Document downloaded from:

http://hdl.handle.net/10251/156498

This paper must be cited as:

González, F.; García Martínez, EM.; Camacho Vidal, MM.; Martínez-Navarrete, N. (2019). Stability of the physical properties, bioactive compounds and antioxidant capacity of spraydried grapefruit powder. Food Bioscience. 28:74-82. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbio.2019.01.009



The final publication is available at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbio.2019.01.009

Copyright Elsevier

Additional Information

## **Manuscript Details**

Manuscript number FBIO\_2018\_641\_R6

Title Stability of the physical properties, bioactive compounds and antioxidant

capacity of spray-dried grapefruit powder

Short title Properties of spray dried grapefruit powder with storage

Article type Research Paper

#### **Abstract**

Spray-drying may be an interesting alternative means of offering consumers high quality, stable, and easy-to-handle fruit. The stability of grapefruit powder formulated with gum Arabic, maltodextrin and whey protein isolate was studied. The changes during powder storage at 20°C of the vitamin C (VC), total phenolics (TP), lycopene (Lp), antioxidant activity (AOA), color and mechanical properties were studied at different relative humidities (RH), from 0 to 56% for up to 9 month, either exposed to light or in darkness. Results showed that TP were the most stable compounds and Lp the most unstable. The properties studied with grapefruit powder were relatively stable when stored at 20°C, in darkness or light, at RH 23.1% and for no more than 6 months. With these conditions, losses of 32, 3, 23-68 and 90% were observed for TP, VC, AOA and Lp, respectively, and the powder maintained its flowability and color.

**Keywords** Vitamin C; total phenolics; lycopene; CIE L\*a\*b\*; mechanical compression test;

Citrus paradise.

Corresponding Author Eva García

**Corresponding Author's** 

Institution

Universidad Politécnica de Valencia

Order of Authors FREDDY GONZÁLEZ ZAMORA, Eva García, María del Mar Camacho, Nuria

Martinez-Navarrete

Suggested reviewers Vania Regina Nicoletti Telis, Maria Larrazabal, Jose Angel Perez-Alvarez

#### Submission Files Included in this PDF

#### File Name [File Type]

cover letter.docx [Cover Letter]

Comments to editor.docx [Response to Reviewers]

González et al REV 6.docx [Manuscript File]

To view all the submission files, including those not included in the PDF, click on the manuscript title on your EVISE Homepage, then click 'Download zip file'.

1	Stability of the physical properties, bioactive compounds and antioxidant capacity of
2	spray-dried grapefruit powder
3	
4	Running title: Properties of spray-dried grapefruit powder with storage
5	
6	Freddy González, Eva García-Martínez,* María del Mar Camacho Vidal and Nuria
7	Martínez-Navarrete
8	Universitat Politècnica de València, Departamento de Tecnología de Alimentos, Grupo de
9	Investigación e Innovación Alimentaria. 46022 Valencia, Spain.
10	*Correspondence to: Eva García-Martínez, Departamento de Tecnología de Alimentos,
11	Grupo de Investigación e Innovación Alimentaria, Universitat Politècnica de València.
12	46022 Valencia, Spain. Phone: +34 963877000. Phone: +34 963877916. E-mail:

evgarmar@tal.upv.es

# Abstract

15

- Spray-drying may be an interesting alternative means of offering consumers high quality, 16 stable, and easy-to-handle fruit. The stability of grapefruit powder formulated with gum Arabic, 17 18 maltodextrin and whey protein isolate was studied. The changes during powder storage at 20°C of the vitamin C (VC), total phenolics (TP), lycopene (Lp), antioxidant activity (AOA), color 19 and mechanical properties were studied at different relative humidities (RH), from 0 to 56% for 20 21 up to 9 month, either exposed to light or in darkness. Results showed that TP were the most stable compounds and Lp the most unstable. The properties studied with grapefruit powder 22 were relatively stable when stored at 20°C, in darkness or light, at RH ≤23.1% and for no more 23 than 6 months. With these conditions, losses of 32, 3, 23-68 and 90% were observed for TP, 24 VC, AOA and Lp, respectively, and the powder maintained its flowability and color. 25
- 27 **Keywords**: Vitamin C, total phenolics, lycopene, CIE L\*a\*b\*, mechanical compression test,
- 28 *Citrus paradise.*

#### 1. Introduction

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

The production of powdered food and food ingredients is an increasingly important industrial activity, given the high stability and ease of handling they provide (Fitzpatrick and Ahrné, 2005). The consumption of fresh fruit is declining in part due to its short lifespan and/or the sometimes special handling needed, which decreases their convenience, barely compatible with the current lifestyle. Fruit powder may be an interesting alternative means of promoting fruit consumption among consumers, easy to store and use. Nevertheless, the process used to obtain the powder should ensure the maximum quality of the product obtained. Despite the stability of the healthy components, it is important to know more about the powders' physical properties. High quality powder products can be obtained in terms of their sensory, nutritional and functional properties using spray-drying (Nandiyanto and Okuyama, 2011). In addition, these powders are very fine, with a homogeneous particle size, low water activity and, in the case of fruit powders, with good reconstitution properties. Furthermore, this technique is easy to industrialize and permits continuous production (Igual et al. 2014). As regards the physical properties of the fruit powder obtained, color is of great importance when choosing a food and the flowability is important in handling and processing operations (Teunou et al. 1999). Both the color and, to a greater extent, the mechanical properties, will be influenced by the water content of the powder, depending on the relative humidity (RH) of the surrounding environment (Roos, 1995). If the water activity (a<sub>w</sub>) of the food is lower than the RH/100, the food will gain water and if it is higher, it will lose it. On the other hand, with rapid dehydration processes, such as spray-drying, it is very common to obtain an amorphous matrix, glassy or rubbery, depending on the final water content of the product and the temperature at which it is stored (Roos, 1995). The matrix in the glassy state is much more viscous than in the rubbery state, which affects the diffusional and mechanical properties of the product.

Powdered food in the rubbery state can undergo structural collapse and show stickiness and caking problems (Roos, 1995). In dehydrated fruits, with a high content of organic acids and low molecular weight sugars, the rubbery state prevails with the usual storage conditions (Telis and Martínez-Navarrete, 2009). To promote the easy handling and stability of the glassy state, some compounds can be added to the product before drying. The use of high molecular weight biopolymers capable of increasing the glass transition temperature such as maltodextrins, modified starches or gums, for instance, or biopolymers with a steric role, such as fibers, proteins or some inorganic compounds, has been reported (Telis and Martínez-Navarrete, 2009; Ghosal et al. 2010). These biopolymers prevent the adhesion of powder particles, not only to each other but also to the equipment itself, increasing the yield and avoiding operational problems. In addition, at the same time they may act as encapsulating agents, helping to prevent the degradation of some bioactive compounds (Rascón et al. 2011). Grapefruit has been reported to be a rich source of bioactive phytochemical constituents with antioxidant properties that, independently or jointly, could be responsible for the healthprotective effects of this fruit (Igual et al. 2010; La Cava and Sgroppo, 2015; Cristóbal-Luna et al. 2017; Zou et al. 2015). Ascorbic acid (AA) is the main citrus fruit compound with antioxidant capacity and may prevent oxidative stress mediated diseases (Gardner et al. 2000). Flavonoids are phenolic compounds associated with a reduced risk of coronary heart disease, anti-inflammatory and anti-tumor effects (Fujita et al. 2008; Kim et al. 2008; García-Martínez et al. 2018). Naringin is the main flavonoid in grapefruit juice and it is responsible for its bitter taste. In pink grapefruit varieties, β-carotene and lycopene, the latter being the most abundant, are responsible for the color and contribute to the health benefits by decreasing the risk of some cancers and eye diseases (Jomova and Valko, 2013). The objective of this study was to learn more about the effects of spray-drying on some of the bioactive compounds of the liquidized grapefruit (L), formulated with gum Arabic (GA),

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

79 maltodextrin (MD) and whey protein isolate (WPI), and the powder stability with storage.

Different storage conditions were tested by varying RH, exposure to light and time. The changes

of vitamin C (VC), total phenolics (TP), lycopene (Lp), antioxidant activity (AOA), color and

mechanical properties were measured.

83

84

85

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

80

81

82

#### 2. Material and methods

#### 2.1 Raw material

Pink grapefruit (*Citrus paradisi* var. Star Ruby) from Murcia (Spain) was purchased from a local

supermarket in Valencia (Spain). The selection of the fruit pieces was made by visual

appearance on the basis of a similar size (80-90 mm diameter), color and the absence of any

physical damage on the surface. The samples were formulated by incorporating GA (Scharlau

SL, Barcelona, Spain), MD (Sigma Aldrich, Darmstadt, Germany) and WPI Lacprodan® DI-

9213, with both fat and lactose <0.2 and protein around 90% (d.m.) (Arla, Viby, Denmark), as

carriers for the drying process and to stabilize the products.

# 2.2 Sample preparation

Grapefruits were washed with tap water, manually peeled with the careful removal of the albedo

and liquidized at speed 1 in an electrical food processor of 180 W and 500 g capacity

(DeLonghi, Barcelona, Spain). The liquid was sieved through 0.7 mm mesh (CISA, 200/50,

Barcelona, Spain), to ensure the absence of any pulp. To 100 g of L, 9.4 g of GA, 1.44 g of WPI

and 1.25 g of MD were added, according to a formulation optimized in a previous study (Egas

et al. 2015). The solutes were incorporated slowly using a stirrer (Heidolph, RZR2020,

Schwabach, Germany), working at between 800-1200 rpm, until visual homogeneity was

achieved. To obtain the fruit powder, this sample (LS) was spray-dried in a Büchi mini spray-

dryer (B-290, Flawil, Switzerland) with the following operating conditions: aspirator rate 35

m<sup>3</sup>/h, feed rate 9 ml/min, atomization air rotameter 473 l/h with co-current flow, drying air inlet

temperature 148°C and pressure  $5 \cdot 10^5$  Pa. The powder sample obtained (P<sub>0</sub>) was collected from the product collection vessel, weighed, analyzed and stored as described below.

The powder was conditioned in different environments using hermetic bisphenol A free polypropylene containers (EMSA, Emsdetten, Germany), with a capacity of 3.7 l, acquired in a department store in Valencia (Spain). In each vessel, a glass with a saturated salt solution was arranged to ensure a controlled and constant RH. The salts used (Scharlab SL, Barcelona, Spain) and the RH obtained, at 20°C, were: lithium chloride (RH = 11.3%), potassium acetate (RH = 23.1%), magnesium chloride (RH = 33.1%), potassium carbonate (RH = 43.2%) and magnesium nitrate (RH=55.9%) (Greenspan, 1977). A series with each of these 5 containers was placed in a Binder chamber (KBF720, Hechingen, Germany) to ensure darkness and another series was placed in a Nüve Test Gabinet chamber (TK120, Istanbul, Turkey) with artificial 6500K daylight emitted by 6000 Lx fluorescent tubes (Feilo Sylvania Europe LTD, Newhaven, UK), both at 20°C. In each hermetic container, 6 aluminum plates (55 mm diameter, 1 mm height) were placed with approximately 10 g of P<sub>0</sub>. In addition, another plate with 10 g of P<sub>0</sub> that was vacuum packaged (Edesa machine vac-20 SL, Guipúzcoa, Spain) with a transparent polyethylene bag (Productos Pilarica SA, Paterna, Spain), was included in both the dark and light series.

All of the samples of each series were analyzed at 30, 90, 180 and 270 days for TP, VC, Lp and

AOA, as well as their mechanical properties and color, as described below.

#### 2.3 Analytical determinations

The water content of L and  $P_0$  was determined, in triplicate, using the gravimetric method in a vacuum oven (Vaciotem, JP Selecta, Barcelona, Spain) at  $60^{\circ}$ C, p <100 mm Hg until constant weight. Six replicates were made (bioactive extractions in triplicate, analyses in duplicate) for the chemical analyses described below. They were carried out on L, LS,  $P_0$  and on the powders stored using the different conditions. As these samples have a different composition as regards

water and added solutes, they were standardized to the grapefruit's own solutes, GS (Equations
1 and 2) to make the results comparable (Agudelo et al. 2016).

$$m_{i} = \frac{m_{i}^{p}}{\left(1-\mathbf{x}_{w}^{p}\right) \cdot \mathbf{x}_{GS/TS}}$$

$$(1)$$

$$x_{SP/ST} = \frac{m_L \cdot (1 - x_w^L)}{(m_{GA} + m_{MD} + m_{WPI} + m_L) \cdot (1 - x_w^L)}$$
(2)

- where  $m_i$  is the mass of each analyzed compound standardized to grapefruit solutes (mg/g<sub>GS</sub>),  $m_i^p$  is the mass of each compound analyzed in the powder (mg/g), following sections 2.3.1 to 2.3.4,  $x_W^p$  is the water content of the powder ( $g_{water}/g_{powder}$ ) analyzed as previously described,  $x_{GS/TS}$  is the mass fraction of GS to TS (total solids),  $m_L$ ,  $m_{GA}$ ,  $m_{MD}$  and  $m_{WPI}$  are the mass of L, GA, MD and WPI, respectively, in the sample and  $x_W^L$  is the water content of L ( $g_{water}/g_{liquidized}$ ) analyzed as previously described.
- LS), spray-drying process (comparing sample LS with  $P_0$ ) or storage (comparing sample  $P_0$  with the powder stored at each condition) were calculated and expressed as % loss (Equation
- 145 3).

146 
$$\% loss = 100 \frac{(m_i^B - m_i^A)}{m_i^B}$$
 (3)

where  $m_i^B$  is the mass of each analyzed compound standardized to grapefruit solutes  $(mg/g_{GS})$  before the corresponding process,  $m_i^A$  is the mass of each compound standardized to grapefruit solutes  $(mg/g_{GS})$  analyzed after the corresponding process.

### 2.3.1 Total phenolics

Extracts for TP were prepared by mixing 1 g of sample with 9 ml of methanol:water (70:30) using a magnetic multistirrer at 400 rpm (Velp Scientifica, Usmate Velate, Italy) in the dark at

20°C for 30 min. The homogenates were centrifuged at 5870 x g at 4°C for 10 min (Eppendorf 5804 R, Wesseling-Berzdorf, Germany). The supernatants were collected and TP was analyzed using the Folin–Ciocalteu colorimetric method (Benzie and Strain, 1999). An aliquot of 250  $\mu$ l extract was mixed with 15 ml of distilled water and 1.25 ml of Folin–Ciocalteu reagent (Sigma-Aldrich). After 8 min, 3.75 ml of 7.5% anhydrous Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> (Scharlab SL) aqueous solution were added and water was added to adjust the final volume to 25 ml. Absorbance was measured at 765 nm (UV-visible V-1200 VWR International Eurolab S.L, Barcelona, Spain) after 2 h of incubation at room temperature in the dark. The TP content was expressed as mg of gallic acid equivalents (GAE)/100 g<sub>GS</sub>) (Equations 1 and 2) using a standard curve range of 0–1000 ppm of gallic acid (Sigma-Aldrich).

#### 2.3.2 Vitamin C

VC was determined using high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) (Jasco, Cremella, Italy). To quantify the total VC content, dehydroascorbic acid was reduced to ascorbic acid (AA) by mixing 0.5 g powder with 2 ml of a 20 g/l DL-dithiothreitol solution (Scharlab SL) for 2 h at room temperature and in the dark (Sánchez-Mata et al., 2000; Sánchez-Moreno et al., 2003). Afterwards, 1 g of this mixture was extracted with 9 ml 0.1% oxalic acid (Scharlab SL) with manual stirring for 3 min and filtered through a 0.45 µm nylon membrane filter (VWR, Radnor, PA, USA) before injection (Xu and Chang, 2007). The HPLC conditions were: Kromaphase100-C18, 5 mm (4.6 x 250 mm) column (Scharlab SL); mobile phase 0.1% oxalic acid, volume injected 20 µL, flow rate 1 ml/min, detection at 243 nm (detector UV-visible MD-1510) at 25°C. A standard solution of L(+) ascorbic acid (Scharlab SL) in the range of 10-530 ppm was prepared. The VC content was calculated as mg AA/100  $g_{GS}$  (Equations 1 and 2). 

### 2.3.3 Lycopene

Lp was extracted using the methodology recommended by Olives et al. (2006) with some modifications. Briefly, 1 g of the powder was mixed with 9 ml of hexane/acetone/ethanol

(50:25:25, v/v/v) for 30 min with magnetic stirring (400 rpm) in the dark. The homogenates were centrifuged at 5870 x g at 4°C for 10 min and the supernatants were collected. Distilled water was added (15 ml/10 ml of supernatant) and mixed with manual stirring for 2 min in the dark. An upper layer aliquot was taken for spectrophotometric analysis (AOAC, 1990), at 501 nm. The Lp content was expressed as mg Lp/100  $g_{GS}$ ) (Equations 1 and 2). A standard solution of Lp (Cayman Chemicals, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) in the range of 0.5-10 ppm was prepared.

#### 2.3.4 Antioxidant capacity determinations

The AOA of the methanolic extract obtained for the quantification of TP was determined with the DPPH and FRAP tests. AOA was measured using the free radical scavenging activity with the stable radical 2,2-diphenyl-1-picryl-hydrazyl-hydrate (DPPH) (Puupponen-pimiä et al. 2003). Briefly, the absorbance at 515 nm of 3.9 ml of the DPPH reagent (0.030 g/L, Sharlau S.L, Barcelona, Spain) (absorbance at initial time,  $A_{control}$ ) was measured. Then 0.1 ml of the extract was added and the absorbance was measured again at 5 min, when the reaction had reached the steady state ( $A_{Sample}$ ).

The percentage of DPPH was calculated using Equation 4. The final results were converted to mmol trolox equivalents (TE)/100  $g_{GS}$  (Equations 1 and 2) using a trolox (Sigma-Aldrich) calibration curve in the range of 8-125 ppm.

$$\%DPPH = \frac{(A_{Control} - A_{Sample})}{A_{Control}} \times 100$$
 (4)

For the ferric reducing ability of samples, the FRAP assay was used (Benzie and Strain, 1999). The FRAP solution was prepared by mixing 2.5 ml 10 mM TPTZ (2,4,6-tripyridyl-s-triazine) solution (in 40 mM HCl), 2.5 ml 20 mM FeCl<sub>3</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O and 25 ml 0.3M acetate buffer (pH 3.6). For the analysis 30  $\mu$ L extract, 30  $\mu$ L water and 900  $\mu$ L of the FRAP solution (kept at 37°C throughout the whole analysis) were mixed and allowed to react for 30 min at 37°C in the dark.

Absorbance of the colored product (ferrous tripyridyltriazine complex) was then measured at 593 nm. Results were expressed as mmol TE/100  $g_{GS}$  (Equations 1 and 2), using a trolox (Sigma-Aldrich) calibration curve in the range of 8-125 ppm.

#### 2.3.5 Mechanical properties

Each of the samples conditioned at the different RH and the vacuum-packed sample were placed, at established times, in a circular aluminum sample holder of 11 mm in diameter and 5.5 mm in height, which was completely filled. Mechanical compression tests were done using a universal texture analyzer TA- TXT2 (Stable Micro Systems, Ltd., Godalming, UK). A cylindrical probe of 10 mm in diameter at a deformation rate of 0.1 mm/s for 3 mm was used for this purpose. The maximum force attained during the test (Fmax) was selected as the characteristic mechanical parameter. This assay was done in quintuplicate.

#### **2.3.6 Color**

The sample holder containing the compressed sample was then used to measure the color by placing a low reflectance glass plate CR-A51 (Konica Minolta, Valencia, Spain) in between the sample and the spectrophotomer CM 3600-D (Konica Minolta) and providing a measurement window of 5 mm in diameter. CIE L\*a\*b\* color coordinates were obtained by using the D65 illuminant and a  $10^{\circ}$  observer. In this color space, L\* indicates the sample light/darkness, a\* and b\* being the chromatic coordinates on a green (–) to red (+) and blue (–) to yellow (+) axis, respectively. These coordinates allowed for the calculation of the color attributes, hue angle (h\*ab, Equation 5) and the chrome or color purity (C\*ab, equation 6). The global color difference ( $\Delta$ E, Equation 7) of the samples stored under the different conditions commented on above and the newly-obtained one was also calculated. This assay was done in triplicate.

$$h^*_{ab} = \operatorname{arctg} \frac{b^*}{a^*}$$
 (5)

$$C_{ab}^* = \sqrt{a *^2 + b *^2}$$
 (6)

231

231
$$\Delta E = \sqrt{(\Delta L^*)^2 + (\Delta a^*)^2 + (\Delta b^*)^2}$$
(7)

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

#### 2.3.7 Statistical analysis

Data are expressed as the mean value and standard deviation of the different replicates. Multifactor analyses of variance (MANOVA) were carried out at 0.05 significance level to evaluate the differences between the samples brought about by storage conditions: RH, time and presence or absence of light. Furthermore, a Pearson's correlation analysis between the bioactive compounds, AOA and ΔE was carried out at a 95% significance level. All of the statistical analyses were done using Statgraphics Centurion XVI.II (® 2010 StatPoint Technologies, Inc., Warrenton, VA, USA).

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

#### 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1 Bioactives and antioxidant activity of grapefruit samples

The water content of L batch was  $x_w 91 \pm 1 \text{ g}/100 \text{ g}$  and that of  $P_0 1.5 \pm 0.7 \text{ g}/100 \text{ g}$ . The concentration of each bioactive compound analyzed and the AOA of L, LS and P<sub>0</sub> are shown in Table 1. The TP, VC and Lp content of the L are consistent with those reported in other grapefruit studies (Toh et al. 2013; Igual et al. 2015). The addition of solutes produced a significant reduction (p < 0.05) in Lp (10% loss). The instability of carotenoids is due to the fact that they are highly unsaturated compounds, whose degradation is fundamentally due to oxidative processes. Other factors, such as temperature, light or pH, can also produce important qualitative changes in these compounds as a consequence of isomerization reactions (Meléndez-Martínez et al. 2010). In the case of citrus juices, some studies stated that

isomerization is favored by the loss of compartmentation brought about by the squeezing of the citrus, which brings together organic acids and carotenoids (Vanamala et al. 2005; Meléndez-Martínez et al. 2009). It has been shown that oxidation processes are more pronounced when the cellular integrity is lost, so that in crushed plant foods, the loss of cellular compartmentation brings into contact substances that can structurally modify and even destroy the pigments (Meléndez-Martínez et al. 2010). During the stirring process for the purposes of blending the carriers, the incorporation of oxygen into the samples and the additional cellular breakage may have caused the direct exposure of carotenoids to oxygen and other substances that may accelerate their loss. The addition of solutes did not affect TP and VC content even though it produced a significant reduction (p < 0.05) in the AOA of LS, regardless of the measurement method used. With respect to the spray-drying process, neither VC nor TP were significantly affected (>90%) retention). Different authors concluded that one disadvantage of spray-drying is the high operation temperature, as many bioactive compounds are sensitive to heating (Đorđević et al. 2016). However, it may be possible to increase the stability of sensitive compounds during processing and to improve the quality of the finished product by adding carriers or drying excipients like those selected in this study (Murugesan and Orsat, 2012). Nevertheless, obtaining the powder product caused a significant (p < 0.05) drop in the Lp content to 71%. A significant (p < 0.05) loss in the AOA of the powder was also observed. 3.2 Changes in phytochemical compounds and antioxidant capacity as a function of relative humidity, light condition and storage time Figures 1 to 5 show the changes of each bioactive compound and AOA with different storage conditions. The MANOVAS carried out with each of the three factors considered determined a significant effect (p < 0.05) of RH, time and light condition in all the parameters studied, except for Lp which were not affected by this last factor. For each significant factor, the result of

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

MANOVAS Multiple Range Tests, showing which means are significantly different from which others, is shown in Figures 1 to 5. Nevertheless, in all the cases the MANOVAS also showed significant interactions (p < 0.05) among the factors, which are discussed below. Interaction plots are not shown to not increase the number of figures shown. The TP were better preserved in darkness. Except for the vacuum stored sample, the phenolic content decreased until 90 or 180 days, depending on the RH. After this time, the TP remained constant at the lowest RH, while at RH >33.1% they seemed to increase until the end of the storage, regardless of light. Taking into account that phenolic compounds act as substrates in various types of reactions, their stability or degradation will depend on the molecular complexes that they can form. In this sense, autoxidation reactions caused by exposure to light or oxygen may result in the formation of phenol radicals that may subsequently react with other radicals, forming dimers or new structures, depending on the precise location of the electrons in the reaction over time (Fraga et al. 2010). The vacuum-packed grapefruit powder that was stored in darkness was the only sample that preserved its TP content the entire time. During storage and with increasing RH, the Lp showed a declining trend. Storage conditions have an essential role in preserving the carotenoid content of processed food (Nagarajan et al. 2017). In this case, losses occurred mostly during the first month of storage, regardless of light and RH (losses of 75-95%). Other studies showed that light exposure had minor effects on the loss of total Lp in tomato puree (Shi et al. 2008). After 30 days of storage, the Lp remained constant when stored under vacuum conditions and at 11.3% RH until 90 days. A certain Lp decrease was observed from 23.1% RH upwards and it became completely degraded at the highest RH (43.2 and 55.9%) after 6 months of storage. As commented on above, the degradation of carotenoids is mainly due to oxidation reactions. Water availability, which increases as the RH rises, is also a parameter that greatly affects these compounds (Nagarajan et al. 2017). The influence of water content on the degradation of lipophilic compounds seems

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

to be related to the availability of water, from a determined water content, to participate in 305 degradative reactions or to act as a vehicle that allows the mobility of the different substrates 306 involved, oxygen among others (Lavelli et al. 2007; Moraga et al. 2012). 307 As regards VC, regardless of the light condition and at a RH <33.1%, its content remained 308 stable throughout the 180 days of storage, but decreased over the range of RH from this value 309 up to 55.9%. The greatest losses of this bioactive component occurred in environments with the 310 higher RH. The water content of the grapefruit powder with this level of a<sub>w</sub> could be considered 311 high enough to provoke an increase in the degradation reactions of AA at the storage time 312 studied. The various reactions involved in the final phases of ascorbate degradation are 313 314 important in the formation of flavor compounds and as precursors of non-enzymatic browning (Belitz et al. 2009). In this case, as with carotenoids, light does not seem to affect the 315 degradation of this vitamin. AA is easily oxidized, especially in aqueous solutions, and greatly 316 favored by the presence of oxygen, heavy metal ions, especially Cu<sup>2+</sup>, Ag<sup>+</sup>, and Fe<sup>3+</sup>, and by 317 alkaline pH and high temperatures (Du et al. 2012). 318 The grapefruit maintained its AOA measured using the DPPH assay until 90 days of storage at 319 RH <33.1% and V, regardless of light. From that moment on, the AOA decreased until the end 320 of storage. Similar results were observed from the FRAP analysis, but in this case, the AOA 321 322 values were stable only during the first month and in darkness. There is some controversy about the influence of the phytochemicals present in fruits and 323 vegetables with their AOA (Guo et al. 2003). Polyphenols have been reported as responsible 324 325 for the antioxidant activity of citrus fruits due to their redox characteristics, which allow them to act as reducing agents, hydrogen donors, singlet oxygen quenchers, and even metal chelators 326 (Carocho and Ferreira, 2012). On the other hand, carotenoids show antioxidant characteristics 327 through quenching <sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub> and eliminating harmful free radicals, while VC can effectively 328 scavenge a variety of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and give off semi dehydroascorbic acid, 329

removing  ${}^{1}O_{2}$  and reducing sulfur radicals (Zou et al. 2016). Chemical interactions affecting free radical scavenging properties between hydrophilic and lipophilic compounds have not been extensively reported in fruits and vegetables, yet both synergistic and antagonistic interactions may affect antioxidant capacity (Talcott et al. 2003). In this study a statistical correlation was carried out to determine the relationship among the bioactive compounds quantified in the samples and with AOA (Table 2). The results showed that all the bioactive compounds analyzed in the grapefruit powder, both the hydrophilic and the lipophilic ones, showed a positive significant (p < 0.05) correlation among them and with the AOA measured both by using the DPPH and FRAP assays, indicating a complementary and synergistic antioxidant behavior (Zou et al. 2016). The greatest contribution to the AOA was provided by the Lp and TP, followed by VC. The results obtained in this work are consistent with other studies (Igual et al. 2015).

# 3.3 Changes in mechanical properties and color as a function of relative humidity, light condition and storage time

The mechanical properties of a powdered product are related to its ability to be compacted and its negative influence on flow capacity. Compression tests have been widely used in the field of food powders as a simple and convenient method to measure some physical properties such as powder compressibility and flowability (Barbosa-Cánovas et al. 2005). In powder technology, great attention has been paid to the general behavior of powders under compressive stress. The force—distance relationship obtained from the compression test carried out on the different samples was similar to that shown in Figure 6. The compression process of a food powder takes place in two stages: filling voids with particles equal in size or smaller than the voids brought about by particle movement, and filling smaller voids with the particle's elastic and/or plastic deformation, or fragmentation. If the free flow of the particles predominates during compression, it will be necessary to apply greater force to achieve their compaction, as it occurs in samples stored at RH 11.3 and 23.1% (Figure 6). However, when the deformation of the

particles predominates (samples stored at RH 55.9%, Figure 6), the force observed during compression will be weaker.

The Fmax values of the powder, stored as previously described, are shown in Figure 6. A

significant effect (p < 0.05) of both RH and time was observed, although, as expected, there were no differences between samples whether stored in the presence or absence of light. The Fmax value of the sample stored for 30 days at RH 33.1% is in the order of that shown by the newly spray-dried powder, which means that  $P_0$   $a_w$  may be ~0.331. In general terms, Fmax was greater at each storage time in the samples stored under vacuum and at RH  $\leq$ 23.1%, and decreased at higher RH. The increase may be related to a certain water loss at the lower RH, which increases the powder flowability. The decrease in the Fmax value may be related to the transition of the amorphous matrix from the glassy to the rubbery state, this being responsible for the structural collapse of the powder associated with the development of stickiness and a softening of the product (Telis and Martínez-Navarrete, 2010). In this way, the  $a_w$  of the powder has to be equal to or lower than 0.231 to ensure the flowability of the powder. Despite this, as the glass transition is a time dependent phenomenon (Roos, 1995), the Fmax decreases over storage time at any RH so that no more than 6 months of storage are recommended for the purposes of maintaining the initial mechanical properties of the powder.

As regards the color of the grapefruit powder (Table 3), on the whole it was affected more by the storage time and the RH than by the presence or absence of light. In every case, a darkening of the powder (decrease in L\*) was measured after 3 months of storage, especially at the highest RH, as was an evolution towards more yellowish tones (increase in hue angle) from the first 30 days onwards when RH was higher than 22.1%. The chrome, or color purity, was the only color attribute that was dependent on the presence or absence of light, the samples stored in the absence of light being purer. The chrome of the samples also increased at the highest RH, as

380 described by Telis and Martínez-Navarrete (2009); as related to porosity loss. The aforementioned color evolution resulted in a global color change of the powder with respect 381 382 to the newly obtained one (Figure 7), which is evident ( $\Delta E \ge 3$ , Bodart et al. 2008), before 90 days only if the RH of the sample environment is ≥43.2% and, from 6 months of storage 383 384 onwards, at any other RH. All of this takes place regardless of the presence or absence of light. The color stability at low a<sub>w</sub> and the increase in color changes at intermediate a<sub>w</sub> values have 385 been related to the enzymatic browning of the samples, maximum at a<sub>w</sub> of around 0.5 at which 386 387 level the conditions of diffusion and concentration of oxidized phenols are optimal (Venir et al. 2007; Telis and Martínez-Navarrete, 2009). Nevertheless, the diffusion of reactants requires a 388 certain time before they coincide and the reaction occurs. 389 The color change was related to the bioactive compound content by means of the Pearson's 390 correlation (Table 2). A significant correlation was found with VC and Lp, but not with TP. 391 392 The carotenoid structure, the length of the chromophore, the arrangement of conjugated double bonds in the end ring and the geometrical (cis/trans) isomers of carotenoids all 393 influence its perceived color (Meléndez-Martínez et al. 2010). Carotenoids show yellowish 394 395 to reddish colors, with Lp contributing more to the yellow hue and carotene more to the red. The increase in hue could be justified by assuming not only the observed Lp loss but also the 396 β-carotene loss (Agudelo, 2017). The storage time related to the presence of oxygen, 397 especially in combination with light and temperature, can lead to oxidative degradation 398 399 (Rodriguez-Amaya and Kimura, 2004). As the vacuum-stored grapefruit also showed Lp loss, both with light and in darkness, storage temperature can be assumed to exert a great influence. 400 Agudelo (2017) observed that the β-carotene loss at 4°C was half of that at 20°C. On the other 401 hand, both carotenoid isomerization and oxidation reactions, together with AA oxidation 402 403 products, lead to color change (Du et al. 2012; Sant'Anna et al. 2013).

much as the storage time increases. An increase in chrome above powder collapse has also been

1	$\cap$	1
4	·U	_

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

#### 4. Conclusions

The TP, VC and Lp content of grapefruit contributed to its antioxidant capacity. Spray-drying operations, when used with the same conditions as in this study, together with the added solutes led to an overall preservation of TP and VC, while Lp was found to be very unstable both during processing and storage. Bioactive compounds, together with the mechanical properties and color of the spray-dried grapefruit powder achieved a high degree of stability when stored at 20°C, being the recommended choice using a surrounding RH equal to or lower than 23.1% and for no more than 6 months. In these conditions, the global color change of the powder will not be evident to the human eye, the powder flowability will be ensured, none of the VC would be lost, despite more than 68% of the TP and only 10% of Lp would remain.

415

416

417

414

#### Acknowledgments

- The authors wish to thank the Ministerio de Economía y Competitividad and Fondo Europeo
- de Desarrollo Regional for the financial support given through the Project AGL 2012-
- 419 39103.

420

421

#### **Conflict of interest**

422 None.

423

424

#### References

- 425 AOAC. (1990). Official Methods of Analysis. Association of Official Analytical Chemists.
- 426 Arlington, VA, USA.
- 427 Agudelo, C., Igual, M., Camacho, M.M., & Martínez-Navarrete, N. (2016). Effect of process
- 428 technology on the nutritional, functional, and physical quality of grapefruit powder. Food

- 429 *Science and Technology International*, 23, 61–74.
- 430 Agudelo, C. (2017). Selección del mejor proceso para la obtención de pomelo en polvo (Citrus
- 431 paradisi) de alta calidad nutritiva, funcional y sensorial. PhD Thesis, Universidad Politécnica
- 432 de Valencia, Valencia, Spain.
- Barbosa-Cánovas, G.V., Ortega-Rivas, E., Juliano, P., & Yan, H. (2005). Food Powders.
- 434 Physical Properties, Processing, and Functionality. New York, NY, USA: Kluwer
- 435 Academic/Plenum Publishers.
- Belitz, H.D., Grosch, W., & Schieberle, P. (2009). Food Chemistry. Berlin, Germany: Springer-
- 437 Verlag.
- Benzie, I.F.F., & Strain, J.J. (1999). Ferric reducing/antioxidant power assay: Direct measure
- 439 of total antioxidant activity of biological fluids and modified version for simultaneous
- 440 measurement of total antioxidant power and ascorbic acid concentration. Methods in
- 441 Enzymology, 299, 15–27.
- Bodart, M., de Peñaranda, R., Deneyer, A., & Flamant, G. (2008). Photometry and colorimetry
- characterisation of materials in daylighting evaluation tools. Building and Environment, 43,
- 444 2046–2058.
- 445 Carocho, M., & Ferreira, I.C.F.R. (2012). A review on antioxidants, prooxidants and related
- 446 controversy: Natural and synthetic compounds, screening and analysis methodologies and
- future perspectives. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*, 51, 15–25
- 448 Cristóbal-Luna, J. M., Álvarez-González, I., Madrigal-Bujaidar, E., & Chamorro Cevallos, G.
- 449 (2017). Grapefruit and its biomedical, antigenotoxic and chemopreventive properties. Food and
- 450 *Chemical Toxicology*, 112, 224–234.
- 451 Đorđević, V., Paraskevopoulou, A., Mantzouridou, F., Lalou, S., Pantić, M., Bugarski, B., &
- Nedović, V. (2016). Encapsultion Technologies for Food Industry. In V. Nedović, P. Raspor,
- J. Lević, V. Tumbas Šaponjac, & G. V Barbosa-Cánovas (Eds.), Emerging and Traditional

- 454 Technologies for Safe, Healthy and Quality Food. Cham, Germany: Springer International
- 455 Publishing. pp. 329–382.
- Du, J., Cullen, J.J., & Buettner, G.R. (2012). Ascorbic acid: Chemistry, biology and the
- 457 treatment of cancer. Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) Reviews on Cancer, 1826, 443-
- 458 457.
- 459 Egas, L., González, F., & Camacho, M.M. (2015). Optimización del proceso de atomización de
- 460 pomelo. Influencia de la temperatura y de la adición de diferentes solutos de alto peso
- 461 molecular. Master Thesis, Escuela Técnica Superior de Ingeniería Agronómica y del Medio
- Natural, Universidad Politécnica de Valencia, Valencia, Spain.
- 463 Fitzpatrick, J.J., & Ahrné, L. (2005). Food powder handling and processing: Industry problems,
- knowledge barriers and research opportunities. *Chemical Engineering and Processing: Process*
- 465 *Intensification*, 44, 209–214.
- 466 Fraga, C.G., Galleano, M., Verstraeten, S.V., & Oteiza; P.I. (2010). Basic biochemical
- 467 mechanisms behind the health benefits of polyphenols. *Molecular Aspects of Medicine*, 31,
- 468 435–445.
- 469 Fujita, T., Kawase, A., Niwa, T., Tomohiro, N., Masuda, M., Matsuda, H., & Iwaki, M. (2008).
- 470 Comparative evaluation of 12 immature citrus fruit extracts for the inhibition of cytochrome
- 471 P450 isoform activities. *Biological & Pharmaceutical Bulletin*, 31(5), 925–930.
- García-Martínez, E., Andújar, I., Yuste del Carmen, A., Prohens, J., & Martínez-Navarrete, N.
- 473 (2018). Antioxidant and anti-inflammatory activities of freeze-dried grapefruit phenolics as
- affected by gum arabic and bamboo fibre addition and microwave pretreatment. *Journal of the*
- *Science of Food and Agriculture*, https://doi.org/10.1002/jsfa.8807.
- Gardner, P.T., White, T.A.C., McPhail, D.B., & Duthie, G.G. (2000). The relative contributions
- of vitamin C, carotenoids and phenolics to the antioxidant potential of fruit juices. Food
- 478 *Chemistry*, 68, 471–474.

- Ghosal, S., Indira, T.N., & Bhattacharya, S. (2010). Agglomeration of a model food powder:
- 480 Effect of maltodextrin and gum Arabic dispersions on flow behavior and compacted mass.
- 481 *Journal of Food Engineering*, 96, 222–228.
- 482 Greenspan, L. (1977). Humidity fixed points of binary saturated aqueous solutions. *Journal of*
- 483 Research of the National Bureau of Standards -A. Physics and Chemistry, 81, 89-96.
- Guo, A., Yang, J., Wei, J., Li, Y., Xu, J., & Jaing, Y. (2003). Antioxidant activities of peel, pulp
- and seed fractions of common fruit as determined by FRAP assay. Nutrition Research, 23,
- 486 1719–1726.
- Igual, M., García-Martínez, E., Camacho, M.M., & Martínez-Navarrete, N. (2010). Effect of
- 488 thermal treatment and storage on the stability of organic acids and the functional value of
- 489 grapefruit juice. *Food Chemistry*, 118, 291–299.
- 490 Igual, M., Ramires, S., Mosquera, L. H., & Martínez-navarrete, N. (2014). Optimization of
- 491 spray drying conditions for lulo pulp. *Powder Technology*, 256, 233–238.
- 492 Igual, M., García-Martínez, E., Camacho, M.M., & Martínez-Navarrete, N. (2015). Stability of
- 493 micronutrients and phytochemicals of grapefruit jam as affected by the obtention process. *Food*
- 494 *Science and Technology International*, 22, 203–212.
- Jomova, K., & Valko, M. (2013). Health protective effects of carotenoids and their interactions
- with other biological antioxidants. *European Journal of Medicinal Chemistry*, 70, 102–110.
- 497 Kim, D.I., Lee, S.J., Lee, S.B., Park, K., Kim, W.J., & Moon, S.K. (2008). Requirement for
- 498 Ras/Raf/ERK pathway in naringin-induced G1-cell-cycle arrest via p21WAF1 expression.
- 499 *Carcinogenesis*, 29, 1701–1709.
- La Cava, E.L.M., & Sgroppo, S.C. (2015). Evolution during refrigerated storage of bioactive
- compounds and quality characteristics of grapefruit [Citrus paradisi (Macf.)] juice treated with
- 502 UV-C light. *LWT Food Science and Technology*, 63, 1325–1333.
- Lavelli, V., Zanoni, B., & Zaniboni, A. (2007). Effect of water activity on carotenoid

- degradation in dehydrated carrots. *Food Chemistry*, 104,1705–1711.
- Lee, S.K., & Kader, A.A. (2000). Preharvest and postharvest factors influencing vitamin C
- 506 content of horticultural crops. *Postharvest Biology and Technology*, 20, 207–220.
- 507 Meléndez-Martínez, A.J., Vicario, I.M., & Heredia, F.J. (2009). Effect of ascorbic acid on
- 508 deterioration of carotenoids and colour in ultrafrozen orange juice. Journal of Food
- 509 *Composition and Analysis*, 22, 295–302.
- Meléndez-Martínez, A.J., Escudero-Gilete, M.L., Vicario, I.M., & Heredia, F.J. (2010). Study
- of the influence of carotenoid structure and individual carotenoids in the qualitative and
- quantitative attributes of orange juice colour. *Food Research International*, 43, 1289–1296.
- Moraga, G., Igual, M., García-Martínez, E., Mosquera, L.H., & Martínez-Navarrete, N. (2012).
- 514 Effect of relative humidity and storage time on the bioactive compounds and functional
- properties of grapefruit powder. *Journal of Food Engineering*, 112, 191–199.
- Murugesan, R., & Orsat, V. (2012). Spray drying for the production of nutraceutical
- 517 ingredients-A review. Food and Bioprocess Technology, 5, 3–14.
- Nagarajan, J., Ramanan, R.N., Raghunandan, M.E., Galanakis, C.M., & Krishnamurthy, N. P.
- 519 (2017). Carotenoids. In C.M. Galanakis (Eds.) Nutraceutical and Functional Food Components
- 520 Amsterdam, Netherland: Elsevier. pp. 259–296.
- Nandiyanto, A.B.D., & Okuyama, K. (2011). Progress in developing spray-drying methods for
- 522 the production of controlled morphology particles: From the nanometer to submicrometer size
- ranges. *Advanced Powder Technology*, 22, 1–19.
- Olives, A.I., Hurtado, M.C., Mata, M.C.S., Ruiz, V.F., & Tejada, M.L.S. (2006). Application
- of a UV-vis detection-HPLC method for a rapid determination of lycopene and β-carotene in
- vegetables. Food Chemistry, 95, 328–336.
- Puupponen-Pimiä, R., Häkkinen, S., Aarni, M., Suortti, T., Lampi, A.M., Eurola, M., Piironen,
- 528 V., Nuutila, A.M., & Oksman-Caldentey, K. (2003). Blanching and long-term freezing affect

- various bioactive compounds of vegetables. Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture,
- 530 83, 1389–1402.
- Rascón, M.P., Beristain, C.I., García, H.S., & Salgado, M.A. (2011). Carotenoid retention and
- 532 storage stability of spray-dried encapsulated paprika oleoresin using gum Arabic and soy
- protein isolate as wall materials. LWT Food Science and Technology, 44, 549–557.
- Rodriguez-Amaya, D.B., & Kimura, M. (2004). Handbook for Carotenoid Analysis.
- HarvestPlus Technical Monographs. Washington, D.C., WA, USA: International Food Policy
- Research Institute Ed.
- Roos, Y.H. (1995). *Phase Transitions in Foods*. San Diego, CA, USA: Academic Press, Inc.
- 538 Sánchez-Mata, M.C., Cámara-Hurtado, M., Díez-Marqués, C., & Torija-Isasa, M.E. (2000).
- Comparison of high-performance liquid chromatography and spectrofluorimetry for vitamin C
- analysis of green beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.). European Food Research and Technology,
- 541 210, 220–225.
- 542 Sánchez-Moreno, C., Plaza, L., De Ancos, B., & Cano, M. (2003). Quantitative bioactive
- 543 compounds assessment and their relative contribution to the antioxidant capacity of commercial
- orange juices. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, 439, 430–439.
- Sant'Anna, V., Gurak, P.D., Ferreira Marczak, L.D., & Tessaro, I.C. (2013). Tracking bioactive
- 546 compounds with colour changes in foods A review. *Dyes and Pigments*, 98, 601–608.
- 547 Shi, J., Dai, Y., Kakuda, Y., Mittal, G., & Xue, S.J. (2008). Effect of heating and exposure to
- light on the stability of lycopene in tomato purée. *Food Control*, 19, 514–520.
- Talcott, S.T., Percival, S., Pittet-Moore, J., & Celoria, C. (2003). Phytochemical composition
- and antioxidant stability of fortified yellow passion fruit (Passiflora edulis). Journal of
- *Agriculture and Food Chemistry*, 51, 935–941.
- Telis, V.R.N., & Martínez-Navarrete, N. (2009). Collapse and color changes in grapefruit juice
- powder as affected by water activity, glass transition, and addition of carbohydrate polymers.

- 554 *Food Biophysics*, 4, 83–93.
- Telis, V.R.N., & Martínez-Navarrete, N. (2010). Application of compression test in analysis of
- mechanical and color changes in grapefruit juice powder as related to glass transition and water
- activity. *LWT Food Science and Technology*, 43, 744–751.
- Teunou, E., Fitzpatrick, J., & Synnott, E. (1999). Characterisation of food powder flowability.
- *Journal of Food Engineering*, 39, 31–37.
- Toh, J.J., Khoo, H.E., & Azrina, A. (2013). Comparison of antioxidant properties of pomelo
- 561 [Citrus Grandis (L) Osbeck] varieties. International Food Research Journal, 20, 1661–1668.
- Vanamala, J., Cobb, G., Turner, N.D., Lupton, J.R., Yoo, K.S., Pike, L.M., & Patil, B.S. (2005).
- 563 Bioactive compounds of grapefruit (Citrus paradisi Cv. Rio Red) respond differently to
- postharvest irradiation, storage, and freeze drying. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*,
- 565 53, 3980–3985.
- Venir, E., Munari, M., Tonizzo, A., & Maltini, E. (2007). Structure related changes during
- moistening of freeze dried apple tissue. *Journal of Food Engineering*, 81, 27–32.
- Xu, B.J., & Chang, S.K.C. (2007). A comparative study on phenolic profiles and antioxidant
- activities of legumes as affected by extraction solvents. *Journal of Food Science*, 72, 159-166.
- Zou, Z., Xi, W., Hu, Y., Nie, C., & Zhou, Z. (2016). Antioxidant activity of citrus fruits. Food
- 571 *Chemistry*, 196, 885–896.

**Table 1.** Mean values (with standard deviation) of total phenolic content (TP), vitamin C (VC), lycopene (Lp) and antioxidant capacity (DPPH, FRAP) of liquidized grapefruit (L), liquidized grapefruit with solutes mixture (LS) and spray-dried powder ( $P_0$ ).

Sample	L	LS	$P_0$	
TP (1)	590 (70) <sup>a</sup>	590 (50) <sup>a</sup>	570 (10) <sup>a</sup>	
VC (2)	740 (40) <sup>a</sup>	750 (10) <sup>a</sup>	710 (30) <sup>a</sup>	
Lp (3)	32 (1) <sup>a</sup>	29 (1) <sup>b</sup>	8.3 (0.2)°	
DPPH (4)	1.8 (0.1) <sup>a</sup>	1.51 (0.05) <sup>b</sup>	1.1 (0.1) <sup>c</sup>	
FRAP (4)	5.0 (0.4) <sup>a</sup>	4.0 (0.4) <sup>b</sup>	1.33 (0.04) <sup>c</sup>	

Different letters within each row indicate significant differences (p < 0.05).

(1) mg of gallic acid equivalents/100 g grapefruit solutes, (2) mg ascorbic acid /100 g grapefruit solutes, (3) mg lycopene/100 g grapefruit solutes, (4) mmol trolox equivalents/100 g grapefruit solutes.

**Table 2.** Pearson's correlation coefficients among total phenols (TP), lycopene (Lp), vitamin C (VC), antioxidant capacity (DPPH and FRAP analysis) and color differences ( $\Delta E$ ) of the powder samples with respect to the initial powder  $P_0$ .

	DPPH	FRAP	TP	VC	ΔΕ
TP	0.7728*	0.7813*	-	0.5514*	-0.2223
Lp	0.9251*	0.9729*	0.8382*	0.5967*	-0.7642*
VC	0.5990*	0.5737*	-	-	-0.6222*

\*Correlation is significant at a significance level of p < 0.05

**Table 3.** Luminosity (L\*), hue angle (h\*) and chroma (C\*) of grapefruit powder stored for different time periods (t, days) at different relative humidities (RH).

	t RH	V <sup>(2)</sup>	11.3%	23.1%	33.1%	43.2%	55.9%
	30	79 b,A	79 b,A	78 c,A	80 b,AB	81 c,B	79 c,AB
L*(1)	90	$78^{b,A}$	79 b,A	78 c,A	$80^{b,A}$	79 c,A	81 c,A
$L^{r(1)}$	180	71 a,C	71 a,C	73 b,C	69 a,B	$68^{b,B}$	$66^{b,A}$
	270	72 a,C	73 a,C	67 a,B	71 a,C	72 a,C	62 a,A
	30	72.3 a,A	72.4 a,A	73 a,A	75.1 b,A	80.5 c,A	74.3 b,A
1 *(1)	90	74 a,A	73.2 a,A	74.4 a,A	$80^{b,B}$	85 c,B	$78~^{\mathrm{b,B}}$
h*(1)	180	79 b,B	76 a,B	77.3 a,B	83 b,C	85 c,B	80 a,C
	270	$79^{c,B}$	76.3 b,B	$78^{b,B}$	$85  ^{d,D}$	$84^{d,B}$	75 a,A
	30	10.4 b,A	11 b,A	11.2 c,A	11 b,A	11.5 b,A	17 <sup>a,B</sup>
C*	90	$10^{b,AB}$	9.4 a,A	10 b,A	9.4 ab,A	11.2 ab,BC	13 a,C
(light)	180	8.5 a,A	9 a,A	9 ab,A	9.2 ab,A	11 a,A	15 a,B
	270	$10^{\mathrm{ab,AB}}$	9.3 a,AB	8.0 a,A	8.1 a,A	11.4 b,B	16 a,C
C*	30	11 b,A	12 c,AB	12 c,AB	12 b,AB	13 b,B	15.4 b,C
	90	11.0 b,A	11.0 bc,A	11 b,A	11.5 b,A	14.1 c,B	18.1 c,C
(darkness)	180	9.1 a,A	9.1 a,A	9.3 a,A	10.2 ab,A	11 a,A	13.4 a,B
	270	8.3 a,A	9.4 ab,A	9 a,A	9.4 a,A	14 bc,B	18 c,C

Standard deviations: L\* between 1 and 6; h\* 0.4-5; C\*+light: 0.2-4; C\*-light: 0.3-6. (1) No significant differences were observed between samples exposed to light or in darkness. Mean values appear in the table. (2) Vacuum storage. Different superscripts within the same row indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) between RH (A-C) and within the same column indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) between time (a-d).

597	Figure 1 Mean values and standard deviation of total phenolics of grapefruit powder, mg gallic
598	acid equivalents/100 g grapefruit solutes (mg GAE/100 g <sub>GS</sub> ), as a function of storage
599	conditions: 11.3, 23.1, 33.1, 43.2 and 55.9% relative humidity and vacuum packed (V) after 30,
600	90, 180 and 270 days of storage, with and without light. The dotted line marks the phenolic
601	content of the newly spray-dried powder. Different letters indicate significant differences (p <
602	0.05) between relative humidity (A-F), time (a-d) and light condition (X-Y).
603	Figure 2 Mean values and standard deviation of lycopene of grapefruit powder, mg
604	lycopene/100 g grapefruit solutes (mg $Lp/100~g_{GS}$ ), as a function of storage conditions: 11.3,
605	23.1, 33.1, 43.2 and 55.9% relative humidity and vacuum packed (V) after 30, 90, 180 and 270
606	days of storage, with and without light. The dotted line marks the Lp of the newly spray-dried
607	powder. Different letters indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) between relative humidity
608	(A-F), time (a-d) and light condition (X-Y).
609	Figure 3 Mean values and standard deviation of vitamin C of grapefruit powder, mg ascorbic
610	acid/100 g grapefruit solutes (mg AA/100 $g_{GS}$ ), as a function of storage conditions: 11.3, 23.1,
611	33.1, 43.2 and 55.9% relative humidity and vacuum packed (V) after 30, 90, 180 and 270 days
612	of storage, with and without light. The dotted line marks the vitamin C of the newly spray-dried
613	powder. Different letters indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) between relative humidity
614	(A-F), time (a-d) and light condition (X-Y).
615	Figure 4 Mean values and standard deviation of antioxidant capacity of grapefruit powder
616	measured by DPPH assay, mmol trolox equivalents (TE)/100 g grapefruit solutes (mmol
617	TE/100 $g_{GS}$ ), as a function of storage conditions: 11.3, 23.1, 33.1, 43.2 and 55.9% relative
618	humidity and vacuum packed (V) after 30, 90, 180 and 270 days of storage, with and without

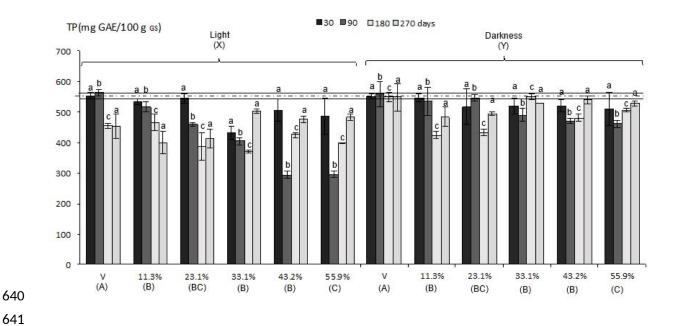
light. The dotted line marks the antioxidant capacity of the newly spray-dried powder. Different letters indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) between relative humidity (A-F), time (a-d)

and light condition (X-Y).

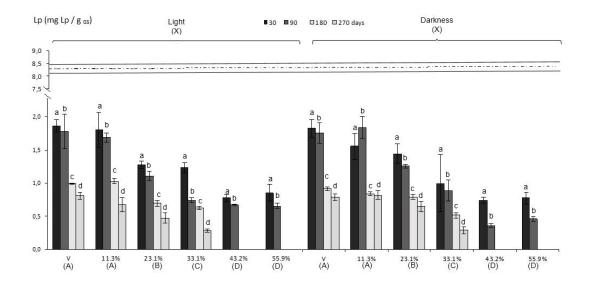
Figure 5 Mean values and standard deviation of antioxidant capacity of grapefruit powder measured by FRAP assay, mmol trolox equivalents (TE) /100 g grapefruit solutes (mmol TE/100  $g_{GS}$ ), as a function of storage conditions: 11.3, 23.1, 33.1, 43.2 and 55.9% relative humidity and vacuum packed (V) after 30, 90, 180 and 270 days of storage, with and without light. The dotted line marks the antioxidant capacity of the newly spray-dried powder. Different letters indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) between relative humidity (A-F), time (a-d) and light condition (X-Y).

**Figure 6** Mean values and standard deviation of the maximum force attained during the grapefruit powder compression test (Fmax) as a function of storage conditions: 11.3, 23.1, 33.1, 43.2 and 55.9% relative humidity and vacuum packed (V) after 30, 90, 180 and 270 days of storage, with and without light. The dotted line marks the newly spray-dried powder value. The inner graph shows an example of the force—distance relationship obtained from the compression test carried out on the samples stored for 180 days, in the dark, at the different relative humidities and vacuum packed. Different letters indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) between relative humidity (A-F), time (a-d) and light condition (X-Y).

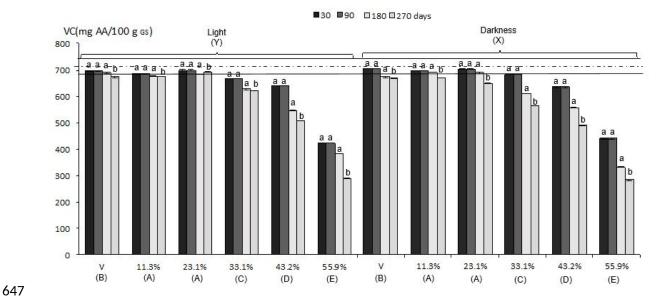
**Figure 7** Evolution of the color change of grapefruit powder with respect to the newly obtained one, as a function of storage conditions: 11.3, 23.1, 33.1, 43.2 and 55.9% relative humidity and vacuum packed (V), after 30, 90, 180 and 270 days of storage, with and without light



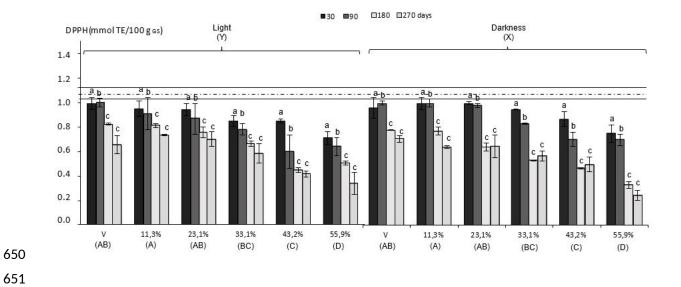
**Fig. 1**.



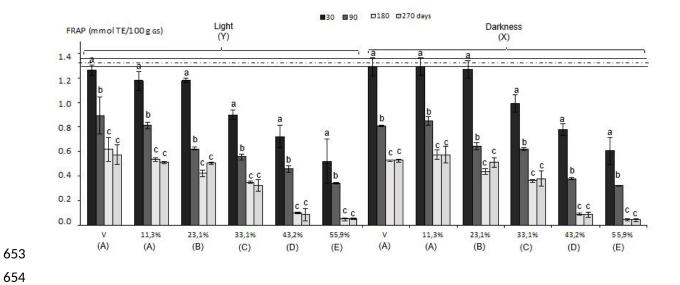
**Fig. 2.** 



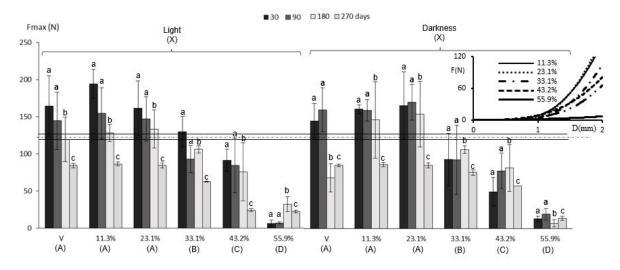
**Fig. 3**.



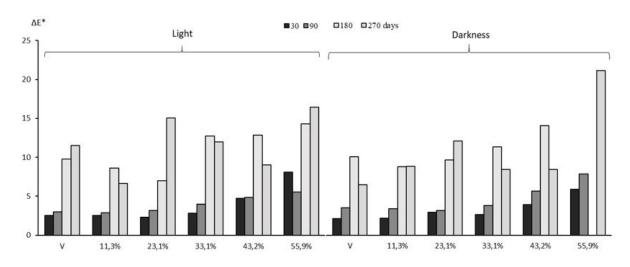
**Fig. 4.** 



**Fig. 5.** 



**Fig. 6** 



**Fig. 7.**