This is an Accepted Manuscript of an article published by Taylor & Francis in "Journal of Microencapsulation" 2018, 35:5, 482-493, available online:

https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/02652048.2018.15382 64

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Microencapsulation of blackberry pulp with arrowroot starch and gum arabic mixture by spray drying

31 Abstract: This research work aimed to obtain blackberry pulp powder by spray 32 drying and, by an experimental design, evaluated the effect of inlet air 33 temperature (100-150°C) and blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum 34 Arabic solids ratio of 1:0.5-1:2 on the physicochemical properties of the 35 powders. Arrowroot starch and gum Arabic present Tg values above 100°C; 36 hence it was possible to employ them as carriers in blackberry pulp spray drying 37 in order to increase Tg of the system. Powder yield and solubility increased with 38 increasing blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids ratio of 39 1:0.5-1:2, whereas hygroscopicity decreased. Yield, solubility and hygroscopicity 40 of the powders increased and water activity decreased, with increasing inlet air 41 temperature. The powders presented low moisture content and water activity. 42 Temperature of 143°C and blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic 43 solids ratio of 1:1.78 were the optimal conditions to obtain high yield and 44 blackberry powders that are soluble in water and less hygroscopic.

45 Keywords: glass transition temperature; process yield; moisture content; average
46 size; hygroscopicity; solubility.

47 Introduction

Rubus fruticosus or blackberry, belonging to the Rosaceae family, grows abundantly in
regions of cold weather, in the north of Europe, Australia, part of Asia, North America
and South America (Ferrari et al., 2012; Gomar et al., 2014).

The fruits are highly appreciated by consumers, not only for the combination of their appealing color and desirable flavor and taste, but also for their high nutritional value (D'Agostino et al., 2015). In addition to high contents of fibers, vitamins, and essential minerals, blackberry is an important source of phenolic compounds, such as phenolic acids, tannins and anthocyanins, which have high antioxidant capacity (Elisia et al., 2007; Hager et al., 2008; Machado et al., 2015). Its consumption has been associated with benefits for human physical and mental health (antioxidant, anticancer, anti-inflammatory and anti-neurodegenerative activities) (Dai et al., 2007; Tavares et
al., 2012; Zia-Ul-Haq et al., 2014).

60 However, blackberry is one of the most perishable berries because of its thin and 61 fragile skin and high respiration and transpiration rates, which limit its consumption in 62 the fresh form (Ferrari et al., 2012; Joo et al., 2011). During postharvest period, there 63 are fast changes in the blackberry's physicochemical and nutritional properties, such as 64 mass loss, texture alteration and microbiological deterioration. Most blackberries 65 destined for fresh markets became unmarketable after 2 or 3 days when held at 0°C due 66 to decay (Hardenburg et al., 1986; Joo et al., 2011). About 60% of its production is lost 67 if processed improperly (Romero and Yépez, 2015).

For this reason, spray drying is an alternative for the processing of blackberry,
since the powder obtained is easier to handle, package and transport than the fruit itself,
and also provides a high-quality product with prolonged shelf life (Santana et al., 2016).

71 More specifically, spray drying is a technological process in which a fluid 72 product is transformed into a powder by atomizing it into a hot gas stream (Gharsallaoui 73 et al., 2007). The feed flow rate, the inlet and outlet air temperatures, atomizer speed, 74 feed concentration, feed temperature and inlet air flow rate are process parameters of 75 spray drying that influence physicochemical properties of the powders produced (Ré, 76 1998; Chegini and Ghobadian, 2005). Different parameters can be controlled during 77 spray drying process in order to obtain desired characteristics in the final product (Daza 78 et al., 2016).

However, some intrinsic drawbacks, such as stickiness, hygroscopicity and low solubility may occur. In addition, the adhesion of droplets to the drying chamber walls decreases the process yield (Santana et al., 2016). The sticky behavior of juices or fruit pulp powders is attributed to the presence of low molecular weight sugars and organic

acids in their composition, which have low glass transition temperatures (Bhandari and
Datta, 1997; Saavedra-Leos et al., 2012; Araujo-Díaz et al., 2017).

85 Alternatively, high molecular weight encapsulating agents are added to pulps or 86 fruit juices prior to the drying process in order to increase the glass transition 87 temperature of the system and to reduce such problems (Araujo-Díaz et al., 2017). Gum 88 arabic, maltodextrins, starches, gelatin, methyl cellulose, gum tragacanth, alginates, 89 pectin, silicon dioxide, tricalciumphosphate, glycerol monostearate and mixtures of 90 some of them are some examples of encapsulating and coating agents used in spray 91 drying (Igual et al., 2014). Among polysaccharides, starches are being widely studied 92 as potential encapsulating agents due to their low cost, abundance and renewability, 93 besides the advantage of existing in various forms, depending on the source of the raw 94 material (Sartori and Menegalli, 2016), which can generate exceptional functional 95 properties when compared to conventional encapsulating agents. Arrowroot starch has 96 not been used as an encapsulating agent. However it, presents a great potential for 97 application for being multifunctional, non-toxic, biodegradable, blood-compatible, 98 bioactive, besides having a high digestibility (Hoover, 2001; Winarti et al., 2015; Wu 99 and Liao, 2017). Due to its high digestibility, gelling and thickener ability, arrowroot 100 starch (Hoover, 2001; Villas-Boas and Franco, 2016) has been widely used in 101 preparation of bakery products, as in confection of biscuits, cakes, creams and sweets 102 (Leonel et al., 2002).

However, arrowroot starch cannot be easily thermal processed, which limits its application in industries. Thus, to increase the functionality of arrowroot starch, it is blended with other polymers to make biocomposites, creating a biomaterial with more functional applications (Wu and Liao, 2017). The mixture of arrowroot starch with gum Arabic has a great potential for use as encapsulating agent, since gum Arabic presents many desirable characteristics of a good wall material for drying encapsulating
techniques, such as increasing glass transition temperature, imparting high solubility,
low viscosity and good emulsifying properties to feed dispersions (Ramírez et al.,
2015).

112 This study aimed to produce powdered pulp from blackberry by spray drying 113 using mixture of gum Arabic and arrowroot starch as encapsulating agent, in order to 114 evaluate the impact of drying conditions on the physical properties of spray-dried pulp.

115

116 Materials and methods

- 117
- 118 *Materials*
- 119 Blackberry fruits

120 Frozen fruits of blackberry (Rubus fruticosus), cv Tupy, were acquired from "Agro 121 Monte Verde Eirelli", company of Cambuí - MG, Brazil, and used in this research 122 work. Pulp was obtained by grinding blackberry fruits in a blender, previously thawed 123 in refrigerator (8°C) for 24 h. Then, the pulp was sieved to remove seeds, homogenized 124 and packed in polypropylene bottles and coated with aluminium foil to protect against 125 photodegradation. The samples were stored in freezer at $-40 \pm 3^{\circ}$ C until drying. Pulp 126 soluble solids content was 9°Brix, determined with a manual refractometer with a 0-127 90°Brix range and 0.2°Brix resolution (Reichert, Model AR200, USA). The pulp 128 presented total solids content of 10.3 g/100g of pulp.

129

130 Carrier agent

The encapsulating agents used were gum Arabic Instantgum® (colloids Naturels, São
Paulo, Brazil) containing 14.00±0.10% of moisture content, 1.38±0.16% of proteins,

133 0.37±0.02% of lipids, 3.70±0.10% of ash and 80.46±0.00% of carbohydrates 134 (A.O.A.C., 2006), and arrowroot starch containing 15.24±0.19% of water, 0.40±0.03% 135 of protein, 0.12±0.01% of fat, 0.33±0.01% of ash and 83.91±0.00% of carbohydrates 136 (A.O.A.C., 2006). The arrowroot starch was extracted according to the methodology 137 developed by Cruz and El Dash (1984). Arrowroot rhizomes used in the extraction of 138 the starch were obtained in the Faculty of Agronomy, Federal University of Grande 139 Dourados, Mato Grosso do Sul, Brazil, in 2014. All other reagents used for the analyses 140 presented analytical grade.

141

142 *Methods*

143 Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC) of carrier agents

144 The thermal properties of arrowroot starch and gum Arabic (powder) were studied using 145 a Differential Scanning Calorimeter (DSC1, Mettler Toledo, Schwerzenbach, 146 Switzerland). Aliquots of 10 mg of the samples were weighed in a microanalytical scale 147 (MX5-Mettler Toledo, Schwerzenbach, Switzerland), in an aluminum pan (40 µl). For 148 reference, an empty aluminum pan was used. The samples were submitted to heating 149 program between 25 and 100°C at a rate of 10°C/min, in an inert atmosphere (50 150 mL/min of N₂). When temperature reached 100 °C, samples were held for 10 minutes at 151 this temperature. After this first scan, the measurement cells were cooled with liquid 152 nitrogen to 25°C, followed by a second heating sweep between 25 and 270°C at rate of 153 10°C/min in an inert atmosphere (50 mL/min of N₂). The glass transition temperature 154 (Tg) was calculated as the baseline inflection point, caused by the discontinuity of 155 specific heat of the sample.

157 Experimental Design

158 Drying experimental runs were conducted following an experimental design using 159 mixture of arrowroot starch/gum Arabic (1:1, weight/weight) as encapsulating agent. A 160 central composite design - including 4 factorial runs, 4 experimental runs in axial 161 conditions and 3 repetitions of central point, totalling 11 runs - was developed (Table 162 1) to study the effects of dryer inlet air temperature (100–150°C) and blackberry pulp 163 solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids ratio of 1:0.5-1:2 (weight/weight) on the 164 powder properties. The response variables considered were drying process yield, 165 moisture content, water activity, hygroscopicity, solubility and particle size.

166

167 Microcapsule production

The solution of encapsulating agents and blackberry pulp was prepared in mixer type homogenizer at room temperature for 5 minutes. The solutions obtained were diluted in water in a ratio of 1:2 (weight/weight) to facilitate spraying, due to its high viscosity. The total solids contents of the spray feed solutions are presented in Table 1 and were determined from the determination of the dry weight obtained by drying in a vacuum oven at 60 °C until obtaining constant weight (A.O.A.C., 2006).

The resulting homogenized solutions were immediately fed into laboratory spray dryer (Model B191, Büchi, Flawil, Switzerland) equipped with a drying chamber (diameter of 110 mm and height of 435 mm) and dual fluid atomizer nozzle with an orifice of 0.5 mm in diameter, using the following process conditions: airflow of 19 m³/h; pressurized air flow of 0.6 m³/h; feed mass flow of 0.2 kg/h. Three drying repetitions were performed for each test. The resultant powder was stored in polyethylene packages in desiccators until its characterization.

181

Drying process yield. Drying process yield was determined by the ratio between
powder solids mass and feeding solids mass of blackberry pulp.

186

187 Moisture content and water activity. The powder's moisture content was gravimetrically 188 obtained by vacuum oven at 60°C until constant weight, in triplicate (A.O.A.C., 2006). 189 Water activity (Aw) was determined by direct reading at 25°C, using a water activity 190 meter (Aqualab, Decagon Devices, USA). All determinations of AW were carried out 191 from three independent preparations, in triplicate.

192

Microstructure. Electronic Scanning Electron Microscope with X-ray Dispersive Energy Detector (SEM) bench (model of MEV: Leo 440i, model of EDS: 6070, Leo 440i - LEO Electron Microscopy/Oxford- Cambridge, England) was used to observe the morphological characteristics of the powder samples. Powder sample was placed on double-sided carbon adhesive tape adhered to stub, submitted to application of a gold layer (model K450, Sputter Coater EMITECH, Kent, United Kingdom) and observed in scanning electron microscope operated at 20 kV.

200

Hygroscopicity of blackberry powders. Hygroscopicity was determined according to methodology proposed by Cai and Corke (2000), with some modifications. Approximately 1 g of each powder sample was placed in a hermetic container at 25°C, with a saturated NaCl solution, to create a 75.7% relative humidity atmosphere. The samples were weighed, in triplicate, after seven days and the hygroscopicity was

determined and expressed in g of adsorbed water per 100 g of dry solid (100 g g^{-1}).

207

Solubility of the blackberry powders. Solubility was determined according to the method described by Eastman and Moore (1984), cited by Cano-Chauca et al. (2005). The method consists in adding 1 g of sample to a vessel containing 100 mL of distilled water, operating with high-speed magnetic stirring – level 4 of magnetic stirrer for 5 minutes, followed by centrifugation at 3000 g for 5 minutes. Aliquot of 25 mL of supernatant was removed and kept in the oven at 105°C until constant weight. The solubility was calculated by weight difference.

215

216 Particle size distribution. The particle size distribution (d 0.1, d 0.5, d 0.9, µm) was 217 determined by a particle size analyzer based on laser diffraction (Mastersizer 2000, 218 Malvern Instruments, UK). The mean diameter was determined based on the diameter 219 of a sphere with equivalent volume (De Brouckere Mean Diameter, D[4.3]). The surface 220 mean was determined based in volume/surface mean (also called the Sauter mean, 221 D[3.2]). Samples were analyzed in triplicate with dispersion in 99.5% ethanol.

222 Statistical analysis

The results of variable response of the experimental design were evaluated using Statistica 9.0 software. Significant differences between mean results were evaluated by analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey test at 5% level of significance, using SAS software (Cary, NC, USA).

- 227
- 228 **Results and discussion**
- 229

230 Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC) of the carrier agents

One of the difficulties of spray drying of sugar-rich food products, such as pulps or fruit juices, is the high chemical affinity between water molecules and the low molecular weight sugars contained in the pulp or juice (Araújo-Díaz et al., 2017). As a consequence, the overall glass transition temperature (Tg) of the system decreases, observing processing problems of fruit pulp powders obtained by spray drying, such as stickiness, hygroscopicity and low solubility. In addition, the adhesion of droplets to the drying chamber walls decreases the process yield (Santana et al., 2016).

238 Encapsulating agents may be employed as improver in the spray drying process 239 of pulps or fruit juices, with the main function of increasing Tg of the system, since 240 these agents are characterized by high molecular weight, low viscosity and Tg in the 241 range of 100-188°C (Araújo-Díaz et al., 2017; Saavedra -Leos et al., 2015). The quality 242 of the powder is closely linked with the choice of encapsulating agent. Thus, knowledge 243 of the glass transition temperature behavior of the polymeric materials supports its 244 choice as an encapsulating agent and helps to understand its performance in processes 245 such as dehydration, evaporation, and conservation.

246 Glass transition temperature (Tg) is a value referring to a temperature range that, 247 during the heating of a polymeric material, allows the amorphous chains to acquire 248 mobility (Schlemmer et al., 2010). Tg is an important information obtained from DSC 249 curves. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) is a commonly employed analytical 250 technique for analysis and characterization of amorphous solid dispersions. This 251 technique has proven to be a highly versatile technique for understanding the glass 252 transition temperature (Tg), relaxation, and crystallization behavior of polymeric 253 material (Bechgaard et al, 2018). Phase transitions in foods are often a result of changes 254 in composition or temperature during processing or storage. The DSC curves of 255 arrowroot starch and gum arabic are shown in Figure 1. According to Araújo-Díaz et al. 256 (2017), for any substance or compound to be used as an encapsulating agent, it must 257 present a Tg value above boiling temperature of water (approximately 100°C). 258 Considering that carbohydrate polymers, arrowroot starch and gum Arabic present Tg 259 values above 100°C, hence, they can be employed as encapsulating agents in spray 260 drying blackberry pulp.

The thermogram of arrowroot starch, with moisture content of 15.24% (dry base), presented in Figure 1A, showed Tg of 118.19°C, with the beginning of this transition at about 116.52°C and the end at about 118.20°C. The endothermic peak around 140°C observed in thermogram (**Figure 1A**) of arrowroot starch was attributed mainly to evaporation of water present in starch.

The thermogram of potato starch with moisture content of 3.7% w/w (RH 11%) showed Tg of 161.72°C, while for the same sample with moisture content of 18.8% w/w (RH 75%) Tg of 141.91°C (Chuang et al., 2016). The Tg presented by starch depends heavily on moisture content of amylose and amylopectin, molecular

interactions between starch and low molecular weight co-solutes and the inherentcharacteristics of the used measurement protocol (Perdomo et al., 2009).

For gum Arabic with moisture content of 14% (dry base), the thermogram showed Tg of 125.8°C, with the beginning of this transition at around 124.16°C and the end at around 125.97°C (**Figure 1B**). A similar endothermic peak for gum Arabic was reported by Mothé and Rao (2000) at about 90°C. According to the authors, this peak appeared due to the melting of crystallites during heating of gum Arabic with lower moisture content (0–40%).

278

279 Insert Figure 1 here

280

281 Experimental design

The experimental data for process yield (Y), moisture content (M), water activity (Aw), hygroscopicity (H) and solubility (S) were determined using 11 combinations of the independent variables, as shown in **Table 1**.

285 The results were fitted using a second-order regression model. The codified regression coefficients, F-values, p-values and coefficients of determination (R²) are 286 287 presented in Table 2. Nonsignificant terms, at confidence level of 95%, were eliminated 288 and the predictive models were tested for adequacy and accuracy of fit by ANOVA. 289 When calculated F-value (Fc) was greater than the tabulated F-value (Ft), the variation 290 was explained by the regression and not by residues. Thus, the regression was 291 significant, and the model could be considered predictive. Figure 2 shows the response 292 surfaces generated by the proposed models.

293

Inserts Table 1 and 2 here

295 Insert Figure 2 here

296

297 Process yield

According to **Table 1**, the experimental process yield values for blackberry pulp spray drying using arrowroot starch and gum Arabic mixture as encapsulating agent ranged between 28.77 and 56.95%. These values were similar to those obtained for spray drying of açai of 34.3–55.7% (Tonon et al., 2008), for jussara pulp of 33.88 to 76.55% (Santana et al., 2016), for beetroot juice ranged between 41.31% and 54.63% (Bazaria and Kumar, 2016). Eldridge et al. (2014) demonstrated a recovery of 61.3% of blackberry powder contained at 6.3:1 (w/w) mannitol:blackberry extract.

305 Blackberry is a fruit rich in sugars of low molecular weight such as glucose, fructose and sucrose (Kafkas et al., 2006), which have low Tg value: 32°C, 14.5°C, and 306 307 45°C, respectively (Saavedra-Leos et al., 2012). The Tg of the pulp was influenced by 308 the present sugars, which makes difficult the drying process. In this work, it was not 309 possible to obtain powdered blackberry pulp without addition of encapsulating agent, 310 because the pulp behaved as syrup, sticking to the walls of dryer and obtaining a caked 311 product instead of a dry powder. Without carrier, pomegranate juice formed a hard glass 312 film on spray dryer chamber walls in dehydration process (Yousefi et al., 2011).

With incorporation of encapsulating agent in blackberry pulp before drying process, it was possible to obtain powder, but at smaller ratios of arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids in relation to the total blackberry pulp solids, a large powder deposit was still observed in the walls of drying chamber and cyclone. This same behavior was reported by Igual et al. (2014) and Santana et al. (2016) during drying of lulo pulp and jussara pulp, respectively. Retention of product on the chamber wall is undesirable 319 (Santana et al., 2016). Process yield corresponds to product recovery and is mainly
320 determined by the powder collection efficiency (Wang and Langrish, 2009).

The blackberry pulp drying process yield was significantly (p<0.05) influenced by inlet air temperature of the dryer and blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids ratio, which presented quadratic negative effect and positive linear effect, respectively (**Table 2**).

325 The highest yields were obtained when higher blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot 326 starch/gum Arabic solids ratio and inlet air temperature were used, as shown in Figure 327 2A. The experimental run 8 and the central point runs presented the highest drying 328 process yield values (53.17-56.95%), which were significantly different (p<0.05) from 329 results of other experimental runs. This behavior indicates that addition of encapsulating 330 agent to blackberry pulp before spray drying was sufficient for a possible increase of 331 glass transition temperature of system. Increased blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot 332 starch/gum Arabic solids ratio favored blackberry pulp drying, reducing stickiness of 333 powders encapsulation by encapsulating agents, consequently decreasing adherence of 334 solids in drying chamber, which resulted in increased yield values. One way of 335 confirming this hypothesis of reducing the viscosity of the powders is to determine the 336 tg of the powders and relate to the temperature of the dryer's outlet air.

As for temperature, the increase in dryer's inlet air temperature caused increase in process yield, which could be attributed to the greater efficiency of heat and mass transfer processes (Bazaria and Kumar, 2016). However, at temperatures above 143°C, there was decrease in yield, probably due to the caramelization of encapsulating agents, as well as of sugars present in blackberry pulp (Souza et al., 2015), which resulted in more adhesion to wall, so the amount of powder production and yield was reduced.

All the produced powders showed marked reddish color and flavorcharacteristics of blackberry fruit (Figure 3).

345

346 *Moisture content*

The results of statistical analysis applied to experimental data of the powders moisture content showed that the effects of linear, quadratic and interaction factors were not significant at 95% confidence interval (p>0.05). Due to these nonsignificant factors, it was not possible to construct a predictive mathematical model for behavior of moisture content of blackberry powders in function of independent variables.

However, **Table 1** shows that all powders produced presented moisture content values lower than 6%. Ferrari et al. (2012) obtained approximately 3% moisture content for blackberry juice powder produced by spray drying using inlet air temperature of 160°C and 5% of maltodextrin as encapsulating agent (w/w). The moisture content of sumac extract powders ranged between 2.94 and 4.22% (wet basis) (Caliskan and Dirim, 2016) and 0.9 to 7% for lulo powders (Igual et al., 2014).

358 For powder products, moisture content had great impact on flowability, 359 stickiness and storage stability because of its plasticizing effects and crystallization 360 behavior (Islam et al., 2016). Since water acts as plasticizer, only a small amount is 361 required to change glass transition temperature, which increases the food matrix 362 mobility during storage and causes alterations in powder (Goula and Adamopoulos, 363 2010). Thus, low water contents are desirable for powders. Any experimental run within 364 the studied range for inlet air temperature and blackberry pulp solids: arrowroot 365 starch/gum Arabic solids ratio will result in formation of powder with mean moisture 366 content below 6% that is desirable to keep it microbiologically stable.

367

368 Water activity

Water activity values of powders ranged from 0.18±0.03 to 0.36±0.04 (**Table 1**). Cagaita (*Eugenia dysenterica* DC.) fruit extract powders presented water activity values lower than 0.3 (Daza et al., 2016). In the present study, except for run 5, that showed water activity of 0.36±0.04, results of all other runs were below the limit of 0.30, indicating that they are microbiologically stable, as there is no microbial growth below this value, as well as that there is delay in non-enzymatic browning, one of the main reactions of deterioration (Reid and Fennema, 2010).

The powders water activity was not significantly influenced (p>0.05) by the blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids ratio. This means that powders produced with any blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids ratio within the range studied will present low values for water activity. On the other hand, the dryer's inlet air temperature significantly influenced (p<0.05) the water activity (**Table 2**).

Figure 2B shows that the lowest water activity values are found at inlet air temperatures above 100°C, regardless of the blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids ratio. This may be due to higher heat transfer to the particle, resulting in greater driving force for water evaporation, thus producing powders with lower moisture content and water activity (Daza et al., 2016).

387

388 Average Size

389 Powder particles of all the experimental runs presented varied and large sizes, with
390 diameters ranging from 50.94±0.61 to 119.79±3.54 µm (Table3 and Figure 3 A and
391 B). Mango powders produced with maltodextrin by spray drying ranged from 0.47 to

392 549 μm, while, without maltodextrin they ranged from 1.9 to 955 μm (Zotarelli et al.,
393 2017).

394 Drying temperatures and blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic 395 solids ratio are parameters that may affect the particle size of powders obtained by spray 396 drying. When drying is performed at higher temperatures, the process is faster than 397 drying at lower temperatures, leading to immediate formation of particles and avoiding 398 particle shrinkage. Similarly, encapsulating agent concentration increases feed viscosity 399 and results in particles with larger diameters (Calomeni et al., 2017). Higher liquid 400 viscosities result in larger particles in atomizers and larger particles in spray drying 401 chamber (Jafari et al., 2017).

Besides the encapsulating agent, high content of sugars and acids in the fruit
also increases viscosity of feed mixture during spraying in drying chamber. This
introduces agglomeration and, consequently, produces larger particles (Shrestha et al.,
2007). Solutions of blackberry pulp and encapsulating agent used in feeding were
visually very viscous, which may have led to particles with larger diameters.

Araujo-Díaz et al. (2017) observed a general contraction of the volume of 407 408 blueberry powder without encapsulating agent, indicating collapse of microstructure of 409 the sample and suggesting crystallization of low melting sugars present in fruit juice. 410 Islam et al. (2017) observed with scanning electron microscopy that orange 411 juice/maltodextrin 60:40 powders were fused and clumped together and that orange 412 juice/maltodextrin 50:50 powders were agglomerated. Agglomerations were not found 413 in the powders produced with higher maltodextrin ratio (orange juice/maltodextrin 414 40:60 and orange juice/maltodextrin 30:70).

In this study, inlet air temperature and blackberry pulp solids:arrowrootstarch/gum Arabic solids ratio did not significantly affect particle size. The results of

417 statistical analysis applied to the experimental data of the powders average size showed 418 that the effects of linear, quadratic and interaction factors were not significant at 95% 419 confidence level (p>0.05). Due to these nonsignificant factors, it was not possible to 420 construct a predictive mathematical model for the behavior of average size of 421 blackberry powders in function of independent variables.

It is believed that, in this work, the presence of larger particles was due to a possible agglomeration process (Figure 3 A and B). The particle size distributions of the samples are shown in **Table 3**. Similar behavior was observed by Zotarelli et al. (2017) for mango powder obtained by spray drying. This can be attributed to the formation of bridges between the smallest particles, resulting in agglomeration that formed larger particles (Zotarelli et al., 2017).

428

429 Insert Table 3 here

430

431 Hygroscopicity

432 Hygroscopicity is a material's capacity to absorb moisture from the surrounding 433 environment, and it is an important property to be considered, due to its influence on 434 food stability (Daza et al., 2016). The blackberry powders were stored for 7 days in 435 desiccators with saturated NaCl solution and 75.7% relative humidity at 25°C. As 436 shown in Figure 3 C, after 3 days in this condition, the powders of all tests absorbed 437 water from environment, causing caking of the particles and darkening of the powders. 438 After 7 days, powders had a very sticky appearance, indicating that blackberry powders 439 are unstable and hygroscopic, which may hinder their handling.

440

441 Insert Figure 3 here

443 Hygroscopicity values of powders obtained by blackberry pulp drying using an 444 arrowroot starch and gum arabic mixture as encapsulating agent ranged from 445 10.93±0.17 to 15.31±0.17 g of adsorbed water/100 g of solids (Table 1). These results 446 were lower than those found by Daza et al. (2016) for cagaita powders obtained by 447 using gum arabic (14.8–18.8 g of absorbed water per 100 g of sample) and inulin (13.8 448 and 19.4 g of absorbed water per 100 g of sample) as carrier. Dried beetroot juice 449 particles presented hygroscopicity values of 14.46–20.68 g of water/100 g of dry matter 450 (Bazaria and Kumar, 2016).

Inlet air temperature and blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic
solids ratio significantly influenced (p<0.05) the hygroscopicity of blackberry powders,
which presented positive and negative linear effect, respectively (Table 2). Inlet air
temperature was the variable that most influenced the final product's hygroscopicity.

455 According to Figure 2C, the lowest values of hygroscopicity were obtained 456 when lower inlet air temperature and higher blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot 457 starch/gum arabic solids ratio were used. This same behavior was observed by Bazaria 458 and Kumar (2016) for dried beetroot juice particles. According to the authors, this could 459 be well explained by the increasing moisture content with lower inlet air temperature. 460 Powders with very low moisture content tend to be more hygroscopic. The capacity to 461 adsorb ambient moisture is related to the water concentration gradient between the 462 product and the surrounding air (Tonon et al., 2008).

As for the blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids ratio, both arrowroot starch and gum arabic are materials with low hygroscopicity; consequently, blackberry pulp microencapsulation tends to reduce the resulting powder's hygroscopicity. This fact demonstrated the capacity of arrowroot starch and gum arabic 467 mixture as encapsulating agent to improve the hygroscopicity values of the blackberry 468 powders obtained and make them more stable. These results are in agreement with those 469 observed for orange juice, cactus pear juice, cagaita fruit extracts and beetroot juice 470 powders obtained by spray drying, which showed decreased hygroscopicity due to 471 increased carrier agent concentration (Rodriguez-Hernandez et al., 2005; Bazaria and 472 Kumar, 2016; Daza et al., 2016; Islam et al., 2016).

473 Hygroscopicity of orange juice powder decreased from 0.195±0.02 to 474 0.143 ± 0.01 g H₂O/g with increasing maltodextrin concentration (Islam et al., 2016). In 475 this study, the blackberry powder of run 3 produced with inlet air temperature of 143 °C 476 and ratio of blackberry pulp solids: arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids of 1:0.72 was the 477 most hygroscopic (15.31 g of adsorbed water/100 g of solids), whereas the powder of 478 run 2, produced with inlet air temperature of 107 °C and ratio of blackberry pulp 479 solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids of 1:1.78, was the least hygroscopic (10.93 g 480 of adsorbed water/100 g of solids).

481

482 Solubility

483 Solubility is another important parameter that may be evaluated after powder production, because it can potentially affect some of their properties, such as the 484 485 reconstitution of dry extract or the availability of encapsulated compounds in a food 486 system (Daza et al., 2016). Solubility of blackberry powder particles ranged from 487 58.39 ± 0.99 to $79.37\pm5.25\%$ (Table 1), lower than those reported by Daza et al. (2016) 488 and Santana et al. (2016) in their studies on spray dried cagaita (Eugenia dysenterica 489 DC.) fruit extracts obtained by using gum arabic (94.4–97.8%) and inulin (87.7–95.9%) and spray dried jussara pulp produced by using ternary mixture of gum 490

491 arabic/maltodextrin/whey protein concentrate (78.81–93.46%) and gum arabic/modified
492 starch/soy protein isolate (81.23–92.75%), respectively.

The differences in solubility can be explained by chemical structure of each carrier agent. The occurrence of water adsorption by a carbohydrate is attributed to the links between hydrogen present in water molecules and hydroxyl groups available in amorphous regions of substrate as well as in regions that have a crystalline surface (Negrão-Murakami et al., 2017).

The solubility of blackberry powders was significantly (p<0.05) influenced by variable inlet air temperature, presenting a positive linear and quadratic effect. The interaction between inlet air temperature and blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids ratio also showed a significant positive effect on the solubility of blackberry powders (**Table 2**).

Less soluble powders were obtained at lower inlet air temperatures and higher blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids ratio (**Figure 2D**), similar to the behavior observed for hygroscopicity. Although gum arabic is highly soluble (Daza et al., 2016), arrowroot starch in its natural form is highly insoluble in water at room temperature, which probably contributed to the decrease of blackberry powders solubility.

509 On the other hand, more soluble powders were produced when extreme inlet air 510 temperatures were used, as shown in **Figure 2D**. Higher temperatures result in faster 511 drying rates, avoiding the particle encountering during drying, maintaining the initial 512 structure formed. Consequently, more porous or fragmented particles are produced at 513 higher temperatures, increasing the surface of particles exposed to water, facilitating the 514 access of water into its structure, hence favoring solubilization (Souza et al., 2015).

515

516 *Optimization of process parameters and analysis of the model*

517 The optimum spray drying conditions for blackberry pulp were determined by surface 518 response methodology, in order to obtain higher process yield and soluble powders in 519 water with low hygroscopic. Due to variation in particle size causing agglomeration it 520 was not possible to generate a predictive mathematical model for the behavior of 521 average size of blackberry powders as a function of independent variables, this response 522 variable was not considered for choosing optimal drying conditions.

523 Moisture content and water activity were low for all runs (moisture content < 524 6% and water activity < 0.36). Therefore, powders produced with any inlet air 525 temperature and blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids ratio within 526 the studied range would present good microbiological stability, hence these response 527 variables were not considered to choose optimal drying conditions.

528 Analyzing the model for process yield (Figure 2A), the highest values were 529 observed using intermediate inlet air temperature and high blackberry pulp 530 solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids ratio. According to Figure 2C, the lowest 531 values for hygroscopicity were obtained when lower inlet air temperature and higher 532 blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids ratio were used. On the other 533 hand, more soluble powders were produced at extreme inlet air temperatures and high 534 blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids ratio, as shown in Figure 535 2D.

Thus, the temperature of 143 °C was recommended as optimized condition, since at higher temperatures, powder solubility increased and process yield were reduced at temperatures above 143 °C. As process yield and powder solubility increased with increasing blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids ratio and hygroscopicity decreased, the ratio of blackberry pulp solids to arrowroot starch/gum

Arabic solids of 1:1.78 was used as optimum condition. Run 4, with inlet air temperature of 143 °C and blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum Arabic solids ratio of 1:1.78 was capable of producing powders with low hygroscopicity (12.99 g of adsorbed water/100 g of solids), good solubility in water (74.47%), and satisfactory process yield (50.06%), as shown in **Table 1**.

546 The optimized conditions for blackberry pulp spray drying were experimentally 547 reproduced and process yield, hygroscopicity and solubility were determined in 548 triplicate, as shown in **Table 4**, with predicted mean and experimental values according 549 to the quadratic model.

550

551 Insert Table 4 here

552

As expected, the powder produced in optimized condition had low moisture content and water activity, $1.45\pm0.51\%$ and 0.13 ± 0.04 , respectively, indicating microbiological stability. The values observed for process yield, hygroscopicity, and solubility were relatively close to those observed previously for run 4, as shown in **Table 1**. Based on the values for relative deviation (% DR) obtained for each response variable, the optimization methodology used was considered satisfactory.

559

560 **Conclusions**

This study indicated that the arrowroot starch and gum arabic mixture used as encapsulating agent and the increase in the higher drying inlet air temperatures were capable of making blackberry pulp more stable by encapsulation, increasing the efficiency of the drying process and producing powders microbiologically stable, with lower values for hygroscopicity and higher solubility in water. Temperature of 143 °C

566	and blackberry pulp solids:arrowroot starch/gum arabic solids ratio of 1:1.78 were the
567	ideal conditions to obtain high yield and blackberry powders that are soluble in water
568	and less hygroscopic. In future work, the stability of the powders during long periods of
569	storage should be evaluated.
570	
571	Disclosure statement
572	The authors report no conflicts of interest. The authors alone are responsible for the
573	content and writing of the article.
574	
575	Acknowledgements
576	The authors are grateful to the Coordination for the Improvement of Higher Education
577	Personnel (CAPES, No 01-P-3712/2017) and to the School of Agricultural Engineering
578	- University of Campinas for their financial support. The authors thank Espaço da
579	Escrita - Coordenadoria Geral da Universidade - UNICAMP - for the language services
580	provided.
581	
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