the Data Sheet like the one below.

- Compare and contrast the enzymatic action of each of the acids on the fish.
- What can be concluded about each of the acids at each observation?
- Support all of your comments.

Data Sheet

Fish <i>plus</i> Acidic Ingredient	Time of Observations		
	30 minutes	1 hour	Overnight
Fish <i>plus</i> lemon juice			
Fish <i>plus</i> vinegar			
Fish <i>plus</i> cooking wine			
Fish <i>plus</i> pineapple juice			
Fish <i>plus</i> papaya juice			

5. Sensible servings**Objectives**

- To select the correct types and portion sizes of foods in real life or mock settings
- To demonstrate adequacy, balance, moderation, variety and calorie control

Materials: Salad bar, salad and dinner plates, food photos of salad ingredients from magazines, paper plates

Procedure

1. If a salad bar is accessible, then assemble the ingredients on a salad plate.
2. Show adequacy, balance, moderation, variety and calorie control through food choices and portion sizes.
3. Repeat by using a dinner plate.
4. If a salad bar is not accessible, then select magazine photos of salad ingredients that convey adequacy, balance, moderation, variety and calorie control.
5. Arrange the photos on both a paper salad plate and paper dinner plate.

Evaluation

- Support the reasons why you chose the types and amounts of salad ingredients.
- Address adequacy, balance, moderation, variety, and calorie control.
- Compare and contrast the types and amounts of salad ingredients on the salad and dinner plates. What does this exercise relate about choosing the right types and portions foods when eating out?
- Support all of your comments.

6. Emulsions and the human bloodstream**Objectives**

- To determine the type and amount of a substance that is needed to create a suspension
- To witness how long a suspension is held
- To see how emulsifiers bring nonreactive substances together
- To compare this reaction to the human bloodstream

Materials: Three glass jars with lids, ½ cup measure, vegetable oil, white vinegar, food coloring, eye dropper, 1 tablespoon, egg whites, water, egg yolk, liquid lecithin or lecithin granules, lemon juice

Procedure

1. Pour ½ cup of vegetable oil, ½ cup of white vinegar, and a few drops of food coloring into each of the glass jars.
2. Add 1 tablespoon of egg whites and 1 tablespoon of water to the mixture in the first jar.
3. Add 2 tablespoons of egg whites to the mixture in the second jar.
4. Add 2 tablespoons of water to the mixture in the third jar.
5. Secure the lids on each jar; shake each of the jars. Record the time that it takes for the division between the water and the vinegar to reappear (the food coloring makes it easier to see).
6. Clean out the jars and repeat the experiment, replacing lemon juice for the vinegar and egg yolks for the egg whites. Record the reactions and times.
7. Clean out the jars and repeat the experiment, using vinegar or lemon juice and 1 tablespoon of liquid lecithin or lecithin granules for the egg whites.

Evaluation

- Observe the consistency of each mixture after shaking the jars and the times that each of the mixtures takes for the oil and water and the acid to separate.
- Note your observations on the Data Sheet like the one below.
- What does this exercise tell you about suspensions, emulsifiers and duration (time)?
- How does this experiment compare to the bloodstream?
- Support all of your comments.

Data Sheet

Solutions	Observations	Time to Separate
Water <i>plus</i> vegetable oil <i>plus</i> vinegar <i>plus</i> 1 tablespoon egg whites		
Water <i>plus</i> vegetable oil <i>plus</i> vinegar <i>plus</i> 2 tablespoons egg whites		
Water <i>plus</i> vegetable oil <i>plus</i> vinegar <i>plus</i> water		

Other additions

Lemon juice

Egg yolk

Liquid lecithin

Lecithin granules

Culinary applications: How can the information from *each* of these six exercises be applied to new product or recipe development?

OVER EASY

This chapter covers the importance of nutrition in the context of food science and the culinary arts and the applications of nutrition in professional and consumer settings. Creating healthy ingredients, foods and beverages and making nutritious choices are complicated. A number of tools have been created by the US government and medical and scientific organizations to help guide these choices.

These include the *US Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 2010*; *Nutrition Objectives for the Nation: Healthy People 2010 and 2020*; US Dietary Reference Intakes (DRIs); food exchange systems and food composition tables and databases; basic food groups; USDA Food Guide Pyramid; USDA MyPlate; US food label and food labeling regulations, including the Nutrition Facts Panel, Daily Values (DVs), US FDA approved nutrition content claims, US FDA approved health claims, and structure/function claims, which are all featured in this chapter.

Equally important for making healthy food and beverage choices is an understanding of how foods and beverages are broken down into their components and used or stored by the human body. This is why the complex journeys that carbohydrates, lipids and proteins take throughout the body during digestion, absorption and metabolism are simplified.

Food science, cooking and baking impact the sensory qualities of foods and beverages, which affects digestion and absorption. The more appealing that foods and beverages are perceived, then the greater chances they will be consumed. Numerous other factors, including ethnicity, economics, lifestyle and religion, also impact dietary choices, nutrition and health.

Simple tools are presented that include the ABCs of healthy diets (adequacy, balance and calorie control), kitchen math, and how to decipher a food label, which pave the way for healthy eating.

Methods that raise eco-consciousness and promote “greener” food and beverage choices and fewer carbon footprints are highlighted, which influence personal and collective nutrition and health.

CHECK PLEASE

1. Most of the carbohydrates consumed are *digested* in the:
 - a. stomach
 - b. mouth
 - c. liver
 - d. small intestine
 - e. large intestine
2. Most of the proteins consumed are digested in the:
 - a. stomach
 - b. mouth
 - c. liver
 - d. small intestine
 - e. large intestine

3. Most of the lipids consumed are digested in the:
 - a. large intestine
 - b. small intestine
 - c. liver
 - d. mouth
 - e. stomach

Essay Question

1. The principal of a middle school with a student population that represents over 40 different countries wants to hire a registered dietitian-chef team to plan and prepare nutritious meals. Discuss the considerations that this team must make. Support your answers.

For additional questions, please see the *Culinary Nutrition* website at www.culinarynutrition.elsevier.com

HUNGRY FOR MORE?

Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics (AND) <http://www.eatright.org>
 Center for Nutrition Policy and Promotion <http://www.cnpp.usda.gov>
 Center for Science in the Public Interest (Nutrition Action Newsletter) <http://www.cspinet.org>
 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations www.fao.org
 Food and Nutrition Information Center (FNIC)
http://fnic.nal.usda.gov/nal_display/index.php?info_center=4&tax_level=1&tax_subject=244

Choose Your Foods

Exchange Lists for Diabetes and Choose Your Foods Exchange Lists for Weight Management
<http://www.eatright.org/shop/product.aspx?id=4962>
Healthy People 2010, 2020 <http://www.healthypeople.gov/2020/default.aspx>
 International Food Information Council (FoodInsight) <http://www.foodinsight.org>
 Learning Seed (Kitchen Math) <http://www.kitchenmath.com>
 Nutrition Analysis Tool 2.0 <http://www.myfoodrecord.com>
 Food Science and Human Nutrition Department at the University of Illinois
 Society for Nutrition Education and Behavior (SNEB) <http://www.sne.org>
 USDA MyPlate and MyPyramid <http://www.choosemyplate.gov>
 US FDA Labeling and Nutrition www.cfsan.fda.gov/label.html

FOOD BYTE

Few of the foods we eat today originated or were domesticated in the United States. Most of the foods we consume originated from Africa, Asia, Europe or South America. Some exceptions include blueberries, cranberries, Jerusalem artichokes and sunflowers. Certain food products or preparations are unique to the United States. These include New England clam chowder, New Orleans po-boy sandwich, San Francisco sourdough bread, Texas fajitas, Pennsylvania shoe fly pie and Smithfield ham. "American" foods belong to all of the Americas (North America, Central America and South America), not just the United States.

TAKE AWAY

A Century of Food and Nutrition

One hundred years ago, a homemade meal looked strikingly different than it does today. At the turn of the twentieth century, people primarily ate from the land. They grew, harvested, slaughtered and prepared a good deal of what they consumed daily.

Much of their food and nutrition was dependent on which foods were cultivated, where these foods were grown and their seasonality. Food choices were also contingent upon where people lived (rural or urban locations), how people lived (poverty or wealth), and what people practiced (ethnic and religious traditions).

Today, food availability, cultivation and seasonality are less important factors in food selection than they were in the 1900s due to modern transportation and our global food supply. Rural or urban settings, poverty or wealth, and ethnic and religious practices still determine what people eat and why.

Today, typical US meals are a fusion of processed foods and beverages, purchased on-the-run from mega-supermarkets, gas stations, vending machines, coffee shops and other nontraditional food settings. They bear little resemblance in form or function to the meals of yesteryear.

Following is an overview of the foods and beverages from each decade in the United States, starting with 1900 until today. This overview shows how our food and nutrition choices have developed throughout the years to what we now consider “the typical US diet.”

In the 1900s . . . The daily menus reflected what was available during certain months and seasons and food preservation. The main meal shifted from midday to evening as it remains today. A typical breakfast consisted of melon, hash, broiled meats, fried vegetables and coffee. Lunch was based on broiled poultry, baked root vegetables, salads and dairy desserts. Supper included sliced meats, biscuits, baked fruits, cakes and tea.

In the 1910s . . . The United States was a melting pot of new immigrants who brought a variety of ethnic cuisines from coast to coast. During World War I, food was rationed for the soldiers, and civilians experienced scarcity and allotments. The middle class grew in size and expanded in their tastes; they aspired for the newer foods that technology afforded.

In the 1920s . . . Due to the continued influx of ethnicities, exotic foods became even more fashionable. Cities boasted expensive restaurants alongside meager kitchens in public housing. Social movements fostered the importance of food in ladies organizations and the popularity of home economics. Prohibition brought the exclusion of alcohol. Interest in vegetarian alternatives grew, thanks to experimentation with the lowly peanut.

In the 1930s . . . War brought extreme hardship and famine to some citizens, yet an ample and inexpensive food supply existed for others. People had the choice of cheaper grades and cuts of meats and dairy substitutes, such as vegetable spreads. There were private soup kitchens and government programs for residents with few resources.

In the 1940s . . . Foods were rationed again, and proteins were “stretched” to feed more with less. Sugarless cookies, eggless cakes and meatless meals extended food supplies (contrary to how these food “substitutes” are used today). Food was reserved for World War II soldiers, which created a shortage for civilians.

In the 1950s . . . Meals were very filling, partially due to increased meat consumption and the influx of prepackaged goods. (Both developments were a backlash from WWII rationing.) The American homemaker used convenience foods and time-saving appliances. New flavors and recipes were introduced by soldiers returning from foreign lands.

In the 1960s . . . Conventional foods were at odds with radically changing food choices. Traditional French cuisine converged with barbecues, drive-ins and increased interest in vegetarian cuisine. Soul food rose in popularity. Foods and beverages were aimed at baby boomers. Suburban families patronized family-style restaurant chains.

In the 1970s . . . Diners chose between classic and fresh innovative cuisines. Southwest cuisine entered the culinary landscape. Economic challenges of the 1970s forced consumers to make difficult food shopping choices. Local butcher shops transitioned into butcher counters in neighborhood supermarkets.

In the 1980s . . . Consumers devoured dishes from all across the United States as the economy flourished: blackened fish from the south, pasta dishes throughout metropolitan areas and growing ethnic cuisines, especially Asian from the coasts. More ethnic and specialty markets opened nationwide, reflecting broad diversities in food histories, experiences and tastes.

In the 1990s . . . US consumers clamored for baked snack foods, bottled beverages, butter substitutes, diet frozen entrees, frozen pizzas, low-carb breadstuffs and desserts, lean hamburgers and vegetable burgers. The concept of “healthy choices” morphed into a popular brand name.

In 2000 . . . US consumers ate foods with excess fats, sugars and sodium in super-sized portions. They had more food and beverage choices than ever before, but made nutrient-poor, calorie-dense selections that expanded the national waistline and nutrition-related disease rates.

Morsel “One man’s meat is another man’s poison.” —English proverb

In 2010 and beyond . . . US consumers are thinking green: local and sustainable to help save our planet and reduce our carbon footprint—which is the topic of the “Take away” section in this chapter [25].

The “Greening” of US Diets

The “typical US diet” is one of contradictions. On the one hand, obesity among children, teenagers and adults is growing in unprecedented numbers, concurrent with diet-related diseases. On the other hand, there is a growing segment of the US population that is concerned with *eco-consciousness*, *sustainability*, the “*green*” *movement* and *carbon footprints* to help protect individuals and the earth.

What do eco-consciousness, sustainability, the “green” movement and carbon footprints have to do with food, nutrition and health?

- *Eco-consciousness* is an awareness of the environment and its ecological (biological) systems. To be eco-conscious means that one is consciously aware of what they purchase, how they live (*including what they eat and drink*), and how these habits affect their lives and the earth.
- *Sustainability* is the ability to persist through the maintenance of diverse and productive *biological systems for human well-being*.
- The “*green*” *movement* is an organized effort for addressing the environmental issues that affect ecology, health and human rights through individual actions and public policies.
- *Carbon footprints* are greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions from events, organizations, people and/or products. GHG may be released through the *production and consumption of foods*, in addition to such activities as construction, fuel production, manufacturing and transportation.

Individuals can make eco-conscious, sustainable and green choices to reduce their carbon footprints and impact food, nutrition and health. By doing so, they may also contribute to the health and well-being of the general public. These are some eco-friendly food habits and kitchen habits that people may take:

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FOOD HABITS

Buy . . .

- **Whole foods** from sources where farming is regulated and fertilizers and pesticides are minimized. Look for labels such as “USDA Organic.” Whole fruits, vegetables and whole grains reduce processing costs and are diet-friendly.
- **Grains, legumes, nuts and seeds** in bulk to reduce packaging costs.
- **Grass-fed beef** with smaller carbon footprints than grain-fed beef. Grass-fed beef is also lower in total calories and saturated fat because it is leaner.
- **In-season fruits and vegetables** that offer decreased transportation costs, improved taste and nutrients at their peak. Watch out for pesticide residues.
- **Organic dairy milk** to help control the transfer of synthetic growth factors. Or use soy milk that produces less GHG.
- **Wild fish** from unpolluted waters that are sustainably harvested. Wild fish may be higher in heart-healthy omega-3 fatty acids than farm-raised fish.
- **Whole poultry**, which is more economical with less environmental impact than poultry parts. Look for USDA-certified organic-fed poultry.

Do . . .

- Consider a vegetarian or part vegetarian diet—with fewer GHG than a meat-based diet.
- Read labels when grocery shopping—look for the “USDA Organic” seal, which ensures no chemical pesticides, growth stimulators, radiation or synthetic fertilizers.
- Prepare only what is needed; stick to serving sizes instead of portion sizes to reduce food waste.
- Save food scraps and compost into nutrient-rich mulch instead of discarding.

KITCHEN HABITS

Use . . .

- **Energy-efficient cooking and baking pans**—use glass or ceramic pans for baking and copper-bottomed stainless steel or aluminum pots for stove-top cooking.
- **China plates and cups, stainless steel flatware**—for meals to reduce paper and plastic waste.
- **Reusable containers**—for storage, lunches and snacks to reduce container waste.
- **Cloth napkins and towels**—for meals and drying dishes to reduce paper waste.

Use wisely . . .

- **Oven**—keep the door closed to maintain temperature and be more efficient. Decrease baking times when possible.
- **Stove**—turn off the flame a few moments before some dishes are done; the residual heat will cook them a little longer.
- **Refrigerator**—fill so cold items insulate one another.
- **Dishwasher**—skip the prerinse cycle and fill to capacity.
- **Water**—do not run the tap when doing dishes. Use soapy water; then scrub, drain and rinse. Use less water when boiling pasta and other grains, but stir often.

Join . . . [26–28]

- **Community Supported Agriculture (CSA)**—memberships with farms where shares are purchased in exchange for a variety of seasonal fruits and vegetables. CSAs build relationships with farmers and support local agriculture.
- **Food cooperatives**—grocery stores that are commonly supported, community owned, and typically filled with local, organic foods and beverages that appeal to eco-conscious consumers.
- The **locavore movement**—collaborative effort that emphasizes that people eat locally, buy from farmer's markets and local farms, join CSAs and/or grow their own foods.

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Food Science Basics: Healthy Cooking and Baking Demystified

The Science behind Healthy Foods, Cooking
and Baking

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OBJECTIVES

1. Apply the basic concepts of food science to nutrition and the culinary arts
2. Describe the sensory process and how it affects food selection
3. Demonstrate the steps in flavor balancing
4. Detail the roles of carbohydrates, lipids, proteins and water in cooking and baking

5. Specify the roles of common ingredients and their functions in cooking
6. Explain the principles behind common cooking and baking reactions
7. Identify why some recipes succeed or fail
8. Describe the steps for fixing common mistakes in foods and recipes
9. Adjust certain ingredients to maximize nutrients
10. Apply food science basics to new food and beverage applications

INTRODUCTION: THE SCIENCE BEHIND FOOD AND COOKING

Chapter 1 covered the many intrinsic factors that compel and sustain food selection. Chapter 3 examines the art and science of cooking and how cooking techniques and ingredients drive consumers' preferences.

This chapter provides a segue between the nutrients that are required by the human body and the transformation of these nutrients into recipes that delight the senses and appetite. At the core is food science: the applied science that deals with the biochemical, biological, chemical, physical and physiochemical properties of foods.

Studied in their individual contexts, nutrition, the culinary arts and food science are exacting, demanding and exciting disciplines on their own. When viewed together as a comprehensive whole, the wonder and delight of foods and beverages and their nutrients make sense and their possibilities seem limitless.

In this chapter, the sensory considerations of food and beverage selection and how they drive flavor for enjoyment and health are explored. The basic principles of food science are presented with their explanations for why food behaves as it does. Carbohydrates, lipids, proteins and water are connected to common cooking and baking reactions. These include emulsions, enzymes, heat transfer, the Maillard reaction, temperature, time and texture. Ingredients like meats, dairy products, fruits and vegetables, legumes, grains and fats are explored to clarify their functions in healthy baking and cooking. You'll observe why some recipes succeed or fail, how they can be repaired, and methods for enhancement by the art of flavor balancing.

Finally, the organizations that intermesh food science, nutrition and the culinary arts—Culinology® and the Research Chefs Association (RCA) and the Institute of Food Technologists (IFT)—are showcased, and futuristic endeavors in molecular gastronomy and biotechnology are explored.

Morsel "The discovery of a new dish does more for human happiness than the discovery of a new star." —Anthelme Brillat-Savarin (French gastronome and lawyer, 1755–1826)

This chapter reveals how challenging it is to adjust ingredients, foods and beverages to help make healthy choices more appealing. It illustrates how the applications that integrate nutrition, the culinary arts and food science hold the most promise.

MAIN COURSES

Food Science Demystified

Food science is an interdisciplinary field of study that investigates and applies biology, engineering and the physical sciences. Food science explores the nature of foods—why some foods thrive and others deteriorate. It focuses on the technical aspects of food, from growing, harvesting or slaughtering through all aspects of food processing and preparation for consumer appeal. Food science helps determine why certain foods are consumed before others for enjoyment and nutrition.

Food scientists are involved with all aspects of foods, such as new food development and production, microbiological and chemical testing, food packaging, shelf-life issues and sensory evaluation. Some food scientists are also registered dietitians (RDs) or chefs, which helps them to view foods and beverages from multiple perspectives.

The fields of study within food science include *food chemistry*, which examines food molecules in chemical reactions; *food engineering*, which explores the development and manufacturing of new food products;

food microbiology, which studies the interactions among microorganisms and foods; *food packaging*, which looks at how food is packaged after processing to preserve maximum nutrients; *food preservation*, which studies the causes and prevention of food degradation or breakdown; *food safety*, which advances the causes, prevention and communication of foodborne illnesses; *food technology*, which examines the physical aspects of foods, such as flavor and texture; *molecular gastronomy*, which delves into gastronomical experiences; and *sensory analysis*, which investigates how food is perceived.

While these disciplines seem highly specialized for nutrition and culinary professionals, there is also a great deal of commonality. The material in Chapters 1, 2, and 3 demonstrates how nutrition, the culinary arts and food science are inextricably connected.

In Chapter 1, the digestion and metabolism of major nutrients are presented; these processes involve food chemistry. Also in Chapter 1, nutrition labeling and the USDA Nutrition Facts Panel are featured; these are essential elements in food packaging.

In Chapter 3, various ingredient manipulations in cooking and baking are explored; these are considered food chemistry. Also in Chapter 3, helpful and dangerous microorganisms are identified and debated; these practices include food microbiology, food preservation and food safety. In this chapter, the importance of taste and texture in food acceptance or rejection are emphasized; these practices engage sensory analysis, food technology and food engineering. This interchange helps to demonstrate why emerging food scientists should integrate nutrition and the culinary arts in their work—and why nutritionists and chefs are well served to incorporate food science in their endeavors.

This chapter helps to demystify some of the science behind food and reveals opportunities in the rapidly growing fields of food science for nutrition and culinary professionals. Mostly this chapter focuses on food chemistry, technology and the sensory aspects of food as they relate to nutrition and the culinary arts. It begins with the organizations that focus on these relationships: the *Research Chefs Association (RCA)* and the *Institute of Food Technologists (IFT)*.

Bite on This: Research Chefs Association and Institute of Food Technologists

The Research Chefs Association was formed in the late 1990s by food and culinary professionals with a common interest in the interactions between the culinary arts and food science. It is now one of the leading sources of culinary arts, food science and technological information.

Members of the RCA include chefs and other culinary specialists and food scientists, who work in such areas as academia, consulting, distribution, food product research and development, manufacturing, marketing, media and sales. RCA members also are employed at laboratories, ingredient supply houses, restaurants hotels, and other food service operations.

The Research Chefs Association is the primary association that advocates the principles of Culinology®. Culinology® merges the culinary arts with food science and technology. It uses the principles of the culinary arts and food science to drive product, recipe and menu development and planning. Culinology® professionals work in areas that blend the culinary arts with the scientific and technological aspects of food. These include experimental chefs, such as those involved in molecular gastronomy (see “Take away” at the end of this chapter); research chefs, such as those involved with the development of new food products and manufacturing; and chefs who are concerned with menu planning and fine dining—all who strive to bring the science of eating to the table.

The RCA offers certification programs for the Certified Research Chef (CRC) and Certified Culinary Scientist (CCS) designations. It publishes the magazine *CULINOLOGY*®, *Culinology Currents*®, a newsletter for food industry professionals; and *Food Product Design*, an online magazine that combines the culinary arts with technology in the design of ingredients and foods and includes practical information for the retail, food service and functional food markets.

The Institute of Food Technologists is an international, nonprofit professional organization for the advancement of food science and technology. Its publications include the monthly magazine *Food Technology* and the *Journal of Food Science (JFS)*.

IFT functions in four main roles: a steward for the food science profession and its community; research champion and innovation catalyst; influential advocate and trusted spokes organization; and global citizen and partner in the advancement of food science and technology.

The focus areas and core sciences within IFT include the following [1,2]:

- Food product development and ingredient innovations, including additives, encapsulation, nanotechnology, nonthermal processing, sodium reduction, sweetener blends and others
- Food health and nutrition, including foods that maintain and improve health for the prevention and management of bone and joint diseases, certain cancers, coronary heart disease, diabetes, nutrigenomics, weight management and others
- Food processing and packaging, including the efficiency, quality and sustainability of food processing and packaging and others
- Food safety and defense, including additive and ingredient safety, allergens, microbial and chemical contaminants, novel technologies and others
- Public policy and regulation, including food laws, public policy and regulations with consumer food safety, food industry and research implications that embrace defense, import/export requirements, labeling, marketing, safety and others
- Sustainability, including efforts in food production sufficiency throughout product lifecycles—from sustainable ingredient sourcing to product development, waste management and others

Morsel “The more you eat, the less flavor. The less you eat, the more flavor.”
—Chinese proverb

Sensory Basics: the Science and Application of Flavor for Pleasure and Health

Today’s chefs, food scientists and nutritionists are creating foods and recipes that help to bring the latest innovations to our tables, cross cuisines, meet diet and health needs, and

restore food memories. Their efforts help to enlighten consumers about improved or innovative foods and beverages and inspire their food choices—based in significant part by sensory science.

Sensory science is a cross-disciplinary field of study that addresses how our five senses (hearing, sight, sound, taste and touch) function—from stimulation and perception to cognition and behavior. Sensory science integrates research in quality perception, preferences, communication, and health and well-being to gain insights in the underlying factors of food choices and eating behaviors. It explores how our senses can be used in food quality control and product design.

Sensory science is young and complex. Sensory scientists are still unveiling and debating certain tastes and sensations. Still, nutrition, food science and culinary professionals need to understand the mechanisms that underlie sensory reactions in order to adjust the flavors in a recipe or meal for enjoyment and health.

A common saying among nutrition and culinary professionals is “No food is consumed unless it tastes good.” Few foods look, smell and taste good without appealing sensory qualities. If a food looks appealing, sounds enticing, smells delicious, tastes great, feels right in temperature and texture, then it may be well perceived. This is because the sights, sounds, smells, tastes and textures of great food stir up specific responses by the body that makes it quite desirable.

Thanks to these sensory responses, once a person consumes a very appealing food, he may want to select this food over and over again. Food marketers know that the sensory attributes of food are keys for repeat purchases. Making healthy foods and beverages look good and taste great are important challenges for nutrition, food science and culinary professionals. This is embodied in another underlying saying: “No food is nutritious unless it is consumed.” Sensory science helps to pave the way.

Morsel “Sweet, sour, bitter, pungent—all must be tasted.” —Chinese proverb

THE FIVE SENSES

The sensory organs that process the sights, smells, sounds, tastes and textures of foods help to determine whether a food is perceived as good or bad, tasty or offensive, and nutritious or unhealthy. These organs

are connected by an intricate network throughout the central nervous system to the brain, where they are translated and interpreted—and often acted upon.

The sense of *sight* translates visual messages about the foods on the plate or in a meal. The sense of *smell* transfers aromas from foods that are cooked or served. The sense of *taste* registers tastes throughout the entire mouth, not just on the tongue. The sense of *touch* identifies foods by their texture when held and inside the entire oral cavity. The sense of *sound* recognizes the noises that foods make when they are cooked or consumed. These five senses are elaborately linked to one another and to the brain for perception, identification and action.

THE FIVE BASIC TASTES

There are five basic tastes: *sweet*, *salty*, *sour*, *bitter* and *umami* (Japanese for “deliciousness”). In contrast, there are literally thousands of odors because there are so many combinations, and they are too numerous to test.

These five basic tastes correlate with primitive times. The sweet taste was instinctive for survival: the sign of calories to come from hunting or foraging for food. The salty taste drove food choices that replaced what was naturally lost in sweat. The sour taste suggested patience until a food turned riper and sweeter. The bitter taste warned that a food might be poisonous. The umami taste indicated that a food contained protein, which is fundamental for existence.

These five basic tastes have similar correlations today. Sweet-tasting foods provide energy; salty foods are necessary for fluid balance; sour (acidic) foods indicate readiness; bitter foods are sometimes detested; and foods with umami are primary to most Western diets.

The sweet taste is found in fruits and vegetables, but it is also found in protein foods, such as milk with the milk sugar *lactose* and *glycogen*—stored carbohydrate that is found in muscle tissue.

The salty taste is naturally present in some fruits and vegetables, such as tomatoes and deep leafy green vegetables, and protein foods, such as dairy products. Many salty ingredients are manmade and developed for preservation.

The sour taste is principally found in fruits and vegetables, such as citrus fruits and green apples, but it is also found in naturally sour dairy products, such as yogurt or cultured buttermilk.

The bitter taste is prominent in cruciferous vegetables—those that bear a cross at the root, such as Brussels sprouts, broccoli and cauliflower. It is also pronounced in coffee, tea and wine.

The umami taste is identifiable in aged cheese, fermented soy foods, savory steaks, seafood, mushrooms and tomato products. The umami taste can be boosted from flavor layering or synergy among ingredients, such as a Caesar salad with anchovies and Parmesan cheese or a roasted tomato sauce with porcini mushrooms.

Food scientists, chefs and nutritionists use these basic tastes to create delicious, harmonious and memorable flavors in product development, recipes and meals. Examples of foods that carry each of these basic tastes are shown in [Table 2-1](#).

TABLE 2-1 Basic Tastes and Food Sources

Basic Tastes	Food Sources
Sweet	Bananas, breadstuffs, carrots, corn, cream, dates, grapes, honey, onions, parsnips, peas, scallops, sugars
Salty	Anchovies, bacon, cheese, ham, oysters, sea salt, seaweed, soy sauce, Parmesan cheese, tomatoes
Sour	Buttermilk, citrus fruits (lemon, lime, orange), rhubarb, sorrel, sour cream, tamarind, vinegar, yogurt, wine
Bitter	Angostura bitters, beer, bitter oranges, chicory, coffee, dark chocolate, deep leafy greens, extra-virgin olive oil, rosemary, walnuts, watercress, wine
Umami	Aged cheese, aged meats, beer, fermented soy products (miso, soy sauce, tempeh), mushrooms, peas, Parmesan cheese, seafood, tomatoes, wine

FOOD FLAVOR

The term *taste* is often used synonymously for the term *flavor*. **Flavor** is the sensation that is created when a substance is taken into the mouth and stimulates receptors that register smell (olfaction), taste, tactile (touch) and temperature sensations, among others.

TEXTURE AND MOUTHFEEL

Texture is the appearance, consistency and/or feel of a surface or a substance. Texture also refers to the properties and sensations that are transmitted by the sense of touch to the brain for interpretation. Texture is a component of food flavor.

Mouthfeel is both the chemical and physical reactions of foods and beverages inside the entire oral cavity. The mouthfeel of foods and beverages is first determined by their presence inside the mouth, and then by mastication or chewing, mixing with saliva, moving around the oral cavity by the tongue, and finally by swallowing.

Some common terms that are used to describe texture include *bitter, chewy, creamy, crisp, crispy, crunchy, dry, fatty, firm, greasy, hard, juicy, mushy, oily, ripe, rough, runny, slippery, smooth, soft, solid, sticky, wet* and others.

Some common terms that are used to describe mouthfeel include *adhesiveness, bounce, chewiness, coarseness, coatability, cohesiveness, denseness, dryness, fracturability* (how foods crumble, crack or shatter), *graininess, gumminess, hardness, heaviness, moistness, roughness, slipperiness, smoothness, uniformity, viscosity* and others.

In wine tasting, mouthfeel explains the different types of sensations that wines create within the oral cavity. Descriptors include such terms as *big, chewy, sweet* or *tannic*, similar to descriptors that are used for taste or flavor.

By experimenting with different textures and mouthfeel of foods and beverages, food scientists, chefs and nutritionists are able to create and individualize foods, recipes and meals for a wide range of audiences. This may be of particular significance in designing foods for children, those with sensory issues and the elderly.

Flavor Balancing

While there are only five basic tastes, many taste combinations and sensations can be created with them, just like a painter uses an assortment of basic colors to create different pigments and variations.

Most foods contain more than one taste, and each taste affects our perception of other tastes. Consider a squeeze of lemon or lime on a ripe tropical fruit, such as guava or papaya. The acidity brings out the mild sweetness of the fruit. Top it with a few grains of sea salt and the sweetness is magnified even more. Another example is smoked salmon with a squeeze of lemon; the salty, smoky taste becomes more pronounced by the acidity of the lemon.

Some taste combinations are fundamental to cooking, such as the saltiness and bitterness of classic salt and pepper. Other taste combinations are less obvious; still, they demonstrate the interaction of food science and nutrition in action. These include foods that naturally combine the tastes or sensations of sweet and sour, sweet and bitter, salty and sour, salty and bitter, hot and bitter, and hot and pungent.

For example, in Szechuan hot and sour soup, the savory sourness helps to stimulate hunger, and in sugared espresso, the sweetened bitterness helps to satiate hunger. There are many more examples in global cuisines that have unknowingly been paired for centuries. Enhancing and negating tastes by flavor balancing holds a world of possibilities.

Examples of some taste combinations and sensations with the condiments, foods, herbs and spices that naturally achieve them are shown in [Table 2-2](#). With some experimentation, other harmonious blends can be created.

Some herb and spice combinations inherently rely on these taste combinations and sensations with their naturally acidic, bitter, hot, pungent, salty, spicy, sweet and savory blends. Examples include *bouquet garni*, with bay, parsley and thyme; *Chinese five-spice powder*, with cinnamon, cloves, fagara, fennel and star anise;

TABLE 2-2 Taste Combinations and Sensations

Sensations	Taste Combinations/Sensations
Sweet and sour	Berries, green apples, kiwi fruit, oranges and pomegranates
Sweet and bitter	Bittersweet chocolate or cocoa, bitter-sweet-sour fruit jam or jelly (as cranberry, crab apple, damson plum or elderberry), caramel and caramelized sugar
Salty and sour	Pickled fish and vegetables, salsa, sorrel, sour cream or crème fraîche and tamarind
Salty, bitter and umami (savory)	Anchovies, blue cheese, capers, caviar, clams, marinated artichoke hearts, nuts, olives, Parmesan cheese, pickled gherkins, sardines, teriyaki sauce, smoked fish, tomato sauce and Worcestershire sauce
Pungent (strong)	Allspice, black and cayenne pepper, cumin, garlic, ginger, mustard, onions and turmeric
Hot	Cayenne pepper, chili pepper, curry powder, hot paprika, and wasabi
Hot and bitter	Cinnamon sticks, chicory, cloves, mustard or radish sprouts, and watercress

fines herbes, with chervil, chives, parsley and tarragon;
gremolata with anchovies, garlic, lemon zest and parsley;
mirepoix, with celery, carrots and onions; and *quatre épics*,
 with cloves, ginger, nutmeg and pepper.

Morsel “The smell of cooking can evoke a whole civilization.” —Fernand Brandel (French historian, 1902–1985)

Bite on This: other sensory considerations

When it comes to selecting or rejecting foods, appearance counts. Healthy foods and beverages, beautifully arranged in correct proportions with ethnically correct garnishes, cue our sense of sight and our desire to consume it. So does the quality of food. Food that is selected at its peak or cooked to preserve nutrients looks and smells fresh and enticing. While it is not always feasible to purchase food at its finest, it is practical to plant a window box, containers or backyard garden; frequent farmers markets or participate in a **food cooperative**—either a cooperative grocery store or buying club.

Pleasant aromas also signal us to eat. Aromas may bring back good food memories, such as our favorite holiday meals. Unpleasant aromas from odorous foods, such as cooked legumes or spinach, might turn off our appetite, especially if these foods were forced upon us as children. With some ingenuity and culinary know-how, even foods with strong odors can be pleasantly masked and appeal.

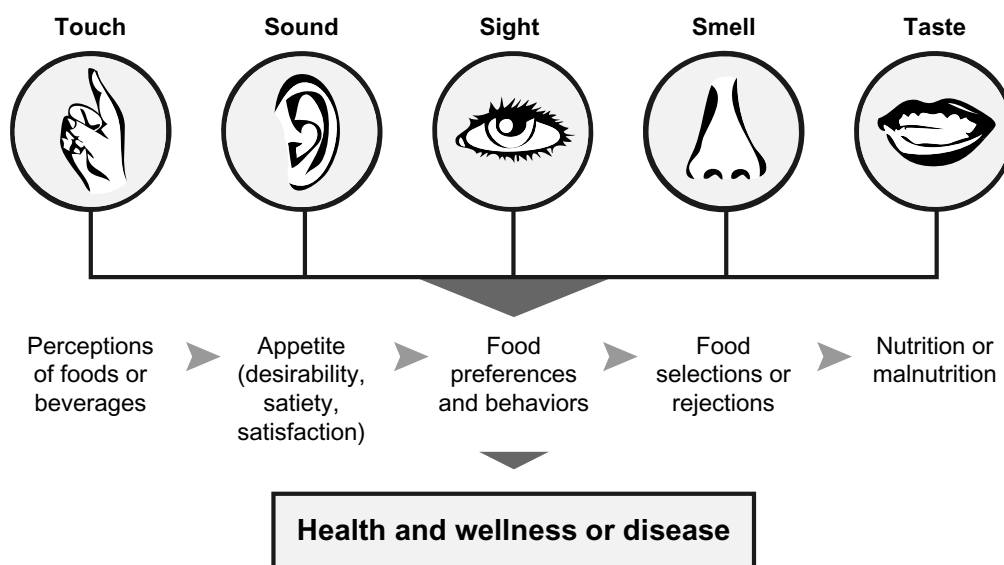
Figure 2-1 shows how food interplays with our senses of sight, smell, taste, touch and sound to influence our food choices or rejections, health and well-being. It can be used to demonstrate the reactions to a hamburger by a carnivore and a vegetarian.

To a carnivore, a hamburger may look delicious, smell and taste great, and have multiple textures and a variety of sounds (crunchy lettuce, crisp onions and pickles, juicy ground meat, etc.). To a vegetarian, a hamburger may look, smell, taste, feel and sound unappealing. When sensorial factors interplay, they create a positive perception of a hamburger to a carnivore. They increase its desirability and satisfaction. As a result, a carnivore may prefer a hamburger to other options and select it more frequently. After a hamburger is consumed, its nutrients may contribute to the health and wellness of a carnivore—especially if the hamburger meat is lean.

A vegetarian may have totally different sensory reactions to a hamburger. The interplay of the senses may cause a vegetarian to reject it. Unless a suitable protein replacement is consumed, then the nutrition, health and well-being of a vegetarian may be compromised.

Morsel “Dinner is and always was a great artistic opportunity.” —Frank Lloyd Wright (American architect, educator, interior designer and writer, 1867–1959)

Interplay of the Senses (Touch, Sound, Sight, Smell, Taste) to Influence Food Choices

**FIGURE 2-1**

Interplay of the Senses (touch, sound, sight, smell and taste) to Influence Food Choices.

Food scientists, chefs and nutritionists use these and other sensory considerations when creating new foods, recipes and menus. Nature has presented us with great-tasting ingredients: fruits, dairy products, healthy fats, herbs and spices, meats, nuts and seeds, vegetables and whole-grains for experimentation. But it really is the nutrients inside these foods—the building blocks of carbohydrates, lipids, proteins, vitamins and

minerals, and water—that determine how different foods react with one another. Knowing their fascinating roles in food product development, cooking and baking helps to explain why carbohydrates, lipids, protein and water drive our food preferences, nutrition and health.

Morsel “A cook can never rise above his ingredients.” —Anonymous

Why Food Behaves as It Does: Carbohydrates, Lipids, Protein and Water

In Chapter 1, the six major nutrients—carbohydrates, lipids (fats and oils), protein, vitamins, minerals and water—are presented with their sources and functions. Primarily carbohydrates, lipids, protein and water help to determine why food behaves as it does in product development, cooking and baking. While vitamin and mineral loss or gain occurs during cooking and baking and can be manipulated during product development, the other major nutrients rule.

CARBOHYDRATES

Carbohydrates, or sugars and starches, are found in the plant kingdom—primarily in fruits, grains, legumes (dried beans, lentils and peas) and vegetables—and in the animal kingdom—primarily in the muscle tissues of animal proteins. Carbohydrates serve to store chemical energy in plants and animals. When sugars and starches are consumed, then this chemical energy in the form of calories is released and used by the body for its many functions, or it is stored in the body for future needs.

The types of carbohydrates in plants are *sugars*, *starches*, *cellulose* (the main component of plant cell walls), and *pectin* (a gelatin-like substance) and *gums*. Besides contributing energy, sugars and starches help to supply the sweet taste in foods and beverages. Unlike sugars and starches, cellulose and pectin do not contain calories or supply energy. However, they do supply *fiber*, the noncaloric and nondigestible parts of plants that are associated with healthy digestion. The chemical and physical characteristics of sugar, starch and fiber help to provide important roles in product development, cooking and baking that are discussed throughout this chapter.

SUGARS

Sugars are *simple carbohydrates*. One simple sugar, *glucose*, is what the body utilizes for its many biological functions. Another is *fructose*, commonly found in berries, flowers, tree and vine fruits, honey and root vegetables. Fructose does not trigger the production of insulin by pancreatic cells like other sugars, so it is often recommended for diabetics. Granulated table sugar is *sucrose*, a combination of glucose and fructose.

Sucrose occurs naturally in every fruit and vegetable, but it is in greatest quantities in sugar cane and sugar beets. It is separated for commercial use and then processed through pressing, boiling, spinning, washing, filtering, crystallizing, drying and packaging.

There are many different types of granulated sugar that differ in crystal size. Each crystal size has unique functional characteristics. Some types of granulated sugar are preferred by the food industry and professional bakers. The food industry uses "extra-fine" or "fine" granulated sugar because its smaller crystals are superior for bulk handling and they are not prone to caking. Larger granulated sugar crystals are called for in most consumer recipes. The functions of sugars in cooking and baking include flavor, moisture retention and food preservation.

STARCHES

Starches are *complex carbohydrates*—long chains of glucose sugars that are stored in plants. When you eat a piece of bread (which is mostly starch), your body breaks down the starch into individual glucose sugars throughout the digestive process. This process is detailed in Chapter 1.

The functions of starch and carbohydrates in the cell walls of plants are mostly to provide bulk and texture in cooking. When starchy foods, such as potatoes, pasta or rice, are cooked with water or other fluids, the cooking water is absorbed by the starch granules, which cause these granules to swell. Once these starch granules cool, they mostly adhere to one another and cause foods to become sticky. These are important food science and cooking concepts that will be described in greater detail in this chapter.

GLYCOGEN

Long chains of sugars in animal tissues are called *glycogen*. While animal tissues are mostly protein, glycogen may have a small effect on the texture of meat. Additionally, the amount of glycogen in animal tissues at the time of slaughter affects the pH value of meat.

Before slaughtering, animal flesh has a pH value of about 7.1. After slaughtering, some of the glycogen converts into lactic acid and the pH value lowers. Beef reaches its lowest pH level of about 5.4 to 5.7 about 18 to 24 hours after slaughter. At a pH level of about 6.5, it starts to decompose. This is similar to the effect of an acidic ingredient, such as lemon juice or vinegar, in a marinade that softens the tough muscle fibers in fish, meat or poultry [3].

CELLULOSE

Cellulose is composed of glucose sugars. While the structure of cellulose is similar to starch, cellulose it is not affected by cooking the way starch absorbs the cooking liquid and swells. In fact, the opposite is true: cellulose is so durable that it is considered indigestible fiber. Cooking cellulose does not make it more digestible. However, as the cell structure weakens, it allows digestive enzymes to engulf the nutrients that are contained within the cells.

This is similar to the effect of baking soda when cooking vegetables. Baking soda preserves *chlorophyll*, the colorful green pigment in vegetables. However, it is an alkaline, and when it is added to cooking water, it makes vegetables soggy due to the breakdown of cellulose. Therefore, this practice is *not* recommended.

PECTIN

Pectin is a gelatin-like carbohydrate in the cell walls of plants. Pectin acts like a gel, sometimes referred to as a "fragile solid" in cooking. Pectin is semisoluble in liquids, which means that it is able to take up some liquid. This is especially important in cooking fruits and vegetables because it allows them to soften when cooked.

Pectin is extracted from apples and citrus fruits. Soluble pectin is capable of forming a gel once the correct concentrations of acid and sugar are reached. This is helpful to thicken syrups, such as those used to make jams and jellies.

GUMS

Gums are secretions of plants or trees that harden when they are released, but they are soluble in liquids. Gums function to create smoothness in candies and frozen confections, stabilize emulsions, and thicken and gel liquids.

Gums include *carrageenan*, used in desserts, ice cream, milk shakes and sauces; *gum arabic*, used in gummy candies, soft drinks and syrups; *guar gum*, used in baked goods and thickened dairy products such as yogurt; *locust bean gum*, used in cultured dairy products, cream cheese and frozen desserts; and *xanthan gum*, used in ingredients for gluten-free baking.

LIPIDS

Lipids are fats, oils, cholesterol, lecithin and other fatlike substances such as beta-carotene and vitamin E. Lipids are important in cooking and baking because they help to provide flavor, including mouthfeel, to recipes. Lipids also help to tenderize foods and allow foods to be heated to high enough temperatures in order to create crispness and convey richness. Despite all of these attributes, lipids are very concentrated in calories, so a little goes a long way.

When lipids are mixed with liquids, such as oil and water, by and large they do not mix. This is because water is composed of “polar molecules” and oils are composed of “nonpolar molecules.” In polar molecules, the charge of one end of the molecule is attracted to the opposite end of another molecule. In nonpolar molecules, the charges are dispersed throughout the molecules. As a result, the liquid molecules can only bond with the oil molecules for short periods of time.

60 Oil and vinegar salad dressing is a good example of ingredients with polar and nonpolar molecules. Shake the salad dressing in a closed container vigorously and the molecules will stay together for varying degrees of time. Or use an *emulsifier*, such as an egg yolk, which acts as a liaison and stabilizes the ingredients. In an oil and vinegar salad dressing (vinaigrette), the molecules that make up salt and vinegar are also polar molecules, so they may be more easily dispersed throughout the mixture.

Some lipids mix with each other. For example, beta-carotene, the orangey-red pigment in fruits and vegetables, dissolves better in fat than in water. To increase the beta-carotene content of a recipe with brightly colored fruits or vegetables, add some fat. For example, use a little olive oil in a marinara sauce or tomato soup.

Lipids tend to float on water, which means they can be scooped up and discarded, as when visible fat is removed from the surface of soups or stews. After preparing soup, put it in the refrigerator to chill. The fat or oil will congeal on the surface and can be removed easily.

PROPERTIES OF FATS AND OILS

Fats are solid at room temperature. This is the reason why a stick of butter can be left out of the refrigerator and remain relatively solid. **Oils** are liquid at room temperature. If oils are refrigerated, they may become semisolid and cloudy.

Liquid oils and other vegetable fats are about 85 percent unsaturated fats. Generally, the more unsaturated the fats or oils, the healthier they are. In comparison, animal fats are about 50 percent saturated fat and 50 percent unsaturated fat. On the whole, the fat in beef and lamb is more saturated than the fat in poultry and pork.

An advantage of saturated fat in cooking is that it tends to be stable, which means that it is less likely to become *rancid* or *deteriorate* when it is exposed to metal, oxygen or water. Since poultry and pork have less saturated fat than beef and lamb, these two protein foods may deteriorate faster. Saturated and unsaturated fats are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 6.

A very important use of fats or oils in cooking and baking is in *emulsions*, the blending of dissimilar ingredients—often into creamy mixtures. In the example of the vinaigrette salad dressing just discussed, the

egg yolk (a common emulsifying agent) helps to break down the oil into tiny droplets that are suspended throughout the vinegar, which yields a creamy consistency.

Other emulsions include butter, cream, ice cream, margarine and salad dressings. Bearnaise, hollandaise and mayonnaise are sauces that are created by emulsions. Other emulsifiers include *lecithin* in crystal or liquid form (in fact, egg yolks are about one-third lecithin), gelatin, mashed potatoes, meat extract, mustard, skim milk and starch “paste.” The trouble with emulsions is that they tend to be unstable. If an emulsion separates, then a dressing or sauce may be whisked back into suspension. More information about emulsions and their essential roles in food product development, cooking and baking follow in this chapter.

Fats *melt* when exposed to heat, which means they slowly change from a solid to a liquid state over time. The fact that fats melt and do not instantly turn into liquids makes them versatile ingredients in food product development, cooking and baking. Some fats can eventually turn into gases, much like liquid evaporates into air, but it takes a considerable amount of heat for this to happen.

Fats can *decompose*, which is unlike deterioration. When fats decompose, they break down into noticeable gas. This is called the *smoke point* of fats. The smoke point varies among fats and oils; it is wise to select a fat or oil one with a high smoke point that is suitable for hot, sustained cooking to help prevent a change in food flavor.

Fats and oils with fewer free fatty acids tend to have higher smoke points. These include some vegetable oils, such as canola or safflower oils. Animal fats, fresh fats and refined oils tend to have more free fatty acids and thus lower smoke points. These include butter, coconut oil and lard. If a fat has impurities, the smoke point will be lower, which means it will smoke faster. The size of the pot or pan also makes a difference in the smoke point. A wider pot or pan with greater exposure to air lowers the smoke point, which means the fat or oil may decompose faster than one with less exposure. The approximate smoke points of common fats and oils are shown in Table 2-3.

TABLE 2-3 Smoke Points of Common Fats and Oils

Types of Fats and Oils	Smoke Points (°F ^a)
Almond oil	430 °F
Avocado oil, refined	520
Butter	350
Canola oil, refined	400
Coconut oil	350
Corn oil, refined	450
Flaxseed oil, refined	225
Hazelnut oil	430
Grape seed oil	485
Lard	400
Olive oils, extra-virgin	410
Olive oils, virgin	420
Olive oils, pomace	460
Peanut oil, refined	450
Rapeseed oil	440
Safflower oil, refined	450
Safflower oil	510
Sesame oil, unrefined	350
Sesame oil, semirefined	450
Shortening, vegetable	370
Soy oil, refined	450
Sunflower oil, semirefined	450
Walnut oil, unrefined	320
Walnut oil, semirefined	400

Source: [4,5].

^aSmoke points are approximate because oils differ within the same type of oil, such as olive (extra-virgin, pomace and virgin) and whether or not the oil is refined.

PROTEINS

Proteins assist in the *browning* of foods that occurs at high temperatures. They also contribute to the *overall flavor* of foods. Some proteins carry *distinctive tastes*, such as aged cheese like Parmesan or cured ham like prosciutto. These savory tastes are partially due to the fifth taste of umami that was described earlier in this chapter.

The *molecule structure* of protein is important in the cooking process. Some parts of the protein molecule attract water, while other parts attract fats or oils. Some parts are designed to form strong bonds, such as the connective tissues in meats. Other parts of the protein molecule offer some flexibility, such as the bonds in eggs and milk. The somewhat rigid but flexible egg white matrix is an important component in cakes and meringue-based desserts.

Another function of proteins is that they act as *enzymes*, which affect the rate at which chemical reactions take place. The enzymes that are responsible for the different stages of the digestive process are discussed in Chapter 1. These include *salivary amylase* that helps to break down starches into sugars in the oral cavity; *pepsin* that helps to break down proteins into smaller structures called peptides in the stomach; *lipase* that helps to break down lipids into fatty acids in the small intestine; and *pancreatic amylase* that helps to break down starches into sugars, also in the small intestine. The suffix “-ase” is indicative that these protein-based substances are enzymes.

In foods, *amylases* from fungi and other plants help to convert starches into sugars during food processing, such as in the production of high-fructose corn syrup. Amylases are also used in brewing to split polysaccharides and proteins during “malting,” such as in the production of beer, malt vinegar and whisky.

Cellulases and *pectinases* are used to clarify fruit juice. *Lactases* are used to break down lactose into dairy products to glucose and galactose to aid digestion. *Lipases* are used in the production of Roquefort cheese to enhance ripening. *Proteases* are used to lower the protein content of certain flours. Many other types of enzymes with a variety of functions are used in food production.

Enzymes in plants and animals may alter the color, nutrients, taste and texture in foods. For example, enzymes may cause some vegetables to rot and fish to become mushy. Refrigeration helps delay spoilage caused by the destructive enzymatic action of some bacteria. Cooking helps speed up enzymatic action and food breakdown. A recipe might read to “heat quickly” to prevent enzyme activation and the ingredients from breaking down too soon.

When proteins break down either physically or chemically, this is called *denaturation*. Acid, agitation (disturbance) or heat may cause protein denaturation. If there is an acidic ingredient in a dish, such as citrus fruit or tomatoes; if the mixture is agitated, such as beaten or whipped; or if the recipe is cooked over high heat, such as in barbecuing or broiling, then the proteins might denature.

A classic example of denatured protein is overcooked egg whites, which are mostly egg albumin in water. If egg whites are overcooked over high heat, they typically become opaque and rubbery in an interconnected solidified mass.

Denatured proteins may *coagulate*, or become sticky. This might be fine to help set custard or quiche, but it is unacceptable for fragile white fish or scallops when only a little firmness is desired. If coagulation continues to a semisolid or solid state, then a dense custard or quiche or overcooked fish may result. This is why it is so important to follow the recommended cooking times of proteins in recipes.

WATER

As discussed in Chapter 1, water is one of the six essential nutrients. In fact, it could be argued that water is *the* most important nutrient. Two-thirds of the human body is water. Plants contain as much as 95 percent water, and raw meat contains as much as 75 percent water. When heat is applied to foods in cooking and baking, water is released. This action can add moisture to a dish in the form of *au jus* (French for “in its own juice”—usually in reference to meats) or a light sauce (often from fruits and vegetables). If foods are heated too long or at temperatures that are too high, then the ingredients may become overly dry.

As water is heated, it forms *steam* and the steam evaporates. This process is slow and has both advantages and disadvantages. For quick cooking, a hot pot or pan of oil will heat faster than water. Since the water will hold its temperature longer, it is a better medium for long, slow cooking. In Chapter 3, the moist-heat cooking techniques of braising, simmering and stewing are explored, which rely upon this ability of water to hold heat over time.

Steam is also responsible for quickly cooking foods at hot temperatures. It can be a healthy cooking technique to use for fragile vegetables, but it is also effective for sturdier vegetables to help preserve nutrients and prevent loss.

In *steaming*, foods are placed in a steamer basket over boiling water; then the boiling water evaporates and turns into steam. The steam rises and transfers the heat to cook the foods in a process called *convection*. The reason why a pot should be covered is that when the tiny water droplets of steam hit the lid, they drop onto the food with their moist heat.

Another feature of water is that it is a *weak acid* and a *weak base*. It may not taste very acidic like citrus juice or vinegar, but this characteristic may affect its cooking properties. Water can act as an acid or a base depending upon its chemical environment. It is important to note that nearly all foods are a slight bit acidic. This feature should be accounted for in food product development, cooking and baking.

Finally, water acts as a *solvent*, so a *solute*, such as food particles, can be suspended within it as a *solution* (such as sugar in brewed tea or prepared coffee).

Why Food Behaves as It Does: Common Cooking and Baking Reactions

EMULSIONS

As just explained, *emulsions* are mixtures of two or more liquids that are normally *immiscible* (unmixable), with an emulsifying agent that keeps the emulsion in suspension.

Most emulsions have three elements: an *emulsifier*, such as cream, egg yolk, lecithin or dairy milk; enough *liquid* to hold the emulsion in suspension; and *mechanical action*, such as whisking or rapid shaking that disperses the liquid into tiny droplets.

It may be difficult for an emulsion to hold its creamy consistency, even if careful attention is paid to each of these three features. This is where stabilizers may be effective. *Stabilizers* are thickeners and gelling agents that are used to give foods a firmer texture and in food preservation. They help to provide viscosity or thickness without too many extra calories, carbohydrates or fats.

Proteins (beans, seaweed such as agar-agar and seeds), starches (pectins and gums), and other plant tissues are used to stabilize emulsions in more permanent suspensions. Stabilizers are often used in such foods as dressings, frozen desserts, jellies, mousses, pickles, puddings, salad dressings, sauces and yogurt.

ENZYMES

Enzymes are a group of proteins that are important to food product development, cooking and nutrition because of their effects on the ingredients in a recipe. Enzymes are *catalysts*, which increase the rate of reactions and cause chemical and physical changes.

In Chapter 1 and earlier in this chapter you learned to identify an enzyme by the suffix “-ase,” such as salivary amylase that helps to break down carbohydrates in the mouth and gastric lipase that helps to break down protein in the stomach. Enzymes in the plants and animals that humans consume may affect the appearance, flavor, nutrients and texture in foods and beverages. Enzymes may be responsible for bacterial deterioration, dulling brightly hued colors and softening firmly textured foods. For example, a vegetable beyond its peak may look gray instead of green, smell foul, be limp, and have fewer vitamins and minerals due to enzymatic action.

As a whole, enzymes are not the cook’s friend. The exceptions include the enzymes that are found in tougher cuts of meats (which become tender by their own enzymatic action); the enzymes in the fermentation of

dairy, soy and other products (which help give cultured dairy foods, such as buttermilk and yogurt their characteristic flavor); the enzymes that process cornstarch into fructose syrup and glucose syrup.

The hot-cold technique of blanching vegetables before freezing freezes the biochemical enzymes in the vegetables that would normally cause color and flavor loss and deterioration. Cooking can denature or inactivate some enzymes and halt or slow their activity. When enzymes denature, their protein structure uncoils, which makes them less effective or sometimes fully inactive. For example, raw pineapple naturally contains the enzyme *bromelain*, which breaks down gelatin. If raw pineapple is used to prepare gelatin, it may interfere with gelling. However, when raw pineapple is cooked or processed during canning to denature the bromelain, the canned pineapple and gelatin should firm. This requires delicate treatment. In the process of denaturing the bromelain and other similar enzymes, they may rapidly do their damage before they denature.

To minimize the temperature range at which enzymes are most destructive, heat fruits and vegetables as quickly as possible. The activity of an enzyme or a system of enzymes can be destroyed at temperatures near 200°F.

When cooking tougher cuts of meats, the long, slow enzymatic action serves to soften their protein structure—particularly when paired with acidic ingredients. Freezing does not destroy enzymes; they retain some activity at temperatures as low as -100°F, although their reaction rates are extremely compromised.

HEAT TRANSFER

Heat is the process by which raw foods are transformed by heat energy into a fusion of cooked and baked creations. The roles of *heat transfer* in cooking and baking are of primary importance to the desirability, flavor and texture of foods. A detailed discussion of heat transfer through *conduction*, *convection* and *radiation* is found in Chapter 3.

THE MAILLARD REACTION

The *Maillard reaction*, also known as the *browning reaction*, is actually a series of complex chemical and physical reactions that produce sweet, brown compounds at *lower temperatures* than what are required to caramelize foods.

The Maillard reaction helps to explain why toast turns brown, fried foods become golden, and roasts develop a dark-brown coating. The difference between the Maillard reaction and caramelization is that the Maillard reaction involves proteins as well as carbohydrates. Carbon molecules in the sugars combine with amino acids in the proteins.

The Maillard reaction mostly entails the proteins in foods and beverages such as beer, bread, cocoa and meats and the reactions that these foods and beverages undergo when they are exposed to heat. It helps to give a brown color to beer and cocoa, convert bread into toast, and give meat a crusted exterior.

Many Maillard-type reactions occur at comparatively high temperatures that are achieved by dry-heat cooking methods, such as baking or grilling, as opposed to moist-heat cooking methods, such as braising or steaming. However, some moist-heat cooking methods may also produce Maillard-type aroma and color over extended periods of time, such as those that include reduction.

While caramelization and the Maillard reaction help to increase the deliciousness of food, browning foods beyond their crusty exteriors may cause some protein destruction and potentially become health hazards. For example, it is not wise to consume charred foods of any kind on a regular basis. This includes the burned crusts of bread or the blackened skin of poultry.

FOOD BYTE

Slow cookers, or crock pots, serve to cook food at low settings over a period of time by steady, moist heat. The advantages of slow cookers are that the cook does not have to be present and that less-tender cuts of protein can be cooked slowly with moisture to help tenderize them. Ground meats should be cooked thoroughly before adding to slow cookers to discourage bacterial growth. Dairy products should be added at the end of cooking to prevent curdling or toughening. Cooking fruits and vegetables with their skins increases fiber and helps to keep them intact in slow cookers.

TEMPERATURE AND TIME

Well-tested recipes often include the most optimal cooking or baking times and temperatures. The first time one attempts a recipe, it is best to follow whatever time and temperature are provided and note the results.

Beforehand, the oven must be calibrated to the right temperature. This is why the use of oven thermometers is essential in successful cooking and baking. It is equally important that the refrigerator and freezer temperatures are calibrated to the right temperatures in order to keep cold foods cold and frozen foods frozen.

An overview of the ranges of temperatures to heat, refrigerate and freeze food follow, with an additional section on the adjustments that must be made for high-altitude cooking and baking.

Oven Temperature

Recipe instructions often indicate oven temperature as “moderate” or “hot” and different degrees of doneness as “rare,” “medium” or “well-done.” This may be puzzling for novices. Oven temperature descriptions, degrees of doneness and oven settings are shown in [Table 2-4](#), with ranges depending on the type of oven and its accuracy.

Other Temperatures

Sometimes recipes tell the reader to warm or cool foods, but they may not communicate how warm or how cool. Some common temperature descriptions and their temperature equivalents are shown in [Table 2-5](#).

High-Altitude Cooking and Baking

At high altitudes (above 3,000 feet) preparation of food may require changes in time or temperature—or even an entire recipe. This is because there is a decrease in air pressure and air density at high altitudes.

TABLE 2-4 Oven Temperature Descriptions, Degrees of Doneness and Oven Settings

<i>If a Recipe Reads . . . Temperatures</i>	<i>Set the Oven Temperature to . . . Oven Settings (°F)</i>
Very hot	475–500 °F
Hot	425–450
Moderately hot	400
Moderate	350–375
Very moderate	325
Warm	300–325
Cool	275–300
Very cool	225–250
Very slow/low	<225
Degree of doneness	
Well-done beef	160 <i>plus</i>
Medium-well beef	150–155
Medium beef	140–145
Medium-rare beef	130–135
Rare beef	120–125
Well-done Lamb	165 <i>plus</i>
Medium lamb	160
Medium-rare lamb	140–150
Rare lamb	135
Ground pork	160
Medium-rare pork	145
Pre-cooked ham (reheated)	140
Chicken	165–175
Turkey	165–175

Source: [6].

TABLE 2-5 Common Temperature Descriptions and Temperature Equivalents

Common Temperature Descriptions	Temperature Equivalents (°F)
<i>In order to . . .</i>	<i>Temperatures should be . . .</i>
Boil water	212 °F
Reheat cooked food	165
Maintain hot cooked food	140 or above
Food temperature danger zone	40–140
Hot liquid	120
Warm liquid	105–115
Warm to normal human body temperature	98.6
Warm liquid to lukewarm	95
Let bread rise at room temperature	80
Warm at room temperature	70–75
Cool at room temperature	65
Store in refrigerator	40 or below
Freeze water	32
Store in freezer	0 or below

Source: [6].

These factors affect cooking and baking because water will turn into steam quicker than at lower altitudes. This means that water and other liquids will evaporate faster and boil at a lower temperature; leavening gases in breads and cakes will expand more; and foods may require longer cooking times than what is specified in recipes. At high altitudes it is easy to overcook meat and poultry or scorch casseroles due to this moisture loss. A food thermometer is recommended.

66 Some general adjustments for high-altitude cooking include increasing the amount of water to cook pasta, rice, or other grains by 1 to 2 cups; simmering or boiling foods slightly longer than stated; and wrapping refrigerated and frozen items very carefully with extra layers to prevent drying.

Some general adjustments for high-altitude baking include increasing the oven temperature by 25 °F; adding 1 to 2 tablespoons of liquid to every cup of fluid; using slightly less sugar than called for (about 1 to 2 tablespoons less per cup); decreasing the leavening ingredients by one-fourth, and not overbeating egg whites to reduce the possibilities of quick rise and fall in baked goods.

Refrigerators

The recommended refrigerator temperature to slow bacterial growth and maintain food quality is 40°F or lower. Since most foods will freeze at 32°F, the refrigerator should be adjusted between 32°F and 40°F to prevent undesirable freezing, such as ice crystals in liquids.

FOOD BYTE

Freezing does not prevent bacterial, chemical or physical changes in foods; it delays them. To help decrease alterations in food quality, use freezer-designed wrap that is vapor- and moisture-proof; cool foods properly; remove as much air as possible before wrapping foods; and space foods well in the freezer to promote uniform freezing. Deterioration may appear as freezer burn, frost, change in color, or change in texture. Dry, toughened, lumpy and/or colorless frozen food has probably lost its culinary and nutritional attributes.

Freezers

The recommended freezer temperature is 0°F or lower. At this temperature, bacterial growth should be reduced. Freezing does not kill all bacteria, nor does it stop flavor and texture changes, particularly if foods are not wrapped properly for the freezer. The longer foods are kept in the freezer, the more likely that texture and flavor changes may occur.

TABLE 2-6 Safe Storage Time Limits for Refrigeration and Freezing of Foods

Types of Foods	Refrigeration Time Limits (40°F or lower)	Freezer Time Limits (0°F or lower)
Mayonnaise-based salads (chicken, egg, ham, macaroni, tuna)	3–5 days	Do not freeze
Processed meats, hot dogs	3–7 days	1–2 months
Ground beef, chicken, lamb, turkey, veal or raw sausage (from beef, chicken, pork, turkey)	1–2 days	3–4 months
Fresh beef, lamb, pork, veal	3–5 days	1–2 months
		4–12 months, <i>depending if they are chops (4–6 months), steaks (6–12 months), or roasts (4–12 months)</i>
Fresh poultry	1–2 days	9 months <i>if pieces</i> 1 year <i>if whole</i>
Soups/stews with meat or vegetables	3–4 days	2–3 months
Leftovers	3–4 days	1–6 months <i>if cooked</i>

The safe storage time limits for the refrigeration and freezing of foods are shown in [Table 2-6](#). In general, unopened packages and whole cuts (as whole chickens, turkeys or roasts) will keep longer than opened packages or pieces [7].

When in doubt, throw it out. The appearance and aroma of foods are not guaranteed indicators of whether or not harmful bacteria have formed. Refrigerate perishable foods within two hours after preparation or eating. Never thaw or marinate foods on a kitchen counter. If a frozen food has exceeded these time limits, is poorly wrapped and/or shows signs of *freezer “burn”* (a state when frozen food has been damaged by dehydration and oxidation), it probably should be discarded

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Ingredients and Functions

Food scientists, chefs and nutritionists have countless ingredients at their disposal to create new foods and recipes and to update old ones. In this section, ingredients are grouped according to their food groups: *meats* (including beef, eggs, fish, lamb, pork, poultry and seafood); *dairy milk and dairy products* (including cheese, cream, ice cream, dairy milk and yogurt); *legumes, grains, fruits, vegetables*, and *fats and oils*. Their characteristics, benefits and drawbacks in cooking and baking are discussed.

COOKING MEATS AND SEAFOOD

One of the challenges of cooking meats to the right degree of doneness is that different cuts of meat cook at different temperatures. For instance, the dark meat in poultry (the leg and thigh) must be cooked to an internal temperature of about 160°F to lose its raw taste and to melt its fat, while the white meat (the breast and wing) will be dry and tough over 150°F. When cooking a whole chicken, a fine balance must be achieved between the dark and white meats.

Meats are protein foods. When meat is cooked, the proteins in the muscles must first unwind, or denature. Then the proteins rejoin, and when this happens, the meat shrinks a bit and loses its natural juices. The result is that it becomes tougher and drier.

Under 120°F and the shrinkage is mostly in the diameter of the meat. Over 120°F and the shrinkage may also be in the length of the meat, with greater overall muscle loss. The best advice for cooking meats to the right degree of doneness is to follow the temperature guidelines that are provided in [Table 2-5](#) and to use the hand “feel” method that is explained in the following section.

Beef

Raw beef has acidic, salty and savory tastes. Unlike raw beef, cooked beef is very aromatic, producing literally hundreds of compounds. This is because cooking deepens the natural aroma and taste of beef. When cooked beef is consumed, its fluids are released that bathe the inside of the oral cavity with the beef’s aroma and

taste. These fluids are the most flavorful when beef is just cooked, because this is the start of the breakdown of protein and fat.

As beef is cooked, the color and juices change from red to pink and then to brown. This change in color has to do with the pigment *myoglobin*, which is present in muscle tissue. Raw beef could still look brown, so it is better to depend on a meat thermometer to determine the accuracy of its doneness. Exposure to light and improper freezing may also affect the color of beef.

Before beef is cooked, the texture is soft and mushy. This is because about three-quarters of beef is moisture and the rest is composed of connective tissues, fiber and proteins. As beef is cooked, the softness disappears; it becomes firmer in texture and somewhat easier to chew. Additional cooking may dry the beef further, unless it is cooked with a liquid, such as in braising. Then the toughest cuts of beef may disintegrate or fall apart. This is because the connective tissue, or collagen, actually dissolves into gelatin. The beef may still seem stringy, but the gelatin works to thicken the fluids in which it is cooked and create a flavorful sauce. Beef stew from brisket, chuck, plate or rib relies on this cooking method for its succulence.

The texture of the degree of doneness of beef is similar to the feel of the fleshy part of the palm of the hand below the thumb. The more beef is cooked, the less flexible it becomes. The best way to experience this correlation is to first test it by hand, and then during cooking. Touch the thumb and forefinger together and press on the fleshy part below the thumb. It should feel soft to the touch with a little bounce. This is how a rare beef steak feels. Now, touch the thumb and middle finger together and press on the fleshy part below the thumb. There should be some give and spring to the touch. This is how a medium beef steak feels. Finally, touch the thumb and little finger together and press on the fleshy part below the thumb. There should be no give at all; it should be quite firm. This is how a well-done beef steak feels [8].

Poultry

Chicken and turkey are often browned by caramelization during the first step of their cooking process. Then a moist cooking method, such as braising or stewing, is often used. Other popular cooking methods include broiling, grilling, roasting, sauteing and stir-frying, and combining poultry with flavorful sauces in casseroles, soups, stews and preparing stock.

Poultry should be cooked until the meat is no longer pink near the bone, the juices run clear, or when the breastbone is opaque. The most accurate way to test for doneness in poultry is to use a meat thermometer. Insert it into the thickest part of the meat without touching the bone. The thigh should read 165° to 175°F, and the breast should read 150° to 160°F. A temperature of 160°F or higher complies with the US Food Safety and Inspection Service guidelines [9].

Fish and Shellfish

Very lean fish, such as cod or sole, have lean flesh that requires some moisture, fat or oil for cooking and flavor, since they are such delicate fish. Braising, frying, poaching, sauteing and seaming are the preferred cooking methods. Oily fish, such as salmon or tuna, can be cooked by the dry-heat cooking methods of baking, grilling or sauteing because their fats are released and bathe the fish during cooking.

The doneness in fish is signified by time—about 8 to 10 minutes per inch at the widest point of the fish. Flakiness and opaqueness are other indicators of doneness.

Shellfish react differently to cooking. Overcooking toughens shellfish. Mollusks, such as clams, mussels and oysters, are ready when their shells begin to open and the interiors begin to curl. Crustaceans, such as langoustines, lobsters and shrimp, turn red or bright pink. Sea scallops turn opaque and firm.

COOKING AND BAKING WITH DAIRY MILK AND DAIRY PRODUCTS

Dairy Milk

Dairy milk contributes body, flavor, moisture, sugar (for browning) and salts (for protein coagulation) in cooking and baking applications. It tolerates heat quite well, as does cream, because of the interaction between the milk proteins and fat globules. Both dairy milk and cream can be boiled and reduced. But dairy

milk and cream crystallize when cold and their fat separates. Dairy milk *coagulates*, or forms a solid mass, and *curdles* when exposed to acids. The liquid that separates from the curds in this process is called *whey*, which is high in protein.

When dairy milk is cooked at low temperatures, the flavor may be slightly modified. Sulfur and/or green leaf aromas may be noted. With increased heat, other flavors may be distinguished, such as almond or vanilla. With prolonged heat, both browning and flavor changes may arise due to the Maillard reaction, leading to a butterscotch aroma. Dairy milk is highly perishable and may deteriorate due to exposure to air, light or age [10].

Bite on This: drawbacks of and remedies for cooking with dairy milk

Dairy milk is filled with carbohydrates, proteins and fats (depending on the type of milk). While these nutrients supply a number of physical and sensory attributes in cooking and baking, they may also contribute to some drawbacks. Following are some remedies.

Drawback #1:

Coagulation: In dishes where dairy milk is the main ingredient, such as cream soups, sauces or scalloped potatoes, or when milk is added to coffee, hot chocolate or tea, the milk proteins may coagulate and form surface skin on the top of the mixture. The skin is a web of casein (80 percent of the protein in dairy milk), calcium, whey (the watery part of dairy milk) proteins, and fat globules.

This happens because moisture evaporates from the surface of foods or beverages and the proteins concentrate. This is similar to what occurs when milk proteins coagulate on the bottom of pots and pans that are exposed to high heat.

Remedy:

To prevent evaporation from the surface of foods or beverages and skin formation, cover the pan or pot, use a layer of food wrap, or top the surface with foam.

Remedy:

To prevent scorching on the bottom of pots or pans, wet the bottom with water before dairy milk is added to reduce the proteins from adhering; use moderate and steady heat, or heat in a double boiler or microwave oven.

Drawback #2:

Curdling: Particles of ingredients may help the dairy milk proteins stick together and clump. Acidic ingredients in fruits and vegetables and astringent tannins in coffees, teas and potatoes may make proteins more susceptible to curdling.

Remedy:

To prevent curdling, use fresh dairy milk (with less bacteria that gradually sours milk) and moderate heat.

Drawback #3:

Boiling over: Like other liquids, as boiling milk bubbles, it can rise and spill over the pot or pan.

Remedy:

To prevent milk from boiling over, turn the heat down close to boiling, and leave the lid partly open so steam can escape.

Dairy Products

Some of the many types of dairy products that are widely available for consumption, cooking and baking follow.

- *Butter* is produced when cream is agitated and the milk fat separates. *Sweet cream butter* is made from pasteurized fresh cream. *Salted sweet cream butter* contains about 1 to 2 percent added salt. *Cultured cream butter* contains lactic acid bacteria, which causes it to be fuller in flavor. *Whipped butter* contains gas that is

pumped into it to increase its spread. *Clarified butter* is devoid of milk solids and water, so it can withstand higher temperatures. It is known as *ghee* in Indian cuisine.

- *Buttermilk*, like *sour cream* and *crème fraîche*, is produced when a bacteria culture is added to dairy milk. *Cultured buttermilk* is made from skim milk that has been fermented. *True buttermilk* is made from churned whole milk. The curds have separated from the whey and then the whey is fermented. True buttermilk is not as acidic as cultured buttermilk and it has a fuller flavor.
- *Condensed or evaporated milk* contains less water than whole milk. It is creamy, a little brown in color and caramel in taste.
- *Evaporated dry milk* has 100 percent of the water removed, so it is shelf stable and relatively safe from microbes.
- *Ice cream* is a mixture of air, cream, ice crystals and sugar that are churned together to develop a creamy and sweet consistency. *Reduced-fat and nonfat ice cream products* use fat and carbohydrate substitutes to replicate the creaminess of ice cream. Corn syrup, dry milk and/or vegetable gums may be added to further mimic full-fat ice cream. *Soft-serve ice cream* is generally reduced in fat and contains more air than full-fat ice cream.
- *Reduced-fat milk* is thinner than whole milk because the fat is reduced. It may be fortified with vitamins A and D, which are normally found in fat and milk solids. This fortification might affect the flavor. *Lactose-free milk* is formulated for people who cannot tolerate the milk sugar lactose. In lactose-free milk, lactose is broken down into two simple sugars: galactose and glucose. These simple sugars are easily detected on the tongue. This is why lactose-free milk is sweet in taste.
- *Sweetened condensed milk* is reduced in consistency and sucrose, or table sugar is added during processing. It is milder, lighter, sweeter and thicker than condensed milk.
- *Yogurt* is fermented dairy milk that has thickened into a partial solid. It is useful in baked goods, dressings, drinks and soups for its creaminess and tanginess. The yogurt that is commonly consumed in the United States tends to be thinner and milder than the yogurt that is popular in Asia, Eastern Europe, India and North Africa. In these countries, plain yogurt is enjoyed just the way it is, or it is used to balance many of these hot cuisines.

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Advantages of Dairy Products in Cooking and Baking

Dairy products provide body, carbohydrate (sugar, in the form of lactose), fat globules (depending on the fat content), flavor (aroma, taste and texture), milk protein, moisture and sodium in product development, cooking and baking applications. Dairy substitutes, such as soy milk and other plant-based products, may provide some but not all of these attributes. Sometimes their watery consistency, strong flavor, bitter aftertaste and/or astringency may be objectionable.

As a whole, dairy products are very versatile ingredients in savory and sweet recipes. The following are some of the *advantages* of using dairy products:

- Butter, with its rich flavor, is useful as a sauce and emulsifier. Butter can withstand a fair amount of heat; it is mostly saturated fats that hold together well.
- Cultured buttermilk and yogurt, with their mouthfeel, tanginess and tenderness, are useful in muffins, pancakes, scones and waffles where the major leavener is baking soda.
- Dairy milk adds rich and mellow flavor (depending on fat content).
- Dairy milk and cream, with their mouthfeel and richness, remain intact in milk and cream-enriched sauces, since both can withstand heat.
- Reduced-fat dairy milk, with its concentrated protein, is good for foaming (although the foam tends to be fragile and is not long lasting).
- Sweetened and condensed milk, with their concentrated protein and sugars, is useful for quick, caramel-flavored sauces.

As a whole, dairy products are not recommended for lactose-intolerant people or for those who are sensitive to casein, the major protein in dairy milk. The following are some general *drawbacks* of using some dairy products:

- Butter has a low smoke point and should not be heated to high temperatures.
- Butter is slightly more difficult to work with than shortening when preparing pastry and other doughs because it is harder.

- Butter is only about 80 percent fat; it contributes additional water to a mixture that could affect the outcome of a recipe.
- Cultured milk products are very susceptible to curdling when exposed to acid, heat, salt or stirring.
- Deterioration of dairy milk and some dairy products may affect their aroma and taste.
- Evaporated, aseptically packed, shelf-stable and some powdered milk may have a slight caramelized flavor and be less desirable in delicate desserts, such as cream pie filling, custard or pudding.
- Intense heat may cause dairy milk and some dairy products to brown and develop a caramelized flavor. This is usually due to their natural sugars.

Cheese

There are countless varieties of cheese availability for cooking and baking, with varying degrees of taste, meltability and texture. When cheese melts, the milk fat breaks down first and then the protein breaks down, releasing moisture. As moisture is lost, the melted cheese may toughen. This might be fine for cold pizza, but it may not be so desirable for a cheese sauce.

Some types of cheese can withstand heat and stay intact during cooking: fresh goat cheese, Italian ricotta, Indian paneer and Latin American queso blanco. Their textures are distinct, and they tend to take on the flavors of other ingredients in recipes.

Stringy cheese, such as mozzarella or Mexican Oaxaca, or crumbly cheese, such as English Cheshire or Roquefort, are well suited for dishes with characteristic stringiness or crumbliness, such as a topping for soups (as baked onion) or a sprinkling for salads. Parmesan and Asiago are suitable for grating because they disperse quite well when they are added to warm dishes, such as pasta, polenta or risotto.

Stringiness is not a desirable characteristic in some sauces or soups that depend on creaminess for desirability and satisfaction. It is best to use a moist cheese, such as Colby or Gruyère, that tends to blend well. Finely grating a cheese first may help to break it up more uniformly. Apply as little heat as possible and do not agitate the cheese while cooking. A little acid (such as lemon juice) might reduce some stringiness, as long as the final recipe will tolerate this acidity.

Eating raw cheese has been implicated in some pathogen-related outbreaks. Since 1949, the FDA has employed standards of identity [11] that prevent the manufacture of any cheese that is made from unpasteurized milk—unless the cheese has been aged at least 60 days at temperatures not less than 35 °F. Since 1951, this legislation also includes raw-milk cheese imports. Raw cheese is still legal in some European countries.

People with fragile immune systems, such as children, the elderly, pregnant women, and those with chronic illnesses should probably avoid raw dairy milk and raw milk cheese. They should first check with their health care providers [12].

Reduced, Low-Fat and Nonfat Cheese

With the popularity of reduced-fat products in the marketplace, there are now numerous types of reduced, low-fat and nonfat cheese products from which to choose. In these products, fat is primarily replaced by protein or carbohydrate substitutes that act like fats.

Some reduced, low-fat and nonfat cheese products tend not to melt but first soften and then harden. If these cheese substitutes are used to reduce calories, cholesterol, saturated or total fat in recipes, they should probably be used in dishes where they will have less chance of drying out.

Processed Cheese Food

Processed cheese is a mixture of partially ripened and fully ripened cheeses, plus a number of sodium-containing chemicals, colors and flavors for aroma, taste and texture. Processed cheese foods can be moist and tasty, thanks to their chemical mixtures. Since they melt easily when cooked and are relatively inexpensive compared to natural cheeses, they are popular to eat out-of-hand, in cooked dishes and as dips.

The word *processed* means to alter something from its natural state by chemical or physical procedures for convenience, safety or both. Methods of processing include aseptic processing, canning, dehydration, freezing, refrigeration and others.

Dairy milk is a processed food that has been pasteurized to destroy bacteria. Processed cheese often incorporates pasteurized milk. Processing may add saturated fats, trans fats, sodium and sugar. When evaluating the many types of processed cheese and their uses, it is good to keep all of these issues in mind.

COOKING AND BAKING WITH EGGS

Eggs are nutritious and versatile foods in most diets. Whole eggs are often used in custards and creams in dishes like *crème anglaise*, *crème caramel*, *crème brûlée*, *flan*, *pastry cream* and *quiche*. Egg white foams are useful for making *meringues*, *mousses*, *soufflés*, *zabaglione* and *sabayon*.

Eggs are also important for the flavor, structure and texture in cooked items and baked goods. Eggs firm up with acid, agitation (beating), heat and salt. Too much of any one of these factors and eggs may transform from a moist, semisolid state to a congealed and rubbery muddle.

Safe Egg Handling

The FDA requires that eggs be refrigerated at 45°F or lower. Once cold eggs are exposed to room temperature, they may “sweat,” which facilitates the growth of bacteria and may increase the risks of contamination. Refrigerated eggs should not be left at room temperature for more than two hours.

In general, egg whites coagulate between 144° and 149°F. Egg yolks coagulate between 149° and 158°F, and whole eggs coagulate between 144° and 158°F. If eggs are used in recipes with other ingredients, then the egg mixture should be cooked at 160°F to ward off any harmful bacteria. Length of time may vary depending on the added ingredients [13].

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Other Ingredients with Eggs

If eggs are cooked with fluid ingredients, they may take longer to cook. The same holds true if eggs are cooked with sugar. Egg recipes that combine fluid ingredients *and* sugar may require higher temperatures for the eggs to set.

Both acids and salt help eggs to set (assuming that these ingredients are compatible with the recipe). If a little salt and lemon juice or vinegar is added during the cooking process, then eggs may develop a creamy tenderness at lower temperatures.

Hot ingredients should slowly be added to cold ingredients; otherwise, eggs may be heated too quickly before they set. A little starch, such as cornstarch or flour, may slow down the egg protein from coagulating too quickly.

When egg whites are whipped into foams, such as in whipped toppings, their proteins link together. With further agitation, the foams usually inflate in size. If the foams separate and lose volume, this may be due to the tools that are used, or any acid, salt, sugar or water that is utilized in preparation.

Whipping egg whites in clean copper or steel bowls promotes tight bonds among the proteins and helps to create glossy foams. The presence of any trace of fat or detergent may interfere with these intricate protein bonds and successful foams.

If an acid, such as lemon juice or cream of tartar, is added to the egg whites, it helps to stabilize foams. Salt will increase the whipping time and decrease the strength of foams. While sugar may delay foaming, it contributes to the stability of foams. Water will make foams lighter, but they may separate.

The odorous nature of cooked eggs may be caused by the exposure of egg whites to high temperatures, especially if the eggs are old. It may also be a reflection of a hen’s diet and if it is caged or free-range. A little acid, such as lemon juice or vinegar, in the preparation of eggs may help to reduce this odor.

COOKING FRUITS AND VEGETABLES

The composition of fruits and vegetables is mostly carbohydrates, as opposed to proteins in meats. Some fruits and vegetables have very firm cell walls and can withstand long heating. Others are more sensitive to heat and chemicals, and their color, flavor and nutrients may suffer.

FOOD BYTE

Acidulated water is water that contains an acid, such as citrus juice, vinegar, or white wine. The acid helps to prevent cut fruits and vegetables from turning brown when in contact with air. The amount of water to acid varies depending on the acid. It is best to experiment to see and taste what amount works to help prevent discoloration without affecting the flavor. Cut-up apples, artichokes, avocados and potatoes may benefit from acidulated water, as long as taste permits. Adding salt to water may also help to prevent discoloration in fruits and vegetables, but it increases sodium.

Color Changes

When plants lose their color in boiling liquid, it may be due to an acidic or alkaline environment or the escape of gases or heat. It is common for bright green vegetables to lose their hue during cooking. To help retain their colorful pigmentation, a little baking soda (which is alkaline) is often added to the cooking liquid. But this practice may cause vegetables to turn soggy.

In order to preserve the color of vegetables, it is better to shorten the cooking time; use tap water, which is a little alkaline; plunge the vegetables into ice water to halt the cooking process and then reheat briefly; or add a little protective seal of fat or oil right after cooking. This may be a bit of olive oil or butter. The use of an acidic ingredient in a sauce or dressing should be withheld until the very last minute, since the acid may further break down the cell walls.

Flavonoids (polyphenols) are plant pigments that give vegetables and other plants their vibrant colors.

Anthocyanins are the most plentiful flavonoids; they are responsible for the blue, maroon or purple colors that are present in blackberries, beets, blueberries, cherries and grapes.

During cooking, these fruits and vegetables may lose their deep colors because these pigments are water-soluble. The cooking water may change or become colored as their anthocyanins leach into the boiling water.

Carotenoids are one of the most prevalent naturally occurring plant pigments. Brightly colored red and orange fruits and vegetables, such as apricots, sweet bell peppers and tomatoes, are fairly stable in water, but they are fat-soluble. If a little fat is added to recipes that contain these ruddy fruits and vegetables, then their vibrant colors may dissipate. Trace metals, such as iron from cooking tools or equipment, may also cause some fruits and/or vegetables to appear murky.

Texture Changes

The texture of fruits and vegetables may suffer from cooking. This is because their cell walls break down with heat and release water. At first, fruits and vegetables might lose their crunchiness but still be difficult to chew. With additional heating, their cell walls usually break down further and they become more tender.

Fruits and vegetables may be mushy and unappealing if they are cooked beyond their optimal cooking times. A range of cooking times for cooking vegetables is shown in [Table 2-7](#).

Healthy Cooking Methods

Other healthy methods for cooking fruits and vegetables include microwaving, pressure cooking and stir-frying. Even these methods may be damaging or cause nutrient loss if they are misused. Use the following guidelines to help reduce nutrient losses in fruits and vegetables:

- Avoid presoaking.
- Cook in the least amount of water.

TABLE 2-7 Cooking Times for Common Vegetables

Vegetables (steaming)	Cooking Times (steaming in minutes)	Cooking Times (microwaving in minutes)	Cooking Times (other methods in minutes)
Artichokes (whole)	30–60 min	4–5 min each	60 min baked at 425°F
Asparagus	8–10	4–6	5 stir-fried pieces
Beets (whole)	40–60	14–18	60 baked at 350°F
Bell peppers	2–4	2–4	2–3 stir-fried
Broccoli (florets)	5–6	4–5	3–4 stir-fry
Brussels sprouts	6–12	7–8	3–4 stir-fry halves
Cabbage (wedges)	6–9	10–12	2–3 stir-fried shreds
Carrots (sliced)	4–5	4–7	3–4 stir-fried
Cauliflower (florets)	6–10	3–4	3–4 stir-fried
Corn (kernels)	4–6	2 per cup	3–4 stir-fried
Eggplant (diced)	5–6	5–6	10–15 baked at 325°F
Green beans	5–10	6–12	3–4
Greens (beet, kale, spinach)	5–6	3–4	3–4
Mushrooms	4–5	3–4	4–5
Onions (whole)	20–25	6–10	60 baked at 400°F
Potatoes (diced)	10–12	8–10	25–30 baked at 400°F
Squash (sliced)	5–10	3–6	20–30 baked at 350°F
Tomatoes (halves)	2–3	3–4	8–15 baked at 400°F

Source: [14].

- Minimize the contact time with water.
- Balance the amount of heat and water. (Think high heat, minimal water; low heat, more water.)
- Never boil over high heat too long.
- Preserve colors (use the recommendations in the preceding section on color changes).
- Aim for tenderness “to the tooth” rather than softness “to the touch.”

COOKING LEGUMES

Dried legumes, such as black beans, kidney and lima, are filled with starchy carbohydrates. They require lengthy cooking times in water to soften, hydrate and expand. Split peas and lentils cook in shorter times.

Legumes may be presoaked in warm water with salt or baking soda to help to break down their cell coats and reduce their cooking time. But this practice has downsides. Salt adds sodium to the cooked legumes (and to the diet). Baking soda may affect both the taste and the mouthfeel of cooked legumes. It also contains sodium (sodium bicarbonate).

As heat and water break down the cell walls of legumes, pectin, the “glue” that holds the cells together, softens and dissolves. This also helps to tenderize the legumes. Too much rapidly boiling water may cause the legumes to disintegrate. To keep the bean coats intact, add an acidic ingredient and one that contains sugar, such as cabbage or tomatoes, and cook the beans at a slow, low temperature. Both the acid and the sugar react with the surface of the beans and prevent hot water from entering the cell walls and cooking the starch. [Table 2-8](#) shows the amount of fluid required, cooking time and yield for common legumes.

COOKING GRAINS

When grains are exposed to heat and liquid, the membrane covering becomes porous, making it possible for water to enter the grains. This causes the starch granules inside the grains to absorb water and form gels, which softens the grains and makes them more palatable.

To cook grains correctly, first rinse them in warm water. The warm water removes residual starch and stickiness, starts the water absorption process, and speeds cooking. In general, use twice as much water or other liquids as the amount of grains.

TABLE 2-8 Cooking Times and Yields for Common Legumes

Legumes (1 cup dry)	Amounts of Fluid (cups)	Cooking Times (minutes/hour)	Yields (cups)
Black beans	4 cups	1–1½ hours	2 cups
Black-eyed peas	3	1 hour	2
Fava beans	3	45 minutes–1 hour	1–2
Garbanzo beans (chick peas)	4	1–3 hours	2
Great Northern beans	3	1½ hours	2–3
Green and yellow split peas	3	45 minutes	2
Kidney beans	3	1 hour	2¼
Lentils	2	30–45 minutes	2½
Lima beans	4	45 minutes–1 hour	2–3
Navy beans	3	45 minutes–1 hour	2–3
Pinto beans	3	1½ hours	2–3

Source: [15].

Bring the ingredients to a boil; then cover the pan tightly, reduce the heat and simmer until the grains are tender. Drain if desired; then return the grains back to the heat and shake the pot or pan for a few seconds over low heat to fluff the grains and to distribute any excess liquid.

Baking with Grains

Some grains contain protein in the form of *gluten*, a natural flour protein. When gluten mixes with water (as in bread baking), it adheres and forms a network. This protein network is one of the elements that cause bread to rise. Another factor is yeast.

Yeast is a microorganism that ferments sugar and produces carbon dioxide gas bubbles. These bubbles become trapped in the protein network of bread dough. They cause gluten to stretch and create structure for the bread dough to rise. The bread dough may double or triple in size.

If the bread dough is punched down, the carbon dioxide bubbles dissipate. The bread dough can be shaped and left to rise again (or can rise during baking). Once the larger gas bubbles are broken up, the bread should have an even and fine texture.

The trouble with gluten is that some people are sensitive to these gluten proteins and must avoid them. There is more information about how to make ingredient substitutions for gluten in Chapter 4 and other information on cooking and baking with grains.

Grains with Soluble Fibers: Barley, Oats and Rye

The stickiness in grains, such as barley, oats and rye, is due to soluble fibers. Soluble fibers are thought to help reduce cholesterol. More information about why this occurs and its effects on coronary heart disease can be found in Chapter 9.

The soluble fibers in barley, oats and rye may also help people feel full because they tend to swell in the stomach, much like they do when these grains are cooked. This feature may have important implications with weight management.

Some other characteristics of barley, oats and rye are that barley can absorb twice the amount of water than wheat; oats swell into a smooth mass, which contributes to their tenderizing effects in baked goods; and rye does not harden after cooking and cooling but lends a soft and moist texture and longer shelf life to some breads.

Rice and Corn

After wheat, rice is the mainstay for much of the world's population. Aromatic rice such as basmati; brown rice; glutinous or "sticky" rice; short-grain, medium-grain and long-grain white rice; parboiled or converted rice; pigmented rice; quick cooking rice; and wild rice are only some of the many rice varieties.

TABLE 2-9 Cooking Times and Yields for Common Grains

Grains (1 cup dry)	Amounts of Fluid (cups)	Cooking Times (minutes/hour)	Yields (cups)
Hulled barley	3 c	1 hour <i>plus</i> 15 minutes	3½
Pearl barley	3	1 hour	3½
Buckwheat groats (kasha)	2	15 minutes	2½
Bulgur wheat	2	15 minutes	2½
Cornmeal (polenta)	3	30 minutes	2–3
Couscous	1–1½	5–10 minutes	1–2
Millet	3	45 minutes	3½
Whole oats	2	45 minutes–1 hour	2–3
Rolled oats	3	30 minutes	3–4
Quinoa	3	15 minutes	3½
Brown rice	2	30–45 minutes	3
Wild rice	3	45 minutes–1 hour	4
Rye	3	45 minutes–1 hour	4

Source: [15].

Since most rice is “milled” to remove the bran (outer coat) and the germ (seed), some consider rice a processed food. Brown rice is unmilled; it generally takes longer to cook, and it has a shorter shelf life due to the intact kernels that may become rancid.

Like rice and wheat, corn is a widely consumed food crop for humans and animals. It has a distinctive color, aroma, taste and texture. Corn can be used in a variety of food ingredients and products and cooking and baking applications.

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Cornstarch is a product of corn processing. It is used as a thickener in cake fillings, casseroles, glazes, gravies, pies, puddings, sauces, soups and stews. When cornstarch is mixed with flour in cakes, cookies and pastries, it tenderizes these baked goods. Cornstarch is also used to lightly coat foods before frying and in batters.

Table 2-9 shows the amount of fluid required, cooking time and yield for common grains.

COOKING WITH FATS AND OILS

Fats and oils have a range of cooking and baking applications, many of which are discussed in Chapters 3 and 6. First and foremost, fats and oils provide flavor. They contain certain compounds that impart specific flavors and coat the tongue, which permits flavors to linger and interact with other flavors. In the absence of fats and oils (as in some reduced-fat products), flavor may be lacking.

Fats and oils affect appearance. They can make foods look moist and shiny, milk look opaque and baked goods look golden. This is because milk fat refracts light and fats and oils aid in the browning process.

Fats and oils improve texture. They add their own richness and improve mouthfeel. Fats and oils help to tenderize baked goods by hindering gluten formation, which leads to flakier and more tender products. They create emulsions, which contribute to the creaminess of dressings, frozen desserts and sauces. Fats and oils also help to provide crispiness at high temperatures. They accomplish this by drying out food surfaces while retaining moistness.

Morsel “Anybody can make you enjoy the first bite of a dish, but only a real chef can make you enjoy the last.” —François Minot (*Guide Michelin* editor)

Despite their essential functions in cooking and baking, fats and oils are concentrated sources of calories. They contain twice the calories per gram of carbohydrates or proteins (9 calories per gram in fats and oils compared to 4 calories per gram in carbohydrates or protein). One may still be able to achieve the benefits of fats and oils in cooking and baking by lightening up and using less.

Useful Ingredients and Functions

Some of these ingredients can make or break the chemical and physical reactions in foods and recipes. Think of them as the missing links that lead to a formula's or recipe's success or failure. This list of useful ingredients is hardly conclusive. Perhaps others will be discovered as new food products or recipes are designed or conventional ones are overhauled.

ALCOHOL

Alcohol has its own flavor and also lends flavor to foods and beverages. It tastes slightly sweet and pungent and unleashes its umami taste in dishes. At lower concentrations, alcohol may help to boost aromas. This is why adding a little alcohol to a dish when it is cooking may help to enhance its flavor. High concentrations of alcohol may bind both aroma and taste.

FOOD BYTE

Acidic foods, such as onions, lemons, or tomatoes, should not come into contact with aluminum foil. The acids can "digest" the foil. Instead, use a nonreactive cover for acidic foods such as parchment or waxed paper. Parchment paper is moisture and grease-resistant, and it stays intact at high oven temperatures. Waxed paper has a protective wax coating that is microwave safe, but it does not withstand high oven temperatures.

Acids, Alkalis and pH Measure

The term *pH* is a measure of the acid or alkali (base) content of a solution. A pH level of 7 is considered to be neutral. This is the pH measure of distilled water.

A pH measure under 7 indicates that a substance is acidic. Foods and beverages such as black coffee, citrus fruits and juices, milk, tea, tomatoes, vinegar, yogurt and wine fall into this category. Milk has a pH measure of 6.2–7.3; black coffee 5.2–6.9; tea 4.9–5.5; tomato juice 4.1–4.6; plain yogurt 4.0–4.1; orange juice 3.3–4.2; wine 3.0–3.5; lemon juice 2–2.6 and vinegar 2.0–3.4. There are considerable variations among growing conditions, processing and varieties. In comparison, gastric acid has a pH measure of 1.

Most of the foods we consume are acidic, especially condiments, fruits, pickled vegetables, vinegars and yogurt. Acids affect both color and texture in cooking and baking. In addition, the pH measure of a food or beverage may have significant effects on the types of processing that are required to safely preserve it.

A pH measure over 7 indicates that a substance is alkaline. Baking soda dissolved in water is alkaline with a pH measure of 9. Most cheese, meats, poultry and vegetables are low acidic and more alkaline. Fresh eggs have a pH measure of 7.6–8.0; shrimp 6.8–7.0; broccoli 6.3–6.9; asparagus 6–6.7; Brussels sprouts 6–6.3 and soybeans 6–6.0. Once again, there are considerable variations among growing conditions, processing and varieties.

Alkaline substances act to neutralize acids in cooking and baking and to break down proteins. This attribute makes them effective in leavening and tenderizing [16,17].

Arrowroot

Arrowroot is a root starch. It does not thin out as much as potato starch or tapioca starch, so arrowroot is useful in thickening. Arrowroot is often used to replace cornstarch or flour in puddings and sauces, without the chalkiness that is sometimes characteristic of these starches. Arrowroot lends a beautiful sheen to finished dishes. However, arrowroot does not hold up to reheating.

Agar (agar agar)

Agar (agar agar) is a gelatinous substance that is extracted from seaweed and processed into flakes, powders and sheets. It is commonly used in Asian cuisines and as a flavorless vegan substitute for gelatin. Agar helps

gel, stabilize, texturize and thicken beverages, baked goods, confectioneries, dairy products, dressings, meat products and sauces.

Agar gels at low concentrations; the gel is opaque in color and chewy in texture, making it versatile in both cold and hot dishes. A general rule of thumb is to use 1 tablespoon of agar flakes or 1 teaspoon of agar powder to thicken 1 cup of liquid.

Baking Powder

Baking powder is a chemical leavening agent. It is integral to the rise of various batters during baking. When ingredients are creamed together, baking powder helps to enlarge the bubbles that contribute to leavening. It contains both acidic and alkaline substances: baking soda, one or more acid salts such as cream of tartar or sodium aluminum sulfate, and cornstarch to absorb any moisture.

Double-acting baking powder reacts to the liquid in a batter and heat in two stages. During the first stage, when double-acting baking powder is added to the liquid in a batter, the baking soda reacts with one of the acid salts, and a set of gas bubbles are released. During the second stage, another set of gas bubbles are released when the batter is exposed to the heat of the oven. These gas bubbles cause the batter to rise during baking. If too much baking powder is used in a recipe, then the color and flavor may be affected and browning may be intensified.

Baking Soda

Baking soda is an alkaline or basic ingredient. If dough contains an acidic ingredient, such as buttermilk, citrus fruit juice, sourdough starter or yogurt, baking soda will react with it to produce leavening. Like baking powder, baking soda may negatively affect the color and flavor of finished products and result in a very acidic or bitter taste.

If a recipe contains both baking soda and baking powder, then the baking powder will probably be responsible for the majority of the leavening. The baking soda will likely function more to neutralize any acids in the recipe and add tenderness.

Cocoa and Chocolate

Cocoa is a ground powder that is made from cocoa beans once the cocoa butter has been extracted. Cocoa powder provides color and flavor in biscuits, dairy beverages, cakes and ice cream and in coatings for confections and frozen desserts. By nature, cocoa powder is both acidic and bitter.

Dutch or alkalized cocoa is treated with an alkalizing agent. As a result, its taste is more balanced and milder than cocoa; the color is darker and it is more soluble. However, it cannot be used in recipes that use baking soda as a leavening agent, since it is not acidic like cocoa.

Dutch cocoa is primarily used in recipes that rely on baking powder for leavening, unless there are other acidic ingredients that are present in sufficient quantities. Dutch cocoa easily dissolves in liquids, such as in hot chocolate. Its delicate flavor makes it an ideal complement for some subtly flavored European cakes and pastries. Instant cocoa generally has an emulsifier such as lecithin and sugar added to it for quick dissolving and sweet taste.

Chocolate is a substance that is produced from the seeds of the tropical cacao tree. These seeds are fermented, roasted, shelled, ground and often combined with a flavoring agent and sweetener into a paste, powder or extract.

Chocolate functions as a food (because it is a confection), flavor and ingredient. The many types of chocolate include baking, bitter, bittersweet, chocolate chips, cocoa powder, *couverture* (very high-quality chocolate with extra cocoa butter), dark, milk, plain, semisweet, sweet, unsweetened and white chocolate (which is not really chocolate because it does not contain chocolate liqueur). The sugar and fat content varies in each type of chocolate, which makes them very difficult to substitute in recipes.

Chocolate lends its taste and texture to both savory and sweet applications in cooking and baking. It also provides moistness, richness, structure and thickness in recipes, depending on its composition.

Coconut

Coconut is the fruit of a tropical palm plant. It has a hard shell, edible white flesh and clear liquid, sometimes referred to as “water,” which is often used as a beverage. **Coconut flesh** or “meat” is aromatic, chewy in texture and rich in taste.

Coconut milk is the liquid that is obtained by pressing coconut flesh with hot water. Its color and rich taste are attributed to its high oil content. **Coconut oil** is an edible oil that is extracted from a mixture of coconut milk and coconut water. Coconut milk helps to thicken sauces and soups. Coconut oil has a smoke point that is similar to butter, so it may not be useful at higher temperatures. It is often used in blended oils and shortenings.

Desiccated coconut is coconut flesh or meat that has been flaked or shredded and dried. It is available in sweetened and unsweetened versions. It is fibrous and swells slightly when it is exposed to moisture, such as in the batters of brownies, cakes, cookies and pies, and in recipes with savory sauces, including curries and other tropical dishes. Reduced-fat coconut milk is available in some markets, but because there is less fat, this may affect the consistency and flavor of a food or recipe.

Coffee and Tea

Coffee and **tea** are mixtures of acidity, astringency and bitterness, depending on the levels of aromatic compounds, body, caffeine and processing. Both coffee and tea are versatile ingredients in cooking and baking. Coffee and tea brews, extracts and powders may be added to dry or wet ingredients.

Coffee is a brewed beverage that is made from the roasted seeds (which are commonly called beans) of coffee plants and hot water. When black, coffee has a dark color and acidic and bitter flavors, depending on processing.

Coffee is an ingredient in breads, cakes, custards, dessert sauces, frostings, ice creams, pan gravies, stews and sauces. It marries particularly well with chocolate and cocoa, nuts and rum.

Tea is a steeped beverage that is made from the cured leaves of tea shrubs and hot water. When plain, tea has a range of green to dark-brown colors and has slightly bitter and astringent flavors, depending on processing. The four basic types of tea are oolong, black, green and white. **Herbal tea** usually refers to the infusions of fruit or herbs.

Tea is used as an aromatic, edible leaf, marinade, oil, spice rub and tenderizer and in desserts (cookies, ganache with chocolate and cream, muffins and sorbet).

Cream of Tartar

Cream of tartar is a white, powdery substance that is actually a by-product of wine making. It is mostly used to stabilize egg whites because it helps them to whip and hold their foam. Cream of tartar is also used in candy making because it prevents sugar from crystallizing. Plus, cream of tartar provides white, fine crumbs and height in angel food cake and creaminess in frostings.

Flaxseeds and Flaxseed Oil

Flaxseeds and **flaxseed oil** are the seeds and oil of the flax plant that are high in dietary fiber, lignans (estrogen-like chemicals that also act as antioxidants), and omega-3 fatty acids. These health-enhancing substances may help to lower serum cholesterol and benefit certain cancers, as described in Chapters 6 and 9. About one-third of flaxseed is composed of dietary fiber.

It is best to grind flaxseeds before using so fluid may access the gums in the seed coats. These gums produce a thick gel when they are mixed with fluid and act as emulsifiers and stabilizers.

A small amount (about one-fifth) of the flour in some baked goods may be replaced with ground flaxseeds to enhance their nutrient content. Flaxseeds may be used in cookies, muffins and pancakes when eggs are omitted because they perform similar functions. About 1 tablespoon of ground flaxseeds mixed with 3 tablespoons of water may be substituted for 1 whole egg. Baked goods that are made with ground flaxseeds may be slightly chewier than normal, with decreased volume.

Flaxseeds may substitute for oil or shortening in recipes because of their high oil content. Baked goods that are made with ground flaxseed may brown quickly, which may necessitate slight adjustments in time and/or temperature.

Flaxseed oil may be used as a dressing for salads or vegetables or to replace butter on popcorn, potatoes or rice. It should not be used in cooking applications that require heat.

Lard

Lard is pork fat from the back and kidneys, as opposed to *tallow*, which is beef fat. The culinary applications of lard depend on the part of the pig from which it is taken and how the lard is processed. Lard is not as high in saturated fatty acids as once thought.

Due to its relatively large fat crystals, lard is used in baking (especially in pies). It contributes flaky texture and rich taste. Lard is often combined with butter in pastries for its shortening properties. It is also used as a spread, like butter. Because lard has a high smoke point, it can be used for quick frying.

Margarine

Margarine is a butter substitute that is made from vegetable oils that have been solidified by a process called *hydrogenation*. Depending on the type of margarine, the process can be *fully hydrogenated*, causing the oils to solidify, or *partially hydrogenated*, causing the semisolid oils to be lighter and more spreadable with more water, carbohydrate and protein stabilizers. Colorings, flavorings, milk solids and salt are often added.

Trans fats that form during hydrogenation have been connected to cardiovascular disease. In 2003, the FDA issued a regulation that required food manufacturers to list trans fat content on the Nutrition Facts Panel of foods and in some dietary supplements. Due to growing concerns, trans fats have been removed from many ingredients and foods. Solid and partially solid margarines are now made by other formulations [18].

Stick margarine can be used as butter in many cooking and baking applications—but without the same aroma, taste and mouthfeel. Reduced-fat margarines have too much water and stabilizers for use in cooking and baking. As a result, they do not melt, and they often burn. They cannot replace butter in some recipes, such as butter cookies, pie crusts and puff pastries that require specific ratios of fat and moisture.

Mushrooms and Truffles

Mushrooms are *fungi*, like molds and yeast. They have meaty flavors and textures. Their meatiness is due to the natural presence of glutamate, which is also the foundation of the fifth basic taste of umami. When mushrooms are slowly cooked, their amino acids, aromas and sugars concentrate and their textures solidify. Since they are mostly water, mushrooms will release this water upon cooking; then they will reabsorb it and solidify. Salt will accelerate this moisture loss and will concentrate as the mushrooms solidify.

While mushrooms live off plants and plant remains and take on their neighboring flavors, *truffles* grow underground and develop musky aromas. Black truffles benefit by slow cooking, while white truffles are best sliced raw into dishes right before service.

Seaweed

Seaweed is derived from large sea plants, particularly those that occupy Asian and British waters. There are thousands of varieties of seaweed. Most seaweed is in shades of mild-brown to deep-red. They are sulfur-like to spicy in flavor, due to their protein, mineral and vitamin contents. The distinctive colors, flavors and textures of seaweed help to determine their uses in recipes.

Most seaweed only requires soaking and quick cooking. The longer seaweed cooks, the more pronounced their fishy flavors become. More information about cooking seaweed can be found in Chapter 5.

Shortening

Shortening is a solid vegetable fat that is typically made by hydrogenating, or solidifying vegetable oils. Trans-free shortenings are now available. Shortening is used in baking to help make products crumbly, flaky

and tender. It is 100 percent fat as opposed to butter and lard, which are about 80 percent fat, so shortening results in especially tender cakes, cookies and pie crusts.

Shortening achieves these attributes by cutting through or “shortening” the dough, which helps it to bake into separate pastry layers. But shortening does not have the flavor of butter. For this reason, shortening is sometimes butter flavored.

Soy Milk and Soy Foods

Soy milk and soy foods are rich in carbohydrates, fats, minerals, proteins, vitamins and other nutrients. Soy milk may be added to recipes in a one-to-one ratio in place of dairy milk, but it does not have the same aroma, color, taste and other characteristics as dairy milk. Plus, brands of soy milk vary.

Soy milk that is in aseptic packages tends to be sweet and is best used in desserts. In savory dishes, some soy milks may taste “beany” and interfere with other flavors. Soy milk may also curdle when boiled. To avoid curdling, use soy milk in recipes with few to no acids and/or add it at the end of cooking.

Soy cheese, soy creamer, soy ice cream, soy milk (full and reduced-fat) and soy yogurt are a few of the many soy foods that are available as dairy substitutes. These substitutions are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5.

Starters

Starters are portions of fermented dough or batter and fresh or wild yeast. They function as natural leaveners when added to flour and water mixtures in bread making. A starter is sometimes referred to as the “Mother Starter” or “Madre.”

Starters are used to speed fermentation time and add distinct aroma, taste and texture. Sourdough starter with acid-forming bacteria is a popular ingredient that flavors the sourdough breads that bear its name.

Vinegar

Vinegar is a sour liquid that is made by fermenting substances that contain sugar, such as fruit or wine. It is used as a condiment to add flavor or as a preservative, as in pickling. Vinegar contributes acidic notes to foods, both in aroma and taste. It also “cooks” foods with its acidity by breaking down their structures and softening their textures.

The many types of vinegar include balsamic, cider, distilled white, malt, rice and sherry, which all have different flavor notes. Some of their flavors are quite acerbic and assertive. Their uses in cooking and baking depend on their flavor profiles and other compatible (and incompatible) ingredients.

Wheat Bran and Wheat Germ

Wheat bran is the outer hull of the wheat kernel, which is typically removed during processing. Wheat bran is rich in fiber and other noncalorie nutrients. **Wheat germ** is the embryo of the wheat kernel, much like an egg yolk is the “kernel” of a whole egg. Since the germ contains fats that can decompose, it is removed in the refining of whole wheat flour into white flour.

Wheat bran and wheat germ are intact in whole-grain flour. When wheat bran is present in a recipe, it may look less refined in texture and smell and taste earthier. Cooking and/or baking time may be affected. The fat in wheat germ has its own flavor, and it carries other flavors. Eliminating the wheat germ in a recipe may reduce its taste and texture.

Wine

Wine is the naturally fermented juice of grapes. It is also an alcoholic beverage that is created from fruits and even vegetables. Grape varieties, with their characteristic body, color and flavor, will influence the compatibility of wine with other ingredients and foods.

Wine is an acidic ingredient that contains both citric and tartaric acids in varying amounts. Depending on the amount of acid, wine may also taste sweet or sweet and sour.

The flavor notes of wine are important to cooking and baking and may affect the final outcomes of recipes. Wine is a useful source of sourness, particularly when it is reduced. It helps to balance the umami taste in recipes, such as in a reduced stock or stew. While doing so, wine helps to enhance the sweet taste in a recipe.

For example, wine balances the beefiness in beef bourguignon (beef braised in red wine, traditionally red Burgundy, and beef broth with pearl onions and mushrooms). It also brings out the sweetness in the vegetables. In stewed fruits, wine helps to bring out sweetness, temper earthiness and add tanginess.

Yeast and Brewer's yeast

Yeast is a class of fungi that requires a warm and moist environment and a food source (such as honey, molasses or white sugar) to grow. In baking, yeast functions as a dough developer, flavor binder and leavener. Yeast helps to produce the carbon dioxide gas that functions as a leavening agent.

Morsel “In cooking, as in all arts, simplicity is a sign of perfection.” — Maurice Edmund Sailland Curnonsky (French writer and Prince of French Gastronomes, 1872–1956)

Brewer's yeast is used for brewing beer and wine. It converts sugar to alcohol and carbon dioxide during fermentation. Brewer's yeast also helps to determine the flavor of beer. In beer production, the carbon dioxide gas bubbles break away from the fermenting liquid and alcohol is collected. In baking, the carbon dioxide bubbles are contained by the dough and then released during baking, which causes the batter to rise.

WHY RECIPES SUCCEED OR FAIL

A recipe is an experiment in execution. Yet, some recipes are poorly written. Other recipes have gaps or take ingredients and instructions for granted. One of the most important factors in whether or not a recipe succeeds is the preparation.

Just like in an experiment, the ingredients should all be prepped, measured, “in their place” and ready for use. All of the necessary tools and equipment should also be close at hand. The oven should be calibrated and preheated to the proper temperature, and ingredients should be at room temperature, hot or cold as required. Finally, one should have a good working knowledge of the recipe. In French, this procedure is called *mise en place*, which helps to ensure that a recipe produces the anticipated results.

Even with excellent preparation, recipes may still fail. One must adhere to the given ingredients—at least during the first execution. In this chapter, the ingredients, foods and beverages that contain or support carbohydrates, lipids, proteins and water are featured, including how each of these functions in recipes. Stray too far from these ingredients, foods and beverages, and the aroma, taste, texture and/or other sensory components of recipes may suffer.

The right cooking and baking equipment and tools should be used as instructed. They, too, could make big differences between recipes that work and ones that fail. For example, if a recipe calls for pasta to be cooked in a stockpot and a deep fry pan is used instead, the fry pan has more surface water that is exposed to the air than a stockpot. This may cause rapid evaporation of the cooking water, which is not desirable, since there may be less water to cook the pasta. Recommended basic cooking and baking equipment and tools are provided in Chapter 3.

The right techniques should be followed to correctly prepare recipes. For example, if a recipe calls for lightly spooning flour from a bag or canister into a cup, then leveling the cup with a knife or spatula, this technique should be precisely executed. If the flour is scooped into the cup, it may become compacted and throw off the exact measurement of flour. This is a common mistake that may result in more flour than what is called for in a recipe. It is a subtle difference that may make a big impact on a recipe's success.

Finally, it is wise to review the entire recipe from start to finish before beginning to cook or bake. Well-written recipes will list the amounts and descriptions of each ingredient, guide every step in logical order, and prepare the chef or cook for what to expect and alternative courses of action to take. Misread or circumvent any of these steps and the ingredients, temperatures, timing and/or other factors may be overlooked, which may cause recipes to fail.

For example, preheat the oven *at the start* of the recipe to the *right temperature*; *lower the heat* as the recipe reads; measure the dry ingredients *separately* from the liquid ingredients; sift the dry ingredients and *then combine* with the liquid ingredients; and so forth. Either fast or inaccurate review of recipes may miss these specific directives.

All said and done, mistakes do happen. Following are some common mistakes in the execution of recipes, along with some of their remedies.

Morsel “A meal without salt is no meal.” —Hebrew proverb

COMMON MISTAKES IN RECIPE EXECUTION

- *Too much or too little salt:* Using too much salt can make the finished dish look brackish. Too little salt can make it flavorless. This is because salt both acts as an ingredient and interacts with other ingredients—boosting some tastes and diminishing others.

Too much or too little salt is often the result of not measuring correctly or measuring right over a bowl or pot. The natural sodium content of the other ingredients in a recipe must also be considered. For example, recipes with celery, olives and/or tomatoes (especially canned tomato products) may already be high in sodium without additional salt.

Salty ingredients should first be added in small quantities and then adjusted throughout recipes, unless indicated otherwise. Salt may be added right before serving to boost saltiness and round out flavor. Try to find the balance without oversalting.

Sweetness appears to lessen saltiness, while bitterness and umami tend to increase its perception. For example, if soups or stews seem too salty, then add some sweet ingredients, such as carrots or onions, to counterbalance the saltiness. If broccoli with its bitter taste or mushrooms with their umami are already present, then the saltiness may be amplified.

A little sourness may emphasize saltiness—for example, a splash of vinegar on french fries or cooked greens. The exception is when an ingredient is salty-sweet, in which case a little sourness enhances the sweetness. For example, if a little lemon juice is squeezed over salty-sweet fish and rice, such as smoked salmon risotto, then less of the salty-smoky taste of the salmon may be perceived and more of the sweetness from both the salmon and the rice.

- *Too much or too little fat:* A little fat or oil is invaluable for flavor and essential to the outcome of some recipes—even in reduced-fat cooking and baking. The functions and features of fats and oils in cooking and baking are shown in [Table 2-10](#).

Fats and oils help to supply the rich and intense flavors that are derived from caramelization and the Maillard reaction. They are *viscous*, or thick and sticky, and they help to provide moisture in recipes. If too little fat or oil is used, the foods may be dry, flavorless, thin and/or nontextured. Consumer acceptance may be poor. Fat substitutes may help to rectify some of these problems.

TABLE 2-10 Functions and Features of Fats and Oils in Cooking and Baking

Functions	Features
Appearance	<i>Adds</i> color, smoothness and shininess
Emulsification	<i>Emulsifies</i> cream soups, gravies, mayonnaise, puddings, salad dressings and sauces
Flavor/mouthfeel	<i>Contributes</i> aroma, coolness, lubrication, taste, texture and thickness
Heat transfer	<i>Supports</i> frying and sautéing
Nutrients	<i>Contains</i> calories, lipids, minerals and vitamins
Melting point	<i>Softens</i> candies
Plasticity	<i>Shapes</i> confections, icings and pastries
Satiety	<i>Provides</i> satisfaction
Shortening	<i>“Cuts”</i> biscuits, cakes, cookies and pastries
Solubility	<i>Resists</i> water; <i>dissolves</i> in fats
Texture	<i>Creates</i> creaminess, ease in slicing, elasticity, flakiness, tenderness and viscosity

Source: [19].

If there is too much fat or the wrong proportions of fat to liquid in recipes, they may fail. Emulsions may not work or they may break down. Fats may overmelt and cause foods to be greasy or oily. Too much softened fat may squeeze out of pastries. Too much firm fat may tear dough. A higher proportion of fat in ice cream production may turn into butter. Too much fat in braises, soups and stews may require cooling, congealing and discarding; the same is true when cooking protein foods, such as fish, meats and poultry with too much fat, or rendering too much fat. They may also require chilling and disposing of the congealed fat.

- *Too much starch or sugar:* The fact that cooking causes starches to absorb cooking liquid, soften and swell presents both promise and problems in cooking and baking. These features provide promise because they help starches to gel and develop gelling properties. A whole host of ingredients, food products and foods and beverages may ensue.

These features present problems because once starches cool, they may *retrograde*, or solidify. If there is too much starch, the mixtures may become too gummy, and then too firm. The flip side is also true: too little starch and the starch granules may not be sufficient in number to take up fluids and coagulate. An example of *retrogradation* is risotto (a creamy rice dish) that solidifies upon chilling. It is difficult to restore risotto to its warm creaminess.

Like salt, sugar has its own taste. In addition to sweetening foods, sugar enhances other tastes. A little salt intensifies sweetness and helps to make dishes satisfying (think salted butter and honey on toast). Umami intensifies sweetness, too (think shrimp stir-fried with soy sauce).

Sourness minimizes sweetness (think sour cream in pea soup). Bitterness also lessens sweetness (think semisweet chocolate sprinkles over frosted cupcakes).

Sweetness should be reduced in recipes that taste sickly sweet in order to conserve carbohydrate calories. Conversely, sweetness should be enhanced in recipes that taste too subtle because their flavors may be uninspiring.

Too little sugar and baked goods may become dry; candy and cookies may disintegrate; dried fruits may decompose; frozen confections may solidify; and glazes may be hazy rather than glossy.

- *Too much or too little liquid:* Recipes call for a certain amount of liquid for a reason. For instance, different grains require varying amounts of liquid for absorption and swelling. This amount of liquid that is required is dependent on the strength of the cell walls to break down upon heating and their ability to take up liquid. Use too much or too little liquid and the cooked grains may become too soggy or too firm.

The amounts of water that are used to cook pasta are specified in recipes and should be followed. This is to promote absorption, dilute the starches and separate the noodles.

The proportion of liquid in fresh pasta dough may affect its consistency. If there is too much liquid, it may be sticky and difficult to knead or mix. If there is too little liquid, the dough may become dense, dry and/or firm. The right amount of liquid produces dough that is airy, elastic and soft.

Being a food scientist in the kitchen may help to rectify these issues and others. By viewing each recipe as a food science experiment, one may discover why a recipe succeeds or fails. Some solutions for repairing foods and recipes follow.

FOOD BYTE

The term **nonreactive** means that substances or materials do not act in response to other substances. In regards to cooking utensils and equipment, nonreactive means that materials do not react with the foods that are prepared or cooked within them. Reactive metals, such as aluminum, unseasoned cast iron and/or copper, can produce a metallic taste and off-color. This is the reason why cooking equipment is often clad, or lined, with a nonreactive material, such as stainless steel.

How to Repair Ingredients, Foods and Recipes

Despite taking painstaking care, sometimes ingredients, foods and recipes fail. Rather than start anew, food scientists use their knowledge in biology, chemistry and nutrition to forge ahead, armed with information about what went wrong and how it may be fixed. Some ingredient and technique problems follow, along with some suggested solutions.

SUGARS: CARAMELIZING PROBLEMS AND REDUCING OPTIONS

Sucrose, or granulated white table sugar, melts at very high temperatures—over 300°F; then it begins to caramelize. *Caramelize* means “to brown,” but it also indicates that sucrose has begun to decompose, or break down into other sugars. Some of these sugars then recombine. Liquid sugar is first clear, then it changes to brown, and finally it becomes a dark caramel color. There may be over 100 sugars that form between these clear and caramelized states.

Certain conditions or factors are required for foods to brown at temperatures that are lower than 300°F. These include a nonacidic environment and the presence of protein and sugar. Acids such as citrus juice, vinegar or wine may prevent browning. However, certain proteins and sugars may still be able to overcome the interference of these acids.

Reducing sugars are sugars with specific shapes, as detected under a microscope. They contain a reactive aldehyde (CHO) group and may donate their ions to other molecules. Thermal processing may cause reactions between the reactive group of reducing sugars and the amino group of proteins. These reactions are called the Maillard reaction, which is responsible for altered flavors and browning. (The Maillard reaction is discussed earlier in this chapter.) Very high heat with little water may cause caramelization and also result in browning.

Corn syrup, with its simple sugar glucose, is a reducing sugar. When corn syrup is used in ingredients, foods and recipes, it assists in browning at lower temperatures. If 1 tablespoon of corn syrup is substituted for 1 tablespoon of granulated white sugar (as in some cookie recipes), a browner and crispier product may result.

Another example of the browning and crispiness that corn syrup may provide is when it is used to baste protein foods, such as poultry. The ever-popular use of barbecue sauce to baste grilled chicken is an example. The label of commercial barbecue sauce will probably list corn syrup as an ingredient.

When poultry is grilled, juices are released that contain fats, natural sugars and residual proteins. The sugars in poultry are stored in the muscle meat as glycogen. More information about sugar and glycogen is presented in Chapter 4.

The glucose in the corn syrup and fats, proteins and sugars in the poultry unite and create browning. With the intense heat of grilling, browning occurs rapidly. The heat can be controlled by moving the poultry around the grill and away from the heat source. The poultry should be basted infrequently to prevent overcaramelizing or burning.

STARCHES: GELLING PROBLEMS

The process of *gelatinization*—when starches take up liquid and swell upon heating—was discussed earlier in this chapter. Starches include arrowroot, cornstarch, potato starch, rice starch, tapioca starch and flour, and liquids include fruit juice, stock, vegetable juice, water, wine or some combination of these liquids.

Different starches become thicker at different points with the application of heat. Sometimes it takes a gentle boil, and other times it requires a full boil. It is best to watch this process very carefully and be patient before more starch is added to thicken the solution.

Once starch has gelatinized, or set, it should not be stirred or the gel may be broken. Starches such as cornstarch and/or flour tend to create a thick, clear gel when hot; then they cool to cloudy, and they may separate upon freezing. Arrowroot and tapioca gels are clearer no matter what the temperature, and they freeze better than cornstarch and flour-based gels.

FOOD BYTE

All-purpose (AP) flour is actually a blend of high-gluten hard wheat flour and low-gluten soft wheat flour. It is mainly the endosperm of the wheat kernel. The bran and germ are removed in processing. AP flour is available in both bleached and unbleached varieties. Unbleached AP flour is thought to have less chemicals and processing. AP flour has multipurposes for all kinds of baking, including biscuits, cakes, cookies, muffins and quick and yeast breads. Cake flour, with its fine grain and lower protein, can be substituted for AP flour in some recipes. Substitute 1 cup plus 2 tablespoons of cake flour for 1 cup of AP flour and evaluate the results.

STARCHES: GLUTEN PROBLEMS

Flours differ in the amount of gluten or protein they contain. High-gluten flours provide protein and structure to baked goods. They trap tiny carbon dioxide gas bubbles that are given off by yeast and help to expand the dough.

High-gluten flours are essential for good rise in breads and breadstuffs with firm textures. They produce stretchy but strong dough with firm texture for pasta and strudel, limit cookies from spreading too much, and expand pastries with the help of steam. If gluten is overdeveloped from too much mixing, it could toughen the finished products. Too much sugar destroys gluten and is one of the causes of dense bread loaves.

Low-gluten flours are preferred in recipes that contain leaveners (baking powder or baking soda), since too much gluten may interfere with their rise. A lower-protein flour, such as cake, pastry or soft flour, may be better for biscuits, muffins, pies and quick breads that incorporate leaveners. They will be more tender with a softer crumb.

STARCHES: STALING AND RETROGRADING PROBLEMS

Staling is both a chemical and physical process that reduces palatability. Freshly made bread should be stored at room temperature if it going to be quickly consumed, or it should be frozen to prevent staling. Bread stales rapidly at temperatures that are just above freezing. Moisture moves out of the starch granules, which degelatinizes the starch and leads to hard and leathery texture. Preservatives and emulsifiers, such as cinnamon, egg yolks or pureed prunes, may help to prevent staling.

Retrogradation occurs when long-grain rice and other grains are cooked and then cooled. Some of the starch molecules bond together and may cause the rice to harden. Retrogradation may be reduced by fats, emulsifiers or glucose. For example, vinegar and oil-type salad dressing may be added to rice while it is still hot, or shorter-grain rice with less surface area may be substituted to help reduce this state.

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FRUITS: DETERIORATION AND RIPENING PROBLEMS

Fragile vegetables, such as some lettuces and greens, easily rot and turn slimy. This may be due to surface water and bacteria. First, soak fragile vegetables in cold water to fill their cells as much as possible. Then dry them between paper towels or a clean towel. Carefully squeeze out the air and refrigerate in a vegetable towel or bag. This process may delay (but not prevent) rotting. The idea is to reduce both water and oxygen, two promoters of deterioration.

The ethylene gas that is given off by some fruits, such as ripe apples and bananas, helps to quicken the *ripening* process. To hasten the ripening of underripe fruits and vegetables, place an apple or very ripe banana nearby or in a brown paper bag.

Berries, citrus fruits, cherries, dates and grapes should be picked when they are ripe and ready to eat, as they will not ripen any further. This is because the plants contain the ripening substances and sugars. When ripe, these fruits should be aromatic, juicy and plump for the best taste. They should be carefully stored and consumed within a few days.

Other fruits ripen only after they are picked, such as avocados. As avocados ripen, their color changes from green to black and their irregular skin slightly yields to the touch.

Apples, bananas, melons, peaches, persimmons, plums and tropical fruits continue to ripen and improve in sweetness after they are picked. Figs, kiwi fruit, mangoes and papayas will ripen in color, juiciness and texture once they are picked, but their aromas may not be as pronounced as when they are still on the trees. This is because the trees contain the aromatic compounds. Look for even color and slightly yielding texture as indicators of ripeness in these fruits [20,21].

VEGETABLES: COLOR PROBLEMS

Attention is given to color loss in vegetable cooking earlier in this chapter. There is additional information in Chapters 3 and 7. In summary, heat may cause bright green vegetables to lose their color during cooking.

Quick cooking and the least exposure to water or other fluids are recommended. Furthermore, acidic ingredients, such as citrus juice, tomatoes and vinegar, should be withheld during the very last minutes to help avert color loss.

The firm cellular structures of some vegetables are vulnerable to both heat and acids. Raw green vegetables are less affected than cooked vegetables because their protective cell walls have not been exposed to heat. If green vegetables are cut into small pieces to facilitate faster cooking, this may help retain the phytochemical *chlorophyll*, the source of their bright green color.

Potatoes and onions may turn a brownish-yellow when cooked with alkaline ingredients, such as egg whites, or in certain metal pots, such as aluminum or iron. This reaction may be due to the *flavonoids* in potatoes and onions, plant substances with antioxidant properties. More information about flavonoids is found in Chapter 7. An acidic ingredient, such as cream of tartar, lemon juice or vinegar, may be added to help neutralize the alkaline environment in which these vegetables are cooked and prevent discoloration. Acidic tomatoes, chili peppers and/or onions may also help to prevent avocados from turning brown in guacamole.

Other colorful *photochemicals*, or plant compounds that undergo the effects of cooking, include *anthocyanins*, *betalains* and *carotenoids*:

- Anthocyanins, found in ruddy cherries, red and purple grapes, red cabbage, walnuts and wine, tend to lose their color rapidly during cooking. Like bright green vegetables with chlorophyll, fruits and vegetables with anthocyanins should be quickly cooked with little exposure to water or other fluids.
Red cabbage loses its color and turns green in some sauces because of two chemical reactions: one that produces a blue pigment and one that produces a yellow pigment. When these two pigments combine, they produce a blue-green color. To prevent this reaction, a little acidic lemon juice or vinegar may be added to the cabbage. Likewise, a little acidic buttermilk or yogurt may be added to cherries or walnuts during baking to help prevent their discoloration.
- Betalains, found in purple-red beets, rapidly stain other ingredients. To prevent staining, once beets are cooked, they should be carefully dried and added last to other ingredients.
If beets are marinated in an acidic ingredient, such as lemon juice or vinegar, it may darken their color. The reverse is true with grapes: the longer grapes are immersed in a sauce or dressing, the greater the chance that they will lose their color.
- Carotenoids, found in brightly colored orange and red fruits and vegetables, such as carrots, tomatoes, pumpkins and sweet potatoes, generally retain their color unless they are overcooked.

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FATS: CURDLING AND SEPARATING PROBLEMS

One of the features of fats is that they can hold dissimilar ingredients in a suspension or emulsion. To understand this notable feat, one must first recognize a solution. A *solution* is a uniform mixture of two or more substances: a *dissolving agent* and a *solvent*, such as water (dissolving agent) and sugar (solvent). The components of a solution are microscopic atoms, ions and/or molecules.

In a *suspension*, the solvent components are larger than the microscopic components of a solution. They may be evenly distributed by mechanical means, such as agitation, but the solvent components may eventually settle out.

An *emulsion* is a mixture of two or more liquids that normally do not mix, such as vinegar and oil in a vinaigrette. Emulsions usually require an emulsifier or they may separate. *Hollandaise sauce*, a classic emulsified sauce, will curdle or separate if it is not made “just right.” Suspensions and emulsions are explained in greater detail earlier in this chapter and in Chapter 6.

If an emulsified sauce begins to curdle, remove the saucepan from the heat source. Lower the temperature by swirling an ice cube into the sauce. Discard the ice cube before it fully melts and vigorously beat (agitate) the sauce to bring it back to a suspension. While the sauce may be restored, it may still not be stable. If this does not bring the sauce back to suspension at all, one may need to redo the emulsifying process with dry, clean equipment.

Morsel “A meal is tasteless without a touch of fantasy.” —Erasmus (Dutch humanist, scholar and theologian, 1466?–1536)

If the sauce is not served immediately, keep it lukewarm (about 110°–120°F) by placing it in a hot water “bath” that is another pot of hot water (about 150 °F); then whisk it before using. If the sauce is refrigerated, it must first be brought to room temperature before it is gently warmed by using a hot water bath.

SERVE IT FORTH

Sensory science plays a very important role in what we choose to eat and drink. In fact, there are institutions throughout the world that study its interdisciplinary relationship with food and nutrition in matters of disease, health, pollution, safety and security.

The Monell Chemical Senses Center, established in 1968 in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, is one such nonprofit, independent, scientific institution. It conducts interdisciplinary research on taste, smell, chemical-sensory (chemosensory) irritation, and flavor.

The six major areas of research at Monell are sensation and perception, neuroscience and molecular biology, environmental and occupational health, nutrition and appetite, chemical ecology and communications, and health and well-being.

- Research in sensation and perception shows how humans recognize, distinguish and respond to chemical irritants, odors and tastes in our environment. It also demonstrates how age, experience, the environment, gender and genetics influence our senses.
- Research at the molecular level provides information about the chemicals in odors and tastes. These chemicals trigger electrical signals that are used by the central nervous system, including the brain.
- Research on environmental and occupational health explores the effects of chemicals in the environment, our home and work on our well-being.
- Research in nutrition and appetite investigates food and flavor throughout the human life cycle. It looks at how the chemicals in odors and tastes affect appetite, diabetes, digestion, metabolism and obesity.
- Research in chemical ecology and communications assesses the roles of chemical signals in human reproduction and communication. It also studies birds and reptiles to help protect endangered species and to minimize crop damage.
- Research in health and well-being examines sensory dysfunction and its effects on human lives.

Anyone who is “cooking up” new aromas, flavors, tastes and textures needs to be aware of the Monell Chemical Senses Center and other institutions throughout the world where similar research is performed. Nutrition, food science and culinary professionals can then translate this research into ingredients, products, foods and beverages that are not only pleasing to the senses but healthy and tasteful, too.

The following three activities are designed to explore potential research at the Monell Chemical Senses Center. While they are fictitious, they demonstrate the many possibilities that could materialize.

Three additional activities can be found within the *Culinary Nutrition* website at www.culinarynutrition.elsevier.com.

1. *Sensation and perception*: It has been said that “no food is consumed unless it tastes good, and no food is nutritious unless it is consumed.” You have been asked to design a new food with sensory appeal for children who are picky eaters. It should appeal to each of the five basic senses. Which food will you design and why? How will this food be tested for sensory satisfaction? Which elements of food science, nutrition and the culinary arts will be incorporated in testing?
2. *Neuroscience and molecular biology*: The brain is a communications network that operates through chemical messengers. This is where smell and taste are registered and identified. You have been charged with the responsibility of developing a new beverage that appeals to teenage senses of smell and taste. It should appeal to each of the five tastes. There are many scents, and they are difficult to categorize like tastes. Which beverage will you design and why? How will this beverage be tested for smell and taste? Which elements of food science, nutrition and the culinary arts are incorporated in this design?
3. *Environmental and occupational health*: Chemicals in our environment, home and work may have both short- and long-term effects on our well-being. You have been given the task of developing guidelines

for cooking and storing foods to minimize food waste (which is a burden on our environment). Which guidelines in this chapter would you include? Which elements of food science, nutrition and the culinary arts are integrated in these guidelines?

WHAT'S COOKING?

1. Acids in foods and food colors

Objectives

- To test foods for acidity
- To see how acidity affects the color of food

Materials

One half of one red cabbage, saucepan, hot water, clean pitcher, sieve, three ceramic or glass jars or bowls, measuring spoons, lemon juice, plain yogurt, white vinegar

Procedure

1. Tear the cabbage into small pieces.
2. Put the pieces into the saucepan.
3. Pour enough boiling water to cover.
4. Let the mixture cool for about one hour.
5. Pour the cabbage water through a sieve into a clean pitcher. (The cabbage can be discarded.)
6. Note the color of the cabbage water on the Data Sheet like the one that follows.
7. Divide and pour the cabbage water equally into the three ceramic or glass bowls.
8. Add 2 tablespoons of lemon juice to one of the bowls. Note the color on the Data Sheet.
9. Add 2 tablespoons of plain yogurt to the second bowl. Note the color on the Data Sheet.
10. Add 2 tablespoons of white vinegar to the third bowl. Note the color on the Data Sheet.

Evaluation

- Why are ceramic or glass bowls or jars used?
- Compare and contrast the colors of the three solutions.
- Why were each of these substances used?
- What does this exercise demonstrate about the acids in foods and food colors, particularly the red color of the cabbage?

Culinary applications

What guidelines should be followed when experimenting with acids in food product or recipe production? (Consider equipment, ingredients and techniques.)

Data Sheet

Contents of Ceramic or Glass Bowl or Jar	Color
#1: Cabbage water <i>plus</i> lemon juice	
#2: Cabbage water <i>plus</i> yogurt	
#3: Cabbage water <i>plus</i> white vinegar	

2. Alkalis in foods and food colors

Objectives

- To test foods for alkalis
- To see how alkalinity affects the color of food

Materials

One-half of one red cabbage, saucepan, boiling water, sieve, clean pitcher, four ceramic or glass jars or bowls, measuring spoons, cooking water from boiled vegetables, liquids from canned vegetables, cream of tartar, egg white

Procedure

1. Tear the cabbage into small pieces.
2. Put the pieces into the saucepan.
3. Pour enough boiling water to cover.
4. Let the mixture cool for about one hour.

5. Pour the cabbage water through a sieve into a clean pitcher. (The cabbage can be discarded.)
6. Note the color of the cabbage water on the Data Sheet like the one that follows.
7. Divide the cabbage water among the four ceramic or glass jars or bowls.
8. Add 2 tablespoons of boiled vegetable liquid to one of the jars or bowls.
9. Note the color on the Data Sheet.
10. Add 2 tablespoons of canned vegetable liquid to the second jar or bowl.
11. Note the color on the Data Sheet.
12. Add 1 tablespoon of cream of tartar to the third jar or bowl.
13. Note the color on the Data Sheet.
14. Add one egg white to the fourth bowl.
15. Note the color on the Data Sheet.

Evaluation

- Why are ceramic or glass bowls or jars used?
- Compare and contrast the colors of the four solutions.
- Why were each of these particular substances used?
- What does this exercise demonstrate about alkalis in foods and food colors, particularly the red color of the cabbage?

Culinary applications

What guidelines should be followed when experimenting with alkalis in food product or recipe production? (Consider equipment, ingredients and techniques.)

Data Sheet

Contents of Ceramic or Glass Bowl or Jar	Color
Cabbage water <i>plus</i> boiled vegetable liquid	
Cabbage water <i>plus</i> canned vegetable liquid	
Cabbage water <i>plus</i> cream of tartar	
Cabbage water <i>plus</i> egg white	

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3. Taste tests: the five basic tastes

Objective

- To determine the way that foods taste on the tongue and inside the mouth

Materials

Powdered sugar, powdered coffee, powdered lemon candy (crushed with a rolling pin between two sheets of waxed paper or in a food processor), fine salt, powdered dry mushrooms (available in the herb and spice section of a supermarket or pulverize dry mushrooms in a food processor), water

Procedure

1. Wash your hands.
2. Dip one finger into one of the powders and dab it on your tongue, the roof of your mouth, and the inside of your cheeks.
3. Note the taste or lack of taste on the Data Sheet like the one that follows.
4. Rinse your hands and mouth with water.
5. Repeat the procedure with each of the remaining powders, rinsing your hands and mouth with water between each tasting. *Only put your finger once into each powder.* Record each of your observations on the Data Sheet.

Evaluation

- Identify each of the basic tastes and where you perceive them inside of your mouth. (You may not taste some of the powders at all.)
- Compare the intensity of the tastes at different points throughout your mouth.
- What does this exercise demonstrate about the basic tastes?

Culinary applications

What guidelines should be followed when experimenting with basic tastes in food product or recipe production? (Consider equipment, ingredients and techniques.)

Data Sheet

Substances	Basic Tastes	Taste on Tongue	Taste on Roof of Mouth	Taste on Inside of Cheeks
Powdered sugar				
Powdered coffee				
Powdered lemon candy				
Fine salt				
Powdered/pulverized dry mushrooms				

4. Taste tests: sugar and sugar substitutes

Note: Do not do this exercise if you have sensitivity to sugar substitutes.

Objective

- To determine how sugar and sugar substitutes taste on the tongue and inside the mouth.

Materials

Powdered sugar, variety of powdered sugar substitutes (at least 3), water

Procedure

1. Wash your hands.
 2. Dip one finger into one of the powdered sugar substitutes and dab it on your tongue, the roof of your mouth, and the inside of your cheeks.
 3. Note the taste or lack of taste and any other effects on the Data Sheet like the one that follows.
 4. Rinse your hands and mouth with water.
 5. Repeat the procedure with each of the remaining powdered sugar substitutes, rinsing your hands and mouth with water between each tasting. *Only put your finger once into each powdered sugar substitute.*
- Record each of your observations on the Data Sheet.

Evaluation

- Try to identify each of the tastes and where you taste them inside of your mouth. (You may not taste some of these powdered sugar substitutes at all. If not, then why?)
- Compare the intensity of each of their tastes at different points throughout your mouth.
- What does this exercise show about the basic taste of sugar compared to each of these powdered sugar substitutes?

Culinary applications

What guidelines should be followed when experimenting with powdered sugar substitutes in food product or recipe production? (Consider equipment, ingredients and techniques.)

Data Sheet

Substances	Basic Tastes	Taste on Tongue	Taste on Roof of Mouth	Taste on Inside of Cheeks
Sugar substitute #1				
Sugar substitute #2				
Sugar substitute #3				
Others . . .				

5. Smell tests: jelly beans**Objective**

- To test the recognition of odor and flavor with and without the help of the nose

Materials

Three different colored and flavored jelly beans, water

Procedure

1. Wash your hands.
2. Place the three jelly beans on a table or counter in front of you.
3. Pinch your nose shut with one hand.
4. Put one jelly bean into your mouth; chew it well and swallow it. (Do not take your fingers off your nose.)

5. Release your fingers. Note the taste or lack thereof on the Data Sheet like the one that follows.
6. Rinse your mouth with water.
7. Pinch your nose shut with one hand.
8. Place the second jelly bean into your mouth.
9. When the jelly bean is partially chewed, remove your finger from your right nostril; continue to hold your left nostril shut.
10. Reverse nostrils; hold your right nostril shut and open your left nostril. Continue to chew the jelly bean.
11. When the jelly bean is well chewed, swallow it. Note the taste or lack thereof on the Data Sheet.
12. Rinse your mouth with water.
13. Pinch your nose shut with one hand
14. Begin to chew the third jelly bean. When it is partially chewed, remove your fingers from both nostrils.
15. Continue to chew the jelly bean and swallow it. Note the taste or lack thereof on the Data Sheet like the one that follows.

Evaluation

- What is the flavor (or lack of flavor) after eating the first jelly bean?
- Does the flavor change as you alternate nostrils while you are chewing the second jelly bean?
- If so, which nostril is more dominant? *This may indicate if you are right- or left-handed.*
- Notice if the flavor changes when you release both fingers from your nose while you eat the third jelly bean.
- What does this exercise show you about the interaction between taste and smell for each of these procedures?

Culinary applications

What guidelines should be followed when experimenting with taste and smell in food product or recipe production? (Consider equipment, ingredients and techniques.)

Data Sheet

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Taste after Chewing	Taste after Opening Right Nostril	Taste After Opening Left Nostril	Taste After Opening Both Nostrils
Jelly bean #1			
Jelly bean #2			
Jelly bean #3			

6. Appearance, smell and taste tests: white fruits and vegetables

Objective

- To determine how important the sense of sight is in taste perception

Materials

White potato, apple, turnip, knife, peeler, cutting board, small cup, water

Procedure

1. Wash your hands.
2. Peel the potato, apple and turnip; then cut them into the same-sized cubes.
3. Place one of each of the cubes in a small cup. (It is fine if the cubes are mixed inside the cup.)¹
4. Repeat Exercise #5 above, including your observations and evaluations on the Data Sheet like the one that follows. Use the cut-up fruit and vegetables instead of the jelly beans.

Evaluation

- Complete the evaluations as in Exercise #5 above.
- Now that color has been removed as a sensory factor and the fruit and vegetables are all white, what does this exercise tell you about the interactions among appearance, smell and taste?

Culinary applications

What guidelines should be followed when experimenting with appearance in food product or recipe production? (Consider equipment, ingredients and techniques.)

¹Note: It is safe to taste the raw potato and turnip. If you have never tasted either of these vegetables, then you should taste them before you proceed so you will know what tastes to expect.

OVER EASY

This chapter featured the significance of food science and its applications to nutrition and the culinary arts. If foods and beverages are studied at their basic levels—molecules of carbohydrates, lipids, proteins and water—this information can be applied to the techniques and principles of cooking and baking. This chapter on food science basics and the chapters on nutrition basics and culinary arts basics illustrate the interdisciplinary nature of these disciplines.

Paramount to foods looking, smelling and tasting great is the field of sensory science. When a person remarks that something “tastes” good, they are usually referring to its flavors. These may be combinations of appearance, smell, taste, texture and other considerations. Flavors may be masked, heightened or decreased by manipulating these factors.

Carbohydrates, lipids, proteins and water behave in certain ways in cooking and baking, depending on the configuration of their molecules. These unique designs must be taken into account in food product and recipe development.

For instance, carbohydrates with their starches, sugars and fibers serve to bulk, gel, provide texture and thicken. Lipids, including fats and oils, are immiscible in water unless they are aided by emulsifiers. Lipids also decompose and melt in different environments. Proteins with their amino acids help to brown foods and create distinct tastes. They also act as enzymes, coagulate and denature, which affects their performance in certain foods and beverages. Water acts as a solvent and a weak acid and base, and it is also inherent to steaming.

Foods and beverages also react as they do under a variety of circumstances. They form emulsions and participate in enzymatic reactions and the Maillard reaction, transfer heat and are affected or affect temperature, time and texture.

Meats, dairy products, fruits and vegetables, legumes, grains and fats react differently, depending on their chemical compositions. Recipes are contingent upon their reactions and may succeed or fail.

Once ingredients or techniques are used incorrectly and/or perform poorly, then some recipes may fail. Other recipes may be repaired. Too much or too little salt, fat, sugar or liquid may be to blame. Appearance, caramelization, color dissipation, curdling, deterioration, filming, gelling, gluten formation, overcooking, reduction, retrogradation, ripening, separation and staling may also be responsible—and often fixable.

This chapter concludes with different scenarios that depict a fictitious day in the life of a food scientist and thought-provoking reviews of molecular gastronomy and biotechnology. In summary, this chapter unites the essence of food science and technology with the creativity of the culinary arts as they relate to nutrition and health. It lays the groundwork for what may come.

CHECK PLEASE

1. Beer, coffee, deep leafy greens, rosemary, walnuts, and wine are characteristic of the _____ taste in foods.
 - a. umami
 - b. salty
 - c. sweet
 - d. acidic
 - e. bitter
2. A mixture of celery, carrots, and onions that is fundamental to cooking flavor is called:
 - a. bouquet garni
 - b. fine herbs
 - c. mirepoix
 - d. quatre epices
 - e. gremolata

3. The carbohydrate-like substance that is extracted from apples and citrus fruits to help thicken syrups is called:
- gum
 - jelly
 - starch
 - pectin
 - sugar

ESSAY QUESTION

1. A cream sauce has curdled. Why did this happen? Can it be fixed? If so, how? What can be done to help prevent other sauces from curdling?

For additional questions, please see the *Culinary Nutrition* website at www.culinarynutrition.elsevier.com

HUNGRY FOR MORE?

American Chemical Society <http://portal.acs.org/portal/acs/corg/content>

Institute of Food Technology <http://www.ift.org>

Monell Chemical Senses Center <http://www.monell.org>

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TAKE AWAY

Molecular Gastronomy

The term *molecular gastronomy* is credited to Hungarian physicist Nicholas Kurti and French chemist Hervé This. They applied food science to explain and solve culinary issues. Old kitchen tales and cooking tips were collected and tested to support their principles. As a result of their curiosities, a new area of discussion, practice and study emerged: molecular gastronomy.

Molecular gastronomy, or progressive cuisine, is a movement that incorporates science and new techniques in the preparation, transformation and artistic presentation of food. It is the study of molecules as they relate to the chemical and physical processes of cooking.

By discovering the food science behind cooking, molecular gastronomy is able to explain why some recipes fail and others succeed and which ingredients and techniques are optimal.

Molecular gastronomy is sometimes referred to as *culinary alchemy*—a precursor of food chemistry but with fewer scientific roots. The concept of using

Morsel “The qualities of an exceptional cook are akin to those of a successful tight-rope walker: an abiding passion for taste, courage to go out on a limb, and an impeccable sense of balance.”—Bryan Miller (cookbook author, food writer and former *New York Times* restaurant critic)

food chemistry techniques to study food and cooking is far from modern; it dates back to the eighteenth century. Marie-Antoine Carême, a famous French chef, was an early molecular gastronomer who wrote carefully detailed essays about culinary pleasures, fusions of ingredients and functional techniques. It was not until the close of the twenty-first century and the years that followed that the integration of food technology with the culinary arts became a justifiable field of study in its own right.

Throughout the years, chefs, food scientists and nutritionists have grappled with the issues that surround and integrate the culinary arts, food science and nutrition. Some prominent food scientists and authorities on the chemistry of food and the art of cooking include Harold McGee, renowned author of *On Food and Cooking: The Science and Lore of the Kitchen* (Scribner, 2004); research biochemist and food writer Shirley Corriher, author of *CookWise: The Hows and Whys of Successful Cooking* (Morrow, 2007) and *BakeWise: The Hows and Whys of Successful Baking* (Scribner, 2008); and Hervé This, the French physical chemist who devised the idea of molecular gastronomy and authored *Molecular Gastronomy: Exploring the Science of Flavor* and *Kitchen Mysteries: Revealing the Science of Cooking* (Columbia University Press, 2007).

Modern investigators and experimenters of molecular gastronomy include chefs such as Ferran Adrià and Heston Blumenthal. Ferran Adrià was the celebrated executive chef of El Bulli restaurant in Roses, Spain, on the Costa Brava. Heston Blumenthal was the chef/owner of The Fat Duck in the village of Bray in Berkshire, England. (Both restaurants have since closed.) Their innovative culinary practices and high regard for food science were distinguished in their equally innovative cooking. They examined how cooking methods, the environmental context of a meal, ingredients, and the senses powerfully impact the dining experience.

Today's notable chefs of molecular gastronomy include Wylie Dufresne, the chef/owner of wd~50 restaurant in New York City, and chef/restaurateur Grant Achatz of Alinea and Next restaurants in Chicago, Illinois.

Some techniques of modern molecular gastronomy include flash-freezing, froth, meat glue and spherification. Flash-freezing is a process by which the exteriors of foods are quickly frozen with the help of liquid nitrogen. It sometimes leaves liquefied centers. Froth was once a sauce that was converted into foam by the use of a whipped cream canister. Sometimes lecithin acts as a stabilizer. Meat glue is transglutaminase, a substance that binds different proteins together. Spherification is achieved when liquidized foods are mixed with sodium alginate and then bathed in calcium chloride, which creates multiple spheres with liquid centers.

What's next for molecular gastronomy? As budding food science, nutrition and culinary arts professionals, it may be yours for the calling.

This chapter serves as a foundation for molecular gastronomy, similar to the way Chapter 1 serves as a foundation for nutrition and Chapter 3 serves as a foundation for the culinary arts.

You have seen how different foods and beverages are prepared; how various ingredients alter the chemical, physical and sensory qualities of foods; and how the artistic and social aspects of consumption interact to achieve the overall satisfaction of a meal. All this and more had its roots in the old kitchen tales and cooking tips that Nicholas Kurti and Hervé This first explored.

Biotechnology

Biotechnology, or *genetic engineering*, is a discipline that addresses the relationship between biology and technology. It explores biological concepts and their technical applications in order to create or modify products and processes.

Biotechnology includes such subjects as biochemistry, cellular biology, chemical engineering, embryology, genetics, information technology, molecular biology and robotics. While the early focus of biotechnology was on food processing and agriculture, a portion of the focus of biotechnology today is on DNA and gene transfer and their applications in food production.

Where do nutrition, food science and culinary professionals fit into the biotechnology picture? It is in a collaborative manner, through collective knowledge and decision making.

The most practical use of biotechnology today is the cultivation of plants to produce food that is not only suitable but is superior for human consumption. Because biotechnology seeks to engineer or modify organisms for humankind, biotechnology may have major impacts on plants and food crops, including food availability, food choices and human consumption.

The justification for the use of biotechnology includes potential for the enhanced appearance of foods, decreased resistance to environmental stresses, heightened taste and textures, increased formulations of innovative substances, boosted crops and yields, improved nutritional values and reduced reliance on fertilizers and pesticides. Two historic examples of biotechnology in action are the Flavr Savr™ tomato and *golden rice*.

THE FLAVR SAVR™ TOMATO

The *Flavr Savr*™ tomato was the first commercially grown, genetically modified food that was licensed for human consumption. It was produced in the early 1990s by Calgene Inc., a biotechnology company based out of Davis, California. Calgene developed genetically engineered plants and plant products for the food, oleo and seed chemical industries. The company was later acquired by the Monsanto Company. After evaluating the Flavr Savr™ tomato in 1992, the FDA concluded that processing the Flavr Savr™ tomato was as safe as a tomato that was conventionally bred.

The benefit of the Flavr Savr™ tomato was its resistance to rotting. This was achieved by modifying the tomato with a gene that blocked the production of an enzyme that caused the tomato to rot. This enzyme was responsible for the softening of the tomato's cell wall during ripening.

The Flavr Savr™ tomato replaced artificially ripened tomatoes that used ethylene gas for ripening. Ethylene gas acts as a plant hormone. Flavr Savr™ tomatoes could ripen on the vine, which improved their flavor, and they had a longer shelf life without rotting. Special labeling was not warranted because its features resembled nongenetically modified tomatoes, including their nutritional values. There appeared to be no evidence for health risks.

Concerns that were raised were not necessarily about the safety of *eating* the Flavr Savr™ tomatoes but more about the risks of *mass cultivation* of gene-carrying materials and other public safety issues.

Unfortunately, the Flavr Savr™ tomato failed. Its failure was attributed more to inexperience in the growing and shipping of Flavr Savr™ tomatoes than these public health concerns.

Flavr Savr™ tomato production was 25 to 50 percent that of other tomato growers; ripe Flavr Savr™ tomatoes were more delicate to process and ship than unripe fruits and vegetables, and Flavr Savr™ tomatoes were undersized to command premium prices. A newer, conventionally bred long shelf life (LSL) tomato ultimately led to Flavr Savr's™ demise [24].

GOLDEN RICE™

Golden rice™ was developed in the 1990s in Europe through the combined research of the Swiss Federal Institute of Technology and the University of Freiburg in Germany. Like the Flavr Savr™ tomato, golden rice was a major advancement in biotechnology.

Golden rice™ was designed to produce beta-carotene, an antioxidant and the precursor or originator of vitamin A. Beta-carotene is a pigment in the carotenoid family of plant chemicals that is responsible for the yellow-orange-red colors in foods, particularly fruits and vegetables. Vitamin A is responsible for eyesight and normal growth and development, among its other vital functions.

Over half of the world's population is dependent on rice as its mainstay, but the endosperm of white rice is mostly carbohydrate. The fact that golden rice could naturally produce beta-carotene with the help of genetic modification meant that many areas of the world could benefit by its consumption.

Like Flavr Savr™ tomatoes, golden rice is no longer available. Although it was initially developed as a product to help humanity, it met with significant resistance from antibiotechnological, antiglobal and environmental activists.

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Culinary Arts Basics: Healthy Cooking Fundamentals

The Culinary Competencies of Healthy Food Selection, Preparation and Food Service

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OBJECTIVES

1. Identify the components of healthy kitchens, including equipment, tools and ingredients
2. Identify the components of healthy meals, including meal plans, composition, recipes and layout
3. Adapt standard cooking and baking methods and techniques to healthful standards
4. Demonstrate how to convert recipes by reducing, substituting and/or replacing ingredients
5. Create new, healthy recipes based on current nutrition recommendations
6. Adapt common recipes for specialized dietary needs
7. Describe how to retain and build flavor with less fat, sugar and sodium
8. Choose economical healthy food and beverages choices
9. Use the principles of basic food safety in food handling and production
10. Compare slow food to fast food and its effect on diet, health and the environment

INTRODUCTION: HEALTHY CHOICES IN FOODS AND FOOD SERVICE

Restaurants, school and hospital cafeterias, catering and food service operations in businesses, and institutions and companies provide billions of meals and snacks annually. Having healthy options on menus can be beneficial for the food service industry in sales and customer satisfaction and for customers who want and need healthy food and beverage choices.

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Morsel “Cooking is, for me, the perfect balance of art and science. There’s that creative endeavor within you that can think out the seasons and the flavor profiles. Then there’s the scientific part—what is actually going on with the whisk? If I’m blanching broccoli, why is it turning brown in the pan? As you study that, you learn that sometimes if you cook a lot of vegetables in the same water, an acid will develop. And if you cook a green vegetable in that acidic water, it’s going to turn army brown. So these are things you start to learn through science.”

—Gary Danko (James Beard Foundation award-winning chef and restaurateur)

The food service industry is an industry of choice, which means that most menus are influenced by consumer demand. To cater to increasingly health-conscious diners, food service operations are adding nutritious options to fit individual dietary needs and preferences.

Nutrition, food science and culinary professionals need to be equipped with the knowledge, techniques and tools to address the rapidly changing nutrition and health interests of the dining public. Nutritional science produces the research that helps drive nutrition recommendations. Food science creates the ingredients to help meet these recommendations.

The culinary arts utilize nutrition recommendations and ingredients to create nutritious recipes and healthy menus. By working together, these three disciplines can meet the rapidly changing nutrition and health needs of the consuming public.

Some food service establishments already meet consumer nutrition and health needs and preferences by customizing their menus and offering salad dressings or sauces on the side; cooking in vegetable oils rather than butter; and substituting starchy side dishes, such as potatoes or rice, with vegetables or fruit.

An increasing number of food service establishments already provide nutrition information on menus, posters, table tents, brochures and websites to promote nutritious and healthy restaurant-branded lifestyle programs.

Other food service institutions may be slow to change due to economics, location, size, tradition and a host of other factors. Still, they may be challenged by consumer demand for healthy and great tasting foods and beverages.

This chapter provides the rationale and resources that are needed, along with convincing hands-on exercises in healthy recipe conversions, menu development and flavor enhancement, plus kitchen makeovers, food economics and food safety.

MAIN COURSES

The Healthy Kitchen

If it is true that “you are what you eat,” then a professional or home kitchen should reflect one’s eating style. Deep fryers, meat slicers, ice cream machines, large roasting pans, gravy separators, candy thermometers, soda dispensers and other equipment of this nature may have fewer purposes in a healthy kitchen.

A healthy kitchen should be stocked with basic cooking and baking equipment (as described later in this chapter), plus other equipment and tools that make healthy cooking easier. These include such items as a cast-iron skillet, food mill, juicer, nonstick pots and pans, portion scoop, salad spinner, silicone baking sheets and wok.

Healthy cooking techniques, such as baking, broiling, reducing, searing, steaming and sweating are slowly replacing boiling, braising, char-grilling, creaming, deep and shallow frying and stewing, which tend to add fat and calories and decrease vital nutrients. However, some of these techniques can be adapted for healthier results.

Consumers “want to have their cake and eat it, too.” While consumers are increasingly concerned about health, they still enjoy the pleasures that desserts and baked goods provide. Obesity, cardiovascular disease and diabetes restrict some people from enjoying traditional desserts and breadstuffs. Healthy desserts and baked items provide new tastes and textures and may be equally satisfying.

Food allergies and sensitivities to dairy products, eggs, certain flours and tree nuts may also prevent consumers from enjoying their favorite savory and sweet foods and beverages. Recipes and menus designed especially for allergic consumers can be found in Chapter 9.

In the process of making savory and sweet foods healthier, some ingredient adjustments, eliminations or substitutions may be essential. However, cooking and baking are exacting exercises in food science. Ingredients such as fat, salt and sugar have specific functions in recipes. Reducing or eliminating any one of these ingredients may cause a recipe to fail. A solid understanding of ingredient functions and reactions is essential before recipes can be adapted to make them healthier. The characteristics of some basic ingredients are featured in this chapter, with applications for healthy cooking and baking.

Making a recipe or meal healthier does not guarantee that consumers will choose to eat or enjoy it. Taste rules! This chapter addresses how to make foods that are “good for you” good to eat, too. The sensory aspects of foods and beverages and flavor enhancement address these issues.

There is also information about how to stock a healthy pantry, refrigerator and freezer and the proportion of foods and beverages that constitute a healthy plate and a healthy meal. Creating a healthy kitchen requires a new mindset: a fresh way of looking at how the nutrients in foods and beverages can be maximized for good health. This chapter provides the initiative.

Healthy Food

Foods should not be labeled good or bad, nutritious or unhealthy. Most foods and beverages can be occasionally consumed in a healthy diet because it is the overall effects of the diet that count. Some foods and beverages are considered more nutritious and health-enhancing, as determined by the US government and various health associations (see Chapter 1).

Table 3-1 defines the word “healthy” and how it can be used on food packaging. When these nutritious foods and beverages provide the backbone of a meal, there may be room for some “discretionary foods”: foods with more calories, fat, sugar or sodium than desired. All foods can fit; it is simply a matter of proportion, which will soon be evident.

TABLE 3-1 The US Food and Drug Administration Implied Nutrient Content Claim for Healthy

According to the FDA, the term *healthy* and related terms (*health*, *healthful*, *healthfully*, *healthfulness*, *healthier*, *healthiest*, *healthily* and *healthiness*) are considered Implied Nutrient Content Claims and may be used on food packing *if* the food meets the following requirements:

- Low-fat: <5 grams total fat/serving or per 100 grams
- Low saturated fat: <2 grams saturated fat/serving or per 100 grams
- ≤480 milligrams sodium/serving or per 50 grams if serving size is small
- ≤95 milligrams cholesterol per serving or per 100 grams
- At least 10% of the Daily Value for vitamins A, C, calcium, iron, protein or fiber
- Fortification according to FDA guidelines

Source: [1].

Morsel “A cook can never rise above his ingredients.”
—Anonymous

The Healthy Pantry, Refrigerator and Freezer

The number of healthy foods and beverages continues to grow. In 2012, the food industry confirmed that healthy eating is a critically important consumer “driver” and that it has considerable influence over company strategies.

According to food and beverage trends, although US consumers want foods to be healthy, they often do not purchase healthy foods or are unwilling to pay the prices for healthy foods. Some consumers do not even know what the term *healthy* really means [2]. This is due, in part, to increased interest in nutrition and healthy diets across many socioeconomic levels; the organic food movement; more local and regional growers; and the availability of global ingredients. Healthy foods and beverages now appear on many local grocers’ shelves, as well as those in national giant supermarket chains.

This section provides an overview of the ingredients, foods and beverages that are considered to be *healthy* according to the above criteria. In addition, they are nutrient-dense compared to calorie-dense, which means that they contain a large amount of nutrients relative to calories in one serving. Some of these ingredients, foods and beverages are also high in disease-fighting nutrients, including antioxidants and phytonutrients. Brand names are not included.

THE HEALTHY PANTRY

A *pantry* is a storeroom for nonperishable items, such as bottled, canned and packaged goods. A healthy pantry contains the items that can help to transform ordinary-tasting dish into gratifying ones. Pantry items include baking supplies, beverages, condiments, fruits, grains, herb, spices and extracts, legumes, nuts and seeds, oils, protein, soups, vegetables and shelf-stable beverages, such as those that follow.

Baking Supplies

Some of these baking supplies help to thicken foods and beverages, although some can naturally thicken on their own from reduction, evaporation, pureeing and other processes. Others are important for leavening in various savory and sweet applications.

- Arrowroot
- Baking powder
- Baking soda
- Cream of tartar
- Sourdough starter
- Starches: arrowroot, corn, potato, tapioca
- Quick-rising yeast

Beverages

Coffee, tea and some alcoholic beverages, especially wine and beer, contain different degrees of antioxidants for their health-promoting abilities. Beer, wine and spirits can be used with discretion as a flavor enhancer in marinades, flambes and fondues and for leavening.

- Coffee: regular, decaffeinated and espresso beans and powder
- Tea: black, green and herbal
- Beer: ale, lager
- Spirits: brandy, gin, rum, tequila, vodka, whiskey
- Wine: red and white (drinking wine preferred, since cooking wine contains sodium)

FOOD BYTE

The French chef Auguste Escoffier (1846-1935) speaks of *condiments* in three classifications: fatty, hot and pungent. According to Escoffier, fatty condiments include a range of vegetable and animal fats, including avocados, butter, margarine, nuts, oils and olives. Hot condiments include chilies, hot sauce, mustard and wasabi. Pungent condiments include garlic, horseradish and onions. Condiments were and still are flavor enhancers; they still give food character and improve desirability—even in small amounts.

Condiments

Though often low in calories, condiments tend to be higher in sodium or sugar. They should be used sparingly for flavor enhancement. If they are required in a recipe, then the reduced versions should be used.

- Catsup: natural or reduced-sugar
- Chocolate: cocoa powder, bittersweet chocolate
- Horseradish: wasabi, white
- Mayonnaise: nonfat and reduced-fat
- Mustard: Dijon, honey-mustard, reduced-sodium
- Pepper: black, cayenne, green
- Salt: kosher, sea salt
- Sauces: hot sauce, reduced-sodium soy sauce or tamari, salsa
- Sweeteners: honey, light brown sugar, maple syrup, molasses, raw sugar (demerara or turbinado)
- Vinegars: apple cider, balsamic, distilled white, red and white wine, rice

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Fruits

While fresh is usually best, canned and packaged fruits are a good source of vitamins and minerals and offer versatility in recipes. They provide taste and texture and can often be used to replace or reduce sugar and as a fat substitute.

- Applesauce: natural or reduced-sugar
- Canned fruit in 100 percent fruit juice
- Dried fruits: apricots, cranberries, currants, dates, figs, prunes, peaches, raisins
- Fruit spreads
- Olives
- 100 percent fruit juice
- Pureed prunes

Grains

It is wise to refrigerate whole grains once they are opened, since they quickly become rancid. Store whole grains in clearly labeled containers because many look similar, and store in a cool, dark location.

- Breadcrumbs: whole grain reduced-sodium and Japanese panko
- Breadstuffs: whole-grain bread sticks, crackers, croutons
- Cereals: whole-grain cold and hot cereals; oats and multigrain
- Grains and flours: whole-grain amaranth, barley, bulgur, cracked wheat, couscous, faro, yellow corn meal, job's tears, kamut, millet, oats, oat bran, quinoa, spelt, teff, triticale, unbleached all-purpose (AP), wheat berries, wheat bran, whole wheat and pastry flour

- Pasta: buckwheat noodles, gluten-free pasta, protein-fortified pasta, orzo, rice noodles, ramen noodles, 100 percent whole-grain, mixed whole-grain and durum wheat pasta
- Rice: brown, short and long grain white, wild, long cooking, and enriched and converted

Herbs, Spices and Extracts

Flavor enhancement depends on judicious use of salt, pepper, herbs, spices and extracts. A little bit of salt can make or break a dish that has been reduced in calories, fat and sugar. Tightly cover herbs and spices in a cool, dark location to retain their flavor (also see Chapter 9).

- Salt: kosher or sea
- Pepper: coarsely ground and pepper blends
- Dried herbs and spices including allspice, basil, cayenne pepper, chili powder, chives, cinnamon, crushed red pepper, cumin, dill, garlic, ginger, Italian seasoning blend, mustard, nutmeg, oregano, paprika, rosemary, tarragon leaves, thyme
- Flavor extracts including almond, anise, cherry, cinnamon, lemon, orange, peppermint and vanilla

Legumes

Dried beans, split peas and lentils and shelf-stable soy foods provide a wealth of inexpensive, nonperishable protein options. Legumes should be stored in airtight, clear containers to distinguish their varieties. Peanuts and peanut butter should be refrigerated once opened.

- Dry, packaged beans, split peas, lentils
- Canned beans in water: black, garbanzos, kidneys, lentils, limas, pinto and soy, among others
- Peanuts and peanut butter: reduced-fat and reduced-sodium
- Soy foods: shelf-stable tofu, tempeh, miso, soy “nuts,” texturized vegetable protein (TVP)

Nuts and Seeds

While higher in total fat, nuts and seeds are rich in monounsaturated fatty acids. They are meant to be used in moderation for taste, texture and garnish. Due to their fat content, nuts and seeds should be stored unopened in their original packaging or in tightly closed containers if in bulk, preferably refrigerated or frozen.

- Almonds, cashews, English walnuts, hazelnuts, macadamia nuts
- Pumpkin, poppy, sesame, sunflower seeds
- Nut and seed butters: almond, cashew, macadamia, tahini
- Reduced-fat coconut milk

Oils

Since oils are pure liquid fat, they should be tightly covered and stored in opaque containers in a cool, dark location to prevent rancidity. Once opened, oils can be refrigerated, but they may cloud and thicken. They should return to normal viscosity once at room temperature.

- Cooking sprays or pumps: nonfat canola, olive
- Neutral-tasting oils: canola or safflower
- Flavorful oils: extra-virgin olive, olive or peanut
- Oils with high smoke point: canola or peanut
- Finishing oils: sesame or walnut

Protein

Like legumes, some canned and packaged protein makes healthy additions to mostly vegetable dishes. Though some are higher in fat and sodium, others are packaged in water or tomato sauce. The little bones are high in calcium. Some dried beef or poultry may need reconstituting before use.

- Canned anchovies, sardines, tuna, salmon, minced clams; preferably in water
- Dried beef, poultry

Soups

Generally, canned and packaged soups are higher in sodium. There are products that contain 20 to 30 percent less sodium. Freshly made or frozen stock is ideal, but these reduced products provide a base that herbs and spices can enhance.

- Reduced-fat and reduced-sodium broth and bouillon
- Dried soup mixes

Vegetables

Mushrooms have an umami taste and meatlike texture that transforms many vegetable-based dishes. Store in individual portions in airtight containers with tightly fitting lids in a cool, dark and dry location. If they get damp, they will mildew or rot. Tomatoes are naturally high in sodium, and sodium is used in processing, so select reduced-sodium varieties.

- Mushrooms: all varieties of dried, especially black trumpet, chanterelle, morel, shiitake, porcini and portabella
- 100 percent reduced-sodium vegetable juice
- Tomato based: reduced-sodium whole and diced tomatoes, sun-dried tomatoes, tomato paste, tomato puree, tomato sauce

Shelf-Stable Dairy, Soy and Rice Beverages

Shelf-stable dairy, soy and grain beverages provide the capability to add a creamlike consistency to sauces and dressings. Look for the nonfat varieties for the least fat with the most protein. Once opened, these beverages should be refrigerated.

- Canned evaporated nonfat milk
- Evaporated nonfat dry milk
- Shelf-stable reduced-fat soy milk
- Shelf-stable rice milk

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THE HEALTHY REFRIGERATOR AND FREEZER

A refrigerator does not prevent food and beverage deterioration; rather, it delays it. A freezer is designed to stop bacterial action, since frozen bacteria should be inactivated. If packaged for refrigeration or freezing, most food should suffer minimal effects on taste or texture. Some frozen foods can be higher in nutrients than fresh foods.

Breads

The reason to refrigerate or freeze whole-grain breadstuffs is to prevent rancidity in the germ of the whole grains. Original bread wrappers are not adequately moisture-vapor resistant to be used for freezing. A freezer-weight polyethylene bag should be used instead.

- Whole-grain bagels, breads, English muffins, muffins, rolls, tortillas and others

Eggs

Eggs need to be refrigerated at a constant temperature in their original carton to protect them from absorbing flavors and odors. Raw foods should be separated from eggs. Raw eggs can be frozen whole, beaten and tightly sealed, as can egg whites. Egg yolks will likely gel or thicken unless they have salt or sugar added.

- Whole eggs, egg whites

Dairy Products

Dairy milk and other dairy products should be stored in their original sealed container in the coldest part of the refrigerator. At 38° to 40°F, this low temperature will slow bacterial growth, and the sealed container will

help to prevent contamination and the absorption of flavors from other foods. Choose nonfat and reduced-fat products most often.

- Skim or reduced-fat dairy milk
- Frozen nonfat or low-fat yogurt
- Nonfat and reduced-fat cream and half-and-half
- Nonfat or low-fat ice cream
- Part-skim ricotta or Neufchatel cheese
- Plain, nonfat or low-fat yogurt, sour cream or buttermilk
- Reduced-fat cheeses

Meat, Poultry, Fish and Seafood

Protein foods, unless dehydrated or canned, are very perishable. Protein foods should be refrigerated at 40°F or below soon after purchasing and placed on a tray or inside a storage container to ensure that their juices do not leak. Meat and poultry should be wrapped individually for freezing with freezer paper or freezer-proof plastic bags. These cuts are some of the leanest:

- Beef: Well-trimmed top bottom round, eye of round, sirloin tip, top round, top sirloin
- Fish: Most fish are lower in fat, especially saturated fat. Mackerel, salmon, sardines and trout are good sources of omega-3 fatty acids.
- Lamb: Arm, leg, loin
- Pork: Fresh center-cut ham, tenderloin, loin
- Poultry: Skinless white meat chicken and turkey
- Shellfish: Most shellfish are lower in fat. Some shellfish, such as lobster and shrimp, are higher in cholesterol.

Vegetables

Vegetables should be at their peak before refrigerating. Do not refrigerate garlic, onions, potatoes, pumpkins, squash or sweet potatoes, as this can affect their flavor.

Leafy green vegetables need refrigeration for cool temperature and high humidity; otherwise they may shrivel and lose their nutritional value. If the temperature is too high, they will freeze due to their high water content.

Sturdier vegetables should be blanched (steamed or boiled to destroy the enzymes that destroy flavor and nutritional value) before freezing. These vegetables are grouped according to their botanical families:

- Allium: chives, garlic, leeks, onions
- Cruciferous: broccoli, cauliflower, Brussels sprouts, cabbage
- Flowering green and yellow: artichokes, asparagus, beans, cucumber, okra, peas, squash
- Leafy greens: spinach, collards, beet, kale, spinach, Swiss chard, turnip
- Nightshade: tomatoes, peppers, eggplants
- Root: beets, carrots, celery root, jicama, parsnips, radishes, rutabagas, salsify, sweet potatoes, turnips, yams
- Squash: acorn, butternut, Hubbard, pumpkin, spaghetti squash
- Frozen vegetables: carrots, corn, onions, peas, mixed vegetables, spinach
- Other: mushrooms

Fruits

Like vegetables, allow fruit to fully ripen before refrigerating. Do not refrigerate avocados, bananas, mangos, papayas, pineapple or tomatoes, as this will affect their flavor. Sturdier fruits should be pared, pitted and seeded and treated with ascorbic acid (such as lemon juice) to prevent browning before freezing. These fruits are also grouped according to their botanical families:

- Berry: blackberries, blueberries, cranberries, currants, gooseberries, grapes, huckleberries, raspberries, strawberries

- Citrus: clementines, grapefruit, kumquats, lemons, limes, oranges, tangelos, tangerines
- Melon: cantaloupe, casaba, Crenshaw, honeydew, watermelon
- Pome: apples, avocados, pears
- Stone: apricots, cherries, nectarines, peaches, plums
- Tropical: bananas, guava, figs, kiwi, lychee, mangoes, papaya, persimmons, pineapple, star fruit
- 100 percent pure fruit juice
- 100 percent pure fruit sorbet
- Frozen fruits: berries, melons, stone fruits

Soy Foods

Fresh soy foods require refrigeration to preserve their protein and fat content. Soy dairy-free products should be handled like perishable dairy products. Follow the “use by” dates on containers. Freezing tofu makes it chewier with a meatier texture, but it may also become spongy and turn a yellowish hue if not properly wrapped.

- Miso, soy cheese, soy milk, soy yogurt, tempeh, tofu, texturized vegetable protein (TVP)

Bite on This: healthy choices of meat, poultry and fish

Healthy entrees should begin with the healthiest choices of meat, poultry and fish. These are the cuts with the lowest amount of calories, total fat, saturated fat and cholesterol that offer the highest amount of protein, minerals, vitamins and flavor.

High-fat meats contain about 100 calories, 8 or more grams of total fat, and 7 grams of protein per 1 ounce. Some poultry may be considered high-fat if its nutrients fall within these categories. High-fat meats include the following choices with 8 grams or more of total fat per 1 ounce. Some of these products are also made with less total fat, so check the Nutrition Facts Panel.

- Bacon: pork and turkey
- Hot dogs: beef, pork or combination; chicken or turkey
- Pork: ground, sausages or spareribs
- Processed sandwich meats: bologna, hard salami, pastrami
- Sausages: bratwurst, chorizo, Italian, knockwurst, Polish, smoked, summer

High-fat meats need not be excluded from one’s diet. While they may raise blood cholesterol levels if they are consumed on a regular basis, they have room in a healthy diet if they are consumed in moderation. What is moderation? It is infrequent and with restraint in recommended portion sizes—not the center of the meal.

Medium-fat meats contain about 75 calories, 4 to 7 grams of total fat, and 7 grams of protein per 1 ounce. Medium-fat meats include the following choices. Like high-fat meats, they should be consumed in moderation.

- Beef: ground beef, corned beef, meatloaf, prime grades trimmed of fat such as prime rib, short ribs and tongue
- Fish: fried fish
- Lamb: ground lamb and rib roast
- Pork: cutlet and shoulder roast
- Poultry: chicken or turkey with skin, dove, fried chicken, pheasant, some ground turkey and wild duck or goose
- Sausages (with 4 to 7 grams of total fat per 1 ounce)
- Veal: cutlet (without breading)

Lean meats contain about 45 calories, 0 to 3 grams of total fat, and 7 grams of protein per 1 ounce. Lean meats include the following choices. Whenever possible, choose lean meats or lean meat substitutes from plant-based proteins (described in Chapter 5).

- Beef: select or choice grades trimmed of fat: ground round, roast (chuck, rib and rump), round, sirloin, steak (cubed, flank, porterhouse and T-bone) and tenderloin

- Fish
 - Fresh or frozen: catfish, cod, flounder, haddock, halibut, orange roughy, salmon, tilapia, trout and tuna
 - Canned: salmon or sardines
 - Smoked: herring or salmon (lox)
- Game: buffalo, ostrich, rabbit and venison
- Lamb: lamb chops, leg and roast
- Poultry without skin: chicken, Cornish hen, domestic duck or goose (well drained of fat) and turkey
- Pork: Canadian bacon, ham, rib or loin chop/roast and tenderloin
- Processed meats, hot dogs and sausages (with 3 grams or fewer of total fat per ounce)
- Shellfish: clams, crab, imitation shellfish, lobster, scallops and shrimp
- Veal: veal loin chop or roast

Healthy choices of meat, poultry and fish and their best cooking methods are shown in [Table 3-2](#). These dry and moist heat cooking methods are described in the section “What heat is, what it does and how it applies to healthy cooking and baking,” later in this chapter.

Dry heat cooking methods include baking, broiling, deep-frying, grilling, pan-frying, roasting and sauteing. Moist heat cooking methods include boiling, poaching, simmering and steaming. Cooking in too much fat or liquid is generally discouraged due to added fat and/or nutrient loss.

TABLE 3-2 Healthy Choices of Meat, Poultry, Fish and Shellfish and Best Cooking Methods

Healthy Choices of Beef	Best Cooking Methods
Beef: flank steak, shank, inside (top round), outside (bottom round), round (eye of round), rump, sirloin tip, top sirloin butt Ground beef: low-fat ground beef (90 to 95% lean)	Dry heat: flank, ground round or sirloin, sirloin, tenderloin, top loin Moist heat: bottom round, eye of round, round tip, tenderloin, top round
Healthy choices of lamb and pork	
Lamb: chops (rack of lamb), shank, sirloin Pork: boneless rib roast, chops (sirloin, top loin and loin), lean or extra-lean ground pork, pork tenderloin, sirloin roast	Dry heat: boneless ham, boneless rib roast, boneless sirloin chop, boneless top loin roast, loin chop, loin strips, rib chop, tenderloin Moist heat: boneless rib roast, boneless sirloin chop, loin chop, rib chop
Healthy choices of poultry	
Poultry: skinless chicken and turkey breast, cutlets, ground chicken or turkey (90 to 95% lean or fat-free)	Dry heat: Cornish game hen, whole chicken, whole turkey (if whole poultry), breast, cutlet. <i>(To retain taste, remove skin after cooking, or remove skin and baste with little neutral oil.)</i> Moist heat: Cornish game hen, whole chicken, whole turkey (if whole poultry), breast, cutlet. <i>(To decrease fat, remove skin before cooking, or cool and remove condensed fat.)</i>
Healthy choices of fish and shellfish	
Fish: most fish and shellfish. Cod, flounder, halibut, orange roughy and shrimp are low in calories and fat. <i>Tuna, herring, mackerel, sablefish, salmon, sardines, shad, trout and whitefish are higher in omega-3 fatty acids.</i>	Dry or moist heat: most fish and shellfish can be cooked by dry or moist heat cooking methods. Those that are lower in fat will dry quicker with dry heat. Baste with a little neutral oil to preserve moistness with few calories and fat.

The Healthy Plate

SENSORY QUALITIES

Figuratively speaking, we “eat with our eyes” because our eyes tell us if foods and beverages are appealing or if we should select something else. Healthy food needs to look great on a plate if people are to choose it. **Appearance** drives healthy food selection.

Plated food should not only look great but should *communicate healthful ingredients*: an array of very colorful fruits and vegetables, textural whole grains, translucent fish, lightly marbled meats, pearly dairy products and lightly glistening fats (if at all) inform the consumer of good taste and health to come.

The *colors* of plated food should be harmonious. First and foremost, color conveys the quality of food, whether it is fresh, and how it has been cooked (or overcooked). Whole grains should look earthy, not drab; fruits and vegetables should look brilliant, not washed out; protein should be cooked to perfection, depending on the cut; and once combined on a plate, all of their colors should be harmonious and complement one another.

The *shapes* of plated food should be varied but in agreement. Classically cut vegetables show precision, while unpeeled heirloom vegetables convey homespun informality. Interesting shapes may detract from smaller portion sizes. For example, fanning a 3-ounce portion of lean steak or poultry may give the illusion of a larger portion.

The *textures* of plated food should be varied and interesting. Consider using a combination of harmonious textures, including soft, smooth, coarse and solid. These could translate into reduced-fat mashed potatoes, cream-style coleslaw, crunchy corn on the cob, and chewy skinless barbecued chicken. Even people with eating problems or dietary restrictions still need some texture for interest and appeal.

PHYSICAL ASPECTS

The average dinner plate has grown in size, which allows more food to fit on it. A portion of food on a plate will look smaller on a large plate. A healthy plate should highlight the portions; the portions should not take over the plate.

Plain white plates convey simplicity and serenity and are often matched by simply prepared and plated food. Angular plates look edgy and trendy and may be matched by equally unique and plated food. Either may work as long as they have flow and the three principles of balance, unity, and height prevail:

Plated food should have *flow*, which is achieved through a combination of *balance*, *unity* and *height or focus*. Our eyes tend to move from left to right and then inward toward the main ingredients when looking at plated food. Placing too much at the exterior of the plate or all over the plate can be confusing or overwhelming.

Balance and unity are achieved through a balance of foods with harmonious colors, shapes and textures. Height or focus communicates the importance of ingredients, such as a piece of lightly poached codfish atop a mound of steamed spinach or a spiral of carrot coins that mound to a stack of lean lamb chops.

A low-fat sauce or flavored oil can be dribbled around the rim of the plate, or a few drops can be sprinkled over the contents to communicate that the dish is inviting and will be satisfying, without excessive fat calories.

Garnishes should be ethnically appropriate, like a fresh chili on a plate of enchiladas or a pile of ginger that is grouped with fresh sushi.

According to the USDA MyPlate recommendations in Chapter 1, about one-half of the entree plate should be filled with vegetables and/or fruits; about one-quarter should contain grains (with one-half of them whole grains); and about one-quarter should contain lean protein. Balanced and united healthy plate suggestions with approximate portion sizes for appetizers, salads, entrees and dessert plates and soup bowls are shown in [Table 3-3](#).

Morsel “The greatest dishes

are very simple dishes.” —Auguste Escoffier (French chef, culinary writer and restaurateur, 1836–1935)

TABLE 3-3 Healthy Appetizer, Salad, Soup Bowl, Entree and Dessert Plates**The healthy appetizer plate**

- 2 ounces lean protein (lean meat [select or choice], white meat skinless poultry, most fish and shellfish)
- 2 to 3 ounces vegetables and whole or fortified grains
- 1 to 2 ounces reduced- or low-fat sauce or dressing (if used)
- Garnish only: avocado, cheese, nuts, olives, seeds

The healthy salad plate

- 1 to 2 cups leafy salad greens and fresh vegetables
- 2 to 3 ounces whole grains, legumes, fruit or lean protein for entree salad
- 1 to 2 tablespoons oil and vinegar-type salad dressing
- Garnish only: avocado, cheese, croutons, nuts, olives, seeds

The healthy soup bowl

- 6 to 7 ounces defatted, lower-sodium chicken, beef or fish stock
- Greater proportion vegetables, legumes or whole or enriched grains to animal protein (if used)
- Vegetable or legume puree, cornstarch or arrowroot for thickening
- Herbs, spices, citrus juice or flavored vinegar for flavoring
- Reduced- or low-fat dairy products for creaming
- Garnish only: avocado, cheese, croutons, flavored oil, reduced- or low-fat sour cream, seeds

The healthy entree plate

- 3 to 4 ounces or less lean protein (lean meat [select or choice], white meat skinless poultry, most fish and shellfish)^a
- 3 to 4 ounces or more vegetables and whole or fortified grains^a
- 1 to 2 ounces reduced- or low-fat sauce (if needed)
- Garnish only: avocado, cheese, flavored oil, olives, nuts, reduced- or low-fat sour cream, seeds

The healthy dessert plate

- 3- to 4-ounce portion
- Fresh fruit emphasis
- Whole grains such as cornmeal, oats or rice
- Reduced- or low-fat frozen dairy or plant-based (rice, soy, etc.) confections
- Cornstarch or arrowroot for thickening
- Lower-fat dairy products for creaming
- Garnish only: chocolate, coconut, 100% fruit spreads, nuts, seeds

Source: [3].

^aFollow the USDA MyPlate recommendations: make ½ of the plate vegetables and/or fruits; ¼ whole or fortified grains and ¼ lean protein.

^bPortions are approximate.

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Morsel “Cooking should be a carefully balanced reflection of all the good things of the earth.” —Pierre and Jean Troisgros (French chef and saucier, *Michelin Guide* 3-star recipients since 1968)

The Healthy Meal

A healthy meal has balance and proportion and represents most of the basic food groups that are described in Chapter 1. People with specialized dietary needs, such as vegetarians, some ethnic groups and those with food allergies, may not be able to consume certain groups of foods. Foods and beverages that meet their specialized needs will be addressed throughout this book.

A healthy meal should satisfy diners, not overwhelm them. Not all of the courses that are shown in Table 3-3 need to be served at one meal. A heartier appetizer with a greater proportion of ingredients should be followed by a lighter salad or entree. Likewise, a lighter soup makes way for a heartier entree, and an entree salad may only need a lighter dessert to follow.

Sample menus with serving sizes that are based on the USDA MyPlate recommendations can be found at http://www.choosemyplate.gov/food-groups/downloads/Sample_Menus-2000Cals-DG2010.pdf

Creating Healthy Recipes and Menus

Now the concepts of healthy food, healthy plates and healthy menus have been established, this information can be applied to recipe and menu development. It will be beneficial in revising traditional recipes and menus and in developing new ingredients, foods, recipes and menus for today's health-conscious consumers.

Recipes and menus can be adjusted to reduce calories, total fat, certain types of fat, sugar and sodium, and increase nutrients such as vitamins, minerals and fiber. However, it is not just a matter of reducing or eliminating ingredients to make a dish healthier. This is because these ingredients may also be important in the structure, function and flavor of a dish.

Reducing, substituting and eliminating ingredients in recipes are part science, part art, and part trial and error. It may take a series of ingredients to find the best ones to use in the right amounts. If one ingredient is reduced, then other ingredients may become more pronounced.

For example, a touch of sugar will temper, or soften, the natural sodium in tomatoes and bring out their sweetness. But add too much sugar, and the tomatoes may taste like jam.

Reducing the fat in a recipe might cause the final product to become too dry and unpalatable. Besides imparting moisture, fat carries flavor. The other flavors in a recipe may be lost or unbalanced without a little fat to unite them. The converse is also true: add too much fat or oil (even heart-healthy extra-virgin olive oil), and the final product may be unpalatable.

Basic Guidelines for Adapting Recipes

These are three basic guidelines for adapting recipes to make them healthier:

1. Change the cooking techniques and/or method of preparation
2. Reduce, remove, or replace ingredients
3. Rebuild flavor

CHANGE COOKING TECHNIQUES AND/OR PREPARATION METHODS

Fundamental cooking techniques form the basis of culinary education. The teachings of Antonin Carême, Auguste Escoffier and Jean Anthelme Brillat-Savarin, all great nineteenth-century chefs and food experts, have stood the test of time and will continue to do so. Like other disciplines, the culinary arts are in the process of integrating the old with the new.

Boiling, braising, char-grilling, creaming, deep and shallow frying, and stewing still have their place, but with some healthier upgrades. Instead of deep or shallow frying, consider sauteing with less fat and calories. Rather than braising, try roasting so the fat can drip off and be discarded. Searing, sweating and reducing can seal, release and concentrate ingredients and flavors.

Use stock, broth, juice or wine instead of basting meat, poultry or fish in their own fat. Nonstick pans and/or nonstick cooking sprays can further reduce the dependence on fat in cooking calories. The purpose behind changing preparation methods is to capture flavor and retain nutrients without excessive fat, sugar, sodium or calories.

REDUCE, REMOVE OR REPLACE INGREDIENTS

One ingredient at a time can be reduced, removed or replaced to note the effects that its reduction, removal or replacement has on the recipe. If too many ingredients are changed at once, one may not know which ingredient manipulation was effective.

With many recipes—but not all—the amount of fat, sugar, sodium and calories can be cut back without substantially losing too much flavor. The following are some of the ways to reduce or replace fat, sugar and sodium in recipes. Substitutes are discussed later in this chapter and throughout the book.

- *Fat reduction:* Think of fat reduction as baby steps, not giant ones. Start by cutting back on the amount of fat and oil in recipes by a tablespoon or two at a time and then noting the results. This is particularly important in sauces and mixtures that are dependent on fat and in baking. You'll learn more techniques about fat reduction and fat substitutes in Chapter 6.
- *Fat replacement:* Consider replacing fats with some of the following, often healthier, ingredients. Make sure that their flavors and textures are compatible. Many of these ingredients are quite flavorful, so less may be required.
 - Bacon—Canadian, soy or turkey bacon; smoked lean meat such as Italian prosciutto or Spanish Iberian ham
 - Butter—whipped butter; trans-free and nonhydrogenated margarine or shortening; vegetable oil; applesauce or prune puree in baking

- Cream cheese—reduced, low- or nonfat cream cheese, French Neufchatel or mild goat cheese; pureed cottage cheese
- Cream sauce or cream soup—dairy milk-based sauces or soups; evaporated skim milk; pureed vegetables such as potatoes or cauliflower; silken tofu or thickened soy milk; thickened rice milk
- Eggs—egg substitutes; egg whites; smooth tofu
- Ground beef—lean or extra-lean ground beef; ground turkey or chicken (both beef and poultry 90 to 95 percent lean or fat-free)
- Mayonnaise—reduced, low- or nonfat mayonnaise or salad dressing; olive oil mayonnaise; soy mayonnaise
- Dairy milk—reduced, low-fat or nonfat dairy milk; evaporated skim milk; soy or rice milk
- Oil-based dressing—acidic fruit juice, such as lemon or orange; broth; flavored vinegar, wine
- Sour cream—reduced, low-fat or nonfat sour cream; plain dairy or soy yogurt
- *Sugar reduction:* Like fat reduction, sugar reduction should also be carefully executed. Sugar reduction can be more aggressive in some syrupy dressings or sticky sauces. The goal is to retain a sweet but not overbearing taste and rounded texture.

But sugar is a critical ingredient in appearance, flavor, moisture retention, sweetness, texture and volume in some recipes. Reducing too much sugar may adversely affect their outcome. Sugar reduction guidelines and sugar substitutes are discussed in Chapter 4.

- *Sugar replacement:* Sometimes nothing can replace the taste and texture of sugar. This is especially true in some recipes for baking. In other recipes, the imaginative use of some of these ingredients, alone or in combination, may help replace sugar.
 - Artificial flavorings—sweet spices, such as allspice, cinnamon, cloves, ginger or nutmeg; sweet extracts, such as almond or vanilla, and sweet/fat flavorings, such as butter or nut, boost sweetness, intensity and uplift flavors and create aroma of “fattening” sweetness; zest, such as lemon or orange, bring out freshness and fruitiness
 - Chocolate—cocoa powder plus strong coffee or espresso in concentrated liquid or powder forms to enhance the chocolate flavor
 - Candied fruits—chopped dried fruits to distribute flavor and sweetness
 - Fruits canned in heavy syrup—fresh fruits; fresh-frozen fruits; fruits canned in 100 percent fruit juice
 - Fruit-flavored yogurt—plain low- or nonfat yogurt with fresh or dried fruits
 - Fruit drink or “ade”—100 percent fruit juice
 - Jams or jellies—fruit juice concentrates or fruit juices (concentrated to one-third volume)
 - Sugar frosting—spice and brown sugar mixture or 100 percent fruit spreads
 - Sugar syrup—reduced-sugar syrup; a lesser amount of honey, maple syrup or molasses; pureed fruit
- *Salt reduction:* Similar to sugar and fat, salt has other roles in cooking and baking besides flavor. Salt provides its own briny taste, and it functions as a flavor enhancer to bring out the other four basic tastes of acidic, bitter, sweet and umami. Salt also suppresses bitterness, slows yeast fermentation, and helps to preserve food. Salt reductions should be tiny at first, especially in baking. Suggestions for salt and sodium reductions can be found in Chapters 7 and 9.
- *Salt replacement:* Similar to fat and sugar, it may be almost impossible to replace the omnipresent taste of salt or sodium in some recipes. This may be due to its indispensable need in some cooking and baking preparations and its habitual uses and expectations.

The following are some suggested salt/sodium replacements. However, they may not work in all recipes, so experiment with them for the best possible taste acceptance.

- Bottled and packaged salad dressings—oil, vinegar, herbs and spices
- Seasoned salt—herb and spice blends
- Canned bouillon, broths, soups, sauces and/or mixes—reduced-sodium varieties
- Canned vegetables—reduced sodium varieties; drain and rinse some canned vegetables
- Condiments—reduced-sodium sauces, such as catsup and mustard; rinsed garnishes, such as olives and pickles
- Food additives and preservatives (such as sodium citrate and sodium phosphate)—use fresh ingredients
- Processed meats and cheeses—freshly cooked or unprocessed meats and cheeses
- Salted cooking water—reduce salt or eliminate

- Seasoning mixes—salt or sodium-free herb and spice blends
- Soy sauce—reduced-sodium soy sauce or tamari
- Table salt—herb and spice blends; course sea salt or kosher salt (less can be used because the crystals are large)
- Tomato products—reduced sodium tomato products or fresh tomatoes

REBUILD FLAVOR

Healthy cooking is more than doing without certain ingredients or foods. It is also a matter of *rebuilding flavor* or *developing new flavors* through the inspired use of flavorful ingredients including chutneys, coulees, extracts, flavored oils and vinegars, herbs and spices, infusions, juices, marinades, purees, reductions, relishes, rubs and pastes, salsas, sauces, stocks and broths, wines and spirits and more.

- **Chutney:** Originally from India, *chutney* actually refers to a group of sweet and spicy condiments. Chutney is similar to relish or salsa. It usually contains fresh, chopped vegetables or fruits and a range of herbs and spices, from spicy and savory to sweet and tart.
- **Coulis:** A *coulis* is a thick sauce that is made from pureed and strained vegetables or fruits. A vegetable coulis is generally served warm with meats or vegetables, or it can serve as a base for soups and other sauces. A fruit coulis can be used cold or warm in desserts, but it can also be served with meats or vegetables. The flavor and color of a coulis are often that of the main ingredients.
- **Extracts:** An *extract* is made by extracting the aromatics from fruits, herbs, nuts and spices with a solvent, such as ethanol or water. Extracts can be sweet or savory. Sweet extracts include almond, cinnamon, cloves, ginger, lemon, nutmeg, orange, peppermint, pistachio, rose, spearmint, vanilla, violet and wintergreen. Savory extracts are generally concentrated reductions of meats or poultry. Both types of extracts function as intense flavor enhancers.
- **Flavored oils:** *Flavored oils* are oils that carry a distinct flavor and often aroma. They can be dribbled over food to add flavor or around the rim of a dish for color and a hint of richness. Flavored oils include basil, garlic or truffle-flavored oils and oils that are infused with citrus juice or zest, herbs or spices, among other ingredients. Flavored oils may appear in or on lower-fat dishes, such as soups, salads, grains or vegetables to lend flavor and richness.
- **Oils:** *Oils* are lipids that are liquid at room temperature. They can be relatively odorless and tasteless, such as canola or safflower, so they do not interfere with the flavor of a dish. Or they can be very aromatic and flavorful, such as extra-virgin olive oil or nutty walnut, hazelnut or sesame oils, which impart distinct flavors that should be accounted for in finished dishes.
- **Vinegars:** *Vinegars* are acidic liquids that are produced from the fermentation of ethanol. They are basically made from fermented wine. Vinegars add acidic taste to foods, sometimes color and help to balance flavor. Generally, the more aged the vinegar, the deeper the flavor.
Vinegars include apple cider, balsamic, champagne, distilled white, malt, rice and wine (red and white), among others. *Flavored vinegars* can be savory or fruit-flavored. They are infused with fruits, herbs (such as basil or tarragon), grains, spices, vegetables (such as chilies or onions), wine and other ingredients. Just a few drops are usually enough to impart taste and color to dishes.
- **Herbs and spices:** *Culinary herbs* are aromatic plants. Their leaves, stems and flowers are used in cooking to impart flavor. *Medicinal herbs* are used for treating disease. Mostly all parts of the plant are used. *Spices* are strongly scented seeds, bark, roots, and fruits that are used to add flavor and aroma to dishes.

Bite on This: general guidelines for cooking with culinary herbs and spices

Herbs and spices have been used in culinary and medicinal applications since antiquity. Preserving their freshness, flavor and quality is essential. Spices do not spoil, but they lose their strength. Whole spices keep the longest, since their flavors are contained. Ground spices have a shorter shelf life. Herbs are more fragile; they may lose their aroma, color and intensity sooner. Place herbs and spices in airtight containers and store in cool dry places. Do not shake them directly from their containers while cooking because this may introduce moisture.

To determine whether or not herbs and spices are still useful, gently shake the closed containers. Then smell the contents to determine if their aroma is still present. You can also test their aroma by crushing a small amount in your hand.

Here are some general guidelines for the use of culinary herbs and spices:

- Use herbs or spices to enhance nutritious foods—not to disguise poor quality foods.
- Use only enough herbs and spices so the taste and aroma of the ingredients in a dish are enhanced and not masked.
- Generally add dried herbs and spices at the beginning of the cooking process so they can impart their flavors and soften over time, and fresh herbs toward the end of the cooking process to retain both color and flavor.
- Because their flavor is concentrated, use less dried herbs than fresh herbs. Each herb is slightly different. A general rule for using dried and fresh herbs is *about ¼ teaspoon of powdered dried herbs equals ¾ to 1 teaspoon of crumbled dried herbs, which equals about 2 to 4 teaspoons of fresh herbs.*
- *Herbes de Provence* are a mixture of dried herbs of the Provence region of France. They generally contain basil, fennel, lavender, savory and thyme, and can be used like other dried herb mixtures in longer cooking dishes or infused in oil.
- To clean fresh herbs, gently rinse them under cold water. Shake the herbs to remove excess water, or gently spin them in a salad spinner. Place the herbs in a slightly dampened paper towel and refrigerate in the vegetable drawer or cooler for short-term storage.
- Fresh herbs should be finely minced because more of the volatile oils will be released. *Fines herbes*, a Mediterranean minced herb combination with chervil, chives, parsley and tarragon, can be used as a garnish (it is also available dried). *Fines herbes* are particularly tasteful on lighter dishes, such as fish, poultry or vegetables.
- Fresh herbs, such as parsley, thyme and bay leaves, can be tied with string into a bundle, or a *bouquet garni*, and used to prepare soups, stocks or stews and then discarded.
- Other than the herb bundle, fresh herbs should be added close to the end of cooking hot dishes or just before serving to retain their aroma and flavor. Delicate herbs, such as basil, cilantro or dill, should be added during the last few minutes of cooking. Sturdier herbs, such as rosemary or thyme, may be added a little earlier.
- For cold dishes, such as dips, cheeses, vegetables or dressings, add minced fresh herbs; then refrigerate for several hours or overnight and bring to room temperature before serving. The exception is fresh basil, which may become bitter.
- Try mixing mild and strong dried and fresh herbs together to complement, such as milder basil, cilantro, lemon thyme or marjoram with more robust oregano, rosemary, sage or winter savory.

Some culinary uses of herbs, herb blends and spices are shown in [Table 3-4](#). Some of their medicinal uses are provided in Chapter 9.

TABLE 3-4 Culinary Uses of Herbs, Herb Blends and Spices

Herbs, Herb Blends, Spices and Spice Blends	Culinary uses
Angelica	Cakes, chartreuse (French liqueur), gin
Basil	Minestrone, pesto, tomatoes
Bay	Braises, sauces, soups, stews
Borage	Salads, soups, stews, vegetables
Caraway	Akvavit (Scandinavian flavored spirit), cheeses, rye bread, sauerkraut
Chervil	Carrots, poultry, salads, seafood
Chives	Eggs, salads, soups, stews
Cilantro	Caribbean, Chinese, Indian, Mexican, Thailand and Vietnamese cuisines
Dill	Baked vegetables, pickles, savory pastries
Epazote	Indian and Mexican cuisines

(Continued)

TABLE 3-4 (continued)

Herbs, Herb Blends, Spices and Spice Blends	Culinary uses
Fennel	Eggs, lamb, pickling, sausages, sauces, stews
Garlic chives	Eggs, fish, poultry, potatoes, shellfish
Horseradish	Cocktail sauce, Japanese wasabi
Hyssop	Meats, salads, soups
Lavender	Infused syrups, lamb, poultry
Lemon balm	Eggs, fresh fruits, salads, soups
Lemon verbena	Custards, fruits, herbal teas, South American cuisine
Lovage	Southern European cuisines
Marjoram	Beans, eggplant, poultry, seafood, tomatoes
Mint	Dessert and beverage garnishes, lamb, poultry, vegetables
Oregano	Tomatoes, Greek, Italian and Mexican cuisines
Parsley	Most foods except desserts, garnishes
Rosemary	Chicken, lamb, seafood, vegetables
Sage	Fresh or cured pork, poultry, vegetables
Salad burnet	Dressing, salads
Sorrel	Pureed soups, sauces
Summer savory	Beans, stews, meat dishes, vinegar infusions
Tarragon	Eggs, chicken, fish, salads, vegetables
Thyme	Poultry, root vegetables
Winter savory	Beans, lentils, meats, poultry, tomatoes
Herb blends	
Bouquet garni	Sauces, soups, stews
Fines herbes	Cheeses, eggs, fish, game, meats, salads, sauces, soups, stews, vegetables
Herbes de Provence	Fresh vegetables, fish, game meats, soups, stews
Spices	
Allspice	Breads, braised meats, cakes, cookies, marinades, pickled foods, stewed fruits, tomato-based sauces
Anise	Italian breads and cookies
Annatto	Meat, rice, Indian, Spanish and Mexican cuisines
Capers	Fish, game, sauces
Caraway	Breads, casseroles, poultry, meat
Cardamom	Baked goods, curries, fruit dishes
Celery seed	Cole slaw, potato salad, pickling
Chiles	Indian, Indonesian, Korean, Mexican, Szechuan, Tex-Mex and Thai cuisines
Cinnamon	Cookies, pie, rolls, Greek, Indian and Moroccan cuisines
Cloves	Hams, pickling, sauerkraut, spice cake
Coriander	Baked goods, stews, Indian, Scandinavian and Middle Eastern cuisines
Cumin	Indian, Latin American and Moroccan cuisines
Fennel	Bouillabaisse (Mediterranean fish and shellfish stew), pork stew, roasts, sausages
Fenugreek	Ethiopian, Indian and Moroccan cuisines
Ginger	Asian and British cuisines
Juniper	Boar, lamb, sauerbraten, sauerkraut, venison
Mustard	Dressings, marinades, pickling, sauces
Nutmeg	Breads, cookies, custards, eggnog, squash, spice cakes
Paprika	Creamed sauces, deviled eggs, fish, salads, sausages
Pepper	Universal use as salt
Poppy seeds	Cakes, cookies, noodle dishes, strudels, yeast breads

(Continued)

TABLE 3-4 (continued)

Herbs, Herb Blends, Spices and Spice Blends	Culinary uses
Saffron	Breads, rice, chicken
Sesame seeds	Breads, crackers, Asian and Mediterranean cuisines
Star Anise	Baked goods, Asian cuisine
Turmeric	Curries, stews, Asian cuisine
Vanilla	Baked goods, ice cream, sauces
Spice blends	
Chinese five-spice powder (<i>Chinese five-spice mixture of cloves, cinnamon, fennel, Sichuan pepper and star anise</i>)	Chinese and Vietnamese cuisines
Curry powder (<i>South Asian mixture of coriander, cumin, fenugreek, red pepper and turmeric</i>)	Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Sri Lankan, Nepali, Indonesian, Malaysian, Thai, Chinese and other South Asian and Southeast Asian cuisines
Pickling spice (<i>Regional mixture of allspice, bay leaves, cardamom, cinnamon, cloves, coriander, ginger, mustard seeds and peppercorns</i>)	Pickling
Quatre-épices (<i>French four-spice mixture of cloves, ginger, nutmeg and white pepper</i>)	French charcuterie (patés, sausages, terrines), stews

Source: [4].

- **Infusions:** *Infusions* are extractions of flavors from foods at temperatures under boiling. Oils and vinegars can be infused with savory or sweet flavors, including basil, chili, chives or garlic and blueberry, fig, lemon, orange or raspberry. Infused oils and vinegars can be used on their own or in recipes for dressings, marinades, salads, sauces, soups and more.
- **Juices:** *Juices* are liquid extractions from plant tissues. Fresh juices, especially citrus, can be dribbled over foods to impart a sweet, tart or sweet/tart flavor and to balance flavor. Squirt fresh lemon juice over broccoli or fish: it balances both the bitterness of the broccoli and the sweetness of the fish and brightens the dish overall.

Juices can be reduced to achieve both a syrupy consistency and concentrated flavor. Sweeter fruit juices, such as apple or white grape juice, work especially well. Herb and vegetable juices can also be reduced and then used to flavor stocks, sauces or glazes. Keep in mind that the colors of fruit and vegetable juice reductions will also concentrate in intensity or dullness.

- **Marinades:** *Marinades* are seasoned liquids that help to flavor and moisten food. They are generally used before cooking, and they frequently contain an acidic ingredient, such as citrus juice (citric acid), vinegar (acetic acid), wine (malic and tartaric acid) or yogurt (lactic acid). Marinades also serve to partially digest tougher cuts of protein (similar to the effects of hydrochloric acid on protein in the stomach during digestion).

The advantage of using a marinade is that additional fat may not have to be added during cooking. To help prevent drying, the marinade could be used for basting. Most marinades only contribute a modest amount of fat calories.

- **Purees:** *Purees* are a general term for fruits, legumes or vegetables that have been passed through a sieve and formed into a soft paste or thick liquid. Purees can be used to thicken sauces or soups, as dips or spreads, or as side dishes.
- **Reductions:** *Reductions* are liquids that have been reduced in quantity by evaporation. Reduction concentrates flavors and thickens liquids, such as sauces (see *juices*).
- **Relishes:** *Relishes* are cooked or pickled sauces, typically made with chopped vegetables or fruits. Relishes can be chunky or smooth, savory or sweet, and hot or mild. *Chutneys* are a type of relish. Relish is normally made with vegetables, while chutney is mostly made with fruits.

- **Rubs:** *Rubs* are a type of marinade, but they are dry, not wet. Rubs are blends of herbs, spices and other ingredients, such as coffee or cocoa, that are rubbed onto the exterior of meat, poultry or fish. They serve to add flavor, seal in flavor, and protect the natural juices from leaking and drying out the meats. By using rubs, little additional fats or oils need to be used. Wet rubs, or **pastes**, can be mixed with mustard, oil, vinegar, water or other flavorful liquid, such as broth or stock, to produce a flavorful crust--also on meats.
- **Salsas:** *Salsas* are various cold vegetable-based sauces, generally of Italian, Latin American or Spanish origins. Some are thin or pureed, while others are chopped or chunky. Chilies, fruits, herbs and/or spices can be added to the vegetable mixtures. Roasting or toasting some of the ingredients will help to caramelize them and add a depth of flavor. Salsas can be used as sauces for many protein dishes, or they can be served on their own as dips.
- **Sauces:** *Sauces* are liquids or semisolid liquids with a thickening agent, such as arrowroot, cornstarch, or flour and seasonings. Sauces can also be prepared by reduction (see **juices** and **reductions**). Sauces can be used to moisten food and add flavor.

In the nineteenth century, French chef Antonin Carême gave the name “Mother Sauces” to four sauces because they are the basis for all other sauces. These are bechamel (white), espagnole (brown), tomat (red) and veloute (roux or liason, as egg yolk or cream). Then in the twentieth century, Auguste Escoffier named hollandaise (butter) the fifth Mother Sauce, with its classical emulsions, including mayonnaise.

Gravy, mayonnaise, simple pan sauces, tomato, vinaigrette and sweet sauces, such as caramel, chocolate, custard, fruit and sabayon, are useful to enhance the flavor of simple foods. But easy does it: use the least amount of any sauce to impart the most taste. Many of these sauces can also be slimmed down in calories, fat and sugar.

- **Stocks:** *Stocks* are the backbone of classic and modern dishes. Stocks are flavorful liquids made with a combination of ingredients that include a combination of bones (beef, fish or poultry), water, herbs and spices, and a **mirepoix**. Mirepoix is French for “mixture,” and it generally includes a combination of 50 percent onions, 25 percent carrots and 25 percent celery (fennel, leeks or tomatoes can also be added). Besides flavorful, stocks are filled with gelatin, extracted from the bones, that provides structure and body and gels when it is chilled.

The color and flavor of a stock are determining factors in how a final dish both looks and tastes. A brown stock is made by caramelizing the bones and vegetables before they are added to the water. It is hearty, and it is usually used in meat-based dishes. In contrast, a white stock tends to be delicate and is useful in equally delicate fish dishes.

A vegetable stock can be made without bones. To create a depth of flavor, a variety of vegetables, herbs and spices may be used. Vegetables such as mushrooms, peas and tomatoes contribute a meaty quality. Very aromatic vegetables, such as broccoli or cauliflower, may offset the flavor of the finished dish. A splash of soy sauce adds a meatlike or umami quality.

- **Broth:** *Broth* is a thin liquid that is made by straining and reducing the cooking liquid in which foods are cooked. Broth is sometimes referred to as **au jus**, **essence**, **nage** or **tea**. It is sometimes served in a small pool underneath the main ingredient or entree. Vegetable or fruit juice can also be used in this manner. Canned beef or chicken stock is sometime referred to as broth. Reduced-fat and sodium versions may be versatile in some recipes.
- **Wine, beer and spirits:** *Wine, beer and spirits*, distilled from almost any food that contains sugar (such as barley, corn or grapes), can be used to enhance flavor without contributing too many calories. If added during cooking, the alcohol will probably burn off and the flavor should have time to mingle with the other ingredients. If added at the end of cooking, the alcoholic taste may dominate the finished dish. Thoughtful use is prudent.

Healthy Recipe Makeovers

New and/or improved cooking techniques and preparation; reduced, removed or replaced ingredients; and rebuilt flavors are the hallmarks of healthy recipe and menu makeovers. Two recipes will be examined to improve the techniques, change the ingredients, and rebuild the flavor. These suggestions can be employed to make over familiar recipes or to develop new ones.

RECIPES MAKEOVERS: INGREDIENT REDUCTIONS, SUBSTITUTIONS, ELIMINATIONS, AND TECHNIQUE CHANGES

BROCCOLI WITH MUSTARD SAUCE (*BEFORE MAKEOVER*)

Ingredients

1½ pounds fresh broccoli, washed and trimmed
¼ cup butter
½ cup mayonnaise
1 tablespoon Dijon mustard

Directions

- Cut broccoli into 3-inch pieces, including stalks and florets.
- Place broccoli into boiling water; cook about 7 minutes.
- Remove to platter; keep warm.
- Combine mayonnaise with butter and mustard; spoon sauce over broccoli.

Yield: 6 servings

Calories per serving: 233 calories

Percentage of calories from fat: 83%

BROCCOLI WITH MUSTARD SAUCE (*AFTER MAKEOVER*)

Ingredients

1½ pounds fresh broccoli, washed and trimmed
¾ cup reduced-fat mayonnaise
½ tablespoon Dijon mustard
1 teaspoon sugar
Dash reduced-sodium soy sauce
Reduced-fat dairy milk (to thin sauce)

Directions

1. Cut broccoli into 3-inch pieces, including stalks and florets.
2. Steam broccoli for about 7 minutes, or until fork-tender. Remove to platter; keep warm.
3. Combine reduced-fat mayonnaise with mustard, sugar and soy sauce.
4. Whisk milk into sauce to thin; spoon over broccoli.

Yield: 6 servings

Calories per serving: 64 calories

Percentage of calories from fat: 19%

- *Changed techniques:* Boiling to steaming (reduces nutrient loss).
- *New and improved techniques:* Whisked sauce to incorporate milk and thin (adds nutrients; decreases calories).
- *Reduced, removed or replaced ingredients:* Replaced mayonnaise with reduced-fat mayonnaise; reduced Dijon mustard (reduces fat, sodium).
- *Rebuilt flavor:* Added sugar (for balance), reduced-sodium soy sauce (for umami taste).

FRUIT NUT MUFFINS (BEFORE MAKEOVER)**Ingredients**

Vegetable shortening
 2 cups all-purpose (AP) flour
 1½ cups white granulated sugar
 2 teaspoons baking soda
 1 teaspoon ground cinnamon
 ½ teaspoon salt
 3 large eggs
 1 cup vegetable oil
 ½ cup shredded coconut
 1 teaspoon vanilla extract
 2 cups apples, peeled and grated
 ½ cup raisins
 ½ cup carrots, peeled and grated
 ½ cup walnuts, chopped

Directions

1. Preheat oven to 350°F.
2. Grease well with vegetable shortening two (12-cup) muffin tins.
3. Sift dry ingredients together into large bowl; set aside.
4. Combine carrots, raisins, walnuts, apples and coconut in large bowl.
5. Whisk eggs, oil and vanilla together in medium bowl.
6. Gently stir carrot mixture into dry ingredients; coat to cover.
7. Add liquid ingredients; stir just to combine.
8. Spoon mixture into greased muffin tins.
9. Bake about 25 minutes.

Yield: 18 large muffins

Calories per muffin: 520 calories

Percentage of calories from fat: 47%

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FRUIT NUT MUFFINS (AFTER MAKEOVER)**Ingredients**

Nonfat cooking spray
 1 cup all-purpose (AP) flour *plus* 1 cup whole wheat flour (OR ½ cup whole wheat flour *plus* ½ cup whole wheat pastry flour)
 ¾ cup white granulated sugar
 2 teaspoons baking soda
 1 teaspoon ground cinnamon *plus* ½ teaspoon each ground nutmeg and allspice
 ¼ teaspoon salt
 2 large eggs *plus* 2 egg whites
 ½ cup vegetable oil *plus* ½ cup unsweetened applesauce
 2 teaspoons vanilla extract
 2 cups unpeeled apples, grated
 ½ cup raisins
 ¾ cup unpeeled carrots, grated
 2 tablespoons walnuts, chopped

Directions

1. Preheat oven to 350°F.
2. Prepare muffin tins with nonfat cooking spray.
3. Sift dry ingredients together into large bowl; set aside.
4. Combine carrots, raisins, walnuts and apples in large bowl.
5. Vigorously whisk egg whites in medium bowl.
6. Whisk eggs, oil and vanilla together in medium bowl.
7. Gently stir carrot mixture into dry ingredients; coat just to cover.
8. Add liquid ingredients; stir just to combine.
9. Spoon mixture into prepared muffin tins.
10. Bake in nonstick muffin tins about 22 to 25 minutes.

Yield: 18 large muffins

Calories per muffin: 410 calories

Percentage of calories from fat: 40%

- *Changed techniques:* Left skin on apples and carrots (improves fiber).
- *New and improved techniques:* Whisked egg whites (increases rise); used nonfat cooking spray; baked in nonstick muffin tin (reduces fat, calories).
- *Reduced, removed or replaced ingredients:* Used one-half whole wheat flour and one-half white AP flour (improves fiber, nutrients); decreased salt and walnuts (decreases sodium and fat); substituted two egg whites for one whole egg (decreases cholesterol); substituted ½ cup unsweetened applesauce for ½ cup vegetable oil (decreases fat).
- *Rebuilt flavor:* Added nutmeg and allspice, one additional teaspoon vanilla, ¼ cup carrots.

Bite on This: healthy alternatives for fat in cooking and baking

The reason to cut back on fat as an ingredient in cooking and baking is that fat is calorie-dense and it contributes to obesity. Moreover, total fat and saturated fat are implicated in degenerative diseases such as certain cancers, coronary heart disease, diabetes and hypertension. While some fat is essential to the diet, these healthful alternatives will help to trim excess fat in cooking and baking.

FRIED FOODS

Fried foods are concentrated sources of calories, fats and carbohydrates. While breading lends a crunchy texture to fried chicken, tempura and fish and chips, healthier versions can be prepared. A little coating can be flavorful without overloading the palate. Try a light nut coating (if allergies are not an issue), chestnut flour, cornstarch, oatmeal, Japanese bread crumbs (panko) or rice flour to help lighten fat and calories. Use clean, hot oil and shorten the frying time to help decrease oil absorption.

CREAMY FOODS

Creamy foods, such as creamed spinach or roux-based soups (often referred to as cream soups) are quite rich in fat and high in calories. A **roux** is a classically cooked combination of fat and flour in equal parts by weight. Rather than use cream or a roux, puree cooked bland vegetables, such as cauliflower or potatoes, or add instant mashed potato flakes to thicken. A reduced-fat dairy product may also be incorporated, but there might not be enough fat to hold the ingredients together.

BUTTER OR MARGARINE

A stick of butter can be replaced by a stick of margarine in some recipes, but oil is different. This is because oil is 100 percent fat, while butter, margarine and solid shortening are actually lower in fat than oil on a per volume basis. Use ⅔ cup of oil for 1 cup of butter, margarine or solid shortening.

In baking, substitutions of this nature can be even more problematic. Solid fats are creamed with air when they are whipped with sugar and eggs, but oil is more compact—and oily. Oil can make cakes, cookie and pastries greasy and dense.

If necessary, substitute about 3 parts oil for every 4 parts solid fat (or about $\frac{3}{4}$ cup oil to 1 cup solid fat). It may require a few trials to determine the exact amount that works. Diet, fat-free, light, lower-fat, reduced-fat, reduced-calorie and vegetable oil spreads are generally not successful substitutes in baking, since these products are higher in water and lower in fat.

CHEESE

Reduced-fat cheese has different melting characteristics than regular cheese. It takes longer to melt and it may be tougher. To compensate, finely shred, and let it melt over very low heat while stirring constantly. Before adding reduced-fat cheese to sauces, sprinkle with a little starch or flour, such as arrowroot, cornstarch, potato starch or rice flour, for uniform melting. Do not use reduced-fat or low-fat cheese on the top of a pizza, casserole or sandwich because it may become too dry and difficult to chew.

MEAT

About $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ of the amount of ground meat in a recipe may be replaced with cooked grains or legumes, such as brown rice, couscous, millet, oats or soybeans. This substitution decreases fat and calories and adds fiber and nutrients. However, the finished product may be chewy or dry. Broth, stock or vegetable juice can be added during preparation to increase moisture. The cooking time may need to be decreased.

To retain moisture and flavor when cooking larger, lower-fat cuts of meat, marinate the meat; coat the meat with a flavorful rub; sear the meat before longer cooking, or cover the meat during roasting.

POULTRY

To prevent poultry from drying out, cook it with the skin on when baking or roasting. A dollop of fat (a tiny spoonful) can be mixed with herbs and spices and inserted under the skin; then the skin can be removed before serving. Despite these techniques, fat and calories may actually decrease once the skin is removed; plus, the finished dish will be moist and flavorful.

CAKES, COOKIES AND QUICK BREADS

While fat is an important ingredient in baking for taste and texture, some reductions may be made. One to 2 tablespoons of fat for each 1 cup of flour may be enough fat in biscuits, muffins or quick breads, and no more than 2 tablespoons of fat for each 1 cup of flour may be enough fat in cakes or soft-drop cookies. Chocolate, coconut, nuts, seeds and other higher-fat ingredients may be reduced by $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ of the amount that is called for in some recipes.

Bite on This: healthy alternatives for sodium in cooking and baking

There is a compelling reason for using less sodium in cooking and baking: We consume far too much sodium in ingredients, foods and beverages in the United States, which is directly related to hypertension, or high blood pressure. By limiting sodium in cooking, and to a lesser degree baking, we may be able to retrain our taste buds to desire less.

While most people may benefit from sodium reduction, some people may need to be especially careful about all of the sodium that they consume. Options for cutting back sodium include the use of kosher salt, sea salt, finishing salt and salt substitutes. More ways to reduce sodium are covered in Chapters 7 and 9.

KOSHER SALT

Kosher salt is also called *koshering salt* because it is used in the process of koshering meats by removing surface blood. It has a much larger and more porous grain size than common table salt. Kosher salt contains

sodium chloride, but it typically does not contain the mineral iodine, so it is not considered iodized salt. Some kosher salt contains anticlumping agents in small amounts.

Kosher salt may be useful in sodium reduction. One teaspoon of kosher salt contains about 1,120 milligrams of sodium. In comparison, 1 teaspoon of table salt contains about 2,325 milligrams of sodium.

Total sodium should be limited to less than 2,300 milligrams daily; and 1,500 milligrams for people aged 51 or older, African Americans or people with existing chronic kidney disease, diabetes or hypertension.

Kosher salt can be used in most cooking applications. Some chefs prefer Kosher salt to table salt for its purity. However, Kosher salt is generally not recommended for baking applications—especially recipes that contain a small amount of liquid ingredients, since it may not thoroughly dissolve.

In recipes that contain more liquid, use up to twice as much kosher salt (by volume) to replace table salt (because kosher salt grains are larger and occupy more volume for equal weight). Since the size of kosher salt grains vary, check each type of kosher salt for specific conversion guidelines.

Kosher salt may be used as a finishing salt for cooked and baked goods to give the illusion that an item is saltier. However, its porous grains help to remove moisture, so other finishing salts may be superior to retain moisture and infuse a mineral-like taste.

SEA SALT

Sea salt is produced through the evaporation of seawater. Sea salt usually undergoes little processing, so depending on its water source, some trace minerals may remain. These minerals may contribute both color and flavor in cooking and baking.

Coarse sea salt with its large crystals contains, on the average, about 1,872 milligrams of sodium per teaspoon compared to 1 teaspoon of table salt at 2,315 milligrams. By weight, sea salt (like kosher salt) and table salt contain about the same amount of sodium chloride.

Finer-grained sea salt is shaped like little hollow and flaky pyramids. This shape allows the grains to better adhere to food than table salt and also to dissolve better. As a result, less may be needed. Some varieties of sea salt may be better for baking than table salt because their trace minerals may help in the development of gluten. Like kosher salt, sea salt may be used as a finishing salt to communicate a briny taste.

FINISHING SALT

A *finishing salt* can be both the first introduction to a food and the last lingering taste. Strategically sprinkled finishing salt transmits salty and sometimes mineral tastes, combines and increases food flavors, provides flavor complexity, and lends texture and sometimes aroma.

Similar to sea salt, most finishing salts come from the sea. They include Black Diamond from the Mediterranean, Fleur de Sel from Guatemala, Maldon from England, and Molokai Red and Kauai Guava from Hawaii.

SALT SUBSTITUTES

The use of “lite,” “low-sodium” and “salt-free” salt substitutes is discussed in Chapters 7 and 9. In general, do not use salt substitutes where sodium is a vital ingredient in the success of a dish or baked item.

A higher ratio of sodium chloride to potassium chloride moderates some of the bitterness, but then it is not a sodium-free product.

Some salt substitutes that contain part sodium chloride may be used successfully in baking, and this may reduce the total amount of sodium in recipes. Salt substitutes that only contain potassium chloride are not recommended for baking. The flavor and texture of baked goods will not be the same quality as those that are made with sodium chloride (table salt).

Bite on This: healthy alternatives for sugar in cooking and baking

Sugar substitutes are designed for people who want to reduce their carbohydrate consumption due to weight control or diabetes restrictions. Others may choose sugar substitutes for their alleged health properties. For a complete discussion of sugar and sugar substitutes in health and disease, see Chapters 4 and 9.

Healthy alternatives for granulated white sugar in cooking and baking include the following:

- **Fructose** (fruit sugar) is about 2½ times sweeter than white sugar (sucrose). About ½ cup of granulated fructose can be substituted for about 1 cup of white sugar. Fruit sugar has a slightly finer and more uniform crystal than white sugar. For this reason, it is used in dry mixes such as gelatin, powdered drinks and puddings. The uniformity of its crystal size prevents separation or settling of larger crystals, which is an important quality in dry mixes.
- **Date Sugar** is not really sugar but is made from ground, dehydrated dates. It is about 60 to 80 percent sugar. About 1 cup of date sugar can be substituted for about 1 cup of white sugar in some cakes, muffins and quick breads, but adjust to taste. Date sugar can replace the brown sugar in crumb toppings for fruit crisps or pies.
- **Honey** is 20 to 60 percent sweeter than white sugar. About ¾ cup honey can be substituted for about 1 cup of white sugar. For every 1 cup of honey, reduce the amount of other liquids in a recipe by ¼ cup and add ¼ teaspoon of baking soda. This is because honey is naturally acidic and baking soda helps to balance its acidity. Lower the oven temperature about 25° to prevent baked goods that contain honey from overbrowning.
- **Raw sugar** is sugar at the point before the molasses is removed in the processing of sugar cane. Different types of raw sugar include demerara from Guyana, finely textured Barbados, and light, molasses-flavored turbinado. Their sweetening properties are similar to white sugar. Varying degrees of brown color and flavor may affect the final products in both cooking and baking.
- **Sucanat** resembles raw sugar, but it is actually the evaporated juice of sugar cane. Sucanat is less refined than white sugar and it tends to have a strong aftertaste. It contains 12 calories per teaspoon—about 25 percent fewer calories than white sugar at 16 calories per teaspoon. Substitute an equal quantity of sucanat for white sugar and add ¼ teaspoon of baking soda to balance the acidity.
- **Stevia** is a South American herb that is 150 to 400 times sweeter than white sugar. The sweet taste of stevia has a slower onset than white sugar, but it lasts longer. The benefit of stevia is that it does not significantly alter blood sugar, so it can safely be consumed by diabetics. At high concentrations, stevia can have a bitter, licorice off-taste. Substitute one pinch to ⅙ of a teaspoon of stevia for 1 teaspoon of white sugar.
- **Other:** Other substitutions for one cup of white sugar include the following ingredients. Their tastes vary considerably, which may affect the outcome of recipes, so choose carefully.
 - ⅓ cup agave nectar
 - ½ cup fruit juice concentrate
 - ½ cup molasses
 - ⅔ cup maple sugar
 - ⅔ cup rice syrup
 - 1 cup malted barley

FOOD BYTE

Cookware with nonstick surfaces has improved since DuPont, a science-based products and services company, trademarked Teflon, the nonstick coating that affects the ability of cookware to conduct heat, in 1945. Today's nonstick cookware has better heat conduction, plus it is durable and easy to maintain. But nonstick cookware does not caramelize protein as well as metal cookware. Its main purpose is the reduction of fat in cooking.

Basic and Specialized Cooking Tools and Equipment

A chef's tools and equipment are like an artist's brushes, paints and canvases. To create appealing recipes and meals, certain basic and specialized tools and pieces of equipment are essential, which are shown in Table 3-5.

TABLE 3-5 Basic and Specialized Tools and Equipment for Cooking

Cooking Tools

High-carbon stainless steel knives

- 2- to 4-inch paring knife for cutting fruits and vegetables^a
- 4- to 6-inch butcher knife for cutting raw meat
- 8- to 14-inch all-purpose French or chef's knife for chopping, slicing and mincing^a
- 6- to 8-inch utility knife for cutting fruits and vegetables^a
- Serrated bread knife^a
- Slicer
- Sharpening stone

Chef's fork

Measuring cups and spoons

- 3-cup glass measuring cup with spout
- Set of measuring cups: ¼ cup, ⅓ cup, ½ cup and 1 cup
- Set of measuring spoons: ¼ teaspoon, ½ teaspoon, 1 teaspoon and 1 tablespoon

Spatulas

- Angled handle spatula
- Small and standard-sized rubber scraper spatulas
- Straight spatula
- Metal grill spatula^a

Spoons

- Large metal spoon
- Stainless-steel slotted spoon^a
- Sturdy metal spoons
- Wooden spoons

Strainers

- 3-inch-diameter wire mesh strainer^a
- 7-inch-diameter wire-mesh strainer^a
- China cap for removing seeds, coarse matter from liquids and soft foods^a
- Chinois for straining custards, purees, sauces and soups^a
- Spider skimmer^a

Whisks

- 8-inch wire whisk^a
- Balloon whisk
- Rigid whisk

Miscellaneous tools

- Bottle opener
- Cheese cloth^a
- Chopping boards (plastic and wooden)^a
- Colander^a
- Corer^a
- Corkscrew
- Egg beater
- Flour sifter
- Food mill for pureeing and straining food^a
- Hand can opener
- Hand grater^a
- Hand citrus juicer^a
- Instant-read thermometer^a

(Continued)

TABLE 3-5 (continued)**Cooking Tools**

Kitchen scale^a
 Kitchen shears^a
 Kitchen timer^a
 Meat mallet
 Meat thermometer
 Mixing bowls
 Molds
 Portion scoop^a
 Potato masher^a
 Ricer for extruding food^a
 Rolling pin
 Salad spinner^a
 Sieves^a
 Sifter
 Soup ladle^a
 Straight tongs
 Vegetable peeler^a
 Zester^a

Cooking equipment**Pots and pans**

2-cup, 2-quart and 6-quart saucepots with lids
 8-cup ovenproof casserole
 8-inch frying pan with lid
 10- or 12-inch saute pan with lip^a
 12×17-inch roasting pan
 Cast-iron skillet^a
 Hotel pans
 Pasta pot^a
 Sautoir pan with straight sides for reductions^a
 Wok with lid^a

Miscellaneous equipment

Blender^a
 Grill^a
 Food processor^a
 Hand-held electric mixer^a
 Juicer^a
 Mandoline for slicing^a
 Stand mixer with attachments^a

^aTools and equipment especially suited for healthy cooking—often for lower-fat and/or nutrient retention.

FOOD BYTE

Cast-iron cookware heats slowly and holds heat well. It is good for searing and frying food. While cast iron may impart a metallic taste and react with acidic foods, some of the iron particles may be passed on to the food that is being cooked. This may be beneficial for women who tend to have iron deficiencies. Another benefit of cast-iron cookware is its longevity. A good cleansing, scrubbing and drying should clean old cast-iron cookware and prepare it for contemporary use.

What Heat Is, What Heat Does and How Heat Applies to Healthy Cooking and Baking

The process of digestion bears so much resemblance to heat and cooking. Heat helps to physically break down food and move it around a cooking or baking vessel for further processing. Our teeth physically break down food inside the mouth; then our tongue moves the food to the back of the mouth to be swallowed and digested.

Heat also prepares foods for chemical reactions, which are similar to what occurs inside the mouth when food is mixed with saliva. The following sections explore what heat is, what it does, and how it applies to healthy cooking and compares it to the remarkable process of human digestion.

HEAT IS ENERGY

Heat is transferred to foods by three basic methods: *conduction*, *convection* and *radiation*. **Conduction** is the direct-contact transfer of heat, such as when a pot or pan is placed on a flame or coil. In conduction, heat is moved from the flame or coil to the food to be cooked, thereby transferring heat, or energy.

A good example of conduction is the searing (or browning) of meat. Searing is quick, as is the transfer of heat from the flame or coil to the pan and then to the meat. As the meat is exposed to heat for a longer period of time, the heat is then transferred from the seared exterior to the interior of the meat.

Heat is also transferred through **convection** through fluids. Picture a pot of soup that is just beginning to warm. As the flame or coil heats the pot through conduction, the liquid on the bottom of the pot heats and rises, and the cooler liquid from the top of the pot descends into the pot to warm the remaining liquid.

Unlike conduction and convection, **radiation** does not require contact with a heat source. Rather, radiation relies upon an element that gives off radiant heat, such as a broiler or a toaster oven.

Microwave cooking uses a combination of conduction and radiation heat. In microwave cooking, radiation is created inside the oven, which stir ups molecules and creates heat. Then the heat spreads throughout the foods and beverages through conduction and convection, depending on whether the food is solid, liquid or both. Microwave cooking generally does not brown food.

All three methods of heat transfer can be healthy *if* foods are not overheated or overcooked, liquids are not overboiled and there are no major changes in nutrient retention.

WHAT HEAT DOES

Anytime heat is applied to food it can change a food's characteristics and nutrients. It is very important to be mindful of its effects when considering the finished products. This is especially true with protein.

FOOD BYTE

Sometimes the "feel" of food is the best judge of readiness or doneness. To determine **doneness in meat**, use your fingers. Gently press the center of the meat with perfectly clean fingers to determine the degree of resistance. Very rare meat will feel like raw meat and offer little resistance. Rare meat will feel springy; medium meat will feel slightly firm but yield to the touch, and well-done meat will feel firm to the touch. Make sure to wash your hands before touching other foods.

The Effect of Heat on Protein

Heat causes proteins to **coagulate**, or firm up. Examples of coagulated protein include egg whites that turn from clear to white when heated and bread dough that rises and forms into loaves when baked.

Protein transforms into different degrees of **doneness**, depending on how much heat is transferred over time. For example, a 1-inch steak that is cooked for 3 minutes and is soft in the center is considered rare. If it is cooked for 5 minutes and firm in the center, it is considered well done.

Too much heat may cause protein to toughen or lose its functionality. This is called **denaturation**. Examples of protein denaturation from too much heat include rubbery egg whites and hardened cheese pizza. Other causes of protein denaturation include overwhipping, acids, bases or a high salt concentration.

Gastric acid in the stomach is also responsible for protein denaturation. The acid helps to break down the protein and prepares it for further digestion.

The Effect of Heat on Carbohydrates

Heat also causes carbohydrates to change in structure. When grains are cooked with a fluid, such as water or stock, heat causes the grains to absorb, or take up the liquid and swell. This process is called *gelatinization*, and it is said that the grains *gelatinize*. The mixture becomes gruel-like, and if it continues to cook, it becomes even more solidified. Gelatinization occurs both in cooking and baking. Acceptability and nutrients may be compromised.

In addition, the building blocks of carbohydrates, or sugars, are affected by heat. They *caramelize*, which means they brown in color and change flavor. Some caramelizing is desirable because of the unique flavors and colors that develop. Bread crust becomes golden with a toasted taste, and *caramelized sugar* becomes lightly browned with a pleasant earthy taste. Sometimes a food that is overcaramelized can have a burnt taste and flavor.

The Effect of Heat on Fats and Oils

Upon heating, fats first *melt* if they are solid, but they do not evaporate like water. Fats and oils have different *melting points*—the temperature range at which they change from a solid state to a liquid state.

Fats and oils may be heated too high, which may cause them to break down and form unhealthy substances and undesirable flavors. This depends on their *smoke point*—the temperature at which fats and oils start to smoke. Oils with high smoke points include canola oil, corn oil, refined peanut oil and vegetable oil. Butter and olive oil have lower smoke points. There is more discussion about the smoke point of fats and oils in Chapter 6.

FOOD BYTE

Broiling is advantageous in healthy cooking, since fat drops away from food and can be discarded. When broiling, make sure to preheat the broiler and the broiler pan. This will ensure that the food to be broiled is well seared by the flame or element and that the natural juices are retained. Do not use a fork to turn the food; a tong or metal spatula is preferred. These tools protect foods from being pierced, the juices from leaking out, and the food from drying out. An instant-read thermometer is good to keep handy.

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HEAT APPLICATIONS IN HEALTHY COOKING

Healthy methods of cooking include both *dry- and moist-heat cooking methods*. Explanations of dry- and moist-heat cooking methods follow, along with their healthier adaptations.

Dry-Heat Cooking Methods: Baking, Broiling, Deep-frying, Grilling, Pan-frying, Roasting and Sauteing

Dry-heat cooking methods generally rely on air or fat to cook food. While some fat helps to impart and carry flavor, too much fat can overpower dishes or cause them to fail, contribute too many calories and lead to health problems. The following methods can decrease the amount of fat in dry-heat cooking:

- **Baking:** *Baking* is a dry-heat cooking method by which food is surrounded by hot, dry air. Baking cooks food first by convection, then by conduction, and finally by caramelization. Baking is used to cook fruits, proteins, starches and vegetables and both savory and sweet baked goods.
- **Broiling:** *Broiling* is a dry-heat cooking method that uses radiant heat from a source above the food that is to be cooked. If the food is placed on a grate over a broiler pan, then the fat can drip away and be discarded. The advantages of broiling are that food can be quickly broiled to doneness, and caramelization intensifies taste. A disadvantage of broiling is that more expensive (and richer) cuts of meat may be used, which may not retain heat well during service or at a buffet.
- **Deep-frying:** *Deep-frying* is a dry-heat cooking method that transfers heat by convection through flame or coil to a pot, and then by conduction to the foods that are submerged in hot fat. Foods are typically

first coated in batter or breading. While deep-frying is not synonymous with healthy cooking, in some Mediterranean countries deep-frying is done with little coating and at very high temperatures. Foods cook rapidly and absorb little fat.

- **Grilling:** *Grilling* is a fast and hot dry-heat cooking method where foods are cooked directly over a source of dry heat, such as a charcoal or gas grill, or on a stovetop grill pan. Foods are typically placed on a grate, thus allowing fat to drip away and be discarded. *Barbecuing* is a type of grilling. A disadvantage of grilling and barbecuing is that foods can be charred. This blackening can produce potentially cancer-causing substances. There is more information about this connection in Chapter 9.
- **Pan-frying:** *Pan-frying* is a dry-heat cooking method that is similar to both sauteing and deep-frying, but only a moderate amount of fat or oil is used. The heat is transferred by conduction to the pan and then by convection to foods by hot fat or oil. Like deep-frying, foods are usually first usually coated in batter or breading. In order for pan-frying to be considered a healthy technique, a minimal amount of fat, oil, batter or breading should be used.
- **Roasting:** *Roasting*, like baking, is a dry-heat cooking method that depends on dry heat in a closed environment, such as an oven. Meats and poultry are usually roasted, as opposed to vegetables, fruits, grains and savory and sweet desserts, which are typically baked (with some exceptions). Roasting also uses the heat transfer processes of convection, conduction and caramelization for more depth of flavor. Roasting is a healthy cooking method for larger cuts of meat. The advantage of roasting is that foods are usually cooked on a rack so that fat can drip away and be discarded. The disadvantage of roasting is that more expensive cuts of meat with sufficient marbling are generally used; other cuts of meat may dry when roasted.
- **Sauteing:** *Sauteing* is a dry-heat cooking method that uses a small amount of fat or oil to cook food over high temperature by conduction. *Dry-sauteing* is generally done in a very hot pan in order to sear foods, such as fish, poultry or meat. Both sauteing and dry-sauteing are considered healthy cooking techniques because only a small amount of fat is used at hot temperatures. The advantages of dry sauteing are that additional fat is not used and that food is caramelized for depth of flavor. The disadvantage of dry-sauteing is that more expensive (and richer) cuts of meat may be used, which may not retain heat well during service or on a buffet.
- **Stir-frying:** *Stir-frying* is a dry-heat cooking method that is similar to sauteing. What distinguishes stir-frying from sauteing is that it relies on the use of a pan with sloped sides or a Chinese wok to circulate the heat and to ready the food for gentle tossing. The advantage of stir-frying is that very little fat or oil is used, like sauteing.
- **Sweating:** *Sweating* is a dry-heat cooking method that cooks food in a pan without browning or caramelizing, typically by conduction over low heat. The purpose of sweating is to help foods release their natural liquids and flavors and slightly soften. An advantage of sweating is that no additional fat or oil may be needed. Another advantage is that delicate foods, such as fruits and vegetables, can be cooked in this manner and their nutrients can be preserved.

FOOD BYTE

The secret of cooking vegetables to the correct degree of doneness begins with cutting the vegetables into same-sized pieces so they can transfer heat and cook evenly. Cooking time should be as short as possible to maximize their nutrients and preserve their color and texture. Typically vegetables are done when they are fork-tender, unless they are to be added to other ingredients for additional cooking. Vegetables can also be **shocked**—plunged into ice water directly after blanching to halt the cooking process and preserve color.

MOIST-HEAT COOKING METHODS: BOILING, POACHING, SIMMERING AND STEAMING

Moist-heat cooking methods generally use water, stock, broth or steam into which foods are submerged. They are generally considered to be healthy cooking methods, with some exceptions as noted:

- **Boiling:** One of the most common moist-heat cooking methods that uses convection heat is *boiling*. First, heat is transferred by conduction from a flame or coil to a pot. Then heat is transferred by convection to

the liquid that is contained within the pot. The high heat and rapidly boiling water cook foods quicker than poaching or simmering. The disadvantage of boiling foods is that if they are boiled too long, they can lose nutrients, especially if the cooking water is discarded.

- **Poaching:** Like boiling, *Poaching* is a moist-heat cooking method that uses conduction heat from a flame or coil to heat a pot or pan, then convection heat through a poaching liquid to heat food. The poaching liquid can be broth, juice, stock, water, wine or some combination. The advantages of poaching is that tender foods, such as eggs, fish and vegetables, may be poached for short cooking times and that additional fat is not required. When cooked to the right degree of doneness, poaching can produce tasty and nutritious foods that absorb the flavor of the cooking liquid. The disadvantages of poaching include the flavor of food may not be deep, since there is no caramelization; once removed from the poaching liquid, foods may dry out; and overpoaching may lead to stringy or toughened fish, poultry and meats and overcooked fruits or vegetables.
- **Simmering:** Similar to boiling and poaching, *simmering* is a moist-heat cooking method that uses convection heat that has been first been transferred by conduction from a flame or coil to a pot or pan, then convection heat through a simmering liquid to heat food. In simmering, the temperature of the cooking liquid is higher than in poaching, and the liquid is more agitated. Simmering is usually used for tougher cuts of protein or foods that need more time to cook than poaching. Like poaching, the flavor of the simmered food may be affected by the cooking liquid. The disadvantages of simmering are that the temperature is higher and the time is longer than poaching. Both have the potential of causing nutrient loss.
- **Steaming:** *Steaming* is a moist-heat cooking method that also uses heat transfer by convection and conduction, like boiling, poaching and simmering. In steaming, foods are placed in a steamer basket or colander and then lowered over steam that is produced by boiling liquid. A lid that is placed over the pot or pan can speed the steaming process. The advantage of steaming is that foods can be steamed until just “fork tender,” which helps retain the nutrients that may filter into the cooking water, such as minerals, phytonutrients and vitamins.

COMBINATIONS OF COOKING METHODS

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A combination of cooking methods can be used to first brown grains, protein or vegetables by convection, and then continue to cook these foods in liquid by conduction. A combination of cooking methods is often used for less-tender cuts of meats and/or fibrous vegetables that may take a longer time to cook.

- **Braising and stewing** normally use a combination of dry- and moist-heat cooking methods. As long as fat can be removed or reduced, they can be considered healthy cooking methods.
 - **Braising:** *Braising* uses dry- and moist-heat cooking methods. First, less-tender cuts of meats are browned in fat or oil at a high temperature. Then vegetables and seasonings are added with a liquid or sauce. The heat is then reduced and the pan is covered. Foods are then cooked by simmering in the liquid or sauce and by steaming from steam that is released by the simmering liquid and captured by the lid. The process is long and slow until the foods are tender. To make a braised dish healthier, it should be cooked in advance and then cooled. Then the fat should be removed before the dish is reheated for serving.
 - **Stewing:** *Stewing* also uses dry- and moist-heat cooking methods. The differences between stewing and braising are smaller pieces of foods are used in stewing and the pieces are blanched, or cooked quickly in a boiling liquid, fat or oil. Like braising, a flavorful liquid or sauce is then added, and then the foods simmer in the liquid or sauce until tender.

The advantage of stewing is that the cooking time is shorter than in braising due to the smaller pieces of food, which facilitate faster heat transfer. Like braising, to help make the stewing process healthier, the stew should be cooled and the fat should be removed. Then the dish should be reheated before serving.
- **Slow cooking:** *Slow cooking* deconstructs tougher cuts of meat, fruits grains, legumes and vegetables. An acidic ingredient, such as citrus or tomato juice, vinegar or wine, helps to break down the protein and rounds out the flavor. The advantages of slow-cooking are that leaner cuts of meat can be used at lower temperatures and no additional fat needs to be added. The food and ingredients create their own sauce and nutrients are retained.

Healthy Baking Equipment and Tools

Careful, correct and safe baking requires some essential tools and equipment—similar to the basic cooking tools and equipment that are required for healthy cooking. Specialized equipment can be quite expensive with limited functions. Basic baking tools and equipment and those with the most versatile uses in healthy baking are highlighted in Table 3-6.

TABLE 3-6 Basic and Specialized Tools and Equipment for Baking

Baking Tools
High-carbon stainless steel knives
2- to 4-inch paring knife for cutting fruits and vegetables ^a
6- to 8-inch utility knife for cutting fruits and vegetables ^a
8- to 14-inch all-purpose French or chef's knife for chopping, slicing and mincing ^a
Serrated bread knife
Slicer
Sharpening stone
Cutters
Aspic
Corer
Doughnut
Melon ball ^a
Round biscuit
Rolling (pastry wheel)
2-inch cookie
Decorating and finishing tools
Cake combs
Cake-decorating turntable
Dispensing tips
Pastry bags
Graters
Flat metal ^a
Four-side box ^a
Rotary ^a
Measuring cups and spoons
3-cup glass measuring cup with spout
Set of measuring cups: ¼ cup, ⅓ cup, ½ cup and 1 cup
Set of measuring spoons: ¼ teaspoon, ½ teaspoon, 1 teaspoon and 1 tablespoon
Spatulas
Angled-handle spatula
Metal cake
Small and standard-sized rubber scraper spatulas
Straight spatula
Racks
Cake
Wire
Rolling pins
Hard wooden
Marble
Teflon-coated
Sifters
Flour sifter,
Drum sieve (tamis) for grating, straining or as a food mill
Spoons
Perforated ^a
Plain
Slotted ^a

(Continued)

TABLE 3-6 (continued)**Baking Tools**

Food processor^a
 Immersion blender^a
 Juicer^a
 Kitchen scale^a
 Mandolin^a
 Mixer^a
 Slicer^a

^aTools and equipment especially suited for healthy baking—often for lower-fat and/or nutrient retention.

^bSize dependent on home or restaurant use.

Healthy Baking Ingredients and Techniques

Special dietary and health needs, including certain cancers, diabetes, food allergies, gastrointestinal disorders, heart disease and hypertension, may require changes in baking ingredients and/or techniques. As in cooking, some baking ingredients may be *reduced*, *substituted* or *eliminated*. Baking techniques may also need adaptations. Since baking is such an exacting process, care and respect must be taken for the finished products.

Certain ingredients can be reduced in some recipes, such as sugar in fruit filling or butter in frosting. However, these ingredients may be critical to other recipes, such as sugar in meringues or fat in pie crusts.

Some ingredients may be substituted, such as oil for butter or honey for sugar, but this will not work in all recipes. When fat or sugar is eliminated in a recipe, this may cause the recipe to fail. But sometimes this is essential, such as the elimination of gluten or nuts for allergic consumers.

Bite on This: healthy baking reductions, substitutions and eliminations

Certain foods and beverages have specific roles in baking—just like in cooking. A thorough knowledge of these roles is fundamental before any ingredient can be successfully reduced, substituted or eliminated.

Dairy products, eggs, fat and oils, gluten, nuts and seeds, salt, soy and sugar are reviewed here for their purpose and use in baking, as well as the effects of reducing, substituting or eliminating these ingredients.

Dairy Products

- **Purpose:** Contributes appearance, flavor, structure and texture
- **Use:** Creates body, contributes sweet flavor (from lactose, or milk sugar), promotes browning (from caramelization)
- **Reduction:** Replace liquid dairy products with an equal amount of other liquids, such as water, juice or nut milk, depending on recipe.
- **Substitution:**
 - Reduced-fat dairy milk for whole dairy milk
 - Nut milk, rice milk, soy milk, reduced-fat coconut milk, unsweetened fruit juice or water for whole dairy milk
 - Light cream, half-and-half or soy “creamer” for cream
 - Reduced, low-fat or soy-based sour cream, cottage cheese, yogurt or ice cream for full-fat varieties
 - Clarified butter (with milk solids removed), oil, soy margarine or **tahini** (sesame seed paste) for butter

Caution: Cookies that are made with butter tend to spread and thin during baking. Less butter means less spread. To reduce the amount of butter and to preserve crispness, a little corn syrup may be added to the dough.

- **Substitution (for calorie and fat reduction):** Fat substitutes include reduced-fat butter, buttermilk, cream cheese, sour cream and yogurt and pureed fruits and vegetables. General guidelines for using these fat substitutes are provided in Table 3-8. Other information on fat substitutes can be found in Chapter 6.
- **Elimination:** Eliminating fats altogether may affect the appearance, flavor, structure and texture of baked items.

Caution: While it might be possible to make light, moist and tender baked items using some of these fat substitutes, replicating the delicious, rich taste of butter is challenging. In the process of reducing fat, you may end up with higher-calorie, tasteless products. Instead of using fat substitutes, smaller-sized cookies, loaves and muffins can be made. This is another way to reduce fat.

Gluten

- **Purpose:** Contributes appearance, structure, texture, volume
- **Use:** Creates elasticity: changes shape with pressure and resumes shape when pressure is removed

TABLE 3-8 General Guidelines for the Use of Fat Substitutes

- Some recipes are easier to substitute fats than others. Prepare a recipe a few times to determine what works best.
- In general, quick breads and muffins adapt fairly successfully to fat substitutes, as do carrot, chocolate and coffee cakes with denser textures. It may be more difficult to substitute fat in cakes with very light and tender texture because they depend on fat. You may still be able to eliminate $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ of the total fat and retain some fat for texture.
- Substituting oil in place of butter or other solid fat may not achieve the same final product in some recipes. In recipes that require liquid fat (as melted butter), this substitution may work.
- Cakes that are made with butter or solid shortening develop volume from air when fat is creamed with sugar. When fat is eliminated, they may become more compacted. This may be partially solved by whipping egg whites and gently folding them into the cake batter or by adding a fat substitute with the liquid ingredients.
- Look for logical blends of ingredients that make sense with recipes. For example, fruit and vegetable purees, such as applesauce, cooked squash or pureed bananas pair nicely with aromatic spices (allspice, cinnamon or nutmeg) in quick breads and muffins. Milder-tasting yogurt or buttermilk may be better matched with delicate biscuits or scones.
- Many fruits and vegetables contain pectin, a carbohydrate that acts like fat and “shortens” or tenderizes baked goods. Fruit and vegetable purees, reduced-fat buttermilk and yogurt may be able to replace about $\frac{1}{2}$ of the fat in some cookie recipes, unless the recipes contain quite a bit of liquid. Then they may become cakey, chewy, fudgy, rubbery or sticky.
- Use nut milk in place of whole dairy milk, made by pulverizing $\frac{1}{4}$ cup of blanched almonds, cashews, macadamia nuts or others, and blending this pulp with 1 to 2 cups of water until it is creamy.

Caution: Nut butters may contain as much fat as dairy milk, but it is mostly unsaturated fat, which is considered healthier than saturated fat in animal products.

- Use coconut sparingly in order to retain the intended flavor of the recipe. Substitute reduced-fat coconut milk for whole fat milk; add coconut-flavored extract to the batter, or sprinkle fresh coconut over the top and edges of baked goods to give the illusion of a rich taste.
- Prune puree may be able to replace as much as all of the fat in some recipes. It works well in chocolate recipes, while applesauce works better in muffins and quick breads because the flavor is more neutral.
- If the final baked product is too dry, add about 1 to 2 tablespoons of lecithin granules to the recipe for the next testing. Lecithin is a by-product of soy oil refining that can greatly improve the texture of baked goods

Caution: Lecithin is not a low-fat product. One tablespoon of lecithin granules provides about 6 grams of fat; 1 tablespoon of liquid lecithin provides about 12 grams of fat.

- Try some dried butter granules in the batter to mimic the flavor of butter.
- Use a butter-flavored vegetable oil spray to coat the baking pans or sheets.

Caution: While not a fat substitute per se, a change in gluten may affect the appearance, structure, texture or volume of a baked product in the same way fat does. When fat is reduced in baking, the exact type and precise measurement of flour are critical. Low-gluten (soft wheat) cake flour can be substituted for all-purpose (hard wheat) flour, which should create a tender product with a soft crumb, like chiffon cake.

- **Reduction:** Gluten is reduced in low-gluten products (see above). It is eliminated for those who are gluten-intolerant (see Chapter 4).
- **Substitution**
 - Tolerated grains include buckwheat, corn, millet, montina quinoa, and rice. Tolerated starches include arrowroot, garfava, potato, soy and other legumes, and tapioca.
 - A combination of tolerated flours and starches is best to replace gluten in recipes. Possible combinations include buckwheat, millet, rice or sorghum with at least 30 percent starch, such as corn, potato or tapioca. For example, 1 cup of bread flour (with gluten) could be replaced with $\frac{3}{4}$ cup of rice flour plus at least $\frac{1}{4}$ cup of potato starch.
 - Some of the protein and elasticity of gluten can be replaced with **gums**—especially **xanthan**, **guar** or **locust bean**. Add 1 teaspoon of gum per cup of tolerated flour for pastries and 2 teaspoons of gum per cup of tolerated flour for breads.
- **Elimination (for food allergies):** All traces of these grains must be eliminated on a gluten-free diet: barley, bulgur, oats, rye and wheat (couscous, durum, triticale, kamut, semolina and spelt).

Caution: Gluten-free products are increasing in number as gluten intolerance rises in the United States. Besides grains and flours, gluten lurks in processed foods, such as egg substitutes and frozen yogurt. It is very important to read the ingredient lists on food labels to make sure that they are gluten-free, since gluten is not destroyed in cooking and baking.

Nuts and Seeds

- **Purpose:** Supplies fiber, some fats and oils, texture
- **Use:** Contributes depth of flavor earthiness and texture, especially if toasted
- **Reduction:** Nuts and seeds are not entirely necessary in some recipes, except for recipes that depend on them for particular taste or texture, such as pecan pie or sunflower seed bread. For this reason, nuts and seeds can be easily reduced in some recipes, but dry ingredients and fat may need to be adjusted.
- **Substitution:** Crunchy ingredients, such as bran, flaxseeds, granola or toasted oats may be substituted for nuts and seeds in some recipes. Lightly dust these ingredients with flour before using; this way they can evenly distribute throughout the batter.
- **Elimination (for allergies):** Nuts and seeds may need to be eliminated altogether due to food allergies or digestive problems, such as diverticulosis (outpocketings in the walls of the colon).

Caution: Like gluten, nut and seed allergies are growing in the United States. Peanuts and soy “nuts” are not nuts but legumes. While they may be used as nut substitutes in some recipes, people may also be allergic to peanuts and soy. More information about food allergies can be found in Chapter 5.

Salt

- **Purpose:** Imparts and enhances flavor and sweetness
- **Use:** Slows yeast fermentation for richer, fuller flavor; helps strengthen gluten structure for density, tenderness and crumb; thickens egg yolks
- **Reduction (for hypertension):** The amount of salt in a bread recipe may be decreased from 1 teaspoon to $\frac{1}{2}$ teaspoon per loaf. However, reducing or eliminating salt may cause the dough to rise too quickly and adversely affect the shape and flavor of baked goods. The dough should be prepared with cool water; care should be taken so it doesn’t overferment, and it should be left to rise at room temperature.
- **Substitution (for hypertension):** Commercial, sodium-free leavening agents, including baking soda and baking powder, produce variable results. Salt substitutes can impart a bitter off-taste. The amount of sodium varies in these products, so check the labels carefully.
- **Elimination (for hypertension):** If salt is eliminated altogether in bread recipes, knead the dough very well to develop the gluten as much as possible and keep the dough on the stiff side. Do not let the shaped loaves rise too high in the bread pans. Place the bread pans in the oven a little before they are fully risen; otherwise the breads may collapse.

Caution: Breads made without salt may never rise as high as breads that are made with salt, and they may not have as much flavor. An alternative is to use the bread dough for rolls, because the increased amount of crust may produce more flavor.

Soy

- **Purpose:** Contributes color, fine texture, flavor, moistness and protein. Toast soy flour to enhance its nutty flavor.
- **Use:** Supplies dairy-free, ethnic and vegetarian options; inexpensive and cholesterol-free egg substitute (see Table 3-7); gluten-free

Caution: Baked products that contain soy flour tend to brown more quickly; shorten the baking time or slightly lower the temperature.

- **Reduction:** Soy flour reduces the amount of fat that is absorbed by the dough in fried foods.
- **Substitution:** Since soy flour is gluten-free, it cannot replace all of the rye or wheat flour in bread recipes. Use about 15 percent soy flour (about 2 tablespoons of soy flour per 1 cup of all-purpose or other flour) to produce a dense, moist and nutty-flavored bread. Up to ¼ of the total amount of flour in a recipe may be replaced with soy flour in baked goods that are not yeast-raised. Stir soy flour before measuring to prevent packing.
- **Elimination (for food allergies):** Soy must be omitted in recipes because of soy (or legume) allergies. Soy flour can be used in combination with tolerated flours for those who are gluten-intolerant. To replace 1 cup of wheat flour in recipes, the suggested ratio is about ¼ cup of soy flour to ¾ cup of tolerated flour (see the preceding section on gluten).

Caution: Soy flour has a higher proportion of fat than some other flours, so it can become rancid and develop an off-flavor unless it is refrigerated.

Sugar

- **Purpose:** Adds caramelization, flavor, moisture, structure, texture and volume
- **Use:** Acts as a creaming agent, assists with leavening, serves as a preservative, supplies food for yeast, tenderizes (prevents gluten formation)
- **Reduction:** Products made with less sugar may be dry, light in color and have a shortened shelf life.
- **Substitution (for calorie and diabetic management):** The following ingredients may be substituted for all or part of the **sucrose**, or white table sugar in some recipes. The success of these substitutions may vary depending on the other ingredients in a recipe, pan size, oven temperature and time. Other sugar substitutes, including artificial sweeteners, are discussed in Chapter 4.
 - **Fructose**, or fruit sugar, is 2½ times sweeter than sucrose. About ½ cup granulated fructose may be substituted for about 1 cup of white sugar in some recipes.
 - **Honey** is 20 to 60 percent sweeter than sucrose. About ½ to ¾ cup of honey may be substituted for about 1 cup of white sugar. For every 1 cup of honey in a recipe, reduce the amount of other liquids by about ¼ cup, and add ¼ teaspoon of baking soda. This is because honey is naturally acidic and baking soda helps to temper the acidity. Also, lower the oven temperature about 25°F to prevent overbrowning.
 - **Sweet spices**, such as allspice, anise, cardamom, cinnamon, cloves, fennel, ginger or nutmeg, are not too sweet by themselves, but they lend a sweet flavor, particularly when combined.
 - **Elimination:** Elimination of sugar may affect caramelization, flavor, moisture, structure, texture and volume.

Caution: With obesity and diabetes mounting in the United States, sugar and calorie reduction are critical. But sugar substitutes may fall short of expectations in baking. The finished products may taste too bland, too sweet or too artificial. It may be better to reduce the portion sizes of baked items and decrease the sugar in frostings, glazes or sauces to cut sugar calories.

Basic Food Safety in the Kitchen

Food safety is of growing global concern because of resistant microorganisms, questionable food safety practices and our rapidly expanding food supply. The knowledge and ability for handling food safely helps to ensure that food is fit for human consumption. What follows is just an overview of basic food safety in the kitchen. For more information, see “Hungry for More?” at the end of this chapter.

Microorganisms are bacteria, fungi, parasites and viruses. Some microorganisms are friendly and some can be deadly. Some friendly bacteria are located inside the gastrointestinal tract and assist in digesting foods and beverages. Potentially deadly bacteria are called **pathogens**.

When bacteria produce **toxins**, or poisons, these bacteria can kill by ingestion or by intoxication, such as in **botulism**. *Salmonella* is an example of a bacterial infection in which the bacteria, not the toxin, causes the disease. *Clostridium* is a bacterium that causes a **toxin-mediated infection**, which means that both the toxin and the bacteria may cause illness. Cooking at high temperatures may destroy salmonella, but it may not prevent the dangers of botulism or clostridium.

Factors that breed bacterial infections include the aerobic (oxygen) or anaerobic (lack of oxygen) conditions, the degree of moisture, the degree of temperature, the time of exposure, the type of food and whether the food is in an acid or base environment.

High-protein foods, such as eggs, dairy products, fish and shellfish, meats, poultry and some grains and vegetables, are subject to bacterial infections. Generally high temperatures destroy some of the bacteria in these foods and beverages, but not all. Very low temperatures, such as in refrigeration or freezing, may only prolong bacteria growth.

The **temperature danger zone**, between 40° and 140 °F (4° to 60°C), increases bacteria growth, as does time of exposure. The least amount of time that food is exposed to the temperature danger zone is best. Hot food should remain hot and cold foods should remain cold. Any moisture can foster bacteria growth. This is why dry foods are less risky of bacterial growth.

Bacteria prefer a neutral environment; neither too acidic nor too basic. Adding an acid, such as lemon juice, vinegar or wine, to foods will acidify the food, but it will not necessarily destroy the bacteria. Certain bacteria thrive well in oxygen; others prefer a lack of oxygen, such as in canned foods. These tend to be the most deadly bacteria.

Other microorganisms that spread diseases are **parasites**, of which **trichinosis** is the most common. Trichinosis is caused by consuming undercooked pork or game that has been exposed to the parasite. Originally it was thought that pork needed to be cooked to at least 170°F (77°C), but this caused pork to toughen. Since most of the trichinosis in pork has been eliminated through testing, the current FDA recommendation is that pork should be cooked until 145°F (63°C) with a 3-minute rest time [5].

While the virus hepatitis A may be transferred through fish and shellfish, viruses may be carried by any food, not just proteins. Many viruses enter our food supply through poor food handling and **cross-contamination**. This is when microorganisms are carried from an object to another object, from an object to a person, or from a person to a person. Foods may be cross-contaminated if food service employees do not wash their hands before they come in contact with food or if uncooked and cooked foods interface at any step in the cooking or baking process.

Cross-contamination guidelines emphasize the following:

- Keep dishes and equipment clean and sanitary.
- Practice personal cleanliness in the kitchen.
- Wash hands frequently in hot water.

Though gloves may be worn, they do not guarantee hygiene. Similarly, just because an item looks clean, it may not be sanitary. **Clean** means that visible dirt and food residue have been removed. **Sanitary** means that microorganisms have been destroyed.

Fungi, molds and yeasts may also cause foodborne illness, and in some instances death, such as when poisonous mushrooms or toxin-carrying molds are consumed. These organisms can also affect the taste and quality of foods.

Some chemicals may filter into foods during growth, handling and production. Other chemicals may enter the food supply through the water or soil in which food is grown. Still other chemicals may enter through food processing. This is why it is important to rinse fresh foods before cooking—especially fruits and vegetables.

The *Hazard Analysis Critical Control Points (HACCP)* is a method for managing sanitary conditions in food service operations. A summary can be found in “Hungry for More?,” along with additional food safety guidelines.

Bite on This: the costs of healthy eating

Buying healthy foods and beverages can be pricey. Calorie per calorie, junk foods and beverages frequently cost less than fresh fruits and vegetables. As food costs soar, how can healthy food and beverage choices be affordable and available for *all* people?

Arguments have been made that the poor can only afford cheap food and that healthy foods and beverages are neither available nor convenient. This may help explain why the highest rates of obesity are seen among people in the lowest-income groups. Impoverished people may compromise the quality of their diet because they *think* it is too expensive to eat healthfully. This is called **food insecurity**—the inability to acquire or consume an adequate quantity or quality of food in a socially acceptable manner.

The notion that healthy eating costs more is well founded. Fresh fruits and vegetables are vulnerable to environmental factors, as are grasses and grains for feeding livestock; thus, they are more likely to increase in price compared to junk food. When people have to economize, they may opt for trimming from the top of the food chain—expensive cuts of meats, cheese and pricier fruits and vegetables. Calorie-dense, lower-nutrient foods and beverages frequently cost less and are perceived as better bargains.

These relatively inexpensive foods and beverages generally contain more fats, sugar and other refined carbohydrates and sodium—substances that plague the US food supply and imply health consequences. Can our society afford these trade-offs? With obesity and diseases of overconsumption (coronary heart disease, diabetes, hypertension and some cancers) on the rise, the answer is “not with good conscience.” We must encourage healthy food consumption among the most needy and create ways to make healthy food more affordable and convenient for them.

As nutrition, food science and culinary professionals, we can collaborate in our efforts to inform consumers that “less is more.” By decreasing the portion sizes of lean protein, lower-fat dairy products and fresh fruits and vegetables, lower-income consumers may be able to make healthier choices. (The average sizes of some of these foods are two to three times what is recommended by the US government and health associations.)

Two ways to create cost savings and pass these gains on to these consumers are by making seasonal and locally grown foods more available that do not have to bear transportation costs and by cutting back the excessive sugar and fat calories in jumbo soft drinks and oversized fried foods. These savings may be then applied to healthier options.

Just a few years ago, a thrifty food plan to feed a family of four cost about \$130 per week; a low-cost food plan cost \$6 a day more than the thrifty food plan, or about \$170 per week; a moderate-cost food plan cost \$11 a day more than the thrifty food plan, or about \$210 per week; and a liberal-cost food plan cost \$18.50 a day more than the thrifty food plan, or about \$260 per week—almost double that of the thrifty food plan [6].

A thrifty food plan is generally just that: frugal, with costlier and more nutritious fruits and vegetables noticeably absent. The US Healthy Eating Index (last revised in 2006) confirms that both fruits and vegetable consumption in the United States is down from 10 years earlier—particularly in impoverished communities [7].

Over 20 million Americans are said to live in “food deserts”—areas across the country with little to no easy access to fresh food. The US government has pledged to eradicate these food deserts by 2017 to help curtail the country’s diet-related disease and obesity epidemics and to create new jobs in these communities [14,15].

In 2010, the US government announced a joint plan by Walmart, Walgreens, SuperValu and three regional chains to open 1,500 new stores in food deserts across the United States. Whether or not these actions will help to achieve its goals is left to be seen.

If the United States is to overcome food insecurity as a nation, it must focus on making healthy food appealing, available and economical. Only then will it begin to close the gap between those who have and those who have not and to reduce the explosion of obesity- and diet-related diseases that inflict the poorest inhabitants [8].

SERVE IT FORTH

The following activities are designed to integrate concepts in nutrition and food science with contents from this chapter on culinary arts basics. The goals are to demonstrate hypothetical situations that have real-life applications.

Making a Difference in Culinary Education

A number of associations serve to meet the needs of chefs and other culinary specialists. Some provide specialized education in culinary nutrition and/or include nutritionists in their membership. Still others offer student memberships. Affiliations in these associations and others provide opportunities for continuing education, competitions, employment, networking and scholarships. For the purpose of these activities, assume the following:

You have a new healthy dining program that you want to promote among culinary associations. It contains healthy recipes, menus, techniques and procedures that reduce calories, fat, sodium and sugar. You are seeking to make a difference in the nutrition and culinary education of their members. You are willing to take the necessary steps to market this program among these memberships, but you are not a member of any of these associations. Answer the following questions regarding *each* association:

- Which aspects of the association will/will not make it receptive to a healthy dining program?
 - Describe the strategies you would take to market your healthy dining program to the association membership.
1. The American Culinary Federation (ACF) is the largest professional chefs' organization in North America. It was established in 1929 through the unified visions of three chefs' associations in New York: the Chef de Cuisine Association of America, the Societe Culinair Philanthropique, and the Vatel Club. ACF seeks to make a positive difference for culinarians through apprenticeship, education and certification. Nutrition education is required for ACF certification.
Junior members of ACF enrolled in a postsecondary or apprenticeship program but with less than three years of field experience are entitled to all ACF resources and to compete in regional and national events.
 2. The American Personal and Private Chef Association (APPCA) is a young organization that was created in response to interest in personal and private chefs across the United States. Its mission is to promote education and advancement of its members in the personal chef industry and to help better the personal chef industry as a whole. It offers opportunities for business support, education, idea exchange and standards of excellence.
Student members of APPCA qualify for this membership designation by being enrolled in a training program of an accredited institution or program.
 3. The International Association of Culinary Professionals (IACP) is a nonprofit association that is dedicated to continuing professional education and career development for its members in culinary education, communications and the preparation of food and drink. IACP seeks to be an international forum for the professional worldwide food community. Its mission is to assist its members in ethical, responsible and professional means of achieving success in food-related careers.

Three additional activities can be found within the *Culinary Nutrition* website at www.culinarynutrition.elsevier.com.

WHAT'S COOKING?

The following experiments integrate nutrition, food science and the culinary arts into observable and practical applications. Flavor in recipes, sensory interactions, acidity in dairy milk, color and food perception, plate

Morsel "Cooking is one of the oldest arts and one which has rendered us the most important service in civic life." —Jean-Anthelme Brillat-Savarin (French epicure, gastronome, lawyer and politician, 1755-1826)

2. Record each recipe's yield and serving size on a **Data Sheet** like the one that follows.
3. Revise the yields and serving sizes to create a healthier meal by using the information in this chapter. Be specific; support all of your answers.

Evaluation

- Based on the information in this chapter, are the serving sizes that are portrayed in the food magazine too large, too small or just right?
- If they are too large, then how should they be adjusted?
- Be specific; support all of your answers.

Culinary applications

Prepare a meal that consists of an appetizer, salad or soup, entree, dessert and beverage in healthy proportions as described in this chapter and in Chapter 1. How can this exercise be applied to other healthy meal preparations?

Data Sheet

Course	Serving size	Revised yield	Revised serving size	Adjustments
Appetizer				
Salad				
Soup				
Entree				
Dessert				
Beverage				

OVER EASY

This chapter focuses on culinary and baking basics: the fundamentals of what food science, nutrition and culinary professionals need to know for healthy product development, cooking and baking, and recipe and menu formulations. It serves as a foundation for additional information throughout this text on carbohydrates, lipids, minerals, proteins, vitamins and water and the foods and beverages that contain them.

For example, the information about dairy- and gluten-free cooking and baking in this chapter is intricately related to information on carbohydrate digestion in Chapter 4 and allergies in Chapters 5 and 9. Likewise, the information on sugar, fat, sodium and reduction in this chapter is echoed in Chapter 4 on carbohydrates, Chapter 6 on lipids, Chapter 7 on sodium, and Chapter 9 on diet and disease. Plus, you'll find recipes in Chapters 4 through 12 that incorporate the healthy techniques and procedures that were described in this chapter.

Cooking and baking healthy foods and beverages requires an array of healthy pantry, refrigerated and frozen foods and beverages, coupled with basic and specialized culinary and baking tools and equipment that are all featured in this chapter.

Healthy choices of meat, poultry and fish; methods for building flavor; general guidelines for cooking with culinary herbs and spices; components of a healthy plate, meal and menu; instructions for reducing, substituting and eliminating ingredients; and ideas for modifying cooking and baking techniques (including healthy heat applications) for creating and redoing recipes are all addressed in this chapter.

The cost of healthy eating, the Slow Food Movement and Chefs Collaborative and basic food safety are also highlighted to show that healthy food is affordable, accessible, an alternative to fast food, and a commodity that should be handled with care.

CHECK PLEASE

1. The process of heat transfer that transfers heat from a heat source to a pan or pot is called:
 - a. convection
 - b. conduction
 - c. combination

- d. caramelizing
 - e. radiation
2. The process of heat transfer that transfers heat through fluid is called:
- a. convection
 - b. conduction
 - c. combination
 - d. caramelization
 - e. radiation
3. The process of heat transfer without direct contact is called:
- a. convection
 - b. conduction
 - c. combination
 - d. caramelization
 - e. radiation

Essay Question

1. You have been asked to lower the fat in this list of ingredients. Describe three techniques that you can use. How would you rebuild the flavor? Support all of your comments.

EGGPLANT PARMESAN (SERVES 8)

Ingredients

Olive oil
 2 pounds (about 2 large) eggplant, cut into ¼-inch slices
 Salt
 1 28-ounce can whole tomatoes, peeled 1 clove garlic, peeled and minced
 ⅓ cup *plus* more to equal ½-inch olive oil
 Salt
 Freshly ground black pepper
 ½ cup all-purpose flour
 ½ cup fine dry seasoned breadcrumbs
 4 large eggs, beaten
 1½ pounds whole-milk mozzarella cheese, sliced into ¼-inch rounds
 1 cup Parmesan cheese, grated
 1 packed cup fresh basil leaves

Directions

1. Preheat oven to 350°F.
2. Prepare 13 X 9 X 2-inch baking dish with olive oil.
3. Put eggplant slices in colander; sprinkle well with salt. Weigh down; drain for 1 to 2 hours.
4. Combine tomatoes, garlic, ⅓ cup olive oil, salt and pepper in food processor.
5. Combine flour and breadcrumbs in shallow bowl.
6. Pour beaten eggs in another shallow bowl.
7. Pour remaining olive oil to ½ inch in frying pan and heat.
8. Place eggplant in flour mixture and then in beaten eggs.
9. Fry eggplant in olive oil until golden brown on both sides; turn once and drain on paper towels.
10. Spread ⅓ of the tomato sauce in bottom of baking dish.
11. Top with ⅓ of eggplant slices, ⅓ of the mozzarella cheese, ⅓ of the Parmesan cheese and ⅓ of the basil leaves.
12. Stack two more layers in this manner; top with any remaining tomato sauce and Parmesan cheese.
13. Bake until cheese melts and top is slightly brown, about 30 minutes; let rest about 10 minutes before serving.

Since Slow Food is a relatively young organization, it is hard to definitely determine its global impact. As a grassroots organization, it is really in its infancy. Statistics show that some European countries consume more organic foods and beverages than the rest of the world and that Slow Food may have been a part of this movement. Slow Food has been targeting youth to reintroduce the concepts of gardening and farming. This is so students can appreciate the journey and measures that help to put food on their plates.

Some critics of the Slow Food Movement feel that its efforts are elitist. This may be because it encourages the consumption of fresh foods and discourages cheaper methods of growing or preparing food (see “The cost of healthy eating” in this chapter). It is true that Slow Food emphasizes the production and consumption of local foods before the reliance on foods that must be transported or those that depend on energy, chemical and technological-intensive methods. This philosophy parallels Greenpeace and green parties and other antiglobalization movements, but it may not be feasible, at least at the present time, for feeding the masses.

Whether or not you choose to support the Slow Food Movement, the issues that it raises about preserving local foods and cultures and slowing down food experiences reveal provoking questions. As future nutrition, food science and culinary professionals, it is necessary to understand the factors that interfere with healthy eating as well as the factors that support it. Fast foods and healthy foods could be synonymous. The challenge is up to food and nutrition professionals, government agencies and associations like Slow Food to collaborate in their missions and visions [9,10].

The Chefs Collaborative

Morsel “Cuisine is when things taste like themselves.” —Maurice Edmond Saillant [Curnonsky] (French writer and Prince of French Gastronomes, 1872–1956)

Like the Slow Food Movement, the *Chefs Collaborative* is relatively young. It was founded in 1993 by food professionals with common concerns about the sources of food. The Chefs Collaborative serves to provide its members with the means for running economical and sustainable food service businesses and to promote environmentally sound, flavorful and high-quality local ingredients for the nation’s tables.

Not all of the members in the Chefs Collaborative are chefs. The US network represents a broad and independent range of food-related professionals, including culinary school instructors, distributors, farmers, fishermen, managers of large food service operations, ranchers, specialty store owners and others.

In its efforts, the Chefs Collaborative works with chefs and the greater food communities to foster a more sustainable food supply and to promote local foods. To these ends, the Chefs Collaborative supports diversity, local economies, seasonality and traditional practices.

Much like the Slow Food Movement, the Chefs Collaborative stands for foods that are fundamental to life, foods that nourish both the body and soul, and connect each of us to nature and to our communities. The Chefs Collaborative promotes foods that are delicious, local and seasonal, whole or with minimal processing, containing ingredients that are good for us and for the planet—the hallmarks of healthy cooking and eating.

The Chefs Collaborative also promotes biological and cultural diversity for our food supply, environment and health. By growing and harvesting foods that are close to their natural sources, it is implicit that we promote food sustainability and support both traditional and diverse agriculture.

The Chefs Collaborative has a farmer-chef program that includes chefs, consumers and farmers. This program serves to support small-scale artisan food makers, farmers and ranchers and informs its broad membership how to make sustainable purchasing decisions about the foods that they procure and consume.

As a result of its relationships between chefs and farmers and the strong belief in biodiversity and taste, the Chefs Collaborative is a partner with Slow Food and the American Livestock Breeds Conservancy in the alliance known as RAFT (Renewing America’s Food Traditions). The RAFT Alliance brings together agricultural historians, local chefs, conservation activists, farmers, fishermen, nurserymen and ranchers. Like Slow Food, the program is young and the tasks are mighty.

As future nutrition, food science or culinary professionals, it is imperative that you see how associations such as the Chefs Collaborative can be impactful in promoting diversity, local economies, seasonality and traditional food practices. The future of our food supply and its equitable, safe and healthy dispersion is at stake, and we are all stakeholders [11,12,13].

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OBJECTIVES

1. Discuss the types of carbohydrates, their food sources and importance in the diet
2. Explain how carbohydrates are digested and metabolized by the body
3. Identify the dietary recommendations for total carbohydrates, sugar, whole grains and dietary fibers
4. Describe the roles of carbohydrates in lactose intolerance, gluten intolerance, diabetes, coronary heart disease and oral health, among other conditions
5. Apply the properties of starches, sugars, whole grains and dietary fibers to cooking and baking
6. Compare and contrast the functions of refined, enriched, fortified and whole grains in cooking and baking
7. Examine the properties of carbohydrate substitutes in cooking and baking and their effects in health and disease
8. Evaluate carbohydrate controversies
9. Assess the roles of carbohydrates in diseases
10. Judge the roles of carbohydrates in new product and recipe development, especially for specialized diets (i.e., gluten and lactose intolerance)

INTRODUCTION: CARBOHYDRATES**Sweet, Starchy and Fibrous**

Rice, noodles and pasta, bread and breadstuffs, potatoes, corn and legumes . . . all of these basic foodstuffs have provided nourishment to people around the world for centuries. Rice, a staple cereal grain for much of the world, dates back thousands of years to India. The Chinese have consumed noodles for ages, long before the Italians created pasta. Bread and breadstuffs can be traced to prehistoric times. Potatoes were first cultivated in Central America, and then mariners brought potatoes to Europe, where they became widespread in northern diets. Corn dates back to pre-Columbian times in the Americas. Legumes have interwoven throughout early civilizations in Asia, Europe and the Americas.

Morsel “Bread deals with living things, with giving life, with growth, with the seed, the grain that nurtures. It is not coincidence that we say bread is the staff of life.”
—Lionel Poilâne (French boulanger, 1945–2002)[1]

Some carbohydrates were initially not well received, such as potatoes. Potatoes are a member of the nightshade family, known for plants with druglike effects, including belladonna, mandrake and tobacco. When potatoes were first introduced into Europe around the 1500s their potentially poisonous effects were cause for concern—much like the introduction of some foods and beverages today.

As in the past, controversies still exist about these and other carbohydrates and their roles in the diet. Some versions of rice, noodles and pasta, breads and breadstuffs, potatoes, corn and legumes hardly resemble their predecessors. To help to sort out facts from fiction, nutrition, food science and culinary professionals must first understand the basics of carbohydrates and how they apply to today's diets.

What Are Carbohydrates?

Besides rice, noodles and pasta, breads and breadstuffs, potatoes, corn and legumes, carbohydrates are found in many other foods, including fruits, vegetables and dairy products. The origin of these foods and the carbohydrates that are contained in them is plants.

Plants use their green pigment, or *chlorophyll*, to trap energy from the sun. This energy is combined with carbon dioxide (a gas that is in the environment) and water to produce *glucose*, or sugar. The process is called

TABLE 4-3 Types of Sugars in Cooking and Baking

Types of Sugar	Uses in Cooking and Baking
Baker's sugar	Sugaring doughnuts and cookies, fine crumb texture in commercial cakes
Bar, baker's, caster, superfine sugar	Delicately textured cakes, meringues, flavoring beverages, sweetening fruits
Beet sugar	Indistinguishable from white cane sugar, except in jams, marmalades
Brown sugar	Light: baking, butterscotch, condiments, glazes Dark: baked beans, gingerbread, mincemeat
Cane sugar	Wide cooking and baking applications
Corn syrup	Thickener, retains moisture and freshness; confectionery, ice cream
Date sugar	Does not dissolve when added to liquids
Decorating or coarse sugar	Adds sparkling appearance; confections, fondants, liquors
Fruit sugar	Dry mixes (gelatins, puddings, powdered drinks)
Granulated white sugar	Many cooking and baking applications depending on grain
High-fructose corn syrup	Processed foods, soft drinks
Invert sugar, invert syrup, trimoline	Retards sugar crystallization; retains moisture in packaged foods
Liquid sugar	Recipes that require sugar to be dissolved; adds brown color
Maple syrup	Baking, candy making, flavoring agent in some beers
Molasses, treacle, sorghum syrup	Adds color, flavor; gingerbread, baked beans
Powdered sugar, confectioner's sugar, icing sugar	Confections, icings, industrial baking, whipped cream
Raw sugar (barbados, demerara, muscovado, turbinado)	Light molasses flavor, color; tea, other beverages
Sugar cubes	Hot drinks, some alcoholic drinks

- *Fructose* is found naturally in berries, fruits, honey, melons and some root vegetables, such as beets, onions and sweet potatoes. It is available in crystallized and liquid forms.
- *Granulated sugar* is white refined sugar. It is made by dissolving raw sugar and purifying it with chemicals or by filtration. It is then dried to prevent clumping.
 - *Coarse-grained granulated sugar*, also called *sanding sugar*, *decorating sugar*, or *sugar nibs*, can add a "sparkle" to baked goods, candies and cookies. This is because it has large, irregular crystals that reflect light. Some types will not dissolve when exposed to heat.
 - *Normal-grained granulated sugar* is for common cooking and baking uses.
 - *Finer-grade granulated sugar*, such as *caste* or *superfine* (also called *baker's sugar* or *bar sugar*) dissolves quickly because it is so fine. It is useful in meringues and for flavoring beverages.
 - *Granulated cane juice*, a liquid by-product of the sugar production process, is consumed in some parts of the world. It is also dehydrated.
- *High-fructose corn syrup (HFCS)* is a type of corn syrup that has been processed by enzymes to increase the amount of fructose; then it is mixed with pure corn syrup. The balance of sugar comes from glucose. It is widely used in processed foods and soft drinks.
- *Invert sugar*, *invert syrup* or *trimoline* are sucrose-based sugars and syrups. They have been treated with enzymes or acids to split sucrose into glucose and fructose. Invert sugars and syrups are sweeter than sucrose, are less likely to form crystals, and are more *hygroscopic* (which means that they attract fluid and help products stay moist). For these reasons, invert sugar is valued by bakers.
- *Maple syrup* is made from the sap of maple trees. It is used in baking and candy making and as a flavoring agent in beer. Sucrose is the most common single sugar in maple syrup.

TABLE 4-4 Types and Sources of Food Starches

Types of Food Starch	Source
Seeds	Grains such as corn, rice, wheat
Legumes	Soy, garfava
Modified food starches	Corn, potato, rice, tapioca, wheat
Root vegetables	Arrowroot, cassava, tapioca
Tuber vegetables	Potatoes, yams

- *Garfava* is a high-protein, gluten-free mixture of chickpea (garbanzo bean) flour and fava bean flour. It can be used as a thickener.
- *Potato starch* is a finely textured, flourlike, gluten-free powder that comes from the starchy portion of potatoes. It is used as a thickener, similar to arrowroot or cornstarch. It is best to mix potato starch with fluid before it is added to recipes, much like cornstarch.
- *Rice starch* is a finely textured, flourlike, gluten-free powder that comes from the endosperm (seed) of rice. It is not often used in Western countries.
- *Soy flour* is a high-protein, gluten-free flour that is made from roasted soybeans. It can be used as a thickener.
- *Tapioca* is a finely textured, flourlike, gluten-free powder that comes from the cassava tuber, or yucca root. It is also found in flake, granule, pearl and syrup forms. Tapioca is used as a thickener. When cooked, tapioca is translucent. If overcooked, tapioca may become sticky.
- *Wheat flour* is about 70 percent starch, and the rest is from gluten protein. For this reason, wheat flour does not thicken well. Wheat flour has a wheaty flavor and cloudy color due to the wheat gluten. If 1 tablespoon of cornstarch or potato starch is called for in a recipe, 1½ tablespoons of wheat flour may be needed for thickening.

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FOOD BYTE

The word **starch** is derived from the Middle English word **sterchen**, which means “to stiffen.” This is fitting, since starch can be used as a thickening agent to “stiffen” sauces when it is dissolved in fluid and heated. Some starches, when mixed with water and kneaded, stiffen into gluten, the protein that is responsible for giving bread and other baked goods their rigid structures. Gluten is also responsible for sensitivity and/or intolerance to barley, rye and wheat.

Starches on the Food Label

Starches are not listed on the Nutrition Facts Label of a food label. Instead, total carbohydrates, sugars and dietary fiber appear. Starches are listed in the ingredients on a food label. These may include amylose, amylopectin, arracacha, arrowroot, banana, barley, buckwheat, cassava, corn, fava, kudzu, lentil, maltodextrin, modified food starch, oca, polysaccharide, sago, sorghum, sweet potato, tapioca, taro, pea, potatoes, rice, wheat, yams and others. Global products have introduced a number of these starches into US and other diets.

DIETARY FIBER**FOOD BYTE**

Fiber became a popularized nutritive substance in the 1970s when Dr. Denis Burkitt coined the phrase “the fiber hypothesis,” in which he suggested that fiber can prevent certain diseases. Through Dr. Burkitt’s research in Africa, he discovered that diseases that were common in Western cultures, such as colon cancer, coronary heart disease and diabetes, were uncommon in Africa. The differences were attributed to the high intake of fiber and the low intake of refined carbohydrates in Africa.

TABLE 4-10 Foods and Beverages That Meet Daily Carbohydrate Needs

Foods and Beverages	Amounts of Carbohydrates (grams)
1 cup cooked oatmeal	25 g
1 cup frozen low-fat yogurt	37
1 medium banana	27
1 medium apple	32
½ cup cooked garbanzo beans	22
½ cup cooked brown rice	22
2 cups skim milk	24
2 slices whole wheat bread	26
2 cups popped popcorn	38
Total	253
2 cups cooked oatmeal	50
2 cups frozen low-fat yogurt	74
2 medium bananas	54
2 medium apples	64
1 cup cooked garbanzo beans	44
1 cup cooked brown rice	44
3 cups skim milk	36
4 slices whole wheat bread	52
4 cups popped popcorn	76
Total	494

TABLE 4-11 Calorie Levels, Added Sugar and Food Equivalents

Calories	Added Sugar (teaspoons)	Food Equivalents
1,600 cal	3 tsp	½ cup ice cream; ½ cup 2% chocolate dairy milk
1,800	5	½ cup sherbet; 1 ounce fudge
2,000	8	2-ounce chocolate bar; 12-ounce cola drink
2,200	9	10-ounce fruit punch drink
2,400	11	16-ounce chocolate milkshake

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daily calorie level. Based on an average daily calorie intake of 2,000 calories, this equals about 8 teaspoons of added sugar. There are about 8 teaspoons of sugar in a 2-ounce chocolate bar and a 12-ounce cola drink. Other calorie levels, added sugars and food equivalents are shown in Table 4-11. This shows that foods with added sugars can be consumed in a calorie-controlled diet. The remaining calories should come from nutrient-dense foods.

How can this information be applied to cooking and baking? If you oversee the foods and beverages for sedentary people at a weight loss spa, then you may have to adjust the recipes or meals to provide just 45 percent of the total calories from carbohydrates. If you manage the foods and beverages at a training clinic for athletes, then you may have to adjust the recipes or meals to provide as much as 65 percent of the total calories from carbohydrates. You can use the USDA National Nutrient Database for Standard Reference at <http://ndb.nal.usda.gov/> to determine the number of grams of carbohydrates in foods and beverages for recipe and menu development.

Carbohydrates in Disease: Lactose Intolerance, Gluten Intolerance, Coronary Heart Disease, Diabetes, Hypoglycemia and Obesity

LACTOSE INTOLERANCE

The use of dairy products in cooking and baking and how to adjust recipes if dairy products are eliminated due to allergies, religious constraints or other reasons are discussed in Chapter 5. By understanding the symptoms that are associated with *lactose intolerance*, one can see why cooking and baking without dairy products is critical for certain segments of the population.

If a person follows a strict, gluten-free diet, the small intestine may have time to heal and symptoms may subside. This is why it is so important to read food labels and to learn about the “hidden” ingredients in foods that may contain gluten, such as artificial and natural flavorings, hydrolyzed plant or vegetable proteins, or modified food starches. Some of these ingredients may be found in beer, cold cuts, egg substitutes, frozen yogurt and yogurt drinks, salad dressings and other foods. Trial and error, elimination of suspected foods, and replacement by tolerated foods are recommended.

A wide range of gluten-free products are currently available. As more people are diagnosed with gluten sensitivity or intolerance, this will necessitate more gluten-free options and cooking and baking adaptations [19,20].

DIABETES

Diabetes is the common name for *diabetes mellitus*, one of the oldest known diseases. Since antiquity, the condition has been described as the need to “siphon” or discharge large amounts of honey-scented urine. Early symptoms of diabetes may include excessive thirst and urination and sugar in the urine. Other symptoms may include blurry vision, increased fatigue, irritability and/or unusual weight loss.

There are three types of diabetes: Type I diabetes, also called juvenile diabetes; Type II diabetes, also called adult onset diabetes; and gestational diabetes, also called the diabetes of pregnancy. Type I diabetes is due to inadequate insulin production by the beta cells of the pancreas. It usually occurs when people are young, which is why it is called juvenile diabetes. It is an autoimmune disease, much like celiac disease. There is no known cure for Type I diabetes at this time. Treatments for Type I diabetes include programmed insulin injections and blood sugar management through diet and exercise.

Type II diabetes is due, in part, to insulin resistance, which means that the pancreas may produce enough insulin but that something may interfere with insulin from reaching the targeted tissues. Also, the pancreas may tire from working so hard to sustain a high level of insulin to remove sugar from the bloodstream, so it may eventually function abnormally. Treatments for Type II diabetes include diet prescription, weight management, increased activity, oral medications to assist with glucose control and insulin injections, if required.

Gestational diabetes also involves insulin resistance, which is probably driven by predisposition to the disease and hormonal fluctuations during pregnancy. Gestational diabetes often disappears when the pregnancy is over.

Long-term effects of diabetes with poor blood sugar management may include disorders of the cardiovascular and digestion systems, eyes, feet, kidneys, nerves, sexual functions, skin, teeth and gums and produce increased risks for heart disease and bone and joint disorders, among other conditions.

Children, Teens and Type II Diabetes

Type II diabetes is a condition that is normally associated with age, obesity and poor nutrient intake. It has become more prevalent in children and teens. There appears to be a host of behavioral, environmental and social factors that may predispose children and teens to Type II diabetes.

Puberty is an important factor. This may be due to fluctuations in hormone levels, which may cause insulin resistance and decreased insulin action. Obesity is another speculated factor. The condition of extra body fat in children and teens, like obese adults, can lead to insulin resistance. Both obese children and obese adults may produce too much insulin, and when the need arises, they may be unable to produce even more insulin. Other factors that may contribute to Type II diabetes in children and teens include a family history of Type II diabetes and an ethnic background of African-American, American Indian, Asian, Hispanic or Pacific Islander origin.

Recipes, meals and menus should be developed that highlight the importance of healthy eating for the entire family, not just the diabetic. Other considerations should incorporate culture, family resources and lifestyle. Increased activity is essential to weight loss and control of Type II diabetes in children and teens. This is because exercise speeds up calorie expenditure and promotes weight loss and body fat—thus, increased insulin sensitivity.

If diabetes is not managed, uncontrolled blood sugar can cause *hypoglycemia*, or low blood sugar, which can cause blood vessel and nerve damage. In turn, this damage can lead to cardiovascular disease; retinal damage,

which can lead to blindness; chronic renal disease, which can lead to kidney failure; and poor wound healing, which can lead to *gangrene*, which is decay of body tissues due to insufficient blood supply, with possible amputation.

Medical nutrition therapy (MNT) helps to prevent diabetes, manage existing diabetes and slow the development of diabetes complications through healthy food choices, physical activity and weight loss when warranted. It is usually done through the guidance of registered dietitians (RDs) as licensed by their state of practice.

The goals of MNT are to maintain a person's normal blood glucose levels, blood fats and blood pressure; modify their nutrient intake and lifestyle; account for any personal and cultural preferences; and maintain his or her pleasure of eating. For Type I and gestational diabetes, MNT also serves to meet the nutritional requirements of children and pregnancy. For Type II diabetes, MNT also serves to help normalize blood sugar control and to promote self-management.

Food and Nutrition Recommendations for People with Diabetes

In the past, diabetes management consisted of prescribed amounts of food and beverages at set times to match prescribed amounts of insulin. Today's recommendations consist of attention to total daily carbohydrates, with prudent food and nutrition guidelines that both patients and families can follow. More information on creating recipes and meals for diabetics can be found in Chapter 9.

- Eat vegetables for fiber and nutrients.
- Focus on nonstarchy vegetables, such as deep leafy greens and those in the cruciferous family, such as broccoli and cabbage.
- Eat whole fruit for fiber and nutrients.
- Do not drink too much fruit juice or eat too much dried fruit. Both fruit juice and dried fruit contain concentrated sugars.
- Eat whole grains before processed grain products for fiber and nutrients.
- Include cooked beans, lentils and peas for fiber, protein and nutrients.

Recipe: Vegetarian Chili

*Vegetarian chili is usually a fusion of vegetables, legumes and spices, often in a tomato-based stew. Chili does not require meat to be flavorful or nutritious. In the **Vegetarian Chili** recipe in the **Recipe file**, which is located within the Culinary Nutrition website at www.culinarynutrition.elsevier.com, carrots, garlic, mushrooms, onions and bell and chipotle peppers intermingle with basil, chili powder, cumin and oregano for a substantial and mouthwatering experience. Other than flavor, capsaicin, the active component in chili peppers, may stimulate fat metabolism and reduce cholesterol and triglyceride levels. Generally, the hotter the chili pepper, the more capsaicin that it contains. The finished dish is shown within the centerfold **Photo file** in Plate 4.3.*

- Include fish two to three times a week for lean protein and healthy fats.
- Choose low- and nonfat dairy products for protein and nutrients.
- Choose lean meats for lean protein and nutrients. Trim the fat and remove the skin wherever possible.
- Choose water, reduced-sugar and/or sugar-free beverages.
- Choose liquid oils before solid fats for cooking.
- Reduce high-calorie snack foods and desserts.
- If alcohol is consumed, do so in moderation and preferably with meals.
- Watch portion sizes.

The Role of Nutrition, Food Science and Culinary Professionals in Diabetes Management

While there is no longer a "diabetic diet," it is still important for nutrition and culinary professionals to understand the significance of meal planning for diabetics. Meal plans should account for such factors as age, activity level, ethnicity, medical history, medications, nutrition comprehension and weight management. A team approach by registered dietitians and chefs who develop recipe, meal and menu plans offers promising strategies. The development of new food products for diabetics continues to be in demand.

- **Nutritional value:** Millet contains protein, fiber, the B-complex vitamins and vitamin E, and the minerals iron, magnesium, phosphorous and potassium. Millet is higher in fat than wheat, but about half of its fat is polyunsaturated. Millet does not contain gluten, so millet is an acceptable grain for gluten-free diets.
- **Culinary uses:** Millet can be used in casseroles, pilafs, risottos, soups, stews and stuffings. It is fairly interchangeable with buckwheat, quinoa or rice. Millet is mildly sweet with a nutlike flavor.
- **Modern wheat** is derived from three wheat varieties that been harvested in Europe and the Near East for over 9,000 years. These are *einkorn*, *emmer* and *spelt*.
 - **Einkorn**, a tough grain, is a precursor of durum wheat. It was grown in Europe about 11000 BC. Other evidence of einkorn farming was found in southeast Turkey and Jericho. Einkorn is rarely grown today.
 - **Emmer**, also known as **farro**, is another precursor of durum wheat. It was a farming staple in ancient Egypt and Turkey. Emmer is still farmed today for both human food and animal feed.
- **Culinary uses:** Emmer bread is consumed in Switzerland. In Italy, farro is used as a side dish and in soup. Farro flour is used in making pasta and in soup. It has an earthy taste and gritty texture.
 - **Spelt**, another precursor of durum wheat, is thought to have originated in Mesopotamia about 9000 BC. It is believed that only emmer and einkorn preceded spelt in domestication. Spelt's grains are longer and pointier than durum wheat, with stronger husks. Because spelt is closely related to wheat, it is not a substitute for people who are gluten intolerant.
- **Culinary uses:** Spelt is accessible as flour or grain. It can be used in casseroles, cookies, crackers, hot breakfast cereals, pasta, pilafs and stuffings. Spelt is available in a coarse, pale bread, similar in color and texture to light rye bread but slightly sweeter and nuttier in flavor. The Dutch distill gin that is made with a spelt base, and Bavarians brew beer that is made from spelt. In Germany, unripe spelt grains are dried and consumed as *Grünkern*, or "green grain." Spelt has a distinctive nutty flavor.
 - **Oats** date back to around 2000 BC in the Middle East. Oats are better able to withstand harsh growing conditions than wheat and barley. This made oats a valuable grain for feeding the poor who lived in disadvantaged regions. Contrary to oatmeal, oats have a hard hull. Hulled oats, or oat groats, look like rye or triticale wheat.
- **Nutrition value:** Oats may be consumed in moderation by people who are allergic to wheat. But some commercial oats may be contaminated with wheat or barley. Oats have both soluble and insoluble fibers and may be useful in lowering cholesterol and reducing the risk of coronary heart disease (see Chapter 9). They are higher in polyunsaturated fatty acids than wheat and are also rich in B vitamins and the antioxidant vitamin E.
- **Culinary uses:** Cooked whole oats or oat groats can be used as a hearty side dish. Rolled oats can be transformed into breakfast cereals such as muesli or granola. Cooked oats can be prepared as porridge or hot cereal. Pulverized oats can be used as flour for oatcakes, oatmeal cookies or oat bread. Fast-cooking oats can function as a thickener in soups. Oats are used in Britain for brewing beer, such as oatmeal stout.
- **Quinoa** is not a true grain, much like amaranth and buckwheat. It is technically a fruit because it contains a seed. The Incas referred to quinoa as the "Mother Grain" because it was thought to be very healthy and promote longevity. Quinoa has been grown in the Andes mountain regions of South America, especially around Bolivia, for more than 5,000 years. It is often referred to as a "super food",
- **Nutritional value:** Like amaranth, quinoa is one of the few plant foods that provide complete protein with a balanced mixture of all of the essential amino acids. Quinoa is also a very good source of manganese and a good source of copper, iron, magnesium and phosphorus. It is gluten-free.
- **Culinary uses:** Quinoa can be used like rice as a side dish, such as pilaf; in grain salads; and in stuffings. Since quinoa is a complete protein food, it can be used as a base for vegetarian entrees. Quinoa flour can be combined with potato starch, sorghum flour or tapioca to create a gluten-free baking mix. Quinoa is also processed into flaked cold cereals like amaranth.
- **Teff** is a tiny grain that comes in brown, red and white varieties. Because it is so tiny, the entire grain must be milled because there is no way to remove the germ or the husk. Teff has

such as these with a meal or snack and/or brushing your teeth after consuming high-sugar foods and beverages may help reduce the adherence of sugar [23].

The fermentation action of bacteria on starches takes longer than sugars. If starches are also sticky, such as cupcakes with frosting or glazed sweet rolls, then the food particles and sugars can become lodged between the teeth and gums. Unless you brush your teeth right away, these captured particles are perfectly situated for oral bacteria to ferment the carbohydrates.

A diet with lean meats and foods high in fiber, especially fresh fruits and vegetables, helps to cleanse the teeth of food particles and sugars and decrease the incidence of cavities. The fibers from fresh fruits and vegetables help to counteract the dental caries-causing effects of carbohydrates. Fiber helps to clean the teeth, much like windshield wipers clean the windshield of a car.

The more people eat over the course of a day, the more they are exposed to carbohydrates because they are so prevalent in most diets. Frequent snacking, especially with carbohydrate-containing foods and beverages such as candy and soda, provides an endless amount of carbohydrates for the oral bacteria. It is best to choose snacks with more protein, including lean meats, lower-fat cheeses, dry-roasted nuts, low-fat dairy milk or plain low-fat yogurt. Despite their carbohydrate content, dairy products may have a neutral effect on dental caries due to their protein content.

Consuming a nonsugar beverage with snacks helps to flush away food particles. So does swishing your mouth with water or brushing and flossing after eating, which are essential practices of good oral hygiene.

SERVE IT FORTH

Adapting recipes to meet consumer preferences is part food science and part culinary artistry. Although some basic guidelines can be provided, testing and tasting are the best strategies. You will use the Basic Muffins recipe to make muffin variations that are whole grain, reduced in carbohydrates, lactose-free, gluten-free, high in fiber, and that have a low Glycemic Index (GI). Record your observations, and then answer the questions that follow each activity.

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Some breadstuffs are both lactose-free and gluten-free, or high-fiber with a low GI. These activities are filled with tips and techniques to assist in their development.

BASIC MUFFINS

Ingredients

Nonstick cooking spray
 1¾ cup all-purpose flour
 3 teaspoons baking powder
 2 tablespoons white sugar
 1 cup 2% reduced-fat dairy milk
 ½ teaspoon salt
 3 tablespoons melted sweet butter or vegetable oil (like canola)
 1 large egg

Directions

1. Preheat oven to 425°F.
2. Spray a 12-cup muffin tin with the nonstick cooking spray.
3. Sift the flour, baking powder and white sugar together into a medium bowl; set aside.
4. Beat the egg in a small bowl until light and fluffy.
5. Slowly blend the milk and butter or oil into the beaten egg.
6. Add the egg mixture to the dry ingredients; stir only until combined and moistened.
7. Spoon the batter into the prepared muffin cups; fill each cup half full.
8. Bake about 20 to 25 minutes, or until lightly browned.

Yield: 12 (2-inch) muffins

Making Basic Muffins Whole Grain

The flour in this recipe is all-purpose white flour. To make these muffins whole grain, 100 percent whole wheat flour may be substituted. However, this substitution may lead to dense muffins. To compensate, try

