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Additional Information

25 cooking methods. Specially, fried potatoes represent a high volume of consumption
26 around the World. Nevertheless, in recent decades, fried products have lost popularity
27 due to their high fat content. Furthermore, it is also increasing concern about acrylamide
28 intake, a potentially carcinogenic compound found in high amounts in different food
29 commonly consumed, both fried and baked products (Tareke et al. 2002). This fact led to
30 health authorities and the food industry to encourage the search for strategies and
31 technologies that lead healthier products production, with the aim of reducing both fat
32 and acrylamide contents in fried products. Among the different strategies for decreasing
33 the acrylamide content in fried foods, it should be noted the application of treatments
34 prior to frying, as blanching. Other studied alternatives involve the use of different frying
35 technologies such as vacuum frying (Granda and Moreira 2005) or air-frying (Andrés et
36 al. 2013; Sansano et al. 2015) to produce fried products with both low fat and acrylamide
37 contents.

38 With regard to microwaves technology, it has mainly been applied before conventional
39 deep-oil frying of French fries or chicken nuggets (Adedeji et al. 2009; Belgin Erdoğdu
40 et al. 2007). The mass and energy transfer phenomena in microwave heating differ from
41 conventional techniques, due to the nature of microwave heating that generates a
42 temperature gradient from inside to the surface (Datta 2001). The interaction of
43 microwave with polar water molecules of the interior of the product absorbs wave energy
44 and produces a quick heating. This heat creates a sharp mass transfer due to the internal
45 pressure of steam water which produces a quick drying without overheating the product
46 surface (Datta 1990; Parikh and Takhar 2016). Thus, microwave frying seems to offer
47 an improvement in efficiency and economy as well as a reduction of temperature and time
48 of the process. Several studies are based on a hybrid system that combines microwave
49 and conventional heating (Schiffmann 2017), and others are carried out under microwave

50 conditions; but in those cases, oil medium is heated over the frying temperature prior to
51 frying. In these instances, acrylamide content was substantially reduced in potato strips
52 (Sahin et al. 2007) and coating of nuggets (Barutcu et al. 2009) compared to deep-fat
53 frying, as well as oil uptake and frying time (Oztop et al. 2007). Nevertheless, the impact
54 of microwaves technology on acrylamide generation as well as on the mass transfer
55 phenomena and color and texture development during frying without previous heating of
56 frying oil have not been studied yet. Therefore, our study consisted of the use of fresh oil
57 and fresh potatoes from the beginning, in order to understand the overall process that
58 potatoes and oil experience during microwave heating and frying. From the previous
59 knowledge about the different potato and oil dielectric properties (Tang et al. 2002), and
60 consequently different heating rates at microwave exposure, the experiments were carried
61 out without pre-heating of oil medium, to know the different behavior of both matrix
62 during the heating process.

63 Hence, the aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of microwave power (315, 430 and
64 600 W) on acrylamide generation, compositional changes (in terms of moisture and fat
65 contents), texture and color development in microwave fried potatoes. It was established a
66 single process that, in a unit operation, it could be combined a previous potato cooking
67 and, when oil is heated, a frying step.

68

69 **Materials and methods**

70 Raw Material

71 Fresh potatoes (*Solanum tuberosum*, Agria variety) were purchased from a local supplier
72 (*Patatas Aguilar, Ribaroja, Spain*) and stored at 8°C (used within 5 days of purchase).
73 Corn and sunflower seed refined oil (*Sovena, Brenes, Spain*) was used in all frying runs.

74 Experimental Methodology

75 A household microwave oven (GW72N Samsung Electronics) was used in this study. The
76 microwave power applied in each power level was determined by IMPI 2-L test (Buffler
77 1993) as 315, 430 and 600 W. Before experiments, potatoes were dipped for 24 hours in
78 water at room temperature to balance the moisture profile ($85 \pm 2\%$ of moisture content)
79 and cut into strips ($0.01\text{m} \times 0.01\text{m} \times 0.05\text{m}$) with a commercial cutter (Taurus kitchen
80 line, New Wulmstorf, Germany). Samples were fried every minute from 1 to 10 min, 1
81 to 8 min, and 1 to 6 min at 315, 430 and 600 W, respectively. The final frying times (10,
82 8 and 6 min) were chosen based on a preliminary study, where frying above the highest
83 time of each power, produced excessive dried-out and burnt samples. Each frying run
84 was conducted as follows: 250 mL of fresh oil (without pre-heating) were placed in a
85 Pyrex beaker and 5 potato strips ($25 \text{ g} \pm 1.5 \text{ g}$) were immersed in it to conduct a frying
86 run at a specified time and power. All runs were done renewing the oil after each frying
87 time. As control, conventional deep-oil frying was performed in a commercial deep-fat
88 fryer of 2 L of capacity (model: FM 6720 Ideal 2000 Professional, Solac), previously
89 heated at $180 \pm 2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. Samples were fried for a total frying time of 8 min and sampling
90 was done in 1-min interval. After both frying techniques, the excess oil on the surface of
91 the samples was removed with dry tissue paper for 20 seconds. All experiments
92 (microwave and conventional frying) were carried out with a constant ratio potato:oil of
93 1:10 (w/v).

94 Oil and potato temperatures were registered during the full process of both frying
95 techniques using temperature sensors (Thermometer model HIBOK 14, sensor type K,
96 sensitivity $39 \mu\text{V}\cdot^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$, accuracy ± 0.1). The temperature was registered immediately
97 after each frying time and power level evaluated. Two temperature sensors were placed
98 at the center (4-6 mm deep) of two different potatoes, and two thermocouples registered
99 oil temperature.

100 Analytical Determinations

101 *Moisture and oil net fluxes*

102 Water content was analyzed by vacuum drying at 60 °C until constant weight was
103 achieved and total oil content was determined by solvent extraction using the Soxhlet
104 method with petroleum ether (AACC 1995). Net changes of components (ΔM_t^i)
105 (concretely, oil (ΔM_t^{oil}) and water (ΔM_t^w)) during frying were obtained according to
106 equation (1):

$$107 \quad \Delta M_t^i = \frac{(M_t \times x_t^i) - (M_0 \times x_0^i)}{M_0} \quad (1)$$

108 where M_0 is the total mass of the sample at initial time (g), M_t is the total mass at time t
109 (g), x_0^i is the mass fraction of component (water or oil) at initial time (g/total g) and x_t^i is
110 the mass fraction of component (water or oil) at time t (g/total g). Superscript i is “oil” or
111 “w” for oil and water component, respectively.

112 *Mechanical and optical properties*

113 The formation of external crust at the reference frying time was evaluated, on 5 samples
114 by time, by subjecting the sample to a cutting test at 45-50 °C using a Texture Analyser
115 (mod. TA-XT Plus Aname, Spain) equipped with a 50 kg load cell and a Warner Bratzler
116 knife blade. The crosshead speed was 1 mm/s. From the force-deformation curve, the
117 maximum shear force F_{max} (N) necessary to cut one strip of potato was recorded.

118 The determination of the optical properties of French fries at the reference frying time
119 was carried out using a spectrophotometer (MINOLTA, mod. CM-3600d, Japan). The
120 color space coordinates $CIEL^*a^*b^*$ were obtained from the absorption spectrum between
121 380 and 770 nm by reflectance with the reference system: D65 illuminant and 10°
122 observer, and a 7 mm lens. Measurements were made on 5 potato strips and on two sides.
123 Total color change (ΔE) was calculated from equation (2), using raw potatoes color
124 coordinates as reference (L_0, a_0, b_0).

125
$$\Delta E = [(L^* - L_0)^2 + (a^* - a_0)^2 + (b^* - b_0)^2]^{1/2} \quad (2)$$

126 *Acrylamide determination*

127 The determination of acrylamide content was carried out by means of dispersive solid
128 phase extraction (QuEChERS) according to Sansano et al. (2015) but using ¹³C₃-
129 acrylamide as internal standard.

130 *Statistical analysis*

131 The influence of the microwave frying at 315, 430 and 600 W, at the reference frying
132 time, compared to the deep-oil frying on the water and oil content, color and texture was
133 analyzed using Statgraphics Centurion XVI. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was
134 evaluated for each parameter by a one-way analysis with a significance level of 95%.

135 **Results**

136 The evolution of oil and potato temperatures along microwave and deep-oil frying is
137 shown in Figure 1. During the conventional frying, the product quickly reached the
138 boiling temperature of water (100 °C) and it kept constant along frying. Regarding the
139 oil medium, it experimented a slightly decrease from 180 °C to 160 °C because of mass
140 transfer of water, in vapor state, from the product to the external medium. However,
141 during microwave frying without pre-heating of oil medium, the electromagnetic field
142 promotes a faster heating of the water of the raw potato (polar molecules) of the product
143 than the oil (non-polar molecules) (Venkatesh and Raghavan 2004). This effect is due to
144 the dielectric properties of both substances. Raw potato has at 2450 Hz a higher loss factor
145 (ϵ'') than oil (15.7 vs 0.14) (Tang et al. 2002), what means that the microwave energy
146 tends to mainly dissipate in the potato generating heat (De los Reyes et al. 2007).
147 Therefore, the product temperature was much higher than the oil one at the beginning of
148 microwave frying; while from 3 min, the higher the microwave power the faster the
149 kinetic of oil heating. The increment of water molecules presence in the oil medium as

150 long as frying progresses modifies the dielectric properties of the medium and potatoes,
151 promoting the oil heating rather than potatoes cooking (Lizhi et al. 2008). Thus,
152 temperature of oil was closed to 160 °C at 430 and 600 W at the end of frying.

153 The heat transfer phenomena occur coupled with mass transfer ones. To this regard, net
154 changes of water loss (ΔM^w_t) and oil uptake (ΔM^{oil}_t) under conventional and microwave-
155 frying conditions are shown in Figure 2. In general, microwave frying increased both net
156 fluxes of water loss (ΔM^w_t) and oil uptake (ΔM^{oil}_t) compared to the fluxes achieved under
157 deep-oil frying. At the beginning of microwave frying (until minute 4), when oil
158 temperature is lower to 100 °C, the condensation of the water on the surface of the product
159 rather than the evaporation occurs, giving as a result lower water loss than under deep-oil
160 frying conditions. Nevertheless, from 4 minutes of microwave frying, the application of
161 microwave promoted water pumping from the inner part of the potato to the surface, and
162 further vaporization. Parikh & Takhar, (2016) showed that during microwave frying, an
163 increase of temperature and the internal pressure were faster than conventional frying.
164 This fact was attributed to the internal vapor pressure caused by the volumetric heating
165 in the presence of microwaves, that also favoured the moisture escape. Concurrently, the
166 volumetric heating that results in microwave frying seems to create structural channels
167 through the potato tissue, which favors the oil uptake [to a greater extent than in deep-oil](#)
168 [frying](#). This fact took place at low and medium microwave power levels: 315 and 430 W,
169 showing higher oil uptake than under deep-oil frying conditions. Pedreschi & Moyano
170 (2005) reported that longer times and lower temperatures increased the oil intake, as
171 happens at low–medium microwave power levels. In contrast to the highest power
172 (600W), as every household microwave oven, lower power levels are provided by pulsed
173 microwaves (in this study at 315 and 430 W). When magnetron stops, there is not
174 electromagnetic energy input, so the flux of water toward the surface slows down and oil

175 uptake takes place. This effect would explain why at 315 and 430 W, samples gained a
176 higher amount of oil than at 600 W.

177 The effect of microwave frying on acrylamide generation seemed to be greatly dependent
178 on the frying technique (Table 1). Thus, deep-oil fried potatoes presented higher
179 acrylamide content ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$) than microwave-fried potatoes excepting at the end of frying
180 in which an exponential increase took place under microwave frying. Concretely, the
181 exponential increase occurred from 7, 6 and 4 min of frying at 315, 430 and 600 W,
182 respectively coinciding with a moisture content of 0.15-0.20 g water/g potato in all cases.
183 It is therefore necessary to control the water content, since, at these moisture levels, the
184 protection of the water flow gets lost and acrylamide content increases considerably. *It is*
185 *reported that remaining wet the product surface* highly limits the acrylamide formation in
186 fried or baked products (Ahrné et al. 2007; Bråthen and Knutsen 2005). On the other
187 hand, the flux of water, in vapor state, occurring from the surface of the product to the
188 external oil during frying, could sweep along part of the generated acrylamide, very
189 instable and volatile compound, as well as its precursors (Amrein et al. 2006). This
190 volatilization phenomenon is enhanced when microwave power is applied owing to the
191 volumetric heating and the greater flux of water (Belgin Erdoğdu et al. 2007). This
192 mechanism of degradation and/or volatilization of acrylamide could be observed at 4, 5
193 and 6 min of microwave frying at 430 W and 315 W, and under conventional frying,
194 respectively; and it has been also reported in model systems (Biedermann et al. 2002;
195 Taubert et al. 2004).

196 Finally, a reference time was established for each microwave power as well as for deep-
197 oil frying to compare their results in terms of water and oil contents, texture, color (ΔE)
198 and acrylamide ~~content~~ *reduction (%)*. The reference time was established from the overall
199 quality attributes of the final French fries obtained by microwave and deep-oil frying.

200 Table 2 shows the results for each of these parameters at 8, 6, 4 and 7 minutes for 315,
201 430, 600 W and deep-oil frying, respectively. The statistical analysis of the variance
202 showed significant differences in water and oil contents, between microwave frying and
203 deep-oil frying. The use of microwave produced samples with a lower water content and
204 a higher oil content compared to deep-oil frying (0.14 ± 0.04 vs 0.05 ± 0.01 g/g w.b).
205 Microwave fried samples were harder and crisper than conventional ones, mainly because
206 of the significant water loss in microwave frying. Higher color variation was observed at
207 430 and 600 W, because a* and b* coordinates notably increased along frying. However,
208 microwave frying significantly reduced the concentration of acrylamide (from 37 to 83
209 %) in the final product, especially when the higher power level was used.

210 **Conclusion**

211 Microwave-fried samples exhibited a reduction of acrylamide content, obtaining lower
212 amount of acrylamide when increasing the applied power. This effect can be attributed to
213 three factors: the reduction of the frying times; a decrease in the temperature and:
214 especially to the protector effect of the steam flow from the center of the samples
215 (dragging both the acrylamide formed and its precursors). The application of microwaves
216 intensified the phenomena of water transport and thus, the speed of dehydration, which
217 results in a considerable reduction of the frying time required in deep-oil frying to reach
218 the same levels of moisture. The final microwaved French fries exhibited lower water
219 content and resulted in a superficial texture comparable to potato chips rather than French
220 fries. As a result of this study, microwave frying can be an alternative to deep-oil frying
221 for obtaining potato chips with less acrylamide and fat contents.

222 **Acknowledgments**

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225

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295

296 **Table 1.** Mean values (and standard deviation) of acrylamide content ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$) at the
 297 different frying times and power levels.

298	Time (min)	315 W	430 W	600 W	Deep-oil frying
299	1	46 (6)	44 (2)	23 (10)	21 (5)
	2	41 (13)	45 (4)	25 (5)	63 (5)
300	3	53 (7)	63 (4)	29 (2)	87 (8)
301	4	50 (12)	65 (11)	30 (5)	106 (5)
302	5	63 (7)	65 (4)	46 (4)	157 (17)
	6	58 (4)	90 (2)	172 (19)	158 (4)
303	7	52 (4)	167 (4)	-	138 (12)
304	8	60 (7)	337 (54)	-	231 (20)
	9	94 (31)	-	-	-
305	10	182 (40)	-	-	-

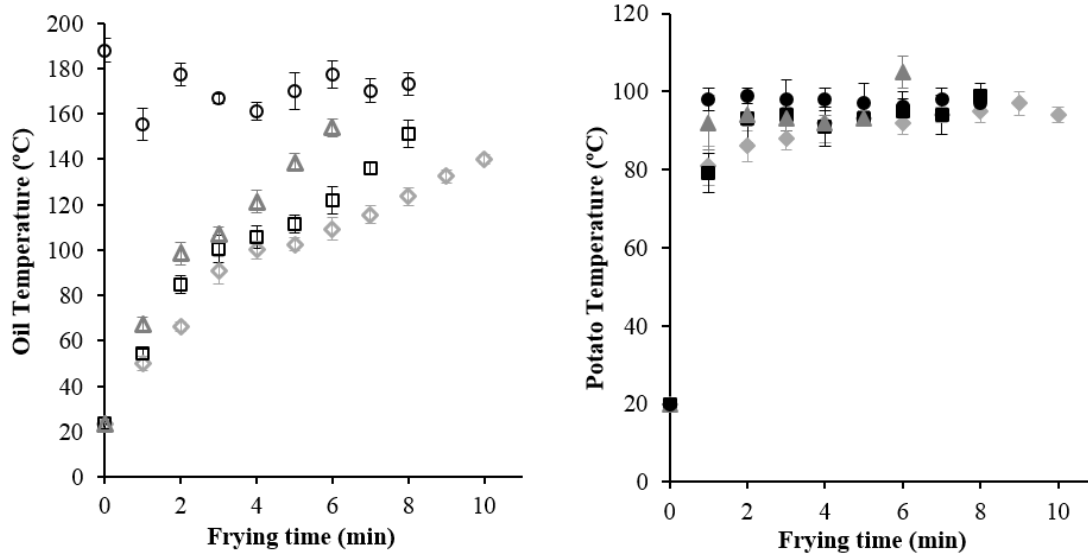
306

307 **Table 2.** Mean values (and standard deviation) of the analyzed parameters at the different
 308 reference times.

Parameter	315 W	430 W	600 W	Deep-oil frying
	(8 min)	(6 min)	(4 min)	(7 min)
Water content (g/g w.b)	0.13 (0.03) ^b	0.19 (0.04) ^c	0.15 (0.04) ^{bc}	0.67 (0.05) ^a
Oil content (g/g w.b)	0.19 (0.01) ^b	0.12 (0.02) ^c	0.10 (0.03) ^c	0.05 (0.01) ^a
F _{max} (N)	45 (16) ^b	59 (15) ^b	44 (13) ^b	18 (4) ^a
ΔE	16 (3) ^a	20 (2) ^b	25 (3) ^c	16 (5) ^a
Reduction of acrylamide (%)	59 (5)	38 (1)	79 (4)	-

309 ^{abc} Different letters indicate differences between homogenous groups

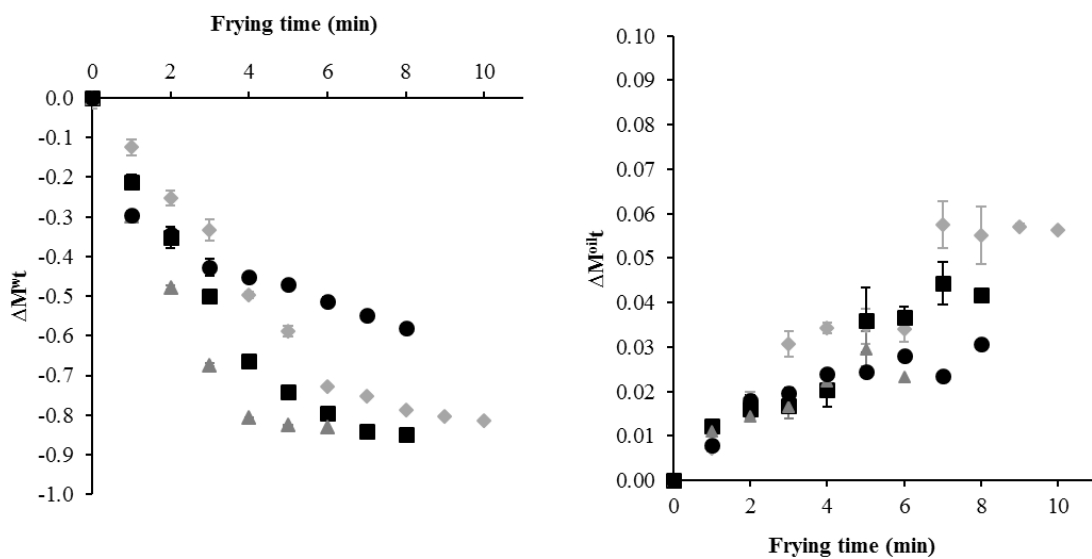
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311

312 **Fig. 1.** Evolution of oil (left) and potato (right) temperatures with frying time under
 313 conventional (●) and microwave frying at 315 W (◇), 430 W (■), 600 W (▲). Empty
 314 icons correspond to respective oil temperature.

315



316

317 **Fig. 2.** Evolution of water loss (ΔM^{wt}) and oil gain (ΔM^{oil}) (n=5) of French Fries with
 318 frying time under conventional (●) and microwave frying at 315 W (◇), 430 W (■), 600
 319 W (▲).

320

321

