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Additional Information



## 25 **1. Introduction**

26 Cassava (*Manihot esculenta* Crantz) is an extensively cultivated tuber crop and its  
27 consumption was classified as a cultural component in developing countries. Cassava is  
28 a staple food for millions of people in the tropical regions of Africa, Latin America and  
29 Asia (Nambisan, 2011). A major factor limiting the food value of cassava is the  
30 presence of cyanogenic glucosides (linamarin and lotaustralin) which liberate  
31 acetonecyanohydrin and hydrogen cyanide upon hydrolysis by the endogenous enzyme,  
32 linamarase (Conn, 1979). The presence of these toxic compounds in cassava and its  
33 food products has been a cause of concern because of their possible effects on health. It  
34 is therefore necessary to eliminate/reduce their levels in tubers to a minimum in order to  
35 make cassava safe for consumption. Major research efforts to eliminate/reduce  
36 cyanoglucosides have focused on development of acyanogenic cassava varieties by  
37 breeding, controlling its metabolism and processing to remove cyanogens. Many called  
38 varieties “sweet” have very low levels of these cyanogenic glucosides and can be  
39 consumed of safe way, after a thermal process. Traditional methods used for processing  
40 include boiling, blanching, drying, parboiling and drying, baking, steaming, frying and  
41 preparation of flour. These processes result in cyanide losses ranging from 25% to 98%  
42 (Nambisan, 2011). To remove cyanogens from cassava and to valorize this culture and  
43 open new markets, new uses for cassava were sought, once of which was cassava fried  
44 chips.

45 Numerous studies have revealed that excess consumption of fat, a main component in  
46 deep-fat fried food, is a key dietary contributor to coronary heart disease and perhaps  
47 cancer of the breast, colon, and prostate (Browner, Westenhause, & Tice, 1991). In  
48 recent years, consumer preference for low-fat and fat-free products has been the driving  
49 force of snack food industry to produce lower oil content products that still retain the

50 desirable texture and flavor (Garayo & Moreira, 2002). Several processes have been  
51 developed in order to allow companies to manufacture reduced-fat products that possess  
52 the desired quality attributes of deep fat fried food whilst preserving their nutritional  
53 properties. These include alternative technologies such as extrusion, drying, and baking,  
54 which may be applied to raw food or formulated products. Unfortunately, none of them  
55 has been as successful as expected because they are still unable to impart the desired  
56 quality attributes of deep fat fried food, such as flavour, texture, appearance, and  
57 mouthfeel (Dueik, Robert, & Bouchon, 2010). In this sense, vacuum frying may be an  
58 option for production of fruits, vegetables and another product with low oil content and  
59 the desired texture and flavor characteristics. Vacuum frying is defined as the frying  
60 process that is carried out under pressures well below atmospheric levels, preferably  
61 below 50 Torr (6.65 kPa). Due to the pressure lowering, the boiling points both of the  
62 oil and the moisture in the foods are lowered. Vacuum frying possess some advantages  
63 that include: (1) can reduce oil content in the fried product, (2) can preserve natural  
64 color and flavours of the product due to the low temperature and oxygen control during  
65 the process, (3) has less adverse effects on oil quality (Shyu, Hau, & Hwang, 1998), (4)  
66 decreased acrylamide content (Granda, Moreira, & Tichy, 2004), and (5) preservation of  
67 nutritional compounds (Da Silva & Moreira, 2008). Vacuum frying studies have been  
68 developed for various types of food such as potatoes (Garayo & Moreira, 2002), banana  
69 (Jackson, Bourne, & Barnard, 1996), breadfruit (Bates, Graham, Matthews, & Clos,  
70 1991), carrots (Dueik et al., 2010), pineapple (Pérez-Tinoco, Perez, Salgado-Cervantes,  
71 Reynes, & Vaillant, 2008) or vegetables chips (Da Silva & Moreira, 2008). However,  
72 no mention was found in the literature on using cassava to produce vacuum-fried chips  
73 for human consumption.

74 Blanching is a process of food preparation where the food is plunged into boiling water  
75 or steam used for enzyme activity reduction. It is one of the most widely used methods  
76 to prevent browning (Liu-Ping, Min-Zhang, & Mujumdar, 2005; Shyu, & Hwang, 2001;  
77 Shyu, Hau, & Hwang, 2005) and to leach soluble sugars (Krokida, Oreopoulou,  
78 Maroulis, & Marinos-Kouris, 2001). Califano & Calvelo (1987) reported that blanched  
79 step previous to frying in potato chip processing improves the color and texture, and  
80 reduces, in some cases, the oil by gelatinization of the surface starch. Troncoso,  
81 Pedreschi & Zúñiga (2009) suggest that blanching and blanching combined with air  
82 drying affect significantly instrumental parameters such as color ( $L^*$ ,  $a^*$  and  $\Delta E$ ) and  
83 flavour as well as overall quality of potato chips, but the best flavour was obtained for  
84 potato chips without pre-treatment vacuum frying.

85 The objective of this study was to develop high-quality cassava chips using a blanching  
86 pre-treatment and vacuum frying as process treatments and to study changes in color,  
87 mechanical and acoustic parameters, oil content and moisture, in order to identify the  
88 potential of vacuum frying for producing novel cassava snacks following new health  
89 trends.

## 90 **2. Materials and methods**

### 91 *2.1. Sample preparation*

92 Fresh cassava (*Manihot esculenta* Crantz) from Costa Rica was purchased from a local  
93 market in Valencia (Spain). It was verified that the pieces were whole, healthy (free of  
94 mould, rottenness or deterioration) and free of any strange scent. Whole cassava was  
95 stored at room temperature prior to use. Peeled cassavas were cut into 1.5-1.8 mm thick  
96 slices with a slicer (Siemens MS70001, Siemens, Spain). The cassava slices were

97 divided in two groups. One of them was cassava slices with a blanching pre-treatment  
98 before being fried (B) and the other group was fried without pre-treatment (UB).

### 99 *2.2. Blanching treatment*

100 Blanching treatment was carried out in a thermostated water bath (Precistern S-386,  
101 Selecta, Barcelona, Spain) at 70 °C during 10 minutes (Taiwo & Baik, 2007). After  
102 treatment, excess water on product surface was removed by gently blotting with tissue  
103 paper (Krokida et al., 2001).

### 104 *2.3. Frying treatments*

105 Two frying treatments, atmospheric frying and vacuum frying, were considered. For  
106 frying treatments sunflower oil (Hacendado, España S.A., Sevilla, Spain) was used. The  
107 ratio frying oil/cassava was 20:1 w/w in all treatments. Atmospheric frying (AF) was  
108 carried out at 165°C since this is within the range of temperatures normally used for  
109 frying (between 150 °C and 180 °C) (Choe & Min, 2007). For the atmospheric frying  
110 experiments, a commercial deep fat fryer was used (Movilfrit, Barcelona, Spain).  
111 Vacuum frying was made using a vacuum fryer (Gastrovac, International Cooking  
112 Concepts, Barcelona, Spain). Three levels of oil temperature for vacuum frying (120,  
113 130 and 140 °C) were considered in this study. After frying treatment, before vacuum  
114 rupture, cassava chips were removed from oil and centrifuged for 2 min to avoid oil  
115 impregnation (Da Silva & Moreira, 2008). The amounts of time studied were from 1 to  
116 10 minutes (one minute intervals) for atmospheric and vacuum treatments. After frying,  
117 the cassava chips were cooled at room temperature and packed in polyethylene pouches  
118 (Cryovac® HT3050, Cryovac Sealed Air Corporation, Barcelone, Spain) and stored at  
119 25°C before analysis.

### 120 *2.4. Proximate composition*

121 Moisture content of cassava chips was measured in a vacuum oven by drying at 70 °C.  
122 Ground samples (5 g) were dried to constant weight. Moisture content was calculated  
123 from the weight difference between the original and dried samples and expressed as dry  
124 base. Tree samples were used for each time and temperature.

125 The total fat content of dried samples of cassava chips (5 g) was extracted with  
126 petroleum ether (BP 40-60 °C) for four hours in a Soxtec System 2055 Tecator  
127 extracting unit (FOSS, Hillerød, Denmark) and gravimetrically determined. Tree  
128 samples were used for each time and temperature.

### 129 *2.5. Characteristics of the fried product*

130 Weight loss determination was calculated as the percentage weight difference between  
131 the raw and fried samples relative to the weight of the raw cassava slices. The samples  
132 were dried with an absorbent paper before being weighed in order to remove the  
133 superficial water in the fresh cassava slices and the oil in the fried ones. The weight of  
134 the samples was measured with an analytical balance Mettler Toledo model PB 303-S  
135 (Mettler Toledo GmbH, Greinfensee, Switzerland). Tree samples were used for each  
136 time and temperature.

137 A TA-XT2 texture analyser (Stable Micro Systems Co Ltd, Godalming, Surrey, UK)  
138 with the program of data analysis Texture Expert version 4.0.13.0 (2009) and one  
139 spherical probe P/0.5S of ½ inch of diameter (Micro Stable System) was used to  
140 determine breaking force, area under the curve and number of peaks. The samples were  
141 placed on a platform HDP/CFS (“Crips Fracture Support Rig”) the parameters of the  
142 test were: speed of test 1mm/s, force of activation 5g, distance of sounding 3 mm. All  
143 numerical results were expressed in grams. For the study of the crispy character a  
144 surrounding sound detector with a microphone Bruel and Kjaer (8-mm diameter)

145 incorporated was used (Chen, Karlsson, & Povey, 2005; Varela, Chen, Fiszman, &  
146 Povey, 2006). The microphone was put to 4 cm of distance in an angle of 45° with  
147 respect to the center of the sample. The environmental acoustics and the noise were  
148 filtered using a filter of high step of 1 kHz. The data acquisition rate was 500 points per  
149 second for both force and acoustic signals. All tests were performed in a laboratory with  
150 no special soundproof facilities at room temperature. Twenty replications were  
151 performed for each kind of cassava chip. Force/displacement and SPL/displacement  
152 curves were simultaneously plotted. From the force curve the following parameters  
153 were extracted: area below the force curve (N·s), higher value of force (N) and number  
154 of force peaks (drop in force higher than 0.049 N). From the sound curves, the number  
155 of sound peaks (drop in sound pressure level higher than 10dB) and the sound pressure  
156 level (dB) (average of the ten higher peaks, SPL<sub>max10</sub>).

157 The surface color of cassava chips was measured with a spectrophotometer Minolta cm-  
158 3600-d (Minolta, Osaka, Japan) using a color data analysis software (SpectraMagic™  
159 NX, Minolta, Osaka, Japan). Measures were realized using a diaphragm SAV (0.4-0.7  
160 mm) and with basic white and black plate having in account that the samples were  
161 translucent. Results were expressed in CIELab system referred to the illuminant D65  
162 and observer 10°. Theory of Kubelka-Munk of multiple scattering was applied to the  
163 obtained reflection spectra in order to evaluate the translucence degree (Hutchings,  
164 1999). Taking into account the translucence from the samples ten measurements by  
165 each treatment became of frying with white bottom, ten measurements with black  
166 bottom and in addition the measurement to the percentage of reflectance of the used  
167 white plate.

168 *2.6. Statistical analysis*



169 The effect of blanching, temperature and vacuum pressure on the drying curve, the oil  
170 content, weight loss, color and texture of cassava chips was evaluated using a factorial  
171 design with two levels for blanching treatment, four levels for temperature and six  
172 levels for frying time. Multifactor analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed on the  
173 instrumental parameters to evaluate differences among the cassava chip samples. The  
174 statistical analysis of the data was performed using statistical package Statsgraphics  
175 Centurion XVI ver. 16.2.04 (StatPoint Technologies Inc., Virginia, USA). Statistical  
176 significance was expressed at the  $p < 0.05$  level.

### 177 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 178 *3.1. Blanching treatment*

179 The initial weight of samples before blanching was  $3.2 \pm 0.7$  g, after blanching the  
180 average weight was  $3.5 \pm 0.6$  g. Blanching implies a significant increase ( $p < 0.05$ ) of  
181 weight (6.9%) of samples. This weight gain can be explained by the water absorption  
182 that occurs during blanching process by immersion in hot water that implies changes in  
183 product structure. According to Zivanovic & Buescher (2004) blanching disrupts the  
184 hydrogen and other non-covalent bonds between cell wall polymers. Pectins are  
185 degraded and solubilized from the cell wall and the middle lamella between adjacent  
186 cell walls. This leads to a loss of adhesion between cells and turgor pressure which  
187 ultimately destroys the membrane integrity (Ma & Barrett., 2002; Xin, Zhang, Xu,  
188 Adhikari, & Sun, 2015) that facilitates water exchange.

#### 189 *3.2. Weight loss during frying*

190 Fig. 1 shows the effect of frying time and pre-treatment on weight loss for vacuum and  
191 atmospheric fried cassava chips. Effect of pre-treatment was significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) for  
192 vacuum and atmospheric fried samples during all stages of frying. At the end of the

193 process (10 min) the weight loss of blanched samples (B), including all temperatures,  
194 was  $57\pm 2\%$  while that for unblanched samples (UB) was  $49\pm 2\%$ . If we consider the  
195 weight gain due to the blanching process the final weight of samples was similar  
196 ( $p\geq 0.05$ ),  $1.7\pm 0.4$  g for unblanched samples and  $1.4\pm 0.3$  for blanched samples. Related  
197 to the effect of temperature no differences were found ( $p\geq 0.05$ ) between treatments at  
198 the end of the process (10 min), the weight variation experienced by the samples fried  
199 under atmospheric conditions ( $165^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) was around  $53\pm 5\%$  with respect to initial weight  
200 while the mass variation experienced by cassava chips under vacuum conditions was  
201  $54\pm 5\%$  at  $120^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  $50\pm 4\%$  at  $130^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $55\pm 3\%$  at  $140^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

### 202 3.3. Moisture content

203 Fig. 2 shows moisture loss for each frying time during vacuum and atmospheric frying  
204 and the effect of pre-treatment methods on the moisture of fried cassava chips. Moisture  
205 content of the fried cassava chips was found to be influenced by the blanching  
206 pretreatment. The loss of moisture during vacuum and atmospheric frying presented a  
207 classical drying profile. There was an initial rapid decrease in water content, which was  
208 mainly due to the loss of surface and unbound inner water, followed by a gradually  
209 decreasing gradient due to crust formation. All samples were dried to the same final  
210 moisture content ( $0.013\pm 0.015$  g water/g dry solid). No differences were found in  
211 moisture ( $p\geq 0.05$ ) after 10 min of treatment between treatments. When moisture data (g  
212 water/g dry solid) were fitted to an empirical model as an exponential function of time,  
213  $X_w = a \cdot e^{-b \cdot t}$ , (Bauman & Escher, 1995), the moisture data fitted ( $R^2 > 0.98$ ) this model  
214 properly and reflected the faster water loss in atmospheric fried samples (Table 1). The  
215 frying temperature significantly affected the rate of moisture loss and the time required  
216 to achieve the desired level of dehydration (Fig. 2) in the first stage of the frying  
217 process. In this stage, water loss increase (higher values of “b” parameter) with

218 temperature and blanching for vacuum treatments (Table 1). Treatments under vacuum  
219 condition at 140 °C showed higher “b” values that carried out at 165 °C at atmospheric  
220 pressure. The differences are thought to be mainly associated with micro-structural  
221 changes. Samples fried under vacuum conditions are exposed to lower temperatures. As  
222 a result, micro-structural changes/damage are impaired (this is one of the main  
223 advantages of vacuum technology). Also, during the initial depressurization step of  
224 vacuum frying, micro-structural surface changes may occur, which may prevent water  
225 from escaping. Furthermore, even though dehydration is mainly limited by heat transfer,  
226 diffusion may play a role (Dueik et al., 2010). Diffusion slows down at lower  
227 temperatures, a factor that may preclude moisture loss. Similar results were found by  
228 Mariscal & Bouchon (2008) when frying apple slices and Dueik et al. (2010) with  
229 carrots crisps. After 5 min of treatment there are not differences in moisture content of  
230 samples due to blanching treatment or temperature of frying ( $p < 0.05$ ). At this point the  
231 mean value for moisture was  $0.025 \pm 0.027$  g water/g dry solid or  $2.3 \pm 2.4$  %, other  
232 authors as García-Armenta et al. (2016) in studies of multifractal breakage pattern of  
233 tortilla chips associated a moisture content around 1-4 % with quality foodstuffs.

#### 234 *3.4. Oil content*

235 Oil content of the fried cassava chips decreased with blanching (Fig. 3). The mean value  
236 of oil content for blanched samples (B) was  $0.036 \pm 0.019$  and  $0.050 \pm 0.034$  for  
237 unblanched samples (UB). When cassava slices were blanched, water would be  
238 removed from the cells of the cassava slices by diffusion. In addition, water would also  
239 be vaporised during vacuum frying and might leave behind pores in the cassava slices.  
240 By the other hand vacuum treatment implies a significant reduction in oil content  
241 ( $p < 0.05$ ). The mean value for oil content in samples fried at atmospheric pressure (165  
242 °C) was  $0.085 \pm 0.027$  while samples treated under vacuum conditions showed lesser oil

243 content values,  $0.027\pm 0.004$  at 120 °C,  $0.034\pm 0.014$  at 130 °C and  $0.027\pm 0.008$  at 140  
244 °C. The time of treatment was not significant for oil absorption ( $p\geq 0.05$ ). Oil absorption  
245 is a complex mechanism, which is still not clearly understood under vacuum conditions  
246 (Garayo & Moreira, 2002). There are many factors that make this a complex  
247 phenomenon, such as the initial product structure, the various interchanges between the  
248 product and the heating medium, product variation and oil properties, chemical  
249 reactions, food moisture content, the cooling phase, the frying time, the temperature, the  
250 drainage time or pressurization time (Velasco, Marmesat, & Dobarganes, 2008). Several  
251 studies (Dana & Saguy, 2006; Moreira, Castell-Pérez, & Barrufet, 1999) demonstrated  
252 that most of the oil does not penetrate the product during frying but during the cooling  
253 period, when the product is removed from the fryer and the product starts to cool,  
254 leading to water vapor condensation and a subsequent decrease in internal pressure. Oil  
255 adhering to the food surface is sucked in due to the consequent 'vacuum effect'.  
256 Therefore, oil uptake is a surface phenomenon, involving equilibrium between adhesion  
257 and drainage as the food is removed from the oil bath (Moreira & Barrufet, 1998;  
258 Moreira, Sun, & Chen, 1997). Mariscal & Bouchon (2008) concluded that permeability  
259 was of great importance because oil absorption is essentially a surface-related  
260 phenomenon resulting from the competition between drainage and suction into the  
261 porous crust once the food is removed from the oil bath and begins to cool. These  
262 results indicated that blanching combined with vacuum frying can be an alternative to  
263 reduce oil content in cassava chips.

### 264 *3.5. Color*

265 Color is considered as the most representative quality index in a chip. It is affected by  
266 chemical composition of raw material and determines processing capability (Lisinska &  
267 Leszczynski, 1989). The golden color is characteristic and a very significant attribute of

268 fried products and determinant in acceptance from consumers (Krokida et al., 2001).  
269 Table 2 shows instrumental parameters of color ( $L^*$ ,  $a^*$ ,  $b^*$ ,  $h^*_{ab}$  and  $C^*_{ab}$ ) in function  
270 of pretreatment and frying conditions for samples fried during 5 min. Blanching pre-  
271 treatment affected significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) the instrumental parameters of color.  
272 Blanching increase  $L^*$  and  $h^*_{ab}$  and diminishes  $a^*$ ,  $b^*$  and  $C^*_{ab}$ , providing samples with  
273 a lower extent of browning and a more golden-yellow color in comparison with  
274 unblanched samples.  $L^*$  is a critical parameter in the frying industry, and is usually used  
275 as a quality control factor, therefore its adequate control is of great importance.  
276 Blanching is a common method to avoid browning before frying in vacuum (Liu-Ping et  
277 al., 2005; Shyu et al., 2005; Shyu & Hwang, 2001) or atmospheric conditions.  
278 Blanching contribute to lixiviate soluble sugars (Krokida et al., 2001), also the heating  
279 of samples at a temperature higher to gelatinization point of starch allows a decrease of  
280 reducing sugars that are implied in Maillard reaction.

281 Vacuum frying was a significant effect over the instrumental parameters of color (Table  
282 2). Vacuum frying reduces significantly ( $p < 0.05$ )  $a^*$ ,  $b^*$  and  $C^*_{ab}$  values and increase  
283  $h^*_{ab}$  values. Cassava chips fried under vacuum had  $L^*$  values similar than the values  
284 corresponding to the slices fried under atmospheric conditions. As mentioned before  
285 analyzing the effect of pre-treatment, a higher  $a^*$  and  $b^*$  values indicates a “darker”  
286 color, which is desirable in these products (Fig. 4). High  $h^*_{ab}$  values are mainly  
287 associated to non-enzymatic browning reactions (Mariscal & Bouchon, 2008). The  
288 redness ( $a^*$ ) values increased significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) with frying temperature (Table 2).  
289 Baik & Mittal (2003), Pedreschi, Hernández, Figueroa, & Moyano (2005) and Ngadi,  
290 Li, & Oluka (2007) also reported that redness increased gradually with traditional frying  
291 time, finding that the higher the frying temperature, the darker the resulting potato  
292 slices. This suggests that the Maillard reaction was limited by temperature and not by

293 the pressure conditions. Analysis of variance showed temperature had a significant  
294 effect ( $p < 0.05$ ) on yellowness ( $b^*$ ) in cassava chips. The high level of vacuum frying  
295 temperature (140 °C) decreased  $L^*$  and  $h^*_{ab}$ . Color coordinates showed that cassava  
296 chips vacuum fried at 140 °C were “darker” than those fried at 120 °C or 130 °C.  
297 Several studies have shown that during frying, under atmospheric or vacuum conditions,  
298 higher temperatures increase the extent of browning (Garayo & Moreira, 2002; Krokida  
299 et al., 2001; Pedreschi et al., 2005; Shyu & Hwang, 2001; Shyu et al., 2005; Troncoso  
300 et al., 2009), supporting the results observed in this work. Then, combination of  
301 blanching pretreatment with vacuum frying at moderate temperature can be a good  
302 procedure to improve color in cassava chips.

### 303 *3.6. Texture and sound*

304 Recent methods simultaneously measured both the compression force and the sound  
305 pressure when a solid food was being fractured (Castro-Prada, Luyten, Lichtendonk,  
306 Hamer, & Van Vliet, 2007; Chaunier, Courcoux, Della Valle, & Lourdin, 2005; Chen et  
307 al., 2005; Salvador, Varela, Sanz, & Fiszman, 2009). These methods are more objective,  
308 in that they avoid the dependence on panelists. Chen et al. (2005) showed that acoustic  
309 events and force drops occurred almost correspondingly. Representative profiles of the  
310 force and the simultaneously recorded sound during the probe displacement in the  
311 cassava chips are shown in Fig. 5. The force–displacement curves show a jagged  
312 appearance with several fracture events, typical of crispy food (Chen et al., 2005;  
313 Salvador et al., 2009; Taniwaki & Kohyama, 2012; Taniwaki, Sakurai, & Kato, 2010;  
314 Varela et al., 2006; Vincent, 1998). In order to compare objectively the behavior of the  
315 different cassava chips, specific parameters were extracted from the force and sound  
316 curves. The parameters evaluated were: 1) the area under the force versus displacement  
317 curve; 2) the number of total force peaks, which are an index of the jaggedness of the

318 curve; 3) the maximum force peak, which are related with hardness of the product; 4)  
319 the number of total sound peaks, and 5) the sound pressure level (average of the ten  
320 higher peaks, SPLmax10). Fig. 6 shows the parameters obtained for force and sound  
321 curves for samples fried during 5 min. Blanching implies an increase of the area and a  
322 reduction in the maximum force peaks ( $p < 0.05$ ) and had no effect on the rest of  
323 measured parameters ( $p \geq 0.05$ ). Vacuum treatment increase the number of force peaks  
324 ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Fig. 6b). In vacuum fried samples an increase of temperature implies a  
325 decrease of area under force versus displacement curve and force maxima (Fig. 6a and  
326 6c). With respect to sound parameters, samples fried under vacuum conditions at 130 °C  
327 and 140 °C showed high number of sound peaks ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Fig. 6d). The sound pressure  
328 level (SPLmax10) ranged between 95.04 dB and 98.48 for all treatment been samples  
329 treated at 130 °C under vacuum conditions and samples fried at 165 °C under  
330 atmospheric conditions those that showed a higher level of SPL.

331 In general sensory crispness is positively related to the number of fracture and acoustic  
332 events, to SPLmax10, and to the area below the force curve (Salvador et al., 2009). In  
333 addition, certain degree of sensory hardness is necessary for crispness perception. On  
334 the other hand, a low number of force and acoustic events normally are taken as an  
335 index of low crispness (Salvador et al., 2009). The increase of temperature in vacuum  
336 fried samples implies a reduction of the area. Segnini, Dejmek, & Öste (1999a, 1999b)  
337 and Pedreschi, Segnini, & Dejmek (2004) used the maximum force of break as an  
338 indication of crispness. A high number of force and sound peaks have been associated  
339 to a high sensory crispness (Chen et al., 2005; Varela et al., 2006). In cassava chips  
340 samples fried at 130 °C under vacuum conditions seems to present a good combination  
341 of force and sound parameters that can be related with samples with adequate crispness  
342 profile.

343 **4. Conclusions**

344 The obtained results shown that the blanching pretreatment implies a considerable  
345 improvement in the color of the samples vacuum treated and less oil absorption.  
346 Vacuum frying of cassava chips with previous blanching may be an alternative to the  
347 atmospheric frying since it improves the color of the samples, reduces the oil gain and  
348 maintains his crispness, being the treatment at 130 °C under vacuum conditions with  
349 blanching the one that better results contributed.

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