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Additional Information

1 **APPLICATION OF COMPRESSION TEST IN ANALYSIS OF**
2 **MECHANICAL AND COLOR CHANGES IN GRAPEFRUIT JUICE**
3 **POWDER AS RELATED TO GLASS TRANSITION AND WATER**
4 **ACTIVITY**

5
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15
16 **Running Head** – Mechanical and color changes in grapefruit powder...

17
18 **Abstract**

19 Physicochemical and structural properties of grapefruit juice powder were
20 studied as affected by water activity. Powdered juice was obtained by freeze-drying
21 and equilibrated at different water vapor pressure atmospheres in order to give
22 samples with water activity in the range of 0 to 0.84. The mechanical properties of
23 the powder were measured by confined compression tests and the compressed
24 samples, which presented uniform surface and thickness, were subjected to color
25 analysis. The maximum force attained during the compression tests and the color

26 coordinates could be quantified with good reproducibility. The results were related to
27 water activity and to glass transition temperature. The occurrence of mechanical
28 changes in the powder was shown to precede significant color changes with
29 increasing water activity. Considering the susceptibility to stickiness, the stability
30 limit was observed at $T - T_g \approx 2$ °C, with a high degree of mechanical changes being
31 detected at $T - T_g \approx 16$ °C, whereas for significant color changes this critical
32 temperature difference was around 32 °C.

33

34 **Key Words:** Water Content, Sorption Isotherm, Stickiness, Freeze-drying

35

36 **Nomenclature**

37 A parameter in Equation (4)

38 a^* CIELab color coordinate

39 a_w water activity

40 a_{whalf} parameter in Equation (7)

41 b^* CIELab color coordinate

42 C_{ab}^* chroma

43 F_l parameter in Equation (7), N/kg

44 F_{max} maximum force attained during the compression test, N

45 F_u parameter in Equation (7), N/kg

46 h_{ab}^* hue angle, degrees

47 k parameter in Equation (5)

48 L^* CIELab color coordinate

49 m sample mass, kg

50 T temperature, °C

- 51 T_{gs} glass transition of the anhydrous solids fraction, °C
52 T_{gw} glass transition of pure amorphous water (-135 °C)
53 X water content, dry basis
54 X_m monolayer water content, dry basis
55 X_s solids fraction
56 X_w water fraction
57 ΔE^* total color difference
58 λ parameter in Equation (7)

59

60 **1. Introduction**

61 Natural fruit juices, and particularly citrus juices, are considered nutrient dense
62 beverages, as they are concentrated sources of nutrients (Rampersaud, 2007).
63 Powdered juices might constitute good alternatives to convenient and healthy food
64 products or ingredients to formulated foods. Nevertheless, drying and storage of
65 powdered fruit juices presents technical difficulties due to their hygroscopic and
66 thermoplastic behavior at high temperature and/or humidity, a characteristic that is
67 associated to their composition (Adhikari, Howes, Bhandari & Troung, 2004). Most
68 of the soluble solids in fruit juices are low molecular weight sugars such as sucrose,
69 glucose and fructose, as well as organic acids such as citric, malic and tartaric acid.
70 Rapid water removal during freeze-drying or spray-drying, which are the methods
71 usually employed in producing powdered fruit juices, results in an amorphous matrix
72 that is susceptible to glass transition related changes, including stickiness, caking,
73 and collapse (Aguilera, Del Valle & Karel, 1995; Chen, 2007; Foster, Bronlund &
74 Paterson., 2006; Phanindrakumar, Radhakrishna, Mahesh, Jagannath & Bawa, 2005;
75 Venir, Munari, Tonizzo & Maltini, 2007), as well as color changes (Acevedo,

76 Schebor & Buera, 2006; Lievonen, Laaksonen & Roos, 2002; Ling, Birch & Lim,
77 2005; Miao & Roos, 2006).

78 The glass transition is characterized by the change from the glassy to the
79 rubbery state, with a certain characteristic of a thermodynamic second-order phase
80 transition over a temperature range. This temperature range is characteristic for each
81 material and may extend over 10 to 20 °C for amorphous sugars, or up to over 50 °C
82 for some food polymers. The glass transition temperature (T_g) is taken as the onset or
83 mid-point temperature of such a range and it is usually plasticized by water. When
84 amorphous food materials reach their glass transition temperature, by increasing
85 temperature and/or increasing water content, various time dependent structural
86 transformations may occur as a consequence of the drastic decrease in the viscosity
87 and increase in molecular mobility above T_g (Levine & Slade, 1989; Roos & Karel,
88 1991; Roos, 1995a, 2003; Slade & Levine, 1991). The highly porous materials
89 prepared by freeze-drying are susceptible to post-drying collapse, characterized by a
90 loss of structure and, in particular, a drastic decrease in porosity, affecting aroma
91 retention, caking and stickiness, rehydration capacity and final moisture distribution
92 (Levi & Karel, 1995). There is a strong dependence of rates of collapse on the
93 quantity $(T - T_g)$, and the effect of water is mainly associated with the depression of
94 T_g that leads to the increase in $(T - T_g)$ at constant temperature (Aguilera et al. 1995;
95 Fitzpatrick, Hodnett, Twomey, Cerqueira, O'Flynn & Roos, 2007; Foster et al., 2006;
96 Paterson, Brooks, Bronlund & Foster, 2005). According to Roos (1995b), stickiness,
97 caking and collapse, appear to be related phenomena. When a freeze-dried matrix
98 reaches a critical temperature, which is related to T_g , a sequence of deleterious events
99 is observed. Initially, an incipient liquid state of a lower viscosity at the particle
100 surface occurs, which results in stickiness. Caking of sticky powders results because

101 of interparticle bridging, causing a loss of structure and decrease in sample volume.
102 Collapse may be considered as an extended caking phenomenon that results in
103 liquefaction, reducing the macroscopic volume towards that typical of the liquid state
104 and concomitant loss of porosity.

105 The methods used to detect collapse and shrinkage ranged from visual
106 observation (To & Flink, 1978) and measurements of specific volume (Venir et al.,
107 2007; Prado, Buera & Elizalde, 2006; Levi & Karel, 1995) to measurements of
108 internal porosity (White & Bell, 1999). Techniques and instrumentations developed
109 for quantifying the degree of stickiness, caking and agglomeration in food powders
110 have been reviewed by Boonyai, Bhandari and Howes (2004), who concluded that
111 efforts on developing an accurate, simpler, and cheaper technique to characterize the
112 stickiness behavior of food powders are still needed.

113 Boonyai, Howes and Bhandari (2007) developed a thermal compression test
114 that involves the application of compression force in a thermally controlled sample
115 cell attached to a texture analyzer as a method to investigate the glass–rubber
116 transition of food powders. The technique was validated against standard DSC and
117 TMA methods. Özkan, Walisinghe and Chen (2002) applied a penetration test based
118 on the measurement of force required to penetrate powder compacts to characterize
119 stickiness and cake formation in whole and skim milk powders. Compression tests
120 were also used by Al Mahdi, Nasirpour, Banon, Scher and Desobry (2006) to
121 quantify caking intensity of dried skimmed milk and wheat flour, expressed as the
122 maximum force calculated from force/compression curves.

123 Krokida, Maroulis and Saravacos (2001) pointed out that when compared to
124 other drying methods, freeze-drying seemed to prevent color changes in foods,
125 resulting in dried products with improved color characteristics. Nevertheless, storage

126 of freeze-dried foods above their glass transition temperature induces reactions of
127 color deterioration such as enzymatic and non-enzymatic browning (Karmas, Buera
128 and Karel, 1992); Miao and Roos, 2006). According to Acevedo et al. (2006), the
129 dependence of browning rate with relative humidity of freeze-dried systems of
130 different compositions and structures was governed by solid–water interactions and
131 by structural characteristics of the systems. Rates of non-enzymatic browning of
132 solid food models were shown to increase at temperatures 10-20 °C above the T_g
133 (Lievonen et al., 2002).

134 Color measurement in bulk powder presents some drawbacks. Instrument
135 manufacturers point out that when measuring powder color with a
136 spectrophotometer, the measurement value varies depending on the density of the
137 powder and the surface conditions. To avoid errors, special methods are required
138 such as placing a fixed amount of powder into a container of a fixed shape and size
139 and maintaining a fixed surface quality (Konica Minolta Sensing, Inc., 2003).
140 Stickiness and collapse undergone by amorphous food powders during exposure to
141 high water vapor pressure atmospheres may affect color measurement, confounding
142 the effects of browning reactions themselves and of the structural changes suffered
143 by the powder.

144 The objective of the present work was to evaluate the viability of using
145 mechanical compression as a simple and convenient empirical method for
146 characterizing freeze-dried pink grapefruit juice in terms of stickiness development
147 and color changes as affected by glass transition and water content.

148

149 **2. Materials and Methods**

150

151 *2.1. Material and sample preparation*

152 Grapefruit (*Citrus paradisi*) of the pigmented variety Star Ruby was obtained
153 in the local market (Valencia, Spain). Fruits were washed and peeled with careful
154 removal of the albedo. The pulp was cut and triturated in a bench top electrical food
155 processor (Thermomix TM 21, Vorwerk, Spain) and passed through a coarse sieve
156 (which is an accessory of the Thermomix) in order to remove most of the fruit rag.
157 This procedure resulted in about 800 mL of juice with the following characteristics:
158 9.20 ± 0.01 °Brix, measured in an Abbe refractometer (model 3T, Atago, Japan);
159 9.74 ± 0.02 g total solids/100 g total mass determined by the gravimetric method in
160 vacuum oven at 60 °C to constant weight; water activity (a_w) of 0.985 ± 0.003
161 measured in a water activity meter (model FA-st lab 1, GBX, France); pH of $3.06 \pm$
162 0.03 measured using a pH meter (model SevenEasy Conductivity, Mettler-Toledo,
163 Switzerland); titratable acidity of 1.74 ± 0.01 g citric acid/100 g total mass,
164 determined by titration to pH 8.2 with NaOH 0.1 mol equi/L.

165 Assuming that the main soluble solids of grapefruit var. Star Ruby are sugars
166 and citric acid (Peiró-Mena, 2007) and taking into account the analyzed amount of
167 total solids and citric acid, the sugars content of the sample used for the study will be
168 around 7.4 g/100 g total mass. Moreover, as pointed out by Peiró-Mena (2007), the
169 main sugars of grapefruit var. Star Ruby are sucrose:fructose:glucose in mass ratio of
170 54:25:21.

171 The juice was rapidly frozen at -25 °C in thin layers for 48 h before freeze-
172 drying in a Telstar Lioalfa-6 Lyophiliser at 10^{-2} Pa for 24 h. The dry product was
173 ground in a mortar and resulted in a powder with water content of 3.24 ± 0.01 g
174 water/100 g total mass, determined by the gravimetric method, in a vacuum oven at
175 60 °C, to constant weight. Samples of about 0.6 g of the grapefruit juice powder

176 spread over watch glasses of 50 mm in diameter, always in triplicate, were
177 conditioned inside vacuum desiccators at 23 °C. P₂O₅ and saturated salt solutions
178 (LiCl, CH₃COOK, MgCl₂, K₂CO₃, Mg(NO₃)₂, NaNO₂, NaCl, KCl) were used to
179 maintain the water activity (a_w) between 0 and 0.84, according to a static sorption
180 isotherm methodology (Spiess & Wolf, 1983). The sample weights were measured
181 until a constant value was attained, where the equilibrium was assumed to be
182 reached.

183

184 *2.2. Measurement of T_g*

185 Duplicate samples of about 6 mg, placed directly in DSC sample pans ((P/N
186 SSC000C008, Seiko Instruments, Inc., Japan), were also conditioned in the same
187 relative humidity chambers for glass transition measurement. After equilibration,
188 pans were rapidly weighed and sealed. Calorimetric analysis was carried out using a
189 DSC 220CU-SSC5200 (Seiko instruments, Inc., Japan). Heating rate was 5 °C/min
190 and temperature range varied between -100 and 100 °C, depending on sample water
191 content. The reference was an empty pan and liquid nitrogen was used for sample
192 cooling before the runs. The midpoint of the glass transition was considered as the
193 characteristic T_g.

194

195 *2.3. Compression tests and color measurement*

196 Mechanical compression tests were conducted using a texture analyzer TA-XT
197 Plus (Stable Micro Systems, Ltd., UK), using a cylindrical probe of 10 mm diameter.
198 Samples of juice powder conditioned at the different a_w were placed in a circular
199 aluminum sample holder of 11 mm diameter and 5.5 mm height. The bottom of the
200 sample holder was hollowed and a sliding white polyethylene disc of 10 mm in

201 diameter and 1 mm thickness was used to close the bottom (Figure 1). During
202 compression tests, the sample holder was kept in a fixed position by fitting in a
203 cavity of diameter only slightly greater than the holder, made in a plate that served as
204 the basis for the compression test. The sample holder was filled up with sample and
205 placed on the plate cavity. The sample was then compressed for a fixed distance of 3
206 mm at a constant rate of 0.05 mm/s. The maximum force attained during the test was
207 recorded as F_{\max} .

208 The sample holder containing the compressed sample was then rapidly inverted
209 over a small reflectance glass (CR-A51, Minolta Camera Co., Japan) which was
210 fixed upon the spectrophotometer lens (mod. CM-2002, Minolta Camera Co., Japan),
211 providing a measurement window of 6 mm diameter. Finally, the sample was forced
212 against the glass surface by pushing the sliding polyethylene disc in the bottom of the
213 sample holder, thus providing a uniform surface and thickness for assaying color by
214 measuring the CIELab color coordinates with a D65 illuminant and 10° observer. In
215 this system the coordinate L^* denotes lightness on a 0 to 100 scale from black to
216 white; a^* , (+) red or (-) green; and b^* , (+) yellow or (-) blue. The hue angle (h_{ab}^*),
217 chroma (C_{ab}^*), and total color differences (ΔE^*) with respect to samples conditioned
218 over P_2O_5 were also obtained as given by Equations (1), (2) and (3) (Fernandez-
219 Segovia, Camacho, Martinez-Navarrete, Escriche & Chiralt, 2003).

220
$$\Delta E^* = \sqrt{(\Delta L^*)^2 + (\Delta a^*)^2 + (\Delta b^*)^2} \quad (1)$$

221
$$C_{ab}^* = \sqrt{(a^*)^2 + (b^*)^2} \quad (2)$$

222
$$h_{ab}^* = \arctg\left(\frac{b^*}{a^*}\right) \quad (3)$$

223 After color measurement, when the sample was still over the glass, the sample
224 holder was carefully removed and the sample thickness was determined with a digital

225 caliper.

226

227 **3. Results and Discussion**

228

229 *3.1. Sorption behavior*

230 The experimental results of the equilibrium water content at 23 °C and nine
231 levels of water activity are presented in Figure 2. Each point is the average of three
232 determinations. An unusual behavior in the experimental data was observed in
233 samples conditioned over P₂O₅, which presented a small amount of residual water
234 content (about 0.02 kg water/kg dry matter). Bonelli, Schebor, Cukierman, Buera and
235 Chirife (1997) and Brooks, Paterson and Bronlund (2001) have already reported the
236 presence of residual water in samples of freeze-dried sugar matrices desiccated over
237 P₂O₅ at room temperature.

238 The Caurie model (Caurie, 1970; Vega-Gálvez, Lemus-Mondaca, Fito and
239 Andrés, 2007), given by Equation (4), was used for adjusting the experimental data
240 of equilibrium water content versus a_w, according to the curve showed in Figure 2.
241 The selection of Caurie's equation may be justified taking into account its ability of
242 predicting some residual moisture in the product at zero water activity.

$$243 \quad X = \exp \left[a_w \ln(A) - \frac{1}{4.5X_m} \right] \quad (4)$$

244 In Equation 4, X is the water content in dry basis, X_m is the security water
245 content (dry basis), and A is a constant (Caurie, 1981). The security water content
246 presents a commercial viewpoint and it has been related to the maximum water
247 content to prevent an important increase in the rate of deteriorative reactions and
248 assure food stability (Vega-Gálvez et al., 2007). The fitting parameters, calculated by

249 non-linear regression using the software Microcal Origin v. 6.0 (Microcal Software,
250 Inc., Northampton, USA), resulted in $X_m = 0.0585 \pm 0.0012$ kg water/kg dry matter,
251 $A = 39.1 \pm 3.8$, with a determination coefficient, R^2 , of 0.998.

252 The obtained curve does not show the inflection point that indicates the change
253 between mono- and multi-layer adsorption and this type of isotherm is characteristic
254 of products containing high contents of monosaccharides and sucrose (Tsami,
255 Vagenas & Marinos-Kouris, 1992).

256 For hot-air dried red bell peppers, Vega-Gálvez et al. (2007) found $X_m = 0.062$
257 kg water/kg dry matter during adsorption at 20 °C, whereas Moraes, Rosa and Pinto
258 (2007) found $X_m = 0.064$ kg water/kg dry matter for chitin, following desorption at
259 20 °C.

260

261 3.2. *Glass transition temperatures*

262 Figure 3 shows some of the DSC curves obtained for samples at different water
263 activity. As it was expected in view of the plasticizing effect of water in the
264 hygroscopic region (Slade & Levine, 1991), the glass transition shifted toward lower
265 temperatures with increasing water content. The Gordon and Taylor (1952) model
266 for binary systems (Equation 5) could well represent the glass transition curve in the
267 studied range of a_w (Figure 2). Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that the values
268 of T_g corresponding to the samples of a_w equal to 0.75 and 0.84 were not considered
269 during the fitting procedure. Although these data have shown a good agreement with
270 the glass curve predicted by Equation (5), the obtained thermograms (not shown)
271 presented melting endotherms, indicating the partial crystallization of water during
272 sample cooling.

$$T_g = \frac{X_s T_{gs} + k X_w T_{gw}}{X_s + k X_w} \quad (5)$$

273
 274 In Equation (5), X_s is the solids fraction, X_w is the water fraction of the
 275 material, T_{gw} is the glass transition of pure amorphous water, considered as -135 °C
 276 (Slade & Levine, 1991), T_{gs} is the glass transition of the anhydrous solids fraction,
 277 and k is an adjustable constant. For grapefruit juice powder, the following values of
 278 the fitting parameters were calculated by non-linear regression: $k = 3.92 \pm 0.38$ and
 279 $T_{gs} = 44.4 \pm 4.3$ °C, with $R^2 = 0.977$. This k value is comparable to those reported for
 280 other fruits, such as apple, strawberry, kiwifruit, persimmon, pineapple, and plum
 281 (Bai, Rahman, Perera, Smith & Melton, 2001; Moraga, Martinez-Navarrete &
 282 Chiralt, 2004, 2006; Sobral, Telis, Habitante & Sereno, 2001; Telis & Sobral, 2001;
 283 Telis, Sobral & Telis-Romero, 2006). Roos (1995a) reported values of k of 3.76 for
 284 fructose, 4.52 for glucose, and 5.42 for sucrose, reinforcing the hypothesis that T_g of
 285 fruits is mainly affected by sugars, present in grapefruit var. Star Ruby juice in a
 286 quantity of approximately 0.76 g /g total solids, as discussed in section 2.1. The
 287 value obtained for T_{gs} is lower than that presented by Foster et al. (2006) for
 288 amorphous sucrose, which is around 57 °C. This difference can be attributed to the
 289 presence of fructose and glucose, as well as citric acid (Shrestha, Ua-Arak, Adhikari,
 290 Howes & Bhandari, 2007). According to Roos (1995a), T_g values for anhydrous
 291 sucrose, glucose and fructose are, respectively, 62 °C, 31 °C and 5 °C. Considering
 292 the proportions of these sugars present in grapefruit (Peiró-Mena, 2007), a weighted
 293 average for T_g of the anhydrous mixture would result in 41.2 °C. The residual
 294 moisture content detected at zero water activity must had also affected the
 295 experimental value of $T_g = 37.8 \pm 0.3$ °C measured in the samples of grapefruit juice
 296 powder conditioned over P_2O_5 .

297 Combining the Caurie and Gordon and Taylor models, it is possible to obtain
298 an equation that relates T_g and a_w (Equation 6), and the curve predicted in this way
299 can be observed in Figure 2. As it can be observed, Equation (6) did not result in a
300 good fitting at water activities near zero. Again, the residual moisture content
301 detected in this sample may be responsible for this lack of agreement.

$$302 \quad T_g = \frac{T_{gs} + kT_{gw} \exp[a_w \ln(A) - 1/(4.5X_m)]}{1 + k \exp[a_w \ln(A) - 1/(4.5X_m)]} \quad (6)$$

303 The combination of the water sorption and plasticization behavior of a material
304 would allow the evaluation of food stability, which is lost above T_g (Roos, 1995a,
305 2003). Equation (6) predicts that for grapefruit juice powder stored at $T = T_g = 23$ °C
306 the critical water activity would be 0.118, corresponding to a water content of 0.0346
307 (dry basis). This value of water content is lower than the security water content value
308 calculated using Caurie model. Roos (1987), Moraga et al. (2004, 2006), and Telis et
309 al. (2006) observed the same trend for strawberry, kiwifruit and plum when
310 comparing with the monolayer value obtained from the GAB model, also related to
311 food stability, for sorption isotherms. From this point of view, a_w and T_g must be
312 considered complementary concepts as related to the stability of a product.

313

314 *3.3. Response to compression tests*

315 The mechanical compression tests showed to be adequate to quantify the effect
316 of water uptake on the mechanical properties of the freeze-dried material. Although
317 there was a certain degree of dispersion in the curves of force-displacement and in
318 the value of the maximum force (F_{max}) reached during compression of samples,
319 significant results were obtained by carrying out the assays with at least six replicates
320 at each a_w condition. Since the measurements are simple and fast, the great number

321 of replicates cannot be considered as a drawback of the method.

322 Figure 4 shows typical curves of force-displacement obtained for samples
323 equilibrated at different water activities. Except for samples at $a_w = 0.75$, the force-
324 displacement curves exhibited a continuous and exponential increase in the applied
325 force with distance. A certain degree of stick-slip force fluctuation was observed,
326 which became larger with increasing water activity (see inserts in Figures 4a and 4d).
327 Al Mahdi et al. (2006), during compression of dried skimmed milk, also observed the
328 stick-slip behavior that is revealed by the little up and down fluctuations in the force
329 line. According to these authors, the stick-slip behavior frequently occurs in powder
330 systems. The stick phase corresponds to a gradual accumulation of elastic energy in
331 the powder during compression and is followed by the slip phase in which there is a
332 sudden release of this energy and a decrease in the force. In the freeze-dried
333 grapefruit juice powder, the increasing of stick-slip phenomenon with samples water
334 activity could be associated to a partial and fast relaxation of the applied force,
335 caused by an increase in the plastic behavior of the moist solids.

336 The maximum force (F_{max}) attained during the compression test showed a
337 strong dependence on the water activity (Figure 5). As it was not possible to use
338 constant sample weights for different water activities because the higher water
339 content juices presented higher densities, F_{max} values were related to sample weight
340 by plotting the ratio F_{max}/m , where m is the sample mass. This ratio was practically
341 constant up to $a_w = 0.11$ but presented a sudden decrease in the range of $0.11 < a_w <$
342 0.22 . At higher values of a_w , F_{max}/m was essentially constant at a low value. The
343 same behavior was observed when correlating the ratio of compression work
344 (positive area under the compression curve) to the sample mass, as shown in Figure
345 5. Both parameters revealed the same dependence on sample water activity, showing

346 that the use of different sample mass in the compression tests did not affect the
347 results in a significant magnitude.

348 For $a_w \geq 0.22$ the force-displacement plots exhibited a negative area under the
349 decompression curve (Figures 4b, c, d), which can be related to the sample
350 adhesiveness (Mukherjee & Bhattacharya, 2006; Telis, Telis-Romero & Gabas,
351 2005). Even considering that the compression test applied was not a classical TPA
352 test and that the standard deviations of experimental data were high, the correlation
353 of the decompression works with a_w (insert in Figure 5) shows that the adhesiveness
354 increased with increasing water content, attaining a maximum at $a_w = 0.65$. The trend
355 of decreasing adhesiveness observed at $a_w = 0.75$ could be due to the lubricating
356 effect of water in the samples with higher water content, as it was already pointed out
357 by Mukherjee and Bhattacharya (2006) when studying the compression behavior of
358 rice flour.

359 The Boltzman function, given by Equation (7) and that represents a sigmoid
360 shape curve was fitted to experimental data of F_{\max}/m (Figure 5).

361
$$\frac{F_{\max}}{m} = \frac{F_u - F_l}{1 + e^{(a_w - a_{\text{whalf}})/\lambda}} + F_l \quad (7)$$

362 In Equation (7), F_u and F_l are the values of F_{\max}/m at the upper and lower
363 asymptotes, respectively, λ is a parameter that describes the shape of the curve
364 between the upper and lower asymptotes, and a_{whalf} is the water activity at which
365 F_{\max}/m attains the average value between F_u and F_l (White, Silva, Requejo-Tapia &
366 Harker, 2005).

367 The fitting procedure resulted in $F_u = (738 \pm 24) \times 10^3$ N/kg, $F_l = (30 \pm 16) \times$
368 10^3 N/kg, $a_{\text{whalf}} = 0.220 \pm 0.001$, with $\lambda = 0.005$. In addition, by differentiating
369 Equation (7), it is possible to determine that the transition between the upper and

370 lower asymptotes occurs in the range of $0.14 \leq a_w \leq 0.30$. These a_w values
371 correspond to glass transition temperatures of 21.4 °C and 6.9 °C, respectively,
372 calculated using Equation (6), whereas at $a_{w\text{half}} = 0.22$ the value of T_g is of 14.9 °C.
373 Taking into account that the samples storage and measurements were carried out at
374 23 °C, it is possible to say that the powder susceptibility to stickiness started to
375 increase at $T - T_g \approx 2$ °C, attained a half intensity at $T - T_g \approx 8$ °C and was completed
376 at $T - T_g \approx 16$ °C difference. These magnitudes of temperature differences agree with
377 the results obtained by Foster et al. (2006) when studying the cohesiveness of
378 different freeze-dried sugar powders. These authors showed that, for $T - T_g$
379 differences of about 10 °C, development of stickiness was very slow, although
380 powders left for a long time at this condition could develop significant levels of
381 cohesiveness. On the other hand, for $T - T_g$ in the range of 19 to 41 °C instantaneous
382 occurrence of stickiness could be observed in the various sugars. Using thermal
383 mechanical analysis, Venir et al. (2007) measured the collapse temperature of freeze-
384 dried apple tissue and found a constant difference of 10 °C higher than T_g up to $a_w =$
385 0.5. At higher a_w values this difference increased, which was attributed to the
386 changes of material properties at the onset of shrinkage.

387

388 *3.4. Color development*

389 The analysis of color carried out after compression of samples proved
390 satisfactory in order to obtain reproducible results. The compression contributed to
391 reduce the influence of sample porosity and non-uniform surface on color
392 measurements, as well as generated samples of similar thickness (2.53 ± 0.23 mm), a
393 characteristic that would be difficult to obtain after the conditioning at different
394 relative humidity due to collapse occurrence.

395 The measured color coordinates L^* , a^* , and b^* of six replicates showed small
396 standard deviations throughout the range of studied a_w , as shown in Figure 6. Their
397 values remained practically constant up to $a_w = 0.43$ and then showed a continuous
398 decrease, mainly in the lightness, because of browning development. The total color
399 difference, ΔE^* , calculated with reference to the powder conditioned over P_2O_5
400 (Figure 7) clearly showed that a water activity of 0.43 was a critical value that
401 limited two distinct a_w domains. Below this value, there was a slight change in
402 sample color with increasing a_w . This change seems to be a result of a slight increase
403 in a^* and b^* and a reduction of L^* (Figure 6). Above $a_w = 0.43$, the effect of
404 increasing water activity was much more pronounced. In the domain of higher water
405 activities, it was possible to observe a great reduction in the chroma and lightness of
406 the juice with increasing a_w , although the hue angle did not show a clear tendency.

407 Venir et al. (2007) and Acevedo et al. (2006) observed negligible color changes
408 in freeze-dried apple tissue at low a_w and maximum browning at $a_w = 0.50$, whereas
409 more hydrated samples exhibited reduced browning. This behavior was attributed to
410 the optimal conditions of diffusion and concentration of oxidized phenols for
411 browning at intermediate a_w and to the dilution of reactants at higher a_w that could
412 account for a lower browning. Acevedo, Schebor and Buera (2008) have also
413 reported the occurrence of a maximum in the rate of non-enzymatic browning in
414 freeze-dried potato discs conditioned at $a_w = 0.84$ and a decrease in this rate at high
415 water activities ($a_w = 0.93$). In the present work, there was no evidence of a
416 maximum in the curve of ΔE^* up to $a_w = 0.75$, although measurements at higher
417 water activities would be necessary to clarify the behavior at higher a_w conditions.

418 The analysis of the total color differences in terms of $T - T_g$ indicated that the
419 critical temperature difference for browning of samples was around 32 °C, which

420 configures a higher temperature departure from T_g than the observed critical
421 temperature difference for mechanical changes occurrence. This behavior suggests
422 that from the perspective of the time at which mechanical and color changes would
423 take place, the stickiness development in the grapefruit juice powder would precede
424 browning.

425

426 **4. Conclusion**

427 Confined compression tests gave reproducible and significant results in terms
428 of the maximum force attained during compression (F_{max}) of samples at different a_w
429 and showed to be adequate as indicative of mechanical changes that may be related
430 to stickiness development in the freeze-dried powdered juice, as well as contributed
431 to generate samples with uniform surface for color evaluation. Mechanical and color
432 changes were related to glass transition temperature and to water activity. The
433 appearance of changes in mechanical properties showed to precede significant color
434 changes when taking into account a scale of increasing water activity: a free flowing
435 powder of grapefruit juice was only obtained at very low water activity ($a_w \leq 0.14$, T
436 - $T_g \approx 2$ °C), whereas intense color changes were observed only at higher water
437 activities ($a_w \geq 0.43$, $T - T_g \approx 32$ °C).

438

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445

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- 606

607

Figure Captions

608 Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the sample holder used for the compression tests

609

610 Figure 2. Sorption isotherm at 23 °C and glass transition temperatures for freeze-

611 dried grapefruit juice powder: (■) water content (dry basis); (—) Caurie model

612 (Equation 4); (○) T_g (°C); (---) Equation 6

613

614 Figure 3. Typical DSC curves obtained for freeze-dried grapefruit juice powder at

615 different a_w .

616

617 Figure 4. Typical curves of force-displacement obtained during mechanical

618 compression tests of freeze-dried grapefruit juice powder at different a_w and 23 °C:

619 (a) $a_w = 0$; (b) $a_w = 0.22$; (c) $a_w = 0.53$; (d) $a_w = 0.75$. The inserts in (a) and (d) are

620 magnified curves to show the stick-slip behavior

621

622 Figure 5 Mechanical properties for freeze-dried grapefruit juice powder as function

623 of a_w at 23 °C: (■) F_{max} per unit of mass sample; (○) compression work per unit of

624 mass sample; (—) Equation (7). The insert shows the adhesiveness of the samples

625 at different a_w . Mean values and standard deviation of six replicates

626

627 Figure 6. CIELab color coordinates for freeze-dried grapefruit juice powder as

628 function of a_w : (▼) L^* ; (Δ) a^* ; (●) b^* . Mean values and standard deviation of six

629 replicates

630

631 Figure 7. Color attributes for freeze-dried grapefruit juice powder as function of a_w :

632 (▼) hue angle, h_{ab}^* ; (Δ) chroma, C_{ab}^* ; (●) total color differences, ΔE^*

Figure 1

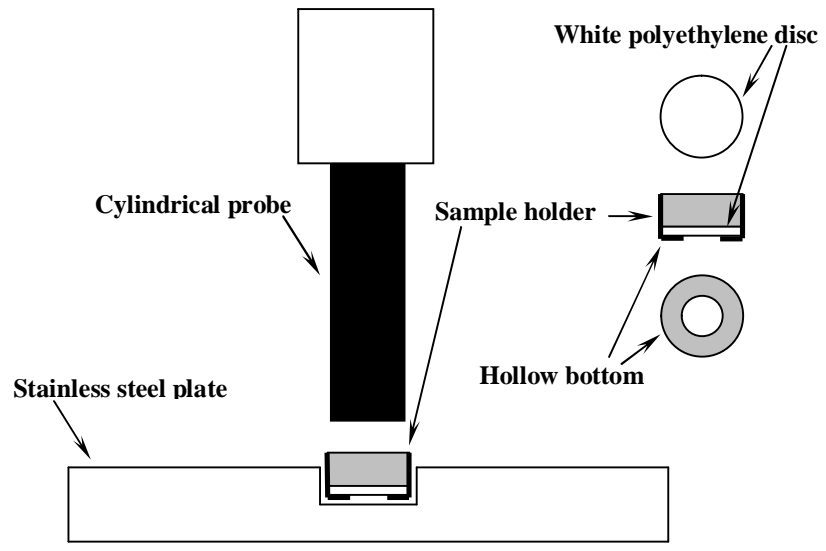


Figure 2

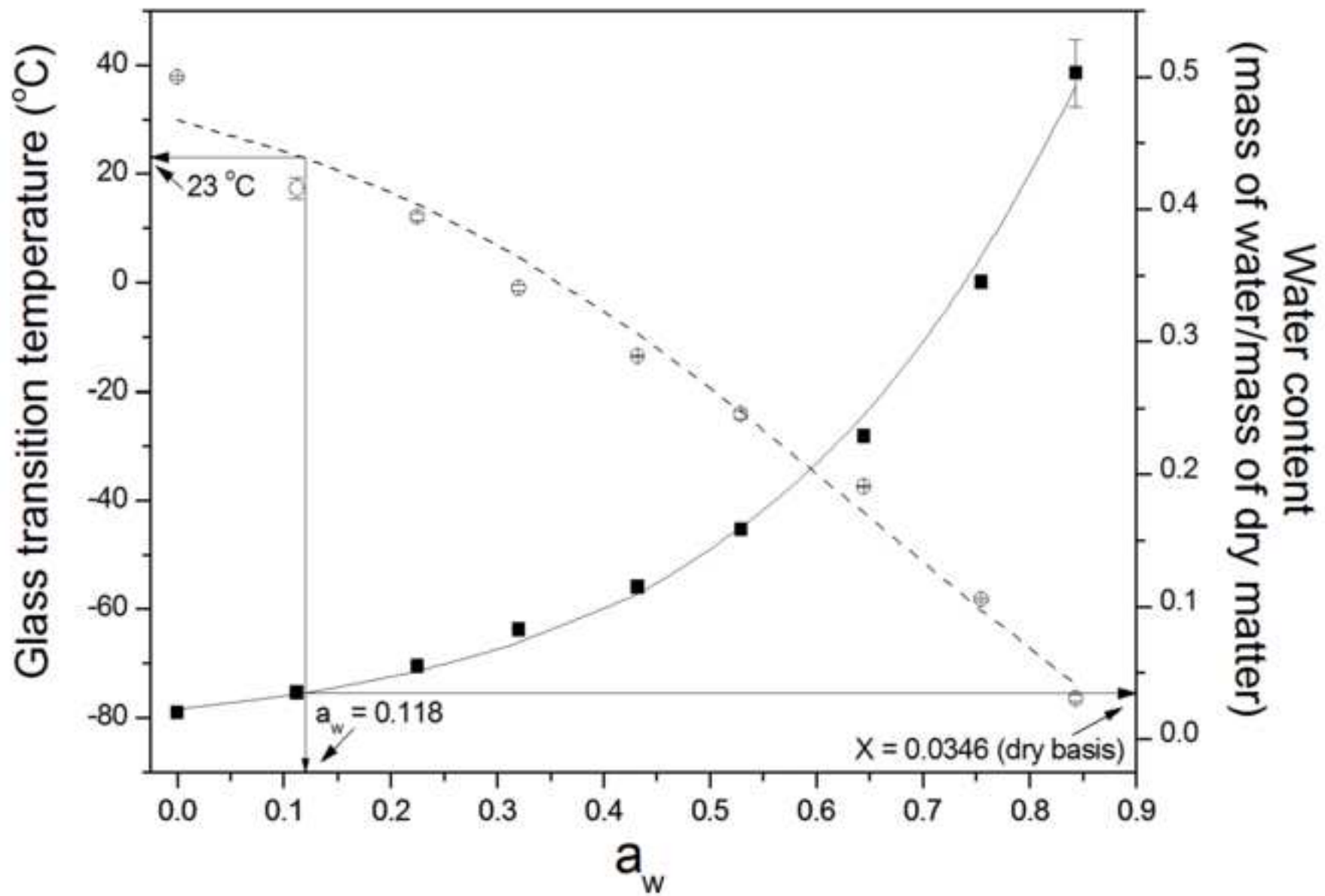


Figure 3

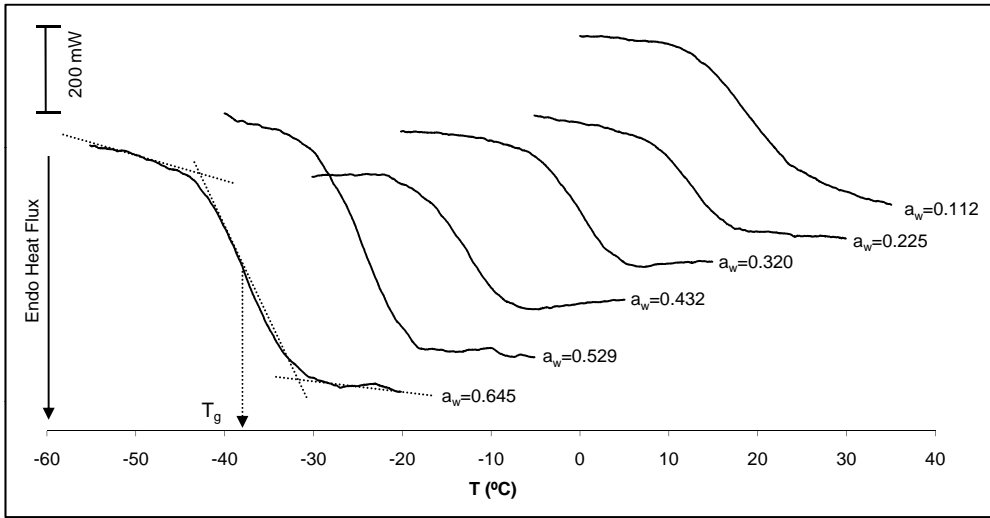


Figure 4

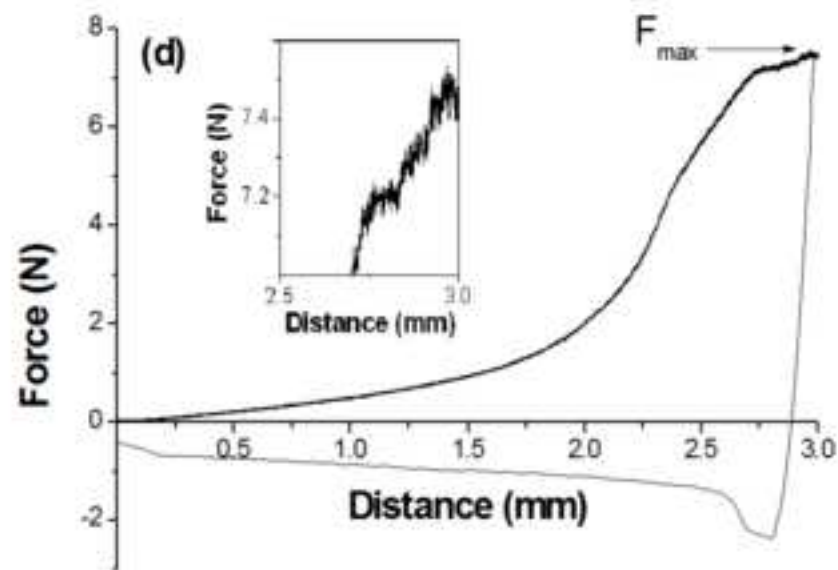
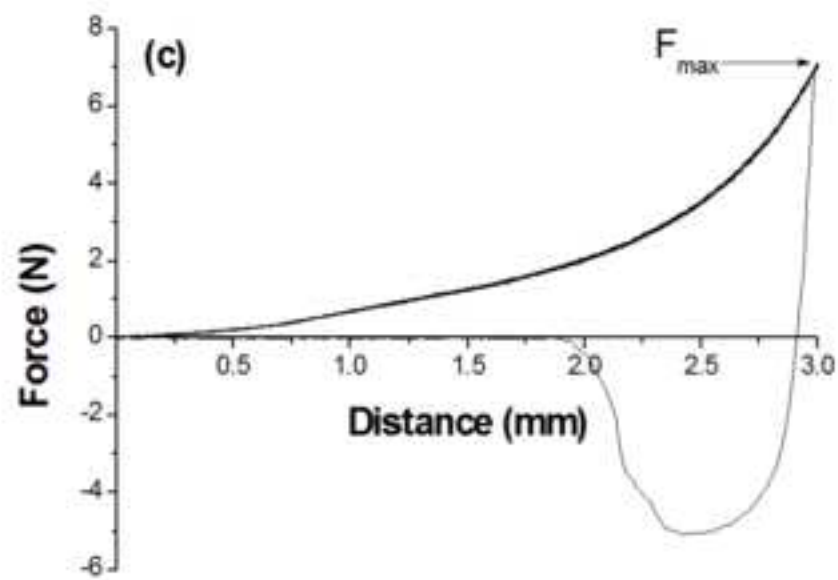
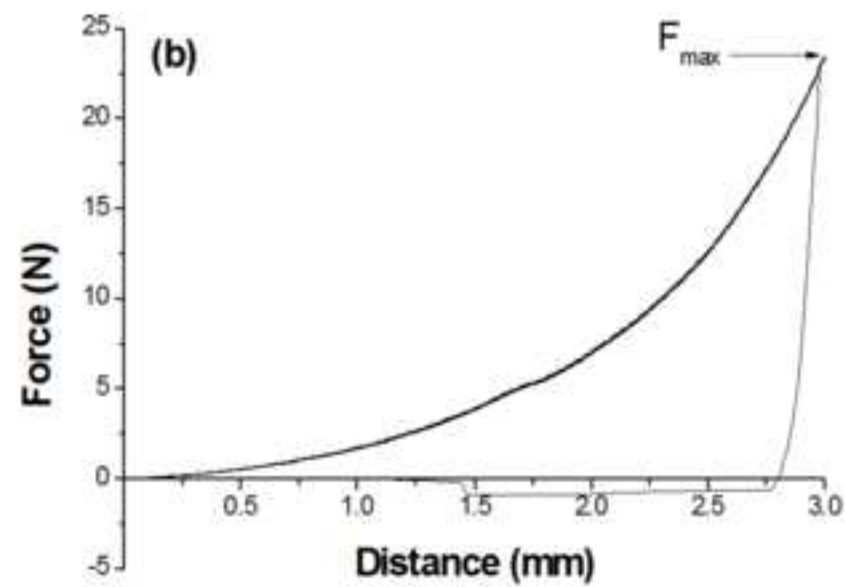
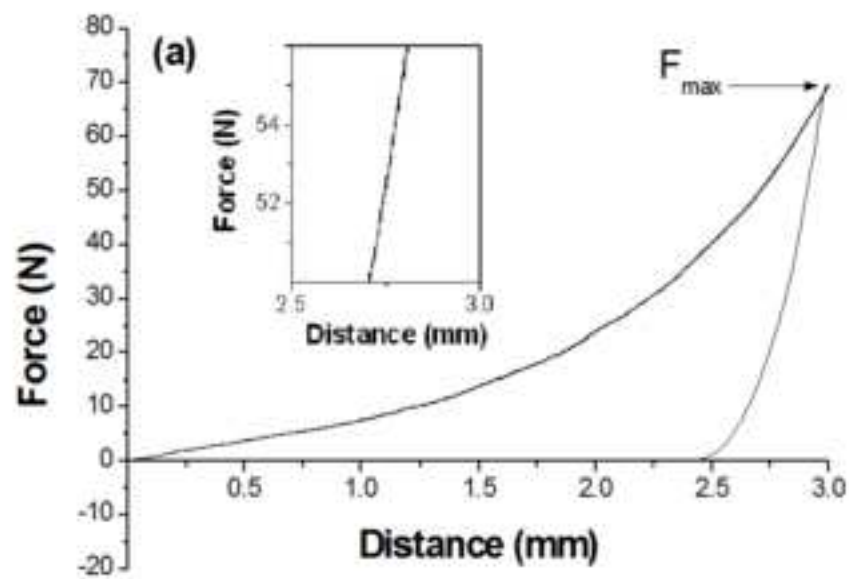


Figure 5

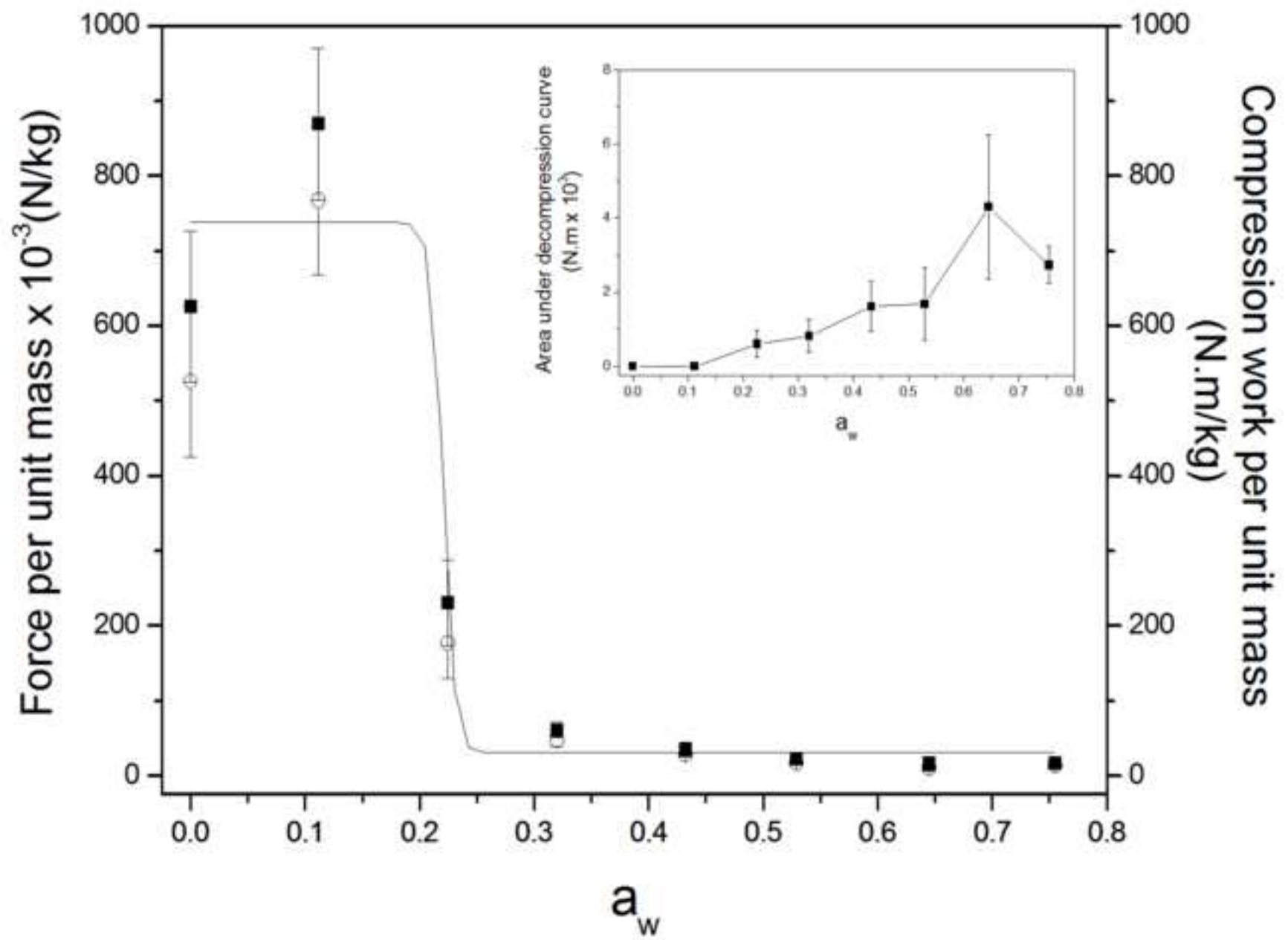


Figure 6

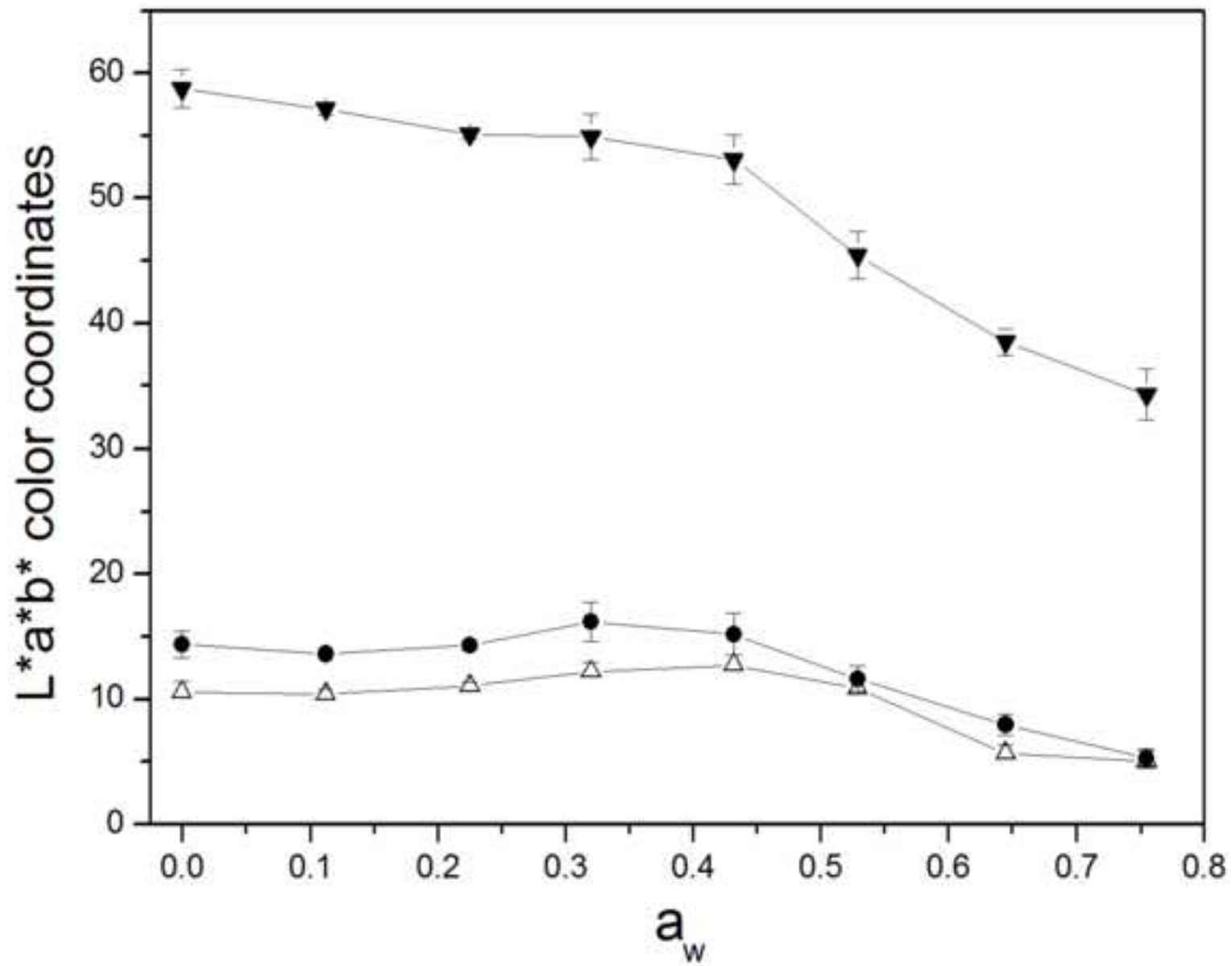


Figure 7

