

1 **Water Sorption and Glass transition Temperatures in Red Raspberry (*Rubus***
2 ***idaeus*)**

3
4
5
6 **Roopesh M. Syamaladevi¹, Shyam S. Sablani^{1*}, Juming Tang¹,**
7 **Joseph Powers² and Barry G. Swanson²**

8
9 *¹Biological Systems Engineering Department, Washington State University, P.O Box 646120,*
10 *Pullman WA 99164-6120, USA*

11
12 *²School of Food Science, Washington State University,*
13 *P.O Box 6463760, Pullman WA 99164-6376, USA*

14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21 ***Corresponding author**

22 **(Email: ssablani@wsu.edu; Tel: +509 335 7745; Fax: +509 335 2722)**

23 **Abstract**

24 Water sorption isotherms and glass transition temperatures of raspberries were determined to
25 understand interactions between water and biopolymers. Water adsorption and desorption
26 isotherms of raspberries were determined with an isopiestic method. Thermal transitions of
27 raspberries equilibrated at selected water concentrations using adsorption and desorption were
28 determined by differential scanning calorimetry (DSC). The sorption isotherm data were
29 modeled by BET and GAB equations, while the plasticizing influence of water on glass
30 transition was modeled by the Gordon-Taylor equation. Equilibrium water concentrations varied
31 at equivalent water activities during adsorption and desorption indicating occurrence of
32 hysteresis and irreversibility of thermodynamic processes. The monolayer water concentrations
33 of 0.099 and 0.108 kg water/kg dry raspberry solids obtained by BET and GAB models during
34 desorption were larger than those during adsorption (0.059 and 0.074 kg water/kg dry raspberry
35 solids). The glass transition temperature of raspberries decreased with increasing water
36 concentrations. The Gordon-Taylor parameters T_{gs} and k obtained for raspberries during
37 adsorption were 42.6°C and 4.73 and during desorption were 44.9°C and 5.03, respectively. The
38 characteristic glass transition temperature of the maximally freeze concentrated solution T_g'
39 was $-63.1 \pm 5^\circ\text{C}$ and the onset of ice crystal melting temperature T_m' was $-32.3 \pm 0.4^\circ\text{C}$. Although
40 the water activity differed significantly at equivalent water concentrations obtained using
41 adsorption or desorption, the glass transition temperatures of raspberries were dependent on
42 concentration of water present not the method of equilibration.

43

44 **Keywords:** Adsorption, BET equation, desorption, GAB equation, glass transition, Gordon-
45 Taylor equation, water activity

46 **Introduction**

47 Water plays a central role as a solvent for biochemical reactions in foods under a wide range of
48 conditions attributed to remarkable characteristics of water such as excellent solvency, plasticity
49 and large specific heat, enthalpy of phase change, dielectric constant, and surface tension. A
50 better understanding of the interactions among water and food macromolecules is of fundamental
51 importance to the stability of high solids food systems. Water-solids equilibria, particularly
52 sorption behavior of water in foods, observed using a thermodynamic approach is commonly
53 related to physical, chemical and microbiological stability of dehydrated foods [1,2]. According
54 to the equilibrium concept, bound water, defined as solute associated water that differs
55 thermodynamically from pure/bulk water, exhibits reduced solubility for other compounds
56 causing a reduction of the diffusion of water soluble solutes in sorbents [3]. Therefore foods may
57 be biochemically more stable when they contain only bound water with no free water. Bound
58 water is characterized by low vapor pressure, large binding energy as determined during
59 dehydration, reduced mobility as observed by nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), unfreezability
60 at low temperatures, and unavailability as a solvent [4].

61 The water sorption behavior of foods is not fully reversible as indicated by sorption
62 hysteresis. Hysteresis in sorption indicates that at a given water activity and temperature an
63 adsorbent holds a smaller amount of water during an adsorption process than during a desorption
64 process. The extent of hysteresis is related to the nature and state of components in a food.
65 Hysteresis may reflect the structural and conformational rearrangement of components, which
66 alters the accessibility of energetically favorable polar sites, and thus may hinder the movement
67 of water [1]. Hysteresis may implicate the physicochemical stability of foods. Lipid oxidation of

68 foods at constant water activity occurred 3-6 times faster in foods prepared by desorption than in
69 foods prepared by adsorption [5].

70 It is argued that low-water content foods exist in a state of pseudo-equilibrium as evidenced
71 by the existence of hysteresis, and kinetic factors may be observed to evaluate long-term storage
72 stability of dehydrated foods expressed as glass transition temperatures (T_g) [6-9]. At glass
73 transition temperatures, it is considered that foods transform from a relatively stable glassy state
74 to a rubbery state or *vice versa*. In the glassy state, below T_g , the mobility of water and the rate
75 of deteriorative reactions are reduced drastically and foods are stable for extended time periods.
76 The role of T_g as a physicochemical parameter for control of microbiological, physical and
77 biochemical changes is subjected to several investigations [10-16].

78 Raspberries represent a large group of high sugar small fruits for which storage stability at
79 low water content is important. The objective of this research was to analyze water sorption and
80 glass transition temperatures during adsorption and desorption of red raspberries.

81

82 **Materials and Methods**

83 **Preparation of raspberries**

84 Washington grown red raspberry fruits were obtained from the local market and frozen at -37°C
85 for 2 days. The frozen raspberries were dried using a laboratory freeze dryer (Virtis freeze
86 mobile 24 with Unitop 600L, VirTis SP Industries Co., New York, NY) to a water content of
87 $0.042 \text{ kg H}_2\text{O/kg}$ raspberry solids. The condenser temperature was adjusted to -60°C and the
88 shelf temperature was set at -20°C with a pressure of 20 Pa. After two days, raspberries were
89 removed from the freeze drier and ground to a fine powder using a mortar and pestle. The
90 raspberry powder was placed in open weighing bottles and equilibrated for three to four weeks

91 with saturated salt solutions of constant water activities in airtight containers at room
92 temperature (23°C) for adsorption studies. The salts used were: LiCl, CH₃COOK, MgCl₂,
93 K₂CO₃, MgNO₃, NaNO₂, NaCl and KCl (Fisher Scientific, Houston, TX). The equilibrium
94 relative humidity in the containers varied from 11.3 to 86% for adsorption and desorption
95 experiments [17]. The corresponding water activity values are presented in the Table 1. A small
96 amount of thymol in a small bottle was kept inside the airtight containers to prohibit microbial
97 growth in raspberry powders.

98 For desorption studies, fresh raspberries (0.85 kg water/kg raspberry) with known weight
99 were dried to a water content approximately of 0.40 kg water/kg raspberry in laboratory vacuum
100 oven at 70°C (Yamato ADP-31, Yamato Scientific America Inc. CA USA). Weights of the
101 raspberry samples were determined at selected time intervals of drying to ensure the final water
102 content (0.40 kg water/kg raspberry). After drying, raspberries were immediately placed inside
103 airtight containers with saturated solutions for equilibration. The raspberry samples were
104 exposed to super saturated solutions to achieve constant water activity values at room
105 temperature (23°C). Saturated solutions used were the same as for the adsorption experiments.
106 Initially mold growth was observed for raspberry samples stored at 0.75 and 0.86 water
107 activities. These contaminated samples were discarded and raspberry samples were prepared
108 again for the experiments. For this, the raspberries were washed in 300 ppm of chlorine water
109 and the experiments were conducted inside a biological safety cabinet under sterilized
110 environment.

111 After three to four weeks of equilibration at selected relative humidity values, water content
112 of the raspberry samples obtained by adsorption and desorption experiments were determined by

113 vacuum oven method. For this, triplicate raspberry samples in aluminum weighing dishes were
114 heated inside a vacuum oven at 80°C for 10 h with 10 kPa chamber pressure.

115

116 **Thermal analysis**

117 A differential scanning calorimeter (DSC, Q2000, TA Instruments, New Castle, DE) was used to
118 analyze the thermal transitions in raspberry samples obtained after adsorption and desorption
119 experiments. The calorimeter was calibrated by checking standard temperatures and enthalpies of
120 fusion for indium and sapphire. An empty sealed aluminum pan was used as a reference in each
121 test. Nitrogen gas at a flow rate of 50 ml/min was used as the purge gas to avoid water
122 condensation around the raspberry sample. Ten to fifteen milligrams of raspberry sample was
123 sealed in aluminum pans (capacity 30 μ L) and cooled from room temperature to -90°C at 5°C/min
124 for formation of glassy state in raspberry sample and equilibrated for 10 min. 5°C/min is the
125 commonly followed cooling and heating rate of the thermal analysis of food systems. The
126 raspberry samples were scanned from -90°C to 70°C at a rate of 5°C/min and cooled back to
127 25°C at a rate of 5°C/min. DSC thermograms, presenting the heat flow (W/g) and temperature
128 relationship were used to analyze the thermal transitions in raspberries during heating and
129 cooling. The glass transition temperature (T_g) is identified as a (vertical) shift in the heat flow-
130 temperature relationship. TA Instruments Universal analysis software was used to analyze the
131 onset, mid and end points of the glass transition. Triplicate samples of raspberry after adsorption
132 and desorption experiments were used to determine the glass transition temperatures at each
133 water content/water activity.

134 For high water content raspberry samples ($\geq 0.75 a_w$) obtained in desorption experiments,
135 the onset of melting of ice crystals (T_m') was determined by DSC scanning of raspberry samples.

136 The raspberry samples were cooled without annealing to identify the apparent T_m' as presented
137 in Figure 1 [18]. A linear base line to the melting endotherm is drawn to identify apparent T_m' .
138 The baseline intersects with the endotherm and the intersection at the left side was taken as the
139 apparent T_m' of the raspberries as presented in Figure 1 [18, 32]. For high water content samples,
140 characteristic glass transition temperature (T_g') is associated with the maximal freeze concentrate
141 (Figure 1). Annealing was performed for high water raspberry samples after desorption
142 experiments at a temperature (apparent $T_m'-1$) for 30 min during DSC scan to obtain maximum
143 ice formation (Figure 1). Raspberry samples were scanned from (apparent $T_m'-1$) to -90°C at the
144 rate of $5^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$. Raspberry samples after desorption were scanned from -90°C to 70°C at a rate
145 of $5^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ [18, 19]. The T_m' and T_g' were determined from the same experiment where the
146 sample was annealed for 30 min (Figure 1).

147

148 **Modeling**

149 Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) and Guggenheim-Anderson-de Boer (GAB) models are widely
150 accepted to fit water sorption data of food materials. BET and GAB models are based on the
151 monolayer water concept and derive the monolayer water content from water activity-water
152 content by non-linear optimization. To model the water adsorption and desorption data of dried
153 raspberry samples, BET and GAB models were used [20]. The BET equation is:

$$154 \quad M_w = \frac{M_b B a_w}{(1 - a_w)[1 + (B - 1)a_w]} \quad (1)$$

155 where M_w is the water content (kg water/kg dry solids), M_b is the BET monolayer water content
156 (kg water/kg dry solids) and B is a constant related to the net heat of sorption of water. The BET
157 isotherm is accurate for foods with water activities between 0.05 and 0.45, though a small but

158 adequate range for the calculation of parameters M_b and B . The GAB isotherm equation is an
159 extension of the BET model and can be used for foods with water activities from 0 to 0.9 by
160 taking into consideration of multilayer adsorption. The GAB equation is considered one of the
161 best fitting equations to model the sorption isotherms of many foods.

$$162 \quad M_w = \frac{M_g C K a_w}{[(1 - K a_w)(1 - K a_w + C K a_w)]} \quad (2)$$

163 where M_g is the GAB monolayer water content (dry basis). For type III isotherms, generally the
164 value of the constant C lies between 0 and 2 while for type II isotherms, the $C > 2$. K is a factor
165 related to the multilayer heat of sorption generally between 0 and 1. Non-linear optimization by
166 Windows Excel® was used to obtain the three parameters in GAB using two variables (i.e. water
167 content and water activity).

168 In low water food systems such as dry raspberries, T_g of the food system decreases sharply
169 with water content. Water plasticization effects in foods may be approximated generally by the
170 Gordon and Taylor equation [21]. For binary food mixtures, considering food total solids and
171 water, The Gordon Taylor equation is expressed as

$$172 \quad T_{gm} = \frac{X_s T_{gs} + k X_w T_{gw}}{X_s + k X_w} \quad (3)$$

173 For aqueous binary mixtures, T_{gm} , T_{gs} and T_{gw} are the glass transition temperatures of the
174 mixture, solids and water, respectively; X_w and X_s are the wet basis water and total solids
175 contents, and k the Gordon-Taylor parameter. Large values for k in a binary mixture indicate
176 large plasticizing effect of the solids by water. The model parameters (k and T_{gs}) of Equation (3)
177 are estimated using non-linear optimization while considering $T_{gw} = -135^\circ\text{C}$.

178 Statistical analysis was conducted using SAS[®]9.1 (SAS Institute, Inc., Cary, NC) computer
179 programme. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was employed for the samples with a value of $p <$
180 0.05 being considered statistically significant. The Fisher's LSD (Least Significant Difference)
181 method was used together for this purpose [22]. Also statistical F-Test was conducted to confirm
182 the statistical significance.

183

184 **Results and Discussion**

185 **Water adsorption and desorption isotherms**

186 Water adsorption and desorption isotherms of raspberry exhibited sigmoid shape behavior
187 (Figure 2). A considerable difference in water contents of raspberry was observed during
188 adsorption and desorption processes indicating hysteresis ($p < 0.05$). The difference in the water
189 contents during adsorption and desorption was more prominent at low ($a_w = 0.11$ to 0.33) and
190 high ($a_w = 0.75$ to 0.86) water activities. At the intermediate level of water activities, the
191 difference in water contents between adsorption and desorption processes was smaller. A number
192 of hysteresis loop shapes are observed in food systems depending on the composition and
193 measurement temperature of water sorption. A wide difference in the magnitude and extent of
194 hysteresis of dehydrated foods is reported [23]. In high sugar foods, the hysteresis phenomenon
195 is more pronounced in the low water activity range ($a_w < 0.6$) [24].

196 The water adsorption and desorption behavior of selected fruits were modeled using BET and
197 GAB equations (Table 2). Sorption data of raspberry during adsorption and desorption were
198 fitted to BET ($R^2 = 0.96$ for adsorption and desorption data) and GAB models ($R^2 = 0.99$ for
199 adsorption data and $R^2 = 0.96$ for desorption data). Only experimental data with $a_w \leq 0.45$ were
200 fitted well to the BET equation [25]. The BET monolayer water content during adsorption and

201 desorption were 0.059 and 0.099 kg water/kg raspberry solids, respectively, while GAB
202 monolayer values for adsorption and desorption were 0.074 and 0.108 kg water/kg raspberry
203 solids, respectively (Table 2). The constants of BET and GAB equations obtained for raspberry
204 samples during adsorption and desorption were similar to the other selected dry fruits (Table 2).
205 The monolayer water content obtained by GAB is generally larger than the BET monolayer
206 water content [26]. However an opposite trend was observed with kiwi fruit where the
207 monolayer water content obtained using the GAB equation was smaller than the monolayer
208 water content of kiwi fruits determined with the BET equation [27]. Even though the GAB
209 model is an extension of the BET model, the monolayer water content obtained from BET
210 equation is generally considered as the optimal water content for stability of foods containing
211 large concentrations of solids [28,29]. The monolayer water contents obtained by the BET as
212 well as the GAB model during desorption were larger than the monolayer water contents
213 obtained during adsorption. The difference in water content could be attributed to the presence of
214 greater water content present in the food matrices during desorption compared to adsorption with
215 an equivalent water activity, however according to the water activity concept, the availability of
216 water participating in selected reactions is expected to be equivalent.

217

218 **Glass transition temperatures**

219 Thermogram data obtained from the DSC were used to identify glass transition temperatures of
220 raspberry samples equilibrated at selected water activities/water contents (Table 1). Experimental
221 thermograms exhibited glass transitions associated with the amorphous soluble compounds
222 (glucose and fructose) in raspberry samples. DSC thermograms (Figure 3) for freeze-dried
223 raspberry samples were similar to the DSC curves reported in the literature for other fruits in

224 equivalent ranges of water activities [27, 30-33]. For high water content raspberry samples (\geq
225 $0.75 a_w$) in desorption experiments, thermograms provide melting endotherms along with glass
226 transition temperatures, indicating the presence of freezable water in the sample. For high water
227 content raspberries, annealing was performed at a temperature (apparent $T_m'-1$) for 30 min
228 during the DSC scan for maximum ice formation [34]. The onset of ice crystal melting of
229 raspberry sample with equivalent water activity of 0.75 by desorption is presented in Figure 1
230 and 3. The mean value of the onset of ice melting evaluated from desorption samples with a_w
231 0.75 and 0.86 was considered as T_m' of raspberry was $-32.3\pm 0.4^\circ\text{C}$. For raspberry samples of a_w
232 ≥ 0.75 by desorption, the glass transition temperature is identified as characteristic glass
233 transition temperature T_g' of maximally freeze concentrated raspberry (Figure 1). The mean
234 value of the T_g' evaluated in samples with a_w 0.75 and 0.86 was considered as the T_g' of
235 raspberry. Both T_g' and T_m' values were obtained from the same experiments. T_g' and T_m' are
236 not dependent on the water content of the sample. However some difference was observed in T_g'
237 and T_m' values obtained for samples equilibrated at a_w of 0.75 and 0.86 attributed to
238 experimental variability. Some researchers have also noted a little difference in T_g' and T_m'
239 values at different water contents [18, 19, 35]. For instance, Bai et al. [19] observed T_g' of apple
240 samples as -61.6 and -58.4°C for water contents of 0.856 and 0.732 kg water/kg sample
241 respectively. Also Syamaladevi et al. [33] observed T_g' of raspberry as -57.4 and -55.8°C for
242 water contents of 0.7 and 0.6 kg water/kg raspberry respectively. No endotherms associated with
243 sugar crystallization or melting were observed. Crystallization of amorphous sugars results in the
244 loss of adsorbed water if anhydrous crystals are formed [36, 37]. The water sorption isotherms
245 did not exhibit discontinuities resulting from crystallization, thus indicating the kinetic stability
246 of the amorphous sugars in raspberry [32]. The onset of glass transition temperature (T_{gi})

247 decreased from 17.5°C to -65.5°C as water content of the freeze-dried raspberry solids increased
248 from 0.034 to 0.242 kg water/kg raspberry during adsorption. Fresh raspberries contain 84.5%
249 water, 13.4% carbohydrate, 1.30% protein, 0.3% fat and 0.5% ash [38]. Glucose and fructose are
250 the major sugars present in raspberries. So the glass transition temperatures in raspberries may be
251 related to the T_g of glucose and fructose. The glass transition temperatures and thermograms of
252 freeze-dried raspberries are similar to the glass transition temperatures and thermograms of
253 glucose and fructose [37, 39, 40]. The effect of water content on glass transition is fitted by the
254 Gordon-Taylor equation [21]. The Gordon-Taylor constants T_{gs} and k (Equation 3) obtained for
255 raspberry samples during adsorption were 42.6°C and 4.73, while the T_{gs} and k during desorption
256 were 44.9°C and 5.03, respectively (Table 3). The depression in glass transition temperatures
257 with increasing water content is due to the plasticization effect of water on the amorphous
258 constituents of the raspberry matrices (Figure 4; $R^2 = 0.93$ for adsorption data and $R^2 = 0.89$ for
259 desorption data). T_g' values were not included while fitting the Gordon-Taylor equation for glass
260 transition temperature and solids content data obtained the sample equilibrated with desorption
261 process. The glass transition temperature of anhydrous raspberry solids (T_{gs}) is greater than the
262 T_{gs} of glucose and fructose which can be attributed to the effect of other amorphous soluble
263 biopolymers with higher T_{gs} , the interactions among the compounds and the complex structure of
264 raspberry solids.

265

266

267

268 **Water activity, glass transition temperature and water content relationships**

269 Water activity is measured when the food system is in thermodynamic equilibrium with the
270 surroundings. One of the main factors influencing the stability of foods during processing and
271 storage is the amount of water in multicomponent food systems. Studies are conducted to probe
272 the influence of quality of water characterized as water activity and quantity of water
273 characterized as water content [5, 41-44]. The water activity determined using the
274 thermodynamic approach is related to the microbiological and biochemical activity in foods. For
275 example, microorganisms do not grow at water activity less than 0.6. A food product may be
276 most stable at its monolayer water content, which may vary with chemical composition and
277 physical structure [45]. Experimental studies demonstrate equivalent water activities exhibit
278 different equilibrium water contents during adsorption and desorption in foods, indicating
279 hystereses or irreversibility of the sorption process. In the present study, hysteresis was observed
280 as expected in water sorption of raspberry samples (Figure 2). During desorption, at equivalent
281 water contents smaller vapor pressure is observed than the vapor pressure observed during the
282 adsorption process. Hysteresis in foods may be due to the changes in internal structural
283 configuration and conformational rearrangements at the molecular level or by the irreversible
284 changes in structure during the making of foods by adsorption or desorption. Several factors
285 including components, temperature and pretreatments control hysteresis. Several theories address
286 the hysteresis phenomena in foods such as incomplete wetting, ink bottle and open pore theories
287 [46]. It is difficult to provide a single reason for the hysteresis phenomena in foods due to the
288 fact that food is a complex mixture of various components, which not only absorb water
289 independently but also interact [47]. The thermodynamic approach suggests water activity is
290 more relevant than total quantity of water in defining the perishability and stability of foods. In
291 foods containing equivalent water contents, the reactive water solvent for physical,

292 microbiological or biochemical reactions is dependent on whether the food is equilibrated using
293 adsorption or desorption.

294 Glass transition concept is related to the kinetic theory which observes the molecular
295 relaxation and rearrangement during glass to rubber transitions in a food system. Glass transition
296 temperature is a characteristic of nonequilibrium amorphous food systems. Water drastically
297 reduces the glass transition temperature of a food system. The decrease in glass transition
298 temperature in raspberry by water addition might be due to the increased free volume between
299 the molecules. The decrease in glass transition temperature of raspberry samples indicates that
300 the T_g of raspberry samples was primarily influenced by the concentration of water, not by the
301 equilibration process (Table 1 and Figure 4). The glass transition temperatures of raspberry
302 samples with equivalent water activities were greater after adsorption than desorption due to
303 smaller water concentrations (Figure 5). Water is a strong plasticizer and has a low molecular
304 weight and glass transition temperature (-135°C) compared to the raspberry solids. The water
305 content in raspberry samples equilibrated during desorption was higher than the sample
306 equilibrated with adsorption process. Statistical analysis indicated that the glass transition
307 temperature of raspberries is influenced by water content only and not by the equilibration
308 method. On the other hand, adsorption and desorption isotherms of raspberries present the water
309 activity is influenced by the equilibration process, presented by the hysteresis.

310 Moraga et al. [28] observed similar behavior for water sorption and plasticization of kiwi
311 fruit. However, in an earlier study Moraga et al. [32] noted the opposite behavior i.e. the glass
312 transition temperatures of strawberries were influenced more by water activity than by water
313 content [32]. The discrepancy in plasticization behavior of water in selected fruits was attributed
314 to differences in soluble and insoluble solid components in fruits. In the case of strawberries, the

315 concentration of water in strawberries during adsorption and desorption was significantly
316 different. However the net plasticization effect of water on soluble components was negligible.
317 Some of the water may be present in other phases (insoluble structural polymers) and
318 contributing little to plasticization of the amorphous soluble solids [32].

319 It is important to consider that water activity is a property of water molecules while glass
320 transition is associated with amorphous food systems. To elucidate the water activity-water
321 content-glass transition relationships of complex multicomponent food systems such as fruits and
322 vegetables, the definition of an idealized model of the fruits may be useful [32]. The two main
323 phases in the idealized model of the fruit are aqueous liquid phase containing soluble solids and
324 water insoluble phase. At equilibrium, different phases in the system will have the same water
325 activity but the amount of water present in each phase can be different depending on the level of
326 structural changes which occur in each phase of raspberries during freeze drying. The water
327 content at equilibrium is the average value of the aqueous phase and water insoluble phase while
328 water activity is global and same for these two phases. The water retained by insoluble phase
329 contributes to the mean water content but does not contribute in plasticizing i.e. lowering the T_g
330 of the amorphous soluble solids. During freeze drying, rupture of cell walls and membranes can
331 cause differences in water binding capacity of each phase resulting in hysteresis during
332 adsorption and desorption processes. The total amount of insoluble solids in raspberry fruits is
333 very small, which is only 5% of the total solids compared to 95% of soluble solids [38]. So the
334 T_g of raspberry is associated with the mean T_g of aqueous phase consisting the soluble solids
335 associated with raspberry [32]. So variation in T_g is associated with the aqueous phase of a fruit
336 system while, the water activity is same for different phases at equilibrium (aqueous phase and
337 water insoluble phase).

338 A small increase in water content of a food may produce a large depression of glass transition
339 temperature due to the water plasticization effect. Intermediate moisture foods prepared by
340 adsorption may be in glassy state, while a food with an equivalent water activity prepared by
341 desorption may be in the rubbery state as a result of greater water content. The decrease in the
342 viscosity of the rubbery state compared to the glassy state may improve the molecular mobility
343 and reaction rates of the foods prepared by desorption rather than adsorption at equivalent water
344 activity.

345 Caking of inulin powder was observed at a critical water activity of 0.56 and greater during
346 adsorption, while caking was observed for desorption for all the water activities [43]. Before the
347 desorption isotherm experiments, the inulin powders were stored at a high relative humidity
348 (94%), then transferred to chambers with 0, 12, 33, 59, 75 or 94% RH for desorption
349 experiments. During the initial conditioning at 94%, all the inulin powder was caked leading to
350 solid bridges and an irreversible solid during the desorption experiments [48]. van
351 Nieuwenhuijzen et al. [44] reported that both water activity and water content or the history of
352 bread may control the crispness of bread crust. The mobility of water in bread crust determined
353 by NMR analysis does not change at constant water contents and selected water activities
354 obtained by adsorption and desorption experiments. They reported that glass transition
355 temperature of bread crust is dependent on water content and independent of water activity.
356 However, molecular mobility and loss of crispness occurs in the glassy state of foods [49].
357 Limited studies are available simultaneously evaluating both water activity and glass transition
358 aspects of food stability. More experimental and theoretical studies such as nuclear magnetic
359 resonance and electron paramagnetic resonance spectroscopy are necessary to probe the water
360 dynamics in foods.

361 **Conclusions**

362 Equilibrium water contents were larger during desorption compared to adsorption of freeze-dried
363 raspberry samples at equivalent water activity indicating hysteresis and thermodynamic
364 irreversibility. The monolayer water content during desorption were larger than the monolayer
365 water content during adsorption. The glass transition temperature of raspberry samples decreased
366 with increasing water contents due to the plasticization effects of water. The raspberry samples
367 equilibrated at water activities of 0.75 and 0.86 during desorption contained freezable water. The
368 fresh raspberries may be kept below -63°C (T_g') to avoid ice recrystallization and maintain their
369 quality after thawing. At equivalent water contents obtained by absorption or desorption
370 processes, the glass transition temperature of raspberry sample was dependent on the
371 concentration of water in raspberry sample and not the method of water equilibration. The
372 present study indicated substantial differences between water activity and glass transition
373 approaches to characterization of molecular interactions between water and biopolymers in
374 raspberry. Additional research is needed to provide insight into the manifestation of water
375 mobility in food matrices.

376

377 **Acknowledgements**

378 This activity was funded, in part, with an Emerging Research Issues Internal Competitive Grant
379 from the Agricultural Research Center and with a Biological and Organic Agriculture (BioAg)
380 Program Grant from the Center for Sustaining Agriculture and Natural Resources at Washington
381 State University.

382

383 **References**

- 384 1. S.S.H. Rizvi, in: M.A. Rao, S.S.H. Rizvi, A.K. Datta (Eds.), Engineering Properties of Foods,
385 3rd ed. CRC Press, Taylor and Francis Group, Boca Raton, FL, 2005, pp. 223-296.
- 386 2. M.S. Rahman, T.P. Labuza, in: M.S. Rahman (Eds.) Handbook of food preservation, Marcel
387 Dekker. New York, NY, 1999, pp. 447-471.
- 388 3. W.A.P. Luck, in: L. B. Rockland and G. F. Stewart (Eds.), Water Activity: Influences on
389 Food Quality, Academic Press, New York, 1981, pp.407-434.
- 390 4. T.P. Labuza, G.C. Busk, J. Food Sci. 44 (1979) 1379-1385.
- 391 5. T.P. Labuza, L. McNally, D. Gallagher, J. Hawkes, F. Hurtado, J. Food Sci. 37 (1972) 154-
392 159.
- 393 6. F. Franks, Biotechnol. 12 (1991) 38.
- 394 7. L. Slade, H. Levine, Crit. Rev. Food Sci Nutr. 30 (2-3) (1991) 115-360.
- 395 8. Y.H. Roos, Phase transitions in foods, Academic press, San Diego, CA, 1995.
- 396 9. D. Champion, M. Le Meste, D. Simatos, Trends in Food Sci and Technol. 11 (2000) 41-55.
- 397 10. Y.H. Roos, M. Karel, Food Technol. 45 (12) (1991) 66-71.
- 398 11. K.A. Nelson, T.P. Labuza, J. Food Eng. 22(1-4) (1994) 271-289.
- 399 12. J.M. Aguilera, J.M. Del valley, M. Karel, Trends in Food Sci and Technol. 6(5) (1995) 149-
400 154.
- 401 13. M.D. Buera, J. Chirife, M. Karel, Food Res. Int. 28(4) (1995) 359-365.
- 402 14. L.N. Bell, M.J. Hageman, J. Agric. Food Chem. 42 (1994) 2398-2401.
- 403 15. B.R. Bhandari, T. Howes, J. Food Eng. 40 (1999) 71-79.
- 404 16. S. S. Sablani, S. Kasapis, M.S. Rahman, J. Food Eng. 78(1) (2007) 266-271.
- 405 17. L. Greenspan, J. Res. Nat. Bur. Stan. Phys. Chem. (1977) 89-96.

- 406 18. M.S. Rahman, *Int. J. Food Prop.* 7(3) (2004) 407-428.
- 407 19. Y. Bai, M.S. Rahman, C.O. Perera, B. Smith, L.D. Melton, *Food Res. Int.* 34 (2001) 89-95
- 408 20. M.S. Rahman, *Food properties handbook*, Boca Raton, CRC Press FL, 1995.
- 409 21. M. Gordon, J.S. Taylor, *J. App Chem.* 2 (1952) 493-500.
- 410 22. M.R. Ochoa, A.G. Kesselor, A. De Michelis, A. Mugridge, A.R. Chaves, *J. Food Eng.* 49
- 411 (2001) 55-62.
- 412 23. M. Wolf, J.E. Walker, J.G. Kapsalis, *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 20 (1972) 1073-1077.
- 413 24. M.R. Okos, G. Narsimhan, R.K. Singh, A.C. Weitnauer, in: D.R. Heldman, D.B. Lund
- 414 (Eds.), *Handbook of Food Engineering*, Marcel Dekker Inc, New York, USA, 1992, 603-719.
- 415 25. T.P. Labuza, *Food Technol.* 22(3) (1968) 15-23.
- 416 26. E.O. Timmermann, J. Chirife, H.A. Iglesias, *J. Food Eng.* 48(1) (2001) 19-31.
- 417 27. G. Moraga, N. Martinez-Navarrete, A. Chiralt, *J. Food Eng.* 72 (2006) 147-156.
- 418 28. H.A. Iglesias, J. Chirife, *Handbook of food isotherms*, Academic Press, New York, 1982.
- 419 29. T.P. Labuza, *Food Technol.* 34(4) (1980) 26-41.
- 420 30. Y.H. Roos, *J. Food Sci.* 52(1), (1987) 146-150.
- 421 31. M.M. Sa, A.M. Sereno, *Thermochim. Acta*, 246 (1994) 285-297.
- 422 32. G. Moraga, N. Martinez-Navarrete, A. Chiralt, *J. Food Eng.* 62 (2004) 315-321.
- 423 33. R.M. Syamaladevi, S.S. Sablani, J. Tang, J. Powers, B.G. Swanson, *J. Food Eng.* 91 (2009)
- 424 460-467.
- 425 34. S.S. Sablani, M.S. Rahman, S. Al-Busaidi, N. Guizani, N. Al-Habsi, R. Al-Belushi, B.
- 426 Soussi, *Thermochim. Acta.* 462 (2007) 56-63.
- 427 35. Q.L. Shi, Y. Zhao, H.H. Chen, Z.J. Li, C.H. Xue, *Thermochim. Acta*, 493 (2009) 55-60
- 428 36. H.A. Iglesias, C. Schebor, M.P. Buera, J. Chirife, *J. Food Sci.* 65(4) (1982) 646-650.

- 429 37. Y.H. Roos, J. Food Proc. Pres. 16 (1993) 433-447.
- 430 38. S. Khalloufi, Y. El-Maslouhi, C. Ratti, J. Food Sci. 65(5) (2000) 842-848.
- 431 39. S. Ablett, M.J. Izzard, P.J. Lillford, I. Arvannitoyannis, J.M.V. Blanshard, Carbohydr. Res.
432 242 (1993) 13-22.
- 433 40. A. Simperler, A. Kornherr, R. Chopra, P.A. Bonnet, J. Williams, W.D.S. Motherwell, G.
434 Zifferer, J. Phys. Chem. 110, (2006) 19678-19684.
- 435 41. T.P. Labuza, Y.E. Chou, J. Food Sci. 39 (1974) 112-113.
- 436 42. J.G. Kapsalis, in: L.B. Rockland and G.F. Stewart (Eds.), Water influences on food quality,
437 Academic Press, New York, 1981, pp. 143-178.
- 438 43. S. Ronkart, C. Blecker, C. Fougnyes, J.C. Van Herck, J. Wouters, M. Paquot, Carbohydr.
439 Polym. 63 (2006) 210-217.
- 440 44. N.H. Van Nieuwenhuijzen, C. Primo-martin, M.B.J. Meinders, R.H. Tromp, R.J. Hamer, T.
441 Van Vliet, J. Agric. Food Chem. 56 (2008) 6432-6438.
- 442 45. M.S. Rahman, Trends Food Sci. Technol. 17 (2006) 129-141.
- 443 46. A.H. Al-Muhtaseb, W.A.M. McMinn, T.R.A. Magee, Trans. Inst. Chem. Eng. 80 (2002)
444 118-128.
- 445 47. H.A. Iglesias, J. Chirife, Lebensm-wiss technol. 9, (1976) 123-126.
- 446 48. S. Ronkart, Personal communication, (2009)
- 447 49. A. Nikolaidis, T.P. Labuza, J. Food Sci. 61(4) (1996) 803-806.
- 448 50. A. Lopez-Malo, E. Palou, G. Welti, P. Corte, A. Argaiz, Dry.Technol. 15(3&4) (1997) 1173-
449 1185.
- 450 51. M.E. Katekawa, M.A. Silva, Dry. Technol. 25 (2007) 1659-1666.
- 451 52. V.R.N. Telis, P.J.A. Sobral, J. Telis-Romero, Food Sci. Technol. Int. 12(3) (2006) 181-187.

452 53. H. Wang, S. Zhang, G. Chen, J. Food Eng. 84 (2008) 307-312.

453 54. V.R.N. Telis, P.J.A. Sobral, Lebensm-wiss technol. 34 (2001) 199-205.

454

Figure Captions

455

456 Figure 1 Melting endotherm, T_m' and T_g' associated with raspberry sample equilibrated by
457 desorption at water activity of 0.75 (with and without annealing)

458 Figure 2 Water adsorption and desorption isotherms of raspberries at 23°C

459 Figure 3 DSC thermogram presenting heat flow versus temperature of raspberry samples
460 equilibrated by desorption at different water activities

461 Figure 4 Effect of solids content on glass transition temperatures of raspberries equilibrated
462 by adsorption and desorption.

463 Figure 5 Influence of water activity on onset of glass transition temperature of raspberries
464 during adsorption and desorption.

465

466

Table 1. Glass transition temperatures of raspberry samples at selected water activities and water contents after adsorption and desorption experiments

Adsorption				Desorption			
Water activity, a_w (Fraction)	Water content (kg water/kg raspberry)	T_{gi} (°C)	T_{gm} (°C)	Water activity a_w (Fraction)	Water content (kg water/kg raspberry)	T_{gi} (°C)	T_{gm} (°C)
0.113	0.034±0.000 ^a	17.5±1	19.2±1	0.113	0.054±0.003 ^c	11.5±2	15.4±1
0.225	0.046±0.001 ^b	7.3±1	9.5±1	0.225	0.066±0.001 ^d	3.4±2	6.6±2
0.328	0.069±0.001 ^e	-5.03±1	-4.2±2	0.328	0.080±0.001 ^f	-11.4±2	-8.4±3
0.432	0.086±0.001 ^g	-12.0±5	-11.2±6	0.432	0.089±0.001 ^h	-16.6±4	-13.7±6
0.529	0.112±0.001 ⁱ	-19.4±6	-16.3±6	0.529	0.126±0.004 ^j	-34.0±4	-33.3±6
0.658	0.134±0.003 ^k	-29.7±6	-28.7±7	0.658	0.138±0.001 ^l	-52.1±2	-48.1±1
0.750	0.175±0.001 ^m	-57.0±0	-53.9±2	0.750	0.367±0.011 ^o	-	-
0.860	0.242±0.007 ⁿ	-65.5 ±4	-62.1±4	0.860	0.484±0.007 ^p	-	-

Different superscripts represent statistical significant differences between water contents of raspberries obtained at selected water activities by adsorption and desorption ($p < 0.05$)

Table 2. GAB and BET equations parameters for adsorption and desorption data of selected fruits

Product	Treatment	GAB model			Treatment	BET model	
		M_o kg water/ kg raspberry solids	C	K		M_o kg water/ kg raspberry solids	B
Raspberry ^a	Adsorption at 23°C	0.074	5.53	0.904	Adsorption at 23°C	0.059	9.08
	Desorption at 23°C	0.108	1.78	0.990	Desorption at 23°C	0.099	2.23
Strawberry ^b	Adsorption at 30°C	0.051	3.5	1.16	Adsorption at 30°C	-	-
	Desorption at 30°C	0.098	4.9	0.99	Desorption at 30°C	0.095	5.2
Kiwi fruit ^c	Adsorption at 30°C	0.047	8.7	1.20	Adsorption at 30°C	0.058	7.0
	Desorption at 30°C	0.042	13.3	1.23	Desorption at 30°C	0.053	8.9
Blanched apple ^d	Adsorption at 25°C	0.076	1.18	1.03	Adsorption at 25°C	-	-
	Desorption	0.138	1.54	0.97	Desorption	-	-

	at 25°C			at 25°C			
Blanched papaya ^d	Adsorption at 25°C	0.131	1.82	0.98	Adsorption at 25°C	-	-
	Desorption at 25°C	0.134	1.57	0.98	Desorption at 25°C	-	-
Banana ^e	Adsorption at 30°C	-	-	-	Adsorption at 30°C	-	-
	Desorption at 30°C	0.074	18	0.92	Desorption at 30°C	-	-

^aCurrent Study; ^bMoraga et al. [32]; ^cMoraga et al. [27]; ^dLopez-Malo et al. [50]; ^eKatekawa and Silva [51]

Table 3. Parameters of Gordon and Taylor equation fitted to glass transition temperatures and water content data of selected fruits during adsorption and desorption

Product	Treatment	Gordon and Taylor equation parameters	
		T_{gs} (°C)	k
Raspberry ^a	Adsorption	42.6	4.73
	Desorption	44.9	5.03
Strawberry ^b	Adsorption	28.1	4.14
	Desorption	63.0	4.82
Kiwi fruit ^c	Adsorption	40.6	4.84
	Desorption	39.1	4.90
Plum (skin+pulp) ^d	Adsorption	102.7	3.76
	Desorption	-	-
Gooseberry ^e	Adsorption	23.2	5.72
	Desorption	-	-
Apple ^f	Adsorption	41.3	3.59
	Desorption	-	-

Pineapple ^g	Adsorption	57.8	0.21
	Desorption	-	-

^aCurrent study; ^bMoraga et al. [32]; ^cMoraga et al. [27]; ^dTelis et al. [52]; ^eWang et al. [53]; ^fBai et al. [19]; ^gTelis and Sobral [54]

